



# Key topics in education in Europe

## Volume 3

The teaching profession in Europe:  
Profile, trends and concerns

Report IV:

Keeping teaching attractive for  
the 21st century

General lower secondary education



*Key topics  
in education in Europe*

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**VOLUME 3**

**THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN EUROPE:  
PROFILE, TRENDS AND CONCERNS**

**REPORT IV  
KEEPING TEACHING ATTRACTIVE  
FOR THE 21ST CENTURY**

**GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION**

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## PREFACE



A teaching profession whose members are motivated and highly qualified is of vital importance in ensuring that young people are offered a sound education. The new expectations and challenges currently confronting teachers throughout Europe mean that they now are at the very heart of the educational policy debate. Improving their education and training is thus among the priority concerns of the work programme on the future objectives of education and training systems up to 2010, which was adopted by the Barcelona European

Council of March 2002. Indeed, the programme considers that teachers are the *'key actors in any strategies targeted at stimulating the development of society and the economy'*.

The study by Eurydice on the teaching profession, which has been the subject of four reports published in the *Key topics in education in Europe* series, examines the position of teachers in lower secondary education in 30 countries. The first report considered how the initial training of teachers prepared them for their occupation along with measures for their transition to professional life. The second report compared situations of shortage and oversupply, as well as measures introduced to deal with them, and the third with the working conditions of teachers, such as job security and their long-term salary prospects.

This fourth and final report raises key questions with a bearing on the future of the teaching profession and its contribution to quality education for all. The profession is currently experiencing a certain malaise. Surveys to gauge the opinions of teachers suggest not just that they feel undervalued but also highlight their dissatisfaction with their training as a means of preparing them adequately for the realities of the profession. Innovative measures are now gradually being implemented to remedy these shortcomings. They are both more flexible and more focused on practical training, thereby seeking to attract prospective teachers in greater numbers. However, to be really effective such measures should at the very least ensure that candidates are appropriately selected at the point of entry to the profession and properly supervised during training. They should also provide for full cooperation between school staff and training staff from higher education and the identification of the skills standards trainees should reach. As

far as working conditions are concerned, three considerations appear to be crucial, namely the variety of different tasks teachers have to perform, their long-term salary prospects and their working time. If the malaise now affecting the profession is to be overcome, their working time should be defined in such a way that they can properly carry out the tasks expected of them and be appropriately remunerated as a result. The profession is thus faced with numerous and often interrelated challenges and it is for each system to respond to them as appropriately as possible with due regard for its own particular situation.

The present study, which is of considerable significance for European cooperation in the field of education, was made possible as a result of the contribution of the National Units in the Eurydice network as well as national experts to whom I wish to express my gratitude. The comparative analysis was written by the Eurydice European Unit in close collaboration with all of the national partners. This methodological approach is a further guarantee of the quality and reliability of the information contained here.

I am certain that the present report will inform the policy debate both at national and Community level by providing greater insight into issues of special concern to the teaching profession and the ever increasing effort now invested in ensuring that teachers – the essential protagonists of education – possess the high qualifications and motivation which are the *sine qua non* of their profession. The Eurydice study also enables us to identify possibilities for action to improve both the quality of training offered to teachers and their working conditions.



Viviane Reding

European Commissioner for Education and Culture

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## GLOSSARY

### CODES AND ABBREVIATIONS

#### Country codes

<b>EU</b>	European Union	<b>PT</b>	Portugal
<b>BE</b>	Belgium	<b>SI</b>	Slovenia
<b>BE fr</b>	Belgium – French Community	<b>SK</b>	Slovakia
<b>BE de</b>	Belgium – German-speaking Community	<b>FI</b>	Finland
<b>BE nl</b>	Belgium – Flemish Community	<b>SE</b>	Sweden
<b>CZ</b>	Czech Republic	<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>DK</b>	Denmark	<b>UK-ENG</b>	England
<b>DE</b>	Germany	<b>UK-WLS</b>	Wales
<b>EE</b>	Estonia	<b>UK-NIR</b>	Northern Ireland
<b>EL</b>	Greece	<b>UK-SCT</b>	Scotland
<b>ES</b>	Spain		
<b>FR</b>	France		
<b>IE</b>	Ireland	<b>EFTA/EEA countries</b>	The three countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
<b>IT</b>	Italy	<b>IS</b>	Iceland
<b>CY</b>	Cyprus	<b>LI</b>	Liechtenstein
<b>LV</b>	Latvia	<b>NO</b>	Norway
<b>LT</b>	Lithuania		
<b>LU</b>	Luxembourg		
<b>HU</b>	Hungary	<b>Candidate countries</b>	
<b>MT</b>	Malta	<b>BG</b>	Bulgaria
<b>NL</b>	Netherlands	<b>RO</b>	Romania
<b>AT</b>	Austria		
<b>PL</b>	Poland		

#### Abbreviations relating to statistical indicators and other classifications

<b>(*)</b>	Estimate or liable to variation depending on the authority concerned
<b>(:)</b>	Data not available
<b>(–)</b>	Not applicable
<b>Eurostat</b>	Statistical Office of the European Communities
<b>GDP</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>ICT</b>	Information and Communication Technology
<b>ISCED</b>	International Standard Classification for Education
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>PPP</b>	Purchasing Power Parity

<b>TIMSS</b>	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
<b>Unesco</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
<b>UOE</b>	Unesco/OECD/Eurostat

### **National abbreviations in their language of origin**

<b>CERICIS</b>	<i>Centre de Recherche Interdisciplinaire pour la Solidarité et l'Innovation Sociale</i>	BE fr
<b>CSA</b>	<i>Centro Servizi Amministrativi</i>	IT
<b>FPU</b>	<i>Flexibel Pensioen en Uittreden</i>	NL
<b>GTP</b>	<i>Graduate Training Programme</i>	UK-ENG/WLS
<b>OFSTED</b>	<i>Office for Standards in Education</i>	UK-ENG
<b>QTS</b>	<i>Qualified Teacher Status</i>	UK-ENG/WLS
<b>SCITT</b>	<i>School Centred Initial Teacher Training</i>	UK-ENG
<b>TTA</b>	<i>Teacher Training Agency</i>	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
<b>VUT</b>	<i>Vervroegde Uittreding</i>	NL

### **The use of italics in the text**

All terms whose use is limited to a country or a Community and which would not normally be understood by a foreign reader appear in italics irrespective of the language version of the study.

## TERMINOLOGY

### **Basic salary**

The basic salary is defined as the remuneration awarded a teacher with the qualifications required to work in general lower secondary education. This basic salary is normally located on a salary scale structured into different levels or grades between a minimum and maximum salary. The basic salary can be defined more precisely as the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances, such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary does not take account of any salary adjustments (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime or additional responsibilities, geographical area or the obligation to teach mixed or difficult classes) or other financial benefits (accommodation, health or travel costs).

### **Employer**

Employer is defined here as the entity directly responsible for appointing teachers and issuing their contract or terms of service. However, funds for the purpose of meeting salary costs may not necessarily derive directly from the employer's budget.

**Final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase**

A compulsory period of transition between the initial education of teachers and their entry into professional life as fully-fledged teachers. It generally constitutes the final phase of initial education. This phase includes an important supportive and supervisory dimension, as well as a formal evaluation of teaching skills. During this period, teachers are still not fully qualified and are usually regarded as 'candidates' or 'trainees'. They spend a significant amount of time in a real working environment (a school) in which they carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on fully qualified teachers, and are remunerated for their activity.

**Overall working hours**

Overall number of working hours including all duties (teaching, other activities at school or in another specified place, preparation and marking). Can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

**Salary adjustments**

The basic salary governed by salary scale regulations may be accompanied under certain special circumstances by various forms of additional earnings. They include the payment of overtime and salary bonuses to compensate teachers for additional tasks or responsibilities or difficult working conditions linked to the area where they teach or to characteristics of their pupils.

**Teachers appointed as career civil servants**

Teachers appointed in a public servant system with special characteristics, for instance that the top-level education authority is directly responsible both for selecting teachers and for employing them. The notion of lifetime tenure is very strong. Termination of employment will only take place under very exceptional circumstances.

**Teachers appointed as public servants**

These are teachers who are employed by a government authority, whether at central, regional or local level. Teachers with public servant status are engaged under a regulatory framework that is distinct from legislation defining contractual relations in the public or private sectors.

**Teachers employed on a contractual basis**

These are teachers holding contracts in line with general employment law (similar to contracts found in the private sector).

**Teaching time**

Number of teaching hours (facing a class). Teaching time is calculated by multiplying the number of lessons by the length of a lesson (in minutes) and dividing the result by 60. Can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

### **Time available at work**

Number of hours available for duties at school or in another specified place (teaching and other activities). Can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

### **OTHER TERMS**

#### **Candidate countries**

The present report covers those candidate countries participating in the Socrates programme as part of the pre-accession strategy. These countries are Bulgaria and Romania.

Turkey is also a candidate for accession to the Union and preparations are underway with a view to its full participation in the Socrates programme in 2004, most notably through its prior integration into the Eurydice network. This integration has not yet been accomplished, and it is for this reason that it has not been possible to include data on this country in the present publication.

#### **European Economic Area**

The agreement on the European Economic Area (EEA) was signed in May 1992 and entered into force at the beginning of 1994. It applies to the 25 Member States of the European Union and to three EFTA countries, but not to Switzerland. The purpose of this agreement is to create a single market beyond the European Union countries for the free movement of goods, persons, capital and services.

#### **European Free Trade Association**

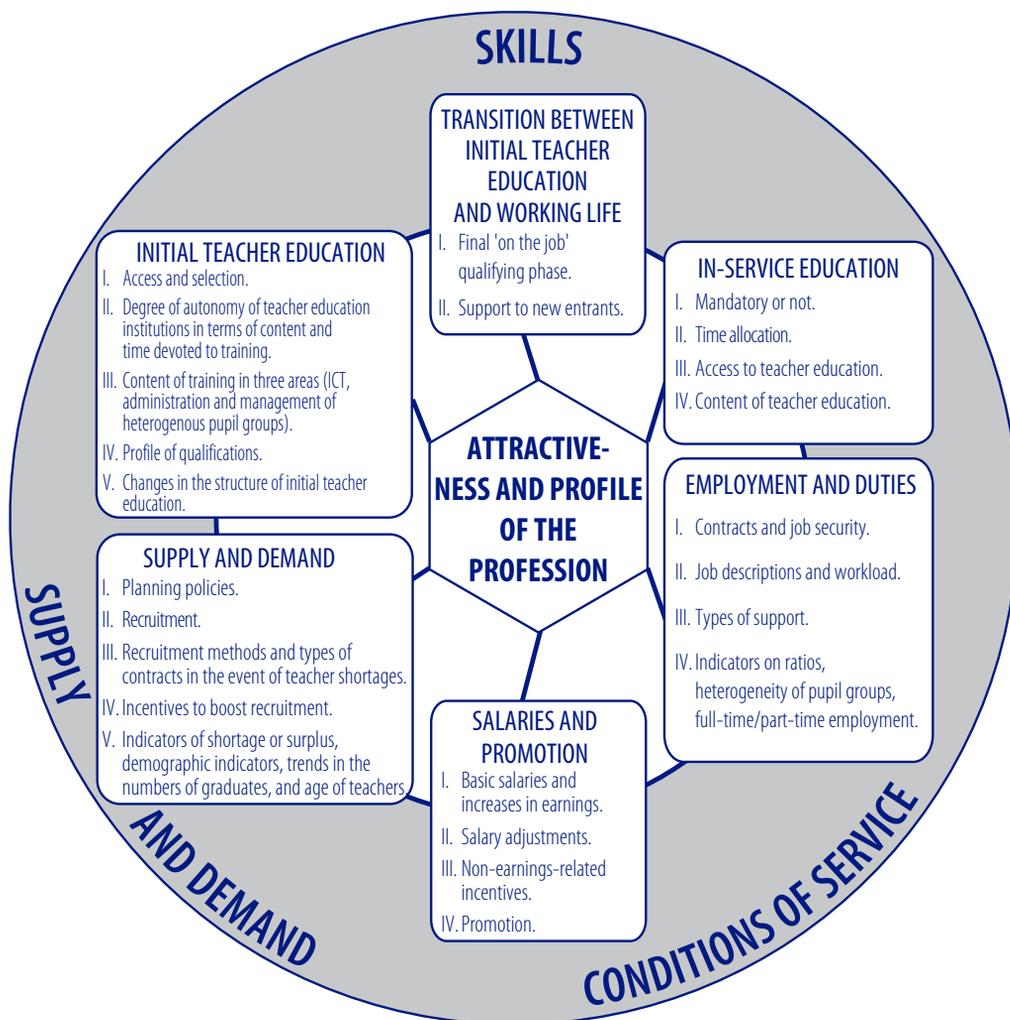
The European Free Trade Association (EFTA) was founded in 1960 by Austria, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom under the Stockholm Convention. It was subsequently joined by Finland, Iceland and Liechtenstein. EFTA presently consists of only four member states: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland. The other countries have left EFTA in order to join the European Union. All of the EFTA countries, with the exception of Switzerland, form part of the European Economic Area.

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Any professional sector calls for competent and motivated human resources and education is no exception. Keen that all young people should be offered quality education, policy-makers in European countries are concerned with the quality of initial teacher education and working conditions of teaching staff. The skills profile of teachers and attractiveness of the teaching profession thus occupy an important position in debate on education in Europe, even if these two issues do not present the same challenges everywhere. More specifically, the task facing the education authorities is threefold: first, to manage the profession so that it attracts a sufficient number of prospective teachers into initial teacher education; secondly, to organise this education in such a way as provide them with the range of skills required to work to quality standards; and, thirdly, to offer sufficiently 'competitive' working conditions for them to remain motivated throughout their careers.

These premises are at the heart of the in-depth study on the teaching profession in Europe carried out by Eurydice since 2001. Its aim is to provide greater insight into the different situations prevailing in each country and the way in which policy-makers attempt to meet the challenges identified. Several key aspects of the work of the profession have already been examined in three separate subject-based reports. The first was devoted to a comparison of models of **initial education** and the **transitional measures** introduced to facilitate access to the profession (Eurydice, 2002b). The issue of **supply and demand** was examined in the second report (Eurydice, 2002c), while the third dealt with teachers' **working conditions and pay** (Eurydice, 2003).

FIGURE 1: ASPECTS OF THE STUDY RELATED TO THE ATTRACTIVENESS AND PROFILE OF THE PROFESSION



In the wake of the foregoing separate subject-based investigations, the question arose of possible linkages between these various aspects. The aim was to establish a model of how the profession is run. Accordingly, secondary investigations were undertaken in order to highlight, where appropriate, any regularly recurrent patterns between parameters that typify management of the teaching profession. Any such set or cluster of parameters apparent in several countries would have reflected the existence of 'self-contained systems' whose components were interdependent.

It has not been possible from these various secondary investigations covering the entire body of material to establish that the same parameter clusters occur as a matter of course, or at least frequently in several countries. Neither is it possible, therefore, to describe basic models illustrating broadly how the teaching profession is managed. Only a few dichotomous relationships (that occur regularly but not in all cases) may be singled out. Described in detail in the three subject-based reports, they are summarised in the box below. Over and above these associations, methods of managing the teaching profession appear to be highly distinctive, with each country ultimately establishing its own system.

- Responsibility for recruitment in the different countries may be viewed both in terms of how far it is centralised, and the type of procedure adopted. In countries in which the employer is located at central level, recruitment is by competitive examination or organised on the basis of candidate lists. Where decision-making power over recruitment is vested in the local authorities, recruitment is (often) open. In many countries practising open recruitment, contracts are subject to general employment legislation.
- Employers of teachers with public servant status are public authorities often located at central and/or regional levels. Furthermore, it is generally established that, where employers are located at central or regional level, the extent to which the task descriptions of teachers may be flexibly expressed in the contract is limited. In such cases, there is little scope for the local level or schools to adapt the contractual definition of working responsibilities to their requirements.
- Contracts governed by employment legislation do not appear to offer less job security than those associated with public servant status. However, minimum basic salaries of teachers employed under contract are generally lower than per capita GDP. In countries in which teachers have public servant status, the situation varies far more widely.
- Wherever basic salaries are lower than per capita GDP, (paid) overtime is generally set at a rate higher than the standard rate of remuneration, and teachers are sometimes entitled to carry out other remunerated activities alongside their normal duties.
- Requirements relating to enrolment for continuing professional education are firmer for teachers in the public service sector. This is more frequently one of their contractual obligations, or is essential if they are to be eligible for salary increases.
- Countries experiencing a definite problem of teacher shortage tend to have a decentralised method of recruitment. Countries in which recruitment is centralised more often have a surplus of teachers. It would appear also that planning arrangements in several countries protect them more effectively from the likelihood of surplus than that of shortage.

It is clear from the analysis of the above findings that most of the relationships which apply across several countries are associated with the professional status of teachers and the level of the employer. The most frequent of them are illustrated in the table below.

FIGURE 2: RELATIONS BETWEEN THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THEIR WORKING CONDITIONS

	PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS	
	Public servant	Employed under standard work contracts
	BE, DE, EL, ES, FR, CY, LT, LU, HU, MT, NL, AT, PT, SI, FI, IS	BE, CZ, DK, EE, IE, IT, LV, NL, PL, SK, SE, UK, NO, RO
<b>EMPLOYER</b>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Employer situated at central and regional level, with little scope therefore at local level for adapting the contractual definition of working responsibilities.</p>	<p>No recurrent finding</p> <p>Employers may be situated at different levels of authority. Local scope for adapting the contractual definition of working responsibilities depends on the country concerned.</p>
	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Centralised recruitment by competitive examination or candidate lists.</p>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Open recruitment and decision-making power at local level.</p>
<b>SALARY POLICY</b>	<p>No recurrent finding</p> <p>Minimum salary levels vary from one country to the next. They may be above, the same as, or below per capita GDP.</p>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Minimum salaries are generally below per capita GDP.</p>
	<p>No recurrent finding</p> <p>Overtime is paid at a better rate in countries with low minimum salaries.</p>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Overtime is generally paid at a better rate.</p>
<b>IN-SERVICE EDUCATION</b>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>In-service education is generally compulsory.</p>	<p>No recurrent finding</p> <p>In-service education may be compulsory or optional depending on the country concerned.</p>
<b>SUPPLY ASPECTS</b>	<p>Recurrent finding</p> <p>Problems of shortage are rare; the situation is sometimes one of surplus.</p>	<p>No recurrent finding</p> <p>Problems of shortage occur primarily where the method of recruitment is decentralised.</p>

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

**Belgium** and **Netherlands**: Teachers working in the grant-aided sector are bracketed with those who have public servant status, even though they are employed under standard work contracts.

The foregoing table reveals few regular features. The handful of relations observed all depend on the method of managing employment. There is no apparent link between the conditions of service and types of initial education. It should be noted that the subject matter of these reports brings together areas of policy that are usually separate. On the one hand, teacher education belongs fully to the field of education policy; on the other, the working conditions of teachers are the outcome of policies for employment and, as a result, directly linked to social and economic contingencies.

The fact that it is impossible to identify contrasting organisational models of initial teacher education is without doubt largely attributable to the structural similarities observed between countries. This has to do firstly with the similar way in which countries fix the duration and level of initial teacher education. Many of them have adopted as their main initial teacher education path a so-called concurrent arrangement in which professional and general training occur directly alongside each other. The curricular autonomy granted to teacher education institutions is also characteristic of the European scene. The heightened importance attached to professional initial teacher education in qualifications requirements throughout Europe is one of the responses to the need for teachers to possess specifically educational skills. The findings of research into education have also doubtless fuelled certain changes in initial teacher education policies in Europe. These developments have played their part in increasing overall consistency between countries in this area.

Relations between policies for initial teacher education and employment are not easy to establish. The latter extend well beyond the limits of the teaching profession. The various traditions, regulations, restrictions and pressures associated with them naturally affect the employment conditions offered to teachers. They encourage or limit the scope for adjusting to new situations in labour market supply and demand in this professional sector.

Accordingly, it may be supposed that the systems of management observed reflect the way in which policy-makers in each country have attempted to articulate and balance educational, social and economic forces and possible divergences between them.

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This fourth and final report on the teaching profession does not provide a summary in the strict sense of the comparisons made in the three separate reports <sup>(1)</sup>. It attempts to stimulate further thought and discussion in response to five key issues of interest throughout Europe. A twofold concern underlies the common thread running through them:

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<sup>(1)</sup> A varied range of **sources** have been used to complete this final report. They are derived mainly from the national contributions of the Eurydice Units and national experts who collaborated in work on the present study and who are acknowledged at the end of the book. National reports prepared as part of the OECD (2003) study on the same topic, which may be accessed on the OECD website (see References), also lent weight to the enquiry, particularly in the case of the first chapter on the malaise among teachers. The annexe contains all references and summaries relating to the national surveys on the perceptions of teachers and quotes their source.

### **how can a sufficient number of competent teachers be trained and kept motivated throughout their career?**

More specifically the focus is on the following: diversification of paths through initial teacher education likely to attract new candidates; improving the overall coherence between initial and in-service education; the role of financial incentives in salary policies; promoting mobility to achieve a balanced supply everywhere; and, finally, factors liable to motivate teachers nearing retirement to remain in the profession.

In the case of each issue, the report offers a discussion supported by relevant material on the subjects considered, and examines measures capable of activating change.

In a study on the teaching profession, which is concerned in particular with the extent to which it is attractive, it is essential to consider the point of view of the teachers. For this reason and by way of a preliminary investigation, the first chapter examines the degree of satisfaction experienced by teachers with regard to their occupation, and their perception of the recognition granted them and the esteem in which they are held by their fellow citizens. Their opinions have been gathered using the findings of the many national surveys on this subject. The title of the first chapter, 'Low morale among teachers – does the cliché hold true?' calls into question the common view that the profession is in a state of crisis.

The chapter offers some qualified conclusions in this respect. According to teachers, theirs is a profession to be appreciated because of its opportunities for numerous and varied social contacts and the freedom it allows them to work as they wish. Yet they voice many concerns fully consistent with the thrust of what follows in the report. Teachers' complaints are mainly about the lack of preparation for their profession and the complexity of the tasks expected of them. In some countries, too many of them state that they would change their occupation if they could. This chapter confirms just how useful it is to consider ways of improving both the practical training and working conditions of teachers.

Study of reforms in the profession <sup>(2)</sup> carried out over the last 30 years have clearly highlighted the importance attached to initial teacher education by

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(2) See *Profile of reforms carried out in the teaching profession. Context and objectives*, forthcoming on Eurydice website, in connection with the national reform tables (<http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/KT3tables/en/FrameSet.html>).

policy-makers. Reforms everywhere have been noteworthy for more stringent requirements in terms of the level, content and length of courses. The professional dimension of initial teacher education has also been on the legislative agenda. However, the main thrust of reform has been towards a more uniform path through initial teacher education by making it the responsibility of higher education institutions. There are few countries in which several training routes are possible. The danger that this arrangement may prevent those who are interested in becoming teachers but are unable to undertake the standard initial teacher education needed to access the profession, is the starting point of discussion in the second chapter concerned with the diversity of initial teacher education paths. It deals mainly with the advantages – both in terms of broadening the supply of candidates and of increasing professional education – that can be gained from providing initial education opportunities for employed people, as a few countries have begun to do quite recently. The chapter also attempts to identify what is needed to ensure that qualifications obtained on the completion of such education are of sound quality.

