

Chapter

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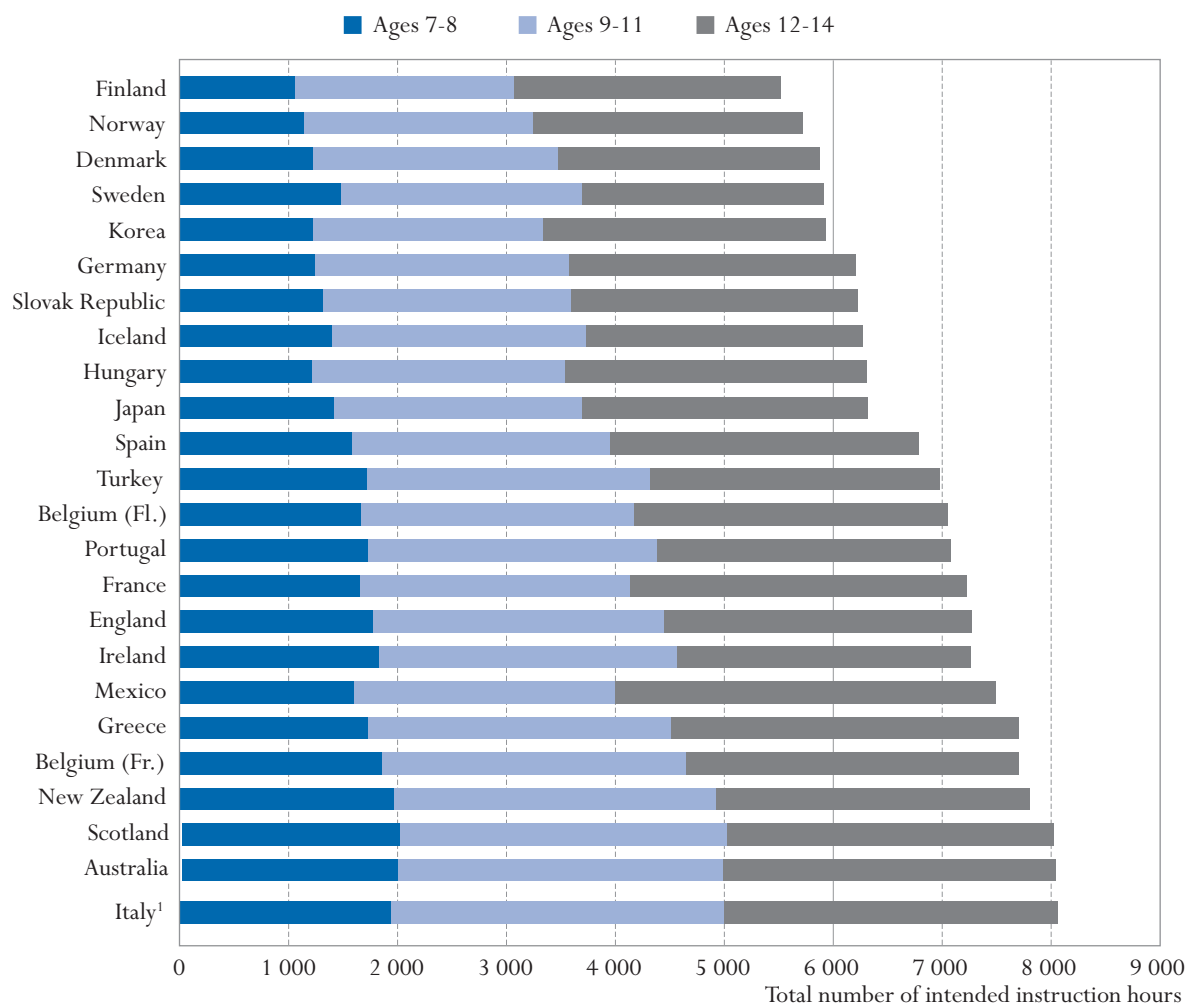
THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND ORGANISATION OF SCHOOLS



INDICATOR D1: TOTAL INTENDED INSTRUCTION TIME FOR STUDENTS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

- Students receive, on average, 6 868 hours of instruction between the ages of 7 and 14, of which 1 576 hours are between ages 7 and 8, 2 510 hours between ages 9 and 11 and 2 782 hours between ages 12 and 14 years.
- Students between the ages of 7 and 8 in OECD countries receive an average of 752 hours per year of compulsory instruction time and 788 hours per year of intended instruction time in the classroom. Students between the ages of 9 and 11 receive nearly 50 hours more per year and those aged between 12 and 14 receive nearly 100 hours more per year than those aged between 9 and 11. However, these figures vary significantly among countries.
- The teaching of reading and writing, mathematics and science comprises almost half of the compulsory instruction time for students aged 9 to 11 years and 41% for students aged 12 to 14 years. Among countries, there is great variation in the percentage of the curriculum for 9 to 11-year-olds that is devoted to reading and writing as a compulsory subject; this ranges from 12% of the curriculum in Portugal to 31% in the Slovak Republic.

Chart D1.1. Total number of intended instruction hours in public institutions between ages 7 and 14 (2002)



1. Year of reference 2001.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of total number of intended instruction hours.

Source: OECD, Table D1.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

This indicator shows intended instruction time in classroom settings in the formal education system.

Policy context

The amount and quality of time that people spend learning between early childhood and the start of their working lives, shapes their lives, socially and economically. Instruction time in formal classroom settings comprises a large part of the public investment in student learning. Matching resources with students' needs and using time in an optimal manner, from the perspective of the learner and of public investment, are major challenges for education policy. Costs of education include primarily teacher labour, institutional maintenance and other educational resources. The length of time during which resources are made available to students, as shown in this indicator on instruction time in classroom settings in the formal education system, is therefore important.

Evidence and explanations

What this indicator shows

Intended instruction time is an important indicator of the public resources invested in education...

This indicator captures intended instruction time as a measure of exposure to learning in formal classroom settings as per public regulations. It also shows how instruction time is allocated to different curricular areas. The indicator is calculated as the intended net hours of instruction for the grades in which the majority of students are 7 to 15 years of age. Although such data are difficult to compare among countries because of different curriculum policies, they nevertheless provide an indication of how much contact time countries consider students need in order to achieve the educational goals that have been set for them.

...but needs to be interpreted in the context of often considerable variation among regions and schools...

In some countries, intended instruction time varies considerably among regions or different types of school. In many countries, local education authorities or schools can determine the number and allocation of hours of instruction. Additional teacher time is often planned for individual remedial teaching or enhancement of the curriculum. On the other hand, time may be lost due to a lack of qualified substitutes to replace absent teachers, or to student absences.

...and in the context of other forms of learning time and of the quality of teaching, which are not captured by this indicator.

Annual instruction time should also be examined together with the length of compulsory education, which measures the time during which young people receive full-time educational support from public resources, or during which more than 90% of the population participates in education (see Indicator C1). In addition, intended instruction time also does not capture the quality of learning opportunities being provided or the level or quality of human and material resources involved. Indicator D2, measuring the numbers of teachers relative to the student population provides some context for this.

Total intended instruction time in classroom settings in the formal education system

Total intended instruction time is an estimate of the number of hours during which students are taught both the compulsory and non-compulsory parts of the curriculum.

Students receive, on average, 6 868 hours of instruction between the ages of 7 and 14.

The total number of instruction hours that students are intended to receive between ages 7 and 14 averages 6 868 hours among OECD countries. However, formal requirements range from 5 523 hours in Finland to around 8 000 hours in Australia, Italy and Scotland. These hours comprise compulsory and non-

compulsory hours during which the school is obliged to offer instruction to students. Whereas the total intended instruction time within this age range is a good indicator of students' theoretical workload, it cannot be interpreted as actual instruction students receive over the years they spend in initial education. In some countries with greater student workload, the age band of compulsory education is less and students drop out of the school system earlier, whereas in other countries a more even distribution of study time over more years amounts in the end to a larger number of total instruction hours for all. Table D1.1 shows the age range at which over 90% of the population is in education and Chart D1.1 shows the total amount of intended instruction time students receive between ages 7 and 14.

Compulsory instruction time in classroom settings in the formal education system

Total compulsory instruction time is an estimate of the number of hours during which students are taught both the compulsory core and compulsory flexible parts of the curriculum.

For 7 to 8-year-olds and 9 to 11-year-olds, total intended instruction time equals total compulsory instruction time in most countries, while for older age groups this is less frequently the case. Intended instruction time is fully compulsory for all age groups between 7 and 15 years in Denmark, Germany, Iceland, Korea, Norway, Scotland and Sweden.

Within the formal education system, the annual amount of total compulsory instruction time in classroom settings averages 752 hours for 7 to 8-year-olds, 816 hours for 9 to 11-year-olds and 900 hours for 12 to 14-year-olds. The average number of compulsory instruction hours per year is 923 for the typical programme in which most 15-year-olds are enrolled (Table D1.1).

Curriculum reform in Portugal

In 2001/2002 Portugal undertook curricular reform for primary education; this resulted in a new curriculum, new priorities and a re-allocation of time. In upper secondary education a less demanding programme was launched to award students with an ISCED level 2 of professional education and give them direct access to the labour market.

The first cycle (pupils aged 6-10) of 25 hours compulsory curriculum per week does not specify the amount of time allocated to each area. The curriculum comprises both subject and non-subject areas. Subject areas include: Portuguese language, mathematics, environmental studies and expressions (artistic and physical). Non-subject areas include: project area, tutorial learning and civic education. In the second cycle of primary education (pupils aged 10-11), the amount of time allocated to each area is specified but within these areas schools can decide to a certain extent the time to be allocated to each subject. The curriculum comprises subject areas and non-subject areas. Subject areas encompass language and social studies (Portuguese, foreign language, history and geography of Portugal), mathematics and science, artist and technological education. The non-subject areas include: project area, tutorial learning and civic education. Students can attend classes on religion as a non-curricular subject.

Curriculum policies

In some OECD countries, subjects and content are defined, and time is allocated at a national (or sub-national) level...

Decision-making responsibilities for planning students' programmes of learning vary greatly from country to country. Two basic models exist in OECD countries, with several variants.

In one model of curriculum regulation, national or regional authorities specify subject areas, the time allocated to them and their content. Schools must respect these national or sub-national curricular specifications with varying degrees of flexibility. In Austria, England, France, Germany, Greece, Portugal and Spain, the national authorities (German *Länder*, Spanish Autonomous Communities) establish curricula for all types of schools, grades and subjects. Typically, the documents define subjects, the time allocated to them and the content in more or less detail by grade level and type of programme; the school is responsible for managing and delivering the curriculum.

Curriculum regulation in Spain

Through official regulations, the Spanish Ministry of Education establishes the national minimum core curriculum, which must be implemented in the Autonomous Communities (55-65% of instruction time). The remainder of instruction time is regulated by each Autonomous Community, according to its own priorities. Instruction time has not changed for primary education since 1991, except for the experimental introduction of foreign language studies in the first two years of primary education in some Autonomous Communities. Regarding lower secondary education, the Ministry of Education changed the national minimum core curriculum at the end of the year 2000, so that for the school year 2001-2002 all the Autonomous Communities had to reorganise their own timetables in order to incorporate the changes at the national level. This explains the changes between the 2001 and 2002 data.

...while in others, local school authorities, or the schools themselves, are primarily responsible for providing the curricula, with attainment targets set at the national level.

In the second model of curriculum regulation, national authorities establish attainment targets or standards, while local authorities or schools are responsible for planning and implementing curricula. For example, in both the Flemish and French Communities of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Scotland, national policy documents describe the targets, and local authorities or schools specify the subjects, content and time allocated to them. National policy documents in these countries often provide a frame for planning by specifying minimum requirements for subjects to be taught, time to be devoted to study areas and/or desirable content for studies thereby giving guidance to schools for curriculum planning.

Compulsory curriculum regulations in Denmark

In Denmark, the Ministry of Education issues regulations pertaining to the aims of teaching in each subject and topic, as well as curriculum guidelines for individual subjects and the distribution of lessons. Within this framework, schools and municipalities are permitted to work out their own curricula.

National curriculum documents play an important role in shaping school curricula irrespective of the legal status of the curriculum documents. Combined with graduation requirements and examinations they serve the purpose of harmonising the content of education within countries. Recent developments in curriculum policies show a tendency towards decentralisation of curriculum decisions in countries where centralised prescriptive syllabi were in use for many decades (e.g. in the German-speaking European countries and Eastern Europe). At the same time, in countries with traditionally decentralised curriculum policies (like Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom), national standards of competence levels have been negotiated in the past 20 years. As a result of cross-fertilisation, national curriculum documents have become more similar among countries, and an international “core curriculum” appears to be emerging with similar study areas and more similar descriptions of desired competence levels.

For students aged 9 to 11 years, 49% of the compulsory curriculum on average is devoted to the three basic subject areas: reading and writing (24%), mathematics (16%) and science (9%). On average, 8% of the compulsory curriculum is devoted to social studies and 6% to modern foreign languages. The arts account for 12% and physical education accounts for 9% of the total compulsory curriculum time. These seven study areas form part of the curriculum in all OECD countries for these age cohorts. At this level, classroom activities in the study areas are not necessarily organised as separate subject classes (Table D1.2a and Chart D1.2a).

On average reading and writing account for the greatest share of the curriculum, but the variation in this share among countries is greater than for other subjects; reading and writing accounts for only 12% of instruction time in Portugal, compared with 31% in the Slovak Republic. Sizeable variation is also evident in the social sciences, which account for 2% of instruction time in Austria and Finland but 20% in Mexico.

For 12 to 14-year-old students in OECD countries, an average of 41% of the compulsory curriculum is devoted to three basic subject areas: reading and writing (16%), mathematics (13%) and science (12%). In these age cohorts, a relatively larger part of the curriculum is devoted to social studies (12%) and modern foreign languages (11%), whereas somewhat less time is devoted to the arts (8%). Physical education accounts for 8%. These seven study areas form part of the compulsory curriculum in all OECD countries for lower secondary students. Technology is included as part of the compulsory curriculum in about half of the countries, and religion is included in over half of the OECD countries (Table D1.2b and Chart D1.2b).

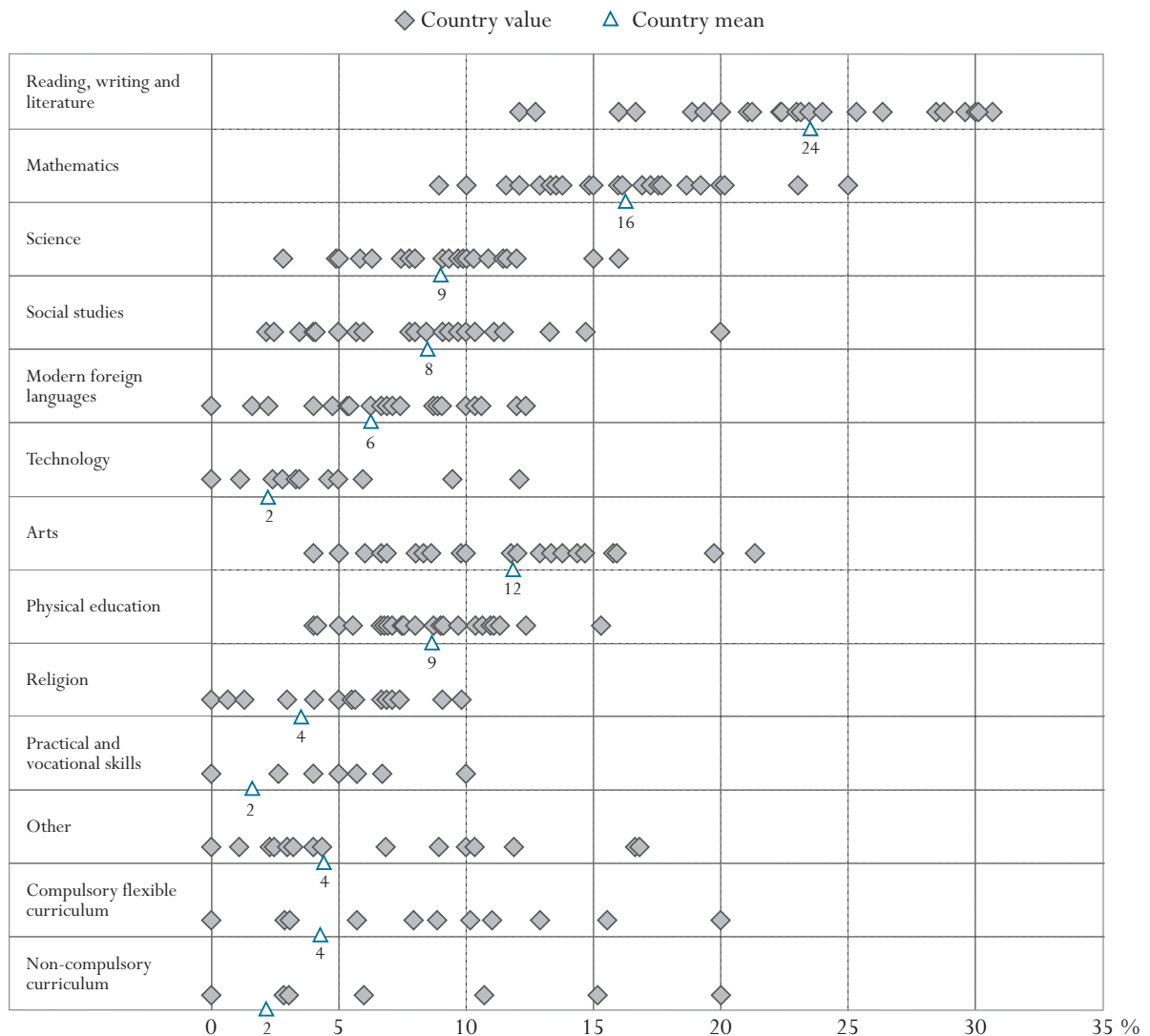
The variation between countries in the percentage share of subjects within the curriculum for 12 to 14-year-olds is less than it is for 9 to 11-year-olds. Again, the greatest variation is evident in reading and writing with a range from 10% in the Netherlands to 29% in Ireland (reading and writing includes both in English and Irish).

Development of curriculum policies in different countries suggests that countries seek a balance between national standards and local autonomy in curriculum decisions.

The teaching of reading and writing, mathematics and science comprises almost half the compulsory instruction time for all students aged 9 to 11 years...

...and 41% for students aged 12 to 14 years.

Chart D1.2a. Intended instruction time for 9 to 11-year-olds in public institutions, by school subject (2002)
 Percentage of total intended instruction time devoted to various subject areas within the total compulsory curriculum and non-compulsory curriculum



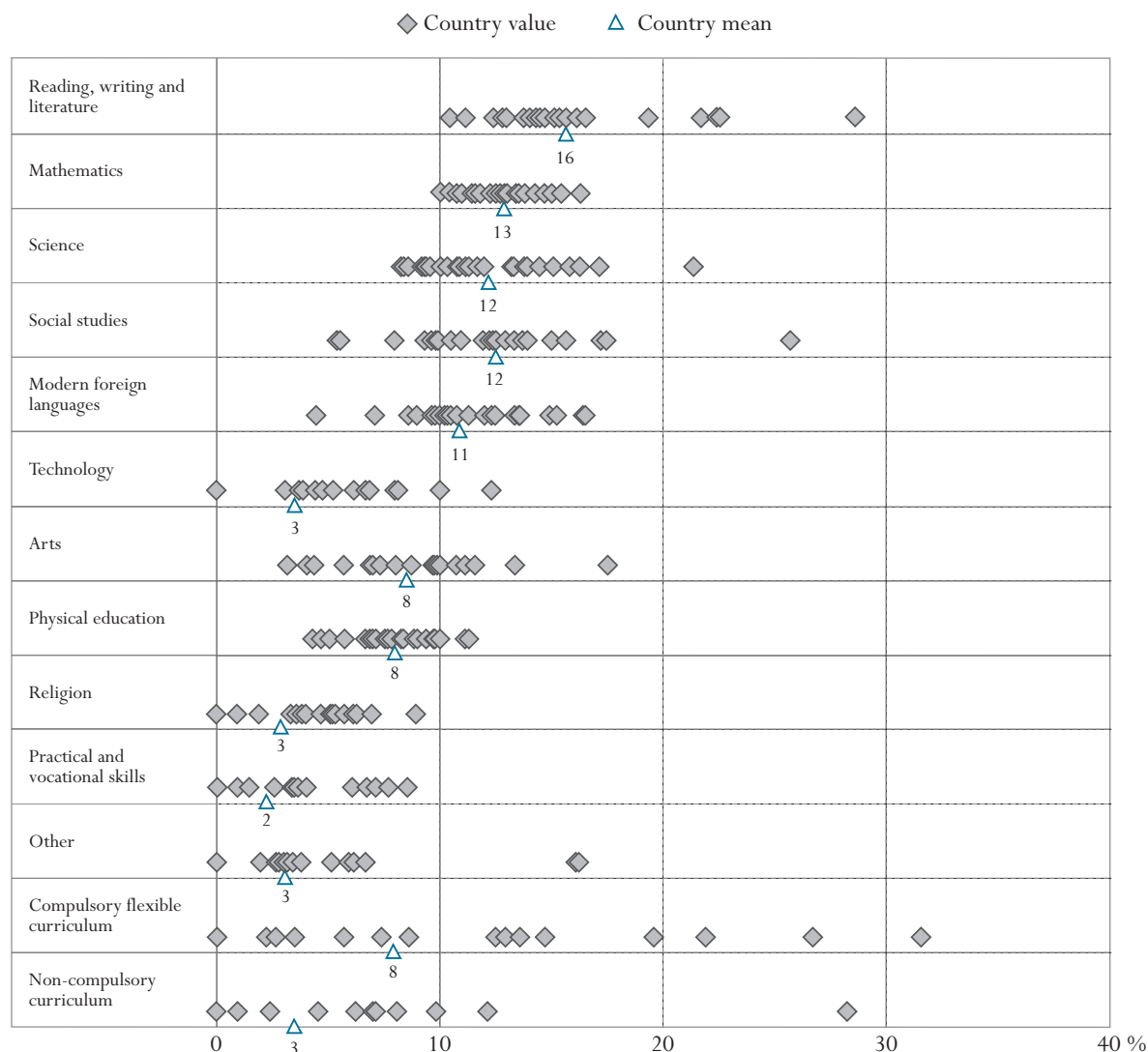
Source: OECD. Table D1.2a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

On average, the non-compulsory part of the curriculum accounts for 2% of total intended instruction time for the 9 to 11-year-olds and 3% for the 12 to 14-year-olds, but this varies greatly among countries.

On average, the non-compulsory part of the curriculum comprises 2% of the total intended instruction time for 9 to 11-year-old students and 3% for 12 to 14-year-old students. However, a considerable amount of additional non-compulsory instruction time can sometimes be provided. In primary schools, all intended instruction time is compulsory for students in most OECD countries, but the additional non-compulsory part is as high as 20% in Turkey, 15% in Hungary and 11% in the French Community of Belgium. In lower secondary education, non-compulsory instruction time is a feature in Australia, the French Community of Belgium, England, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, the Slovak

Chart D1.2b. Intended instruction time for 12 to 14-year-olds in public institutions, by school subject (2002)

Percentage of total intended instruction time devoted to various subject areas within the total compulsory curriculum and non-compulsory curriculum



Source: OECD. Table D1.2b. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

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Republic, Spain and Turkey, and ranges from 1% in Spain to 28% in Hungary (Tables D1.2a and D1.2b). On average, 4% of compulsory instruction time belongs to the flexible part of the curriculum in the grades where most students are 9 to 11 years of age while the corresponding proportion is 8% for students aged 12 to 14.

The curriculum in Ireland

The curriculum for students aged 12-15 years consists of compulsory subjects and approved subjects. The compulsory subjects for students attending secondary schools are Irish, English, mathematics, history, geography and civic, social and political education (CSPE). For students attending vocational schools or community colleges, history and geography are not compulsory. In place of these two subjects, students must take one of the following: technical graphics; art; craft and design; home economics or business studies. Students must also take at least two more subjects from the following list of approved subjects which includes all of the subjects above plus Latin, Greek, classical studies, Hebrew studies, Spanish, Italian, French, German, science, technology, music, materials technology (wood), metalwork, typewriting, environmental and social studies and religious education. In practice most schools offer, and most students take, three rather than two of the above listed approved subjects. From September 2003, all students in this age group must take social, personal and health education (SPHE) as a non-examinable subject. Physical education should also form part of the curriculum.

Because most students take science and at least one foreign language from the list of approved subjects, these two subjects have been entered in the data as compulsory subjects and the third subject taken by students has been entered under non-compulsory curriculum.

There are no regulations governing the precise amount of time to be spent each year on teaching the individual subjects in the curriculum.

In most OECD countries, the number of hours of compulsory instruction is defined. Within the compulsory part of the curriculum, students have varying degrees of freedom to choose the subjects they want to learn. However, for 9 to 11-year-olds, Australia stands out as operating 58% of the compulsory curriculum on a flexible basis. Scotland has the second highest degree of flexibility (20%). For 12 to 14-year-olds, Australia and Scotland again have the highest degree of flexibility in the compulsory curriculum (32% and 27% respectively), although several other countries allow more than 10% of flexibility in the compulsory curriculum (the French Community of Belgium, Finland, Iceland, Korea, the Netherlands, Portugal and Spain) (Tables D1.2a and D1.2b).

Definitions and methodologies

Instruction time for 7 to 15-year-olds refers to the formal number of 60-minute hours per school year organised by the school for class instructional activities for students in the reference school year 2001-2002. For countries with no formal policy on instruction time, the number of hours was estimated from survey data. Hours lost when schools are closed for festivities and celebrations, such as national holidays, are excluded. Intended instruction time does not include non-compulsory time outside the school day, homework, individual tutoring, or private study done before or after school.

Data on instruction time are from the 2003 OECD-INES Survey on Teachers and the Curriculum and refer to the school year 2001-2002.

- **Compulsory curriculum** refers to the amount and allocation of instruction time that almost every school must provide and almost all students must attend. The measurement of the time devoted to specific study areas (subjects) focuses on the minimum common core rather than on the average time spent on study areas, since the data sources (policy documents) do not allow more precise measurement. Total compulsory curriculum comprises the compulsory core curriculum as well as the compulsory flexible curriculum.
- The **compulsory core curriculum** refers to the set or groups of subjects (study areas) that are common to all students – such as mathematics, science, social studies, language of instruction and, in some cases, a foreign language – and which can be considered core study areas. Even if all students must study all core study areas, choices may be made within a study area. For example, there may be a choice between an integrated science subject and separate science subjects like biology or physics, or between foreign languages.
- **Compulsory flexible curriculum** refers to the part of the compulsory curriculum where there is flexibility in time spent on a subject and/or a choice can be made between study areas. For example, a school may be able to choose between offering religious education or more science, or art, but is required to offer one of these subjects within the compulsory time framework.
- The **non-compulsory part of the curriculum** refers to the average time of instruction to which students are entitled above the compulsory hours of instruction. These subjects often vary from school to school or from region to region, and may take the form of “non-compulsory elective” subjects.
- **Intended instruction time** refers to the number of hours per year during which students receive instruction in the compulsory and non-compulsory parts of the curriculum.

For 15-year-olds, typical instruction time refers to the programme in which most 15-year-olds are enrolled. This can be a programme in lower or upper secondary education, and in most countries it refers to a general programme. If the system channels students into different programme types at this age, an estimation of the average instruction time may have been necessary for the most important mainstream programmes weighted by the proportion of students in the grade level where most 15-year-olds are enrolled. Where vocational programmes are also calculated in typical instruction time, only the school-based part of the programme should be included in the calculations.

The instruction time for the least demanding programme refers to programmes stipulated for students who are least likely to continue studying beyond mandatory school age or beyond lower secondary education. Such programmes may or may not exist in a country depending on streaming and selection policies. In many countries students are offered the same amount of instruction time in all or most programmes, but there is flexibility in the choice of study areas or subjects. Often such choices have to be made quite early if programmes are long and differ substantially.

For the classification of subject areas and specific notes on countries, see www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004.

