Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe

2013 Edition

Eurydice Report
The need to ensure high quality teaching has become one of the key objectives of the Strategic Framework for Education and Training (ET 2020’). The framework underlines the importance to provide adequate initial teacher education, continuous professional development for teachers and trainers, and to make teaching an attractive career-choice.

The Council conclusions of March 2013 on investing in education and training for supporting the Europe 2020 Strategy (1) emphasizes further the focus on revising and strengthening the professional profile of the teaching profession by, for example, ensuring effective initial teacher education, by providing coherent and adequately resourced systems for recruitment selection, initial teacher education, early career support and competence-based continuing professional development of teaching staff.

In this policy context, I am very pleased to present the first edition of the Eurydice publication Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe, which gives an exhaustive picture of data relating to the teaching professions in 32 European countries covering 62 indicators. It examines important aspects of initial and continuing teacher education including its organisational features and teachers’ and school heads’ employment and working conditions.

Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe makes a valuable contribution to the debate on recruitment, professional development and working conditions of teachers and school leaders at both European and national level. Based on data collected through the Eurydice network, Eurostat, the TALIS, TIMSS and PISA international surveys, the report provides standardised and readily comparable quantitative and qualitative indicators which offer a wide-ranging overview of key issues related to the teaching profession in Europe.

I recommend Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe to all practitioners and policymakers working in this field. I am confident that the publication will be of great use to those responsible for designing policies on the teaching profession across European countries.

Androulla Vassiliou
Commissioner responsible for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth

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INTRODUCTION

The need to ensure high quality teaching has become one of the key objectives of the Strategic Framework for Education and Training (‘ET 2020’). The framework underlines the importance to provide adequate initial teacher education, continuous professional development for teachers, and to make teaching an attractive career-choice. It is therefore important to collect and analyse reliable information on the state of play of this profession in European countries.

This first edition of Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe contains 62 indicators. It belongs to the Key Data series, the aim of which is to combine statistical data and qualitative information on European education systems.

The Eurydice Network has a long-standing tradition of collecting information related to teachers within the framework of Key Data on Education (general volume) as well as for thematic studies usually containing a separate chapter or section on teachers.

Structure and Content

The report is organised into six subject-based chapters entitled Initial Teacher Education and Support for Beginning Teachers; Recruitment, Employers and Contracts; Continuing Professional Development and Mobility; Working Conditions and Pay; Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers and School Leaders.

The report presents information for teachers in pre-primary (ISCED 0), primary (ISCED 1) and general lower and upper secondary education (ISCED 2-3). However, for some indicators, information for teachers in pre-primary education could not be collected. Public sector education institutions are the main focus of most of the indicators (except for Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, where information on grant-aided private schools is also integrated as they account for an important part of school enrolments in these countries). In some statistical indicators, information on public and also private (both grant-aided and independent) institutions is provided for all countries.

The complementary nature of qualitative and quantitative information has been enhanced by input from the contextual questionnaires of the TALIS 2008 and PISA 2009 international surveys carried out by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) as well as from the TIMSS 2011 survey carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). These indicators provide a useful supplement to the material from Eurydice and Eurostat, as they offer a picture of what occurs in practice in schools and classrooms.

Sources and Coverage

Five sources of information have thus been used for the report, namely mostly information supplied by the Eurydice Network, data from Eurostat and data taken from the contextual questionnaires of the international surveys TALIS 2008, PISA 2009 and TIMSS 2011.

This Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe report covers 32 European countries (37 education systems), i.e. all those involved in the Eurydice Network under the European Union’s Lifelong Learning Programme (2007-2013) (with the exception of Serbia and Switzerland). Eurostat, TALIS, PISA and TIMSS data are given only for the countries taking part in the Lifelong Learning Programme.
Eurydice information gathering

The Eurydice indicators supply information derived primarily from legislation, national regulations and other official education documents. This information is gathered by the National Units in the Eurydice Network, on the basis of common definitions. Where the matter examined is of the responsibility of local authorities or individual institutions and therefore is not governed by central-level regulation, this is clearly stated in the Figure.

On the whole, this information is generally of a qualitative nature. A few indicators offer quantitative information (such as teachers’ retirement age, working time and salaries).

Statistical data collection by Eurostat

All the information provided in this report (for Figures D1, D11, D12, D13, D15 and F8) was obtained from the Eurostat database in July 2012 and the reference year is 2010.

All Eurostat statistical data are available at:

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

For the description of PISA 2009, TALIS 2008 and TIMSS 2011, please refer to the glossary at the end of the report.

Methodology

Questionnaires were prepared by the Eurydice Unit within the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) jointly with National Units in the Network. The Eurydice Unit within the EACEA also exploited the findings of the context-oriented questionnaires in the TALIS 2008, PISA 2009 and TIMSS 2011 surveys.

All analytical content based on qualitative and quantitative data in the report was drafted by the Eurydice Unit within the EACEA. The Eurydice Network undertook the checking of the content of the entire report.

The six indicators on the salaries of teachers and school heads have been taken from the document Teachers’ and School Heads’ Salaries and Allowances in Europe, published in October 2012 on the Eurydice website. No new data collection has been made for these indicators. Further information on the impact of the financial crisis on teachers’ and school heads’ salaries and allowances can be found in the document Funding of Education in Europe 2000-2012: The Impact of the Economic Crisis.

The Eurydice Unit within EACEA is responsible for the final publication and layout of the report. It is also responsible for all work entailed in preparing maps, diagrams and other graphic material. Finally, the summary entitled ‘Main Findings’ at the beginning of the report is the sole responsibility of the Eurydice Unit within the EACEA.

Conventions and Presentation of Content

Values associated with each quantitative indicator are presented in a table below the diagram concerned. Each figure is accompanied by an explanatory note and country specific notes directly underneath it. The explanatory note contains all details concerning terminology and conceptual aspects, needed for a proper understanding of the indicator and the figure. The country specific notes
provide information that should be taken into account for the correct interpretation of the figure for particular countries.

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

A list of all figures in the report is also included at the end of the publication indicating the source and the educational levels covered (ISCED 0, ISCED 1-3).

This version of *Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe* is also available in electronic form on the Eurydice website.

All those who have contributed in any way to this collective undertaking are listed at the end of the report.
The indicators in this first edition of *Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe* cover a number of highly topical issues relating to the teaching profession and school leadership. The report addresses the different stages of a teacher's career from initial education to entrance into the profession up until retirement.

The indicators address the structures and different pathways into teaching including alternative ways to gain a teaching qualification. Indicators give a picture on the basic models of initial teacher education, to which final qualification they lead, how much time this takes and how much professional training specifically they include. Support given to newly recruited teachers in their first years in the profession is also one of the key issues addressed.

The report further analyses the main procedures for recruiting and employing teachers, their contractual status, and the policies and planning measures in place to ensure the supply of a sufficient numbers of teachers. Continuing professional development is addressed in terms of conditions for participation, incentives and planning at school level and transnational mobility schemes for teachers.

Conditions of service including aspects such as working time, support available to teachers, teacher feedback, salaries, additional allowances and retirement ages are equally addressed. In this context, the teaching profession is analysed in terms of teacher-pupil ratios, sex and age. The role of teachers as decision-makers in certain areas of school life is highlighted.

School leadership is addressed in terms of conditions of access to the position of school head, initial and in-service training requirements, recruitment procedures, salaries, forms of distributed leadership and the activities of school heads.

**Initial teacher education:**

**trend towards a 4-year Bachelor-Degree as minimum qualification**

- In 2012, across Europe, the prevailing qualification for school teachers is the bachelor degree except for upper secondary teachers who in a majority of countries have to have a master's degree. These programmes usually last between four and five years. Only in the Czech Republic, Germany, Austria, Malta and Slovakia, do pre-primary teachers (or qualified education staff at that level) not undertake higher education but instead have a qualification at upper or post-secondary level (see Figure A2). Alternative pathways to obtain a teaching qualification, such as employment-based short programmes for career changers are not very widespread in European countries (see Figure A6).

- Within the programmes for pre-primary and primary teachers, specific professional teacher training (which includes theoretical and practical parts and is distinct from education in a subject matter) amounts to approximately a third of the whole course load in a majority of countries. Programmes preparing for teaching in secondary education usually contain less professional training (see Figure A2). Practical training within schools shows huge cross-country variations but is again usually longer for pre-primary and primary teachers than for higher levels of education (see Figure A3). In a majority of countries, central guidelines indicate that initial teacher education programmes should develop students’ knowledge and skills relating to educational research. These recommendations apply to training programmes at both bachelor's and master's level (see Figure A4).
Specific requirements for admission to initial teacher education are not very widespread

- Admission to initial teacher education seems to be governed more by general entrance requirements for tertiary education than by more specific selection criteria for teacher education (see Figure A5). Only a third of all European countries have specific selection methods in place. Aptitude tests or interviews about the candidate's motivation to become a teacher are not administered in many countries.

Teacher educators' qualifications do not differ from those of other academic teaching staff

- Teacher educators have a variety of profiles, but in most countries for teacher educators in higher education the same qualification requirements apply as for other teaching staff in higher education (see Figure A8). In half of European countries, teacher educators must have a teaching qualification themselves. This condition depends however in certain cases on the educational level for which they prepare their students. More specific requirements exist for mentors in schools in some countries.

Mentoring for new teachers gains in importance

- Teachers may face many challenges in the early years of their career and therefore frequently need support. Structured induction programmes which offer additional training, personalised help and advice for beginning teachers are now in place in many countries and in several they have been introduced only recently. The different components of such a structured support system (actual teaching, additional training, contact with the mentor, evaluation, etc.) are not however weighted in the same way everywhere. The organisational diversity of these systems is quite high and their effectiveness in helping to overcome teachers' initial problems may therefore vary (see Figure A10).

- Although not all countries offer comprehensive, system-wide induction programmes, many provide individual support measures that can help teachers overcome specific difficulties they may experience as newcomers to the profession, and help to reduce the likelihood that they will leave the profession early. The most commonly recommended support measure is mentoring, whereby an experienced teacher with a significant period of service is appointed to take responsibility for newly qualified teachers (see Figure A11).

Teachers are career civil servants in a minority of countries

- Many teachers in Europe are nowadays employed on a contractual basis. Although many countries offer a civil servant status to their teachers, the specific status of career civil servants with employment for life as the only employment possibility is available in a minority of countries (Spain, Greece, France, and Cyprus). Overall, teachers seem to be more and more recruited via open recruitment directly by their employers which are often schools or local education authorities. Few countries use competitive examinations as their only recruitment method (see Figures B3, B5 and B6).

- Data from the TALIS international survey 2008 also shows that although overall most teachers in participating European countries have permanent contracts after a certain number of years, in some countries a not negligible percentage of teachers is employed on a fixed-term basis, in some cases this even includes teachers with many years of experience (see Figures B9 and B10).
Main Findings

A growing number of countries require schools to have a professional development plan for teachers

- Continuing Professional Development (CPD) has gained importance over recent years and is considered a professional duty in a majority of countries; participation in CPD is necessary for promotion in terms of career advancement and salary increases in Bulgaria, Spain, Lithuania, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia (see Figure C1). Schools are in many European countries obliged to have a CPD development plan for the whole school staff but only less than a third oblige individual teachers to have a personal plan (see Figures C2 and C3).

- The most frequent incentive for participation in CPD activities is its contributing to promotions. CPD is rarely the sole condition for career advancement but often a necessary pre-requisite. Financial support is most often given in the form of free activities or participation in provider costs. Many schools also receive direct funding to pay for their teachers’ CPD (see Figure C4).

Greater effort needed to attract young people into the teaching profession

- In the great majority of European countries, there are fewer teachers in the age groups below 40 than in the age groups above. In secondary education, the picture of an ageing teaching workforce is particularly pronounced: Almost half of teachers are aged over 50 in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Norway and Iceland. Moreover, percentage of teachers in the age group below 30 is particularly low in Germany, Italy and Sweden (see Figures D14 and D16). This situation, combined with a declining number of applicants for teacher education, could lead to teacher shortages and more new and qualified entrants into the teaching profession are therefore needed.

- Over the last ten years the official retirement age has increased in around one third of all European countries. In most European countries, teachers retire from their profession as soon as they are offered an opportunity to do so. However, in several countries, opportunities to retire earlier than at the official age have been abolished altogether. Teachers thus retire when they have completed the required number of years and reached the age for full pension entitlement (see Figures D15 and D16).

- Most countries have measures in place to monitor teachers’ supply and demand. This might be either specific forward planning or general labour market monitoring. In either case, measures are usually short-term arrangements, carried out on a yearly basis to cover the most urgent needs. Potential shortfalls or surpluses could be better prevented through longer-term planning (see Figure B1).

The teaching profession is overwhelmingly female at lower levels of education

- Women account for the large majority of teachers in primary and lower secondary education. However, the proportion varies according to the level of education: the younger the children, the higher the share of women teachers. In all European countries, women are the majority among primary teachers. Teaching at lower secondary is statistically still female: in approximately half of European countries, there is a proportion of 70 % and above of women teachers. However, female representation decreases markedly at upper secondary level (see Figure D13).
Regarding female participation in school management positions, the situation is also relative to the level of education. Based on the available data, women are often over-represented as heads of primary schools. This percentage, however, declines rapidly at secondary education level with particularly marked differences between levels in France, Austria, Sweden and Iceland (see Figure F8).

**Working hours of teachers not different from other professions**

The number of contractually defined hours that teachers have to be actively engaged in teaching varies widely but the average number of weekly teaching hours is 20 in primary and secondary education. There are usually more teaching hours in pre-primary education. Overall working hours which are defined in the great majority of countries are between 35 and 40 hours and the same for all levels of education. A reduction of teaching hours towards the end of a teacher’s career is not a widespread practice across European countries (see Figures D5a and D5b).

**Provision of support measures often decided at school level**

Professional specialists, delivering individual or small-group intensive interventions, can provide highly effective support to teachers dealing with students facing learning difficulties. Most countries ensure that schools provide their teachers with access to educational psychologists. A majority of countries also have the possibility to recruit speech and language therapists and staff dealing with special educational needs if need be. Their provision is however generally not compulsory and requires specific funding. On the contrary, teachers specialized in reading or mathematics only intervene in few countries. Overall, the provision of support personnel and other measures is very often decided at school or local level (see Figures D2 and D3).

**Minimum basic salaries often lower than per capita GDP**

In the majority of countries, minimum basic gross teacher salaries in primary and lower secondary education are lower than per capita GDP. At upper secondary education, teachers’ minimum statutory salaries in most countries represent almost 90% of GDP per capita. Those countries which have relatively low minimum salaries at primary level also have the lowest statutory wages in upper secondary education (see Figure D6).

Allowances added to the basic salary can have considerable weight in the actual teachers’ salary. The most frequently encountered allowances in European countries are for additional responsibilities or overtime. Only half of the countries grant allowances to teachers based on positive teaching performance or student results (see Figure D10).

In Europe, the maximum gross salary for senior teachers is generally twice as high as the minimum salary for newcomers. But considering that it may take in certain countries up to 30 year to earn the maximum salary, young people may be discouraged from entering the profession (see Figure D7).

**Teaching methods left to teachers’ discretion**

In most European countries, teachers in primary education can act relatively autonomously as far as teaching content and methods are concerned. In particular, the choice of teaching methods is left to the discretion of teachers in almost all countries. In secondary education, in nearly half of the countries, decision-making for the content is in the hands of the school heads and school management bodies, but teaching methods are a teacher’s prerogative in most countries (see Figures E1 and E2).
• In the area of management of human resources, school heads and school management bodies are mainly responsible for decision-making in Europe. Only extremely rarely do teachers make decisions in such areas.

• In around two-thirds of the European countries where grade retention exists, teachers are actively involved in this process by either making a proposal or forming a decision about the repetition of a school year by a student. As far as standardised national tests are concerned, teachers frequently administer but also mark the tests (see Figures E3 and E4).

School heads frequently involved in teacher appraisal

• Some form of regulated individual teacher evaluation exists in almost all European countries (see Figure D16). However, the vast majority of countries have a process of school evaluation in place, in which individual evaluation of teachers is only one part of a more complex system. In most countries, the school head bears responsibility for teacher appraisal and in more than half of them on a regular basis. Self-evaluation of teachers does not seem to be a very widespread requirement for evaluation procedures in European countries. Data from TIMSS 2011 confirm that school heads are very frequently involved in teachers’ evaluation. The data further shows that student achievement is a criterion strongly taken into account in teacher appraisal procedures in many countries (see Figure D17).

Specific training for school heads required in many countries

• An average teaching experience of five years is usually the basic condition for appointment as school head (see Figure F2). In most countries, one or more additional conditions are applied: future school heads must have either administrative experience or have received special training for headship (see Figure F1). Specific training programmes for school heads exist almost everywhere, also in countries where such training is not required as a pre-requisite for employment (see Figure F3). Moreover, in a majority of countries, heads have the professional duty to participate in CPD activities throughout their career (see Figure F10).

School heads’ work includes many educational activities

• TIMSS 2011 data suggest that school heads are frequently involved in monitoring students’ learning progress, initiating educational projects and to a somewhat lesser extent in their own CPD. Data from PISA 2009 show that in participating European countries many school heads are to a great extent involved in devising CPD plans for teachers as well as in coordinating the curriculum and giving advice to teachers on how to improve their work (see Figures F6 and F7).

Leadership in schools often shared in traditional ways

• Forms of distributed leadership exist in almost all countries. However, innovative approaches are rather rare. School leadership is shared in a traditional form among formal leadership teams in the majority of countries (see Figure F5).
## Codes, Abbreviations and Acronyms

### Country codes

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### Statistical codes

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INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION AND SUPPORT FOR BEGINNING TEACHERS

INITIAL EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS OF LOWER LEVELS OF EDUCATION USUALLY ELEMENTS THE CONCURRENT ROUTE

Teacher education may be organised in various ways, but usually includes a general and a professional component. The general component refers to general education courses and mastery of the subject(s) that candidates will teach when qualified. The professional part provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed for teaching and includes in-class placements.

Two main models of initial teacher education can be distinguished depending on the way in which these two components are combined. The professional component may be provided either at the same time as the general component (the concurrent model) or after it (the consecutive model). This means that in the concurrent model, students are involved in specific teacher education right from the start of their tertiary education programme, whereas in the consecutive model this occurs after or close to the end of their degree. To undertake training in accordance with the concurrent model, the qualifications required are the upper secondary school leaving certificate as well as, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for tertiary and/or teacher education (see Figure A5). In the consecutive model, students who have undertaken tertiary education in a particular field proceed to professional training in a separate phase.

In almost all European countries, teachers at pre-primary and primary levels of education are trained under the concurrent model. France and Portugal (since 2011) are the only exceptions, where only the consecutive model is in place. In Bulgaria, Estonia, Ireland, Poland, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland), both the concurrent and the consecutive routes are available.

For general lower secondary education, the situation is more mixed. The concurrent model is the only possible option in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Slovakia, Iceland and Turkey. In eight countries (Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Hungary and Portugal), the consecutive model is the only available pattern of training. In the majority of all other countries, both models exist.

Most countries offer either exclusively the consecutive model or both training routes for general upper secondary teachers. Therefore, the majority of general upper secondary teachers in Europe study via the consecutive model.

In Germany, Slovakia, Iceland and Turkey, the concurrent model is the only possible route into teaching at all levels of education whereas in France and Portugal, the only available model is the consecutive one. In contrast, in Bulgaria, Ireland, Poland and the United Kingdom, both routes are available from pre-primary education through to upper secondary education (ISCED 1-3).

Apart from the traditional models, few countries offer various alternative training pathways (see Figure A6).
Figure A1: Structure of initial teacher education for pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Country specific notes

Belgium (BE de): Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium.
Bulgaria: Both models are available; however, most teachers study under the concurrent model.
Estonia: For ISCED 1, both models are available; however, most teachers study under the concurrent model.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Luxembourg: For ISCED 2 and 3, prospective teachers usually obtain their master’s degree abroad and subsequently undertake their professional training within the country.
Poland: Teachers for ISCED 0 and grades 1-3 of ISCED 1 are trained exclusively according to the concurrent model.
Slovenia: For ISCED 0, both models are available; however, most teachers study under the concurrent model.
Liechtenstein: Prospective teachers are trained mostly in Switzerland and Austria.
PRE-PRIMARY AND PRIMARY TEACHERS ARE USUALLY EDUCATED AT BACHELOR LEVEL AND THE PROPORTION OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING IS RELATIVELY HIGH

The minimum qualification for teaching at pre-primary level is, in most countries, a tertiary education degree at bachelor level, which lasts three to four years.

In the Czech Republic, Germany, Malta, Austria and Slovakia, however, the most common qualifications for pre-primary education are at upper secondary or non-tertiary post-secondary level (ISCED 3 and 4) and these programmes last between two and five years.

Only in France, Italy, Portugal and Iceland are prospective teachers for pre-primary education educated at master’s level. In Finland, a master’s teaching qualification exists, but the bachelor level is more common.

For primary teachers also, the bachelor level qualification is the most common minimum qualification. In the countries where a master’s level qualification exists, it usually takes between four and five years. There does not seem to be a link between the level of the final qualification and the model of provision (concurrent or consecutive, see Figure A1).

In the majority of countries, the minimum requirement for professional training for future pre-primary teachers amounts to at least 25% of the whole programme. The amount of professional training is particularly high in Spain and Hungary. Only in four countries does it comprise 20% or less of the programmes for pre-primary teachers. In very few countries, institutions have the option to decide for themselves the amount of specific professional training they provide. Similarly, for primary teachers, professional training amounts to at least a third of the whole programme in many countries.

In several countries, new teacher education programmes seek to integrate professional training into all parts of the programme in order to obtain a holistic, integrated approach leading to a professional degree.

There does not seem to be a link between the level of the programme and the amount of professional training. Bachelor level qualifications, therefore, do not necessarily provide more professional training than masters’, or vice versa.
Figure A2a: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education of pre-primary and primary teachers, and the minimum proportion of time spent on professional training, 2011/12

Pre-primary teachers (ISCED 0)

| Country | Bachelor level | Master's level | Time spent on professional training (%)
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Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note (Figures A2a and A2b)
The Figures show only the compulsory minimum length of initial teacher education. The length of initial teacher education is expressed in years. The calculation of the proportion of professional training is based on ECTS. For countries providing teacher education that follows different routes, only the most widespread route is shown.

When determining the proportion of professional training in initial teacher education, only the compulsory minimum curriculum for all prospective teachers is taken into account. Within this compulsory minimum curriculum, a distinction is drawn between general education and professional training.

General education: In the concurrent model, this refers to general education courses and mastery of the subject(s) that trainees will teach when qualified. The purpose of these courses, therefore, is to provide trainees with a thorough knowledge of one or more subjects and broad general education. In the case of the consecutive model, general education refers to the degree obtained in a particular subject.

Professional training: Provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed to be a teacher. In addition to courses in psychology, teaching theory and methods, it includes in-class placements.
In some countries, the amount of time in initial teacher education to be devoted to specifically professional training may be decided by the individual institution. If providers have full autonomy (meaning that no minimum amount of time is required), the symbol 0 has been added.

**Country specific notes**

**Bulgaria:** There is also a four-year bachelor programme for ISCED 0 and 1.

**Czech Republic** and **Slovakia:** Initial teacher education for ISCED 0 occurs in most cases at secondary level (ISCED 3). Nevertheless, other pathways exist at ISCED 4, three years at ISCED 5 (Bachelor degree) or continue to master’s studies (usually two years).

**France:** Due to the introduction of master’s programmes, professional training is the responsibility of higher education institutions. The amount varies widely from one university to the next.

**Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.

**Finland:** Only pre-primary teachers in schools are required to have a master’s level qualification. Most ISCED 0 education is provided within day-care where the requirement is a bachelor’s degree.

**United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR):** The Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE, i.e. consecutive route professional training programme) is not a master’s programme but may include some master’s level study that can contribute to a master’s degree.

**Iceland:** Teacher education for qualified teacher status should be at master’s level but this will not come fully into effect until 2013. There is a transition period during which teacher education institutions are running two programmes.

**Norway:** There are other common pathways, including a five-year concurrent teacher education programme at master’s level. The time spent on professional training is the same.

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**SECONDARY TEACHERS HAVE EITHER BACHELOR’S OR MASTER’S DEGREES BUT THE PROPORTION OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING DECREASES**

For those intending to work at lower secondary level, in more than half of the countries, initial teacher education takes place at bachelor’s level (usually four years). In sixteen countries, lower secondary teachers are now educated to master’s level (usually lasting five years).

For the upper secondary level, in a majority of countries, the final qualification is a master’s degree. There does not seem to be a link between the level of the final qualification and the model of provision (concurrent or consecutive, see Figure A1).

The part of professional training within initial teacher education for the lower secondary level is, in the majority of countries, over and above 20%, and is particularly high in Belgium (French Community) and Iceland.

In the case of upper secondary education, professional training still amounts to around 20% in a majority of countries. However, there are only three countries where the proportion of professional training for upper secondary teachers exceeds 30%. At the other end of the scale, professional training amounts to less than 10% of the whole programme only in two countries. In some countries, tertiary education institutions have total or partial autonomy to decide how much time they devote to specific professional training for secondary teachers.

As with the training for pre-primary and primary teachers, it seems that the amount of professional training provided for secondary teachers is more closely linked to the level prospective teachers are intending to teach (lower or upper secondary) than to the level of the programme and final qualification (bachelor’s or master’s).

Overall, the differences in the amount of professional training between lower and upper secondary education are low, compared to the much larger differences between secondary education and primary or pre-primary.

In some countries, the proportion of professional training is the same irrespective of the education level for which prospective teachers are preparing to teach. This is the case in the United Kingdom and Turkey.
Figure A2b: Level and minimum length of initial teacher education of general (lower and upper) secondary teachers, and the minimum proportion of time spent on professional training, 2011/12

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Source: Eurydice.

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</table>

Source: Eurydice.

**Explanatory note (see below Figure A2a)**

**Country specific notes**

**France**: Due to the introduction of master’s programmes, professional training is the responsibility of higher education institutions. The amount varies widely from one university to the next.

**Ireland**: Information not verified at national level.

**Luxembourg**: The length shown for the secondary level includes induction as it counts as professional training.

**United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR)**: The Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE, i.e. consecutive route professional training programme) is not a master’s programme but may include some master’s level study that can contribute to a master’s degree.
Iceland: Teacher education for qualified teacher status should be at master’s level but this will not come fully into effect until 2013. There is a transition period during which teacher education institutions are running two programmes.

Norway: There are other common pathways to the teacher qualification, including a five-year concurrent teacher education programme at master’s level. The time spent on professional training is the same.

Austria: Universities provide programmes with a duration of up to 5 years (300 ECTS). Within the autonomy of the universities, approximately 20% of the programme is spent on professional training at Neue Mittelschule, a comprehensive school for 10 to 14-year-olds, teaching is provided jointly by teams of teachers who have graduated from universities or from teacher education colleges. A general reorganisation of initial teacher education programmes is underway.

PRACTICAL TRAINING IS OFTEN LONGER FOR TEACHERS OF LOWER LEVELS OF EDUCATION

Practical training in a real working environment is a compulsory part of professional training (see Figure A2) in initial teacher education programmes in all countries. Such placements in schools are usually unremunerated and typically last not more than a few weeks. They may be organised at different points in the programme, but they are normally supervised by a mentor (usually a teacher in the school), with periodic assessment by educators at the initial teacher education institution.

![Figure A3: Minimum length of in-school placement during initial education of pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary teachers (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3) in hours, 2011/12](image)

<table>
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<th>BE nl</th>
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<th>DK</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurydice.

Country specific notes

Czech Republic: For ISCED 0, the information shown relates to the most common pathway at ISCED level 3.

Spain and Slovakia: Exact number may vary according to the higher education institution.

Hungary: The regulatory texts contain the length of school placement in ECTS and weeks, the above-mentioned hours have been calculated based on the 40-hour working week.

Netherlands: For ISCED 2 and 3, universities have agreed to provide in-school placement of 840 hours.