Continuing professional development is a concept that is increasingly widespread in the teaching profession. This is not only rooted in the importance that is attached to lifelong learning but is also intended to supply much-needed coherence between initial and in-service education. While countries that have made in-service education compulsory are undoubtedly becoming increasingly numerous, this measure is not enough to offer teachers consistent professional development. The third chapter is devoted to this important issue. It discusses certain organisational aspects of initial teacher education conducive to optimising its consistency at all stages of teaching careers and highlights others more likely to inhibit or restrict it.

The permanent tension between expenditure control and the need to make the teaching profession attractive largely define the parameters within which salary policies have to operate. Consequently, requirements expressed in terms of qualifications and continuing skills development of teachers are not always appropriately recognised in the salary conditions offered them. The fourth chapter explores various possible components of remuneration over and above basic salary. By way of introduction, basic teacher salary levels are reviewed, mainly with regard to the purchasing power they represent. Scope for further remuneration is examined primarily with reference to how it relates to different contractual definitions of working time. The chapter then

considers how the one or more levels at which salary decisions are taken may influence possible salary adjustments and additional income for teachers. The autonomy in this area granted to local authorities, or even schools themselves in some countries, prompts discussion of the likelihood that disparities in the remuneration of teachers will emerge depending on the municipalities or schools in which they work. Finally, the chapter discusses the quantitative and qualitative implications of salary policies more finely tuned to individual circumstances, considering mainly the potential impact of various financial incentives on the motivation of teachers.

It is undeniable that some places are always more attractive than others to live in and pursue one's occupation. Depending on the country concerned, important considerations may be of a climatic or geographical nature; they may relate to the density or social or economic background of its population. In the teaching profession, such factors may become apparent because it is hard to fill all posts in schools located in unattractive areas. The role that teacher mobility can play within a country in ensuring a balanced supply of staff is considered in Chapter 5. The extent to which entitlements already acquired can be transferred when teachers change schools is thus central to the discussion. Recruitment methods as incentives or disincentives to mobility are also considered in greater detail. Finally, salary adjustments that go with particular appointments are examined as a means of attracting teachers to more distant or difficult posts.

The improvement of practical initial teacher education, the establishment of support for new teachers, and decent working conditions are unquestionably decisive in preventing those in the early stages of their career from leaving the profession. Today, the number of teachers who have been in service for many years and are close to retirement is considerable. They are becoming the focus of increasingly keen attention in the majority of European countries. Policy-makers are concerned to sustain the motivation of teachers until they retire and reduce early retirement. The final chapter focuses on two aspects of conditions of service that may have a part to play as regards this issue. First, the possible advantages and disadvantages of the different ways in which teachers move up the salary scale throughout their careers are discussed. The chapter then examines measures to reduce teaching time, thus lightening their teaching load and creating scope for diversifying their activities and making the most of their experience.

## CHAPTER 1

### LOW MORALE AMONG TEACHERS – DOES THE CLICHÉ HOLD TRUE?

#### **NATIONAL SURVEY FINDINGS ON WHAT TEACHERS THINK OF THEIR OCCUPATION**

The view that the teaching profession is undervalued by society has become the common currency of many books on the subject. Teachers themselves appear convinced that this is so. With increasing frequency, the media articulate the opinion of disillusioned teachers who, among other things, say they would give up their occupation if the opportunity arose. By doing so, they fuel the impression of a professional community in a state of crisis, suffering from low morale whose underlying reasons are sometimes difficult to explain. This is occurring in a political situation in which the importance of what education has to accomplish is being firmly reiterated and the expectations placed on teachers have never been higher. It is therefore important to return to the sources from which these statements about low morale are derived: are they a true reflection or a misrepresentation of the situation as it really is?

The job satisfaction experienced by teachers in service may also differ in accordance with national circumstances and in particular the economic situation and cultural factors on which they largely depend. We shall therefore be further concerned with how the scale and intensity of this low morale may vary across Europe as a whole.

There have been many surveys of teachers in service or prospective teachers still undergoing training, as well as opinion polls among parents, pupils and the general public. Data of this kind has been collected in just over half of all European countries. In the present investigation, only those surveys whose coverage is fairly representative of the country concerned have been considered <sup>(1)</sup>.

In general, this research is very recent, dating from between 2000 and 2003 or the second half of the 1990s. In most cases, surveys that are listed have been ad hoc undertakings, probably conducted in the light of circumstances in the country concerned. Nevertheless, in France, Austria, Poland, Sweden and the

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<sup>(1)</sup> The annexe contains the full references and main findings of the surveys consulted. The majority of them have been commissioned by ministries of education or regional or local education authorities, teacher unions or research institutes. In the main, the surveys are those provided by the national experts involved in our study. However, the national reports produced for the OECD have also been consulted (OECD 2003).

United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), teachers are regularly questioned on particular aspects of their professional experience. These surveys are planned and commissioned by the ministries of education in each country <sup>(2)</sup>.

Such periodic information gathering enables politicians in these countries to remain constantly well briefed as to the opinion of various players in the world of education. However, as the aspects examined vary from one year to the next, it is not possible to undertake a trends analysis.

The priority concerns of the surveys examined here relate to two types of information of which the first is the most widespread:

- the degree of satisfaction of teachers with regard to various aspects of their professional experience. In most of these surveys, teachers have been asked about what motivated them to choose their profession, advantages and disadvantages associated with their working conditions and the appropriateness of their training in relation to their duties. Occasionally, comparisons are established between those teaching for the first time and experienced teachers, or between teachers at different educational levels or male and female teachers;
- the way in which the teaching profession is recognised by the general public or by players with a stake in education (parents, pupils, employers, etc.). In this type of survey, teachers are also sometimes questioned directly on how they feel society may value or undervalue their profession.

This chapter examines the main findings to emerge from the replies provided by teachers and identifies the major causes of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Given differences in the various methodologies adopted, aspects examined and the terminology used in the questionnaires, any all-embracing comparison between countries is difficult, if not impossible. The present analysis thus seeks to do no more than highlight a number of clearly apparent trends.

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<sup>(2)</sup> In Sweden, the National Agency for Education.

## THE PERCEPTION TEACHERS HAVE OF THEIR OCCUPATION: ARE THEY DISILLUSIONED?

Several national surveys focus on what motivated teachers to take up their profession. Their replies point to a certain amount of altruism (in terms of wishing to deal with children) and personal fulfilment, including the pleasure derived from teaching the subject in which they specialised.

For **French** *collège* and lycée teachers, the main reasons for choosing this career (in order of importance) are a love of their discipline, contact with pupils, passing on skills and knowledge, and independence in the class. Those who have taught longer value contact with pupils as the main source of satisfaction (*Note d'Information*, 2003).

Teachers in the **United Kingdom (England)** list the following main reasons for choosing the profession: working with children, the satisfaction of teaching, and the creativity and stimulation it offers (*General Teaching Council for England*, 2003).

Certain surveys also reveal that some teachers enter the profession with no clear sense of motivation or because they had few or any other options.

In **Romania**, 36 % of the teachers gave 'love for children' as the reason behind their decision to become teachers, but 35 % did not provide any reason (*Romita, B.; Lucu, Ion; Ovidiu Panisoara*, 1999).

When asked why they chose their profession, 58.7 % of teachers in **Portugal** said the main reason was that teaching was their calling, while 18.8 % indicated they had no other career options (*A situação do professor em Portugal*, 1988).

Among the main professional benefits, surveys highlight the relative freedom enjoyed by those who work in education. Relations and interactions with colleagues are also referred to by teachers, and many say they appreciate the pleasant interpersonal relations that exist between colleagues.

In a survey conducted by the **Danish** working conditions department (published in 2002), teachers see interaction with pupils, their professional freedom to choose teaching methods and also cooperation with their colleagues as extremely important (*Mercuri Urval*, 2002).

**Slovak** teachers express a very high level of satisfaction as regards the following: relationships with parents (99.5 %), the attitude of colleagues (98.1 %), working with young people (97.3 %), and autonomy in the choice of teaching methods (96.5 %) (*Kika, M.*, 2000).

When asked about difficulties encountered during their work, many teachers say they are dissatisfied with their working conditions. In particular, the complexity of tasks expected of them, together with the way those tasks have been extended, have made them feel very ill at ease. Many surveys emphasise these aspects. Teachers are confronted with new responsibilities for which they feel inadequately prepared (French Community of Belgium); they are

concerned about the increased workload (the Netherlands, 1999, the United Kingdom, 2003) and the pressure that comes from having only limited time available (Denmark, 2001); they consider that they work in difficult conditions attributable, amongst other things, to having to carry out increasingly complex tasks (France, 2003). The findings of these surveys are hardly surprising when one considers that, in some countries, among them Denmark, Sweden and the United Kingdom, the issue of excessive teacher workloads is a highly sensitive one (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 2).

In general, salaries and the regulations governing them are only infrequently cited as the main source of dissatisfaction. However, some teachers say that they are a cause for concern in Austria (2000), Slovakia (2000), Sweden (2000) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) (2002).

When they enter their profession, young teachers are confronted with its realities for the first time. Daily work sometimes leads to some measure of disillusion among them. It is thus inevitable that they question the quality of their initial education. Their most frequent misgiving concerns the lack of practical training especially in relation to the skills needed to manage sometimes difficult groups of adolescents.

In June 2001, **French** teachers with one or two years of experience were questioned about the beginning of their career. They repeatedly said they regretted the lack of practice, as well as inadequate training on understanding adolescents and their difficulties, conflict management and dealing with indiscipline (*Note d'Information*, 2001).

The survey conducted in the **French Community of Belgium** in the spring of 1998 revealed that primary school teachers saw their initial education as mediocre (score of almost 5 out of 10). They said they had been able to turn strongly subject-related skills to good account (subject content and teaching methods) but in terms of assisting pupils with difficulties, the teachers felt their initial education was of very little benefit (score of 1.2 out of 6) (*CERISIS*, 1999).

It would seem, therefore, that special skills in areas such as the management of mixed groups of pupils do not occupy the position they should in teacher training curricula. This feeling on the part of teachers is borne out in our study of initial teacher education programmes<sup>(3)</sup>, which continue to attach prime importance to the knowledge required for teaching and teaching methods, and place relatively little emphasis on special skills that go beyond conventional teaching practice.

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<sup>(3)</sup> See for example Figures 3.3 and 3.4 on the extent to which institutions of initial education are free to provide for the acquisition of special skills (Eurydice, 2002b, Chapter 3).

Teachers in general appear to be a group with a strong professional identity. This may be partly a reflection of the solidarity they maintain among themselves in order to cope with the disadvantages and difficulties they encounter during their work. It probably helps them to retain the sense of positive motivation that led them into teaching and not regret the choice they made. In a spirit of optimism, they report that they are fairly satisfied overall in relation to their initial perception of what the work would entail.

Thus the surveys examined seem to indicate that a large majority of teachers in lower secondary education in Europe are as a whole quite satisfied with their work: 98 % of them in Sweden (2002) say they are broadly satisfied. In the Netherlands, Austria and Finland, 80 % express the same opinion (year 2000 in each case); 66 % do so in France (2002).

That said, the signs of disillusion also revealed by some surveys should not be overlooked. The education authorities should therefore pay careful attention to the statements of all those intending to leave the teaching profession in the near future. There may be several reasons for this.

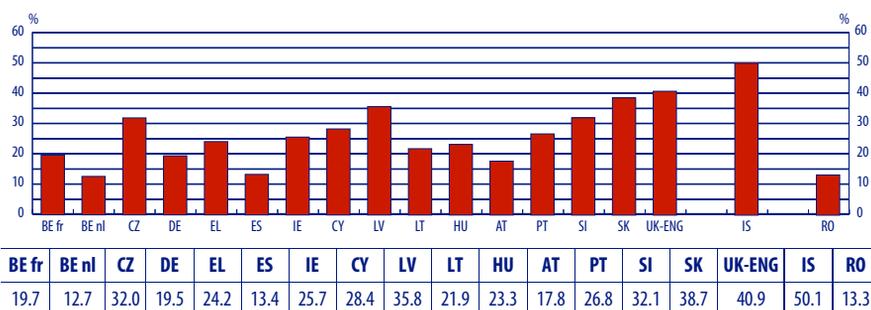
A quarter of **Danish** *folkeskole* teachers said they had applied for other jobs while working at their school. Most cited the need for new challenges as the main reason for this (*Kreiner, Svend; Mehlbye, Jill, 2000*).

29 % of **Swedish** teachers stated they would like to change profession (*Swedish National Agency for Education, 2000*).

35 % of teachers in the **United Kingdom (England)** stated they planned to leave the profession in the next five years. However, only 21 % of teachers clearly stated they would choose the same profession again, and 11 % said they would definitely not (*General Teaching Council for England, 2003*).

These data appear to indicate that the sense of satisfaction expressed by teachers in relation to their work is not incompatible with their stating that they wish to change their profession. National level surveys on this matter are most uncommon. However, international data was collected in the 1995 TIMSS survey (*Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study*). While the findings of the survey admittedly date back almost 10 years, they provide a comparative view of the intentions expressed by teachers in many countries. In this study, only specialist teachers of mathematics expressed an opinion and its findings cannot be taken to apply to the entire teaching profession. Yet they bear witness to these signs of disappointment. As Figure 1.1 indicates, the percentages of mathematics teachers in lower secondary education who said they were ready to leave teaching if the opportunity arose varied between 12 % and 50 % depending on the country concerned. The percentage was highest in Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England) and Iceland.

FIGURE 1.1: PERCENTAGE OF MATHEMATICS TEACHERS (OF PUPILS AGED 13) WHO REPORT THEY WOULD CHANGE THEIR CAREER IF THEY HAD THE OPPORTUNITY



Source: TIMSS 95.

Additional notes

**Belgium (BE de), Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Finland and Liechtenstein:** Countries that did not take part in TIMSS 95.

**Denmark, Italy, Netherlands, Sweden, Norway and Bulgaria:** Countries that did not circulate the questionnaire on teachers, which was an international option in the survey.

Explanatory note

In the TIMSS survey, the sample is based on the number of pupils and not the number of teachers. Variables in the teacher replies therefore always have to be weighted with the number of pupils they represent in the sample. Consequently, the results should be expressed as 'Percentage of pupils whose mathematics teacher reports ...'. However, in the interests of simplicity and ease of understanding, the formulation 'Percentage of mathematics teachers...' has been used in the title of the Figure.

**THE TEACHING PROFESSION HAS A BETTER IMAGE THAN TEACHERS THINK**

It is hard to measure the recognition society grants to a profession and its social prestige even more so. In general, a profession is said to enjoy a certain measure of social recognition when its representatives provide a service that is appreciated and considered important for society. Moreover, the general public believe that this recognition should be reflected in a level of remuneration commensurate with the work accomplished. By social prestige <sup>(4)</sup> is meant here the socio-economic status of a profession in relation to other professional sectors.

In the national surveys, the question of social recognition of the teaching profession is considered from two angles: how 'non-teachers' regard the work carried out by teachers and how teachers themselves feel they are regarded by society.

<sup>(4)</sup> In some surveys (mainly those in Spain, Italy and Portugal), this term is also used more generically, as a synonym for recognition and social appreciation.

In the surveys, statements testifying to appreciation of the work carried out by teachers are fairly recurrent. Significant percentages of parents (Spain, 1997), pupils (Sweden, 2000) and people in general (United Kingdom (England), 2000) say they have a very high regard for the work done by teachers.

There is quite a big difference between what teachers consider the general public think of them and what people actually say they think. In fact, teachers are often more appreciated than they themselves believe.

88 % of **Dutch** people hold secondary teachers in high regard, whereas the teachers themselves thought only 18 % of Dutch people had a high opinion of their work (*Ministerie van OC&W, 1999*).

Two-thirds of teachers questioned in **Austria** were not satisfied with the supposed image society has of their profession. However, the public has a higher opinion of teachers than they had imagined. Parents have even a higher opinion of teachers than the average (*LehrerIn 2000*).

Teachers therefore appear to be unaware of the regard that people have for them. On the contrary, they say they feel that their profession is far from appreciated by society.

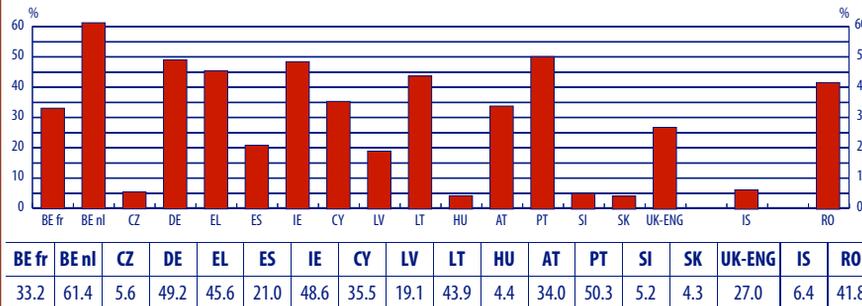
In **Italy**, almost 2/3 of teachers surveyed said they did not feel appreciated by society; 72 % of secondary school teachers thought their profession had lost social prestige over the last 10 years, and 45 % believed this trend would continue in the future (*Fondazione IARD, 1999*).

In **France**, 67 % of young teachers surveyed (63 % of those in priority education zones) believe they are in a profession with little social recognition (*Note d'information, 2003*).

In **Finland**, 25 % of teachers surveyed said they felt unable to gain recognition in society despite their hard work (*Santavirta N., et al., 2001*).

Once more, the TIMSS 95 survey contains very similar findings. Asked about how far society appreciates their work, the majority of teachers from Europe who took part feel they receive very little recognition. The fact that the percentages are everywhere lower than 50 % (except in the Flemish Community of Belgium) is indicative of low morale among teachers in Europe. This negative perception is even more strongly articulated in countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovenia, Slovakia and Iceland, in which under 10 % of teachers feel appreciated.

FIGURE 1.2: PERCENTAGE OF MATHEMATICS TEACHERS (OF PUPILS AGED 13) WHO REPORT THAT SOCIETY APPRECIATES THEIR WORK



Source: TIMSS 95.

Additional notes

**Belgium (BE de), Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Finland and Liechtenstein:** Countries that did not take part in TIMSS 95.

**Denmark, Italy, Netherlands, Sweden, Norway and Bulgaria:** Countries that did not circulate the questionnaire on teachers, which was an international option in the survey.

Explanatory note

In the TIMSS survey, the sample is based on the number of pupils and not the number of teachers. Variables in the teacher replies therefore always have to be weighted with the number of pupils they represent in the sample. Consequently, the results should be expressed as 'Percentage of pupils whose mathematics teacher reports ...'. However, in the interests of simplicity and ease of understanding, the formulation 'Percentage of mathematics teachers...' has been used in the title of the Figure.

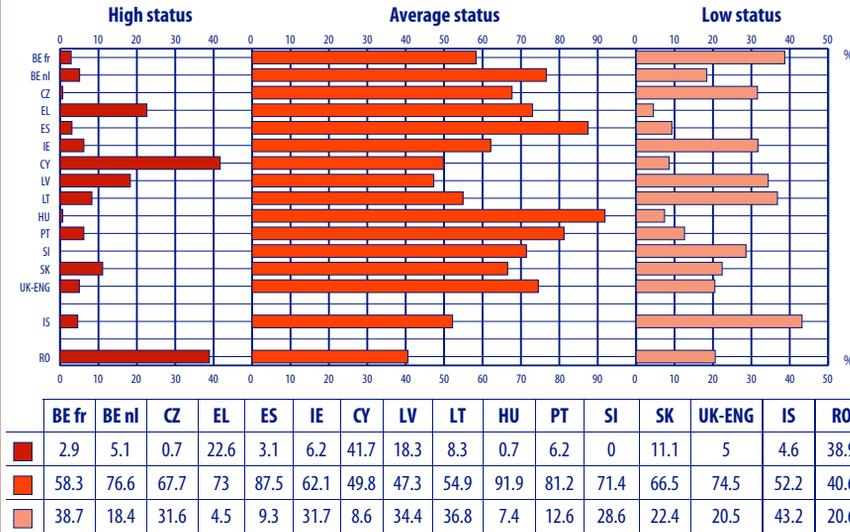
The social status of a profession may be equated with its prestige in society. It may be measured by means of scales that rank various professions from this standpoint. Several national surveys have used this type of scale and asked teachers to rank their profession with respect to others in terms of its degree of social recognition. The surveys reveal that when teachers compare their profession to other similar occupations, in terms of training and the complexity of the tasks performed, they generally rank themselves below the medical and legal professions that they judge to be more prestigious.

In the view of **Spanish** teachers, doctors (81.8 %) and lawyers (78.4 %) have careers with a higher social prestige (*Fundación Santa María, 1993*).

In answer to the question on the social prestige of different professions, 79.2 % of **Portuguese** teachers placed medicine at the top, while they gave little consideration to their profession (*A situação do professor em Portugal, 1988*).

Similarly, in the TIMSS 95 survey, teachers were asked to classify their profession alongside nine others. This ranking was grouped into three main levels of social status (high, average and low).

FIGURE 1.3: OPINION OF MATHEMATICS TEACHERS (OF PUPILS AGED 13) REGARDING THE SOCIAL STATUS OF THEIR PROFESSION COMPARED TO OTHERS



Source: TIMSS 95.

Additional notes

**Belgium (BE de), Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Finland and Liechtenstein:** Countries that did not take part in TIMSS 95.

**Denmark, Italy, Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, Norway and Bulgaria:** Countries that did not circulate the questionnaire on teachers, which was an international option in the survey.

**Germany:** This question was not distributed to teachers.

Explanatory note

In the TIMSS survey, the sample is based on the number of pupils and not the number of teachers. Variables in the teacher replies therefore always have to be weighted with the number of pupils they represent in the sample. Consequently, the results should be expressed as 'Percentage of pupils whose mathematics teacher ...'. However, in the interests of simplicity and ease of understanding, the formulation 'Opinion of mathematics teachers...' has been used in the title of the Figure.

The nine occupations selected for comparison were: accountant, medical doctor, lawyer, engineer, nurse, senior civil servant, teacher (primary school), teacher (secondary school) and unskilled worker.

The majority of teachers who took part in this international survey said that the status of their profession was average, along with that of engineering, nursing and the public service. However, in some countries, teachers ranked their profession as one of the least prestigious and attractive. Accordingly, between 30 % and 40 % of teachers in the French Community of Belgium, the Czech

Republic, Latvia, Lithuania and Iceland compared their occupation to that of unskilled workers. Conversely, teachers seldom say that their profession enjoys high status. Fewer than 10% do so in the great majority of countries concerned. Greek teachers (23%), Cypriot teachers (42%) and Romanian teachers (39%) are the most inclined to rank their profession highly.

Notwithstanding the sense of overall satisfaction with their occupation expressed by the majority of teachers in Europe, the national surveys examined in this chapter contain very clear evidence of low morale that, in some cases, has existed among teachers in Europe for many years. Admittedly, they acknowledge that their profession has benefits but say they are limited primarily to its opportunities for interpersonal contact. Their working conditions are the main source of dissatisfaction. They are especially discontented with the complexity and number of tasks that have to be carried out, for which they often feel inadequately prepared.

