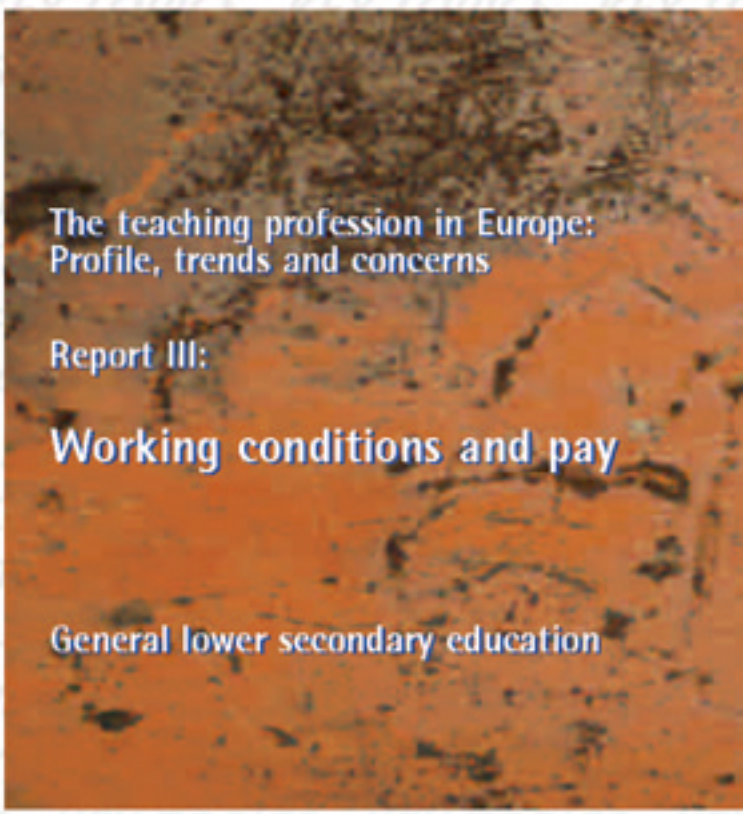
EURYDICE

Directorate-General for Education and Culture

Key topics in education in Europe

Volume 3



European Commission

Key topics in education in Europe

VOLUME 3

THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN EUROPE:

PROFILE, TRENDS AND CONCERNS

REPORT III

WORKING CONDITIONS AND PAY

GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

Eurydice
The information network on education in Europe

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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. The work programme on the future objectives of education and training system up to 2010, which was approved by the Barcelona European Council on 15-16 March 2002, considers that teachers are *'key actors in any strategies targeted at stimulating the development of society and the economy'*.

In this context, the study by Eurydice on the teaching profession, which is being published in the *Key topics in education in Europe* series as a set of four reports, is an especially welcome development. With teachers in lower secondary education as its focal point, the study analyses the extent to which their initial training provides them with the skills now recognised as essential if they are to perform their duties successfully. It examines cases of teacher shortage or oversupply with which European countries are confronted and the steps taken to rectify them. Finally, it compares the conditions of service of teachers in terms of aspects such as job security and salary prospects.

This third report is devoted to the working conditions and pay of teachers. Its findings are invaluable in enabling us to give further more thorough consideration to all sets of conditions associated with the work of teachers when carrying out their professional duties. Salary prospects are not the only factor that should be taken into account in examining the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Moreover, policies in this area vary widely from one country to the next. Several systems offer a variety of additional financial incentives that have to be considered in the comparison. As examples one may cite salary adjustments related to further qualifications or the geographical location of schools, as well as other financial benefits such as housing allowances, etc. The report also emphasises that European teachers still have a relatively high level of job security, irrespective of their status. By contrast, the extent to which they are expected to be adaptable varies depending on the type of employer concerned. Their working time is

becoming increasingly more fully defined and is also accommodating new tasks. However, appropriate support for exercising these new responsibilities is not always available. As regards in-service training, it often gives priority to a sound understanding of information and communication technology and the response to special educational needs. There is every reason to be satisfied that such training is increasingly being recognised as an obligation and planned in close association with initial training so that overall provision in this area can be made more consistent.

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. 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. All the contributors to the study are acknowledged at the end of the publication.

We trust that the present report will enrich the policy debate both at national and Community level by providing greater insight into the various factors with a bearing on the attractiveness of the teaching profession, thus enhancing our capacity to ensure that high quality education is offered to everyone, both now and in the future.

Viviane Reding

European Commissioner for Education and Culture

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INTRODUCTION

> *The importance of the role of the teacher as an agent of change, promoting understanding and tolerance, has never been more obvious than today. It is likely to become even more critical in the twenty-first century.*
>
> (Jacques Delors, 1996, p. 141) ([1])

With the emergence of the knowledge society in the 21st century, the importance of education has been reiterated in many reports and declarations and education systems now face several challenges. Young people must be able to meet and adapt to the demands of an economic and social context undergoing massive change. While they need to have knowledge of specific essential subjects such as new information and communication technology (ICT) and foreign languages, they also need to be made aware of and become committed to the human values of tolerance and sharing. Teachers play an essential part in this formative process, with the result that society as a whole nurtures great expectations vis-à-vis the teaching profession. Teachers make an important contribution by giving young people the tools to integrate into a constantly changing world.

In order to gain greater insight into the issues at stake, and understand the situation and expectations with which the teaching profession will be confronted in European countries in the years ahead, the Eurydice Network has launched an extensive comparative study on the profession as it exists in Europe today. With a view to defining the scope of this complex subject more effectively, the Units in the Eurydice Network were asked to describe those aspects or main elements of the profession that are the subject of ongoing debate or reform at national level. The response of Units to this short survey in the summer of 2000 clearly demonstrated that the teaching profession is at the heart of thinking and discussion about policy, and this confirms that the study is entirely in line with current developments in European countries.

([1]) Delors, J. et al. Learning: the treasure within. Report to Unesco of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century. Paris: Unesco, 1996.

More specifically, two major issues seem to emerge from the concerns and discussion of policy-makers in those countries. These issues are, first, changes in the skills teachers are expected to possess and, secondly, the extent to which their profession is an attractive one. Although these issues are not present to the same extent everywhere, they may be regarded as occupying an important position in thinking about education in Europe.

Indeed, in the majority of countries today, it is no longer just expected that, in their prime task of providing instruction, teachers should simply adapt to knowledge gained from research into teaching methods and the psychology of learning. The daily life of schools is conditioned by the technological development of information, an increasingly multicultural social environment and the increasingly greater autonomy granted to local communities and schools.

Generally speaking, therefore, the teaching profession seems affected by the need to become more involved in tasks concerned with school management and administration, the use of ICT, the promotion of human rights and civic education and encouraging pupils to acquire knowledge with a view to learning constantly throughout their lives.

In this context, teachers face groups of students more varied than ever before. Depending on the country concerned, they have to face up to two types of heterogeneity for which they may feel insufficiently prepared, namely provision for children of (im)migrant origin and children with special educational needs. Furthermore, at secondary level, the extension of compulsory education, and/or its (re)organisation to provide general education and training for everyone, has occurred fairly recently in some countries. In such cases, 'mass' education and an increasingly heterogeneous school population are likely to have aggravated the difficulty faced by teachers in handling the pupils entrusted to them. While these problems are not experienced to the same extent everywhere, they reflect the need for teachers to acquire interpersonal and communication skills in order to work with ethnic and linguistic minorities and pupils with special needs, and handle conflicts that may arise in the classroom.

In many countries, policy-makers are deeply concerned about the likelihood of teacher shortages or are already having to cope with them (in certain regions or subjects, or at certain levels of education). They are thus having to seriously consider means of attracting competent young people into the teaching profession. The level of remuneration is often blamed for disaffection with a career in teaching. Salaries are considered either too low or poor compared to those in

other professions. Unattractive working conditions (lack of flexibility and independence, a heavy workload, little pedagogical support, run-down premises, pupils in difficulty, etc.) are also often invoked. Yet a further frequently identified contributory factor is lack of support for young teachers as they enter and adapt to their profession for the first time. This lack of preparation may thus in some countries lead them to abandon it in the early years of their career.

It is in relation to these major and closely associated challenges which European education systems now seemingly have to meet if they are to provide quality education for everyone, that Eurydice has selected the issue of the **attractiveness, distinctive features and occupational content of the teaching profession**, for the purpose of conducting a thorough comparative analysis.

PRESENTATION AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to gain a better insight into the situation characterising the profession in different countries, the way in which it is changing, and the way also in which national policy-makers are attempting to meet the challenges that have been identified. It sets out to analyse how future teachers are prepared for their profession and the skills they are expected to master, to examine the balance or imbalance between supply and demand and, finally, to compare key aspects of teachers' working conditions. The study also seeks to clarify the interaction between these three major issues and the impact they have on each other in the various European countries, with a view to identifying broad patterns and trends while at the same time situating them in their national contexts.

The study is part of the *Key topics in education in Europe* ([2]) publications series whose analytical thrust is twofold:

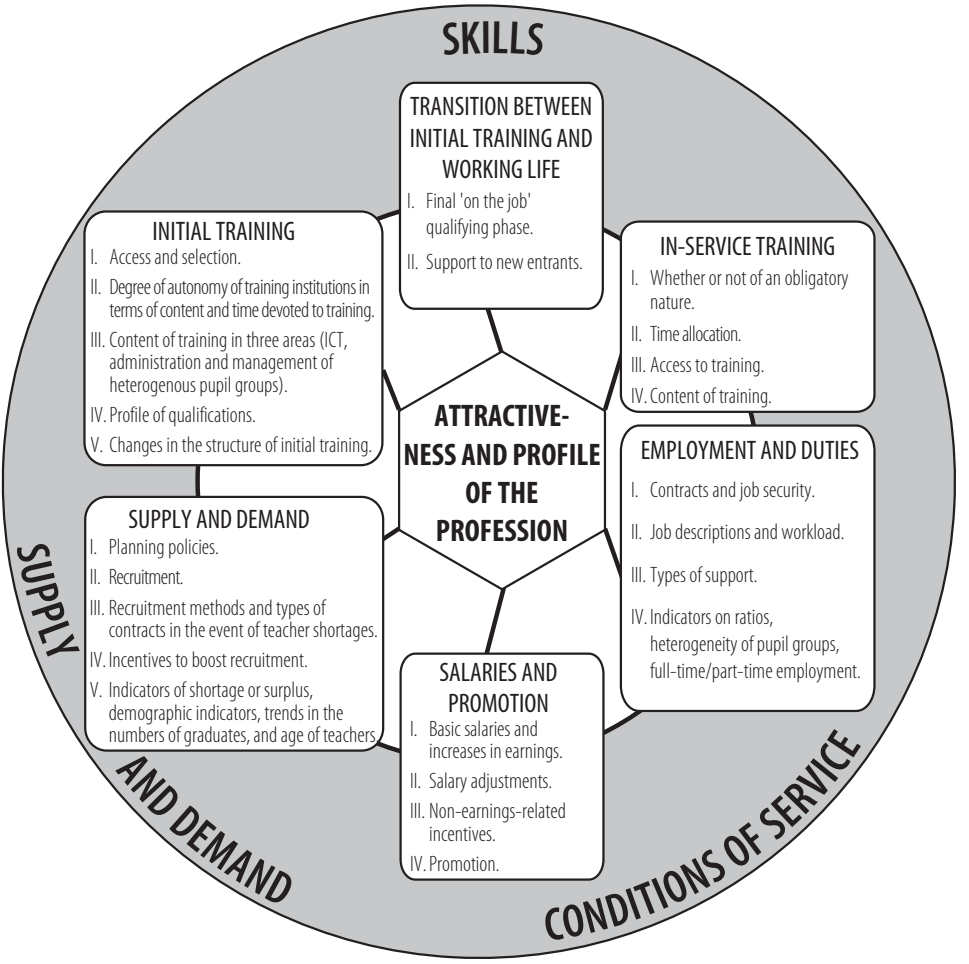
([2]) The first volume published in 1999 is devoted to financial support for students in higher education. The second, published in 2000, deals with the methods of awarding and managing the resources earmarked for schools. The full references for both volumes are given below and both may also be accessed on the Eurydice website.

- European Commission; Eurydice. Financial support for students in higher education in Europe. Trends and debates. *Key topics in education in Europe*, vol. 1. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1999. Available on the World Wide Web: http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/KeyTopics/en/FrameSet.htm.
- European Commission; Eurydice. Financing and management of resources in compulsory education. Trends in national policies. Key topics in education in Europe, vol. 2. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1999. Available on the World Wide Web: http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/KeyTopics2/en/FrameSet.htm.

- **a thorough descriptive comparison of current situations** in order to examine how the aspects considered relate to each other and are interdependent and then, if possible, to identify major operational models;
- **a contextual and historical analysis of how circumstances are evolving,** in order to understand ongoing changes, debate or reforms and explain the reasons or aims underlying them.

These two aims are intended to meet the demand on the part of policy-makers for reliable information on international trends that is descriptive and illustrative and offers critical analysis.

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



All aspects and parameters of the study are set out in Table 1. The approach has been to select them with due regard for the way in which they are directly or indirectly related to the question of the attractiveness and distinctive features of the teaching profession.

There is unanimous agreement that all teachers should be provided with the **skills** needed to perform their tasks and thereby achieve the aims of quality education in schools. Three main areas have been selected for the present study: the management of school activity and administration; the use of ICT and teaching related to it; and the teaching of heterogeneous groups of pupils. Policy-makers accordingly have the task of ensuring, first, that new entrants to the teaching profession are appropriately trained and, secondly, that practising teachers are able to access in-service training that meets their needs. Among questions that arise are the following:

What is expected of the teaching profession (or should be expected of it) today and to an even greater extent in the future? What are teachers themselves taught during their initial training? What quality and skills criteria have to be satisfied for teachers to be regarded as qualified for the occupation? What arrangements are made to help young entrants to become fully-fledged members of their profession? From what facilities may in-service teachers benefit so as to acquire the new skills expected of them? What training requirements are teachers expected to fulfil in the course of their careers?

The balance between the **supply** of and **demand** for teachers – whether in the short or long term – is unquestionably the focus of concern among those responsible at national level for the management of teaching staff resources. In the vast majority of European countries, the age pyramid of their in-service teachers reflects a trend that is disturbing, particularly in times of shortage. According to the data available ([3]), a little over one-fifth of the teaching population, on average in Europe, will be close to or have reached retirement age in the next ten years. Several countries are thus faced with the task of gradually – or sometimes more rapidly – replacing a large proportion of their practising teachers. The shortage of qualified staff and unattractiveness of the profession which are now confronting certain education systems seem to be further indications that it is important to find solutions to the problem as a matter of urgency. Special attention will therefore have to be paid to the potential for recruiting new entrants into the profession and, by the same token, ensuring that means are found to attract prospective teachers into initial training.

([3]) Eurostat, UOE database.

What measures have been introduced to attract young people into training and recruitment for the profession? What are the incentives for ensuring that qualified staff do not leave it? How do those responsible attempt to compensate for possible existent shortages? What types of planning policy have been adopted in relation to supply and demand?

These two main groups of questions are closely linked, in so far as the skills acquired by the end of training and the tasks that have to be performed in the course of working life are integral aspects of whatever makes a profession attractive and motivating. The existence or otherwise of special forms of support for young entrants, as well as the way in which such support is organised, are clearly related to the importance attached to the practical period of training. Selection procedures, where they exist, and the point at which they occur are also unquestionably among the factors influencing the number of graduate teachers on the job market.

A third group of questions inevitably arises from the first two. It is clearly desirable to consider **conditions of service** (duties in the course of employment and salaries) necessary to ensure that the responsibilities required of the teaching profession are properly fulfilled and that teaching is an attractive occupation. Indeed, job security, the extent to which there are opportunities for finding more highly paid employment on the job market, and the scope for regular salary increases, not to mention the quality of working life unquestionably have a bearing on its attractiveness.

What types of support and supervision are available if in-service teachers run into difficulty? How is their working time structured and calculated? What tasks are entrusted to teachers and do they correspond to their qualifications and skills? What arrangements govern salary increases? Is internal promotion possible, etc.?

All these foregoing questions are central to the present study. Besides the answers to them that will be sought in the comparative analysis, special attention will also be focused on the factors underlying measures relating to the teaching profession, which have been introduced in the various countries in the last ten years. For this purpose, it is important to analyse aspects of the precise situation in each country, with due regard for economic, educational, political, social and demographic considerations. This in turn means identifying the main aims of changes relating to the situation of teachers (in terms of upgrading, skills, recruitment, etc.) which may (or may not) have been introduced.

STRUCTURE OF THE PUBLICATIONS

A study of this complexity is a long-term undertaking. As emphasized in the section on the methodological approach, information has been gathered in two main phases in order to subdivide the work more effectively. Similarly, as in the case of a jigsaw puzzle, each aspect of the comparative analysis has been considered separately so as to gradually assemble a logical whole from the various subjects examined. In other words, it is not possible to do justice immediately to all findings of the analysis. It should also be emphasized that, in addition to the relations between its various aspects, each of the latter corresponds to a specific set of problems of significance in itself. It would therefore be a pity if policy makers and other players in education who are concerned with these basic issues did not have immediate access to those subjects on which comparisons are already available, particularly given that these specific problems are currently the focus of debate in many countries. Notwithstanding the undeniable dialectical relation between all such aspects, therefore, the present study is being published in four separate reports, each dealing with a specific issue. In each report, the problems encountered, as well as national considerations related to these important issues, are discussed with reference to the available contextual elements.

- The first report is devoted to a comparative examination of **initial training and transitional measures** designed to make it easier for new entrants to the teaching profession to settle fully into working life. It is mainly devoted to educational provision concerned with development of the specific skills referred to above. Ways of entering the profession, the consecutive or concurrent training model, and the relative importance of professional training as compared to general education are discussed in relation to measures for completing the transition between education/training and full professional activity. A historical summary of the major changes which have affected the structure of initial training (in terms of its duration and level) in the last 25 years is provided, together with an analysis of the reasons and aims underlying them. The part devoted to measures for accomplishing the transition from initial training to professional life discusses the existence (or otherwise) of a final on-the-job qualifying phase with remuneration and/or support measures to help those embarking on a career in teaching to become fully integrated into the profession. The structure and content of all such measures are examined, as are ongoing debate and/or reforms concerned with these matters.

- An in-depth analysis of the **supply of and demand** for teachers is the subject of a second separate report. It includes demographic indicators for establishing projections of the demand for teachers in the next ten years. Existing standard methods of recruitment are compared to measures introduced where there is a shortage of fully qualified staff for a particular post. The varied range of definitions and methods for calculating oversupply and shortage are described and discussed, together with the lack of readily comparable data. Finally, long-term planning policies and the means mobilised for attracting people into training or stimulating the recruitment of qualified staff are also reviewed.
- Analysis of **teachers' conditions of service** is the subject of the third report. It covers different aspects concerned with remuneration and material working conditions, contracts of employment and the tasks expected of teachers in accordance with those contracts.
- A final comprehensive overview then examines models that take account of all considerations discussed in the various publications and places them in context. Topics and issues arising from contextual analysis across the entire field of investigation will also be highlighted.

Finally, country tables enumerating **all major reforms** that have in one way or another affected the teaching profession (training and conditions of service) in the last 25 years will be placed on the Eurydice website. Each table gives the date and content of these reforms, as well as the factors and objectives underlying them. The national (demographic, social, political, and economic) context in which each reform was enacted is also highlighted.

DEFINING THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

In order to keep the study within appropriate limits, it analyses solely the situation of teachers in **full-time compulsory general secondary education.** This educational level has been chosen because it is compulsory and situated at an important transitional stage of the path through school. It is concerned with all young people aged between 10/12 and 15/16. It generally incorporates ISCED level 2 ([4]) and, depending on the country concerned, corresponds to lower secondary education (lasting three or four years), or the final years of the single structure.

([4]) International Standard Classification of Education.

In order to understand and situate the level involved, readers may refer to the table at the end of the annexes which sets out the general framework of the successive stages of schooling and shows precisely where lower secondary education occurs within the educational system of each country.

In compulsory general secondary education in the majority of countries, teachers are specialists or semi-specialists. The study does not consider the situation of teachers who are trained to teach at other levels but may occupy a post at lower secondary level.

It should also be pointed out that it is the **general situation of teachers** that is examined. Only where the situation of teachers depends on the subject taught (for example, in terms of the content of initial training, working conditions, responsibilities or indicators relating to teacher shortage) does the analysis concern itself specifically with teachers of mathematics and the mother tongue ([5]).

The study is solely concerned with the situation of teachers in the **public sector**, i.e. those working in schools administered and controlled directly by the public authorities. Grant-aided private schools are considered only in the case of Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, in which this sector is well developed.

The **reference year** of the study is **2000/01**. Historical background information on reforms (in the contextual analysis) is restricted to **the last 25 years**. The contextual analysis also takes ongoing policy discussions and definitely planned reforms into account.

Finally the comparison covers the situation in the 30 European member countries of the Eurydice Network.

([5]) There are three main justifications for this proposal.
1) Problems associated with the image of the profession and teacher shortage appear to be somewhat severe in the field of mathematics in many countries. Graduates in this subject area tend to prefer more highly paid professions in the private sector.
2) Both subjects are compulsory in all minimum curricula in compulsory education, in which they occupy a dominant position (see European Commission; Eurydice; Eurostat. *Key data on education in Europe 99/2000*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2000).
3) The way in which ICT is considered in training teachers of these two subjects may be very different. The ICT skills of teachers may therefore vary widely.

METHODOLOGY AND WORKING PROCEDURES

A restricted working group comprising representatives from 16 of the National Units ([6]) in the Eurydice Network was set up to prepare the present study. The group was given the task of determining the subject matter of the study, defining its scope and selecting relevant parameters for consideration.

The information required was gathered in two major phases. The first phase was concerned with aspects related to initial training, the transition into employment, and supply and demand. The second was concerned with aspects of conditions of service. Both phases corresponded to the whole of 2001.

Information needed for the descriptive analysis was gathered from all Units in the Eurydice Network, using five questionnaires prepared by the Eurydice European Unit (EEU) and then tested and amended by the working group. These questionnaires contain the precise definitions and instructions required for the logically consistent gathering of readily comparable data. It will be possible to access them on the Eurydice website in the section devoted to the data gathering mechanisms for the study, as work progresses and the publications are completed.

National experts in the field were appointed by the members of the Socrates Committee, in order to contribute to the historical and contextual framework. For each phase, indications were prepared with a set of questions to guide the contributions of the experts, who were also asked to include in their analysis all elements they regarded as relevant or crucial to any explanation of the situation in their country.

The majority of the statistical indicators have been prepared using the UOE database provided by Eurostat.

Each report has been carefully checked by the National Units and national experts. Close and constructive joint work and cooperation involving both the various partners at national level and the EEU have done much to facilitate preparation of this complex set of reports. All those involved in preparing the study are acknowledged at the end of this first publication.

([6]) Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Germany *(Länder)*, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Sweden, United Kingdom (E/W/NI), Estonia, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovenia.