Table D1.1. Compulsory and non-compulsory instruction time in public institutions (2002)
Average number of hours per year of total compulsory and non-compulsory instruction time in the curriculum for 7 to 8, 9 to 11, 12 to 14 and 15-year-olds

OECD COUNTRIES	Age range at which over 90% of the population are enrolled	Average number of hours per year of total compulsory instruction time					Average number of hours per year of total intended instruction time				
		Ages 7-8	Ages 9-11	Ages 12-14	Age 15	Age 15	Ages 7-8	Ages 9-11	Ages 12-14	Age 15	Age 15
					(typical programme)	(minimum required programme)				(typical programme)	(minimum required programme)
Australia	5 - 16	993	994	974	964	964	993	994	1 019	1 021	1 021
Austria	5 - 16	678	833	997	1 095	1 048	m	m	m	m	m
Belgium (Fl.)	3 - 17	a	a	a	a	a	835	835	960	960	450
Belgium (Fr.)	3 - 17	840	840	960	1 020	m	930	930	1 020	m	m
Czech Republic	5 - 17	645	716	800	881	342	m	m	m	m	m
Denmark	4 - 15	615	750	800	720	720	615	750	800	720	720
England	4 - 15	861	889	870	893	a	890	890	940	940	a
Finland	6 - 17	530	654	796	858	a	530	673	815	858	a
France	3 - 17	829	829	939	1 018	m	829	829	1 031	1 122	m
Germany	6 - 17	626	774	877	899	m	626	774	877	899	m
Greece	6 - 16	864	928	1 064	1 216	1 034	864	928	1 064	1 459	1 277
Hungary	5 - 16	555	670	722	832	833	611	772	925	1 206	1 207
Iceland	3 - 16	700	778	848	863	a	700	778	848	863	a
Ireland	5 - 16	915	915	839	802	713	915	915	899	891	891
Italy ¹	3 - 15	969	1 020	1 020	m	m	969	1 020	1 020	m	m
Japan	4 - 17	709	761	875	m	a	709	761	875	m	a
Korea	6 - 17	612	703	867	1 020	a	612	703	867	1 020	a
Mexico	6 - 12	800	800	1 167	1 058	a	800	800	1 167	1 124	a
Netherlands	4 - 16	m	1 000	1 067	m	a	m	1 000	1 067	m	a
New Zealand	4 - 15	m	m	m	m	m	985	985	962	950	950
Norway	6 - 17	570	703	827	855	a	570	703	827	855	a
Portugal	5 - 15	870	865	899	827	1 233	870	882	899	827	1 233
Scotland	4 - 15	1 000	1 000	1 000	1 000	a	1 000	1 000	1 000	1 000	a
Slovak Republic	6 - 16	616	716	821	831	a	659	759	879	888	a
Spain	3 - 16	792	792	936	963	969	792	792	944	969	969
Sweden	6 - 18	741	741	741	741	a	741	741	741	741	a
Switzerland	6 - 16	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey	7 - 12	720	720	791	959	a	864	864	887	959	a
United States	5 - 15	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Country mean		752	816	900	923	873	788	843	933	965	969

1. Year of reference 2001. "Ages 12-14" covers ages 12 to 13 only.

 Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

**Table D1.2a. Instruction time per subject
as a percentage of total compulsory instruction time for 9 to 11-year-olds (2002)**
Percentage of intended instruction time devoted to various subject areas within the total compulsory curriculum

	Compulsory core curriculum											Total compulsory core curriculum	Com-pulsory flexible curriculum	Total compulsory curriculum	Non-compulsory curriculum		
	Reading, writing and literature	Mathe-matics	Science	Social studies	Modern foreign lan-guages	Techno-logy	Arts	Physical educa-tion	Religion	Practi-cal and voca-tional skills	Other						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)					(12)	(13)
OECD COUNTRIES																	
Australia ¹	13	9	3	3	2	3	4	4	1	n	n	42	58	100	n		
Austria	23	15	10	2	7	n	20	12	7	x(12)	2	100	x(12)	100	m		
Belgium (Fl.)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a		
Belgium (Fr.) ¹	x(11)	x(11)	x(11)	x(11)	5	x(11)	x(11)	7	7	x(11)	81	100	m	100	11		
Czech Republic ²	24	19	16	4	12	n	15	8	n	3	n	100	n	100	m		
Denmark	25	16	8	4	7	n	21	11	4	n	4	100	n	100	n		
England	28	23	10	8	n	9	9	7	5	n	n	100	n	100	n		
Finland	23	16	11	2	9	n	14	9	6	n	n	90	10	100	3		
France	28	20	5	10	9	3	8	15	n	n	n	100	n	100	n		
Germany	21	18	6	6	7	1	16	11	7	n	4	97	3	100	n		
Greece	29	14	11	11	10	n	8	7	7	n	2	100	n	100	n		
Hungary	26	18	6	6	7	n	13	11	n	6	7	100	n	100	15		
Iceland	16	15	8	8	4	6	12	9	3	5	3	89	11	100	n		
Ireland	30	12	12	4	n	n	12	4	10	n	17	100	n	100	n		
Italy	17	10	8	11	10	3	13	7	6	n	n	84	16	100	n		
Japan	23	17	10	10	n	5	14	10	n	n	10	100	n	100	n		
Korea	19	13	10	10	5	n	13	10	n	4	3	87	13	100	n		
Mexico	30	25	15	20	n	n	5	5	n	n	n	100	n	100	n		
Netherlands ³	30	19	x(4)	15	2	2	10	7	4	n	12	100	n	100	n		
New Zealand	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m		
Norway	22	15	7	8	6	n	16	7	9	n	9	100	n	100	n		
Portugal ⁴	12	12	9	9	11	12	6	9	n	n	17	97	3	100	3		
Scotland	20	15	5	5	x(1)	5	10	5	5	x(13)	10	80	20	100	n		
Slovak Republic	31	20	8	8	5	n	12	11	1	4	n	100	n	100	6		
Spain	21	17	9	9	12	n	12	11	x(13)	n	n	92	8	100	n		
Sweden	22	14	12	13	12	x(3)	7	8	x(4)	7	n	94	6	100	n		
Switzerland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m		
Turkey	19	13	10	10	9	n	7	6	7	10	1	91	9	100	20		
United States	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m		
Country mean⁴	24	16	9	8	6	2	12	9	4	2	4	96	4	100	2		
PARTNER COUNTRIES																	
Argentina ⁵	19	19	15	15	7	4	7	7	a	a	n	93	7	100	m		
Chile	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	75	25	100	m		
Egypt	30	15	9	6	9	2	5	7	7	5	5	100	a	100	m		
India	19	17	12	12	19	a	4	12	a	a	a	96	4	100	m		
Indonesia	22	22	13	11	a	a	5	5	5	13	5	100	a	100	m		
Jordan	23	15	12	8	15	a	3	a	9	5	9	100	a	100	m		
Malaysia ⁵	21	15	11	9	15	n	4	4	13	4	4	100	a	100	m		
Paraguay ⁵	26	13	8	10	x(1)	7	10	7	3	x(7)	10	93	7	100	m		
Peru ⁵	14	14	12	23	6	a	6	6	6	7	n	93	7	100	m		
Philippines	13	13	13	13	13	a	8	4	a	13	13	100	a	100	m		
Russian Federation	31	15	4	9	6	6	6	6	a	m	m	85	15	100	m		
Sri Lanka	13	20	20	10	13	5	5	5	5	5	n	100	n	100	m		
Thailand	14	10	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	23	39	86	14	100	m		
Tunisia	27	13	5	2	35	2	4	3	4	n	5	100	n	100	m		
Uruguay ⁵	24	23	12	17	a	a	8	3	a	a	a	86	14	100	m		
Zimbabwe	19	13	8	8	17	8	4	4	8	8	n	100	n	100	m		

Note: x indicates that data are included in another column. The column reference is shown in brackets after "x", e.g. x(2) means that data are included in column 2.

1. Australia and Belgium (Fr.) are not included in the country mean.

2. For 9 to 10-year-olds, social studies is included in science.

3. Includes 9 and 11-year-olds only.

4. Includes 10 to 11-year-olds only.

5. Year of reference 2001.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

**Table D1.2b. Instruction time per subject
as a percentage of total compulsory instruction time for 12 to 14-year-olds (2002)**
Percentage of intended instruction time devoted to various subject areas within the total compulsory curriculum

	Compulsory core curriculum											Total compulsory core curriculum	Compulsory flexible curriculum	Total compulsory curriculum	Non-compulsory curriculum		
	Reading, writing and literature	Mathematics	Science	Social studies	Modern foreign languages	Technology	Arts	Physical education	Religion	Practical and vocational skills	Other						
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)					(12)	(13)
OECD COUNTRIES																	
Australia	11	11	9	8	4	7	7	8	1	n	3	68	32	100	5		
Austria	12	15	14	12	10	n	18	11	6	n	n	100	x(12)	100	m		
Belgium (Fl.)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	
Belgium (Fr.) ¹	16	13	9	13	13	3	3	9	6	n	3	88	13	100	6		
Czech Republic	14	14	21	14	11	n	11	7	n	7	n	100	n	100	m		
Denmark	23	15	14	13	11	n	10	8	4	n	4	100	n	100	n		
England	14	13	14	14	10	12	10	8	5	n	n	100	n	100	8		
Finland	13	12	13	5	14	n	9	7	4	4	n	80	20	100	2		
France	17	15	12	13	12	6	7	11	n	n	n	93	7	100	10		
Germany	14	13	10	12	16	4	10	9	5	1	2	97	3	100	n		
Greece	12	11	10	10	15	5	6	8	6	1	16	100	n	100	n		
Hungary	13	13	13	15	9	4	12	9	n	8	5	100	n	100	28		
Iceland	14	14	8	6	17	4	7	8	2	4	3	85	15	100	n		
Ireland ²	29	13	11	16	7	x(15)	4	5	9	x(15)	6	100	n	100	7		
Italy ¹	22	10	10	15	10	10	13	7	3	n	n	100	n	100	n		
Japan	14	12	11	12	13	7	11	10	n	n	7	98	2	100	n		
Korea	14	12	11	10	10	4	7	9	n	3	6	85	15	100	n		
Mexico	14	14	17	26	9	n	6	6	n	9	n	100	n	100	n		
Netherlands	10	10	8	11	14	5	7	9	n	3	n	78	22	100	n		
New Zealand	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Norway	16	13	9	11	10	n	8	10	7	n	16	100	n	100	n		
Portugal	13	13	15	17	10	n	10	10	n	n	n	87	13	100	n		
Scotland	19	10	9	9	x(1)	8	8	5	5	x(13)	n	73	27	100	n		
Slovak Republic	15	16	16	17	10	n	7	7	3	3	n	97	3	100	7		
Spain	15	11	11	10	10	8	11	7	x(13)	x(13)	3	86	14	100	1		
Sweden	22	14	12	13	12	x(3)	7	8	x(4)	7	n	94	6	100	n		
Switzerland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Turkey	15	14	16	10	15	n	4	4	5	6	3	91	9	100	12		
United States	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Country mean	16	13	12	12	11	3	8	8	3	2	3	92	8	100	3		
PARTNER COUNTRIES																	
Argentina ³	13	13	13	15	8	8	8	8	a	a	5	90	10	100	m		
Chile	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	79	21	100	m		
Egypt	24	13	11	8	13	5	5	5	5	5	4	100	a	100	m		
India	11	15	15	13	13	a	4	13	a	a	a	83	17	100	m		
Indonesia	16	16	14	13	6	a	5	5	5	15	5	100	a	100	m		
Jordan	20	12	8	8	15	5	3	2	8	6	12	100	a	100	m		
Malaysia ³	13	11	11	13	11	n	4	4	9	9	13	100	a	100	m		
Paraguay ³	20	12	14	13	x(1)	12	10	5	2	x(7)	7	95	5	100	m		
Peru ³	14	14	12	23	6	a	6	6	6	7	n	93	7	100	m		
Philippines	9	9	9	9	9	18	6	3	a	a	9	82	18	100	m		
Russian Federation	23	13	14	13	8	6	4	5	a	a	m	87	13	100	m		
Sri Lanka	13	20	20	10	13	5	5	5	5	5	n	100	n	100	m		
Thailand	11	6	9	11	m	m	3	9	m	6	14	69	31	100	m		
Tunisia	17	14	5	5	23	7	7	10	5	n	7	100	n	100	m		
Uruguay ³	13	13	16	16	12	9	11	5	a	a	5	100	n	100	m		
Zimbabwe	13	11	11	8	13	11	10	5	7	11	n	100	n	100	m		

Note: x indicates that data are included in another column. The column reference is shown in brackets after "x", e.g. x(2) means that data are included in column 2.

1. Includes 12 to 13-year-olds only.

2. For 13 to 14-year-olds, arts is included in non-compulsory curriculum.

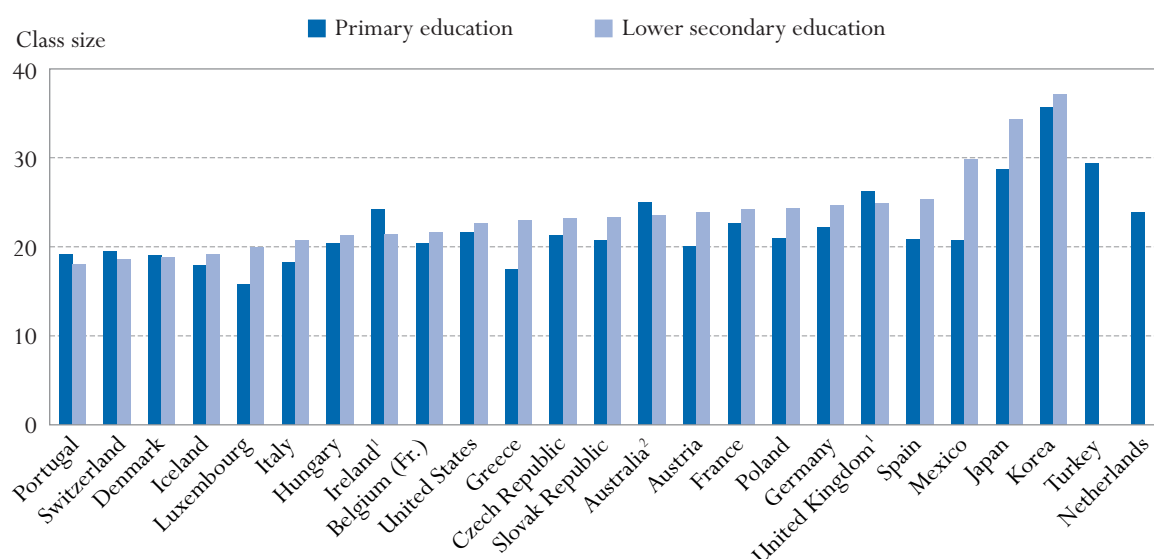
3. Year of reference 2001.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

INDICATOR D2: CLASS SIZE AND RATIO OF STUDENTS TO TEACHING STAFF

- The average class size in primary education is 22, but varies between countries from 36 students per class in Korea to less than half of that number in Greece, Iceland and Luxembourg.
- The number of students per class increases by an average of two students between primary and lower secondary education, but ratios of students to teaching staff tend to decrease with increasing levels of education due to more annual instruction time.
- Teaching and non-teaching staff employed in primary and secondary schools ranges from less than 81 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in Japan, Korea and Mexico to 119 persons or more per 1 000 students in France, Hungary, Iceland, Italy and the United States.

Chart D2.1. Average class size in educational institutions, by level of education (2002)



1. Public institutions only.

2. Year of reference 2001.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of average class size in lower secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table D2.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004).

Policy context

This indicator shows class sizes...

Class sizes are widely debated in many OECD countries. Smaller classes are valued because they may allow students to receive more individual attention from their teachers and reduce the disadvantage of managing large numbers of students and their work. However the predominance of teacher costs in educational expenditure means that reducing class sizes leads to sharp increases in the costs of education. Smaller class sizes may also influence parents when they choose schools for their children. In this respect class size is considered as a way to assess the quality of the school system.

School quality is also influenced by other factors, including the number of classes or students for which a teacher is responsible, the subject taught, the division of the teacher's time between teaching and other duties, the grouping of students within classes and the practice of team-teaching. The number of students per class summarises different quality factors, but distinguishing between them would allow to understand differences between countries in the quality of the educational system (Box D2.1).

Box D2.1 Relationship between class size and ratio of students to teaching staff

The number of students per class results from different elements: the number of students compared to the number of teachers, the number of classes or students for which a teacher is responsible, the instruction time of students compared to the length of teachers' working days, the proportion of time teachers spend teaching, the grouping of students within classes and team teaching. The first element can be summarised by the number of full-time equivalent students compared to the number of full-time equivalent teachers, that is to say the ratio of students to teaching staff.

For example, in a school of 48 full-time students and 8 full-time teachers, the ratio of students to teaching staff equals 6. If teachers' working week is estimated to be 35 hours including 10 hours teaching, and if instruction time for each student is 40 hours per week, then whatever the grouping of students in this school, average class size can be estimated as follows:

Estimated class size = 6 students per teacher * (40 hours of instruction time per student / 10 hours of teaching per teacher) = 24 students.

Compared to this estimated figure, class size presented in Table D2.1 is defined as the division of students who are following a common course of study, based on the highest number of common courses (usually compulsory studies), and excludes teaching in sub-groups. Thus the estimated class size will be close to the average class size of Table D2.1 where teaching in sub-groups is less frequent (as is the case in primary and lower secondary education).

Because of these definitions, similar students-to-teacher ratios between countries can lead to different class sizes. For example, in primary education, Japan and the Slovak Republic have the same ratios of students to teaching staff (20.3 and 20.1) and yet the class size is notably larger in Japan than in the Slovak Republic (28.8 compared with 20.8 – see Table D2.1). Even allowing for some differences in coverage between the indicators, the explanation for this lies in the smaller proportion of time teachers spend teaching in Japan compared with the Slovak Republic: teachers spend 31.8% of their working time teaching in Japan compared with 47.9% in the Slovak Republic (see Indicator D4).

Determining the ratio of students to teaching staff aims to assess the quality of educational systems, on the assumption that a smaller ratio of students to teaching staff means better student access to teaching resources. This ratio is obtained by dividing the number of full-time equivalent “students” at a given level of education by the number of full-time equivalent “teachers” at that level and in similar types of institutions. However, this ratio does not take into account instruction time compared to the length of a teacher’s working day, nor how much time teachers spend teaching, and therefore it cannot be interpreted in terms of class size.

...ratios of students to teaching staff...

The ratio of students to teaching staff is also an important indicator of the resources devoted to education. A smaller ratio of students to teaching staff may have to be weighed against higher salaries for teachers, greater investment in teaching technology, or more widespread use of assistant teachers and other paraprofessionals whose salaries are often considerably lower than those of qualified teachers. Moreover, as larger numbers of children with special educational needs are integrated into normal classes, more use of specialised personnel and support services may limit the resources available for reducing the ratio of students to teaching staff.

The number of teaching and non-teaching staff employed in education per 1 000 students is an indicator of the proportion of a country’s human resources devoted to educating the population. The number of persons employed as either teachers or educational support personnel, and the level of compensation of educational staff (Indicator D3), are both important factors affecting the financial resources that countries commit to education.

...and the proportion of teaching and non-teaching staff employed in education.

Evidence and explanations

Average class size in primary and lower secondary education

At the primary level, the average class size across OECD countries is 22 students per class, but varies widely among countries. It ranges from 36 students per primary class in Korea to fewer than 20 in Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal and Switzerland. At the lower secondary level, the average class size across OECD countries is 24 students per class and varies from 37 students per class in Korea to fewer than 20 in Denmark, Iceland, Luxembourg, Portugal and Switzerland (Table D2.1).

The average class size in primary education is 22, but varies among countries from 36 students per class to less than half of that.

The number of students per class tends to increase, on average, by two students between primary and lower secondary education. In Greece, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico and Spain, the increase in average class size exceeds four students, while Australia, Denmark, Ireland, Portugal and Switzerland show a drop in the number of students per class between these two levels (Chart D2.1). The indicator on class size is limited to primary and lower secondary education because class sizes are difficult to define and compare at higher levels of education, where students often attend several different classes, depending on the subject area.

The number of students per class increases by an average of two students between primary and lower secondary education.

D2

Public institutions at the primary level have at least four students more per class than private institutions in the Czech Republic, Poland and Turkey.

There are some large differences in primary class sizes between public and private institutions within countries, but the differences are in both directions. Average class sizes at the primary level are more than four pupils per class higher in public institutions than in private institutions in the Czech Republic, Poland and Turkey, whereas the opposite is true in Greece, Japan, Portugal and Spain. Differences tend to be smaller at the lower secondary level, where private education is in fact more prevalent, and again the picture is a mixed one. There are on average four more students per class in public institutions than in private institutions in the United States but conversely, three students per class fewer in public institutions compared with private institutions in Greece and Spain (Table D2.1).

Ratio of students to teaching staff

In Korea, Mexico and Turkey, the ratio of students to teaching staff in primary education is approximately three times as high as it is in Hungary and Italy.

In primary education, the ratio of students to teaching staff, expressed in full-time equivalents, ranges from around 30 students per teacher in Korea, Mexico and Turkey to less than 11 in Hungary and Italy. The country mean in primary education is 17 students per teacher.

There is similar variation among countries in the ratio of students to teaching staff at the secondary level, ranging from about 29 students per full-time equivalent teacher in Mexico to less than 10 in Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal. On average among countries, the ratio of students to teaching staff at the secondary level of education is around 14, which is close to the ratios in the Czech Republic (14), Finland (13), Germany (15), Japan (15), Poland (14), the Slovak Republic (14), Sweden (13) and the United Kingdom (15) (Table D2.2).

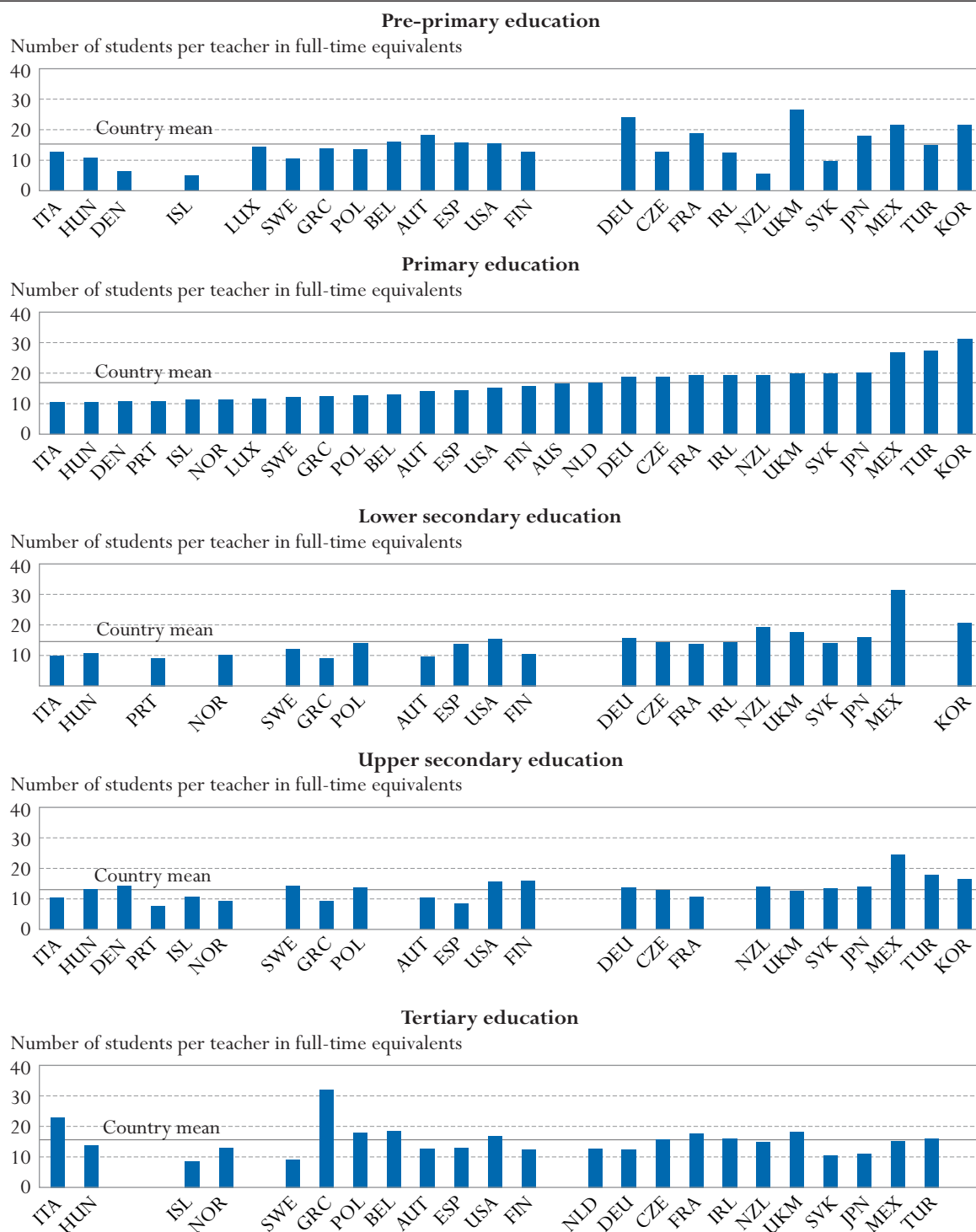
The ratio of students to teaching staff (expressed in full-time equivalents) varies also by type of institution. At the upper secondary level, among the 21 countries with comparable data, there are on average two students more per teacher in public institutions than in private institutions (Chart D2.3). However, in Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Iceland, Japan, Korea and Spain, private institutions have more students per teacher than public institutions (at least two students more except in Austria). On the contrary, in Italy, Mexico, Turkey and the United Kingdom public institutions have at least five students more per teacher than in private institutions.

Between primary and secondary education, there are fewer students per teacher as the level of education rises.

As the difference in the mean ratios of students to teaching staff between primary and secondary education indicates, there are fewer full-time equivalent students per full-time equivalent teacher as the level of education rises. With the exception of Hungary, Mexico, Poland, Sweden and the United States, the ratio of students to teaching staff in every OECD country decreases between primary and secondary levels of education, despite a tendency for class sizes to increase. This is mostly because instruction time tends to increase with the level of education.

In France, Korea and Turkey, the decrease in the ratio of students to teaching staff from the primary to the secondary level is between 7 and 13 full-time equivalent students per full-time equivalent teacher, which is more marked

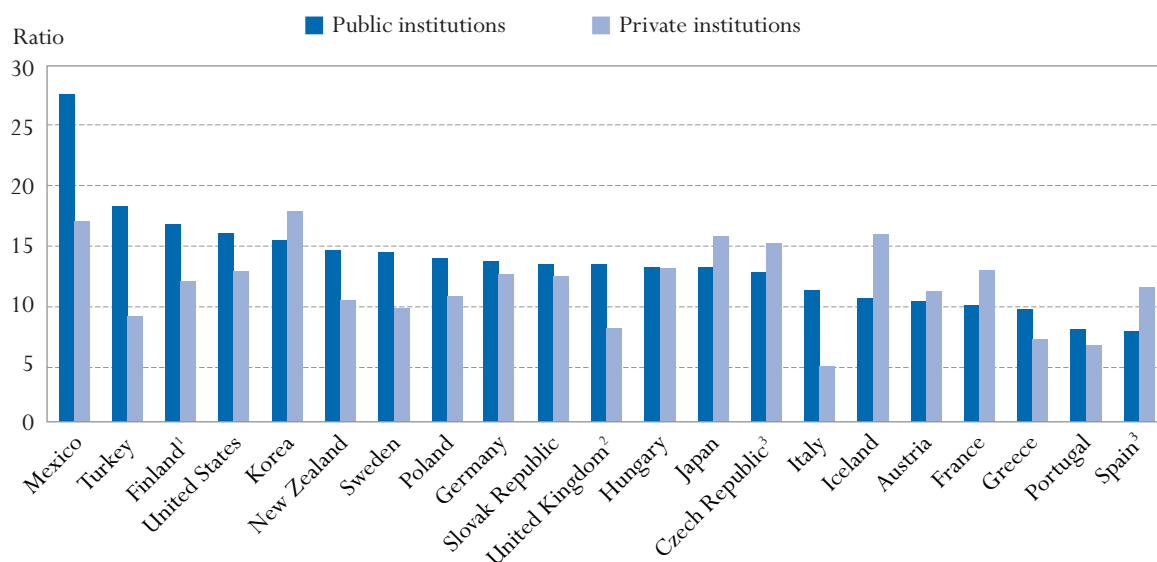
Chart D2.2. Ratio of students to teaching staff in educational institutions, by level of education (2002)



Note: Please refer to the Reader's Guide for list of country codes and country names used in this chart.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of number of students per teacher in primary education.

Source: OECD, Table D2.2. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Chart D2.3. Ratio of students to teaching staff in upper secondary education, by type of institution (2002)


1. Includes programmes from post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary-types A and B education.

2. Includes only general programmes in lower and upper secondary education.

3. Includes post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the ratio of students to teaching staff in public institutions.

Source: OECD, Table D2.2. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

than in other countries. In France and Korea, this mainly reflects differences in the annual instruction time, but it may also result from delays in matching the teaching force to demographic changes, or from differences in teaching hours for teachers at different levels of education. The general trend is consistent among countries, but it is not obvious from an educational perspective why a smaller ratio of students to teaching staff should be more desirable at higher levels of education (Table D2.2).