The prestige and social recognition of a profession are always relative and often based on criteria of 'appreciation' and 'esteem' which, by their very nature, are largely subjective. Nevertheless, the surveys also show that teachers seem to have an inaccurate perception of the regard that the public have for their profession. They say they suffer from a lack of social recognition that is not apparent from the surveys. This mistaken perception should be corrected, as ensuring that the teaching profession is appropriately recognized is unquestionably one important step towards ensuring it will be attractive.

## CHAPTER 2

### DIVERSIFYING INTAKE TO TEACHER EDUCATION WHILST SAFEGUARDING THE QUALITY OF TEACHING COMPETENCES

The position of initial teacher education as the first entry point to the teachers' professional career development continuum means that the way it is organised plays a key role in determining both the quality and the quantity of new teachers engaging in this process. The question raised in this chapter may broadly be summarised in the following terms:

Can initial teacher education provision act as an inducement to bring the right people into the profession and what are the safeguards attached to innovation with respect to opening up access to teaching?

This question is posed in the context of a mixed situation in Europe in terms of levels of teacher supply. A few countries suffer from chronic teacher shortages, others are training more teachers than they need, whilst the most typical situation is that teacher shortage and oversupply are present concurrently, in different subjects and/or in different locations. Moreover, almost all countries face significant replacement demand for the profession in the short or medium term, as large numbers of teachers approach retirement age.

Policy concerns therefore relate not only to the need to persuade more people to enter teaching but also, at least in some countries, to the need to better target the intake to teacher education and adjust the qualification profiles of new teachers to local needs.

Most European countries provide a single route into teaching, or sometimes two routes, where concurrent and consecutive models co-exist. In either case, these routes are predicated on trainees being relatively young school-leavers or graduates without any prior professional experience. Selection to teacher education programmes is geared towards this type of candidate.

Traditionally initial teacher education is centred on universities or higher education institutes. This is where students spend most of their time learning to become teachers, whether as part of the concurrent or the consecutive models. Even where teacher education finishes with 'on-the-job' qualifying phases, most training still takes place outside the school in teacher education institutions (Eurydice, 2002b). The role that is played by teacher education institutions in preparing and inducting would-be teachers into the profession should therefore not be neglected. When the degree of autonomy enjoyed by these institutions in terms of their curricula is taken into account, this role

takes on an even more significant dimension, particularly where public control of teaching qualifications takes the form of guidelines with respect to the content of teacher education, rather than of outcome standards. This is the case in most countries.

Teacher education and entry into the profession is thus characterised in its traditional form by a strong and influential interaction between central education authorities and universities or higher education institutes. Schools play little part in this interaction.

### **CHANGES AFOOT – OPENING UP INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION PATHWAYS**

Initial teacher education has always been a favoured target for reform activity, although these reforms have tended to be somewhat more concerned with content than with structure. Nonetheless, in recent years, teacher education institutions in some countries have developed part-time training programmes and distance learning options, or have added special accelerated training programmes designed for graduates from other fields.

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Alongside this move towards increased flexibility in the types of programmes offered by teacher education institutions, a more fundamental change may also be observed in the shape of employment-based training programmes. This change challenges the very nature of initial teacher education and is bound up in notions of how training should be provided and who determines whether a trainee has acquired sufficient competences to be admitted as a qualified member of the profession. Schools are being encouraged to enter into partnership with higher education institutions to train new teachers or to act as training providers in their own right. This new role for schools raises a host of issues, including the nature of teacher education and the kinds of teachers that are to be trained.

Some countries are presently engaged in a process that expressly seeks to re-think initial teacher education and to open up access to the profession through non-traditional approaches to training. Two of these countries – the United Kingdom (England) and the Netherlands – are also countries that have experienced acute teacher shortages (<sup>1</sup>), which have undoubtedly contributed to the impetus for this process, although it is simplistic to assert that significant re-modelling of teacher education is merely a reaction to imbalances in the supply of teachers.

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(<sup>1</sup>) In the United Kingdom (England), the situation has recently improved, and these shortages are now limited to some subjects in some areas

In the **Netherlands**, policy discourse centres on the need to open up teacher training to market requirements. The context in this country is that of a decentralised and demand-driven system, where staffing policy (including job descriptions and the types of teachers needed) is decided by schools, who have highlighted shortcomings in the existing qualifications structure. As a result, recent policy has focused on the need for a more open and diverse system for the supply of teachers. This teacher 'market' is being developed through the introduction of different routes to teaching geared to target groups who may not otherwise consider training for the profession.

The **United Kingdom (England)** has possibly gone even further along this path. There is a strong policy commitment in this country both to encouraging a wide range of training providers and to ensuring that schools are actively involved in training new teachers. Higher education institutes wishing to provide initial teacher education must establish a partnership with schools to organise initial teacher education, and schools also have the option of becoming providers in their own right through school centred initial teacher training (SCITT). Coordination of all provision is the responsibility of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA). Again, an important objective here is to achieve a high degree of flexibility with respect to entry routes into the profession.

Other countries are also re-evaluating their teacher education programmes. In 2002 Slovakia introduced a partnership system between initial teacher education institutions and schools in order to foster school-centred training. Similarly, in Sweden teacher education has recently (2001) been re-structured, with greater emphasis being placed on partnerships between schools and teacher education institutions and research in educational science. The reform will be evaluated in 2004/05.

## **DEFINING STANDARDS ARE KEY TO MARRYING INNOVATION WITH QUALITY CONTROL**

The key question is this: are teachers trained in employment-based or other shorter and more individualised training programmes as well trained as teachers coming through traditional programmes based in teacher education institutions?

The issue of quality control is an important one here and there are at least two key points at which checks may be made on the standard of trainees from both traditional and non-traditional programmes: firstly, the selection mechanisms that are operated on entry to the programme; and secondly, the types of exit certification leading to qualified teacher status.

With respect to entry to traditional initial teacher education programmes, although many countries operate some form of selection to these programmes, in practice this often does not extend further than requiring evidence of academic performance at the end of secondary schooling or organising a general entrance

examination to higher education. Initial teacher education institutions select their candidates through interviews (arguably the most personalised and targeted form of selection) in less than half of European countries.

Selection criteria play an important role in non-traditional programmes by contrast. In particular, employment-based routes to training are designed for well-qualified and experienced people who can quickly take on teaching responsibilities and who need to earn a living whilst training. The challenge is therefore to identify the right people for these programmes.

The English system is further characterised by the relatively flexible way in which provision is managed. While the Dutch still centre responsibility for provision on higher education institutes, any university, school or other organisation may apply to be an accredited initial training provider in England. The TTA plays an important role in awarding accreditation and allocating training places and funding in strict correlation with training quality. This process takes place every year on the basis of inspection carried out by OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education).

There are a number of **English** employment-based training options, including for example the Graduate Training Programme (GTP), which involves a personalised assessment of candidates' training needs similar to the Dutch programme. The GTP has expanded rapidly since its introduction in 1998: fewer than 100 trainees were enrolled in 1998/99, while more than 3 400 were enrolled in the 2002/03 school year, representing approximately 10 % of all those training to become teachers. (OECD 2003, Country Background Report for the United Kingdom).

The **Dutch** *zij-instroom* programme, introduced in 2000, is highly dependent on the assessment procedure worked out at national level and executed by a team of specially trained assessors working from teacher education institutions. This procedure is designed to diagnose the candidates' competence for teaching and to establish the 'tailor-made' programme required to remedy shortfalls and reach the teaching qualification. Figures for 2002 show that 86 % of candidates passed this assessment for secondary level education. (OECD 2003, Country Background Report for the Netherlands).

The need to ensure that shorter, more flexible or employment-based training programmes achieve equivalent qualifications to those conferred by established programmes centred on teacher education institutions lies at the heart of the debate on quality of provision. There is a fear that non-traditional programmes produce 'deficient' teachers, mainly because these teachers have not been trained for as long or as thoroughly as teachers who are the products of more traditional programmes.

The shift in emphasis from certification based on evidence of sufficient mastery of curricula provided in teacher education programmes (the

prevailing situation in Europe) to certification based on competences (outcome standards) is very significant in this respect. Where the focus is taken away from programme content and placed more directly on the type of skills that a competent teacher should possess, it becomes easier to introduce alternative pathways to teacher qualification.

Not by coincidence, both the United Kingdom (England) and the Netherlands have introduced standards-based certification at the end of initial teacher education.

However, this move away from training content (determined in most cases by teacher education institutions) towards outcome standards (determined at the central level) deserves more attention. Several education systems have introduced outcome standards for trainee teachers but the extent to which they are an effective test of teachers' real abilities is not always entirely clear. Information about the nature of the certification process, along with the content of the standards themselves, is needed to contribute to the discussion on safeguarding and improving quality.

Detailed information on both of these aspects is available from the TTA in the **United Kingdom (England)**. The national Standards set out what a trainee teacher must know, understand and be able to do in order to qualify and gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The Standards are organised in three sections, namely Professional Values and Practice; Knowledge and Skills; and Teaching. Mandatory tests in literacy, numeracy and ICT skills are also required, as is the successful completion of a year-long induction phase during which new teachers are expected to demonstrate that they continue to meet and build on the standards in each of the areas listed.

In the **Netherlands**, proposed legislation (*Wet op de beroepen in het onderwijs*) also lays down national standards, consolidating earlier moves taken towards developing professional profiles and formulating starting skills for new teachers. The standards are therefore presently under consultation in this country.

The absence of clearly-defined quality control standards applicable to all teachers at the outcome of their training may also have ramifications for teachers' subsequent employment prospects.

This might be the case in education systems where teachers are expected to apply for jobs themselves, and schools (or possibly municipalities) are responsible for selecting their teachers according to their own preferences. On the assumption that schools will seek to find the best teachers, it is reasonable to suppose that they will favour teachers educated in established programmes (provided by universities or higher education institutes) if there is no other objective guarantee of quality.

As an illustration, the introduction of alternative training programmes in Sweden and Denmark respectively have met with rather different responses. The difference appears to stem at least partly from the lack of outcome standards in the latter country.

**Sweden** has established outcome standards for initial teacher education in the context of an overhaul of the teacher education system in 2001. An explicit objective of this reform has been to strengthen school-based training and employment and a special teacher education programme (*Särskild Lärautbildning*) has been established, acknowledging the prior qualifications and experience of older trainees as well as their need to earn a living. As with similar programmes in the **United Kingdom (England)** and the **Netherlands**, demand for this type of training programme is apparently very high.

By contrast, the **Danish** experience in setting up an alternative training programme (*merittlaereruddannelse*) is an example of the difficulty faced implementing this type of programme in systems without standards-based certification for teachers. This programme is an accelerated course (one or two years) designed to widen recruitment by re-training other professionals and making use of their competences. There is however a lack of equivalence with teachers qualified through mainstream programmes and the Danish Union of Teachers has recommended that the programme be supplemented with a bridge building to a normal teachers' education with a bachelor's thesis, extra main subjects and teaching practice. Once again, the demand for this programme was very high (a 25 % increase of the total national intake to teacher training in August 2002) (OECD 2003, Country Background Report for Denmark).

## **NEW ROLES, NEW CHALLENGES: MAKING SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMMES WORK**

The quality of training provided in school-based programmes can also be taken beyond the discussion of the checks that have been built into these programmes and into the way the programmes themselves are organised.

The provision of teacher training directly in schools has repercussions both on the relationship between schools and higher education institutions (with possibly a new role for education authorities as well) and on the work of qualified teachers working in those schools.

School-based teacher training programmes thus generally include a statutory obligation to work in partnership with higher education institutions, which means adjusting traditional expectations on both sides and achieving a more equal role for schools. This raises the issue of how partnerships are resourced and about who is responsible for managing them and for their ultimate success.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, teacher education providers have been required to work in partnership with schools and actively involve them in the training process since 1992. There is, however, no corresponding obligation for schools to become involved in training and this may sometimes lead to problems for higher education institutions in finding enough school partners. Schools entering into partnerships are paid by the higher education institution from resources provided by the TTA. The TTA also provides guidelines on what is expected from both schools and higher education institutions and has recently introduced Regional Partnership Managers in each region to provide necessary coordination and support.

In the **Netherlands**, a recent (2002) policy document has confirmed that institutions for teacher education, together with other institutions, should adapt to the needs of the school, which is to be considered to be the key player in the education market. However, experiences in setting up partnerships in the context of school-based programmes are still relatively new and little information is yet available on how such partnerships are operated in practice.

School-based training programmes also place considerable demands on schools and on the workload of school staff. Experienced teachers effectively take on a new job, that of training other teachers. How well are they prepared for this job? How much recognition do they get for carrying out their role as teacher educators? Again, these questions raise issues about teachers' workload. The analysis of teachers' working time has shown that both the United Kingdom (England) and the Netherlands have a relatively open-ended and flexible definition of how teachers' working time is organised, which lends itself to the introduction of these types of non-teaching responsibilities (Eurydice 2003, Chapter 2).

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the professional duties of teachers include contributing to the induction and assessment of new teachers if directed by the headteacher. Training providers are required to ensure that all those involved in training new teachers are trained for this work. The TTA has published mentor training guidance and has also set up a Support Group to provide advice and guidance both to higher education institutions and to schools. The type of support provided includes collaborative networks on specific themes.

In the **Netherlands**, the so-called 'school budget' is intended to give schools freedom to set their own priorities, including providing extra money for training teachers. However, there are no regulations on the organisation of support and training to teachers required to provide mentoring to trainees on the *zjj-instroom* programme. In general terms, higher education institutions continue to carry the main responsibility for the content of teacher training programmes, which are expected to closely reflect the demands of the schools.

To conclude, evidence from several countries shows that demand for school-based and other alternative training programmes is high – the number of applicants for these programmes regularly exceed expectations. These types of programme are geared to career-changers, who are motivated to enter teaching and who are able to do so by virtue of opportunity to continue earning whilst on these programmes. However, they do represent an

important conceptual shift in the way initial training is organised. A number of preconditions must be in place if they are to succeed in training teachers of sufficient quality. Selection mechanisms must be rigorous and coupled with standards that clearly define the competences expected of trainees in order to qualify. In addition to this, the programmes must be properly managed and resourced, with effective partnerships and teacher-trainers who have been fully prepared to take on this new role.

A recent report from OFSTED in the United Kingdom (England) bears this out, pointing to shortcomings in more recently established training routes compared to traditional routes, highlighting the need for greater consistency in the quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation of training programmes <sup>(2)</sup>.

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<sup>(2)</sup> OFSTED, Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools, Standards and Quality in Education 2000 – 1, The Stationery Office, London.

## CHAPTER 3

### COHERENCE BETWEEN DIFFERENT STAGES OF TEACHER EDUCATION: TOWARDS CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The initial education of teachers cannot provide them with all the knowledge and skills they will need when handling various aspects of their future profession. However, appropriate in-service training enables them to build constructively on this foundation throughout their subsequent career.

Training in specific skills <sup>(1)</sup> is far less widespread in the professional phase of initial teacher education than in in-service training, which attempts to develop virtually all or almost all of these skills in over half of the European countries under consideration (Eurydice, 2002b, Chapter 3 and Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 4).

There may be structural reasons for this. In many countries, initial teacher education responds less rapidly to the new roles and tasks facing teachers, as its courses have an academic rather than a practical emphasis. In addition, procedures for accrediting initial education may be more complicated than in the case of single in-service courses or modules. By contrast, the provision of in-service training is often more flexible and demand-oriented and thus better able to adapt its content swiftly to emerging new requirements.

In the context of lifelong learning, several countries are increasingly referring to 'continuing professional development' rather than 'in-service training', as a broader way of describing the wide range of career development opportunities available to teachers. This term encompasses a larger range of possibilities for professional development by stressing the concept of continuity and coherence between the different stages of a professional career.

In this view, initial education, induction and in-service teacher education are articulated stages in the continuum of professional development and should therefore correspond to one consistent education policy. Such policies have already been developed in several countries while, in others, they are planned or under discussion. Yet real consistency in European teacher education is far from being a reality.

Several factors which may contribute positively to the continuity of education throughout a teacher's career or, on the contrary, affect it negatively will be considered in this section. Factors with a positive impact may include the development of professional profiles, as well as mergers or closer associations

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<sup>(1)</sup> The five skills examined reflect trends which may be observed in schools in Europe today and include the growing importance of information and communication technology (ICT); the increasing autonomy of schools in management terms; and the increase in classes with pupils from a variety of different cultural or social backgrounds, or of differing abilities.

between education providers. A broad autonomy of institutions of initial and in-service education to decide on content and organisation of the education they provide may prove to be a rather hindering factor on the way to coherence.

Furthermore, it is hardly surprising that the participation of teachers in in-service training remains unimpressive, given that it is a professional obligation in only half of the countries covered by the study and, in many of them, not actually linked to career advancement.

### **CAN A DEFINITION OF PROFESSIONAL PROFILES CONTRIBUTE TO A LEARNING CONTINUUM?**

National teacher profiles and skill-based standards for the teaching profession have been devised in several countries where policy-makers are thinking about how to adapt teacher education more to actual needs and thus promote lifelong learning. Naturally, this approach is also a way of achieving uniform education outcomes and qualifications, and controlling the overall provision of teacher education in a particular country. Rather than representing detailed programmes, professional profiles and standards generally correspond to lists of desirable competences or qualifications. These in turn may reflect the interpersonal skills required by teachers in responding to the challenges of school throughout their entire career.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, the *Guidelines on Initial Teacher Education Courses* (1998) established a list of competences for future teachers. It also included desirable attitudes in a teacher, which the courses should encourage. With these guidelines, the notion of coherence between pre-service education, final-on-the-job qualifying phase and continuing professional development were promoted as well.

In **Romania** (2001), the Ministry of Education and Research established general aims regarding initial education and in-service training, which are intended as a basis for reform.

In general, therefore, such models adopt approaches in which the aims of both forms of education are welded into a single consistent strategy for skills development. From this standpoint, their development has a direct or indirect bearing on current concepts of in-service training.

The lack of a consistent national strategy for in-service training is a challenge for many of the new Member States and candidate countries in particular. Since abolition of the system of in-service training in the former socialist countries, it has not often been replaced by a new clear strategy for the professional development of teachers.

EU countries (prior to 1 May 2004) have also reported that they lack an overall strategy for this purpose.

For example, the final report in 1999 of the **German** committee on teacher education prospects criticised the random nature of much in-service training provision and the lack of broad agreement on the principles of continuing professional development.

### **DO MERGERS AND CLOSER ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN EDUCATION PROVIDERS ENSURE CONTINUITY?**

Greater continuity between initial and in-service teacher education will entail closer cooperation between providers. In most countries, institutions for initial teacher education also offer in-service training opportunities. Courses are offered on the same premises, although student teachers and teachers in service are kept apart, so that only those studying for a further degree or diploma mix with the trainees.

Thus, geographical integration or proximity does not necessarily ensure conceptual continuity. The question is whether programmes are developed for student teachers in both the pre-service and in-service stages in such a way as to cater for the particular needs of each group. In organisational terms, this might mean mixing the two groups and having trainers able to work in initial as well as in-service education.

Yet greater proximity during education might be rewarding for both groups. Institutions which offer teachers in service their latest know-how and knowledge in the area of particular school subjects and educational research may also benefit considerably if those teachers are in turn able to report on their practical experience and daily training needs.

Interestingly enough, initial and in-service education may also become closer in schools themselves. As a consequence of decentralisation, in-service training in a growing number of countries is delivered directly on school premises, as are certain alternative forms of school-based initial education (see Chapter 2 for a detailed description).

In **Austria**, the recent reform institutions of initial education for *Hauptschule* teachers provides for closer cooperation with in-service training institutions.

In **Germany**, some *Länder* have established centres for teacher education within the universities. Their purpose is to maintain contacts with the universities in charge of initial education and in-service training providers.

In **Sweden**, the aim of the arrangement that the same teachers work in both initial and in-service education is to lay a foundation for greater continuity between the two stages.

## HOW CAN CONSISTENCY BE COMBINED WITH AUTONOMY OF INSTITUTIONS?

A situation in which institutions of initial and in-service education are free to devise their own programmes raises the question not just of how far education offered at different institutions throughout the country is effectively coordinated and consistent, but also whether there is continuity of provision throughout the various stages of a teacher's career.

Institutions of initial education in most countries are to some extent autonomous and education authorities have only limited control over in-service training providers. Responsibility for devising programmes is shared between the central and local or school levels.

However, in several countries in which the autonomy of institutions of initial education is limited, the design of in-service training programmes has become completely decentralised and is the responsibility of schools (Figure 3.1). Programmes are created in accordance with their needs and those of their teachers.

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**FIGURE 3.1: AUTONOMY OF INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION (PROFESSIONAL PART) AND LEVEL OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR DEVISING IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01**

Level of responsibility for devising in-service teacher training programmes is	Degree of autonomy in relation to the professional phase of initial teacher education			
	Total	Limited	No autonomy	Initial education provided abroad
<b>decentralised/school level</b>	IS	BE fr, BE nl, DK, <b>EE, NL, SE</b>		
<b>shared</b>	CZ	(EL), ES, FR, IT, <b>LV, LT, HU, AT, PL, PT, SI, FI, UK, NO, BG</b>	<b>DE, LU</b>	<b>BE de</b>
<b>central</b>	<b>MT</b>	CY, SK, <b>RO</b>		<b>LI</b>

**Bold:** Countries in which in-service training is compulsory.

Source: Eurydice.

### Additional notes

**Germany:** The regulations which institutions of initial education have to follow may vary from one *Land* to the next.

**Greece:** Provision of professional teacher training depends on the institution and the subjects in which prospective teachers intend to specialise.

**Ireland:** Data for in-service training not available.

**Cyprus:** The information relates to initial education provided in Cyprus. However, a large proportion of teachers are still educated abroad.

**Austria:** The information relates to the initial education of *Hauptschule* teachers at *Pädagogische Akademien*.

**Iceland:** The information relates to the initial education in *Kennaraháskóli Íslands*.

Explanatory note (Figure 3.1)

Only autonomy relating to the content of professional training is considered here. For an in-depth analysis of this issue, see Eurydice, 2002b, Chapter 3, Figure 3.1.

**Professional training** corresponds to the theoretical and practical part of education devoted to teaching as such. In addition to courses on school-related legislation, the history and sociology of education, psychology and teaching methods and methodology, it includes short and (usually) unremunerated in-class placements with the exception of the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase. These placements are supervised by the teacher in charge of the class concerned and are periodically assessed by teachers at the education institution. This professional training provides prospective teachers with both a theoretical and practical insight into their future profession.

In many countries, institutions of initial education are still granted considerable autonomy as regards content and the organisation of the curriculum in terms of time. In recent years however, education authorities have tended to increase the regulation of initial teacher education, with a view to achieving a greater degree of quality control (Eurydice, 2002b, Chapter 3).

Official documents may limit institutional autonomy either by indicating that certain groups of subjects are compulsory, or specifying examination goals or the minimum standards required of teachers on completion of initial education, or in some cases, both.

Different procedures such as education programme accreditation, external control of examinations, or curricular agreements are the means used to implement quality control of this kind.

As far as central control is concerned, the contrary trend has been observed in the case of in-service training (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 4). In a growing number of countries, schools and local education authorities offer training based freely on the skills development needs of teachers and schools. However, in most countries, responsibility for training concepts is shared between different decision-making levels and programmes have to be accredited by the competent authority (in most cases the ministry).