GLOSSARY

CODES AND ABBREVIATIONS

Country codes

EU	European Union
B	Belgium
B fr	Belgium – French Community
B de	Belgium – German-speaking Community
B nl	Belgium – Flemish Community
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
EL	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
A	Austria
P	Portugal
FIN	Finland
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
UK (E)	England
UK (W)	Wales
UK (NI)	Northern Ireland
UK (SC)	Scotland

EFTA/EEA countries	The three countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
IS	Iceland
LI	Liechtenstein
NO	Norway
Candidate countries	
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
EE	Estonia
CY	Cyprus
LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta
PL	Poland
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia

Abbreviations relating to statistical indicators and other classifications

(*)	Estimate or liable to variation depending on the authority concerned
(:)	Data not available
(–)	Not applicable
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
GDP	Gross domestic product
ICT	Information and communication technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISCED	International Standard Classification for Education
SEN	Special Educational Needs

Unesco	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UOE	Unesco/OECD/Eurostat

National abbreviations in their language of origin

AHS	*Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule*	A
ARGO	*Autonome Raad voor het Gemeenschapsonderwijs*	B nl
ARBO-wet	*Arbeidsomstandighedenwet*	NL
AST	*Advanced Skills Teachers*	UK (E/W)
CSA	*Centro Servizi Amministrativi*	I
DAPP	*Departamento de Avaliação Prospectiva e Planeamento*	P
DPD	*Direction de la Programmation et du Développement*	F
GOK	*Decreet over het gelijke onderwijskansenbeleid*	B nl
GTC	*General Teaching Council*	UK
IUFM	*Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres*	F
LEA	*Local Education Authority*	UK
LOCE	*Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación*	E
TADD	*Tijdelijke aanstelling van doorlopende duur*	B nl
VMBO	*Voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs*	NL
ZEP	*Zone d'éducation prioritaire*	F

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 (which may or may not be part of initial training) between the initial training of teachers and their entry into professional life as fully-fledged teachers. It generally constitutes the final phase of initial training. This stage includes an important supportive and supervisory dimension, as well as formal evaluation to certify the teaching skills of those concerned, without which they would be unable to enter the profession. 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.

In-service training

In-service training seeks to update, develop and broaden the knowledge teachers acquired during initial training and/or provide them with new skills and professional understanding which they may not have at a given stage in their career. Such training may address a variety of needs, from nationally identified priorities to the particular needs of schools or individuals and can take many forms. In-service training should be distinguished from further 'qualifying training' which normally enables teachers to teach another subject or at another educational level.

Linear salary scale

This is a salary scale characterised by a given number of successive levels, between a minimum and a maximum salary.

Matrix-form salary scale

This kind of salary scale is based on a salary grid that takes account of several factors such as, for example, qualifications or length of service. The career advancement of teachers may thus depend on one or several factors acting independently of each other so that the range of possible salary levels is increased.

Merit

This is the quality or value of the work carried out by a teacher, which may be rewarded by a salary increase following its appraisal.

Mixed group of pupils

Group consisting of pupils who are very varied in many respects and who are integrated into mainstream education. According to official country definitions, these target groups may include one or several of the following categories: pupils with special educational needs, migrants, pupils experiencing problems of social integration, pupils with learning difficulties or pupils with exceptional learning ability.

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.

Pupils with special educational needs

This category generally includes pupils with a physical or sensory disability, with psychological difficulties or with language-related difficulties.

Sabbatical leave

May be defined as a period of study leave during which teachers are released from their duties without giving up their post. Such leave for purposes of professional development is usually paid and covers a longer period of several months to a year or more. However, in certain countries unpaid sabbaticals are also possible, in which case only retention of the teaching post as such is guaranteed.

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 them 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.

Teamwork

All situations in which teachers work together to devise the school plan, develop cross-curricular activities, plan the curriculum, contribute to internal evaluation or other tasks. Team teaching (when two or more teachers work together to share responsibility for one class or more classes), as well as coordination undertaken by teachers responsible for a subject department, are not considered as teamwork in the frame of this study.

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.

Time for personal work

Number of hours for activities such as preparation, marking or personal development, when availability on school premises may not be required.

OTHER TERMS

Candidate countries

The present report covers those candidate countries already participating in the Socrates programme as part of the pre-accession strategy. These countries are as follows: Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia.

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 15 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.

INTRODUCTION

Working conditions are key to understanding the teaching profession in Europe today. Identifying what makes the profession 'attractive' or otherwise is closely bound up with the conditions in which teachers undertake their professional responsibilities and with the quality of their working life. This report is an attempt to build up a detailed analysis of teachers' employment conditions, examining each component in turn with a view to offering something approaching a complete picture by the concluding chapter of the report.

The jigsaw puzzle analogy is quite apposite in this case. Working conditions must be viewed as a whole in order to build up a proper understanding of what teachers do, how long they are expected to do it for as well as how much they are paid to do it and how much support and training they are given in order to continue to do it well. The five chapters of this report assemble these different parts of employment conditions: job security, workload and task definition, salaries, in-service training and support to teachers as they work. Each piece of the puzzle is necessary to form the whole picture. The pattern is, needless to say, extremely complex.

This complexity is, however, all the more reason for producing a complete and detailed analysis. The crucial role played by teachers in providing high quality education is self-evident and means that the teaching profession is often the subject of public scrutiny and debate. The need to ensure sufficient numbers of well-trained and appropriately qualified teachers has already been the subject of analysis in the first two reports in this series ([1]). Conditions of employment have a direct bearing on the flows of teachers entering or leaving the profession because they determine how appealing the profession is, particularly in comparison to other types of employment. Discussions around teachers' working conditions tend, however, to isolate only one area of those conditions, whether these are teachers' pay, or their workload, or perhaps their training opportunities with a view to acquiring new skills for today's classrooms. The links between these different areas need to be more clearly established. The parts of the puzzle need to fit together.

Only conditions for teachers working in **lower general secondary education** are considered in this report. Teachers who are not yet fully qualified or who are

([1]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.
The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

beginning their careers are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions (these conditions having been analysed in Report I of this study).

The first chapter sets the frame for the discussion by analysing **teachers' employment status and job security**. It looks at the basis for teachers' employment and analyses the level of job security teachers can expect. Teachers in Europe are either public servants (in some countries, career civil servants) or they are employed under general employment legislation with conditions similar to those prevailing in the private sector. They can also be employed on short, fixed-term contracts as well as on part-time contracts in the majority of countries. These types of status are defined and discussed in the chapter and trends in the proportions of teachers employed according to status are analysed insofar as data is available. The second part of the chapter looks at teachers' job security, in terms of the circumstances in which teachers can lose their jobs or be transferred to another position. Opportunities for voluntary transfers are also discussed as well as procedures in case of dismissal (in particular, notice periods) are covered in this part of the analysis.

The second chapter looks at **working time, duties and professional codes** for teachers. The scope of this chapter is broad, covering not only the (sometimes thorny) issue of teachers' workload but also the tasks that teachers are expected to carry out in course of their duties and whether required competencies have been formally codified for the profession. Working time for teachers has several different statutory definitions throughout Europe. Currently, the most commonly encountered definition of working time is that in which both teaching hours and the amount of time allocated to other specific duties are defined. A small group of countries define working time only in terms of teaching hours, that is, time spent in the classroom. A second group of countries include, in addition to teaching hours, further time for other duties and personal work without specifying the amount of time to be spent on these tasks, while in a few other countries teaching hours are not specified at all and working time is defined as time during which the teacher is available for duty. This careful analysis also allows for a comparison of standard workloads both in weekly terms and in annual terms, which shows considerable variations between countries.

The analysis of the tasks required of teachers by law or other regulations also shows that the service provided by teachers varies significantly from one country to another, including in terms of the requirement to work in teams and the resources made available for this type of work. The degree of adaptability required from teachers both in terms of the tasks to be carried out and the volume of work to be done forms a penultimate section of this analysis, before the concluding

discussion of codes of practice and professional ethics. This last section shows that few countries report the existence of specific codes of this nature, although recent trends show that such codes are on the increase.

The third chapter addresses the pivotal topic of teachers' **salaries**. It is self-evident that the level of pay available to teachers, coupled with opportunities for additional earnings and non-earnings incentives, plays a significant part in determining the overall attractiveness of the profession. The chapter starts with a definition of the basic salary for teachers and an analysis of the ways in which this salary can progress over the course of a teacher's career in the different European countries. Almost all countries operate salary scales for teachers, although these can be linear (successive levels are reached in a consecutive fashion) or in the form of a grid (one or more elements are factored in to reach a range of different salary options). With respect to starting salaries, the elements that are taken into account include the level of professional qualifications and, in some cases, professional experience in a field other than teaching. For salary progression these elements are, almost universally, length of service and, to a somewhat lesser extent, further training and performance appraisals. The portability of salary increases is also analysed and it appears that increases based on length of service or further qualifications are more easily transferable than those based on performance appraisals.

Teachers' earnings are not reduced to basic salary. The analysis shows that salary adjustments and financial benefits can play an important part in the overall package of compensation for the teaching profession in some countries in Europe. These may include overtime pay and additional earnings to compensate teachers for working in particular conditions or for assuming responsibilities distinct from those specified in their contracts or service regulations. Financial benefits include a range of benefits, the most important of which appear to be accommodation benefits and benefits related to travel costs. In a concluding section of this chapter, the degree to which salaries for teachers are diversified (that is, the number of factors taken into account when determining a teacher's salary) and the decision-making level or levels at which salaries are set are analysed.

The fourth chapter moves the discussion into the area of **in-service training** for teachers. All countries in Europe offer in-service training opportunities to their teachers, although the way in which this training is organised and the accessibility to this training differ considerably. In-service training is also far from being a professional obligation in all European countries, as training is compulsory in only 16 countries. Most teachers are offered at least some compensation for

participation in training, although little difference is notable between those countries where participation in training is compulsory and those where it is not. Moreover, the analysis shows that some countries tend to offer training outside of working hours while elsewhere, training obligations are considered to be part of working time. The minimum number of hours devoted to in-service training activities for teachers also varies considerably from one country to the next. Another trend is that of the decentralisation of responsibility both for devising training programmes and, in some countries, for the provision of training. With respect to the content of in-service training programmes, the chapter focuses on the five skills areas already analysed in relation to initial teacher training ([2]) as well as training in teaching methodology. It shows that the latter, as well as training in information and communication technology, special needs education and teaching multicultural classes are commonly encountered. By contrast, courses in management and school development as well as in conflict and behaviour management are less frequent. Finally, the chapter considers statistics on participation rates, which it appears are not readily available in most European countries.

The final chapter considers the types of **support for teachers in service** as well as professional counselling which teachers can rely on in the course of their daily work. Four situations giving rise to support needs are identified, including stress or burnout experienced by teachers, interpersonal conflicts in relations with pupils, parents or colleagues, problems related to the teaching activity itself and finally, working with mixed groups of pupils (pupils with special educational needs, pupils from migrant families, pupils with social problems and pupils with learning difficulties). The analysis shows that teachers faced with these types of problems do not always benefit from the help that they require. Few countries have set in place formal measures for support in all of these four areas and arrangements are not always regulated. Furthermore, national policies vary widely in terms of definitions associated with mixed groups of pupils, and supporting measures (both formal and informal) for teachers working with such groups also range from the allocation of additional staff and in-service training to reductions in class size and financial compensation or reductions in teaching time.

([2]) For further details, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 3 of Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

CHAPTER 1
EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND JOB SECURITY

INTRODUCTION

A good place to start any discussion of working conditions for teachers is the 'nuts and bolts' of those conditions – what kind of employment is on offer to those engaged in the teaching profession and do these different kinds of employment status actually make much difference to the way teachers experience their job? In other words, how does working as a career civil servant compare to working as an employee on the basis of general employment legislation, and how do both of these compare to working on a fixed-term contract? What is the real level of job security for teachers in Europe irrespective of their status?

The scope of this study is restricted to teachers in the **public sector** (teachers working in schools funded, administered and controlled directly by the public authorities), with the exception of Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands, where a majority of pupils are enrolled in schools belonging to the government-dependent sector (that is, private schools that receive more than half their core funding from government agencies).

The analysis therefore centres on what public sector employment means for teachers in different education systems in Europe. In broad terms, two models of employment can be identified, although this categorisation is subject to considerable national variation as will be shown below.

The **first** model identifies the teacher as **public servant**. In the widest sense, this means a teacher 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.

A closer analysis of European systems reveals that the public servant model of employment for teachers can be refined to show teachers with **career civil servant** status as a sub-categorisation of employment within this model. In career-based systems, the employer is located at central level or at regional level where this represents the top level of education authority ([1]), selection of teachers takes places at this level and the notion of life-time tenure is very strong. Termination of employment will only take place under very exceptional

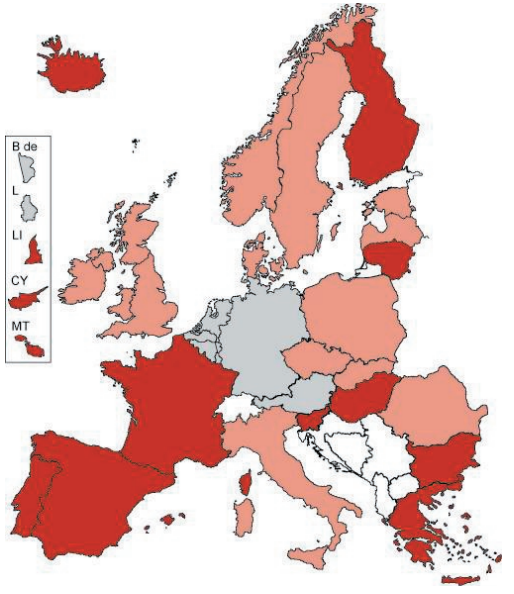
([1]) In Germany *(Länder)*, in Spain (Autonomous Communities) as well as in Belgium for teachers in schools organised by the three Communities and Austria in the case of *Hauptschule* teachers *(Bundesländer)*.

circumstances. Teachers in Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal and Malta may be said to be part of a career-based civil service system. Teachers in schools organised by the each of the three Communities in Belgium may also be said to belong to this system, while teachers working in the government-dependent sector in Belgium are considered to be 'assimilated' to this status.

The **second** model identifies the teacher as **employee**. In this model, teachers are employed on a **contractual basis** in line with the general provisions of employment law. Conditions of employment that follow general employment law is therefore the distinguishing feature of this model, because as public sector employees, it is possible that the employer is a government authority (usually at local level). The more usual situation is, however, that teachers are employed directly by the school itself.

Figure 1.1 illustrates this and shows that the two models are more or less equally present in Europe, and that they even coexist in a small number of countries. It should be noted that for the purposes of this chapter, 'employer' is defined 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.

FIGURE 1.1: TYPES OF PERMANENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS AVAILABLE TO TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Teachers working in schools organised by each of the three Communities are appointed as public servants. Teachers working in the government-dependent sector are considered to be 'assimilated' to public servant status although they are employed under general employment legislation.
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: The great majority of teachers are career civil servants, however, in some of the new *Länder* teachers are employed under permanent government contracts. In a broad sense, these teachers also form part of the civil service.
Netherlands: Staff in public-authority schools are formally public sector personnel: they are public servants within the meaning of the Central and Local Government Personnel Act. Staff in private schools sign a contract with the board of the legal person whose employment they enter (governed by private law). However, private sector staff can be deemed to share the status of public sector personnel in respect of those working conditions which are determined by the government, and collective agreements cover the whole education sector (both public-authority and private schools).
Norway: Some elements of civil servant legislation apply to teachers.
Lithuania: From July 2002, teachers are employed under the general law on employment.
Hungary: A small proportion of teachers working part-time are not public servants.
Slovakia: Teachers became public servants in April 2002.

The distinction between teachers as public servants and teachers as employees should not be overstated. Their location within the public sector, characteristic of all teachers falling within the scope of this analysis, is probably of greater significance. The way in which working conditions are determined for public sector workers differ according to national contexts. In some countries, teachers' employment contracts are not subject to any form of collective bargaining (or other decision-making mechanisms specific to the teaching profession). In these countries, the provisions of employment legislation determine – in greater or lesser detail – teachers' working conditions. By definition, these countries offer employee status to teachers and it could be said that teachers are more closely aligned to the open labour market in these countries.

Many other countries, however, make provision for collective agreements (or other decision-making mechanism) for the teaching profession, sometimes in the form of a central framework agreed at national level with details to be negotiated at more localised levels. This type of provision is found both in countries where teachers are considered to be public servants and in those where teachers are employed under contract.

Finally, at the other end of the spectrum, career civil servants have a strong professional identity as officers of the state. In these countries, appointment as a teacher means entering into the civil service corps with conditions of service identical to all civil servants and quite separate from those prevailing on the labour market.

Thus, it could be said that in terms of job security, the broad distinction is not between public servants and employees but between career civil servants and all others. This chapter will therefore look at how much job security teachers have, whether they are public servants or employees. It will also describe the types of employment available to teachers, not only in terms of their standard employment pattern, but also in terms of the availability of fixed-term or part-time contracts.

Only fully qualified teachers are taken into consideration here. Teachers who are non-qualified, or not fully and appropriately qualified for the teaching which they are asked to undertake, are discussed in Report II ([2]) in this series on teacher supply and demand. The situation of teachers who have not yet completed all pre-service training prerequisites is considered in Report I on initial teacher training and transition to working life ([3]).

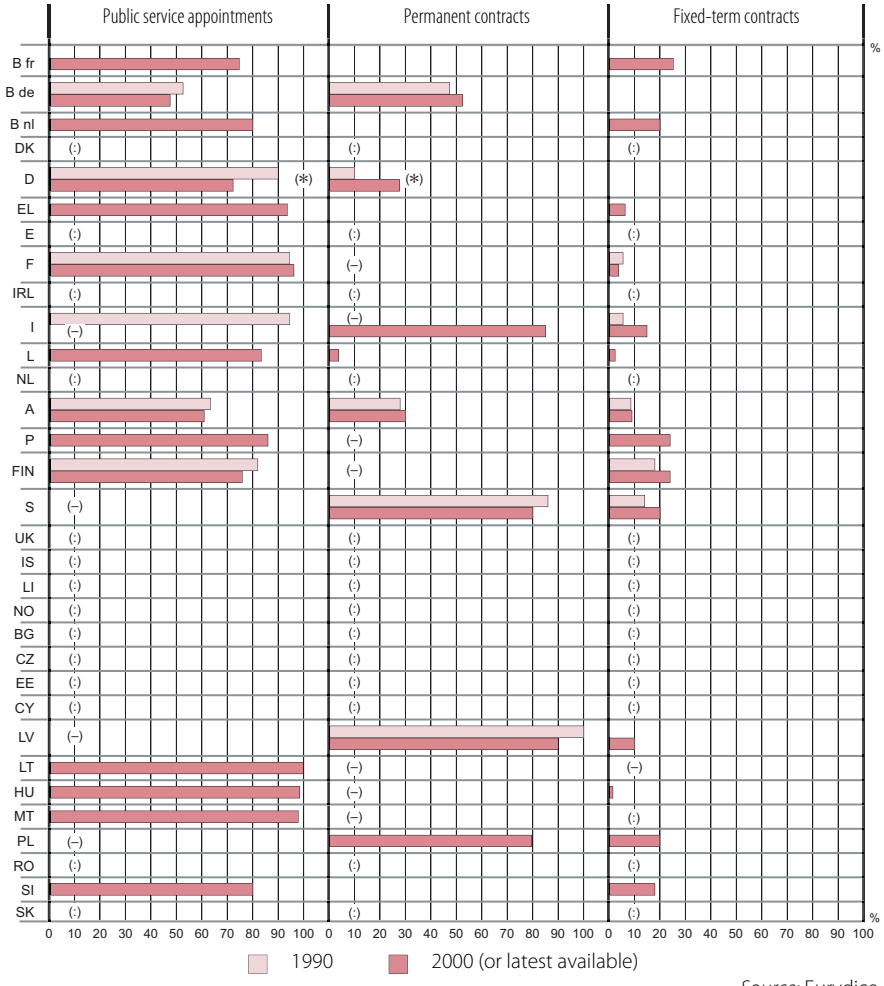
1. TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT STATUS

Developments in teachers' employment status over the last ten years provide a good starting point for this discussion. Nationally available statistical data was therefore gathered from Eurydice National Units in an attempt to establish the relative proportions of teachers holding public service appointments, permanent contracts and fixed-term contracts at the beginning of this period (1990, unless otherwise stated) and at the end (2000, unless otherwise stated).

The statistical data shown in Figure 1.2 can be analysed along two dimensions. On the one hand, data collected at the beginning and end of the ten-year period reveals changes in the type of permanent status available to teachers during this period. In conjunction with contextual material collected for this study, this provides useful information on those countries where public servant status has either been abolished or curtailed for teachers or where this status has been introduced or expanded for teachers. In such cases, there will be a corresponding change in the number of teachers employed on a contractual basis. On the other hand, changes in the proportion of teachers with fixed-term contracts can also provide an insight into trends with respect to job security.

([2]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.
([3]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

FIGURE 1.2: TYPES OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS GIVEN TO TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 1990 AND 2000, EXPRESSED AS PERCENTAGES



Source: Eurydice.

	B fr	B de	B nl	D	EL	F	I	L	A	P	FIN	S	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	SI
Public service appointments																		
		52.6	(:)	90 (*)	(:)	94.5	94.5	(:)	63.5	(:)	82	(–)	(–)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(–)	(:)
	74.7	47.6	80	72.3(*)	93.7	96.2	(–)	83.5	60.9	86	76	(–)	(–)	100	99	98	(–)	80
Permanent contracts																		
		47.4		10 (*)	(–)	(–)	(–)	(:)	27.9	(–)	(–)	86	100	(–)	(–)	(–)	(:)	
		52.4		27.7 (*)	(–)	(–)	85.1	3.8	30.1	(–)	(–)	80	90	(–)	(–)	(–)	80	
Fixed-term contracts																		
					(:)	5.5	5.5	(:)	8.6	(:)	18	14	0	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)
	25.3		20		6.3	3.8	14.9	2.4	9	24	24	20	10	(–)	1.5	(:)	20	18

Source: Eurydice, national data.

Additional notes (Figure 1.2)

Belgium (B fr): The percentages cited refer to the number of teachers in the first three years of secondary education.
Belgium (B de): The percentages cited in the column headed 'public service appointments' and 'permanent contracts' concern teaching posts in the public sector schools and schools in the government-dependent private sector respectively for the whole of secondary education. Temporary posts are included in these percentages and are estimated at 25 % at the beginning and 30 % at the end of the reference period.
Belgium (B nl): Source is Flemish education in figures, 1999-2000. Percentages are quoted in budgetary full-time equivalents and include teachers in ISCED 2–4. *Tijdelijke aanstelling van doorlopende duur* (TADD – temporary appointments for continuous time) are included under public service appointments.
Germany: Due to the different modes and criteria of collecting data by the individual *Länder* regarding the employment status of teachers it is not possible to give precise percentages of teachers under each type of contract.
Greece: Reference year is 1999.
Spain: The number of teachers working as career civil servants and the number of those working with interim appointments varies from one Autonomous Community to another.
France: Source is *Repères et Références Statistique*s, DPD, Education Ministry – 2002 for academic year 2000/01 and 1992 for academic year 1990/91. Civil servants include *stagiaires*, that is, newly recruited public servants on probation before permanent appointment.
Italy: 14,9 % of teachers with a fixed-term contract in 2000 is a result of the recruitment phase in progress following almost seven years during which there was no competitive examination. 0,01 % of teachers are quoted as holding an agency contract.
Luxembourg: Reference year is 1999. 10.3 % of teachers were *stagiaires* (trainee teachers) in this year.
Austria: Data refers to the situation at 01.01.1991 and 01.01.2000 respectively and only refers to teachers working in the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schule*. Due to the different modes and criteria of collecting data by the individual *Länder* regarding the employment status of teachers it is not possible give precise percentages of *Hauptschule* teachers under each type of contract.
Portugal: Source is DAPP. Data covers lower and upper secondary levels of education.
Finland: Reference years are 1992 and 1999. Data covers primary and lower secondary levels of education.
Sweden: Reference years are 1992/93 and 2000. Data covers compulsory education *(grundskola)*.
Czech Republic: There are no official statistics showing how the number of teachers with particular types of employment relationships has changed. Some local studies exist. In broad terms, the number of fixed-term contracts concluded with fully-qualified teachers rose from 1990 to 2000.
Hungary: Reference year is 1999. Source is the Statistical Information Bulletins, Ministry of Education, Budapest, 2000.
Lithuania: In 2000/01 all teachers irrespective of whether they held a fixed-term or a permanent position had a public service appointment.
Slovenia: Reference year is 2001. 2 % of teachers were employed under agency contracts (students and contractual workers).

