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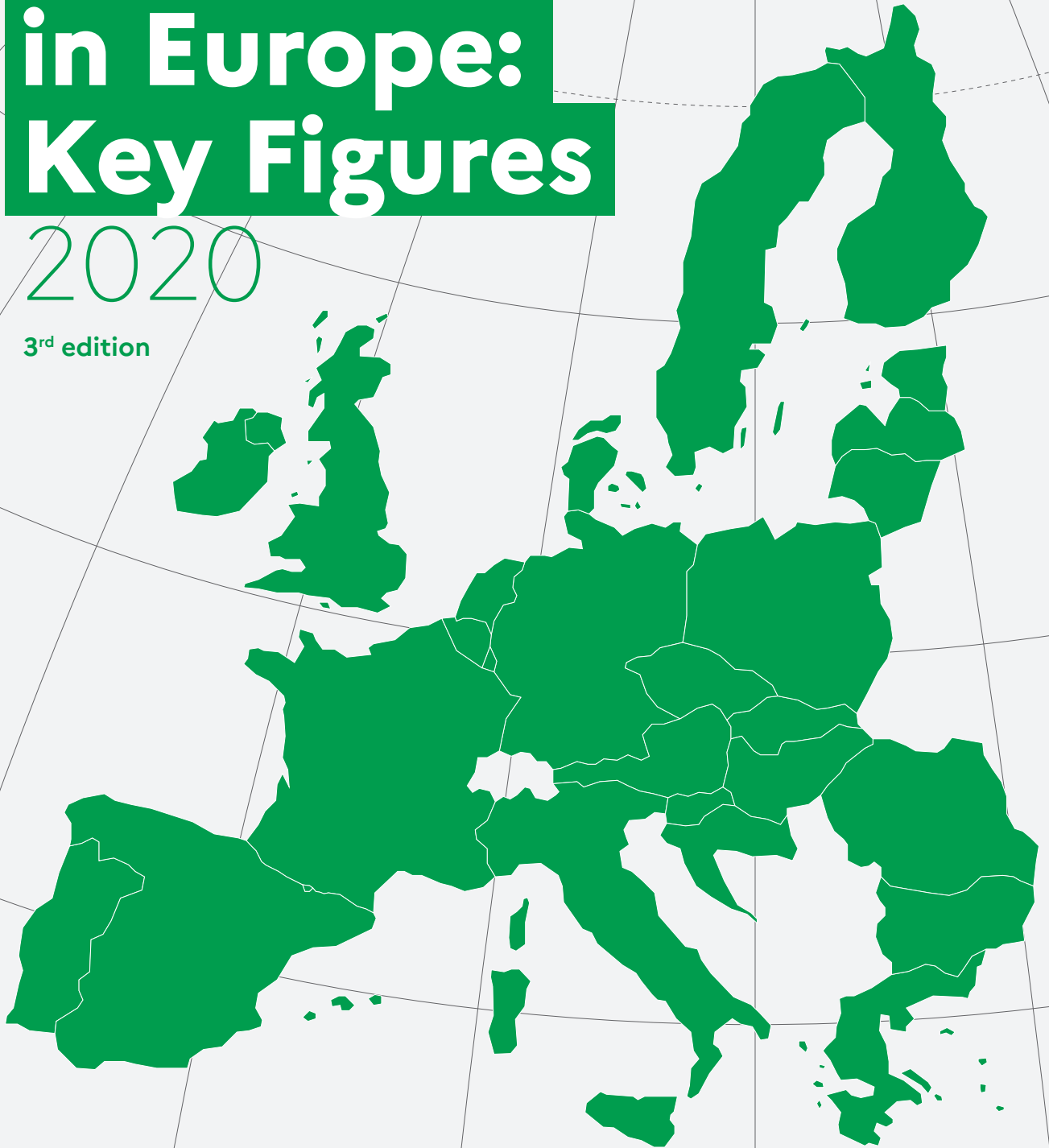


english version

Education in Europe: Key Figures

2020

3rd edition



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The international averages presented in this book are weighted for Eurostat data and unweighted for OECD data, with the exception of those from the TALIS 2018 survey. The unweighted averages give each country the same “weight” in the comparison.

In accordance with a standard in international publications, most of the administrative data published here (e.g. number of pupils and teachers) have as their reference year 2017, which in France corresponds to the 2016-2017 school year.

The outermost regions (Azores, Canary Islands, Guadeloupe, Guyana, Madeira, Martinique, Mayotte, Reunion, Saint-Martin) are not represented on the maps. However, the data for each country presented in this publication take account of these outermost regions. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is presented in detail in the annexes to this publication. The use of this classification varies throughout the book: sometimes the ISCED levels are designated by a single digit (e.g. “ISCED 3”) and sometimes by two (e.g. “ISCED 34”). These two examples correspond to the same level of education, but the latter also specifies the orientation of the educational programme (in this case, general education).

The data used in the book are the most recent data available at the time of writing.

This work reflects no official opinion of the European Union bodies or that of its Member States.

This book is edited by the Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance monitoring (DEPP) of **the Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, and the Ministry of Higher Education and Research and Innovation**
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The book *Education in Europe: key figures* produced by the Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance monitoring (DEPP) of the ministry in charge of education puts our school in perspective with regard to European education systems. The data collected are useful tools to identify our strengths and margins of progress. The publication is also intended to provide the future French presidency of the European Union with an overview of the different education systems in our countries.

The latest data from the OECD's PISA assessments confirm the importance of investing heavily in the early years of learning, especially for the most vulnerable students. This is precisely the purpose of splitting classes (*dédoulement des classes*) in grades 1 and 2, which enables 340,000 pupils in France to better master fundamental knowledge (reading, writing, arithmetic and respect for others).

The IEA's ICILS assessment highlights issues related to the digital skills of youth and validates the Ministry's strategy to bring schools into the digital age. This critical topic has increased resonance in the current period marked by the Covid-19 crisis.

Finally, taking into account the very particular context of its elaboration, this third edition proposes an analysis of the challenges of pedagogical continuity in Europe, thanks to a contribution from the Directorate for European and International Relations and Cooperation (DREIC).

This book shows us why it is so fundamental for European countries to invest in education today. The challenges related to youth employment and the efficiency of their training are clearly apparent: they are also the ones that lead us today to transform our general, technological and vocational secondary education. Beyond that, the book indicates the role that school plays in the health of young people, their relationship to citizenship and their openness to others.

In short, it is the idea of a Europe of values that underpins this DEPP publication, the idea of a school as the most powerful European investment for our collective progress.



Jean-Michel Blanquer

Minister of National Education,
Youth and Sports

International comparisons are increasingly important in public debates on education. They have become essential for steering education systems. Comparisons between the countries of the European Union are even more legitimate if the common framework for cooperation in the field of education and training is taken into account. This framework, in existence since the Lisbon Summit in 2000, has been reformed in 2010, with the establishment of “Education and Training 2020”, which is itself due for renewal in the near future.

Through its expertise and its involvement in the European and international committees and networks, the Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance monitoring (DEPP) is strongly involved in the production of comparative data in the field of education and training. The DEPP is also the French correspondent of the Eurydice network and it contributes to the work carried out by the European Commission, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Unesco. It is also the operator in France of the international surveys on student skills PISA (with the OECD) and TIMSS and PIRLS (with the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement IEA), or the TALIS teacher survey (with the OECD).

Historically, it is to its credit that it made the educational community aware of international indicators through the publication of *The State of Education* in the early 1990s, a period when the education indicators published by the OECD (*Education at a Glance*) were also being introduced. Finally, the present book, *Education in Europe: key figures*, entirely devoted to international comparisons, is a regular publication of the DEPP.

With less than two years to go before the French Presidency of the European Union, *Education in Europe: key figures* offers the French and European public a reasoned set of the most recent indicators on the various aspects of education systems. The majority of the indicators selected or constructed for this

publication come from Eurostat, the European Commission’s Directorate-General for Statistical Information at the community level. Sources from the OECD, the Eurydice network, the IEA and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) are also used.

The central part of the book is divided into six thematic chapters. A contextual overview opens the analysis on the diversity of **ways in which schooling is organised** in the EU. Three subsequent chapters are devoted to indicators relating to the main actors in education: **pupils**, their **parents** and **teachers**. The final two chapters provide analyses of the **performance** of education systems, particularly in terms of pupil skills and equity, as well as the **social and economic benefits** of education. Finally, several methodological annexes provide details on the main concepts and sources used. As with all DEPP publications, the data presented are also available on the website.

With a large base of stable indicators allowing temporal monitoring, this third edition nevertheless proposes several innovations compared to those of 2016 and 2018. Thus, each chapter now ends with a spotlight on a specific aspect of the subject under discussion. These “focus” sheets, which are easy to identify, make it possible in particular to introduce new themes into *Education in Europe: key figures*, such as school heads, parental involvement in education, citizenship education, ecology and interculturality, and the world agenda for sustainable development. With this last theme, education in Europe is being compared for the first time with that of other large territorial groups in the world.

Finally, in the particular context of the preparation of this edition of *Education in Europe: key figures*, a fact sheet on the strategies implemented by countries to deal with the Covid-19 crisis has naturally found its place in the book. This sheet, proposed in the preamble, was produced by the Directorate for European and International Relations and Cooperation (DREIC) of the ministry in charge of education. It presents a few distance education mechanisms designed to ensure educational continuity in Europe and analyses national timetables for closing and reopening schools. ■

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PREAMBLE

COVID-19 PANDEMIC AND SCHOOL EDUCATION ¹

DISTANCE LEARNING ARRANGEMENTS TO ENSURE PEDAGOGICAL CONTINUITY IN EUROPE

At the height of the Covid-19 crisis in April 2020, 1.5 billion students from 193 states, or 91% of the total student population, were deprived of schooling according to Unesco.

In order to ensure pedagogical continuity, the educational authorities have deployed distance learning systems, some of which are based on pre-existing tools. In Denmark, two national platforms, AULA (primary and middle school) and LECTIO (high school), facilitate the communication of information between teachers, pupils and their families. Estonia has a comprehensive range of digital tools for teachers and students: *EKool* (e-mail; shared files); *Opiq* and *E-Schoolbag* (curriculum-based resources); foreign language learning devices. France, for its part, has relied on the “My Class at Home” service offered by the National Centre for Distance Education (CNED).

Some countries have mobilized to design *ad hoc* tools: in France, the “Learning Nation” operation has made it possible to propose, in partnership with the media, programmes linked to *curricula*; in Slovakia, two websites have been specifically created to support pupils in preparing their exams.

Digital technology has also provided free and widespread access to resources for all. In Finland, 13 ICTE companies have provided free online learning materials by collecting educational applications used in schools. In the Czech Republic, publishers have made textbooks available free of charge. In Hungary, telephone operators offered pupils free internet access.

Finally, students with special needs have not been forgotten. In Italy, the education authorities have relied on the Individual Education Plan (IEP). The *docente per il sostegno* (support teachers) played an even more important pivotal role than usual. They were able to maintain distance interaction with students, families and teachers, develop personalized materials and regularly evaluate the progress made under the IEP.

THE ORGANISATION OF THE RETURN TO SCHOOL IN EUROPE

Denmark is the first European country to have reopened its schools, in primary education, on 15 April. Twenty-three other states have organised the resumption of classes, but in a heterogeneous manner. Several strategies have been identified:

- one resumption per level (Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic,

Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Slovenia). This is the situation most frequently observed;

- a resumption of all pupils, but by decision of the local authorities (Estonia);

- a resumption of pre-primary and/or primary school pupils (Croatia, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, England, Slovakia);

- a resumption of secondary school pupils (Cyprus, Sweden where only upper secondary schools remained closed);

- a return of pupils to examination classes (Portugal, Romania);
- a return of all pupils except high school students (Finland).

Schools in four countries will not reopen until September: Bulgaria, Ireland, Italy, Malta. Seven countries have decided to reopen all schools before the summer holidays: Austria, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden.

This resumption of classes was accompanied by the implementation of homogeneous health measures: disinfection of schools, marking on the ground, provision of hydroalcoholic gel, reduction of class size. In Denmark, France and the United Kingdom, guides describing health protocols have been published. In Germany, teachers explained to pupils how to wear a mask and what to avoid. While the usefulness of wearing a mask was unanimously recognised, recommendations for its use differed. Its use is: optional in Denmark, Greece and the United Kingdom; compulsory outside and in the classroom in Belgium and Estonia; compulsory when moving outside and inside the school, except in class, in Austria, the Czech Republic and Slovenia. In order to teach pupils about ‘barrier’ measures, such as social distancing, schools have used playful initiatives: for example, at the *Kongevejens Skole* in Virum, Denmark, teachers have designed a game in which the aim is for pupils to touch the shadows of their peers.

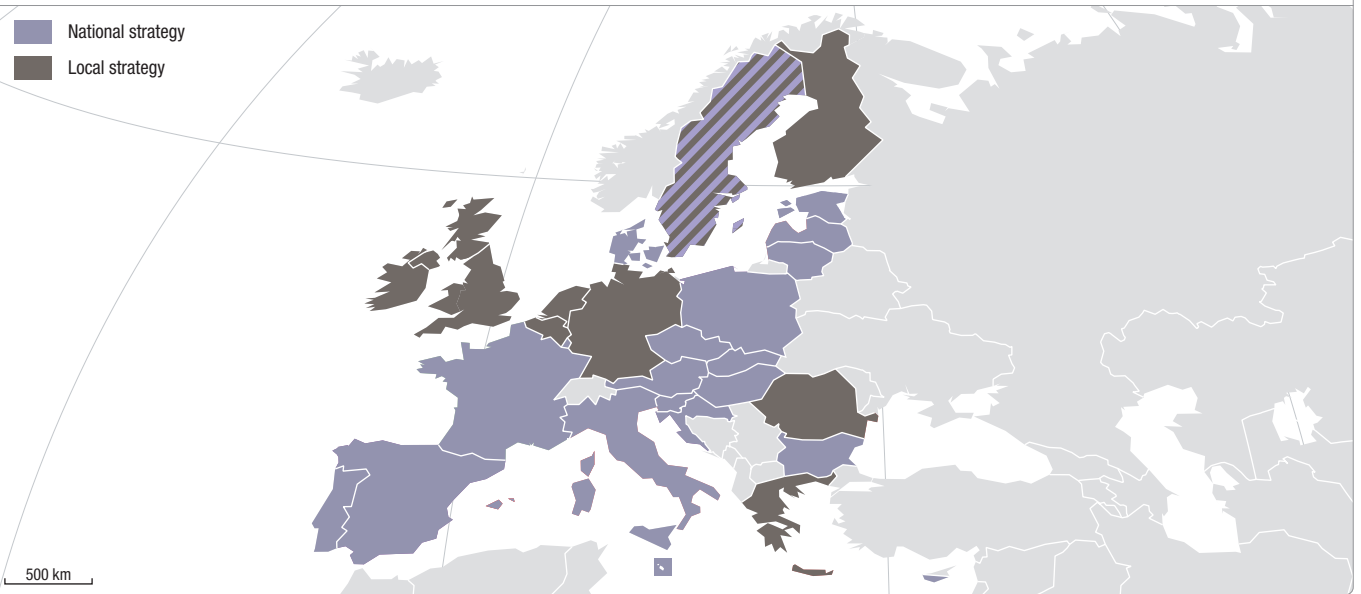
In several countries, programmes are in place to support teachers’ return to the classroom. In Spain, a working group is responsible for drawing up the basis of an educational continuity plan for schools, reviewing curricula and determining the need for digital equipment. In France, a set of sheets specifying priority pedagogical objectives is made available for each level from pre-primary education to the grade 9.

The return to school was finally accompanied by a new organisation of courses. The classroom is no longer exclusive and activities are conducted outdoors. In Germany, the gymnasiums are used for exams. In Denmark, students attend classes in parks, municipal museums and even football stadiums.

1. The information presented corresponds to the situation recorded on 8 June 2020.

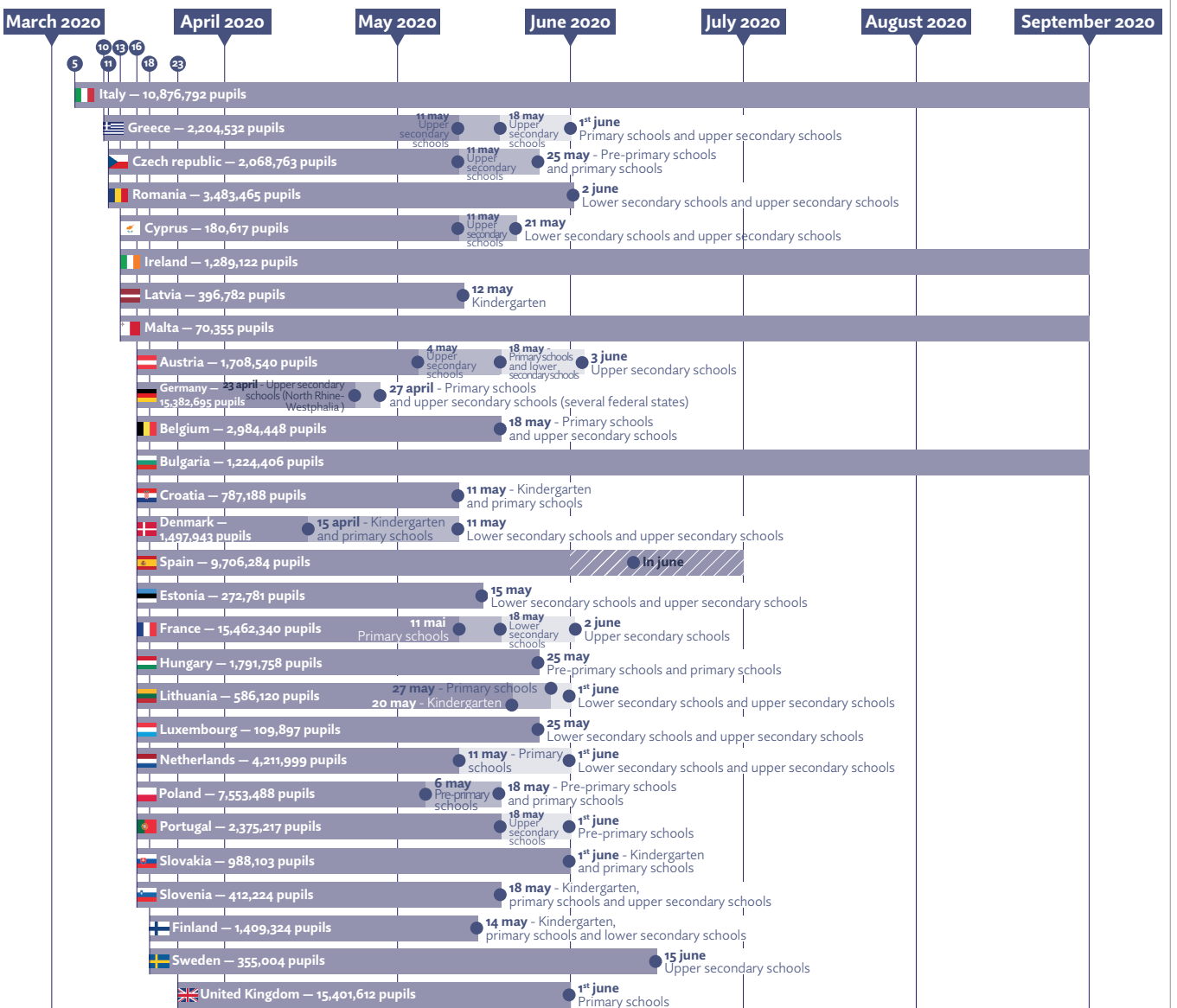
Level responsible for the implementation of pedagogical continuity during the Covid-19 crisis

☞ DREIC (diplomatic posts, websites of national education ministries of member states, Croatian presidency of the European Union)



Dates of closure and reopening of schools in European Union countries during the Covid-19 crisis

☞ DREIC (UNESCO, UIS, diplomatic posts, websites of national education ministries of member states, Croatian presidency of the European Union)





CHAPTER 1

EDUCATION SYSTEMS

The diversity of education systems

Schooling conditions

Education expenditure in Europe

FOCUS

Instruction time in Primary education

1.1 THE DIVERSITY OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

THREE MAIN TYPES OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN EUROPE

In 2019-2020, in the 28-member European Union (EU-28), there are three main types of education systems as regards primary and secondary education: the so-called "single", "common core" and "early tracking" structures. Map 1.1.1 presents this typology of education systems in the EU-28.

Single-structure systems are characterized by general education programmes followed by all students, which are provided in a single institution covering primary and lower secondary education. These systems are found in the North and East of the Union. Common core structures are also characterized by a general education programme followed by all pupils, but unlike the single structure, this is provided in two separate institutions, one for primary and one for lower secondary education. This modality, which is the most common in the Union, is mainly observed in Western and Southern European countries, including France. In the last type of structure, known as 'early tracking', pupils are oriented, from the end of primary education, towards general or vocational education programmes of varying content and duration. This structure is found in Germany, Austria, Lithuania, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

Finally, it should be noted that in some Eastern European countries, so-called single and common-core structures coexist. In these countries, pupils' "traditional pathway" is organized in a single structure, but they may decide to move towards parallel structures covering the whole of secondary education. For example, in the Czech Republic, pupils may decide at age 11 to take an examination to enter technical institutions rather than remain in the traditional single-structure pattern until age 15.

VERY DIFFERENT SCHOOL CAREERS FOR EUROPEAN PUPILS BEFORE THE AGE OF 16

The Finnish, French and German examples presented here illustrate the differences in the organization of education systems within the typology discussed earlier. Finland has a single structure (1.1.2), where 'basic education', corresponding to primary and lower secondary education, is provided without interruption within a single institution. It should be noted that the year of compulsory education at the age of 6 is considered part of pre-primary education and does not take place in the same institutions. Primary education in Finland begins at the age of seven.

ISCED 2 education is not provided in Finland in the same way as ISCED 1: teachers are generalists, each teaching a single class up to grade 6, and then specialist teachers teach grades 7-9. Tracking takes place in ISCED 3, with general or vocational institutions. In Finland, there is an apprenticeship option in all ISCED 3 vocational education and training courses. Finally, higher education is constituted on the Bologna model, with a bachelor's degree in 3 years, a master's degree in 2 and a doctorate in 3 years.

France has a common core structure, with general education followed by all pupils until the end of ISCED 2 and now also including pre-primary education from the age of 3 but provided in separate establishments: pre-primary school, primary school (schools called *primaires* offer both pre-primary and primary education) and then lower secondary school (1.1.3). As in Finland, tracking takes place in ISCED 3 and higher education is also largely structured on the 'LMD' model, except that ISCED 5 courses (including BTS and DUT programmes) attract a particularly large number of students in France. Indeed, with 501 000 students in 2017 enrolled in ISCED 5, France alone accounts for more than a third of European students at this ISCED level.

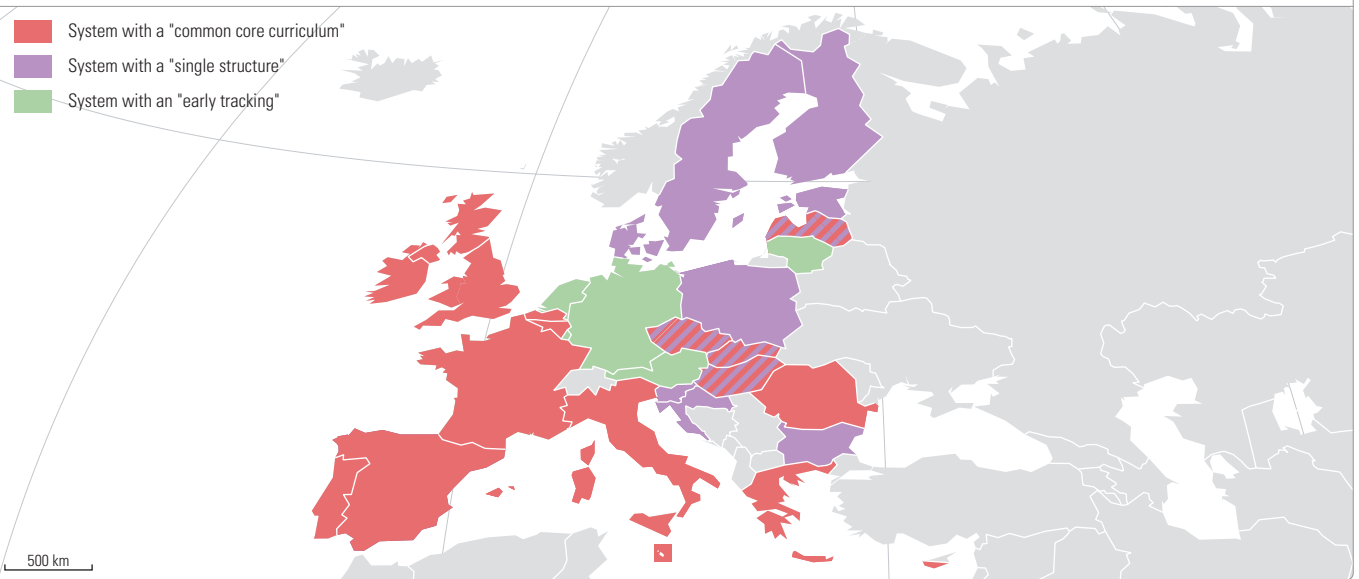
Finally, Germany illustrates the early tracking structure (1.1.4). At the end of the four years of primary education, pupils are referred to ISCED 2 institutions providing differentiated general education. Pupils have a 2-year period of orientation from the beginning of secondary education, during which reorientation is facilitated. There is a very wide variety of educational programmes available from ISCED 3 onwards, particularly in vocational education. Tertiary education is also structured on the LMD cycle.

Post-secondary non-tertiary education is not represented in the same way in different countries. Largely present in Germany (766,000 students in 2017), these courses are often aimed at direct access to the labour market. Conversely, in France, these training courses are marginal and are designed to give students access to higher education.

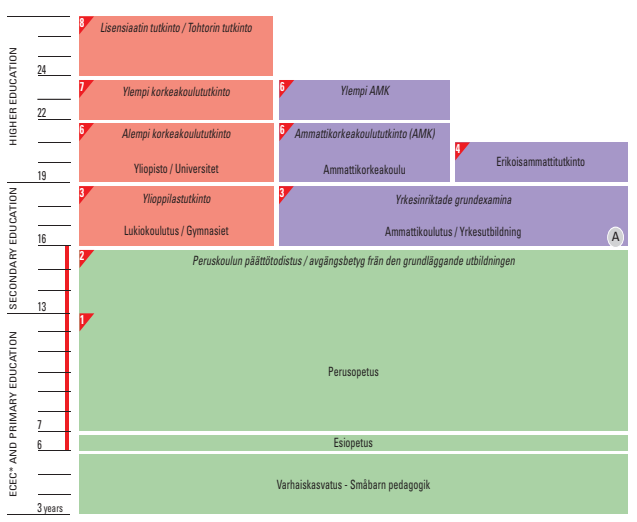
Finally, while diplomas often mark the end of an educational programme, there are exceptions. In Malta, there are two consecutive ISCED 3 diplomas. The Secondary Education Certificate (SEC) is a diploma awarded to pupils at the age of 16, at the mid-point of the cycle, which only partially validates completion of ISCED level 3 and does not give access to the higher ISCED levels (see p. 86). The second diploma, Matriculation, which is passed at age 18, fully validates ISCED 3 and gives access to tertiary education. ■

1.1.1: Types of organisation of education systems in Europe

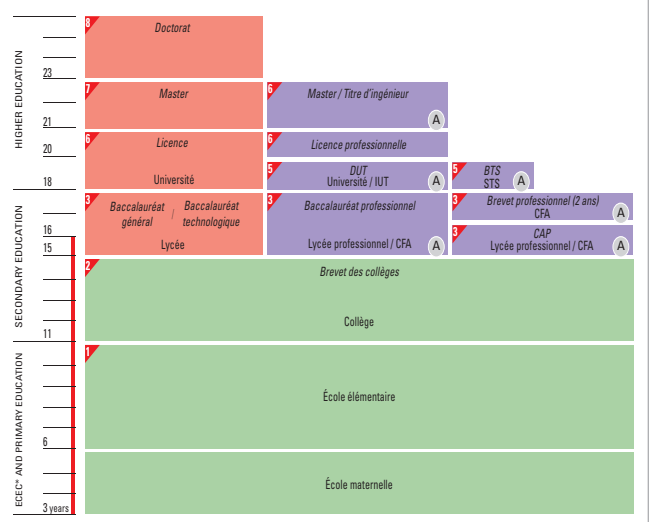
© Eurydice, *The structure of the European education systems 2019/20, 2019.*



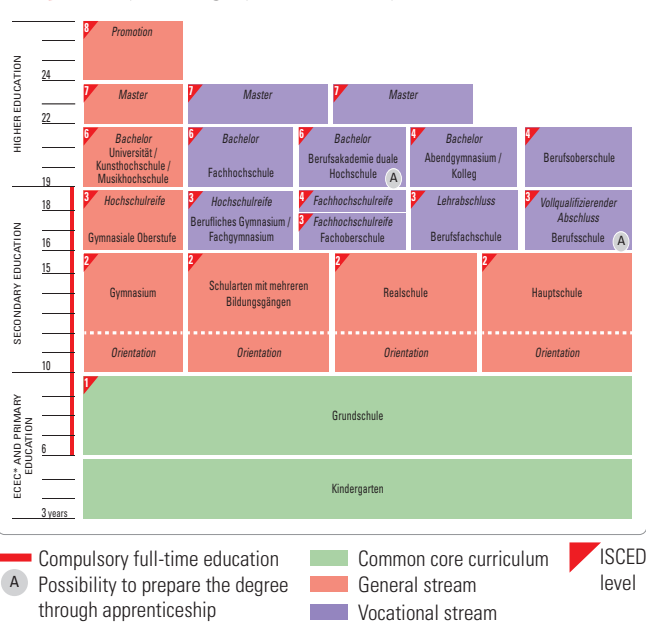
1.1.2: A "single structure" system: Finland



1.1.3: A "common core curriculum" system: France



1.1.4: A "early tracking" system: Germany



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

1.2 SCHOOLING CONDITIONS

COMPULSORY SCHOOLING FOR UP TO 13 YEARS

In 2019-2020, children start school or compulsory education in Europe at different ages: from 3 years old (in Hungary and France), to 7 years old (in Estonia). In eight countries (including Austria, Bulgaria and the Netherlands) compulsory schooling starts at the age of 5, while in just over half of the EU countries (15 out of 28, including Germany, Spain, Finland and Italy) it starts at the age of 6 (1.2.1).

More than half of the EU-28 countries (including Estonia, France and Sweden) set the end of compulsory education at the age of 16, but this varies from 15 (Cyprus, Greece, Czech Republic) to 19 (Germany). The end of compulsory education is set at the end of ISCED 2 in many countries (Denmark, Greece, Latvia and Finland), while it occurs in the course of ISCED 3 in France and Italy. In total, the duration of compulsory education varies from nine years (Croatia, Estonia and Slovenia) to 13 years (Germany, France or Hungary).

For 4 countries (England, Austria, the Netherlands and Poland), the period of full-time compulsory schooling is followed by a compulsory training phase. This period allows for a vocational training programme to be taken over a period that varies according to the country. In Austria and Poland, it lasts 3 years. In England, the period lasts 2 years and the student has the choice between full-time education, vocational training, professional activity or civic service supplemented by part-time schooling. In the case of the Netherlands, the training obligation extends until the age of 18, unless the pupil obtains one of the three so-called "basic" qualifications, in which case he/she can leave the education system at the age of 16. In France, from the start of the 2020 school year, a similar training obligation will be introduced until the age of 18.

FIVE COUNTRIES ACCOUNT FOR MORE THAN HALF OF EUROPEAN PUPILS

In the European Union in 2017 there are more than 29 million pupils in primary education (ISCED 1) and almost 21 million pupils in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). The number of pupils per level of education is of course related to the duration of these levels of education measured in number of years.

The size of the school population in most countries reflects well that of the total national population. In 2017, the 5 most populated EU countries (Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the United Kingdom) alone account for more than 60% of the enrolments in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 (1.2.2), public and private sectors combined. Enrolment in primary education ranges from 25,800 in Malta (not shown here) to 4,820,300 in the United Kingdom, where primary school attendance lasts 6 years. The five countries with the highest enrolments have 2,500,000 or more students at this level of education. In lower secondary education, Malta again has the smallest number of pupils (12,600 pupils over three years of education), while Germany has the largest number (4,538,100 pupils over five to six years of education according to the courses). France has the second largest number of pupils in the Union at these two levels. On the grounds of these differences in pupil numbers, countries are facing challenges in terms of material resources (buildings, for example) and human resources (teaching and administrative staff).

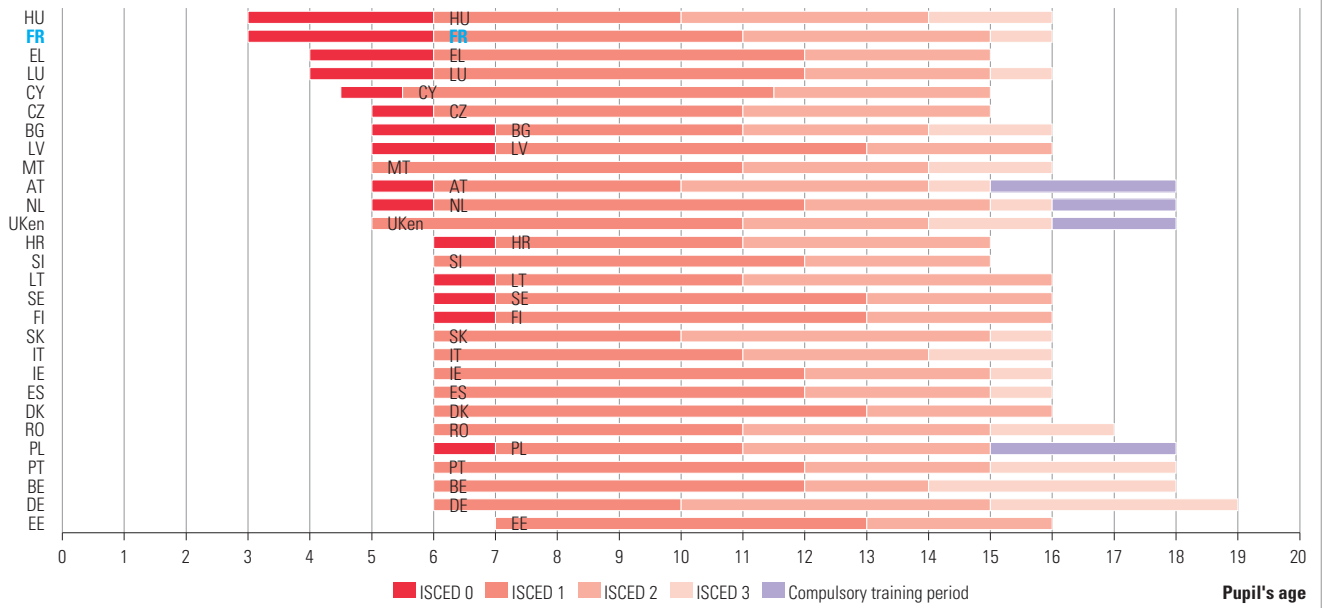
LARGER CLASS SIZES IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

The concept of **average class size**^{en} used by the OECD corresponds to the number of students following a common course, taking into account compulsory subjects and excluding teaching in sub-groups. The values are calculated by dividing the number of pupils by the number of classes. Class size is not calculated in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), where a sometimes complex organisation of education (elective subjects, workshop work) prevents a reliable calculation of this indicator.

In 2017, average class sizes in primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary (ISCED 2) education, public and private sectors combined, vary significantly across the European Union. In 2017, on average of the 23 EU countries that are also OECD members, there are 20 pupils per class in ISCED 1 and 21 pupils per class in ISCED 2 (1.2.3). The United Kingdom has the highest average class size in ISCED 1, with 27 pupils per class. It is followed by France with 24 pupils per class. The minimum is observed in Latvia and Luxembourg, with 16 pupils per class. In ISCED 2, Spain and France have the largest average class sizes with 25 pupils per class, followed by Germany with 24 pupils per class, while Latvia again has the lowest average class size (16). In 2017, 8 countries including Germany, Portugal, Spain, France and the United Kingdom have more than 20 pupils per class on average in primary and lower secondary education. ■

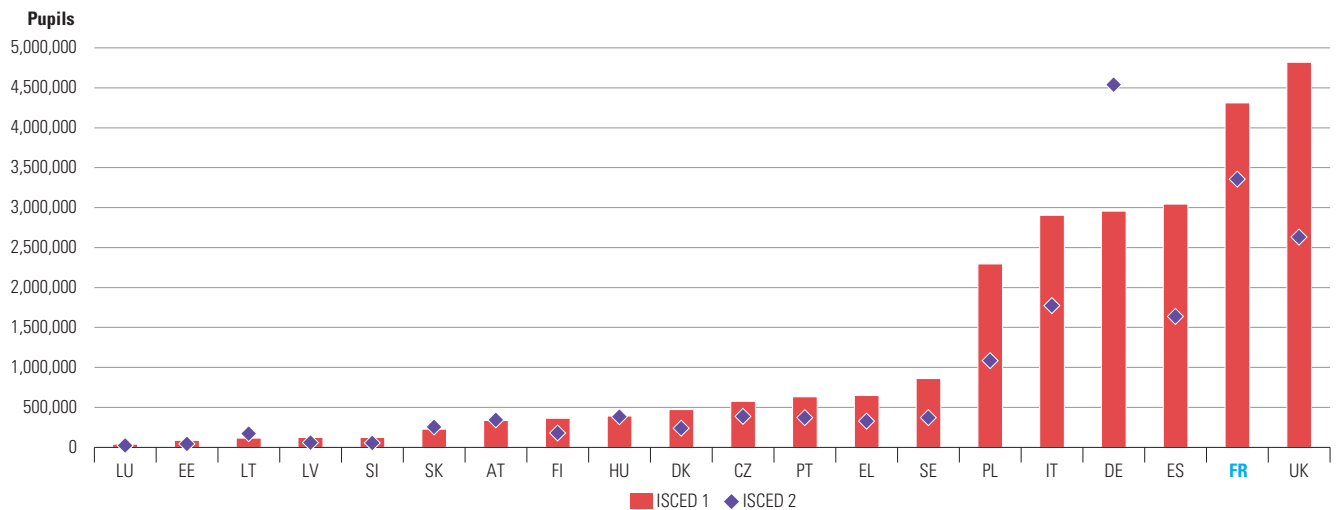
1.2.1: Compulsory education in Europe in 2019-2020

↳ Eurydice, *The Structure of the European Education Systems 2019/20, 2019.*



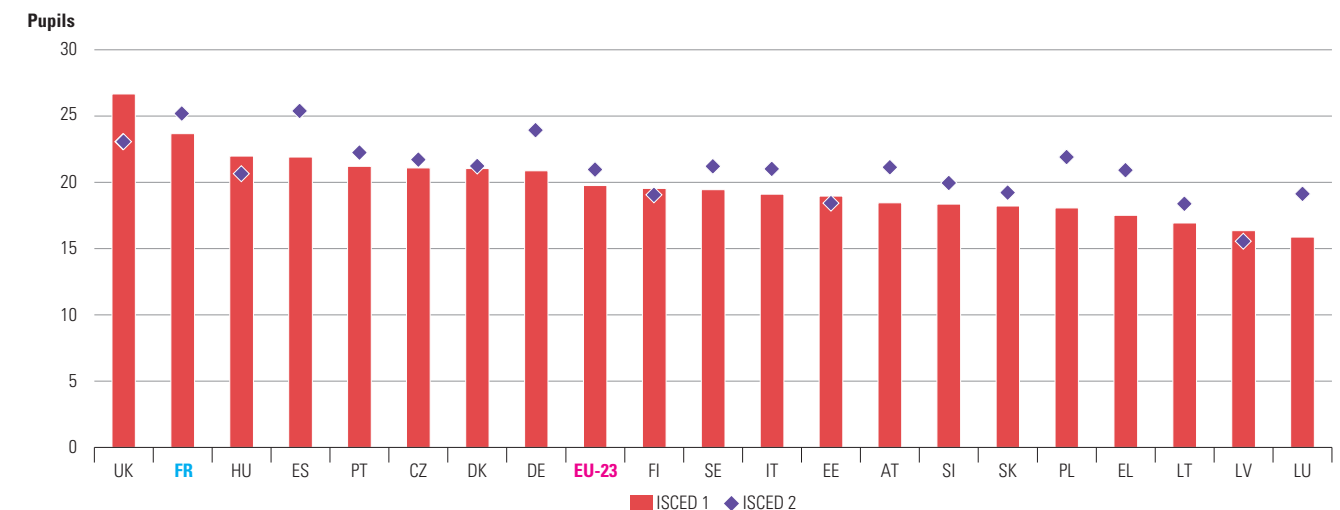
1.2.2: Total number of pupils in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *educ_uoe_enrao2.*



1.2.3: Average class size in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2, 2017

↳ OECD, *EAG 2019, table D2.1.*



ZOOM

Education expenditure according to the OECD

The OECD uses several definitions of education expenditure for educational institutions. The one used here aggregates all expenditure (educational services, ancillary services and research & development) financed by central and local governments, the private sector (households and businesses) and international agencies. Excluded are household expenditure outside educational institutions, public aid to finance certain costs of pupils/students outside institutions (e.g. living expenses) and expenditure on continuing education. On the other hand, grants financed by the State are included.

A CONCENTRATION OF EXPENDITURE ON DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

In 2016, for the 23 European Union countries which are members of the OECD, education expenditure per pupil is higher on average for a pupil in secondary education, ISCED 2 and 3 (US\$10 200 in **purchasing power parity PPP**[□]), than for a pupil in primary education, ISCED 1 (US\$8 500), or a pupil in pre-primary education, ISCED 02 (US\$9 100 - **1.3.1** and **1.3.2**). The differences within the EU-23 are significant: the Czech Republic has the lowest annual expenditure per pupil in pre-primary and primary (US\$5 100 in ISCED 02 and ISCED 1), and Lithuania in the secondary education (US\$5 700 in ISCED 2 and ISCED 3). At the same time, Luxembourg has the highest expenditure per pupil in the European Union (over US\$17 000 at each level of education).

In terms of annual expenditure per pupil, countries make different trade-offs between levels of education. For example, Finland and Slovenia spend significantly more on ISCED 2 than on ISCED 1 or ISCED 3. Germany and France present fairly similar profiles: expenditure per pupil, which is relatively low in ISCED 1, increases with the level of education to reach high values in ISCED 3.

FOUR MAIN FACTORS INFLUENCE TEACHER SALARY COSTS IN SPENDING

The main factors influencing the salary cost of teachers in the expenditure are: the average salary (the main item of expenditure), their **statutory teaching time**[□], the **instruction time**[□] received by pupils and, lastly, the **average class size**[□]. High teacher salaries and instruction time increase the expenditure

per pupil; large teaching time and class size decrease the expenditure per pupil. In 2016, Germany's expenditure is very close to the EU-23 average in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 (**1.3.2**). Two factors are driving down labour costs in this country: one high teaching time and equally high class sizes. At the same time, very high teacher salaries bring education expenditure close to the European average.

In France, a high teaching time and class size, combined with an effective salary for teachers in an average position within the countries in the panel, help explain a low per pupil expenditure in primary education. In ISCED 2, high teaching time and a higher actual teacher salary than in ISCED 1 partly explain the higher wage cost compared to primary education.

In Italy and Poland, low teacher salaries are the main reason for low salary costs and thus low annual expenditure per pupil. Indeed, a high instruction time and a low teaching time (especially in ISCED 2) are not enough to compensate for the low teacher salaries in these two countries.

While important, these four factors only give a partial picture of the expenditure. Many other factors such as boarding schools, school canteens, administrative services, school transport also play a role in education expenditure, but international data are still lacking for many countries.