In general, the ratio of students to teaching staff at the tertiary level tends to be higher than that in secondary education.

At the tertiary level of education, the ratio of students to teaching staff ranges from about 32 students per teacher in Greece to 11 or below in Iceland, Japan, the Slovak Republic and Sweden (Table D2.2). Such comparisons in tertiary education, however, should be made with caution since it is still difficult to calculate full-time equivalent students and teachers on a comparable basis at this level.

In 11 out of the 14 countries for which data are available for both tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes and tertiary-type B education, the ratio of students to teaching staff is lower in the generally more occupationally specific tertiary-type B programmes than in tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes (Table D2.2). The Czech Republic, Germany and Turkey are the only countries with a higher ratio in tertiary-type B programmes, and in the case of Turkey, this is particularly marked.

The ratio of students to teaching staff in pre-primary education tends to be lower than in primary education, but slightly higher than in secondary education. In pre-primary education, the ratio ranges from fewer than six students per teacher in Iceland and New Zealand to 21 students or more per teacher in Germany, Korea, Mexico and the United Kingdom. There is little apparent relationship between the ratio of students to teaching staff in pre-primary and primary education, suggesting that the staffing requirements or emphases at these levels differ within countries (Table D2.2).

Teaching staff and non-teaching staff employed in education

The variation among countries in the relative size of the teaching force cannot be explained solely by differences in the size of the school-age population, but is also affected by the average class size, the total instruction time of students (Indicator D1), teachers' average working time (Indicator D4) and the division of teachers' time between teaching and other duties.

There are significant differences among OECD countries in the distribution of educational staff between teaching and other categories, reflecting differences among countries in the organisation and management of schooling. Teaching and non-teaching staff employed in primary and secondary schools ranges from less than 81 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in Japan, Korea and Mexico to 119 persons or more per 1 000 students in France, Hungary, Iceland, Italy and the United States (Chart D2.4).

Among the 10 OECD countries for which data are available for each category of personnel employed in education, the staff not classified as instructional personnel represent on average more than 30% of the total teaching and non-teaching staff in primary and secondary schools. In five of these countries, these staff represent between 30 and 40% of total teaching and non-teaching staff. This proportion exceeds 40% in the Czech Republic and France and is lowest in Korea at 19%. Compared to the number of students enrolled in primary and secondary schools, non-teaching staff employed in education represents more than 40 persons per 1 000 students in the Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Iceland, Italy and the United States (Table D2.3 and Chart D2.4).

These differences reflect the numbers of staff that countries employ in non-teaching capacities, *e.g.*, principals without teaching responsibilities, guidance counsellors, school nurses, librarians, researchers without teaching responsibilities, bus drivers, janitors and maintenance workers, and also administrative and management personnel both inside and outside the school. In Hungary, Iceland, Italy and the United States, maintenance and operations personnel working in primary and secondary schools represent more than 20 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in these schools. Administrative personnel represent between 8 and 12 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in primary and secondary schools in Italy, Mexico and the United States and 18 or more persons per 1 000 students in the Czech Republic, whereas the staff employed in school and higher level management exceed 6 persons per 1 000 students in the Czech Republic, France, Iceland and the Slovak Republic, 10 persons in Norway and

The ratio of students to teaching staff in pre-primary education tends to be between that in primary and secondary education.

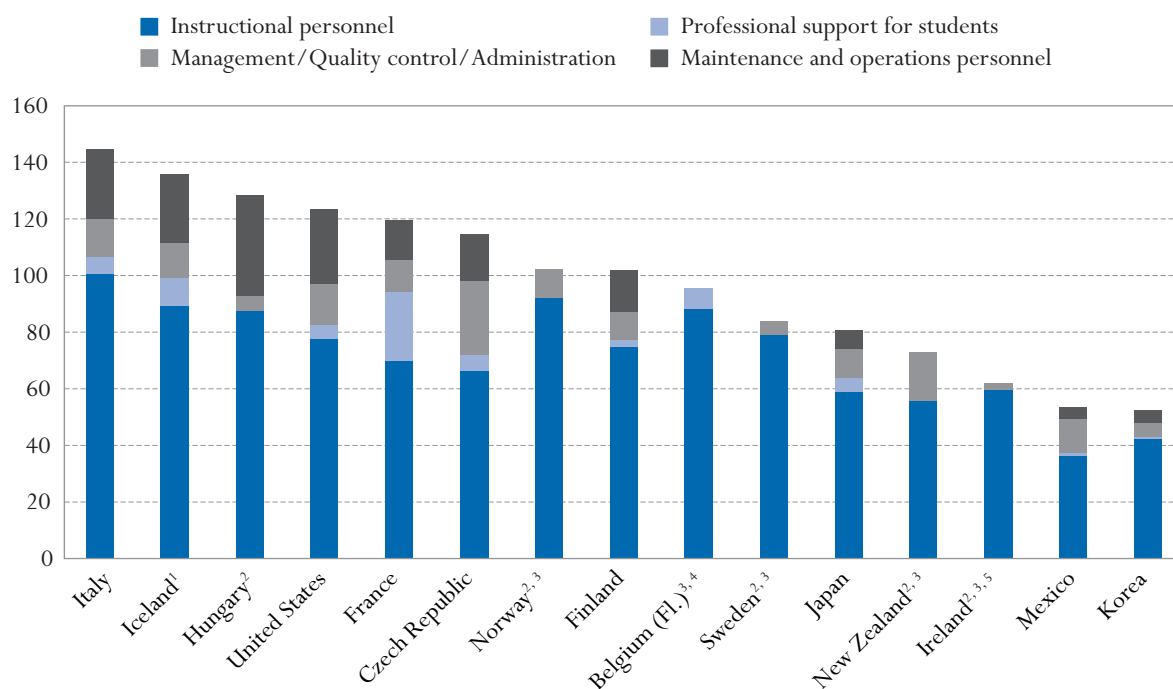
Average class sizes, total instruction time and teachers' working time contribute to country variation.

The relative proportions of teachers and other educational personnel differ widely from one country to another.

Non-teaching staff represent on average more than 30% of the total teaching and non-teaching staff in primary and secondary schools.

Chart D2.4. Teaching staff and non-teaching staff in primary and secondary schools (2002)

Teaching staff and non-teaching staff in primary and secondary schools per 1 000 students, based on full-time equivalents



1. Data on higher-level management and administrative personnel are missing.
 2. Data on professional support for students are missing.
 3. Data on maintenance and operations personnel are missing.
 4. Data on management/quality control/administration personnel are missing.
 5. Includes post-secondary non-tertiary education.
- Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of teaching staff and non-teaching staff per 1 000 students.
 Source: OECD, Table D2.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

16 persons in New Zealand (Table D2.3). Finally, the staff employed to provide professional support for students are relatively numerous in France (more than 24 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in primary and secondary schools) and to a lesser extent in Iceland (about 10 persons per 1 000 students enrolled in both primary and secondary schools).

Definitions and methodologies

Class sizes have been calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled by the number of classes. In order to ensure comparability among countries, special needs programmes have been excluded. Data include only regular programmes at primary and lower secondary levels of education and exclude teaching in sub-groups outside the regular classroom setting.

The ratio of students to teaching staff has been calculated by dividing the number of full-time equivalent “students” at a given level of education by the number of full-time equivalent “teachers” at that level and in the specified type of institution.

The breakdown of the ratio of students to teaching staff by type of institution distinguishes between students and teachers in public institutions and in pri-

Data refer to the school year 2001–2002, and are based on the VOE data collection on education statistics that is administered annually by the OECD.

vate institutions (government-dependent private institutions and independent private institutions). In some countries the proportion of students in private institutions is small (see Table C2.4).

Instructional personnel comprises:

- *Teaching staff* refers to professional personnel directly involved in teaching students. The classification includes classroom teachers; special education teachers; and other teachers who work with a whole class of students in a classroom, in small groups in a resource room, or in one-to-one teaching situations inside or outside a regular classroom. Teaching staff also includes department chairpersons whose duties include some teaching, but excludes non-professional personnel who support teachers in providing instruction to students, such as teachers' aides and other paraprofessional personnel.
- *Teachers' aides and teaching/research assistants* include non-professional personnel or students who support teachers in providing instruction to students. This type of personnel is not included in Tables D2.1 and D2.2.

Non-instructional personnel comprises four categories:

- *Professional support for students* includes professional staff who provide services to students that support their learning. In many cases, these staff originally qualified as teachers but then moved into other professional positions within the education system. This category also includes all personnel employed in education systems who provide health and social support services to students, such as guidance counsellors, librarians, doctors, dentists, nurses, psychiatrists and psychologists and other staff with similar responsibilities.
- *School and higher level management* includes professional personnel who are responsible for school management and administration and personnel whose primary responsibility is the quality control and management of higher levels of the education system. This category covers principals, assistant principals, headmasters, assistant headmasters, superintendents of schools, associate and assistant superintendents, commissioners of education and other management staff with similar responsibilities.
- *School and higher level administrative personnel* includes all personnel who support the administration and management of schools and of higher levels of the education system. The category includes: receptionists, secretaries, typists and word processing staff, book-keepers and clerks, analysts, computer programmers, network administrators, and others with similar functions and responsibilities.
- *Maintenance and operations personnel* includes personnel who support the maintenance and operation of schools, the transportation of students to and from school, school security and catering. This category includes the following types of personnel: masons, carpenters, electricians, maintenance repairers, painters and paperhangers, plasterers, plumbers and vehicle mechanics. It also includes bus drivers and other vehicle operators, construction workers, gardeners and grounds staff, bus monitors and crossing guards, cooks, custodians, food servers and others with similar functions.

Table D2.1. Average class size, by type of institution and level of education (2002)
Calculations based on number of students and number of classes

	Primary education				Lower secondary education (general programmes)			
	Public institutions	Government-dependent private institutions	Independent private institutions	TOTAL: public and private institutions	Public institutions	Government-dependent private institutions	Independent private institutions	TOTAL: public and private institutions
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
OECD COUNTRIES								
Australia ¹	24.9	25.9	a	25.0	23.6	22.2	a	23.5
Austria	20.0	21.2	m	20.1	23.8	24.8	x(6)	23.9
Belgium	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Belgium (Fr.)	20.0	21.0	a	20.4	21.1	21.9	a	21.6
Canada	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	21.3	16.8	a	21.3	23.3	20.9	a	23.3
Denmark	19.4	16.7	a	19.1	19.1	17.5	a	18.8
Finland	m	m	a	m	m	m	a	m
France	22.3	23.9	n	22.6	24.1	25.0	13.1	24.3
Germany	22.2	23.7	x(2)	22.2	24.6	26.0	x(6)	24.7
Greece	17.2	a	21.5	17.5	22.9	a	26.0	23.0
Hungary	20.5	19.5	a	20.4	21.2	21.7	a	21.3
Iceland	17.9	18.8	n	17.9	19.2	17.7	n	19.1
Ireland	24.2	m	m	m	21.4	m	m	m
Italy	18.1	a	20.1	18.3	20.7	a	21.4	20.8
Japan	28.7	a	34.3	28.8	34.2	a	36.7	34.3
Korea	35.7	a	34.8	35.7	37.3	36.5	a	37.1
Luxembourg	15.6	21.3	17.6	15.7	19.9	20.5	18.8	19.9
Mexico	20.6	a	23.8	20.8	29.9	a	28.7	29.8
Netherlands	x(4)	x(4)	x(4)	23.9	m	m	m	m
New Zealand	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Norway	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Poland	21.1	12.4	12.1	20.9	24.5	24.6	14.1	24.3
Portugal	18.7	a	23.0	19.1	18.0	a	18.2	18.1
Slovak Republic	20.8	20.3	a	20.8	23.3	23.8	a	23.3
Spain	19.4	24.9	22.5	20.9	24.4	28.2	23.5	25.4
Sweden	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Switzerland	19.7	14.9	16.6	19.6	18.7	18.5	16.2	18.6
Turkey	29.6	a	20.2	29.4	a	a	a	a
United Kingdom	26.0	a	m	m	24.7	m	m	m
United States	22.0	a	19.6	21.7	23.2	a	18.8	22.6
Country mean	21.9	20.1	22.2	21.8	23.6	23.3	21.4	23.7
PARTNER COUNTRIES								
Brazil ¹	27.2	a	18.6	26.1	34.7	a	27.0	33.7
Chile	32.8	36.0	24.0	32.9	32.3	35.5	25.3	32.6
Egypt	41.5	36.7	35.6	40.9	44.3	41.0	32.0	43.5
India	x(4)	x(4)	x(4)	40.0	x(8)	x(8)	x(8)	40.0
Israel	25.6	a	a	25.6	31.0	a	a	31.0
Jamaica	34.3	m	m	m	32.4	m	m	m
Jordan	28.8	a	27.8	28.5	30.7	a	30.2	30.6
Malaysia ¹	32.9	a	a	32.9	37.1	a	a	37.1
Paraguay ¹	18.1	22.1	16.7	18.3	27.7	27.5	19.4	26.3
Peru ¹	19.5	30.5	17.0	19.5	35.2	37.9	23.2	33.3
Philippines	40.3	a	32.4	39.7	53.7	a	44.9	51.6
Russian Federation	16.1	a	9.8	16.1	20.7	a	10.7	20.6
Sri Lanka	26.2	m	n	m	29.8	m	n	m
Thailand	23.2	52.1	a	25.1	36.6	32.7	a	36.3
Tunisia	28.3	a	25.1	28.2	33.5	a	19.8	33.1
Uruguay ¹	19.1	a	m	m	29.5	a	26.4	29.0

Note: x indicates that data are included in another column. The column reference is shown in brackets after "x", e.g. x(2) means that data are included in column 2.

1. Year of reference 2001.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D2.2. Ratio of students to teaching staff in educational institutions (2002)

By level of education, calculations based on full-time equivalents

	Pre-primary education	Primary education	Secondary education			Post secondary non-tertiary education	Tertiary education		
			Lower secondary	Upper secondary	All secondary		Type B	Type A and advanced research programmes	All
			(1)	(2)	(3)		(4)	(5)	(6)
OECD COUNTRIES									
Australia ¹	m	16.9	x(5)	x(5)	12.5	m	m	16.2	m
Austria	18.2	14.4	9.8	10.3	10.0	10.2	7.7	13.7	13.0
Belgium	16.3	13.1	x(5)	x(5)	9.3	x(5)	x(9)	x(9)	18.7
Canada	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	12.9	18.9	14.4	12.9	13.6	x(4)	16.3	16.0	16.1
Denmark	6.6	10.9	x(2)	14.2	m	m	m	m	m
Finland	12.7	15.8	10.6	16.0	13.4	x(4)	x(4)	12.6	12.6
France	19.0	19.4	13.7	10.6	12.2	a	14.1	18.7	17.9
Germany	24.2	18.9	15.7	13.6	15.1	14.8	16.1	12.1	12.6
Greece	13.9	12.5	9.3	9.3	9.3	8.0	24.9	37.5	32.2
Hungary	10.9	10.8	10.7	13.1	11.7	10.4	x(9)	x(9)	13.8
Iceland	5.2	11.4	x(2)	10.6	m	x(5,9)	2.0	9.1	8.7
Ireland	13.5	19.5	14.3	x(3)	x(3)	x(3)	15.6	16.7	16.3
Italy	12.8	10.6	9.9	10.3	10.2	m	7.7	23.7	23.1
Japan	18.1	20.3	16.2	13.7	14.8	x(4,9)	8.4	12.6	11.2
Korea	21.7	31.4	20.7	16.5	18.4	a	m	m	m
Luxembourg ²	14.5	11.6	x(5)	x(5)	9.0	m	m	m	m
Mexico	21.6	26.9	31.5	24.3	28.8	a	x(9)	x(9)	15.3
Netherlands	x(2)	17.0	x(5)	x(5)	15.9	x(5)	x(9)	x(9)	13.0
New Zealand	5.6	19.6	19.4	13.8	16.6	13.0	12.1	16.1	15.0
Norway ²	m	11.5	10.3	9.2	10.4	x(4)	x(9)	x(9)	13.2
Poland	13.5	12.8	14.1	13.7	13.9	12.0	11.5	18.1	18.0
Portugal	m	11.0	9.3	7.5	8.3	m	m	m	m
Slovak Republic	9.8	20.1	14.0	13.3	13.7	9.6	10.1	10.5	10.5
Spain	15.8	14.6	13.7	8.3	11.2	x(5)	7.9	14.6	13.0
Sweden	10.7	12.5	12.2	14.1	13.2	m	x(9)	x(9)	9.1
Switzerland ²	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey	14.9	27.5	a	17.7	17.7	a	47.0	13.6	16.2
United Kingdom ¹	26.6	19.9	17.6	12.5	14.8	m	x(9)	x(9)	18.3
United States	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.6	15.5	a	x(9)	x(9)	17.1
Country mean	14.8	16.6	14.4	13.1	13.6	11.1	14.4	16.4	15.4
PARTNER COUNTRIES									
Argentina ³	25.2	19.9	23.5	17.8	21.0	a	28.4	11.0	13.3
Brazil ³	18.6	23.0	18.6	15.8	17.5	a	x(9)	x(9)	14.9
Chile	27.2	33.1	32.9	31.5	32.1	a	m	m	m
China	30.2	20.4	18.5	16.1	17.3	m	m	17.3	m
India	41.2	40.2	35.8	28.5	32.4	40.6	29.5	22.6	22.7
Indonesia	19.5	24.3	18.0	17.3	17.7	a	x(9)	x(9)	16.1
Israel	m	20.3	13.0	14.0	13.6	m	m	m	m
Jamaica	23.5	32.2	x(5)	x(5)	20.2	m	16.5	11.7	14.2
Jordan	21.0	20.0	x(2)	16.0	48.5	a	m	m	m
Malaysia ³	21.9	19.1	x(5)	x(5)	17.2	27.1	20.6	m	18.5
Paraguay ³	x(2)	18.9	14.4	18.1	15.6	m	16.4	m	m
Peru ³	38.1	29.3	x(5)	x(5)	20.3	31.3	20.4	m	m
Philippines	30.0	35.4	45.3	23.2	38.3	64.8	x(9)	22.7	24.9
Russian Federation	7.0	17.1	x(5)	x(5)	11.3	m	m	m	m
Thailand	30.2	19.1	23.4	25.1	24.3	a	29.5	m	34.9
Tunisia	m	a	x(5)	x(5)	21.7	m	x(9)	x(9)	m
Uruguay ³	28.2	20.8	11.3	20.6	14.1	a	x(9)	x(9)	8.3
Zimbabwe	m	39.4	x(5)	x(5)	39.2	m	m	m	m

Note: x indicates that data are included in another column. The column reference is shown in brackets after "x", e.g. x(2) means that data are included in column 2.

1. Includes only general programmes in lower and upper secondary education.

2. Public institutions only.

3. Year of reference 2001.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D2.3. Teaching staff and non-teaching staff employed in educational institutions (2002)
Teaching staff and non-teaching staff in primary and secondary schools per 1 000 students, calculations based on full-time equivalents

	Instructional personnel		Professional support for students	Management/Quality Control/Administration		Maintenance and operations personnel	TOTAL teaching and non-teaching staff
	Classroom teachers, academic staff and other teachers	Teacher aides and teaching/research assistants		School and higher-level management	School and higher-level administrative personnel		
OECD COUNTRIES							
Australia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Austria	88.7	m	m	5.4	m	m	m
Belgium	93.4	m	m	m	m	m	m
Belgium (Fl.)	88.3	a	7.3	m	m	m	m
Canada	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	66.4	0.2	5.7	7.1	18.9	16.5	114.8
Denmark	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Finland	69.6	5.2	2.7	2.4	7.2	14.9	102.1
France	70.1	m	24.4	7.3	4.0	13.9	119.7
Germany	62.0	m	m	m	m	m	m
Greece	94.6	m	m	m	m	m	m
Hungary	87.6	m	x(1 or 5)	x(1 or 5)	5.4	35.3	128.3
Iceland ¹	89.7	n	9.7	8.1	4.4	24.2	136.0
Ireland ²	59.5	m	m	1.9	m	m	m
Italy	96.8	3.7	6.3	1.8	11.6	24.7	144.8
Japan	59.0	m	5.1	5.3	4.8	6.4	80.6
Korea	42.4	m	0.8	2.6	2.3	4.4	52.5
Luxembourg	97.9	a	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	36.2	0.3	1.1	3.4	8.6	4.1	53.7
Netherlands	60.6	m	m	m	m	m	m
New Zealand	56.0	m	m	16.0	1.3	m	m
Norway	92.3	m	m	10.2	m	m	m
Poland	74.8	a	m	m	m	m	m
Portugal	105.1	m	m	m	m	m	m
Slovak Republic	66.0	m	m	6.5	m	m	m
Spain ²	79.6	m	m	m	m	m	m
Sweden	77.9	1.2	m	4.8	m	m	m
Switzerland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey	40.5	m	m	m	m	m	m
United Kingdom	49.7	m	m	m	m	m	m
United States	64.6	13.4	4.6	3.7	10.9	26.3	123.5
<i>Country mean</i>	<i>72.9</i>	<i>4.0</i>	<i>6.8</i>	<i>5.8</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>17.1</i>	<i>105.6</i>

Note: x indicates that data are included in another column. The column reference is shown in brackets after "x", e.g. x(2) means that data are included in column 2.

1. Data on higher-level management and administrative personnel are missing.

2. Includes post-secondary non-tertiary staff.

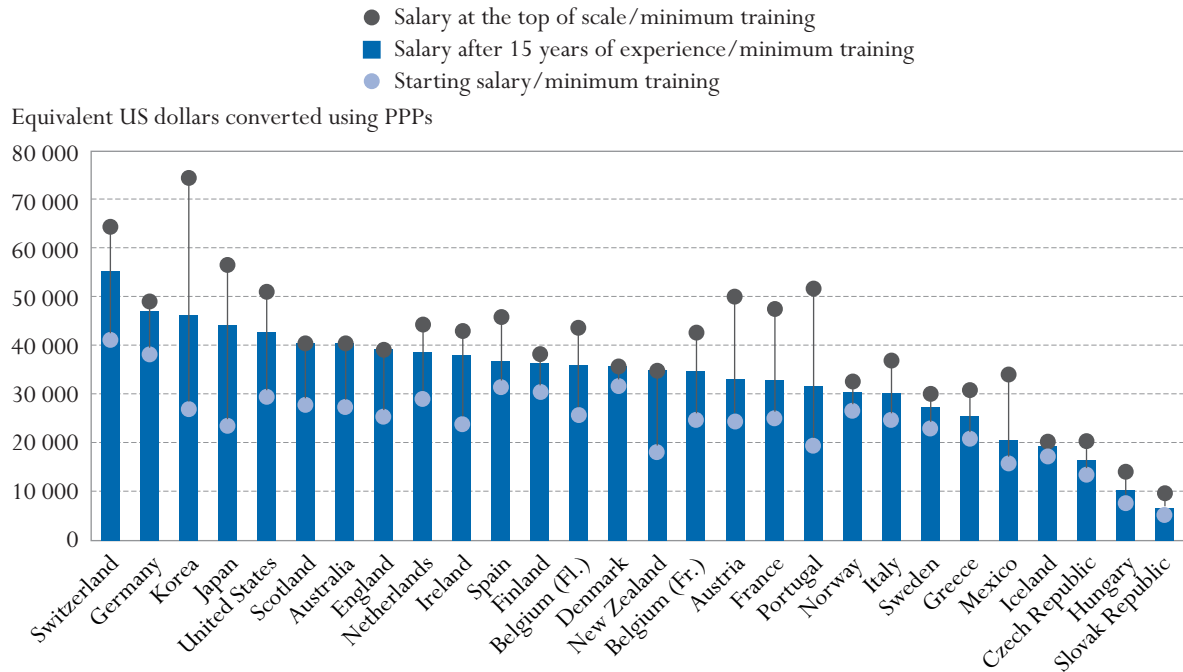
Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

INDICATOR D3: TEACHERS' SALARIES

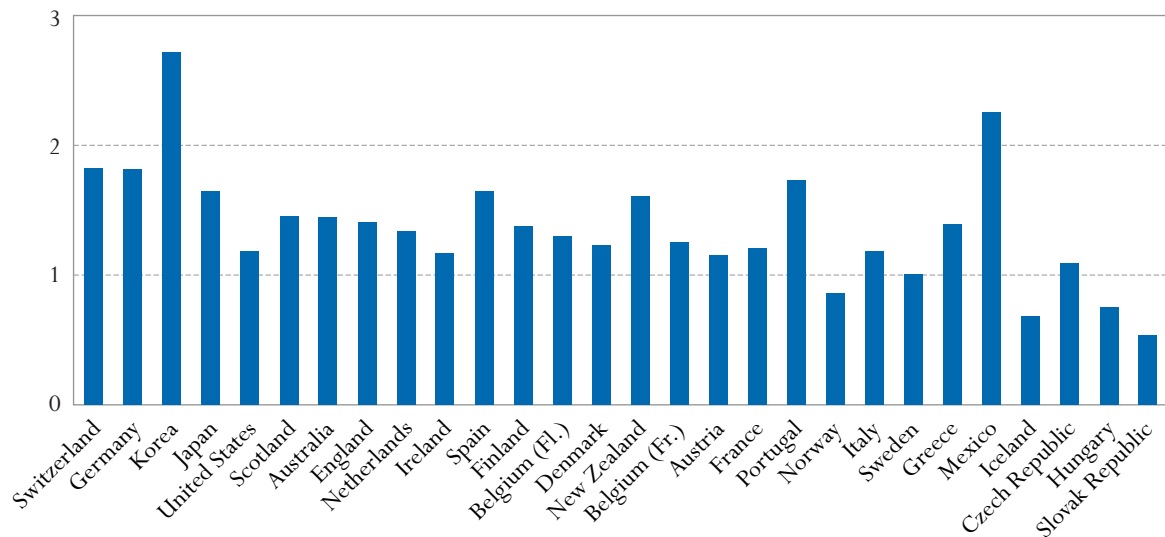
- The mid-career salaries of lower secondary teachers range from less than US\$ 10 000 in the Slovak Republic to US\$ 40 000 and more in Australia, Germany, Japan, Korea, Scotland, Switzerland and the United States.
- On average, upper secondary teachers' salary per teaching hour exceeds that of primary teachers by around 40%, though the difference is lower than 5% in New Zealand, Turkey and the United States and as high as 82% in Spain, where the difference between teaching time at primary and upper secondary level is greatest.
- Salaries at the top of the scale are on average around 70% higher than starting salaries for both primary and secondary education, though this varies between countries largely in line with the number of years it takes for a teacher to progress through the scale. For instance, top-of-the-scale salaries in Korea are almost three times that of starting salaries, but it takes 37 years to reach the top of the scale.
- Teachers' salaries have risen in real terms between 1996 and 2002 in virtually all countries, the largest increases evident in Hungary and Mexico. Salaries at the primary and upper secondary levels in Spain fell in real terms over the same period.

Chart D3.1. Teachers' salaries in lower secondary education (2002)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs, and ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita



Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita



Countries are ranked in descending order of teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience and minimum training. Source: OECD, Table D3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Policy context

Education systems employ a large number of professionals in an increasingly competitive market. Ensuring that there are a sufficient number of skilled teachers is a key concern in all OECD countries. Salaries and working conditions of teachers, including starting salaries and pay scales, and the costs incurred by individuals in becoming teachers, compared to salaries and costs in other high-skill occupations are key factors in determining the supply of qualified teachers. Both affect the career decisions of potential teachers and the types of people who are attracted to the teaching profession.

Teachers' salaries are the largest single cost in providing education, making this compensation a critical consideration for policy makers seeking to maintain the quality of teaching and a balanced education budget. The size of education budgets naturally reflects trade-offs among many interrelated factors, including teachers' salaries, the ratio of students to teaching staff, the instruction time planned for students, and the designated number of teaching hours.

Evidence and explanations

Comparing teachers' salaries

The first part of this indicator compares the starting, mid-career and maximum statutory salaries of teachers with the minimum level of qualifications required for certification in public primary and secondary education. First, teachers' salaries are examined in absolute terms at starting, mid-career and top-of-the-scale salary points, expressed in equivalent US dollars converted using purchasing power parities (PPPs). This provides information on the influence of teaching experience on national salary scales and on the cost of teaching time in different countries. Second, bonus schemes are examined. Third, teachers' salary changes between 1996 and 2002 are compared.

Pay scales are typically based on the simple principles of qualification levels and years of service but in reality, the structure of the teacher compensation system is far more complex. Many countries include regional allowances for teaching in remote regions, or a family allowance as part of the annual gross salary. Entitlements may include reduced rates on public transportation, tax allowances on purchasing cultural goods, and other quasi-pecuniary entitlements that contribute to a teacher's basic income. There are large differences between the taxing and social benefit systems in OECD countries. This makes it important to exercise caution when comparing teachers' salaries.