It is, however, worth noting that very few countries are able to provide complete statistical data on the proportions of teachers with different types of employment status. This supposes either that the data was not collected for these periods or, alternatively, that the definition of employment status does not correspond to the categories shown in Figure 1.2. This latter alternative is the case in the United Kingdom (England), where the operative distinction for the purposes of data collection is between qualified 'regular' full-time and part-time teachers on the one hand and 'occasional' teachers on the other. 'Regular' service teachers are those who have a contract of one month or more. This can include those employed on permanent contracts or temporary contracts for more than a month. Teachers in 'occasional' service have a contract of less than one month. It is not therefore possible to determine the relative proportions of teachers on permanent and fixed-term contracts in this country.

1.1. Changes in the proportion of teachers with public servant status

Figure 1.2 provides data from Italy indicating the privatisation of employment contracts of public-service employees, as a consequence of the reform of 1993. The scope of the civil service in Italy was severely curtailed and employment contracts for Italian teachers are now governed by national framework agreements supplemented by decentralised contract negotiations. The contract is negotiated between the school administration and the teachers' union representative body at school level. These new arrangements follow the introduction of school autonomy in September 2000. Interestingly, the data shows that the privatisation of employment relations is accompanied by an increase in the proportion of fixed term contracts (from 5.5 % in 1990 to 14.9 % in 2000). This increase is attributed to a lengthy period during which the usual recruitment procedure for permanent contracts was suspended. The outcome has been however that the school sector in Italy is one of the most persistently precarious of the public sectors and a law was therefore passed in 1999 in order to regulate the conclusion of fixed-term contracts and improve the status of teachers with these contracts.

Although no statistical data is available for Denmark, teachers in this country have also experienced a move from public servant status. This stems from the reform of the *folkeskole* in 1990 whereby the responsibility for schools was transferred from central government to municipal and school level. Since 1993, teachers' salaries and working conditions have been negotiated at municipal level and public servant status has been replaced by employment on group contract basis for

future appointments. The impetus behind this change was the desire to promote diversity, flexibility and competitiveness in the public sector as well as to cut expenditure on education. New teachers are employed on a group contract basis and follow a new salary structure that includes a range of function and qualifications adjustments (for more details, see the chapter on salaries in this report). A similar reform took place in Sweden in 1991, when municipalities took over full responsibility for employing teachers from the central level.

By contrast, several candidate countries in central and eastern Europe have recently accorded public servant status to their teachers. The need to restructure their public sectors and review public administration activities has in fact led many candidate countries to prepare and (in most cases) adopt laws on civil service. In Hungary, all teachers with full-time contracts are public servants following the Public Employee Act of 1992. The only teachers who do not have public servant status (1.5 % according to data from 1999 shown in Figure 1.2) are teachers with a teaching load of less than 50 % of the full-time workload. Slovenian teachers have had public servant status since 1994 and teachers in Slovakia have more recently (in April 2002) experienced a change in status to become public servants. In Poland, teachers with permanent contracts have what is known as 'appointment-based' status, which effectively resembles the job security experienced by career civil servants. The figure shows that most teachers in Poland (79.5 %) held this type of contract in 2000. In Lithuania, teachers became statutory civil servants following the 1998 law on the civil service in that country. However, a new civil service law in 2002 reversed this, so that from July 2002 teachers are no longer civil servants but are employed under the general law on employment.

A second stimulus to changes in teachers' employment conditions in candidate countries has, of course, been the need to harmonise these conditions with those currently prevailing in the EU. This goes beyond the present discussion on changes relating to the legal basis for employment, but is an important general factor influencing changes in employment for teachers.

As shown in Figure 1.1, four countries (Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria) report that both public service status and contractual status are available to teachers employed on a permanent basis.

Figure 1.2 shows that, with respect to those four countries, where statistical data is provided the overwhelming majority of teachers are public servants. In Germany, the approximate figure given is 90 % of career civil servant teachers at the beginning and 72.3 % at the end of this period. Career civil servant status is still

very much the dominant mode of employment for teachers in the eleven *Länder* that were formerly part of the Federal Republic of Germany (although alternative concepts of employment have recently been submitted for public debate in some of these *Länder*). In some of the *Länder* of eastern Germany, on the other hand, teachers are employed under permanent government contracts. It should be added that teachers employed under government contracts in the German *Länder* enjoy conditions very similar to those of career civil servants and consequently may be considered to be part of the civil service (the main difference relates to retirement pension provisions). In Austria, just under two-thirds of teachers continue to be appointed as career civil servants, with a slight growth in the proportion of teachers holding permanent contracts. The situation in this country is that teachers are initially employed on a service contract in a private-law employment relationship. Previously, the usual practice was to appoint teachers as career civil servants after a number of years of satisfactory performance. However, the over-supply of teachers has meant that it is becoming more difficult for teachers to gain entry to the civil service in Austria. Moreover, there are general discussions on whether this status should be granted to teachers (and other employees in the public sector) at all. In Luxembourg, Figure 1.2 shows that only 3.8 % of teachers (known as *chargés de cours* and *chargés d'éducation*) were employed on a contractual basis in 2000, as opposed to 83.5 % of civil servants. In the Netherlands, the different types of status relate to teachers employed in the public and private sectors respectively.

1.2. Changes in the proportion of teachers holding fixed-term contracts

Although it is not possible to draw any clear conclusions on the basis of very incomplete statistical data, it is noteworthy that almost all the countries providing data show some increase in the percentage of teachers holding fixed-term contracts over the ten-year period between 1990 and 2000.

This observation is borne out to some extent by contextual information prepared for the study. The United Kingdom (Scotland), for example, points to an increase in temporary contracts as a result of financial pressures faced by local authorities. These types of contracts are almost invariably given to newly qualified teachers and the uncertain employment conditions faced by these teachers have therefore been a major issue in Scotland. Although no official statistics are available from the Czech Republic, changes in the Labour Code have meant that there is no longer any limit to the number of fixed-term contracts that may be offered to teachers. The use of short contracts has therefore been subject to some abuse,

with many teachers being offered contracts only for the school year (resorting to the Labour Office for the summer holiday). Regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Education in 2001 have attempted to put an end to these practices by prohibiting the repetition of fixed-term contracts for fully-qualified teachers without good cause.

The exception to this general trend is France, where the number of teachers holding fixed-term contracts diminished over the ten-year period from 1990 to 2000. This is explained by the general policy of stabilising employment in the public sector *(résorption de l'emploi précaire)* advocated by the civil service unions. The number of teachers on fixed-term contracts is kept to the lowest level compatible with the adjustment needs of schools.

In the United Kingdom (England), data on teachers in service show a rise in the number of occasional teachers over the period from 1998 to 2001, followed by a decrease in 2002. As explained in the introduction to this section, occasional teachers are defined for statistical purposes as those who are employed for one month or less.

2. ADMINISTRATIVE LEVELS RESPONSIBLE FOR EMPLOYMENT

An analysis of the level of responsibility for employing teachers reveals that the employing authority can be situated at three main levels. The term 'employing authority' refers to the authority with direct responsibility for appointing teachers, specifying their working conditions (in collaboration with other partners, if appropriate) and ensuring that these conditions are met. This includes ensuring payment of teachers' salaries, although funds for this purpose may not necessarily derive directly from the authority's budget ([4]). This should be distinguished from the responsibility for managing resources within the school itself, which lies (to a greater or lesser extent) with the school head or the school management board.

An important distinction here is between teachers employed by central or regional level government authority and those employed at local level, usually either by the local education authority or by the school itself. As shown in Figure 1.3, in most countries where teachers are public servants, their employer is situated either at central government level or at the top level of decision-making where education is a competence of federal constituent states or regional

([4]) For more information on financing of education, see Chapter I of *Key Data on Education in Europe 2002*. European Commission; Eurydice; Eurostat. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2002.

authorities ([5]). Appointment as a municipal public servant is characteristic of two of the Nordic countries (Finland and Iceland) as well as of the Netherlands and Lithuania. In two countries (Bulgaria and Hungary), the authority directly responsible for employing teachers is the school head.

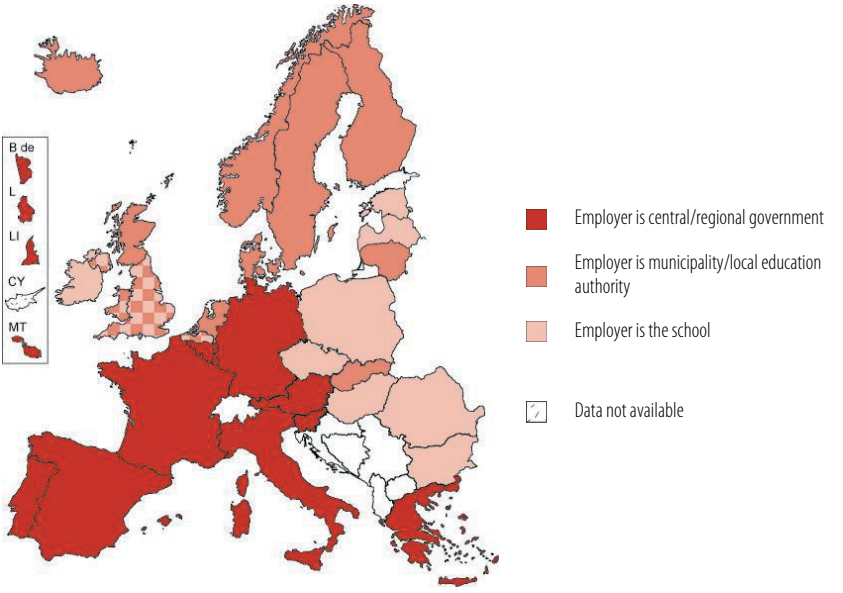
By contrast, the predominant employment relationship where teachers have contractual status is between the teacher and the school itself. This is particularly the case in the candidate countries. In the Czech Republic, this employment relationship has recently been the subject of reform. From 1 January 2003, all schools must be legal entities and therefore directly responsible for signing the contract with the teacher. This has in practice meant a reduction in teachers' job security because this unconditional autonomy of schools as legal entities means that local or regional school authorities can no longer offer a teacher who has been made redundant at one school an alternative position available at another school.

The second most common type of relationship is between the teacher and the municipality/local education authority. This is the case in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Sweden and Norway) as well as in the United Kingdom (Scotland). In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), a teacher's employer is either the school *governing body* or the *Local Education Authority* (LEA or *Education and Library Board* in Northern Ireland). This depends on the category of school. In the case where the local authority is the employer (*community* and *voluntary controlled schools*), most school administration and management functions are now delegated to the school *governing body*, including determining the number and composition of the staff.

With respect to the recent reform in Italy (see section 1.1), the employment relationship for teachers is in a transition phase in this country. Only teachers with fixed-term contracts are employed directly by the schools. Teachers with permanent contracts are still employed by the CSA, or *Centri Servizi Amministrativi* (Administrative Service Centres), the administrative body of the Regional School Office at the provincial level. This is expected to change in the 2003/04 school year, when all teachers are to be employed directly by the schools.

([5]) In Germany *(Länder)*, in Spain (Autonomous Communities) as well as in Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities) for teachers in schools organised by the two Communities and Austria in the case of *Hauptschule* teachers *(Bundesländer)*.

FIGURE 1.3: LEVEL OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR EMPLOYING TEACHERS, GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr, B de): The figure shows the situation of teachers working in schools organised by the Community. In the French Community, teachers working in schools organised by the provinces and municipalities are employed by the authorities at these levels whilst in both the French and German-speaking Communities, teachers working in the government-dependent private sector are employed by the competent authority.

Belgium (B nl): Public sector teachers used to be employed by the *Autonome Raad voor het gemeenschapsonderwijs* (ARGO), an autonomous public body. Now, the 28 school groups at regional level employ teachers. Teachers may also be employed at local level when they work in schools organised by the municipalities, while teachers working in the government-dependent private sector are employed by the competent authority (the school board).

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

Germany: With respect to teachers employed under general employment legislation, the contracting party may either be the *Land* or the municipality.

Italy: Teachers are employed by the CSA *(Centri Servizi Amministrativi)*, carrying out administrative functions of the Regional School Office at the provincial level. This is due to change in the 2003/04 school year, when teachers will be employed directly by the school.

Netherlands: Since 1995, all staff in secondary schools have been employed in the general service of the competent authority (*Bestuursaanstelling* at the *Bevoegd Gezag*) rather than being employed by schools directly.

Austria: This shows the situation of teachers working in the *Hauptschulen*, who are employed by the *Länder*. Teachers working in the *allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* are employed by the *Bund* (central government).

United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The *governing body* of *foundation* and *voluntary aided schools* is the employer and has the power to enter into contracts for the employment of teachers. In *community* and *voluntary controlled schools* the employer is the LEA (*Education and Library Board* in Northern Ireland) although the *governing body* is responsible for the selection of teaching staff and the LEA must appoint the person selected by the *governing body* (unless they are not satisfied that the candidate meets the qualification requirements).
Bulgaria: According to national legislation (rules of procedure on the implementation of the Public Education Act) teachers' contracts are to be concluded with the school head.
Czech Republic: The contracting party is the school itself in cases where the latter is a legal entity. In cases where the school is not a legal entity, the contracting party is the local education authority. In 1999, just over half (53 %) of basic school teachers were employed directly by schools. Since 1 January 2003 all schools must be legal entities.
Hungary: The employer is the school, which is a legal entity in its own right. The local government intervenes in relation to the creation of new posts, but has no direct influence on employment.
Slovenia: Employment procedures are managed by the school head with the consent of the ministry of education.
Slovakia: The contracting party is the school itself in cases where the latter is a legal entity. In cases where the school is not a legal entity, the contracting party is the local education authority. In 2000/01 most teachers at lower secondary level were employed by the local education authority.

3. PROBATIONARY PERIODS

The question of how teachers are trained prior to entering the profession and how they are selected for the profession has been dealt with in previous reports in this series ([6]). The purpose of this section is to describe briefly whether teachers are **appointed directly to the public service** or given a **permanent teaching contract** once they have successfully completed all initial teacher training requirements (including induction periods in the form of 'on-the-job' qualifying phases) or whether they must also undergo a probationary period or temporary appointment whilst awaiting a permanent teaching post. Figure 1.4 illustrates the situation for fully qualified teachers entering the profession. It shows that although probationary periods are slightly less common in countries offering appointments to the public service, where they exist they are almost always obligatory and in some countries can be very lengthy. By contrast, teachers employed under general employment legislation may be required to serve a trial period as defined in the contract following standard employment practices, but this is often at the employer's discretion. This is also generally a relatively short period, or may be dispensed with altogether, particularly when the teacher is already experienced.

([6]) For further details, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 5 of Report I: Initial training and transition to working life and Chapter 3 of Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe,* volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

In a few countries, the probation period is considered to be part of initial training, in the form of a final 'on the job' qualifying phase ([7]). This is notably the case in France and in Luxembourg, where the competitive examination for selection to the civil service takes place before training is completed. Similarly, in the United Kingdom (Scotland), the two year probationary service is also considered to be a final 'on the job' qualifying phase.

Several countries give teachers a provisional position prior to taking up a permanent teaching post. In Belgium, teachers have to complete a period of service corresponding to at least three school years before becoming eligible for a permanent post, while in Spain, teachers who have been successful in the competitive examination for selection to the civil service will receive a provisional posting and are then required to submit an application for a permanent post *(convocatoria de concurso de traslados)*.

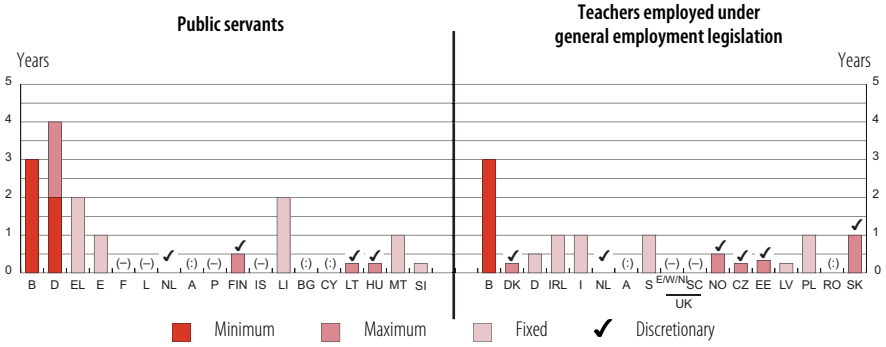
In Austria, depending on supply and demand in the profession, teachers may either be appointed immediately to career civil service status or get a fixed-term or permanent service contract in a private law employment relationship. Teachers having a temporary status are ranked on a list for a permanent teaching post.

Several countries impose a fixed probationary period on teachers entering the profession. Figure 1.4 shows that this is true for both models of employment status. In Germany, the probation period is particularly long for teachers entering the civil service, lasting between two and four years, subject to a final assessment by the school head and the local education authority *(Schulamt)*. For teachers with employee status, on the other hand, the probationary period is six months. In Greece, Spain and Italy, where no final 'on the job' phase exists, teachers entering the profession must complete a probationary year during which they are required to participate in training sessions ([8]). In Ireland and Malta, teachers must also complete a year on probation, while in Liechtenstein, teachers are required to complete a two-year probationary period. In Poland teachers must serve one year as a trainee teacher and a further three years as a contract teacher before they achieve the permanent status of what is known as an 'appointment-based contract'.

([7]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 5 of Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

([8]) For further information, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 6 of Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

FIGURE 1.4: PROBATIONARY PERIODS FOR FULLY QUALIFIED TEACHERS ENTERING THE PROFESSION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Public servants (length of probationary period in years)

	B	D	EL	E	F	L	NL	A	P	FIN	IS	LI	BG	CY	LT	HU	MT	SI
Minimum	3	2			(–)	(–)		(:)	(–)		(–)		(:)	(:)				
Maximum		4								0.5					0.25	0.25		
Fixed			2	1								2					1	0.25

Teachers employed under general employment legislation (length of probationary period in years)

									UK								
	B	DK	D	IRL	I	NL	A	S	E/W/NI	SC	NO	CZ	EE	LV	PL	RO	SK
Minimum	3						(:)		(–)	(–)						(:)	
Maximum		0.25									0.5	0.25	0.33				1
Fixed			0.5	1	1			1						0.25	1		

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: The probationary period is not centrally determined, but is part of the (many) decentralised collective agreements.
Portugal: The *Estatuto da Carreira Docente* of April 1990 made provision for a probationary year, which has however never been implemented.

Explanatory note

Probationary periods do not include final 'on-the-job' qualifying phases as these are considered to be part of professional teacher training.

4. FIXED-TERM CONTRACTS

This section will look at the offer of fixed-term teaching contracts in Europe, both in terms of the types of contracts that are available and the degree of job security related to these contracts. Report II of this study contains a detailed description of fixed-term contracts in the context of replacing teachers on leave of absence ([9]). It is clear from the present analysis that replacement of absent teachers is the main reason for such contracts. A secondary reason for resorting to fixed-term contracts is to employ teachers who are not fully qualified for the teaching they are asked to undertake. This is also discussed in the context of emergency measures in times of teacher shortage ([10]).

Fixed-term appointments in the civil service are very rare although teachers are inevitably required to cover short-term needs throughout Europe. It therefore follows that countries offering career civil servant status to permanent teachers will make provision for some type of (quasi) contractual status for short-term teachers. In France, replacement needs are partly satisfied through the use of civil servant teachers specially appointed for this purpose. In other countries, replacement teachers tend to be those teachers who have not yet been successful in gaining career civil servant status (for example, the Spanish *interinos*). In Luxembourg, a number of *chargés de cours* were given permanent status following a court case in 1997.

Very few countries do not impose any limitations other than those required by general employment legislation when offering fixed-term contracts to teachers. This is the case in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, although in this latter country, regulations which came into force in October 2002 *(Fixed-term Employees (Prevention of Less Favourable Treatment) Regulations 2002)* provide, with certain exceptions, that where an employee on a fixed-term contract who has been continuously employed for four years or more is re-engaged on a fixed-term contract without a break in continuity, the new contract has effect under the law as a permanent contract.

No restrictions apply to the repetition of fixed-term contracts for teachers in Belgium, Luxembourg, or Lithuania. In Finland, a fixed-term contract may be repeated only if it is for the substitution of another teacher, or another legitimate reason – such a reason is very commonly the uncertainty of the number of lessons

([9]) As set out in The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Section 2.1, Chapter 4 of Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe,* volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

([10]) For further information, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 5 of Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe,* volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

available especially in optional subjects. Finnish employees are entitled to 6 – 24 months pay in compensation if the employer does not have a legitimate reason for ending a fixed-term contract. In other countries, the repetition of a fixed-term contract (that is, for similar teaching duties) is either forbidden or is only possible for a stipulated period before the employer is obliged to offer a permanent contract. This is the case in Denmark (after two years of continuous employment, a teacher must be offered a permanent position), in Germany (no more than three consecutive fixed-term contracts are allowed), Austria (where after six years teachers are to be granted a permanent contract), the Czech Republic (the repetition of fixed-term contracts for fully qualified teachers is not allowed without good reason), Hungary (the contract must become permanent after a period of five years), and Slovakia (fixed-term contracts are concluded for a maximum of three years after which they must become permanent). In Slovenia, a fixed-term contract may be renewed only once, after which it must become permanent.

Some countries can offer very short-term contracts to their teachers. In Denmark, teachers may be paid by the hour. Hourly-paid contracts are available for temporary employment of less than 3 months' duration. Teachers are paid for a minimum of 3 lessons for each school day on which they have been asked to come. These contracts can be terminated on a day-to-day basis. Swedish teachers may also be paid by the hour, and no restrictions apply concerning the duration of such contracts. In Greece, teachers may be paid on an hourly basis, subject to a weekly maximum teaching load of 11 hours. In Finland, if the contract is for five school days or less, the teacher is also paid by the hour and the service is not taken into account for the purpose of calculating increments. The Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia also do not impose any minimum duration on fixed-term contracts.

In the Czech Republic, there is also an alternative type of employment relationship that may be offered to teachers on a short-term basis. This is known as an agreement on working outside an employment relationship. This is a specific form of fixed-term contract used mainly for short-term teaching on specific courses, for example. It can be terminated without any reason being given and on very short notice (15 days).

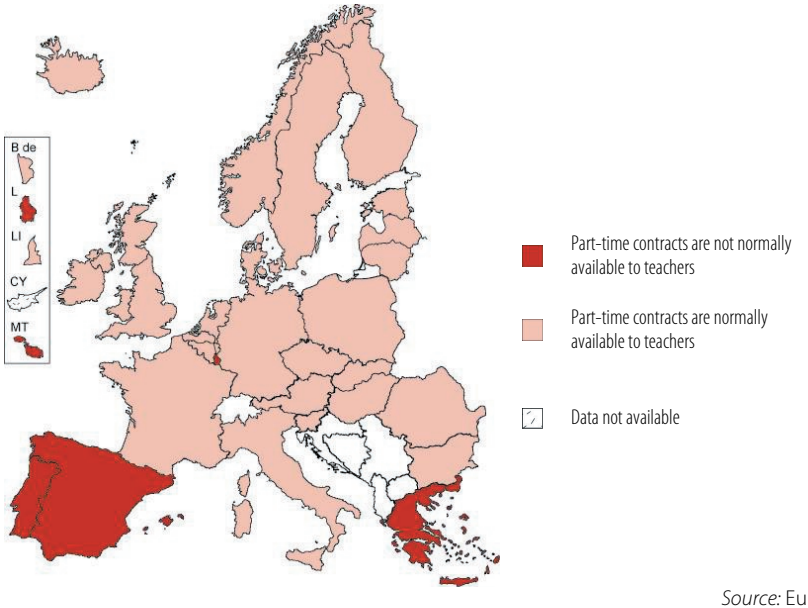
Although it is obvious that teachers employed on a fixed-term basis do not enjoy the same degree of job security as teachers employed on a permanent basis, the survey shows that they tend to enjoy the same or very similar working conditions. Indeed, in Austria, the new Teacher Service Code for *Hauptschule* teachers provides for temporary teachers to be paid slightly more than civil service teachers as an additional compensation for this type of employment.