STABLE PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION BETWEEN 2010 AND 2016 ON AVERAGE

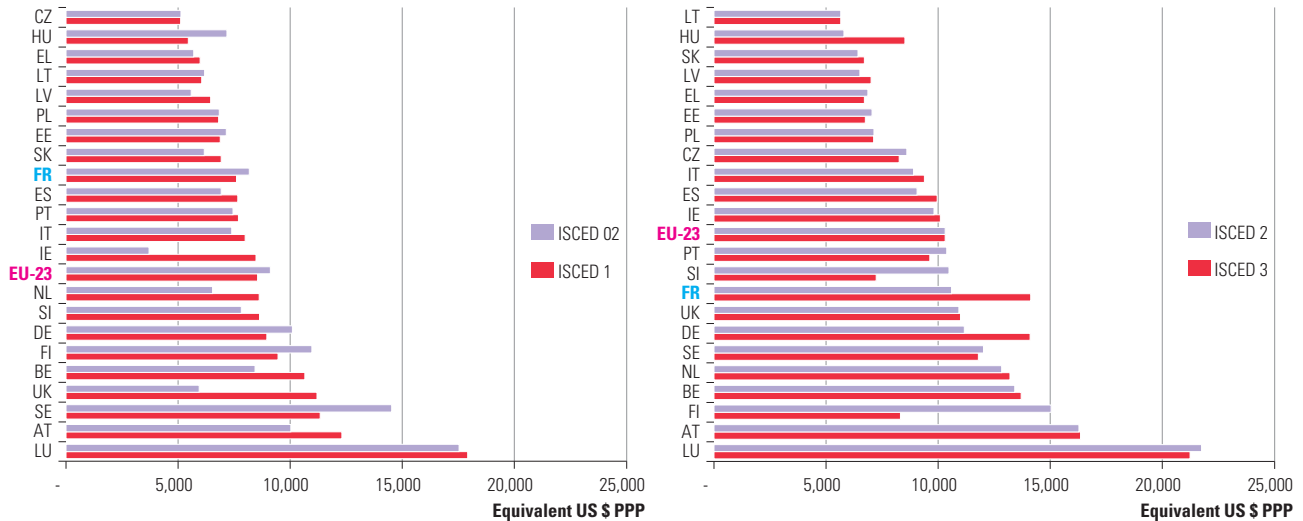
What has been the impact of the crisis on education spending in EU countries? Public expenditure on education should be looked to assess countries' budgetary responses to the crisis. Only expenditure financed by the State, territorial administrations and international agencies is taken into account.

Between 2010 and 2016, on average in the EU-23, public expenditure on educational institutions (ISCED 1 to 4) remained unchanged, while **gross domestic product (GDP)**[□] in the same countries increased by 11% (**1.3.3**). With the exception of Italy and Portugal, all the countries presented experienced an increase in GDP during this period. One third of the countries (including Spain, Estonia and Luxembourg) significantly reduced their public expenditure on education (-15% in Italy), while another third (including Belgium, Latvia and Sweden), on the other hand, sometimes significantly increased it (+22% in the United Kingdom). France, like Germany, Finland and the Netherlands, is in a situation very close to the EU-23 average (increase in GDP but stagnation in public spending on education). ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

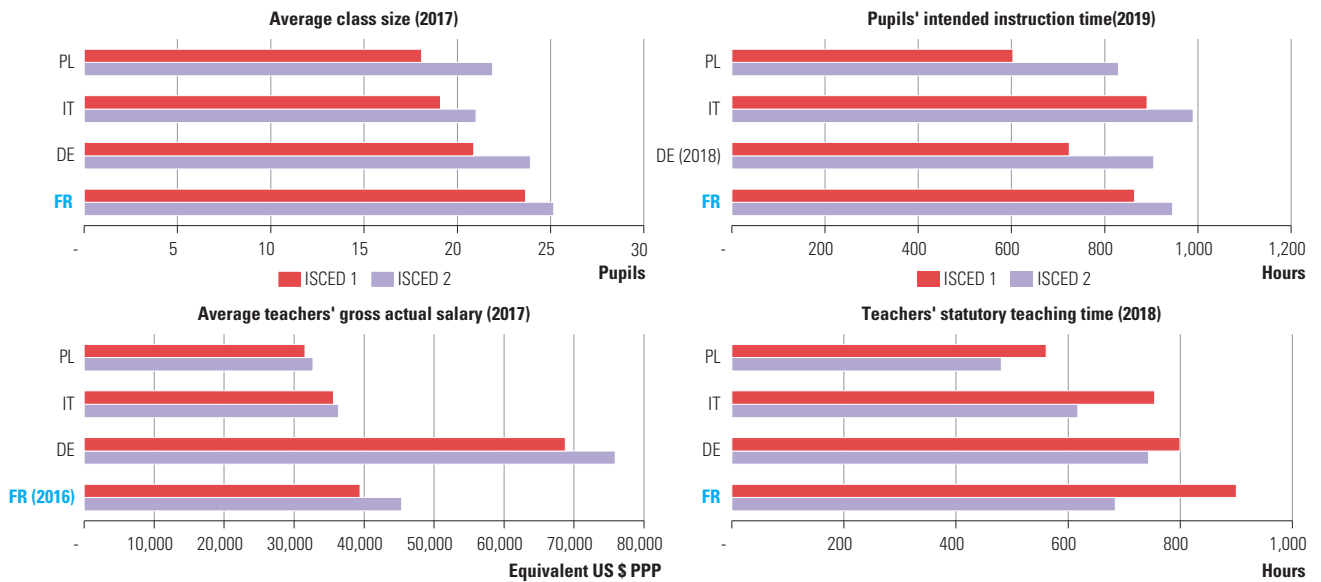
1.3.1: Annual expenditure per student on educational institutions, by ISCED level, 2016

OECD, EAG2019, table B2.4 and table C1.1.



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

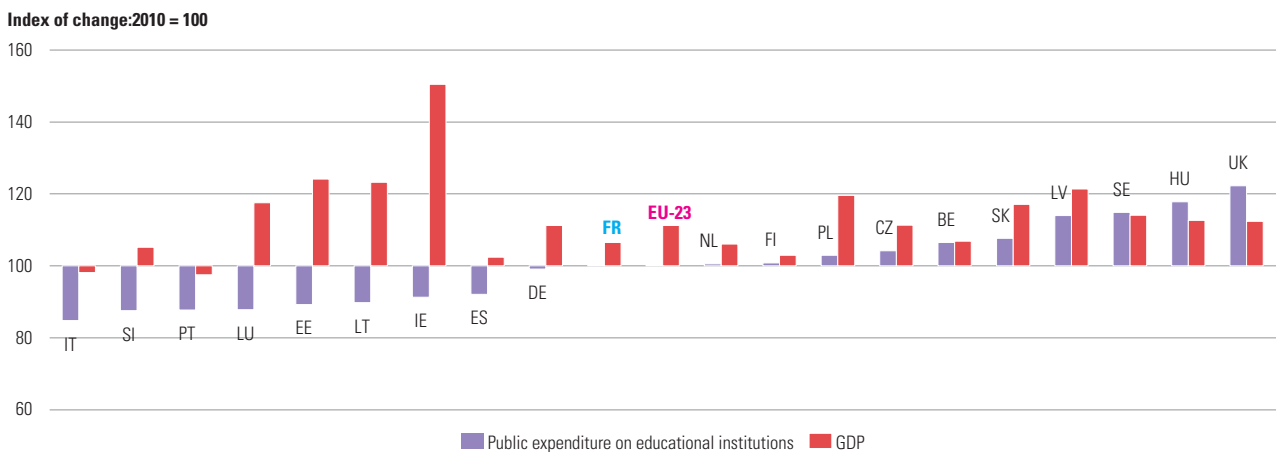
OECD, EAG2019, table D1.1, table D2.1, table D3.4, table D4.1a.



Note: See Definitions for "intended instruction time" and "statutory teaching time".

1.3.3: Change in public expenditure on public institutions from ISCED 1 to ISCED 4 and change in GDP between 2010 and 2016

OECD, EAG2019, table C2.4.



FOCUS INSTRUCTION TIME IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

PRIMARY SCHOOL INSTRUCTIONAL YEAR ARE ON AVERAGE DENSER IN WESTERN EUROPE

In 2018–2019 in the 28-member European Union (EU-28), primary education lasts on average 5.4 years (1.4.1). In the majority of European countries, 17 of them, it lasts 6 years. This level of education includes 4 years of instruction in 7 countries (Austria, Germany, Hungary and Lithuania) and 5 years in 4 countries, including France. It lasts 7 years in only two countries (Denmark, Northern Ireland).

For the same ISCED 1 duration of schooling, countries may have very different annual hourly volumes. In the EU-28 countries, the average annual hourly volume per year is 760 hours. It varies from 470 hours in Hungary to 1,050 hours in Denmark. Western European countries have a higher number of hours than the EU-28 average (760 hours), such as France and the Netherlands, with 860 and 940 hours of production on average per year. Eastern, Central and Northern European countries (except Denmark) have fewer hours of instruction on average per school year, for example Bulgaria (490 hours), Poland (600 hours) and Sweden (730 hours).

IN EUROPE, READING BENEFITS FROM MORE HOURS OF INSTRUCTION THAN OTHER COMPULSORY SUBJECTS

France is one of the countries which, during primary education, devote the most hours to reading, writing and literature as a whole (1,660 hours) and mathematics (900 hours). Among the countries in Figure 1.4.2, Malta is unique in that it allocates more hours of instruction to mathematics than to the reading, writing and literature block, with 980 and 760 hours respectively. In Europe, these two core subjects have been the focus of national reforms aimed at ensuring that all pupils master basic skills. In France, for example, several recent measures have been taken in these subjects: supplementary pedagogical activities (APC) dedicated to reading, 'stages de réussite' at the end of ISCED 1, and exhaustive national assessments during the first years of schooling to help identify and deal with pupils' difficulties.

Instruction time allocated to **modern foreign languages**[□] is the highest in Luxembourg (840 hours), Ireland (760 hours) and Malta (760 hours). In contrast, Hungary devotes 54 hours to this subject over ISCED 1 as a whole. While in most countries only one modern foreign language is taught at primary level, six countries

(Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Latvia and Sweden) introduce a second modern foreign language in later years of ISCED 1.

In all the countries presented except Greece, less than 400 hours of instruction are allocated to the natural sciences in ISCED 1. Germany (100 hours) and Lithuania (110 hours) allocate the lowest number of hours to this subject. However, for several EU-28 countries (Austria, Croatia, France and Malta), the hours of instruction devoted to natural sciences also include those of other subjects, such as social sciences (history, geography) or technology.

Among other compulsory ISCED 1 subjects, information and communication technologies (ICT) are often taught as a subject in other subjects. ICT is taught as a subject in its own right in 7 EU-28 countries, such as Greece (150 hours) or the Czech Republic (30 hours).

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

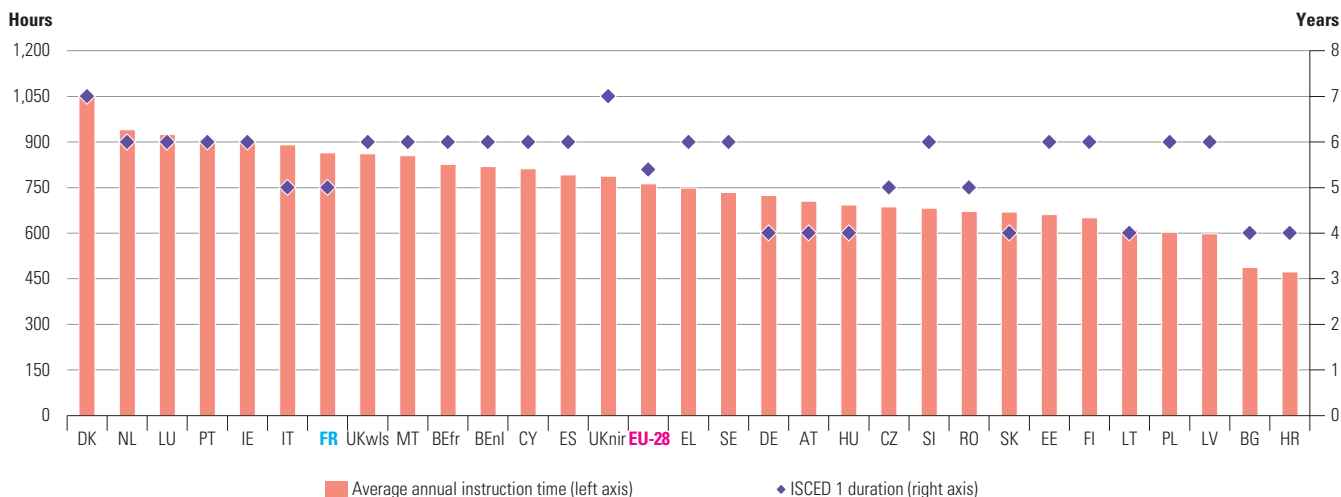
In ISCED 1, among the other compulsory subjects (1.4.2), artistic and sports subjects are the only ones not included in any other subject in all EU-28 countries. Instruction time devoted to artistic subjects (1.4.3) is generally higher in northern European countries, such as Finland and Lithuania, where these subjects account for 16% and 17% of total instruction time respectively. However, hours of physical education and sports (PES) are higher in Western and Central Europe (1.4.4). France, with 540 hours of PES, is one of the five countries that devote more than 500 hours to this subject. Hungary is the only country where PES benefits from more hours of instruction than mathematics (108 hours more) and accounts for 20% of total instruction time in primary education.

However, in several countries and national entities, no specific number of hours is allocated to these subjects for the whole of primary schooling or for certain years only (**flexible curriculum**[□]). In Poland, for example, a number of hours defined by the central authorities is allocated to the arts (150 hours) and PES (310 hours) from the fourth year of ISCED 1; the first three years are subject to horizontal flexibility (see flexible curriculum). In other countries, instruction time is well defined centrally for these two subjects, but not for each ISCED level. This is the case in the Czech Republic where vertical flexibility (see flexible curriculum) covers more than 80% of compulsory education time. ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

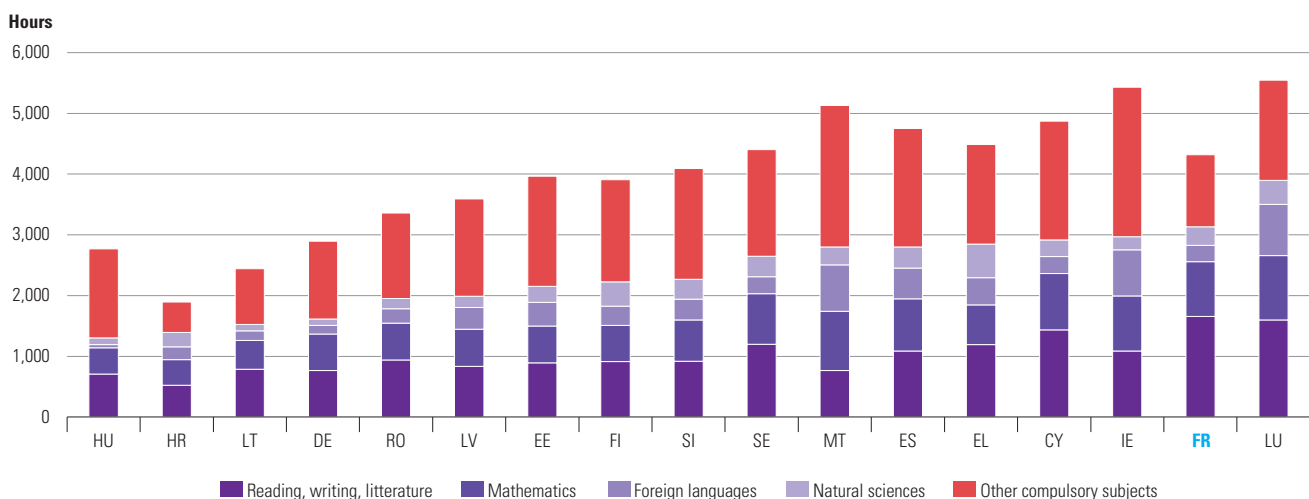
1.4.1: Average annual instruction time and years of compulsory education in ISCED 1, 2018-2019

Source: Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2018/2019, 2019.



1.4.2: Total instruction time by subject in ISCED 1, 2018-2019

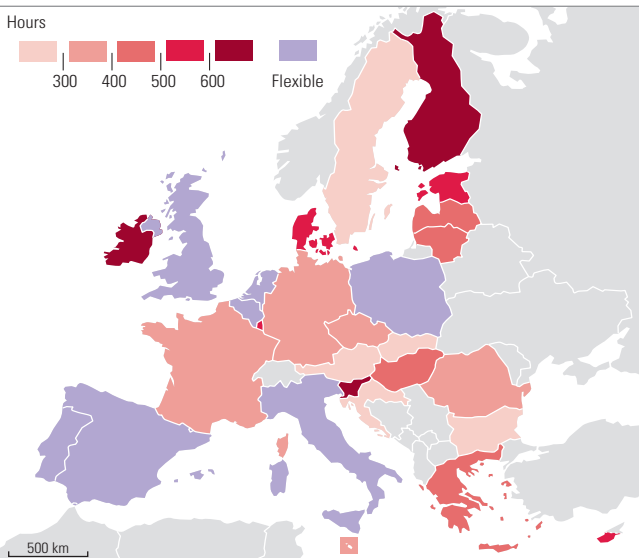
Source: Eurydice, Recommended annual instruction time in full-time compulsory education in Europe 2018/2019, 2019, author's calculations.



Note: Countries with flexible instruction time (horizontally or vertically) and/or countries where foreign language teaching is included in another subject have been excluded from the figure, which explains the absence of European average.

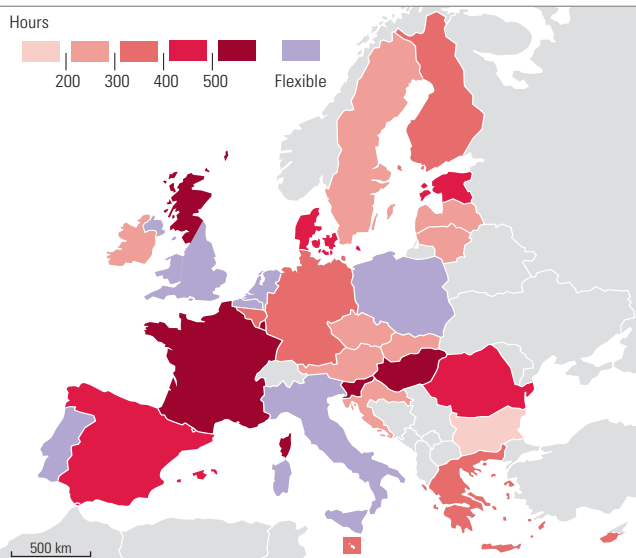
1.4.3: Total instruction time allocated to arts education in ISCED 1, 2018-2019

Source: Eurydice, Recommended Annual Instruction Time in Full-time Compulsory Education in Europe 2018/2019, 2019.



1.4.4: Total instruction time allocated to physical education and health in ISCED 1, 2018-2019

Source: Eurydice, Recommended Annual Instruction Time in Full-time Compulsory Education in Europe 2018/2019, 2019.





CHAPTER 2

STUDENTS

The demographic context

Participation of young people in school
and higher education

The mobility of young Europeans in Higher Education

FOCUS

Early childhood education and care (ECEC)

2.1 THE DEMOGRAPHIC CONTEXT

AN AGEING POPULATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

On 1 January 2018, the EU-28 will have a population of 512 million, of which 135 million will be young people aged between 0 and 24: this group therefore represents 26% of the total population of the EU-28 (2.1.1). Ten years earlier, in 2008, 141 million people belonged to the same age group, which represented 28% of the total population. The EU is therefore facing an ageing population with a median age now set at 43, up from 40 in 2008. Ireland, France and the United Kingdom are the only EU-28 countries in 2018 where the share of young people aged 0-24 in the total population reaches or exceeds 30%. At the other end of the spectrum, in 7 countries (including Germany, Spain, Greece and Italy), the share is below 25%. Only in 8 countries do young people aged 0-17 account for 20% or more of the total population. This share varies from 16% in Germany and Italy to 25% in Ireland. The share of 18-24 year olds is less variable across the EU-28: it ranges from a minimum of 6% in Bulgaria to 10% in Cyprus.

A RELATIVELY LOW FERTILITY RATE IN EUROPE

Life expectancy at birth[□] is increasing in Europe: from 79.4 years in 2008, it will rise to 80.9 years in 2017. Fertility, for its part, is sluggish: 1.61 children per woman in 2008; estimated at 1.59 in 2017 on average in the EU. These two factors combined explain the above-mentioned ageing of the population. However, fertility rates vary considerably: in 2017 France is the only country with a **total fertility rate**[□] of more than 1.80 children per woman, while this rate is less than 1.30 in Malta (2.1.3).

Moreover, European countries are characterised by an uneven scale of **natural variation**[□] and **net migration**[□] (2.1.2). Migration flows (intra and extra-European) have, in some countries, a decisive influence on population dynamics. Thus, in Lithuania and Latvia, the demographic decline between 2012 and 2017 is mainly due to significant emigration flows, while in Austria, Luxembourg, Malta and Sweden a significant share of population growth is explained by a positive net migration.

France and Ireland are the only countries with net growth mainly due to natural variation. Germany and Italy are in a situation where only a positive net migration makes it possible to maintain population growth. Finally, Cyprus and Spain are the only countries with positive natural variation offset by even higher emigration.

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

By 2040, the total population of the EU is expected to increase by 2% and the population of young people aged 0 to 24 is expected to decrease by 4%, confirming the continuation of the general ageing of the population (2.1.4). The median age is also estimated at 47 years for 2040, i.e. 4 years more than in 2018.

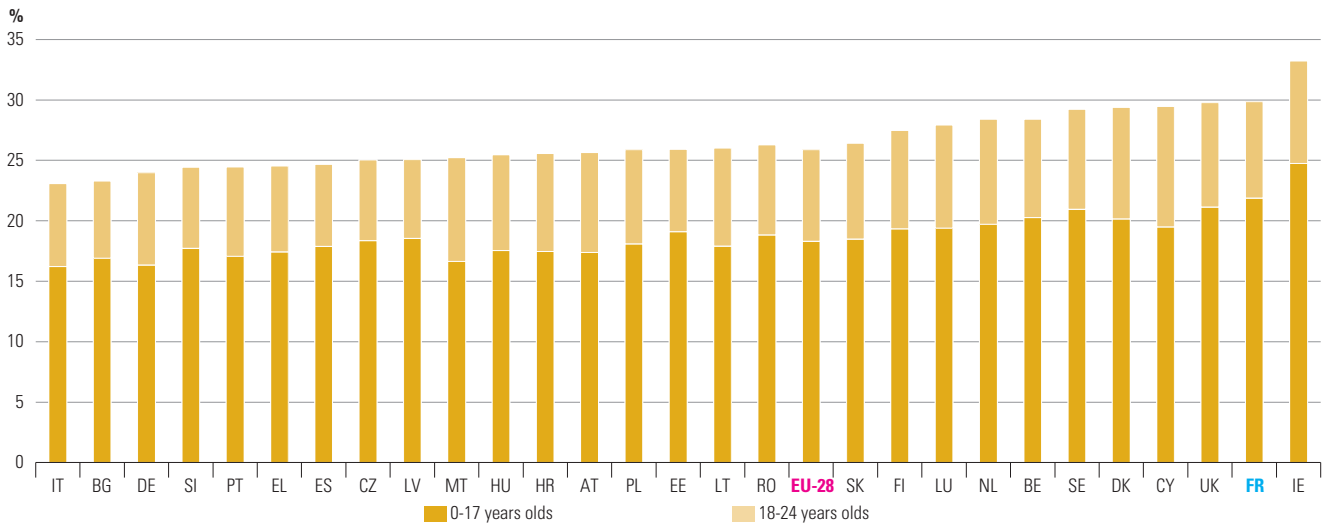
Four examples illustrate future situations and their influence on education systems. The German case represents the most “positive” situation: already the most populous nation in Europe, Germany will see its total population increase by 2040 (+1%), and its young population will grow even faster (+3%). It goes without saying that setting up new (or adapting old) infrastructures and recruiting teachers to absorb these new pupils into the German education system will be a major challenge. In the United Kingdom, the total population will grow faster than the young population (+14% as against +6%): there is therefore demographic growth and ageing in this country, unlike Germany. From the point of view of the education system, the challenge is nevertheless similar to the German case.

France, for its part, is expected to see an increase in its total population (+6%) and a decrease in its young population (-1%). France will therefore be faced with accelerated ageing: while school infrastructures will have fewer children to cater for, the question of the age of teachers and their renewal in the event of significant retirements will eventually arise. On the labour market, this situation is the most precarious, given the redistributed pension system. Finally, Portugal will face a significant decrease in its total population (-6%), but above all an even greater decline in its young population (-21%). In this case, the education system or the pension system will not need to be specially adjusted, but on the labour market, a shortage of labour and a slowdown in economic activity are to be feared. ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

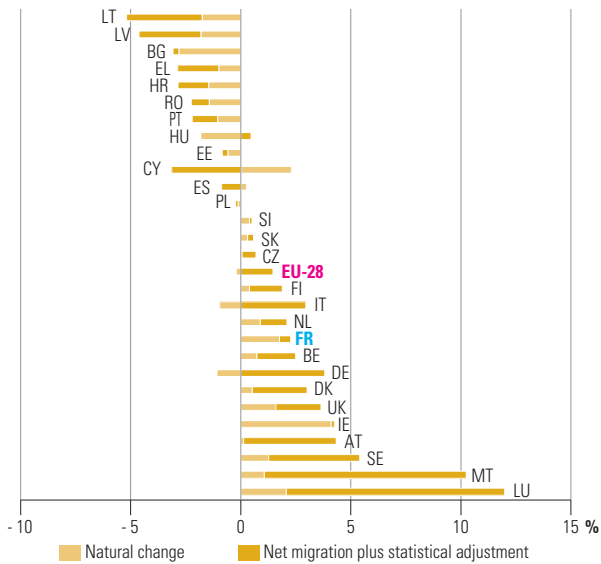
2.1.1 Proportion of 0-17 year olds and 18-24 year olds in the total population, 2018

Source: Eurostat, *demo_pjan*.



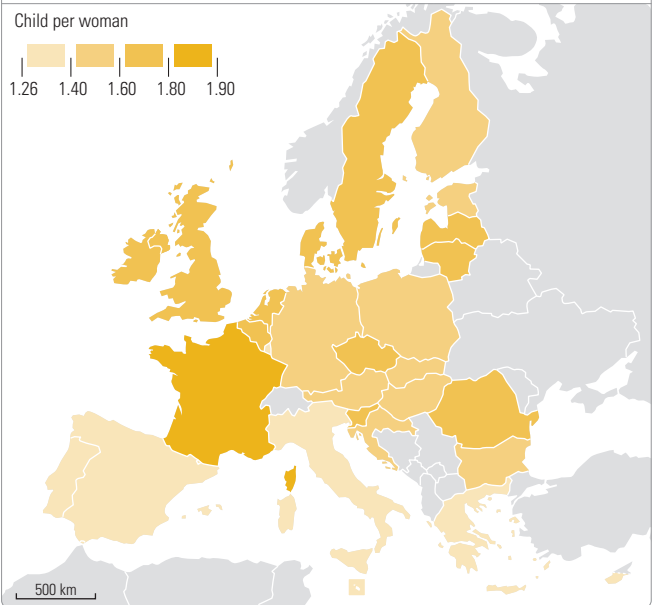
2.1.2 Natural population change and net migration, 2012 - 2017

Source: Eurostat, *demo_gind*.



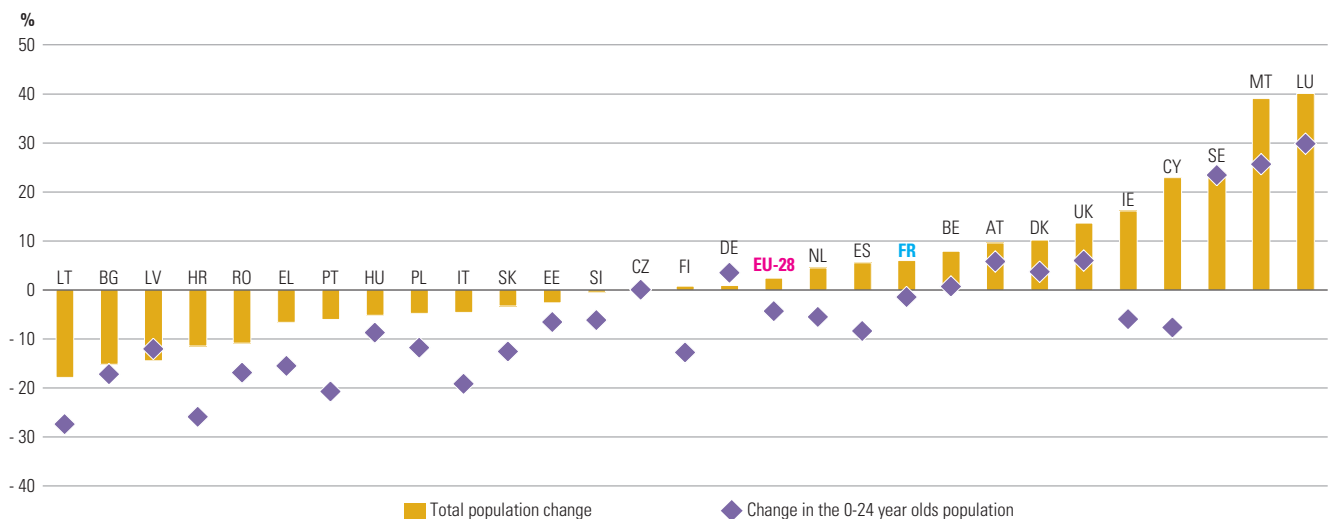
2.1.3 Total fertility rate, 2017

Source: Eurostat, *demo_find*.



2.1.4 Change in the population of 0-24 year olds and in the total population, according to reference projections between 2018 and 2040

Source: Eurostat, *proj_18np*.



2.2 PARTICIPATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN SCHOOL AND HIGHER EDUCATION

A SIGNIFICANT PROPORTION OF 15-19 YEAR OLDS ARE IN EDUCATION OR EMPLOYMENT

In 2018, in the 23 European Union countries that are members of the OECD (EU-23), more than 90% of young people aged 15-19 are enrolled in a school or higher education programme according to the **Labour Force Survey**[□] (2.2.1). This total percentage is divided between young people who are only in education (80%) and those in a 'study and employment' situation, which corresponds to learning or working during their studies (11%). The total population of young people who are enrolled in an educational programme, regardless of their employment status, varies from around 80% in the United Kingdom to over 95% in Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia. In France, the total is very close to the average (90%).

Within this age group, some young people are only in employment: this is the case for 4% of young people on average in the EU-23 in 2018. This share varies from 1% in Latvia, through 3% in France, to 12% in the United Kingdom.

Finally, 5% of young people aged 15-19 are neither in education nor in employment in the EU-23. This precarious population is higher in France (7%) than the EU average, but lower than in Spain (9%), the United Kingdom (9%) or Italy (11%).

A SLIGHT PREDOMINANCE OF GENERAL EDUCATION

General and vocational streams do not have the same relative weight and are not considered in the same way in each country. While in some countries vocational training has long been developed and valued, in others it has a status that seems to be less valued, which may have an effect on the distribution of pupils between streams. In 2017, in the 28-member European Union, 52% of ISCED 3 pupils are studying in the general stream and 48% in the vocational stream (2.2.2). However, there are significant differences in the distribution between the two streams depending on the country. In the Czech Republic, the country that has the lowest **enrolment rate**[□] in general education in Europe, only 28% of ISCED 3 pupils follow a general programme. At the other end of the spectrum, in Ireland, the rate is 90%. In France, 60% of ISCED 3 pupils are enrolled in the general and technological stream.

UNEVEN PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The intensity of participation in higher education, but also the age at which young adults are educated, varies within the EU-28.

Indeed, young adults do not necessarily engage in tertiary education directly after the end of secondary education. Civic and military service, long internships or gap years, before or during higher education, are common constraints or practices in the European Union.

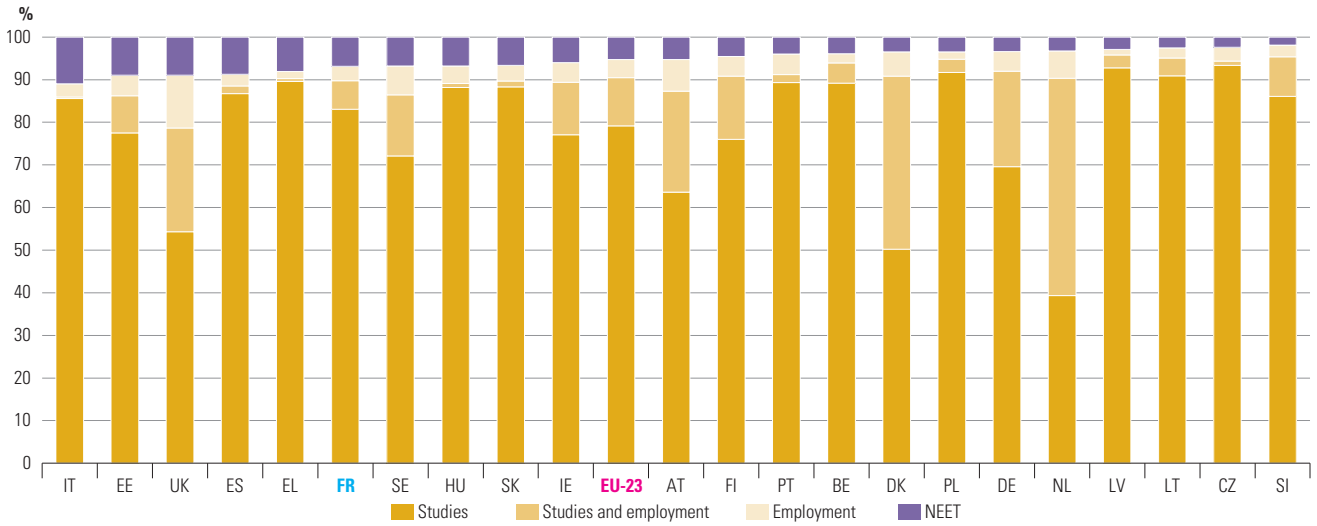
In 2017, participation rates of 20-24 year olds in tertiary education in the EU-28 range from 9% in Luxembourg to 46% in Slovenia (2.2.3). This low rate in Luxembourg is partly due to the fact that a large proportion of Luxembourg students (almost 70%) are enrolled in foreign higher education systems, yet they continue to be counted among the resident individuals in this age group, which mechanically lowers the participation rate. In the EU-28, 19 countries including Germany, France and Italy have participation rates of 30% or more, while 3 countries (Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom) have rates below 25%. Participation rates for the 30-34 age group vary from 2% in six countries (France, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia) to 10% in Finland and 12% in Greece. Less than half of the EU countries have a participation rate of 5% or more in this age group (2.2.4).

Higher participation in tertiary education often leads of course to a higher graduation rate (see 5.3). However, this is not always the case. In 2017, in the United Kingdom, the participation rate of 20-24 year olds in tertiary education is 24%, while 48% of 30-34 year olds in the United Kingdom completed their studies in 2017. The opposite is observed in the Czech Republic, which has a high participation rate (36% among 20-24 year olds) and a population of 30-34 year olds with fewer tertiary qualifications than the EU-28 average (34% of tertiary graduates in 2017 compared to 40% for the EU-28). Different hypotheses can explain this discrepancy: a recent increase in participation in higher education which has not yet been reflected in the number of graduates in the 30-34 age group, or a large share of students enrolled in a higher education programme but not graduating (the case of Slovenia or Sweden). Differences in the length of courses may also partly explain this situation. Above all, the discrepancy may be due to the fact that some countries take in more higher education graduates than they train themselves (brain gain), or to the fact that some young higher education graduates go to work abroad before they have between 30 and 34 years old of higher education (brain drain). ■

[□] See source p. 84 and definition p. 80.

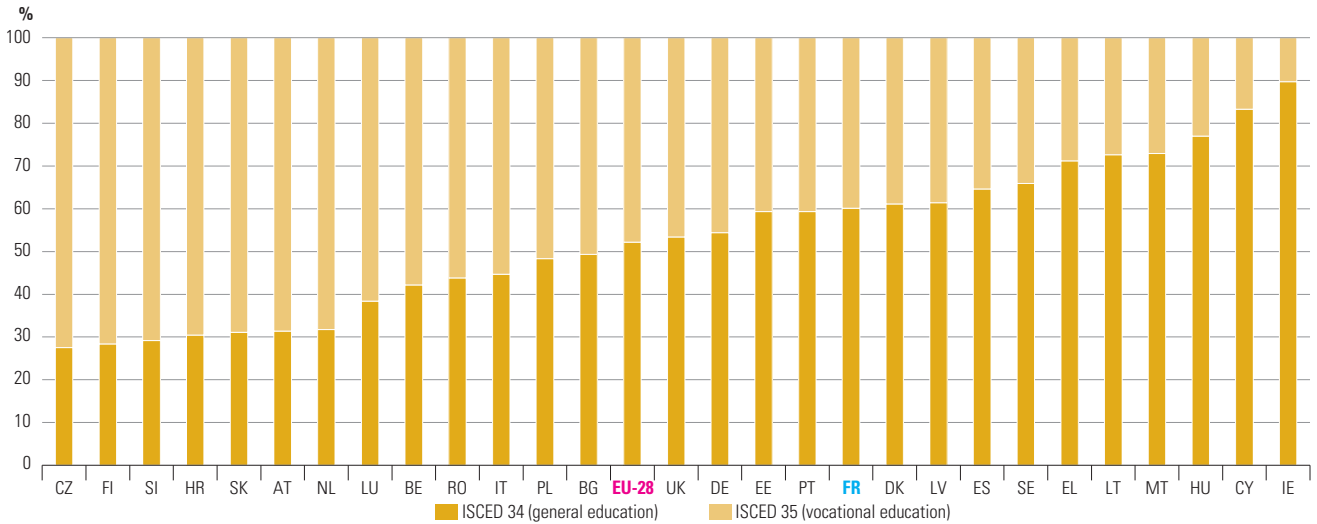
2.2.1 Distribution of 15-19 year olds by education or labour status, 2018

Source: OECD, OECD.stat.



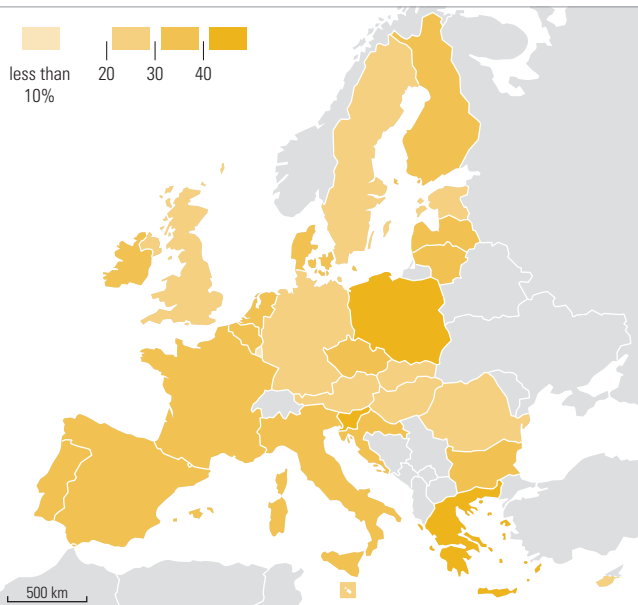
2.2.2 Distribution of ISCED 3 pupils by programme orientation, 2017

Source: Eurostat, educ_uoe_enra16.



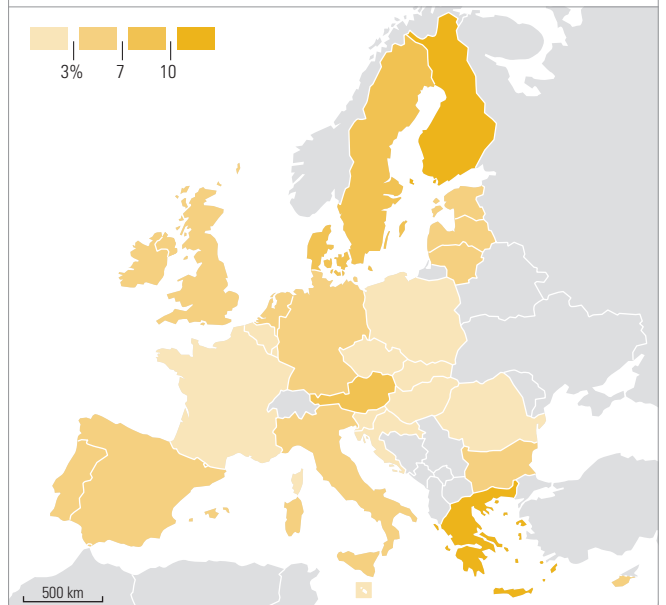
2.2.3 Participation rate of 20-24 year olds in higher education in 2017

Source: Eurostat, educ_uoe_enrto8.



2.2.4 Participation rate of 30-34 year olds in higher education in 2017

Source: Eurostat, educ_uoe_enrt07.



2.3 THE MOBILITY OF YOUNG EUROPEANS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

NEARLY 700,000 YOUNG EUROPEANS IN INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY WITH A VIEW TO OBTAINING A DEGREE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In 2017, according to UNESCO indicators drawn from the **UOE collection**¹, nearly 700,000 young Europeans will be following a higher education programme in a “host country”, whether or not it is part of Europe, in order to obtain a degree: these young people are therefore in **outward international mobility**¹, known as “degree mobility”. Within the 28-member European Union (EU-28), these populations vary significantly: the country sending the least number of students abroad is Malta (1,060) and the country sending the most is Germany (122,200 - **2.3.1**). In France, the number of young people in outgoing international mobility is significant (89,380): the country is the EU’s second largest “exporter”.

While the number of students going abroad is, to some extent, correlated with the size of the national population, especially of young people, some countries deviate from this rule. For example, in the United Kingdom, there are nearly 66,000,000 inhabitants in total, of whom nearly 30% are under 24 years of age (a similar case to that of France: cf. 2.1), but the country sends only 35,250 young people on degree mobility. Conversely, in Bulgaria, only 23% of the 7,102,000 inhabitants are under 24 years old, but no fewer than 25,090 young people go abroad for a degree, and this without any financial support for mobility (grants or state loans), unlike many European countries, according to Eurydice¹.

Most students go to destinations that are culturally or linguistically close to their “home countries” (**international mobility**¹): according to UNESCO, Canada, Switzerland or Belgium each attract more than 10,000 French students in 2017, while Austria and the Netherlands each have more than 20,000 German students.

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

In 2017, on average of the 23 EU member countries of the OECD (EU-23), 9% of all students are enrolled in the different EU countries with the aim of obtaining a degree and come from another country (including outside the EU): they are therefore said to be in inward (degree) international mobility. It is at the highest levels of education that they are generally the most numerous, i.e. the EU-23 average: 7% at bachelor’s level, 13% at master’s level and 22% at doctoral level (**2.3.2**).

In ISCED 6 (bachelor’s level) programmes, the proportions of mobile students vary from 1% in Spain to 19% in Austria (7% in France). At ISCED level 7 (master’s), the lowest proportion of mobile students is in Poland (5%) and Slovenia (5%), and the

highest is in the United Kingdom (34%). This proportion is of 14% in France. Finally, in ISCED 8 (doctoral level), the proportions vary from 2% in Poland to 43% in the Netherlands (40% in France).

In the case of exchange programmes such as Erasmus+, students are generally exempt from paying registration fees in the host country. However, for degree mobility without an exchange programme, attractive tuition fees can influence the choice of destinations. In Spain, Estonia or Italy, in public or publicly dependent private institutions, national students and those on mobility are not treated differently with regard to tuition fees. This is also the case in France, but the tuition fees are significantly lower than in the other three countries.

SOME HIGHER EDUCATION COURSES MAKE COUNTRIES MORE ATTRACTIVE TO STUDENTS IN MOBILITY

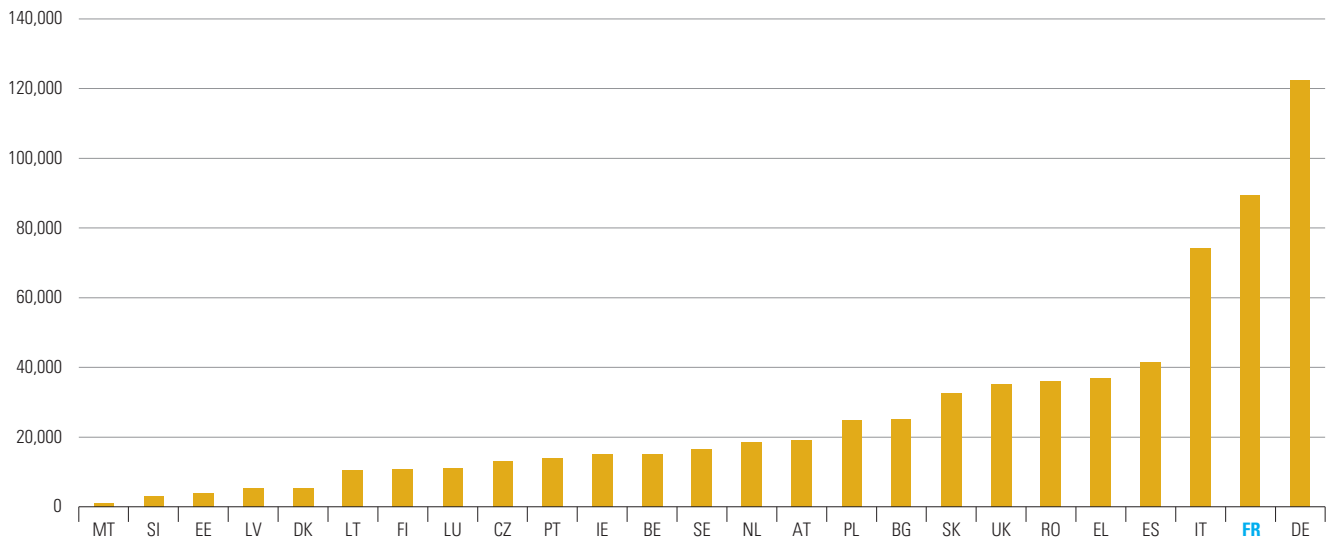
In 2017, on average in the EU-23 countries, 5 fields of study alone (out of the 10 identified in the international data) account for 79% of students in inward international degree mobility (**2.3.3**). These fields are, in descending order: “business, administration and law” (25% on average in Europe, compared with 30% in France), “engineering, manufacturing and construction” (17%, compared with 16% in France), “arts and humanities” (14%, compared with 16% in France), “social sciences, journalism and information” (12%, compared with 11% in France) and “health and welfare” (11%, compared with 6% in France). France is therefore very close to the European average, but this is not the case for all EU countries.