The annual statutory salaries of lower secondary teachers with 15 years of experience range from below US\$ 10 000 in the Slovak Republic to over US\$ 50 000 in Switzerland (Table D3.1).

Statutory salaries, as reported in this indicator, refer to scheduled salaries according to official pay scales. These must be distinguished from the actual wage bills incurred by governments and teachers' average salaries, which are also influenced by other factors such as the age structure of the teaching force or the prevalence

This indicator shows the starting, mid-career and maximum statutory salaries of teachers in public primary and secondary education, as well as various incentive schemes used in teacher rewards systems.

of part-time work. Indicator B6 shows the total amounts paid in compensation to teachers. Furthermore, since teaching time and teachers' workload can vary considerably among countries, these factors should be considered when comparing statutory salaries for teachers in countries (see Indicator D4).

Comparing statutory salaries relative to GDP per capita reveals that...

...mid-career salaries for teachers in basic education are low in Hungary, Iceland, Norway and the Slovak Republic, but relatively high in Korea and Turkey.

Some countries make a major investment in human resources despite lower levels of national income.

In most countries, salaries increase with the level of education.

The average statutory salary per teaching hour after 15 years of experience is US\$ 38 in primary, US\$ 47 in lower secondary, and US\$ 54 in upper secondary general education.

Among other considerations, countries invest in teaching resources relative to their ability to fund educational expenditure. Comparing statutory salaries to GDP per capita is, therefore, another way of assessing the relative value of teachers' salaries among countries.

Mid-career salaries for teachers in basic (primary and lower secondary) education relative to GDP per capita are lowest in Hungary (0.75), Iceland (0.68), Norway (0.86) and the Slovak Republic (0.54) and highest in Korea (2.72) and Turkey (1.98). In upper secondary general education, the lowest ratios are found in Hungary (0.92), Iceland (0.99), Norway (0.86) and the Slovak Republic (0.54), and mid-career salaries relative to the GDP are highest in Korea (2.72) and Switzerland (2.08) (Table D3.1).

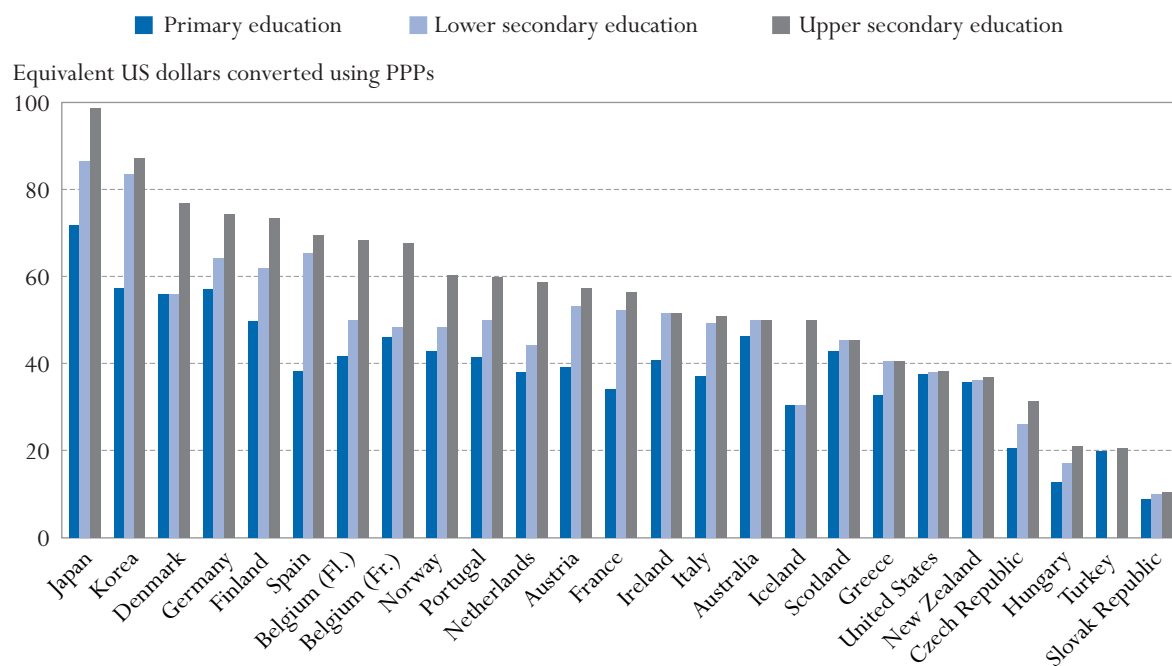
Some countries, such as the Czech Republic, Hungary and the Slovak Republic have both relatively low GDP per capita and low teachers' salaries. Others (*e.g.*, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Portugal and Spain) have a relatively low GDP per capita and teachers' salaries that are comparable to those in countries with much higher GDP. Germany and Switzerland have a high GDP per capita and high teachers' salaries (Chart D3.1 and Table D3.1), whereas Norway has high GDP per capita but below average mid-career salaries.

In Australia, England, Greece, Ireland, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Scotland, the Slovak Republic, Turkey and the United States, upper secondary and primary teachers' salaries are comparable, while in the remaining OECD countries, teachers' salaries increase with the level of education in absolute terms. For example, in Belgium, Iceland, the Netherlands and Switzerland, the mid-career salary of an upper secondary teacher is at least 30% higher than that of a primary school teacher (Table D3.1).

An alternative measure of salaries and the cost of teaching time is the statutory salary for a full-time classroom teacher relative to the number of hours per year that teacher is required to spend teaching students (Indicator D4). Although this measure does not adjust salaries for the amount of time that teachers spend in various teaching-related activities, it can nonetheless provide a rough estimate of the cost of the actual time teachers spend in the classroom. The average statutory salary per teaching hour after 15 years of experience is US\$ 38 in primary, US\$ 47 in lower secondary, and US\$ 54 in upper secondary general education. In primary education, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Mexico, the Slovak Republic and Turkey have relatively low salary costs per teaching hour (around US\$ 20 or less). By contrast, costs are relatively high in Denmark, Germany, Japan and Korea (approaching US\$ 60 or more). There is even more variation in salary cost per teaching hour in general upper secondary schools, ranging from US\$ 21 or less in Hungary, the Slovak Republic and Turkey to more than US\$ 80 in Japan and Korea (Table D3.1 and Chart D3.2).

Chart D3.2. Salary per hour of net teaching time, by level of education (2002)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries after 15 years of experience in public institutions, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs divided by net teaching time in hours per year



Countries are ranked in descending order of salary per hour of net teaching time in upper secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table D3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Even in countries where statutory salaries are the same in primary and secondary education, salaries per teaching hour are usually higher in upper secondary education than in primary education, since in most countries, secondary teachers are required to teach fewer hours than primary teachers, as is evident from Indicator D4. On average among countries, upper secondary teachers' salary per teaching hour exceeds that of primary teachers by around 40%. In Australia, New Zealand, Scotland, Turkey and the United States, this difference is only 10% or less, whereas it is around 60% or more in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Hungary and Iceland and as high as 82% in Spain, where the difference between teaching time at primary and upper secondary level is greatest (Table D3.1).

Comparing gross teachers' salaries across countries at the point of entry into the teaching profession, after 15 years of experience, and at the top of the salary scale, provides information on the extent to which teaching experience influences salary scales within countries. The difference between statutory starting salaries and subsequent increases is an indication of the financial return to experience. On average, among OECD countries, statutory salaries for primary, lower and upper secondary general teachers with 15 years of experience are 37, 38 and 41% higher than starting salaries.

Salaries at the top of the scale are on average around 70% higher than starting salaries for both primary and secondary education. However, this percentage

An upper secondary teacher's salary per contact hour is, on average, 40% higher than that of a primary teacher.

Teaching experience and qualifications influence teachers' salary scales in many OECD countries.

varies significantly among countries. Top of the scale salaries in lower secondary education are more than double the starting salaries in Austria, France, Japan, Korea, Mexico and Portugal, whereas in Denmark, Finland, Germany, Iceland, Norway and Turkey, they are no more than 30% higher (Table D3.1).

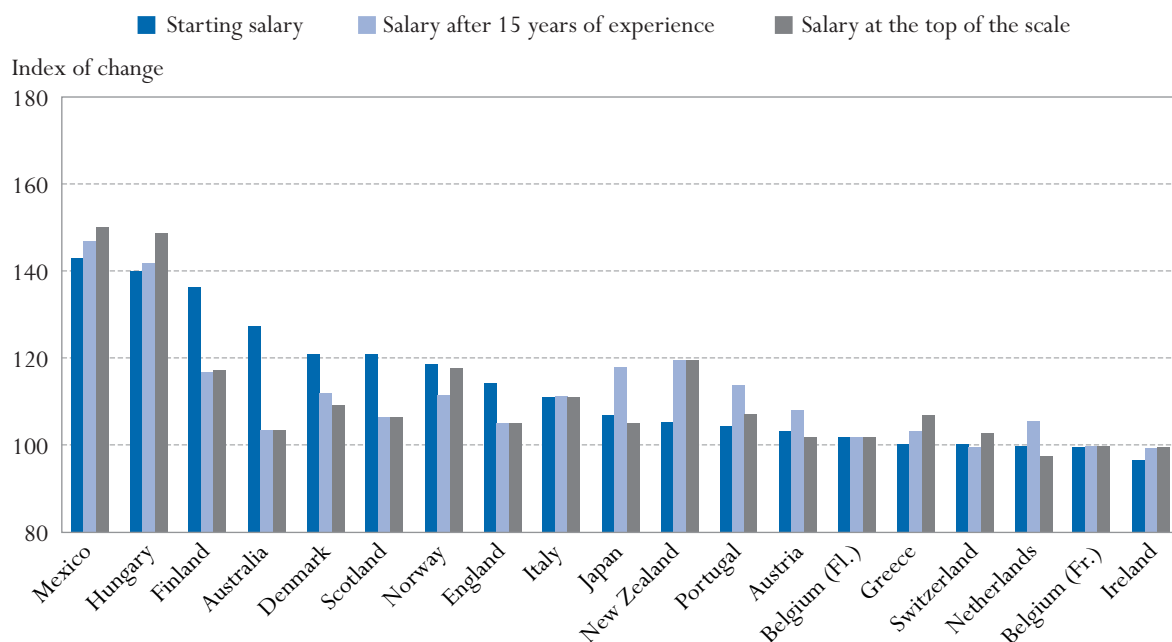
The ratio of starting to top-of-the-scale salaries tends to be correlated with the number of years it takes to progress through the scale. In lower secondary education, teachers in Australia, Denmark, England, New Zealand and Scotland reach the highest step on the salary scale within 7 to 9 years. In Belgium, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland the curve flattens after 20 to 28 years. In Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Korea and Spain, teachers reach the top of the salary scale after more than 30 years of service (Table D3.1)

Between 1996 and 2002 teachers' salaries have risen in real terms in most but not all countries.

Comparing the index of change between 1996 and 2002 in teachers' salaries, it is evident that they have grown in real terms in virtually all countries and at both primary and secondary levels. The strongest increases across all levels have taken place in Hungary and Mexico where increases have been more than 40%, though salaries in both countries remain below the OECD average and in the case of Hungary, low when benchmarked against GDP per capita. In some countries, however, salaries have fallen in real terms between 1996 and 2002, most notably at the primary and upper secondary levels in Spain (Table D3.3 and Chart D3.3).

Chart D3.3. Change in teachers' salaries in lower secondary education, by point on the salary scale (1996 and 2002)

Index of change between 1996 and 2002 (1996 = 100, 2002 price levels using GDP deflators)



Countries are ranked in descending order of index of change between 1996 and 2002 in teachers' starting salaries.

Source: OECD. Table D3.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

The trend in salaries has also varied between salaries at different points in the salary scale, indicating the different teacher demand and supply challenges facing countries. For instance, starting salaries have risen faster than mid-career or top-of-the-scale salaries in Australia, Denmark, England, Finland and Scotland, indicating a desire to attract new teachers into the profession in these countries. By contrast, mid-career and top-of-the-scale salaries have risen relatively quickly in Japan and Portugal, where the policy focus is more on teacher retention than recruitment. Mid-career and top of the scale salaries have also risen faster than starting salaries in New Zealand but with a relatively short salary scale (7 years to reach the top of the scale), teacher recruitment is in fact the key focus there.

Benchmarking teachers' salaries in Ireland

Irish teachers' salaries, along with all others in the public sector, were subject to a benchmarking process, which was completed in 2002. The benchmarking process involved a detailed examination of jobs, pay and conditions of service of public servants and compared these with jobs of equal size in the private sector. A total award of 13% increase was recommended for teachers as a result of this process. The government agreed to pay one quarter of the recommended increase effective 1st December 2001.

In addition to basic pay scales, many school systems have developed incentive schemes for teachers, which may take the form of financial remuneration and/or a reduction in the number of teaching hours. Together with the starting salary, such incentive schemes affect a person's decision to enter into and stay in the teaching profession. Initial incentives for graduate teachers may include family allowances and bonuses for working in certain locations, higher initial salaries for higher-than-minimum teaching certification or qualifications and additional compensation for those holding educational qualifications in multiple subjects or with certification to teach students with special educational needs.

In addition, incentives and allowances can compensate for permanent or temporary special duties and responsibilities that teachers assume.

Adjustments to base salary may be awarded to teachers in public schools either by the head/school principal, or by government at the local, regional or national level. These adjustments are grouped into three principal categories: criteria based on teaching conditions/responsibilities, criteria related to teachers' qualifications, training and performance and criteria based on demography and other measures.

Collective agreement in Finland

The collective agreement for state and municipal civil servants concerning the pay system in the teaching field determines a minimum level of pay, but the system also makes it possible to agree on better conditions of service at the local level.

Reduction of required teaching hours often replaces additional pay as teacher compensation.

A specific type of bonus is the reduction of required teaching hours. In some countries, this bonus is used to reward experience or long service (*e.g.* in Greece and Iceland), in others, rather than being paid for special duties, teachers are compensated by a reduction of teaching hours for carrying out special tasks or activities (leading a drama club, or acting as teacher supervisor of student teachers, etc.).

Reduction of teaching time in Greece

When a secondary education teacher is appointed in Greece, the teaching time is 21 teaching hours per week. After 6 years of service, the teaching time is reduced to 19 teaching hours per week. After 12 years, the teaching time is 18 teaching hours per week and, finally, after 20 years the teaching time is 16 teaching hours per week. The remaining hours of teachers' working time obligation must be spent within school.

In about half of the OECD countries, schools have at least some responsibility in deciding levels and extent of compensation for special tasks and additional activities undertaken by teachers...

In most countries, allowances are paid to all or most teachers for taking on management responsibilities: teaching more classes or hours than are required under a full-time contract (*e.g.*, acting duties) and involvement in special tasks such as guidance counselling or training student teachers. Although in many countries, there are country-level regulations for payment of allowances for overtime work, management responsibilities, and special tasks and activities, in about half of the OECD countries with comparable data (Australia, Austria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, New Zealand, Portugal, Scotland, the Slovak Republic and Sweden), schools have at least some responsibility in deciding on the levels and extent of compensation for such activities.

Individual pay system in Sweden

In Sweden the fixed pay scheme for teachers was abolished in the mid-1990s as part of an agreement designed to enhance local autonomy and flexibility in the school system. The government committed itself to substantially raise teacher salaries over a five-year period, but on the condition that not all teachers received the same increase. There is accordingly no fixed upper limit and only a minimum basic salary is centrally negotiated, along with the aggregate rise in the teacher salary bill. Salaries are negotiated when a teacher is hired and teacher and employer agree on the salary to be paid upon commencement of the term of employment. Teachers' work roles and performance are considered in the negotiation and linked to the pay. There is now much greater variety in teachers' pay, with those in areas of shortage and with higher demonstrated performance able to negotiate more.

In most countries management positions are filled by local, regional or national authorities depending on the type of school involved. In Austria, for example, the appointee has a statutory right to a reduction of the teaching load (or exemption from teaching obligation) and to an allowance depending on the salary scale, seniority and the size of the school (with a supplement for long-term exercise of the function). Teachers entrusted with more limited administrative or co-ordinating functions are remunerated by a flat-rate compensation or a reduction of teaching load, which are fixed centrally and apply whenever such a function is assigned (normally by the principal). There is a certain pool of extra pay (flat-rate remuneration) for extra duties available for assignment by the principal. For specific projects the Ministry for Education, Science and Culture may grant a reduction of the teaching load.

...but in many countries, there are fixed rates of compensation for management positions and administrative tasks...

In England, from 1 September 2000 additional points on the scale for taking on additional responsibility were replaced by flat-rate allowances for taking on significant specified management responsibilities beyond those common to the majority of classroom teachers. There were separate pay scales for head teachers and deputy heads.

In Portugal, principals receive an increase in salary for the duration of their assignment, while heads of curricular departments, class tutors' co-ordinators and class tutors have their teaching time reduced during the time they hold the position. The school board makes the decision regarding the reduction of teaching time for middle managers.

In Spain, in lower and upper secondary education there should be a Head in each Didactical Department. When there is a teacher with a recognised senior teaching position (catedrático condition), he/she is the Head of the Department. If there are more than one "catedrático", the Department may suggest to the school principal that one of these teachers be the Head, but the school principal always makes the definitive nomination and the high local education authority makes the final decision. If there is not a teacher with the "catedrático condition" in a certain Department, any of the other teachers can become Head of Department (usually teachers rotate in this position). All Department Heads receive a fixed salary supplement during the time they hold that responsibility. The standard duration of each "mandate" as Department Head is four years. In primary education any teacher can be the co-ordinator of the teachers in the cycle, but no salary supplement is awarded for this position (Tables D3.2a, b, c and d and Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Countries have various ways of identifying and rewarding good teaching. Sometimes this is by giving extra pay for successfully completing professional development or for taking on extra duties and sometimes this can be explicitly for outstanding performance as classroom teachers raising pupil attainment (Tables D3.2a, b, c and d).

...while school principals tend to have more authority in awarding additional remuneration for outstanding performance.

D3

Salary enhancements for teaching excellence in the Slovak Republic

Slovak teachers who show extraordinary skills and achieve excellent results in their work, and who are fully qualified with at least 12 years of practical experience, can be classified as so-called “top workers”. Their salary is then based on a special salary table. Only about 6% of all teachers are remunerated as “top workers”.

In England, extra points on the main scale can be awarded for excellent performance. Experienced teachers are also able to apply for the performance threshold, in which they are assessed against national standards. If successful, they are moved to the “upper pay scale”, with the prospect of further pay increases based on performance. In the Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and Turkey, allowances are also paid for outstanding performance. In Mexico bonuses awarded to teachers for outstanding performance are based on evaluations of learning achievement of students in the class or subject. In Portugal, after 15 years of teaching, and after receiving an appraisal of “Good” given by the head teacher, teachers may apply for a special appraisal of their curriculum vitae and receive an increase of two years in their career progression, although this rarely occurs. In Turkey extra salary for teachers with excellent performance is based on evaluations by the Provincial Directorate of Education and the Ministry (Tables D3.2a, b, c and d and Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004). Differences in tax schemes, social benefit systems, allowances and entitlements may enhance basic salaries of all teachers differently in OECD countries.

Performance-base salary in Switzerland

In the St. Gallen and Zurich cantons it is only possible for teachers to move up to the next grade on the pay scale if the teacher is given a positive assessment, based on a process of self-evaluation and external assessment. A broad range of criteria is used and teachers develop portfolios to document their work and achievements.

The use of extra incentives to compensate teachers for working under particularly difficult conditions has generally increased. Monetary incentives such as salary allowances for teaching in difficult areas, transportation assistance for teachers in remote areas or bonuses for working in challenging schools are more in evidence. The criterion “teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high cost area” is applied in 19 out of 27 countries. This adjustment is more often made by the national, local or regional government than by the head teacher/school principal.

Attracting teachers to remote and rural areas in Australia

To encourage teachers to teach in remote and rural areas in Australia, special incentives and induction programmes are offered in states such as Queensland and New South Wales. These are complemented by pre-service teacher education programmes that provide trainee teachers with exchanges in rural schools so that they gain first-hand experience living and teaching in rural areas.

Definitions and methodologies

Data on statutory teachers' salaries and bonuses (Table D3.1) are derived from the 2003 OECD-INES Survey on Teachers and the Curriculum. Data refer to the school year 2001-2002, and are reported in accordance with formal policies for public institutions.

Statutory salaries (Table D3.1) refer to scheduled salaries according to official pay scales. The salaries reported are gross (total sum of money paid by the employer) less the employer's contribution to social security and pension (according to existing salary scales). Salaries are "before tax" (*i.e.*, before deductions for income taxes).

Gross teachers' salaries were converted using GDP and purchasing power parities (PPPs) exchange rate data from the OECD National Accounts database. The reference date for GDP per capita is the calendar year 2001, while the period of reference for teachers' salaries is 30 June 2001 to 30 June 2002. The reference date for PPPs is 2001-2002. Data are adjusted for inflation with reference to January 2002. For countries with different financial years (*i.e.*, Australia and New Zealand) and countries with slightly different salary periods (*e.g.*, Hungary, Iceland, Norway and Spain) from the general OECD norm, a correction to the deflator is made only if this results in an adjustment of over 1%. Small adjustments have been discounted because even for salaries referring to 2001-2002, the exact period for which they apply will only be slightly different. Reference statistics and reference years for teachers' salaries are provided in Annex 2.

Starting salaries refer to the average scheduled gross salary per year for a full-time teacher with the minimum training necessary to be fully qualified at the beginning of the teaching career.

Salaries after 15 years of experience refer to the scheduled annual salary of a full-time classroom teacher with the minimum training necessary to be fully qualified and with 15 years of experience. The maximum salaries reported refer to the scheduled maximum annual salary (top of the salary scale) of a full-time classroom teacher with the minimum training to be fully qualified for the job.

An adjustment to base salary is defined as any difference in salary between what a particular teacher actually receives for work performed at a school and the amount that he or she would be expected to receive on the basis of level of experience (*i.e.*, number of years in the teaching profession). Adjustments may be temporary or permanent, and they can effectively move a teacher "off-scale", on to a different salary, or to a higher step on the same salary scale.

Data are from the 2003 OECD-INES Survey on Teachers and the Curriculum and refer to the school year 2001-2002.

Table D3.1. Teachers' salaries (2002)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions at starting salary, after 15 years of experience and at the top of the scale, by level of education, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs

	Primary education				Lower secondary education				Upper secondary general education			
	Starting salary/ minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/ minimum training	Salary at top of scale/ minimum training	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita	Starting salary/ minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/ minimum training	Salary at top of scale/ minimum training	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita	Starting salary/ minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/ minimum training	Salary at top of scale/ minimum training	Ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita
OECD COUNTRIES												
Australia	27 493	40 480	40 480	1.44	27 394	40 479	40 479	1.44	27 394	40 479	40 479	1.44
Austria	23 511	31 112	46 540	1.08	24 363	33 138	50 071	1.15	24 846	34 444	52 294	1.19
Belgium (Fl.)	25 731	34 913	41 652	1.26	25 731	36 032	43 927	1.30	31 924	46 076	55 383	1.66
Belgium (Fr.)	24 319	33 334	40 106	1.20	24 713	34 874	42 717	1.26	30 793	44 854	54 100	1.62
Czech Republic	13 557	16 453	20 558	1.09	13 557	16 453	20 558	1.09	15 476	18 898	23 452	1.25
Denmark	31 745	35 809	35 809	1.23	31 745	35 809	35 809	1.23	30 384	43 063	46 096	1.47
England	25 403	39 350	39 350	1.41	25 403	39 350	39 350	1.41	25 403	39 350	39 350	1.41
Finland	26 647	31 687	33 558	1.20	30 514	36 552	38 249	1.38	32 136	40 482	42 652	1.53
France	22 688	30 519	45 031	1.12	25 101	32 933	47 562	1.21	25 563	33 394	48 070	1.23
Germany	36 934	44 671	47 921	1.72	38 319	47 165	49 239	1.82	41 441	50 805	53 085	1.96
Greece	20 906	25 563	31 013	1.39	20 906	25 563	31 013	1.39	20 906	25 563	31 013	1.39
Hungary	7 585	10 412	14 104	0.75	7 585	10 412	14 104	0.75	8 790	12 851	16 797	0.92
Iceland	17 244	19 377	20 346	0.68	17 244	19 377	20 346	0.68	22 017	27 941	30 551	0.99
Ireland	22 980	38 066	43 137	1.17	23 767	38 066	43 137	1.17	23 767	38 066	43 137	1.17
Italy	22 915	27 726	33 575	1.08	24 710	30 220	36 906	1.18	24 710	31 073	38 604	1.22
Japan	23 493	44 345	56 579	1.65	23 493	44 345	56 579	1.65	23 493	44 372	58 286	1.65
Korea	26 983	46 400	74 672	2.73	26 852	46 269	74 541	2.72	26 852	46 269	74 541	2.72
Mexico	12 375	16 324	27 038	1.77	15 862	20 722	34 181	2.25	m	m	m	m
Netherlands	28 003	35 307	40 406	1.22	29 050	38 697	44 388	1.33	29 326	51 444	58 913	1.77
New Zealand	18 109	35 034	35 034	1.61	18 109	35 034	35 034	1.61	18 109	35 034	35 034	1.61
Norway	26 637	30 533	32 695	0.86	26 637	30 533	32 695	0.86	26 637	30 533	32 695	0.86
Portugal	19 445	31 876	51 829	1.73	19 445	31 876	51 829	1.73	19 445	31 876	51 829	1.73
Scotland	27 789	40 619	40 619	1.45	27 789	40 619	40 619	1.45	27 789	40 619	40 619	1.45
Slovak Republic	5 134	6 611	9 786	0.54	5 134	6 611	9 786	0.54	5 134	6 611	9 786	0.54
Spain	28 161	33 521	41 860	1.50	31 550	36 930	45 957	1.65	32 679	38 067	47 323	1.70
Sweden	23 059	27 359	30 162	1.01	23 059	27 359	30 162	1.01	24 544	29 315	31 711	1.08
Switzerland	34 818	46 713	55 304	1.53	41 045	55 431	64 544	1.82	48 704	63 200	74 689	2.08
Turkey	11 214	12 700	14 283	1.98	a	a	a	a	10 272	11 759	13 342	1.84
United States	29 513	42 801	52 104	1.18	29 525	42 801	51 170	1.18	29 641	42 918	51 308	1.19
Country mean	22 910	31 366	37 778	1.33	24 236	33 345	40 177	1.37	25 292	35 691	42 683	1.45
PARTNER COUNTRIES												
Argentina ¹	8 398	11 794	11 794	1.00	12 076	17 007	17 007	1.45	12 076	17 007	17 007	1.45
Brazil ¹	8 191	10 610	m	1.44	9 883	13 322	m	1.81	13 853	16 397	m	2.23
Chile	11 033	12 857	13 306	1.35	11 033	12 857	13 306	1.35	11 033	13 454	13 926	1.41
Egypt	891	1 988	2 278	0.57	891	1 988	2 278	0.57	m	m	m	m
India ¹	12 347	18 247	18 247	6.21	15 027	23 001	23 001	7.82	18 247	26 831	26 831	9.12
Indonesia	975	1 543	1 543	0.54	975	1 543	1 990	0.54	1 014	1 858	1 990	0.64
Jamaica	10 955	12 686	12 686	3.43	10 955	12 686	12 686	3.43	10 955	12 686	12 686	3.43
Jordan	7 976	10 414	868	2.76	7 976	10 414	868	2.76	7 976	10 414	868	2.76
Malaysia ¹	9 344	14 670	14 670	1.70	13 647	23 315	23 315	2.69	13 647	23 315	23 315	2.69
Paraguay ^{1,2}	9 789	9 789	9 789	1.88	15 269	15 269	15 269	2.93	15 269	15 269	15 269	2.93
Peru ^{1,2}	4 627	4 627	5 530	1.00	4 577	4 577	5 273	0.99	4 577	4 577	5 273	0.99
Philippines	9 857	10 880	10 880	2.84	9 857	10 880	10 880	2.84	9 857	10 880	10 880	2.84
Sri Lanka	2 809	3 574	3 319	1.12	2 809	4 085	3 319	1.28	3 574	4 596	3 319	1.44
Thailand	5 862	14 406	14 406	2.39	5 862	14 406	14 406	2.39	5 862	14 406	14 406	2.39
Tunisia	12 835	12 974	16 783	2.00	16 330	16 487	21 339	2.55	19 878	20 065	26 167	3.10
Uruguay ^{1,2}	5 397	6 467	a	0.77	5 397	6 467	a	0.77	5 873	6 944	a	0.83

1. Year of reference 2001.

2. Salaries for a position of 20 hours per week. Most teachers hold two positions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.1. (continued) Teachers' salaries (2002)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions at starting salary,
after 15 years of experience and at the top of the scale, by level of education, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs

OECD COUNTRIES	Ratio of salary at the top of scale to starting salary			Years from starting to top salary (lower secondary education)	Salary per hour of net contact (teaching) time after 15 years of experience			Ratio of salary per teaching hour of upper secondary to primary teachers (after 15 years of experience)
	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes		Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes	
Australia	1.47	1.48	1.48	9	46	50	50	1.08
Austria	1.98	2.06	2.10	34	39	53	57	1.46
Belgium (Fl.)	1.62	1.71	1.73	27	42	50	68	1.63
Belgium (Fr.)	1.65	1.73	1.76	27	46	48	68	1.46
Czech Republic	1.52	1.52	1.52	32	21	26	31	1.51
Denmark	1.13	1.13	1.52	8	56	56	77	1.37
England	1.55	1.55	1.55	8	m	m	m	m
Finland	1.26	1.25	1.33	20	46	61	73	1.57
France	1.98	1.89	1.88	34	34	52	56	1.66
Germany	1.30	1.28	1.28	28	57	64	74	1.30
Greece	1.48	1.48	1.48	33	33	41	41	1.24
Hungary	1.86	1.86	1.91	40	13	17	21	1.65
Iceland	1.18	1.18	1.39	18	31	31	50	1.63
Ireland	1.88	1.82	1.82	22	42	52	52	1.25
Italy	1.47	1.49	1.56	35	37	49	51	1.37
Japan	2.41	2.41	2.48	31	72	86	99	1.38
Korea	2.77	2.78	2.78	37	57	83	87	1.52
Mexico	2.18	2.15	m	14	20	18	m	m
Netherlands	1.44	1.53	2.01	19	38	44	59	1.55
New Zealand	1.93	1.93	1.93	7	36	36	37	1.04
Norway	1.23	1.23	1.23	24	43	48	60	1.41
Portugal	2.67	2.67	2.67	26	42	50	60	1.44
Scotland	1.46	1.46	1.46	7	43	45	45	1.06
Slovak Republic	1.91	1.91	1.91	27	9	10	10	1.17
Spain	1.49	1.46	1.45	39	38	65	69	1.82
Sweden ¹	m	m	m	a	a	a	a	a
Switzerland	1.59	1.57	1.53	25	m	m	m	m
Turkey	1.27	a	1.30	a	20	a	21	1.04
United States	1.77	1.73	1.73	m	38	38	38	1.02
Country mean	1.69	1.71	1.73	24	38	47	54	1.39

1. Ratio of salary at the top of the scale to starting salary has not been calculated for Sweden because the underlying salaries are estimates derived from actual rather than statutory salaries.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqq2004).