5. PART-TIME CONTRACTS

Figure 1.5 shows that part-time contracts are widely available in Europe. Very few countries do not allow part-time teaching other than in exceptional circumstances and these are all countries where teachers are career civil servants and the notion of part-time activity is perceived as contrary to the ethos of the civil service. In other countries, part-time teaching is actively encouraged. This is the case in Austria, for example, where an increase in part-time teaching jobs is officially sanctioned through measures to cope with teacher surpluses. In the Czech Republic, the number of part-time contracts with fully qualified teachers has also increased, but for a rather different reason. Following the reform of teachers' working conditions in 1996 (most notably, an increase in teachers' working hours), many employers in the education sector have preferred to employ teachers on part-time contracts rather than to dismiss them altogether.

A distinctive feature of some candidate countries is that teachers tend to hold more than one teaching contract in order to make ends meet. In Slovakia, for example, teachers often hold several part-time contracts at the same time, particularly when they have attractive qualifications such as foreign languages. In Estonia, the trend towards multiple teaching jobs has recently led to legislation prohibiting teachers from holding two teaching contracts simultaneously after 1 September 2003. Czech teachers may be employed in second jobs for up to half the legal working week (with a maximum of 100 working hours in a year) in a so-called agreement on working outside an employment relationship (see above, section 4). Once the workload limit is reached, employers are obliged to offer a standard employment contract.

FIGURE 1.5: AVAILABILITY OF PART-TIME CONTRACTS IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION, GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: Part-time employment is possible but must not comprise less than half the teaching time of a fully employed teacher. Teachers approaching retirement age may also apply for *Altersteilzeit* (part-time work for older teachers).
Greece: Part-time contracts are only available to teachers who are paid on an hourly basis.
Spain: Part-time appointments are not normally available to career civil servant teachers (in the sense of the civil administration of the state). Nevertheless, under certain circumstances, teachers may submit an application for a temporary reduction of their work schedule to the corresponding body. It is also possible to appoint interim teachers on a part-time basis.
France: Part-time work is open to all career civil servants provided it is compatible with the 'interests of the service'.
Italy: Part-time appointments can formally be defined by the school administration, although this has not yet happened in practice.
Luxembourg: Civil servant teaching appointments are always full-time. Teachers employed on a contractual basis may, however, work part-time.
Portugal: Civil servant teaching appointments are always full-time. Teachers employed on a contractual basis may, however, be obliged to work part-time in order to gain access to the career. They do this by putting themselves forward as candidates in the annual *concurso* for reduced working hours. Their remuneration is proportional to their teaching load.
Finland: Teachers can seek partial leave of absence for a maximum period of 12 months on the condition that an unemployed person is hired to substitute them or partial retirement at the age of 58. In both cases, their pay corresponds to their workload and the state compensates approximately half of the lost income.
Malta: Part-time contracts are only available to teachers who are paid on an hourly basis (supply teachers). It is possible that these teachers complete a school year on a full timetable load, in which event they are subsequently placed on an annual salary.
Romania: Part-time employment is possible on condition that it comprises half the teaching time of a fully employed teacher, and must be for sound reasons subject to the approval of the County School Inspectorate.

6. CHANGE OF PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT

The purpose of this section is to show the extent to which teachers can be transferred between schools within their education system. This may occur either as a result of the employer's needs or at the teacher's request. Transfer may therefore be experienced voluntarily or involuntarily by the teacher. It can be argued, particularly in circumstances where a teacher's existing position is under threat as a result of changes in educational demand, that another way of safeguarding job security is to exchange the teacher's position for similar employment in another school. However, when teachers are compelled to transfer to another school against their will, this may also be perceived as undermining their connection with their professional environment and thus their sense of job security. In the light of this distinction, the circumstances in which teachers may be required to transfer to another school, the way in which such transfers are organised as well as the limits to this obligation, will be discussed separately in a first section, before going on to address transfers requested by teachers themselves.

In some countries, transfers between schools do not normally occur. These are countries where the teacher is employed directly by the school and recruitment is organised on a decentralised, school-by-school basis. The United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Estonia and Lithuania form part of this group.

6.1. Mandatory transfers

Mandatory transfer is possible when it is required by the needs of the service. This type of transfer takes place within the scope of competence of the teacher's employer. Thus, depending on the employing authority, teachers may be transferred to schools at local, regional or national level.

Transfer at local level is usually possible where the employer is the local education authority (see Figure 1.3). In this type of system, teaching resources are managed at local level and teachers are therefore not bound to a particular school. Thus, whether teachers are public servants (Finland and Iceland) or employed on a contractual basis (Denmark, Sweden, United Kingdom, Norway, and the Czech Republic), they may be required to work in several schools or move between schools in response to changing needs (for example, fluctuating pupil numbers). In the Netherlands, teachers are recruited to the competent school authority *(Bestuursaanstelling)*, which will usually be responsible for a number of schools. In Iceland, teachers may only be moved between schools with their consent. It

should also be noted that since 1 January 2003, all Czech schools are required to become legal entities and local school authorities are therefore no longer able to move teachers between schools in this country.

In France, teachers may sometimes be asked to work in several schools at a local level if they cannot be given a full-time post in one school – this may be the case, for example, where there is little demand for their subject.

Transfer at regional level is also reported in several countries (this includes those countries where competence for education policy is devolved to regional level and where teachers are appointed at this level to the civil service. This means the three Belgian Communities, the German and Austrian *Länder* and the Spanish Autonomous Communities). Transfer at this level will usually be related to structural reasons. In Germany, the nature of the career civil servant relationship is such that teachers are obliged to accept such transfers irrespective of their wishes. This obligation has however been somewhat softened in recent years to the extent that the education authority is obliged to consider significant personal circumstances which may make a transfer unreasonable.

In Romania, although the school is responsible for signing the contract with the teacher and for establishing the teachers' duties, it is the County School Inspectorate that has responsibility for finding another job for the teacher when this is necessary for structural reasons (the school is unable to offer enough classes to the teacher). Teachers designated for mandatory transfer may choose between vacant positions available at county level. If there is more than one applicant for a particular position, than a so-called 'dossier competition' takes place on the basis of nationally established criteria (i.e., experience, professional qualifications, etc.).

This type of transfer is particularly characteristic of the system of appointment to the civil service. In Spain, career civil servant teachers beginning their career with a provisional posting are obliged to participate in a competitive process for transfer *(convocatoria de concurso de traslados)* in order to obtain a permanent appointment. In France, compulsory transfer is only possible for structural reasons or as a sanction for misconduct. In Portugal, teachers who have a so-called 'timetable zero' (that is, there is no demand for their subject) are also obliged to change schools and this decision takes place at central level.

Transfer is also possible at national level in Malta. In Poland, transfer without the teacher's consent is possible at national level in exceptional circumstances, and teachers receive financial compensation and a reduced workload in such cases.

Mandatory transfer is also used as a disciplinary measure, or when it is apparent that a teacher cannot continue working alongside other members of staff. This is the case in Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Germany, France, Italy, Norway and Malta.

6.2. Voluntary transfers

A system of voluntary transfer is characteristic of countries with a centralised appointment system for teachers ([11]). In those countries where competitive examinations regulate entrance to the profession, teachers' appointments are allocated on the basis of their examination ranking. Their first appointment is therefore not always located in the area in which they wish to pursue their teaching career. Thus, in France, for example, a complex process of transferring teachers took place every year on a national basis until 1999. The process is now operated largely at a regional level. Teachers' requests are matched up with corresponding vacancies and files of applicants are examined by a joint committee in order to finalise the table of transfers. In Spain, all of the Autonomous Communities must coordinate a competitive process every two years and career civil servant teachers may participate in this competitive process nationwide, irrespective of the Autonomous Community under which they are serving (provided that they have the necessary qualifications). During those school years in which there are no nationwide public calls, the Autonomous Communities may organise their own procedures to fill vacancies. In Portugal, transfer is also organised through competitive examination whereas in Luxembourg, requests for transfer are made in response to an annual circular established on the basis of vacant posts.

In Germany, a teacher wishing to transfer to a school within the same *Land* must make a written application to the local education authority *(Schulamt)* motivated by private or professional reasons. If a teacher wishes to transfer to a school in another *Land*, the process becomes more complex. The consent of both ministries is required although, following an agreement of the Standing Conference of Education Ministers on 10 May 2001 exchanges need no longer be reciprocal and teachers already employed in the service of one *Land* may apply for teaching posts in another *Land*. The main considerations in selecting applicants are demand (relating to specific subjects and regional needs), aptitude, personal hardship and time on the waiting list.

([11]) For further information, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 3 of Report II: Supply and demand. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

In other countries, there are few restrictions placed on teachers wishing to submit an application for transfer to another school within the scope of the employing authority.

7. DEFENDING TEACHERS' EMPLOYMENT RIGHTS

The contextual material prepared for the study highlights the importance of the role played by teacher unions in Europe, whether through their statutory role in negotiating teachers' working conditions, their defence of teachers' employment rights particularly in cases where dismissal or disciplinary measures are contested and finally, the part that they play in proposing or participating in reforms of the profession.

In many countries, general agreements between teacher unions and employers set the framework for teachers' working conditions at central level and this may be further refined by local agreements. Teachers' working conditions in Sweden are, for example, determined in this way. In Italy, recent reforms introduced specific trade union relations for the definition of decentralised contracts in addition to the employment contract negotiated at national level every four years. When these national contracts are being defined, any law that the trade union feels to be inappropriate or not in harmony with contractual options will be suspended.

All countries report that teacher unions are active in defending teachers' employment rights, whether they are public servants or hold contracts of employment in a private employment law relationship. Although many countries report high rates of unionisation, precise data has been difficult to obtain. The exception is in the Nordic countries, where 95 % of teachers in Denmark and Finland and close to 100 % of Norwegian teachers belong to teacher unions.

Teacher unions have also been involved in recent reforms of the profession. This is the case in Austria, for example, as well as in Poland. Finally, the contribution of teacher unions has been to highlight key issues with respect to teachers' working conditions. In Portugal, for example, the absence of protection for career civil servant teachers against unemployment is an issue for concern. Following a proposal put forward by the teachers' union, a measure entitling teachers without a place after having completed a certain number of years of teaching to unemployment benefit was adopted in April 2000.

8. JOB SECURITY

In a context of rapidly changing employment markets, the high degree of job security enjoyed by teachers is often cited as a significantly attractive feature of the profession. Job security implies that teachers can expect to retain their appointment until retirement age (and that their conditions of employment will remain generally stable and predictable). This section investigates the extent to which the first part of this assertion holds true: in which circumstances can teachers have their appointment suspended or terminated?

The most significant distinction here is between teachers in a career-based civil service system and other teachers. In career-based systems, the grounds for dismissal are restricted (based either on misconduct or in some cases, other breaches of civil service regulations). However, in these countries, it is also possible to have an appointment terminated when a change in the teacher's circumstances are deemed incompatible with the civil service (change of nationality is one example). The way in which teaching posts may be relinquished is not particularly subject to regulation in either case.

It is apparent that the exceptionally high degree of job security enjoyed by teachers in career-based civil service systems may also be an issue of concern in these systems. Both in Germany and in Spain, the need to introduce remedial measures for teachers who are no longer competent for classroom teaching has been highlighted and in this respect, the inflexibility of the career structure may be perceived as problematic.

It is also worth noting that in a few countries no particular arrangements are made for the teaching profession and the rules concerning termination of employment and periods of notice apply to all workers subject to general employment legislation. This is the case in countries where teachers are employed under the terms of general legislation and there is no tradition of collective agreements organised along sectoral lines.

8.1. Termination

Grounds for dismissal fall into three groups. The first of these are circumstances in which the teacher is found to be at fault. This represents by far the most important group. However, it is interesting to note that what constitutes 'fault' justifying suspension (in some cases) or dismissal is construed more or less restrictively in different countries.

The second cluster of reasons for which a teaching post may be terminated is also significant. These are reasons having to do with restructuring the demand for teaching. Many countries make provision for this type of redundancy, which is of course entirely independent of the teacher's performance (although some countries apply criteria relating to seniority, for example).

The third and final group relates to termination for medical reasons.

A further distinction that can be observed is between those countries providing a very detailed categorisation of the grounds on which teachers may be dismissed and those adopting a broader, more generic approach. In this latter group, the precise circumstances giving rise to dismissal are a matter for the court, tribunal or other disciplinary board to decide. In Sweden, for example, the legislation states that notice of termination by the employer must be based on 'objective grounds', but there is no definition of what 'objective grounds' are, beyond case law laid down by the courts. It is also stated that objective grounds for notice of termination do not exist where it is reasonable to require the employer to provide other work for the employee. Similarly, in Denmark termination of employment must be reasonably justified in the employee's or the institution's conditions.

8.1.1. Termination when the teacher is found to be at fault

Activities of a **criminal** nature are frequently cited in this context: these range from acts of corruption (Estonia), theft (Latvia), supplying false information (the Netherlands) and misuse of narcotic or toxic substances (Latvia). A criminal conviction is explicitly stated to be grounds for dismissal for teachers with career civil servant (or assimilated) status in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Austria and Malta. The same is true in Germany, where a career civil servant teacher can only be dismissed under extraordinary circumstances such as a criminal conviction. Italy should also be added to this list (Italian teachers were of course career civil servants until relatively recently). Imprisonment is also grounds for dismissal in the Netherlands.

Very few countries explicitly specify that immoral or indecent acts are grounds for dismissal (the exceptions are Sweden (where the act is committed in connection

with the workplace), Iceland, Estonia, Latvia and Malta). The tendency is to cite negligence or gross misconduct or violations of working responsibility in more general terms.

With respect to a teacher's professional ability, most countries give **incompetence** as cause for terminating the teacher's appointment. Thus, inadequate work is cited in Italy, inaptitude to a serious degree in the Netherlands, lack of capability in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), lack of knowledge or diligence in Iceland and inadequate competence in Latvia. In France, professional incompetence may be grounds for dismissal although this is rare and such cases are usually dealt with by transfer to non-teaching functions or to another public administration.

It is not always clear how incompetence is measured or reported, however. It appears that it is rare to lose a teaching appointment as a result of a formal negative evaluation of teaching performance. This is possible in Belgium and in Austria, where teachers will be dismissed if two consecutive assessments give evidence of an unsatisfactory working performance. In Poland, a negative assessment of the teacher's work is also grounds for dismissal.

Few countries cite termination on the grounds of **insufficient professional qualifications**, in keeping with the supposition that permanent employment is offered to teachers who are fully qualified. However, most countries provide for probation periods for teachers (see section 2 above). In Italy, failure to complete this period is grounds for dismissal. In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities) and in Estonia, unsatisfactory results of the probation period will also lead to dismissal.

Unjustified absence for a continuous period is also grounds for dismissal in Italy (more than 15 days) and in Belgium and Malta (more than 10 days).

In France and Luxembourg, a teacher's appointment can be terminated without notice in circumstances where it is immediately and definitively impossible to maintain working relations *(révocation pour faute grave)*.

In Spain and in Portugal, teachers may be penalised for **breaches of the civil service code** (although outright severance from public service is very rare). Such breaches in Spain include dishonouring the constitution, breaching official secrets, participating in strikes for those for whom there is a legal prohibition, breaching the duty of providing basic public services in the case of strike action and hindering freedom of speech.

Disciplinary procedures share similar characteristics in the countries surveyed. The teacher is given a written warning setting out the grounds for the complaint together with an opportunity to state his or her case. This is often done in conjunction with the appropriate teacher's organisation. If the decision to terminate employment is confirmed, then the opportunity should be given to appeal against this decision.

8.1.2. Termination for structural reasons

Just under half of the countries surveyed make provision for terminating a teacher's employment for structural reasons. Six of these countries (the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia) have public servant status for teachers. The other countries making this type of provision offer general employment law contracts to their teachers, namely the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the Czech Republic, Latvia, and Poland. It is also noteworthy that most of these countries are also candidate countries where the transition towards market economies implies considerable restructuring of their public sectors.

Finland and Sweden make the most far-reaching provision for termination as a result of structural changes. In these countries, teachers may lose their post if their workload or duties have decreased dramatically, if there are long-term or permanent economic reasons, or as a result of restructuring. An appointment may only be terminated, however, if the employee cannot be transferred to another post with similar duties or retrained. This proviso is also generally encountered in other countries where teachers have public servant status. In Iceland, a teacher continues to be paid the basic salary for a period of up to a year, provided another post is not found for the teacher. Furthermore, if the same teaching position is re-established within a five-year period, the teacher is entitled to occupy it. In Hungary, a public employee may be dismissed in the event of re-organisation due to changing tasks or a decrease in budgetary funds, but only if there is no other job fitting the employee's qualifications. In Lithuania, the employee may be offered another job in the event of restructuring and dismissed if he or she does not accept that job. In Slovenia, the school head and the ministry of education are obliged to attempt to find another post for a teacher who has been made redundant.

Of the countries where teachers have contractual status, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the Czech Republic, Latvia and Poland include a safeguard for teachers in the event of restructuring. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), teachers are normally eligible for

redundancy pay in the event of school closures, while in the Czech Republic, teachers are paid in full for the period of notice of three months regardless of whether the employer is able to provide alternative employment. In Poland, the employer is also obliged to pay compensation to the teacher in the event of school closure of between one and six months' salary.

In countries where teaching is part of a career civil service system lifetime tenure means that a teacher is guaranteed an appointment until retirement age and termination for structural reasons is unknown. Teachers working in this type of system will more usually experience compulsory transfer to another school or area in the event of structural changes. In Belgium, it is the teachers' salary rather than the appointment that is guaranteed. Teachers who no longer have any teaching hours remain paid for 2 years at their full salary and for the next two years at 80 % of that amount and so on (without ever dipping below the level of the retirement pension). In the French Community, this is known as a *mise en disponibilité par défaut d'emploi* (availability through lack of employment). Teachers in this situation are obliged to accept a teaching post on condition that it is less than 25 kilometres from their home and that the journey time to the school by public transport is less than 4 hours a day.

All the other countries that do not make explicit provision for this type of redundancy (that is, Italy, United Kingdom (Scotland), Norway and Estonia) offer contractual status to teachers.

8.1.3. Termination for medical reasons

Finally, inability to work on medical grounds is another commonly encountered reason for a teacher to be relieved of his or her teaching post. This is also often associated with eligibility for invalidity benefit according to the social security arrangements in each country.

In Latvia and Lithuania, continuous sick leave of more than four months may lead to termination of employment, whereas in the United Kingdom (Scotland), Liechtenstein and Poland this period is considerably longer (two years in the case of Liechtenstein and one year in Scotland, Poland and Slovakia). In a large number of other countries (Belgium, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, Iceland, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Malta) incapacity or invalidity is also cited as grounds for early retirement on invalidity benefit. In Portugal, early retirement on medical grounds is usually preceded by up to 2 years of reduced teaching activity, in conjunction with other duties compatible with the teachers'

state of health in order to make up the teacher's statutory working hours. The teacher's situation is re-evaluated at six-monthly intervals.

A distinction must also be made between long-term sick leave and temporary illness. A number of countries protect their teachers from dismissal whilst they are temporarily absent due to illness. This is the case in Belgium, the Netherlands and the Czech Republic, for example. In Belgium, Spain, Finland and Sweden, grounds for dismissal cannot be illness, disease or disability unless it considerably weakens the employee's ability to work.

8.2. Resignation

In most countries, teachers do not need to give reasons for resigning their teaching post. The only stipulation is that they observe the proper periods of notice.

Some countries, however, place more controls over when and why teachers may leave their posts. In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), teachers who have been given tenure may not resign without permission. In Spain, career civil servant teachers may resign but only subject to the Ministry of Education accepting the resignation and publishing a resolution to that effect in the Spanish Official Gazette. In Estonia the teacher is required to provide written proof of the reason for termination to the employer

Restrictions on when a teacher may resign are also very exceptional. In France, the teacher's resignation has to be accepted by the *recteur*, who then sets the date of termination of employment (the teacher may not leave before this date). Teachers who have pledged to remain in service for a given period because they were paid whilst studying towards the recruitment examination or because they have been granted a sabbatical must repay the state the corresponding expenditure if they leave during this period. Iceland restricts resignation in circumstances when the number of teachers wishing to resign threatens the normal functioning of the profession. In this event, the local authority may stipulate a longer period of notice of up to six months. However, the survey shows that in some countries the standard notice periods to be served by the teacher are in fact intended to restrict the times at which teachers may leave their post. This is the case in Germany, for example, where termination must coincide with the end of the school year or end of the first half of the school year. A similar situation is observed in Poland (termination of the contract must coincide with the end of the school year).

Teachers may resign without observing the usual notice periods in some circumstances. In Finland, for example, the contract can be terminated for a number of reasons including failure to pay the salary as agreed, endangering security in the workplace or not making enough work available to the employee. In Hungary, termination by extraordinary notice is possible if the employer seriously, willingly or by gross negligence violates a material liability under the labour contract or otherwise behaves in a way that makes it impossible to stay in employment.

8.3. Periods of notice

8.3.1. Periods of notice given by employers

Although termination of employment is usually subject to a period of notice (except in case of summary dismissal on grounds of fault), these periods of notice may vary according to the reasons for termination, the length of time that the teacher has been in service, and the type of contract or appointment at issue. Nonetheless, considerable differentiation is apparent in Europe, from a minimum period of 15 days in Romania to a minimum period of six months in Sweden.

It is in the candidate countries that different periods of notice are sometimes applicable according to the reasons for termination. These periods tend to be longer where dismissal is due to restructuring. In the Czech Republic, for example, three months' notice is required where dismissal is the result of school closure or organisational changes (the usual period of notice is two months). In Estonia, the period of notice varies from one month (when the grounds are unsuitability due to professional skills or ill health), and two months where dismissal is due to school closure. However, teachers who have been employed for over five years will in this case see their period of notice reduced (they are normally entitled to three or four months' notice). In some countries, salary continues to be due in lieu of notice in such circumstances (see above, section 8.1.2).

Extending the period of notice in accordance with seniority is very widespread, particularly in the EU member states. The usual practice is to set a minimum period of notice for termination of employment, depending on length of service. This minimum period is then extended at given intervals, usually by a month, until a maximum of around 15 years of service is reached. To illustrate this, the notice period for Danish teachers is extended by one month for every three years served with the maximum notice period being six months. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), the notice period is calculated in terms of weeks, so that teachers with less than 4 years are given 4 weeks' notice, with one week for each year served

thereafter up to a maximum of 12 weeks. In England and Wales, the normal period of notice is a minimum of two months, and three months in the summer term, terminating at the end of a school term. Teachers who have been continuously employed for more than eight years are entitled to receive additional notice.

It is interesting to note that, throughout Europe, the period of notice required from the employer is the same irrespective of whether the teacher holds a permanent or a fixed-term contract.

By contrast, the situation for teachers on permanent contracts may differ from those appointed to the civil service in countries where both types of status exist. This is the case in Germany, where notice periods for teachers on contracts depend on the length of service and in Austria, where notice of dismissal for teachers with contracts is also proportionate to the duration of that contract. In both these countries, career civil servant teachers may only be dismissed on grounds of fault where notice periods are not applicable (disciplinary procedures are described in section 8.1.1). This is also the case for teachers with tenure in Belgium, although temporary teachers may either be dismissed immediately (on grounds of fault) or given 15 days notice.

8.3.2. Periods of notice given by teachers

With respect to periods of notice required from teachers before leaving their post, these are often the same as those required from employers. This is the case in Denmark, Italy, Austria, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Norway, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia, Poland and Romania. In other countries, however, teachers give shorter notice than that required from employers. This is the case in Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Estonia and Lithuania. In Belgium, teachers with tenure must give at least 15 days notice, whilst temporary teachers are required to give 8 days notice (in the French and German-speaking Communities) or 7 days notice (in the Flemish Community).

To conclude, it appears that employment status is not consistently a decisive factor when assessing the level of job security enjoyed by teachers. The main difference appears in relation to job loss as a result of restructuring the demand for teachers. Less than half of the countries surveyed terminate the teacher's employment in this case. Career civil servants are always protected from this type of redundancy, and both in these education systems as well as in some others, the more usual practice is to transfer teachers, where possible, to an alternative position. Where job loss is inevitable, this is often accompanied by compensatory measures. Teachers employed in private law employment relationship appear to

have fewer safeguards in this respect, and are less often given an alternative position (teachers in this model of employment are often employed directly by the school, and in such cases transfer is not an option).