Shared responsibility and reciprocal agreements between providers and committees working on nationally determined teacher profiles may help to resolve conflicting interests and power struggles in teacher education. National circumstances differ and individual countries will doubtless discover their own way of handling the dynamics involved in each case.



## CHAPTER 4

### SALARY POLICIES:

### BETWEEN EGALITARIANISM AND DIFFERENTIATION

#### INTRODUCTION

Teachers' salaries represent the largest share of education budgets. The level at which teachers are paid, as well as the way in which their salaries are constructed, is subject to considerable variation from one country to the next. This chapter seeks to explore the full scope of this variation, building on previous work in this area (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 3).

In a first section, the levels of minimum and maximum basic salaries are compared at European level. This serves to establish the context for the discussion on approaches to salary structures, using conceptions of working time as the reference point. From here, the focus turns to the levels of responsibility for deciding what teachers should be paid and the effect that this has on salary differentials. Finally, the implications of salary adjustments as a policy tool, both in qualitative and in quantitative terms are considered. This is about the use of financial incentives as a motivating factor for teachers.

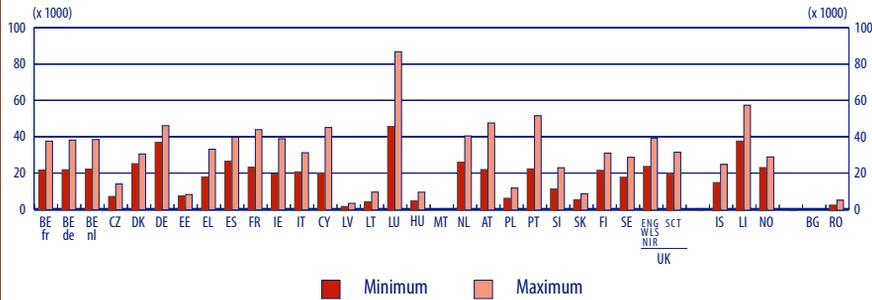
The different elements underlying this discussion – the sources of funds available to remunerate teachers and preferences in the allocation of those funds towards flexibility and differentiation or egalitarianism and simplicity – should serve to draw out some of the important national differences underpinning the way teachers are rewarded in Europe.

#### **BETWEEN MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM BASIC SALARIES: COMPARATIVE TOOLS**

Figure 4.1 gives a comparison of teachers' salaries using two different indicators.

Figure 4.1A compares teachers' minimum and maximum basic salaries using purchasing power parities (PPPs). This indicates the level of teachers' salaries relative to national living standards, or in other words, how much a teacher's salary can buy in a given country.

**FIGURE 4.1A: MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM BASIC TEACHER SALARIES  
IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2) RELATED TO PPP, 2000/01**



	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU
Minimum	22.2	22.3	22.6	7.7	25.7	37.4	7.8	18.5	27.1	23.8	20.1	21.2	20.7	2.3	4.8	46.3	5.4
Maximum	37.7	38.3	38.6	14.1	30.7	46.3	8.4	33.3	39.9	44.1	39.1	31.4	45.3	3.6	9.8	87.1	9.8

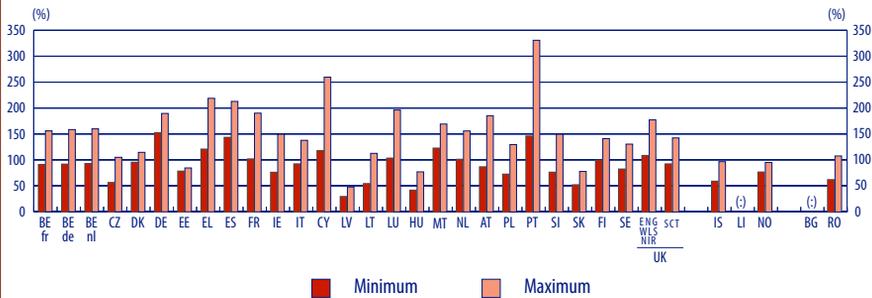
		UK															
		MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	ENG/WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
Minimum	(:)	26.7	22.6	6.9	23.1	12.0	6.1	22.3	18.5	24.4	20.8	15.6	38.4	23.9	(:)	3.2	
Maximum	(:)	40.8	47.9	12.1	51.9	23.3	9.0	31.4	29.0	39.6	31.8	25.2	57.8	29.3	(:)	5.5	

Source: Eurostat (PPP) and Eurydice (salaries).

**Additional notes**

See Figure 4.1B.

**FIGURE 4.1B: MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM BASIC TEACHER SALARIES  
IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2) RELATED TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01**



	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU
Minimum	91.9	92.6	93.7	57.2	96.2	153.4	79.1	121.7	144.5	102.8	77.0	93.3	118.8	30.3	55.3	104.5	42.6
Maximum	156.1	158.6	160.0	105.1	114.7	189.8	84.7	219.1	213.2	190.5	149.8	138.1	260.0	48.0	113.0	196.7	77.3

		UK															
		MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	ENG/WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
Minimum	123.9	102.3	87.8	73.6	147.3	77.4	53.1	100.6	83.6	109.8	93.6	60.1	(:)	77.8	(:)	63.1	
Maximum	169.6	156.3	185.7	130.0	331.5	150.0	78.2	141.6	131.0	177.8	143.0	97.2	(:)	95.7	(:)	108.2	

Source: Eurostat (GDP) and Eurydice (salaries).

Additional notes

**Czech Republic:** It is not possible from the data available to distinguish between the salaries of teachers and those of school heads which are thus included in the values indicated.

**Germany:** Given the complexity and wide variety of circumstances, teacher salaries are calculated with reference to the average age at the start of a career (which depends on the age at which studies begin and how long they last) and to salaries in the west German *Länder*. Only the salaries of *Realschule* teachers are considered.

**Spain:** Salaries in the Castilla-La Mancha Autonomous Community have been taken as an example as they are close to the average. Taking the same basic amount as a starting point, salaries vary from one Autonomous Community to the next.

**France:** The remuneration shown is that of *professeurs certifiés*.

**Austria:** The data relate to *Hauptschule* teachers.

**Poland:** The reference year for teacher salaries and per capita GDP is 2001.

**Sweden:** The minimum salary corresponds to an agreement reached between the teacher unions and the *Swedish Association of Local Authorities*. The maximum salary is not established with respect to an official scale, and the highest salary is not directly related to the age of teachers or their career. The diagram shows the highest salary paid in the reference year.

**United Kingdom (WLS/NIR):** No allowances similar to those payable to teachers in London are payable to teachers in Cardiff and Belfast for Wales and Northern Ireland respectively.

**United Kingdom (SCT):** Under the terms of a tripartite agreement reached in January 2001 between the Scottish Executive, employers and teacher organisations, teachers are guaranteed a minimum salary increase of 23.1 % over three years from April 2001.

**Liechtenstein:** Per capita GDP not available.

**Norway:** The salaries shown are those of an *adjunkt* (four years of initial education).

Explanatory note

**The data relate to teachers with the minimum qualifications required who are single, childless and live in the capital city of their country.**

By **basic gross annual salary** is meant the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances, such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month (where applicable), and holidays, etc. less employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary takes into account no other salary adjustment or financial benefit (related for example to further qualifications, merit, overtime or additional responsibilities, geographical area or the obligation to teach mixed or difficult classes, or accommodation, health or travel costs).

**Figure 4.1A:** The reference year for the calculation of purchasing power parities (PPPs) is 2000. The reference period for salaries is the calendar year 2000 or the 2000/01 school year. PPPs show the price in national currency of the same basket of goods and services in different countries. They represent currency conversion rates that both convert to a common unit and equalise the purchasing power of different currencies. The values indicated in the diagram are obtained by establishing a relation between the (minimum and maximum) basic annual salary in national currency and PPPs in national currency.

**Figure 4.1B:** The reference year for per capita GDP is 2000. The reference period for salaries is the calendar year 2000 or the 2000/01 school year. The values indicated in the diagram are obtained by establishing a relation between the (minimum and maximum) basic annual salary in national currency and per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) in the country concerned.

This indicator translates teachers' salaries directly into spending power on the basis of a common basket of goods and services, giving a more accurate indication of how well off teachers really are, irrespective of national wealth <sup>(1)</sup>.

Figure 4.1B shows teachers' minimum and maximum basic salaries as a percentage of per capita gross domestic product (GDP). This gives an indication of where teachers' salaries are situated relative to the average income per inhabitant, or in other words, how well paid teachers are in terms of the average distribution of national wealth.

The two indicators yield two main differences. A first observation is that the comparison of teachers' salaries using PPPs tends to magnify differences in wealth distribution when set against comparisons using per capita GDP.

This is illustrated by the strikingly different values given for Portugal and for Luxembourg in the two figures. If teachers salaries are given as a percentage of average national wealth, than an exceptionally high level of GDP (as is the case in Luxembourg) will give a proportionally low result, which is corrected when PPPs are calculated. Conversely, teachers in Portugal are very well paid at the end of the salary scale relative to average national income, but this does not translate into exceptional spending power when comparisons are made at European level.

The comparison of basic salaries on the basis of PPPs shows that, for the 15 European Union countries (prior to 1 May 2004) and the three EFTA/EEA countries, the level of minimum basic salaries is fairly similar, with a few exceptions. Greece, Ireland, Sweden and Iceland are at the lower end of the range while Germany, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein have much higher minimum basic salaries. The figure also shows that the increase in spending power at the top of salary scales can sometimes be very significant and that differences between countries are more marked at this end of the salary scale.

Perhaps more striking, however, is the degree of disparity that is evident between the EU Member States prior to 1 May 2004 together with the EFTA/EEA countries and the group of new Member States and candidate countries. In broad terms, teachers' spending power in the second group of countries is less than half that of teachers in the first group at the beginning of their careers, with the gap growing considerably wider by the time teachers reach their maximum salaries (Cyprus being the exception). The average for the EU and the EFTA/EEA countries at the end of the salary scale is almost seven times higher than that of the acceding states and candidate countries.

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<sup>(1)</sup> This basket is identical for all countries and therefore satisfies two basic conditions: (1) it is representative for each country and (2) it enables comparisons to be made between countries.

At an extreme, the spending power of a teacher in Luxembourg on maximum salary is almost 25 times greater than that of a teacher in Latvia.

These comparisons relate to basic salaries, determined by official pay scales applicable to all teachers holding the requisite qualifications. Basic minimum salaries are defined as entry-level salaries for teachers, whilst maximum salaries are defined as those available to teachers at the top of the official pay scale. Although some variation has been identified, either in relation to the ways in which pay scales are negotiated, or in the level at which new teachers enter the scale, it is safe to say that basic salaries are characterised by their universality and their uniformity (Eurydice, 2003, page 64). In other words, basic salary is not context-specific. It applies to all teachers with equivalent qualifications and experience within a given education system.

A proper comparison of salary systems must go beyond an analysis of basic salaries to look at the whole package of teachers' earnings. What other considerations come into play in order to reward them for the work that they do? The following discussion points to some of these considerations without, however, being able to provide quantitative information to complete the analysis. Thus, while the respective amounts of basic salary are shown, the amounts that are represented by salary premiums are not systematically established. In some cases, these amounts may be very small. In other cases, they may be much more significant. This information would be invaluable for a full understanding of salary policies in Europe.

### **TAKE-HOME PAY AND WORKING TIME: WHERE'S THE CONNECTION?**

There are potentially two different approaches to salary structures in the teaching profession.

The first approach takes the basic salary and supplements this salary with a number of premiums designed to recompense teachers for taking on additional responsibilities and tasks beyond classroom work, preparation and marking. The assumption, therefore, is that basic salary is calculated essentially on the basis of hours of teaching, with progression up the salary scale mainly dependent on years of service.

The alternative approach takes a broad definition of the teaching job that goes beyond hours spent in the classroom and instead, sees the school as being a workplace that necessitates a more complex set of activities. Teachers' basic salaries cover a job description that makes allowance for differentiation (it is recognised that their work covers more than teaching, preparation and marking). As a result, premiums are less extensive. The assumption in this case is that basic salary is calculated essentially on the basis of the time that teachers are expected to be present at their schools (or other designated workplaces).

The expectation would be, therefore, that teachers working in the first type of system are paid relatively lower basic salaries than those working in the second. It should however be noted that overtime pay is not taken into consideration here, as this is defined in terms of time spent working in excess of the hours specified in the contract of employment or conditions of service. Overtime is therefore already assimilated into these typologies and is not necessarily defined in terms of additional teaching time only.

To test this paradigm, Figure 4.2 identifies the countries in which teachers receive extra pay for one particular type of salary premium, namely the performance of responsibilities that go beyond those specified in the contract of employment. It locates both the countries in which the requirement to be present at school is part of the statutory definition of teachers' working time and those in which teachers are not required to be at school outside of their teaching hours.

FIGURE 4.2: RESPONSIBILITIES FURTHER TO THOSE SPECIFIED IN THE CONTRACT OF EMPLOYMENT FOR WHICH TEACHERS RECEIVE ADDITIONAL REMUNERATION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01

	Supervision of pupils and or out-of-class activities	Involvement in school management	Provision of advice and support to other teachers	Examinations (invigilating, marking, membership of committees)	National/international activities or membership of representative bodies	Organisation of teaching materials, ICT responsibilities	Not applicable
<b>Centrally prescribed</b>	<b>DK, EE, EL, IT, MT, PT, FI, IS, BG</b>  IE, LV, LT, PL, SK	<b>DK, EE, EL, ES, IT, PT, FI, UK-SCT, IS, BG</b>  FR, IE, LV, PL, SK, LI	<b>DK, EE, IT, PT, IS</b>  FR, PL, SI, SK, RO	<b>DK, EE, EL, ES, MT, PT, IS, BG</b>  FR, IE, LV, LT, LU, PL, SI, SK, RO	<b>DK, EE, EL, ES, PT, IS, BG</b>  LV, PL, SI, SK	<b>DK, FI</b>  CZ, LI	BE, DE, AT
<b>Local or school decision</b>	<b>SE, NO</b>	<b>HU, SE, UK-ENG/WLS/NIR, NO</b>  CZ, NL	<b>SE, NO</b>  CZ, IE, NL	<b>NO</b>	<b>SE, NO</b>	<b>HU, SE, NO</b>	

**Bold:** Countries in which there is a statutory requirement to be present in school beyond teaching hours.

(:): CY.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

**Spain:** The central level is represented by the Autonomous Communities.

**Finland:** Additional responsibilities are decided at local level, whereas remuneration for these responsibilities is agreed at central level in the collective agreement between the teachers' union and the municipal employers' representatives.

**Iceland:** The central level refers to a central committee representing the municipalities. Teachers' salaries are negotiated by teachers' unions and this committee.

The figure shows that the correlation between the way that working time is defined and the availability of salary adjustments does not bear this hypothesis out. Fewer countries with a more restrictive definition of working time offer salary premiums. Belgian, German and Austrian teachers are never paid extra for additional responsibilities, in spite of the fact that at least the former two countries are amongst those with the most restrictive definition of teachers' working time (Eurydice, 2003, page 86). By contrast, all countries with a broad definition of working time offer additional remuneration for at least some of these tasks (most notably for school management responsibilities).

This implies that these types of responsibilities are not routinely included as part of teachers' job descriptions in these countries and are therefore not considered to be a simple extension of their normal duties, for which they are paid their basic salary. Thus, teachers who are required to spend time in schools outside of classroom work are not generally expected to engage in the types of responsibilities shown in Figure 4.2. Instead, this non-teaching time is often earmarked for teamwork and professional development activities amongst teachers.

In **Denmark**, agreements on working time include development hours for all teachers, which may be used for pedagogical days and meetings planning and evaluation of special development-related teaching processes at schools and in teams, development of evaluation forms, supervision, reflection on experience and practice as well as development of local curricula and teaching materials.

Figure 4.2 also shows that Denmark and Slovakia systematically offer extra pay with respect to each of the responsibilities (with one exception for Slovakia), and that this decision is always taken at central level and therefore extends to all teachers. In Sweden and Norway, where salary adjustments are also possible in each case (again, with one exception for Sweden), the decision is local, and all teachers are therefore not necessarily paid in the same way.

### **WHO DECIDES HOW MUCH TO PAY? CENTRAL INTERVENTIONS AND LOCAL CONTRIBUTIONS**

This last point raises another, very important issue, namely the decentralisation of all or part of the responsibility for paying teachers. In almost all countries, the central or top-level authorities for education decide basic salaries. Salary scale structures are also determined at this level in all countries except Sweden. Thus, in a number of countries, teachers' pay is determined entirely at central level and local authorities or schools have no scope for determining how much teachers may earn (Eurydice, 2003, pages 97-101).

In some cases, however, local authorities or schools have some decision-making responsibility beyond the area of basic salaries. The nature of this responsibility varies to some extent because teachers' salaries may derive from different budgets. Local authorities may make use of a global allocation from the central or top-level authorities for education intended to cover a range of public services. The use of this allocation may be more or less prescriptive, and local authorities may also supplement these amounts from their own

resources (local taxes or other forms of income) or, indeed, be obliged to do so. The implication is that some types of salary premiums are paid out of local budgets entirely voluntarily as a result of perceived local needs.

Figure 4.2 shows that decisions concerning additional remuneration are much more commonly taken at central level. The annexe extends this analysis to all types of salary adjustments and financial benefits and shows that as a general rule, this type of discretionary decision at local level is even more limited with respect to other types of payments (with the exception of some financial benefits offered to teachers, especially related to accommodation). This figure shows that a number of other premiums are paid at local or school level, but without any discretion on the part of the local authority or the school. This is the case for example with respect to premiums paid to teachers with professional experience in other sectors (see below).

The most decentralised salary system in Europe is to be found in Sweden. Here, the role of the central level has been cut back to the extent that only a basic minimum salary, together with a single seniority-related increase (after five years) is fixed centrally.

When making a new appointment in **Swedish** schools, there is ‘freedom of negotiation’, and in areas with a shortage of teachers, applicants are in a strong negotiating position. A newly qualified teacher can in many cases receive as high a salary as a teacher with many years’ experience and one often hears teachers arguing that the best way to get a salary increase is to change jobs.

Decentralisation may thus give rise to situations in which teachers with equivalent qualifications and years of service do not get equal pay. This may be a deliberate aim of policy-makers, although in other countries there is a move towards minimising salary differentials in the teaching profession.

In **Denmark**, the new salary system, introduced from April 2000, is an expression of a desire for flexibility, decentralisation and individualisation of teachers’ pay. However, the elements of the salary package, which are typically subject to local decision, only make up less than 1 % of the total. The salary system is thus dominated by central negotiations. The Teachers’ Union insist on this to ensure that there is a common salary level in the *Folkeskole*. This policy, where the differentiation of salary levels is minimised, is more characteristic of teachers than of most other public employees.

Elsewhere, the decentralisation of responsibility for teachers' salaries and reliance on local budgets for funding has not been accompanied by minimising strategies, and salary differentials are more keenly apparent.

In **Poland**, the Ministry of Education provides the basic salary but all the 'extras' are paid for from money provided by the *gmina*. This causes differences not only in the salaries of particular teachers but also between groups of teachers from various regions as some *gminy* are richer than others depending on the number of shops, car parks, etc. which provide taxes or other payments going directly to the local community's budget. From this budget not only the extra money is paid but also schools receive additional equipment and extra teaching hours (for example, for foreign languages and ICT). This differentiation takes place even within the same school where teachers of English and ICT obtain more, better-paid hours than teachers of other subjects.

The division of responsibility between the central level and schools in order to gain a measure of flexibility to meet school-specific needs whilst retaining centralised decision-making for core elements is also exemplified in the Dutch case.

In the **Netherlands**, the central authority is responsible for general policies, while detailed agreements are worked out between the employers and the teachers. The collective agreement of 1999/2000 represented a first step towards the introduction of differentiation of rewarding as a means of 'integrated personnel policies'. From 2000/01, schools have received an additional decentralised budget, which is designed to strengthen staffing organisation at schools. The types of functions and salary scales are still determined at the national level by the government. This creates a multi-layered structure, in which aspects of employment conditions are debated and decided upon at different levels.

## THE INCENTIVE FACTOR: DIFFERENT JOBS, DIFFERENT SALARIES

Salary adjustments represent the part of teachers' pay packages that is context specific because they are not universally available to all teachers. Adjustments can be of two types. They can either relate to characteristics which are inherent to the teacher him or herself, in which case they are referred to here as salary adjustments of an 'intrinsic' nature. Alternatively, they can relate to characteristics of the teaching post itself, in which case they are referred to as 'extrinsic' type salary adjustments.

The point of this distinction is that these two types of adjustment fulfil different purposes. Intrinsic salary adjustments serve essentially as an incentive to attract teachers with particular profiles, whereas extrinsic adjustments target particular types of teaching posts, and are used to draw teachers into those posts.

Figure 4.3 offers an overview of the distribution of the number of intrinsic and extrinsic salary adjustments by country, showing that all countries, with the exception of Belgium, offer at least some of these types of salary premiums.

**FIGURE 4.3: SYNTHESIS OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC FACTORS TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01**

		Number of INTRINSIC factors taken into account			
		0	1	2	3
Number of EXTRINSIC factors taken into account	0	BE	AT	DE	
	1			LV, LU, MT, PT, LI, NO	SE, BG
	2	IT, UK-SCT	CZ, IS	ES, IE, FI, UK-ENG/WLS/NIR, RO	EE, NL, SK
	3		LT	FR, HU	DK, EL, PL, SI

(:): CY.

Source: Eurydice.

### Explanatory note

Extrinsic factors taken into account here are additional responsibilities, geographical location and mixed classes. Intrinsic factors taken into account are evaluation of teaching skills, professional experience in a sector other than teaching and further qualifications.

For information on which types of extrinsic and intrinsic factors apply to each country, please refer to the table in the annex.

Extrinsic-type salary adjustments include premiums offered to teachers to work in schools located in areas that are perceived to be less attractive. This covers a number of possibilities: remote or sparsely populated areas, or those with an exceptionally high cost of living, or with a high incidence of socio-economic disadvantage. These adjustments are designed not only to iron out the cost of teaching in such areas, but also to make it positively advantageous in financial terms to take on a teaching post there.

To be really effective, the decision to apply these types of adjustments should be centrally directed. This is clearly the case where the employer is located at central level and has full responsibility for teachers' employment conditions and for managing teacher demand (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 1). In this case, the incentive effect has real meaning. The extent to which employers can intervene to influence the take-up of teaching posts is an important issue in this respect. This is analysed in more detail in the following chapter (on teacher mobility).

Alternatively, the decision to offer the adjustment may be made at central level as a policy tool to adjust teacher supply irrespective of the level at which the employer is situated. The local level is less empowered, which may appear paradoxical considering that the purpose of these adjustments is to take account of local conditions. One approach is to re-distribute financial resources from the centre leaving a considerable degree of autonomy for the local level to use these resources as deemed appropriate.

In the **Netherlands**, schools in disadvantaged regions receive supplementary financial resources that may be used for salary adjustments.

The use of locally resourced financial incentives is of course possible but perhaps less feasible, particularly for sparsely populated areas or socially or economically disadvantaged areas.