Austria: Information for ISCED 2 refers to training for future Hauptschule teachers. For university-trained teachers, there is institutional autonomy.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Information shown refers to four-year bachelor programmes. United Kingdom (SCT): Information shown refers to the postgraduate diploma.

The minimum recommended length of such placements shows enormous cross-country variations. It ranges from 20 hours for all teacher education programmes in Croatia to 1 065 hours in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). In many countries, it is over 200 hours. It is below 200 hours in Belgium (French Community for ISCED 3), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic (except for ISCED 0), Germany, Cyprus (for ISCED 2 and 3), Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Croatia and Turkey. In
around a third of European countries, the length of the in-school placement is the same for all prospective teachers regardless of the level they intend to teach. In the countries where there is variation between the levels, programmes usually provide longer in-school placements for prospective teachers of the lower levels of education (usually for the pre-primary and primary levels). Only in Hungary and Romania, is the minimum length of the in-school placement longer for the initial professional training of future (upper) secondary teachers than for future pre-primary and primary teachers. In Latvia, in-school placement is shortest for future pre-primary teachers.

In eight countries, there is no minimum length prescribed by educational authorities and higher education institutions can themselves decide how many hours of in-school placement to have within their professional training programmes.

**TRAINING IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IS FREQUENTLY INCLUDED IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES**

Acquiring knowledge and skills in educational research has been identified as an important aspect of teacher preparation, which should help teachers incorporate classroom and academic research results into their teaching (European Commission, 2007).

In a majority of countries, central guidelines indicate that initial teacher education programmes should develop students’ knowledge and skills relating to educational research. These requirements or recommendations apply to training programmes at both bachelor’s and master’s level.

![Figure A4: Guidelines on the training of prospective teachers for pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper secondary education) (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3) in educational research knowledge and practice, 2011/12](image)

**Source:** Eurydice.

**Country specific notes**

**Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.

**Spain:** For ISCED 0, only the ability to use educational research in teaching practice is included in the list of final competences.

**Malta and Austria:** Information shown does not apply to ISCED 0.

In most cases, guidelines require prospective teachers to have knowledge of educational research methodologies; to learn how to use educational research in teaching practice or to produce a
dissertation at the end of their course based on their own research. To involve students in practical educational research work during studies is recommended in twelve countries. In Belgium (French Community), Bulgaria, Spain, Hungary, Portugal and Iceland, guidelines cover all these learning aims for acquiring research skills.

In most countries, the set of final competences to be mastered by the end of initial teacher education (see Figure A7) contains clear references to educational research skills.

Nine countries do not have any central guidelines for providers of initial teacher education programmes relating to the knowledge and practice of educational research for prospective teachers. However, in practice, providers may include these elements in their programmes.

In general, it does not appear that regulations for master’s programmes include more emphasis on educational research than the teacher education programmes leading to a bachelor’s degree (see Figure A2). Likewise, there does not seem to be a great difference between programmes preparing prospective teachers for different education levels. Estonia, France and Italy have recently made educational research an integral part of initial teacher education programmes.

**SPECIFIC SELECTION METHODS FOR ADMISSION TO INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION ARE NOT WIDESPREAD**

Admission to initial teacher education is subject to certain conditions in all countries. Admissions criteria and selection methods vary, however, in both content and number; they may be decided either at institutional level or at the level of the education authority. In some countries, responsibilities are shared between the two, so both levels may participate in taking decisions in this area.

The main prerequisite necessary in European countries is holding the final upper secondary examination certificate. Performance in upper secondary education is considered in around half of the countries. A general entrance examination to tertiary education also exists in quite a large number of countries. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), the certificate of completion of upper secondary education is the only requirement and in Austria (for university-based teacher education), this is the certificate of the final examination at upper secondary education. In Germany, Cyprus, and Turkey, the general entrance examination to tertiary education is the only selection method in place.

For access to masters’ programmes (where they exist, see Figure A2), the performance at bachelor level is taken into account in fourteen countries.

In most countries, three or more criteria govern selection. Overall, admission to initial teacher education seems to be governed by the general entrance requirements for entry to tertiary education rather than by specific selection criteria for teacher education.

Only a third of all European countries have specific selection methods for admission to initial teacher education in place, such as satisfactory performance in a specific aptitude test or interviews in which candidates are asked about their motivations to become teachers. Where such specific selection methods exist, they are often applied at the discretion of the programme provider. Only in Italy, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Scotland), such specific methods are determined at the level of the education authority.

In many countries, general admission requirements are determined at education authority level. However, institutions have some discretion with respect to their implementation. In several countries, institutions are free to introduce additional admissions criteria over and above central minimum requirements. In Denmark, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Finland, selection is exclusively
determined at institutional level. In Finland, for example, the entrance examination for generalist (class) teachers includes a written examination and an aptitude test. This aptitude test may include an interview and a group exercise. Cooperation between different universities on student admissions has intensified over recent years in order to ensure that the entry requirements for teacher education programmes are more consistent.

In the Netherlands, applicants for a primary school teacher education course have to take a test to establish whether their Dutch language and numeracy skills are up to standard. If not, they will receive extra support. However, if they fail the test again at the end of their first year, they will not be allowed to continue their course. Many teacher education providers in Belgium (Flemish Community) organise similar tests, they are, however, not obliged to do so. Similarly, programme providers in the United Kingdom test candidates on their literacy skills.

In some countries, due to specific linguistic requirements, language exams are included in the selection procedures for tertiary education. This is the case in Spain, Luxembourg and Malta.

Figure A5: Selection methods/criteria for access to initial teacher education. Pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper secondary) education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Certificate of final examination of upper secondary education
Performance at upper secondary level
A general entrance examination to tertiary education
Performance at bachelor level
A (written or oral) examination specifically for admission to teacher education
An interview specifically for admission to teacher education
Literacy and numeracy tests

Decided at the level of the education authority
Decided at the level of the education authority and at institutional level
Study abroad

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note
Specific aptitude tests for fine arts courses or physical education are not taken into account here. Neither are administrative criteria such as place of residence. In countries where several pathways exist, only selection for the most widespread is taken into account.

Country specific notes
Czech Republic: Not all selection criteria are applied in all routes for pre-primary teachers.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Universities publish lists of preferred bachelor degrees that give direct access to the chosen specialisation of the master’s degree for secondary teachers.
Malta: Students applying to read for a Bachelor of Education at the University of Malta need to have obtained the European Computer Driving Licence (ECDL) certificate.
Austria: Left side of the hexagon applies to ISCED 1, right side to ITE for the general secondary school (Hauptschule).
Slovenia: Performance at bachelor level does not apply to ISCED 0.
ALTERNATIVE PATHWAYS TO A TEACHING QUALIFICATION ARE RARE IN EUROPE

The concurrent and the consecutive models constitute the most frequent models within initial teacher education (see Figure A1). Lately, thanks to increasing flexibility in tertiary education, some new routes to entering the teaching profession have been introduced.

However, only a few European countries offer alternative pathways to teaching qualifications alongside the traditional models of initial teacher education. These alternative routes are usually characterised by a high degree of flexibility, a short duration, and provide mostly employment-based training. They have usually been introduced when qualified teachers are in short supply and there has thus been an urgent need for recruitment. These alternative routes into teaching serve also to attract graduates from other fields into the teaching profession.

In Poland, alternative pathways are only available for future foreign language teachers. To become a language teacher, in this way, it is necessary to obtain a certificate confirming language skills at ‘proficient’ or ‘advanced’ levels as well as a certificate in foreign language teaching awarded upon completion of a non-degree postgraduate programme or a qualification course.

In Sweden, people with professional experience outside teaching can enter the teaching profession following the supplementary teacher education programme leading to a degree in a subject. A special supplementary educational programme enabling people with foreign teaching qualifications to qualify for employment in the Swedish school system is also offered.

The Norwegian pre-primary system offers an alternative route into teaching for staff already working in kindergartens, such as assistants and childcare staff. They can take part in work-based study, which provides a practice-oriented approach, focusing on the work place as learning area.

In Luxembourg, in general (lower and upper) secondary education, especially in periods of teacher shortages, trainee teachers can undertake an employment-based training of 60 hours. After successful completion of this programme and a positive evaluation by the director of the secondary school, these trainee teachers can obtain a permanent contract and become part of the national reserve of teacher professionals.

In Latvia, people who have obtained an academic degree in a field taught as a school subject can become teachers if they enter a teacher qualification short study programme (1-1.5 years) within a period of two years after having started work. This programme can be shortened to 72 hours of professional development in the case of school subjects with a small number of weekly lessons.

To combat teacher shortages, certain German Länder allow the employment of tertiary education graduates without formal teacher education. This form of recruitment is represented by direct employment, either with or without accompanying pedagogical training, or by admission of tertiary education graduates with Diploma and Magister degrees to the ‘teacher preparatory service’ (Vorbereitungsdienst). Qualifications obtained via these alternative pathways are valid solely in the Land in which they were issued. However, these alternative routes have been phased out in 2012.

The Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England) have a relatively long tradition of providing alternative routes into the teaching profession.

Among the alternative routes offered in the Netherlands, there is an ‘Minor in education’ programme, which allows bachelor students at universities to earn a limited second-level teaching qualification (years 1-3 at general secondary education). ‘Lateral entry’ provides another option for people with
tertiary education qualifications to enter the teaching profession without a prior teaching qualification. Teachers appointed this way can work on a temporary contract for a maximum of two years while receiving the training and support needed to gain a full teaching qualification and thus a permanent contract.

In the United Kingdom (England), the School Direct Training Programme, an employment-based route available to graduates with at least three years’ work experience, has replaced both the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) and the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP). In Wales, the GTP still operates, and enables schools to employ teachers who are not yet qualified. These teachers receive individual training together with the necessary support from their school in order to obtain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The individual training takes usually from one to two years depending on the programme. Another route into teaching in England is the Overseas Trained Teacher (OTT) Programme. This programme focuses on teachers that obtained their qualification outside the European Economic Area and found a teaching post in an English school. These teachers are provided with an individual training and assessment programme, which gives them the opportunity to gain QTS while working as temporary qualified ‘instructors’. OTT who have not managed to obtain the QTS within four years may not continue teaching. In Wales, the only alternative route into teaching is the GTP.

The United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Estonia mention the ‘Teach First’ programme as another route to teaching. It is a private charity movement founded and financed by a wide range of corporate supporters. Its main aim is to recruit exceptional graduates from various fields into teaching in schools in disadvantaged areas. The Teach First initiative, which has been running for 10 years in the United Kingdom, is slowly being adopted in other European countries (such as Germany).

Figure A6: Alternative pathways into teaching. Pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Country specific note
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Source: Eurydice.
VARYING DEGREES OF DETAIL IN TEACHER COMPETENCE FRAMEWORKS

Teacher competence frameworks can be considered as statements of what a teacher should know or be able to do. They therefore contain a description of skills and competences a teacher should have. Such descriptions exist in the vast majority of countries. However, the format, value and recognition of these frameworks differ widely.

Usually, these statements of desirable competences include areas such as subject and pedagogical knowledge, assessment skills, teamwork abilities, the social and interpersonal skills necessary for teaching, awareness of diversity issues, research skills (see Figure A4) as well as organisational and leadership skills. These competences may be grouped into various thematic strands depending on the level of detail in the frameworks.

Competence frameworks may be very broad, consisting of fairly general statements such as in Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Germany, France, Lithuania, Italy, Slovenia, or more detailed, as, for example, in Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom.

The majority of countries include a list of competences to be acquired by teachers in guidelines for initial teacher education. The Norwegian teacher education regulations are based on the European Qualifications Framework and state what candidates should know, understand and be able to do in the form of ‘learning outcomes’. In Belgium (Flemish Community) two documents exist, detailing the basic competences necessary for beginning teachers and one for experienced teachers. In Ireland, apart from guidelines for providers of initial teacher education, there are also codes of professional conduct for teachers.

In contrast, in Estonia, Latvia, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and Romania, competence frameworks are issued as professional standards for teachers. In Romania, there are distinct standards for each teaching position.

In several countries, such competence frameworks have been introduced only recently (Poland and Norway) or are have been recently revised (Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Turkey).

The Netherlands and the United Kingdom have both a relatively long tradition of standards for the teaching profession.

In the Netherlands, the Education Professions Act, which came into force in 2006, regulates standards of competence for both teachers and other people working in education-related jobs. People wanting to become a teacher need a certificate from an institution of higher professional education or university to show that they meet the standards of competence laid down by order in council pursuant to the Act. The Act also enables schools to devise a policy on maintaining the skills of their staff. The Inspectorate monitors compliance with its provisions. Every school board is obliged to take measures and introduce instruments to ensure that the staff to whom standards of competence apply can maintain their skills.

The Cooperation-board Education (Onderwijscoöperatie) in support of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science set up a national register for teachers in February 2012. Teachers can voluntarily register and the registration is valid for four years. The objective is to enhance teacher quality by keeping a professional register, which encourages teachers to maintain their skills and improve their competences. In addition, it is also a mark of a teacher’s professional status. Hence, the register has two goals: registered teachers can demonstrate that they are qualified and skilled, and also systematically maintain their competences. By 2014, 40 percent of teachers in primary, secondary and
senior secondary vocational education should be registered. By 2018, this should be the case for all teachers.

In the United Kingdom (England), differentiated standards for each career stage have been in existence since 2007 and have recently been reformed. New standards came into effect in September 2012. These have replaced the previous standards required to achieve Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) and to pass induction. They also incorporate standards for behaviour and conduct, and replace the previous Code of Conduct and Practice for Registered Teachers.

THE QUALIFICATION PROFILE OF TEACHER EDUCATORS IS USUALLY SIMILAR TO THAT OF OTHER ACADEMIC STAFF

Teacher educators are a highly heterogeneous group. This is linked to the fact that the organisation of teacher education is highly diversified: initial teacher education is often provided in several different types of institutions within the same country, and normally comprises several different stages involving different bodies or individuals. Subject knowledge, theory and practical pedagogical knowledge may be provided by different organisations. Due to the variety of providers in continuing professional development (CPD), there is even greater heterogeneity amongst teacher educators in this area. Information shown here primarily refers to teacher educators working in initial teacher education, although those educators working in tertiary education institutions frequently also provide CPD.

In 21 countries, however, the same qualification requirements apply to teacher educators in initial teacher education, as to other teaching staff in tertiary education.

In terms of academic qualification requirements, teacher educators in tertiary education institutions must normally have at least an advanced degree (master's or doctorate) in the areas they teach.

In addition, other requirements may apply to educators working in different phases of the initial teacher education programme. In France, training for future primary teachers is provided during induction by
maîtres-formateurs (master trainers) who have undertaken specific training for the purpose. Similarly, the staff who mentor beginning teachers during the induction period in Cyprus and Estonia are also expected to have undertaken specific training. In Portugal, when selecting teachers to act as supervisors in schools for induction purposes, preference is given to teachers who have received training in teaching-practice supervision and have at least five years teaching experience in the respective subject area.

In general, mentors who assist beginning teachers in schools (either in a structured induction programme, see Figure A10 or within an individual support measure, see Figure A11) must have several years of teaching experience in all the countries where such measures exist.

Teacher educators must also have a teaching qualification in Belgium (German-speaking Community for educators training teachers for ISCED levels 0-1), the Czech Republic (only for pre-primary teacher educators), Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Austria (for educators in teacher education colleges), Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland (for those working in practice schools) and the United Kingdom.

In twelve countries, teacher educators should have a teaching qualification for the specific level for which they train student teachers. This applies in Spain and Italy only to mentors for practical in-school placements.

In several countries/regions (Belgium – Flemish Community, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom), initial teacher education providers have significant autonomy in determining the exact qualifications required of their teaching staff, provided they meet minimum standards.

The Dutch association of teacher educators (VELON) has established a register and professional standards for teacher educators for primary, secondary, vocational and higher education. In order to register, teacher educators need to fulfil the requirements of the professional standards. These include didactical, interpersonal and organisational competences, as well as working with colleagues within an organisation, working in a broader context and engaging in personal professional development. Registration is not, however, obligatory for teacher educators.

Figure A8: Qualification requirements for teacher educators, preparing teachers for pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Source: Eurydice.
Explanatory note (Figure A8)

Teacher educator: A person actively facilitating the (formal) learning of student teachers. In a tertiary education institution, this can be a lecturer in a subject discipline whose classes are attended by future teachers of those subjects or a lecturer in specific disciplines such as psychology, philosophy or pedagogy; staff in specialised teacher education institutions or any other tertiary staff supervising in-school placements or induction phases are also included in the definition, as are school-based mentors or tutors who support beginning teachers.

Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Austria: (1) Left side of the hexagon applies to ISCED 1, right side to ITE for the general secondary school (Hauptschule); (2) Left side of the hexagon applies to ISCED 1, right side refers to ITE for the academic secondary school (Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule).

EXTERNAL QUALITY ASSURANCE IS CARRIED OUT IN MOST COUNTRIES BY AN INDEPENDENT AGENCY

The evaluation undertaken by bodies or individuals, not directly involved in the activities of a particular programme, is generally referred to as external quality assurance. It is a process whereby data, information, and evidence relating to individual programmes are collected in order to make a statement about their quality. Normally carried out by a team of experts, peers or inspectors, this external review aims to reach an independent judgement concerning the quality of education provided within a particular setting. Such evaluations may affect teacher education programmes in various ways, for example, by giving rise to plans for improvement, or impacting on funding.

Figure A9: Bodies responsible for external quality assurance of initial teacher education for pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Source: Eurydice.

Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Slovakia: Inspectorate for school education only applies to ISCED 0.

In most countries, external quality assurance procedures for ITE programmes are carried out by an independent quality assurance agency for tertiary education. Additionally, in Cyprus, the Netherlands, Romania and the United Kingdom, the inspectorate for school education is also involved in this external evaluation of initial teacher education programmes. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, this is the only authority responsible for external quality assurance for programmes preparing pre-primary teachers (ISCED 0).

The teaching council alone is responsible for all external quality assurance procedures in Ireland; all teacher education programmes must have both professional and academic accreditation. Academic accreditation is based on the suitability of a programme for the award of a degree/diploma; whereas
professional accreditation is a judgement as to whether a programme prepares individuals for entry into that profession. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), the teaching council and a separate agency carry out quality assurance).

In Germany, Austria and Turkey the top-level education authority has sole responsibility for external quality assurance; in these countries, this is the ministry of education or science. The top-level education authority is also responsible in Spain, but here this refers to both the state and the Autonomous Communities.

Having the overall responsibility does not, however, mean that the whole external procedure is also carried out by the particular body. Agencies and top-level education authorities usually appoint evaluation teams (consisting of experts and peers) for carrying out specific procedures.

**INDUCTION PROGRAMMES EXIST IN HALF OF THE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES**

Beginning teachers have access to a structured induction programme in 17 countries, usually directly after gaining their qualification. In the Netherlands and Iceland, national induction programmes do not exist, but schools frequently organise induction periods for their new staff.

The induction phase is generally seen as a structured support programme for beginning teachers. During induction, newly qualified teachers carry out all or many of the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and they are remunerated for their work. Induction has important formative and supportive components for beginning teachers as they receive additional training, personalised help and advice within a structured phase. This phase lasts at least several months. Induction programmes, as they are understood here, should not be confused with a short introductory programme to the functioning of a specific school and its organisation. Such measures are of short duration (from a few days to several weeks) and usually provided by individual schools for all new teachers (including, but not specifically, inexperienced ones).

Induction programmes have many different organisational patterns. In most countries, induction is a compulsory phase, which includes a final assessment that beginning teachers must pass in order to qualify. However, in Estonia and Slovenia, induction is considered optional. In most countries, it applies to teachers at all school levels in general education; in Malta and Austria, however, induction is not provided for all beginning teachers at all levels of education. In France, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal and the United Kingdom, induction is, at the same time, considered to be a probation period and is, in these cases, linked to access to a permanent contract (see Figure B6). Most countries provide this induction phase in addition to the compulsory professional training received before the acquisition of a teaching diploma. In Luxembourg, however, induction for secondary teachers occurs at the same time as professional training. This is due to the particular circumstances in Luxembourg, whereby candidates first undertake their complete general initial teacher education course abroad as such programmes are not provided within the country.

The length of this programme ranges from several months (Cyprus and Slovenia) to up to two years (Luxembourg, Malta and Romania). The usual length is, however, one year.

The most common model involves an induction process organised by the school head, who appoints a mentor to support the beginning teacher. The mentor is usually an experienced teacher, who might have also received specific training (see Figure A8). Induction programmes usually provide for regular meetings with the mentor, assistance with lesson planning and other pedagogical advice, opportunities for job shadowing, and training modules provided by teacher education providers.
If the induction phase ends with a formal evaluation, this is carried out by the school head or an evaluation board at school management level. In Ireland and Scotland (United Kingdom), the teaching council is actively involved in the final evaluation. There is, in most cases, cooperation with initial teacher education institutions, although the extent of this cooperation may vary.

Over the last five years, induction periods have been introduced in Ireland, Malta, Romania, Sweden and Slovakia.

Figure A10: National induction programmes for beginning teachers at pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Length</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<td>LI</td>
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</tr>
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<td>NO</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Induction: A structured phase of support given to beginning teachers after finishing the formal programme of initial teacher education at the start of their first contract as a teacher in school. During induction, new entrants carry out some or all of the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and they are remunerated for their work. A mentor is appointed providing personal, social and professional support to the beginning teacher within a structured system. Normally, this phase also includes theoretical training, which is provided in addition to the compulsory professional training received prior to the acquisition of a teaching diploma. It normally lasts at least several months.

Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Italy: Induction programmes are only provided to teachers acquiring a permanent contract.
Austria: Induction only exists for teachers intending to work at the allgemeinbildende höhere Schule. A planned reform of initial teacher education, however, includes provision for all beginning teachers.
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The length of the induction period is the full time equivalent of one school year (usually three school terms).
United Kingdom (SCT): Normally restricted to students graduating from a Scottish HEI with a teaching qualification, whose training has been publicly funded.
MENTORING
IS THE MOST WIDESPREAD FORM OF SUPPORT FOR NEW TEACHERS

Teachers may face many challenges in the early years of their career. Although not all countries offer a comprehensive, system-wide induction programme (see Figure A10), many provide individualised support to help teachers overcome the difficulties they may experience as newcomers to the profession, and thus help to reduce the likelihood that they will leave the profession early.

Support measures for new teachers have become increasingly widespread in Europe. Twenty-nine countries report that either an induction system is in place, or central guidance on support measures for new teachers exist. Support measures outside the framework of structured induction programmes can include regular discussions of progress and problems, assistance with the planning and assessment of lessons, mentoring, participation in other teachers’ class activities and/or classroom observations, special compulsory training and visits to other schools/resource centres.

In Spain and Liechtenstein, central level regulations or recommendations ensure the provision of all types of support measure for new entrants. In contrast, in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Lithuania, the Netherlands and Finland, schools have the autonomy to decide which types of support they will provide, but, in most of these countries, monitoring exercises show that some forms of support are available in schools.

In Bulgaria and the Czech Republic, there are no official regulations regarding support measures. However, in every school there are subject bodies that organise discussions, assistance, support of any kind and visits to other teachers’ classes.

Across Europe, the most commonly recommended support measure is mentoring i.e. an experienced teacher with a significant period of service is appointed to take responsibility for newly qualified teachers. The provision of regular meetings for discussion of progress or problems and assistance with lesson planning also seem to be widespread forms of support.

![Figure A11: Types of support available to new entrants to the teaching profession in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12](image)

Source: Eurydice.

UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
Explanatory note
The support measures listed here are examples of the type of activities that a school would be expected to provide, depending on an individual teacher's specific development needs.

Country specific notes
Denmark: Above-mentioned support measures apply to ISCED 3 only.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: The Autonomous Communities establish which support measures for teachers are offered during the probation period (fase de prácticas).
Malta: Support measures apply to ISCED 0 only. For the other levels, the induction system exists.
Austria: Support measures do not apply to teachers working in allgemeinbildende höhere Schule (ISCED 2 and 3) where an induction system is in place.
Slovenia: Support measures do not apply to teachers who participate in the induction programme.
The risk of not having enough appropriately qualified teachers and the relatively low status of the profession are among the problems confronting some education systems. Demographic trends such as the ageing of the teaching workforce (see Figure D13) may exert additional pressures on teacher supply and demand. Since 2006, there has been a decline in graduates in the field of education (1). Effective observation of such factors can therefore be an important first step for countries towards preventing possible shortfalls or surpluses in the number of teachers.

Figure B1: Measures for monitoring the balance in teacher supply and demand in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Pre-primary education (ISCED 0)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Labour market monitoring</th>
<th>No measures</th>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Forward planning of teaching staff requirements is based on the observation of trends and the identification of the most likely scenarios in future teacher supply and demand. The data examined includes demographic projections such as birth rates and migration, as well as developments in the number of trainee teachers and changes within the teaching profession (number of staff retiring, transfers to non-teaching posts, etc). The forward planning of teaching staff requirements may be made on a long-, medium and/or short-term basis. This planning policy is developed either at national and/or regional level depending on the relative centralisation/decentralisation of the education system concerned.

Labour market monitoring, looks at general trends in the work force, but is not related to official government plans, it may provide decision-makers with insight into changes in teacher supply and demand; however, it cannot be regarded as official forward planning.

Country specific note

Spain: Only some Autonomous Communities have developed processes for monitoring the labour market regarding teachers’ supply and demand.

Almost all European countries have taken measures to help them anticipate and meet the demand for teachers. The only exceptions are Belgium (German-speaking Community), Denmark, Cyprus, Poland and Croatia where no such measures exist. About half of the countries examined use forward planning to preserve the balance between supply and demand.

(1) EACEA/Eurydice, Eurostat, 2012b, Key Data on education in Europe 2012. See Figure G3.
For example, in the United Kingdom (Scotland), the Scottish Government annually carries out a teacher workforce planning exercise, in consultation with an advisory group comprising representatives of the General Teaching Council for Scotland, the local authorities, teacher unions and the universities. The basis of this exercise is a model which takes into account different variables such as pupil numbers, the number of teachers required as well as those expected to leave or return to the profession in the coming year. It then calculates the student intake required to fill the gap between supply and demand. At the end of this process, the government issues a letter of guidance to the Scottish Funding Council. It is a matter for the Council to determine the overall student intake and its distribution between universities.

Ideally, the forward planning of teaching staff requirements should be carried out on a medium- to long-term basis. However, in most countries, forward planning often takes place on a year-by-year basis. This may lead to a risk of failing to anticipate longer-term trends and to plan ahead accordingly.

The monitoring of labour market trends outside any official government planning process may nevertheless provide decision-makers with insight into changes in teacher supply and demand. However, this cannot be regarded as official forward planning. Currently, 22 European countries or regions make use of labour market monitoring, either on their own or within the framework of official planning procedures, to monitor the balance in teacher supply and demand.

RELATIVELY SIGNIFICANT SHORTAGE OF QUALIFIED TEACHERS IN MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE EXIST IN A MINORITY OF COUNTRIES

TIMSS 2011 data show that the percentage of grade 4 students whose school head reported being affected a lot by a shortage or an inadequacy of teachers with a specialisation in science exceeds 10 % only in a minority of countries. Romania (17.6 %), Ireland (16.8 %) and the Netherlands (16.4 %) have the highest percentages. The percentage of grade 4 students attending a school where the school head indicated that s/he is sometimes affected by this issue is higher: in the majority of the participating countries, it is greater than 15 %. Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal and Norway have the highest percentages, which range between 30 % and 40 %. In Lithuania and Slovenia, data indicate that shortage or inadequacy of science teachers is not a concern as respectively 99.3 % and 98.4 % of grade 4 students attend a school whose school head stated s/he does not face this problem, or only a little.

Shortage or inadequacy of teachers with a specialisation in mathematics seems to be less of an issue in nearly all countries. Differences in percentage points are, however, relatively small in most cases. Still, the situation is fairly better in Germany, Ireland, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Romania and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland). In these countries, the percentage of pupils attending a school where the school head reported sometimes encountering, or encountering a lot a shortage in mathematics teachers is substantially lower compared to the situation of science teachers.