With respect to dismissal for grounds of fault, some difference may also be seen between the two models of employment, inasmuch as dismissal on grounds of incapacity or incompetence is less current in countries offering career civil servant status to teachers. Again, transfer to non-teaching functions is a common solution in these countries. Disciplinary procedures for teachers are similar throughout Europe and periods of notice required from employers (irrespective of the grounds for dismissal) tend to be similar regardless of the type of contract held by the teacher.

CHAPTER 2
WORKING TIME, DUTIES AND PROFESSIONAL CODES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the extent to which teachers' professional practice is formally regulated. It is divided into three sections. The first two sections cover working time and tasks required, paying special attention to teamwork. The third looks at the requirements expected of the profession in terms of competency and ethics.

Only working time, formally prescribed tasks and codes of professional practice defined in teachers' contracts of employment, job descriptions or other official documents are taken into consideration. All the information refers to situations in which teachers are working on a full-time basis. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are beginning their career are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions ([1]).

1. DEFINITIONS OF WORKING TIME

1.1. Teaching hours, hours spent at school, total working time

The definition of teachers' working time refers either to the **number of teaching hours** (with sometimes a few additional hours assigned to specific tasks to be carried out at school) or to a **number of hours available** for duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In addition to these timetabled hours there is also a generally undefined amount of working time spent on preparation and marking activities which may be done outside the school. The total volume of work is expressed as an **overall number of working hours** which, when it is officially determined, is indicative rather than formally required. There is no check on work done outside teaching hours and/or hours available for duties at school. Individual teachers manage this part of their work entirely as they wish.

Traditionally, in Europe, teachers' working time was set in terms of the number of teaching hours. This corresponded to the profile of the teacher's work, which was divided into two main activities, namely lessons on the one hand and preparation of lessons and marking on the other. In a very large number of countries this definition of working time has given way to another, wider definition which includes other types of work.

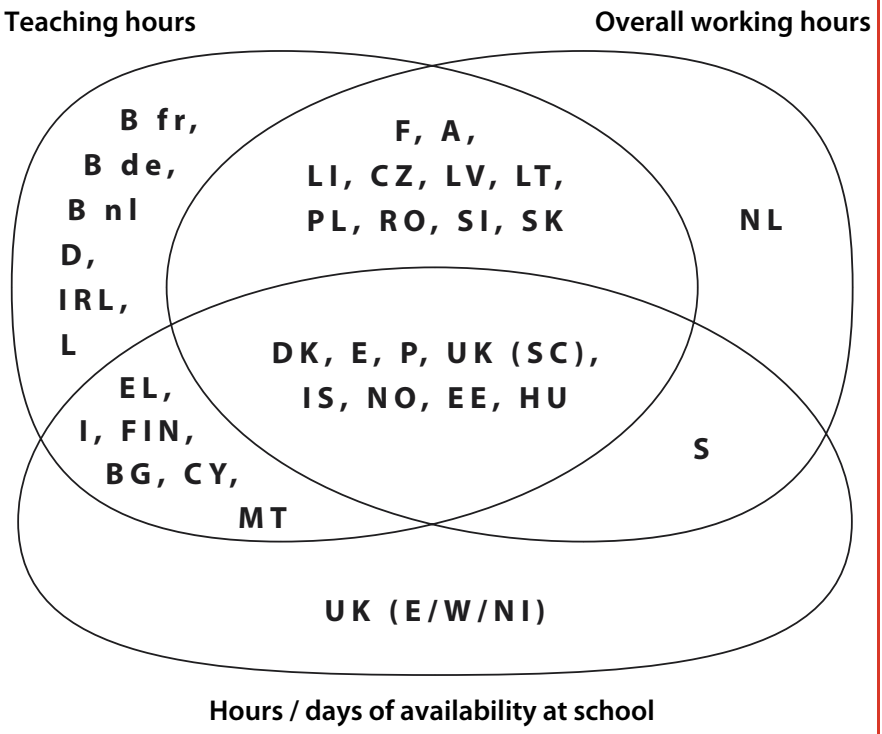
([1]) For further information, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Chapter 5 and 6 of Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

There are currently only four European countries, namely Belgium, Germany, Ireland and Luxembourg which still contractually define teachers' working time in lower secondary education in terms of the number of teaching hours (Figure 2.1). However in Germany, debate is under way and task forces are at work (as in the *Land* of Hamburg) to devise alternatives. Ten countries apply an overall number of working hours to cover all services performed by teachers, over and above the specified number of teaching hours.

In 14 countries the definition of working time has changed, with a precise number of hours or days to be worked at school on other specific activities such as teamwork, management activities etc. in addition to the number of teaching hours. The majority of these countries also provide an indication of overall working time.

Finally, there are three countries, namely the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), which define working time in a totally different way without specifying the number of teaching hours that may be required. In the Netherlands, only the overall annual working time (including all activities) is specified in the legislation. In Sweden, the overall annual working time is fixed at 1 767 hours (at least 1 360 of which have to be spent at school). However, it is worth noting that in some Swedish schools earlier calculations for determining the number of teaching lessons are still used within the new framework of working time. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) solely a number of hours (1 265 hours of so-called 'directed time') is specified. During this time teachers have to be available to perform duties at school or in another place specified by the headteacher.

FIGURE 2.1: STATUTORY DEFINITIONS OF THE WORKLOAD OF TEACHERS: MAIN STANDARD PATTERNS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Luxembourg: Only for public servants and *chargés de cours*; a fixed number of available hours outside working time is determined for *chargés d'éducation*.
Austria: Only teachers employed by the *Länder* who work in the *Hauptschulen* are taken into account in this chapter. The indication is derived from the new Teacher Service Code.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The conditions of service for teachers in England and Wales currently state that, in addition to 1 265 hours of 'directed time' spread over 195 days in a school year, teachers shall work such additional hours as may be needed to enable them to effectively carry out their professional duties, including in particular the marking of pupils' work, writing reports on pupils and the preparation of lessons, teaching material and teaching programmes.

Explanatory note

The standard situation is defined as the situation in which the teacher works full time and has no other tasks such as management tasks. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not considered if they are subject to special conditions.

A number of countries have not made any changes in the definition of teachers' working time or only minor changes in the number of teaching hours since 1975. Others, however, have moved from a definition of teaching hours in the strict sense to a broader definition of working time ([2]). There are various challenges associated with this change.

In some cases it involves bringing about **a recognition by society of the extent of the workload of teachers**, which is particularly important because in many countries (such as Austria, Portugal, Finland, Iceland and the Czech Republic) they are perceived as working less than other employees. A common but mistaken public view is that they work part time with long holidays.

The definition of overall working time is an attempt to correct this view. The aim is to choose a total number of hours that corresponds to the working time of other people working in the public sector. Depending on the country, this time is defined as either a weekly or an annual total (Figure 2.2). When a weekly definition is used, it simply follows the number of working hours that applies to other workers (usually 40 hours). The experience of Estonia reveals the importance of this comparison with the working time of other workers. In 1994 a new concept of working time was introduced. The standard for general working time was fixed at 40 hours a week and teachers' working time was 32 hours a week with 20 to 24 teaching hours. This concept of overall working time was not welcomed by teachers who emphasised that teaching time, preparation of lessons and time spent on other activities associated with teaching was well over the 32 hours. In 2001, the Government issued a regulation fixing overall working time for all teachers at 35 hours a week with 18-24 teaching hours at lower secondary level.

Nevertheless, the many weeks of school holidays during which teaching activity stops completely make it difficult to align the working time of teachers with that of other workers. Defining overall working time on an annual basis may provide a more accurate reflection of the long holidays, given that teachers work less during them but more during the school year. Sweden and Iceland are probably the countries closest to this kind of definition. In Sweden, the overall working time is 1 767 hours (45 hours a week) but the basis used for calculation is in fact 40 hours a week. Teachers are off work during school holidays, part of which correspond to

([2]) The countries which have not reformed their definition of working time are Germany, Greece, France, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland and Romania. The workload of teachers was increased to meet budget restrictions in Belgium (1984) and the Czech Republic (1992, followed by a further increase in 1997 and a decrease in 1999). The workload fell in Luxembourg with the transition to a 42-hour week (but remained unchanged with the transition to a 40-hour week). In Slovenia, average teaching time decreased after 1991 when the system of financing schools was changed.

the ordinary 'working holiday' while the other part is regarded as extra time off as compensation for the additional time worked during the school year. In Iceland, there are 1 800 hours (around 46 official working hours a week) during the school year. Since 2001, contracts have defined more clearly than previously both the weekly and annual school timetable. This has enhanced the social status of the teaching profession and their responsibilities have become more clearly understood by the general public. These changes have gone hand-in-hand with changes in training and salary increases.

FIGURE 2.2: STATUTORY DEFINITIONS OF THE WORKLOAD OF TEACHERS: SPECIFIC STANDARD REFERENCES FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC
A	●	●	●	(●)	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●			●
B				●●			●	●				●	●	●		●		●
C				●		●	●							●		●	●❍	●
D										●					●❍			
E				●									●					

	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
B	●	●	●		●	●		●	●	●		●	●	●	●
C	●					●❍					●				
D	●		●	●			❍			❍					
E	●		●						●						

A Number of teaching hours/lessons (facing a class)

B Overall working time (including time available at school and work at home)

C Number of hours/days of availability at work (in school) considering all activities taken as a whole

D Number of hours/days spent on tasks other than teaching involving availability at school

E Number of hours for personal work by teachers

● Weekly number of hours ● = Annual number of hours ❍ = Number of days per year

(●) Special cases, see the notes

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 2.2)

Denmark: Since overtime pay is awarded from upwards of 751 teaching hours (inclusive) a year, there is a tendency to consider that the maximum number of teaching hours is 750.
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: National legislation determines the number of hours to be worked at school on a weekly basis. The Autonomous Communities adapt the legislation for teaching staff and determine the daily number of hours to be worked at school.
France: In addition to their teaching activities, teachers have to spend time on pupil assessment (including marking, and staff discussion in the *conseil de classe*) and in contact with the parents of pupils, without any indication as to how much time is involved but in principle up to the limit set by statutory working time of public servants.
Luxembourg: Only the *chargés d'éducation* have to stay at school for 144 hours a year. This additional workload has not, however, been accompanied by the definition of a job description.
Austria: Only teachers employed by the *Länder* who work in the *Hauptschulen* are taken into account in this chapter.
Portugal: Activities such as the management of a class of pupils or the coordination of teaching in a particular subject, or a language club, etc., result in a reduction in the amount of teaching time. Meetings are included in the 35 hours.
Finland: Two hours of planning time are earmarked for meetings, individual or joint planning of the curriculum, etc.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Full-time teachers are required to be available for work for 1 265 hours spread over 195 days in any school year. Of the 195 days, 190 are days when they may be required to teach pupils (in addition to carrying out other duties as directed by the school head).
Czech Republic: The number of hours spent on other tasks involving availability at school is not included specifically in the regulation. However, it is based on the difference between the general weekly workload of all employees in the country (40 hours) and the number of teaching hours (in class).

Explanatory note

The standard situation is defined as that of a teacher working full time who does not carry out any other tasks such as management tasks. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions.

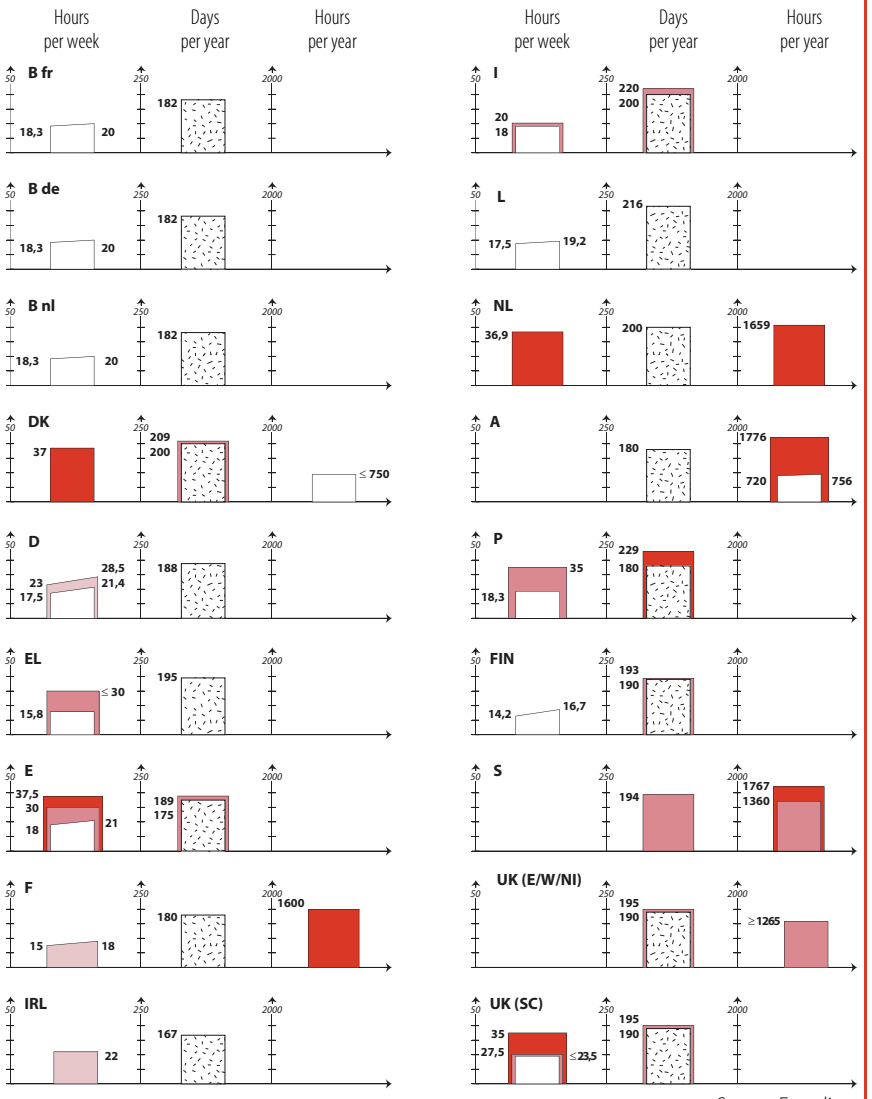
Another issue related to this definition of working time is that of **regulating the activities of teachers** outside teaching time, since it is very true that some of them spend much more time on their work than other professionals in the public service, while others limit their work to teaching hours and, in some cases, devote part of their free time to other paid activities. The latter scenario often applies in particular to countries in which teacher salaries are low. In Estonia and Latvia teachers are even allowed to hold a second teaching load in addition to their first, although this is now changing. With effect from 2002/03 in Estonia, it has become impossible for teachers to increase the number of their working hours by means of part-time jobs. Those who work more than full time are to be regarded as doing overtime and to receive additional pay within a limited framework. In other countries, such as Greece and Poland, teachers engage in remunerated activity by giving private lessons to pupils in difficulty.

In contexts such as these, the prospect of an increase in 'directed' working time (spent at school) must be accompanied by a revaluation in terms of salary. That said, the relationship between working time and pay affects all countries. If holidays are reduced and weekly hours are increased, the question of pay will arise in one form or another.

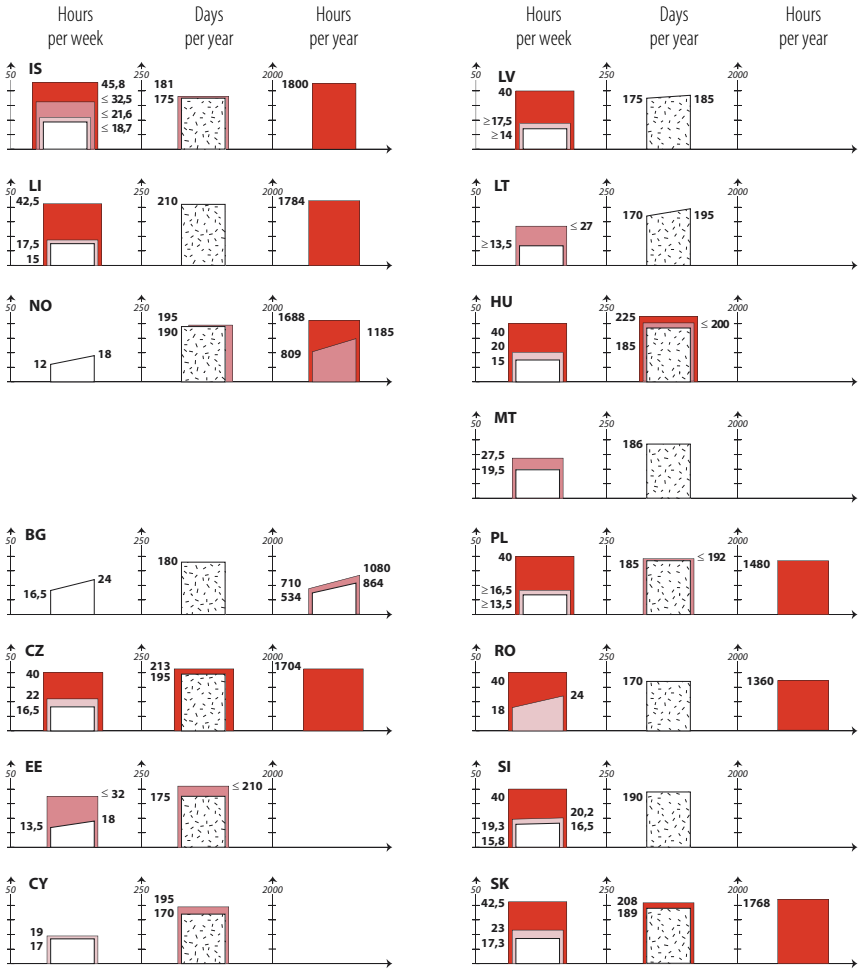
The third issue inherent in this definition of working time is that of including new tasks in the time teachers are available at school and granting schools **some autonomy in their use of human resources**. This is particularly apparent in those countries in which the definition of working time is mainly based on required hours of availability at school (for teaching or other tasks). When working time is defined as the number of hours of directed time, the number of teaching hours worked by each member of staff is no longer defined centrally but by the school head. However, only two countries, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) have adopted this approach.

Finally, a fourth issue regarding the definition of working time is **the difficulty of precisely regulating the time spent on preparation of lessons and marking**. Five countries determine the number of hours spent on personal work by teachers (preparation and marking), namely Denmark, Austria, Iceland, Norway and Lithuania. In Denmark the duration of lessons has not been fixed by regulations since 1996. A total of 375 hours a year are allocated to tasks relating to the teacher's personal working time (preparation, pupil follow-up, contact with parents outside the classroom). This is 'individual time'. The rest is covered by the expression 'school time' and is meant to be spent on teaching, breaks between lessons, joint preparation and cooperation with other teachers, teachers' council meetings and a variety of tasks related to teaching and other school activities. In Austria, the 2001/02 reform of the service code alters the way in which the working time of teachers is planned. This code stipulates an annual number of working hours (similar to those worked by other civil servants), an annual number of teaching hours, and an annual number of hours for preparation and other activities, respectively. In Iceland, teaching hours, time available at school and overall working time have been precisely defined since 2001, as has the time reserved for the preparation of lessons and marking. Besides teaching hours, an agreement in Norway establishes a given number of hours of availability at school and for individual work, respectively. Both numbers vary in accordance with the type of school and the subject taught. In Lithuania, the legislation specifies a number of hours for preparing lessons and for marking, which varies depending on the subject taught, the number of pupils in the class and the year of study.

FIGURE 2.3: STATUTORY DEFINITIONS OF THE STANDARD WORKLOAD OF TEACHERS IN HOURS PER WEEK, DAYS PER YEAR AND HOURS PER YEAR IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.



Overall working time (including the personal work time of teachers)

Time available at work for teaching and other duties

Teaching time and breaks

Teaching time

Number of school days or number of days teachers may be required to teach pupils

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 2.3)

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
France and **Romania**: Breaks between lessons (of 5 minutes in France and around 10 minutes in Romania) are considered to be part of teaching time.
Italy: The number of hours during which the teacher is available at school each week includes teaching hours and also an average of approximately two hours a week for meetings (with a maximum of 80 hours a year).
Norway: The number of hours during which the teacher is available at school each week includes teaching hours and also an average of approximately five hours a week for activities directed by the school head (190 hours a year).

Estonia: Teachers may be requested to work at school 32 hours a week and 210 days a year (as well as during school holidays). The exact number of days depends on the school concerned.
Estonia and **Latvia**: The maximum number of hours permitted in the first and second teaching jobs is not considered here. In Estonia, total contractual working time for both jobs cannot exceed 60 hours. In Latvia, the regulations define a basic teaching post as involving 21 lessons. A survey carried out in 2000 revealed that the teaching workload was more than 32 lessons for 44.2 % of teachers.
Malta: The figure shows the maximum number of teaching hours (which includes normal periods of teaching and standing in for absent colleagues) and the number of hours available for duties at school on full days. On half days, the maximum teaching time is 13 hours with 18.75 hours to be spent at school.
Romania: Only 'foremen instructors' for practical activities teach 24 hours a week.

Explanatory note

The standard situation is defined as that of a teacher working full time who does not carry out any other tasks such as management tasks. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions. Variations taken into consideration in the Figure are related to specific criteria such as the subject taught or the employment status (see Figure 2.7 for further details). Variations related to flexibility at the discretion of the school head with a view to establishing the number of teaching hours for each teacher are also taken into account. By contrast, opportunities to reduce teaching hours related to the length of service or when a teacher is asked to carry out other duties are not included.

Depending on the country concerned, teaching time is expressed in terms of lessons of 45 or 50 minutes, full (60 minute) hours of teaching or full hours that include a break of 10 to 15 minutes. In this report, teaching time is defined strictly and as far as possible excludes breaks and non-teaching contact time. However, this time is included in the time available for work at school, except lunch breaks (see Figure 2.6). Teaching time is calculated by multiplying the number of lessons by the length of a lesson and dividing the result by 60. For details on the way it is calculated in each country, see the Figure in the annexes.

In some countries, the question of a relation between the working time of teachers and that of other public service employees has already been addressed in other terms. In Luxembourg, for example, the calculation of teachers' working time was customarily based on the principle that one hour of teaching time was equivalent to two hours of conventional administrative time. This accounted for the fact that, while civil servants worked 42 hours a week, teachers gave 21 hours of lessons. This kind of relation between teaching hours and the time required for preparation/marking, which also exists in other countries such as Belgium, Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, the Czech Republic and

Slovakia, has not remained intact in the wake of current trends. The general movement towards lower working hours for all employees which is occurring in some countries has not generally been accompanied by a reduction in the number of teaching hours for teaching staff, nor has the introduction of other relatively time-consuming tasks (such as teamwork to define a school plan, internal evaluation activities, etc.) necessarily given rise to a proportional reduction in the number of teaching hours. These two factors probably explain why teachers in some countries consider they have a high workload (see below).

1.2. Length of annual leave

Depending on the country concerned, annual leave is defined as a number of days or a number of weeks. In most cases the number of days of leave is identical for all and is very often determined by the school year. In some countries, the attempt to bring the concept of teachers' working time into line with the working time of other employees involves expressing it as a number of days of leave per year. Indeed, for most professions in the public and private sectors the number of days of leave increases with length of service. In a number of Scandinavian countries and in Italy, Hungary and Slovenia, this increase also applies to teachers.