Most countries do not offer salary adjustments designed to encourage teachers to take up posts in certain areas. Of those that do, three of the seven countries offering incentives to teach in socially or economically disadvantaged areas do so in the context of a centrally-managed career civil service, although the other countries employ teachers at school or local level<sup>(2)</sup>. Financial incentives to teach in remote areas are the most frequently encountered type of adjustment and perhaps also the most straightforward.

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<sup>(2)</sup> These countries are on the one hand, Greece, Spain and France and on the other, Italy, Lithuania, Hungary and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Salary premiums based on professional experience in a field other than teaching can be qualified as ‘intrinsic’. Attracting experienced people into the profession is an important policy objective in a number of countries. To what extent, therefore, do salary policies work in harmony with teacher education policies in order to offer a financial incentive to people with professional experience?

Most countries do not systematically reward teachers who have already acquired experience in other fields. This is often subject to various conditions, sometimes of a bureaucratic nature. In Germany, Greece, Spain, France and Luxembourg, for example, teachers receive a salary premium for prior public sector experience. As these are all countries in which teachers are part of the career civil service, this is probably linked to years of non-teaching service in the civil service. In the latter three countries, this premium is in fact only available for teachers who have civil servant (permanent) status.

In the Netherlands, the most recent salary is used as an indicator to position new teachers on the salary scale, which effectively means that prior professional experience is taken into account when entering the teaching profession. Poland and Slovenia also reward all teachers for any type of prior work experience.

In other countries, salary premiums are tied to experience in the subject matter taught. This is the case in Ireland and in Bulgaria. Danish teachers with a permanent teaching contract are also entitled to a premium if they have professional experience in the subject they are teaching. Elsewhere, this is a matter for the local authorities’ discretion and the availability of this salary premium will thus vary locally (this is the case in the Czech Republic and Finland).

Another incentive effect, which is tied up with improving the quality of teaching, is the issue of salary premiums for further qualifications (meaning any degree, title or similar qualification obtained by teachers over and above those required to enter the profession). This does not include qualifications that allow the teacher to pass into another staff category (for example, qualifying to teach pupils with special needs). If further qualifications gained by teachers who do not as a consequence move into different posts are considered, these qualifications do not always mean extra pay. In some

countries <sup>(3)</sup> they are not recognised at all in salary terms. In other countries, only postgraduate qualifications or doctorates are recognised, while a final group of countries recognise a broader range of qualifications, including those gained in the course of in-service training <sup>(4)</sup>. By contrast, teachers are obliged to undergo further training if they wish to obtain a salary increase in Estonia.

It therefore appears that intrinsic-type salary adjustments are not often used as a policy tool in order to reward teachers who have acquired experience in the working world prior to beginning their careers or who have engaged in further education. A third type of salary adjustment, known as performance-related (or merit) pay, also focuses on teachers' intrinsic characteristics, although in this case the reward is more process 'output' than 'input' oriented. Teachers are paid extra on the basis of their classroom performance rather than on their CV.

Performance-related pay as an incentive should be distinguished from promotion opportunities available to teachers, where salary raises are coupled with a change in status and job title. These promotion structures are not discussed here. Similarly, the way in which teachers are evaluated on an individual basis as part of the broader evaluation of education provision is also not the focus, as this type of evaluation tends to pursue a different aim and does not necessarily result in salary increases for teachers.

The purpose of performance-related pay is to offer financial benefits to teachers who are deemed to work particularly well. This type of salary adjustment is relatively widespread in Europe although some differences are apparent in the way it is operated <sup>(5)</sup>.

The type of increase offered is the first point of difference. In most countries, a positive performance appraisal will mean that teachers move more quickly up the salary scale, reaching the top of the scale earlier. Once this maximum salary is reached, however, teachers have little inducement (in terms of salary) to stay in the profession. The gain in terms of salary is thus permanent but the incentive effect is more short-lived (the implications of 'rapid progression' models with respect to pay scales is discussed in more detail in Chapter 6).

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, this issue has been resolved by the introduction of a higher, performance-related scale. Thus, teachers still on

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<sup>(3)</sup> Belgium (Flemish Community excepted), the Czech Republic, France, Italy, Latvia, Austria, Slovakia, Finland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

<sup>(4)</sup> This latter group of countries comprises the Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Spain, Lithuania, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway.

<sup>(5)</sup> The countries not offering this type of increase are: Belgium, the Czech Republic, Spain, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland and Liechtenstein.

the main salary scale have the opportunity to progress to a higher level of this scale on the basis of an evaluation of their work. Once they have reached the final level of the main scale, they may request to be assessed against national standards. If they meet these standards, they cross the 'threshold' to the upper pay scale. Progression on the upper pay scale is performance related.

An alternative system is to offer a time-limited bonus, which means that teachers are paid extra for a fixed period of time only and are then required to 'prove' again that they are performing well if they wish to maintain that higher level of pay.

In **Hungary**, salary increases related to merit cannot be maintained for longer than a year. They can, however, be awarded several times and teachers can apply for a fresh increase after the maximum period corresponding to the first increase has expired.

The question of how performance is assessed has been subject to an extensive review of the literature, although this has tended to be centred on Anglo-Saxon models<sup>(6)</sup>. Less information is available on differences between countries in Europe. What is being measured and what is meant by 'performance' is therefore not always fully defined, although it is clear that a pivotal role is taken by the school head, both in terms of nominating teachers and of making judgements on the quality of their performance.

A further observation that may be made about European performance-related pay incentives is that these schemes are invariably based on an evaluation of the teacher as an individual. Group-based performance rewards are rarely encountered. This focus on individual performance does not, however, sit easily with the strong emphasis on teacher teamwork in Europe. The risk of heightened competitiveness between teachers as a consequence of pay schemes that take inadequate account of group performance and the essentially collegiate nature of teaching has been the subject of much discussion (Harvey-Beavis).

How do you define quality teaching? This is the question that runs like a leitmotif through this report. In terms of intrinsic-type salary adjustments, how effective are these as incentives to attract and retain good teachers? What really motivates teachers? These questions cannot yet be answered for two reasons. Firstly, as mentioned towards the beginning of this chapter, we do not have enough information on the levels of salary premiums offered. This is crucial. Secondly, we need to know more about job satisfaction and

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<sup>(6)</sup> See, for example, Harvey-Beavis O. (2003) *Performance Related Rewards for Teachers: A Literature Review*. Paper distributed during the 3rd Workshop of Participating Countries on OECD's activity Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers

motivational factors for teachers. Chapter 1 shows that teachers' motivations are complex and not exclusively money-centred. Teachers value time and quality of relationships (both with pupils and parents as well as with other teachers and school staff) as well. Salary incentives, and indeed salary policies as a whole, cannot be entirely successful without this deeper understanding of what really motivates good teaching.

## CHAPTER 5

### ENCOURAGING MOBILITY TO PROVIDE FOR A BALANCED SUPPLY OF POSTS IN ALL REGIONS

The mobility of workers is an essential factor in achieving a balance between supply and demand on the labour market. Geographical movement within the workforce may help to reduce unemployment in areas in which there are not enough jobs available to satisfy demand, to the benefit of regions in the opposite situation. Does this apply to the teaching profession? In many countries, the characteristics of employment in teaching, as a public service, are somewhat different from those associated with a fully competitive labour market. Yet in education, a satisfactory balance between supply and demand in all regions is especially important due to the fact that schools are located everywhere throughout each country.

There are both positive and negative aspects to mobility for teachers and schools alike.

For teachers, mobility presupposes geographical movement, which is not always straightforward, given that it is associated with moving house, new colleagues, a new way of working and new social relations, etc. If the move is not undertaken voluntarily – in other words, the result of a decision by the educational authorities and not teachers themselves, as is generally the case of the first appointment in France – such considerations may become even more problematic.

Conversely, teachers able to change their place of work voluntarily for family reasons or in order to secure improved terms and conditions of employment, without any loss of salary or financial benefit, are clearly at a great advantage.

From the standpoint of schools free to recruit their own staff, provision for mobility may be conducive to recruitment of the best teachers. However, it may also lead to their departure for other more attractive schools.

The present chapter is concerned with policies to encourage voluntary mobility among teachers (for further information on transfers that teachers have to accept, see Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 1). Where this exists, it is preferable for them to retain at least the entitlements they have acquired up to the time they move, and particularly their basic salary and financial benefits, without which any advantage to be gained from moving would be greatly diminished.

This chapter will focus, first, on different patterns of teacher recruitment in Europe and their consequences from the standpoint of mobility. It will then consider how far the retention by teachers of certain acquired benefits depends on the status and level of their employer.

Teacher mobility between European countries is not considered here. Although, in principle, mobility between most countries examined is possible, its scale is very limited. The main barriers to it are linguistic and the problem of securing recognition of the qualifications required. Limited knowledge of languages may also restrict the scope for movement within one particular country<sup>(1)</sup>.

### **DO RECRUITMENT METHODS INFLUENCE MOBILITY?**

The status of teachers and the way they are recruited in each country may encourage or, on the contrary, tend to inhibit mobility.

In 13 countries, teachers are public servants, or sometimes career civil servants. The regulatory framework to which they are subject differs from legislation governing the private sector (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 1). France is a particularly good illustration of this: education there is the responsibility of the central government which organises and controls the various aspects of the teaching profession, including mobility.

Conversely, other countries have introduced market mechanisms into their education systems, sometimes to a very considerable extent. Open recruitment is thus the norm in most countries, especially among the new Member States and candidate countries (Eurydice, 2002c, Chapter 3). This enables schools, sometimes in consultation with local authorities, to establish their own procedures for selecting applicants. Teachers looking for employment and employers with vacancies are thus brought into contact with each other on a case-by-case basis.

In **Sweden**, recruitment is open and fully decentralised to municipal level. Contracts are negotiated between the municipal employer, the school head and the teachers themselves (normally with union involvement). In this way, all aspects relating to salary are discussed on a case-by-case basis, with the limits on minimum career starting salary and after five years in service fixed at central level by employer and union representatives. Teachers may thus decide to change their employer in order to secure improved terms of employment.

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(1) This is the situation, for example, in Spain: those wishing to teach in the Autonomous Communities using a language with the same official status as the national language (*Baleares, Cataluña, Galicia, Navarra, País Vasco and Comunidad Valenciana*) are expected to speak that language, which constitutes a *de facto* barrier to the scope for teacher transfer.

Open recruitment thus provides for flexibility and autonomy but cannot be equated, just on its own, with a competitive labour market. Indeed, in most countries that have adopted open recruitment methods, these arrangements are subject to special legislation or sometimes quite strict official consultation mechanisms. The room for manoeuvre of employers when recruiting new teachers thus varies. Apart from Sweden, the countries in which the only regulations applicable are to be found in general employment legislation are the Czech Republic, Lithuania (until 2001/02), the Netherlands, Poland and Slovakia.

However, the situation in this last group of countries in which local employers or schools are granted a considerable degree of autonomy, is not really comparable with that of Sweden: teacher salaries are set on a scale by the top-level authorities for education, which implies – other things being equal – that salary levels cannot be discussed in contract negotiations. The position of Sweden aside, other forms of flexibility are characteristic of the way in which teacher income is determined.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, although the central authorities are responsible for determining the pay scales and a teacher's point on the scale depends mainly on the number of years of experience, nonetheless, individual schools are responsible for their own budgets, determining their staffing structure and the allowances, if any, which will be paid for certain posts. So, a teacher who has further responsibilities in one school may be paid differently from a teacher with similar responsibility in another school.

The situation is similar in the **Netherlands**. Despite the existence of a centrally determined salary scale, schools may offer higher salaries.

Naturally, other considerations than salary may prompt teachers to change schools. Such considerations may be personal (for example, because the family is obliged to move) or professional (as when schools have more interesting educational objectives, or there is scope for exercising additional responsibility). In many countries, the salaries of teachers may change with changes in their conditions of employment involving, for example, fresh responsibilities or work in a different school located in a remote or isolated area.

In **France**, the education authorities decide where teachers will take up their first appointment. They may also apply for transfer under *mouvement national* arrangements. Around one quarter of teachers with full tenure do so in order to secure more attractive posts. This results in a form of competition, albeit limited, between schools. Other countries have established similar arrangements, whether based on a competitive process (as in **Spain** at national or Autonomous Community level, or **Portugal**) or alternative and sometimes quite complex procedures (as in **Germany** or **Luxembourg**) (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 1).

## THE EXTENT TO WHICH ACQUIRED SALARY ENTITLEMENTS ARE RETAINED MAY VARY DEPENDING ON THE STATUS AND LEVEL OF THE EMPLOYER

Besides the extent to which recruitment models are market oriented, it is of interest to examine other factors that may encourage or inhibit teacher mobility. If teachers who move lose salary and other entitlements they may have acquired up to that point, this constitutes a major barrier to mobility.

Retaining the employment contract of teachers who change post and school means they will retain all forms of acquired entitlement. An employment contract cannot be disassociated from the employer who initiates it. Thus, if teachers transfer to a different school, their contractual entitlements may logically only be retained if the employer remains the same. Where the employer is the school itself, therefore, it may not be possible for teachers who move to other schools to retain the same contract. This applies to Estonia, Poland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). Where the employer is the municipality, contracts may only be retained within the local context, or in certain cases even be non-transferable (as in Lithuania).

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**Italy** and **Romania** are exceptions to this trend. In **Italy**, as a result of the 1993 reform to privatise contracts and the steady expansion of school autonomy in 2000, teachers on fixed-term contracts are employed directly by schools and do not retain those contracts if they change school. Those on a permanent contract are always employed by the *Centri Servizi Amministrativi* (CSA) at provincial level. However, since 2001/02 the CSA have been able to delegate responsibility for signing contracts to school heads. Thus teachers on a permanent contract may in fact sign it with the school head. However they do retain that contract if they move. In **Romania**, the employer is the school, but the contract is retained in the case of a move at regional level, no doubt as a result of the country's recruitment procedure based on a county level competitive examination (Eurydice, 2002c, Chapter 3).

However, non-retention of the contract does not necessarily mean that all forms of entitlement acquired during the preceding period of employment are surrendered. The possibility of transferring conditions applicable to salaries may vary depending on the type of entitlement, and may be geographically limited.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the scope for transferring acquired forms of entitlement with respect to geographical limits, the level of the employer and the status of the teachers concerned. It only takes account of factors pertaining to them as persons, such as their length of service in the profession, their recognised merit and their further qualifications. These factors will be referred to here as 'personal' or 'intrinsic'.



It reveals clearly that when teachers move, they may – depending on the country concerned – retain entitlement to some of their salary adjustments or financial benefits without restriction within the country, within their region, or even their municipality. Other forms of entitlement may be retained within precise geographical limits, or simply have to be surrendered.

More specifically the figure indicates that salary increases linked to length of service and further qualifications, where they exist, are generally transferable. In many countries in which geographical transfer is possible with no loss of salary entitlement, its limits are determined in accordance with the employer's competence. If the employer is based at national or regional level, entitlement to salary and financial adjustments may be retained throughout the country or region concerned. If the employer is a municipality or school, scope for the transfer of acquired forms of entitlement may be limited or even become non-existent.

In this respect, the situation in **Belgium** is unusual. In each Community, the employer is the education provider which may be the Community (acting through a delegated body in the Flemish Community), the provincial or municipal authority (in grant-aided public education), or even a private association responsible for one or several schools (grant-aided private education), with the latter the most frequently encountered situation. Within each Community, acquired salary increases are always retained as long as the same responsibilities are exercised, not just when teachers move from one school to another with the same provider, but even when they change their employer on moving. This is because salaries are paid by the Community authorities, irrespective of the provider concerned (?).

In the **Netherlands**, only length of service may be transferred throughout the entire country. However, employers may decide to maintain the entitlements acquired by teachers if they move between schools for which the same employer is responsible.

In **Denmark, Estonia, Latvia**, and the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, in which employers are located at the local or school level, the scope for transfer is very limited.

There are exceptions to this general picture. In countries such as the Czech Republic, Ireland, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Finland, Norway and Romania, teachers may move anywhere within the country without losing all their salary entitlements, even though their employers are situated at local or school level. In fact, it sometimes happens that the employer is not the top-level authority for education but that the latter nevertheless establishes common regulations for the entire area under its jurisdiction. This applies in particular to the salary increases linked to length of service in the foregoing countries.

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(?) However, in the case of length of service, which is a key factor in permanent appointment, the situation is different. Length of service is only retained in cases in which teachers move to another school administered by the same provider. This therefore represents a barrier to mobility between schools with different providers.

As to the entitlements acquired following a positive appraisal, these are rarely maintained if teachers leave for another school. This is no doubt partly attributable to the major role in general played by school heads in evaluation procedures (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 3). In other words, entitlements of this kind are very closely related to the requirements of the particular school concerned, which would explain why they are not transferable. On the other hand, where they have been obtained in the light of appraisal at a higher level and are thus based on similar criteria, their transfer is possible. Thus in four of the five countries that provide for the transfer of salary entitlements as the result of favourable appraisals at regional level or above, the decision-making influence of the school head is limited.

In **Spain**, teachers have to take part in a competitive examination to secure the status of *catedrático*. In **France**, **Lithuania** and **Romania**, the school head is just one among several players (the rector, the teaching inspector, the unions, special committees, the class council or educational council and the regional council of inspectors). In **Norway**, the transfer of entitlement to salary increases is geographically unrestricted, but the school head decides whether this entitlement will actually be granted.

This logic may have a negative impact on the movement of teachers, since it restricts the mobility of those who have been appraised positively, namely those whose quality or special contribution to professional practice have been specifically recognised.

The status of teachers is also relevant in considering the extent to which entitlements can be transferred. Unrestricted geographical mobility is in general easier for teachers with public servant status, despite some exceptions.

In **Norway** and **Romania**, benefits linked to length of service, positive appraisal, and additional qualifications are transferable at national level, notwithstanding the fact that teacher contracts are subject to general employment legislation.

The level at which the employer is situated and the status of teachers may thus affect their potential for mobility with no loss of acquired entitlements. However, situations vary and it cannot be concluded that there is a linear relation between these factors and teacher mobility in all countries.

## **THE EXTENT TO WHICH FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH A PARTICULAR POST MAY ENCOURAGE MOBILITY**

The relative balance – or imbalance – between the supply of and demand for teachers may also have a significant impact on mobility. Accordingly, in countries facing a shortage of teachers, the fact that there are posts to be filled should in principle provide greater scope for mobility. It naturally follows that such vacant posts should be attractive, which is not always so.

Posts on offer may tend to be unattractive because of characteristics associated with the locality of a particular school, as is sometimes the case in remote rural areas with low population density, areas that are socially or economically disadvantaged, or those with a high standard of living. Elsewhere, the reasons have more to do with classes themselves which may, for example, bring together pupils of different ages, those who experience learning difficulties or are insufficiently familiar with the language of instruction, or those who have special educational needs (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 5).

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To remedy this kind of situation, some countries have introduced salary adjustments linked to geographical areas of appointment, or work with classes containing mixed groups of pupils. The aim here is to make the posts concerned more attractive by providing financial incentives for teachers to fill them and thereby ensure a more satisfactory balance between supply and demand. These differences in salary no longer derive from personal characteristics of teachers themselves but those of their school. They may thus be termed ‘extrinsic’ or ‘circumstantial’, as opposed to the ‘intrinsic’ or ‘personal’ factors as a result of which teachers may obtain the salary increases described above.

The scale of these measures depends on demographic patterns in the various countries. Thus in countries of high population density within a limited area, such as Belgium, Luxembourg or the Netherlands, it makes little sense to think of salary adjustments linked to remote or isolated regions.

Around half of the countries considered (16) recognise one or more particular forms of ‘circumstantial’ entitlement. Adjustments linked to the geographical area in which teachers work are more widespread than those relating to mixed classes. Among those countries, five take account solely of factors related to the area of work (Spain, Italy, Finland, the United Kingdom and Romania). Conversely, only Slovakia and Iceland grant salary adjustments exclusively

because teachers have to deal with mixed classes (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 3, Figures 3.14 and 3.15).

The presence in classes of pupils insufficiently familiar with the language of instruction rarely gives rise to salary adjustments. However, it is taken into account in Denmark and Lithuania. The number of pupils whose native language is not an official language of their host country, and who may thus be more difficult to teach, is rarely reflected in teacher salaries.

In Europe, the award of 'extrinsic' forms of entitlement is very rarely decentralised. Salary adjustments linked to the area of professional appointment, where they exist, are virtually always the responsibility of central or regional governments. The fact that this type of decision is taken at central level may help to provide for a balanced supply of posts and prevent discrimination between areas or municipalities. Only the local authorities or school authorities in the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and Iceland (to a limited extent) have the decision-making autonomy to allocate salary bonuses to posts for teachers who work in classes containing mixed groups of pupils.

The possibility exists for teachers to be professionally mobile in all countries. However, they are not always able to retain their contract or any salary entitlements they have acquired prior to a change of school. On examining how far these entitlements may be transferred, it is clear that salary increases awarded as the result of a positive appraisal can rarely be retained if teachers move to a post elsewhere. In the event of mobility, salary increases linked to length of service are those which most frequently remain intact, irrespective of the status of teachers. Furthermore, it appears that the geographical area within which the latter can retain their entitlements is closely related to the level of authority at which their employer is situated. The extent to which recruitment is decentralised seems, therefore, to be an essential factor in determining the scope for teacher mobility coupled with transfer of entitlements previously acquired.

In the case of posts considered difficult because of their geographical location, their remoteness, or characteristics of the school population, the financial benefits granted by some countries to teachers who work in such positions may also be regarded as an element tending to boost recruitment.

However, there are no available data enabling the frequency with which teachers periodically change school in the various countries to be quantified.

As a result, the present study is unable to determine the relative contribution to greater teacher mobility, of any of the potential factors examined here.

Finally, other aspects are not without interest. Thus 'mobility culture' is no doubt a relevant factor with an impact that extends beyond the teaching profession. Some countries are noteworthy for greater mobility among workers in all sectors of activity whereas, in others, stability of employment in the broad sense is felt to be a value in its own right: any opportunity for mobility within them is in principle viewed somewhat negatively, regardless of the incentives that may be introduced to this end.

## CHAPTER 6

### KEEPING EXPERIENCED TEACHERS MOTIVATED UNTIL THEIR RETIREMENT

The phenomenon of ageing teaching staff is an issue for concern in Europe, particularly in those countries where retirement rates will be very high over a short time span. Teachers aged from 40 to 49 are over-represented in some countries, while in several other countries the situation is even more striking i.e. teachers 50 and older are over-represented (Eurydice, 2002c, Chapters 1 and 2).

Among the different factors which contribute to aggravating or reducing the risk of shortage, replacement needs for teachers also depend, to some extent, on when teachers retire, whether they take early retirement or if they choose to stay in the profession until the official retirement age.

In most countries, teachers may retire before they reach the official retirement age, as there is a minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement (subject to completion of the required number of years of service). Most teachers actually leave the profession as soon as possible, i.e. at the minimum retirement age. The distribution of age groups close to the official retirement age shows that the age group beyond the minimum retirement age is quite small in most countries (European Commission/Eurydice, 2002a, Chapter G).

Only in a few countries do a certain proportion of teachers continue to pursue their professional activities after reaching this minimum age.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, discussions are under way to take measures, such as lightening the workload of teachers after the age of 55, in order to keep them in the profession beyond the minimum retirement age.