The comparison with grade 8 data is difficult to make as the country coverage is, in this case, much smaller. Still, where such comparison is possible, differences are not great except in Finland, the United Kingdom (England), Italy and Norway where teachers' shortage or inadequacy is less of an issue at grade 8. It is particularly true in the last two countries where the situation substantially improves at grade 8. Hungary is the only country where the shortage or the inadequacy of both science and mathematics teachers seems noticeably more important (about 5 percentage points) at grade 8 than at grade 4.
Figure B2: Proportion of fourth grade students attending a school where the school head reported the extent to which his/her school’s capacity to provide instruction is affected by a shortage or inadequacy of teachers in mathematics and science, 2011

Grade 4

Source: IEA, TIMSS 2011 international database.
Entry into the teaching profession for fully qualified teachers can be managed at different administrative levels and in accordance with different procedures. The way in which teachers are recruited to the profession has implications for the way in which teacher supply and demand is matched.

The term ‘open recruitment’ refers to the method of recruitment where the responsibility for publicising vacant posts, requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. Recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school, sometimes in conjunction with the local authority. The process of matching those teachers seeking employment with available teaching posts takes place on a school-by-school basis. The vast majority of European countries operate an open recruitment system. For example, in the Netherlands, schools or school boards implement their own procedures with regard to the recruitment of staff. Any person who has a teaching qualification may be appointed to a post to teach subjects at the education level or in the school types for which he or she is qualified. There is no government scheme for distributing teachers fairly among schools. Teachers are free to apply for any job they like and change jobs if they so wish.

A minority of countries, mainly in the southern parts of Europe, organise competitive examinations, i.e. public, centrally organised competitions held to select candidates for the teaching profession. In Greece, Spain, France, Malta, Liechtenstein and Turkey, this is the only method used for teacher recruitment. In Spain, for example, access to a teaching post in public sector schools is subject to passing a competitive examination (concurso-oposición). The examination comprises three phases: an examination phase assessing the specific knowledge for the relevant field or speciality, aptitude for teaching and mastery of the necessary teaching techniques; a merit-based selection phase assessing, as established by each call, the suitability of candidates (educational background and previous teaching experience); and a probationary period during which the selected candidates are required to

**Source:** IEA, TIMSS 2011 international database.

**Country specific note**

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
demonstrate their aptitude for teaching (see Figure B6). In Luxembourg, competitive examinations for
recruitment purposes only apply to secondary level. In Italy, candidate lists exist alongside competitive
examinations, which is the main recruitment method. These lists, set at provincial level, include not
only prospective teachers who have passed competitive examinations, but also those who obtained
their qualified teacher status through sporadic one-off qualification procedures (specifically reserved
for unqualified teachers with at least 360 days of teaching experience), or through attendance at SSIS
(former post-degree specialisation schools for teaching at secondary level).

Finally, six countries or regions make use of so called 'candidate lists' for recruiting teachers. This is a
system whereby applications for employment as a teacher are made through submitting candidates’
names and qualifications to a top level or intermediate level authority. In Cyprus and Luxembourg
(ISCED 0 and 1), only candidate lists are used for teacher recruitment. In Belgium (French and
German-speaking Communities), candidate lists are used only for teacher recruitment in certain
school types. In Portugal, open recruitment takes place after the candidate list has been
used/exhausted or when there are no suitable candidates on the list for a specific subject matter or
type of school.

**Figure B3: Principal types of teacher recruitment methods in pre-primary, primary and
general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower and upper secondary education (ISCED 2-3)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competitive examination</td>
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<td>Candidate list</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanatory note**

The term **competitive examination** is used to describe public, centrally organised competitions held to select
candidates for the teaching profession.

The term **open recruitment** refers to the method of recruitment where the responsibility for publicising vacant posts,
requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. Recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school,
sometimes in conjunction with the local authority.

The use of **candidate lists** describes the system whereby applications for employment as a teacher are made through
submitting candidates’ names and qualifications to a top level or intermediate level authority.
The recruitment of substitute teachers is not taken into account.

**Country specific notes**

**Belgium (BE fr, BE de):** The use of candidate lists applies to government-dependent schools and open recruitment to
grant-aided private schools.

**Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.

**Spain:** The State regulates the basic requirements for entering the teaching profession in public sector schools, but the
Autonomous Communities are in charge of organising the calls for merit-based selection/competitive examinations
according to their own regulations.
Across Europe, different levels of administration (central, regional, local and school) are responsible for employing teachers. The administrative level responsible for employing teachers usually correlates closely to their employment status (see Figure B5). Teachers who are career civil servants are usually employed by central or regional authorities. In some cases, central governments may also be the employer of teachers with civil servant status or contractual status. When the employer is the school or local authority, in the vast majority of cases, teachers have contractual status.

In Denmark, Finland, Norway and Iceland (ISCED 0, 1 and 2) as well as in the Netherlands, Hungary and the United Kingdom (Scotland), the only employer of teachers working in public schools is the local authority. Schools are exclusively responsible for employing teachers in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Croatia. Finally, in three countries, the responsibility for employing teachers varies depending on the category of school (Belgium, Sweden and the United Kingdom – England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

In most cases, the level of education in which a teacher works has no bearing on the employing authority. Only in a limited number of countries does this differ, as in Germany and Austria where the employer for teachers in pre-primary education is the municipality/local education authority and therefore differs from that of primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education. In Iceland, the employer for teachers differs at upper secondary level, as at this level it is the schools themselves.

**Figure B4: Administrative level/body with responsibility for employing teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

![Administrative level/body with responsibility for employing teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12](image)

**Source:** Eurydice.

**Explanatory note**

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

Responsibilities for engaging and remunerating substitute teachers are beyond the scope of the figure.

The central government is the top-level authority for education in most countries. In two cases, however, most education decision-making occurs at a regional level of government, namely that of the governments of the Länder in Germany and the governments of the Autonomus Communities in Spain. In Belgium, the top-level authority for education is the government of each Community.
Country specific notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): Teachers working in public sector schools may be employed either by their respective Communities (which is the top level of educational administration) or by the municipalities or provinces. Teachers working in the grant-aided private sector are employed by the competent authority.

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Italy: Teachers with a permanent contract are employed by the Regional School Office (branch of the Ministry of Education). Teachers with a fixed-term contract are recruited from a regional list and the contract is made directly with the school.

Malta: The University of Malta employs teachers at the Junior College.

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

Sweden: The formal employer is the responsible body, i.e. the municipality for municipal schools and the organisation/private provider for grant-aided independent schools. However, the actual employment responsibility is usually delegated to the schools.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The employer varies according to the school's legal category. In England and Wales, a teacher’s contract of employment is with either the local authority or the school governing body. In Northern Ireland, it is with the Education and Library Board, the Council for Catholic Maintained Schools or the school board of governors.

IN MANY EUROPEAN COUNTRIES TEACHERS ARE EMPLOYED ON A CONTRACTUAL BASIS

The employment status of fully qualified teachers for pre-primary, primary, lower and upper secondary levels of public sector education mainly falls into two categories. In many countries, teachers are employees with contractual status, subject to general employment legislation and are mostly employed at local or school level (see Figure B4). Elsewhere, teachers have the status of civil servants, and in several countries, they are appointed for life as career civil servants. In Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta (ISCED 3 only), the Netherlands, Poland and Portugal, the categories of civil servant or career civil servant exists alongside the category of employee with contractual status.

In the Netherlands, teachers in public authority schools are career civil servants according to the Central and Local Government Personnel Act. Teachers in grant-aided private schools sign a (private law) contract with the board of the legal entity whose employment they enter. However, these staff may share the same working conditions, determined by the government, as those who have the status of public-sector workers. Collective agreements cover the whole education sector (both public-authority and grant-aided private schools).

In only two countries, does the level of education at which teachers work have an impact on their employment status. In Germany, all teachers at pre-primary level are employees with contractual status, while those teaching at the other educational levels are career civil servants. In Malta, upper secondary teachers can be either career civil servants or employees with a contractual status.
Figure B5: Types of employment status available to teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Explanatory note

Only fully qualified teachers in the public sector are considered here (i.e. those who work in schools that are funded, managed and directly controlled by the public authorities), except in Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, where an important part of school enrolments occurs in grant-aided private schools (i.e. schools where over half of their basic funding is from the public purse).

Civil servant status means a teacher employed by public authorities (at central, regional or local level), in accordance with legislation that is distinct from laws governing contractual relations in the wider public or private sectors.

Career civil servants are those appointed for life by the appropriate central or regional authority where these correspond to the top-level authority for education. The concept of permanent appointment for life is very important, as it means that teachers lose their jobs only under very exceptional circumstances.

Employee with contractual status refers to teachers employed usually by local or school authorities on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation and with or without central agreements on pay and conditions.

Country specific notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): Teachers working in the schools administered by each of the Communities are appointed as civil servants. Teachers working in the grant-aided private sector are considered to have a comparable status to civil servants, although they are employed under general employment legislation.

Germany: Teachers in some Länder are employed under permanent government contracts. Broadly speaking, their status is comparable to that of a civil servant.

Spain: Teachers have career civil servant status with a very few exceptions (teachers of religion and specialist staff with contractual status).

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Malta: At upper secondary level, career civil servant status applies only to state schools, whereas public sector employees at the Junior College have been employed with contractual status since it became part of the University of Malta.

Poland: Teachers in the first and second categories on the teacher promotion scale (i.e. trainee and contractual teachers) have contractual status and teachers in the third and fourth categories (i.e. appointed and chartered teachers) have an equivalent status to career civil servants.

THE LENGTH OF PROBATIONARY PERIODS VARIES WIDELY BETWEEN COUNTRIES

After completing all initial teacher education requirements, teachers, in most countries, have to undergo a probationary period before gaining access to a permanent teaching post. This figure illustrates the situation for fully qualified teachers entering the profession. It shows that a probationary period exists in all countries, except for Belgium, Lithuania, Romania and Turkey. It generally applies to all new teachers entering the profession, whether they are (career) civil servants or employees with contractual status (see Figure B5).
The length of the probationary period varies considerably between countries. In countries where teachers are employed under general employment legislation, they are usually required to serve a trial period as defined in the contract following standard employment practices.

In contrast, in countries where teachers are employed as (career) civil servants the probationary period may be much longer. In Greece, Cyprus and Hungary, for example, probationary periods are set between 24 and 36 months. Germany and Liechtenstein are among the countries imposing a minimum and/or maximum length for probationary periods. In these two countries, this period is quite long, ranging between 24 and 36 months, and 36 and 48 months respectively.

There are few variations within countries. Where these do exist they mainly concern teachers who enter the profession at pre-primary level, where a probationary period is either not required (Germany) or it is shorter than at other levels of education (Austria and Iceland).

Induction, where it exists (see Figure A10), may occur at the same time as probation or may be an integral part of it. This is the case in France, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

Figure B6: Length of probationary period (in months) for teachers entering the profession in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note
A probationary period refers to a temporary appointment in the form of a trial period. Conditions may vary depending on working regulations. It may last from several months up to several years. Probationers may be subject to a final assessment; successful completion is normally followed by permanent employment. Probationary periods may include the induction phase.

Country specific notes
Bulgaria: The school head has the right to employ a teacher on a probation basis of 6 months to a year but may also provide a permanent contract immediately.
Czech Republic: The school head has a right to employ a teacher on a probation basis of 3 months as a maximum but may also provide a contract immediately.
Germany: For employees with contractual status working at primary and secondary level, the fixed length of the probationary period is 6 months. At ISCED level 0, there is no determined length for the probationary period.
Spain: The length and development of the probationary period for teachers corresponds to career civil servant teachers, and this period varies depending on each Autonomous Community.
Italy: Teachers must complete a minimum of 180 days of valid service within the 12-month probationary period.
Luxembourg: The figure only shows the situation at ISCED levels 0 and 1 for civil servant teachers. At ISCED level 2 and 3, probationary periods can range from 24 to 40 months. For contractual agents, the probationary period is fixed (24 months at ISCED levels 1 and 12 months at ISCED levels 2 and 3).
Netherlands: Collective agreements in the primary and secondary education sector state that a probation period can be agreed between employer and employee for a maximum of 2 months; however, this is up to the school to decide.
Austria: At ISCED level 0, the minimum length of the probationary period is 1 month.
Poland: The minimum length of the probationary period is 9 months to become a contractual teacher.
Iceland: The figure only shows the situation at ISCED levels 1 and 2. At ISCED levels 0 and 3, the probationary period is fixed (3 months).
CONDITIONS OF USE OF FIXED-TERM CONTRACTS ARE USUALLY REGULATED

In public sector education, teachers usually fall into the employment status categories as described in Figure B5. However, there are a number of reasons why teachers in Europe may be working on fixed-term contracts. The replacement of absent teachers is the main reason for such contracts. A second reason for resorting to fixed-term contracts is to employ teachers who are not fully qualified for the teaching they are asked to undertake. This may apply in the context of emergency measures in times of teacher shortage. Teachers may also be appointed on a fixed-term basis prior to acquiring their permanent status.

Across Europe, all countries have legislation which regulates the use of fixed-term contracts except in France, Romania and Iceland. The duration of fixed term contracts is specified in several countries. For example, in Malta and Portugal fixed-term contracts generally last one school year. In Denmark, they are restricted to a maximum of two years. In Cyprus, fixed-term annual contracts are made due to the lack of approved permanent posts at national level. In practice, this means that teachers might work on annual contracts for several years before they are appointed under probation and have the same duties and responsibilities as permanent teachers. At secondary level, fixed-term teachers may even work on monthly contracts. The situation is similar in Portugal at all educational levels.

Figure B7: Regulations concerning fixed- or short-term teaching contracts in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Explanatory note
Fixed-term contracts refer to contracts that terminate on a specified date or automatically when a particular task is completed or on the occurrence of a specific event.

Country specific notes
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): Teachers’ employment is regulated by employment law. In addition, the annual School Teachers’ Pay and Conditions Document, which applies to teachers in England and Wales, includes brief details of how teachers employed on a short notice basis should be paid.

Some countries clearly regulate the nature and the conditions of renewal of fixed-term contracts. For example, in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, the maximum duration of a fixed-term contract is 3 years. It can only be renewed twice, which means that the fourth contract (with the same employer) cannot be a fixed-term contract. In Finland, fixed-term contracts can only be used if there are clear grounds for this. If it is clear that the role is continuous, the post should be made permanent.
According to general employment legislation, an employee is considered a permanent employee after five years of fixed-term contracts.

Finally, in another group of countries, fixed-term contracts of limited duration are offered to teachers who are not fully qualified for their position. In Estonia, for example, a fixed-term contract for a period of one year is often given to unqualified teachers, in this way a person without tertiary education may be employed as a teacher. Similarly, in Sweden, someone without the required teacher qualification can be employed for a maximum of one year on a fixed-term contract. In Turkey, in cases where there is a lack of teachers, persons who do not hold a teaching qualification but have a higher education diploma can teach in pre-primary and primary schools for up to 30 hours per week and in secondary schools for up to 24 hours per week.

A MAJORITY OF TEACHERS HAVE PERMANENT CONTRACTS

The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) from 2008 can shed some light on the actual situation of teacher employment in 17 European education systems. On average, in participating European countries, 80 % of teachers at ISCED 2 level have permanent contracts. 16 % of ISCED 2 teachers in Europe have fixed-term contracts for one school year or less, and 4 % have fixed-term contracts for more than one school year.

The numbers of teachers with permanent contracts are highest in Denmark and Malta, where more than 95 % of teachers benefit from this type of employment, and are lowest in Portugal, where only 68 % of teachers are permanently employed. Approximately 15 % of teachers in Portugal have fixed-term contracts for more than one school year, and 17 % have shorter-term contracts. On average, short-term fixed contracts are especially common in Ireland and Italy, where close to 20 % of ISCED 2 teachers are employed for one school year or less.

Figure B8: Employment status of teachers at ISCED 2, 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Permanently employed</th>
<th>Fixed-term contract of more than 1 school year</th>
<th>Fixed-term contract of 1 school year or less</th>
<th>Countries not contributing to data collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>79.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>75.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>89.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SK</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD, TALIS 2008 database.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.

Iceland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.
SOME TEACHERS WITH 10 YEARS’ WORKING EXPERIENCE HAVE NO PERMANENT CONTRACT

TALIS 2008 data show that, in participating European countries, some ISCED 2 teachers with extensive working experience have no permanent contract. On average, in participating European countries, 9% of teachers with 10 years’ working experience have fixed term contracts while 6% have contracts limited to one school year or less.

However, there are some deviations from this general pattern. Portugal stands out with a comparatively high number of teachers with more than 10 years’ experience on fixed term contracts (16.7%); 4.3% of these last less than one year. In Poland and Slovakia, considerably more teachers than the European average (10% and 8% respectively) have short fixed-term contracts of one year or less. Similarly, in Estonia and Spain, over 10% of teachers have short-term contracts.

The employment status, however, usually seems to be related not to general work experience, but to the length of work experience in the same workplace. TALIS 2008 data show that in most of the participating European countries almost all teachers (98%) who have worked at the same school for more than 10 years have permanent contracts. However, 11% of teachers in Estonia and 9% of teachers in Poland who have worked in the same school longer than 10 years have fixed-term contracts (not shown in the Figure).

Figure B9: Proportion of ISCED 2 teachers with more than 10 years’ teaching experience on fixed-term contracts, 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU</th>
<th>BE nl</th>
<th>BG</th>
<th>DK</th>
<th>EE</th>
<th>IE</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>LT</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>MT</th>
<th>AT</th>
<th>PL</th>
<th>PT</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>SK</th>
<th>IS</th>
<th>TR</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed &gt;1 school year</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed &lt;= 1 school year</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD, TALIS 2008 database.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
Iceland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.
MORE THAN ONE THIRD OF TEACHERS WORK IN THE SAME SCHOOL FOR OVER 10 YEARS

According to TALIS 2008, ISCED 2 teachers in European countries usually stay in the same school for a long time. In European countries, on average, 37% of ISCED 2 teachers had been employed at the same school more than 10 years. 22% had been working at the same school for 6 to 10 years and 16% for 3 to 5 years. Approximately a quarter of ISCED 2 teachers had been working in the school where they were presently employed for less than 3 years, and only 15% had been working in the same school for less than a year.

However, there are some considerable differences between the European education systems analysed. ISCED 2 teachers in Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria and Slovenia do not move much from one school to another. In these countries, more than half of teachers had worked in the same school for more than 10 years. Teachers in Austria are the most settled – approximately two thirds of ISCED 2 teachers had worked in the same school for over 10 years. In contrast, in Turkey, half of ISCED 2 teachers had been working in the same school for a maximum of two years; and only 6% of teachers had stayed in the same school for over 10 years. Also, in Spain and Italy, approximately one third of ISCED 2 teachers had been working in the same school for less than 3 years. This is surprising as the proportion of teachers in the older age groups (over 40 years) is relatively high in these countries (see Figure D13).

Figure B10: Length of employment in the same school for teachers teaching at ISCED 2, 2008

|              | EU | BE  | NL | BG | DK | EE | IE | ES | IT | LT | HU | MT | AT | PL | PT | SI | SK | IS | TR | NO |
|--------------|----|-----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| < 1 year     | 15.1| 7.0 | 9.5| 10.5| 5.5| 8.1| 19.7| 23.4| 5.2| 9.7| 15.5| 5.3| 10.3| 14.9| 5.6| 9.3| 24.2| 8.0|    |
| 1-2 years    | 9.9 | 6.5 | 5.9| 11.3| 8.8| 7.9| 10.8| 11.2| 6.3| 5.8| 8.6 | 4.6| 8.2 | 21.6| 6.3| 7.9| 25.7| 9.3|    |
| 3-5 years    | 15.8| 17.0| 12.0| 19.3| 16.6| 16.5| 19.1| 14.5| 11.8| 19.4| 19.4| 18.6| 18.0| 27.3| 13.9| 41.6| 17.6| 15.7| 19.0|    |
| 6-10 years   | 22.2| 23.1| 15.1| 19.6| 15.8| 19.6| 19.4| 19.9| 18.6| 18.0| 27.3| 13.9| 41.6| 17.6| 15.7| 19.0|    | 16.4| 23.7|    |
| > 10 years   | 37.0| 46.5| 57.5| 39.3| 53.3| 47.8| 31.0| 31.0| 58.2| 55.2| 29.3| 66.6| 23.3| 29.8| 57.8| 46.0|    | 6.3 | 42.5|    |

Source: OECD, TALIS 2008 database.

Explanatory note

Original categories 11-15 years, 16-20 years and over 20 years aggregated into over 10 years.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
Iceland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.
ONLY A QUARTER OF TEACHERS THINK THAT POOR PERFORMANCE CAN LEAD TO DISMISSAL IN THEIR SCHOOL

Only slightly more than a quarter of ISCED 2 teachers in European countries agreed that, in their school, teachers would be dismissed because of sustained poor performance. However, there are significant differences between education systems. Very few teachers (less than 15%) think that sustained poor performance can lead to dismissal in Ireland, Austria, Slovenia, Norway and Turkey. In contrast, around two-thirds of ISCED 2 teachers in Bulgaria and Lithuania feel that job results can have an impact. In Belgium (Flemish Community) and Slovakia, more than 30% of ISCED 2 teachers agreed that, in their school, teachers would be dismissed because of sustained poor performance. In most of these countries, teachers are employed on a contractual status by the school or local authorities (see Figures B4 and B5).

Figure B11: Percentage of ISCED 2 teachers who agree or strongly agree that in their school teachers would be dismissed because of sustained poor performance, 2008

Source: OECD, TALIS 2008 database.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
Iceland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.
Continuing professional development (CPD) has gained considerable importance over the years. It is now considered a professional duty in 28 education systems. Usually this duty is mentioned in legislation or regulations, but in some countries, it is stipulated in teacher employment contracts or collective agreements. It is also important to note that specific CPD linked to the introduction of new education reforms and organised by the relevant authorities is, in general, mandatory even in those countries where CPD is not a professional duty for teachers.

Figure C1: Status of continuing professional development for teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Explanatory note

Continuing professional development refers to formal and non-formal training activities, which may, for example, include subject-based and pedagogical training. In certain cases, these activities may lead to further qualifications. Professional duty means a task described as such in working regulations/contracts/legislation or other regulations on the teaching profession.

Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Malta: In public schools, CPD is not necessary for promotion, but extra qualifications are an asset. However, at the Junior College (ISCED 3), CPD is necessary for promotion.
Finland: CPD is optional for ISCED 0 teachers working in day-care centers.

Six countries stipulate the exact minimum number hours that each teacher is expected to attend CPD courses (Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Romania and Finland). In some countries, participation in a minimum amount of CPD is necessary to stay in the profession (see Figure C4). In others (the Netherlands, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (Scotland)), a minimum number of hours of CPD are considered a teacher’s right.

Several of the countries where CPD is considered a professional duty further encourage teacher participation by making CPD necessary for promotion i.e. evidence of participation is required when applying for a post at a higher professional grade. In Bulgaria, Spain, Lithuania, Portugal, Romania,
Slovenia and Slovakia, CPD is a duty and a prerequisite for career advancement and salary increases.

In Denmark, Ireland, Greece, France, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, teachers’ engagement in CPD is not stated in terms of professional duty. However, in France and Poland, CPD is clearly linked to career progression. In all other education systems, even if CPD is not explicitly required for promotion, it remains an important advantage. In many countries, participation in CPD activities is viewed positively in teacher evaluation (see Figure D17).

**SCHOOLS ARE USUALLY OBLIGED TO HAVE CPD PLANS**

In the majority of European education systems, it is compulsory for schools to have a CPD plan. The development of such a plan is usually a responsibility of the school head, the school management team or a teacher assigned to coordinate the CPD activities in the school. In some education systems, the adoption of the CPD plan is a collective responsibility of the entire teaching staff. For example, in Italy, the CPD plan has to be approved by the entire teacher assembly. Naturally, CPD plans should take into account the development needs of teachers in the context of guidelines or regulations from top-level authorities.

**Figure C2: Status of the CPD plan at school level for teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Status of CPD Plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>Not compulsory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Not compulsory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>No CPD plans required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>Compulsory for teachers at ISCED 0 and ISCED 1, but optional for ISCED 2 and ISCED 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Varies between Autonomous Communities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Country specific notes**

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Varies between Autonomous Communities.

In a few countries, there are different requirements for CPD planning at the different levels of education. In Estonia and Norway, schools do not need to develop a CPD plan for teachers at ISCED 0, while in Cyprus no CPD plans are required at either ISCED 0 or ISCED 1. In contrast, in Luxembourg, CPD plans are compulsory for teachers at ISCED 0 and ISCED 1, but optional for ISCED 2 and ISCED 3.

In Spain, education authorities are responsible for the policy relating to CPD planning in their respective territories. Some of them explicitly require schools to produce annual CPD plans, while a few only issue recommendations.
Across Europe, the CPD plan usually forms part of the annual school work plan or school development plan, although a few education systems require separate CPD plans. When schools develop separate plans, they sometimes cover a longer period. For example, in Hungary schools have 5-year training plans, while in Portugal the school head approves a 2-year training plan.

**CPD PLANS FOR INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS ARE USUALLY DEVELOPED AT SCHOOL OR AT TOP LEVEL**

CPD plans are developed at school level in the majority of European education systems and these are often compulsory (see Figure C2). In many countries or regions, however, top-level authorities establish priority themes or areas. Furthermore, in many countries they also determine what additional training teachers need to undertake in order to qualify for a new post, for example, if they want to teach a new subject or teach classes at a higher level. In Greece and Croatia, CPD planning is carried out solely by the top-level educational authorities.

A dozen education systems require teachers to have their own individual CPD plan. Usually these individual plans are developed during the teacher evaluation procedure, but in some countries, it is a separate process. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), individual teachers are responsible for developing their own CPD plan. However, in Scotland, teachers must agree their plan with their line manager and maintain their own individual CPD record.

Even when individual CPD plans are not compulsory, teachers often develop them in order to manage their own CPD and to support applications for funding.

Only in two countries (Norway and Turkey) is the local level explicitly involved in defining teachers’ CPD plans. In Portugal, it is the regional level.

![Figure C3: Decision-making levels defining the development needs/training plan for CPD of teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12](image)

**Top-level education authority**
- Regional/local level
- School level
- Individual teacher level

**Left ISCED 0 + 1**
**Right ISCED 2 + 3** **No explicit CPD plan required**

**Source:** Eurydice.

**UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR**

**Explanatory note**
When there are differences between ISCED levels, the situation at the higher levels are shown in the figure. The provision of free CPD courses by the top-level decision-making body is not considered to constitute the explicit planning of development needs. Individual teacher level refers to mandatory individual CPD plans for teachers.

A development needs analysis is a review of the learning and development requirements. Usually it sets out the core competencies or skill level needed, evaluates the present level of competences and then identifies the areas to be developed. A training plan usually defines the strategies, tasks, and methods that will be used to meet the development needs.

**Country specific notes**
- **Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.
- **Norway:** May vary at local level and between different municipalities.
Even though CPD planning is mainly carried out by the school management, it is usually implemented in cooperation with other parties (e.g. providers) and all relevant decision-making levels. Often inspectors also make recommendations to the school management on the areas teaching staff need to address to improve their knowledge and skills. Often, individual and/or school CPD plans developed according to top-level priorities establish a nexus between the school's requirements and the needs of individual teachers.

Only Germany, Ireland, Latvia, Austria, Finland and Sweden do not explicitly require a training plan at any level. However, even when a formal plan is not required, there might be recommendations to plan CPD informally. For example, in Latvia, the legislation states that teachers should plan their qualification development in cooperation with the school head.

**PROMOTION IS THE MAIN INCENTIVE FOR TEACHERS TO PARTICIPATE IN CPD**

Most European education systems consider participation in CPD as a teacher's professional duty or obligation (see Figure C1). However, there are often particular incentives to encourage teachers to improve their skills or knowledge.