FIGURE 2.4: STATUTORY DEFINITIONS OF THE ANNUAL AMOUNT OF LEAVE. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Variation by age/length of service	No variation
Number of days	**I, FIN, S, HU, SI**	**E, CZ, EE, LT, RO**
Number of weeks	**IS, NO**	**LI, LV**
Adjustment to the school calendar		**B, D, EL, F, L, NL, A, P, UK, BG, MT, PL, SK**

(:): **DK, IRL, CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Spain: The law also stipulates that all public servant teachers are entitled to a month of paid leave in the summer, and about eight days at Easter, 15 days at Christmas, three days in February and seven additional days of statutory paid leave (as in the case of pupils). While teachers in the public sector adjust their working calendar in accordance with the school calendar, they are nevertheless at school for a few days before the beginning of the school year in September and a few days after it ends in June, including the first days of July.
Italy: 30 days during the first three years, and then 32 days.
Austria: After 25 years in service, teachers spend 40 hours (around 1 week) less on activities known as 'the third area of activities' i.e. those other than teaching and preparation/marking.
Portugal: All public servants are entitled to a month of paid leave. While teachers in the public sector adjust their working time in accordance with the school calendar, they are nevertheless at school for a few days before the beginning of the school year in September and after it ends (for examinations, enrolments, etc.). They may divide their annual holiday into two periods, one of which must be at least eight days long.

Additional notes (continued)

Finland and **Sweden**: This leave is notional in that in practice all teachers are on leave on any day not an official working day. This leave serves as a basis for calculating holiday pay and compensation paid under the law on health insurance.
Liechtenstein: Information not verified at national level.
Lithuania: It is recommended that teachers take their annual leave during the school summer holidays.
Hungary: The number of days of leave varies in accordance with the teacher's contract. However, the leave entitlement of most teachers increases with age.
Slovenia: Teachers receive between 19 and 25 days of leave depending on their length of service, plus a further two to six days depending on their level of qualification, three to five days to compensate for specific working obligations (project management, teaching pupils with special needs, etc.) and finally five additional days from the age of 50.

Explanatory note

Adjustment to the school calendar means that the annual leave of teachers corresponds to normal school holidays. Days off for sickness or other reasons (including in-service training) are not included in the annual amount of leave.

1.3. Comparison of standard workloads

On the basis of definitions of teaching time, time spent at school on teaching or other activities and time devoted to personal work (the preparation of lessons, marking, and training), it is possible to compare the workload of teachers in different countries.

This is a useful exercise for several reasons. Signs of disquiet among teachers in many countries are linked to a constantly increasing workload (as in Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Greece, Spain, France, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland, Latvia, Poland, Romania and Slovakia). Various different explanations are given for this increase in working time, including increases in management tasks reported by Greece, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), changes in the curriculum as in Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Romania, the introduction of coordination and teamwork cited by Denmark and Sweden, responsibility for mixed groups of pupils, as in Spain, Sweden and Poland, involvement in internal evaluation activities in Sweden and Iceland, the integration of pupils with special needs in Sweden, Romania and Slovakia, and cross-curricular work reported by Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Poland.

In countries such as Sweden there have been proposals to limit this workload, particularly by reducing administrative tasks as far as possible and refocusing teachers on their main activities of teaching and attending directly to pupils. In Denmark teachers are under pressure to take on tasks of a broader socio-educational nature for which they do not necessarily feel competent, and prefer

to concentrate on their teaching. In the Netherlands, the same willingness to keep teachers focused on the activities for which they have been trained is leading to the creation of different types of position within schools such as classroom assistant, ICT expert, or consultant. A similar process is taking place in the United Kingdom (England and Wales), where the issue of workload has had high priority in recent years. In January 2003, the government, teacher unions and employers signed a new agreement intended to tackle the problem of teacher workload. *Raising Standards and Tackling Workload* sets out a plan to progressively reduce the overall hours of teachers over the next four years and work towards the provision of guaranteed time for planning, preparation and assessment. The School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document will be changed to bring this into effect. Amongst the proposals intended to lighten the workload are the identification of administrative tasks or technical maintenance that could be carried out by staff qualified for these tasks and not by teachers. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), a recently published report on the working conditions of teachers contains a list of tasks that they should not be obliged to carry out and which could be entrusted to other professionals with lesser qualifications or qualifications in other fields (management and supervision, etc.).

In contexts of this kind, a comparison of the number of teaching hours and time available at school can be illuminating.

That said, it must be remembered that the actual workload (not just classroom activity but also the preparation of lessons and marking) is very much determined by other factors. For example, a variable such as the teacher/pupil ratio significantly alters the workload in terms of marking. Another factor that can increase it is the administrative level responsible for devising the curriculum. The amount of time teachers need to devote to lesson planning and preparation depends on whether they have to deliver a centrally determined curriculum, contribute to the development of a locally produced one or work on a completely independent basis. It also depends on the level of detail in a centrally determined curriculum, as well as the availability or suitability of guidance materials. Finally, a discussion of workload cannot be limited to establishing the total number of working hours. The stress generated by certain activities in specific circumstances further increases the pressure on teachers. Changes in curricula or linked to the introduction of ICT and new assessment requirements are all factors that lead to increased workload.

With due regard for these observations, one can attempt to compare the workload of teachers. The main problem is to identify the measurement that

makes comparison possible. Two levels of information have been chosen, respectively the annual number of teaching hours and of hours to be spent in the school or another specified place.

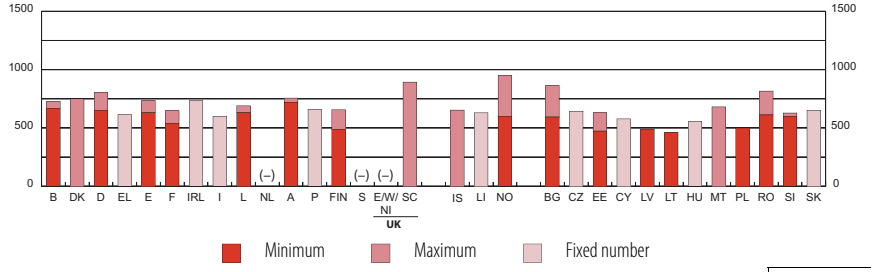
1.3.1. The annual number of teaching hours

The comparison of annual teaching hours reveals major differences between countries. A Scottish teacher may have almost twice the teaching workload of a Latvian, Lithuanian or Polish teacher.

However, it should be noted that the number of school days is a decisive factor in this calculation and that such comparisons set on an annual scale cannot be conveniently related to the weekly level.

There are also significant differences when breaks between lessons are taken into account, as exemplified by a comparison of the situations in Romania and Poland. Break times in Romania are considered to be part of teaching time and cannot therefore be deducted from it. In Poland each period consists of 45 minutes of teaching and, on average, 10 minutes of breaks. Here the calculation of teaching time is thus carried out on the basis of 45-minute lesson periods, while breaks are counted as time available at school (see Figure 2.6).

FIGURE 2.5: ANNUAL STANDARD NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS (EXCLUDING BREAKS BETWEEN LESSONS). TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC
Minimum	667		649		630	540			630		720		485			
Maximum	728	750	804		735	648			690	(-)	756		656	(-)	(-)	893
Fixed number				614			735	600				660				

	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
Minimum			456	594		473		490	459			500	612	599	
Maximum	653		684	864		630					681		816	627	
Fixed number		630			644		578			555					652

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
France and **Romania**: Breaks between lessons (of 5 minutes in France and around 10 minutes in Romania) are considered to be part of teaching time.
Italy: Teaching hours may be reduced by up to 10 minutes by a decision of the School Council. Teachers working in schools that give lessons shorter than 60 minutes have to devote the difference in time to additional teaching activities determined by the teachers' council so as to complete 18 full hours of teaching a week.
Sweden: The overall working time of teachers is 1 767 hours, 1 360 of which have to be spent in school (see Figure 2.6).
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Teachers are required to be available for 1 265 hours in any school year to perform duties as specified by the headteacher. The division of the 1 265 hours of directed time between teaching and other duties is for headteachers to determine, depending on the needs of the school (see Figure 2.6).
Malta: The teaching load is defined as a maximum of 26 periods of teaching including standing in for absent colleagues.
Romania: Only 'foremen instructors' for practical activities teach 24 hours a week.

Explanatory note

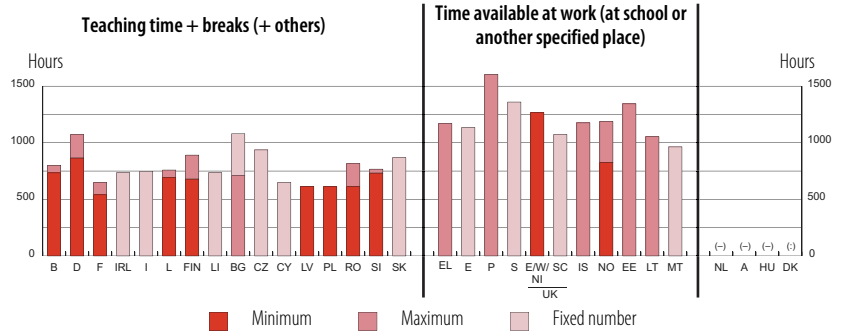
The standard situation is defined as that of a teacher working full time. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions. Variations taken into consideration in the Figure are related to specific criteria such as the subject taught or the contractual status (see Figure 2.7 for further details). Variations related to flexibility at the discretion of the school head with a view to establishing the number of teaching hours for each teacher are also taken into account. By contrast, opportunities to reduce teaching hours related to the length of service or when a teacher is asked to carry out other duties are not included.

Depending on the country concerned, teaching time is expressed in terms of lessons of 45 or 50 minutes, full (60-minute) hours of teaching or full hours that include a break of 10 to 15 minutes. In this report, teaching time is defined strictly and as far as possible excludes breaks and non-teaching contact time. However, this time is included in the time available for work at school, except lunch breaks. Teaching time is calculated by multiplying the number of lessons by the length of a lesson and dividing the result by 60. For details on the way it is calculated in each country, see the Figure in the annexes.

1.3.2. The annual number of hours available at school

Figure 2.6 gives another indication in terms of the comparability of data on teachers' working time, since it shows the time available at school for teaching, support and consultation activities, etc. Comparability is adversely affected by differences in the way this working time at school is defined, since the latter includes breaks regardless of how the teacher uses them (contact with pupils, preparation, marking or real breaks). Furthermore, in just a few countries, the time available at school includes timetable slots intended for preparation and marking which therefore no longer need to be done at home.

FIGURE 2.6: TOTAL STANDARD (ANNUAL) NUMBER OF HOURS AT WORK (IN SCHOOL OR AT ANOTHER SPECIFIED PLACE). TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Teaching time + breaks (+ others)

	B	D	F	IRL	I	L	FIN	LI	BG	CZ	CY	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
	734	865	540			693	679		710			613	611	612	732	
	801	1 072	648			759	891		1080					816	766	
				735	748			735		937	649					869

Time available at work (at school or another specified place)

	EL	E	P	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	NO	EE	LT	MT	NL	A	HU	DK
					1 265			809							
	1 170		1 603				1 176	1 185	1 344	1 053		(–)	(–)	(–)	(:)
		1 134		1 360		1 073					964				

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands, Austria and **Hungary**: The annual number of hours available at school is not prescribed at central level and therefore not calculated.

Explanatory note

The standard situation is defined as that of a teacher working full time. Teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not taken into account if they are subject to special conditions.

Besides the time set aside for specific types of work such as consultation, teamwork and appraisal meetings, etc., break times are included in the time worked at school whether or not they are devoted to interaction with pupils. However, the midday break is not included in the other break times.

In a first group of countries, the time teachers are present at school is derived from actual teaching time to which is added the time corresponding to breaks and, in the case of Italy, Finland, Bulgaria and Cyprus, a weekly or annual number of hours set aside for consultation, curricular planning or other activities for which teachers have to be present at work. In the second group of countries, the time available for carrying out tasks at school or another specified place is established statutorily.

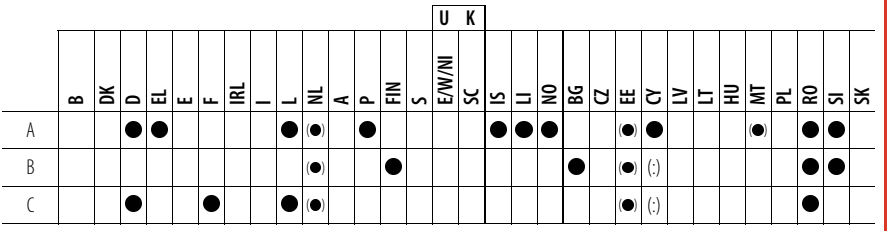
Figure 2.6 shows the variation between situations. A few countries are notable for the fact that individual teachers spend more than 1 000 hours at school each year. By definition, this is logically the case in countries in which there is a definition of time available at work (at school or in another specified place). The figure may vary from 963 hours in Malta to 1 603 hours in Portugal. Teachers in Greece and Estonia may be legally required to work in school for some 30 hours a week. In Spain, 30 hours have to be spent on school premises. In Sweden, teachers have to be at school for 35 hours a week and this is also the legal requirement in Portugal where, however, the situation is different in practice. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), teachers are required to be available for work during 1 265 hours a year (around 32.5 hours a week), which is regarded as a minimum. The 1 265 hours of directed time do not normally include time for the preparation or marking of lessons, etc. Teachers are required to work the additional hours necessary for them to fulfil their professional duties, including these key tasks.

Where the amount of work to be carried out at school is calculated on the basis of teaching time and breaks, figures vary between 540 hours a year (in France) and 1 080 hours a year (in Bulgaria). However these should be regarded as minimum figures. Teachers are obliged to remain in school for other duties for which the number of hours is not fixed (see Figure 2.9 for the list of tasks that teachers may be asked to perform).

1.4. Statutory variations in the number of teaching hours

The number of teaching or 'pupil contact' hours may be reduced in accordance with several criteria, including the age or length of service of teachers (with a reduced teaching workload as their career progresses), the subject taught (since some subjects are considered to require more work than others) or the employment status or qualifications of teachers.

FIGURE 2.7: CRITERIA FOR STATUTORY VARIATIONS IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

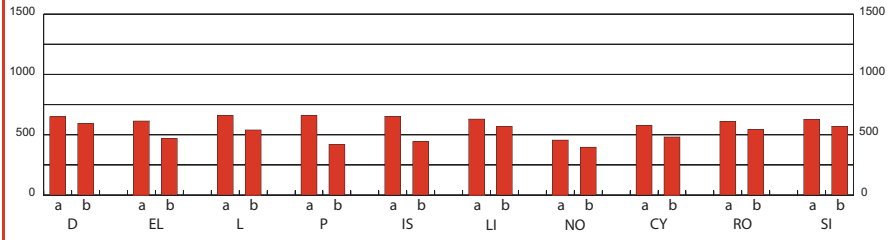
Denmark: Teachers aged over 60 may, on request, have the number of hours they spend at school reduced by 175 hours a year.
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: The number of hours varies between *Länder* and types of school (*Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium,* and *Gesamtschule*), in accordance with age and status (*Gymnasium* teachers are senior civil servants while *Hauptschule* teachers are in a lower category).
Spain: According to the LOCE (a new law that takes effect in 2003), the educational authorities will enable teachers aged 55 to obtain a reduction in their teaching hours but with a corresponding decrease in their remuneration. Teachers will also be able to devote some of the time they would normally spend teaching to other activities without any loss of remuneration.
France: For *professeurs agrégés* the standard length of a working week is 15 hours, while for *professeurs certifiés* it is 18 hours.
Luxembourg: The *chargés de cours* teach 22 hours, while *chargés d'éducation* (on permanent or fixed-term contracts) teach 24 hours. In addition, all teachers benefit from an automatic reduction of one hour.
Netherlands: Precise formulation and interpretation of the collective agreement is decentralised resulting in many local agreements. Teachers may ask their employers for a reduction in their teaching load from the ages of 52.
Austria: Before 2001/02, the system enabled the number of teaching hours to be reduced as a result of responsibility for specific activities (such as the supervision of equipment) and differences in the number of hours dependent on the subjects taught.
Finland: Teachers of the mother tongue teach the minimum number of hours.
Estonia: Variations in the number of teaching hours are not regulated by legislation.
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.
Romania: The working time of teachers with a first degree who have completed over 25 years in service is reduced. Teachers who are foreman instructors for practical activities have 24 hours a week.
Slovenia: The workload of mother tongue teachers is reduced by one lesson (21 instead of 22).

Explanatory note

It should be borne in mind that only the situation of full-time teachers is taken into account and not that of teachers who are excused from a few teaching hours to take part in management activities. Reductions in teaching hours in order to manage equipment, or take part in trade union activities, in-service training or the work of councils or committees are not taken into consideration. Neither are variations linked to work done outside the school, such as classes taught in hospitals. For details on reductions in teaching time related to age/length of service, see Figure 2.8.

Variations linked to length of service exist in ten countries. They are structured in very different ways, with sometimes a very gradual reduction (as in Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal or Cyprus) or a reduction after a stipulated age (as in Germany, Portugal, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Slovenia) or after a number of years in service combined with a first degree (as in Romania).

FIGURE 2.8: STATUTORY VARIATIONS IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHING HOURS IN ACCORDANCE WITH AGE/LENGTH OF SERVICE. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



	D	EL	L	P	IS	LI	NO	CY	RO	SI
a: Beginning of career	649	614	660	660	653	630	456	578	612	627
b: End of career	592	468	540	420	443	567	397	482	544	570

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: One or two fewer lessons a week from the age of 55. The Figure illustrates the situation of teachers with a minimum standard teaching load (23 teaching periods a week).
Greece: In the first six years of service, teachers give 21 hours of lessons a week. This teaching load is reduced to 19 hours a week until they have completed 12 years of service and then 18 hours a week after that. Since 1997, the load has been reduced to 16 hours on completion of 20 years in service.
Luxembourg: Public servants only: 22 hours a week with one hour less after 10 years in service, and two, three and fours hours less after the ages of 45, 50 and 55, respectively.
Netherlands: Teachers may ask their employers for a reduction in their teaching load from the ages of 52 (three fewer class periods a week) and then 56 (six fewer periods a week). This request for a reduced teaching load is made on the understanding that the salary will also be lower.
Portugal: A reduction by two hours once every five years from the age of 40 and 10 years in service up to a maximum of eight fewer hours. All teachers who have completed 27 years of service are entitled to this maximum reduction.
Iceland: From 2 to 15 years in service, 28 lessons; from 15 to 54 years, 27 lessons; from 55 to 59 years, 24 lessons; after 60 years, 19 lessons.
Liechtenstein: Two lessons fewer from the age of 55.
Norway: 6 % reduction of teaching load from the age of 55 and 13 % reduction from the age of 60. The figure illustrates the situation of teachers with a minimum teaching load (16 teaching periods a week).
Cyprus: 24 lessons when newly qualified, then 22 lessons after 7 years in service, and 20 lessons after 15 years in service.
Romania: Teachers with a first degree who have completed over 25 years in service have two teaching hours fewer a week. The Figure illustrates the situation of the majority of teachers.
Slovenia: Teachers aged over 50 have 2 fewer lessons.

Variations linked to the subject taught exist in only four countries, namely Finland, Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia.

In Finland and Slovenia, teachers of the mother tongue have a lighter teaching load than those responsible for other subjects. The difference in the time for preparation/marking from one subject to the next has led to a difference in the teaching workload.

In Finland, these differences are frequently criticised for not taking changes in subjects into account. In fact, although classes in the mother tongue have always been considered the most demanding because of the need to mark essays, essay marking is now also part of the workload of foreign language teachers. In Slovenia, the difference dates from 1997, when the teaching load for those who taught the mother tongue was reduced by one hour. In 1990, the government in Estonia introduced different amounts of working time for teachers by subject, with 20 hours for those teaching the mother tongue and literature, 21 hours for mathematics teachers and 22 hours for other teachers. However, these regulations have not been implemented.

Variations associated with employment status or degree level exist only to a very limited extent in Germany, France, Luxembourg, and Romania in which these criteria are combined with length of service.

2. TASKS TO BE CARRIED OUT

2.1. Tasks required of teachers by law or other binding regulations

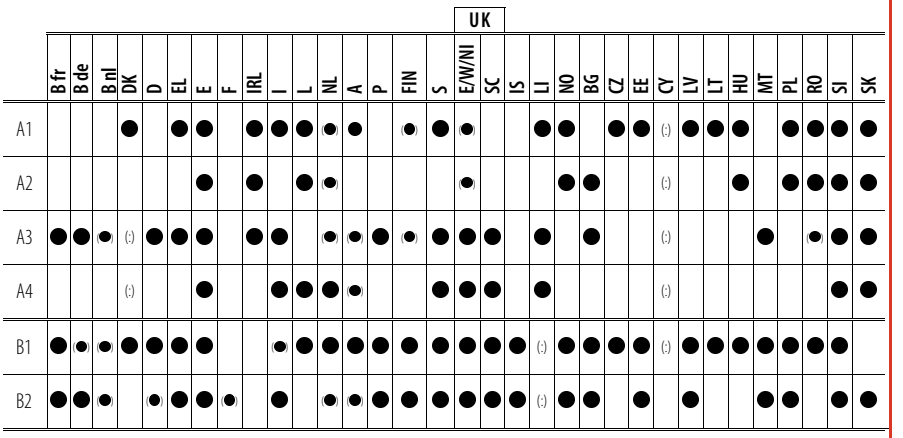
In addition to the tasks of teaching and preparation/marking, teachers may be contractually involved in various activities which place a greater or lesser burden on their workload. This section looks mainly at those tasks requiring real investment in extra time. Figure 2.9 shows the list of tasks that may be required of teachers in law or as a result of other regulations. It should be noted that, in practice, the situation may be very different. In some countries, tasks that teachers would be obliged to carry out if official rulings were followed to the letter, are in practice performed only on a voluntary basis. In others, teachers may often take on duties not specified in official documents.

The activities of teachers vary significantly from one country to another. Task differentiation is along two main lines, each with its own special skills. In the case of the first, teachers work **alone**, standing in for colleagues, supervising pupils and monitoring future teachers (points A1-A4 in Figure 2.9). In the case of the second, they work more **as a team**, drawing up the curriculum, evaluating the school etc. (points B1 and B2). Figure 2.9 includes data solely for countries in which the allocation of these duties is not accompanied by extra pay or any reduction in teaching time.

Standing in for absent colleagues is one of the specific duties of teachers in a number of countries, namely Belgium, Germany, Spain, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Liechtenstein, Bulgaria, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia. **Supervision** between lessons is a task which teachers are required to carry out in most countries. This makes it possible to reply to the question in the previous section on the use of breaks between lessons which seem generally to be spent supervising pupils, with only a few exceptions. Supervision of pupils after lessons appears to be less frequent, but it is still an additional activity that should be taken into consideration in the case of several countries. Providing **support to future teachers and new entrants** seems to be a relatively common task that teachers may be asked to carry out without a proportional reduction in their teaching activities. However in three countries (Spain, Austria and Slovakia), this task is only carried out by experienced teachers.

Coordination activities for curriculum design or in cross-curricular work directly affect the working time of teachers at school. It should be noted that, in some countries, they are expected to carry out these tasks although the statutory definition of working time does not provide them with any time at school in order to do so (as in the case of Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands). This also applies to Germany although, in some *Länder*, school heads may temporarily reduce teachers' workload by one or two lessons a week to promote teamwork. In several countries, teachers are also involved in **internal evaluation**. Once again for some of them this activity, which may require a significant investment in time, is not taken into account when defining working time (as in Belgium, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia).

FIGURE 2.9: SPECIFIC TASKS THAT MAY BE REQUIRED OF TEACHERS BY LAW OR OTHER BINDING REGULATIONS, WITHOUT ANY ADDITIONAL REMUNERATION OR REDUCTION IN TEACHING TIME, IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



A1 Supervision between lessons (except during lunch breaks)

A2 Supervision after school hours

A3 Standing in for absent colleagues

A4 Support to future teachers and new entrants

B1 Teamwork on the school plan, cross-curricular work, drawing up the curriculum

B2 Teamwork on internal evaluation of the school

(●) Special cases, see the notes

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: B1 (**B de**); A3, B1, B2 (**B nl**): Tasks which are not officially required but which are carried out by teachers in practice.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: Teachers may temporarily stand in for absent colleagues, although usually for a very short period of time (around 1-5 weeks). Regulations vary from one *Land* to another. Supervision between lessons and the provision of support to future teachers are infrequent; teachers are involved in internal evaluation in only six *Länder*.