Indeed, among the countries presented, there is a concentration of mobile students in “business, administration and law” in Luxembourg (45%) or Estonia (39%), in “health and welfare” in Hungary (41%) or Belgium (36%), or in “engineering, manufacturing and construction” in Germany (30%). This attractiveness may be the result of proactive policies or, on the contrary, be the result of national policies that encourage students in some specific fields to go abroad. The case of Belgium, for example, is partly explained by students from France who wish to study medicine there to escape the *numerus clausus* in force in medical studies in their country. In 2017, in response to this influx of students, the French Community of Belgium introduced an entry and access examination and quotas for non-resident students in these fields. Combined with the disappearance of the *numerus clausus* in France, this concentration of mobile students in Belgium could decrease in the future. ■

1. Eurydice, *Mobility scoreboard 2018/2019*, 2020.

2.3.1 Students enrolled in a tertiary education programme abroad by country of origin, 2017

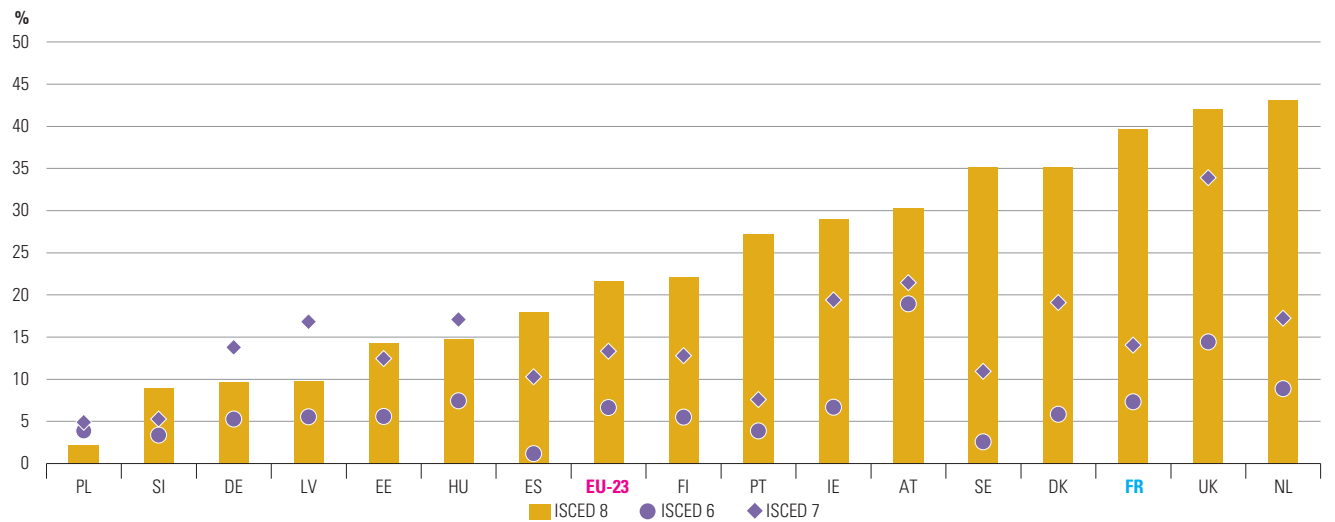
UNESCO, data.uis.unesco.org.



Reading: In 2017, 19,170 students that obtained their upper secondary education diploma in Austria went abroad to study in and obtain the degree of a foreign tertiary education programme.

2.3.2 Share of internationally mobile students enrolled in tertiary education programmes in Europe by ISCED level, 2017

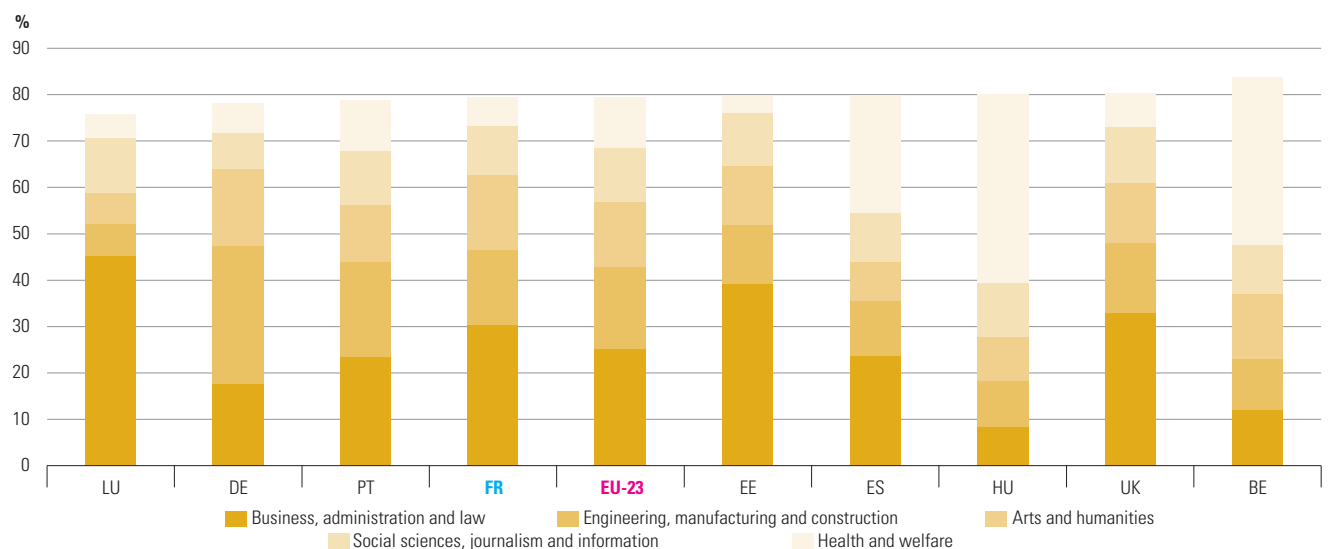
OECD, *EAG 2019*, table B6.1.



Reading: In 2017, in France, the proportion of internationally mobile students among the students enrolled in ISCED 6 is 7%. Among students in ISCED 7, this proportion is 14%; among those in ISCED 8, it is 40%.

2.3.3 Distribution of internationally mobile students enrolled in tertiary education by field of study, 2017

OECD, *EAG 2019*, table B6.2.



2.4 FOCUS

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CARE (ECEC)

TWO TYPES OF NATIONAL STRUCTURES FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD

ZOOM

Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) encompasses a broad field (see definitions). This sheet covers only formal services, whether educational (ISCED 0) or not (out of ISCED).

In Europe, in 2018-2019, only 7 countries guarantee every child, by law, a place in a formal structure from the earliest age, generally directly after **postnatal leave**[□]: Denmark, Sweden, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Slovenia or Germany (only for children over one year old). In the other countries, the time elapsed between the end of postnatal leave and the reception guaranteed by law is more than 2 years.

Each national configuration is unique, but it is possible to distinguish two models of ECEC organization (2.4.1). The first is the integrated model. In this model, there is a single structure up to the beginning of primary education: a single institution for children of all age groups, the same level of staff qualifications and the same source of funding. Generally speaking, these centres cater for children from less than one year to six years of age. The Nordic countries and the Baltic countries (Latvia and Lithuania), but also Croatia and Slovenia fall within this first model.

The second is the split model, the most widespread in Europe, which proposes two types of structures, most often successive, each coming under different competent authorities, depending on the age group of the children: those generally covering children from 0 to 3 or 4 years of age, most often coming under social affairs; and those including children from age 3 (or sometimes as young as age 2 in France, and age 2 and a half in Belgium) to age 5 or 6, coming under education.

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

TWO EUROPEAN OBJECTIVES FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION

In the field of **Early childhood education and care (ECEC)**[□], the 28-member European Union has set two quantified objectives: firstly, to provide formal childcare for at least 33% of children under the age of 3 and, on the other hand, provide the educational development or pre-primary education for at

least 95% of children between the age of 4 and the beginning of compulsory education. The first is referred to as the Barcelona objective, while the second is one of the benchmarks of “Education and Training 2020” strategy (see dedicated fact sheet: 5.1).

In 2017, both objectives are achieved on average in the EU. Ten countries, including France, have achieved both targets (2.4.2), while eight countries (including Germany, Finland and Italy) have achieved only one of the two targets.

For children aged 4 and over (95% on average in the EU), France and the United Kingdom are the only two countries to achieve universal schooling from the age of 3 (2.4.3). As for the target for children under 3 years of age, it shows greater differences between countries: while 72% of the children concerned are cared for in facilities in Denmark, only 1% is in the Slovak Republic. It should be pointed out that childbirth or education leave, which is particularly long in some Eastern European countries, may account for this low rate of childcare for young children: just over one year in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, and two years in Hungary.

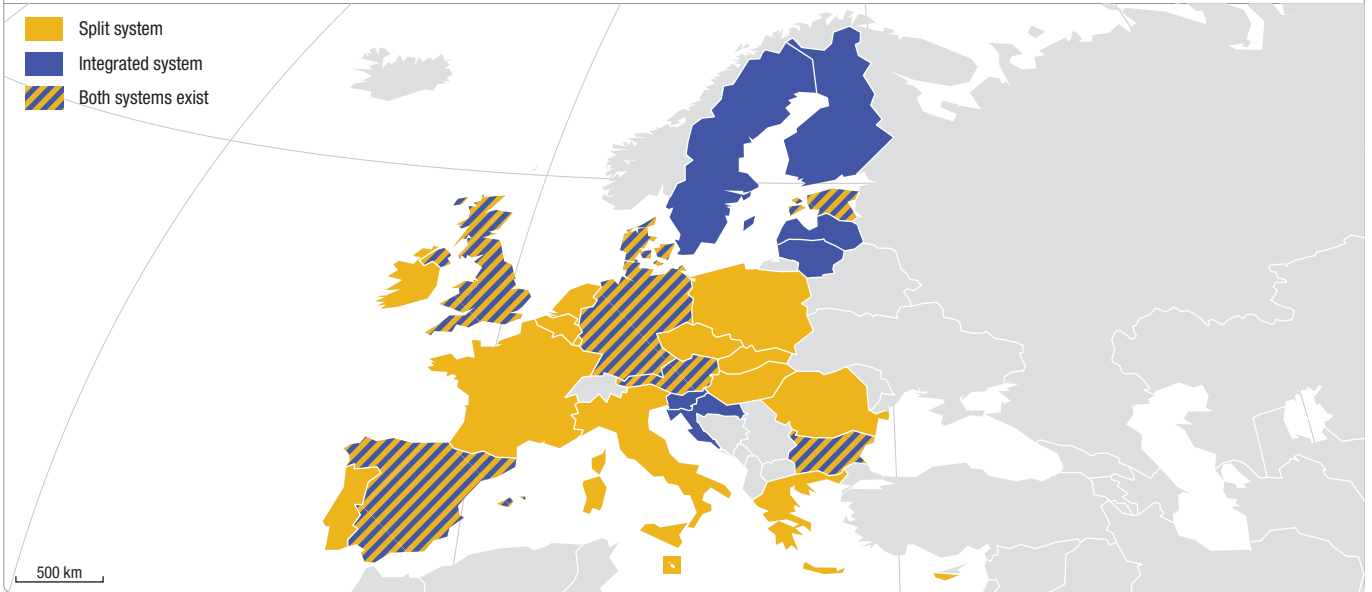
THREE LEVELS OF QUALIFICATION FOR ECEC STAFF IN COLLECTIVE SETTINGS

Figures 2.4.4 and 2.4.5 present the level of qualifications required to work in ECEC centre-based settings in 2018-2019. Of the 28 EU countries, only Denmark, Italy (only for children under 3 years of age) and Sweden have no regulations in this area. For children under the age of 3, 15 EU countries require a minimum level of qualification from upper secondary education (ISCED 3) to a short tertiary education (ISCED 3 to 5). Ten countries require the bachelor’s level (ISCED 6) and one country, Portugal, requires the master’s level (ISCED 7). On the other hand, for children between 3 years and the beginning of primary education, the most frequently required level is the bachelor’s level. While this is the case in 16 countries, eight countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Romania, Slovakia, Scotland and the United Kingdom) require ISCED level 3-5 and thus have the same level of requirement for all age groups. France, Italy and Portugal are the only countries to require a higher level (master’s degree) for carers of children aged 3 years and over. Finally, in the majority of countries with regulations, the level of qualification required is the same for all age groups. This is particularly the case in countries with an integrated system, with the exception of Poland. Conversely, 8 countries, including France, require a different and higher level of training for carers of children aged 3 and over. ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

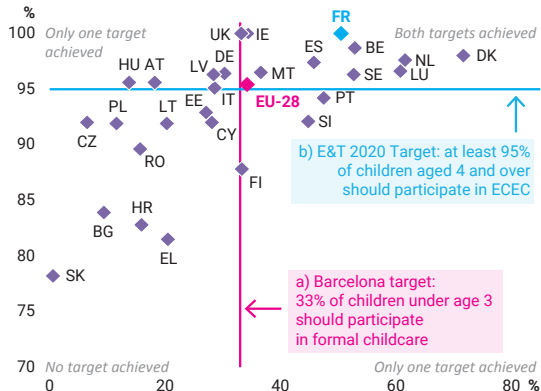
2.4.1 Early childhood education and care systems in Europe, ISCED o and outside of the boundary of ISCED

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



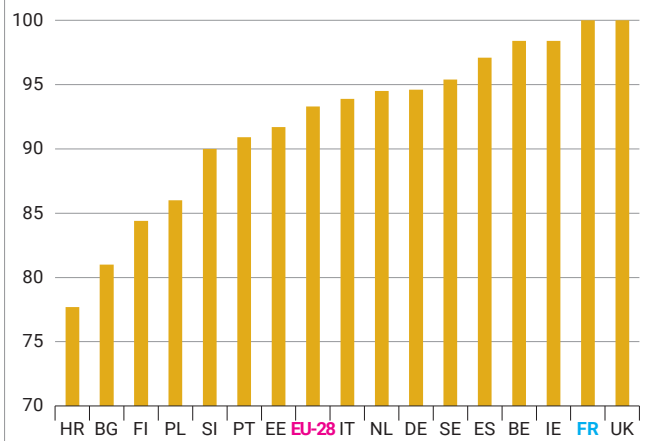
2.4.2 Participation rates in ECEC of children under age 3 (ISCED o or outside ISCED) and of children aged between 4 and the starting age of compulsory education (ISCED o) in Europe, 2017

↳ Eurostat, educ_uoe_enra10.



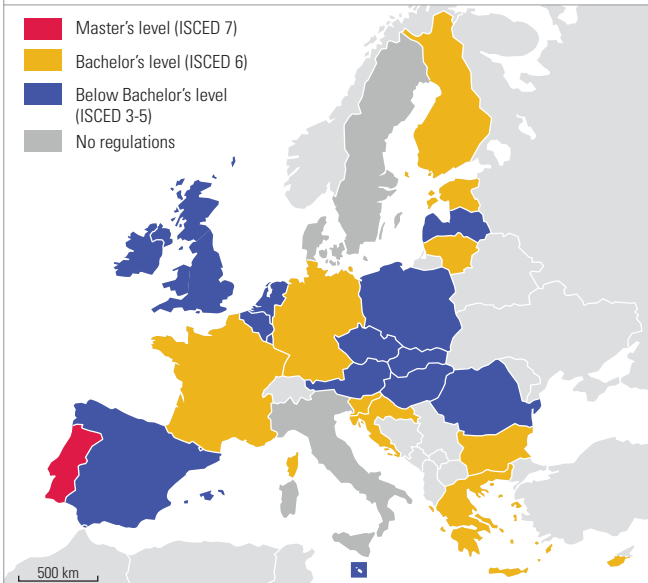
2.4.3 Participation rate in ECEC of children aged between 3 and the starting age of compulsory education (ISCED o) in Europe, 2017

↳ Eurostat, educ_uoe_enra21.



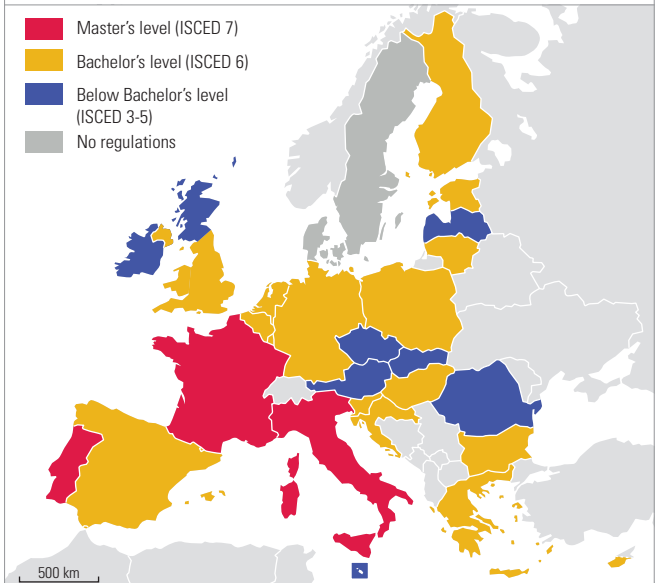
2.4.4 Minimum qualification level required for core practitioners working with children under age 3 (ISCED o and outside ISCED) in centre-based settings, 2018-19

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



2.4.5 Minimum qualification level required for core practitioners working with children between age 3 and the starting age of compulsory education (ISCED o2) in centre-based settings, 2018-19

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





CHAPTER 3

PARENTS AND FAMILY BACKGROUND

Students' family environment

Family income and economic situation

FOCUS

Parents' involvement in their children's schooling

3.1 STUDENTS' FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

TWO-THIRDS OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN ARE MADE UP OF COUPLES

In 2018, in the EU 28, 29% of households in the EU 28 will have at least one **dependent child**[□] in their composition (3.1.1). This proportion varies from 39% in Ireland to 22% in Germany or Finland. The majority of households with dependent children are made up of adult couples (20% of all EU-28 households, i.e. two thirds of households with dependent children). The share of households consisting of an adult couple with children varies from 14% in Lithuania to 26% in Ireland.

In 2018, the share of single-parent households is 4% on average in the EU-28 and varies from 2% in Croatia, Finland, Greece and Romania to 9% in Denmark and Estonia. While the share of single-parent households has remained stable on average in the EU-28 over the past decade (4% in 2009), it has decreased by one percentage point in Belgium, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom. Conversely, in Spain or Portugal, single-parent households increased by one percentage point or more over the period. However, in these two countries, the rates for single-parent households were among the lowest in Europe in 2009. In France, this share also increased from 5.3% to 6.5% between 2009 and 2018.

As for sibling size, in 2018, 49% of European households with dependent children have one child and 39% have two dependent children.

ACCESS TO HYGIENE IS NOT UNIVERSAL IN THE HOMES OF EUROPEAN CHILDREN

Several indicators make it possible to assess the living conditions of dependent children. The **overcrowding rates**[□] of households show a clear difference between Western and Northern European countries on the one hand and Eastern European countries on the other (3.1.2). Indeed, with the exception of Italy and Austria, there is no Western European country where the overcrowding rate for households with dependent children exceeds 20% in 2018. Conversely, the rate is significantly higher in Central European and Balkan countries; it exceeds 60% in Bulgaria and Romania.

As regards hygiene conditions in housing, a difference is also evident between Western and Northern Europe on the one hand and Eastern Europe on the other (3.1.3). In 2018, on average in the EU 28, around 2% of children aged 0-17 do not have access to a shower or bathtub in their home. Of the 28 countries, 19 have a rate of less than 1%. The examples are

Germany, Spain, Finland, France and Italy. Conversely, children face a severe lack of access to hygiene in Romania (30% of children), Bulgaria (13%), Latvia (9%) and Lithuania (8%). However, there is a clear improvement in the trend: the rates of households with dependent children without a shower or bathtub were much higher in these countries in 2009 (Bulgaria 20%, Latvia 19% and Romania 46%) than in 2008 (Bulgaria 20%, Latvia 19% and Romania 46%).

HALF OF THE PARENTS OF STUDENTS WITH HIGHER EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS

In 2018, on average in the EU-28, 13% of children aged 0-17 has parents with low qualifications and 47% have parents with tertiary education (3.1.4). Parental education is defined as the highest observed educational attainment by the father or mother.

In half of the EU-28 countries, including Belgium, France, Germany and the United Kingdom, a majority of dependent children have parents with higher education qualifications. This proportion, which exceeds 60% in Denmark, Finland and the Netherlands, reaches a maximum of 71% in Ireland. Spain, where 53% of children under 18 have parents with tertiary education, is doubly exceptional, as it also has a high rate of children of parents with low qualifications (24%).

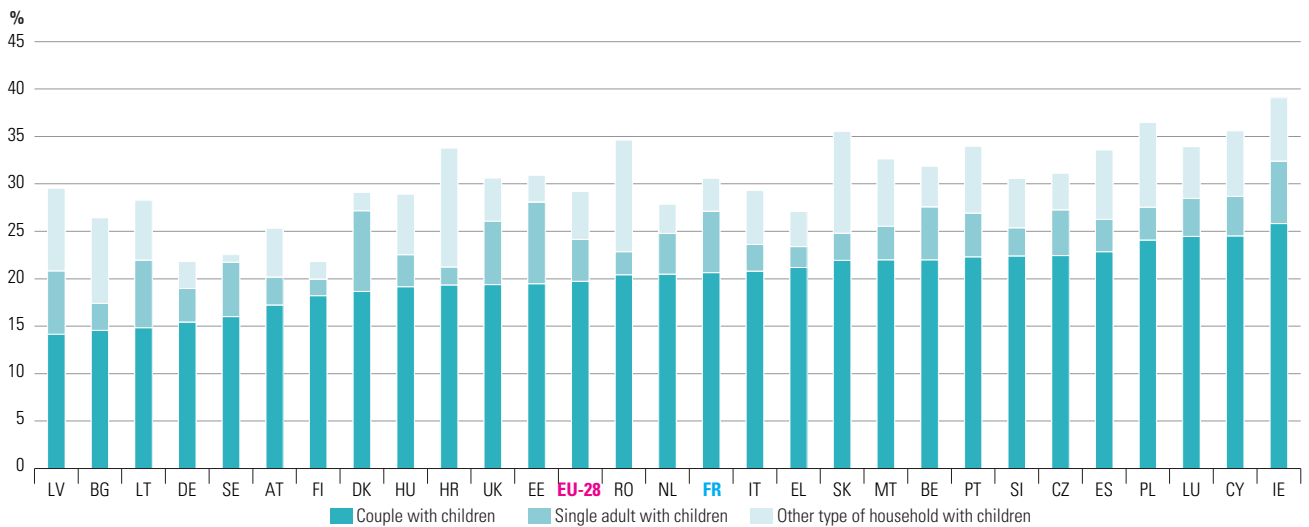
Croatia, Poland, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Romania have low proportions of parents with low or no qualifications and equally low proportions of parents with tertiary education. Indeed, a majority of parents in these countries have upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education qualifications (56% in the Czech and Slovak Republics, 62% in Croatia).

Finally, Italy, Malta, Portugal and Romania are the only countries where the proportions of children with parents with tertiary education are very close to those with parents with low qualifications (lower in the case of Portugal and Malta). ■

[□] See definition wp. 80.

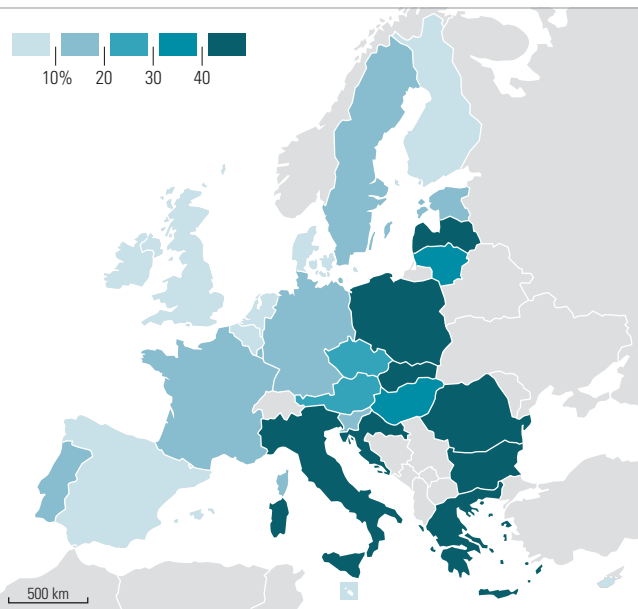
3.1.1 Distribution of households with dependent children by household type among all households, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *lfst_hhhnhtych*.



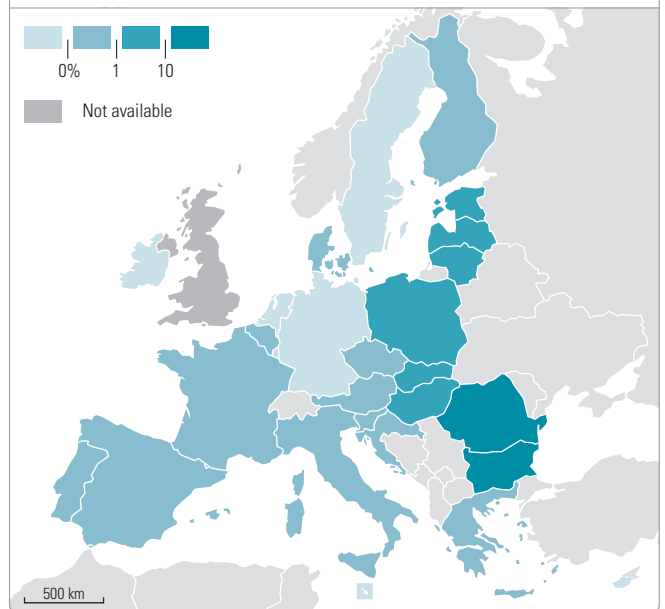
3.1.2 Overcrowding rate among households with dependent children, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_lvho05b*.



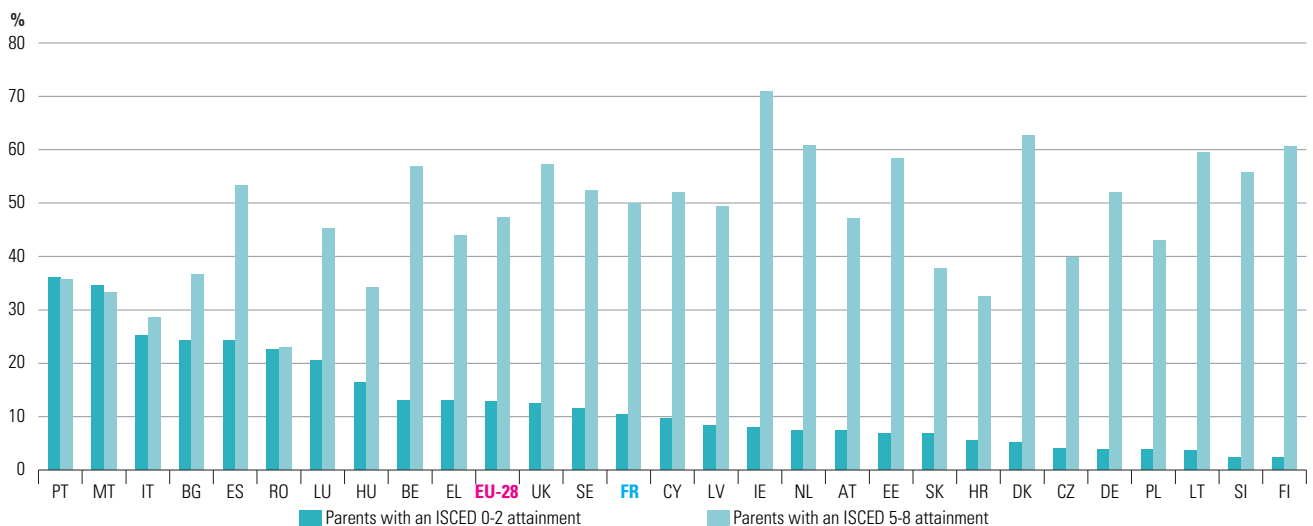
3.1.3 Proportion of 0-17 year olds having neither a bath nor a shower in their dwelling, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_mdho02c*.



3.1.4 Distribution of 0-17 year old children by educational attainment level of their parents, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_lvps25*.



3.2 FAMILY INCOME AND ECONOMIC SITUATION

VERY LOW INCOMES FOR FAMILIES IN EASTERN EUROPE

ZOOM

The **EU-SILC**[□] (Statistics on Income and Living Conditions) survey of Eurostat provides data on disposable income of households in the European Union, i.e. the income that remains available to households once tax and social security contributions have been deducted. This includes income from labour and capital, transfers between households and social transfers (excluding rents charged to homeowners). Median income refers to the value for which the population is split into two equal parts of the workforce: those with incomes above the median and those with incomes below the median.

In 2018, in the 28-member European Union, the **median net disposable income**[□] of households with dependent children varies widely: the highest incomes are in Germany, Austria, Benelux and the Scandinavian countries, while the lowest incomes are in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary and Romania (3.2.1). Within the group of countries with the highest incomes, Luxembourg stands out with a median income of households with **dependent children**[□] (without personal housing and without professional activity) of 30 030 in **purchasing power standard (PPS)**[□]. Romania, with 5,920 PPS in 2018, is at the opposite end of the scale to Luxembourg: its households with dependent children receive an income 5 times lower than Luxembourg households.

Among Western European countries, Portugal stands out as having the lowest level of income, with a median income of 10,560 PPS. French households (19 210 PPS) have an income significantly higher than the EU-28 median (16 170 PPS).

ONE IN TEN EUROPEAN CHILDREN LIVES IN JOBLESS HOUSEHOLDS

In 2018, many Western European Member States will have large proportions of dependent children living in households where none of the members are employed. These proportions are above 10% in six EU-28 countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, France, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Sweden), while they are below 6% in Finland, Portugal, the Czech Republic and Slovenia (3.2.2). However, an improvement can be observed in a large majority of European countries, as the 10% threshold was exceeded in 13 countries in 2012, with a maximum of 20% in Ireland. However, this improvement should be viewed with caution, as this indicator does not prejudge the quality of the jobs that household members may have (part-time rates, wage levels, etc.).

[□] See definition p. 80.

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

ZOOM

The **risk of poverty and social exclusion**[□] is a summary measure from Eurostat corresponding to the number of people who are in at least one of the following situations: their income is below the poverty line set at 60% of the national median disposable income after social transfers; they are in a situation of severe material deprivation, meaning that their living conditions are strongly affected by the lack of resources (they fulfil at least 4 of the 9 criteria defined by Eurostat); they live in households with very low work intensity (less than 20% of potential working time).

In 2018, the **risk of poverty and social exclusion rate**[□] among the population aged 0-17 in the 28 EU countries is 24%. National rates vary from 13% in the Czech Republic and Slovenia to 38% in Romania (3.2.3). In eight countries, including the UK (29%), Spain (30%) and Italy (31%), the rate exceeds 25%.

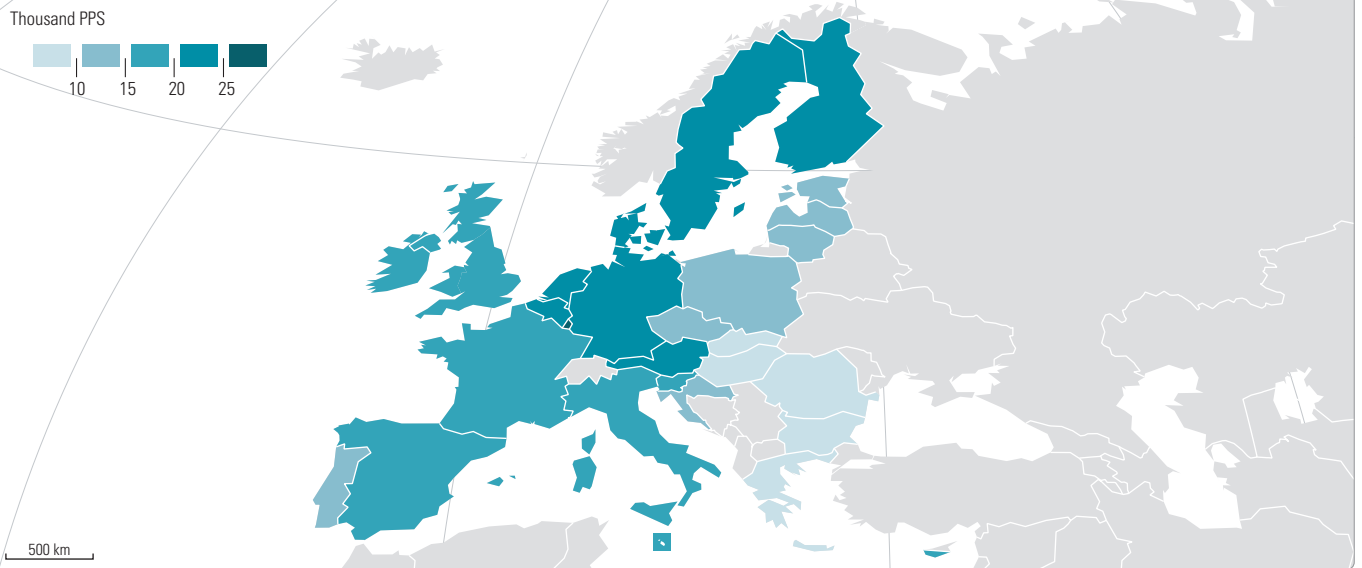
The risk of poverty and social exclusion rate of young people in 0 to 17 is systematically higher when parents have a lower level of education (3.2.3). Indeed, in the case of young people whose parents have attained ISCED 0-2, many Eastern European countries but also Germany, Finland or Ireland have a poverty risk of over 70%, while Estonia, Luxembourg, Poland and Portugal have a risk of 40% or less.

When looking at the profiles of households whose parents have an ISCED 5-8 level (the highest qualification of the father or mother), the risk of poverty and social exclusion rate decreases remarkably: it is less than or equal to 6% in 6 countries (Croatia, Finland, Malta, Poland, Portugal and the Czech Republic) and above 10% in only 9 countries (including Austria, Spain, Greece, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom). Finally, France shows rates slightly below the EU-28 average for each of the populations observed.

Bulgaria and Lithuania are the countries where this risk varies the most according to the parents' level of education: there is a difference of 77 percentage points or more between the children of parents with a low level of education and those whose parents have higher education. In 5 countries, this gap is less than 40 percentage points (Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland and Portugal). ■

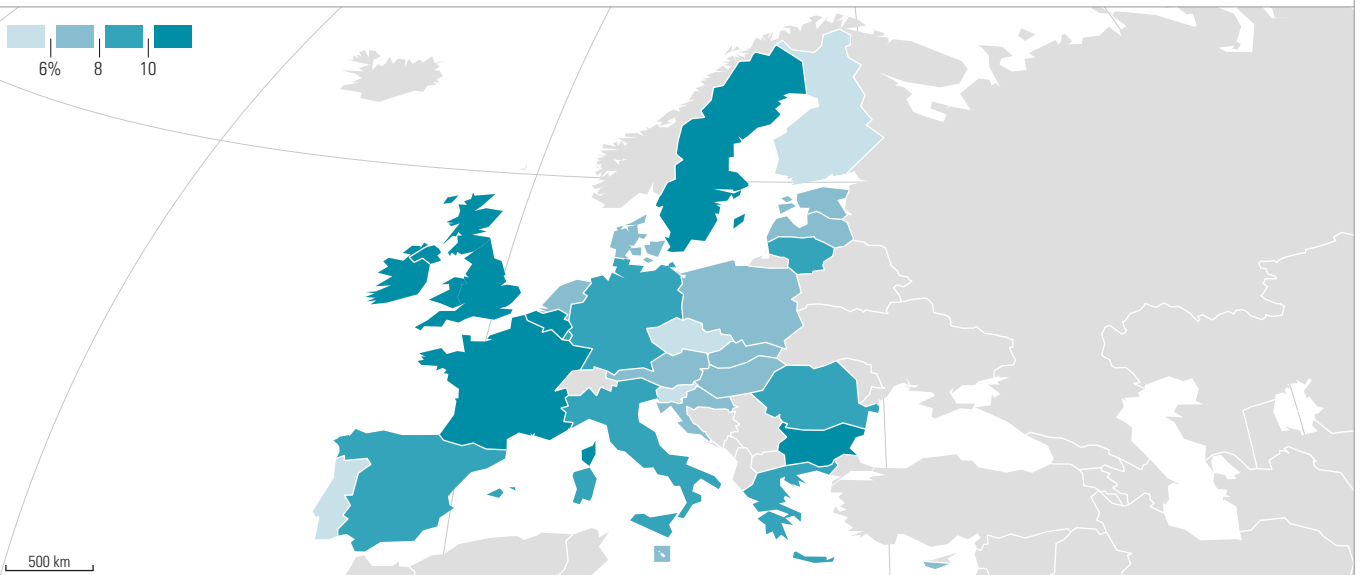
3.2.1 Median income of households with dependent children in equivalents PPS, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_dio4*.



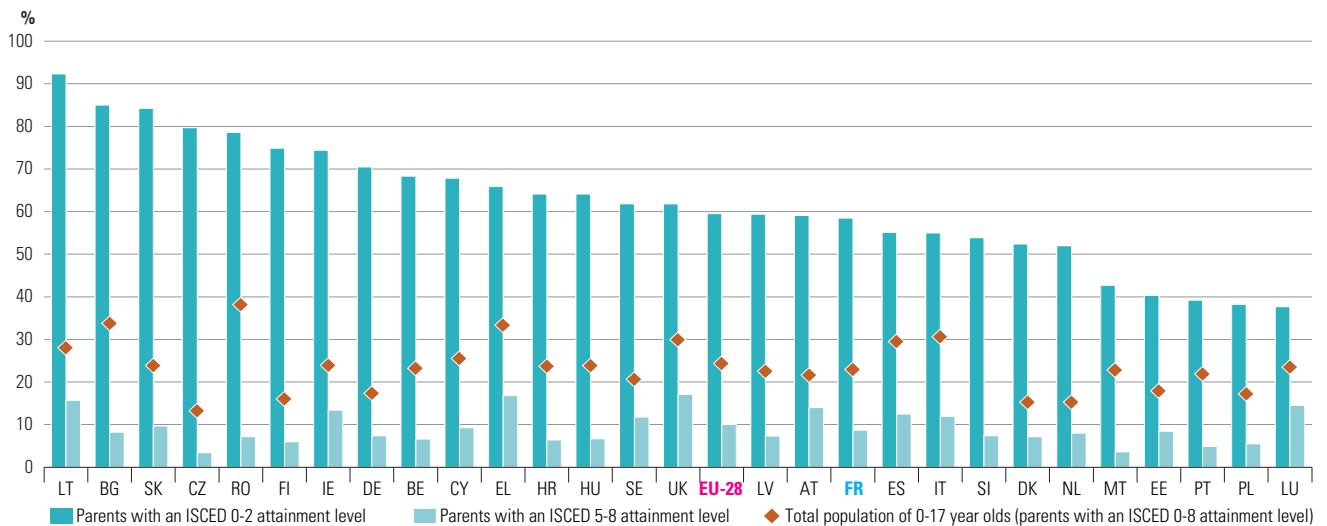
3.2.2 Proportion of 0-17 year old children living in a jobless household, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *lfsi_jhh_a*.



3.2.3 0-17 year olds at risk of poverty or social exclusion by educational attainment level of their parents and 0-17 year olds at risk of poverty or social exclusion, 2018

↳ Eurydice, *ilc_peps60* et *ilc_peps01*.



BETTER READING COMPREHENSION RESULTS FOR STUDENTS SUPPORTED BY THEIR PARENTS

In the OECD countries, a large majority of students in 15-year-olds assessed in PISA 2018 report that their parents support them at school (3.3.1). Countries such as France, Sweden, Finland or the United Kingdom have more than 80% of students making this statement. In other countries, the proportions are lower: notably in Bulgaria (close to 60%), but also in Cyprus, Italy, the Slovak Republic or Germany (close to 70%).

Student results in the PISA 2018 reading literacy test show the importance of parental support: students who reported being supported had higher average scores than those who did not (3.3.2). The situation in countries where the average scores of students who report the strongest support remain below the centre of the scale (500 points) is a cause for concern, especially as there are also significant differences in scores between these students and those who report no support. The gap is relatively large in Portugal, Sweden, France and Italy, but highly supported pupils are well above the centre of the scale in all these countries except Italy (501).

Measuring the relationship between parental involvement in education and PISA test scores is, however, complex. Not only is it impossible to isolate the potential effect of parental support from that of any other activity which affects students' skills, but also it is not relevant, due to sample sizes, to observe the variation in scores as a function of both parental involvement and family background. However, parents from advantaged socio-economic and cultural backgrounds are generally more involved than disadvantaged parents.

PARENTAL INITIATIVE VIS-À-VIS THE SCHOOL DEPENDING ON THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

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

As for school management bodies (such as Parent Advisory Committees and Management Committees), 17% of parents on average in the OECD countries participate in these bodies

according to the school heads surveyed in PISA 2018. In Europe, the United Kingdom, Germany and France show a relatively low participation (5%, 10% and 11% of parents respectively), in contrast to Italy or the Slovak Republic (34%).

While these proportions partly reflect the individual relationship that parents have with the school, they are highly dependent on various contextual elements, such as the organization of working time to enable parents to visit the school, but also the culture of dialogue with families and the place reserved for them in school governance. In Italy, for example, parents are not only represented on the various councils within schools, as is the case elsewhere in Europe, but also they participate in other bodies whose function is to decide on the allocation of performance bonuses or to evaluate trainee teachers. Consultation of parents during teacher evaluation is also practised in other European countries¹. However, the PISA 2018 data indicate a much lower average participation in these countries than in Italy: this is for example the case in Finland (8%) or Sweden (10%).

MANY NATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS IN EUROPE AIM TO IMPROVE THE INVOLVEMENT OF THE IMMIGRANT FAMILIES IN EDUCATION

Some categories of parents, culturally distant from school, lack the tools to support their children in their schooling and sometimes do not know the benefits of their potential involvement. Immigrant families, especially those with low levels of education, may be in this situation. National regulations or recommendations aimed at mobilising immigrant families are present in many EU countries, even highly decentralised ones. Only the United Kingdom, Ireland, the French Community of Belgium, Poland, Hungary and Croatia have not introduced such texts in 2017-2018, while the Netherlands relies on local initiative (3.3.4). However, in 11 other countries (including Sweden, Scotland and Finland), the texts are not specifically addressed to immigrant parents, but include them as well as non-immigrant parents.