Table D3.2a. Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions (2002)
Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions

		Criteria based on teaching conditions/responsibilities						
		Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	Special tasks (career guidance or counselling)	Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high-cost area (location allowance)	Special activities (sports and drama clubs, homework clubs, summer school)	Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	Teaching courses in a particular field
OECD COUNTRIES	Australia	■		■	■		■	
	Austria	■	■	■		■		
	Belgium (Fl.)		■					
	Belgium (Fr.)							
	Czech Republic	■	■	■			■	
	Denmark	■	■	■		■		■
	England	■	■		■	■	■	■
	Finland	■	■	■	■	■	■	
	France	■		■	■	■	■	■
	Germany	■	■					
	Greece		■	■	■	■		
	Hungary	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	Iceland	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	Ireland	■			■	■		
	Italy		■	■	■	■	■	
	Japan	■	■		■	■	■	■
	Korea	■	■		■	■	■	■
	Mexico	■	■	■	■	■		■
	Netherlands						■	■
	New Zealand	■		■	■	■	■	■
	Norway	■	■	■	■			■
	Portugal	■	■	■		■	■	
	Scotland	■				■		
	Slovak Republic		■			■		
	Spain	■			■	■		
	Sweden	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
	Switzerland	■	■	■		■	■	
	Turkey		■	■			■	
	United States	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

 Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.2a. (continued) Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions (2002)

Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria related to teachers' qualifications, training and performance						Criteria based on demography		Other
	Holding an initial educational qualification higher than the minimum qualification required to enter the teaching profession	Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	Outstanding performance in teaching	Successful completion of professional development activities	Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	Family status (married, number of children)	Age (independent of years of teaching experience)	
Australia	■								■
Austria							■	■	■
Belgium (Fl.)									■
Belgium (Fr.)									■
Czech Republic			■					■	
Denmark	■	■	■	■		■			
England	■	■	■						
Finland	■								■
France							■		
Germany							■	■	
Greece	■	■					■		
Hungary	■	■	■	■		■		■	■
Iceland	■	■		■				■	■
Ireland	■	■			■				
Italy							■	■	
Japan							■		■
Korea							■		
Mexico	■	■	■	■	■				■
Netherlands									
New Zealand		■	■						■
Norway	■	■	■						
Portugal	■	■	■	■			■		
Scotland	■						■		
Slovak Republic			■						■
Spain				■			■		
Sweden	■	■	■	■	■	■			
Switzerland							■		■
Turkey			■	■			■		■
United States	■	■		■					

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.2b. Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions made by head teacher/school principal (2002)
Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions where head teacher/school principal has the responsibility for making the award

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria based on teaching conditions/responsibilities						
	Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	Special tasks (career guidance or counselling)	Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high-cost area (location allowance)	Special activities (sports and drama clubs, homework clubs, summer school)	Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	Teaching courses in a particular field
Australia	■		■			■	
Austria	■	■	■		■		
Czech Republic	■					■	
Denmark	■		■		■		■
England	■	■		■	■	■	■
Finland			■		■		
Greece		■					
Hungary	■		■		■	■	■
Iceland	■	■	■		■	■	
Italy		■	■		■		
Mexico							
New Zealand	■		■		■		■
Portugal	■				■		
Scotland	■						
Slovak Republic		■					
Sweden	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria related to teachers' qualifications, training and performance						Criteria based on demography		Other
	Holding an initial educational qualification higher than the minimum qualification required to enter the teaching profession	Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	Outstanding performance in teaching	Successful completion of professional development activities	Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	Family status (married, number of children)	Age (independent of years of teaching experience)	
Australia									■
Austria									
Czech Republic			■					■	
Denmark	■	■	■	■		■			
England			■						
Finland									
Greece									
Hungary			■						■
Iceland									
Italy									
Mexico	■			■					■
New Zealand			■						
Portugal									
Scotland									
Slovak Republic									
Sweden	■	■	■	■	■	■			

Note: Countries where no decisions on salary adjustments are made by the authority indicated are excluded from the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.2c. Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions made by the local or regional authority (2002)*Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions where the local or regional authority has the responsibility for making the award*

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria based on teaching conditions/responsibilities						
	Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	Special tasks (career guidance or counselling)	Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high-cost area (location allowance)	Special activities (sports and drama clubs, homework clubs, summer school)	Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	Teaching courses in a particular field
Australia	■		■	■		■	
Austria	■						
Denmark	■						
Finland	■	■	■	■	■		
France					■		
Germany	■	■					
Iceland	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
Italy				■			
Japan	■	■		■	■	■	
Mexico			■				
Norway	■						■
Portugal							
Scotland	■			■			
Slovak Republic							
Spain	■			■			
Switzerland	■	■	■		■	■	
United States	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria related to teachers' qualifications, training and performance					Criteria based on demography		Other
	Holding an initial educational qualification higher than the minimum qualification required to enter the teaching profession	Holding a higher than minimum level of certification or training obtained during professional life	Outstanding performance in teaching	Successful completion of professional development activities	Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	Family status (married, number of children)	
Australia	■							■
Austria								
Denmark								
Finland	■							■
France								
Germany								■
Iceland	■	■		■				■
Italy								■
Japan							■	■
Mexico	■	■		■				■
Norway		■	■					
Portugal			■					
Scotland	■							
Slovak Republic			■					
Spain				■			■	
Switzerland								■
United States	■	■		■				

Note: Countries where no decisions on salary adjustments are made by the authority indicated are excluded from the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.2d. Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions made by the national authority (2002)
Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions where the national authority has the responsibility for making the award

		Criteria based on teaching conditions/responsibilities						
		Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	Special tasks (career guidance or counselling)	Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high-cost area (location allowance)	Special activities (sports and drama clubs, homework clubs, summer school)	Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	Teaching courses in a particular field
OECD COUNTRIES	Australia							
	Austria	■		■		■		
	Belgium (Fl.)		■					
	Belgium (Fr.)							
	Czech Republic		■	■			■	
	Denmark	■	■					
	England				■			
	Finland	■	■		■			
	France	■		■	■		■	
	Germany							
	Greece			■	■			
	Hungary	■	■	■	■		■	
	Iceland	■	■	■		■	■	■
	Ireland	■						
	Italy							
	Korea	■	■		■		■	
	Mexico	■	■	■	■			■
	Netherlands						■	
	New Zealand			■	■		■	■
	Norway	■	■	■	■			
	Portugal	■	■	■			■	
	Scotland							
	Slovak Republic					■		
Switzerland								
Turkey		■	■			■		

Note: Countries where no decisions on salary adjustments are made by the authority indicated are excluded from the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.2d. (continued) Adjustments to base salary for teachers in public institutions made by the national authority (2002)*Types of criteria to adjust base salary awarded to teachers in public institutions where the national authority has the responsibility for making the award*

OECD COUNTRIES	Criteria related to teachers' qualifications, training and performance						Criteria based on demography		Other
	Holding an initial educational qualification higher than the minimum qualification required to enter the teaching profession	Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	Outstanding performance in teaching	Successful completion of professional development activities	Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	Family status (married, number of children)	Age (independent of years of teaching experience)	
Australia									
Austria							■	■	■
Belgium (Fl.)									■
Belgium (Fr.)									■
Czech Republic									
Denmark									
England	■	■							
Finland	■								■
France							■		
Germany							■	■	
Greece	■	■					■		
Hungary	■	■		■		■		■	■
Iceland	■	■		■				■	■
Ireland	■	■			■				
Italy							■		
Korea							■		
Mexico	■	■	■	■	■				
Netherlands									
New Zealand		■							■
Norway	■	■							
Portugal	■	■		■			■		
Scotland	■								
Slovak Republic									■
Switzerland							■		
Turkey			■	■			■		■

Note: Countries where no decisions on salary adjustments are made by the authority indicated are excluded from the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D3.3. Change in teachers' salaries (1996 and 2002)

Index of change¹ between 1996 and 2002 in teachers' salaries at starting salary, after 15 years of experience and at the top of the salary scale, by level of education, converted to 2002 price levels using GDP deflators (1996 = 100)

	Primary education			Lower secondary education			Upper secondary education, general programmes		
	Starting salary/minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/minimum training	Salary at top of scale/minimum training	Starting salary/minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/minimum training	Salary at top of scale/minimum training	Starting salary/minimum training	Salary after 15 years of experience/minimum training	Salary at top of scale/minimum training
OECD COUNTRIES									
Australia	128	103	103	127	103	103	127	103	103
Austria	103	106	101	103	108	102	99	103	95
Belgium (Fl.) ²	104	105	106	102	102	102	102	102	102
Belgium (Fr.) ²	99	100	102	98	99	99	98	99	100
Czech Republic	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Denmark	121	112	109	121	112	109	106	106	108
England	114	105	105	114	105	105	114	105	105
Finland	134	120	124	136	117	117	139	124	124
France	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Germany	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Greece	104	106	109	100	103	107	100	103	107
Hungary	140	142	149	140	142	149	127	141	147
Iceland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Ireland	98	105	101	97	99	100	97	99	100
Italy	112	112	112	111	111	111	111	111	111
Japan	107	118	105	107	118	105	107	118	105
Korea	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	142	142	143	143	147	150	m	m	m
Netherlands	101	105	98	100	106	98	100	101	97
New Zealand	105	120	120	105	120	120	105	120	120
Norway	119	112	118	119	112	118	110	108	108
Portugal	104	114	107	104	114	107	104	114	107
Scotland	121	106	106	121	106	106	121	106	106
Slovak Republic	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Spain	93	95	92	m	m	m	93	93	92
Sweden	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Switzerland	100	100	103	100	100	103	99	97	103
Turkey	m	m	m	a	a	a	m	m	m
United States	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m

1. The index is calculated as teacher salary in 2002 in national currency * 100 / teacher salary in 1996 in national currency * GDP deflator 2002 (1996 = 100). See Annex 2 for statistics on GDP deflators and salaries in national currencies in 1996 and 2002.

2. The data for Belgium in 1996 are based on Belgium as a whole.

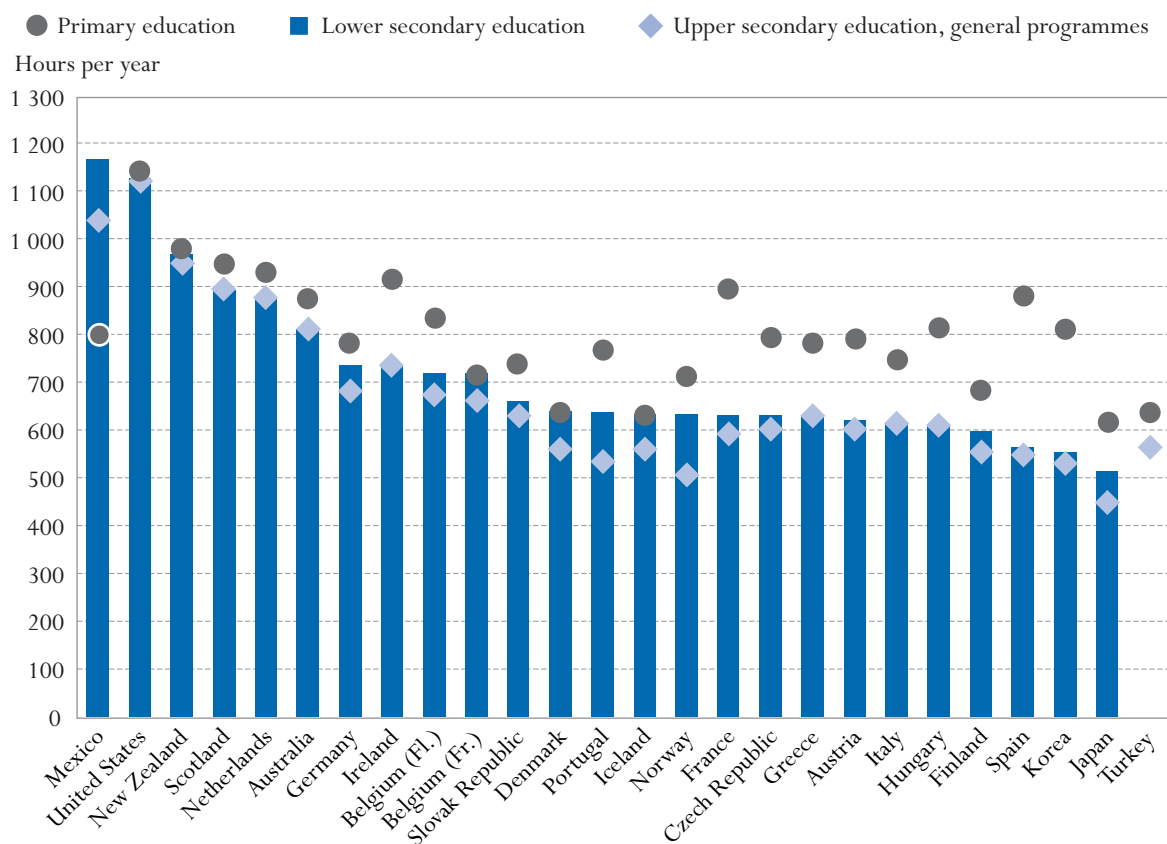
Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

INDICATOR D4: TEACHING TIME AND TEACHERS' WORKING TIME

- The number of teaching hours per year in public primary schools averages 803 hours, but ranges from 617 in Japan to 1 139 hours in the United States.
- The average number of teaching hours in lower secondary education is 717 hours, but ranges from 513 in Japan to 1 167 hours in Mexico.
- The average number of teaching hours in upper secondary education is 674 hours, but ranges from 449 in Japan to 1 121 hours in the United States.
- The percentage of working time that is spent teaching is higher at the primary level than it is at the secondary level. At either level the percentage of working time spent teaching is greater than 50% in only a minority of countries.
- Regulations of teachers' working time vary among countries. In most countries, teachers are formally required to work a specific number of hours; in others, only teaching time in lessons per week is specified.

Chart D4.1. Number of teaching hours per year, by level of education (2002)

Net contact time in hours per year in public institutions



Countries are ranked in descending order of the number of teaching hours per year in lower secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table D4.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004).

This indicator shows the number of hours per year that a full-time teacher is required to spend teaching according to formal policy in his/her country.

Policy context

In addition to class size and the ratio of students to teaching staff (Indicator D2), students' hours of instruction (Indicator D1) and teachers' salaries (Indicator D3), the amount of time teachers spend teaching influences the financial resources which countries need to invest in education. Teaching hours and the extent of non-teaching duties are also important elements of teachers' working conditions and are related to the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

The proportion of working time spent teaching can be interpreted as a measure of teachers' workload. It provides information on the amount of time available for other activities, such as lesson preparation, correction, in-service training and staff meetings.

Evidence and explanations

Teaching time

In both primary and secondary education, countries vary in the number of teaching hours per year required of the average public school teacher. Primary education teaching hours are usually higher than secondary education.

A public primary school teacher teaches an average of 803 hours per year.

A primary school teacher teaches an average of 803 hours per year, but this varies from 650 hours or less in Denmark, Iceland, Japan and Turkey to 900 hours or more in Ireland, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Scotland and the United States (Chart D4.1 and Table D4.1).

A lower secondary teacher teaches an average of 717 hours per year and an upper secondary teacher teaches an average of 674 hours per year.

In lower secondary education, a teacher teaches an average of 717 hours per year. The teaching load ranges from 600 hours or less in Finland, Japan, Korea and Spain to more than 900 hours in Mexico, New Zealand and the United States (Chart D4.1 and Table D4.1).

An upper secondary teaching load is usually less than that in lower secondary education. A teacher of general subjects has an average statutory load of 674 hours per year among OECD countries. Teaching loads range from less than 500 hours in Japan to more than 900 hours in Mexico, New Zealand and the United States (Chart D4.1 and Table D4.1).

In most countries, a primary-level teacher teaches for more hours than a lower and upper secondary teacher, but the differentials vary widely between countries.

In France and Spain, a primary teacher is required to teach more than 300 hours more than an upper secondary teacher (general programmes). By contrast, in Australia, the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Scotland, Turkey and the United States the difference is 100 hours or less. In New Zealand and the United States the difference is even less than 50 hours. Conversely, in Mexico, an upper secondary teacher teaches almost 240 hours more than a primary teacher (Chart D4.1).

In interpreting the differences in teaching hours between countries, it should be noted that net contact time, as used for the purpose of this indicator, does not necessarily correspond to teaching load. Whereas contact time in itself is a substantial component of this, the preparation for classes and necessary follow-up (including correcting students' work) also need to be included in comparisons of teaching load. Other elements of teaching load (like the number of sub-

jects taught, the number of students taught, and the number of years a teacher teaches the same students) should also be taken into account when establishing the average teaching load of teachers within a country. These factors, however, can often only be assessed at the school level.

With the exception of Austria (primary education), the French Community of Belgium (primary education), the Czech Republic (primary education), Hungary (secondary education) and Spain (upper secondary education), teaching time in most OECD countries was about the same in 1996 and 2002. However, in Hungary, teachers in secondary education were required to teach 29% more in 2002 than in 1996, while in the French Community of Belgium net contact time dropped by 16% in primary education (Table D4.2).

Teachers' working time

The regulations of teachers' working time vary widely among countries. While some countries formally regulate contact time only, others establish working hours as well. In some countries, time is allocated for teaching and non-teaching activities within the formally established working time. Within the framework of statutory working time and teaching time, teachers' actual workload may vary widely.

In most countries, teachers are formally required to work a specified number of hours per week to earn their full-time salary; this includes teaching and non-teaching time. Within this framework, however, countries vary regarding what they specify in terms of allocating time to teaching and non-teaching activities. Typically, the number of hours for teaching is specified, but some countries also regulate at the national level the time that a teacher has to be present in the school.

In Australia, the French Community of Belgium (primary education), England, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Mexico (primary and lower secondary education), New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and the United States, the working time during which teachers are required to be available at school, for both teaching time and non-teaching time, is specified.

With the exception of Austria, the French Community of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Spain, teaching time did not change substantially between 1996 and 2002.

Regulations of teachers' working time vary widely among countries.

In most countries, teachers are formally required to work a specified number of hours...

...in some, working time at school is also specified while...

Working hours in Austria

The mandatory teaching load is regulated at the federal level by the Act on the Teaching Assignment of Federal Teachers (*Bundeslehrer-Lehrverpflichtungsgesetz*). For teachers at the provincial level, it is regulated in the laws governing their service: the Service Code for Teachers Employed by the Provinces (*Landeslehrer-Dienstrechtsgesetz*), which applies an annual working time model.

For teachers at the federal level, the subjects that a teacher teaches count differentially towards the mandatory teaching load of 20 hours per week.

Teachers employed by the provinces at compulsory secondary schools are subject to an annual working time regime, requiring that every teacher works the same number of hours during a school year as a comparable public servant in general administration. The annual standard covers three different areas of activity: classroom teaching load including supervisory duties; preparation and follow-up, including correcting work; and hours spent on other activities.

...in others, just the total statutory working time in hours per year is defined.

In Austria (primary and lower secondary education), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Japan, Korea, Mexico (upper secondary education), the Netherlands, Scotland and the Slovak Republic, the total working time that teachers have to work per year is specified. In addition, in some countries the number of hours to be spent on non-teaching activities is also (partly) specified. However, it is not specified whether the teachers have to spend the non-teaching hours at school or outside school.

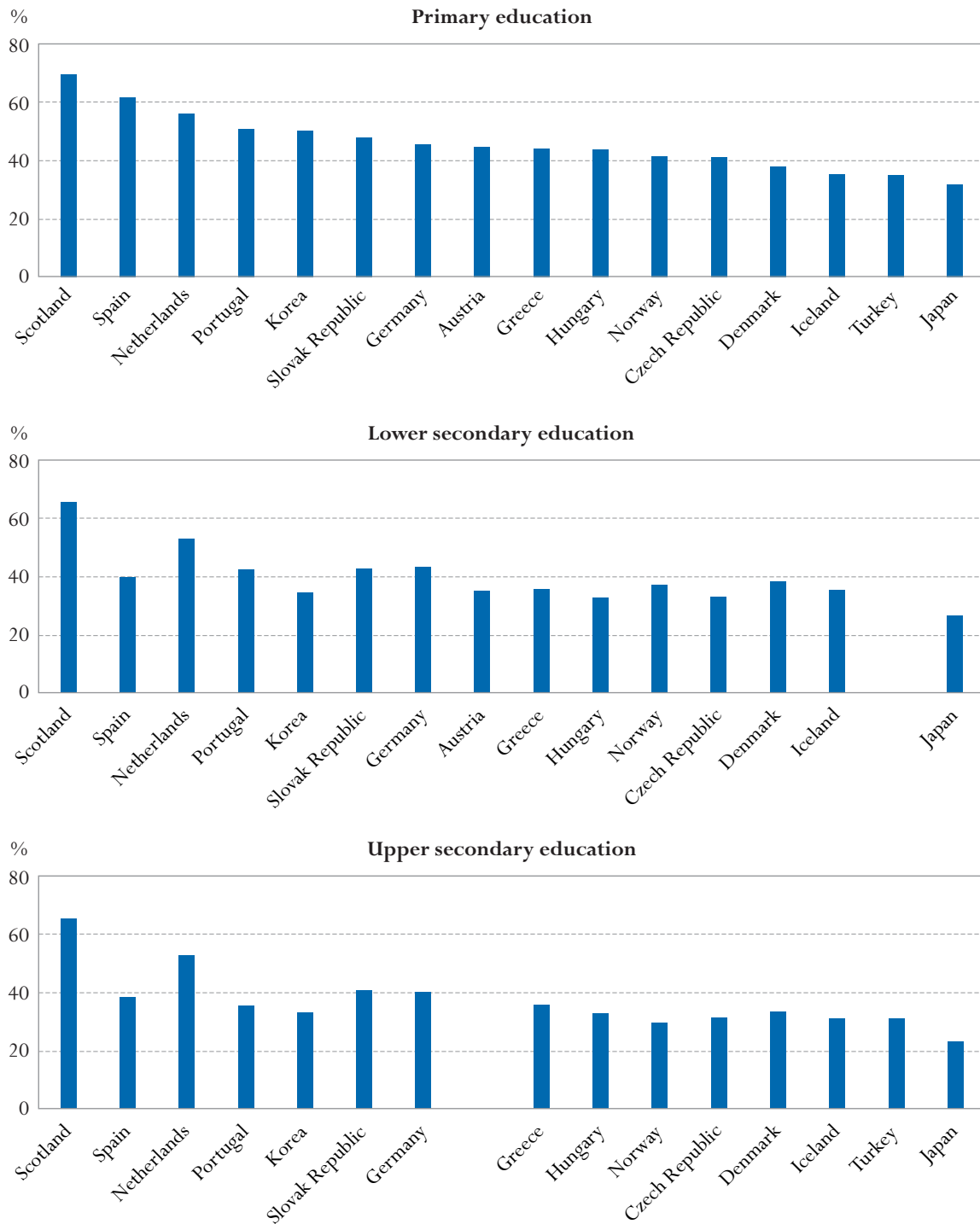
Chart D4.2 shows the net teaching time as a percentage of the total statutory working time. The percentage of working time that is spent teaching is higher at the primary level than it is at the secondary level in all countries. In primary education, in 11 out of 16 countries for which data are available, the percentage of teaching time is less than 50% and in secondary education, only in the Netherlands and Scotland is the teaching time percentage higher than 50%.

The BAPO in the Netherlands: Regulation to stimulate the labour market participation of older staff

To stimulate older staff to become or to stay active in the teaching profession, the so-called BAPO scheme was introduced in 1994. Under the BAPO scheme, staff aged 52 or over can choose to reduce their total number of working hours, subject to a relatively small reduction in their salary. Staff aged 52-55 can reduce their working hours by 10% with a reduction in their salary of 2.5%. For staff aged 56 or over, a 20% reduction in their working hours is possible, in return for a 5% reduction in their salary. However, since people have the opportunity to save BAPO leave for later, the real percentage may be higher. This “leave saving” scheme may also cause some (financial) problems for schools in later years, when large numbers of older staff take their saved BAPO leave in one block as a form of early retirement.

In 9 out of 27 OECD countries for which data are available there are no formal requirements on non-teaching time.

In Australia, the Flemish Community of Belgium, England, France, Ireland, Italy, Mexico (except for upper secondary education), New Zealand and the United States there are no formal requirements for how much time should be spent on non-teaching duties. However, this does not mean that teachers are totally free in carrying out other tasks. In Austria, provisions concerning teaching time are based on the assumption that the duties of the teacher (including preparing lessons and tests, marking and correcting papers, examinations and administrative tasks) amount to a total working time of 40 hours per week. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, the additional non-teaching hours within the school are set at the school level. There are no regulations regarding lesson preparation, correction of tests and marking students’ papers, etc. The government only defines the minimum and maximum number of teaching periods (of 50 minutes each) per week at each level of education.

Chart D4.2. Percentage of teachers' working time spent teaching, by level of education (2002)*Net teaching time as a percentage of total statutory working time*

D4

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of teachers' working time spent teaching in primary education.
 Source: OECD, Table D4.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

In the Czech Republic, Japan and Korea, teachers' working time is specified only in the general regulations on civil servants' working time.

In the Czech Republic, Japan and Korea, teachers are required to work the same number of hours as civil servants. No further regulations are provided at the national level concerning teaching or non-teaching hours. However, in Korea, teachers are additionally required to work during the school vacation on their own schedule on professional development (Table D4.1).

Teachers' workload in the Slovak Republic

The extent of teaching activities and educational activities of Slovak teaching personnel is stipulated by Government Decree No. 162 dating from 1 April 2002. The weekly working time of the teaching personnel is made up of the basic teaching workload and the time during which they carry out other activities connected with the teaching, in agreement with the Work Order of the school or school facility. The basic weekly load of a regular teacher depends on the type of school and ranges from 15 to 35 hours. A lesson period of teaching and educational activities in theoretical subjects, exercises and practical training lasts 45 minutes. Practical classes in different school institutions or in vocational training, last 60 minutes. Every teaching and educational activity exceeding the basic workload is regarded as extra work.