The most common incentive for participation in CPD is its importance to a teacher’s prospects for promotion. In 18 European education systems, participation in CPD is clearly linked to promotion or a system of advancement to a higher professional grade. Moreover, in nine education systems, teachers cannot be considered for promotion without attending specific CPD activities (see Figure C1). Professional development, however, is rarely the sole condition for advancement. It is rather only one of the necessary requirements or it is seen as a valuable asset. In general, CPD is an important consideration when evaluating teachers’ performance (see Figure D17).

Some countries even specify what types or how many hours of CPD are required for promotion. For example, in order to be promoted in Portugal, teachers need to successfully complete a minimum of 50 hours of CPD. Slovenia has a points system related to professional grades for all accredited CPD programmes.

Seven education systems offer monetary incentives to teachers who participate in certain CPD activities (see Figure D10). This means that salary increases and/or additional allowances are paid within the same occupational grade (without a promotion to a different professional grade). In Spain, additional allowances are paid every five or six years to civil servant teachers who participate in a minimum number of hours of CPD activities provided by authorised centres. Teachers can earn up to a maximum of five additional salary supplements throughout their professional career. In Slovenia, secondary school teachers who teach three subjects after completing a supplementary study programme, receive an additional allowance.

Seven education systems consider certain types of CPD, or a minimum number of CPD hours, as necessary for retaining a certain professional grade. For example, Hungary requires all teachers to attend 120 hours of CPD every seven years in order to stay in the profession. Romania requires every teacher to accumulate at least 90 professional credits every 5 years. Sometimes, certain CPD courses become necessary for some groups of teachers after new legislation is introduced. For example, in Sweden, after new qualification requirements were endorsed by the Education Act (2010), those teachers who did not meet the new requirements were expected to take certain CPD courses in order to stay in the teaching profession.

Six countries grant teachers time off in lieu or paid leave for attendance at CPD activities. For example, in Ireland, for participation in some courses during the school summer holidays, ISCED 1
Continuing Professional Development and Mobility

Teachers may receive a limited number of personal vacation days. In Greece, teachers may apply for paid educational leave in order to complete a post-graduate degree or a PhD. In Spain, for CPD related to education innovation and research activities, teachers may take paid study leave. Italy allows teachers to take 150 hours for the attainment of certificates, and 5 days with the exemption from service for other types of CPD. In Portugal, time off training amounts to a maximum of five consecutive working days or eight non-consecutive working days per school year.

Some countries pay teachers lump sum allowances. Greece offers a one-off monetary allowance for teachers attending certain CPD activities. Malta offers monetary allowances for participating in the three annual CPD sessions held after school hours and for academic qualifications achieved. In the Netherlands, teachers at secondary level are entitled to a training allowance of at least € 500 per year.

In Spain and Turkey, CPD is important when applying for transfers. In Spain, CPD is an advantage when answering the official ‘mobility calls’ (competitions for transfer) and for filling vacancies of career civil servant teachers and technical advisors abroad. In Turkey, participation in CPD is necessary if applying to move to a different city.

It is important to note that, despite the variety of incentives available Europe-wide to encourage teachers to participate in CPD, most education systems usually offer only one type. Only eight education systems offer more than two different types of incentive. In contrast, Belgium (Flemish and French Communities), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Ireland (ISCED 1-3), Latvia, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway (for ISCED 0) do not offer any explicit incentives to teachers to encourage their participation in CPD.

Figure C4: Incentives to encourage teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3) to participate in CPD, 2011/12

Promotion
Monetary incentives
Necessary for retaining a certain occupational grade
Time compensation
One-time monetary allowance (lump sum)
Job mobility/transfer
Varies at local level

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note
Promotion means advancement to a higher professional grade. Only promotion to another teaching post is covered; promotion to the position of school head, teacher educator or inspector are not taken into account.

Monetary incentives are defined as salary increases and/or additional allowances within the same occupational grade.

Country specific notes
Czech Republic: The provisions for promotion as well as additional allowances apply only to special categories of teachers, e.g. educational counselors in schools, but there is no automatic entitlement.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Ireland and Norway: Left side of the hexagon applies to ISCED 0, right to ISCED 1-3.
SOME FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR CPD OFFERED

All education systems offer some kind of financial support for teachers’ CPD. This is subject to certain criteria and guidelines, but usually only requires that the CPD is agreed and approved by the school leadership. There are three main ways of support for CPD; these include covering the costs of the CPD provider, allocating funding to schools, or directly reimbursing the expenses of individual teachers.

Offering courses free of charge is the means by which most countries take away the financial burden from teachers for participating in CPD activities. Almost all education systems cover the costs of providers so that teachers can attend some CPD courses free of charge. It is not normal, though, for all CPD activities to be free and such free courses are not an automatic entitlement. Indeed, there is much variation between countries in the types of courses funded in this way. Usually, education authorities cover provider costs for CPD activities that are considered mandatory for teachers, or that fall into priority topics or areas determined by top-level authorities. For example, in Belgium (French Community), Italy, Cyprus and Portugal, mandatory CPD is free of charge. In Belgium (Flemish Community), this is the case for approved courses within priority areas.

Sometimes the access to free CPD courses depends on the administrative organisation of the country. In Bulgaria, all courses organised nationwide are covered by the national budget and offered free of charge, while regionally or school organised CPD activities are financed by the school’s CPD budget. In Spain, CPD activities delivered by education authorities are free of charge.

In Sweden, education providers (municipality schools or private/grant-aided independent schools) can apply to central education authorities for funding of CPD within specific national priority areas.

Sometimes education authorities may cover only part of CPD providers’ costs. This is the case in Slovenia with respect to some priority and compulsory programmes organised by the ministry.

The second most common way of financing CPD is to award funding to schools, often in addition to the courses provided free of charge. Schools receive funding from public authorities to pay for their teachers’ CPD in 24 European education systems. In some countries, there is a specific amount earmarked for CPD; in others, schools are free to decide how much of their budget to spend on CPD. For example, in the Czech Republic, the budget for CPD is a part of the lump sum provided for schools. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), funding for CPD is devolved to schools. However, this funding is not ring-fenced to CPD. Schools themselves decide how much to allocate to CPD based on their specific needs and circumstances and in line with their development plans. However, only in six countries (Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Liechtenstein and Norway), do schools receive specific funding from public authorities to cover the cost of providing a replacement for a teacher who is absent for training purposes.

Twenty education systems explicitly mention that travel expenses for certain types of CPD are covered from the public purse. Usually this occurs in relation to courses offered by the top-level authorities or to CPD activities organised by schools. For example, in Belgium (Flemish Community), the majority of schools finance the travel expenses and the learning materials for the activity from the school grant. In Italy, travel expenses are reimbursed for training courses organised by schools or the ministry. In Cyprus, support for travelling is given for courses provided by the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute. Poland covers expenses for travel costs, accommodation and meals, either in part or in entirety, where teachers have been directed to attend by their institution/school head. In Romania, travel costs are reimbursed for activities undertaken with the agreement of the education authorities.
Typically, geographical restrictions are applied to travel expenses. For example, in Portugal, travel expenses are only paid where the distance from the teacher’s official residence to the training venue is beyond an established threshold.

Financial support measures are targeted directly at individual teachers in ten education systems. Teachers may apply for public funding to cover the fees of CPD activities not offered by schools, educational authorities or other public institutions. In some countries, this kind of support is available for a wide range of CPD activities, while in others it is limited to full degree programmes leading to higher qualifications. For example, Spain offers financial support directly to teachers for training activities that are not provided free of charge, mainly those related to improve foreign languages.

**Figure C5: Financial support to help teachers access CPD in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

Source: Eurydice.

**Country specific notes**

**Germany** and **Norway**: Left side of the hexagon applies to ISCED 0, right to ISCED 1-3.

**Ireland**: Information not verified at national level.

**Spain**: Travel expenses are only covered in some Autonomous Communities.

In the Netherlands, there are only two direct financial support measures for teachers’ CPD. The Teacher Development Grant was introduced by the Dutch government in 2008 for teachers wishing to raise their professional level and deepen their specialist knowledge. Initially, it could be used for short courses, but from 2012, only programmes leading to bachelors’ or masters’ degrees are eligible. In addition, teachers can apply for a PhD grant, which offers an opportunity to conduct doctoral research at a university two days a week, for four years, with retention of salary (schools are reimbursed).

In Slovenia, teachers who are part-time students can apply for financial support to pay fees for ‘supplementary programmes’ (second cycle study programmes which qualify teachers for teaching a subject at a higher level).

In the United Kingdom (England), the Postgraduate Professional Development Scheme and the Professional Development Scholarship Scheme provide subsidies to reduce the costs incurred by teachers paying tuition fees for award-bearing CPD. In Wales, following successful completion of the statutory induction period, all teachers are entitled to a programme of Early Professional Development (EPD) during their second and third years of teaching. The funding may be used for all reasonable costs associated with EPD activities, such as replacement teacher cover and course, conference or workshop fees.

For more recent information on funding of CPD, please see: EACEA/Eurydice, 2013 (1).

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THE TOP-LEVEL EDUCATION AUTHORITY USUALLY ACCREDITS AND 
MONITORS THE QUALITY OF TEACHERS’ CPD

Due to the wide variety of providers, assuring the quality of CPD programmes or activities is a complex task. CPD provided by higher education institutions, in the form of short courses or full degree programmes, is usually subject to monitoring and/or accreditation by the relevant external quality assurance bodies for tertiary education (this also often applies to initial teacher education, see Figure A9). Other types of CPD activities are usually monitored through a separate system of quality assurance.

In half of European education systems, the quality assurance of CPD programmes is carried out by the top-level education authorities. This usually means the ministry responsible for education. For example, in Slovakia, the ministry accredits CPD programmes on the basis of recommendations by the Accreditation Council for the Continuing Education of Teachers and Professional Staff. However, in a few countries, the responsible authority is not the ministry. For example, in Spain, the education authorities of the Autonomous Communities are in charge of carrying out these functions. In Hungary, the Educational Authority (Oktatási Hivatal), a government agency, is responsible for running the accreditation process of all CPD courses, while the courses are accredited by the CPD Accreditation Body (Pedagógus-továbbképzési Akkreditációs Testület) of the Authority.

Figure C6: Bodies responsible for the accreditation and/or monitoring of the quality of teachers’ CPD in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Top-level education authority
Inspectorate for CPD
Independent body working on behalf of the public authority
Other body

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note
This does not include the accreditation of degree programmes as quality assurance systems in tertiary education are not considered here.

Country specific notes
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Only some Autonomous Communities have an independent body working on behalf of the public authority. In addition, education inspectors may carry out functions related to the supervision of CPD.
Italy and Latvia: Only accreditation exists.
Austria: Information shown does not apply to ISCED 0.
In six education systems, there are specific inspectorates for CPD, which carry out accreditation. This might be one institution or a network of regional inspectorates. For example, in France, this involves education inspectors, regional education inspectorates and inspectors of education allocated to the académies. An independent body for the accreditation of CPD working on behalf of the public authority exists in six education systems. Often it is the main body responsible for providing educational support and CPD programmes. For example, the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute provides free CPD courses and also monitors and accredits the quality of CPD. In Lithuania, the Education Development Centre is authorised by the ministry to accredit teacher CPD provider institutions and programmes. In Croatia, the Education and Teacher Training Agency is a public institution responsible for the provision of professional and advisory support in the area of general education. It organises and implements CPD, but also reviews and gives an opinion on CPD programmes within the procedure for the accreditation of educational institutions.

In Bulgaria and Poland, regional or local structures are responsible for CPD accreditation. Bulgaria has a more complex structure: At the top level, CPD is accredited by the Teachers’ Qualification Directorate at the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science. There are also 28 Regional Inspectorates of Education, and, in addition, several teachers’ qualification centres at local level. In Poland, CPD accreditation is solely the responsibility of the chief educational bodies at the regional level, namely the Education Superintendents (kurator). In Belgium (French Community), each educational network is responsible for the accreditation of CPD, but the ‘Institute for Continuing Education’ (Institut de la Formation en cours de carrière) is responsible for inter-network CPD.

Eight education systems have no regulations on the evaluation or accreditation of CPD providers. However, this does not mean that they do not have a system for controlling the quality of CPD. For example, the United Kingdom (Scotland) has established a register of CPD providers, which requires organisations to adhere to a set of basic principles.

LACK OF TEACHERS’ ‘PEDAGOGICAL PREPARATION’ IS AN ISSUE IN SOME COUNTRIES

According to regulations, CPD is a professional duty in many European education systems (see Figure C1). However, the perceived need for CPD varies considerably among the 17 European countries that participated in the 2008 OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS). On average, only around 18 % of the ISCED 2 teachers surveyed had school heads who considered that in their school ‘teachers’ lack of pedagogical preparation hindered instruction’ ‘to some extent’ or ‘a lot’ in their schools. The country with the highest percentage of ISCED 2 teachers whose school heads felt that instruction was affected in this way was Italy with over 50 %, while the figure was lower, at around 40 %, in Turkey, Spain and Lithuania. In contrast, in Bulgaria, Estonia, Poland and Slovakia very few school heads considered that teachers lack pedagogical preparation hindered instruction to any significant extent.
Figure C7: Percentage of ISCED 2 teachers whose school heads considered that teachers’ ‘lack of pedagogical preparation’ hindered instruction ‘to some extent’ and ‘a lot’ in their school, 2008

Explanatory note

Lack of pedagogical preparation means that teachers are unprepared to meet the challenges they face, for example, in catering for increasingly heterogeneous learning groups, managing student behaviour and using information and communications technology effectively.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
Ireland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the structural link between the school and the teacher level has been removed at the country’s request.
Iceland: Although the country participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.

NOT ALL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES HAVE MOBILITY SCHEMES FOR TEACHERS’ TRANSNATIONAL LEARNING

Most countries have policy measures in place for implementing the Lifelong Learning Programme of the EU (LLP). However, national mobility schemes to encourage teachers to participate in learning activities in another European country (transnational learning) are not widespread in all European countries.

In several countries, opportunities for teachers to become involved with transnational learning are specifically linked to language learning. In France, teacher mobility is encouraged within the policy for the promotion and diversification of modern languages. In Spain, some teacher mobility schemes are organised at central level, others at the level of the Autonomous Communities. The Autonomous Community of Andalusia, for example, has a language immersion programme in place offering teachers courses in English-, French- and German-speaking countries.
Some European countries such as Spain and Italy have bilateral agreements in place to support teachers’ transnational learning.

In Greece, teachers in primary and secondary education have the right to take educational leave for one year with the possibility of an extension provided that they have been awarded a scholarship from the National Scholarships Foundation. This educational leave could be used for postgraduate studies abroad.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), teachers can take part in exchanges to Commonwealth countries using the support provided by the Commonwealth Teacher Exchange Programme. In Scotland, there is the Scottish Continuing International Professional Development Programme (SCIPD), which enables school educational professionals to take part in overseas study visits. The Fulbright Teacher Exchange Programme, offers British teachers the opportunity to change places with an American teacher for either the autumn term or one full academic year. The programme is run by the British Council in collaboration with the US Department of State.

Eight countries (Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway and Sweden) from the Nordic-Baltic educational region are involved in the Nordplus Programme. This programme is an important tool that supports a variety of educational cooperation activities between these countries. It has several sub-programmes aimed at different target groups and different fields of education. The transnational mobility of teachers and other pedagogical staff in pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education forms a part of the Nordplus Junior Programme, while the Nordplus Higher Education Programme includes international mobility support for teachers and other pedagogical staff in upper secondary education.
**WORKING CONDITIONS AND PAY**

**BETWEEN 10 AND 15 PUPILS PER TEACHER IN MAJORITY OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES**

The pupil/teacher ratio is the total number of pupils divided by the total number of teachers and should not be confused with class size, which refers to the number of pupils being taught together in a single class. This ratio is, however, an indication for the size of the teaching workforce in a given country.

In primary as well as secondary education, the majority of countries have pupil/teacher ratios that vary between 10 and 15 pupils per teacher. In the EU-27, the average student teacher ratio in primary schools is 14.5 students per teacher while it is around 13 per teacher in secondary schools.

In primary education, only Lithuania and Liechtenstein, record ratios lower than 10 pupils per teacher. Turkey, on the contrary, with its 22:1 ratio is the only country where the value exceeds 20.

At secondary education level, no country reports ratios higher than 20. The highest ratios can be found in the Netherlands (16.5), the United Kingdom (16) and in Turkey (17.6).

Three countries (Lithuania, Portugal and Liechtenstein) report ratios lower than eight pupils per teacher at secondary level.

![Figure D1: Ratio of pupils to teaching staff](image)

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**Source:** Eurostat.

**Explanatory note**

The pupil/teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the total number of pupils (expressed in full-time equivalents) at a given level of education by the total number of full-time equivalent teachers working at the same level. These teachers include not only class teachers but also support teachers, specialist teachers and any other teachers involved in working with children in the classroom, with small groups of children or with individuals. Staff who are assigned tasks other than teaching (inspectors, school heads who do not teach, teachers on secondment, etc.) and prospective teachers doing teaching practice in schools are not included.

**Country specific notes**

- **Belgium:** ISCED 2 and 3 includes ISCED 4. In ISCED 2-3, courses for social advancement are included.
- **Denmark and Iceland:** ISCED 2 is included in ISCED 1.
- **Italy, Netherlands, Liechtenstein and Norway:** Public institutions only.
- **Netherlands:** ISCED 1 includes ISCED 0. ISCED 2 and 3 includes ISCED 4.
- **Iceland:** ISCED 2 and 3 includes part of ISCED 4.
FEW COUNTRIES PROVIDE ADDITIONAL SPECIALIST TEACHING SUPPORT IN THE CLASSROOM FOR STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

Well-trained professional specialists, delivering individual or small-group intensive interventions, can provide highly effective support to teachers dealing with students who have general learning difficulties.

The overall picture shows that most countries ensure access to educational psychologists. A majority of countries may also recruit speech and language therapists and special educational needs staff (SEN). However, teachers specialised in reading or maths only provide support in a few countries (German-speaking Community of Belgium, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Liechtenstein). In a dozen countries, several other professions are represented in schools, mostly social workers and social pedagogues. In general, smaller schools are less able to employ professional specialists. Specialist support can also come from teachers themselves. In Finland, for instance, many teachers are specialised in reading and maths as well as in special educational needs.

Schools’ access to an educational psychologist is often regulated and compulsory. In the French Community of Belgium for example, every school must be attached to a ‘psycho-medical and social centre’ (centre psycho-médico social) which provides psychologists, social workers and nurses. In the Czech Republic, guidance and counselling are regulated by a decree which specifies a list of guidance services to be provided free of charge. In Estonia, schools are obliged to guarantee specialist services for all students, and school counselling centres have been created in the larger towns and in every county. In Luxembourg, schools have a ‘psychology and school guidance service’ (service de psychologie et d’orientation scolaire). In Poland, public schools must provide psychological and pedagogical support to pupils. It is the responsibility of the school head to employ the relevant staff. In Finland, the legislation states that student health care and welfare services must be provided, but how this is delivered is at the education provider’s discretion. Any welfare decisions are taken in cooperation with multi-professional teams, meaning that usually teachers, school health care personnel, school social worker and psychologist are involved. In Norway, teachers can seek professional help from school health services and the educational-psychology service. In Turkey and Slovakia, each school has a counselling and guidance teacher.

Speech and language specialists are employed more often in pre-primary and primary schools than in secondary schools. The provision of these specialists is generally not compulsory and requires specific funding. In the French Community of Belgium, for instance, schools have the option to employ such specialists within the framework of positive discrimination measures. In the Czech Republic, the employment of specialists must be approved by the school’s founder, who provides the additional funding.

Many countries have provisions for the employment of SEN staff. These specialists can sometimes take over the support of students with general learning difficulties. In Spain, for example, although they mainly focus on students with SEN, they also collaborate with teachers and other specialists in identifying learning difficulties. They advise and take part in preparing, monitoring and evaluating the necessary curricular adaptations for these students.

Some countries provide a comprehensive range of professional specialists to support teachers. In Spain, besides speech and language specialists, psychologists and educational staff dealing with SEN, there are ‘teachers of compensatory education’ (Profesor de Educación Compensatoria) who develop compensatory activities for disadvantaged groups and in certain territorial areas or for students who enter late into the Spanish education system. Teachers of the Community Services...
advise and participate in students’ needs assessment, and become directly involved with students and families with learning difficulties from disadvantaged socio-economic or cultural backgrounds. In Malta, schools have additional teachers to support those responsible for identifying students who fail to progress in their learning of core subjects. The Netherlands also offers access to a large range of professional specialists. For secondary schools, the functions of education support staff are not specified, but in practice, and due to their larger size, even more specialised functions exist than in primary education. In Slovenia, schools must provide counselling services employing professional counsellors chosen from a list of experts. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), learning mentors support, motivate and challenge students who are underachieving and help them to overcome learning barriers.

**Explanatory note**

**General learning difficulties** refer to learning difficulties in school that are not directly related to any specific physical, sensory or intellectual impairment; instead they may be due to external factors such as socio-cultural disadvantage, limited opportunities to learn, a lack of support from home, an inappropriate curriculum, or insufficient teaching in the early years. This figure does not refer to the support provided for special educational needs (SEN) pupils in mainstream schools.

Where specialists are provided for only at either pre-primary or primary level, the figure refers to ISCED 1, except for the speech and language therapist in Germany and Croatia, who is provided for only at ISCED 0.

Where specialists are provided for only at either lower or upper secondary level, the figure always refers to ISCED 2.

**Country specific notes**

**Spain**: Varies between Autonomous Communities.

**France**: The recent educational policies focus more on individualised support to the students by the teachers themselves rather than by professional specialists.

**Cyprus**: In ISCED 1, there is a number of teachers specialized in reading that serve as teachers counsellors.

**Austria**: Teachers specialized in reading are available in some Länder.

**Finland**: Educational staff dealing with special needs often intervenes for reading difficulties at ISCED 1.

**Norway**: Classroom teachers can contact reading literacy teachers who are specialised in learning support and teaching reading and writing.
SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS AVAILABLE IN MOST COUNTRIES, BUT OFTEN DETERMINED AT SCHOOL LEVEL

Apart from the specific problems encountered at the beginning of their careers (for which particular support measures are provided – see Figure A11), teachers may be confronted at any point in their careers with situations that hinder them from performing their duties effectively. Three areas of support are identified here, namely for (1) personal matters, for (2) interpersonal conflicts involving students, parents and/or colleagues, and for (3) the teaching activity as such and more specifically for the development of professional competences.

The majority of countries offer special support to teachers to help them access continuing professional development (CPD) opportunities (see Figures C1-C6). Support for teachers coping with interpersonal conflicts and help with personal matters is also widespread but less often regulated. Some countries offer regulated support in all three areas (Spain, Malta, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Liechtenstein). The provision and regulation of support measures is generally the same at all educational levels.

The provision of support for the development of professional competences is often regulated within the framework of teachers’ continuing professional development. In Ireland for instance, the State is providing a network of education centres located throughout the country. In Spain, multidisciplinary guidance services help teachers with student diversity issues and related learning difficulties. In Poland, advisers in teaching methodology support teachers’ professional development in the following areas: planning, organising and assessment of teaching outcomes, selecting or creating curriculum and teaching materials, improving teaching methods and introducing innovations. In Italy, schools can decide independently whether to use a mentoring system in addition to the compulsory professional development plan. In Hungary, there are teams of subject teachers, which help each other to develop their professional competences. Similarly, in Slovenia, teachers of the same subject or subject area form part of regional study group, co-ordinated by consultants from the National Education Institute.

Support for teachers in dealing with interpersonal conflicts is regulated in half of the countries offering it, and determined at school level in the other half. In the French Community of Belgium, schools have access to mediation services, intervening at the request of teachers, school heads, students or parents. In Spain, several education authorities have created ‘coexistence observatories’ to help teachers in solving the conflicts that arise in their schools. In practice, mediation can be carried out by the leadership teams, the teaching staff or the ‘coexistence and mediation commissions’. In Lithuania, the Law on Education specifies that a ‘Commission for the Welfare of the Child’ should be created in each school to deal with conflicts and related issues.

Support of teachers in personal matters often stems from the general employment legislation, applying also to the teaching profession and focusing on welfare, health prevention and work-life balance issues. In the Czech Republic, in addition to applying the employment legislation, teachers with specific training can teach fewer hours to have more time to provide psychological support and to deal with possible interpersonal conflicts involving students, teachers and/or their families. In Slovakia, the workload of teachers responsible for education counselling is lower than for other teachers to provide time for these counselling duties. In Ireland, the Department of Education and Skills, in consultation with the teachers unions and school management bodies, put in place an Occupational Health Strategy with a focus primarily on prevention rather than cure. An external provider, ‘Carecall’, gives teachers and their immediate family members access to confidential counselling on issues such as health, relationships, stress, conflict etc. In Spain, where the general system of health care also provides psychological care, support is offered by some teacher unions as well, e.g. through the
activation of teacher helpline services. In Malta, the office of the staff support service offers
counselling to education staff, supportive teacher peer-to-peer sessions, and systematic training for all
staff to enhance work-life balance. In Hungary, it is the task of school heads to support teachers in
personal matters. Equally, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the school
head has the responsibility for the well-being of staff; it is part of his/her professional duties.

Figure D3: Support measures for teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper)
secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Personal matters
Interpersonal conflicts
Development of
professional competences

Support regulated
Support measures determined at school level

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Personal matters refer to issues of private and/or psychological nature, e.g. life circumstances, burnout etc.
Interpersonal conflicts relate to those involving students, parents and/or colleagues, e.g. conflicts of a disciplinary
nature with students.

Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: A company-doctor (bedrijfsarts) provides support for teachers in personal matters.
Austria: At ISCED 0, only support for personal matters is provided.

IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES, TEACHERS' EMPLOYMENT CONTRACTS
INCLUDE OTHER COMMITMENTS IN ADDITION TO TIME SPENT TEACHING

In the great majority of European countries, teachers’ working time is largely determined by their
teaching hours. However, in most cases, additional activities are also included. The number of hours
they must be available at school for other activities, such as meetings or management duties, may
also be specified, as occurs in 18 countries. Overall working time is a concept used in the majority of
countries covered, and corresponds to the total number of working hours a week, as set down in
collective bargaining agreements or other contractual arrangements.

For most countries, the situation is the same in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary
education. However, it is very different for pre-primary education: there are often more teaching hours
(see Figure D5a). On the other hand, teaching hours are not specified for this level in Denmark,
Germany and Austria.

The working time of teachers is contractually defined solely in terms of the number of teaching hours
in only three European countries or regions (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium,
and Liechtenstein), while it includes both teaching hours and hours of availability at school in the
Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland, Italy, Cyprus, Malta, and Finland.

Finally, in three countries, namely the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales
and Northern Ireland), the number of teaching hours that may be required of teachers is not specified
at central level. In the Netherlands, only the overall working time is specified in legislation. In Sweden,
an overall annual amount of working time in hours is specified, along with the time during which
teachers should be present at school. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the regulations specify the amount of time for which teachers should be available to perform duties at school or in another place as determined by the school head.

Where separate activities are specifically defined in hours as part of the weekly workload of full-time teachers, they may vary considerably from one country to the next (see Figure D5a).

**Figure D4: Official definitions of teachers’ working time in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

### Explanatory note

All information refers to situations in which teachers are working on a full-time basis. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are beginning their career are not taken into account if they are subject to special timetabling requirements.

Official definitions relate to working time as defined in teachers’ contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents. These definitions are issued by the central authorities or by the regional authorities in countries where the latter correspond to the top-level authority for education.

The number of teaching hours refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of students. In some countries, this is the only contractually specified working time. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

The number of hours of availability at school refers to the time available for performing duties at school or in another place as specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to a specified amount of time in addition to the specified number of teaching hours and, in others, to a global number of available hours that includes the time spent teaching. It can be defined as a weekly or annual amount.