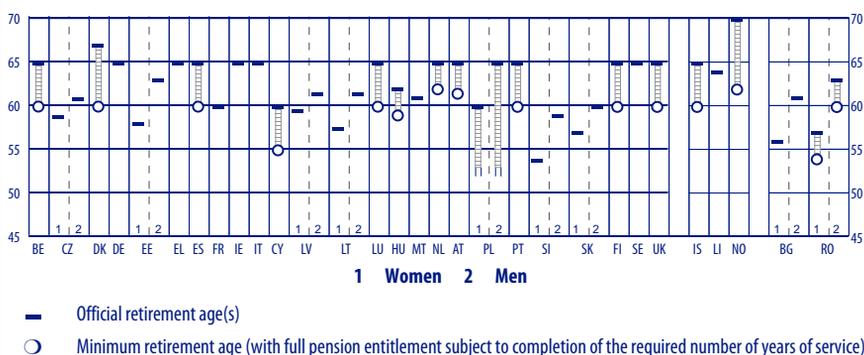
In **Austria**, more than 3 000 compulsory schoolteachers took early retirement by 1 December 2003, taking advantage of a scheme which is due to be abolished.

In **Finland**, the proportion of teaching staff on individual early retirement pensions has increased during the 1990s. Part-time pensions are also common among teaching staff. Teachers have a higher than average tendency to take advantage of opportunities for early retirement or shorter working hours.

In **Norway**, many teachers retire, or at least reduce their working hours, from about the age of 60. These are mostly cases of retirement on health grounds or transitions to agreed early retirement at the age of 62 (the official retirement age is 70).

Whereas the official retirement age in most of the EU Member States (prior to 1 May 2004) is 65, the years necessary to obtain a full pension entitlement varies greatly between the European countries (Figure 6.1). The number of years ranges from twenty in Hungary to forty in Belgium, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. In general, the number of years necessary is between 30 and 35.

FIGURE 6.1: OFFICIAL AND MINIMUM RETIREMENT AGE OF TEACHERS AND NUMBER OF YEARS OF SERVICE REQUIRED FOR FULL PENSION ENTITLEMENT, SECONDARY EDUCATION, 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

**Number of years of service required for full pension entitlement**

BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU
37.5 – 41.25	25	(:)	35-37	(-)	(-)	30-35	37.5	(-)	(-)	33.3	(-)	(-)	30-35	20
MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	FI	SE	SI	SK	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
(-)	40	35-40	30	36	30	(-)	(-)	(-)	40	32	(-)	30	(-)	25 (w), 30 (m)

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

**Greece:** The information applies to teachers who were appointed after 1 January 1993. Previously, the official age of retirement depended on the number of years of service and on the gender of the teacher concerned.

**France:** The figure illustrates the situation of category A teachers (including the *professeurs des écoles*). Since 2003, the number of years required has been changing progressively, to reach 40 in 2008.

**Austria:** The figure illustrates the situation of teachers who are civil servants. If they were born before 1 October 1945 and have 40 years of service, they are entitled to retire at the age of 60. In the case of teachers employed under contract, retirement age is 60 for women and 65 for men. The number of years required for full pension entitlement is 35 for civil servants and 40 for contract teachers.

**Finland:** Retirement age is 65 for those who have entered service since 1 January 1993. For those whose service began earlier, the retirement age is 60 or 65 depending on the number of years in service and the date of birth.

**Iceland:** Teachers appointed before 1997 may retire after 35 years of service provided they have reached the age of 60, after 34 years of service if they have reached the age of 61, and so on. Since 1997, a new system has come into effect for the benefit of newly appointed teachers and teachers with many years of completed service wishing to take advantage of it.

Early retirement arrangements are generally getting increasingly difficult to finance irrespective of the work sector. As far as the teaching profession is concerned, these arrangements were introduced in several countries in order to make the profession more attractive or to combat a surplus of teachers. However, these possibilities for early retirement (in some countries it is possible to retire even before the minimum retirement age with or without full pension entitlements) may constitute a serious handicap for guaranteeing a sufficient supply of fully qualified teachers.

Discussions are under way or measures have already been taken not to offer these possibilities anymore and to keep teachers in the profession until the official retirement age in several countries.

In December 2000, in the **Netherlands**, it was decided that the flexible pension allowances after the age of 61 will be increased to encourage people to stay in the labour force longer. The government also plans to drop the fiscal advantage of early-pension premiums (FPU- and VUT-*premies*).

In **Malta**, there is a difference in working conditions between teachers recruited before and after 16 January 1979, which relates to the pension obtained on retirement. Whereas the teachers recruited after that date would be eligible to 2/3 of their salary as part of the social security pension, similar to any other employee paying National Insurance, those who were recruited before are entitled to an additional pension, which they can receive as a lump sum on retirement. This latter added bonus makes many teachers recruited earlier than 1979 reluctant to leave state service as otherwise their pension fund would be frozen and consequently stops accumulating.

On the other hand, in most Eastern and Central European countries, measures have been taken recently to postpone teachers' official retirement age. Reforms are increasing the age gradually over the next two decades until an age more in accordance with the retirement age in the EU Member States (prior to 1 May 2004) is reached. Most often, the retirement ages for women and men are progressively brought into line at the same time.

**FIGURE 6.2: PLANNED REFORMS AFFECTING THE OFFICIAL RETIREMENT AGE OF TEACHERS IN THE EASTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 2000/01**

The official retirement age ...	
<b>CZ</b>	... is being raised each year by a few months since the law of 1996 with a view to reaching 63 for women (without children) and men in 2013.
<b>EE</b>	... will be 63 by 2016 for women and men.
<b>LV</b>	... is being raised by six months every year to reach 62 since the law of 1999.
<b>LT</b>	... is being raised each year by a few months since 1995 with a view to reaching 62.5 for men in 2003 and 60 for women in 2006.
<b>SI</b>	... is set at 58 for both women and men, subject to their having completed 38 and 40 years of service respectively by the 1999 law, which is being progressively implemented. Years of service completed after the official retirement age has been reached are taken into account in determining the pension entitlement up to the age of 64 for women and 66 for men.
<b>SK</b>	... of women becomes lower according to the number of children they have had (53 years of age is the minimum). A law is being drafted to increase the retirement age of women by a few months each year until it reaches 60 in 2019.
<b>BG</b>	... is subject to changes on an annual basis, in compliance with the legislation.
<b>RO</b>	... is set at 60 for women and 65 for men by the law of 2000, which is being progressively implemented between 2000 and 2013. The number of years of service required is being raised to 30 for women and 35 for men.

Source: Eurydice.

The question is how to manage the end of a teacher’s career in order to avoid early retirement and to keep teachers motivated for the profession as long as possible. This chapter looks at two factors, which may alter a teacher’s wish to leave the profession as soon as they are able to, i.e. arrangements for salary increases according to length of service as well as the organisation of their workload during the final years of their careers.

### **WAITING UNTIL RETIREMENT AGE TO REACH THE MAXIMUM BASIC SALARY?**

All countries, except Sweden, base the remuneration of their teachers on a salary scale system. Therefore, teachers start their careers at a minimum basic salary and progress until reaching their maximum basic salary.

Almost everywhere in Europe, the remuneration of teachers increases with their period of service. Only in some countries is the length of service a necessary but insufficient condition for moving on to a higher salary level, i.e. other criteria are also taken into account for a salary increase (Eurydice, 2003).

In most countries, salary increases are more frequent at the start of the career. The limit beyond which the length of service no longer has any bearing on salary varies very widely throughout Europe.

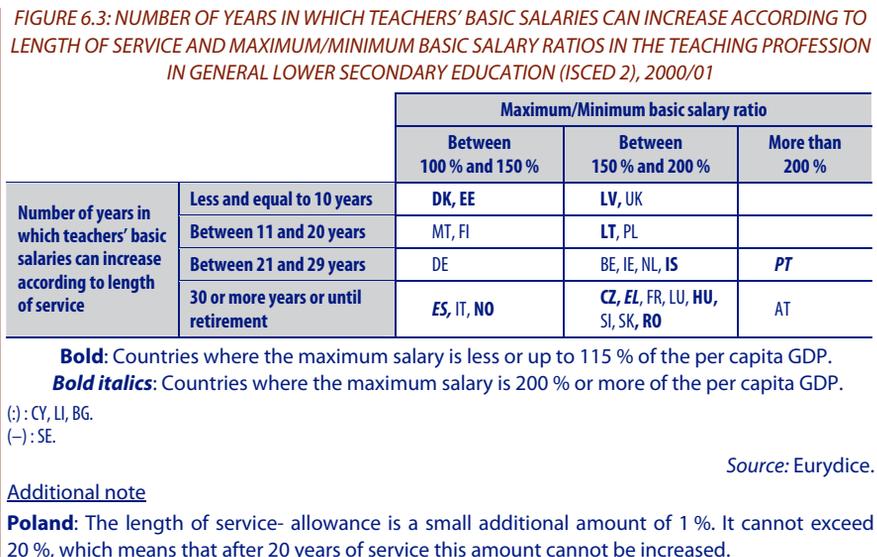
In twelve countries, the frequency of salary increases is either constant up to retirement age or until 30 years or more of service, thus approximating the years necessary for full pension entitlement.

Two basic models can be recognized in this context. In the first model, teachers attain their maximum basic salary after a relatively short career span and therefore have the opportunity of taking advantage of it at a younger age at which important investments may have to be made and conversely not have to wait for it for almost a whole working life. These facts may be considered as attractive. However, this model provides a low career profile in terms of a life career. The maximum is attained quickly and the question is how the teacher may be motivated beyond this moment to stay in the profession until retirement age.

The second model provides a slow progression. Teachers have regular salary increases for many years, sometimes up until retirement, but have to wait for a long time to receive their maximum basic salary. This situation may motivate them to stay until they can take advantage of their maximum salary, but may also be rather frustrating given the fact that a better financial situation may be expected only relatively late in life.

In the **Netherlands**, the period after which teachers reach their maximum salary has gradually been shortened from 26 to 21 years (as of 1 June 2001). In 2002, the length of this period has further been reduced to 18 years. The final aim is to reach a 15-year career pattern, which tallies with market standards.

However, as Figure 6.3 shows, the situation is quite complex, as far as the progression on the salary scale according to years of service is concerned.



Several models emerge from this figure. In some countries, the basic maximum salary is reached after only less than or up to ten years, however the ratio minimum/maximum basic salary is relatively low. Teachers reach their maximum basic salary quickly but the difference to that of the beginning of their career is not very great. In addition, this maximum basic salary is only slightly above or even slightly below the per capita GDP. This is the case in Denmark and Estonia.

In other countries, the maximum basic salary is only obtained close to retirement age or after 30 or more years of service. The minimum/maximum basic salary ratio is also low, as is the case in Italy. In Spain and Portugal, teachers have to wait a long time to receive their maximum basic salary. In Spain, the difference to the starting basic salary is not very high. However, it must be considered that the starting basic salary is already higher than the per capita GDP. In Portugal, the maximum basic salary corresponds to more than 200 % of the per capita GDP.

Salary increases according to years of service are only one aspect of a complex pattern of factors with a bearing on salaries. As can be seen from the above, different parameters have to be taken into consideration when analyzing the pros and cons of either slow or quick salary progression in terms of retention.

The positive influence of salary increases up to retirement on teacher retention is not explicit. The amount of the increases also plays a crucial role in this context.

## **CAN A REDUCED TEACHING LOAD EASE THE TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT?**

Keeping older teachers from leaving the profession can create considerable risks. It seems that stress and burnout syndromes affect the teaching profession in many countries. Key sources of stress among teachers often relate to increased workload, including new non-teaching tasks and a lack of support in accomplishing them. The need for continuous personal interaction can make teaching very demanding in the long term. In addition, positive results are not always easily recognizable in this profession, as learning is not only measurable in pupils' low or high achievements.

Burnt-out teachers may not be able to provide high quality education. The risk of increased absenteeism may be aggravated and consequently replacement problems may occur again.

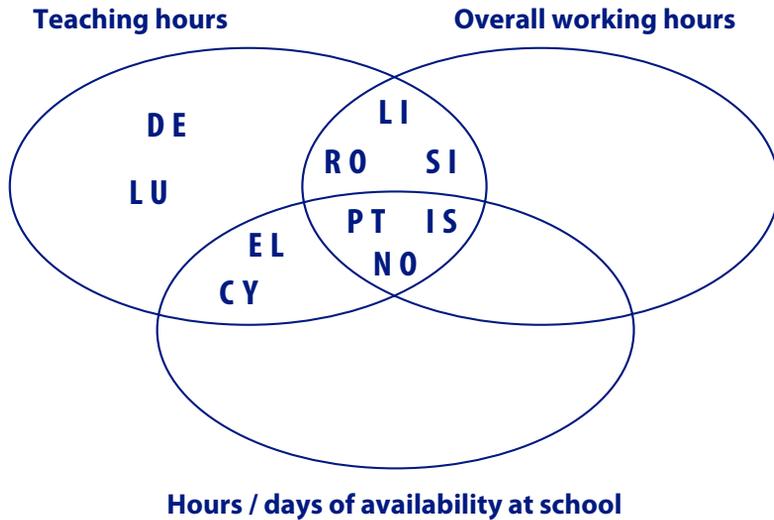
Although stress certainly affects younger teaching staff, reasons for older teachers leaving the profession earlier are often linked to the feeling of having 'had enough' and the wish to enjoy the years ahead with no more working obligations.

In **Sweden**, sick leave rates are 3-4 times higher among 60-year-olds than among teachers in the 25-35 age group (OECD 2003, Country Background Report for Sweden, page 74).

However, the aim of a policy on teacher retention is to keep as many as possible of the motivated and competent teachers within the school system.

Some countries reduce teaching hours in accordance with age or length of service and without a salary decrease in order to lighten the working load of their teachers (Eurydice, 2003). However, this is not a very widespread practice with only eleven countries offering such possibilities. Of course, a reduction in teaching hours can only be observed in countries where teaching hours are contractually defined.

FIGURE 6.4: STATUTORY DEFINITIONS OF THE WORKLOAD OF TEACHERS: COUNTRIES WITH REDUCTIONS IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS IN ACCORDANCE WITH AGE/LENGTH OF SERVICE. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

**Malta:** Since 2001/02, teachers aged over 57 have been able to reduce their teaching load to three-quarters time while the fourth quarter is used for other tasks relating to the curriculum.

Of the eleven countries which report such a measure, two (Germany and Luxembourg) define a teacher's statutory working time only in terms of the number of teaching hours. The other countries contractually specify, in addition to teaching hours, either hours/days of availability at school (Greece, Cyprus, Malta) or overall working hours (Liechtenstein, Romania, Slovenia) or both (Portugal, Iceland, Norway).

This reduction evidently focuses on the profession's core task, teaching, presuming that 'pupil contact' is a very energy-consuming activity and the main reason for teachers taking early retirement.

However, a reduction in teaching hours also leads to a reduction of the time teachers have to devote to the preparation of lessons and correction and marking of pupil's class work. It therefore has a multiplier effect. In those countries, which define a teacher's working time in terms of the number of teaching hours, the reduction definitely leads to a reduced workload.

For countries which indicate an overall working time and/or hours/days of availability at school, the question is what those taking advantage of a reduction in teaching time have to do instead.

In view of the heavy workload faced by teachers, a Committee of Inquiry into Professional Conditions of Service of Teachers (*McCrone Committee*) in the **United Kingdom (Scotland)** considered the possibilities of early retirement and ‘winding down’ for those in their mid-50s. The Committee suggested that there were several ways of reducing workload for older teachers, short of full retirement, such as returning to the classroom from a promoted post, continuing on a part-time basis, being given time to act as mentors for young teachers, transferring to supply work, and so on. In January 2001, an agreement was reached on a *Winding Down Scheme* to which certain teachers may apply. Amendments are now being made to the existing pension scheme.

An agreement between the **Malta** Union of Teachers and the government in 2001 includes that teachers over 57 years of age and with 30 years of experience may opt for a 25 % reduction in their teaching load in order to assist in the implementation of the new National Minimum Curriculum.

It cannot be clearly said in all cases to which kind of activities the teaching hours are redeployed.

Taking care of inexperienced colleagues is one way to redirect a teacher’s assignment description and to take advantage of their long working experience at an advanced stage of their career. Tutors who support future teachers in a final on-the-job-qualifying phase and new entrants in formalised support measures are, where such measures exist, always experienced teachers who have often acquired a significant level of seniority in their career.

In **Greece**, the educational counsellors specially appointed by the Minister of Education to perform this supporting role for new entrants during their first year of service must have at least 20 years of professional experience.

Reducing the workload during the years preceding retirement without a salary decrease may be a measure to keep teachers in the profession longer.

However, it is difficult to establish a clear link between a reduction of teaching time and retention. Not all teachers approaching retirement age may have the same wishes of organising their remaining working years in the same way. Some of them may wish to guide new colleagues and teach less in the classrooms, others may be inclined to teach as much as before but to hand other tasks over to someone else. Proposing flexible arrangements to teachers in terms of reorganising their workload may be a good way to assure that teachers stay motivated.



## GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Since the modern-day school took shape a little over 100 years ago, policy-makers have constantly sought to adapt education systems to new requirements and to the developing knowledge base. In the wake of increasingly rapid social, economic and technological changes, expectations that education should be innovative have spread very fast in the last 30 years. The impact of such expectations on the organisation of most education systems and, in particular, on all those associated with them has been overwhelming. Such innovations relate to the way learning is organised, the curriculum and the management of schools. The first decade of the 21st century thus represents a watershed in the area of education policy.

The aim of achieving the knowledge society has (not for the first time) served as a forceful reminder of how important it is to ensure that all citizens benefit from high quality education. The conclusions of the March 2000 Lisbon Summit clearly state this: 'Europe's education and training systems need to adapt both to the demands of the knowledge society and to the need for an improved level and quality of employment'. Strengthening the effectiveness and equity of education is a top priority for European policy-makers.

In the majority of European countries, the foregoing concerns are part of a broader context that includes risks of teacher shortages, an ageing teaching profession and a sense that the profession is undervalued. These phenomena have alarming implications for the quality of education in a number of ways. Teachers have a crucial role to play in achieving the above objectives. The prospective retirement of a large proportion of teachers in the years ahead means ensuring that qualified staff are available in sufficient numbers in time to replace them. Wherever there are shortages – even in the case of replacement periods – emergency measures are required (Eurydice, 2002c, Chapter 5), including the recruitment of staff who are not fully or appropriately qualified, an increase in the workload of existing staff, an increase in class size or the cancellation of lessons, etc. All such measures, whatever their nature, are directly or indirectly prejudicial to the quality of education.

Ensuring that sufficient numbers of teaching staff remain competent and motivated throughout their entire career is thus a constant challenge for educational policy-makers. The emphasis is on improving the quality of teacher education on the one hand, and the working conditions of teachers on the other.

These two major areas of concern have been analysed in detail in the thematic reports published as part of the wide-ranging study of the teaching profession

undertaken by Eurydice (Eurydice, 2002b, c and 2003). In the light of its findings, the present summary report has sought to examine a few of the key issues involved in attracting prospective teachers to the profession and ensuring that they remain in it until retirement.

The surveys available on teachers' job satisfaction (Chapter 1) clearly reveal that they often feel that their occupation is not well-regarded by society. Even though misplaced, this somewhat negative impression may strongly demotivate practising teachers and deter able people from seeking to join the profession. What is more, the same surveys reveal the extent to which teachers feel inadequately prepared for their occupation. This is of direct significance for teacher educators, who have to respond to the threefold challenge of attracting appropriate candidates, providing them with the skills needed to perform their assigned tasks correctly and guaranteeing their continuous professional development.

The stronger emphasis on practical training, and particularly 'on-the-job' forms of training, are among the initiatives now being developed to meet these needs. New arrangements for more flexible, paid training are likely to attract prospective teachers who have already acquired experience in working life and would be unable to follow conventional paths through higher education. This conventional route through training is also addressing problems associated with the transition to working life that are faced by new teachers. Difficulties of this kind account for the introduction of supporting measures in a growing number of countries (Eurydice, 2002b). Because they enable candidates to learn about teaching as actually practised and offer support whenever necessary, new forms of 'on-the-job' training may also do much to facilitate their entry into the profession.

However, this alternative immediately raises questions about the quality of such training, responsibility for which is broadly shared with the schools that take in candidates. While initiatives of this kind are still uncommon (Chapter 2) and there is insufficient information available for a thorough evaluation of their impact, their approach is ambitious. Reliable methods for selecting applicants at the point of entry to the profession, ensuring that they are properly supervised throughout training, with school staff and trainers working together and cooperating to full effect, and the identification of skills standards that trainees should reach – all these matters require close attention to allow arrangements of this kind to develop effectively in the future.

In addition to initial education, the continuous professional development of teachers is another important area that has to be addressed by teacher

trainers. As far as this is concerned, it is important that there should be maximum consistency and continuity between initial and in-service training which are both still too compartmentalised (Chapter 3). In this respect, it is worth noting that improving the quality of teacher education is an integral part of the European Commission work programme up to 2010 on the future objectives of education and training systems, which was formally approved by the Barcelona European Council in March 2002. These objectives are regarded as priorities by policy-makers in all EU countries. The work undertaken since then as part of European cooperation seeks to develop greater insight into how to achieve progress towards these objectives.

Training teachers capable of doing the job is not enough to ensure that they will remain in their profession. The working conditions they are offered are no less significant. Teachers' careers should thus also remain the focus of close attention. Three major considerations seem to be crucial in this respect, namely the variety of tasks teachers have to perform, their working time and the conditions governing salary increases. Working time should be logically defined in such a way that all tasks expected of teachers are clearly specified, properly carried out and appropriately remunerated.

Many policy-makers have introduced substantial changes in the way teachers' working time is defined, by ensuring that the description also includes time not spent on teaching per se, and specifies the total amount of time they must be present in school for the purpose of discussion and teamwork with colleagues. In just a few countries, teaching time is no longer established by statute (Eurydice, 2003, Chapter 2). This policy considerably broadens the scope for tailoring individual contracts to ensure that the work to be carried out is in keeping with school requirements. At the same time, it is important for such compatibility to be reciprocal so that the post on offer matches the career ambitions and skills of the teacher concerned. While flexibility is unquestionably advantageous in some respects, teachers sometimes point to disadvantages. In some countries, schools are given so much leeway that teachers are allocated duties that do not really reflect their skills.

Within the increasingly broad spectrum of tasks that experienced teachers are expected to perform, that of mentoring new teachers is of particular interest. A growing number of European countries are introducing measures to support the latter, and it is encouraging that the potentially constructive partnership between beginner teachers and their more experienced counterparts is often turned to good account. However, difficulties may sometimes arise in that good teachers are frequently asked to perform this type of supervision without

receiving any training or being allocated an appropriate amount of time to do so (Eurydice, 2002b, Chapter 6). Teachers are also commonly promoted to the position of mentor with no attendant salary increase. They are thus allocated a formally defined role in which their expertise is recognised, yet in which they exercise additional responsibilities and assume a heavier workload with no financial reward in return.

In the final analysis, the position of mentors is indicative of a crucial problem in the career management of teachers, namely the lack of a consistent connection between their specific capabilities, their workload and their salary. Ideally, there should be a correlation between recognition of their expertise, the requirement that they should assume greater responsibility in contributing to school activities, and their rewards in terms of pay. Policies for the support of teachers should in future do more to ensure that these three considerations are far more appropriately matched.