The STRB (School Teachers' Review Body) in England and Wales

The Government has agreed with the STRB for England and Wales, that it is necessary to reduce teachers' long working hours and also the current reported average term-time working week of 52 hours.

All parties agree that such a limit should not be written into the teachers' contract, because imposing a statutory limit would be "unconvincing on practical grounds and unusual for professional people".

Nonetheless, the Government wants to see progressive reductions in teachers' overall hours over the next four years. It will be promoting this with schools and will look to the STRB to monitor progress using formal survey techniques.

D4

Definitions and methodologies

Teaching time

Data are from the 2003 OECD-INES Survey on Teachers and the Curriculum and refer to the school year 2001-2002.

Teaching time is defined as the number of hours per year that a full-time teacher teaches a group or class of students according to the formal policy in the country. It is calculated as the number of teaching days per annum multiplied by the number of hours a teacher teaches per day (excluding periods of time formally allowed for breaks between lessons or groups of lessons). At the pre-primary and primary levels, short breaks between lessons are included if the classroom teacher is responsible for the class during these breaks.

Working time

Working time refers to the normal working hours of a full-time teacher. According to the formal policy in a given country, working time can refer to:

- only the time directly associated with teaching (and other curricular activities for students such as assignments and tests, but excluding annual examinations);
- or time directly associated with teaching and hours devoted to other activities related to teaching, such as lesson preparation, counselling students, correcting assignments and tests, professional development, meetings with parents, staff meetings and general school tasks.

Working time does not include paid overtime.

Working time in school

Working time in school refers to the working time teachers are supposed to spend at school, including teaching time and non-teaching time.

Number of teaching weeks and days

The number of teaching weeks refers to the number of weeks of instruction excluding holiday weeks. The number of teaching days is the number of teaching weeks multiplied by the number of days a teacher teaches per week less the number of days that the school is closed for festivities.

Table D4.1. The organisation of teachers' working time (2002)
Number of teaching weeks, teaching days, net teaching hours and teacher working time over the school year

	Number of weeks of instruction			Number of days of instruction			Net teaching time in hours			Working time required at school in hours			Total statutory working time in hours		
	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes	Primary education	Lower secondary education	Upper secondary education, general programmes
OECD COUNTRIES															
Australia	40	40	40	197	197	197	875	811	811	1 240	1 261	1 261	a	a	a
Austria	38	38	38	184	184	184	792	621	602	a	a	a	1 776	1 776	a
Belgium (Fl.)	37	37	37	179	180	180	836	720	675	a	a	a	a	a	a
Belgium (Fr.)	37	37	37	162	180	180	717	720	661	962	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	39	39	39	191	191	191	793	630	602	a	a	a	1 920	1 920	1 920
Denmark	42	42	42	200	200	200	640	640	560	m	m	m	1 680	1 680	1 680
England	38	38	38	190	190	190	m	m	m	1 265	1 265	1 265	m	m	m
Finland	38	38	38	190	190	190	684	599	556	a	a	a	m	m	m
France	35	35	35	m	m	m	897	631	593	a	a	a	a	a	a
Germany	40	40	40	189	189	189	782	735	684	a	a	a	1 708	1 708	1 708
Greece	40	38	38	195	185	185	780	629	629	1 500	1 425	1 425	1 762	1 762	1 762
Hungary	37	37	37	185	185	185	814	611	611	a	a	a	1 864	1 864	1 864
Iceland	35	35	36	170	170	175	634	634	560	1 650	1 650	1 720	1 800	1 800	1 800
Ireland	37	33	33	183	167	167	915	735	735	915	735	735	a	a	a
Italy	34	34	34	m	m	m	748	612	612	a	a	a	a	a	a
Japan	35	35	35	193	193	193	617	513	449	a	a	a	1 940	1 940	1 940
Korea	37	37	37	220	220	220	811	554	531	a	a	a	1 613	1 613	1 613
Mexico	42	42	36	200	200	174	800	1 167	1 037	800	1 167	a	a	a	971
Netherlands	40	40	40	195	195	195	930	876	876	a	a	a	1 659	1 659	1 659
New Zealand	39	39	38	197	194	190	985	968	950	985	968	950	a	a	a
Norway	38	38	38	190	190	190	713	633	505	903	823	695	1 718	1 718	1 718
Portugal	36	36	33	174	174	160	767	637	533	870	766	640	1 505	1 505	1 505
Scotland	38	38	38	190	190	190	950	893	893	a	a	a	1 365	1 365	1 365
Slovak Republic	39	39	39	191	191	191	739	659	630	a	a	a	1 544	1 544	1 544
Spain	37	36	35	176	171	166	880	564	548	1 140	1 140	1 140	1 425	1 425	1 425
Sweden	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	1 360	1 360	1 360	1 767	1 767	1 767
Switzerland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey	38	a	38	180	a	180	639	a	567	870	a	756	1 824	a	1 824
United States	36	36	36	180	180	180	1 139	1 127	1 121	1 353	1 371	1 371	a	a	a
PARTNER COUNTRIES															
Argentina ¹	38	38	38	180	180	180	810	900	900	m	m	m	m	m	m
Brazil ¹	40	40	40	200	200	200	800	800	800	m	m	m	m	m	m
Chile	40	40	40	192	192	192	864	864	864	m	m	m	m	m	m
Egypt	36	36	36	187	187	187	748	748	748	m	m	m	m	m	m
India	52	52	52	225	225	225	1 013	1 125	1 125	m	m	m	m	m	m
Indonesia	44	44	44	252	252	252	1 260	738	738	m	m	m	m	m	m
Jordan	36	36	36	162	162	162	810	810	810	m	m	m	m	m	m
Malaysia ¹	41	41	41	193	193	193	762	778	778	m	m	m	m	m	m
Paraguay ¹	38	38	38	183	183	183	732	814	915	m	m	m	m	m	m
Peru ¹	36	36	36	172	172	172	774	619	619	m	m	m	m	m	m
Philippines	40	40	40	196	196	196	1 176	1 176	980	m	m	m	m	m	m
Russian Federation	45	45	45	215	215	215	860	774	774	m	m	m	m	m	m
Sri Lanka	40	40	40	200	200	200	960	1 200	1 200	m	m	m	m	m	m
Thailand	40	40	40	181	181	181	760	652	652	m	m	m	m	m	m
Tunisia	32	30	30	147	137	137	735	548	548	m	m	m	m	m	m
Uruguay ¹	37	36	36	165	160	160	720	480	480	m	m	m	m	m	m
Zimbabwe	37	37	37	180	180	180	954	954	954	m	m	m	m	m	m

1. Year of reference 2001.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D4.2. Number of teaching hours per year (1996, 2002)*Net contact time in hours per year in public institutions by level of education, and index of change from 1996 to 2002*

OECD COUNTRIES	Primary education			Lower secondary education			Upper secondary education, general programmes		
	2002	1996	Index of change 1996-2002 (1996 = 100)	2002	1996	Index of change 1996-2002 (1996 = 100)	2002	1996	Index of change 1996-2002 (1996 = 100)
	Australia	875	m	m	811	m	m	811	m
Austria	792	684	116	621	658	94	602	623	97
Belgium (Fl.)	836	841	99	720	724	99	675	679	99
Belgium (Fr.)	717	858	84	720	734	98	661	677	98
Czech Republic	793	635	125	630	607	104	602	580	104
Denmark	640	640	100	640	640	100	560	560	100
England	m	780	m	m	720	m	m	m	m
Finland	684	m	m	599	m	m	556	m	m
France	897	900	100	631	647	98	593	m	m
Germany	782	772	101	735	715	103	684	671	102
Greece	780	780	100	629	629	100	629	629	100
Hungary	814	m	m	611	473	129	611	473	129
Iceland	634	m	m	634	m	m	560	m	m
Ireland	915	915	100	735	735	100	735	735	100
Italy	748	748	100	612	612	100	612	612	100
Japan	617	m	m	513	m	m	449	m	m
Korea	811	m	m	554	m	m	531	m	m
Mexico	800	800	100	1 167	1 182	99	1 037	m	m
Netherlands	930	930	100	876	867	101	876	867	101
New Zealand	985	985	100	968	968	100	950	950	100
Norway	713	713	100	633	633	100	505	505	100
Portugal	767	783	98	637	644	99	533	574	93
Scotland	950	975	97	893	m	m	893	917	97
Slovak Republic	739	m	m	659	m	m	630	m	m
Spain	880	900	98	564	a	m	548	630	87
Sweden	a	624	m	a	576	m	a	528	m
Switzerland	m	871	m	m	850	m	m	669	m
Turkey	639	m	m	a	a	a	567	m	m
United States	1 139	m	m	1 127	m	m	1 121	m	m
Country mean	803	807		717	716		674	660	

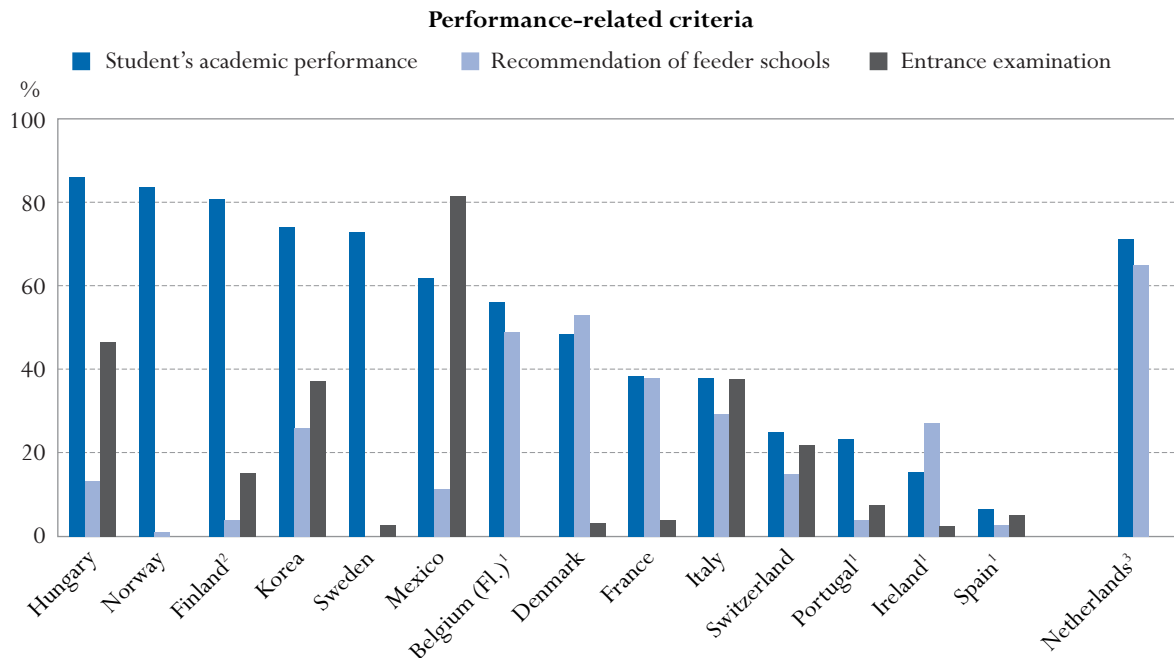
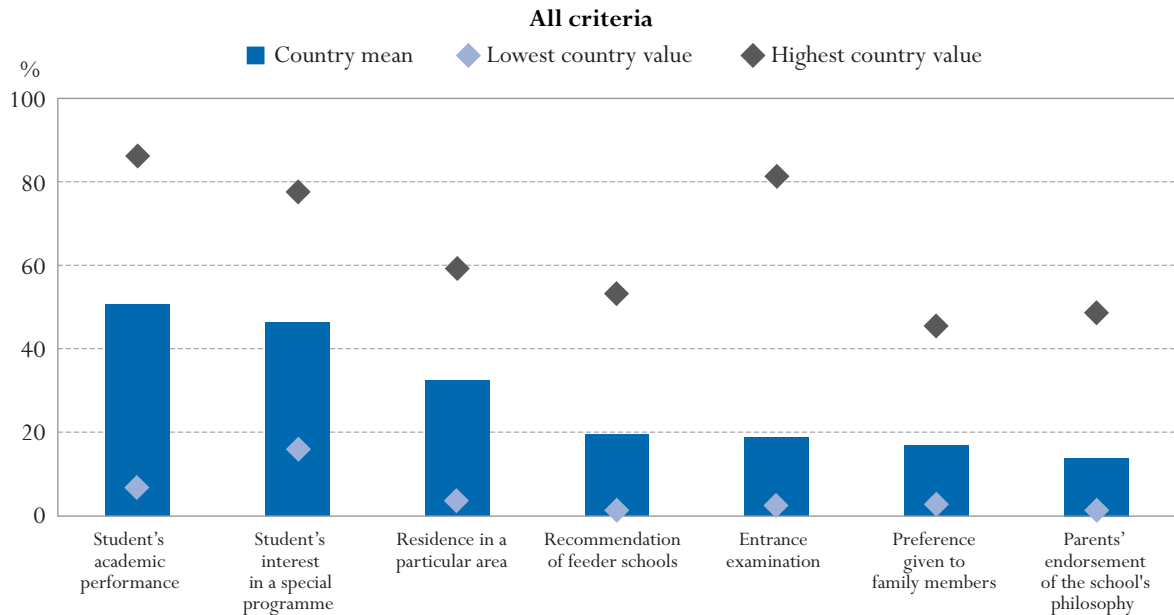
Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

INDICATOR D5: STUDENT ADMISSION, PLACEMENT AND GROUPING POLICIES IN UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

- Students' academic performance is the most commonly used criterion for admitting students to upper secondary schools, though there is wide variation among countries. More than 80% of students in Finland, Hungary and Norway attend schools where students' academic performance is always used as a criterion for admission, whereas in Spain the percentage is less than 10%.
- The other most commonly used factors in admission policies are students' need for and interest in the programme and their residence in a particular area.
- For grouping students, the most commonly used criterion is the student's choice of specific subject or programme; on average some 73% of students attend schools where this criterion is always used. By contrast, in Mexico, almost half the students attend schools where this is never the practice. Grouping students to ensure that classes contain a mixture of abilities is the next most common policy, followed by grouping students by similar age.
- Schools in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Hungary, Ireland and Italy are, on average, more selective both in admitting and in grouping students than the international average. By contrast, in Spain and Sweden, schools appear to be less selective in their admission policies than the international average and they also tend to use selective grouping policies less frequently.

Chart D5.1. Student admission and placement policies in upper secondary education (2001)

Percentage of upper secondary students attending schools where principals reported that various factors are always considered when students are admitted or placed in the school



D5

1. The issue of “admission policy” relates more to lower secondary education than to upper secondary education. In most cases, students are admitted to the school at the start of lower secondary education.

2. In Finland, some general upper secondary schools have enhanced science, music, language, culture, art or sports curricula. Similarly, some vocational secondary schools have enrichment curricula, *i.e.*, on natural resources and environmental issues. Students apply to be enrolled in these schools usually because parents endorse the school's programme.

3. Country did not meet international sampling requirements. The reported data are unweighted.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of upper secondary students attending schools where principals reported always using student's academic performance as an admission criterion.

Source: OECD. Table D5.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004).

OECD's International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS) asked school principals about the student admission and placement policies in their schools.

Policy context

Admission and placement policies explicitly set the framework for selection of students for academic programmes and for streaming of students according to their specific career goals and educational needs. In countries where socio-economic segregation is firmly entrenched through residential segregation, or significant differences exist among programmes and schools at the upper secondary level, admission and grouping policies have high stakes for parents and students. Effective schools are more successful in attracting motivated students and in retaining good teachers; conversely, a “brain drain” of students and staff risks causing the deterioration of other schools, unless equity-oriented policies limit the selectivity of schools, or provisions are made to give an equitable education for all.

Once admitted to school, students become members of a community of peers and adults. The way in which students are grouped within this community has an impact on the learning environment. There are large variations across countries in how students are grouped and cross-national comparisons often neglect these differences as an unknown context factor.

In 2001, the OECD International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS) asked school principals how they consider the student admission and placement policies in their schools. (For a description of the survey see Annex 3 on www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004.)

In all countries participating in the International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools, students are streamed in various types of programmes. Individual schools may specialise in one programme type, or provide a wide range of programmes. They prepare and qualify students for entry to either higher education or the labour market, and sometimes for both.

From this starting point of diverse provision, upper secondary schools typically have more autonomy in selecting and grouping students than primary and lower secondary schools. The degree to which they do so varies across countries; the survey explored the extent of student differentiation in each country.

Evidence and explanations

Student admission policies in upper secondary schools

Countries' school and programme structures determine when students first have to choose between programmes leading to different destinations, or when they first have the opportunity to choose a school that takes them through the programmes that fit their educational goals. In countries where lower secondary programmes are typically taught in “comprehensive” institutions that are separated from differentiated upper secondary institutions, the first important choice among schools is made at the upper secondary level. This is the case in Denmark, France, Finland, Korea, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. However, in countries where lower secondary and upper secondary level programmes are typically organised in the same school, students sometimes select schools – or are selected for different schools – earlier, after completing primary educa-

tion. This is the case in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland, Portugal and Spain. In Hungary, students typically change school after completing lower secondary education, but it is possible to apply for admission to long secondary programmes comprising the whole or part of the lower secondary programme and the upper secondary programme in a single structure. Similar schools – mainly private schools – exist in France, Mexico, Switzerland and Finland as well.

At the upper secondary level, schools in most countries have a relatively high degree of autonomy in deciding whether they accept applicants and how they match students' needs and qualification requirements with programme and course offerings. Yet, there are constraints as well. Admission policies can depend on how schools are financed and whether the number of applicants is within or beyond the capacity of the school. Country regulations concerning academic freedom of choice and universal access influence school admission policies as well.

Chart D5.1 shows the percentage of students whose school principals report that each of seven stated criteria is always considered. The results show a wide variation across countries. In Finland, Hungary, Korea, Norway and Sweden at least 70% of all students attend schools where their previous academic performance is always one of the factors considered for admission. On the other hand, in Ireland, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland, this is not normally an admission factor. In the first three of these countries, students are generally already enrolled in the school when they reach the upper secondary level, so admission is at a younger age, when performance typically is less important relative to other criteria.

Even though academic performance is the single most common admission criterion, it is not usually assessed through an entrance examination. In Mexico, 81% of students attend an upper secondary school that always selects students with such an exam. In Denmark, Hungary, Italy, Korea and Switzerland about half of the students go to schools that use this method at least sometimes. In contrast, entrance examinations are hardly ever organised in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Ireland, Norway, Portugal and Spain though in some cases this is because students are already enrolled in the school when they reach upper secondary level (Chart D5.1 and Table D5.1).

Student interest in a specific programme is considered when there is a choice among school programmes or streams. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, France, Hungary and Italy, around two thirds or more of students attend schools that always consider their request to attend because of a programme interest. On the other hand fewer than one in five students do so in Finland and Korea (Table D5.1).

When local educational authorities have the responsibility to provide places for all applicants within a defined residential area, schools are required to accept all students from a particular area and can accept other students only if they have surplus space. This is typically the case in small townships where schools predominantly serve local students, but in some countries, large urban school

Prior academic performance and programme interest are the most common placement criteria...

...but residence can sometimes be the primary criterion...

systems also have regulations regarding admission policies, which may include the delineation of school districts. This system can promote the integration of students in socially heterogeneous areas. It can also lead to the aggravation of inequities in educational opportunities if residential areas are socially segregated or the school system is selective in other ways.

The degree to which this factor is important varies considerably – even though one-third of students on average attend schools where it is always a criterion, half go to schools where it is never relevant. In France, Portugal and Spain residence is a key admission factor, with more than 50% of students in each country attending schools where it is always a criterion, compared to only a minority where academic performance is always taken into account. In France, however, students’ own interest in a programme is relevant more frequently than residence. On the other hand, in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Finland, residence plays almost no part in student admission criteria at upper secondary level (Table D5.1).

...and other factors such as recommendation of feeder schools or parental endorsement of a school’s religious or educational philosophy commonly play a role in some countries.

While residence, performance and student preference are the dominant admission criteria, some schools take other factors into account. Although the recommendation of feeder schools is not greatly used on average among countries, around 50% of upper secondary students in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Denmark attend schools where the school principal reports that this criterion is always used in admitting students; the figure is less than 5% in Finland, Norway, Portugal and Spain. In Sweden, there is no practice of recommendations from feeder schools. Otherwise, two-thirds of students in the Flemish Community of Belgium and nearly half in Hungary and Ireland have principals who at least sometimes consider whether parents endorse the school’s philosophy when they admit students. In other countries this practice is more rare, and in some cases not even tolerated. In Sweden, for example, the law forbids schools to give preference to students for such reasons (Chart D5.1 and Table D5.1).

Selection by student performance can be summed up in an international index.

Each country has its own distinctive array of placement and admission criteria. A key dimension of admission – selection of students according to performance – can be summed up in an international index. This combines principals’ feedback on admission by academic performance, entrance examinations and feeder school recommendations, producing an “index of performance-related admission policies”. A positive index value for a country indicates that the admission policies are on average more selective than is the case on average across the countries surveyed, while a negative value indicates the countries’ policies are less selective than average. The distribution of schools in each country on this index is reported in Table D5.2.

The results show that countries vary widely in the extent to which students’ performance is considered in admission to upper secondary programmes. In Denmark, Hungary and Mexico, the principals of the great majority of students appear to give more consideration to the entry performance of students than the international average based on this index. By contrast, in Ireland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden, fewer than 25% of students attend schools where this is the

case, though the combined provision of lower and upper secondary education in the same school could in some cases be the explanation for this. The variation among schools in entry performance requirements is largest in Italy: while half of the students go to schools that are less selective from the point of view of academic performance than the international average, at least one quarter of all upper secondary students attends schools that are highly selective.

Grouping students in upper secondary schools

In some countries, at the upper secondary level, no permanent student classes exist, *i.e.*, students attend courses in different subjects with different groups. In other systems, students are grouped by the level of courses they take rather than by age or year (grade), and they may attend courses with students of a wide age range. There are also systems where it is customary to have “administrative classes”, *i.e.*, stable student groups, which are taught together in all or most subjects and stay together for the period of the entire programme (*e.g.*, the Flemish Community of Belgium, Hungary). Beside systemic differences, many variations exist at the school level. At the upper secondary level, students usually have elective subjects for which they may be recruited from several administrative classes within their grade. Conversely, the same subjects may be offered at different course levels which may induce schools to ignore grade level in grouping students.

The pattern of response to the question on which criteria are used in grouping students is summarised in Table D5.3. The most common reported grouping criterion was students’ choices of programme or subject: 73% of students attend schools where their choices are “always” used for grouping. The percentage in individual countries is shown in Chart D5.2.

Overlaying these factors is the issue of how students are grouped by age. Here there is a mixture of practice, with somewhat more students (48%) attending schools which “never” group students of similar ages, but 40% going to schools that “always” do.

Two other factors – teacher expertise and parental requests – are only rarely used as grouping criteria.

As shown in Chart D5.2 and Table D5.3, choice of programme or subject is the most frequent basis for grouping students. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Portugal and Sweden, this is overwhelmingly the most important factor, used at virtually all schools. However, in Mexico, only one-third of students attend schools where choice of programme or subject is always used as the basis for specific student grouping and half of the students attend schools where students are never grouped by choice of programme or subject. In Norway, grouping on the basis of student programme/subject choice occurs for some subjects after the first year and in technical-type schools.

Grouping by similar ability levels is sometimes used as a “hidden” selection policy, reinforcing the more visible effect of ability-based admissions. It is often argued that grouping students by ability level helps both poor and bright

In the International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools, principals were asked how they group students.

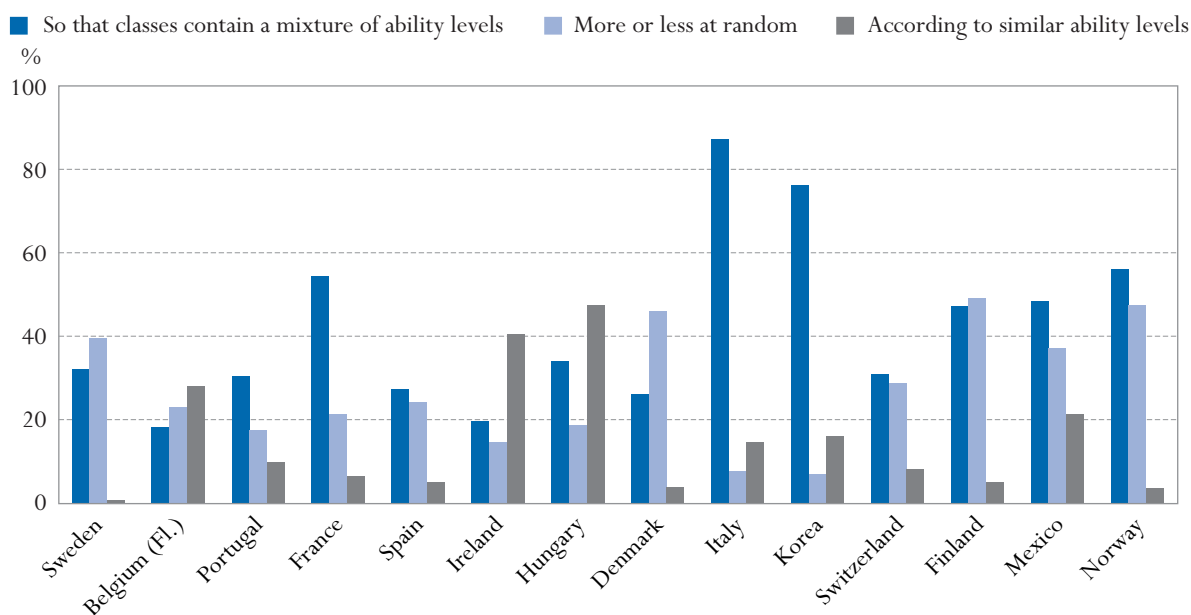
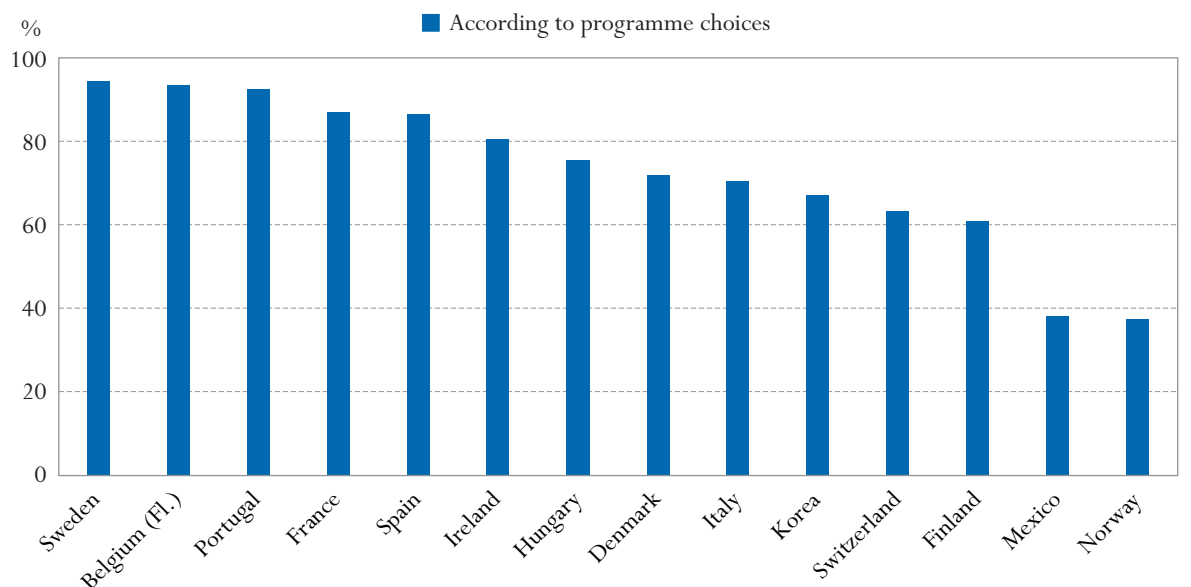
Choice of a specific course or subject is the most frequent basis for grouping students in upper secondary education.

In a minority of schools, ability grouping reinforces student selection.

D5

Chart D5.2. Criteria for grouping students in upper secondary education (2001)

Percentage of upper secondary students attending schools where principals reported that various criteria are always used when students are grouped in classes



Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of students attending schools where principals reported that students are grouped in classes according to their programme choices.

Source: OECD, Table D5.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

students to progress in suitable learning environments. Recent research shows, however, that students in both the “low ability groups” and in the “high ability groups” can lose.