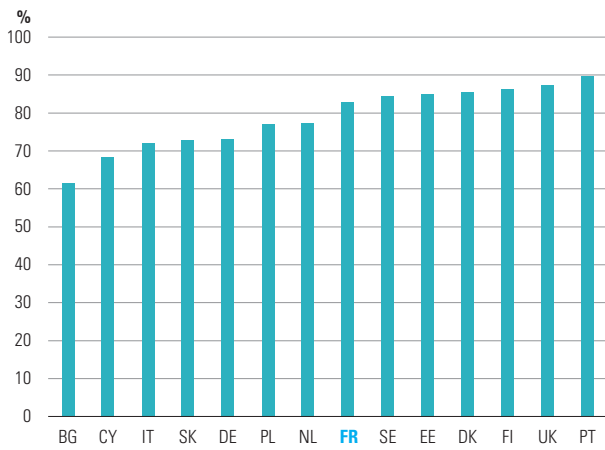
In countries that have national legislation specifically targeting immigrant families, there are often major initiatives to implement the recommendations. Some of them are concerned primarily with ensuring that these parents are properly informed about how schools work ("Opening schools to parents" in France), others offer teaching toolkits ("Toolkit for Diversity" in Northern Ireland) or letters of mutual commitment signed by schools and families, as in Spain². ■

1. Eurydice, *Teaching careers in Europe*, 2018, reference year 2016-2017.

2. Eurydice, *Integrating Students from Migrant Backgrounds into Schools in Europe*, 2019

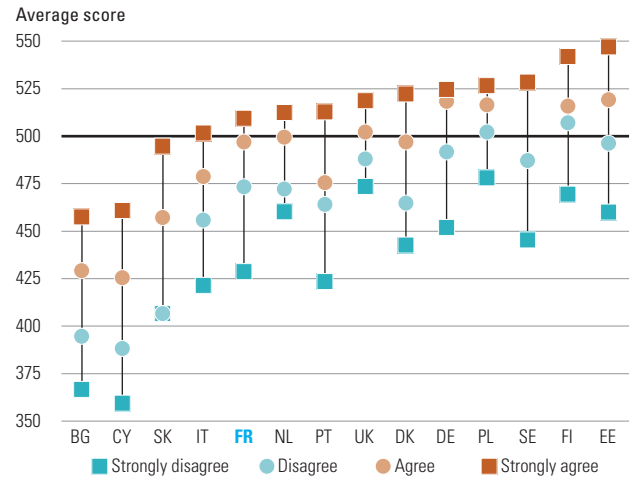
3.3.1 Proportion of 15 year old students who agree or strongly agree with the statement «my parents support my educational efforts and achievements»

OECD, PISA 2018, student questionnaire's extraction



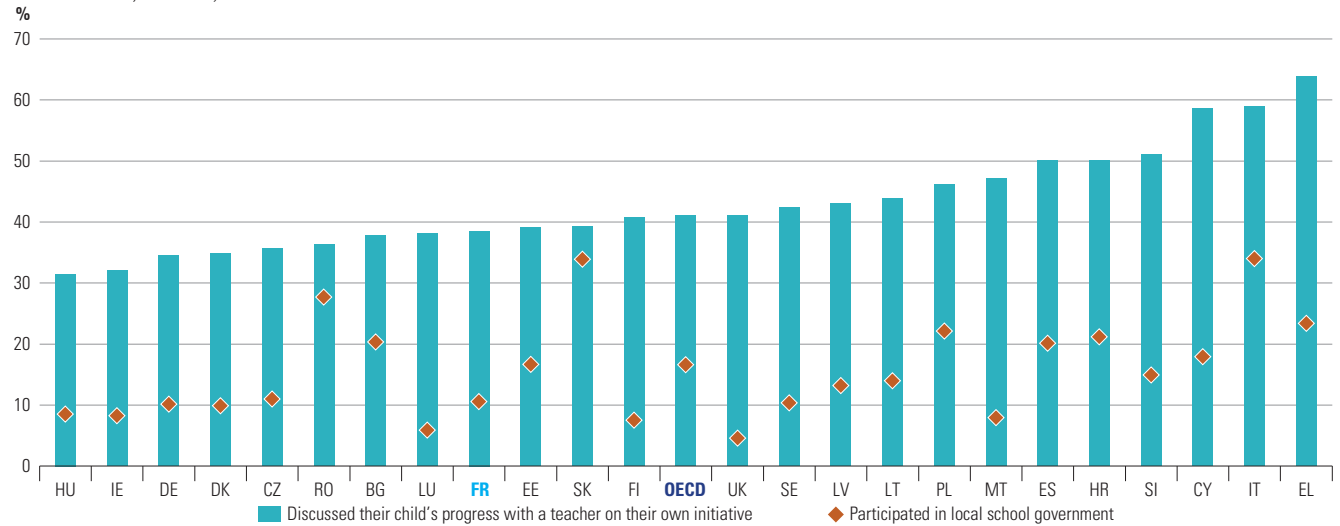
3.3.1 Students' average reading score according to their statements regarding their parents' support for their educational efforts and achievements

OECD, PISA 2018, student questionnaire's extraction



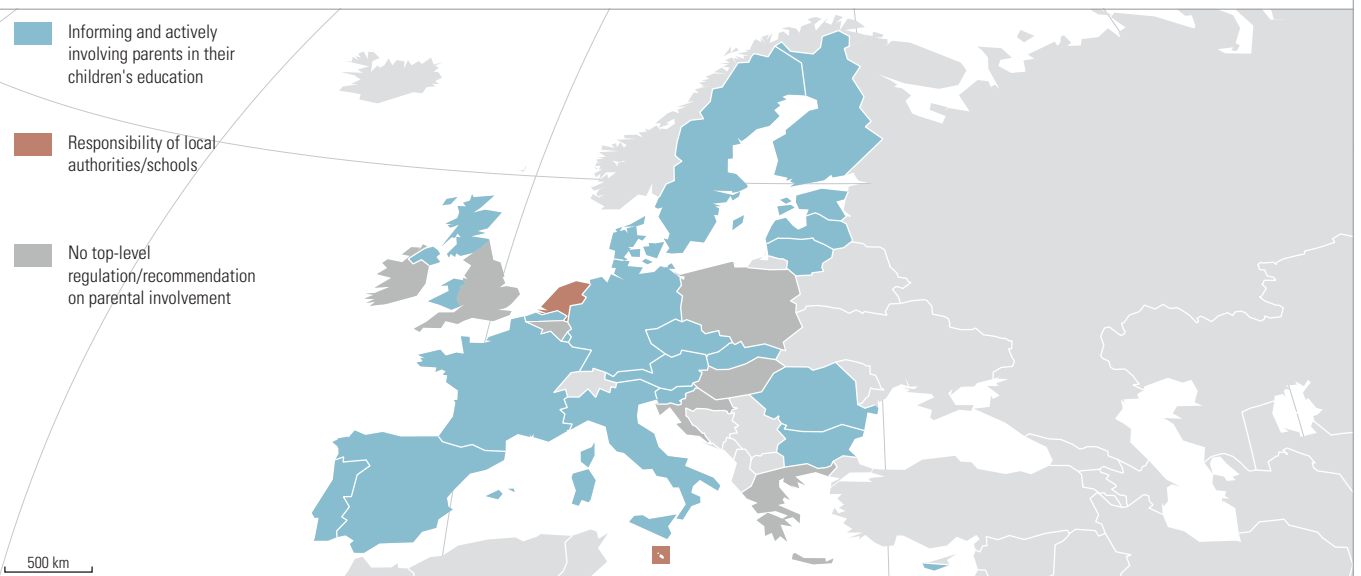
3.3.3 Percentage of students' parents who participated in school-related activities during the previous academic year, based on principals' reports

OECD, PISA 2018, table III.B1.10.1



3.3.4 Regulation/recommendation related to the involvement of migrant students' parents in schools from ISCED 1 to ISCED 3 (general and vocational education), 2017-18

Eurydice, Integrating students from migrant backgrounds into schools in Europe, fig. I.3.10, 2019.





CHAPTER 4

TEACHERS

European teachers: an overview

The conditions of practice of the teaching profession

Initial and in-service teacher training

Teachers' perception of the profession

Teachers' professional and pedagogical practices

FOCUS

School heads in Europe

ZOOM

The international survey **TALIS**[□] (Teaching And Learning International Survey) aims to collect declarative data on the pedagogical environment and working conditions of teachers in lower secondary education educational institutions (ISCED 2, i.e. *collèges* for France). The sample for each country is made up of at least 4,000 teachers spread across 200 schools (public and private) and their heads. The first cycle of the survey took place in 2008 (France did not participate). During the third cycle, in 2018, 48 countries took part in it, including 30 members of the OECD and 23 of the European Union, including France, which had already participated in 2013. Some countries have extended the survey to primary education (this is the case in France) and others to upper secondary education.

TEACHERS OLDER AT HIGHER LEVELS OF EDUCATION

In 2017, in the EU 28, the average age of teachers is higher when the ISCED level at which they teach is itself higher. Of the 26 countries presented here, 8 have more than 40% of teachers over 50 years of age in ISCED 1 (4.1.1). At ISCED 2, ten countries are in the same situation, while at ISCED 3 there are 15. Three country profiles differ, however.

In the first group (Belgium, Spain, France, Poland and the United Kingdom), the proportion of teachers aged over 50 years old is less than 40% in each level of education. A second set (Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Italy and Lithuania) is characterised by a proportion of older teachers of more than 40% at all three levels of education. Italy stands out clearly, with a proportion of teachers over 50 years of age reaching 50% or more at each level of education. A third profile (Finland, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic) is specific in that it has a concentration of older teachers in ISCED 3 and relatively young populations in ISCED 1 and 2.

A PREDOMINANTLY FEMALE PROFESSION IN EUROPE

In school education in Europe in 2017, women are systematically in the majority among the teachers at all ISCED levels (4.1.2). However, the proportion of women decreases everywhere with the level of education. In 2017, on average in the EU-28, women account for 85% of teachers at ISCED 1, 68% at ISCED 2 and 61% at ISCED 3. There are significant differences between EU countries: in primary education, the proportion of female teachers ranges from 71% in Greece to 97% in Hungary and Lithuania.

This international amplitude is similar in ISCED 3 (from 53% in the Netherlands to 80% in Latvia), but it is even more important in ISCED 2 (from 53% in the Netherlands to 88% in Slovenia). France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Luxembourg are the only countries where the proportion of women is 60% or less at both levels of secondary education.

A LARGE MAJORITY OF EUROPEAN TEACHERS HAVE ENTERED THE PROFESSION DRIVEN BY "SOCIAL" MOTIVATIONS

In the TALIS 2018 survey, ISCED 2 teachers were asked why they had chosen the teaching profession. Social motivations were reported by a very large number of European teachers.

For example, an average of 89% of teachers in the 23 countries of the European Union say that they have been strongly motivated by the opportunity to provide their "contribution to society" (4.1.3), 91% said they were attracted by the opportunity to "influence the development of children and young people", and 76% said they wanted to "benefit the socially disadvantaged". Some teachers described several of these motivations as important in their decision to join the profession.

In individual countries, the percentages of teachers who say they were attracted by the opportunity to contribute to society ranged from 66% in Finland to 96% in Romania. The opportunity to play a role in the development of young people had attracted 79% of ISCED 2 teachers in Italy and 98% in Romania, while the opportunity to help disadvantaged children was reported to be important by 90% of teachers in Portugal but only 42% in the Netherlands. In France, the proportions of teachers declaring social motivations for entering the profession are close to the EU-23 average.

Teachers could also declare more "personal" motivations that they considered important when they decided to join the profession. On average in the EU-23, 66% of teachers said they were attracted by the assurance of a stable income (4.1.4), 65% of teachers said that they felt it was important that teaching was a safe profession, and 62% were attracted by a schedule that suited their personal responsibilities. The Netherlands had the lowest rates for each of these three motivations, while in Estonia or the UK a large proportion of teachers reported these motivations as important. The Finnish case is different in that far more teachers in Finland reported personal motivations than social motivations. In France, again, the proportions are very close to the EU-23 average. ■

[□] See the source p. 84.

4.1.1: Proportion of teachers who are aged 50 or more, by ISCED level, 2017

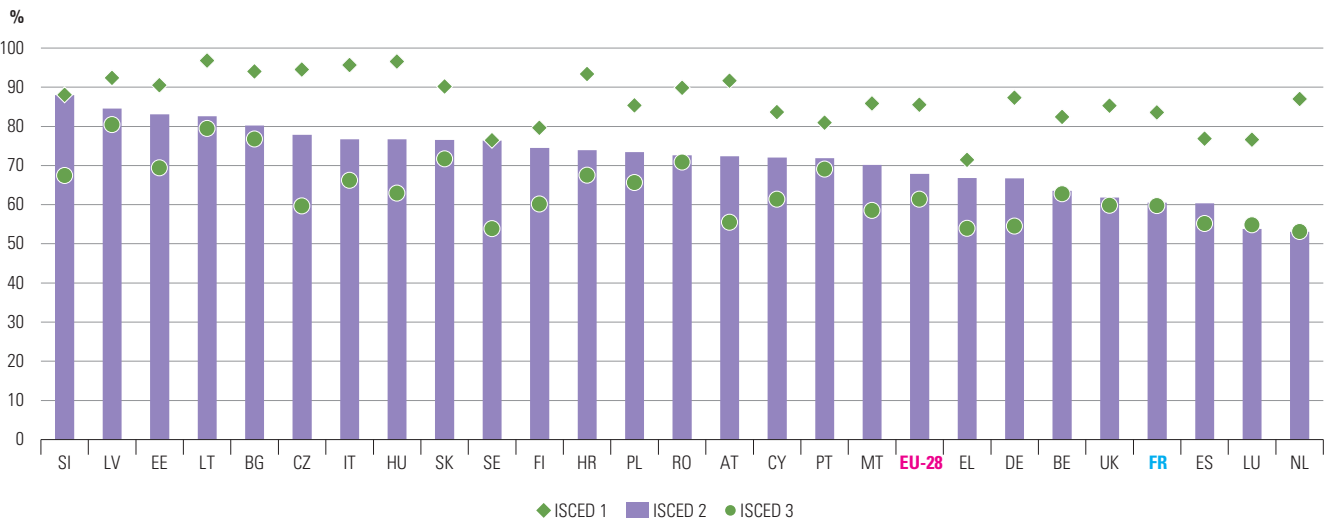
Source: Eurostat, educ_uoe_perp01.



Note: Data for Denmark and Ireland are not available.

4.1.2: Proportion of female teachers by ISCED level, 2017

Source: Eurostat, educ_uoe_perp01.



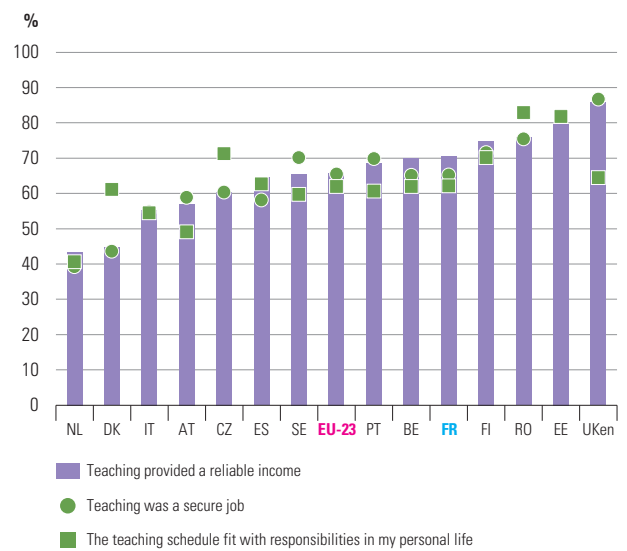
4.1.3: Statements by ISCED 2 teachers regarding their "social" motivation to join the profession, 2018

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.1.



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

Source: OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.1.



4.2 THE CONDITIONS OF PRACTICE OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, TEACHERS EARN LESS IN FRANCE THAN IN GERMANY, IN BELGIUM AND NORTHERN EUROPE

In 2017, in public primary education (ISCED 1), the **average actual salary**[□] of teachers (gross salary which, in contrast to the **average statutory salary**[□], includes bonuses, allowances and overtime) is lower in France (\$39 400 for a permanent teacher in 2016) than in Germany (68 700), England (41 500) and in northern European countries such as the Netherlands (54 600), Finland (46 300) or Sweden (44 500) (4.2.1). This finding takes into account differences in purchasing power (PPP)[□].

In secondary education, France is partly catching up in terms of remuneration, especially in the general upper secondary education (ISCED 34). For example, ISCED 1 teachers earn less in France than in England and Sweden, but ISCED 34 teachers earn, on average, more in France (\$51 000) than in these two other countries (46 900 and 47 300 respectively). The difference in the relative situation of France between ISCED 1 and ISCED 34 is partly explained by the presence, at ISCED 34, of *professeurs agrégés*, who are better paid than the *professeurs des écoles* at ISCED 1 (the latter do not work overtime).

Moreover, at all levels of education, salaries are higher in France than in the Baltic countries or in Eastern Europe (Poland, Slovenia, Czech and Slovak Republics). On the other hand, whatever the level of education, they are lower in France than in Germany, the Netherlands or the French Community of Belgium.

However, for many European countries, teacher remuneration also varies within national territories. In Germany, for example, the rules in this area are defined at the level of the federated states: by collective agreement of the public sector for teachers working under salaried status and by law for civil servants. At each level of education, this results in deviation from the national averages (weighted) presented here for Germany: the gap is particularly significant in the states such as Hamburg, good payers, and Rhineland-Palatinate, where salaries are among the lowest¹.

IN PRIMARY SCHOOL THERE ARE MORE PUPILS PER TEACHER IN FRANCE THAN ELSEWHERE IN EUROPE

In 2017, in the 28-member European Union, the **pupil-teacher ratio**[□] (number of pupils per teacher in full-time equivalents) is on average higher in primary education (around 13 pupils in pre-primary and 15 in primary) than in secondary education (12 in both cycles of secondary education): 4.2.2. Luxembourg, Greece, Lithuania, Poland and Hungary have particularly favourable rates in primary education (less than 11 pupils per teacher). At pre-primary level, this is the case in Sweden, Slovenia, Germany and Finland (fewer than 10 pupils).

France, with more than 19 pupils per teacher, has the highest rate in the EU in primary education. With more than 23 pupils per teacher, the country has the second highest rate in pre-primary education, where it is second only to the United Kingdom, with almost 25 pupils. If teacher aides are counted in addition to teachers (ATSEM in the case of France), as done by the OECD, the pupil-teacher ratio falls to 16 pupils per staff in France and to 12 pupils on average in the EU-23.

In lower secondary education in France, the pupil-teacher ratio (14 pupils per teacher) is better than in pre-primary and primary, but it is still higher than in all other countries except the Netherlands (16) and the United Kingdom (15). In upper secondary education (without distinction of track), the pupil-teacher ratio in France (11) is better than the EU-28 average (12) and especially that of the Netherlands (18) and the United Kingdom (17), but also Finland (18).

IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, A MINORITY OF COUNTRIES REGULATE A MANDATORY ATTENDANCE TIME FOR TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOL

For a large majority of European Union countries, **statutory teaching time**[□], defined in official texts, is more important in pre-primary and primary than in secondary education. In 2017-2018, in primary education (ISCED 1), the hourly volume in France (900 hours per year for the *professeurs des écoles*) is lower than in the Netherlands (930 hours), but higher than in many countries, such as Spain (880 h), Germany (800 h), Italy (755 h) or Finland (677 h). At lower secondary level ("collège", ISCED 24), it is again lower in France (684 h for the *professeurs certifiés*) than in the Netherlands (750 h), and also lower than in Germany (744 h) or Spain (713 h), while it is higher in France than in Italy (617 h) and Finland (592 h): 4.2.3.

In addition to teaching time, regulations applying to all or part of the national territory sometimes lay down a timeframe for the compulsory presence of teachers in the school, to teach and carry out other tasks relating, for example, to tutoring or supervision. At lower secondary level (ISCED 24), this is the case in Finland, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Scotland. In Finland, a recent reform has increased this attendance time by 24 hours per year for all teachers at all levels of education.

Finally, some countries also regulate an overall statutory working time, which formalizes all the tasks carried out by teachers, in schools or elsewhere, except those relating to overtime. In France, but also in Portugal, this time corresponds to the legal working time of all employees. In England, it is the only regulated hourly volume of work for teachers. ■

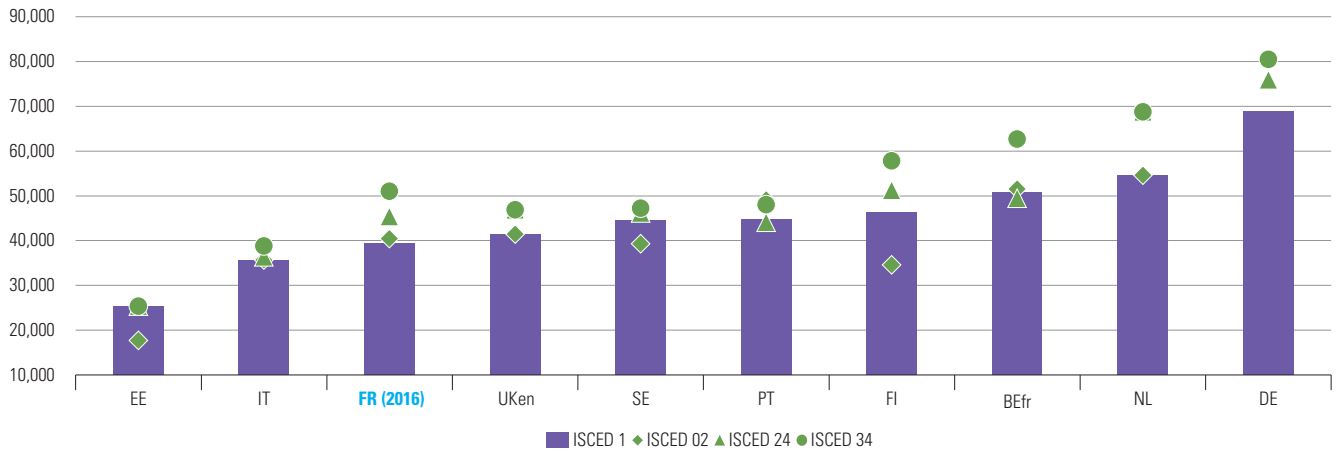
[□] See the definition p. 80.

¹ Scheller H., « Education Federalism in Germany », in Wong K.K. et al. (dir.) 2018, *Federalism and Education: Ongoing Challenges and Policy Strategies in Ten Countries*, Charlotte (USA), IPA : 111.

4.2.1: Gross annual actual salary of teachers (25-64 years old) in the public sector, working full time, 2017

OECD, EAG2019, table D3.4., joint OECD-Eurydice data collection.

\$ US, en PPA

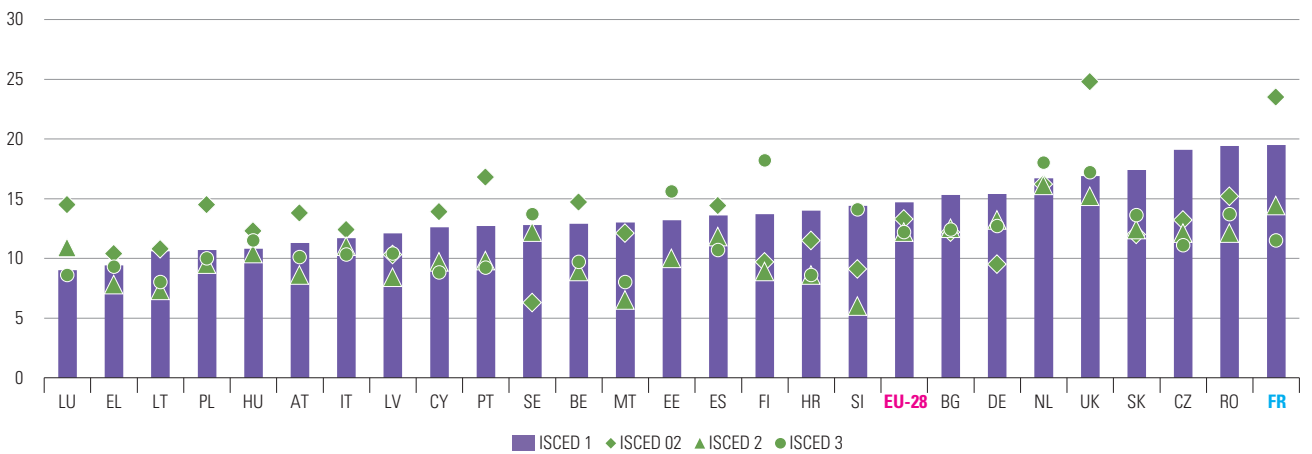


Note: ordered by ascending values for ISCED 1.

Scope: fully-qualified teachers according to national regulations (*titulaires* at each level in France, thus including the *agrégés* at secondary level). Reference year 2016 in FR. The EU average is not presented due to a lack of data for many countries. Joint OECD-Eurydice data collection.

4.2.2: Ratio of students to teaching staff in educational institutions, full-time equivalents, public and private sectors, 2017

Eurostat, *educ_uoe_perpo4*.

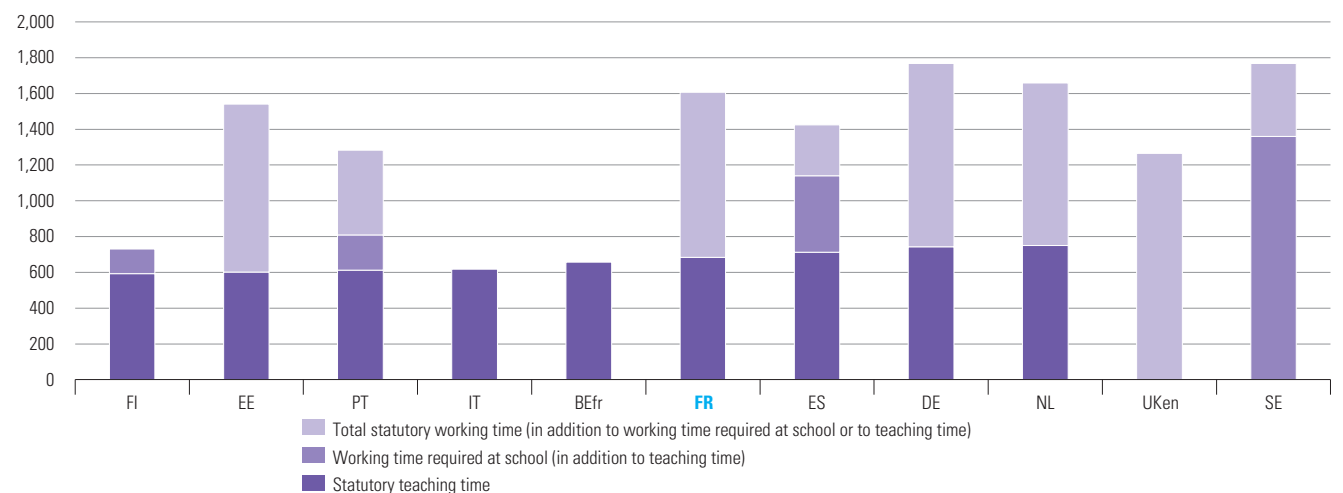


Note: ordered by ascending values for ISCED 1. Missing data for Ireland and Denmark. Scope for France : public and government-dependent private sector.

4.2.3: Regulation of teachers' working time in ISCED 24, according to official texts, public sector, in h/year, 2017-2018

OECD, EAG2019, tables D4.1a et D4.1b.

Hours



Note: ascending order of values for statutory teaching time. For France, teaching time corresponds to the weekly statutory teaching hours of the *certifiés* at ISCED level 2, increased by one "yearly additional hour" (HSA) and multiplied by 36 weeks.

4.3 INITIAL AND IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES, THE MASTER'S LEVEL IS REQUIRED TO TEACH IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In 2018, the minimum qualification required of future teachers sometimes varies significantly among OECD European Union countries (EU-23), particularly in the first levels of education. Indeed, in the Czech and Slovak Republics, only an ISCED 3 qualification is required to work in pre-primary education (4.3.1). In Portugal, the qualification required to teach at this level is the master's degree (ISCED 7). In France and Italy, in addition to having a master's degree, future teachers in pre-primary education must pass a competitive examination. In pre-primary and primary education, the most common qualification required for individuals wishing to become teachers is a bachelor's degree (e.g. England, Denmark, Spain). In both cycles of secondary education, in the EU-23, the minimum qualification is usually a Master's degree (in Germany, France, Italy or Spain).

Among the lower secondary teachers who participated in the **TALIS 2018 survey**¹ in the 23 EU countries, only 2% on average have not attained an ISCED level of tertiary education (1% in France). Still on average in European countries, 58% of teachers have at least a master's level (70% in France), and 38% have a bachelor's degree, i.e. ISCED 6 (28% in France). It should be noted, however, that the "master's" degree according to the TALIS 2018 questionnaire may include, in France, the former diploma of "*maîtrise*", now classified in ISCED 6 but corresponding, in terms of the number of years after the *baccalauréat*, to the first year of a master's degree (M1).

VERY HIGH PARTICIPATION IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT, BUT ITS EFFECTIVENESS NOT UNIVERSALLY RECOGNISED

In the TALIS 2018 survey, the participation rate of ISCED 2 teachers in professional development activities in the 12 months preceding the survey was very high, with an EU-23 average of 92% (4.3.2). The minimum is observed in France (83%) and the maximum in Austria, Latvia and Lithuania (99%). It should be noted, however, that the concept of "professional development" used by the OECD has a broader meaning than the one usually given to the continuing education: it can include forms of self-training such as simply reading professional literature.

In many European countries, however, far fewer teachers who have participated in at least one in-service training activity in the last 12 months consider such training to be effective. On ave-

rage, 79% of them say that the development activities they have undertaken in the last 12 months have had a positive impact on their teaching practices, only 69% in Belgium, 71% in Denmark and France and 73% in Sweden agree with this statement.

In 2016-2017, in-service teacher training was compulsory in 22 EU-28 countries (at pre-primary and primary level in France), whether or not its annual duration was defined. Only six EU countries, including France (at secondary level), gave in-service teacher education optional status. The Law for a School of Trust promulgated in 2019 introduces a training obligation for all teachers in France.

INITIAL TRAINING IN PEDAGOGY IS UNEVEN IN EUROPE

The TALIS survey highlights the different experiences of European ISCED 2 teachers with regard to initial teacher education (4.3.3). On average in the 23 EU countries participating in TALIS 2018, 83% of teachers report having received some 'general pedagogy' (general teaching methods) during their initial teacher education. 84% reported that 'classroom practice in some or all subjects they teach' (as distinct from general pedagogy) was included in their initial teacher education. Finally, only 53% of them stated that they had been trained in "the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) for teaching".

However, this information needs to be qualified because of memory bias, which particularly affects the responses of teachers who have received their initial training in the relatively distant past. Pre-service teacher education may also have changed significantly over time. Therefore, the answers of teachers newly entering the profession, i.e. no more than five years prior to the survey, are particularly informative. In the vast majority of European countries (except, however, Cyprus, Spain and France), the proportion of ISCED 2 teachers newly entering the profession who report having completed initial training in 'general pedagogy' is over 90% (72% in France).

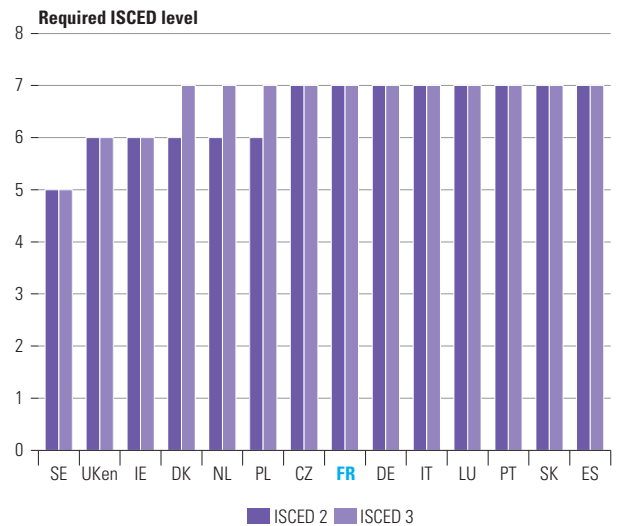
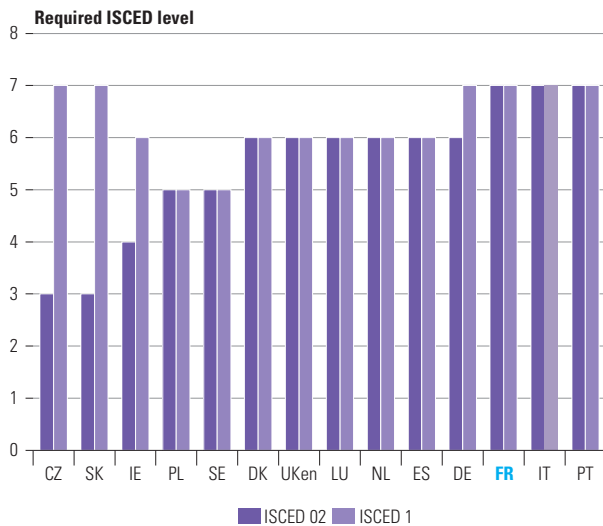
As for training in the use of ICT, again we observe only the responses of teachers with less seniority in the profession: those for whom initial training is more distant in time were less exposed to this teaching. Thus, more than 90% of teachers with less than five years' seniority in Malta say they have had such training (the minimum rate of 68% is observed in Austria). France, with 80% of new teachers declaring that they have been trained in the use of ICT, is in a situation similar to that of England, Belgium or Estonia. ■

¹ See the source p. 84.

1. Eurydice, *Teaching Careers in Europe: Access, Progression and Support 2018*, fig 3.4.

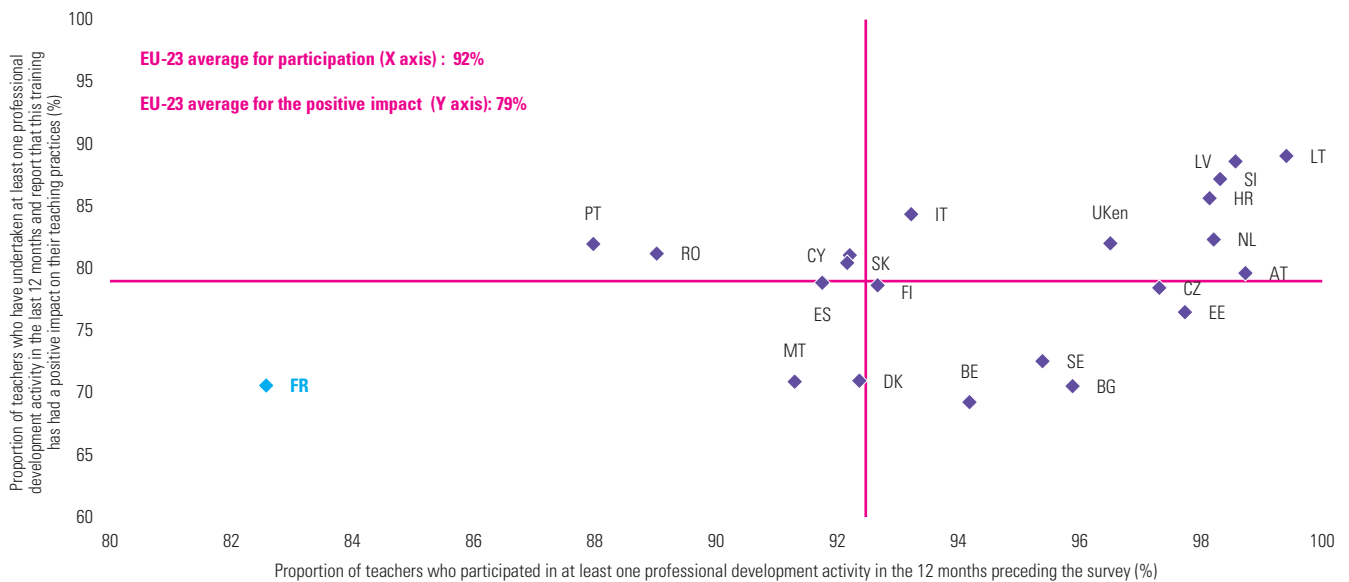
4.3.1: Qualification requirements to enter the teaching profession by ISCED level of teaching, 2018

OECD, EAG2019, table X3.D3.2.



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

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.5.1 and I.5.15.



Note: responses presented on the Y axis are those of the sub-group of teachers who also reported having participated in at least one training activity during the previous 12 months.

4.3.3: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who graduated less than 5 years ago from initial teacher education and who report that the following content was included in their formal education or training

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.13.



Note: the EU-23 average is not calculated for teachers leaving initial teacher education less than five years ago in 2018.

4.4 TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE PROFESSION

EUROPEAN TEACHERS DO NOT REGRET THEIR CHOICE OF CAREER BUT FEEL THAT IT IS NOT VALUED BY SOCIETY

The **TALIS 2018 survey**[□] highlights the fact that few teachers regret having chosen this profession and, at the same time, quite a few feel that it is not highly valued by society. Indeed, on average of the 23 EU countries participating in the OECD survey, only 9% of teachers in ISCED 2 say they regret having chosen this profession, but only 18% of teachers at this level of education say they feel that their profession is valued in society **(4.4.1)**.

As regards regret about the choice of profession, many countries are close to the European average (Belgium, Finland, France and Italy) and therefore have low proportions of teachers who regret their choice. However, some countries have high proportions of teachers making this statement: the United Kingdom (13%), Lithuania (16%) and Portugal (22%).

At the same time, 16 EU-23 countries, including Denmark, Spain, France and Sweden, have at most 18% of teachers who consider their profession to be valued by society. This feeling is much stronger in Finland (58%) and the Netherlands (31%) than in France (7%), Slovenia (6%) or Slovakia (5%).

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

In 2018, on average of the 23 countries of the European Union participating in the TALIS survey, 16% of ISCED 2 teachers report high job stress **(4.4.2)**. In the EU-23, more than one in five teachers in seven countries (including Belgium, Hungary or Portugal) reports this, with a maximum of 38% in England. Romania has the lowest proportion of highly stressed teachers in the EU-23 (5%). France, with 11% of highly stressed teachers, is in a more favourable situation than European countries on average.

Moreover, it is teachers aged under 30 years who more often report stress at work: between the two generations of teachers, the gap is particularly large in Estonia and England (10 percentage points), the Netherlands (9) and Finland (8), while it is 5 points in France. Only Bulgaria has a lower proportion of stressed

individuals among young people than among older teachers (11 percentage points in favour of young people).

Many other indicators could be linked to this one. For example, it is interesting to note, particularly in England, that many teachers report stress at work (38%) and few (23%) report that their job leaves time for private life **(4.4.3)**. In France and Italy, among others, few teachers report high stress (11% and 6% respectively) and a large majority of teachers report having free time (77% and 68%), which positions these countries favourably in the EU-23.

YOUNG TEACHERS ARE MUCH MORE SATISFIED WITH THEIR SALARY THAN OLDER TEACHERS

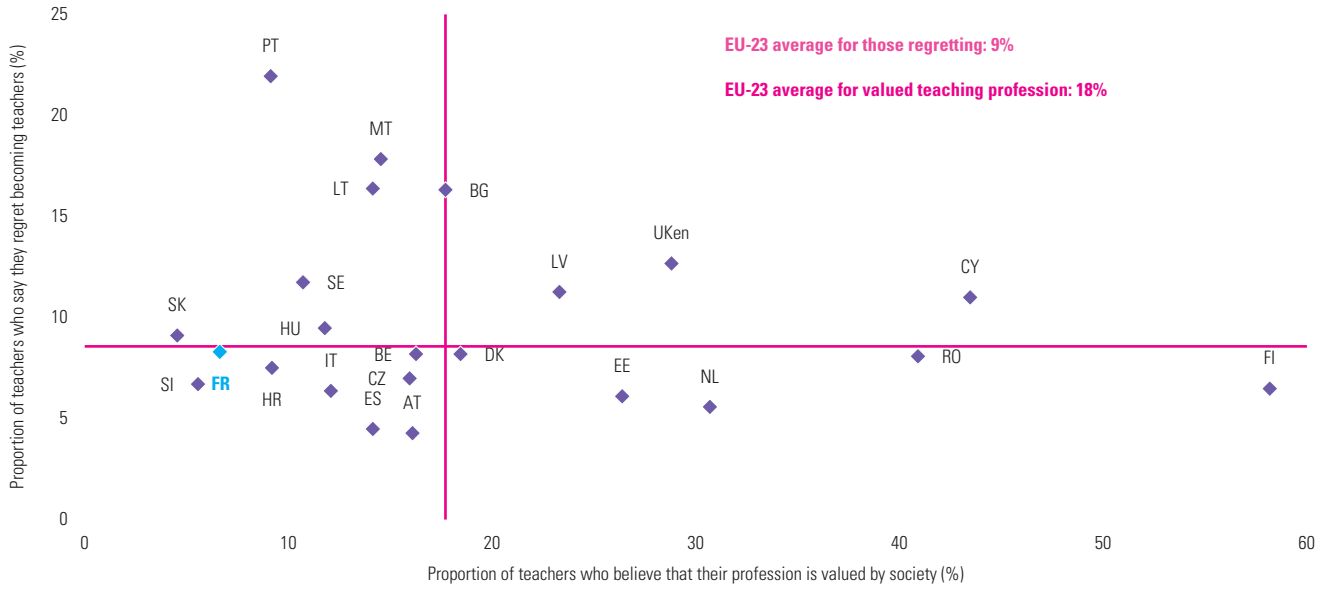
In the TALIS 2018 survey, teachers are asked whether they are satisfied with their salaries. The answer to this question is positive for only 38% of teachers in the EU-23. Teachers in Austria and Belgium are the most numerous to be satisfied with their salaries (respectively 70% and 65%), while they are the least numerous in Lithuania (11%) and Portugal (9%). It should be noted, however, that the responses differ according to age: on average of the in the 23 EU countries participating in TALIS 2018, 52% of teachers under 30 years of age say they are satisfied with their remuneration, while this proportion falls to 34% for teachers over 50 years of age **(4.4.4)**.

However, in 5 EU-23 countries (Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Romania and the Slovak Republic), less than 30% of young teachers consider their remuneration to be favourable (16% in the Slovak Republic) compared to more than 60% in 5 others (Austria, Belgium, Spain, Denmark and Italy), with the highest value being observed in Denmark (81%). As for teachers aged over 50, only in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus and Denmark are more than 60% satisfied with their pay, while in 4 other countries (Italy, Latvia, Lithuania and the Slovak Republic) the figure is less than 20%. Teachers in Austria, Belgium and Denmark thus seem relatively satisfied with their pay at all ages. In France, 45% of teachers under 30 and 26% of those over 50 say they are satisfied with their salary, lower than the European average across all age groups. Two cases should also be noted: Cyprus and Italy. The first has the most positive difference between the two age groups, with a 39-point gain in satisfaction for older teachers, while the second has the most negative difference, with a 50-point 'loss' in satisfaction for teachers over 50. ■

[□] See the source p. 84.

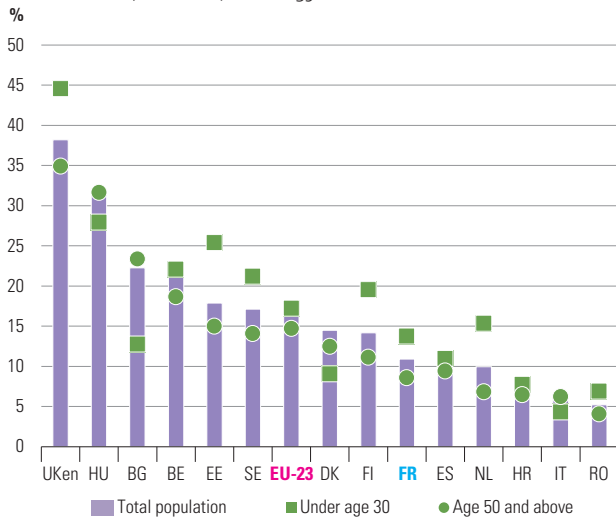
4.4.1: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who believe that their profession is valued in society and proportion of teachers who say they regret becoming teachers, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.34.



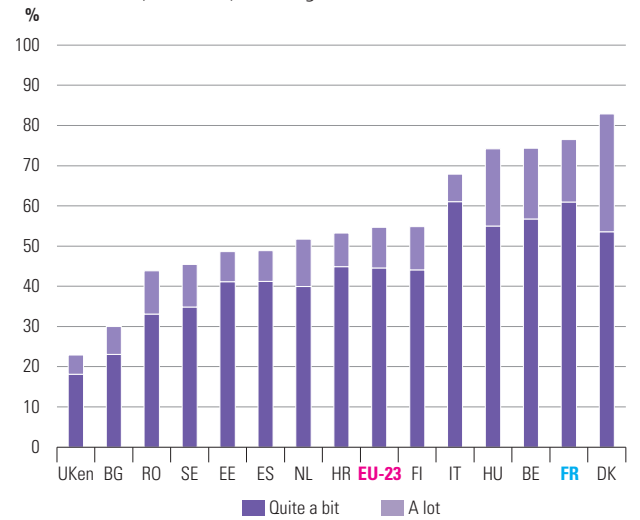
4.4.2: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who declare experiencing stress at work "a lot" by age, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.2.39.