France: In addition to their teaching activities, teachers have to spend time on pupil assessment (including marking, and staff discussion in the *conseil de classe*) and in contact with the parents of pupils.
Italy: The teachers' council defines the curricular plan of the school.
Netherlands: Precise formulation and interpretation of the collective agreement is decentralised resulting in many local agreements. A1, A2 and A3 may not be required by law, but schools have to regulate this themselves.
Austria: Standing in for absent colleagues does not result in extra pay if it involves 10 hours a year or less. Teamwork on internal evaluation is recommended.
Portugal: Teachers are statutorily required to replace colleagues absent for short periods whenever necessary.
Finland: A1 is normally determined at the discretion of the employer/school head; A3 is locally regulated; B1 is defined in the collective agreement on salaries; B2 is specified as a legal obligation.
Sweden: All tasks can be required of teachers in accordance with the terms of collective agreements.
United Kingdom: A1, A2: Teachers are required to maintain good order and discipline among pupils and safeguard their health and safety, both when they are authorised to be on the school premises and when they are engaged in authorised school activities elsewhere.
Latvia: Figure 2.9 represents just the minimum set of tasks that teachers may be required to carry out.
Romania: A3 is usually determined at school level by the head. Teachers commonly pay a colleague for the hours entailed or have an ongoing arrangement in which they stand in for each other whenever necessary. A4 will be included in forthcoming regulations.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows tasks that may be required of teachers as part of their normal work. It does not include tasks for which there is additional remuneration. B2: Participation in internal evaluation via the school board is not considered.

2.2. The place of teamwork

As has been pointed out above, teamwork is a method of organisation associated in a number of countries with the new tasks that teachers are expected to carry out.

Teamwork is defined and analysed in terms of time formally allocated to cooperation between teachers outside of timetabled classes. This includes situations in which teachers work together on devising the school plan, implementing interdisciplinary activities, planning the curriculum or contributing to the internal evaluation of their school. Team teaching which refers to joint work with a group of pupils for teaching or other activities, as well as coordination undertaken by teachers responsible for a subject department, is not considered.

In most countries, there are campaigns to promote this method of organisation, by means of legislation or guidelines or, more practically, through the provision of specific resources. In Greece and the United Kingdom, where curriculum planning activities and participation in school evaluation, etc. are regarded as normal duties of teachers, there is no specific campaign to promote the use of teamwork for these activities.

Figure 2.10 shows that the existence of legislation or guidelines to promote teamwork is not systematically accompanied by a statutory definition of working time giving a precise indication of the number of hours to be devoted to it, or even stipulating the time available at school for the staff meetings required for teamwork.

Figure 2.11 shows that the specific resources available for teamwork may take different forms, including the provision of documentation or training in teamwork.

FIGURE 2.10: PROMOTION OF TEAMWORK INCLUDED IN THE TASKS AND STATUTORY WORKING TIME OF TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Existence of legislation or guidelines for promoting teamwork	No specific legislation or guidelines
SPECIFICATION OF AN AMOUNT OF WORKING TIME OTHER THAN TEACHING TIME		
Number of hours **specifically earmarked for teamwork**	**FIN**	**I, UK (SC)**
Number of hours/days of **presence in school** or in another specified place, that can/might include teamwork	**DK, E, P, S, IS, NO, BG, HU**	**EL,UK (E/W/NI), EE, MT**
Number of hours of **overall work** (including personal working time) that can/might include teamwork	**F, NL, LI, LV, LT, PL, SI, SK**	**A, CZ, RO**
NO DEFINITION OF WORKING TIME OTHER THAN TEACHING TIME	**B fr, B de, D, IRL, L**	**B nl**

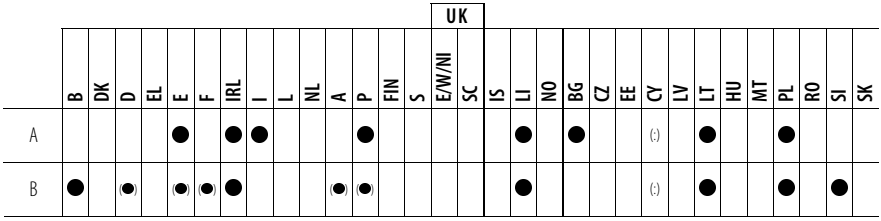
(:): **CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
The Netherlands: Recent developments introducing greater differentiation between tasks (with the introduction of classroom assistants, ICT experts and counsellors) have had the effect of placing teachers within a team of people who share responsibility for teaching.
Czech Republic: Teamwork was specified at the central level until 1990 and has since continued as a tradition.

FIGURE 2.11: RESOURCES SPECIFICALLY FOR TEAMWORK PROVIDED FOR AT THE CENTRAL/TOP LEVEL. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



A = Documentation on teamwork specified at central/top level
B = Training in teamwork specified at central/top level
(●) Special cases, see the notes

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany and **Austria**: Courses which include teamwork are sometimes offered in in-service training.
Spain, Portugal: In-service training centres frequently support team building and teamwork.
France: Training in teamwork is frequently included in training courses for teachers.

2.3. Flexibility required of teachers

This section examines the degree of flexibility that may be required of teachers in terms of both the tasks they carry out and the amount of work to be done. The section thus takes the following three factors into account:

a) a description of all tasks to be carried out which, depending on circumstances, may be defined for all school staff, each individual teacher, or not at all;

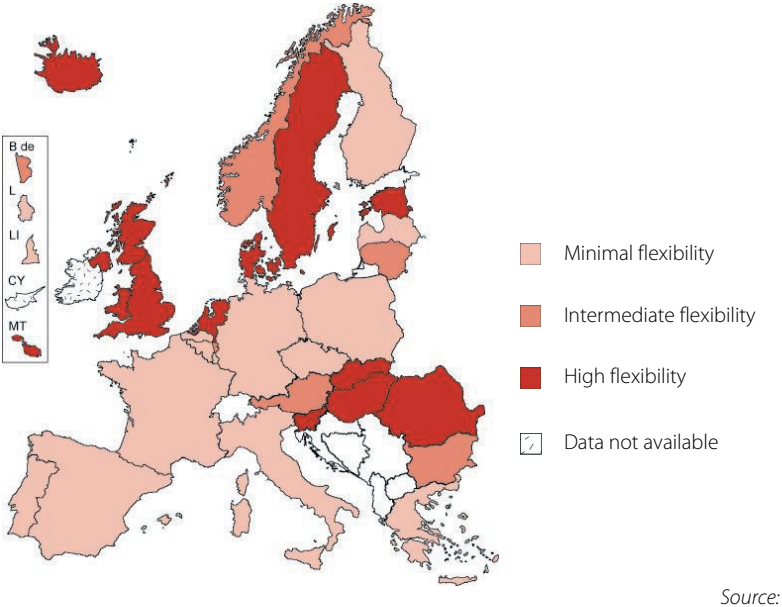
b) the breakdown between teaching hours and other work which, depending on circumstances, may be entirely at the discretion of the school head, linked to regulations enabling a number of teaching hours to be earmarked for other activities, or determined at central level;

c) a possible increase in the number of teaching hours which, depending on circumstances, may either be laid down by the school head with or without additional pay for teachers, or be an option left to the discretion of the teachers concerned.

The three factors have been brought together to determine the degree of flexibility required of teachers. The position of countries in relation to these factors, together with the additional (country) notes are set out in the annexes. Figure 2.12 summarises this data, revealing that a number of countries require a degree of

flexibility on the part of teachers, both in terms of the tasks they carry out and the number of teaching hours.

FIGURE 2.12: INDICATOR OF THE FLEXIBILITY REQUIRED OF TEACHERS IN TERMS OF THE TASKS THEY CARRY OUT AND THE AMOUNT OF TEACHING, IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.

Explanatory note

The degree of flexibility has been identified on the basis of the position of countries in relation to three factors: the description of tasks, the breakdown of working time between teaching hours and time spent on other activities, and a possible increase in teaching hours. The position of the countries in relation to these three factors and the calculation used to determine the degree of flexibility are given in the annexes.

3. CODES OF PRACTICE AND PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

In most countries, the requirements in relation to content that is taught (or the methods used) are stipulated in the curriculum or in relevant legislation, or are confirmed at the time of the appointment or recruitment examination. Teachers are informed about professional requirements during their training or the final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase ([3]). As a general rule, supervision of compliance with these requirements in terms of teaching content and methods is provided by the school head or by school inspectors/education authorities.

By contrast, requirements relating to professional practice in terms of values and attitudes are less frequently specified.

This section examines the following:

a) the extent to which obligations incumbent on members of the teaching profession are codified in official texts from the ethical standpoint (values and attitudes of teachers);

b) the way in which these codes are communicated to teachers;

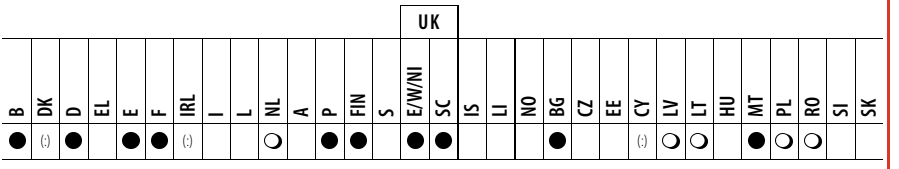
c) whether or not compliance with these requirements is monitored and, where applicable, the existence of disciplinary measures.

The benefit of publishing these documents is threefold: a) information is available to teachers on the attitudes and values expected of them in their profession, b) an accreditation system is established enabling the professional competencies of teachers to be recognised, and c) a method of controlling and penalising them is provided since those who do not comply with the codes may be subject to exclusion or lose their accreditation.

Figure 2.13 summarises the existence of codes of professional ethics set out in certain documents specifically for the profession. Requirements that may be set out in curricula or other more general legal documents are not considered. Clearly, the concept of ethics varies from one country to the next and the content of these codes may differ considerably. Finally, it is worth bearing in mind that no conclusion whatsoever as to the level of ethical requirements should be drawn simply because a particular code is lacking. It is expected of teachers everywhere that they should comply with a code of ethics of some sort.

([3]) For further information, see: The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

FIGURE 2.13: EXISTENCE OF SPECIFIC CODES OF PRACTICE AND PROFESSIONAL ETHICS FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Portugal: Statutes on the teaching profession adopted in 1990 lay down the principles with which teachers are expected to comply in the course of their professional activity.
Finland: These guidelines have been devised by the Teachers' Union and are not binding.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The General Teaching Councils in England and Wales have developed professional codes of conduct and practice for teachers. A similar code will be developed by the GTC in Northern Ireland.
Liechtenstein: Information not verified at national level.

Explanatory note

Only codes specific to the teaching profession are taken into account and not codes that may apply to public employees or employees in general. Requirements imposed on completion of initial teacher training, curricula, etc. are not taken into account.

In Germany, the requirements regarding professional ethics are set out in service regulations published by the education ministries of the *Länder*. In France, the 23 May 1997 circular which lays down the responsibilities of *lycée* and *collège* teachers includes common references concerned with ethics for the benefit of those who train and evaluate them. In four other countries, a code of professional ethics has been drawn up. In Spain, it was approved in 1996 by the General Council of Professionals in Education *(Consejo General de Colegios Profesionales de la Educación)* and recognised by educational professional associations. In Finland, the code was issued in 1998 by the professional ethics council, a body of the teachers' union, while in Malta it is in the form of a legal note dating from 1988.

In the United Kingdom, General Teaching Councils (GTCs) have been established in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The GTCs have a regulatory role in guaranteeing and maintaining the high professional standards of teachers. All teachers working in *maintained schools* in England and Wales are required to register with the appropriate GTC and codes of practice have been developed which set out the standards of professional conduct and practice expected of those registered. Similar arrangements will also apply in due course to teachers in *grant-aided schools* in Northern Ireland. In Scotland, the *General Teaching Council for Scotland,* established in 1965, has also been working to redefine professional requirements, with a consultation document produced in 2001.

Arrangements for supervising compliance with these codes vary. In Germany, supervision is the responsibility of the school head and local education authority (the *Staatliches Schulamt/Oberschulamt*). In Spain there is no official body responsible for supervision while, in Finland, the school head supervises the performance of teachers and can therefore refer to the code which, however, has no legal status. In the United Kingdom, the GTCs have significant disciplinary powers. In Malta, the restrictions on teachers are greater, as the Ministry of Education is able to suspend their warrant if they are found to have infringed the ethical code.

At present, therefore, it may be concluded that documents specifically regulating professional requirements exist in only relatively few countries. Furthermore, where such codes do exist, the texts are relatively recent and not always backed by disciplinary powers. It should also be noted that it may be possible to discipline teachers for professional misconduct irrespective of whether or not a code of ethics has been drawn up (see Chapter 1, section 2.12).

An analysis of the reforms currently in progress seems to indicate that the trend is towards an extension of regulation in this area, though to varying degrees in different countries. In the Netherlands, a new law (currently being drafted) is intended to regulate professional requirements. Work is in progress in Latvia on developing the requirements for the profession in the field of ethics. In Lithuania, a definition of the concept of initial training is undergoing preparation and includes a list of teaching competencies, as well as a code of professional ethics. In Poland, the national teachers' council (a consultative body attached to the Ministry of Education) has issued a number of recommendations on the issue of professional requirements, which is considered more fully on an informal basis at the level of trade unions and scientific associations. Lists of professional aptitudes and competencies (including ethical questions) that have been produced are bereft of legal status but constitute a code of conduct for teachers. In Romania, the ministry is intending to introduce professional requirements for those who are newly qualified.

CHAPTER 3
SALARIES

INTRODUCTION

Formal procedures for remuneration and opportunities for salary increases are an integral part of the conditions of service of teachers. Salary levels supplemented by the award of possible adjustments financial benefits may be major incentives in ensuring that people seek work in sufficient numbers in the education sector to satisfy staffing requirements and that teachers remain motivated throughout their career.

Furthermore, the range of skills demanded of teachers is becoming increasingly broad. Besides their traditional responsibility for passing on knowledge, they now have to perform a variety of further tasks such as using information technology, working in teams, assisting in the integration of children with special educational needs, and contributing to school management, etc. Meanwhile, as the education sector seeks out persons who possess the skills required, it has to contend with competition from the private sector with its well-paid jobs that attract young graduates. Among the mechanisms liable to make the teaching profession more attractive, therefore, policies that affect the earnings of its members cannot be overlooked.

The concept of salary as considered in this chapter relates to remuneration in cash offered to employees for a given period of work, but also for periods in which no work is performed such as annual leave or other paid holidays. The salary excludes social security contributions paid by employers for their employees and pension schemes, as well as benefits secured by employees under these schemes, as set out in the October 1973 *ILO Resolution concerning an integrated system of wages statistics*.

The present chapter sets out the various salary policies affecting the teaching profession in Europe, with due regard for basic salaries and the scope for increases, adjustments and financial benefits. At the end of the chapter, the degree to which responsibility for salaries policies is centralised or decentralised will be analysed in relation to the different (central, regional, local or school) administrative authorities that take decisions about mechanisms for remuneration, in order to gain a better insight into the levels of individual provision or uniformity characterising teacher salaries.

1. BASIC SALARY AND THE WAY IT INCREASES

1.1. Minimum and maximum basic salaries

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 generally located on a salary scale structured into different levels or grades between a minimum and maximum salary. Teachers may thus move from a lower to a higher level in accordance with a set of criteria such as length of service, merit, further qualifications, etc.

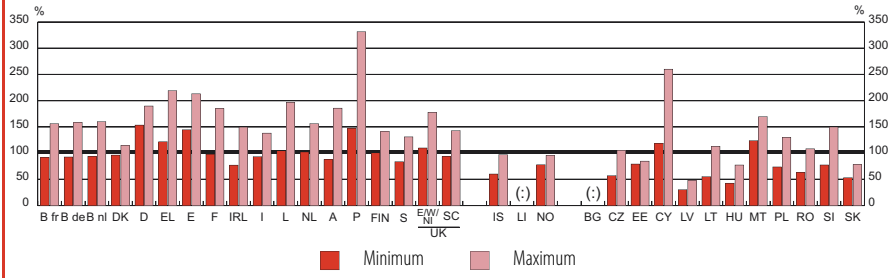
By basic gross annual salary is meant the amount paid by the employer in a year, including bonuses, increases and allowances, such as those related to the cost of living, the 13th month and holidays, etc. less the employers' social security and pension contributions. This salary does not take into account other salary adjustments or financial benefits (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).

Teachers in all European countries receive a minimum basic salary which may either be centrally determined or be the outcome of negotiations between the ministry or the authorities concerned (such as the association of local authorities in Sweden and Iceland) and the teacher unions. In almost all countries, the basic salary of teachers is fixed by the central or top-level authorities for education (such as in Belgium, where the Communities are autonomous). Basic salaries in Italy vary from one school to the next but remain uniform in each. Since the 1993 reform, the employment contracts of Italian teachers are private and decentralised. And since schools became autonomous in 2000, contracts have been negotiated by school governing bodies and teachers, in line with criteria applicable to the whole country. Union delegations are responsible for negotiations at school level (see Chapter 1).

In Denmark, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Liechtenstein, Estonia, Hungary and Malta, the basic salary varies, depending mainly on the status of the particular teacher concerned.

Figure 3.1 shows the minimum and maximum basic gross salaries of teachers as a percentage of **per capita gross domestic product (GDP)** which is an indicator of the standard of living of a country's population. This indicator is obtained by dividing the GDP, a reflection of the wealth of the country, by the total number of its inhabitants. By establishing systematically the relation between the salary of a teacher (in national currency) and the per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) of his or her country, purchasing power may be readily compared from one country to the next. This relation gives some idea of teachers' salary status.

FIGURE 3.1: MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM BASIC TEACHER SALARIES IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A) RELATED TO PER CAPITA GDP, 2000/01



	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC
Minimum	92	93	94	96	153	122	145	98	77	93	104	102	88	147	101	84	110	94
Maximum	156	159	160	115	190	219	213	185	150	138	197	156	186	331	142	131	178	143

	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
Minimum	60	(:)	78	(:)	57	79	119	30	55	43	124	74	63	77	53
Maximum	97	(:)	96	(:)	105	85	260	48	113	77	170	130	108	150	78

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

Additional notes

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.
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 (SC): 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 training).
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.
Poland: The reference year for teacher salaries and per capita GDP is 2001.

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.

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.

Explanatory note (continued)

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.

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).

In the majority of European countries, the minimum basic gross salary of teachers in general lower secondary education is less than or equivalent to per capita GDP. The exceptions are Germany, Greece, Spain, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and, among the candidate countries, Cyprus and Malta. In the European Union, minimum basic salaries as a proportion of per capita GDP are lowest in Ireland (77 %).

By contrast, in all European Union countries, the highest salary that individual teachers may earn during their career is above the per capita GDP of their country. It is 1.4 times greater in all Member States except Denmark (where it is 1.15 times greater). It is over twice per capita GDP in Greece and Spain and over three times per capita GDP in Portugal.

In the EFTA/EEA and candidate countries, minimum and maximum teacher salaries as a proportion of per capita GDP are in general lower, the exceptions being Cyprus and Malta and, in the case of maximum salaries, Slovenia.

Normally, salaries are paid on a monthly basis. Only Irish and Greek teachers are paid once every two weeks. Teachers receive at least 12 salary payments a year and, in some cases, 13 (in Italy, Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, Hungary, Poland and Romania when the money is available) or even 14 (Spain, the Netherlands, Austria, and Portugal). In Germany, the *jährliche Sonderzuwendung* (a special additional payment each year) is equivalent to 88.21 % of a monthly salary, amounting almost to a 13th month. In Greece and the Czech Republic, teachers also receive two additional payments, the amounts of which are less than the monthly salary.

There exist other forms of additional payment, such as holiday allowances plus an end-of-year bonus in Belgium (which each correspond to an amount of less than half the monthly salary), holiday allowances in Sweden (one-fifth of the monthly salary) and in Slovenia.

In the majority of European countries, basic salaries are reviewed at fixed intervals and, generally speaking, every year. These salary increases linked to wage

indexation for the entire public service, or even the whole economy, are not considered in the present study. The aim of such revision, which may occur as a matter of course or in accordance with certain procedures, is to take account of inflation or the general level of salaries throughout the country. Finland has elements specific to the education sector in that salary levels are raised whenever policy-makers agree that the workload has changed or that the revised content of teaching activity calls for extra remuneration. In 2001, teacher salaries in the Czech Republic for the first time rose more than the salaries of other public-sector employees.

1.2. Salary scales

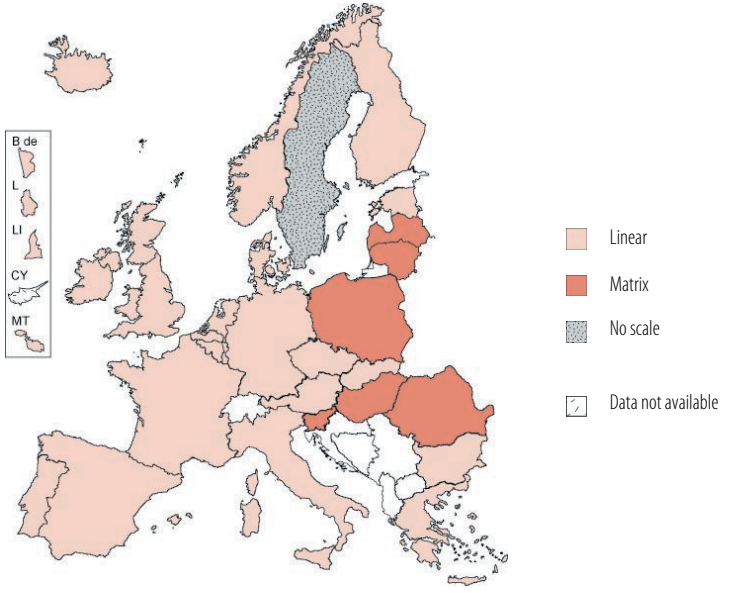
Nearly all countries make use of a salary scale system. Thus, starting on a minimum basic salary, teachers may progress through their careers until reaching a maximum salary. However, in most countries, the point on the salary scale corresponding to entry into the profession varies in accordance with the initial qualifications of teachers. The countries in which these initial qualifications do not result in variations in salary are Denmark, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Finland, the United Kingdom, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia. In certain instances, this is because there is only one type of qualification securing entry to the teaching profession in the country concerned, as in Spain, Finland or Slovenia. Until September 2002 in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), only teachers who were *good honours graduates* could embark on their career at a higher grade. The revision of salary scales removed this differential.

There are two types of salary scale. In most cases, scales are linear, meaning that they are characterised by a given number of successive levels. However, they may also be in the form of a matrix, or salary grids that take account of several factors such as, for example, qualifications or length of service. The career advancement of teachers may thus depend on one or several factors acting independently of each other so that the range of possible salaries is increased. In Europe, this type of scale is at present adopted solely in a few candidate countries (Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovenia). In Hungary there are five categories of teachers defined in terms of their qualifications, multiplied by 14 length of service levels. In Poland, four levels of qualification and four categories of teacher (not defined solely in terms of length of service) are recognised.

Sweden is the only country in which there is no salary scale as such. A minimum basic starting salary for new teachers is centrally determined, as is a fresh salary level after five years of service, but there is no fixed upper limit. Salaries are

negotiated by the employer and the union of the teacher concerned or, in certain cases, by schools and teachers themselves. That said, the factors which in the other countries have a bearing on the position of a teacher on the salary scale are generally taken into account in the negotiations.

FIGURE 3.2: TYPES OF SALARY SCALE FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Sweden: National level employers' representatives and teacher unions have fixed a minimum salary level for the start of a career in teaching and another level after five years in service. After that, salaries are negotiatated by the employers and teacher unions or the teachers themselves.

Explanatory note

A **linear salary scale** has a given number of successive levels. Movement from one to the next depends on various criteria and implies a salary increase.

A **salary scale in the form of a matrix**, on the other hand, is based on a grid which takes several factors into account. The salary of a teacher may thus change in accordance with one or several criteria the effects of which are unrelated to each other.