The survey results show that overall, only 15% of students on average attend schools where ability grouping is a standard policy, whereas more than 50% attend schools where they are never grouped by ability. Nearly half of the students in Hungary and Ireland attend schools where grouping students according to similar ability levels is regular practice. By contrast, less than 10% of students attend schools in Denmark, Finland, France, Norway, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland where this is the case. In many schools, a policy to the opposite effect is employed; students are grouped so that classes contain a mixture of ability levels. On average, this policy is reported by the principals of 42% of students across countries and of more than 75% in Italy and Korea.

Student age seems to count less at this level in grouping students than in primary and lower secondary education. However, in Hungary and Sweden, year cohorts are still taught together. By contrast, in Denmark, Finland, France and Korea, two-thirds of students or more attend schools where principals report that they never consider student age as a grouping criterion at this level. Systemic differences in the organisation of upper secondary education may account for this variety of responses. But even apparent similarities can hide fundamental policy differences. For example, automatic student promotion results in students of similar ages being taught together. However, strict selection and streaming practices can produce the same effect: students progress with their age cohort, drop out, or are transferred to another programme type designed for the same age cohort with different destinations and interests, as is the case in Hungary.

An index of selective grouping policies was developed from the criteria shown in Table D5.3, together with the question on parents’ and guardians’ requests. It was assumed that random grouping and grouping to achieve a mixture of ability levels are less likely to reinforce performance differences (and therefore, they were assigned a negative score in the index) and ability grouping and grouping according to parental requests are more likely to reinforce performance differences (and therefore, they were assigned a positive value). The index was standardised on an international scale. Table D5.4 shows the mean index of selective grouping policies by countries (a positive value means more selective grouping policies compared to the average for the other countries surveyed) and differences between schools within countries.

In Finland, Korea and Norway, more than 75% of students and in Denmark, France, Italy, Mexico, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland more than half of upper secondary students attend schools where grouping criteria appear less selective than the international average. By contrast, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Hungary and Portugal, the majority of students go to schools where grouping within schools is more likely to reinforce performance differences among students. In Ireland, the high index value is explained by the fact that students decide on the subjects and levels of examinations they intend to sit for,

Upper secondary students are typically grouped into classes of similar ages in Hungary and Sweden, while they are rarely grouped by age in Denmark, Finland, France and Korea.

A selection-related index summarises different countries’ grouping policies.

and they are grouped in their courses accordingly. In this examination-driven context, ability grouping does not have the same meaning as in school systems where course structure is determined by pre-defined curricula.

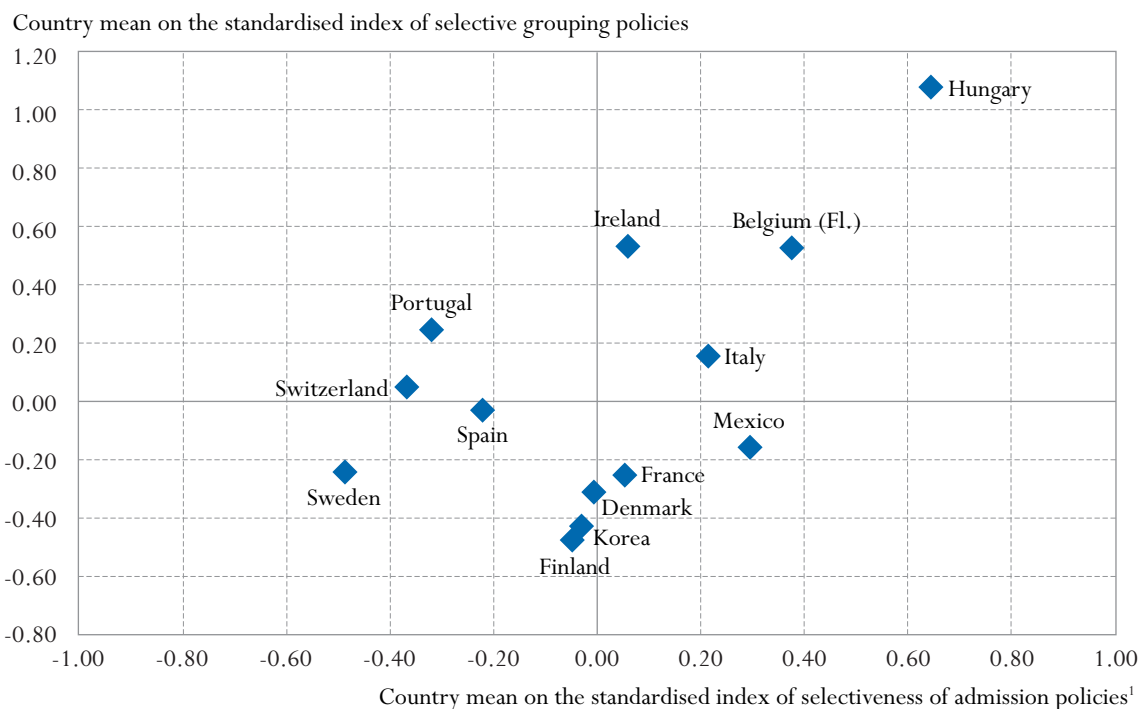
In Spain and Sweden selective admission and grouping policies are less frequent than in other countries.

How are selective admission and grouping policies related to each other? Chart D5.3 compares the selectiveness of each type of policy. On the horizontal axis, an index of selectiveness combines scores on the index of performance-related selection policies with an index of selection policies related to parental endorsement.¹ The vertical axis shows the index of selective grouping policies within the school.

This graph shows that in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Hungary, Ireland and Italy schools are, on average, more selective both in admitting and in grouping students than the international average. By contrast, in Spain and Sweden, schools appear to be less selective in their admission policies than the international average and they also tend to use selective grouping policies less frequently. These two aspects of selectivity do not, however, necessarily go together. It could be, for example, that academically highly selective schools have less need than more “comprehensive” schools to divide by ability within

Chart D5.3. Performance-related admission policies and selective grouping policies (2001)

Country means on the standardised indices of selective grouping policies and of the selectiveness of admission policies



Example: A country located in top right-hand quarter has both admission and grouping policies that are more selective than average.

Note: Only countries providing internationally comparable data are included in the international indices.

1. The values correspond to the average of the standardised index of admission policies related to performance and the standardised index of admission policies related to parental endorsement. Positive values indicate that policies are more selective than on average across the countries surveyed.

Source: OECD, Tables D5.2 and D5.4. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eq2004).

classes. France and Mexico are somewhat more selective by average on admission but less so on grouping. In Portugal the reverse is true. However, these are the only three of the 13 countries where selectivity in admission and in grouping shows opposite tendencies.

This preliminary attempt to classify the selectivity of school systems needs to be read with caution. One limitation is that the purpose for which a particular policy can be used can vary. For example, depending on the social and the pedagogical context, ability grouping can be used to provide additional help or a more adequate learning environment for academically disadvantaged students, or alternatively for segregating the socially disadvantaged.

More generally, the relationship between the separation of students at upper secondary level and the overall equity of education systems and their outcomes is far from straightforward. This is partly because issues of equity start to interact with issues of “steering” at this educational stage. As students with different talents and other characteristics move towards different futures, the most equitable form of education is not necessarily to keep them all at the same school or in the same class. Nevertheless, there is still the potential for separation to create an inequitable distribution of opportunities.

Definitions and methodologies

Data in this indicator are drawn from the responses of school principals to the OECD’s International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS), a study of mainstream upper secondary education implemented in 4 400 schools in 15 countries during the school year 2001/2002. For more detail see Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004.

Student admission policies include the following criteria: residence in a particular area, students’ academic performance, entrance examinations, recommendation of feeder schools, parents’ endorsement of the school’s philosophy, whether the student requires or is interested in a special programme, preference given to family members of current or former students.

Selective grouping policies are defined by the type of students’ grouping. Students are grouped or assigned to classes: more or less at random, according to similar ability levels, so that classes contain a mixture of ability levels, according to the special expertise of teachers, composed of students of similar ages, according to their choice of programme or subject, according to parents’ requests.

The *index of performance-related admission policies* is calculated by summing the school principal’s responses to the question of how often they considered the following criteria when admitting or placing students to upper secondary programmes: student’s academic performance, entrance examinations and recommendation of feeder schools. The response alternative “always” or “often” was assigned a code of 2, “sometimes” was assigned a code of 1 and “never” was assigned a code of 0.

The *index of selective grouping policies within schools* is calculated by summing the school principal’s responses to the question of how often upper second-

But measuring selectivity is not easy, and the consequences of policies for equity are not straightforward.

Data on student admission and grouping policies derive from the OECD’s International Survey of Upper Secondary Schools (ISUSS) in 2001.

ary students were grouped in the school more or less at a random, according to similar ability levels, so that classes contain a mixture of ability levels and according to the requests of parents/guardians. In calculating the overall index, the “integrative” methods (*i.e.*, random grouping and grouping into classes that contain a mixture of ability levels) were considered with a negative sign. The response alternative “always” or “often” was assigned a code of 2, “sometimes” was assigned a code of 1 and “never” was assigned a code of 0. Thus a high score on this index means a strong tendency to stream students by ability or socio-cultural background. A low score means an integrative approach to grouping students.

Note

1. The latter is based on the degree to which schools use parental endorsement of the school’s philosophy and preference given to family members. The index of selectiveness of admissions is an average of the indices of performance-related selection policy and of selection related to parental endorsement.

Table D5.1. Student admission and placement policies in upper secondary education, as reported by school principals (2001)

Percentage of upper secondary students attending schools where the principal reported that various factors are always, sometimes or never considered when students are admitted or placed in upper secondary programmes in the school

	Residence in a particular area			Student's academic performance			Entrance examination			Recommendation of feeder schools		
	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always
OECD COUNTRIES												
Belgium (Fl.) ¹	92	5	3	16	28	56	94	6	n	14	37	49
Denmark	55	18	26	19	32	48	33	63	3	19	28	53
Finland ²	80	15	4	9	10	81	62	22	15	64	32	4
France	27	17	57	23	38	38	89	7	4	21	41	38
Hungary	67	10	23	7	7	86	45	8	46	58	29	13
Ireland ¹	76	11	14	56	28	15	93	5	2	42	30	27
Italy	56	18	26	51	11	38	53	10	38	48	23	29
Korea	34	13	53	17	10	74	55	8	37	63	11	26
Mexico	65	19	16	22	16	62	11	7	81	66	23	11
Norway	31	20	50	5	11	83	92	8	n	64	35	1
Portugal ¹	20	21	59	43	34	23	92	0	8	66	30	4
Spain ¹	32	9	59	78	15	7	76	19	5	81	16	3
Sweden	51	18	31	9	18	73	67	31	3	100	n	n
Switzerland	47	19	33	58	17	25	29	50	22	60	25	15
Country mean	52	15	32	30	20	51	64	17	19	55	26	20
Netherlands ³	100	n	n	11	18	71	87	13	n	6	29	65

	Parents' endorsement of the school's philosophy			Whether the student requires or is interested in a special programme			Preference given to family members of current or former students		
	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always
OECD COUNTRIES									
Belgium (Fl.) ¹	34	18	48	5	30	65	78	16	6
Denmark	95	5	n	15	22	63	81	12	7
Finland ²	70	8	22	33	52	16	98	1	n
France	84	7	9	7	27	67	59	30	11
Hungary	55	11	34	10	12	77	41	32	28
Ireland ¹	52	27	21	29	39	32	44	20	36
Italy	72	11	18	16	15	68	46	29	25
Korea	84	10	6	60	22	18	87	9	4
Mexico	74	9	17	51	23	26	77	17	6
Norway ⁴	98	2	n	28	45	26	100	a	a
Portugal ¹	81	13	5	12	34	54	55	30	15
Spain ¹	79	9	13	39	26	35	33	21	46
Sweden	100	a	a	16	26	58	100	a	a
Switzerland	96	3	2	27	31	42	92	6	2
Country mean	77	9	14	25	29	46	71	19	17
Netherlands ³	64	24	13	14	18	68	100	n	n

1. The issue of "admission policy" relates more to lower secondary education than to upper secondary education. In most cases, students are admitted to the school at the start of lower secondary education.

2. In Finland, some general upper secondary schools have enhanced science, music, language, culture, art or sports curricula. Similarly, some vocational secondary schools have enrichment curricula *e.g.*, on natural resources and environmental issues. Students apply to be enrolled in these schools usually because parents endorse the school's programme.

3. Country did not meet international sampling requirements. The reported data are unweighted.

4. Figures are imputed for Norway as the question was not asked in this way in the Norwegian survey.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D5.2. Indices of admission and placement policies related to student's performance (2001)
Country means and standard deviations on the international standard index and index values at different percentiles of the upper secondary student population

		Standardised index of performance-related admission policies (student's academic performance, entrance examination and recommendation of feeder schools)							
		Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Percentiles				
					10 th	25 th	Median	75 th	90 th
OECD COUNTRIES	Belgium (Fl.) ¹	0.25	0.78	(0.05)	-0.86	-0.24	0.38	1.00	1.00
	Denmark	0.57	0.97	(0.08)	-0.86	-0.24	1.00	1.62	1.62
	Finland ²	0.16	0.78	(0.05)	-0.86	-0.24	0.38	0.38	1.00
	France	0.04	0.90	(0.05)	-1.48	-0.24	0.38	1.00	1.00
	Hungary	0.58	0.90	(0.05)	-0.24	-0.24	1.00	1.00	1.62
	Ireland ¹	-0.54	0.84	(0.06)	-1.48	-1.48	-0.86	-0.24	0.38
	Italy	0.07	1.40	(0.07)	-1.48	-1.48	-0.24	1.62	2.24
	Korea	0.32	0.99	(0.06)	-0.86	-0.24	-0.24	1.00	1.62
	Mexico	0.68	0.92	(0.05)	-0.24	-0.24	1.00	1.00	1.62
	Norway	-0.10	0.52	(0.04)	-0.86	-0.24	-0.24	0.38	0.38
	Portugal ¹	-0.66	0.86	(0.06)	-1.48	-1.48	-0.86	-0.24	0.38
	Spain ¹	-0.99	0.67	(0.04)	-1.48	-1.48	-1.48	-0.86	-0.24
	Sweden	-0.25	0.55	(0.04)	-0.86	-0.24	-0.24	-0.24	0.38
	Switzerland	-0.16	0.97	(0.04)	-1.48	-0.86	-0.24	0.38	1.00
	Country mean	0.00	0.86	(0.05)	-1.03	-0.64	-0.02	0.56	1.00

Note: Only countries providing internationally comparable data are included in the international indices.

1. The issue of "admission policy" relates more to lower secondary education than to upper secondary education. In most cases, students are admitted to the school at the start of lower secondary education.

2. In Finland, some general upper secondary schools have enhanced science, music, language, culture, art or sports curricula. Similarly, some vocational secondary schools have enrichment curricula *e.g.*, on natural resources and environmental issues. Students apply to be enrolled in these schools usually because parents endorse the school's programme.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D5.3. Frequency of using various criteria in grouping students in upper secondary schools, as reported by school principals (2001)
Percentage of upper secondary students attending schools where the principal reported that different grouping policies are always, sometimes or never used

		Students are grouped or assigned to classes...											
		more or less at random			according to similar ability levels			so that classes contain a mixture of ability levels			according to the special expertise of teachers		
		Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always
OECD COUNTRIES	Belgium (Fl.)	54	23	23	41	31	28	49	32	18	85	13	2
	Denmark	31	23	46	72	24	4	50	24	26	83	15	2
	Finland	26	25	49	58	37	5	41	11	47	74	23	4
	France	50	28	21	68	26	7	24	22	54	54	19	27
	Hungary	64	18	19	26	26	48	41	25	34	81	10	9
	Ireland	49	37	15	9	50	41	25	55	20	61	28	11
	Italy	83	10	8	70	15	15	8	4	87	86	12	1
	Korea	75	18	7	58	26	16	12	12	76	78	13	9
	Mexico	44	19	37	50	29	21	30	21	48	75	20	5
	Norway	25	27	48	56	40	4	21	23	56	76	21	3
	Portugal	67	16	18	74	16	10	45	25	31	70	15	15
	Spain	57	19	24	79	16	5	52	21	27	97	3	n
	Sweden	41	19	40	85	14	1	48	20	32	70	25	5
	Switzerland	48	23	29	44	48	8	40	29	31	73	10	16
	<i>Country mean</i>	<i>51</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>27</i>	<i>56</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>35</i>	<i>23</i>	<i>42</i>	<i>76</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>8</i>
	Netherlands ¹	100	n	n	100	n	n	100	n	n	100	n	n

		Students are grouped or assigned to classes...								
		composed of students of similar ages			according to their choice of programme or subject			according to parents' requests		
		Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always	Never	Sometimes	Always
OECD COUNTRIES	Belgium (Fl.)	50	8	42	4	3	93	47	49	4
	Denmark	65	29	6	13	15	72	67	32	1
	Finland	67	16	16	12	27	61	81	18	1
	France	73	7	20	3	10	87	73	25	2
	Hungary	4	2	94	11	14	75	19	39	42
	Ireland	57	10	33	7	13	80	63	33	4
	Italy	38	10	52	19	10	70	14	68	18
	Korea	77	4	19	15	18	67	88	10	2
	Mexico	51	20	29	48	14	38	73	22	5
	Norway	39	7	55	27	36	37	83	17	n
	Portugal	31	38	31	5	3	93	48	45	7
	Spain	58	10	32	7	7	86	75	20	5
	Sweden	n	n	100	n	6	94	60	37	3
	Switzerland	60	9	30	10	27	63	70	26	4
	<i>Country mean</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>40</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>73</i>	<i>62</i>	<i>31</i>	<i>7</i>
	Netherlands ¹	100	n	n	1	n	99	100	n	n

1. Country did not meet international sampling requirements. The reported data are unweighted.

 Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D5.4. Index of selective grouping policies within schools, as reported by school principals (2001)
 Country means and standard deviations on the international standard index and index values at different percentiles of the upper secondary student population

OECD COUNTRIES	Mean	Standard deviation	Standart error	Percentiles				
				10 th	25 th	Median	75 th	90 th
Belgium (Fl.)	0.52	0.97	(0.06)	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13	1.73
Denmark	-0.25	0.87	(0.07)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13
Finland	-0.47	0.86	(0.05)	-1.89	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52
France	-0.32	0.81	(0.04)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	0.52
Hungary	1.07	1.12	(0.06)	-0.68	-0.08	1.13	1.73	2.33
Ireland	0.53	0.97	(0.06)	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13	1.73
Italy	0.15	0.76	(0.04)	-0.68	-0.08	-0.08	0.52	1.13
Korea	-0.43	0.84	(0.05)	-1.89	-0.68	-0.68	-0.08	0.52
Mexico	-0.16	0.95	(0.05)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13
Norway	-0.65	0.72	(0.05)	-1.89	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52
Portugal	0.24	0.87	(0.06)	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	0.52	1.13
Spain	-0.03	0.89	(0.05)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13
Sweden	-0.25	0.86	(0.06)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13
Switzerland	0.05	0.93	(0.04)	-1.28	-0.68	-0.08	0.52	1.13
<i>Country mean</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.89</i>	<i>(0.05)</i>	<i>-1.20</i>	<i>-0.55</i>	<i>0.01</i>	<i>0.57</i>	<i>1.13</i>

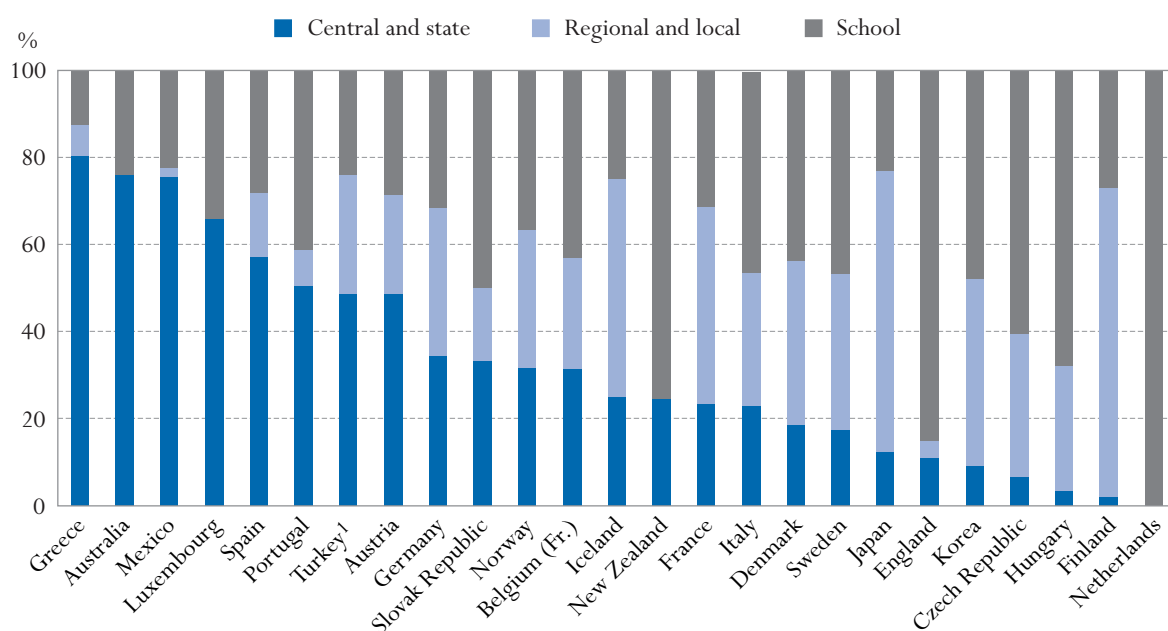
Note: Only countries providing internationally comparable data are included in the international index.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004).

INDICATOR D6: DECISION MAKING IN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

- Overall, decisions are most highly centralised (taken at the central and/or state level of government) in Australia, Austria, Greece, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, Spain and Turkey, with central government particularly dominant in Greece (88% of decisions taken by the central administration) and Luxembourg (66%).
- Decisions are more often taken at the school level in the Czech Republic, England, Hungary, New Zealand and the Slovak Republic and in particular in the Netherlands where all decisions are taken at the school level.
- Decisions on the organisation of instruction are predominantly taken by schools in all OECD countries, while decisions on planning and structures are mostly the domain of more centralised tiers of government. The picture is more mixed for decisions on personnel management and allocation and use of resources.
- Just less than half of decisions taken by schools are taken in full autonomy, about the same proportion as those taken within a framework set by a higher authority. Decisions taken by schools in consultation with others are relatively rare. Schools are less likely to make autonomous decisions related to planning and structures than related to other domains.
- Between 1998 and 2003, decision making in most countries became more decentralised, most notably in the Czech Republic, Korea and Turkey. The opposite trend was evident in the French Community of Belgium and Greece.

Chart D6.1. Percentage of decisions relating to public sector lower secondary education, taken at each level of government (2003)



Example: In Greece, 80% of decisions are taken at the highest level of government (central and state), 7% at regional and local levels and 13% at the school level.

1. Data refer to primary education.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of decisions taken at central and state levels of government.

Source: OECD, Table D6.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

This indicator shows where decisions are made in the education system at the lower secondary level, by domain and mode of decision making.

It also provides insight into the relative importance of administrative levels in education systems.

School autonomy can be seen as the focal point of decentralisation policies.

Policy context

An important factor in educational policy is the division of responsibilities among national, regional and local authorities, as well as schools. Placing more decision-making authority at lower levels of the educational system has been a key aim in educational restructuring and systemic reform in many countries since the early 1980s. Yet, simultaneously, there have been frequent examples of strengthening the influence of the central authorities in some areas. For example, a freeing of “process” and financial regulations may be accompanied by an increase in the control of output from the centre, and by national curriculum frameworks.

There are many motives for changes in patterns of centralisation and they vary from country to country. The most common goals are increased efficiency and improved financial control, reduction of bureaucracy, increased responsiveness to local communities, creative management of human resources, improved potential for innovation and creation of conditions that provide more incentives for improving the quality of schooling. Among the more controversial policy-related themes are a heightened interest in measures of accountability and equity. These last two themes sometimes provide the background for measures that are more “centralised”, such as national assessment programmes and centrally established frameworks.

Various motives are attributed to the desire to increase the autonomy of schools, such as enhancing the quality, effectiveness and responsiveness of schooling. As far as equity is concerned, increased autonomy is more controversial. School autonomy is believed to foster responsiveness to local requirements but is also sometimes seen as involving mechanisms for choice that favour already advantaged groups in society. Setting centrally determined frameworks in which individual schools make decisions is a possible counterbalance against complete school autonomy.

This indicator presents results from the data collection on decision making at the lower secondary level of education and provides an update to the previous collection, which took place in 1998. Responses were compiled by a panel of experts in each country, representing different levels of the decision-making process at the lower secondary level. Whilst the questionnaire was largely the same between the 1998 and 2003 collections, the make up of the panel in each country will have changed. There may, therefore be a subjective element in the changes evident when comparing the results from the two surveys.

Evidence and explanations

In 14 out of 25 OECD countries, most types of decisions are taken locally or by the school itself.

In 14 out of 25 countries most types of decisions that bear on lower secondary education are taken locally or by the school itself. The school itself is by far the most important level of decision making in the Czech Republic, England, Hungary and New Zealand, where well over half of decisions are taken at the school level, and particularly in the Netherlands where all decisions are taken at the school level. Decision making at the local level as opposed to the school level is a particular feature of the lower secondary education system in Finland

where 70% of decisions are taken at that level, and to a lesser extent in Iceland and Japan where the percentage is around 50%.

Central government is dominant in Greece and Luxembourg and to a lesser extent in Portugal and Turkey, where around 50% or more of the decisions are taken by the central authority. By contrast, in Australia, the French Community of Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain, the central government often sets the framework within which decisions are made, but makes no final decisions related to implementation. In the Czech Republic, England, Finland, Germany, Hungary and Korea, government's role is fairly limited.

In federal countries, as well as countries with largely autonomous provinces, there is a tendency towards a greater role for the states or autonomous provinces as the most important centralised decision-making authority. This is particularly true in Australia and Spain where 76% and 57%, respectively, of decisions are taken at the state level.

In some countries such as France, Germany, Norway and Turkey, decision making is more evenly distributed among the central level, the intermediate level and the schools (Table D6.1 and Chart D6.1). In three countries – Australia, Luxembourg and New Zealand – there is only one level of government that makes decisions regarding education beyond those made by schools.

Domains of decision making

Because a general assessment of the roles played in the decision-making process includes decisions made in different domains, this aggregate measure can hide differences in the degree of centralisation of different types of decisions. For example, a country may centralise almost all decisions about the curriculum, whereas the schools may have nearly complete control over decisions about teaching methods. The distribution of decisions taken by each administrative level across four domains of decision making (the organisation of instruction, personnel management, planning and structures, and resources – see “Definitions and Methodologies” at the end of the indicator text) is an indicator of “functional decentralisation”, taking into account that countries may be decentralised in certain activities and centralised in others.

When decisions are differentiated according to domain, the data show that decisions about the organisation of instruction are predominantly taken by schools in all OECD countries reporting data. Thus, decisions such as the choice of teaching methods and textbooks, criteria for grouping students within schools and day-to-day methods of student assessment are largely the responsibility of the school and in the case of England, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands and New Zealand are solely in schools' hands. Even in the most “centralised” country, Greece, some 50% of decisions in this domain are taken by schools: it is, in fact, the only domain where Greek schools make decisions (Table D6.2).

In the three other domains (personnel management, planning and structures and resources), the number of decisions taken by schools is, in general, considerably lower and the patterns are more mixed. On average, schools are least

Central government remains the primary decision maker in Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal while in other countries the role of central government in decision making is limited.

Decision-making responsibility in the organisation of instruction, personnel management, planning and structures, and resources can lie with different administrative units.

Schools predominate in taking decisions about the organisation of instruction...

...while in other domains of decision making patterns are more mixed.

likely to have decision-making responsibility in the area of planning and structures (ranging from decisions to open or close a school, through to programme design and credentialing). In 13 of 25 countries at least 50% of decisions are taken centrally and, in Greece, all such decisions are taken centrally. Even in some countries which tend to be more decentralised, such as Austria, Iceland and Sweden, central government has an important role in decision making on planning and structures of the education system.

In the personnel management domain (including decisions on the hiring and dismissal of staff, and setting salary schedules and conditions of work), more than 50% of decisions are taken centrally in Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal and Turkey, and by the state or provincial government in Australia, Mexico and Spain. Local administrations in Finland and Iceland take most decisions on personnel management, and schools do so in England, Hungary, the Netherlands (100%), New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Sweden. In Korea, along with the organisation of instruction, personnel management is the only area of decision making for which the central tier of government has some responsibility (Table D6.2).

The allocation and use of resources is the area of decision making in which the local level of government has, on average, the most responsibility, with the local tier having a significant role in around half of the countries. All such decisions are in fact taken at the local level in Finland and Iceland. In Germany, where the *Länder* generally have a relatively high degree of responsibility for decisions, no decisions are taken by that tier of government on the allocation or use of resources. Instead, this is mainly in the hands of the local tier of government (Table D6.2).