Overall working hours are the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school and an amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities which may be done outside the school. The number of hours may be either earmarked specifically for different activities or defined globally. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

### THE WEEKLY TEACHING HOURS REQUIRED OF TEACHERS VARY WIDELY BETWEEN COUNTRIES

In most countries, teachers’ employment contracts specify the number of hours they are required to teach (see Figure D4). The weekly teaching hours – excluding planned breaks and any other contact time with students that does not involve teaching – vary considerably between countries. They range from 12 hours per week to as much as 36 hours per week. Variations within countries and education levels may relate to minimum and maximum numbers of teaching hours or to subject-related differences. Moreover, in Germany, Greece, Spain, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal, Romania and Slovenia, the number of teaching hours varies depending on teachers’ years of experience; they are reduced after a certain number of years of service (see Figure D5b).

In general, teachers’ weekly teaching hours are highest at pre-primary level, they decrease to an average of 20 hours during compulsory education, and are less than 20 hours in upper secondary education. Only in Bulgaria, Denmark and Croatia, is the number of teaching hours for secondary education teachers higher than for primary teachers. In Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), teachers are required to teach exactly the same number of hours in both primary and secondary education.
Very few countries, however, define only teaching hours in employment contracts. In the majority of European countries, an overall number of working hours per week is also set, based on the amount of working time in other employment sectors. This is between 35 and 40 hours in all countries, as specified in collective bargaining or other agreements.

In around a third of European countries, the amount of time that teachers should be available in school each week is also defined and does not generally exceed 30 hours, except in Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway. In Cyprus, this is the case only in secondary education and, in Iceland, only in pre-primary education.

Across many countries, the overall number of working hours and the amount of time teachers should be available in school are very similar at the various levels of education.

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**Figure D5a: Official definitions of the weekly workload of full-time teachers in hours in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

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**Figure D5a: Official definitions of the weekly workload of full-time teachers in hours in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

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Source: Eurydice.

**Explanatory note**

The Figure shows the situation of a teacher working full-time who does not have other duties, such as management duties. Variations within a country are shown where they relate to specific factors such as the subject taught or the employment status of the teacher, or where they represent flexibility at school level to establish the number of teaching hours or time available at school for each teacher. Reduced timetable conditions for teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not shown; neither is the flexibility to reduce the number of hours in accordance with the length of service or when taking on other duties.

The figure gives information solely in hours per week. The actual working time of teachers may also vary in accordance with the annual number of days of service.

**Official definitions** relate to working time as defined in teachers' contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents. These definitions are issued by the central authorities, or by the regional authorities in countries where the latter correspond to the top-level authority for education.

The number of hours of teaching per week refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of students for teaching, assessment, and educational activities in the classroom or outside. This number is calculated to exclude time for breaks or time spent with students that does not involve teaching activities. It is obtained by multiplying the number of lessons/periods by the time each lesson lasts and dividing the product by 60. When two figures are given, they refer to variations explained in the country specific notes.
The **number of hours of availability at school per week** refers to the amount of time available, other than teaching time, for performing duties at school or in another place as specified by the school head.

**Overall working hours per week** are the number of teaching hours, the number of hours of availability at school, and the amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities, which may be done outside the school.

Estimates have been made for countries where the status or contract of teachers does not refer to teaching time, time that teachers should be available at school, and/or overall working time. Where the obligations of teachers are determined on an annual basis, an average weekly number of hours has been calculated from the required number of days of presence at school and/or of overall working time, where possible.

**Country specific notes**

**Belgium and Romania:** Teaching time varies depending on stages of education.

**Bulgaria, Slovenia, Croatia and Norway:** The teaching time varies for different subject teachers.

**Estonia:** Specific teaching time is determined for each teacher by the school head in the employment contract.

**Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.

**Spain:** Data presented reflect the situation in the country as a whole, there are small variations between Autonomous Communities. Since the 2012/13 school year, the teaching time for secondary teachers has been a minimum of 20 hours.

**France:** At ISCED 3 teaching time varies according to the status of teachers. The majority of them are certifiés (certified) and have 18 teaching hours.

**Italy:** The time spent at school for other activities is only partly quantifiable as it is made up of a minimum amount of hours per year for formal collegial activities and a non-quantifiable amount of time for other activities defined as functional to teaching in the contract.

**Cyprus:** The teaching time may vary depending on the size of the school.

**Latvia:** The length of teaching periods at pre-primary level is defined at school level.

**Lithuania:** The working hours are a maximum and can vary according to various factors such as different subjects, different types of teachers, the size of the school, periods available at school, etc.

**Hungary:** The teaching hours vary depending on the length of the lessons set at school level. In most cases, lessons are 45 minutes.

**Malta:** The teaching hours vary depending on the length of the lessons set at school level.

**Austria:** The teaching hours at ISCED 2 vary depending on the type of school (AHS or HS).

**Poland:** Besides teaching time and overall working time, teachers are obliged, according to the legislation, to be available at school 2 extra hours in ISCED 1 and 2 and one extra hour in ISCED 3.

**Portugal:** For the second cycle of primary education (2 grades), the teaching time and availability at school is the same as for ISCED 2. Availability varies according to the needs of the school.

**Finland:** For ISCED 0, overall working hours apply only to teachers in daycare, teaching hours and availability apply to teachers working in schools. For ISCED 2 and 3, teaching time and availability at school vary for different subject teachers.

**Sweden:** The number of working hours per year is agreed upon in negotiations between employers’ associations and trade unions. The 40 hours per week are based on an average of 8 hours per day.

**Turkey:** The figure represents compulsory teaching hours. Overall working hours are not available.

**Norway:** The weekly workload of full-time teachers is not specified in the central working agreement for ISCED 1-3. There are local variations/agreements. The numbers shown are estimated averages.

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**REDUCTION OF TEACHING HOURS AT THE END OF TEACHERS’ CAREERS**

**NOT VERY WIDESPREAD**

Working hours may also vary depending on the years of service or the age of the teacher. However, this is not a very widespread practice in Europe. Only nine countries reduce teachers’ workload according to their length of service and/or their age. In Germany, teachers of a certain age can benefit from reduced teaching hours. Regulations of the Länder vary but in most cases, teachers get a one-lesson-reduction per week from their 55th birthday and a two-lesson-reduction per week from their 60th birthday onwards. But in other Länder, the reduction starts at their 58th birthday or their 60th birthday and remains the same up to their retirement. The situation is similar in Portugal where teaching hours are reduced gradually as of 50 years of age. In the remaining countries, reductions are linked to the length of service. Regulations on reductions always refer to teaching hours.
MINIMUM STATUTORY SALARIES IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ARE LOWER THAN THE NATIONAL GDP PER CAPITA IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES

In order to compare the financial expenditure made by the competent authorities to pay teachers, one of the most commonly used indicators is the relation of the minimum and maximum statutory salaries to the per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP), an indicator of the standard of living of a country’s population. This teachers’ statutory salary is generally located on a salary scale with a number of levels or grades. Teachers may thus move from a lower to a higher level in accordance with a set of criteria such as length of service, merit, further qualifications, etc. However, it should be noted that the basic statutory salary excludes salary allowances and benefits, which may represent a significant proportion of a teacher’s salary in some countries.

In many cases, the minimum and maximum basic statutory annual teachers’ salaries compared to GDP per capita are identical at primary and lower secondary education levels and relatively higher at upper secondary level. In the majority of countries, minimum basic teacher salaries in primary and general secondary education are lower than per capita GDP. The lowest rate can be observed in Latvia, Lithuania, Romania and Slovakia where the minimum primary teacher salary corresponds to less than 50 % of national GDP per capita.

On the other hand, the highest relative ratio between the teachers’ minimum salaries and the GDP per capita can be seen in Germany (141 %), Spain (136 %), Portugal (133 %) and Turkey (150 %).

At upper secondary education, teachers’ minimum statutory salaries in most countries represent almost 90 % of GDP per capita. Those countries which have relatively low minimum salaries at primary level also have the lowest statutory wages in upper secondary education. The maximum statutory salaries for teachers in secondary education are in general higher than those at primary level. The highest maximum statutory salaries compared with the GDP per capita can be seen in Cyprus (282 %), Portugal (271 %) and Germany (211 %), however in Portugal a teacher needs more than 30 years to obtain such maximum salary (see Figure D7). In contrast, in the Czech Republic,
Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia even the maximum statutory salaries at all three levels are still lower than the GDP per capita.

In countries where in the last few years the GDP decreased due to the budgetary and financial crisis and the statutory salaries remained unchanged or smaller reductions were applied in 2012, we see a positive development in this indicator, nevertheless the real purchasing power of teachers in those countries continued to decrease.

Figure D6: Minimum and maximum annual gross statutory salaries of full-time fully qualified teachers in public schools relative to GDP per capita (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Source: Eurydice.
The basic gross annual statutory salary is the amount paid by the employer in a year, including general increases to salary scales, the 13th month and holiday-pay (where applicable) excluding the employers’ social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include other salary allowances or financial benefits. The minimum salary is the basic gross salary received by teachers in the above-mentioned circumstances at the start of their career. The maximum salary is the basic gross salary received by teachers and school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances on retirement or after a certain number of years of service. The maximum salary includes solely increases related to the length of service and/or the age.

The values indicated in the diagram are obtained by establishing a relation between the minimum and maximum basic gross annual statutory salary in national currency and GDP per capita (at current prices in national currency) in the country concerned. The reference calendar year for per capita GDP is 2011 (for Bulgaria, Poland and Romania, GDP per capita is from 2010). The reference period for salaries is the 2011/12 school year or the calendar year 2011.


### Country specific notes

**Belgium**: National per capita GDP is taken into account (instead of per capita GDP in each Community).

**Bulgaria**: The teachers’ statutes determine only the minimum basic statutory salary but not the maximum one. The indicated values are for junior teachers without teacher experience.

**Czech Republic**: Statutory salaries are based on salary scales 11-12 for ISCED 1-3.

**Denmark**: At ISCED 3, (a) Teachers in general upper secondary education; (b) Teachers in vocational upper secondary education.

**Germany**: Data from 2010/11 school year. The different Länder are responsible for the definition of the basic statutory salaries. Given the complexity and wide variety of circumstances, the values presented for statutory salaries represent a weighted average of the data available at Länder level for civil servants and include allowances.

**Spain**: The total amounts correspond to average salaries in public education, calculated as a weighted average of the salaries in the different Autonomous Communities. (a) Data on general teachers; (b) Data at ISCED 2-3 for Catedráticos.

**France**: At ISCED 1, minimum and maximum salaries refer to the statutory wage of a Professeur des écoles and include accommodation allowance. At ISCED 2 or ISCED 3, minimum and maximum salaries refer to the statutory wage of a Professeur certifié and include bonus for tutoring and bonus for extra teaching time.

**Italy**: (a) Data for teachers that obtained Laurea/Master degree; (b) Data for teachers that completed non-university studies.

**Austria**: At ISCED 2, (a) Data on salaries of Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule teachers; (b) Data on salaries of Hauptschule teachers.

**Finland**: The amount of maximum salaries may vary extensively depending on teachers’ years of service and individual increments. The information shown provides an estimate of the annual basic gross maximum salary.

**Sweden**: There is no salary scale. Salaries are based on individual agreements between the teachers and the employers. The indicated data for minimum and maximum salaries corresponds to the 10th and 90th percentiles respectively.

**Liechtenstein**: GDP per capita for Switzerland is used. At ISCED 2, (a) Data on salaries of Gymnasium teachers; (b) Data on salaries of Oberschule/Realschule teachers.

**Norway**: At ISCED 2, (a) Teachers with 4 years of initial training; (b) Teachers with 5 years of initial training. At ISCED 3, (a) Teachers with 5 years of initial training; (b) Teachers with 6 years of initial training.

### The relative increase in teachers’ salaries is correlated to the number of years needed to obtain the maximum salary

The relation between maximum and minimum annual gross statutory salaries is a pointer to the long-term prospects of teachers in terms of the salary increases they can reasonably expect throughout their careers if only their length of service is taken into account. The present indicator is analysing the difference between the minimum and maximum statutory salaries and the number of years needed to obtain this maximum salary, and thus is not comparing the absolute values of the teachers’ salaries.

The maximum statutory salaries expressed in Purchasing power standard (PPS) EUR are generally twice as high as the minimum salaries for new entrants. Teachers in primary education in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia and Turkey may receive only around 20% salary increase during their professional career. However, in upper secondary education, the maximum statutory salaries in Cyprus, Hungary, Austria, Portugal and Romania are more than double, compared with the salary at the beginning of the professional career. This fact, together with the frequency of salary increases,
may explain why teaching may be more attractive at some stages of a career than others. Clearly, teachers whose salaries rise significantly throughout their entire career may be less inclined to leave the profession than those whose salaries do not progress beyond the early years of experience. However, this factor must be considered together with the average number of years that are needed to obtain the maximum statutory salary.

**Figure D7: Relationship between the relative increase in the statutory salary in primary, lower and upper secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), and the years needed to obtain the maximum salary, 2011/12**

Explanatory note

The figure shows the relative increase of the statutory salary calculated as the difference between the maximum and minimum values and the number of years that are needed to obtain such maximum salary. Only countries with both minimum and maximum statutory salary and available data on the number of years needed to obtain the maximum salary are shown on the figure. The trend lines are obtained as a non-weighted linear regression between the two data sets.

**Country specific notes**

**Bulgaria:** The teachers’ statutes determine only the minimum basic statutory salary but not the maximum one.

**Germany:** The different Länder are responsible for the definition of the basic statutory salaries. Given the complexity and wide variety of circumstances, there is no data on the average number of years needed to obtain the maximum statutory salary.

**Germany, Ireland, Liechtenstein and Norway:** There is no data available on the average number of years needed to obtain the maximum statutory salary.

**Spain:** The total amounts correspond to average salaries in public education, calculated as a weighted average of the salaries in the different Autonomous Communities. Only data on general teachers is shown.
France: At ISCED 1, minimum and maximum salaries refer to the statutory wage of a *Professeur des écoles* and include accommodation allowance. At ISCED 2 or ISCED 3, minimum and maximum salaries refer to the statutory wage of a *Professeur certifié* and include bonus for tutoring and bonus for extra teaching time.

Italy: Data for teachers that obtained Laurea/Master degree.

Netherlands: Data not available

Austria: At ISCED 2, data on salaries of *Hauptschule* teachers.

Finland: The amount of maximum salaries may vary extensively depending on teachers' years of service and individual increments. The information shown provides an estimate of the annual basic gross maximum salary.

Sweden: There is no salary scale. Individual teachers' salaries are based on individual agreements between the teachers and the employers and are not specifically linked to the number of years in the profession. Therefore, Sweden is not represented in the figure.

In most of the European countries, the average number of years that a reference teacher must complete to obtain the maximum basic statutory salary is between 15 and 25 years. Nevertheless, in Spain, Italy, Hungary, Austria, Portugal and Romania, it takes 34 years or more to achieve the maximum statutory salary. On the other hand, in Denmark, Estonia and the United Kingdom, a teacher with 10 years of professional experience can already be at the maximum salary scale.

At all three education levels, a positive correlation can be seen between the level of increase between the minimum and the maximum statutory salary and the number of years needed to obtain such salary. A strong relationship is observed in Hungary, Austria, Portugal and Romania, the four countries with a biggest difference between the maximum and minimum salaries and the highest number of years needed to obtain this maximum salary. The same correlation is true also in Denmark, Estonia, Latvia and the United Kingdom (Scotland) where in less than 13 years of experience teachers already can get the maximum statutory salary that is only around 30% higher than the minimum.

However, a few countries are not following this tendency. For example in Lithuania and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the maximum statutory salary is between 70% and 90% higher than the minimum and teachers can get this maximum wage only after between 10 and 15 years of experience. At the opposite, in the Czech Republic (after a recent reform aiming to increase the minimum salary), Spain, Italy, Slovakia and Turkey, the maximum salaries are only 50% higher than those for entry teachers but teachers get those only after 25 to 35 years of experience. Finally, in France and Cyprus, the maximum teachers' salaries are almost or more than double comparing with those for starting teachers and it takes around 20 years to obtain them.

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**TOP-LEVEL AUTHORITIES SET TEACHERS’ BASIC STATUTORY SALARIES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES**

In general terms, top-level authorities make decisions regarding the overall amount of public expenditure in each category of resource earmarked for public schools providing compulsory education. In some countries, however, the public authorities only decide on the overall amount of the school budget, and decisions relating to specific categories of resource are made at school level. Depending on the chosen method of distribution, the amount of funding for a particular resource is established either in terms of a lump sum to be shared out optimally among schools, or by means of a formula which, when applied to each school individually, gives the total level of funding required (1).

Decisions on the amount of teachers' basic gross statutory salaries are made at the top-level authority for education in almost all European countries. In Germany, the regional governments of each *Land* are responsible for the establishment of the teachers’ salaries and in Spain, the salaries of teachers in

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(1) See EACEA/Eurydice, 2012b. *Key Data on Education in Europe 2012*, Figure D8.
public schools are partly established by central authorities (basic salary and complements related to seniority and to the teaching profession) and partly by the Autonomous Communities (supplements related to the educational level at which the teachers teach and to in-service training).

**Figure D8: Decision-making levels for setting teachers’ basic statutory salaries in public sector from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

Source: Eurydice.

**Explanatory note**

The top-level authority for education in most countries is the central government. In four cases, however, decision-making occurs at a different level, namely that of the governments of the Communities in Belgium, the Länder in Germany, the governments of the Autonomous Communities in addition to the central government in Spain and education ministries in England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland for the United Kingdom.

In Finland, Sweden and Norway, the basic remuneration of teachers is decided on the basis of negotiations between the education authorities and the trade unions and, consequently, there are no statutory salaries in the strict sense of the term. In Finland, teachers’ salaries are agreed nationally as part of collective agreements for state and municipal civil servants of the education sector. These negotiations are concluded at intervals of 1-3 years between the trade union for education and local authority employers. In Norway, the minimum wages for teachers are negotiated at central level but municipalities are free to increase the minimum wages in direct negotiations. Finally, in Sweden teachers’ salaries are performance-based and the negotiations on central and/or local level are a frame within which teachers’ salaries are negotiated on an individual basis.

In the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia, the top-level sets a national salary scale for public employees, and school heads are then responsible for deciding teachers' salaries, taking into account the appropriate salary category of the national salary scale for individual teachers, the monthly salary rate and the workload. In many cases, such decisions at school level must be communicated to the founder of the education institution (generally the municipality or the Ministry of Education). Estonia has a similar situation: central government, local authorities and authorised representatives of registered teachers' unions agree upon the minimum salary rate of municipal teachers on the basis of occupational grades, but if no agreement is reached, the government alone can determine the minimum salary rate.
ACTUAL TEACHERS' SALARIES ARE CLOSER TO THE MAXIMUM STATUTORY ONES

Statutory salaries are only indicative of the actual salaries that teachers receive for their work. In the different European education systems, a wide range of complementary allocations are granted as well as other financial benefits. (For all information concerning countries reducing or freezing teachers' salaries because of budgetary restrictions, see the recent report on the impact of the crisis) (2).

For many of the analysed countries, only the average actual salaries are available for all teachers considered together, so it is not possible to make a comparison between education levels, but still they provide a more accurate picture of the remuneration of teachers. In those cases where details are available by level of education, the actual teachers' salaries in primary and lower secondary education are lower than those in upper secondary level following the same trend and the statutory salary scales.

The highest actual salaries at upper secondary level (or for all levels together) can be seen in Luxembourg (PPS EUR 86 745 per year), Denmark (PPS EUR 56 336 per year) and Austria (PPS EUR 52 308 per year).

As a general tendency, actual teacher salaries in many of the countries with available data are located close to the maximum statutory salary. This can be explained in part by the relatively high share of teachers in the older age groups. In the Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Finland and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the actual teachers' salaries are even higher than the maximum statutory ones, mainly due to the range of additional allowances that teachers may receive. On the other hand, in Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal, the actual teacher's salaries are almost in the middle of the statutory scale. This fact can be partly explained by the relatively long professional experience (between 25 and 34 years) required to obtain the maximum salary scale and in the case of Luxembourg and Portugal by the fact that almost 50 % of teachers are under 40 years old. However, this is not the case in Italy where most of the teachers are older than 50 (see Figure D13).

Explanatory note (Figure D9)
The average actual gross annual salary shown here is the gross annual salary received by all teachers/school heads including their basic gross statutory salary plus all the allowances, bonuses or financial benefits, divided by the total number of teachers at the specific level. Depending on the country, more than one education levels are considered together or different categories are merged, but average salaries are shown in the figure for each education level.

The data is from the most recent national administrative registers, statistical databases, representative sample surveys or other representative sources. See national reference years and details on education levels in the National data sheets in Teachers' and School Heads' Salaries and Allowances in Europe, 2011/12, available at http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/tools/salaries.pdf

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

Figure D9: Minimum and maximum annual statutory gross salaries of full-time fully qualified teachers in public schools (ISCED 1, 2 and 3) and average actual annual gross salaries, in PPS EUR, 2011/12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISCED 1</th>
<th>ISCED 2</th>
<th>ISCED 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

Statutory minimum (min) and maximum salaries

Average actual salaries

Source: Eurydice.

Country specific notes

See Figures D6 and D7.

Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, France and United Kingdom (SCT): Average actual gross annual salary is calculated for all teachers without any distinction between the education levels.

Spain: (a) Data on general teachers; (b) Data at ISCED 2-3 for Catedráticos.

Austria: Average actual salaries are only for teachers at the academic secondary schools. School heads are included.

Portugal: The value for primary level only corresponds to the average actual gross salary of first cycle teachers. The value for second cycle teachers is the same as for lower and upper secondary teachers.

Slovakia: Data about average actual salary include both teacher and school heads salaries.

United Kingdom (WLS): Data not available.
ONLY HALF OF THE COUNTRIES GIVE ALLOWANCES TO TEACHERS FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT TRAINING OR FOR EXCELLENCE IN TEACHING

Teachers' basic salaries depend in general on the number of years of professional experience. Various allowances may be added to the basic salary, and can have considerable weight in the actual teachers' salary. Such additional allowances can be granted for example for complementary qualifications, as a result of evaluation of their work and of students’ results in examinations, for teaching in challenging circumstances or working with students with special needs as well as for overtime and teaching in remote or expensive geographical areas. (For all information concerning countries reducing or freezing allowances because of budgetary restrictions, see the recent report on the impact of the crisis) (3).

One third of the countries offer a wide range of allowances covering all or almost all types of complementary payments analysed here. At the other end of the spectrum, in education systems such as in Belgium, Cyprus, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland), only one or two types of allowances exist.

Allowances for formal qualifications higher than the minimum required for being a fully qualified teacher (i.e. Master degree, research diploma or Doctorate diploma) are provided in the majority of education systems. Generally, central education authorities define the type and amount of the allowance. However, in some countries, these allowances are established on the basis of local agreements. In most cases, teachers’ salaries can be increased by a fixed amount between EUR 300 and 1 500, depending on the supplementary qualification. The highest values for this type of allowance can be seen in Ireland, where teachers with additional qualifications can receive up to EUR 6 140 for a Doctorate degree and EUR 1 236 for a Higher Diploma in Education (honours level), giving a maximum permissible allowance of EUR 7 376 per year. In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), if teachers in primary and lower secondary education complete a specific Master's degree, they receive the salary level of upper secondary school teachers, for whom such a qualification is a requirement (see Figure A2). In Turkey, teachers with a Master's degree move up one level on the salary scale and teachers with a Doctorate degree move up two levels.

Continuing professional development (CPD) is considered as a professional duty for teachers in 28 European countries or regions (see Figure C1). In Bulgaria, Spain, Lithuania, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia, CPD participation is moreover a prerequisite for career advancement and salary increases. Nevertheless, only ten countries provide teachers with financial allowances for obtaining further CPD qualifications and the methods used for establishing the allowance are mainly decided at local or school level.

In half of the countries, the quality or value of the work carried out by teachers may be rewarded by additional payments following its appraisal or based on the results their students obtain in examinations. In the Czech Republic or Latvia, this allowance is between 5.2 % and 7 % of the statutory salary. In Poland, a specific 'motivation incentive' is granted by the school head for good teaching and pedagogical achievements, introducing effective teaching innovations, contributions to overall teaching work, exceptionally effective fulfilling of tasks and duties, in agreement with the local authorities. Finally, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), each school carries out a performance appraisal and, subject to this being satisfactory, teachers move up the pay scale. In cases of outstanding performance, they may move 2 points up the scale. In Turkey, a similar appraisal is carried out by the education authorities and if a teacher achieves good scores six times consecutively, he/she moves on to an upper salary scale.

Around two-thirds of countries provide financial allowances for teachers who cater for pupils with learning difficulties or special needs in mainstream classes. In general, this kind of bonus is awarded in the case of pupils with special educational needs, but other criteria such as teaching children with language difficulties, children of different ages in the same class, or pupils with low levels of attainment are sometimes taken into account. Some countries such as Greece and Hungary allocate specific allowances if teachers work in schools in religious or ethnic minority areas. In Sweden, the presence of pupils with learning difficulties or special needs may be taken into account in individual salary negotiations.

In many countries, participation in extracurricular activities is remunerated as overtime but in others specific allowances are granted for such work. For example, in Slovenia, teaching outdoor classes is compensated by up to 20% of the basic salary for 6 hours per day in primary and lower secondary education level. In addition, for workshops, sports and other extracurricular activities, EUR 11.94 per hour are paid for all levels of compulsory education.

Almost all European countries give teachers financial allowances when they are willing to assume additional responsibilities. These activities can include supervision of pupils after classes, participation in school management, provision of support to other teachers, serving as a head of department, membership in selection or examination committees, participation in national or international bodies, organization of teaching materials, etc. Allowances for additional responsibilities are allocated both at central level for some of the regulated activities as well as at school level for specific tasks which fall within the scope of the school’s autonomous management of delegated budgets.

Furthermore, teachers in all European countries, with the exception of Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Romania and the United Kingdom (Scotland), receive additional payments for overtime, i.e. working time which exceeds the number of working hours specified in the contract of employment or conditions of service. Generally, the school management is the responsible body that makes the decision on the allocation of this type of allowance. In many cases, the hourly overtime rate is defined at central level and amounts to between 130% and 200% of the hourly wage or average earnings for an hour of direct teaching and the school management registers the number of hours of overtime time to be paid. However, overtime payments are often limited to a specific percentage of the basic salary.

**Figure D10: Salary allowances and complementary payments for teachers in public schools (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), and decision-making levels, 2011/12**

- Further formal qualifications
- Further CPD qualifications
- Positive teaching performance appraisal or students results
- Additional responsibilities
- Geographical location (high cost of living, disadvantaged or remote area)
- Teaching pupils/students with special education needs or challenging circumstances
- Participation in extracurricular activities
- Overtime

Source: Eurydice.
Explanatory note

Further formal qualifications: Any postgraduate qualifications that are obtained after the minimum qualification needed to become a teacher at the specific level of education (e.g. master's degree, doctorate, etc.)

Further CPD qualifications: Formal and non-formal Continuous Professional Development (CPD) activities which may for example include subject-based and pedagogical training, using ICT for teaching, development of new teaching materials, etc. In certain cases, these activities may lead to supplementary qualifications.

Positive teaching performance appraisal or student results: This evaluation may include two types of appraisal, namely the specific teacher's merit and quality of their teaching or the results obtained by their students in different type of examinations.

Additional responsibilities: All the activities that might be done by teachers/school heads and distinct from those specified in their contract. These activities can include supervision of pupils after classes, participation in school management, provision of support to other teachers, serving as a head of department, membership in selection or examination committees, participation in national or international bodies, organization of teaching materials, etc.

Geographical location (high cost of living, disadvantaged or remote area, etc.): Incentives intended to encourage teachers to accept posts in remote or rural areas as well as socially disadvantaged areas. In this group are also included the allowances given for working in regions such as the capital cities with an above average cost of living.