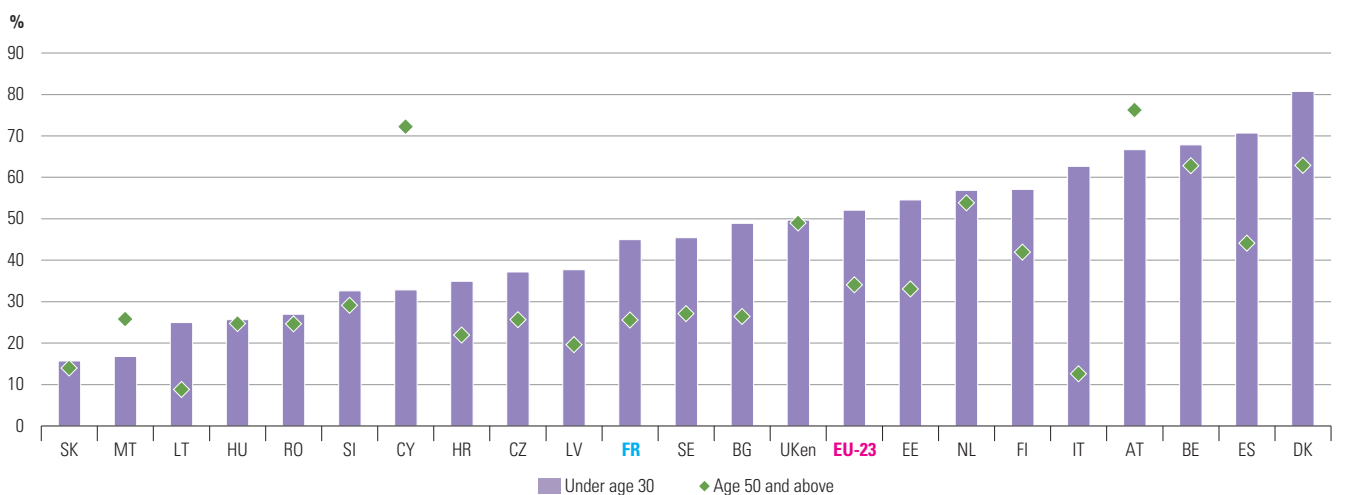
4.4.3: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who declare that their job leave them time for their personal life, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.2.36.



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

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.3.56.



4.5 TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL AND PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES

LITTLE COLLABORATION AMONG TEACHERS IN ASSESSING STUDENTS

The **TALIS 2018**¹ survey explores the professional practices of ISCED 2 teachers, including collaboration between them. The data collected are the result of teacher self-reports. Figure **4.5.1a** focuses on teachers who report engaging in 'at least once a week' or 'between one and three times a month' in collaborative practices for pedagogical purposes, i.e. learner-centred.

In 2018, in the 23 European countries that participated in the survey, more than half of the teachers (67%) report discussing the progress made by specific pupils. On the other hand, as shown in Figure **4.5.1a**, fewer teachers report attending team conferences (47%), and more importantly, working with other teachers in their school to ensure common standards in evaluation for assessing student progress (40%). In some countries, however, collaboration among teachers appears to be more frequent. Thus, it is in Sweden that teachers report spending the most time per week on it (3.3 hours on average): **4.5.1 b**. In France, collaboration between teachers is much lower.

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

IN THE CLASSROOM, "ACTIVE" TEACHING PRACTICES, WHERE THE STUDENT LEARNS BY DOING, ARE UNCOMMON

The TALIS 2018 survey also asks ISCED 2 teachers about teaching practices implemented in the classroom. Among the most shared, there are activities that structure learning. On average in Europe, 81% of teachers report they "often" or "always" set goals at the beginning of instruction, and 85% say they explain how new and old topics are related.

Many teachers (73%) also refer to a problem from everyday life or world to demonstrate why new knowledge is useful (**4.5.2**), particularly in Eastern Europe and the countries of Southern Europe. A comparable proportion says that they let students practice similar tasks until they know that every student had understood the subject matter (70%). The **PISA 2018**² data also showed that this type of teacher support for students was positively correlated with students' performance in reading

literacy in a majority of countries¹. In the case of repetition of similar exercises, France and Finland are below the European average. It should be noted, however, that the TALIS data (**4.5.2**) do not show the individualised support systems that may otherwise exist in these countries (such as *accompagnement personnalisé et devoirs faits* in France) and constitute another form of support for the pupil.

Among the least recurrent classroom practices, two are representative of 'active' pedagogies, such as letting pupils use ICT (information and communication technologies) for projects or class work (46%), or encouraging cooperation among pupils by having them work in small groups (47%): **4.5.2**. However, these averages conceal a wide variety of situations. While small group work seems to be a widely adopted practice in Denmark (80%), less than a third of teachers say they use it frequently in the Czech Republic (27%), Slovenia (28%) or Croatia (31%). Again, the PISA 2018 data indicate a potentially positive effect of some practices: in particular, they show that cooperation between students is associated with higher performance and student well-being².

PUPIL SELF-EVALUATION: A LITTLE DEVELOPED PRACTICE IN EUROPE

The TALIS survey provides information on different methods used by ISCED 2 teachers to assess pupil learning (**4.5.3**). In Europe, the vast majority of teachers surveyed (80%) stated that they 'often' or 'always' administer their own assessment. Fewer (63%) report that they "often" or "always" provide a written feedback on student work in addition to the mark (i.e. numeric score or letter grade). Only six countries exceed these two averages: France, Spain, Belgium, Portugal, Malta and Cyprus. Teachers in these countries are also the ones who report spending more time per week correcting students' papers than the European average.

In contrast, on average few teachers use student self-evaluation. In the 23 European countries of TALIS 2018, 36% of teachers report that they let their students evaluate their own progress. The use of this assessment method varies considerably between countries: only 21% of teachers say they use this approach in France compared to 69% in England. In France, although little developed in 2018 (21%), this practice is nevertheless slightly higher than in TALIS 2013 (+4 percentage points). ■

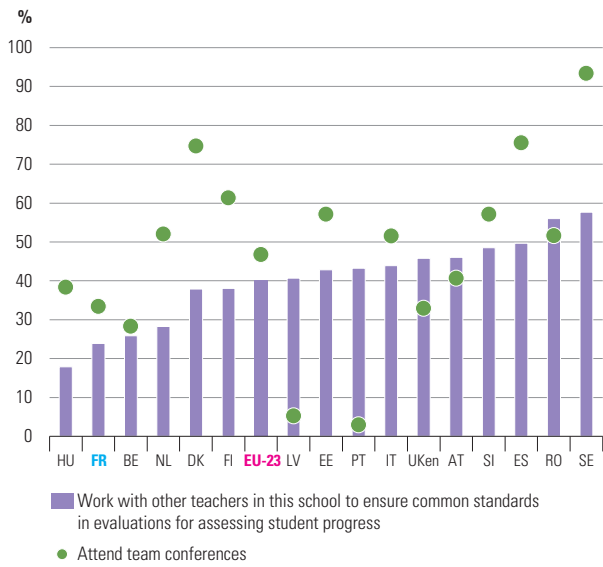
¹ See the source p. 84.

¹. Source: OECD, PISA 2018, vol. III.

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

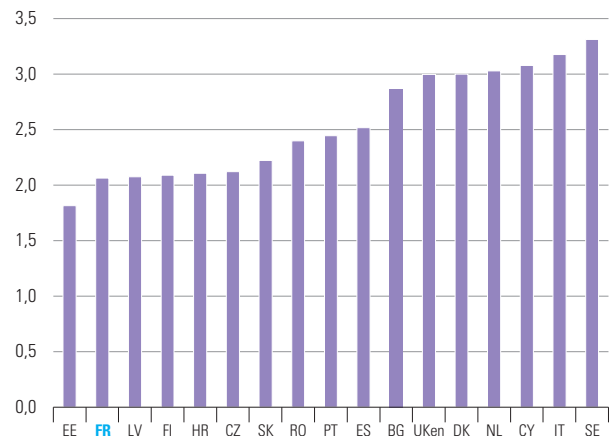
4.5.1 a: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers who report engaging at least once a month in the following collaborative activities in their school, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.4.1.



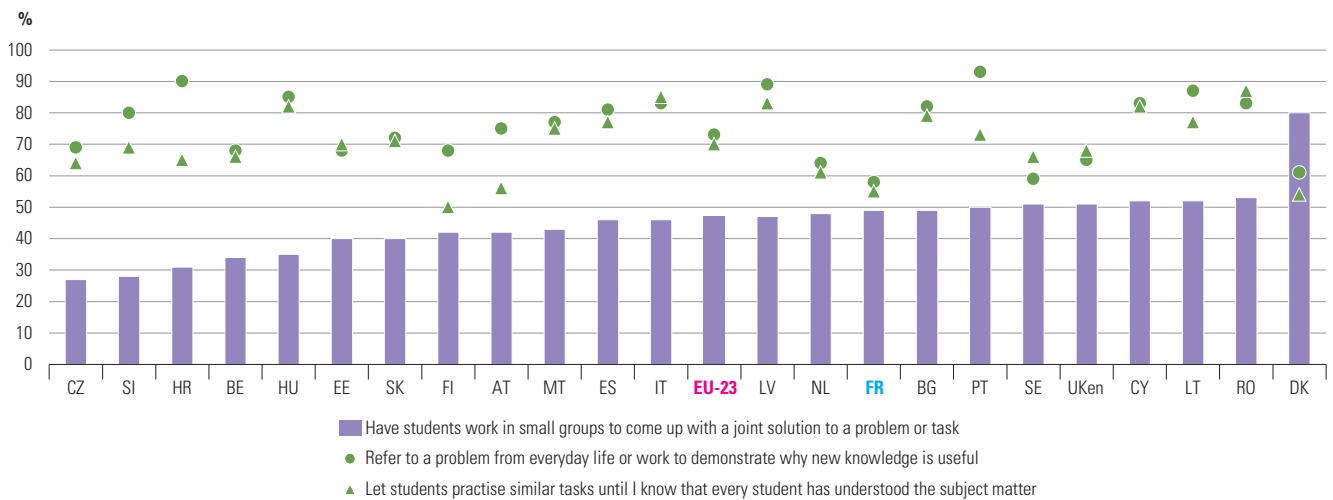
4.5.1 b: Average number of hours teachers report having spent on team work and dialogue with colleagues within the school during the most recent complete calendar week, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table II.4.5.



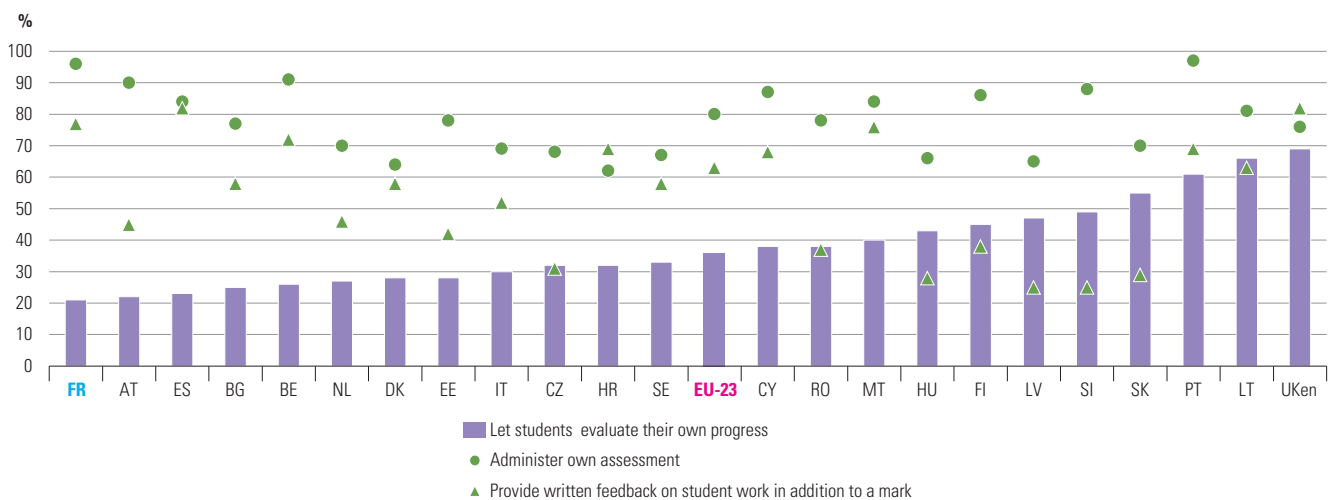
4.5.2: Percentage of teachers who reported that they "frequently" or "always" use the following practices in their class, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.2.1.



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

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.2.6.



A MAJORITY OF FEMALE SCHOOL HEADS IN LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN EUROPE

TALIS 2018¹ places France, together with the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Finland, among the countries where the position of school head in lower secondary education is more often held by a man than a woman. While women account for 41% of lower secondary school heads in France, the EU-23 average for this level of education is 54%, 69% in Sweden and Italy and 84% in Latvia (4.6.1). This ratio is reversed in primary education: among the five countries for which comparable data on school head in primary education exist, France has the highest proportion of female school heads (75%) and Denmark the lowest (44%). It should be remembered that teachers everywhere in the European Union are mostly female, whether in primary or lower secondary education (cf. 4.1).

TWO THIRDS OF MASTER'S GRADUATES AMONG LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS IN EUROPE

The proportion of heads of *collège* (ISCED 2) in France (67%) declaring that they hold at least a master's degree is close to the average of the 23 EU countries participating in TALIS 2018 (70%) and significantly higher than in the UK (49%), although lower than in Finland (96%): 4.6.2. As with teachers, this proportion may include staff with the former master's degree (see 4.3). Nevertheless, it should be noted that a large proportion of school heads in France (10%) have at most ISCED 5 level (e.g. BTS or DUT), a proportion which is much lower everywhere else, except in Austria (49%).

In this context, it is important to note the relatively low participation of school heads in continuing education in France (in the sense of "professional development": cf. 4.3). On average in the EU-23 countries, ISCED 2 school heads report 5.5 training activities in the 12 months preceding the TALIS 2018 survey; in France, they report only 4.3, which is the lowest number reported among all participating countries (5.3 in Finland, 6.1 in the United Kingdom): 4.6.3. According to TALIS 2018, France is still the country with the lowest number of all countries reporting at least one activity undertaken (94%) compared with the EU-23 average of 99%.

With regard to school heads in primary education - where comparability from TALIS 2018 onwards is very limited due to a lack of data for many countries - France stands out again. Among these

staff in France, 25% have no qualifications above short tertiary education (ISCED 5) - but their average age is high compared to that of school heads with higher qualifications - compared to 12% among their counterparts in Sweden, 3% in the United Kingdom and 0% in the Flemish Community of Belgium. There are 31% of managers with at least a master's degree in France, 15% in the United Kingdom and 4% in the Flemish Community, but 49% in Sweden (4.6.2). As with the heads of *collège*, the heads of *école* (ISCED 1) in France report very little recent training activity: 2.2, compared with 5.2 in Sweden and 6.6 in the United Kingdom (4.6.3). They are also less likely to take part in it: only 71% report having undertaken at least one, compared with almost 100% in the other European countries (Denmark, Sweden, Spain, the Flemish Community and the United Kingdom).

SCHOOL HEADS PAID AS TEACHERS IN SOME EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

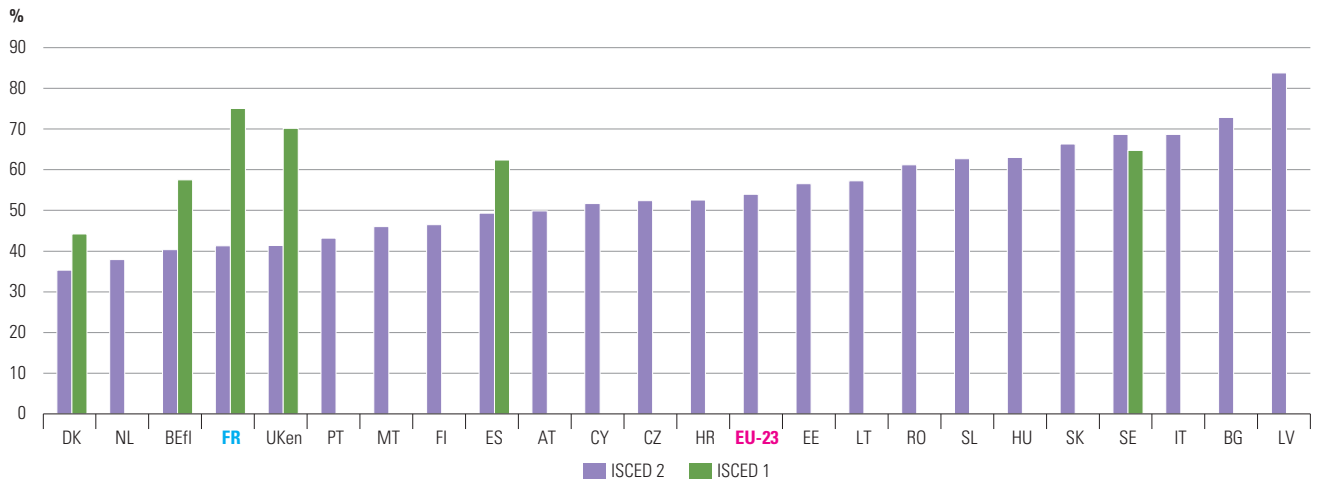
The average actual salaries received by the management staff in France are intermediate within those of the European countries for which data are available (4.6.4). However, while the average remuneration of ISCED 2 school heads in France is close to that of their colleagues in Finland (70 100 and 74 000 PPP US\$ respectively), school heads in primary education in France earn a salary (52 700) closer to that of their colleagues in Eastern European countries, particularly Slovenia (53 000). This pay gap between *école* (ISCED 1) and *collège* (ISCED 2) in France is explained by the fact that primary school heads are paid as teachers (with salaries that are also lower than at other levels of education), although a management bonus supplements their basic salary. This system, which is specific to primary education in France (management responsibility but mainly teacher remuneration), is present in a few other countries, but in both primary and secondary education: in Ireland, the Iberian peninsula and several Eastern European countries including the Czech Republic and Poland. Elsewhere, there are separate salary scales for management staff¹.

As with teacher salaries (cf. 4.2), it should also be noted that, in the case of primary and secondary school heads, national averages mask sub-national variations that are often much greater than in France, due to a more active role of decentralized authorities. In England, for example, the *governing* bodies of public schools may grant management staff (at primary and secondary level) a salary of up to 25% higher than the maximum defined in the regulations, on the basis of their experience or skills. ■

1. Eurydice, *Teachers' and School Heads' Salaries and Allowances in Europe 2017/2018*.

4.6.1: Proportion of female school heads, by ISCED level of service, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.3.21 and table I.3.21.

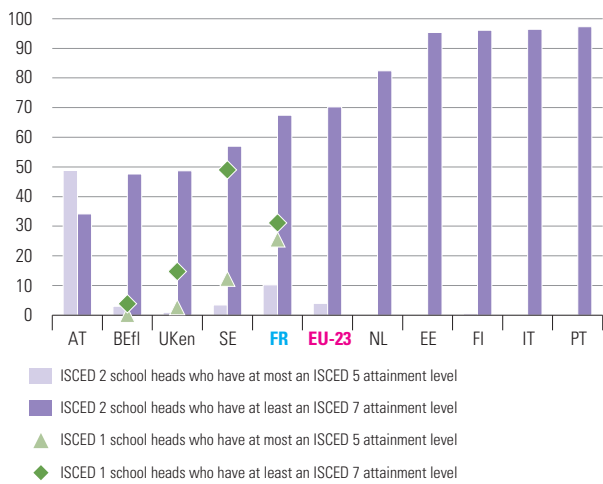


Note: Data available for few European countries in ISCED 1.

4.6.2: Highest level of educational attainment of school heads, by ISCED level of service, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.4.24 and table I.4.25.

% of school heads by level of qualification



4.6.3: Professional development undertaken by school heads (ISCED 1 and 2) in the 12 months preceding the survey, 2018

OECD, TALIS 2018, table I.5.10 and table I.5.11.

Average number of reported activities

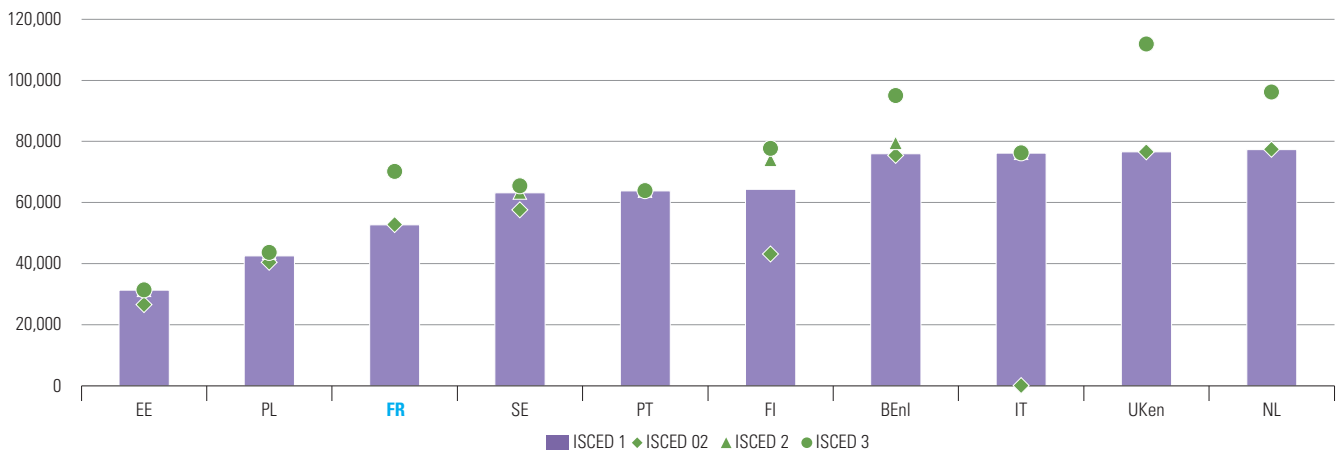


Notes: With regard to the qualification levels of school heads, countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of ISCED 2 master's graduates. Data available for few European countries in ISCED 1.

4.6.4: Gross actual annual salaries of school heads (25-64 years old) in the public sector, by ISCED level of service, in 2017

OECD, EAG2019, table D3.2a.

\$ US, PPP



Note: See Figure 4.2.1. Missing data for actual salaries of school heads in Germany. Data missing for ISCED 02 in Italy.



CHAPTER 5

PERFORMANCE AND EQUITY OUTCOMES OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

"Education and Training 2020"

Early Education and Training leavin

The level of education of young Europeans

PISA 2018: the skills of European 15-year-old students

PISA 2018: Socio-economic background and student competencies

TIMSS et PIRLS : International Assessments in 4th grade

ICILS 2018: Assessing digital skills in the 8th grade

FOCUS

The global Sustainable development goal in education,
from a gender perspective

ZOOM

A common strategy driven by the European Commission

Education and training policies have become particularly important in the European Union (EU) since the adoption of the Lisbon strategy in 2000. The Lisbon Strategy makes "knowledge" the mainstay of economic and social development. One year later, the Member States and the European Commission defined a framework for cooperation in the field of education and training. The current strategic framework was established in 2009 and is entitled "Education and Training 2020". The countries are pursuing the Community objectives, but they are also setting national objectives, more adapted to their situation, in the case of the two key indicators, i.e. those on early school leavers and on higher education graduates. These two indicators are also included in the National Reform Programmes. These set out the structural reforms planned by the Member States to respond to the major economic challenges and to achieve the objectives of the overall strategy, "Europe 2020", which aims at "smart, sustainable and inclusive growth".

SIX BENCHMARKS ARE CURRENTLY BEING FOLLOWED

The European Union (EU) has set itself six education and training targets for 2020, which are monitored statistically on an annual basis:

1. *Early school leavers*: the proportion of young people aged 18 to 24 who left the school system without a diploma and who are not in training during the four weeks preceding the survey should not exceed 10% (cf. 5.2);
2. *Higher education graduates*: The proportion of persons aged 30-34 years who are graduates of higher education should be at least 40% (cf. 5.3);
3. *Early childhood education*: at least 95% of children between the age of 4 years and the age of entry to compulsory primary education should participate in educational development or pre-primary education schemes;
4. *The level of proficiency in reading, mathematics and science*: The proportion of 15-year-olds with low proficiency in each of the domains assessed in PISA is expected to be below 15% (see 5.4);
5. *Lifelong learning*: The proportion of adults aged 25-64 participating in lifelong learning activities should be at least 15%;
6. *The employment rate of young graduates*: The **employment rate** ¹ of upper secondary and tertiary education graduates aged 20-34 who have been out of the education and training system for up to three years should be at least 82%.

A seventh target - on the mobility of young people with initial vocational training or higher education qualifications - has also been set, but is not yet fully monitored by Eurostat.

Countries are also setting national targets more appropriate to their situation for early school leavers and higher education graduates. For example, in the case of early school leavers, France has set a more binding target of 9.5%, Croatia has set a more binding target of 4% and Spain a less demanding target of 15%.

THE COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION WITH REGARD TO THE SEVEN BENCHMARKS

By 2018, no European Union country has achieved all the targets. Two targets are achieved for the average EU country: the one on higher education graduates and the one on early childhood education. In total, in 2018, 7 countries (including Finland, France and Poland) have achieved 4 targets, and 4 countries (Austria, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden) have achieved 5 (**5.1.1 and 5.1.2**). The objective concerning sufficient mastery in the 3 PISA domains is the least often achieved by the countries. In 2018, Estonia, Finland and Poland are the only EU countries to have achieved all three sub-targets. Finally, in 2018, only 8 countries including Denmark, France and the Netherlands have reached or exceeded the EU target for adult participation in training.

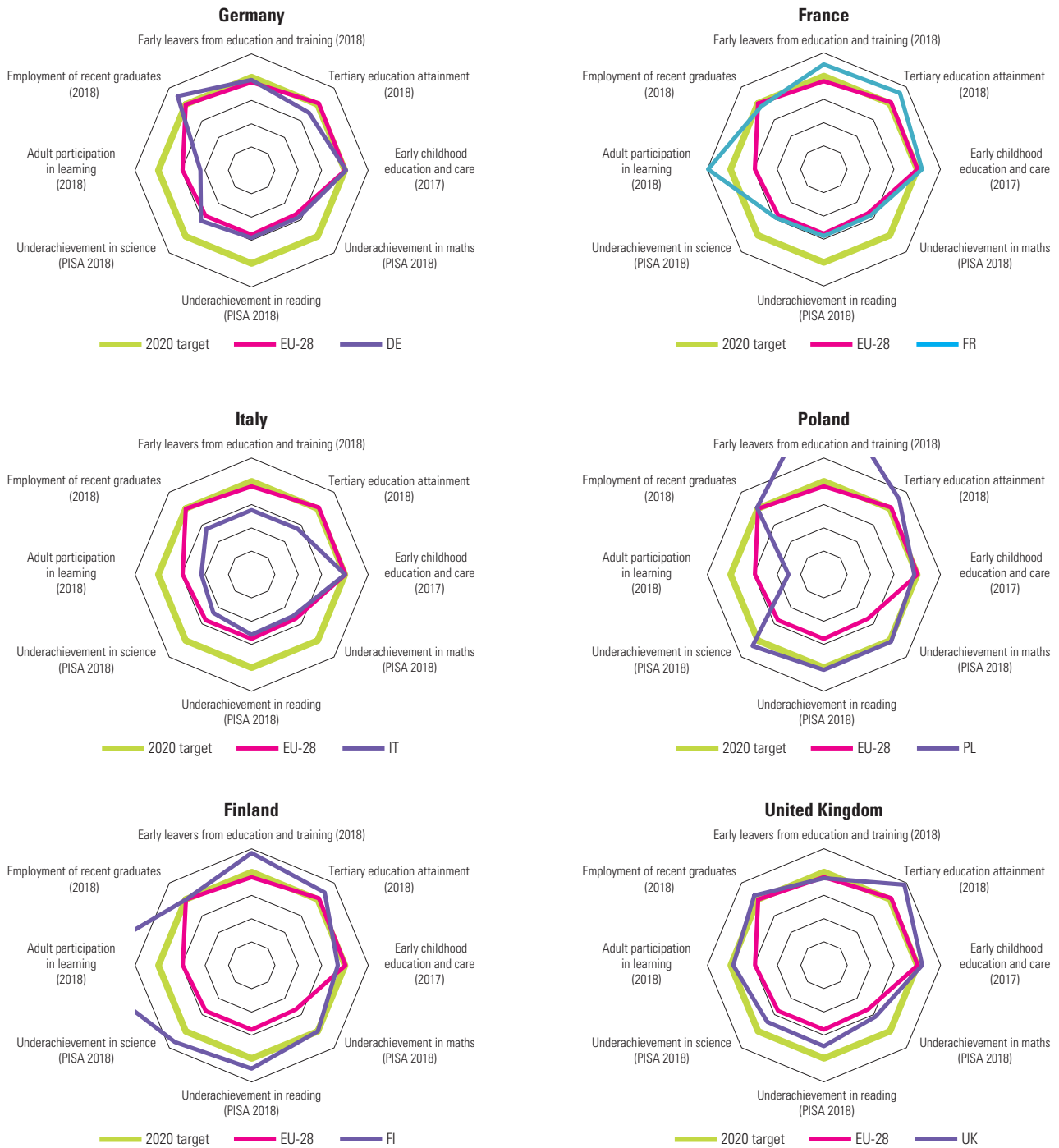
France lags behind on two targets: that concerning the skills of 15-year-olds (regardless of the field observed) and that concerning the employment rate of young graduates.

To respond directly or indirectly to these objectives, countries are developing reforms in different aspects of their education systems. In 2018, Finland has introduced a major reform aimed at improving quality and participation in early childhood education and care (e.g. recruitment of teachers at master's level, lowering costs for families from disadvantaged backgrounds). In Spain, a programme aimed in particular at supporting pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds was launched at the end of 2018 to reduce school failure and in particular early school leaving. Finally, in Germany, a law of January 2019 increases financial support for the training of certain employees (e.g. those whose jobs are in danger of disappearing with the digitisation of the economy), and thus aims to improve the participation of adults in training¹. ■

1. European Commission, *Education and Training Monitor 2019*, Volume 2, 2019.

5.1.1: Relative position of different countries with respect to the Education and Training 2020 targets, 2018

Source: Eurostat, edat_lfse_o3, edat_lfse_14, edat_lfse_24, trng_lfs_o1, educ_uoe_enra10, educ_outc_pisa.



5.1.2: Results of each country presented in figure 5.1.1 with respect to the Education and Training 2020 targets, 2018

Source: Eurostat, edat_lfse_o3, edat_lfse_14, edat_lfse_24, trng_lfs_o1, educ_uoe_enra10, educ_outc_pisa.

	Early leavers from education and training (2018)	Tertiary education attainment (2018)	Early childhood education and care (2017)	Underachievement (PISA 2018)			Adult participation in learning (2018)	Employment of recent graduates (2018)
				Maths	Reading	Science		
EU-28	10,5	40,7	95,4	22,4	21,7	21,6	11,1	81,7
DE	10,3	34,9	96,4	21,1	20,7	19,6	8,2	92,1
FR	8,7	46,2	100,0	21,3	20,9	20,5	18,6	78,0
IT	14,5	27,8	95,1	23,8	23,3	25,9	8,1	56,5
PL	4,8	45,7	91,9	14,7	14,7	13,8	5,7	83,1
FI	8,3	44,2	87,8	15,0	13,5	12,9	28,5	81,7
UK	10,7	48,8	100,0	19,2	17,3	17,4	14,6	86,7

Note: Figures in bold represent the cases where the target is achieved.

ZOOM

What is an early leaving from education and training?

A young person is in a situation of early leaving from education and training when he or she meets the following characteristics: he or she is aged 18 to 24, has a low level of education, has left the school system and was not attending any **formal or non-formal education**[□] in the four weeks preceding the survey. Low educational attainment' (ISCED 0-2) refers to qualifications equivalent to or lower than the end of lower secondary education or to programmes that do not validate full completion of ISCED level 3. In France, early school leavers do not have a CAP, BEP or higher qualification. As a reminder, in the Education and Training 2020 strategy, the target is to have less than 10% early school leavers (see 5.1).

A GENERAL DECLINE IN EARLY LEAVING IN EUROPE

In 2018, in the European Union, the average rate of early school leavers is 11%. Spain and Malta have the highest rate: 18% (5.2.1). In 2018, 17 countries (including Finland, France, Ireland and Poland) have already achieved the Education and Training 2020 objective (less than 10% early school leavers on average in the EU-28). There has been a general decline in early school leaving in the EU: the EU average fell from 14% to 11% between 2009 and 2018. During this period, the trend was similar for both sexes (5.2.2). However, the gender gap, which continues to benefit women, has narrowed slightly: from 4 percentage points in 2009 to 3 percentage points in 2018.

In some countries, proactive and coordinated policy interventions appear to have contributed to a decline in early leaving. In Portugal, for example, the rate of early school leavers (18-24 year olds) fell from 30.9% in 2009 to 11.8% (a decrease of 19.1 percentage points, the highest in the EU-28 over the period). Many reforms and strategies have been put in place in the country since 2012. In particular, the "national plan to promote success at school", launched at the start of the 2016-2017 school year, includes new assessment mechanisms in primary and lower secondary education and a tutoring system for repeaters. The plan is based on close cooperation between local education authorities and local clusters of schools¹.

WOMEN, LESS CONFRONTED WITH EARLY LEAVING BUT MORE PENALIZED IN THE LABOUR MARKET

In 2018, women are less likely than men to leave education and training early. In Denmark, Spain, Estonia, Latvia and Portugal, the gender gap reaches or exceeds 5 percentage points. France, with a gender gap of 4 percentage points, is close to the EU average. However, while men are more often affected than women by early school leaving, women are more likely than men to be inactive when they leave early. This indicates a greater distance from the labour market in the case of women. However, the relatively high employment rate of early school leavers in some countries does not prejudge the quality of their jobs for either men or women.

Only a few EU-28 countries are mainstreaming gender in their policies to combat early school leaving. For example, in Sweden, the main objective of the "#jagmed" programme (literally "me too") is to identify and prevent school drop-out situations, as well as to get students who have already dropped out to return to school. This regional program targets both male and female students between the ages of 15 and 24. One of its thrusts is school guidance counselling aimed at reducing the number of school dropouts by acting on the gender stereotypes that traditionally weigh on the choice of education.

A PARTLY MEASUREMENT-DEPENDENT COMPARISON

The comparison of early school leavers across countries needs to be qualified as it depends partly on how countries have classified their degrees in the ISCED 2011 framework. For example, in Malta, whose education system is very similar to that of the United Kingdom, students take the *Secondary Education Certificate* (SEC, see 1.1) examination at the beginning of upper secondary education. Prior to the introduction of ISCED 2011, this enabled them to reach ISCED level 2. In England, a very similar examination was used to validate an ISCED 3 level, which is why Malta reclassified its examination to ISCED 3. A Eurostat simulation exercise over the years 2010 and 2011 showed that the reclassification from ISCED 2 to ISCED 3 alone lowered the early school leaving indicator in Malta by more than 10 points.

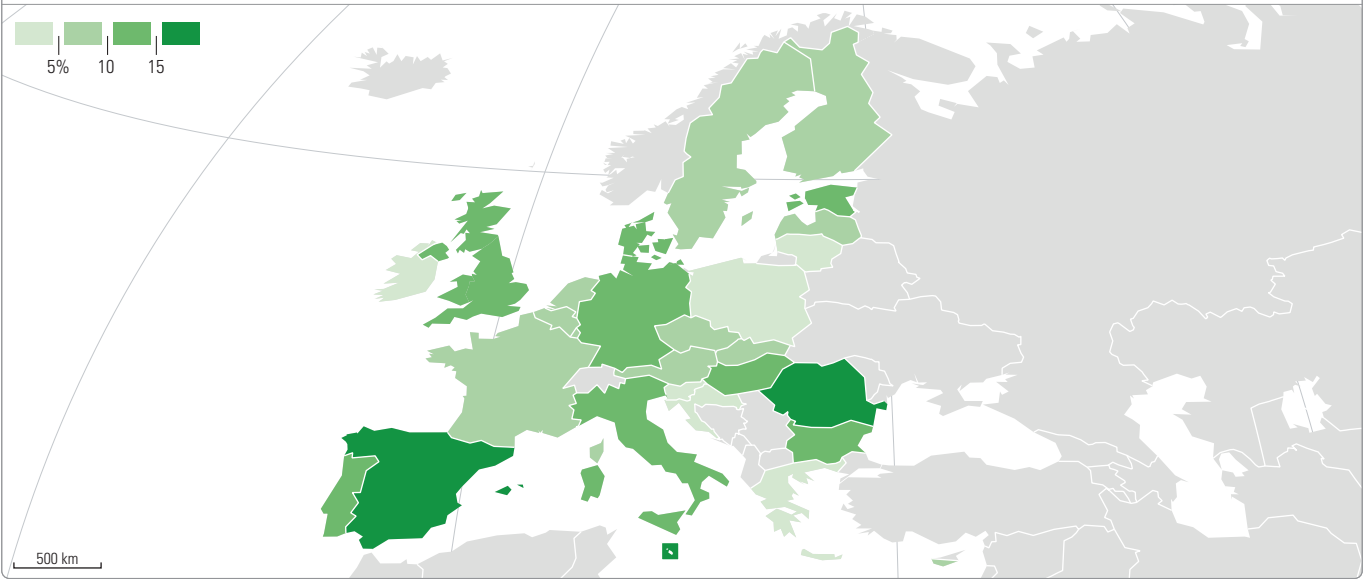
This difficulty is compounded by problems inherent in sample surveys. Among other things, the precision of the questions asked to measure levels of education does not necessarily make it possible to detect the duration or success of upper secondary education. ■

[□] See the definition p. 80.

¹ European Commission, *Education and training Monitor 2017*, Volume 2, 2017.

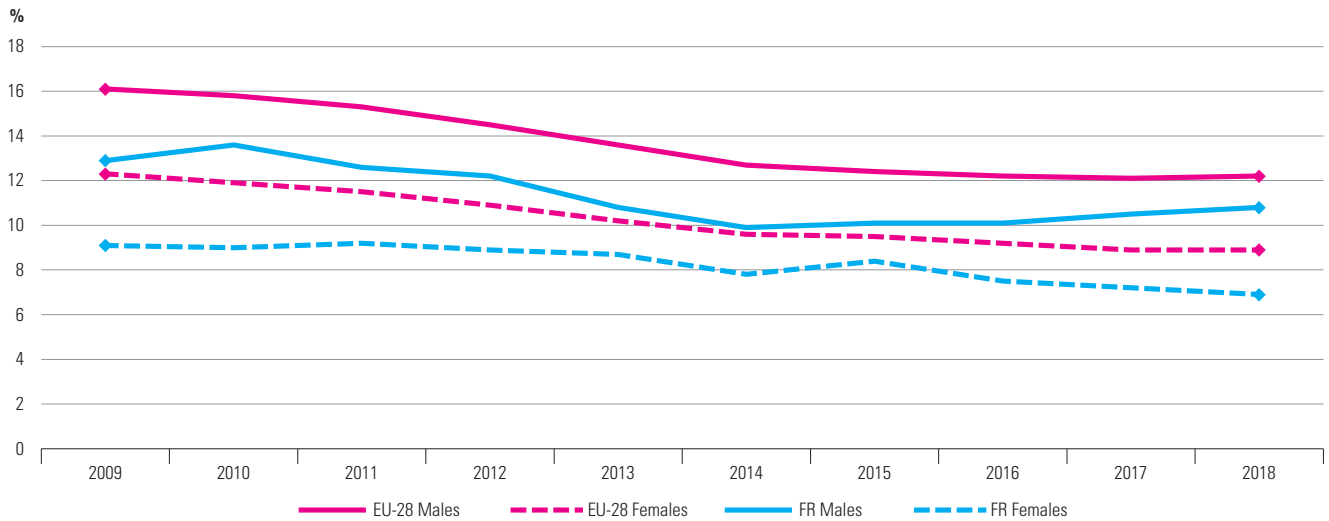
5.2.1: Proportion of early school leavers among 18-24 year olds, 2018

↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_14.



5.2.2: Proportion of early school leavers among 18-24 year olds in the EU and in France by gender between 2009 and 2018

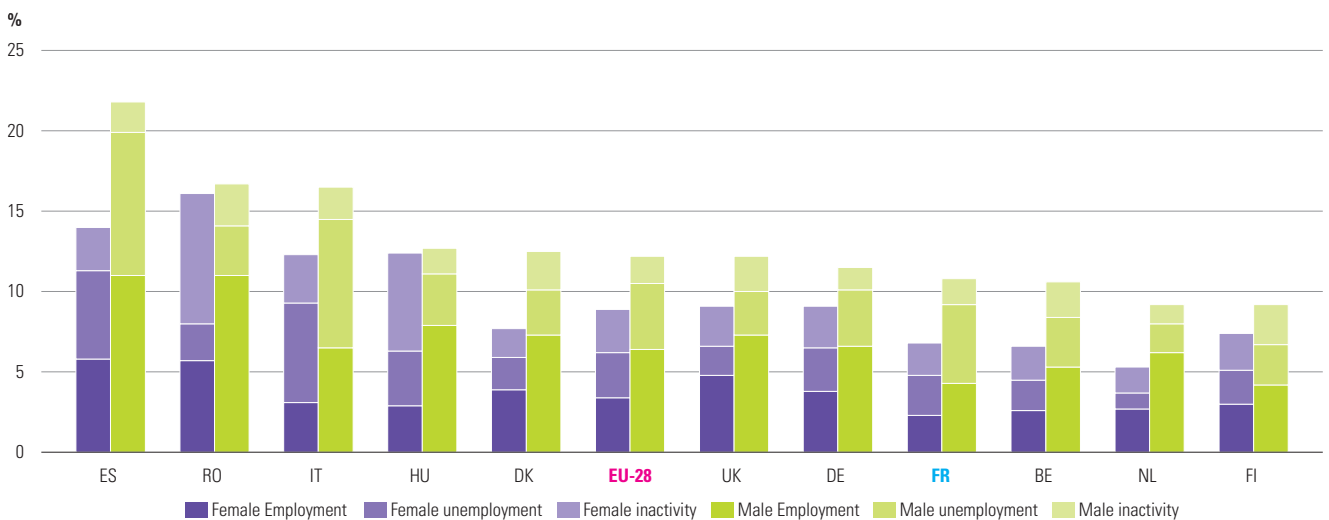
↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_14 ; Ministry in charge of education, *Repères and références statistiques 2019*, figure 8.23.1.



Note: following the revision of the French Labour Force Survey questionnaire in 2013, the share of early school leavers in France is corrected for the break in series for the years 2009 to 2013 (estimation by the ministry in charge of education).

5.2.3: Early school leavers by labour status and gender, 2018

↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_14.



5.3 THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF YOUNG EUROPEANS

THE VAST MAJORITY OF YOUNG EUROPEANS BETWEEN 25 AND 34 YEARS OF AGE ARE GRADUATES

The share of the population aged 25-34 years that has attained at least upper secondary education (ISCED 3) is increasing in the European Union: it rose from 80% to 84% on average in the EU-28 between 2009 and 2018. Spain and Malta are the only EU-28 countries with a secondary education graduation rate of less than 70% in 2018 (5.3.1).

One of the priority objectives of the Europe 2020 strategy is to reach at least the 40% threshold of tertiary education graduates among individuals aged 30-34 by 2020. In 2018, this rate averages 41% in the EU-28 (5.3.2). A total of 18 countries have met or exceeded the EU target. The highest rates in the EU-28 are mostly in northern Europe (Lithuania, 58%; Ireland, 56%; Sweden, 52%). The lowest rates are observed in Italy and Romania (28% and 25% respectively). France exceeded the European target (46%).

The rate of higher education graduates does not always reflect the performance of a national education system. The *brain gain/drain*, for example, which corresponds to the migration of highly qualified individuals, influences this rate upwards, if the country receives the individual already trained, or downwards, when it trains him or her and sees him or her emigrate. In some cases, the importance of the apprenticeship system (Germany) or of vocational streams in secondary education (Croatia, Czech Republic, Slovakia) may "compete" with the pursuit of higher education. Finally, in general, countries with a high rate of early school leavers also have a relatively low rate of tertiary graduates. Spain, however, illustrates a situation where the two indicators do not follow this logic, with 42% of tertiary graduates despite an early leaving rate of 18% in 2018.

WOMEN STILL OUTNUMBER MEN IN REACHING HIGHER EDUCATION

In 2017, in the EU28, 30-34 year olds are more likely to be graduates than 10 years ago: on average of the 28 countries, the share of ISCED 5-8 graduates among 30-34 year olds rose from 32% to 41% between 2009 and 2018. This European trend is confirmed at the national level: in every country (except Finland), individuals are more likely to have an ISCED 5-8 qualification in 2018 than in 2009.