Modes of decision making

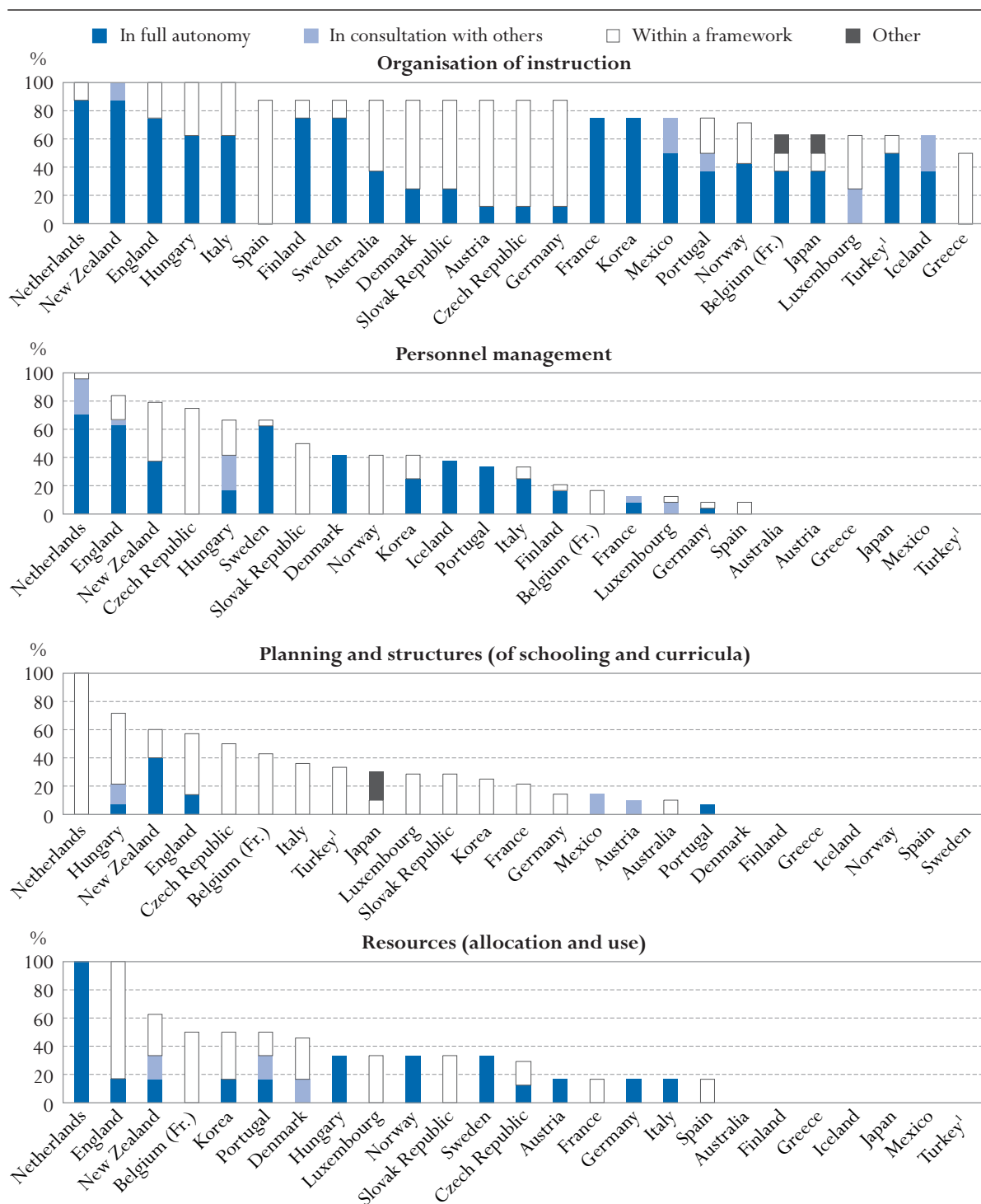
The degree of autonomy that schools have in their decision making is variable

Table D6.3 shows the percentage of decisions taken by the school by mode or degree of autonomy of the decisions taken. On average across countries, most decisions are made – in equal measure – either in autonomy or within a framework set by a higher authority. Decisions taken after consultation with others in the education system or taken under other circumstances are on average relatively rare.

In the three countries where most decision making is in the hands of schools – England (85%), the Netherlands (100%) and New Zealand (75%) – at least 50% of these decisions are taken in full autonomy and between 30 to 50% are taken within a framework set by a higher authority. The remainder are mainly made in consultation with other bodies in the educational system. By contrast, in the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic, where the proportion of decisions taken by schools is also above average, schools' decisions are predominantly taken within a framework set by a higher authority. Perhaps more predictably, decisions taken by schools in countries which tend to have more centralised decision making are more likely to be subject to a framework. This is the case in the French Community of Belgium, Germany, Greece and Spain.

Within the four broad domains of decision making, decisions taken by schools related to planning and structures are least likely to be taken in full autonomy and are most likely to be taken within a framework (Table D6.4 and Chart D6.2).

Chart D6.2. Percentage of decisions taken by schools in public sector lower secondary education, by mode and domain of decision making (2003)



Example: In the Netherlands, all decisions in each domain are taken at the school level but these decisions can be taken in full autonomy or in consultation with others or within a framework. All decisions on resources are taken in full autonomy whereas all decisions on planning and structures are taken within a framework set by a higher level.

1. Data refer to primary education.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of decisions taken by schools within each domain.

Source: OECD, Table 6.4. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

This is well illustrated in the Netherlands, for instance, where school-level decisions are largely taken in full autonomy in all areas except in planning and structures (where all decisions are taken within a framework). School decision making in New Zealand, however, differs from this pattern in that two-thirds of school decisions on planning and structures are taken in full autonomy.

For the other domains, school decision making is on average as likely to be taken in full autonomy as it is within a framework set by a higher authority; however, the patterns vary among countries. In France and Korea, for instance, all decisions that schools take on the organisation of instruction are taken in full autonomy, whereas no such decisions are taken autonomously by schools in Greece and Spain.

Although, on average, schools are least likely to take decisions on the allocation and use of resources, they are most likely to be consulted on such decisions taken by others in the education system. In Denmark, Finland and Luxembourg, more than 50% of the decisions on resources are taken in consultation with schools.

Between 1998 and 2003, decision making in most countries has become more decentralised.

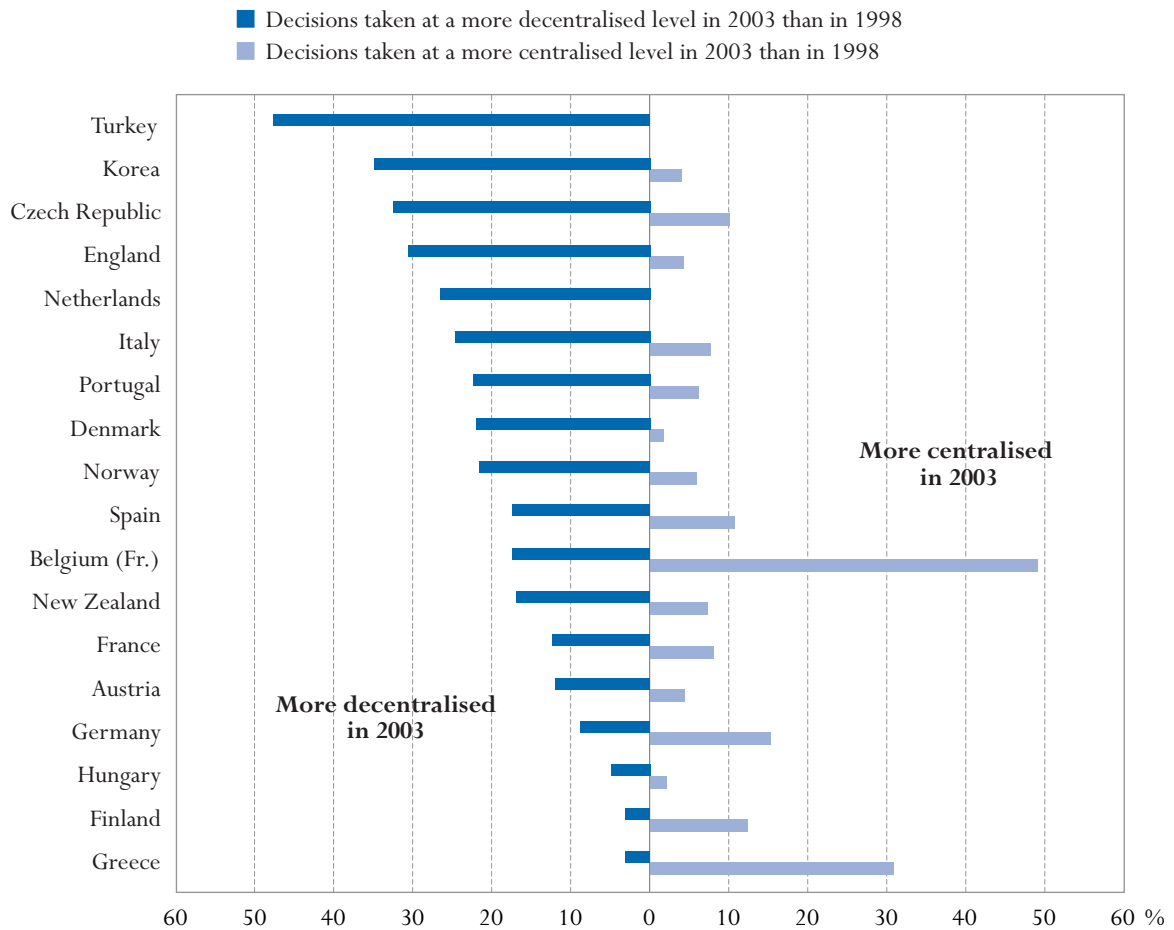
Table D6.6 and Chart D6.3 show that in 14 out of 19 countries decisions are taken at a more decentralised level in 2003 than in 1998. This is most noticeable in the Czech Republic, Korea and Turkey where more than 30% of decisions are taken at a more decentralised level in 2003 than five years earlier. Focussing on the school level, over 20% more decisions are made by schools in England, Korea, the Netherlands and Norway over the same period. But at the same time, in the French Community of Belgium and Greece, there have been shifts towards more centralised decision making. For example in Greece, central government had responsibility for 25% more decisions in 2003 than it did in 1998.

Decentralisation in Denmark

In the most recent years, decentralisation in Denmark has been somewhat impeded by what might be interpreted as a new centralisation, where municipalities or institutions co-operate or are united into larger units with shared leadership. Co-operation among municipalities has been established in several ways and with several degrees of formality. The co-operation and unification are intended to bring economies of scale and quality assurance in relation to increasing challenges and demands from the outside world. These new opportunities for joint operation and common leadership of basic schools, and between different types of schools, are being created through the revision of the Act on the *Folkskole*.

Chart D6.3. Centralisation and decentralisation of the decisions taken relating to public sector, lower secondary education (1998-2003)

Percentage of decisions taken at a more centralised or more decentralised level in 2003 than in 1998



Example: In Austria, around 5% of decisions are taken at a more centralised level in 2003 than in 1998, whilst around 12% of decisions are taken at a more decentralised level. The remainder are taken at the same level in 2003 as in 1998.

Note: Differences in data collection methodology between the two years may cause some distortion in the changes reported but this should not affect the general trends.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of decisions taken at a more decentralised level in 2003 than in 1998.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eq2004).

A shifting four-layer administrative organisation in France

The four levels of public authorities (State, Regions, Departments, municipalities) correspond to those of school administration: central administration, academies (under a recteur), departments (under an academic inspector) and schools. The power of these various levels of authority has shifted over the last quarter of a century in line with the process of decentralisation (*i.e.*, the devolution of State responsibilities to regional/local authorities and to schools) and a de-concentration (*i.e.*, the delegation of decision-making powers to a lower power level within State administration). The adoption of a new law in 2003 providing for a further round of decentralisation shows that neither of these processes has reached the final stage of its political dynamics.

In the public sector of education the departments are responsible for colleges and the regions are responsible for lycées and professional lycées, both in terms of their functioning and their premises (investment in building and maintenance); the State has kept control over the content of teaching and the recruitment and career development of teachers and non-teaching staff, as well as administrative and pedagogical supervision. Most decisions concerning staff training and management are at the regional level (academies), with a noteworthy exception concerning the recruitment of teachers and managers.

Main objectives of Greek education policy

Contemporary Greek society within the European Union is characterised by accelerated changes in economy, policy and population. Changes concern public expenditure and administration, increasing diversity of population and the knowledge and information demands of the Greek society. These changes have challenged the education system. Innovations and new technologies have been introduced, along with a modernisation of all levels of education. In order to meet the new requirements, the educational system has undergone a series of changes, such as decentralisation in matters of finance and administration, wider differentiation in educational paths and enhancement of quality of education.

Recruitment, selection and allocation of teachers in Norway

The recruitment, selection and appointment of teachers are responsibilities of local authorities, carried out either by the local school management (upper secondary education) or by local authorities (compulsory education). There is a trend also in compulsory education towards recruiting teachers at the school level. This trend follows the general move towards the decentralisation of authority and decision making. The main challenge for those responsible for recruiting, selecting and allocating teachers is to ensure that the staff at each local school possesses the total sum and combination of competencies needed to meet the requirements of each school.

Definitions and methodologies

This indicator shows the percentage of educational decisions taken at specific levels in public lower secondary education. Decentralisation is concerned with the division of powers between levels of government. This concept embraces two different dimensions: *i*) the locus of decision making, that is, which level has decision-making authority; and *ii*) the mode of decision making, which relates to the degree of autonomy or “shared” decision making.

Data are from the 2003 OECD-INES survey on decision making in education and refer to the school year 2003-2004.

The questionnaire presented six levels of decision making: central governments, state governments, provincial/regional authorities or governments, sub-regional or inter-municipal authorities or governments, local authorities or governments, schools or school boards or committees.

The questionnaire provided information on four domains:

- *Organisation of instruction*: student admissions; student careers; instruction time; choice of textbooks; grouping students; additional support for students; teaching methods; regular day-to-day student assessment.
- *Personnel management*: hiring and dismissal of teaching and non-teaching staff; duties and conditions of service of staff; salary scales of staff; influence over the careers of staff.
- *Planning and structures*: opening or closure of schools; creation or abolition of a grade level; design of programmes of study; selection of programmes of study taught in a particular school; choice of range of subjects taught in a particular school; definition of course content; setting of qualifying examinations for a certificate or diploma; credentialling (examination content, marking and administration).
- *Resources*: allocation and use of resources for teaching staff, non-teaching staff, capital and operating expenditure.

The questionnaire also sought information on how autonomously decisions are taken. The most important factor in determining the mode is “who decides”. The following categories are provided: full autonomy, after consultation with bodies located at another level within the education system, independently but within a framework set by a higher authority, other mode.

More detailed information is available on the website: www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2004.

The indicators were calculated to give equal importance to each of the four domains. Each domain contributes 25% to the results of the indicators. As the number of items is not the same in each domain, each item is weighted by the inverse of the number of items in its domain.

Table D6.1. Percentage of decisions relating to public sector, lower secondary education, taken at each level of government (2003)

	Central	State	Provincial/ regional	Sub-regional	Local	School	Total
OECD COUNTRIES							
Australia		76				24	100
Austria	27	22			23	29	100
Belgium (Fr.) ¹		32	25			43	100
Czech Republic	7		1		32	60	100
Denmark	19				38	44	100
England	11				4	85	100
Finland	2				71	27	100
France	24		10	35		31	100
Germany	4	30	17		17	32	100
Greece	80		4		3	13	100
Hungary	4				29	68	100
Iceland	25				50	25	100
Italy	23		16		15	46	100
Japan	13		21		44	23	100
Korea	9		34		8	48	100
Luxembourg	66					34	100
Mexico	30	45	2			22	100
Netherlands						100	100
New Zealand	25					75	100
Norway	32				32	37	100
Portugal	50		8			41	100
Slovak Republic	33		2		15	50	100
Spain		57	15			28	100
Sweden	18				36	47	100
Turkey ²	49		27			24	100

Note: Blanks indicate that the level of government does not have primary responsibility for decisions.

1. For Belgium (Fr.) the level "Provincial/regional" means state level for 61% of the schools, provincial level for 21% and local level for 18%.

2. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.2. Percentage of decisions relating to public sector, lower secondary education, taken at each level of government, by domain of decision making (2003)

OECD COUNTRIES	Organisation of instruction							Personnel management						
	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total
Australia		13				88	100		100					100
Austria	13					88	100	25	38			38		100
Belgium (Fr.) ¹		13	25			63	100		33	50			17	100
Czech Republic	13					88	100	4		4		17	75	100
Denmark					13	88	100	25				33	42	100
England						100	100	17					83	100
Finland					13	88	100	8				71	21	100
France	13		13			75	100	46		42			13	100
Germany		13				88	100	17	38	38			8	100
Greece	38				13	50	100	100						100
Hungary						100	100					33	67	100
Iceland	25				13	63	100	4				58	38	100
Italy						100	100	42		25			33	100
Japan					38	63	100			54		46		100
Korea	13				13	75	100	25		25		8	42	100
Luxembourg	38					63	100	88					13	100
Mexico	25					75	100	25	67	8				100
Netherlands						100	100						100	100
New Zealand						100	100	21					79	100
Norway	14				14	71	100	29				29	42	100
Portugal	25					75	100	63		4			33	100
Slovak Republic	13					88	100	4				46	50	100
Spain		13				88	100		92				8	100
Sweden					13	88	100					33	67	100
Turkey ²	25		13			63	100	94		6				100

OECD COUNTRIES	Planning and structures							Resources						
	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total
Australia		90				10	100		100					100
Austria	70	20				10	100	29				54	17	100
Belgium (Fr.) ¹		43	14			43	100	38	13				50	100
Czech Republic	10				40	50	100					71	29	100
Denmark	50				50		100					54	46	100
England	29				14	57	100						100	100
Finland						100	100					100		100
France	36		43			21	100			83			17	100
Germany		71			14	14	100			29		54	17	100
Greece	100						100	83		17				100
Hungary	14				14	71	100					67	33	100
Iceland	71				29		100					100		100
Italy	50		14			36	100			25		58	17	100
Japan	50				20	30	100			29		71		100
Korea			75			25	100			38		13	50	100
Luxembourg	71					29	100	67					33	100
Mexico	71	14				14	100		100					100
Netherlands						100	100						100	100
New Zealand	40					60	100	38					63	100
Norway	83				17		100					67	33	100
Portugal	64		29			7	100	50					50	100
Slovak Republic	50		7		14	29	100	67					33	100
Spain		100					100		25	58			17	100
Sweden	70				30		100					67	33	100
Turkey ²	50		17			33	100	25		75				100

Note: Blanks indicate that the level of government does not have primary responsibility for the decisions in this domain.

1. For Belgium (Fr.) the level "Provincial/regional" means state level for 61% of the schools, provincial level for 21% and local level for 18%.

2. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.3. Percentage of decisions taken at the school level in relation to public sector, lower secondary education, by mode of decision making (2003)

OECD COUNTRIES	In full autonomy	After consultation	Within	Other	Total excluding those where schools are consulted	Decisions taken at other levels in consultation with schools ¹	Total including those where schools are consulted
		with other bodies in the educational system	framework set by a higher authority				
Australia	9		15		24		24
Austria	7	3	19		29	4	33
Belgium (Fr.)	9		31	3	43		43
Czech Republic	6		54		60		60
Denmark	17	4	23		44	19	63
England	42	1	42		85		85
Finland	23		4		27	17	44
France	21	1	10		31	4	36
Germany	8		23		32	17	48
Greece			13		13	5	18
Hungary	30	10	28		68	1	69
Iceland	19	6			25		25
Italy	26		20		46		46
Japan	9		6	8	23	5	28
Korea	29		19		48		48
Luxembourg		8	26		34	36	70
Mexico	13	10			22		22
Netherlands	65	6	29		100		100
New Zealand	45	7	23		75	10	85
Norway	19		18		37		37
Portugal	24	7	10		41	4	45
Slovak Republic	6		44		50	2	52
Spain			28		28	8	36
Sweden	43		4		47		47
Turkey ²	13		11		24		24

Note: Blanks indicate that schools are not involved in the mode of decision making indicated.

1. Number of decisions taken at other levels but in consultation with schools as a percentage of all decisions.

2. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.4. Percentage of decisions taken at the school level in relation to public sector, lower secondary education, by mode and domain of decision making (2003)

OECD COUNTRIES	Organisation of instruction						Personnel management					
	In full autonomy	After consultation with other bodies in the educational system		Total excluding those where schools are consulted	Decisions taken at other levels in consultation with schools	Total including those where schools are consulted	In full autonomy	After consultation with other bodies in the educational system		Total excluding those where schools are consulted	Decisions taken at other levels in consultation with schools	Total including those where schools are consulted
		Within framework set by a higher authority	Other					Within framework set by a higher authority	Other			
Australia	38		50		88							
Austria	13		75		88							
Belgium (Fr.)	38		13	13	63							17
Czech Republic	13		75		88				17			75
Denmark	25		63		88	42					8	50
England	75		25		100	63	4	17		83		83
Finland	75		13		88	17		4		21	8	29
France	75				75	8	4			13		13
Germany	13		75		88	4		4		8	21	29
Greece			50		50	13					8	8
Hungary	63		38		100	100					4	71
Iceland	38	25			63	63	25	25		67		38
Italy	63		38		100	100		8		33		33
Japan	38		13	13	63	63					21	21
Korea	75				75	25		17		42		42
Luxembourg		25	38		63		8	4		13	33	46
Mexico	50	25			75							
Netherlands	88		13		100	100	71	25	4	100		100
New Zealand	88	13			100	100			42	79		79
Norway	43		29		71	71			42	42		42
Portugal	38	13	25		75	75	33			33		33
Slovak Republic	25		63		88				50	50	8	58
Spain			88		88				8	8		8
Sweden	75		13		88	88	63		4	67		67
Turkey ¹	50		13		63							

OECD COUNTRIES	Planning and structures						Resources					
	In full autonomy	After consultation with other bodies in the educational system		Total excluding those where schools are consulted	Decisions taken at other levels in consultation with schools	Total including those where schools are consulted	In full autonomy	After consultation with other bodies in the educational system		Total excluding those where schools are consulted	Decisions taken at other levels in consultation with schools	Total including those where schools are consulted
		Within framework set by a higher authority	Other					Within framework set by a higher authority	Other			
Australia			10		10							
Austria		10			10					17	17	33
Belgium (Fr.)			43		43				50	50		50
Czech Republic			50		50	13		17		29		29
Denmark						14		29		46	54	100
England	14		43		57	57	17		83	100		100
Finland											58	58
France			21		21				17	17	17	33
Germany			14		14					17	46	63
Greece												
Hungary	7	14	50		71					33		33
Iceland												
Italy			36		36					17		17
Japan			10	20	30							
Korea			25		25	17			33	50		50
Luxembourg			29		29	43			33	33	67	100
Mexico		14			14							
Netherlands			100		100					100		100
New Zealand	40		20		60	40		17	29	63		63
Norway								33		33		33
Portugal	7				7	14		17	17	50		50
Slovak Republic			29		29				33	33		33
Spain									17	17	33	50
Sweden										33		33
Turkey ¹			33		33							

Note: Blanks indicate that schools are not involved in the mode/domain of decision making indicated.

1. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.5. Level of government at which different types of decisions about curriculum are taken in public sector, lower secondary education (2003)

	Choice of textbooks	Design of programmes	Selection of programmes offered	Range of subjects taught	Definition of course content
OECD COUNTRIES Australia	<i>School</i> Framework at state level	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at state level	<i>State</i> Autonomous
Austria	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with state level	<i>School</i> Consultation with state level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with state level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with state level
Belgium (Fr.)	<i>School</i> Other	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Other
Czech Republic	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with regional level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Denmark	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Local</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Local</i> Consultation with school
England	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Finland	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Local</i> Framework at central level	<i>Local</i> Framework at central level	<i>Local</i> Framework at central level	<i>Local</i> Framework at central level
France	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at regional level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Germany	<i>School</i> Framework at state level	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous	<i>State</i> Autonomous
Greece	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Hungary	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Iceland	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Italy	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Japan	<i>Local</i> Framework at regional level	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Other
Korea	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Regional</i> Framework at central level	<i>Regional</i> Autonomous	<i>Regional</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at regional level

1. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.5. (continued) Level of government at which different types of decisions about curriculum are taken in public sector, lower secondary education (2003)

	Choice of textbooks	Design of programmes	Selection of programmes offered	Range of subjects taught	Definition of course content
OECD COUNTRIES Luxembourg	<i>Central</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with school	<i>Central</i> Consultation with school	<i>Central</i> Consultation with school	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Mexico	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Consultation with state level	<i>Central</i> Consultation with state level	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Netherlands	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
New Zealand	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Autonomous
Norway	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Portugal	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Slovak Republic	<i>School</i> Framework at central level	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Regional</i> Consultation with sub-regional level	<i>Central</i> Other	<i>School</i> Framework at central level
Spain	<i>School</i> Framework at state level	<i>State</i> Framework at central level	<i>State</i> Consultation with regional level	<i>State</i> Framework at central level	<i>State</i> Framework at central level
Sweden	<i>School</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Local</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous
Turkey ¹	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous	<i>Central</i> Autonomous

1. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

Table D6.6. Percentage of decisions taken at each level of government relating to public sector, lower secondary education (1998, 2003)

OECD COUNTRIES	2003							1998						
	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total	Central	State	Provin- cial/ regional	Sub- regional	Local	School	Total
	Australia		76				24	100	m	m				
Austria	27	22			23	29	100	35	18			22	25	100
Belgium (Fr.) ¹		32	25			43	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	7			1	32	60	100	17			21	10	52	100
Denmark	19				38	44	100	26				43	31	100
England	11				4	85	100	20				18	62	100
Finland	2				71	27	100					64	36	100
France	24		10	35		31	100	32		11	27		29	100
Germany	4	30	17		17	32	100	4	28	15		16	37	100
Greece	80		4		3	13	100	56		22			23	100
Hungary	4				29	68	100					35	65	100
Iceland	25				50	25	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Italy	21		16		15	48	100	39		25		3	33	100
Japan	13		21		44	23	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Korea	9		34		8	48	100	37		31		7	25	100
Luxembourg	66					34	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	30	45	2			22	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands						100	100	24				3	73	100
New Zealand	25					75	100	34					66	100
Norway	32				32	37	100	35				55	9	100
Portugal	50		8			41	100	69		7			24	100
Slovak Republic	33		2		15	50	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Spain		57	15			28	100	3	46	10			41	100
Sweden	18				36	47	100	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey ²	49		27			24	100	94					6	100

Difference between 2003 and 1998

OECD COUNTRIES	Difference between 2003 and 1998						
	Central	State	Provincial/regional	Sub-regional	Local	School	Total
Australia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Austria	-9	4			1	4	
Belgium (Fr.) ¹	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	-10		1	-21	21	9	
Denmark	-8				-5	13	
England	-8				-15	23	
Finland	2				7	-9	
France	-9		-1	7		2	
Germany		2	2		1	-5	
Greece	25		-18		3	-10	
Hungary	4				-6	3	
Iceland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Italy	-18		-9		11	15	
Japan	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Korea	-28		3		1	23	
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands	-24				-3	27	
New Zealand	-10					10	
Norway	-4				-24	27	
Portugal	-18		1			17	
Slovak Republic	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Spain	-3	12	5			-13	
Sweden	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Turkey ²	-45		27			18	

Note: Blanks indicate that the level of government indicated does not have primary responsibility for decisions.

Differences in data collection methodology between the two years may cause some distortion in the changes reported but this should not affect the general trends.

1. For Belgium (Fr.) the level "Provincial/regional" means state level for 61% of the schools, provincial level for 21% and local level for 18%.

2. Data refer to primary education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2004).

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Many people have contributed to the development of this publication. The following lists the names of the country representatives, researchers and experts who have actively taken part in the preparatory work leading to the publication of this edition of *Education at a Glance – OECD Indicators*. The OECD wishes to thank them all for their valuable efforts.

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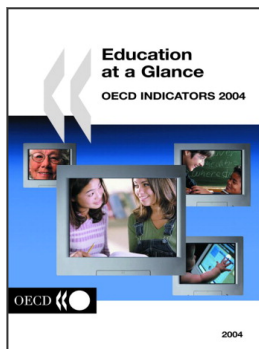
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From:
Education at a Glance 2004
OECD Indicators

Access the complete publication at:
<https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2004-en>

Please cite this chapter as:

OECD (2004), "The Learning Environment and Organisation of Schools", in *Education at a Glance 2004: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2004-7-en>

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