Teaching students with special education needs or challenging circumstances: In this group are including all the activities linked to the teaching of pupils/students with special education needs integrated in mainstream classes as well as pupils/students with learning difficulties, languages problems, immigrant background, etc. In the case of school heads, these activities also include tasks oriented to coordinate and support specific groups of pupils/students.

Participation in extracurricular activities: These activities can include sports, out of the school workshops, visits to museum, theatre, summer school, etc.

Overtime: The amount of time that exceeds the number of working hours specified in the contract of employment or conditions of service and spent by teachers at work.

Country specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): Overtime allowances only apply to teachers in courses in social advancement education.

Netherlands: Data from 2009/10.

Half of the countries provide financial allowances related to the geographical location of the school in which teachers work. These adjustments generally take the form of incentives intended to encourage teachers to accept posts in remote, rural or socially disadvantaged regions and are defined at central level. They may also be offered other allowances for working in regions such as those of capital cities with an above average cost of living. Eligibility criteria vary considerably from one country to the next. They may be of geographical nature (remote or isolated areas) as in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Cyprus, Poland, Romania, Finland and the United Kingdom (Scotland). On the other hand, the criteria can be also of an economic nature (very high cost of living) as in Denmark, France, Finland and the United Kingdom (England); or of social nature (areas affected by considerable social exclusion, high risk areas and areas with a high proportion of pupils from minority ethnic or linguistic backgrounds) as in Greece, Spain, France, Italy and Hungary.

TEACHERS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION REPRESENT ON AVERAGE 2 % OF THE ACTIVE POPULATION

In 2010, teachers in primary, lower and upper secondary education represented 2.1 % of the total active population of all European Union member states, which amounts to approximately 5 million teachers all together.

The percentages differ considerably between individual countries. Countries with the lowest percentages of teachers in the active population are Germany (1.6 %), Estonia (1.6 %) and Bulgaria (1.7 %) whereas the highest concentration of teachers in the active population can be found in Luxembourg (3.6 %), Lithuania (3.5 %) and Belgium (3.5 %).
Figure D11: Teachers in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3) as a percentage of the total active population, public and private sectors combined, 2010

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</tr>
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</table>

Source: Eurostat.

Explanatory note

Only teachers involved in providing direct instruction are taken into account. The data include teachers in special education and others who work with pupils as a whole class in a classroom, with small groups in a resource room, or on a one-to-one basis inside or outside a regular classroom. Staff assigned tasks other than teaching, and trainees or teachers' assistants are not included. Both full-time and part-time working teachers in the public and private sectors at ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3 are included in the numerator.

The active population corresponds to the total number of employed and unemployed persons in the population. Data concerning the active population (in the denominator) are derived from the Labour Force Survey.

Country specific notes

Italy: Public institutions only.
Netherlands: ISCED 0 and 4 included.
Iceland: ISCED 4 partly included.

THE HIGHER THE EDUCATIONAL LEVEL THE FEWER WOMEN TEACHERS

Women account for the large majority of teachers in primary and lower secondary education. However, the proportion varies according to the level of education: the younger the children, the higher the number of women teachers. In all European countries, women are the majority among primary teachers (ISCED 1). Proportions vary between 52% in Turkey, 68.8% in Denmark and over 95% in several countries (Czech Republic, Italy, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia).

Teaching at ISCED level 2 is statistically still largely female: in approximately half of European countries, there is a proportion of 70% and above of women teachers. There are nevertheless more male teachers than at primary level. The proportion of women teachers varies between 50.5% in Liechtenstein and 84.6% in Latvia.

However, female representation decreases markedly at upper secondary level. This is the case in particular in the Czech Republic, Germany, Malta, Austria, Finland, Sweden and Norway where female representation decreases strongly between ISCED levels 2 and 3. Overall, teaching at ISCED level 3 is more balanced between women and men. In 12 countries, the proportion of women teachers varies between 41.9% (Turkey) and 53.1% (Austria).
HIGH PERCENTAGES OF EUROPEAN TEACHERS ARE IN THE OLDER AGE GROUPS

Overall, in all countries, with the exception of Belgium, Ireland, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom, there are fewer teachers in the age groups below 30 and 30 to 39 than there are teachers over 40.

At primary level, over 60 % of all teachers are in the over-40 age groups in eleven countries (Bulgaria, Germany, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Sweden, Liechtenstein, and Iceland).

In Bulgaria, Italy and Sweden, the under 30 age group of teachers is particularly small.

In secondary education, the picture of an ageing teaching workforce is even more pronounced: in more than half of European countries, the age group under 30 represents not even 10 % of serving teachers. Over 40 % of the teachers are over 50 in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Norway and Iceland. Moreover, the percentage of teachers in the age group below 30 are particularly low in Germany, Italy and Sweden.

In Belgium, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, the breakdown of teachers by age is relatively evenly balanced. This is also true for Poland for secondary teachers.

The fact that higher age groups are more strongly represented may lead to massive numbers retiring in the coming years in some countries (see Figure D15).
Figure D13: Distribution of teachers by age group in primary (ISCED 1) and secondary education (ISCED 2 and 3), public and private sectors combined, 2010

Primary education (ISCED 1)

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Source: Eurostat, UOE.
### Working Conditions and Pay

The official retirement age for teachers is often 65

In nearly all European countries, there is an official retirement age, which sets the limit, beyond which, except in special circumstances, teachers may not continue working. This upper age limit is 65 years of age in the majority of countries and is the same for all four levels of education considered here. However, in a dozen countries, this upper age limit is lower for both men and women. Slovenia has the lowest retirement age (58) while Norway has the highest.

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#### The Official Retirement Age for Teachers is Often 65

In nearly all European countries, there is an official retirement age, which sets the limit, beyond which, except in special circumstances, teachers may not continue working. This upper age limit is 65 years of age in the majority of countries and is the same for all four levels of education considered here. However, in a dozen countries, this upper age limit is lower for both men and women. Slovenia has the lowest retirement age (58) while Norway has the highest.

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**Country specific notes**

- **Belgium**: Data for secondary education also include ISCED 4.
- **Italy**: Public institutions only.

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**Source**: Eurostat, UOE.
In about half of the European countries examined, teachers are able to retire before they reach official retirement age. In general, the minimum age at which they can retire is around 60 and carries with it full pension entitlement when they have completed the required years’ service. However, this number varies widely from one country to the next and is, for example, 20 (for women only) in Italy and Turkey, and 40-42 years in Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

In the majority of countries, the criteria governing the age of retirement are the same for both men and women; however, differences exist in some countries, in particular in Central and Eastern European countries. While, in most of these cases, women may secure their pension earlier than men, the tendency has been to lessen this difference or abolish it altogether. There has also been a tendency to abolish the minimum retirement age, which makes the official retirement age the sole reference age in about half of the countries.

Figure D14: Retirement age of teachers in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Minimum retirement age (with full pension entitlement subject to completion of the number of years of service required)</th>
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<tbody>
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Number of years of service required for full pension entitlement at a minimum retirement age

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</table>

© Retirement with full pension entitlement before the official retirement age is not possible

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The minimum retirement age(s) is (are) only indicated if it (they) differ(s) from the official retirement age(s).

The official retirement age sets the limit at which teachers stop work. In certain countries and in special circumstances, they may continue to work beyond this age limit.

The minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement offers teachers the possibility to retire before they reach the official retirement age. Their full pension entitlement is subject to completion of the number of years of service required.

The minimum number of years of service describes the minimum number of years that teachers need to work before they are entitled to full pension, in addition to having reached the minimum retirement age.
**Country specific note**

Belgium (BE fr, BE nl): Although the minimum retirement age is 60, teachers who teach at ISCED 1-3 can currently decide to leave their profession at 58.

Czech Republic: The ages given in the table relate to the year 2011. The official retirement age for women ranges from 57 to 61. Official retirement age for women depends on the number of children brought up. The minimum number of years’ service grows gradually every year. Until the year 2019, the minimum number of years’ service required to be entitled to a full pension will be 35 years, which is the upper limit.

France: Since the reform taken in November 2010, teachers’ retirement age will progressively increase. As a result, all teachers born from the 1st January 1956 will be allowed to retire from the age of 62 only.

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Italy: The official retirement age has been extended to 66 years of age (for men, starting from 1/01/2012, for women, the extension will be gradually phased in within 2018) with adjustment every 2 years.

Hungary: The official retirement age is gradually changing from 62 to 65. As of 2011, women with 40 years’ service can retire regardless of their age.

Poland: The data refers to the period 2009-2014. On the basis of the Act of 22 May 2009 on compensation measures for teachers, a requirement for teachers was introduced to reach the minimum age in order to be entitled to a full pension. Starting in 2015, this age will increase every two years to reach the maximum of 59 for women and 64 for men in 2031. The number of years’ service required for full pension is 30, of which 20 as a teacher.

Finland: The minimum retirement age (60 years old) with full pension entitlement only exists for teachers who began their career before the year 1990. For the others, the official retirement age varies between 63 and 68; the longer they keep working, the more pension they accumulate.

United Kingdom: The normal pension age for teachers is 60 for those who entered the profession before 1 January 2007 (1 April 2007 in Scotland), and 65 for those who entered after that date.

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**A MAJORITY OF TEACHERS RETIRE AS EARLY AS POSSIBLE**

In most European countries, teachers in primary or secondary education retire from their profession as soon as they are offered an opportunity to do so. Teachers thus retire when they have completed the required number of years and reached the age for full pension entitlement.

However, a significant percentage of teachers (more than 5 %) remain in their occupation after the minimum retirement age in Denmark and Iceland at primary level; in Cyprus and Poland at secondary level; and in Slovenia and Norway at both levels. Moreover, in some countries, more than 5 % of teachers continue working even beyond the official retirement age. This is particularly noticeable in the Czech Republic (secondary level) and Estonia (both levels).

It should be noted that, over the last ten years, the official retirement age and/or the minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement has increased in around one third of all European countries. In several countries, opportunities to retire earlier than at the official age have been abolished altogether (see Figure D15).

The data also shows which countries are at risk of teacher shortages in the years ahead, if the situation remains unchanged in all other respects. Countries where the proportion of teachers in the over-50 age groups are at a high level, as in Bulgaria (secondary level), Germany, Italy or Austria, will probably have large numbers of teachers retiring in the near future. The diagrams for these countries indicate that the age groups closest to retirement are over-represented. In contrast, in countries where the proportions of teachers tend to decrease through the older age groups, retirements will occur more evenly over time.

Ireland, Cyprus (both primary education), Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom are among the few countries for which the diagrams represent relatively low percentages in the age groups close to retirement. This indicates that their teacher workforce is more evenly spread across the age groups and is fairly young (see also Figure D14).
Figure D15: Percentages of teachers in age groups close to retirement in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2010

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**Source:** Eurostat, UOE and Eurydice.

**Country specific note**

**Belgium:** Data for secondary education also include ISCED 4.
### Working Conditions and Pay

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</table>

Women

Men and women / men only

- Official retirement age
- Minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement

Source: Eurostat, UOE and Eurydice.
SCHOOL HEADS ARE FREQUENTLY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

Individual teacher evaluation involves forming a judgement about teachers’ work in order to guide and help them to improve their performance. The teacher subject to evaluation receives personal verbal or written feedback. This evaluation may occur during the process of school evaluation, or be carried out independently (possibly leading to a formal appraisal of the teacher evaluated in this way).

Some form of regulated individual teacher evaluation exists in all countries except in Italy, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Norway. However, in Finland, depending on the school, school heads may carry out annual development discussions or appraisals. In these, however, the focus is not on the evaluation of past performance, but is more forward looking. In Scotland, although there is no formal evaluation of teachers on an individual basis in terms of appraisal, line managers will hold an annual professional review and development interview with teachers.

In most countries the school head bears responsibility for teacher appraisal and, in more than half of the European countries examined, this is carried out on a regular basis. In the Netherlands, it is the school board which carries out individual staff evaluation. The systematic evaluation of teachers by the school head has recently been strengthened in Slovenia (from 2009) by increasing the frequency of reporting by school heads, and in Liechtenstein (from 2008) by standardising the evaluation criteria.

In Belgium (French Community), Greece, Poland and Turkey, the school head only intervenes under specific circumstances. In Belgium (French Community), for example, evaluation by the school head applies primarily to teachers on a fixed-term contract. In Greece and Turkey, school heads evaluate teachers at the end of the probation period, so that the procedure for them to become permanent staff can be completed, but they do not evaluate teachers on a regular basis. In Poland, the assessment of teachers’ professional achievements is carried out by the school head in cases where a teacher applies for promotion to a higher professional grade.

In Slovakia, there is a kind of cascade system in place whereby the school head evaluates the deputy school head, who in turn evaluates teachers. A mentor teacher evaluates a beginning teacher.

In seventeen countries, external evaluators perform teacher appraisal either on a regular basis or under specific circumstances only. This happens often in addition to other procedures such as evaluation by the school head. Inspectorates bear the main responsibility for teacher appraisal in France, Luxembourg (primary level) and Turkey.

Self-evaluation of teachers does not seem to be a very widespread evaluation technique in European countries. Only in seven countries is this procedure applied, and in all cases except in Ireland (for ISCED 2 and 3) and Iceland, it is carried out in conjunction with another procedure.

In several countries, the evaluation of teachers on an individual basis is a more complex system with different players involved. In Portugal, for example, the new evaluation system which came into force in 2011/12, comprises an internal and external component. The first one is carried out by the Pedagogical Council of the school and covers all teachers. The external evaluation is carried out through classroom observation by external evaluators only in specific situations, namely for the appraisal of ‘Excellent’ as well as for those at specific levels of the teaching career. The external evaluators must be, among other requirements, teachers from other schools with training on ‘performance evaluation’ or ‘pedagogical supervision’ or teachers with professional experience in ‘pedagogical supervision’. Teachers are involved in their own evaluation process through a self-evaluation report.
In Latvia, in 2007, the development of a differentiated career structure model was initiated as a pilot project. Within the framework of this pilot project, teacher performance is evaluated via self-evaluation assessment by external experts and by the educational administration.

It is important to keep in mind that the vast majority of countries have a process of school evaluation in place, in which individual evaluation of teachers is only one part of a more complex system. This may include various internal and/or external procedures (4).

**Figure D16: Responsibilities for the evaluation of teachers on an individual basis in pre-primary, primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

- External evaluator (inspectorate in general) on a regular basis
- External evaluator (inspectorate in general) under specific circumstances (such as promotion)
- School head on a regular basis
- School head under specific circumstances (such as promotion)
- Self-evaluation on a regular basis
- No evaluation of teachers on an individual basis

*Source:* Eurydice.

**Country specific notes**

- **Ireland:** Information not verified at national level.
- **Spain:** School heads perform teacher evaluation only in some Autonomous Communities.
- **Italy:** Individual teacher evaluation only occurs at the end of the probation period.
- **Portugal:** The Pedagogical Council evaluates teachers, the school head only the deputy teacher and department coordinators.
- **Austria:** Information shown does not apply to ISCED 0.

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(4) See EACEA/Eurydice, 2012b. *Key Data on Education in Europe 2012*, Figure B7.
STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT OFTEN TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT IN TEACHER EVALUATION IN ADDITION TO OBSERVATIONS

The TIMSS 2011 school questionnaire contained questions on practices of teacher evaluation. Data show that the percentage of grade 4 students whose school heads reported that teachers’ working practices were evaluated through observations by the school head or senior staff is on average very high in the twenty-three participating European countries (77 %). A majority of school heads in all participating countries, except Portugal, answered that this form of evaluation was used. The picture is more varied in Denmark, Spain, Ireland and Finland where a significant number of school heads reported that this form of evaluation was not used. These results mirror to a large extent the information collected on responsibilities for teacher evaluation. According to regulations, school heads are in most countries involved in the evaluation of teachers (see Figure D16).

In twelve out of twenty-three participating European countries, the proportion of grade 4 students whose school heads report that observations by inspectors or other persons external to the school were not used for teacher evaluation is very high. In Italy and Finland, these proportions were close to 100 %.

Many school heads in all participating European countries answered positively to the question on whether student achievement was taken into account in evaluating the practice of their teachers. Only in Portugal, Finland and Norway, was the proportion of grade 4 pupils whose school heads answered that this was not the case more than 30 %.

Much variety among countries can be observed regarding the question whether peer review was used for teacher evaluation. In twelve participating European countries, a majority of school heads answered ‘no’ with particularly high percentages in Belgium (Flemish Community), Spain and Malta (over 80 %). In contrast, the percentages of ‘yes’ answers are particularly high in Lithuania (89.9 %), Hungary (90 %) and Romania (87 %).

The comparison with grade 8, data is difficult to make given the much smaller number of participating European countries. Where such comparison is possible, differences are not large. However, in Finland and Norway, school heads at grade 4 answered that they were involved in teacher evaluation more often than not, while at grade 8 ‘no’ answers prevailed (and there is practically no difference between mathematics and science teachers). Figures for student achievement show for Sweden and Norway a very significant increase of ‘yes’ answers compared to grade 4. All other countries show exactly the same patterns for both grades.
Figure D17: Proportion of grade 4 (and grade 8) students whose schools use certain practices to evaluate teachers (for mathematics and science), 2011

Grade 4

Source: IEA, TIMSS 2011 international database.
### Working Conditions and Pay

| Grade | EU | BE | NL | CZ | DK | DE | IE | ES | IT | LT | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | EN | UK | ENG | UK | NIR | HR | NO |
|-------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| (A)   | 4  | 77.1| 94.1| 97.4| 56.4| 86.9| 57.5| 50.5| 66.4| 99.4| 100| 91.2| 84.1| 95.8| 99.2| 31.0| 88.6| 94.7| 95.4| 56.6| 79.9| 98.9| 98.4| 0.0| 94.4 |
| Science | 8  | 82.8|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 60.3| 97.9| 98.0| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 99.3| 98.8| 100| X    | 41.3| 73.5| 100| x    | x    | x    |
| Mathematics | 8  | 83.2|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 61.2| 98.3| 98.0| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 99.3| 98.8| 100| X    | 42.7| 72.5| 100| x    | x    | x    |
| (B)   | 4  | 39.7| 55.8| 80.4| 13.5| 20.9| 81.4| 38.7| 1.7 | 61.0| 34.9| 47.8| 85.8| 48.7| 15.3| 13.2| 90.4| 11.9| 67.4| 2.9 | 24.6| 91.5| 82.3| 0.0| 42.4 |
| Science | 8  | 46.6|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 2.4 | 53.7| 35.3| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 90.2| 8.2 | X    | 2.7 | 13.9| 84.2| x    | x    | x    |
| Mathematics | 8  | 46.3|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 2.4 | 54.7| 37.4| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 90.1| 9.1 | X    | 2.8 | 15.4| 82.6| x    | x    | x    |
| (C)   | 4  | 87.1| 86.9| 90.2| 78.8| 81.3| 77.1| 85.0| 97.6| 84.8| 92.1| 95.9| 92.5| 97.9| 88.5| 96.7| 92.0| 93.3| 66.9| 78.8| 98.3| 92.9| 0.0| 87.2 |
| Science | 8  | 91.5|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 83.2| 98.3| 94.4| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 96.6| 95.7| X    | 66.0| 90.7| 99.3| x    | x    | x    |
| Mathematics | 8  | 92.2|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 84.8| 98.3| 94.4| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 97.2| 96.3| X    | 67.7| 88.9| 99.3| x    | x    | x    |
| (D)   | 4  | 46.6| 7.1 | 50.7| 50.1| 39.8| 21.1| 13.0| 22.0| 90.0| 90.0| 14.5| 24.6| 75.9| 28.6| 80.7| 87.7| 30.0| 71.2| 25.0| 34.3| 73.7| 59.7| 0.0| 31.3 |
| Science | 8  | 58.0|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 19.3| 83.8| 87.6| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 88.8| 28.8| X    | 26.6| 46.8| 83.6| x    | x    | x    |
| Mathematics | 8  | 57.8|x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 19.0| 86.3| 85.9| x    | x    | x    | x    | x    | 86.3| 29.4| X    | 26.1| 49.3| 83.6| x    | x    | x    |

(A) Observations by the principal or senior staff  
(B) Observations by inspectors or other persons external to the school  
(C) Student achievement  
(D) Teacher peer review  

Countries not participating

**Source:** IEA, TIMSS 2011 international database.

**Country specific note**

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
INSTRUCTION IS OFTEN NEGATIVELY AFFECTED BY TEACHERS' 'ABSENTEEISM'

Replacing absent teachers can be a challenge for schools when it is difficult to find appropriate replacement teachers. Teacher absence might, in the long-term, also affect teaching and learning negatively. It can, moreover, be a sign of job-dissatisfaction or indicate management problems. According to the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) from 2008, more than one third of ISCED 2 teachers (35 % on average of participating European countries) had school heads who considered that teachers’ absenteeism hindered instruction ‘to some extent’ and ‘a lot’ in their school. The numbers were even higher in Spain, Poland, Slovenia, Turkey and Norway. In Spain and Turkey, this problem seems to affect instruction ‘a lot’. In contrast, very few school heads considered that there is a problem with teachers’ absence in Belgium (Flemish Community), Bulgaria, Estonia and Slovakia.

Figure D18: Percentage of ISCED 2 teachers whose school heads considered that teachers’ ‘absenteeism’ hindered instruction ‘to some extent’ and ‘a lot’ in their school, 2008

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Source: OECD, TALIS 2008 database.

Country specific notes

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
Ireland: Although Ireland participated in TALIS 2008, the structural link between the school and the teacher level has been removed at the country’s request.
Iceland: Although Iceland participated in TALIS 2008, the data were not included in the database at the country’s request.
LEVELS OF AUTONOMY AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS

TEACHERS ARE USUALLY INVOLVED IN DECISIONS RELATED TO TEACHING CONTENT AND METHODS BUT NOT IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Teachers are involved to varying degrees in making decisions on matters that have a significant effect on their work. This indicator looks at the decision-making responsibilities of teachers in two main areas: firstly in the area of teaching and secondly in the area of the human resource management. The area of teaching covers decisions on curriculum content, the choice of teaching and assessment methods, the selection of school textbooks and the grouping of students for teaching purposes.

In most European countries, teachers in primary education can act relatively autonomously in matters relating to teaching. In particular, the choice of teaching methods is left to the discretion of teachers in almost all countries. Greece is the only country where the responsible education authorities take decisions nearly on all the matters listed above relating to teaching. Belgium (Flemish Community) is the only country where the responsibility for all these matters is in the hands of the school head/school management body. In secondary education, the picture is slightly different: in about half of the countries examined, decision-making is now in the hands of school heads/school management bodies, except for deciding on teaching methods, which is still a teacher's prerogative in most countries.

The second area of decision-making considered here relates to the management of human resources, including the selection and dismissal of teachers, determining teachers’ duties and responsibilities and the choice of school head. In this area, school heads/school management bodies are mainly responsible for decision-making in Europe. In a minority of countries, the responsible education authorities make such decisions; this is notably the case in Southern European countries such as Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus and Malta where the relevant education authorities make decisions on all or nearly all the matters listed above. Only extremely rarely do teachers make decisions in these areas. In contrast with the area of teaching, there are not many differences between educational levels regarding responsibilities for decision-making relating to human resources.
LEVELS OF AUTONOMY AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS

Figure E1: Decision-makers on teaching and on human resource matters in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Primary level (ISCED 1)

Teaching content and methods
- Curricular content of optional subjects
- Teaching methods
- Choice of school textbooks
- Grouping of students for learning activities
- Choice of internal assessment methods

Staffing and human resources
- Selection for teaching vacancies
- Selection for substituting absent teachers
- Dismissal of teachers
- Duties and responsibilities of teachers
- Selection of school head

Secondary level (ISCED 2 and 3)

Teaching content and methods
- Curricular content of optional subjects
- Teaching methods
- Choice of school textbooks
- Grouping of students for learning activities
- Choice of internal assessment methods

Staffing and human resources
- Selection for teaching vacancies
- Selection for substituting absent teachers
- Dismissal of teachers
- Duties and responsibilities of teachers
- Selection of school head

Source: Eurydice.
Country specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): Decision-makers on staffing and human resources differ depending on whether schools are grant-aided private schools or schools administered by the French Community.

Estonia: For the selection of the school head, a special commission is formed. For municipal schools, the composition of the commission is not prescribed, which means that teachers may also be included. For state schools, teacher representatives must be included.

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Spain: The management body of each school is responsible for supervising teachers' duties. This body can make decisions on the specific duties assigned to each teacher (teaching schedule, coordination responsibilities, tutorship, etc.). The commission selecting school heads may also include parents and students' representatives.

Italy: Strict ranking systems not involving real selections are used to call in supply teachers.

Lithuania: For the selection of school heads, a special municipal or state level commission is formed. This commission includes teachers.

Malta: If absence is prolonged, central education authorities send a substitute teacher.

Portugal: Schools have a degree of autonomy in grouping students according to rules annually defined by law.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The selection for teaching vacancies, for substituting absent teachers and the duties and responsibilities of teachers are mainly decided by the school head, but may be delegated to teachers with a management role.

INSTRUCTIONAL CONTENT IS THE AREA WHERE TEACHERS HAVE MOST INFLUENCE

In PISA 2009, school heads were asked which bodies/groups (e.g. teachers, students, parents) exerted a direct influence on decision making about staffing, budgeting, instructional content and assessment practices. The figure shows the percentage of 15-year old students in schools whose school heads answered that teacher groups (e.g. staff association, curriculum committees, trade union) had influence on these decisions.

From the listed answer options, ‘instructional content’ is the area where teacher groups exerted the most direct influence. Teacher groups largely influenced the decisions of instructional content in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia. In contrast, in Portugal and Iceland less than 10 % of 15-year olds were enrolled in schools where teachers could influence instructional content decisions. In these countries, educational authorities have deciding power on instructional content. Overall, educational authorities had more influence on instructional content than teacher groups in the majority of European education systems.

On average, assessment was influenced by teacher groups in schools attended by 55 % of 15-year olds in participating EU-27 countries. There is, however, a huge variation across European education systems. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), Estonia, Hungary and Slovenia, more than 90 % of 15-year old students were in schools where teachers could influence instructional content decisions. In these countries, educational authorities have deciding power on instructional content. Overall, educational authorities had more influence on instructional content than teacher groups in the majority of European education systems.

On average, assessment was influenced by teacher groups in schools attended by 55 % of 15-year olds in participating EU-27 countries. There is, however, a huge variation across European education systems. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), Estonia, Hungary and Slovenia, more than 90 % of 15-year old students were in schools where teachers could influence instructional content decisions. In these countries, educational authorities have deciding power on instructional content. Overall, educational authorities had more influence on instructional content than teacher groups in the majority of European education systems.

Teacher groups exerted some influence on staffing. They were involved in staff decisions in Belgium (Flemish Community), the Netherlands and Sweden. Such decisions were not influenced by teacher groups in Italy, Portugal and Turkey, and only in very few schools in Belgium (French Community), Estonia, Greece, Romania and Croatia. Normally, regional or national education authorities (e.g. inspectorates) and the school’s governing boards exerted more influence on staffing than teacher groups. This also matches information on regulations on decision-making (see Figure E1). On average, in participating EU-27 countries, approximately 61 % of 15-year old students were in schools whose heads said that education authorities influenced staffing decisions, and 32 % were in schools where the school boards were involved.
**Figure E2: Proportion of 15-year old students in schools where teacher groups (e.g. staff associations, curriculum committees, trade unions) exert direct influence on decision-making about staffing, budgeting, instructional content and assessment practices, 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A. Staffing</th>
<th>B. Budgeting</th>
<th>C. Instructional content</th>
<th>D. Assessment practices</th>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>20.9 20.2 7.2 27.8 35.5 10.6 54.3 35.9 32.1 3.3 3.1 6.9 11.1 x 46.4 31.9 31.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>57.1 38.1 39.7 34.9 29.6 84.0 86.7 49.1 97.9 47.7 20.8 45.5 78.4 x 75.5 79.8 45.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>55.1 58.9 100.0 55.3 37.7 77.5 84.6 33.7 94.0 50.7 42.6 41.1 73.4 x 83.9 71.9 37.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>23.1 x 62.0 28.0 13.2 0.0 8.8 17.5 50.0 37.3 58.5 28.4 13.1 9.4 22.3 1.1 37.0 30.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>20.0 x 54.0 24.3 25.5 0.0 13.7 5.5 19.0 22.7 46.7 5.2 12.6 7.1 2.5 8.6 8.2 38.3</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>93.4 x 76.8 70.2 86.9 4.8 71.3 93.0 22.8 79.9 72.6 25.5 24.2 78.1 9.0 57.0 58.9 57.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>94.4 x 56.5 64.6 85.1 3.0 87.4 93.1 20.6 66.7 72.9 36.0 37.1 76.0 6.6 85.3 32.6 86.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: OECD, PISA 2009.