In many EU countries, the proportion of women with tertiary education was already higher than that of men in 2009: on average in the EU-28, 36% of women had an ISCED 5 or higher qualification, compared with only 29% for men (5.3.3). The gender gap in favour of women has widened in the following period: 46% of women in the EU will have completed higher education in 2018, compared with only 36% of men. In only three countries (Bulgaria, Ireland, Finland) are men catching up with women between 2009 and 2018. However, the explanatory factors vary: the catching up observed in Bulgaria and Ireland is due to a faster increase in the share of graduates among men than among women, while in Finland the catching up is mainly due to a larger fall in female graduates (-3 points) than in male graduates (-0.4 points) between 2009 and 2018.

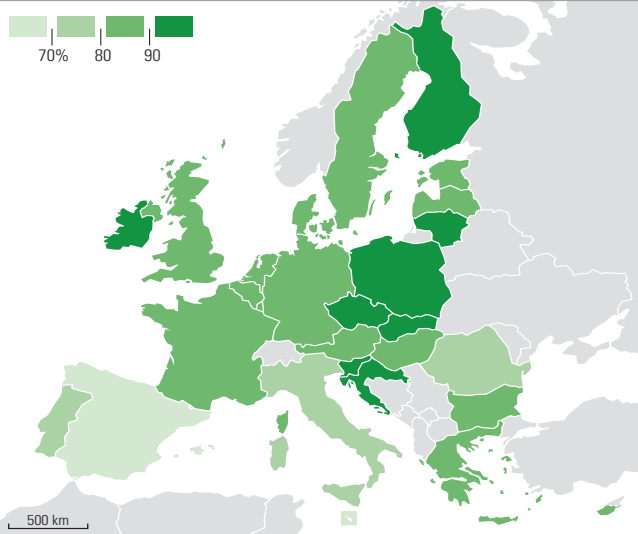
WOMEN WITH MORE DEGREES BUT LESS PRESENCE IN SCIENTIFIC FIELDS OF STUDY

In 2017, the proportions of students enrolled in the different branches of higher education are unequal: the branch with the highest concentration of graduates is "business, administration and law" (24%), followed by "engineering, manufacturing and construction" (15%), and finally "health and welfare" (14%). The field with the lowest proportion of graduates is "agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary" (2%). There is a concentration of graduates in certain fields: in France, for example, 35% of graduates in 2017 came from the field of "business, administration and law" alone (5.3.4).

In 2017, some disciplines are marked from a gender perspective. Women are often over-represented in education (1 man for every 6 women graduates in Poland) or health professions (1 man for every 6 women graduates in Finland), in literary or artistic disciplines and in the social sciences. On the other hand, they are much less numerous in training courses such as "information and communication technologies" (1 woman for 7 men in Spain) or manufacturing industry (1 woman for 3 men in France). The orientation of women into secondary and higher education helps to explain some of the inequalities in pay or status between the two sexes. ■

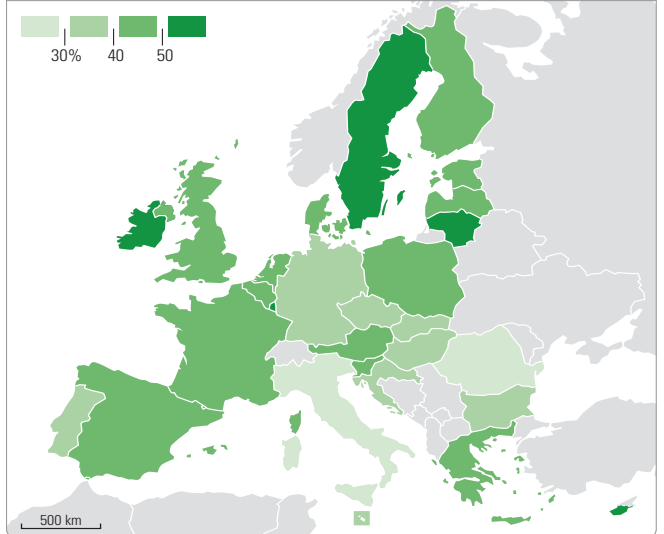
5.3.1: Proportion of 25-34 year olds with at least upper secondary educational attainment, 2018

↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_o3.



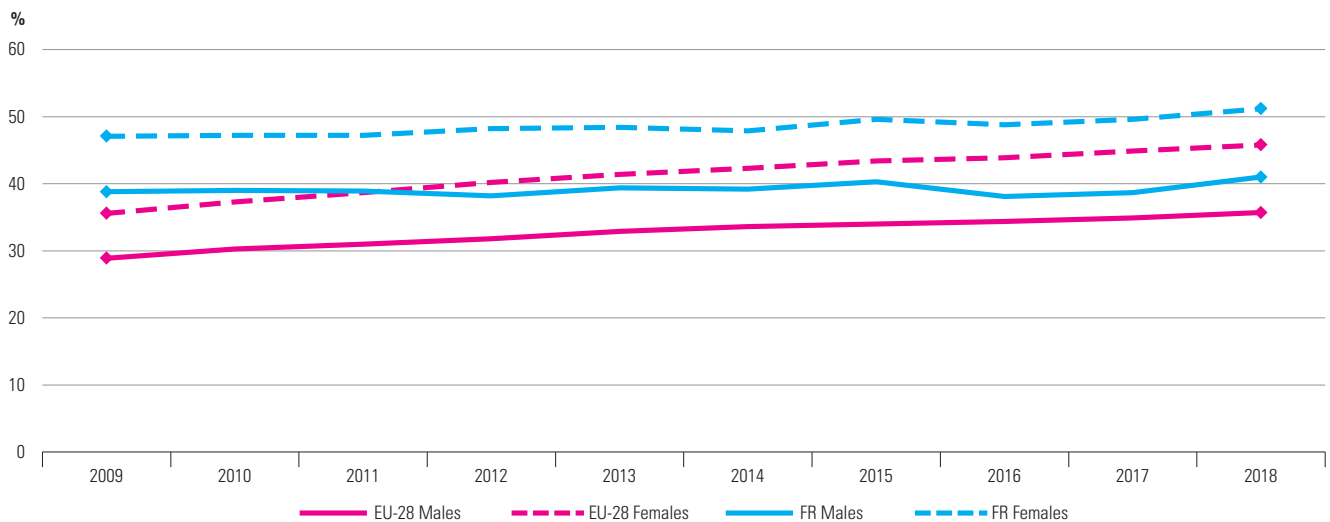
5.3.2: Proportion of 30-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment, 2018

↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_o3.



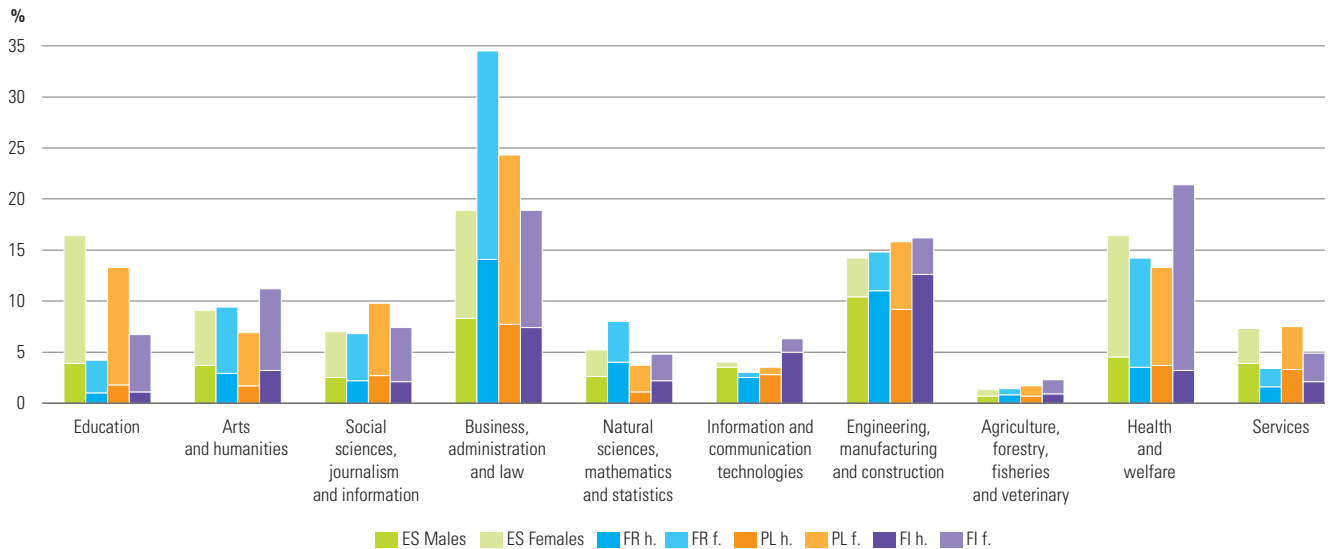
5.3.3: Proportion of 30-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment in the EU and in France by gender between 2009 and 2018

↳ Eurostat, edat_lfse_o3.



5.3.4: Distribution of tertiary education graduates by gender and field of study during the 2017 academic year

↳ Eurostat, educ_uoe_grado3.



Reading: During the 2017 academic year, in Spain, among every tertiary education graduate, 16.4% were students from the Education field of study; among these 16.4% students, 3.9% were males and 12.5% were females.

STABLE READING PERFORMANCE SINCE 2009

Each edition of the OECD PISA assessment includes one major domain and two minor domains, the latter being less precise than the former in terms of the cognitive processes described because it has fewer items. For a relevant measure of the evolution of average skills over time, it is preferable to consider only the major domain, i.e. in nine-year cycles (e.g. in 2018, 2009 and 2000). In 2018, the major domain of the survey was reading literacy, i.e., "understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop one's knowledge and potential, and to participate in society".

In 2018, the average reading literacy score for OECD countries is 487 points. For 11 countries among the 28 members of the European Union, the average score is higher than that of the OECD: the United Kingdom (504 points), Germany (498 points) and France (493 points). On the other hand, 12 countries have an average score below that of the OECD: Greece (457 points), Italy (476 points) and Croatia (479 points).

In 2009, the average reading literacy score for OECD countries was 491. The difference in the OECD average score between the two iterations of the test is not statistically significant, nor is the difference in the national average scores of many European Union countries including Denmark, France, Germany and Sweden (5.4.1). In the EU, seven countries are experiencing a statistically significant drop in their average score between 2009 and 2018: for example, Finland (-16 points) and the Netherlands (-24 points). In Finland, however, the average student score (520 points) in 2018 remains well above the OECD average despite the decline. Finally, 6 countries are experiencing a statistically significant increase in their average score, with a maximum increase of 22 points observed in Estonia and Ireland.

MORE LOW-PERFORMING STUDENTS IN 2018 THAN IN 2009

The "Education and Training 2020" strategy (see 5.1) sets a target of having less than 15% of "low achievers" in each of the three PISA domains. In the breakdown by level group, level 2 is the threshold at which "pupils begin to be able to use their reading skills to acquire knowledge and solve practical problems". According to PISA 2018, on average across OECD countries, 23% of 15-year-old students are low achievers (5.4.2). Only four countries (Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Poland) have achieved the European strategy target in 2018, while Bulgaria and Romania have the highest shares of low-performing students in Europe,

with 47% and 41% respectively. France, with 21% of pupils below level 2, is in a slightly more favourable position than the OECD average.

OECD students are more likely to perform poorly in 2018 than when the current European strategy was launched in 2009. Indeed, the share of students below level 2 in the OECD has increased by 3 percentage points during this decade. In the EU, 8 countries are also experiencing an increase in the share of low performers, including Finland (+5 percentage points) and the Netherlands (+10 points). Only Ireland (-5 percentage points) and Slovenia (-3 percentage points) decreased these proportions between the two editions of PISA. In France, the share remained stable (20% of pupils in 2009).

To shed light on young people's writing skills, it is useful to observe their attitudes towards reading. Since 2009, the proportions of 15-year-old girls and boys who declare that reading is one of their favourite pastimes have decreased in many European countries. In Finland, for example, the share of boys citing reading as a favourite hobby has decreased by 2 points (15% in 2018), while it has decreased by 15 points among girls (36% in 2018). Bulgaria is unique: in this country, reading was in 2009 a favourite pastime for a large share of students and this share increased further in 2018: +9 points for boys (37% in 2018) and +15 points for girls (61% in 2018). In France, the proportions have remained stable since 2009 for both boys (22% in 2018) and girls (39% in 2018).

A MINORITY OF COUNTRIES ACHIEVE THE OBJECTIVE OF THE EU STRATEGY IN MINOR AREAS

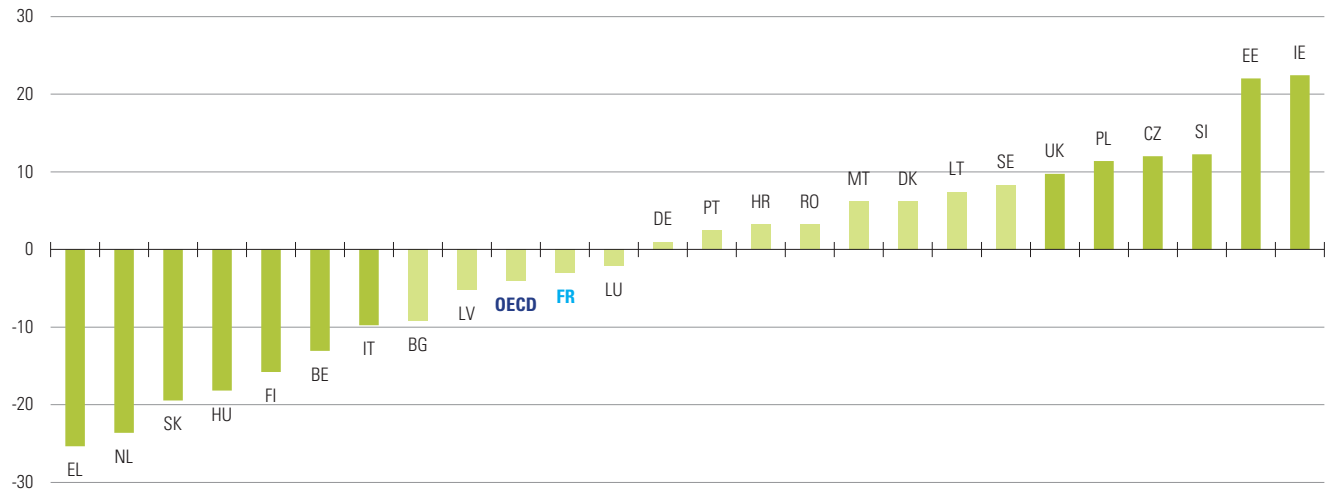
The two minor areas of the 2018 cycle (mathematical literacy and scientific literacy) are also taken into account in the framework of the Education and Training 2020 strategy. In 2018, OECD countries have an average proportion of 24% of low-achieving students in mathematical literacy (5.4.3). In this area, in the EU-28, only four countries (Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Poland) have reached the 15% target. The highest proportions are observed in Romania and Bulgaria (47% and 44% respectively). France, with 21% of low achievers in mathematics, is in a better position than the OECD average.

In scientific literacy, 22% of students perform poorly on average in OECD countries. Here again, only 4 EU-28 countries (Estonia, Finland, Poland and Slovenia) meet the European target. France, with 20% of pupils in this situation, is again in a slightly more favourable situation than the OECD average. ■

5.4.1: Evolution of the mean score in Reading between PISA 2009 and PISA 2018

OECD, PISA 2018, table I.B1.10.

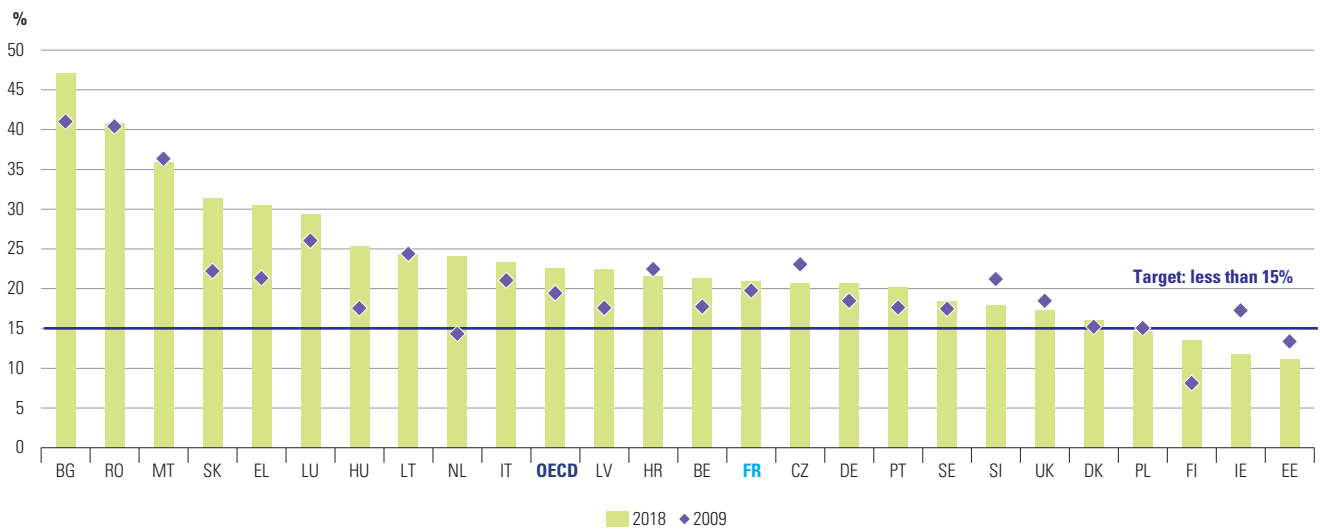
Score difference, in points



Note: Grey histograms correspond to the countries where the score difference is not statistically significant.

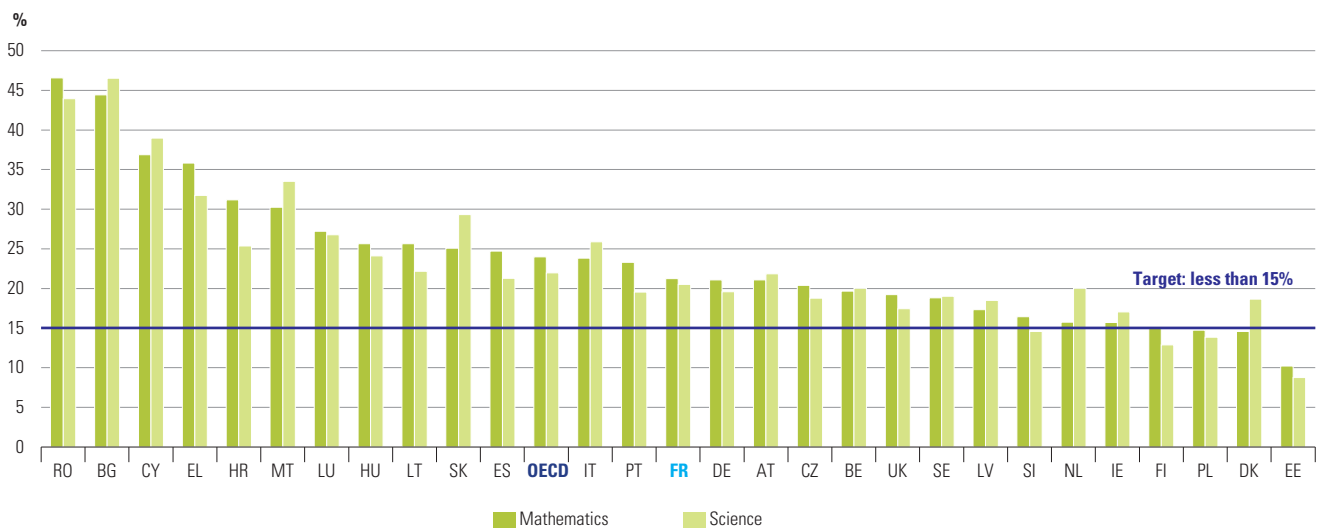
5.4.2: Proportion of low performers among 15 year olds in Reading in PISA 2009 and PISA 2018

OECD, PISA 2018, table I.B1.7.



5.4.3: Proportion of low performers among 15 year olds in Mathematics and Science in PISA 2018

OECD, PISA 2018, table I.B1.7.



ZOOM

The PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS)

In its PISA^{EQ} assessment, the OECD addresses the relationship between students' belonging to different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, and their test scores. In order to do this, it constructs an index based on a set of available elements on the situation of the student's parents (level of education, occupation of the father and mother, etc.) and on the student's access to certain goods or study conditions (a room of his/her own, a desk to study at, Internet connection, number of books at home, etc.). Pupils are thus classified into four groups of equal numbers: at the two extremes of this classification are the 'very disadvantaged' group, which comprises the 25% of pupils with the lowest ESCS index, and the 'very advantaged' group, which comprises the 25% of pupils with the highest ESCS index.

A STRONG LINK BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Students from different socio-economic backgrounds have significantly different average scores on the PISA 2018 reading literacy test. Indeed, while the average score of 15-year-old students in OECD countries is 487 points, it ranges from 445 points for the 'very disadvantaged' students to 534 points for the 'very advantaged' ones (5.5.1). The interquartile difference is thus 89 points on average for the OECD.

In all the countries of the 28-member European Union, 'very advantaged' pupils score significantly higher than 'very disadvantaged' pupils. It is in Estonia and Latvia that the differences in interquartile scores are smallest (61 and 65 points respectively), and it is in Germany and Hungary (113 points) and especially in Luxembourg (122 points) that the greatest differences are observed. In France, the gap is high (107 points), but has not increased since the last cycle (110 points in 2009).

Among all EU countries, France has the strongest relationship between the ESCS index and reading scores. Indeed, if the ESCS index increases by one unit, the average score increases by 47 points, compared to an average of 37 points for OECD countries. However, this link has been slightly reduced in France since 2009: that year, the average score difference for a unit of the ESCS index was 51 points.

ONLY A QUARTER OF EU COUNTRIES ARE BOTH EFFICIENT AND FAIR

Figure 5.5.2 shows the relationship between students' average scores on the PISA 2018 reading literacy test (vertical axis) and the share of the variation in these scores explained by the ESCS index (horizontal axis). The EU-28 countries are evenly distributed above and below the average performance of OECD countries, but also on either side of the OECD average equity axis.

^{EQ} See the source p. 84 and the definition p. 80.

France combines a low equity of results (18% of the variation in results is explained by the ESCS index), a share comparable to that of Germany or Belgium, and an average score slightly above the OECD average. However, the Netherlands, which also scores close to the OECD average, has a higher equity of outcome than the OECD average (11% of the variation in outcomes explained by the ESCS, compared to 12% for the OECD average). Estonia's particularly advantageous position is evident in its combination of higher youth skills and equity than the OECD average.

THE PERFORMANCE OF IMMIGRANT STUDENTS WHO ARE HIGHLY DEPENDENT ON THEIR SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS

In 2018, on average across OECD countries, 13% of 15-year-old students assessed in PISA are considered to have **immigrant status**^{EQ}, first and second generation combined. In Europe, these proportions range from 1% in Bulgaria, 6% in Finland, 14% in France, 20% in the United Kingdom, and 55% in Luxembourg. According to PISA results, do immigrant pupils perform differently from non-immigrant pupils?

Immigrant pupils achieve much lower results than non-immigrant pupils in a very large majority of countries, but this difference must be put into perspective by taking into account the socio-economic status of individuals. Indeed, on average across OECD countries, the difference between non-immigrant and immigrant students is 41 points before controlling for their ESCS scores; it falls to 24 points after controlling for ESCS (5.5.3).

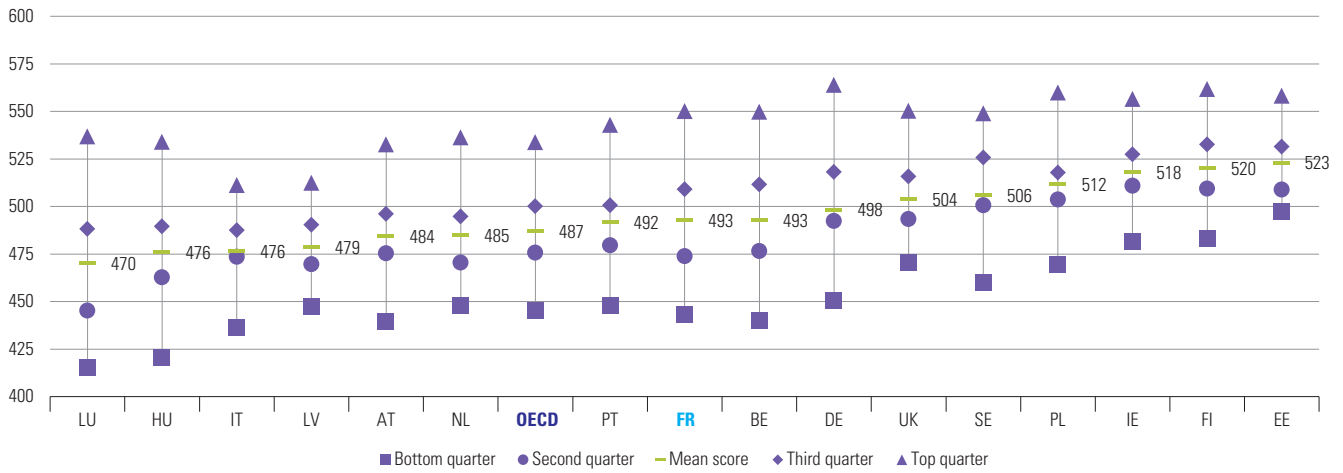
Finland and Sweden show the largest differences in scores in favour of non-immigrant pupils in the EU-28, even when the socio-economic status of immigrant pupils is taken into account. Before controlling for socio-economic and cultural status, the score difference is 92 points in Finland and 83 in Sweden; after controlling, it is 74 points in Finland and 54 in Sweden.

France is characterized by a score difference in favour of non-immigrant pupils which is greatly reduced when the ESCS index is controlled: 52 points before the index is controlled, 13 points later. The situation in Germany and the Netherlands is similar to that in France. Finally, countries such as Croatia and Latvia show differences in scores that are not statistically significant, regardless of the socio-economic status of immigrant pupils. ■

¹ MENJ-DEPP, Information Note, n°19.49, 2019.

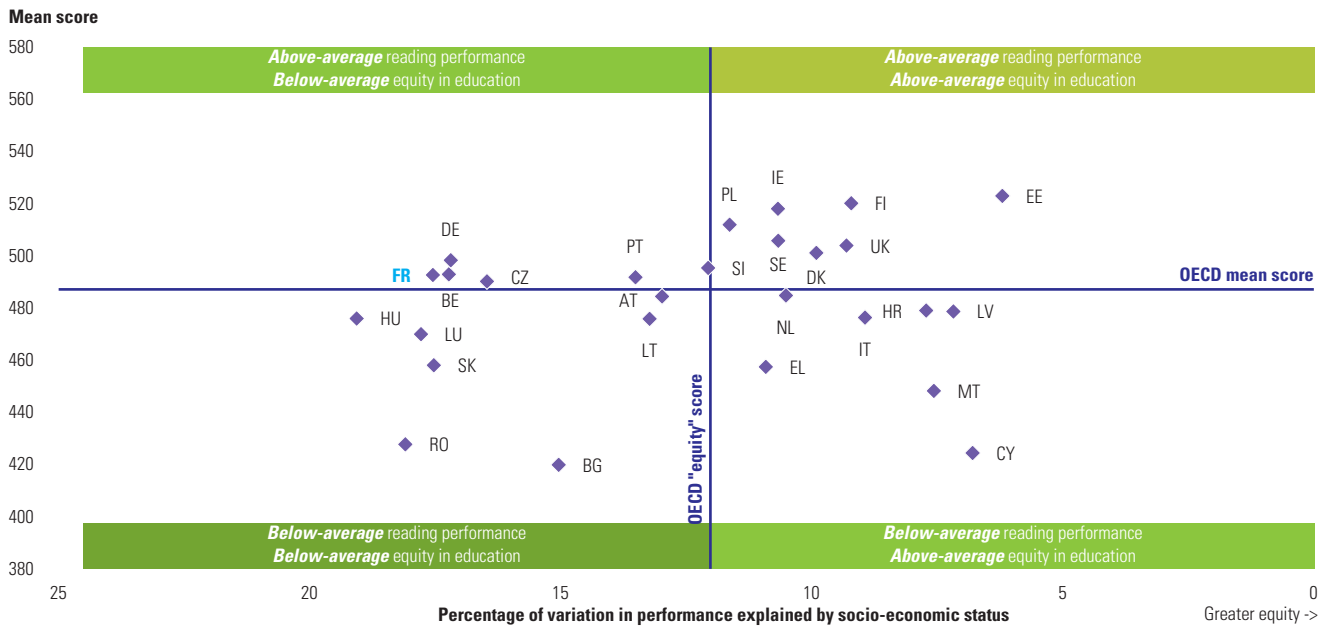
5.5.1: Mean score in Reading by quarter of PISA's index of students' economic, social and cultural status (ESCS) in PISA 2018

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



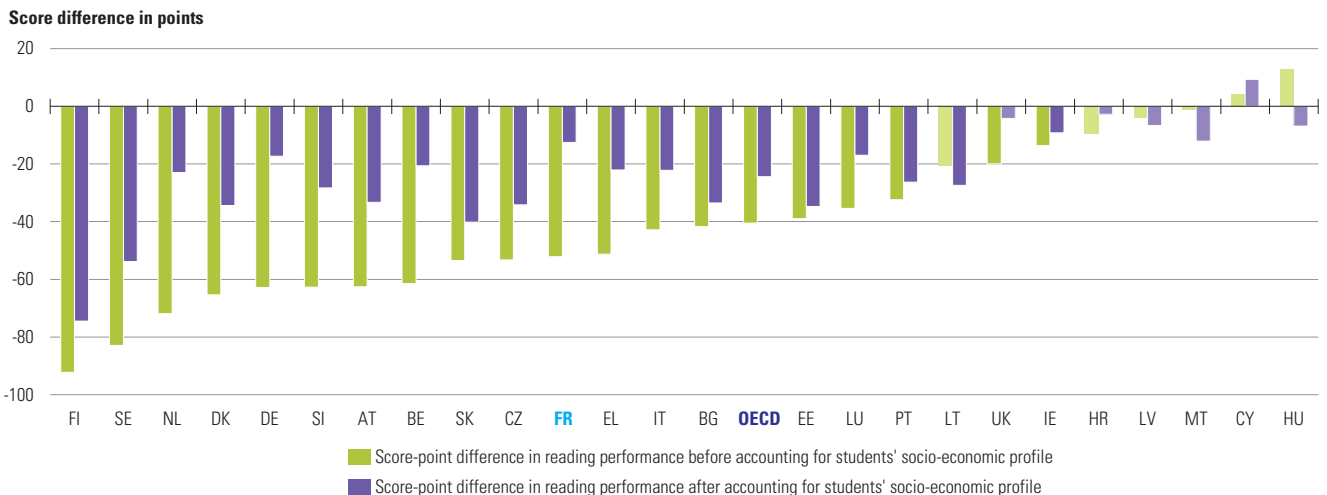
5.5.2: Student performance in reading literacy and equity of performance in 2018

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



5.5.3: Score difference between students by their migration status, before and after accounting for students' socio-economic profile, 2018

OECD, PISA 2018, table II.B1.9.3.



Note: Grey histograms correspond to the countries where the score difference between migrant and non-migrant students is not statistically significant. Reading: In Finland, the difference in score between migrant and non-migrant pupils before accounting for the ESCS index is 92 points in 2018. Also in Finland, the difference in score between migrant and non-migrant students is 74 points once the ESCS index is controlled.

5.6 TIMSS ET PIRLS: INTERNATIONAL ASSESSMENTS IN 4TH GRADE

ZOOM

The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS¹) is evaluated every 4 years by an international association (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement - IEA). It assesses the performance in mathematics and science of students in grades 4 and 8 in participating countries, from the first year of primary school. In 2015, 49 partner countries/economies participated in the TIMSS test for Grade 4 students in primary education. Within the European Union, 19 countries and the Flemish Community of Belgium participated ¹. Figures 5.6.1 and 5.6.2 present data for the tests for the fourth year of primary education only, as France did not participate in the tests for the eighth year in the last assessment cycle in 2015. Like PISA² or PIRLS³, TIMSS sets a centre of the score scale at 500..

GIRLS CONSISTENTLY OUTPERFORM BOYS IN READING, IN GRADE 4

ZOOM

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS⁴) is organized every five years by IEA. It assesses the reading achievement of a representative sample of students in the fourth grade of schooling, counting from the first grade of primary school onwards. In the last PIRLS cycle in 2016, 50 partner countries/economies participated in the test in fourth grade. Within the European Union, 20 countries, 2 nations (England and Northern Ireland) and the Flemish and French Communities of Belgium participated ². Like PISA or TIMSS, PIRLS sets a centre of the score scale at 500..

A GENDER GAP IN MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT FROM THE GRADE 4

In 2015, in the European Union countries which participated in the TIMSS survey in the fourth year of primary education, pupils had an overall average score of 527 on the mathematics test (5.6.1). The lowest overall average scores are observed in France (488) and Slovakia (498), while the highest scores are found in Ireland (547).

Boys in Europe score (526) slightly higher than girls (521). In 10 countries (including Spain, France and Italy) they score significantly higher than girls. Only in Finland do girls do significantly better than boys (9 points difference).

NO SIGNIFICANT GENDER DIFFERENCE IN SCIENCE SCORES IN GRADE 4

In 2015, EU countries which participated in TIMSS in the fourth grade of primary education have an overall average score of 525 in the science test (5.6.2). The average scores obtained by the different European countries in this area range from 481 in Cyprus to 554 in Finland.

However, unlike the mathematics test, there is a relative gender balance in science scores. Indeed, boys in Europe have an average score of 526 and girls of 524. Moreover, 7 countries (including Spain, Italy and the Czech Republic) show a significantly higher score for boys and 3 countries (Bulgaria, Finland and Sweden) show the opposite situation. The average score for girls and boys in France is the same, but it is also much lower than that of the EU countries.

In 2016, in the 28 EU countries participating in the PIRLS survey, pupils in the fourth year of primary education in the EU-27 will have an overall average score of 540 (5.6.3). The highest European average scores are in Ireland and Finland (567 and 566 points respectively), while the lowest are in Malta and France (452 and 511 points respectively). At the time of the award, the average age of European pupils is 10.3 years. The oldest pupils are Latvian pupils (10.9 years old) and the youngest are Italian and Maltese (9.7 years old). With pupils averaging 9.8 years old at the time of the test, France is one of the 4 countries with the youngest pupils.

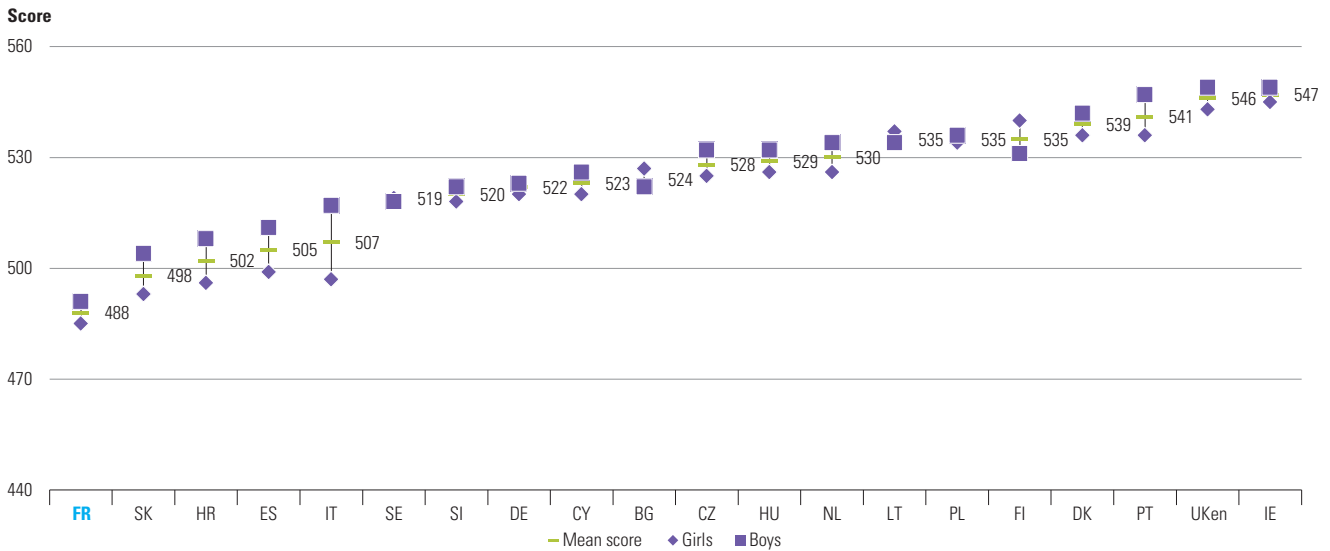
With the exception of Portugal, where the difference in scores by sex is not statistically significant, girls score better than boys in all European countries surveyed. Malta and Finland, with the lowest and highest average scores respectively in the EU-28, are also the countries with the largest difference in scores by gender (21 and 22 points respectively). France, with a difference of 8 points, has one of the lowest gender differences in Europe. ■

¹ See the source p. 84.

¹. MEN-DEPP, Information Note, No. 16-33, 2016.
². MEN-DEPP, Information Note, No. 17-24, 2017/

5.6.1: Score in mathematics in TIMSS fourth grade by gender, 2015

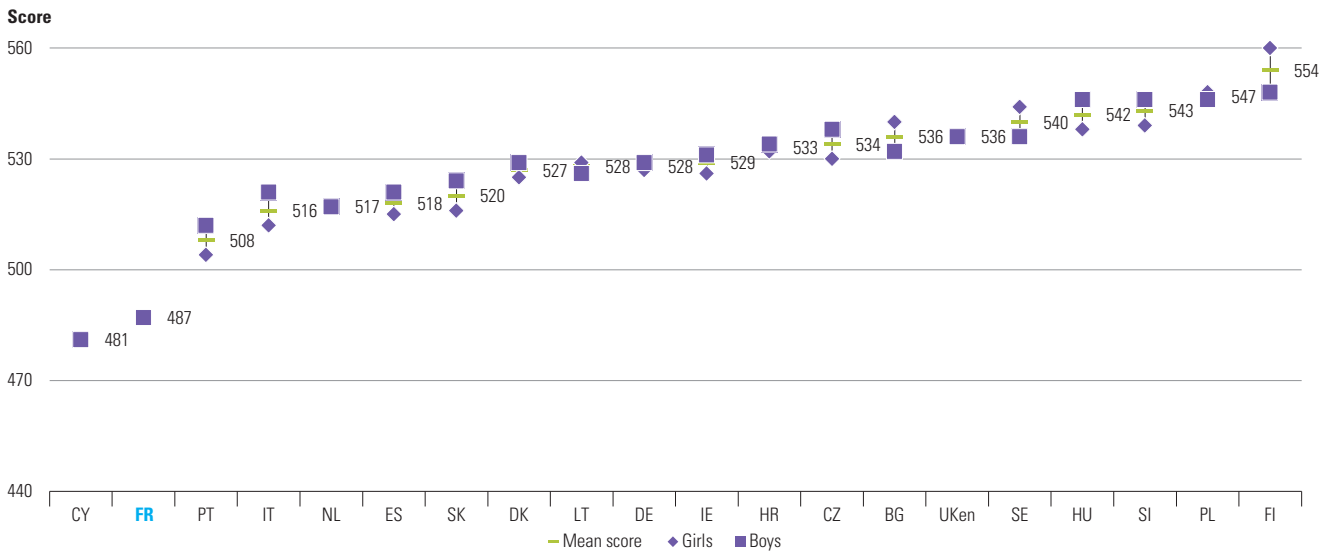
IEA, TIMSS 2015 mathematics, table 1.1 and 1.10.



Reading: in 2015, 4th grade pupils have a general mean score of 488, 4th grade girls have a mean score of 491 and 4th grade boys have a mean score of 485. Countries are ranked by ascending order of the general mean score.

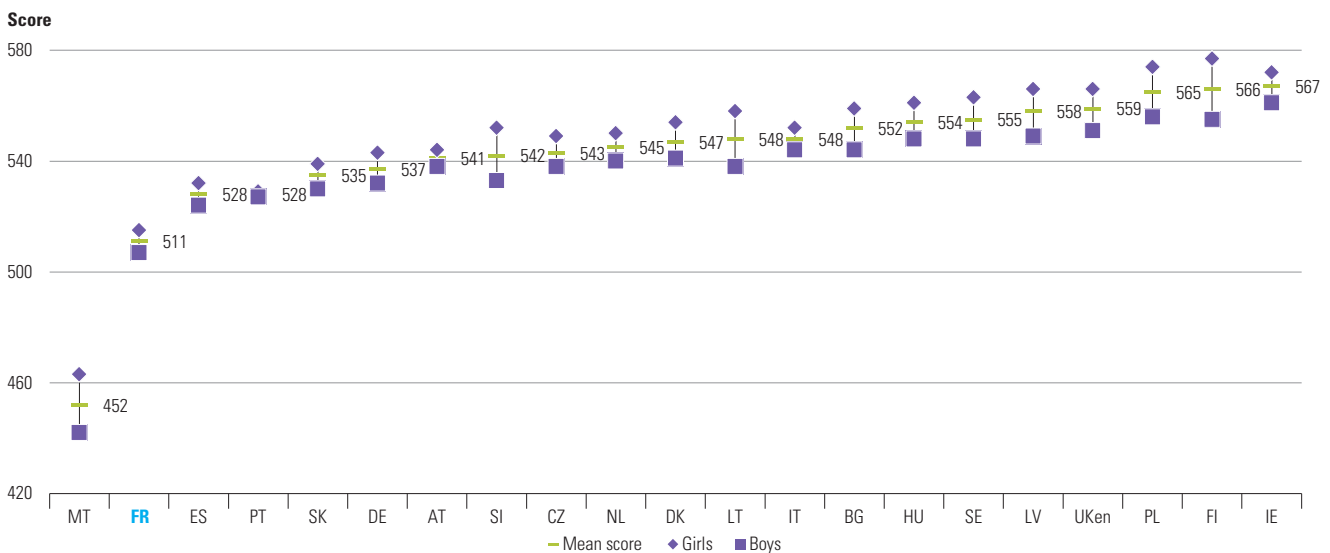
5.6.2: Score in science in TIMSS fourth grade by gender, 2015

IEA, TIMSS 2015 science, table 1.1 and 1.10.



5.6.3: Score in reading in PIRLS fourth grade by gender, 2016

IEA, PIRLS 2016, table 1.5.



ZOOM

The International Computer and Information Literacy Study (ICILS) is an evaluation carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). The first edition was published in 2013. It assesses the **computer and information literacy**¹ skills of students enrolled in the 8th grade (8th year from the beginning of primary education). In 2018, 12 countries (including France, with its *classe de 4^e*) and 2 local authorities took part. In addition, the 2018 edition of the survey introduced a new option of "**computational thinking**¹", in which only 8 countries (including France) participated. Based on the international average of the first cycle of the survey in 2013, the IEA defines a centre of the score scale, which it sets at 500¹.

GIRLS OUTPERFORM BOYS IN COMPUTER AND INFORMATION LITERACY

The average score for countries participating in ICILS 2018 is 496 on computer and information literacy test (5.7.1) and 500 on computational thinking (5.7.2). Among the 6 EU countries that participated, in both C&I literacy and computational thinking, Luxembourg had the lowest scores (482 and 460 points respectively) and Denmark the highest (553 and 527 points respectively). For statistical reasons (width of the confidence intervals), the average scores in France, 499 and 501 points in both tests, are not statistically different from the average of the participating countries.

In ICILS 2018 countries on average, the score gap in favour of girls is 18 points in C&I literacy. Within the EU, this gap ranges from 11 points in Portugal to 29 points in Finland, consistently in favour of girls. France, with a gap of 24 points, is in a situation where the gender performance gap is significant. In contrast to C&I literacy, gender score gaps are rarely significant in computational thinking. On international average, this gap is 4 points in favour of boys. Among the EU countries which participated in the survey, only Portugal (16 points in favour of boys) and Finland (13 points in favour of girls) show a statistically significant gender score difference.

A SCORE GAP SYSTEMATICALLY IN FAVOUR OF CHILDREN OF NATIVE-BORN PARENTS

In 2018, on average of the countries that participated in ICILS, numeracy scores are higher for children with at least one parent born in the country where the survey was conducted ("non-immigrant families" in this survey) than for those with both parents

born abroad ("immigrant families" in this survey), regardless of the student's country of birth. On average of the countries participating in the survey, there is a 28-point difference between these two categories (5.7.3). This finding is confirmed in every EU country which participated, with the exception of Portugal (where the difference in score is not statistically significant). Finland has the largest difference in score in Europe (51 points). In Finland, students from immigrant families score an average of 484, compared to 535 for students from non-immigrant families. On the other hand, France and Germany show above-average and close score differences (36 and 37 points respectively).