In general terms, policies concerned with teacher salaries are probably central to their level of motivation. In this area, diversity is especially important. However, two aspects of it merit special investigation, namely the size and frequency of salary increases and the factors governing them.

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As regards the first of these aspects – size and frequency – the variations that exist between countries should once more be emphasised (Eurydice, 2003). Whereas in some countries, teachers may reasonably expect to see their salary double or triple during their career, elsewhere they have to accept the likelihood of very modest increases. Similarly, while in some countries the highest possible (basic) salary is reached within a few years, teachers in others may look forward to regular increases throughout their entire period in service. The size and frequency of salary increases are both doubtless linked to the sense among some teachers that their career has too flat a structure. The more these increases are limited and infrequent, the greater the likelihood that teachers will feel their salary prospects are minimal, and thus that their motivation will be dulled (Chapter 6).

Besides length of service, those factors that govern salary increases – the second aspect of diversity referred to above – are of two types, namely intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Chapters 4 and 5). By intrinsic factors are meant training and performance appraisal or, in other words, considerations directly concerned with the competence of teachers or their involvement in running schools properly. Extrinsic factors refer to considerations relating to the context in which work is carried out, including the location of schools, the nature of their pupil intake, and the responsibilities teachers assume, etc. How

these two types of factor relate to each other is important because this also has a bearing on how policies may reasonably be expected to affect the motivation of teachers. If the aim is to attract competent teachers to difficult locations, extrinsic factors need to be taken into consideration (Chapter 5). Similarly, if teachers are to be motivated to engage in training throughout their career, it is important that their efforts to do so should be recognised and that this should count towards increases in salary. Yet again, if it is possible to move up the salary scale by completing different kinds of training while avoiding employment in difficult locations, it may be assumed that many teachers will opt for this kind of career path, with the result that salary incentives linked to extrinsic factors may fail to have the desired effect. Indeed, underlying this question of how intrinsic and extrinsic factors should be combined are the corresponding issues of, on the one hand, the continuous professional development of teachers and, on the other, their mobility.

The need to train teachers and to structure their working conditions appropriately gives rise to numerous challenges since, in the last resort, the educational level of young people in Europe depends above all on the motivation and skills of those who teach them. By taking appropriate measures, policy-makers can mobilise teachers to ensure quality education for all. Several courses of action are open, with the emphasis on different issues tailored to each particular national situation. Yet it should once again be stressed that all such issues are interdependent and cannot therefore be dealt with in isolation.



# ANNEXES

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Annexe to Chapter 1:

National surveys into the opinions  
of general lower secondary school teachers on their profession 68

Annexe to Chapter 4:

Level of authority of bodies responsible for the award of salary adjustments  
and financial benefits to teachers with a permanent position  
in general lower secondary education (ISCED 2), 2000/01 84

## Annexe to Chapter 1 – Low morale among teachers – Does the cliché hold true?

### National surveys into the opinions of general lower secondary school teachers on their profession

	References	Main results
BE fr	<p>Mangez, E.; Delvaux, B.; Dumont, V; Dourte, F. Les enseignants face à la transformation de leur métier: enquête auprès des enseignants du premier degré. (Teachers and the transformation of their profession: survey of lower secondary school teachers). <i>Les Cahiers du CERISIS</i>, 99/12, 1999. Charleroi: Centre de Recherche Interdisciplinaire pour la Solidarité et l'Innovation Sociale (CERISIS) – UCL, 1999.</p> <p>Data collected in spring 1998.</p>	<p>Teachers believe they need to take on <u>new roles</u> for which they have had little or no preparation.</p> <p>Relationships between colleagues are generally seen to be satisfactory: 84 % see colleagues as 'resources' and 35 % as 'obstacles'. The main groups listed as having significant interaction with teachers are firstly <u>colleagues</u> (mentioned by 90 %), then pupils (60 %) and lastly curriculum developers, management and teacher trainers.</p> <p>78 % of teachers state that they <u>work in a team</u> outside class councils, and these teachers view this work as relatively effective (7.8/10). There is also a strong sense of belonging to a team: 7.3/10 on average. Working in teams seems to be organised on a very informal basis (in the staff rooms or in corridors; during free time) and is based on with how well people get on with each other.</p> <p>Teachers are most keen to develop their <u>skills</u> in helping pupils with difficulties. However, they seem to have little knowledge of the social and political issues relating to the education system but are not keen to develop this.</p> <p>On average, teachers see their <u>initial education</u> as mediocre (score of almost 5 out of 10). In terms of assisting pupils with difficulties, the teachers feel their initial education was of very little benefit (score of 1.2 out of 6). The teachers are fairly motivated in terms of participating in <u>continuous professional development</u> programmes.</p>
BE de	<i>No data available</i>	
BE nl	<p>Aelterman, A.; Verhoeven, J.; Engels; N. et al. <i>Waar staat de leraar in onze samenleving? Een onderzoek naar opvattingen over de professionaliteit en de maatschappelijke waardering van de leerkrachte</i> (The professional status and the social appreciation of teachers in primary and secondary education. An exploratory investigation into the views of teachers, other participants in education and public opinion). Gent: Academia Press, 2002.</p>	<p>Teachers in secondary education are less appreciated overall than those working in primary and pre-primary education. It is even to be noted that appreciation expressed in teachers diminishes, the higher the level of education at which they work: 38 % of people appreciate all teachers in pre-primary education (and 57 % most teachers), 20 % appreciate all teachers in primary education (and 72 % most of them), 16 % appreciate all teachers in secondary education (67.5 % most of them, while 15.37 % only appreciate a few of them and 1.18 % appreciate no teachers in secondary education). The most appreciated teachers in secondary education are those working in its vocational and technical branches.</p> <p>A large majority of the public think that teachers should devote more attention to supporting pupils, both in the case of problems with learning and difficulties of a more social or emotional nature .</p>

	References	Main results
BE nl	<p>Survey carried out between 2000 and 2002 by the University of Ghent, the Catholic University of Leuven, the Free University of Brussels (VUB) and the University of Antwerpen.</p> <p>Research commissioned by the Ministry of Education.</p>	<p>As far as the perception of <u>teachers' working time</u> is concerned, those surveyed were divided between people who said they didn't know and people who thought teachers worked fewer than 38 hours a week.</p> <p>As regards the <u>perception of tasks performed by teachers</u>, three quarters of the public surveyed considered that the educational responsibilities of teachers have become more important, first because parents no longer have any time to devote to their children and, secondly, because life in society has become more complex. Half of those questioned thought that teachers should play an important part in compensating for the educational shortcomings of society. 60 % of those questioned thought that teachers should not be involved in extra-curricular activities.</p>
CZ	<i>No data available</i>	
DK	<p><i>Det gode lærerliv</i> 2002. Hellerup: Mercuri Urval: 2002. (*)</p> <p>Survey conducted by DLF (Danish working conditions department).</p> <p><i>'Psykisk arbejdsmiljø – alles ansvar'</i>, Basic schools 2001. (*)</p> <p>Survey conducted by DLF (Danish working conditions department).</p> <p>Kreiner, Sv.; Mehlbye, J. <i>Arbejdsmiljøet i folkeskolen</i> (The working environment in the <i>Folkeskole</i>). Research Institute of the Counties and Municipalities, 2000.</p> <p>Survey conducted in autumn 1997. It draws comparisons with the 1978 survey.</p>	<p>Teachers see <u>interaction with pupils</u>, their <u>professional freedom</u> to choose teaching methods and also cooperation with their <u>colleagues</u> as extremely important.</p> <p>They believe they have very little time. One particular problem is the working time agreement, which allocates rigid timings to different tasks and, as such, restricts the teachers' professional freedom to design their own activities. The efficiency and planning of meetings could be improved. The main stress-inducing factors are salaries, lack of prestige and superfluous and badly organised meetings.</p> <p>Problems with the psychological working environment largely concerned a lack of team cooperation and social support, pupils with severe problems, workload and time constraints as well as contradictory demands and insufficient information.</p> <p>The level of satisfaction among teachers has risen over the past 20 years. Nevertheless, in 1997 <u>only just over half of all teachers were completely happy with their job</u>. Approximately one third of the teachers found their school suffered from professional stagnation. Slightly more than half the teachers saw the school as a <u>stressful workplace</u>. Just over two fifths of teachers felt they were not adequately prepared for teaching all of their subjects. The teachers were generally relatively satisfied with their influence at school.</p> <p>A quarter of employees at schools have applied for other jobs whilst working at their present school. Most cite the need for new challenges as a <u>reason for leaving</u>.</p>

	References	Main results
DK	<p>Member study. Danish Union of Teachers 1996. <i>Folkeskolen</i> No. 30-33. 15 August 1996.</p> <p>Due, J.; Steen Madsen, J. <i>Man kan kun gå på to ben. Lærerne mellem profession og fagforening</i> (One can only walk on two legs. A sociological study of the members and shop stewards of the Danish Union of Teachers). The Danish Union of Teachers, 1990.</p> <p>Jacobsen, B. <i>Fungerer læreruddannelsen? En undersøgelse af 1966-læreruddannelsen, belyst ud fra den uddannede folkeskolelærers situation</i> (Does teacher training work? A study of the teacher training programme from 1966 – elucidated on the basis of the teacher graduates' situation). Copenhagen: Ministry of Education, 1989.</p>	<p>Whilst major changes to the Folkeskole in recent years have had a considerable impact on teachers, they did not complain of lower job satisfaction. Increased resources for the Folkeskole are mentioned as the main priority. <u>Wages</u> are only the fourth priority. The teachers are clearly against decentralised wage fixing. The most negative aspect of the teacher's job is seen as the relationship with the municipal employer. The teachers are in favour of the school being allowed to run its own finances.</p> <p>The new school administration system has introduced rules for counting hours worked. This has led to relations between colleagues becoming bureaucratic.</p> <p>The teachers agree that they require considerable continuous professional development, with the emphasis on ICT, teaching topics and subject-specific themes.</p> <p>Teachers are fairly satisfied with their job and view independence as the most positive aspect (only 1 % dissatisfied).</p> <p>Teachers viewed <u>freedom in work</u> as the most important factor, followed by <u>interaction with pupils</u>.</p> <p>Most teachers state they are <u>reasonably happy and satisfied</u>. When asked about the future, their main concerns are the lack of <u>social recognition</u> of their profession, their low salaries, working conditions and increased responsibilities.</p> <p>Teachers see the following as the key skills for their job: teaching skills (40 %), relationship/people skills (40 %), ability in the subject matter to be taught (10 %) and good events organisation (10 %).</p>
DE	<i>No data available</i>	
EE	<i>No data available</i>	
EL	<i>No recent national surveys. There are difficulties in gathering quantitative data and collating research results because they are so widely dispersed.</i>	

	References	Main results
ES	<p><i>La profesión docente, Diagnóstico del Sistema Educativo, La escuela secundaria obligatoria.</i> Madrid: Instituto Nacional de Calidad y Evaluación (INCE), 1997.</p> <p>Fundación Encuentro (Informe España), 1996.</p> <p>Federación de Enseñanza de CCOO. Gabinete de estudios. <i>Encuesta al profesorado de primaria y secundaria de la enseñanza pública</i>, Madrid: Centro de Investigación, Documentación y Evaluación (CIDE), 1993.</p> <p>González Blasco, P; González-Anleo, J. <i>Profesorado en la España actual, Informe sociológico sobre el profesorado no universitario.</i> Madrid: Fundación Santa María/Ediciones SM, 1993.</p>	<p>Teachers generally view their profession as a <u>highly attractive job</u> (83 % between 'quite' and 'very'), which is of benefit to society (92 %). Teachers feel very committed to their profession, seeing it primarily as altruistic, and define it firstly as altruistic vocation geared towards the humanistic and academic education of pupils. Working conditions are the least important aspect. Most do not see their work as a temporary activity (97 % between 'slightly' and 'not at all').</p> <p>88 % of <u>parents of pupils</u> claim they are very happy with the teachers' work.</p> <p>Parents maintain that their children receive a good academic education from teachers (8.2/10) and good humanistic education (8/10). However, teachers still feel there is relatively little <u>social recognition</u> of their profession by the public (profession losing prestige). They also complain of a lack of recognition by the administration.</p> <p>Six in every 10 teachers in the old <i>Educación General Básica</i> (EGB) education structure are dissatisfied, three fairly satisfied and one very satisfied. Among <i>Bachillerato</i> (BUP) teachers, one in every 10 is dissatisfied, three fairly dissatisfied, four fairly satisfied and between one and two very satisfied.</p> <p>The teachers are fairly satisfied with their relationships with their <u>pupils</u> (86 %) and <u>the education administration</u> (82 %). They are less satisfied with relationships with <u>parents</u> (51 %) and <u>colleagues</u> (29 %). In terms of teacher satisfaction with the <u>management team</u>, 71 % said they were fairly or very satisfied. 67 % of teachers registered their dissatisfaction with their <u>professional mobility</u> (only 8 % stated they were fairly or very satisfied).</p> <p>85.5 % of teachers believe their profession is not adequately <u>recognised by society</u>. When asked why they felt there was a lack of social recognition, they replied that the general public believe that it is easy to become a teacher (55.8 %), teaching does not solve social problems (53.8 %), and teaching is not well paid (46 %).</p> <p>In general, teachers had no plans to <u>leave the profession</u> (80.6 % whilst one teacher in 10 was undecided and only 6.8 % were planning on leaving). Only 36.1 % thought <u>initial education</u> was adequate both in terms of content and teaching techniques.</p> <p>70 % of teachers stated they were <u>satisfied</u> with their job. They were most satisfied with aspects associated with the school environment (relationship with colleagues (87.7 %), how the head teacher exercised their authority (78.1 %)) with only cooperation with parents less satisfactory (47.2 %). Teachers were fairly satisfied with aspects of the actual job, especially their freedom in deciding how to teach their subject (89 %).</p>

	References	Main results
ES	<p>Zubieta Irun, J.C.; Susinos Rada, T. <i>Las satisfacciones e insatisfacciones de los enseñantes</i>. Madrid: Centro de Investigación, Documentación y Evaluación (CIDE), 1992.</p> <p>This publication also contains the results of the main surveys conducted during the 1980s.</p>	<p>The main cause of <u>dissatisfaction</u> was working conditions: 43.2 % of teachers believe their <u>salary</u> is sufficient while 35.5 % think they have good career <u>promotion</u> prospects. They are, however, satisfied with the timetable (75.1 %) and the stability and security offered by their position (73.1 %).</p> <p>86 % of teachers believe their profession should have more <u>social prestige</u> than it does at present. Teachers think that doctors (81.8 %) and lawyers (78.4 %) are careers with a higher social prestige.</p> <p>The teachers are mainly <u>satisfied</u> with the subject they teach (3.82 on a scale of up to 5 points), relationships with colleagues (3.77) and relationships with pupils (3.71). They are, nevertheless, less satisfied with the interest of pupils (2.26), the salary (2.48) and the social prestige of their profession (2.52).</p> <p>The public generally has a very positive <u>image</u> of the teaching profession: (88.9 %) think the work of teachers benefits society. 69.4 % believe that the teaching profession has good social recognition and that it is a well paid activity (68.4 %). 43.3 % of the general public believe that most teachers are happy with their profession.</p>
FR	<p>Être professeur en lycée et en collège en 2002. <i>Note d'information</i>, n° 03.37, June 2003. Vanves: Direction de l'Évaluation et de la Prospective (DEP), 2003.</p> <p>Survey conducted by the DEP of the Ministry of National Education.</p>	<p>Two thirds of teachers stated they were 'very' or 'fairly' satisfied with their professional experience. This feeling tends to diminish slightly over the span of a career: only 10 % were increasingly happy with their job after 20 years of service compared with 24 % for new teachers. Few teachers were 'very satisfied' with their career when compared with their expectations (7 %). When asked "Would you recommend this career to your children?" 45 % of teachers answered yes.</p> <p>The reasons for <u>choosing this career</u> are: a love of their discipline, contact with pupils, passing on skills and knowledge, independence in the class. Those who have taught longer value contact with pupils as the main source of satisfaction.</p> <p>Teachers cite working conditions followed by adapting to the pupils' level as the main professional difficulties. The main problems with their working conditions are: the demotivation and undisciplined behaviour of pupils (79 %), difficulty in helping all students to make progress (2/3 of teachers), complexity of the tasks required (44 %, 57 % of teachers of geography/history/social and economic sciences) and difficulty in meeting colleagues (20 %).</p> <p>One third of teachers feel their work is <u>recognised by society</u>: 67 % of young teachers (63 % of those in priority education zones) believe they are in a profession with little recognition although this decreases for those mid career (49 % with between 11 and 20 years of service).</p>



	References	Main results
FR	<p>Devenir professeur des écoles. <i>Note d'information</i>, n° 01.46, October 2001. Vanves: Direction de Programmation et du Développement (DPD), 2001.</p> <p>Survey conducted by the DPD of the Ministry of National Education.</p> <p>Enseigner dans les collèges et les lycées: Enquête sur le métier d'enseignant. <i>Les dossiers d'Education et formations</i> 48, December 1994.</p> <p>Survey conducted by the Department of Programming and Development (DPD) of the Ministry of National Education.</p>	<p>Most teachers listed as important the desire to teach (43 % of new teachers 35 % of more experienced teachers) and the desire to look after children (25 % of new teachers and 31 % of more experienced teachers).</p> <p>The main reasons cited for the <u>choice of this profession</u> were mainly: attraction to the variety of disciplines taught (57 % of new teachers) and looking after young children (40 % of older teachers).</p> <p>The majority of teachers said they were <u>satisfied</u> with their profession, which has maintained its social prestige, and thought their pay was fair. However, many are concerned about the future and ability of the public education system to adapt to new requirements.</p> <p>The teachers tolerate inspections as a form of evaluation, but are relatively unhappy about being assessed on the basis of the progress made by their pupils.</p> <p>There are major differences between <i>college</i> teachers in small schools, especially rural schools, and those in cities and ZEPs: in particular, teachers in cities are much more negative towards <u>working in a group</u>; teachers in small provincial <i>colleges</i> are much more optimistic about the future and the ability of national education to resolve society's problems than those in the capital city or surrounding region.</p>
IE	<i>No representative national surveys</i>	
IT	<p>Cavalli, A. <i>Gli insegnanti nella scuola che cambia – seconda indagine</i>. Milano: Fondazione IARD sulle condizioni di vita e di lavoro nella scuola italiana, Bologna, Il Mulino, 2000 (survey conducted in 1999). (*)</p> <p>Cavalli A. <i>Insegnare oggi – primo rapporto</i>. Milano: Fondazione IARD sulle condizioni di vita e di lavoro nella scuola italiana, Bologna, Il Mulino, 1992 (survey conducted in 1990). (*)</p> <p>Surveys commissioned by the Ministry of Education on the working conditions of teachers.</p>	<p>When <u>teachers</u> were asked how they saw <u>their profession</u>, they said they thought it served a social function above all (48 % in 1990, 46 % in 1999), they feel more like employees (57 % in 1990, 52 % in 1999). However, they believe the role they play in society will increase again over the next 10 years (50 % in 1990, 43 % in 1999) and that they will be seen as professionals (32 % in 1990, 36 % in 1999).</p> <p>The percentage of '<u>motivated but disappointed</u>' teachers has increased sharply (15 % in 1990, 23 % in 1999) as has the percentage of teachers who state they are 'constantly motivated' (43 % in 1990, 48 % in 1999); the percentage of 'non-motivated, non-submitted' teachers has decreased (24 % in 1990, 11 % in 1999).</p> <p>When asked about their <u>level of commitment</u> and feelings towards their work, many teachers who stated they were more pessimistic about the present and future prestige of their profession claimed they had never been particularly committed and even more said their commitment had diminished over time.</p> <p>Almost two thirds of teachers surveyed said they did not feel appreciated by society; 72 % of secondary school teachers think their profession has lost <u>social prestige</u> over the last 10 years and 45 % believe this trend will continue in the future.</p>

	References	Main results
CY	<i>No data available</i>	
LV	<i>No data available</i>	
LT	<i>No data available</i>	
LU	<i>No data available</i>	
HU	<i>No data available</i>	
MT	<i>No recent national surveys</i>	
NL	<p>Vrieze, G.; Tiebosch, C.; van Kessel, N. <i>Onderwijsmeter 1999</i>. Nijmegen: ITS, Stichting Katholieke Universiteit te Nijmegen, 2000.</p> <p>Ministerie van OC&amp;W. <i>Overzicht onderzoeken studiekeuze jongeren, imago en zelfbeeld van leraren</i>. Zoetermeer: Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen, 1999.</p> <p>Ministerial publication combining several studies into teachers' opinions. It draws comparisons with the situation in 1982 and 1996.</p> <p>COLBO. <i>Interimrapport van de commissie opleiding leraren beroepsgericht onderwijs</i>. Den Haag: Staatsuitgeverij, 1970. (Report from the Committee on the Training of Teachers in Vocational Education).</p>	<p>80 % of Dutch people hold the teaching profession in <u>high regard</u>. However, many (38 %) indicated that others did not fully appreciate the work of teachers. When asked if they would advise their neighbour's children to enter the teaching profession, about half of the respondents said they would encourage them. Only 10 % would advise them not to.</p> <p>The majority of teachers declared they were satisfied (90 % of primary teachers, 80 % of secondary). They feel people <u>choose to become teachers</u> because of the expected job content rather than the status or salary. However, these expectations were only met in part: boring work with few career prospects (especially for secondary education). Female teachers were generally more positive than their male counterparts.</p> <p>The most interesting parts of the job are <u>interaction with young people</u> and teaching. The worst aspect is the <u>relatively high workload</u>.</p> <p>Teachers often underestimate <u>social recognition</u> of their work: 88 % of Dutch people hold secondary teachers in high regard whereas the teachers themselves thought only 18 % of Dutch people had a high opinion of those working in secondary education.</p> <p>Teachers' opinion of their <u>workload</u>: teachers feel they have very difficult and complicated tasks to carry out. The main difficulty concerns working with pupils (recipients), the complexity of the education process and teaching innovations.</p>