**Explanatory note**

Other non-exclusive answer options included: Regional or national education authorities (e.g. inspectorates); the school’s governing board; parent groups; student groups (e.g. student associations, youth organisations); external examination boards (not shown in the Figure).

**Country specific notes**

**EU-27**: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.

**France**: Data not available because the school questionnaire was not administered (OECD, 2012).
Budget is rarely an issue where teacher groups are involved. On average, in participating EU-27 countries, only approximately 21% of 15-year old students were in schools whose heads said that teacher groups exerted a direct influence on budgeting decisions. This was rather rare in Ireland, Greece, Portugal, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Iceland. In contrast, teacher groups were often involved in budgeting decisions in Denmark, Latvia, the Netherlands and Sweden. Again, budget issues were more influenced by education authorities (44%) and the school's governing boards (69%).

Overall, there seem to be some consistent country patterns. Teacher groups had little influence on decision-making in the areas analysed in Greece, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Iceland. In contrast, teacher groups are largely involved in the decision-making in Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, the Netherlands and Sweden.

**TEACHERS FREQUENTLY ADMINISTER NATIONAL TESTS AND ALSO MARK THEM**

National tests, which are defined here as standardised tests and centrally set examinations, can be divided into two broad categories. Those where the main purpose is to certify individual student attainment and therefore to inform decisions about their school careers, and those tests carried out for other purposes such as monitoring the quality of schools or the entire education system, or to identify individual students’ learning needs. Both categories exist in the vast majority of countries.

Teachers can be involved in various stages of national testing. In the great majority of cases, they are involved in administering national tests to their students according to precise detailed instructions on how to undertake the task. This applies to both categories: those to inform decisions about students' school careers and those for other purposes.

The task of marking national tests is entrusted to teachers slightly less frequently than the administration of tests. Teachers mark tests for informing decisions about students' school careers and tests for other purposes in around half of the European countries or regions. In Hungary, upper secondary school teachers are involved in marking the national test for informing decisions about the school career of students at lower secondary level. However, for the national tests at upper secondary level, teachers are involved in marking only at standard level; at advanced level, external persons are in charge.

In Malta, only external examiners are in charge of national tests for informing decisions about students’ school careers; whereas in Belgium (Flemish Community), Hungary (ISCED 2 and 3) and United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) (ISCED 2), external examiners are responsible for national testing for other purposes.
**Figure E3: Teachers’ role in the national testing of students in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

**Figure E3a: National tests to inform decisions about students’ school careers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary (ISCED 1)</th>
<th>Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in charge of administering national tests</td>
<td>Teachers in charge of marking national tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in charge of marking national tests</td>
<td>Only external examiners involved in national tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only external examiners involved in national tests</td>
<td>No national test to inform decisions about students’ school careers</td>
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</table>

**Figure E3b: National tests for other purposes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary (ISCED 1)</th>
<th>Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)</th>
<th>Lower and upper secondary education (ISCED 2-3)</th>
<th>Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in charge of administering national tests</td>
<td>Teachers in charge of marking national tests</td>
<td>Only external examiners involved in national tests</td>
<td>No national test for other purposes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Eurydice.*

**Explanatory note**

National testing refers to the national administration of standardised tests and centrally set examinations. The tests contain centrally set procedures for the preparation of their content, administration and marking, and for the interpretation and use of their results. These tests are standardised by the central (or top-level) education authorities. National tests for informing decisions about the school career of pupils summarise the achievement of individual pupils at the end of a school year or at the end of a particular educational stage, and have a significant impact on their educational careers. In the literature, these tests are also referred to as summative tests or the ‘assessment of learning’. Their results are used to award certificates or to take important decisions concerned with streaming, school choice or progression from one year to the next, etc.

National tests for other purposes refer to:

- national tests for monitoring schools and/or the education system, which are primarily intended to monitor and evaluate schools and/or the education system as a whole. ‘Monitoring and evaluation’ here refers to the process of collecting and analysing information in order to check performance in relation to goals and to take corrective action where necessary. National test results are used as indicators of the quality of teaching and the performance of teachers, and also to gauge the overall effectiveness of education policies and practices.

- national tests for identifying individual learning needs are mainly for the purpose of assisting the learning process of individual pupils by identifying their specific learning needs and adapting teaching accordingly. These tests are centred on the idea of ‘assessment for learning’ and may be broadly described as ‘formative assessments’.
Country specific notes

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Apart from the General Diagnostic Evaluation at a State level, the Autonomous Communities carry out yearly diagnostic evaluations. In some Autonomous Communities, external companies may collaborate to implement these tests. Both the leadership team and the teaching staff of the school collaborate in managing the implementation of these tests. Furthermore, in some Autonomous Communities, teachers are in charge of marking the tests.
Italy: For classes selected for the national sample (national tests for other purposes), external observers sent by the National Evaluation Institute administer and mark the test.
Malta: Teachers are involved in the marking of some national tests for identifying students' learning needs (benchmarking exams at the end of ISCED 1).
Poland: At ISCED level 3, teachers are involved in the assessment of the oral part of the matriculation exam only. The written part, as well as exams at ISCED levels 1 and 2, are marked by external examiners.

United Kingdom (ENG): At primary level, national tests for other purposes may, depending on the school preference, either be administered by schools at a time of their choosing, and then marked internally or held in test week and externally marked.
United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR): The external qualifications that inform decisions about school careers at ISCED 3 (GCSEs and A levels) always incorporate externally set and marked exams and may also incorporate some assessment which are set and/or marked by teachers.

TEACHERS ARE ACTIVELY INVOLVED IN THE DECISION-MAKING ON GRADE-RETENTION IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Everywhere in Europe, teachers are responsible for supporting students' learning and skill development. Often they are also involved in the decision-making regarding student progression from one school year to the next. This applies only in countries that do not have regulations for automatic progression (1).

In around two-thirds of European countries, teachers are actively involved in the grade-retention process by either making a proposal or forming a decision about the repetition of a school year by a student. They may also be consulted on this matter.

There are very few differences between educational levels. In Bulgaria, teachers' involvement in the grade-retention process only applies to the secondary level as students' progress automatically during primary level.

In the Netherlands and in Finland, it is left up to schools/local authorities to decide on their teachers' level of involvement in the grade-retention process.

Figure E4: Teachers' involvement in the grade-retention process in primary and general (lower and upper) secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Source: Eurydice.

(1) EACEA/Eurydice, 2011b. Grade Retention during Compulsory Education in Europe: Regulations and Statistics.
Country specific notes

Germany: At ISCED 1, grade retention at the end of grade 1 is not allowed in some Länder.

Estonia: There is no grade retention at upper secondary level.

Cyprus: Grade retention may take place during the first and second grade of ISCED 1 and it can only happen once.

Hungary: The teaching staff together decide on grade retention.

Malta: Teachers’ involvement in the grade retention process does not apply to ISCED 3 where students only repeat a year if they fail both their annual examinations and the re-sit examination.

Poland: In the first three grades of ISCED 1 student progression is automatic.

Portugal: There is no grade retention in year 1.

Slovenia: At ISCED 3, the school head decides on students’ grade retention.

Finland: Grade retention is the decision of the school head after listening to parents views.

Sweden: Grade retention can be used in exceptional cases only.

Liechtenstein: At ISCED 1, grade retention is possible only once in very severe cases.
IN ADDITION TO PROFESSIONAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE, SPECIFIC TRAINING IS REQUIRED IN MOST COUNTRIES TO BECOME A SCHOOL HEAD

School heads are today faced with many varied tasks, including not only organising teaching and learning but also managing financial and human resources. Selecting the right candidate for headship is crucial and so many different criteria must be considered when appointing. In all European countries, regulations set out the official requirements expected of those wishing to become school heads.

Four countries – Belgium (Flemish Community), Latvia, the Netherlands and Norway – stipulate that a teaching qualification is the only official condition to become a school head. However, in practice, those who become school heads also have professional teaching experience. In Norway, the local authority determines all other requirements, including administrative experience and training for headship.

Almost everywhere else, professional teaching experience is the basic condition for appointment. However, the amount of experience required may vary (see Figure F2) and, in most countries, one or more additional conditions are applied.

In Greece, Cyprus, Lithuania, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and Turkey, prospective school heads must have professional teaching experience as well as administrative experience. In Lithuania, leadership and management competences are also explicitly required.

In a dozen countries or regions, applicants for a post as school head must have worked as teachers and received special training for headship. In Slovenia, school heads should also have held the senior post of adviser or counsellor, or have held the senior post of ‘mentor’ for at least 5 years.

In Malta, Romania, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Iceland, prospective school heads must meet all three requirements: professional teaching experience, administrative experience and training for headship. In Spain, the Education Authorities may add further requirements e.g. in those Autonomous Communities where a co-official language is spoken, it is necessary to provide a certificate stating the minimum level of linguistic competence achieved in that language.

In Sweden, only someone who has acquired knowledge about education through training and experience may be appointed as school head. Teaching experience as such is not required. School heads do not necessarily have to be recruited from among (former) teachers, but could, in principle, have another professional background. The formal requirement (for those employed later than March 2010) is to pass a specific training course at university level, for which the Swedish National Agency for Education (NAE) is responsible.

Overall, training for headship is required in 21 countries or regions (see Figure F1). In most of these countries, this training takes place before appointment. In the Czech Republic, France, Austria, Slovakia and Sweden, new school heads can acquire it within a specified period after their appointment. (For countries offering non-compulsory headship training, see Figure F3).

The duration of headship training varies between one week (Romania) and a 60 ECTS masters’ programme in Malta. Common modules include management, team building, communication and leadership skills, school development, school law and organisation. Some countries clearly define a practical component besides the more theoretical content. In Spain, the training programme consists of a theoretical course and an internship. In Poland, the specific qualification courses include 210 training hours, of which 26 hours correspond to management practice. The National School
Leadership Training Programme in Sweden links theoretical knowledge to head teachers’ practical leadership role. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the applicants for headship are encouraged by their line manager to get involved in leadership during their training, which itself involves extended case studies and related in-school assignments as well as a minimum of nine days’ placement in another school.

In three countries, recent regulations are introducing changes: in Romania, the 2011 law on National Education added new requirements for administrative experience and training for headship. In Hungary, from September 2012, all new school heads have had to participate in training for headship. In Iceland, similar legislation has been gradually implemented and was due for completion in 2012. During this period of adjustment, requirements have not been uniform.

Figure F1: Professional experience and headship training officially required to be a school head, from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Countries requiring a minimum period of compulsory training before or after appointment as school head, 2011/12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Length</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>MT</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Explanatory note

Professional experience in teaching means a certain number of years working professionally as a teacher, most of the time at the level of education at which the person concerned is seeking appointment as a school head.

Administrative experience means experience in school administration/management acquired, for example, in the post of deputy school head.

Training for headship means a specific training course, which takes place subsequent to initial teacher education and qualification as a teacher. Depending on circumstances, training may be provided prior to the application for a post as school head or involvement in the recruitment procedure, or during the first few years after taking up a post. Its aim is to equip future school heads with the skills required to carry out their new duties. It is not to be confused with the continuing professional development of school heads.
Country specific notes

Belgium (BE de): To be appointed to the permanent position of a school head in an establishment administered by the Community, a certificate in management is also required.

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Spain: The length and organisation of the initial training programme (both of the theoretical and practical course) is established by the Education Authorities of the Autonomous Communities. Therefore, there are differences regarding the number of hours’ training, 40 hours being the minimum and 14 months the maximum in those Communities where this is regulated.

Luxembourg: No school heads at ISCED 0 and 1.

Malta: Prospective school heads also need to complete four years of service as assistant school head, head of department, Inclusive Education Coordinator or as a school counsellor prior to applying for the post of school head.

Netherlands: In primary education, a teaching qualification is only required when a school head has teaching obligations. At large secondary schools with a central management board, teaching qualifications are not required for board members who do not perform teaching activities.

Portugal: Only in cases where there are no candidates with a specific qualification, experience in top management positions can be considered.

Finland: The training for headship is not compulsory as it can, e.g., be compensated for by administrative experience.

United Kingdom (ENG): In England, the training for headship was mandatory until February 2012.

United Kingdom (SCT): Teachers must demonstrate that they meet the Standard for Headship defining the leadership and management capabilities of head teachers. This can be done through local authority interview and assessment processes or by formal development routes such as the Scottish Qualification for Headship and the Flexible Route to Headship.

SCHOOL HEADS ARE GENERALLY REQUIRED TO HAVE A MINIMUM OF FIVE YEARS’ TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Among the requirements for becoming a school head (see Figure F1), a minimum period of professional teaching experience is common. It ranges from three years in Bulgaria, Estonia, France (for school heads at ISCED 0 and 1) and Lithuania, to 10 years in Malta, and 16 (for pre-primary, primary level) and 17 years (for general secondary level) in Cyprus.

In most countries, the required minimum period is between three and five years. In Denmark, Germany, Austria (pre-primary, primary education and Hauptschule), Finland, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Iceland and Liechtenstein, teaching experience is required but the duration is not stipulated.

Finally, in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Latvia, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, professional teaching experience is not a requirement for becoming a school head. In the Netherlands, there are projects focussing on recruiting ‘bazen van buiten’ – people without relevant teaching experience, but with management experience from a sector other than education.
Country specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): The figure refers to public schools administered by the French Community. Seven years are required in grant-aided schools.

Belgium (BE de): No teaching experience required. However, a teaching qualification and experience are among the selection criteria.

Czech Republic: Professional teaching experience may include not only a direct experience of teaching, but also experience in some activities requiring the same or similar knowledge such as working in a senior management position or in research and development.

Estonia: At least three years of teaching experience is required when a person has undertaken pedagogical higher education; a person who has undertaken other types of higher education is required to have at least five years’ teaching experience.

Ireland: Information not verified at national level.

Greece: The preconditions for granting teachers the right to become school heads are that they should have reached a level with at least 8 years’ work service; and they should have five years’ professional teaching experience of which three years at the relevant level.

Italy: Five years’ minimum teaching experience with a permanent contract, which means that, in most cases, prospective school heads will have had a number of years’ prior teaching experience on fixed-term contracts as well.

Cyprus: ISCED 0-1: minimum of 13 years, of which at least five must be spent teaching in schools, to become deputy head teacher, and 3 years as deputy head teacher to become head teacher, thus a total of 16 years. ISCED 2-3: minimum of 12 years to become a deputy headmaster, and 3 years as deputy headmaster to become a deputy Head Master A and then 2 years to become a school headmaster, thus a total of 17 years.

Lithuania: A minimum of two years’ professional teaching experience is required for becoming a school head for those who hold a master’s degree and teacher qualifications, and a minimum of three years for those with a teacher qualification only.

Luxembourg: No school heads at ISCED 0 and 1.

Austria: HS=Hauptschule, AHS=Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule. Information shown for Hauptschule also applies to ISCED 0 and 1.

Slovenia: Teaching experience can be replaced by experience in school counselling work.

MOST COUNTRIES OFFER SPECIFIC TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR HEADSHIP, BUT LENGTH, CONTENT AND PROVIDERS VARY

Specific training programmes for headship also exist in some countries where it is not an official requirement to become school head. This is the case in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Norway. In Bulgaria, the courses provided by the National Education Training and Qualifications Institute take place all year round, have a general duration of 5 days and focus on specific issues. In the Netherlands, various institutions offer headship training. Although training is not officially required if the school leader position involves management duties for which standards of competence have been set, candidates must hold a certificate showing that they satisfy certain requirements. The Dutch Principal’s Academy is an independent, non-government body facilitating access to optional preparatory and ongoing professional development for school leaders in primary education. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), the Standard for Headship is advisory in its status and is used, primarily, to guide the leadership development, assessment and certification of school heads. The Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH), taken before appointment, is one route to achieving the Standard. In Norway, school leaders are encouraged to participate in the National Leadership Programme.

In the majority of countries, a variety of training institutions offer school leadership courses. Generally, they do need some form of accreditation by the education ministries. In a few countries, specific academies exist. In Austria, the Leadership Academy is a forum for system-wide change through nationwide continuing education, offering innovation training for head teachers as well as for other educational leaders. The Leadership Academy course includes plenum meetings with motivational lectures, workshops in collaborative coaching groups, reflection on innovation and development of project ideas, learning partnership sessions for the exchange of ideas and collegial brainstorming and workshops for regional networking. In Slovenia, the National School of Leadership in Education (Šola
za ravnatelje) was established in 1995 by the government for the training and professional development of head teachers and candidates. In Finland, the Institute of Educational Leadership operating within one university offers both pre-service and in-service training for school heads and heads of local education departments. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) is aimed at teachers who are motivated to become head teachers.

**Figure F3: Existence of specific academies and/or training programmes for school leadership in pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country specific note</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ireland: Information not verified at national level.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**OPEN RECRUITMENT PREVAILS IN THE SELECTION OF SCHOOL HEADS**

In two thirds of European countries, school heads are selected through open recruitment, which means that the responsibility for publicising posts and selecting candidates lies with the school. The extent to which open recruitment is regulated varies considerably. In some countries, no specific regulations exist, however general employment legislation applies. Other countries lay down detailed procedures. In Ireland for example, the individual school authority recruits and appoints the school head following agreed procedures: the vacancies are advertised within the school and on a website as determined by the management bodies (for primary schools) or in at least one national daily newspaper. Similarly, in schools managed by local authorities in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the school governing body must inform the local authority of the vacancy, advertise the vacancy at the very least throughout England and Wales, appoint a selection panel, interview the selected applicants and, where appropriate, recommend and approve for appointment one of the applicants interviewed. In controlled schools in the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), candidates recommended by the school Board of Governors for posts of principal and deputy principal may be interviewed by the Education and Library Board, which may appoint any candidate so recommended.

In eleven countries, school heads are selected through a competitive examination, which are public, centrally organised competitions. This can take various forms. In Lithuania for example, there are at least two stages. Firstly, the candidates’ leadership and management competences as well as other key competences are assessed by an independent authority. Then, if the candidate passes this
assessment, he/she can take part in the competition organised by the owner of the school (municipality or state authority). In Spain, the competitive procedure also comprises several stages. Firstly, the education authority publishes the yearly ‘merit-based selection’ call open to career civil servant teachers. Applicants then submit their application for the school at which they want to be appointed as school head. Next, a ‘selection commission’ (comisión de selección) assesses the applications against the job requirements, the candidates’ academic and professional merits and their ‘management project’ (proyecto de dirección). Finally, having passed the initial training programme, the candidate is appointed by the Education Authority for a four-year renewable term.

In a few countries, several recruitment methods apply. In the French Community of Belgium, for schools run by the French Community itself, school heads are recruited from a candidate list, whereas open recruitment is used for applicants in the grant-aided private sector. In France, the recruitment methods depend on the professional category of school head.

Only four countries: Germany, Greece, Cyprus and Luxembourg, use the candidate list as the only recruitment channel. In Greece, evaluation tables for the selection and appointment of school heads are drawn up every four years. Based on the points the candidates have gathered during their career (e.g. related to qualifications, years in service, continuing professional development, publications etc.), they are called in for interview, a procedure which will determine who will become school head. In Luxembourg, the ministry launches a call for applications and the minister proposes a candidate to the government council which makes the final decision.

Figure F4: Principal methods of recruiting school heads from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Explanatory note
The term competitive examination is used to designate public, centrally organised competitions that are held in order to select candidates for school headship. The term open recruitment refers to the method of recruitment where responsibility for publicising vacant posts, requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. Recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school, sometimes in conjunction with the local authority. The use of candidate lists describes a system whereby applications for employment as a school head are made through submitting candidates’ names and qualifications to a top level or intermediate level authority.

Country specific notes
Belgium (BE de): Candidate list used on its own if only one person is on the list, a competitive examination is held if more than one person is listed, open recruitment for educational institutions of the German-speaking Community. No school head at ISCED 0.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
France and Luxembourg: In ISCED 0 and 1, the legal status of school head does not exist. The function is filled by one of the teachers, his/her teaching hours being reduced accordingly.
Italy: The schools in ISCED 0 are part of other ISCED 1 or 2 institutes and therefore share a school head.
Austria: For ISCED 0, all three recruitment methods are used.

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP IS SHARED TO SOME EXTENT
BUT INNOVATIVE APPROACHES ARE RARE

In the majority of countries, school leadership is traditionally shared among formal leadership teams. In most cases, this means that one or several deputy school heads and sometimes an administrative assistant or accountant support the school head. The appointment of a deputy school head generally depends on the size of the school and the complexity of the organisation.

Several countries (Spain, Italy, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Liechtenstein) also refer to the participation of teaching and non-teaching staff, parents, students and the local community through school boards, student councils and teachers’ assemblies in governance (1). The school head is then exercising collective leadership by collaborating and negotiating with these stakeholders. In Portugal for example, the general council is composed of representatives of teaching and non-teaching staff, parents, students, local authorities and communities. This council is the strategic leadership body with responsibility for approving the basic rules for the functioning of the school, for making strategic decisions and planning, and for monitoring the implementation of its decisions; it also has the power to elect and dismiss the school head, who is consequently accountable to it.

The responsibilities of the leadership teams range from the simple replacement of the school head during his/her absence and administration or financial management to the coordination of certain teaching areas and the management of specific tasks. In Malta for example, the members of the school management teams take on specific responsibilities e.g. for school transport, examinations, financial matters. In Slovenia and Croatia, the teaching staff is organised as a professional body, which makes autonomous decisions on professional issues, programme upgrades and disciplinary matters, as well as providing its opinion on the appointment of the school head.

More than a dozen countries create informal ad-hoc groups to take over specific and time-limited leadership tasks. In most of these countries, this informal distribution of leadership responsibilities complements the functions of formal leadership teams. Only in Germany, Cyprus (in ISCED 0 and 1), Iceland and Turkey, is the promotion of informal ad-hoc leadership groups not accompanied by formal leadership teams. In Italy, the national contract for teaching and non-teaching staff allows schools to appoint staff for particular leadership roles for the whole school year. In Cyprus, many teachers hold a Master’s degree in Leadership and Administration. However, there are no external incentives to reward participation in leadership teams and it depends on the school heads’ willingness to share their role.

In the German-speaking Community of Belgium and in Austria, new forms of distributed school leadership are tested in pilot projects. In the German-speaking Community of Belgium, these pilot projects are resulting in the progressive introduction of middle management structures, currently in large secondary schools but in the future in primary schools as well. Among the objectives of the projects is the reinforcement of initial and continuous leadership training. In Austria, the redistribution of tasks among formal and informal leadership teams is also currently being tested in projects and it will be discussed within the planned new service code for teachers.

Where local school autonomy prevails, the school head has a key role in distributing leadership responsibilities. In Finland for example, the school head may establish a leadership group and teams of teachers within the school, which can be set up and disbanded in a flexible way according to current themes or other school needs. The school head leads the school together with the leadership group, which can also plan school development. Members of the leadership team are often the leaders of teaching teams, where the actual implementation of decisions takes place. In Lithuania, where there are no top-level incentives for distributing school leadership responsibilities, it is for school heads to promote and train new leaders and to encourage the sharing of leadership functions.

A few countries report that they give incentives for participation in school leadership, other than the specific remuneration of school heads and deputy heads. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), however, the entire system of teachers’ pay supports some distribution of leadership functions. The ‘leadership group pay spine’ includes deputy heads and assistant heads as well as head teachers. There are also ‘teaching and learning responsibility’ (TLR) payments (England and Wales), which are payable to teachers for undertaking a sustained additional responsibility. There is a set of requirements to qualify for a TLR, such as to lead, manage and develop a subject or curriculum area or to lead and manage pupil development across the curriculum. In Bulgaria, teachers who get involved in leading particular teams receive additional points, which increase their pay according to their differentiated payment. Similarly, in Poland, the leaders of informal leadership teams are often rewarded by merit-based allowances, which are at the school head’s disposal.

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**Figure F5: Forms of distributed school leadership promoted by the top level education authority from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12**

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<th>Redistributation of tasks among formal leadership teams</th>
<th>Informal ad-hoc groups</th>
<th>Schools decide about leadership distribution</th>
<th>No distributed school leadership</th>
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<td>Pre-primary and primary education (ISCED 0-1)</td>
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**Explanatory note**

Distributed school leadership refers to a team approach to leadership, where authority to lead does not reside only in one person, but can be distributed among different people within and beyond the school. School leadership can encompass people occupying various roles and functions such as school heads, deputy and assistant school heads, leadership teams, school governing boards and school-level staff involved in leadership tasks.

**Country specific notes**

- **Ireland**: Information not verified at national level.
- **Austria**: At ISCED 0 only informal ad-hoc groups.
IN MOST COUNTRIES SCHOOL HEADS SPEND AT LEAST SOME TIME ON CPD

In the TIMSS 2011 survey, school heads were asked how much time they had spent, approximately, on specific activities.

Data for all participating European countries show that the percentage of grade 4 students whose school heads reported that they spent ‘some time’ on monitoring students’ learning progress to ensure that the school’s educational goals are reached is, on average, 46.8 %.

In most countries, the response rate ‘no time spent’ to this question was very low. Only in Germany, Austria and Finland, was the proportion of grade 4 students whose school heads reported that they spent ‘no time’ on monitoring students’ learning progress over 10 %.

The percentage of grade 4 students whose school heads reported that they spent ‘a lot’ of time on monitoring students’ learning progress was quite high (over 60 %) in the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and particularly high in Romania (84.3 %).

Another activity addressed was ‘initiating educational projects or improvements’. Data for all participating European countries show that the percentage of grade 4 students whose school heads reported that they spent ‘some time’ on this activity was, on average, 54.8 %. The Netherlands stands out with all school heads answering that they either spent ‘some’ or ‘a lot’ of time on this activity. The picture is similar for school heads in the Czech Republic, Spain, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England).

For participation in ‘professional development activities specifically for school heads’, the percentage of grade 4 students whose heads said that they spent ‘some time’ on this activity was, on average in participating European countries, 58.4 %. In Romania, Slovenia and Croatia approximately 70 % of grade 4 students had school heads who said that they engaged in this activity ‘a lot’. In these countries, CPD for school heads is either a professional duty or necessary for promotion (see Figure F10).

In contrast, more than 10 % of grade 4 students had school heads who said they never participated in professional development activities in Germany, Spain, Sweden and Norway. Percentages are particularly high in Portugal (37.5 %) (although in Spain and Portugal, CDP is a professional duty and necessary for promotion for school heads (see Figure F10)).

The comparison with grade 8 data is difficult to make given the much smaller number of participating European countries. Where such comparison is possible, differences are not large. However, in Finland, school heads at grade 8 seem to be more involved in monitoring the student learning process than at grade 4. The engagement of school heads for initiating educational projects is, in all participating countries, very similar to grade 4.