In terms of computational thinking, the scores of children from non-immigrant families are again consistently higher than those of immigrant families. The score differences between these two populations are greater for this test than for the C&I literacy test: 46 points on average ICILS average (5.7.4). Finland again has the largest score gap in the panel (56 points) and Portugal the smallest (14 points). France, with 52 points, is close to Finland and Germany (49 points).

A VERY HETEROGENEOUS USE OF ICT FOR LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN EUROPE

A context questionnaire associated with the survey and administered to students helps to inform about the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) for learning purposes, both within and outside the school setting. On average of the countries that participated in ICILS 2018, 18% of students report using ICT every day at school for learning activities and 21% use ICT every day outside school for the same purpose (5.7.5). Among European countries, the share of pupils using ICT at school every day for learning varies from 4% in Germany to 81% in Denmark, while the share of pupils using ICT outside school for learning purposes varies from 10% in Portugal to 35% in Denmark. In France, these proportions are 8% and 25% respectively.

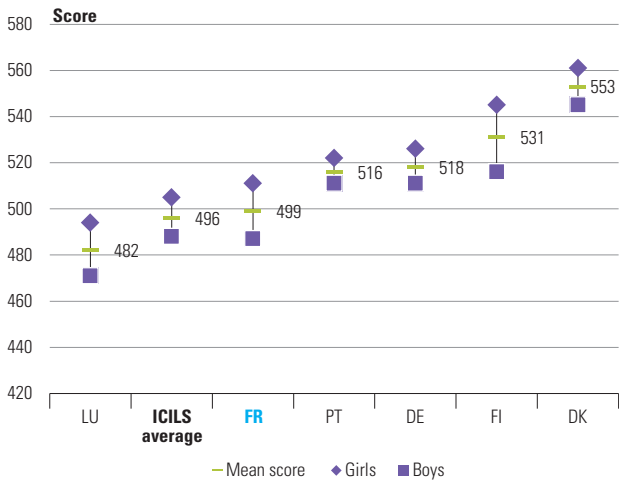
How are technologies used for learning purposes? On average of the participating countries, searching for information on the Internet each week is the most commonly reported use (59%), while significant shares of students report working online with other students (25%) or doing exercises on digital media (30% - 5.7.6). Finland has the lowest proportion among European countries for each of the uses presented here. France has a high rate of internet research (73%), while only 21% of pupils report collaborating online and 32% doing exercises. ■

¹ See the source p. 80.

¹. MENJ-DEPP, Information Note, No. 19.40, 2019.

5.7.1: Eight grade pupils' score in computer and information literacy in ICILS 2018 by gender

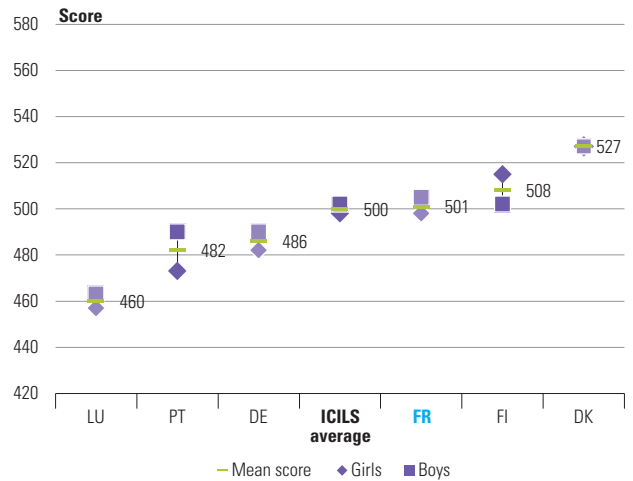
☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 3.4.



Reading: in 2018, in France, the average score of eighth-grade pupils was 499, girls had an average score of 511 and boys had an average score of 487. Countries are ranked in ascending order of general average score ("mean score").

5.7.2: Eight grade pupils' score in computational thinking in ICILS 2018 by gender

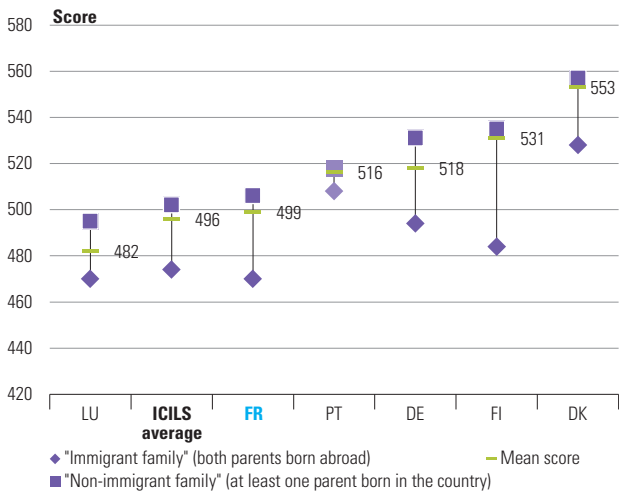
☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 4.1.



Note: Countries whose scores are shown in dark purple correspond to cases where the difference in score by population is statistically significant.

5.7.3: Eighth grade pupils' score in computer and information literacy, by immigrant background

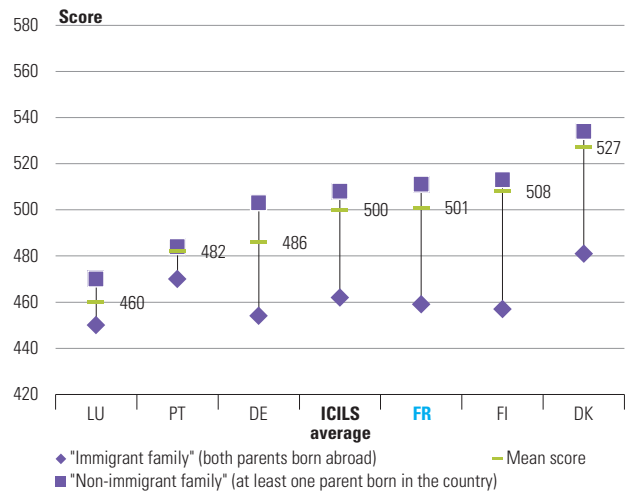
☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 3.9.



Note: Countries whose scores are shown in dark purple correspond to cases where the difference in score by population is statistically significant.

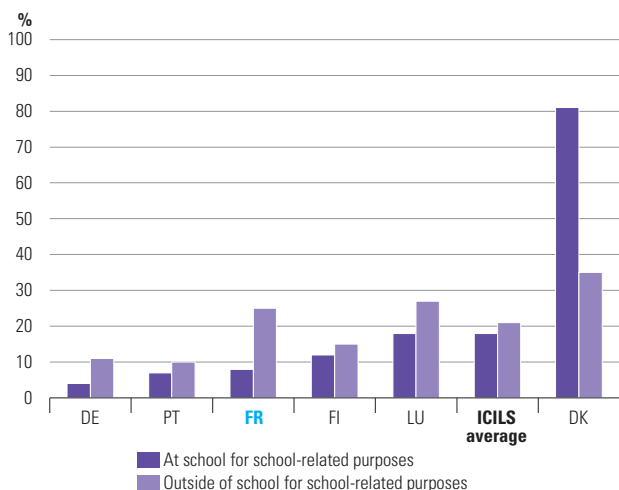
5.7.4: Eighth grade pupils' score in computational thinking, by immigrant background

☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 4.4.



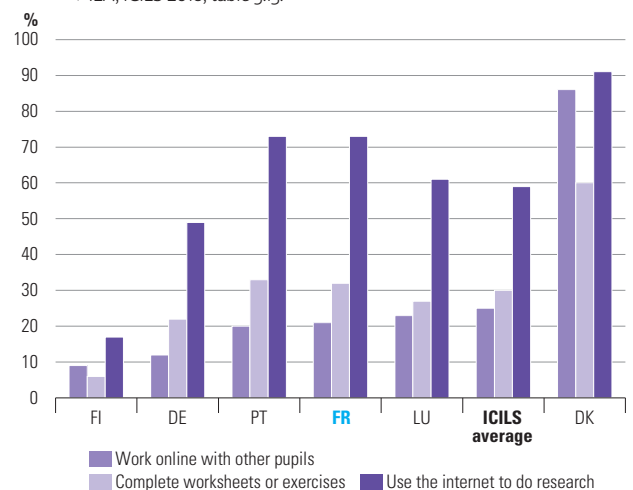
5.7.5: Proportion of eight grade pupils who declare using ICT every day by type of activity

☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 5.2.



5.7.6: Proportion of eight grade pupils who declare using ICT every week for learning activities (in or outside the school), by type of usage

☞ IEA, ICILS 2018, table 5.13.



THE GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL IN EDUCATION, FROM A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

ZOOM

The current global agenda on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), adopted by the United Nations in 2015, includes 17 goals to be achieved by 2030 in different areas (social, economic and environmental). SDG 4 is devoted to education and consists of 10 targets, broken down into a set of monitoring indicators (participation, skills, school environment, human and financial resources), under the responsibility of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). Different equity variables are taken into account, including gender

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, GIRLS CONSISTENTLY OUTPERFORM BOYS IN READING

SDG indicator 4.1.1 measures the proportion of girls and boys who reach at least the minimum proficiency level (MPL) in reading literacy during primary education (ISCED 1). In the countries and entities shown in Figure 5.8.1, students' skills were assessed by the international PIRLS 2016^[1] survey. MPL as defined here corresponds to the first (low) proficiency level of this survey.

In 2016, for the countries and entities in the panel, the proportion of girls achieving at least MPL in reading is still higher than that of boys. This percentage difference (girls minus boys) is most significant in the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Iran, with respectively 12, 13 and 19 percentage points difference between girls and boys, in favour of girls. These countries, together with Morocco, also have the lowest proportions of pupils competent in reading, regardless of gender, 20 to 50 points lower than the panel average (87%).

Other countries such as France, Germany and Macao (China), on the other hand, have a very large proportion of competent pupils, both girls and boys. For example, 95% of girls and 93% of boys in France and 98% and 97% respectively in Macao (China).

This quasi-systematic advantage of girls in reading skills needs to be set against other indicators, such as enrolment at different levels of education.

IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, GIRLS ARE LESS SCHOOLED THAN BOYS IN LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES

SDG indicator 4.1.5 measures **the proportion of girls and boys out of school**^[1] (not enrolled in any ISCED level in which they could theoretically be enrolled) while being in the theoretical

age group of a certain level of ISCED. In 2017, according to regional averages computed by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, North America has few out-of-school youth: 5% in the upper secondary age group, in both sexes (5.8.2). The situation is similar in Europe (European Union and other European countries), with 8% of such young people: 7% among girls and 8% among boys. Conversely, in regions with more out-of-school youth – which are also characterized by low average incomes – girls are more often disadvantaged than boys. This is especially the case with sub-Saharan Africa, where 57% of students are out of school, but 60% among girls and 54% among boys.

Some regions are in a special situation as they are made up of countries with a wide range of income levels. In Oceania, for example, the proportion of young people outside the education system averages 24% (26% among girls and 23% among boys). But when Australia and New Zealand, high-income countries, are isolated from this group, they show only 2% of out-of-school students on average, with 1% and 3% of girls and boys, respectively.

It should be noted that out-of-school rates mobilize both **demographic data**^[1] and enrolment data from different sources, which may affect the accuracy of measurement and international comparison of data.

AT AGE 15, MORE BOYS THAN GIRLS REPORT BEING BULLIED AT SCHOOL

SDG 4 promotes a safe, non-violent and accessible learning environment for all. SDG 4.a.2 provides information on violence and bullying, reported by victims in schools, which can be detrimental to learning.

In 2018, in the vast majority of the countries and entities surveyed, more 15-year-old boys than girls of the same age report being bullied and harassed more than once a month (5.8.3). The difference between girls and boys reporting this is particularly high in the United Arab Emirates: 41% among boys versus 22% among girls. Conversely, France and the United States show almost gender parity: 20% and 26% of girls respectively report having been harassed in these two countries, with comparable proportions among boys.

With the exception of South Korea, Spain and France, all countries have more than 20% of boys who report having been harassed. The proportion of girls varies from 7% in South Korea to 36% in Morocco.

In all the countries and regional entities of the panel, both girls and boys report verbal abuse more often than physical abuse¹ ■.

^[1] See the source p. 84 and the definition p. 80.

1. OECD, PISA 2018 Results (Volume III): What School Life Means for Students' Lives, 2019, p. 54.

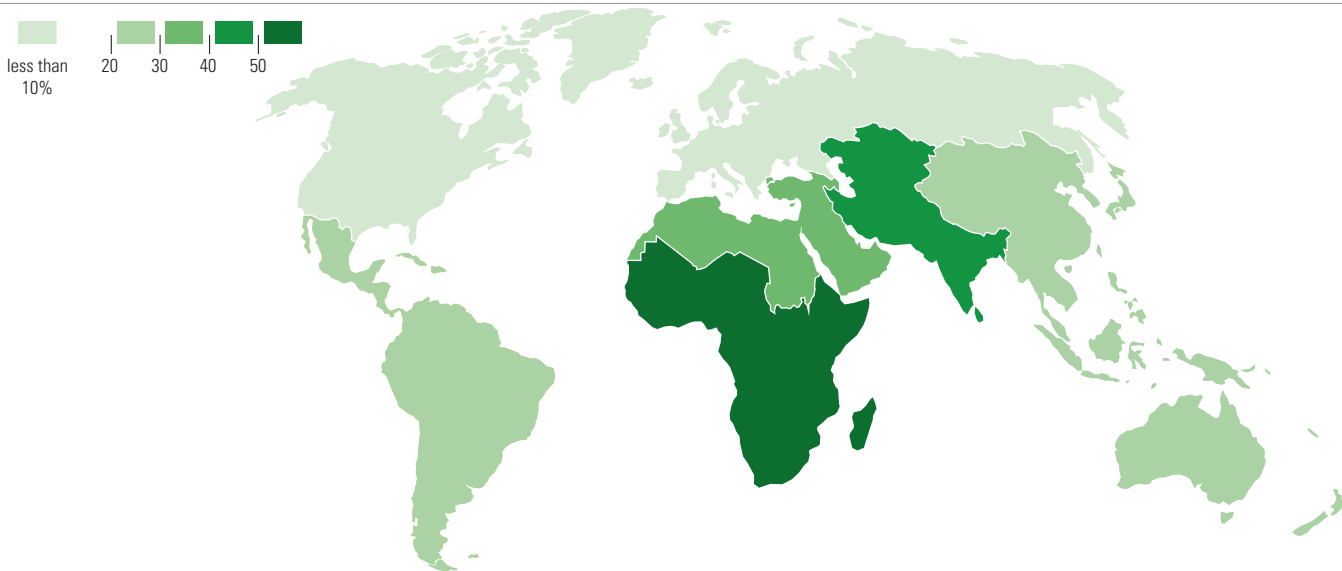
5.8.1: Proportion of primary education pupils who have reached the minimum proficiency level in reading, 2016

IEA, PIRLS 2016, data.uis.unesco.org.



5.8.2: Proportion of out-of-school adolescents in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2017

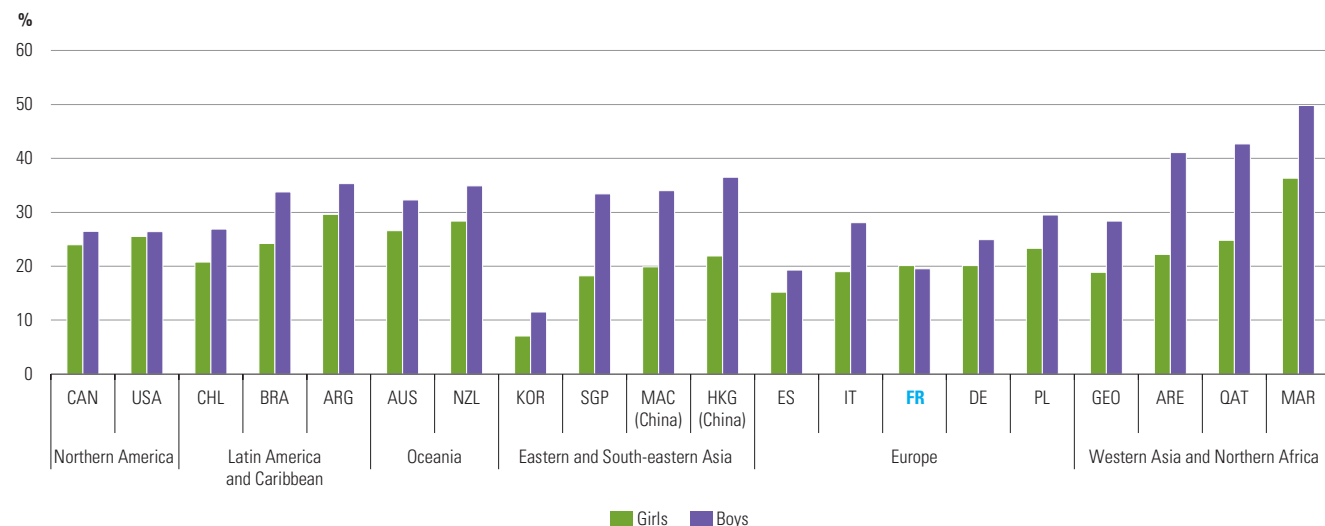
UOE data collection, data.uis.unesco.org.



Note: The regional averages presented here are those calculated by the Unesco Institute for Statistics.

5.8.3: Proportion of 15 year olds pupils who reported being bullied at least a few times a month by gender, 2018

OECD, PISA 2018, table III.B1.2.4.





CHAPTER 6

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL IMPACT OF EDUCATION

Education, Employment, Unemployment, NEETs

Income by gender and degree level

Education and health

FOCUS

Education, citizenship and societal values

ZOOM

NEETs[□] and ESLs

NEETs (*Neither in employment nor in education or training*) are unemployed or inactive persons as defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO[□]), who are not in initial education and who reported having had no formal or non-formal education in the four weeks preceding the survey (EU-LFS survey). The indicator of NEET in a certain age group relates this population to the total population of the same age. It therefore takes into account the employment situation of individuals rather than their level of qualification. For Early school leavers (ESL), please refer to 5.2.

THE MOST PRECARIOUS POPULATION IS AT THE CROSSROADS OF NEET AND ESL

The two indicators - ESL and NEET - refer to young people who have left the school system and are not in training. However, the former only captures young people without qualifications (who have at most reached ISCED 2), irrespective of their labour market status, while the latter only covers young people without jobs, whether or not they have a qualification. These are therefore complementary indicators, the first responding more to the issues of steering education policies and the second to those of employment policies.

Figure 6.1.1 presents the situation of youth aged 18 to 24 with respect to these two indicators in 2018. In the EU-28, 14% of young people in this age group are NEET, of which 8% have at least upper secondary education and 6% are early school leavers. Also in the EU, 11% of young people in this age group are ESL, of which 5% are in employment and 6% unemployed. The latter 6%, ESL without a job, correspond to the NEETs without a diploma. France is relatively well positioned with regard to the ESL indicator, but not the NEET indicator. In France and Italy, only one third of early school leavers are in employment, while this share approaches 50% in the EU-28 as a whole or in Germany. For these young people without qualifications, it thus appears more difficult to access employment in France and Italy than in Germany or for the EU average. Similarly, in France and Italy about two thirds of NEETs have a degree, while in Germany the share is less than 50%. Access to employment is therefore more difficult for young people in France and Italy, whether or not they are graduates.

THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION SYSTEMATICALLY OVERDETERMINES ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT

The higher the level of education, the lower the risk of unemployment for young adults aged 25 to 39. In 2018, in the EU-28, the **unemployment rate**[□] for young adults with

a tertiary education qualification is 5%, while it reaches 16% for those with low qualifications (6.1.2). With the exception of Denmark, unemployment decreases as the ISCED level rises in each of the EU-28 countries, irrespective of the national average unemployment rate. In contrast, unemployment differences between ISCED levels differ between countries. In Slovakia, where the gap is the highest in the EU-28, it is 28 percentage points between tertiary graduates and those with low qualifications (national average unemployment rate: 7%). This gap is 2 points in Portugal (national average unemployment rate: 7%) and 16 points in France (national average unemployment rate: 9%), which is of course significant. In the case of Slovakia, the gap is accentuated by the fact that “low levels” of education are actually “very low”.

WOMEN SHOW A HIGHER RATE OF INACTIVITY OR PART-TIME WORK THAN MEN

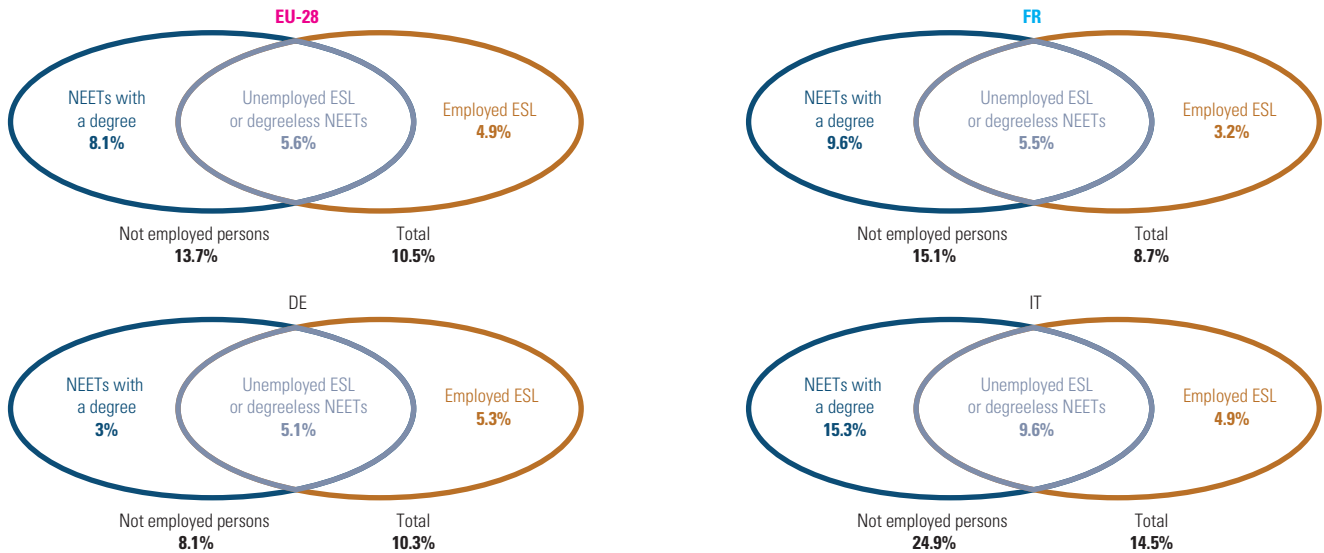
In 2018, men aged 15-39 in the EU-28 countries are more likely to belong to the **occupied labour force**[□] than women: 68% of men have this status, whereas it only applies to 59% of women (6.1.3). As the shares of unemployment are relatively similar (7% for men, 6% for women), the difference in status is due to a higher share of inactive women (35%) than men (25%) in the age group in question. The **inactivity status**[□] overlaps with both the situation of parallel unemployed training and withdrawal from the labour market, situations which cannot be distinguished here. In France, employment rates are slightly lower and inactivity rates slightly higher than the European average.

The proportion of inactive women in the relevant age group is systematically higher than that of inactive men. Among the countries presented here, Italy shows an inactivity rate gap of more than 10 percentage points between men and women in this age group, while the gap is only 2 percentage points in Sweden. Part-time work, which is largely female, contributes to reducing the employment rate gaps between men and women. It affects around 25% of women aged 15-39 in Germany and the United Kingdom, and 55% of this population in the Netherlands. In contrast, Spain, France and Italy have female part-time employment rates of 15% or less, below the EU average (18%). ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

6.1.1 NEET and Early School Leavers among the 18-24 year olds in the European Union, France, Germany and Italy, 2018

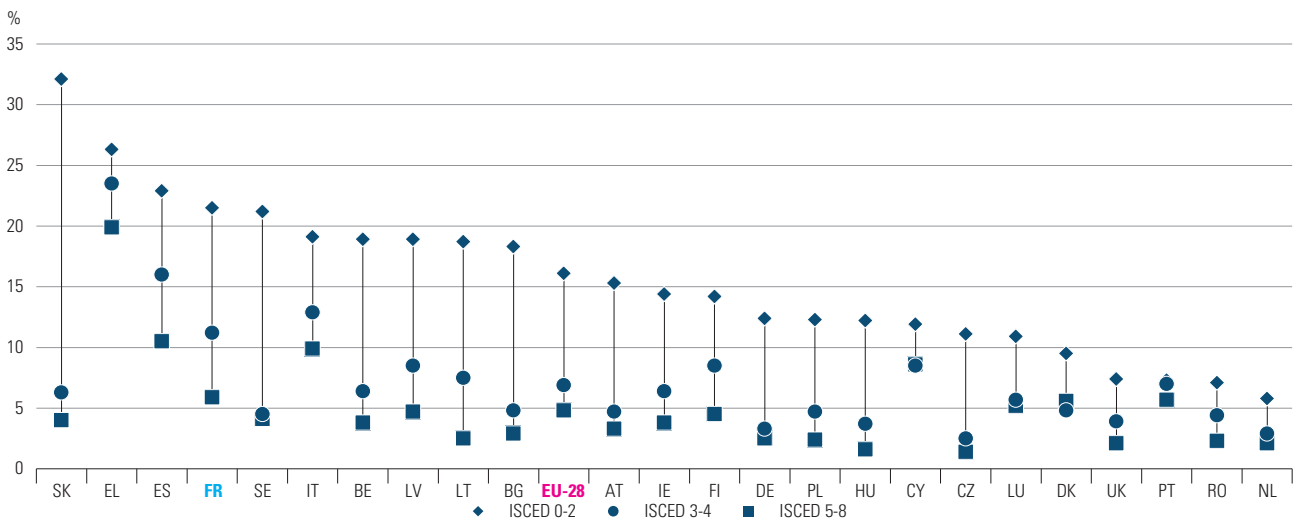
↳ Eurostat, *edat_lfse_14* and *edat_lfse_21*.



Reading: Reading: In 2018 in Germany, there are 8.1% NEETs among 18-24 year olds. These are distributed as follows: 3 % have at least upper secondary education and 5.1 % have a low level of education. The latter thus combine NEET and ESL status. In the same country, there are 10.3% of individuals in a situation of early school leaving. They are distributed as follows: 5.3% are in employment and 5% are unemployed. The latter include individuals with both NEET and ESL status.

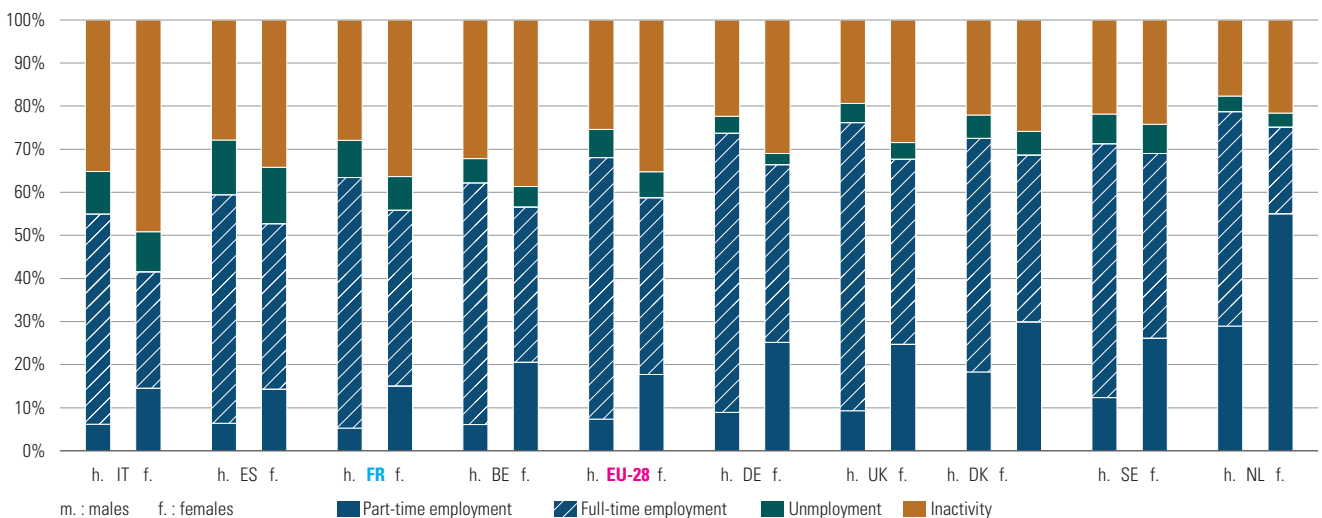
6.1.2 Unemployment rate among the 25-39 year olds by educational attainment level, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *lfsa_urgaed*.



6.1.3 Distribution of the 15-39 year olds by gender and work status, 2018

↳ Eurostat, *lfsa_pganws* and *lfsa_epgaed*.



Reading: in 2018, in Italy, 55% of men aged 15-39 are in employment (49% are full-time, 6% part-time); 10% are unemployed; 35% are inactive. For women, 42% are in employment (27% are full-time, 15% part-time); 9% are unemployed; 49% are inactive.

6.2 INCOME BY GENDER AND DEGREE LEVEL

WOMEN ARE PAID LESS FOR THE SAME LEVEL OF EDUCATION

In 2017, in the 23 EU-OECD member countries, women with tertiary education who work full-time have consistently lower labour incomes than men, both for those aged 25-64 and those aged 35-44. Indeed, on average across the 23 EU countries, women aged 25-64 receive an income equivalent to 76% of that of men, and those aged 35-44 receive an income equivalent to 76% of that of men of the same age (6.2.1). For both age groups, Hungary has the lowest relative incomes for women: 67% for women aged 25-64 and 63% for women aged 35-44. In contrast, Belgium has the highest ratio for the 25-64 age group (86%), and shares the highest ratio with the Netherlands for the 35-44 age group (87%). In France, women's labour income is 71% of men's labour income for the 25-64 age group and 76% for the 35-44 age group. France is therefore at a level comparable to the European average for each of these two age groups.

HIGHER EDUCATION: THE "NEXT DEGREE" ALWAYS PAYS OFF

ZOOM

Labour income according to the OECD

The OECD labour income indicator used here (6.2.1 to 6.2.3) refers to full-time employed persons who were paid during the entire reference year. This is gross labour income. For European countries, the sources come from the EU-SILC survey (this is the case for France), the LFS survey or national sources. Countries which do not present complete data by ISCED level have been removed from the graph.

In 2017, the labour incomes of individuals without qualifications are lower than those at ISCED level 3 in almost all EU countries. On average across the 23 EU OECD countries, the labour incomes of non-graduates are 19% lower than those of ISCED 3 graduates (6.2.2). Austria has the largest gap to the detriment of non-graduates (33%). The gap is also large in Germany and Greece. Ireland is the only EU country to show a very slightly positive difference in favour of non-graduates (+3%). In France,

the gap is 21% at non-graduates disadvantage, which puts the country in a situation similar to the average for the EU-23 countries.

In 2017, in the average of the 23 European OECD countries with available data, obtaining a tertiary education qualification is always beneficial compared to an ISCED 3 qualification and the "next qualification" within tertiary education is also better paid (6.2.3). Indeed, on average, compared with employed people aged 25 to 64 and qualified at ISCED level 3, people of the same age with an ISCED 5 qualification earn 21% more; those at ISCED 6 level earn 38% more; and those at ISCED 7 and 8 levels earn 74% more.

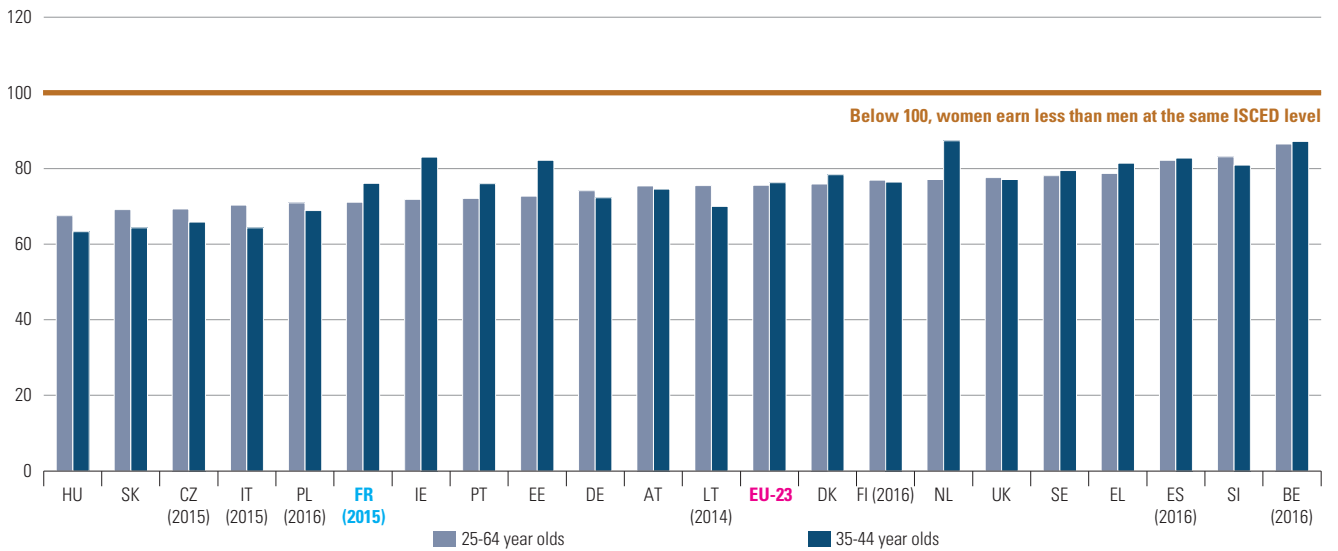
In some countries, such as Germany, income increases linearly with the level of education. In others, such as Belgium or the Netherlands, the transition from ISCED 5 to ISCED 6 results in a limited increase in income, with a higher relative advantage for ISCED 7 and 8. The situation in France is similar to that of this second group of countries, where obtaining a master's degree leads to a very clear increase in income. Finally, two extreme cases can be observed. On the one hand, in five countries (Austria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Greece), the "next degree" does not systematically lead to an increase in earned income. On the other hand, in Hungary, obtaining a master's or doctoral degree has the largest relative advantage compared with ISCED 3 qualifications.

However, this labour income should be observed in relation to the structure of the population by level of education attained. Hungary, the country with the highest income gains for higher education qualifications, is also the panel country with the lowest proportion of higher education graduates among 25-64 year olds (24% in 2017, compared to 35% in France). Conversely, the countries with the lowest income gains (Estonia, Belgium, and Sweden) consistently have graduate rates of 40% or more. The low number of highly qualified individuals therefore seems to guarantee them higher earnings. However, Ireland is an exception: earnings gains are indeed clear from ISCED level 6 onwards, but it is also the country with the most tertiary graduates in the panel (47%). ■

See definition p. 84.

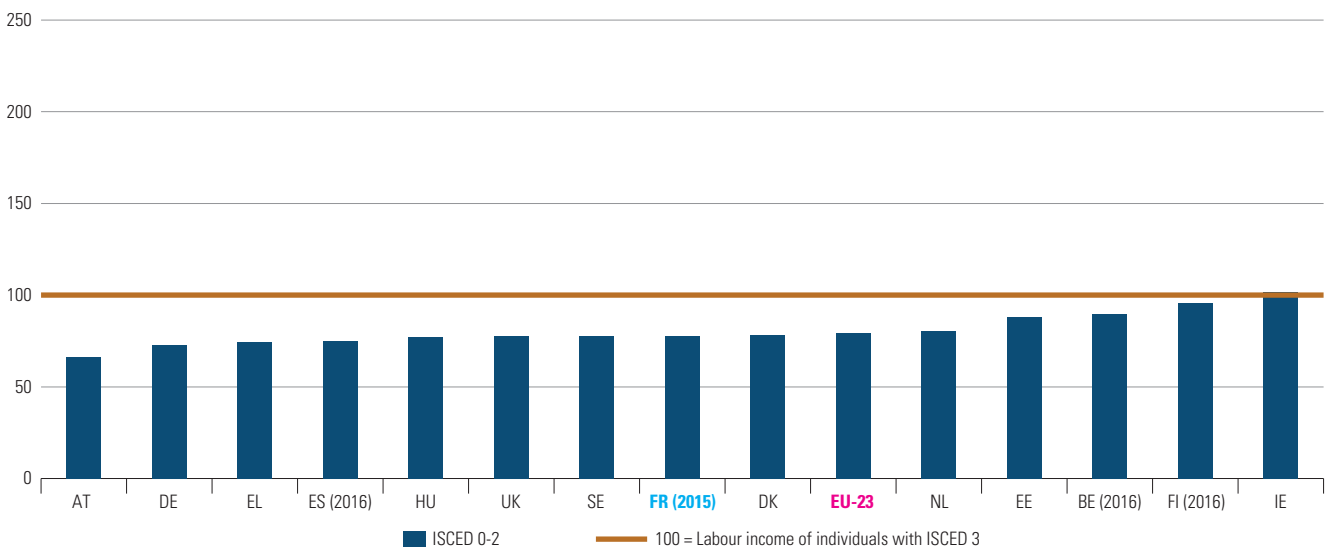
6.2.1 Labour income of women (with an ISCED 5-8 educational attainment) compared to men (with an ISCED 5-8 educational attainment) by age group, 2017

OECD, EAG2019, table A4.3



6.2.2 Labour income of low qualified individuals compared to individuals with an ISCED 3 educational attainment, 2017

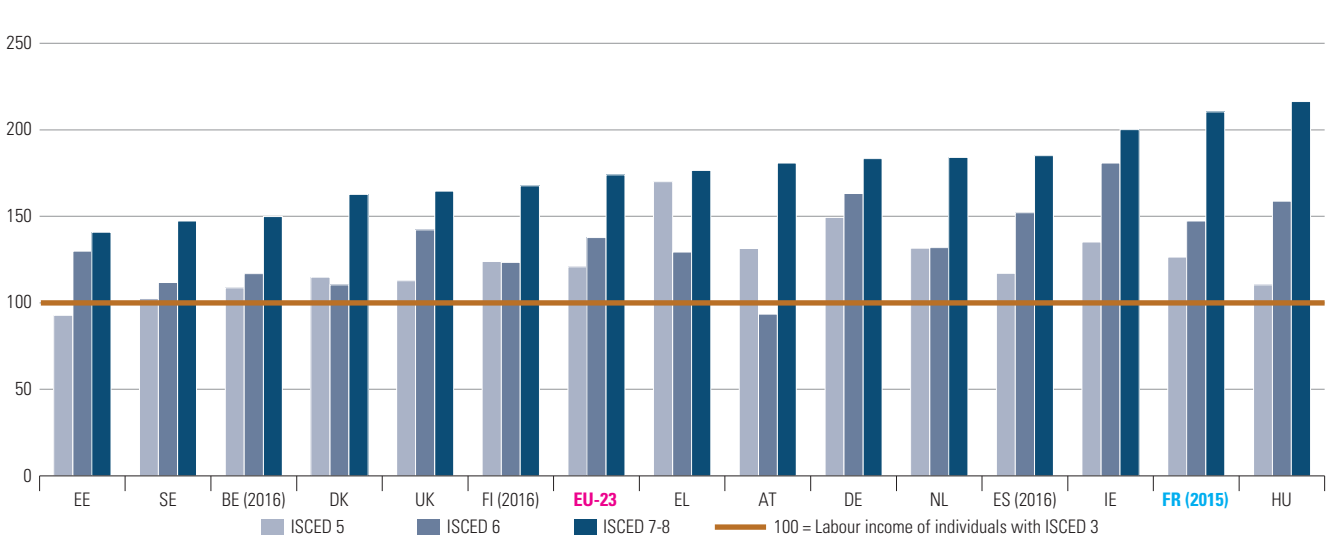
OECD, EAG2019, table A4.1



Reading: In 2017, in Austria, people with ISCED 0-2 educational attainment receive 33% less labour income than people with ISCED 3.

6.2.3 Labour income of individuals with tertiary education relative to the one of ISCED 3 graduates, by ISCED level attained, 2017

OECD, EAG2019, table A4.1



Reading: In 2017, in Estonia, people with a level of ISCED 5 receive 7% less labour income than people with a level of ISCED 3.

MORE POSITIVE HEALTH STATEMENTS AMONG HIGHLY SKILLED INDIVIDUALS

In 2017, in 28-member European Union, non-graduates are less likely to report being in good health than people with higher education qualifications, according to the **Minimum European Health Module (MEHM)**[□] of the EU-SILC survey. Indeed, on average in the EU-28, 57% of individuals who have attained ISCED 0-2 level report good or very good health, while this is the case for 81% of individuals who have attained ISCED 5-8 level **(6.3.1)**.

Lithuania has the lowest share of non-graduates reporting good health in the EU-28 (27%) and Ireland the highest (69%). In France (54%), the United Kingdom (56%) and Germany (58%), the shares of healthy non-graduates are close to the EU average. As regards tertiary education graduates, there is less variation between EU countries: a minimum of 55% is observed in Latvia, while a maximum of 91% is found in Cyprus, Ireland and Malta. France and the United Kingdom, both with 79% of individuals having attained ISCED 5-8 who report being in good health, are again close to the EU-28 average.

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

In the **EU-SILC 2017 ad hoc module on health and children's health**[□], more than two thirds of the Europeans surveyed aged 25-64 report more than one hour per week of physical activity outside working time. However, this proportion differs significantly according to the level of education attained by individuals. Indeed, on average in the EU-28 countries, fewer adults among non-graduates than among those with tertiary education report engaging in physical activity for leisure purposes for one hour or more per week: 56% of non-graduates and 80% of tertiary graduates **(6.3.2)**. This is true in all EU countries. France is close to the European average for both populations presented here.

In addition, the survey collected **Body Mass Index (BMI)**[□] from the respondents, which shows that the less qualified are more often obese. On average in Europe, this is the case for 18% of non-graduates and 11% of higher education graduates **(6.3.3)**. In the EU-28 and for both populations observed here, Malta has the highest proportions of people who are obese, and Romania has the lowest. In France, the share of individuals in obesity is close to the European average, regardless of their level of education.

[□] See source p. 84 and definition p. 80.

MORE FREQUENT USE OF MEDICAL SERVICES AMONG THE HIGHLY EDUCATED THAN AMONG THE NON-GRADUATES

In the European Union, people with higher education qualifications are more likely to consult the various medical professions than those without qualifications. Indeed, in 2017, 43% of persons with ISCED 5-8 level education aged 25-64 report having consulted a general practitioner once or twice in the 12 months preceding the survey, while 38% of non-graduates report having done so **(6.3.4)**. France shows a response rate identical to the European average in the case of higher education graduates (43%) and lower than the European average in the case of non-graduates (30%).

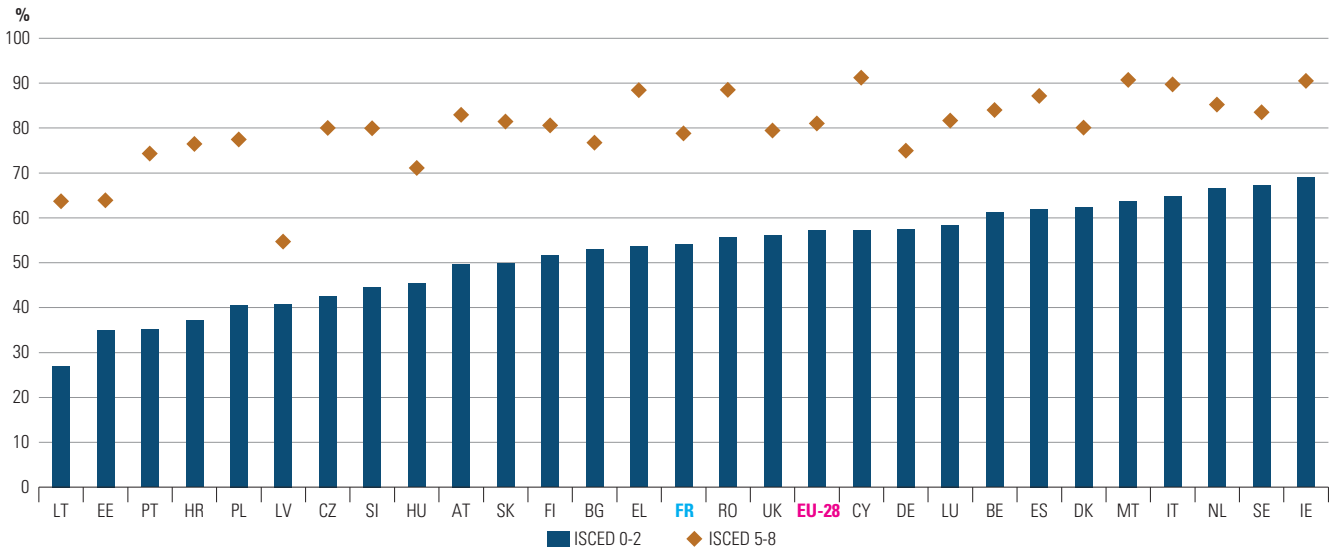
Visits to dentists are also less frequently reported by non-graduates: on average in the EU-28, 33% of those without qualifications have been to a dentist once or twice in the 12 months prior to the survey, while this is the case for 53% of higher education graduates **(6.3.5)**. Here again, whatever the level of qualification, France has rates slightly below the European average, but above all in comparison with the countries of northern Europe (especially the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden).