	References	Main results
AT	<p>'LehrerIn 2000', Ministry of Education, Science and Culture.</p> <p>Survey conducted in the context of national surveys regularly commissioned by the Ministry of Education.</p>	<p>78 % of general secondary school teachers (<i>Hauptschullehrer</i> and <i>Lehrer an Polytechnischen Schulen</i>) are very <u>satisfied</u> or satisfied with their work. 80 % of academic secondary school teachers (<i>Lehrer an Allgemeinbildenden Höheren Schulen</i>) are very satisfied or satisfied with their work.</p> <p>9 out of every 10 teachers are satisfied or very satisfied with their daily <u>contact</u> with young <u>children</u>. Those most satisfied were teachers working in primary schools and SEN; they saw more opportunities for personal development than their colleagues in compulsory secondary education.</p> <p>The study revealed that teachers view independent initiative positively. The privilege of being entirely free to determine their ongoing workload and the sequence of operations entailed has a highly significant impact on job satisfaction in the teaching profession.</p> <p><u>Relationships with colleagues</u> were seen as very positive as was the opportunity for teachers to decide their own working hours.</p> <p>66 % of teachers were not satisfied with the <u>image</u> society has of their profession. However, the public has a higher opinion of teachers than they had imagined. Parents have a higher opinion of teachers than average.</p> <p><u>In comparison with other professions</u>, only one in three teachers believe they are <u>well paid</u>, while 71 % of white collar workers (higher in the public sector) feel they are well paid.</p> <p>45 % of teachers (as opposed to 73 % of employees in the public sector) are satisfied with the opportunities provided by <u>continuous professional development</u>.</p>
PL	<p>E. Putkiewicz, K.E. Siellawa-Kolbowska, A. Wilkomirska, M. Zahorska, 1999. <i>Nauczyciele wobec reformy edukacji</i> (Teachers' Attitudes Towards Educational Reforms). Warszawa: Instytut Spraw Publicznych.</p> <p>Study carried out in 1999 comparing results with those found in 1985, 1987 (published in 1990) and 1995.</p>	<p>Attitudes in 1999 were more favourable than in earlier surveys. In 1995 40 % of the teachers declared they felt quite happy about their profession, 17% said they were very happy and 11% were very unhappy. The survey in 1999 showed that two thirds of teachers (65 %) were very happy or happy with their profession whilst the percentage of the unhappy teachers remained the same.</p> <p><u>Job satisfaction</u> is relatively high – 38 % very positive and 52 % positive responses in 1986, although the percentages for 1987 were somewhat lower, most probably due to the deepening crisis in Poland in the 1980s.</p> <p>Job satisfaction tended to increase with the teacher's age as the job satisfaction of older teachers was not as closely linked to working conditions.</p> <p>For women, the abovementioned factors tend to be more important, whilst men value the administrative career more highly, connecting job satisfaction with promotion and the type of post.</p> <p>In all the surveys, teachers drew clear distinction between their job satisfaction, on the one hand, and their salaries on the other.</p>

	References	Main results
PT	<p>A situação do professor em Portugal. <i>Análise Social</i>, vol. XXIV (103–104), 1988 (4 and 5), pp. 1187–1293.</p> <p>Survey commissioned by the Ministry of Education (conducted by academics from several institutions, regions and disciplines on the situation in non-higher education).</p>	<p>81.3 % of teachers feel they have achieved <u>professional success</u>. When asked <u>why they chose this profession</u>, 58.7 % of secondary teachers said the main reason was that teaching was their calling whilst 18.8 % indicated they had no other career options. As regards when they made this decision, 43.4 % of teachers stated they decided to become teachers prior to initial education.</p> <p>Most teachers (all stages combined) are dissatisfied with their <u>material working conditions</u>: lack of room (54.1 %), inadequate equipment (47.2 %), too many pupils for the size of class (46.6 %), lack of auxiliary staff (42.5 %).</p> <p>As regards their <u>desire to leave the profession</u>, 35 % of the teachers interviewed (all education stages combined) stated they would leave the profession if they had the opportunity. This desire is stronger amongst men (46.8 %) than amongst women (30.8 %) and decreases with age (41.3 % among younger teachers, 16.3 % among older teachers).</p> <p>The teaching profession (especially secondary teaching) is one of the <u>professions least respected by society</u>: 49.6 % of the general public think medicine is the most prestigious profession whilst only 1 % would choose secondary teaching (a similar percentage to journalism (0.9 %) and nursing (1.5 %)). 79.2 % of teachers answering the same question on the social prestige of different professions placed medicine at the top whilst they gave little consideration to their profession (3.1 %, a percentage similar to that of psychology). 69.7 % of teachers believe the social prestige of their profession has decreased over the past 15 years whilst 16.9 % think it has increased.</p> <p>As regards professional training for teachers, only 32.5 % of the <u>general public</u> think it is good (48.3 % average and 3 % very good) whilst the teachers themselves are less positive (26.6 % good, 40.8 % average, 1 % very good).</p>
SI	<p>Martinjak, N. <i>Pregled učiteljskega izobraževanja in mnenja učiteljev o svojem izobraževanju</i>. Diplomsko delo. (An overview of teacher training and opinions of teachers about their training. Graduate thesis.) Ljubljana: Pedagoška fakulteta, 1999.</p> <p>Series of interviews with graduate teachers from different years who had completed different training programmes.</p>	<p>More teachers who graduated from the four-year programme mentioned a lack of <u>practical teaching</u> experience than those who followed a two year course in a teacher education institute. However, no teachers nearing retirement who had graduated after five years of education in an upper secondary level teacher education institute mentioned a similar lack of practical experience.</p>

	References	Main results
SI	<p>Podpeskar, M. <i>Mnenja studentov razrednega pouka o praktičnem usposabljanju na Pedagoški fakulteti v Ljubljani</i>. Diplomsko delo. (Opinions of primary school class teachers about training for work at the Faculty of Education. Graduate thesis.) Ljubljana: Pedagoška fakulteta, 1999.</p> <p>Interviews conducted with students on single-structure teacher education programme.</p> <p>Blažič, Marjan (1993). <i>Oblike strokovnega izpopolnjevanja osnovnošolskih in srednješolskih učiteljev za uporabo učnih medij pri pouku</i>, v: Stoletnica rojstva Gustava Šilha, jubilejni zbornik, Maribor, strani: 166-170. (Various forms of in-service teacher training in primary and secondary education designed for the use of teaching media).</p> <p>In: Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of Gustav Šilih; Jubilee miscellany, Maribor, p.: 166-170).</p>	<p>Students felt <u>teaching practice</u> organised by the faculty was not well coordinated. They believed they were not well prepared for practice and would like to learn more varied teaching methods. They think more modern practical training methods should be used.</p> <p>In comparison with secondary school teachers, primary school teachers have more positive attitudes towards various forms of educational, psychological and didactic training. 92 % of all teachers included in the research agreed with the statement that there is a need for additional training in the didactically adequate use of media in teaching. Of all these forms of education, teachers place primary importance on professional lectures within subject working groups.</p>
SK	<p>Kika, M. <i>Progovná spokojnosť pedagógov</i> (Teachers' satisfaction with work). In: <i>Pedagogické rozhl'ady</i>, vol. 9, N° 4, p. 4, 2000. (*)</p>	<p>There is a high level of <u>satisfaction</u> with relationships with non-teaching staff (99.2 %), parents (99.5 %), autonomy in the choice of teaching methods (96.5 %), working with young people (97.3 %), the attractiveness of work (97 %) and the attitude of colleagues (98.1 %).</p> <p>There is a high level of <u>dissatisfaction</u> with the supposed lower salaries than in other professions (98.4 %), material and technical equipment for teachers (77.5 %), characteristics of the job (psychological demands of work) (67.5 %), promotion opportunities (61.9 %), opportunities for cooperation and exchanging experiences (60.6 %).</p>

	References	Main results
FI	<p>Kiviniemi, K. (2000). <i>Opettajien työtodellisuus haasteena opettajankoulutukselle. Opettajien ja opettajankouluttajien käsityksiä opettajan työstä, opettajuuden muuttumisesta sekä opettajankoulutuksen kehittämishaasteista.</i> Opettajien perus- ja täydennyskoulutuksen ennakointihankkeen (OPEPRO) selvitys 14. Opetushallitus. Helsinki.</p> <p>[The reality of work in teaching as a challenge to teacher training. The views of teachers and teacher trainers on work in teaching, changes in the role of teachers and developmental challenges facing teacher education. Anticipatory project to investigate the initial and continuing training needs of teachers (OPEPRO), Report 14. National Board of Education. Helsinki. Summary available in English.]</p> <p>Santavirta, N; Aittola, E; Niskanen, P.; Pasanen, I; Tuominen K.; Solovieva, S. (2001). <i>Nyt riittää. Raportti peruskoulun ja lukion opettajien työympäristöstä, työtyytyväisyydestä ja työssä jaksamisesta.</i> Helsingin yliopiston kasvatustieteen laitoksen tutkimuksia 173.</p> <p>[Enough is enough. A report on the work environment, job satisfaction and burn-out among Finnish teachers. University of Helsinki, Department of Education, Research Reports 173.]</p>	<p>Teachers feel that their educational responsibilities have become considerably more complex in the last decade. Indeed, the survey refers to the fact that, in recent years, schools have experienced a steadily developing anti-school subculture, which challenges the significance of activities to promote learning. In forms 7–9 in particular, teachers have been confronted with a growth in the level and frequency of disquieting behavioural problems, and with increasingly disturbed and restless pupils.</p> <p>Teachers perceive that appreciation of teaching by society has also changed in more general terms, as testified for example by the attitudes of parents towards teachers.</p> <p>Most teachers (80 %) are <u>satisfied</u> with their job although this varies according to the stage they are teaching (upper secondary teachers were more satisfied than those in the final years of the single-structure system).</p> <p>Teachers said they were exhausted by the 'other' tasks to be carried out in addition to actual teaching.</p> <p>Teachers felt their <u>work was not recognised by society</u>: 25 % said they felt unable to gain recognition in society despite their hard work.</p>

	References	Main results
FI	<p>Syrjäläinen, E. (2002). <i>Eikö opettaja saisi jo opettaa? Koulun kehittämisen paradoksi ja opettajan työuupumus</i>. Tampereen yliopiston opettajankoulutuslaitoksen julkaisuja A25/2002.</p> <p>[Can't teachers just start teaching? The paradox of school development and teacher burn-out. University of Tampere, Publications of Department of Teacher Education A25/2002.]</p> <p>Luukkainen, Olli. <i>Teachers in 2010</i>. Anticipatory project to investigate teachers' initial and continuing training needs (OPEPRO). Report 15: Final report. Helsinki: National Board of Education, 2000.</p> <p>Luukkainen, Olli. <i>Opettajuus - Ajassa elämistä vai suunnan näyttämistä?</i> (Teachers living in time or leading the way?). Publisher Tampereen yliopisto 2004. Series Acta Universitatis Tamperensis; 986.</p>	<p>Teachers feel they are ignored during decision-making (especially in the case of prospective educational reform). The official terms of reforms carry a hint of vagueness and uncertainty, arousing suspicious among teachers that their professional skills are not appreciated. The increasing number of different evaluation procedures makes them feel that they are no longer trusted, and that they need constantly to demonstrate the value of their work to the public at large.</p> <p>Teachers were interested in four aspects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teacher education and teaching practice and the way these relate to the reality of teaching. Teachers felt that their <u>work had become more demanding</u>. While their work involves more aspects of social work, <u>teachers have not always felt that they were equipped for this</u>. This has led to feelings of inadequacy and stress;</li> <li>- the nature of teaching as work in which ethics and <u>interaction between people</u> are central components;</li> <li>- changes to the teaching environments of schools;</li> <li>- the increasing difficulty of the school's educational tasks due to the increase in personal problems among pupils and their disruptive behaviour.</li> </ul> <p>Teachers say they feel the need for greater solidarity and community spirit than previously, so that they can confront jointly the changing and growing challenges they face as a highly skilled professional community.</p>
SE	<p>Lärarnas Riksförbund, 2002, <i>Arbetsmiljöundersökning, Hur har lärare och studievägledare det på jobbet? – och hur skulle de vilja ha det?</i> (*)</p> <p>Survey conducted by the national union of teachers.</p>	<p>Teachers said they enjoyed their work and made a positive contribution to society (only 2 % were dissatisfied). They thought there were advantages to their job including <u>freedom</u> and skills development. The most satisfying task was <u>working directly with the pupils</u>.</p> <p>However, they note <u>the need to improve their professional skills</u>, find a more satisfactory solution to the problem of substitutes within framework of teachers' contractual working time, and prevent health problems (adapting work more effectively to the needs of older teachers).</p>

	References	Main results
SE	<p>Swedish National Agency for Education. <i>Attityder till skolan 2000</i>, Report 144. Stockholm: Swedish National Agency for Education, 2000.</p> <p>Survey into attitudes towards compulsory and upper secondary schools. The results compared with results from a survey conducted in 1997.</p> <p>Swedish National Agency for Education. <i>Vem tror på skolan? Attityder till skolan 1997</i>, Report 144. Stockholm: Swedish National Agency for Education, 2000.</p> <p>Survey into attitudes towards compulsory and upper secondary schools. The results compared with results from a survey conducted in 1993/94.</p>	<p>Teachers are highly <u>satisfied</u> with cooperation with their colleagues (79 %), but much less satisfied with the school's management of teaching methods (25 %). They say they are very happy with their pupils (95 %) and their colleagues (90 %).</p> <p>However, they are unhappy with their working conditions: only 20 % are satisfied with their salaries (23 % in 1997, 47 % in 1993), 21 % with their workload, 34 % with opportunities for skills development (35 % in 1997), and 10 % with opportunities for increasing their responsibilities and salaries (14 % in 1997). 29 % of teachers state they would like to <u>change profession</u> while 13 % would like <u>to change school</u>.</p> <p>82 % of teachers are fairly or very satisfied with their pupils' <u>appreciation</u> of their work.</p> <p>The majority of teachers are <u>happy</u> in school. They are satisfied with their working relationships with colleagues. Nevertheless, they feel that their workload has increased, they are less satisfied with the way their schools are run, and are <u>unhappier</u> with their <u>salaries</u> and <u>employment conditions</u>. One teacher in three has seriously considered a <u>career change</u> during the past year.</p> <p>As many as 85 % of teachers believe that the <u>municipal authorities</u> are incapable of taking responsibility for school affairs.</p> <p>Less than half of all teachers think the <u>head teacher</u> has any real influence on the management of actual education issues. Moreover, less than half are satisfied with the information and support which they receive from the school management.</p> <p>Pupils have more <u>appreciation</u> for the work done by teachers than they had three years ago. Although more than 50 % of teachers think that their work has suffered, more pupils now think that teachers are teaching well and are committed to their subjects than was the case three years ago. More pupils think that the teachers care about the opinions of pupils.</p>
UK ENG WLS NIR	<p>General Teaching Council for England. <i>Survey of Teachers' Opinions</i> (The Guardian/MORI poll), January 2003. London: General Teaching Council for England, 2003. (*)</p>	<p>Among their reasons for <u>choosing the profession</u>, teachers listed working with children (48 %), the satisfaction of teaching (32 %), and the creativity and stimulation it offers (25 %). However, only 21 % teachers clearly stated they would choose the same profession again (29 % probably, 21 % probably not and 11 % definitely not).</p> <p>The teachers feel <u>demotivated</u> because of their heavy workload (56 %), perceived overload of initiatives (39 %), and the perception that teaching has a target driven culture (35 %).</p> <p>35 % of teachers stated they planned to <u>leave the profession</u> within the next five years.</p> <p><u>Teachers' perceptions</u> of the <u>social recognition</u> of their profession: teachers' employers have greater respect for the teaching profession than for the general public and the media. This clashes with the public's perception (see surveys below).</p>

	References	Main results
UK ENG WLS NIR	<p>Wilkins, R.; Head, M. <i>How to Retain and Motivate Experienced Teachers</i>. London: Christ Church University College, Canterbury/SAGA, 2002. (*)</p> <p>Sturman, L. <i>Contented and Committed? A Survey of Quality of Working Life Amongst Teachers</i>. Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER), 2002. (*)</p> <p>General Teaching Council for England. <i>National Opinion Poll of Public Perceptions of Schools and Teachers</i>. London, DFES, 2000. (*)</p> <p>Hill and Knowlton. <i>Public Perceptions of Teachers</i>. London: Teacher Training Agency, 1995. (*)</p>	<p>Teachers view <u>working with pupils</u> as one of the main sources of <u>satisfaction</u>. However, they list the <u>workload, status and pay</u> as the most <u>unsatisfactory</u> aspects of their profession.</p> <p>The degree of satisfaction of teachers is higher than that of people in other comparable professions, but they complain about their salaries and about stress. A lot of teachers would like to have more control of their work.</p> <p>91 % of <u>adults</u> agree that teaching is a highly-skilled job; 84 % of <u>parents</u> think that teachers in their children's schools do a good job and 48 % are 'very happy'. 81 % of non-parents think that teachers do a good job.</p> <p>59 % of the <u>general public</u> think the teaching profession is of great value to society. However, only 11 % said they would feel proud if a member of their family became a teacher.</p>
UK SCT	MacCrone, D. Scottish Opinion Polls: July 1998-June 1999. <i>Scottish Affairs</i> , Vol.28, 1999, pp. 32-43. (*)	78 % of the <u>general public</u> believe that teachers work very hard; roughly the same percentage believes they are not overpaid.
IS	Teachers' Association: <i>Survey of teachers' opinions and expectations</i> (Skoðanakönnun Félags grunnskólakennara). Reykjavík: Teachers' Association, 2000.	31 % point to inequality between men and women. 97 % say that <u>higher salaries</u> could attract more men to the teaching profession. 85.8 % advocate the creation of a code of ethics by teachers which should apply to all teachers in the Teachers' Association.
LI	<i>No data available</i>	
NO	Roness, Dag (1999). <i>Trivsel utvikling motivasjon i læreryrket</i> Satisfaction, development, motivation in the teaching profession). Bergen: Norsk lærrakademi.	<p>Very similar results to the Vestre survey conducted in 1974 on teachers' perception of their service conditions (Vestre, S. E. (1976) <i>Lærere i 70-årenes skole</i>. Oslo: Norsk Lærrelag):</p> <p>Teachers of lower secondary schools were less happy with their working conditions than their colleagues in primary schools. They complained that the children were unmotivated and had a negative attitude towards school. They also complained of a heavy workload;</p>

	References	Main results
NO		women teachers at all levels were more satisfied with their job than their male counterparts; 10 % of teachers were extremely unhappy with their working conditions; 40 % of teachers working in lower secondary schools said teaching would not be their first choice of career given a second chance. The <u>workload</u> and <u>low salaries</u> are the main factors impacting the level of dissatisfaction of teachers.
BG	<i>No data available</i>	
RO	Romita B; Iucu, Ion; Ovidiu Panisoara (1999). <i>Teacher Training. Research Report 1</i> . Bucharest: Ministry of National Education, National Council of Teacher Training, 1999.	36 % of the teachers gave "love for children" as the reason behind their <u>decision</u> to become teachers, but 35 % did not provide any reason (the second most popular reason for choosing teaching as a career is "the beauty and the charm of the profession" and was listed by 10 % of the teachers). 57 % of teachers were aware of the realities of teaching when they <u>entered the profession</u> , either to a very small, small or medium extent. 50 % of the teachers felt they had acquired additional <u>teaching skills</u> within one to three years of completing initial education. 59 % of the teachers felt they needed advice and guidance during their <u>induction period</u> .

(\*) Surveys mentioned in national reports from the OECD thematic study (OECD 2003).

## Annexe to Chapter 4 – Salary policies: between egalitarianism and differentiation

LEVEL OF AUTHORITY OF BODIES RESPONSIBLE FOR THE AWARD OF SALARY ADJUSTMENTS AND FINANCIAL BENEFITS TO TEACHERS WITH A PERMANENT POSITION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01

	Basic salary and salary scale				
	Basic salary	Professional experience in a field other than teaching	Length of service	Further qualifications	Appraisal of teacher performance
BE fr					
BE de					
BE nl					
CZ		✓			
DK		○		○	○
DE					
EE		○●		■○●	■○●
EL					
ES		■		■	
FR					■
IE					
IT					
CY	( : )				
LV					●
LT					
LU					
NL		○		○	○
HU					●
MT					
AT					
PL					○●
PT					
SI					●
SK		○●			●
FI	○	○	○		✓
SE		○●		○●	○●
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR		✓			✓
UK-SCT					
IS					
LI					
NO		( : )		○	○
BG					
RO					■●

**Mandatory payments**

- Central level
- Local level
- Regional level
- School level

- Discretionary payments determined by the school or the local authority
- Not applicable

Source: Eurydice.

**LEVEL OF AUTHORITY OF BODIES RESPONSIBLE FOR THE AWARD OF SALARY ADJUSTMENTS AND  
FINANCIAL BENEFITS TO TEACHERS WITH A PERMANENT POSITION  
IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2), 2000/01 (CONTINUED)**

	Salary adjustments				Financial benefits			
	Overtime	Additional responsibilities	Geographical area of work	Mixed classes	Health	Accommodation	Travel	Other benefits
BE fr								
BE de								
BE nl								
CZ				✓				●
DK		○				✓	●	✓
DE		■				■	■	■
EE	○	●		○	●	○●	○	●
EL								
ES		■	■			■	■	■
FR		✓						✓
IE		✓						
IT						○●	○●	
CY				(:)				
LV	●	●				✓	✓	✓
LT					(:)			
LU								
NL		●		✓		○●		
HU		●				✓	✓	✓
MT								
AT					■			■○●
PL					○●	○●		✓
PT								(:)
SI						✓		
SK					○●			●
FI	○	○	○		○		○	○
SE	●	✓			✓		✓	●✓
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
UK-SCT							○	
IS		✓		●		✓	○	
LI								
NO	○	✓				✓	○	○
BG		●						
RO		■●				○	■○●	

**Mandatory payments**

■	Central level	○	Local level
■	Regional level	●	School level

✓	Discretionary payments determined by the school or the local authority
■	Not applicable

Source: Eurydice.

### Additional notes (annexe to Chapter 4)

**Czech Republic:** The existence of salary adjustments for additional responsibilities is determined at central level although the school head has discretion with respect to the type of activities eligible for this bonus.

**Germany:** The regional level represents the *Länder*, which have a high level of competencies in education. The central level represents the federal authority. With respect to appraisal of teacher performance, following the implementation of civil service legislation of 2001 at regional level, teachers may receive salary increases related to their performance.

**Spain:** The regional level represents the Autonomous Communities, which have a high level of competencies in education. The central level represents state authority.

**France:** Earnings-related benefits linked to appraisal of the performance of teachers at work are regionally determined in the case of *professeurs certifiés* and centrally determined in the case of *professeurs agrégés*.

**Hungary:** Specified allowances for travel are determined at central level in addition to which the school may offer other travel benefits as well.

**Austria:** Additional responsibilities take into account the situation in *Hauptschulen*.

**Finland:** Salaries are fixed at central level, following collective negotiations between employers and the teachers' union. The collective agreement at central level sets out the framework, while the local authorities are responsible for implementing it. While teachers are not appraised for their professional performance, school heads who consider they are working effectively may award them salary increases. However, this is uncommon.

**Sweden:** Individual teacher salaries are determined at the level of the school following an agreement between its head and the unions, or the teachers themselves in the case of those who are not union members. Nevertheless, a minimum starting salary and a minimum salary after five years of service are fixed in accordance with a national agreement. National agreements also stipulate that additional responsibilities should give rise to higher salaries, although the level of remuneration is at the schools' discretion.

**United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/NIR):** Appraisal of teacher performance: teachers at the top of the main pay scale may apply to be assessed against the national threshold standards. If successful, the teacher progresses to the higher pay scale. Teachers on the main pay scale may also be awarded an additional point for excellent performance on the basis of the school head's decision. Geographical area of work: teachers in London receive an additional allowance. Schools may also award recruitment or retention allowances which may be used to attract teachers to areas where recruitment is difficult, for example, due to high housing costs.

**United Kingdom (SCT):** The situation relating to salaries and further qualifications changed in 2002. Salary increases may depend on successful completion of continuing professional development (CPD) courses.

**Iceland:** The central level refers to a central committee representing the municipalities. Teachers' salaries are negotiated by teachers' unions and this committee. A municipality or a school may increase teachers' salaries further by giving them additional responsibilities.

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