The largest differences can be observed for the participation in professional development activities where there are more students than in grade 4 whose school heads said they would not spend any time on CPD in Lithuania, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Percentages are particularly high in Norway (45 %).
Figure F6: Proportion of grade 4 (and grade 8) students whose school heads report that they spend ‘no time’, ‘some time’ or ‘a lot of time’ on a range of activities, 2011

- Monitoring students’ learning progress to ensure that the school’s educational goals are reached
- Initiating educational projects or improvements
- Participating in professional development activities specifically for school heads
- Countries not contributing to data collection

Source: IEA, TIMSS 2011 international database.
In PISA 2009, school heads were asked about the frequency of various management activities during the last school year. The figure shows the percentage of 15-year old students in schools whose school heads said that they often make sure that the professional development activities of teachers are in accordance with the teaching goals in the school. The numbers were also lower than in other countries in Liechtenstein (53 %) and Finland (64 %). In these countries, schools do not have to prepare professional development plans for the whole school staff (see Figure C2). In Belgium (German-speaking Community), however, the numbers barely reached 20 %. In Greece, only around 40 % of 15-year old students were enrolled in schools whose school heads said that they often make sure that the professional development activities of teachers are in accordance with the teaching goals in the school. The numbers were also lower than in other countries in Liechtenstein (53 %) and Finland (64 %). In these countries, schools do not have to prepare professional development plans for their teachers (see Figures C2 and C3).

On average, in participating EU-27 countries, approximately 71 % of 15-year old students were enrolled in schools whose school heads said that they often give teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching. This was especially common in Poland, Romania, the United Kingdom and Croatia. At the other extreme, Liechtenstein stands out with more than 85 % of students in schools whose school heads rarely give teachers advice on their teaching.

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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- Monitoring students’ learning progress to ensure that the school’s educational goals are reached
- Initiating educational projects or improvements
- Participating in professional development activities specifically for school heads
- Countries not contributing to data collection

**Country specific note**

EU: European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.

**A THIRD OF SCHOOL HEADS OFTEN TAKE LESSONS FOR ABSENT TEACHERS**

In PISA 2009, school heads were asked about the frequency of various management activities during the last school year. The figure shows the percentage of 15-year old students in schools whose school heads answered that they ‘quite often’ or ‘very often’ engaged in four types of management activities.
Approximately 86% of 15-year-old students were enrolled in schools whose school heads said that they often ensure that there is clarity concerning the responsibility for coordinating the curriculum in participating EU-27 countries. Most school heads rarely held this responsibility in Liechtenstein (13%) or Luxembourg (47%).

**Figure F7:** Proportion of 15-year-old students in schools where school heads reported a high frequency of certain management activities during the last school year, 2009

- A. I make sure that the professional development activities of teachers are in accordance with the teaching goals in the school
- B. I give teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching
- C. I ensure that there is clarity concerning the responsibility for coordinating the curriculum
- D. I take over lessons from teachers who are unexpectedly absent

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>82.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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</table>

Countries not contributing to data collection:
- BE fr, BE de, BE nl, BG, CZ, DK, EE, IE, EL, ES, FR, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU

Source: OECD, PISA 2009.

**Country specific notes**
- **EU:** European average is based on the information provided by participating countries.
- **France:** Data not available because the school questionnaire was not administered (OECD 2012).
On average, in participating EU-27 countries, approximately 33% of 15-year-old students were enrolled in schools whose school heads said that they often take lessons for teachers who are unexpectedly absent. This happened very rarely in Belgium, Lithuania and Portugal. However, more than half of 15-year-old students attended schools where school heads often took lessons for absent teachers in Greece, Spain and Austria.

Overall, school heads in participating European countries seem to be strongly involved in distributing responsibilities for curriculum coordination, giving teaching advice and making sure that teachers’ CPD activities are in line with educational goals, but they stand in for absent teachers to a lesser extent.

**SCHOOL HEADS ARE STILL PREDOMINATELY MEN AT SECONDARY LEVEL**

The participation of women in school management positions is relative to the level of education. Based on the available data, women are often over-represented as heads of primary schools. In fact, in Bulgaria, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, the United Kingdom and Iceland, 75% and more of primary school heads are women.

This percentage, however, declines rapidly at secondary education level, with particularly marked differences between levels in France, Austria, Sweden and Iceland. In Austria, for example, less than 32% of lower secondary school heads and less than 30% of upper secondary school heads are women. In many other countries for which data is available, this percentage is below 50 for upper secondary schools. This contrasts sharply with the percentage of women teachers at the same level (see Figure D13).

![Figure F8: Percentage of female school heads in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1, 2 and 3), public and private sectors combined, 2010](#)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISCED 1</th>
<th>ISCED 2</th>
<th>ISCED 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>BE</td>
<td>BG</td>
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<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>AT</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat.
SIZE OF THE SCHOOL HAS AN IMPACT ON
SCHOOL HEADS’ STATUTORY SALARIES

School heads are responsible for the management of a school or a group of schools either alone or
Together with an administrative body such as a board or council. In eight countries or regions, the size
Of schools has a direct bearing on the salaries of school heads so that the higher the enrolment at a
School, the higher the salary of its head. In addition, the educational level of the school makes a
difference to school heads’ salaries.

In general, basic statutory salaries for school heads in pre-primary and primary education are lower
Than in secondary education, especially in upper secondary schools. The same tendency is also true
For the distribution of teachers’ salaries. In addition, in all countries, the basic statutory salaries of
School heads are higher than those of teachers working at the same educational level (see Figure D9).
This may be put down to the fact that, in most countries, a certain number of years’ teaching
Experience are required in order to become a school head (see Figure F2). Other conditions, such as
The obligation in some countries to have received special training (see Figure F1) may also be
Relevant.

In ten countries, the basic salaries of school heads are exactly the same at primary, lower secondary
And upper secondary levels. A specific situation exists in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) where school heads share the same overarching salary scale, but within that scale each head has his/her own salary range. This range is related both to the size of the school and the ages of its students. This means that secondary school heads tend to be paid more than primary school heads. In countries with single structure education, where there is no break between primary and general lower secondary education levels, the same basic salary indicated for both levels corresponds to the same school head post.

The difference between school heads’ maximum and minimum basic salaries provides an indication of
The prospects for pay increases throughout their careers; this is not as marked as in the case of teachers. Although school heads’ salary increases during their career are not exceptional, their maximum salaries remain higher than those of their teacher colleagues, given that their starting salaries are higher (see Figure D9).

When comparing school heads’ salaries between countries huge variations are observed. At primary level, the maximum wages vary from approximately PPS EUR 11 000 in Bulgaria to more than PPS EUR 100 100 in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). At secondary level, the highest statutory salaries are allocated in Luxembourg (PPS EUR 121 127) and the United Kingdom (PPS EUR 137 036).

On this basis, minimum and maximum levels of statutory salaries expressed in PPS EUR generally
differ by less than a factor of two. School heads in primary education in Greece, Spain, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Finland and Turkey may receive no more than a 30 percent salary increase during their professional career. However, in upper secondary education, the maximum statutory salaries in Ireland and the United Kingdom might be more than double that of their salary at the beginning of their headship career.
Table: Minimum and maximum basic annual statutory salary for school heads in PPS EUR from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-primary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Lower secondary</th>
<th>Upper secondary</th>
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| Source: Eurydice, data March 2012.
The **basic gross annual statutory salary** is the amount paid by the employer in a year, including general increases to salary scales, the 13th month and holiday-pay (where applicable) excluding the employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include other salary allowances or financial benefits (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime, additional responsibilities, geographical location, the obligation to teach classes in challenged circumstances, or accommodation, health or travel costs). The indicated minimum salary is the basic gross salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances at the start of their career. The maximum salary is the basic gross salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances on retirement or after a certain number of years of service. The maximum salary includes increases related solely to length of service and/or age.

### Explanatory note

The **basic gross annual statutory salary** is the amount paid by the employer in a year, including general increases to salary scales, the 13th month and holiday-pay (where applicable) excluding the employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include other salary allowances or financial benefits (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime, additional responsibilities, geographical location, the obligation to teach classes in challenged circumstances, or accommodation, health or travel costs). The indicated minimum salary is the basic gross salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances at the start of their career. The maximum salary is the basic gross salary received by school heads in the above-mentioned circumstances on retirement or after a certain number of years of service. The maximum salary includes increases related solely to length of service and/or age.
PPS is the artificial common reference currency unit used in the European Union to express the volume of economic aggregates for the purpose of spatial comparisons in such a way that price level differences between countries are eliminated. Economic volume aggregates in PPS are obtained by dividing their original value in national currency units by the respective PPP. PPS thus buys the same given volume of goods and services in all countries, whereas different amounts of national currency units are needed to buy this same volume of goods and services in individual countries, depending on the price level.


**Country specific notes**

**Belgium (BE fr):** a) Schools with less than 71 pupils, b) schools with more than 210 pupils.

**Belgium (BE nl):** a) Schools with less than 180 pupils (less than 100 pupils in Brussels), b) schools with more than 350 pupils. At ISCED 2 and 3, there are different scales depending on whether or not the school head has lesson duties.

**Bulgaria:** a) General provision, b) big schools, c) small schools.

**Denmark:** a) Schools with more than 700 full-time students, b) schools with less than 700 full-time students.

**Spain:** ‘Type A’ schools are the largest ones where school heads receive a higher individual allowance, which decreases as we advance in the classification to ‘type F’ (the smallest) for ISCED 0 and 1 and to ‘type D’ for ISCED 2 and 3. a) Big schools, b) small/very small schools.

**France:** a) School heads in Lycées, b) school heads in Lycées professionnels.

**Latvia:** a) Schools with between 251 and 400 students, b) schools with between 601 and 800 students, c) between 1 001 and 1 200 students.

**Lithuania:** The salaries of school heads depend on the number of groups in pre-school institutions and on the school size in the secondary schools, also from head’s qualification category and the years of pedagogical practice (at all levels).

**Austria:** ISCED 1 and 2 (Hauptschulen) levels: a) Schools with more than 4 classes, b) small schools. ISCED 3: c) Schools with more than 12 classes, d) small schools.

**Portugal:** The salary varies according to the size of the school (i.e. number of students enrolled) and the position in the salary scale in which each teacher/school head is. The figure only shows a) smallest schools, with less than 300 students, b) largest schools, with more than 1 500 students.

**Croatia:** a) Large schools, b) small schools.

**Norway:** a) Large schools, b) small schools, c) schools with fewer than 10 full-time employees per year, d) schools with more than 10 full-time employees per year.

**CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS A PROFESSIONAL DUTY FOR SCHOOL HEADS IN THE MAJORITY OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES**

Continuing professional development (CPD) is considered a professional duty in 23 countries or regions. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) for example, the National College for School Leadership provides a range of professional development opportunities for serving school heads. These include ‘Head Start’, a programme for recent graduates of the National Professional Qualification for Headship during their first two years as school heads. The ‘Local Leaders of Education’ is a programme, which aims to improve pupil outcomes through partnership between school heads. Finally, the ‘national leaders of education’ are outstanding school heads who, together with the staff in their schools, use their skills and experience to support schools in challenging circumstances. In Bulgaria, all school heads have to attend a number of training courses throughout the year devoted to different educational issues at the National Qualification and Training Institute of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science. In Malta, newly appointed school heads are asked to attend a 6-day induction course organised by the Directorates of Education in their first year of service. They are then regularly called by the central education authority for training seminars on educational matters and new national initiatives. Moreover, the Council of Heads (CoH) meetings offer informal leadership training through the sharing of good practices and other networking initiatives.

Some countries define the minimum amount of time to be dedicated to CPD. In the French Community of Belgium for example, school heads have to undertake six half days’ CPD activities per year. In Latvia, CPD for school management consist of 36 hours over three years.
Similar to the situation for teachers (see Figure C1), in Spain, Lithuania, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia, the participation of school heads in CPD activities is not only a professional duty but also a prerequisite for career advancement and salary increases. In Slovenia, CPD is optional yet necessary for promotion.

In 14 countries, CPD is optional for school heads. However, they might well be supported and encouraged to participate. In the Flemish Community of Belgium for example schools have a special training fund for the CPD of school heads (EUR 1 500 over their career). As a priority, it is used for the training of recently employed school heads. In Ireland, the ‘Leadership Development for Schools Service’ offers programmes for recently appointed school heads and for more experienced heads working together in school teams. Moreover, school management bodies provide relatively short courses (three to five days duration) dealing with finance, policy development, employment matters and child protection to enable new school heads to settle into their new posts.

Figure F10: Status of continuing professional development for school heads from pre-primary to upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 and 3), 2011/12

Explanatory note

Continuing professional development refers to formal and non-formal training activities. In certain cases, these activities may lead to supplementary qualifications. Professional duty means a task described as such in working regulations/contracts/legislation or other regulations on the school head profession.

Country specific notes

Belgium (BE de), Germany and Malta: There is no school head at ISCED 0.
Ireland: Information not verified at national level.
Austria: For school heads of pre-primary schools, regulations differ between Länder.
I. Classifications

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997)

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is an instrument suitable for compiling statistics on education internationally. It covers two cross-classification variables: levels and fields of education with the complementary dimensions of general/vocational/pre-vocational orientation and educational/labour market destination. The current version, ISCED 97 (1) distinguishes seven levels of education. Empirically, ISCED assumes that several criteria exist which can help allocate education programmes to levels of education. Depending on the level and type of education concerned, there is a need to establish a hierarchical ranking system between main and subsidiary criteria (typical entrance qualification, minimum entrance requirement, minimum age, staff qualification, etc.).

- **ISCED 0: Pre-primary education**
  Pre-primary education is defined as the initial stage of organised instruction. It is school- or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least 3 years.

- **ISCED 1: Primary education**
  This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

- **ISCED 2: Lower secondary education**
  It continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.

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

- **ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education**
  These programmes straddle the boundary between upper secondary and tertiary education. They serve to broaden the knowledge of ISCED level 3 graduates. Typical examples are programmes designed to prepare pupils for studies at level 5 or programmes designed to prepare pupils for direct labour market entry.

- **ISCED 5: Tertiary education (first stage)**
  Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3 or 4. This level includes tertiary programmes with academic orientation (type A) which are largely theoretically based and tertiary programmes with occupation orientation (type B) which are typically shorter than type A programmes and geared for entry into the labour market.

- **ISCED 6: Tertiary education (second stage)**
  This level is reserved for tertiary studies that lead to an advanced research qualification (Ph.D. or doctorate).

(1) http://www.uis.unesco.org/ev.php?ID=3813_201&ID2=DO_TOPIC
II. Definitions

Active population (economically active population/labour force): In accordance with the definition in the Labour Force Survey, the total of persons in employment and unemployed persons.

Administrative experience: Experience in school administration/management acquired, for example, in the post of deputy school head.

Alternative pathways: Flexible, mostly employment-based training programmes leading to teaching qualifications. They are normally shorter than traditional programmes, often introduced to combat teacher shortage and to attract graduates from other professional fields.

Basic gross annual salary: The amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances, such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers’ social security and pension contributions. This salary does not take account of any taxation at source, or other salary adjustment or financial benefit (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime or additional responsibilities, geographical area or the obligation to teach mixed or difficult classes, or accommodation, health or travel costs).

Candidate list: This is a system whereby applications for employment as a teacher/school head are made through submitting candidates’ names and qualifications to a top level or intermediate level authority.

Central Regulations/recommendations: Different kinds of official documents containing guidelines, obligations and/or recommendations for education institutions. Regulations are laws, rules or other order prescribed by public authority to regulate conduct. Recommendations are official documents proposing the use of specific tools, methods and/or strategies for teaching and learning. It does not have mandatory application.

Civil servant: Teacher employed by the public authorities (at central or regional level), in accordance with legislation distinct from that governing contractual relations in the public or private sector. In some countries, teachers are appointed for life as career civil servants by the appropriate central or regional authorities where these are the top-level authority for education.

Competitive examination: Public, centrally organised competitions that are held in order to select candidates for the teaching/school head profession.

Concurrent model: The theoretical and practical professional training is given at the same time as general education. The upper secondary school leaving certificate is the qualification required to undertake training in accordance with this model as well as, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for tertiary education. Other selection procedures for admission may also be applied.

Consecutive model: The theoretical and practical professional training follows general education. In this model, students who have undertaken higher education in a particular field then move on to professional training in a separate phase.

Continuing professional development: Formal and non-formal professional development activities, which may, for example, include subject-based and pedagogical training. In certain cases, these activities may lead to further qualifications.
Development needs/training plan: A development needs analysis is a review of the learning and development requirements. Usually it sets out the core competencies or skill level needed, evaluates the present level of competences and then identifies the areas to be developed. A training plan defines the strategies, tasks, and methods that will be used to meet the development needs.

Distributed school leadership: Refers to a team approach of leadership, where authority to lead does not reside only in one person, but can be distributed among different people within and beyond the school. School leadership can encompass people occupying various roles and functions such as school heads, deputy and assistant school heads, leadership teams, school governing boards and school-level staff involved in leadership tasks.

Employee with contractual status: Refers to teachers employed generally by local or school authorities on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation and with or without central agreements on pay and conditions.

Evaluation of teachers on an individual basis: Involves forming a judgement about their work in order to guide them and help them as individuals to improve. The teacher subject to evaluation receives personal verbal or written feedback. This evaluation may occur during the evaluation of schools as entities (in which case it generally results in verbal feedback), or be carried out independently (possibly leading to a formal appraisal of the teacher evaluated in this way).

Fixed- or short-term contracts: A contract which terminates on a specified date or on the occurrence of an event which is certain to occur on a particular date. A short-term contract is also limited in time and usually covers a short period, usually lasting about a year or less.

Forward planning policy: Is based on the observation of trends and the identification of the most likely scenarios in future teacher supply and demand. The data examined includes demographic projections such as birth rates and migration, as well as developments in the number of trainee teachers and changes within the teaching profession (number of staff retiring, transfers to non-teaching posts, etc.). The forward planning of teaching staff requirements may be made on a long-, medium and/or short-term basis. This planning policy is developed either at national and/or regional level depending on the relative centralisation/decentralisation of the education system concerned.

General education: In the concurrent model, this refers to general education courses and mastery of the subject(s) that trainees will teach when qualified. The purpose of these courses, therefore, is to provide trainees with a thorough knowledge of one or more subjects and broad general education. In the case of the consecutive model, general education refers to the degree obtained in a particular subject.

General learning difficulties: Refers to students whose learning problems in school are not directly related to any specific physical, sensory or intellectual impairment; instead the learning difficulties may be due to external factors such as socio-cultural disadvantage, limited opportunities to learn, a lack of support from home, an inappropriate curriculum, or insufficient teaching in the early years. Source: Westwood, P. (2008): What teachers need to know about learning difficulties, Victoria: ACER Press.

Gross domestic product (GDP): Final result of the production activity of resident producer units.

Induction: A structured phase of support given to beginning teachers after finishing the formal programme of initial teacher education at the start of their first contract as a teacher in school. During induction, new entrants carry out some or all the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and they are remunerated for their work. A mentor is appointed providing personal, social and professional support to the beginning teacher within a structured system. Normally, this phase also includes
theoretical training, which is provided in addition to the compulsory professional training received prior to the acquisition of a teaching diploma. It normally lasts at least several months.

**In-school placement:** Placement (unremunerated or not) in a real working environment lasting typically not more than a few weeks. It is supervised by a teacher, with periodic assessment by teachers at the training institution. These placements are an integral part of professional training (e.g. *stage pédagogique* in Belgium (French Community) and *Schulpraktikum* in Austria).

**Labour market monitoring:** Monitoring of trends on the labour market, which is not initially related to official government plans, may provide decision-makers with insight into changes in teacher supply and demand, but cannot be regarded as official forward planning.

**Minimum number of years of service:** Describes the minimum number of years that teachers need to work before they are entitled to full pension, in addition to having reached the official/minimum retirement age.

**Minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement:** Offers teachers the possibility to retire before they reach official retirement age. Their full pension entitlement is subject to completion of the number of years of service required.

**National tests:** Refers to the national administration of standardised tests and centrally set examinations. The tests contain centrally set procedures for the preparation of their content, administration and marking, and for the interpretation and use of their results. These tests are standardised by the central (or top-level) education authorities.

3 types of national tests can be distinguished:

- **National tests for taking decisions about the school career of pupils:** National tests which summarise the achievement of individual pupils at the end of a school year or at the end of a particular educational stage, and which have a significant impact on their educational careers. In the literature these tests are also referred to as summative tests or the 'assessment of learning'. Their results are used to award certificates or to take important decisions concerned with streaming, school choice or progression from one year to the next, etc.

- **National tests for monitoring schools and/or the education system:** National tests that are primarily intended to monitor and evaluate schools and/or the education system as a whole. ‘Monitoring and evaluation’ here refers to the process of collecting and analysing information in order to check performance in relation to goals and to take corrective action where necessary. National test results are used as indicators of the quality of teaching and the performance of teachers, but also to gauge the overall effectiveness of education policies and practices.

- **National tests for identifying individual learning needs:** A third group of national tests are mainly for the purpose of assisting the learning process of individual pupils by identifying their specific learning needs and adapting teaching accordingly. These tests are centred on the idea of 'assessment for learning' and may be broadly described as 'formative assessments'.

**Number of hours of availability at school:** Refers to the time available (as specified in contracts) for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to a specified amount of time further to the specified number of teaching hours and, in others, to a global amount of hours of availability that include the time spent teaching. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.
**Number of teaching hours**: Refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of pupils, as specified in contracts. In some countries, this is the only contractually specified working time. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

**Official retirement age**: Sets the limit at which teachers stop work. In certain countries and in special circumstances, they may continue to work beyond this age limit.

**Open recruitment**: Refers to the method of recruitment where responsibility for publicising posts open for recruitment, requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. Recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school, sometimes in conjunction with the local authority.

**Overall working hours**: The number of teaching hours or the number of hours of availability at school, and an amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities (as specified in contracts) which may be done outside the school. The number of hours may be either earmarked specifically for different activities or defined globally. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

**Private grant-aided (government-dependent) school/institution**: A school/institution that either receives 50 per cent or more of its core funding from government agencies or one whose teaching personnel are paid by a government agency – either directly or through government.

**Private independent school/institution**: A school/institution that receives less than 50 per cent of its core funding from government agencies and whose teaching personnel are not paid by a government agency.

**Private school/institution**: An institution is classified as private if: 1) It is controlled and managed by a non-governmental organisation (e.g. a Church, a trade union or a business enterprise), or 2) Its Governing Board consists mostly of members not selected by a public agency.

**Probation period**: Temporary appointment in form of a trial period. Conditions may vary depending on working regulations. Normally lasts between several months up to several years. This period may be subject to a final assessment and is normally followed by permanent employment.

**Professional experience in teaching**: A certain number of years working professionally as a teacher, most of the time at the level of education at which the person concerned is seeking appointment as a school head.

**Professional training**: Provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed to be a teacher. In addition to courses in psychology and teaching methods and methodology, it includes in-class placements.

**Public school/institution**: A school/institution which is directly or indirectly administered by a public education authority. An institution is classified as public if it is controlled and managed: 1) Directly by a public education authority or agency or, 2) Either by a government agency directly or by a governing body (Council, Committee etc.), most of whose members are either appointed by a public authority or elected by public franchise.

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

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

**School head:** Any person heading a school who, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council, is responsible for its management/administration. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities (which may include teaching tasks, but also responsibility for the general functioning of the institution in areas such as the timetable, implementation of the curriculum, decisions about what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, appraisal of teachers and their performance, etc.) and/or financial responsibilities (often limited to responsibility for administering the resources allocated to the school).

**School management body:** Governing body that can be composed of parents, teachers, the principal, and community members associated with a particular school and empowered to advise or make decisions on curriculum, instruction, budget, principal selection, and other aspects of school management.

**Teacher competence framework:** Statements about what a teacher should know and be able to do. A more or less detailed description of skills and competences.

**Teacher educator:** A person actively facilitating the (formal) learning of student teachers. In a tertiary education institution, this can be a lecturer in a subject discipline whose classes are attended by future teachers of those subjects or a lecturer in specific disciplines such as psychology, philosophy or pedagogy; staff in specialised teacher education institutions or any other tertiary staff supervising in-school placements or induction phases are also included in the definition, as are school-based mentors or tutors who support beginning teachers.

**Top-level authority:** This is for education the central government in most countries. In four cases, however, decision-making occurs at a different level, namely that of the governments of the Communities in Belgium, the Länder in Germany, the governments of the Autonomous Communities in addition to the central government in Spain and education ministries in England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland for the United Kingdom.

**Training for headship:** Specific training for headship which takes place subsequent to initial teacher education and qualification as a teacher. Depending on circumstances, training may be provided either prior to the application for a post as school head or to involvement in the recruitment procedure, or during the one or more early years after taking up a post. Its aim is to equip future school heads with the skills required to carry out their new duties. It is not to be confused with the continuing professional development of school heads.

**Transnational learning mobility:** Short-term mobility of teachers for professional development purposes (e.g. a training course, a conference, a seminar or job-shadowing), which is not permanent (a return to the home institution is intended) and involves a transnational crossing of geographical borders. Only physical mobility (not virtual) is considered.
III. Databases

**PISA 2009 international database**

PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD to measure the performance levels of pupils aged 15 in reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy. The survey is based on representative samples of 15-year-old pupils, who may either be in lower secondary or upper secondary education, depending on the structure of the system. Besides measuring performance, PISA 2009 international survey includes questionnaires to identify variables in the school and family context which may shed light on their findings. Questionnaires were sent to school heads and pupils for the PISA survey. The indicators contained in the present publication have been prepared using replies from these contextual questionnaires. All indicators cover both public schools and private schools, whether grant-aided or otherwise.

**TALIS 2008 international survey**

TALIS (Teaching and Learning International survey) surveys teachers of lower secondary education and the principals of the schools in which they work. In 2008, 24 countries took part overall, 19 of which were European. The survey response rate of the Netherlands fell short of the minimum requirement (75%) and the country was not featured in the international report. Separate questionnaires for teachers and principals were developed. Within participating countries, schools as well as teachers within schools, were randomly selected to take part in TALIS. For each country – except for smaller countries – some 200 schools and 20 teachers within each of these schools were sampled. TALIS 2008 focused on the following key aspects of the learning environment, which influence the quality of teaching and learning in schools:

- The leadership and management of schools – the roles adopted by school leaders, given increasing accountability and devolution of educational authority.
- The appraisal of teachers’ work in schools and the form and nature of the feedback they receive, as well as the use of outcomes from these processes to reward and develop teachers.
- The professional development that teachers undertake and its connection to appraisal systems, support from school leaders and impact on classroom practices.
- The profiles of countries with regard to teaching practices, activities, beliefs and attitudes, and how these vary according to teacher background characteristics.

**TIMSS 2011 international survey**

TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study) 2011 is the fifth in IEA’s series of international assessments of student achievement dedicated to improving teaching and learning in mathematics and science. First conducted in 1995, TIMSS reports every four years on the achievement of fourth and eighth grade students. Like its predecessors, TIMSS 2011 gathered information about the contexts for learning mathematics and science from participating students, their teachers, and their school principals, as well as data about the mathematics and science curricula in each country. 21 European countries were participating in the data collection for the fourth grade, 9 in the data collection for the eighth grade.
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Descriptors: teacher, headteacher, initial teacher education, admission requirements, continuing professional development, mentoring, teacher salary, teacher status, working time, age, gender, teaching method, evaluation of teachers, pre-primary education, primary education, general education, secondary education, comparative analysis, Croatia, Turkey, EFTA, European Union
Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders in Europe contains 62 indicators on teachers and school leaders from pre-primary to upper secondary education in 32 countries (EU Member States, Croatia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Turkey). Six topics are covered: Initial teacher education and support for beginning teachers; recruitment, employers and contracts; continuing professional development and mobility; working conditions and pay, as well as levels of autonomy and responsibilities of teachers and school leaders. The report combines statistical data and qualitative information derived from primary data supplied by the Eurydice Network, Eurostat data and evidence derived from the international surveys TALIS 2008, PISA 2009 and TIMSS 2011.

The Eurydice network consists of 40 national units based in 36 countries (EU Member States, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey). Eurydice is co-ordinated by the EU Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.

The Eurydice network serves mainly those involved in educational policy-making at national, regional and local levels, as well as in the European Union institutions. It focuses primarily on the way education in Europe is structured and organised at all levels. Its publications output may be broadly divided into descriptions of national education systems, comparative studies devoted to specific topics, and indicators and statistics. They are available free of charge on the Eurydice website or in print upon request.

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