The social determinism related to qualifications that appears in this indicator, as in those presented earlier, is, however, less perceptible in some countries. For example, in Finland, the rates of recourse to specialists are close to the European average, but the differences in this respect according to the level of qualification are smaller (7 percentage points in the two medical specialties).

Moreover, international comparisons of the use of medical services partly reflect differences in social protection systems, which are more or less accessible to families with the lowest incomes. It also reflects regional differences in the availability of services. For example, in 2017, there are notable inequalities between some *Länder* in Germany: there are 403 general practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants in Saxony, while there are 535 in Berlin. In addition to this more favourable medical demography, the more urbanised regions tend to concentrate populations with higher education, which by construction reinforces differences in the use of medical services between populations with different levels of qualifications. ■

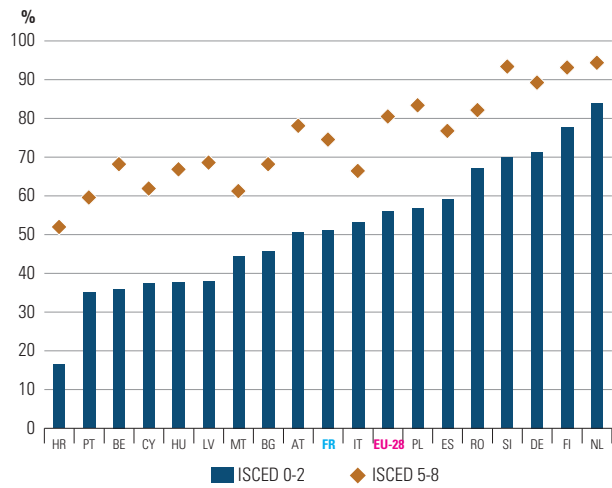
6.3.1 Proportion of individuals who are 16 years old or older and declare being in good or very good health, by educational attainment, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *hlth_silc_o2*.



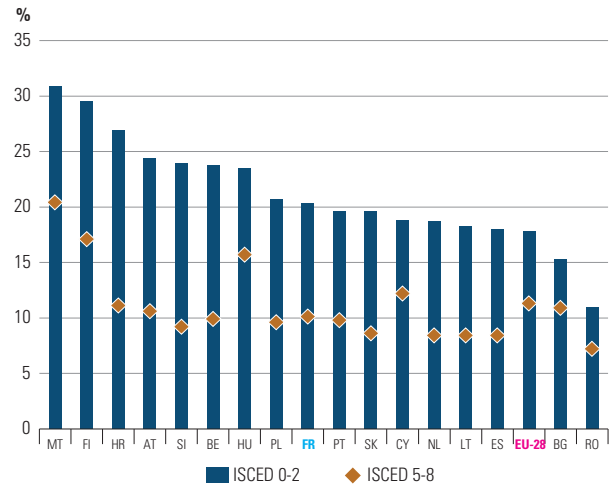
6.3.2 Proportion of individuals performing one hour or more of physical activity outside working time, by educational attainment level, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_hcho7*.



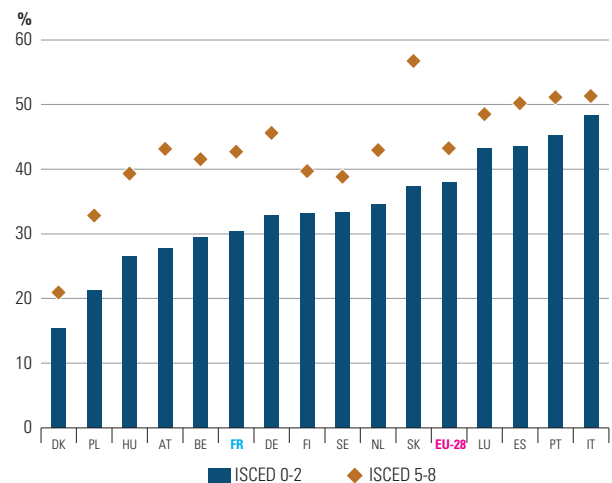
6.3.3 Proportion of 25-64 year olds with obesity, by educational attainment level, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_hcho10*.



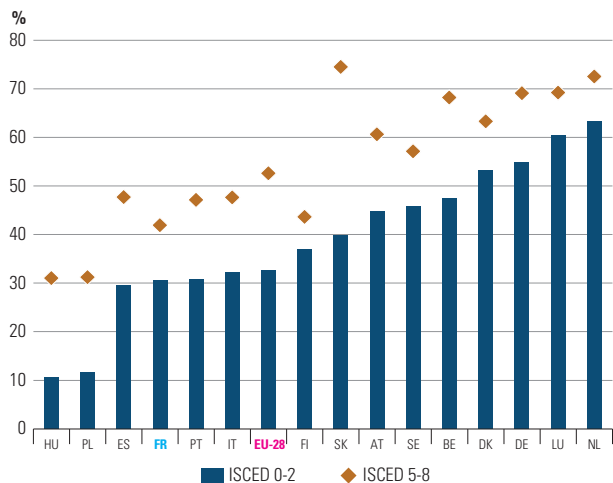
6.3.4 Proportion of 25-64 year olds who consulted a generalist medical practitioner once or twice during the last 12 months, by educational attainment level, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_hcho3*.



6.3.5 Proportion of 25-64 year olds who consulted a dentist once or twice during the last 12 months, by educational attainment level, 2017

↳ Eurostat, *ilc_hcho3*.



CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION IS A COMPULSORY SUBJECT IN MORE THAN HALF OF THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In 16 EU countries, **citizenship education**[□] is integrated as a special compulsory subject (6.4.1). Seven of these countries allocate by official text a specific number of hours of instruction to citizenship education from primary school onwards: this is the case in Romania (50 hours), French-speaking Belgium (150 hours) and, above all, France (180 hours). The majority of countries, however, introduce it as a compulsory subject from lower or upper secondary education: this is the case in Poland (70 hours in ISCED 2 and 30 hours in ISCED 3) or Luxembourg (120 hours in ISCED 3). Only Estonia, Finland, France and Greece make citizenship education a compulsory subject from primary to upper secondary level. At the end of secondary education, a pupil will have benefited from 20 hours of citizenship education in Cyprus, 150 hours in French-speaking Belgium and 310 hours in France.

In 2017, 15 countries and entities do not organize citizenship education assessments (6.4.2). For seven of them, including French-speaking Belgium, Greece and Luxembourg, citizenship education is nevertheless a compulsory subject. Among the countries that evaluate citizenship education, 14 organise tests in the context of examinations leading to a certificate or diploma in secondary education. For example, in France, ‘civic and moral education’ is part of the examinations for the national diploma of the *brevet* and *baccalauréat*, whether general, technological or vocational.

THE ENVIRONMENTAL DIMENSION IS PRESENT IN MOST EUROPEAN EDUCATIONAL CURRICULA

In 22 countries and entities of the European Union, citizenship education – which teaches how to act in a socially responsible manner – covers the competence “environmental protection” (6.4.3). In 14 of them, including Belgium, Finland and France, this competence is present at all levels of education (ISCED 1 to ISCED 3); in a few others, it appears only in primary education (Ireland, Latvia, England) or only in secondary education (Austria, Hungary, Netherlands). Environmental protection” is absent from the curricula in about ten countries, such as Denmark, Germany and Spain. In the latter country, however, **sustainable development**[□] is included in the national curriculum (ISCED 1 to ISCED 3) and deals with environmental issues as well as the challenges of sustainable economic and social development.

In the PISA 2018 survey, the proportion of 15-year-olds reporting participation in environmental protection activities is, for the EU-28, the highest in Romania (47%) and the lowest in the United Kingdom (only 20%) (6.4.4). However, more young Europeans report reducing their energy consumption at home, ranging from 50% in Bulgaria to 75% in Slovenia and around 60% in Germany, Italy and the UK.

It must be noted that the teaching of the “environmental protection” skill has different effects on students’ self-reported practices depending on the country and the type of practice. For example, in France, where this competence is included in the curricula at all ISCED levels, 22% of young people report taking part in environmental activities, but 60% report reducing their energy consumption at home. It should be recalled here that declarations of environmentally friendly practices may contain social desirability biases. In addition, schools and educational institutions can, independently of official texts, organise environmental actions or participate in national (*Sameworld* in Greece) or international initiatives (*Ecoschools*, in Malta and the United Kingdom).

MANY YOUNG EUROPEANS SAY THEY ARE OPEN TO CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

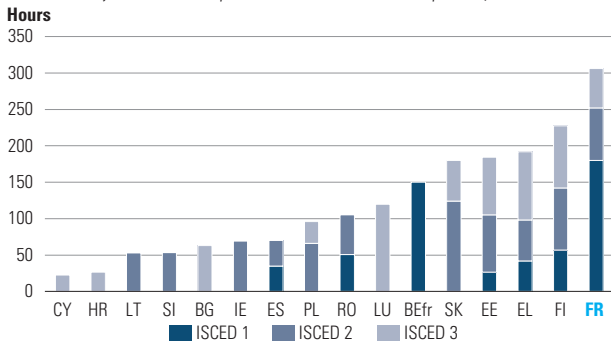
A recommendation of the Council of the European Union, published in 2018, promotes common European values including respect for human dignity, equality and human rights. **Intercultural education**[□] precisely aims at promoting diversity and equal opportunities. In England, Scotland, France and Latvia, it is a separate subject, included in citizenship education (6.4.5). In Hungary, Portugal and Romania, it is a component of “school life” and is the subject of special days or specific projects according to official texts. In 18 countries, including Germany, Spain and Italy, intercultural education is both a subject in its own right and a part of “school life”.

In 2018, in many European countries, a large majority of 15-year-olds in 2018 consider people from other cultures as their equals (6.4.6). While 56% and 58% respectively agree with this statement in Bulgaria and Hungary, 78% in France and up to 88% in Ireland. Fewer, however, say they are curious about lifestyles or traditions that differ from their own. In France, there are as many 15-year-olds who want to learn more about the lives of people from other cultures as there are who are interested in other traditions (almost 60% in both cases). Romania has proportions that are consistently among the highest for each of the three statements observed here. ■

[□] See definition p. 80.

6.4.1 Total recommended number of hours of compulsory citizenship education as a separate subject in general education, 2017

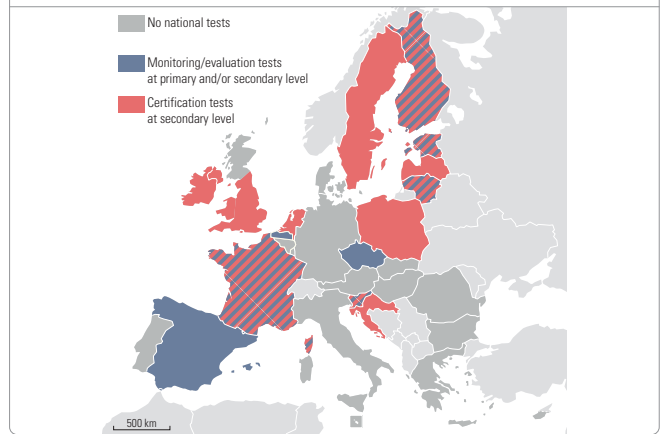
Source: Eurydice, *Citizenship education at school in Europe, 2017*



Note: Countries are ranked according to the total number of hours devoted to citizenship education from ISCED 1 to 3.

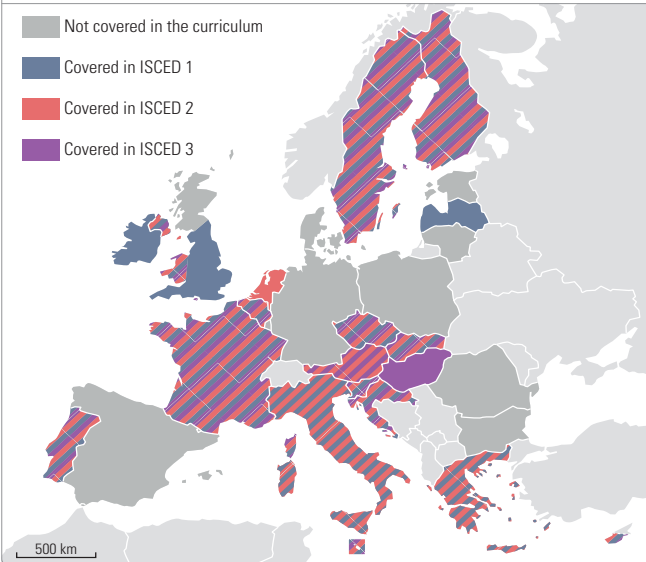
6.4.2 National tests in citizenship education from ISCED 1 to ISCED 3 (general and vocational education), 2016-17

Source: Eurydice, *Citizenship education at school in Europe, 2017*



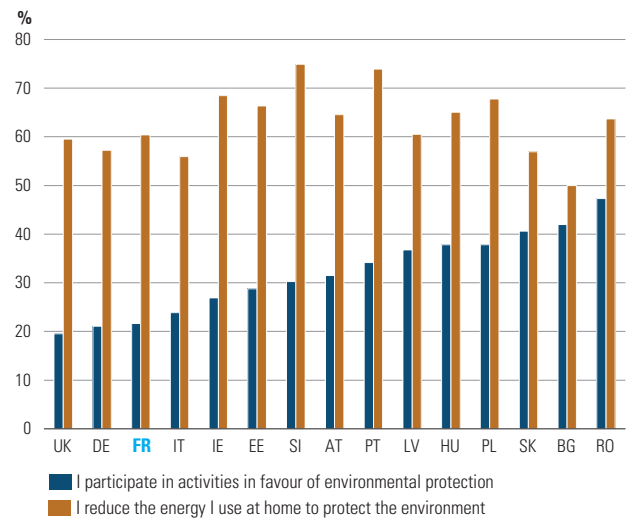
6.4.3 Environmental protection in national curricula from ISCED 1 to ISCED 34 (general education), 2016-17

Source: Eurydice, *Citizenship education at school in Europe, 2017*



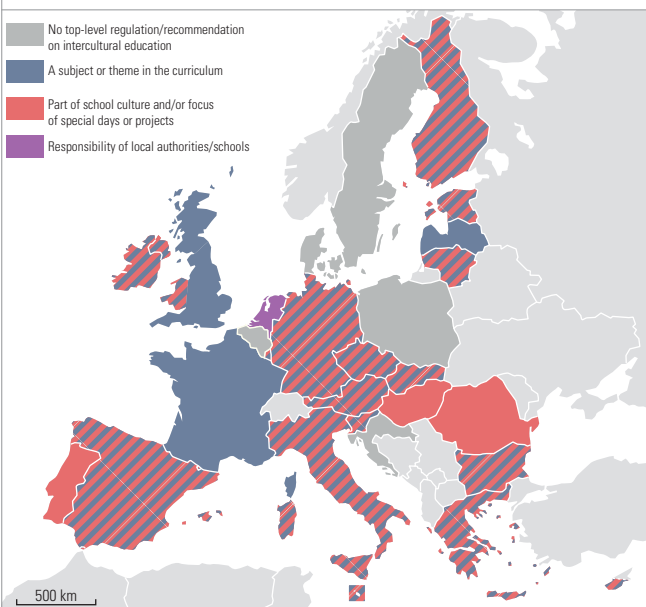
6.4.4 Proportion of 15 year olds who declare taking action to protect the environment, 2018

Source: OECD, PISA 2018, student questionnaire extraction.



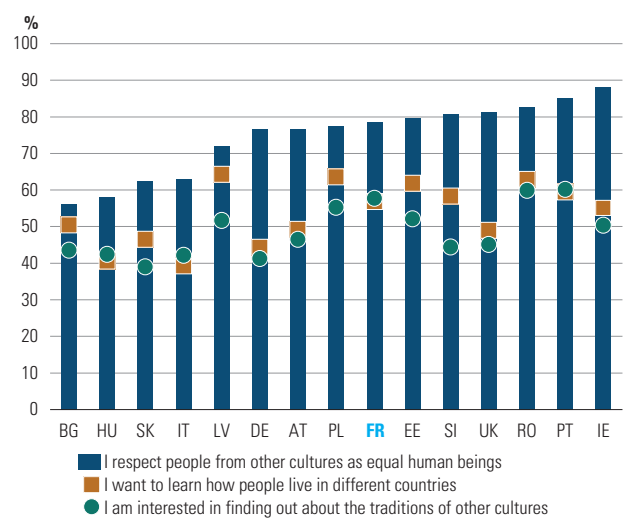
6.4.5 Status of intercultural education in school education from ISCED 1 to ISCED 3 (general and vocational education), 2017-18

Source: Eurydice, *Integrating students from migrant backgrounds into schools in Europe, fig. 1.3.11, 2018*



6.4.6 Proportion of 15 year olds who agree with the following statements regarding interculturality, 2018

Source: OECD, PISA 2018, student questionnaire extraction.



Average actual salaries of teachers and school heads

Two main indicators are used by the OECD and Eurydice to compare the remuneration of teachers and school heads: statutory salaries and actual salaries. Both categories of data refer to teachers working full-time in public schools and establishments (general secondary education, i.e. *collège* and general and technological *lycée* in France). The indicators are broken down by level of education (pre-primary, primary, lower and upper secondary). The national values correspond to gross salaries and are converted into US dollars and take into account the cost of living in each country, thus ensuring international comparability.

The main difference between statutory and actual salaries lies in the scope used. In the first case, only the majority type of teachers at each level of education is used, i.e., in France, the *professeurs des écoles* in public primary schools and *professeurs certifiés* in public secondary schools. As for actual salaries, they cover all tenured teachers and therefore include the *professeurs agrégés* in secondary education in France. In addition, as defined internationally, statutory salaries correspond to the basic remuneration (derived from the index scales in France) received at different stages of the career, to which are added the bonuses and allowances due to all or a large proportion of the teachers concerned (for example, the residence allowance in France). Actual salaries, for their part, are broken down by age and include bonuses, allowances and overtime pay, and come from different national sources - pay slips in France [OECD and Eurydice definitions, reviewed by the DEPP].

Average class size

Average class size is obtained by dividing the number of pupils at an ISCED level (only ISCED 1 and 2 are calculated) by the total number of classes at each of the two levels of education. Special education programmes are excluded, as are sub-groups of students outside the regular classes [OECD definition].

Average statutory salaries of teachers and school heads

See previous entry: "average actual salaries".

Body Mass Index (BMI)

The World Health Organization (WHO) has used body mass index (BMI) to monitor overweight and obesity in populations. BMI is calculated by dividing mass in kilograms by height in metres squared (kg/m^2). The WHO has set BMI thresholds for classifying individuals: a "normal" BMI is between 18.5 and 25 kg/m^2 , a threshold above and below which the risk of mortality increases significantly: overweight is between 25 and 30 kg/m^2 ; above this, it is obesity.

Citizenship education

Education that aims to encourage students to become active, informed, responsible, self-reliant citizens who are able, if they so choose, to take responsibility for their communities locally, regionally, nationally and internationally. It covers four main areas of competence, namely: interacting effectively and constructively with others; developing critical thinking; acting in a socially responsible manner; and acting democratically [Eurydice definition].

Computational Thinking (ICILS)

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

Computer and information literacy (ICILS)

Computer and information literacy is defined in the survey as

an individual's ability to use a computer effectively to collect, manage, produce and communicate information at home, at school, in the workplace and in society. It has four sub-dimensions: understanding computer use, collecting information, producing information and communicating digitally [IEA definition].

Dependent children

A dependent child is a member of a household who is under 25 years of age and who is economically and socially dependent on other members of the household (parents/adults). All household members under 15 years of age are considered dependent by default. Individuals aged between 15 and 24 are considered dependent if they are not in employment (Eurostat definition).

Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)

In international work, the ECEC covers all formal childcare and pre-primary education services (i.e. organized/controlled directly by a public/private structure or through it) for children from the earliest age up to the age of primary schooling. It can be "collective" (in a centre) or "individual" (in the caregiver's home). Observed from the point of view of the age of the children, there are two main categories of arrangements. For the youngest (i.e. generally under 3 years of age), there are, on the one hand, services without explicit educational intentions (not classified according to ISCED) and, on the other hand, services with an educational aim (ISCED 0).

As regards services outside ISCED, such care may be: collective, in an authorized structure, usually under the supervision of the Ministry of Social Affairs (e.g. in France: *crèches* and other collective structures such as kindergartens and nursery schools), individual (in France, in the home of a childcare provider - *assistant.e maternel.le agré.e*); for ISCED 0, the field includes, for this age (under 3 years), mainly early childhood educational development services (ISCED 01) - not represented in France - where care may also be collective or individual.

Exceptions to this general pattern are also possible: ISCED 01 may extend beyond the age of 3 years (e.g. up to 4 years in Greece, or 4 years and 8 months in Cyprus). Also, for older children (i.e. generally over 3 years of age), the ECEC refers mainly to the set of pre-primary education programmes (ISCED 02) offered to the child in a collective centre up to the age of primary education (in France, in nursery school). However, it is possible to enter ISCED 02 before the age of 3 (France and Belgium, French and Flemish communities), just as it is possible to follow ISCED 02 in individual mode (Finland, United Kingdom).

Employment rate

The employment rate relates the number of people in employment to the national population. It can also be expressed for a given group (age group, sex, etc.) by relating the employed persons of this group to the total population of the same group [INSEE definition].

Enrolment rate

The enrolment ratio is the percentage of young people of a given schooling age who are enrolled in school as a proportion of the total population of the same age [INSEE definition].

Flexible Curriculum

In the work of Eurydice and the OECD, this is the part of the compulsory curriculum for which educational institutions/local authorities have greater autonomy in organising educational time. There are two main types of flexibility: horizontal and vertical. In the case of horizontal flexibility, the central authorities define a total number of hours of instruction for each grade, without specifying the number of hours for each subject, which is distributed locally. In the case of vertical flexibility, the central authorities determine a total number of hours per compulsory

subject, without specifying how many hours must be devoted to these subjects per teaching year.

Formal education

Institutionalized, voluntary and planned education through public agencies and recognized private entities that together make up a country's formal education system. Formal education programmes are therefore recognized as such by the competent national education authorities or equivalent authorities, i.e. any other institution in cooperation with national or sub-national education authorities. Vocational education, special needs education and parts of adult education are often recognized as belonging to the formal education system [Unesco definition].

Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

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

Immigration Status (PISA)

In the PISA survey, the OECD proposes three categories of migration status:

- Non-immigrant pupils are those who have at least one parent who was born in the country where the pupil took the test, whether or not the pupil was born in the country;
- first generation” immigrant pupils who were born abroad to two parents who were themselves born abroad;
- second-generation” immigrant pupils who were born in the test country of two foreign-born parents.

Inactivity status

The status of inactive persons is defined by convention as persons who are neither in employment nor unemployed: young people under 15 years of age, students and pensioners who do not work to supplement their studies or retirement, housewives and househusbands, persons unable to work, etc. The status of inactive persons is defined by convention as persons who are neither in employment nor unemployed: young people under 15 years of age, students and pensioners who do not work to supplement their studies or retirement, housewives and househusbands, persons unable to work, etc. [INSEE definition].

Instruction time

Instruction time is the time during which a public institution is expected to provide instruction to students in all subjects in the compulsory and non-compulsory curriculum, on its premises, during the school day or at pre- and after-school activities, which are official components of the compulsory curriculum. Instruction time is calculated excluding breaks between classes and other types of interruptions, non-compulsory time outside the school day, time spent on homework and lessons at home, individual tutoring or private tutoring [OECD definition].

Intercultural Education

Education that aims to promote understanding between different peoples and cultures through education that fosters acceptance and respect for diversity in all areas of life. It aims to explore, examine and combat all forms of stereotypes and xenophobia, and to promote equal opportunities for all [Eurydice definition].

International Mobility

According to the UOE data collection, an internationally mobile student is a student who has left a so-called “home” country to follow a higher education programme in another country.

Several criteria can be used to define the “home country” of an internationally mobile student, depending on the constraints of national statistical systems. These criteria are, in order of preference: the country where the upper secondary education diploma was obtained, the country where the secondary education was completed, the country of residence and finally nationality. In France, the home country of a student on international mobility is defined by the intersection of two criteria: nationality (only foreign students are taken into account) and diploma (only holders of a foreign secondary education diploma are taken into account; for example, holders of the French baccalaureate, even if obtained in a French *lycée* abroad, are excluded). There are two types of mobility: “credit” mobility and “degree” mobility. In the first case, the student is registered in the framework of a partnership (e.g. Erasmus + scholarship), only completes part of the teaching programme abroad and does not aim to obtain a diploma from the “host country”. In the second case, the student does not depend on any partnership, completes the majority of the educational programme in the host country, of which he or she aims to obtain a degree.

Inward international mobility

See “international mobility”. In the case of incoming mobility, students are counted as internationally mobile in a given host country, regardless of their home country.

Life expectancy at birth

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

Median net disposable income

The disposable income of a household comprises earned income (net of social contributions), income from assets, transfers from other households and social benefits (including retirement pensions and unemployment benefits), net of direct taxes. Median disposable income divides the population in half: 50% of people have lower disposable income, 50% of people have higher disposable income. Using the median rather than the average avoids too great an impact of extreme values [INSEE definition].

Modern Foreign Languages

Modern foreign languages are other languages learned by pupils outside the language of instruction. In some cases they may correspond to other national and/or regional languages. For example, German, French and Luxembourgish are the three official languages in Luxembourg. During primary education, French is taught as modern foreign language and the other two languages are languages of instruction. From lower secondary education onwards, French becomes the language of instruction and German a modern foreign language [source Eurydice].

Natural balance

The natural balance (or natural increase or natural surplus of population) is the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths recorded during a period [INSEE definition].

Natural variation

See “natural balance”.

Neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET)

NEET is defined as unemployed or inactive persons as defined by the ILO, who are not in initial education and who have declared that they have not attended formal or non-formal education in the four weeks preceding the survey (LFS). The NEET indicator relates this population for a certain age group to the total population of the same age (population on 1 January, Eurostat population statistics). It therefore focuses on the employment status of the person rather than on the level of qualification [Eurostat definition].

Net migration

Net migration is the difference between the number of people who entered the territory and the number of people who left during the year. This concept is independent of nationality [INSEE definition].

Non-formal education

Institutionalized, voluntary and planned education by an education provider, but which is an addition, alternative and/or complement to formal education in the lifelong learning process of individuals. It is often offered in order to guarantee the right of access to education for all. It is aimed at individuals of all ages but is not necessarily structured as a continuous pathway; it may be of short duration and/or low intensity and is usually provided in the form of short programmes, workshops or seminars. Non-formal education most often leads to qualifications that are not recognized as formal (or equivalent) by the national education authorities; it may also lead to no qualifications [UNESCO definition].

Occupied labour force

The employed labour force as defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO) comprises persons aged 15 years or over who worked (even if only for one hour) during a given week (called the reference week), whether they were employees, self-employed, employers or helpers in the family business or farm. It also includes persons who are employed but temporarily absent for reasons such as illness (less than one year), paid leave, maternity leave, labour disputes, training, bad weather. Contingent soldiers, apprentices and paid trainees are part of the employed labour force [INSEE definition].

Overcrowding rate (of households)

The overcrowding rate is the number of households living in overcrowded housing as a proportion of all households. The overcrowding of a dwelling refers to the number of rooms, considering the following as necessary: one room for the household, one room for each couple, one room for single persons aged 19 and over; and one room for two children if they are of the same sex or under seven years of age. In order not to be overcrowded, a dwelling must also have a defined minimum surface area: 25 m² for a single person living in a one-room dwelling or 18 m² per person for other households [INSEE definition].

Outward international mobility

See “international mobility”. In the case of outgoing mobility, students in international mobility from a given home country are counted regardless of their host country.

Postnatal leave

Paid leave that guarantees the employment of women and men upon the birth of a child. For women, the relevant ILO Convention stipulates that maternal leave should be at least 14 weeks. In most countries, maternal leave is distributed before and after the birth of the child. For fathers, there is no international convention [OECD definition].

Proportion of girls and boys out of school (SDG Indicator 4)

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

Pupil-teacher ratio

In the “UOE” collection, the pupil-teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the number of pupils and students in full-time equivalents (in some countries, part of the pupils and students are enrolled on a part-time basis) of a level of education considered by the total number of teachers, also in full-time equivalents, of the same level of education. Replacement teachers or teachers on long-term leave are counted. This ratio does not take into account the instruction time per pupil or the instruction time of a teacher. The teachers counted correspond to the teachers in front of the pupils. In France, this category therefore includes both permanent and contract teachers, including staff such as those in RASED, but also teachers on leave and their replacements, as well as ISCED 1 school heads with partial discharge. On the other hand, supervisory and administrative staff - including school heads with full discharge - as well as teaching assistants and para-professionals are excluded from the calculation.

Purchasing Power Parity (PPP)

Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are currency conversion rates that aim to equalise the purchasing power of different currencies by eliminating differences in price levels between countries. The basket of goods and services whose prices are determined is a sample of all those that make up final expenditure, namely household and government final consumption, capital formation and net exports. This indicator is measured in national currency units per US dollar [OECD definition].

Purchasing Power Standard (PPS)

The purchasing power standard (PPS) is an artificial monetary unit that eliminates differences in price levels between countries. Thus, a PPS allows the same volume of goods and services to be purchased in all countries [INSEE definition].

Risk of poverty and social exclusion

It is a summary measure of the number of people at risk of poverty and social exclusion: those whose disposable income is below the poverty line (set at 60% of the national median disposable income after social transfers) and/or live in material deprivation (access to certain basic necessities) and/or live in households with very low work intensity, i.e. less than 20% of potential working time [Eurostat definition].

Share of unemployment

The share of the unemployed is the proportion of the unemployed in the total population. This indicator is different from the unemployment rate, which measures the proportion of unemployed in the labour force alone (employed + unemployed). The unemployment share is used to qualify the very high unemployment rate among young people under 25 years of age. Since many young people are educated and relatively few are employed, their unemployment rate is very high, while the

proportion of unemployed in the age group is much lower. (Unemployment share = Unemployment rate × Participation rate) [INSEE definition].

Statutory teaching time of teachers

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

– Statutory teaching time is the number of hours of instruction that a full-time teacher gives to a group or class of students according to statutory documents, employment contracts or other official documents. It is converted into hours (60 minutes) to ensure better comparability of data. It excludes time spent preparing lessons or supervising students during breaks (except for short breaks of less than 10 minutes).

– Compulsory attendance time in the school may be devoted, depending on the texts, to teaching or other activities.

– The total statutory working time may coincide with statutory teaching time, include compulsory attendance time in the establishment and even time devoted to activities outside school, or even correspond to the legal working time common to one or more sets of employees.

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

Sustainable development

Sustainable development refers to forms of development that aim to “meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland Report, 1987). Since the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, organized under the aegis of the United Nations, sustainable development has had three dimensions: environmental, economic and social.

Total fertility rate

Total period fertility measures the number of children a woman would have in the course of her life if the fertility rates observed at each age in the year in question remained unchanged. It should not be forgotten that the rates used in the calculation are those observed over a given year for the whole female population (composed of several generations) and therefore do not represent the rates for an actual generation of women. It is probable that no actual generation will have the observed rates at each age. Reproduction rates therefore serve only to give an overview of the demographic situation over a given year, without being able to draw any certain conclusions from them as to the future of the population. [INSEE definition].

Unemployment rate

See “share of unemployment”.

Demographic data

Several international demographic databases currently exist, including those of the United Nations and Eurostat. In the context of monitoring the sustainable development objective (SDG 4), the data used for most countries come from the United Nations Population Division (UNPD). For four European countries, including France, the data produced by the statistical office of the European Union (Eurostat) are used in SDG 4 as for other indicators (such as the enrolment rates produced by the OECD).

European Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)

The EU-SILC framework (European Statistics on Income and Living Conditions) is Eurostat's reference framework for the collection of data for comparative statistics on income distribution and social inclusion in the European Union. The survey collects data mainly on individual income and its various components, but does not ignore a range of components of household income. In addition, EU-SILC surveys focus on collecting information on social exclusion, housing, working, education and health conditions. The reference population shall comprise all private households and their current members residing in the territory of each of the Member States on the date of data collection [Eurostat].

Eurydice

Eurydice is the European Union (EU) education information network founded in 1980 and managed by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (under the authority of the European Commission). It brings together 42 national units in the 38 countries participating in the EU's Lifelong Learning Programme (EU Member States, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Montenegro, Serbia, Turkey, Norway, Lichtenstein and Switzerland). Its activities focus on the pooling of information on education systems and policies, as well as on the production of comparative analyses and indicators of Community interest.

EU-SILC 2017 ad hoc module on health and children's health

Each year, an ad hoc module of additional variables is associated with the permanent variables of EU-SILC to highlight aspects of social inclusion not explored by the main survey. In 2017, this module focused on 'health and health of children'. It was used to construct indicators on, among other things, the financial burden of medical care, frequency of visits to medical staff, occupational and non-occupational physical activity, nutrition and fitness of individuals [Eurostat].

International Computer and Information Litteracy Study (ICILS)

The International Computer and Information Litteracy Study (ICILS) is an evaluation carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), the first edition of which was published in 2013. Conducted on a sample basis, it assesses the digital literacy performance of eighth-grade students from the first year of primary school (grade 4 in France). In 2018, 12 countries (including France) and 2 local authorities participated. In addition, the 2018 edition of the survey introduced a new option of "computational thinking", in which only 8 countries (including France) participated.

Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)

The Labour Force Survey, or LFS, aims to obtain information about the labour market and related issues from a series of personal interviews conducted at the household level. The European Union (EU) Labour Force Survey covers all members of private households. It therefore excludes all citizens living in collective households (boarding schools, pensions, hospitals,

etc.). All Member States use common definitions based on the recommendations made at international level by the International Labour Organisation - ILO [Eurostat].

Minimum European Health Module (MEHM) of the EU-SILC survey

The EU-SILC survey collects data on the health of people aged 16 and over in Europe. It uses only three specific concepts: perceived or perceived health, chronic morbidity and functional activity limitation (partial or complete). These data are based on self-reporting by respondents. For felt or perceived health, the data are based on the answers to the question: "How is your general state of health? Very good, good, fair, poor, very poor" [Eurostat].

Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)

Every three years since 2000, under the auspices of the OECD, PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) has been assessing the skills of 15-year-old students in three areas: reading, mathematical and scientific literacy. PISA targets the age group that is reaching the end of compulsory schooling in most OECD countries, regardless of their past and future educational background. Students are not assessed on knowledge in the strict sense but on their ability to mobilize and apply it in a variety of situations, sometimes far from the school setting. In 2018, 80 countries and economies around the world took part in the [OECD] survey.

Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS)

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) is organized every 5 years by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). This survey assesses the reading literacy performance of students in the fourth year of schooling, counting from the first year of primary school in participating countries. In 2016, 50 partner countries/economies participated in the PIRLS test for pupils in the fourth year of compulsory schooling. Within the European Union, 20 countries, 2 nations (England and Northern Ireland) and the Communities of Flanders and Wallonia of Belgium participated.

Teaching And Learning International Survey (TALIS)

The Teaching And Learning International Survey (TALIS) aims to collect declarative data on the teaching environment and working conditions of teachers in lower secondary schools (ISCED 2, i.e. *collèges* for France). The sample for each country consists of at least 4 000 teachers in 200 schools (public and private) and their school heads. The first round of the survey took place in 2008 (France did not participate). In the second round, in 2013, 34 countries took part, including 24 OECD members and 19 European Union countries. Some countries have extended the survey to include teachers and school heads in lower and upper secondary education. This was partly the case in France during the 2018 cycle, where the country administered the questionnaires in primary and lower secondary education. A total of 48 countries participated in TALIS 2018, including 30 OECD countries and 23 European Union [OECD] countries.

Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)

The international survey TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study) is organized every 4 years by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). This survey assesses the performance in mathematics and science of students in grades 4 and 8 by counting from grade 1 of primary education in participating countries. France did not participate in the tests in the fourth grade. In 2015, 49 partner countries/economies participated in the TIMSS test for fourth grade pupils in primary education.

Within the European Union, 19 countries, 2 nations (England and Northern Ireland) and the Flemish Community of Belgium participated.

UOE (data collection)

Joint collection of the three international institutions UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat, created in 1993. This collection provides internationally comparable data on key aspects of education systems, in particular on enrolment rates (distribution by ISCED, by type of school, by programme, etc.) and success rates in

educational programmes, costs and resources allocated to education systems, as well as a set of data on teachers, class sizes, pupil/teacher ratios, etc. The data are also available on the number of pupils enrolled in education, the number of teachers, the size of classes, the number of pupils enrolled, the number of teachers, the number of pupils enrolled, the number of teachers, the size of classes, the pupil/teacher ratios, etc. The data can be used for the development of a national strategy to improve the quality of education.

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION (ISCED)

VERSION 2011 OF THE INTERNATIONAL STATISTICAL FRAMEWORK

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

Adopted by Unesco in 1978, ISCED classifies programmes and levels of education and training in a unified nomenclature allowing international statistical comparisons in the field of education. A first revision of ISCED was proposed in 1997. In 2011, ISCED has been reformed again, jointly by the three organizations coordinating its implementation (UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat). New developments are mainly in early childhood education and care, and in tertiary education. Thus, in ISCED 0, a distinction is now made between programmes for the educational development of young children (especially children under 3 years of age), coded ISCED 01, and those for pre-primary education (usually for children over 3 years of age), coded ISCED 02. In connection with the Bologna process (cf. 1.1), tertiary education programmes are classified according to four levels instead of two previously (ISCED 5 to ISCED 8) (A.1.1).

In addition, the 2011 codification of ISCED levels introduces new variables for the characterization of programmes. It is based on five main factors, namely: level of education, programme orientation, completion of the ISCED level, access to tertiary ISCED levels and position in the national structure of diplomas and qualifications (A.1.2). The level, which is represented by the first digit, corresponds to the level of education (e.g. primary, secondary). Guidance (second digit) corresponds to streams. The last three factors are reflected in the third digit of the codification. Thus, 'completion' indicates whether the completion of the programme makes it possible to validate, fully or partially, the ISCED level targeted. Access', which is restricted

to school education as is 'completion', indicates whether the programme concerned provides access to the higher ISCED levels. The position in the national degree structure, reserved for tertiary education, is based on the concepts of a first degree (which can be accessed directly following secondary education) and an additional degree (to which access is conditional on obtaining a bachelor's degree).

ISCED 2011 has many advantages over previous versions. For example, it allows better identification of the educational attainment of adults and a better distinction between formal and non-formal education. It also makes a clearer distinction between the concepts of attainment and target level, the latter corresponding to the programme in which the individual is enrolled at the time of observation. For example, a pupil newly enrolled in a secondary school has "attained" ISCED 2, since he or she has validated his or her secondary school education and is then moving on to ISCED 3. It is only once he or she has obtained a CAP, a BEP or a baccalauréat that he or she will have reached ISCED 3.

AN EXAMPLE OF CODIFICATION ACCORDING TO ISCED 2011: CAP AND BACCALAURÉAT GÉNÉRAL IN FRANCE

The two examples presented in A.1.3 give details of the codification of two French programmes. The CAP and the general baccalauréat are both upper secondary diploma programmes: their classification will therefore begin with the number 3. The second number indicates the orientation of the programme: the CAP is a 'vocational' programme and the baccalauréat général is a 'general' programme, which is reflected by the numbers 5 and 4 respectively. Finally, the third digit in the coding indicates whether or not the programme validates the ISCED level concerned and whether or not it provides access to the higher ISCED level. Here, both programmes validate ISCED level 3, but only the baccalauréat provides access to tertiary education. The codifications for the CAP and the general baccalauréat are therefore '353' and '344' respectively.

A.1.1 ISCED 2011 programmes – main coding elements

Level of education and level label		Orientation	Main equivalents in France
ISCED 0	ISCED 01 : Early childhood educational development	(-)	(-)
	ISCED 02 : Pre-primary education		From First year (« petite section ») to Third year (« grande section »)
ISCED 1	Primary education	(-)	From First grade (« CP ») to Fifth grade (« CM2 »)
ISCED 2	Lower secondary education	ISCED 24 : General	From Sixth grade (« 6 ^e ») to Ninth grade (« 3 ^e »)
		ISCED 25 : Vocational	(-)
ISCED 3	Upper secondary education	ISCED 34 : General	Programmes leading to general and technological baccalaureat
		ISCED 35 : Vocational	Programmes leading to vocational baccalaureat, Certificate of vocational ability ...
ISCED 4	Post-secondary non-tertiary education	ISCED 44 : General	Programmes leading to Diploma allowing admission in tertiary education and Certificate of ability in Law
		ISCED 45 : Vocational	Programmes leading to Postsecondary local certificates
ISCED 5	Short-cycle tertiary education	ISCED 54 : General	(-)
		ISCED 55 : Vocational	Programmes leading to Diploma in Technological Studies, Diploma of Advanced Technician...
ISCED 6	Bachelor's or equivalent level	Same coding (4, 5) Code 6 in the absence of internationally recognized definitions of academic and professional orientations at the tertiary level	Programmes leading to Bachelor's, Vocational Bachelor's, Qualification for nurses...
ISCED 7	Master's or equivalent level		Programmes leading to Master's, Engineer's degree...
ISCED 8	Doctoral or equivalent level		Programmes leading to Doctorate

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, *International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 2011*, 2012

A.1.2 ISCED's third digit coding for completion and access to higher levels of ISCED, as well as the position in the national structure of diplomas and certifications

	Coding (3 rd digit)	Level completion and access to higher levels of ISCED
ISCED 1 ISCED 2 ISCED 3 ISCED 4	1	Recognised successful completion of programme is insufficient for completion or partial completion of ISCED level, thus without direct access to programmes at higher ISCED levels. This coding is also applicable to tertiary education programmes.
	2	Recognised successful completion of programme is sufficient for partial completion of ISCED level but without direct access to programmes at higher ISCED levels.
	3	Recognised successful completion of programme is sufficient for completion of ISCED level but without direct access to programmes at higher ISCED levels.
	4	Recognised successful completion of programme is sufficient for completion of ISCED level and with direct access to programmes at higher ISCED levels. This coding is also applicable to the higher education programs of ISCED 5 (full program) and ISCED 8 (full program).
Position in the national structure of diplomas and certifications		
ISCED 6 ISCED 7	5	First degree programme – Bachelor's or equivalent level (3 to 4 years)
	6	Long first degree programme – Bachelor's or Master's, or equivalent level
	7	Second or further degree programme, following a Bachelor's or equivalent programme
	8	Second or further degree programme, following a Master's or equivalent programme
	9	Not classified elsewhere

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

A.1.3 Examples of codification of educational programs in France according to the 2011 classification: Certificate of vocational ability (CAP) and general baccalaureat (bac général)

Certificate of vocation ability (CAP)			General baccalauréat		
ISCED level	Orientation	Completion and access to higher ISCED levels	ISCED level	Orientation	Completion and access to higher ISCED levels
0	4	1	0	4	1
1	5	2	1	5	2
2		3	2		3
3		4	3		4
4			4		
5			5		
6			6		
7			7		
8			8		

Note: In France, the CAP is a program at the upper secondary level, which corresponds to ISCED level 3. It is a vocational-education program, which corresponds to code 5 in the ISCED coding (second digit). Finally, the CAP allows the recognition of ISCED level 3 full completion, but it does not give access to tertiary education, which is reflected by code 3 (third digit). The CAP is therefore coded 353 in the ISCED classification.

Education in Europe: Key Figures 2020

Education in Europe: Key Figures provides around 100 indicators analysed by the Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance monitoring (DEPP). With thirty fact sheets containing synthetic texts, boxes, graphs, tables and maps, the book provides data on:

- 1 education systems;
- 2 characteristics of their students;
- 3 parents and family background;
- 4 characteristics of teachers;
- 5 performance and equity outcomes of education systems;
- 6 economic and social impact of education.

An additional fact sheet, prepared by the Delegation for European and International Relations and Cooperation (DREIC) provides information on the management of the Covid-19 crisis by the countries of the European Union.

An annex contains definitions and sources. The book is also published in French.

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