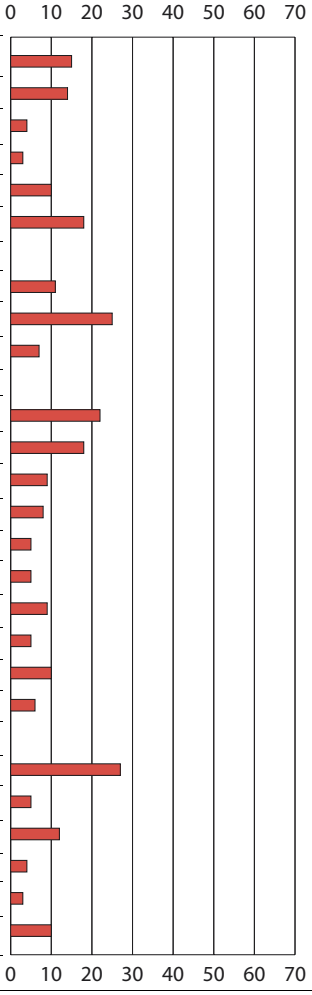
When teachers enter the profession in some countries, they lock in to a pre-existing scale, which may be that of career civil servants if this is their status. Such is the case, for example, in Germany, Greece, Spain, Portugal, Finland and Malta. Nevertheless, the criteria governing salary increases are not generally identical.

As Figure 3.3 shows, the number of grades or levels between the lowest and maximum salary on the salary scale varies considerably from one country to the next. Furthermore, progress on the scale does not necessarily correspond to uniform successive increases, but sometimes involves crossing more than one level at a time. In Denmark for example, teachers in the new *Ny Løn* salary system progress from level 26 to 30, and then to level 35.

FIGURE 3.3: NUMBER OF LEVELS ON THE TEACHER SALARY SCALE IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

Countries with a linear salary scale

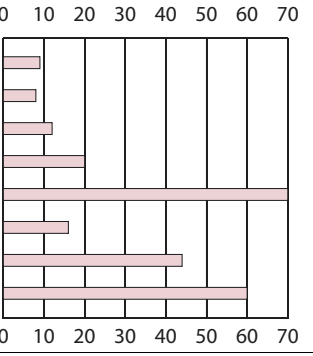
	Number of levels between the minimum and maximum salary	
B	a) Teachers with an ISCED 5B qualification	15
	b) Teachers with an ISCED 5A qualification	14
DK	a) Former system	4
	b) New *(Ny Løn)* system	3
D		10
EL		18
E		Variable
F		11
IRL		25
I		7
L		Variable
NL		22
A		18
P	a) *Bacharel* (ISCED 5B)	9
	b) *Licenciado* (ISCED 5A)	8
FIN	a) Seniority allocations	5
	b) Bonus for length of service	5
UK (E/W/NI)	a) Main scale	9
	b) Higher or performance-related scale	5
UK (SC)		10
IS		6
LI		Variable
NO		27
BG		5
CZ		12
EE		4
MT		3
SK		10



Source: Eurydice.

Countries with a salary scale in the form of a matrix

	Dimensions of the salary grid		
LV	3 x 3 possible combinations		9
LT	a) Non-promoted teachers:	2 x 4	8
	b) Promoted teachers:	4 x 3	12
	c) Total = a + b		20
HU	5 x 14 possible combinations		70
PL	4 x 4 possible combinations		16
RO	11 x 4 possible combinations		44
SI			60



(:): **CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium: Generally, teachers in lower secondary education have an ISCED 5B diploma. Teachers who have an ISCED 5A diploma can also teach in lower secondary education, but this does not often occur.
Denmark: The new *(Ny Løn)* system is applicable to teachers who began service after 1 April 2000 or who were on a level lower or equal to level 29 at that date.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Teachers are on level 24 for Group A public servants, but their salaries may be increased in accordance with a whole set of factors. The number of levels depends on each teacher's career and on the Autonomous Community for which they are working.
France: There are normally 11 levels, but a teacher close to retirement may get a class promotion corresponding to one additional level in the case of *professeurs agrégés* and three in the case of *professeurs certifiés*.
Luxembourg: The number of levels depends on the status or initial training of individual teachers.
Portugal: Teachers can start their career with the status of *mestre* (ISCED 6), which places them directly on the fourth level.
Finland: The difference between the two salary scales is that, unlike seniority allocations, the bonus for length of service is included in the basic salary.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Teachers who have reached the upper level on the main salary scale may request their transfer to the higher scale with five points, on which progress is performance linked. In England and Wales, a separate scale is used for *Advanced Skills Teachers* .
Liechtenstein: The number of levels on the salary scale depends on the category to which a teacher belongs, and varies between 13 and 20.
Malta: Each of the three levels of the salary scale is subdivided into a certain number of echelons (represented in Figure 3.7).

Explanatory note

This Figure only takes into account the number of levels on the salary scale that a teacher may climb, between minimum and maximum salary. It does not necessarily correspond to the number of existing echelons. Scales do not necessarily begin at level nought or one but at higher levels which may, for example, correspond to those of public-sector employees with a certain status.

It should be emphasised that the percentage salary increase corresponding to each level on the scale varies enormously. Figure 3.4 represents this percentage ('the rate of salary increase') with respect to the total number of levels on the scale. Countries whose salary scales resemble a matrix are not included, given that the progress of teachers on them depends on various factors and that percentage salary increases vary considerably.

FIGURE 3.4: PERCENTAGE SALARY INCREASE BY LEVEL IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE NUMBER OF LEVELS ON THE SALARY SCALE OF TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

		Rate of salary increase				
		<5 %	From 5 to 10 %	>10 %	Variable	(:)
Total number of levels on linear salary scale	<10	**FIN, IS, BG**	**DK, UK (E/W/NI), EE**	**I, P**		
	Between 10 and 20	**B, D, EL, CZ, MT**	**F, UK (SC), SK**			**A, LI**
	Between 21 and 30					**IRL**
	>30	**NL, NO**				
	Variable	**L**			**E**	
	(:)					**CY**

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
France: The Figure is concerned solely with *professeurs certifiés*.
Italy, Portugal, Bulgaria, Estonia and **Malta**: The percentage salary increase varies from one level of the scale to the next. The rate of increase shown corresponds to an average value.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Only the main scale is considered.

Explanatory note

By **rate of salary increase** is meant the average percentage salary increase across two successive levels of the scale.

In some countries, the increase in salary is virtually continuous: their salary scales have many levels and increases from one to the next are small. This applies very clearly to the Netherlands and Norway but also to Belgium, Germany, Greece, Czech Republic and Malta. By contrast, in countries such as Denmark, Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Estonia, increases are disjointed. The number of levels is fewer but the percentage increase between each of them is greater.

1.3. Significance of professional experience in a field other than teaching

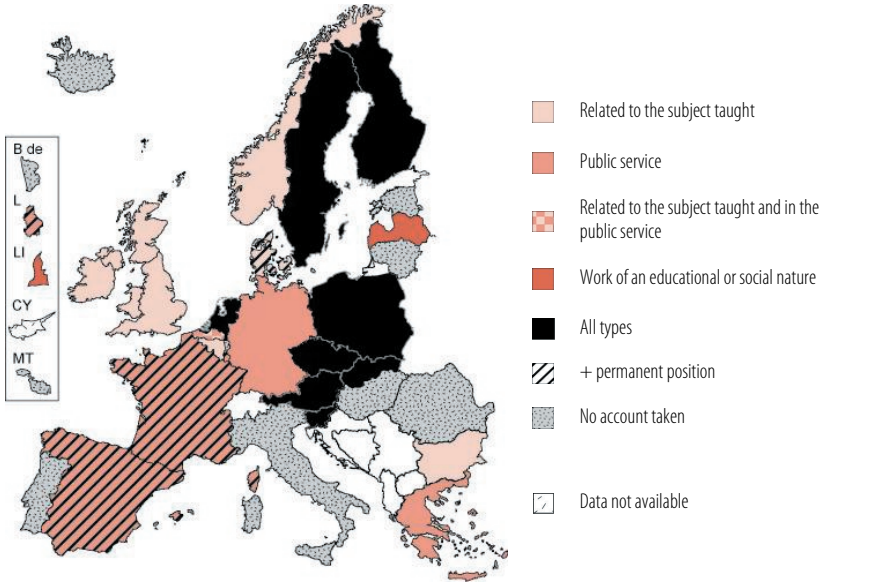
From the point at which they first begin service, teachers may be entitled to a salary higher than the minimum basic salary because their professional experience in a field other than teaching is taken into account. This factor is important in relation to the attractiveness of the profession, as it makes it easier for staff working in other sectors to transfer to education.

While this possibility exists in 19 European countries, it is generally limited to a certain type of professional experience or to teachers who are seeking a permanent position. Previous experience is only recognised fully and unconditionally irrespective of the sector of activity concerned in Poland and Slovenia. In the Netherlands, the most recent salary is used as an indicator to position new teachers on the salary scale, which may also be regarded as full recognition of previous experience. Other countries such as Austria, Finland, Sweden, the Czech Republic and Slovakia recognise experience acquired in any field other than teaching, although in accordance with certain criteria (including the number of years of experience or the opinion of the local authority).

The way in which professional experience in areas other than teaching is taken into account is often subject to a variety of conditions such as the following:

- **Conditions concerning the nature of the former professional experience**: the former employment must have been of a social or educational nature in Liechtenstein and Latvia. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, Ireland, the United Kingdom, Norway and Bulgaria, previous professional experience must be related to the content of the subject to be taught.
- **Conditions concerning former status**: if former experience is to be recognised in Germany, Greece, Spain, France and Luxembourg, it must have been acquired in the public sector. In Belgium (Flemish Community), previous experience in the public sector is also recognised.
- **Conditions related to the current status of the teacher**: recognition of former experience is sometimes limited to staff with a permanent position. This is the case in Denmark, Spain, France and Luxembourg. However, in France, the experience of a teacher in the private sector may also be recognised as long as it amounts to at least five years.

FIGURE 3.5: ACCOUNT TAKEN OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE IN FIELDS OUTSIDE TEACHING. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): No more than six years of previous professional experience are recognised, and only in the case of teachers of technical and practical subjects.
Belgium (B nl): No more than 10 years of previous professional experience are recognised, and only in the case of teachers of technical and practical subjects.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Prior professional experience in the public service is taken into account in salaries via the *trienios*.
Austria: Half of any former professional experience of no more than three years is taken into account. Former experience of over three years is only taken into account if it is of special relevance for the tasks of the teacher.
Finland: The collective agreement in force states that any experience that may be regarded as useful should be taken into account.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The bodies concerned may award additional points on the scale for professional experience, whether in independent or overseas schools, or for other experience regarded as having a bearing on the work of the teacher. These additional points on the scale are permanent whether teachers remain in the same post or take up a new one. With effect from 2001, *Guidance on schoolteachers' pay and conditions of employment* in England and Wales retains these extra points on the scale throughout a teacher's entire career.
United Kingdom (SC): As a result of the 2002 reform, professional experience in fields other than teaching is no longer taken into account.
Czech Republic: Recognition of experience acquired by teachers in fields other than teaching is at the entire discretion of the employer at local or school level.

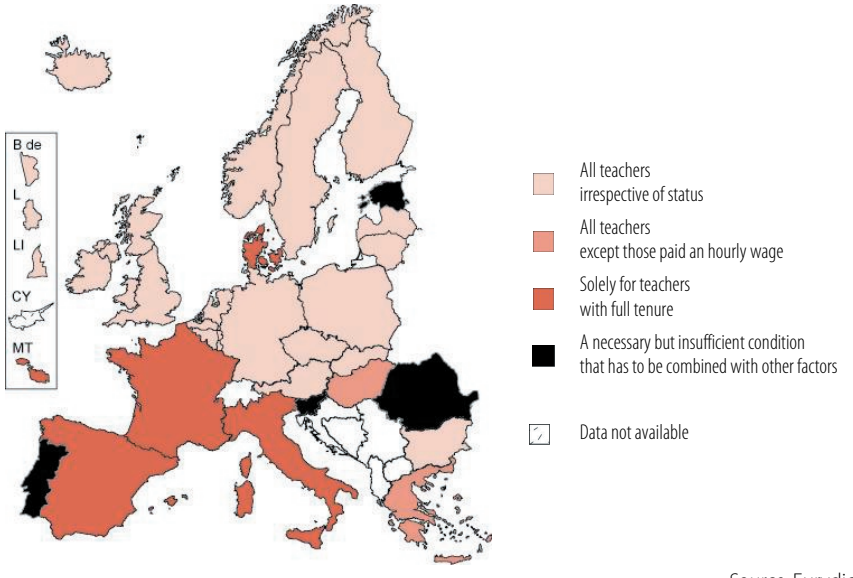
1.4. Factors with a bearing on increases in salary

From the foregoing, it is clear that the remuneration of teachers in service depends, in almost all countries, on their position on the salary scale. But among the factors determining this position, several are especially significant, including length of service, further training and appraisal of the actual work of teachers and/or their results in examinations whether competitive or otherwise. Naturally, these factors may be considered in conjunction with each other. Similarly, one or more factors may give rise to salary increases without however altering the position of a teacher on the salary scale.

1.4.1. Length of service in teaching

Length of service is undoubtedly the main factor taken into account in determining salary increases. Almost everywhere in Europe, the remuneration of teachers increases in proportion to their period of service. The only exceptions are Portugal, Estonia, Romania and Slovenia, in which length of service is a necessary but insufficient condition for moving on to a higher salary level. In Poland, length of service entitles teachers to an additional bonus, irrespective of their position on the salary scale. Figure 3.6 provides details regarding teacher entitlement to this kind of salary increase.

FIGURE 3.6: ENTITLEMENT TO SALARY INCREASES RELATED TO LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



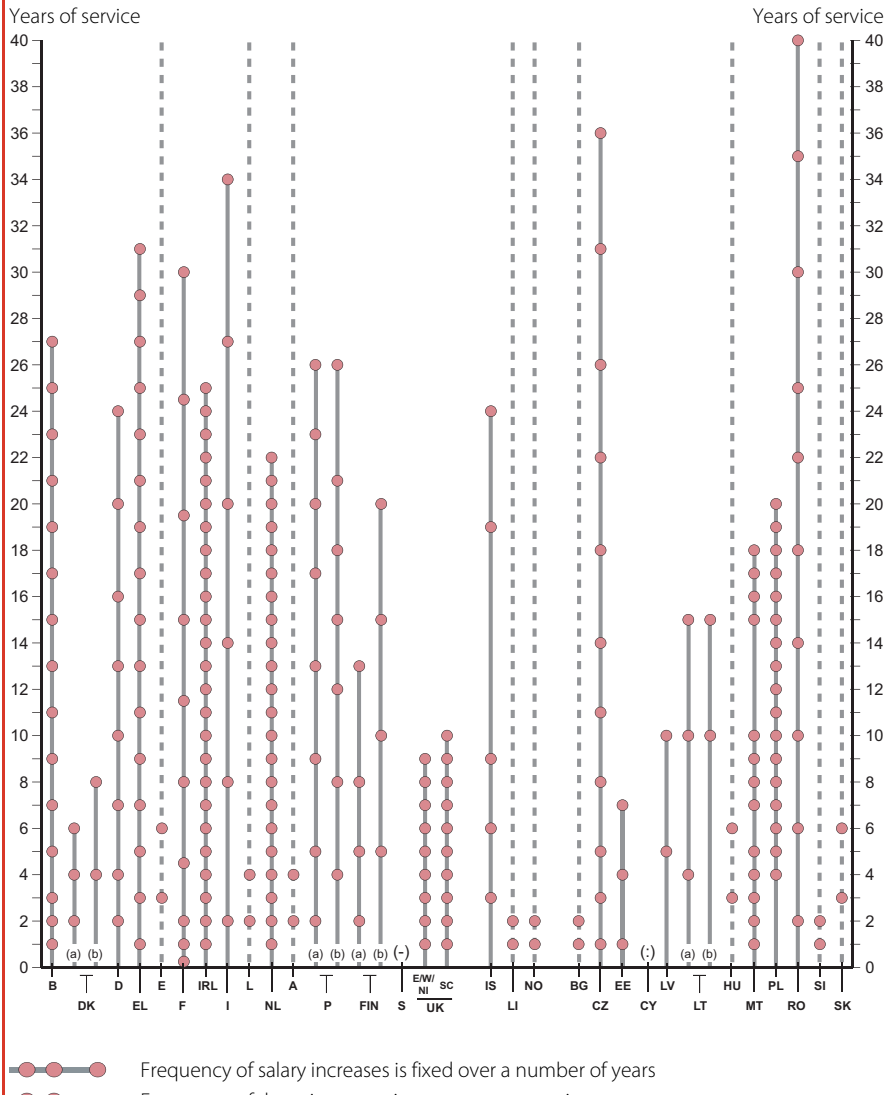
Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.

Increases on the salary scale that are related to length of service are not the same in all countries. They may occur at fixed or variable intervals. In several countries, these intervals are of a year and may also be as long as seven years (in Italy). In general, a single level is crossed at these points. Figure 3.7 shows the frequency of salary increases related to length of service.

FIGURE 3.7: FREQUENCY OF SALARY INCREASES RELATED TO LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 3.7)

Belgium: The frequency of salary increases related to length of service of teachers with an ISCED 5A diploma, who may teach in general lower secondary education (although this is most uncommon), is not shown in this Figure. The frequency of their salary increases is similar to that shown here, but up to 25 years of experience.
Denmark: The Figure shows the frequency of salary increases for teachers subject to the former system (a) and the new system (b).
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: Beginning in 2001, teachers' salaries in some *Länder* are no longer linked to seniority only but also to performance.
Portugal: The Figure illustrates the frequency of salary increases in the case of a) teachers with a *Bacharel* and b) those with a *Licenciado*.
Portugal, Estonia and **Slovenia**: Length of service is not in itself a sufficient condition for increasing the salary of individual teachers, but it is essential in determining whether they may progress to a higher level on the salary scale.
Finland: The Figure shows age-related allocations (a) and bonuses for years of service (b).
Sweden: As salary policy is very decentralised, increases are negotiated between the municipal employer/school head and the teacher concerned (with union involvement).
Bulgaria: In all professions, annual increases in salary are age related. There is also a five-level salary scale specifically for teachers, which is related to their length of service and other factors (results, examinations, in-service training and research, etc.).
Lithuania: The Figure shows the frequency of salary increases for teachers who are not promoted (a) and promoted teachers (b).
Romania: The award of length of service bonuses depend on whether teachers have done a course of compulsory in-service training *(perfectionare)*.
Slovenia: Salary increases are awarded annually. Once every three to five years, teachers may obtain a further increase if they are promoted.

Figure 3.7 indicates that, in some countries, salary increases related to length of service are more frequent at the start of the career. In other cases, they occur at constant regular intervals (as in Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Liechtenstein, Norway, Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia).

The relation between length of service and remuneration is in most cases limited in time, with the former not always taken into account up to retirement age. The limit beyond which this factor no longer has any bearing on salary varies very widely throughout Europe. In most countries, it corresponds either to a maximum number of years, or to a maximum salary level. Denmark, Latvia and Lithuania are the countries in which teachers are entitled to fewer salary increases related to length of service.

Bonuses and salary increases linked to length of service are rarely subject to other conditions. To secure them, teachers are not generally obliged to assume additional responsibities or perform new tasks.

A negative appraisal by the school head or inspectorate is generally the only factor liable to prevent payment of a salary increase or length of service bonus. This applies to Denmark, Greece, Italy, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and

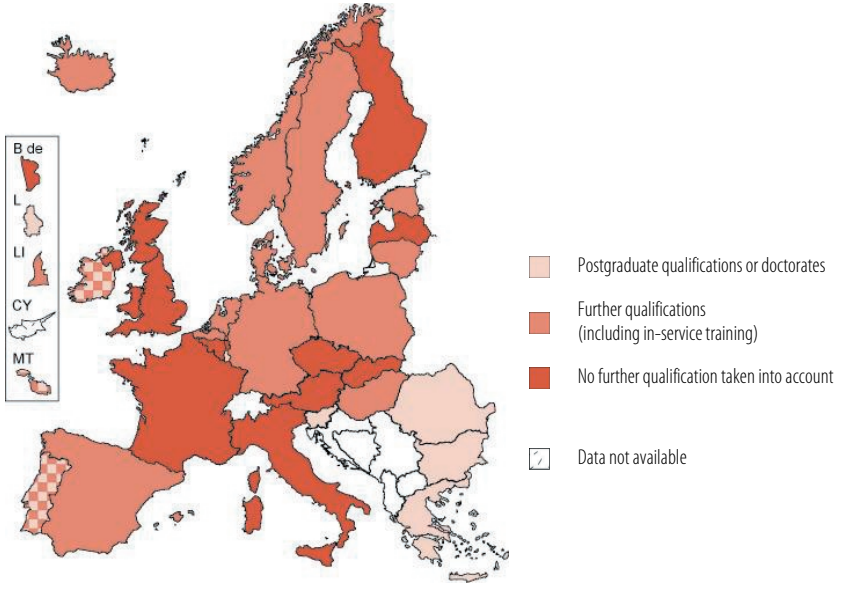
Northern Ireland), Hungary and Slovenia. In most countries, career breaks such as those for maternity or parental leave, or for sickness, are taken into account when length of service is calculated.

1.4.2. Further training

Further qualifications (any degree, title or similar qualification obtained by teachers over and above those required to enter the profession) are another means enabling teachers in some countries to move upwards on the salary scale. However, the present study only considers training that enables teachers to receive higher salaries without moving into a more senior staff category. From this standpoint, efforts on the part of teachers to improve their level of training throughout their career are recognised in the majority of countries. The only exceptions are Belgium, France, Italy, Austria, Finland, the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, Latvia and Slovakia. Nevertheless, in the United-Kingdom (Scotland), the situation changed in 2002. Salary increases depend on satisfactory completion of continuing professional development (CPD) courses.

Recognition of training throughout a teacher's career sometimes applies solely to postgraduate studies or doctorates, as shown in Figure 3.8. In-service training is thus not rewarded as a matter of course.

FIGURE 3.8: FURTHER QUALIFICATIONS ENTITLING TEACHERS TO HIGHER SALARIES IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 3.8)

Belgium (B nl): Teachers with an ISCED 5A diploma are entitled to a higher salary, but only work in lower secondary education in exceptional cases.
Denmark: The local level decides which qualifications are relevant.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: The only teachers able to climb the salary scale are the *Hauptschullehrer* and *Realschullehrer* who secure the status of *Gymnasiallehrer (Studienrat)* or *Berufsschullehrer (Studienrat)* if they obtain further qualifications.
Spain: Teachers are only eligible for a higher salary when they have completed a certain number of hours of in-service training every six years.
Ireland: Further qualifications entitle teachers to allocations irrespective of their position on the salary scale. Only graduate or postgraduate higher education qualifications are recognised.
Netherlands: The further qualifications entitling teachers to higher salaries are determined by each school.
Sweden: There is no automatic link between further qualifications and salary increases, which are always based on individual decisions.
United Kingdom (SC): The situation as regards salaries and further qualifications changed in 2002. The status of *chartered teacher* may now only be obtained once teachers have satisfactorily completed a given number of modular training periods.
Estonia: This requirement is not in itself a sufficient condition for increasing the salary of individual teachers, but it may be essential in determining whether they may progress to a higher level on the salary scale.
Malta: Teachers with university qualifications other than postgraduate qualifications or doctorates, are also entitled to salary bonuses.

As a rule, the salaries of individual teachers are increased whenever their additional qualifications are recognised. However, in Luxembourg and Romania, they are entitled to such an increase only once during their career.

Furthermore, just as with length of service, bonuses or salary increases linked to further qualifications are rarely subject to other conditions. They thus have no particular bearing on the workload or responsibilities of teachers, except in Iceland and Lithuania. In the latter, training is one of the criteria enabling teachers to secure a higher status. Teachers who obtain it have to take part in projects, write articles, help less experienced teachers, evaluate courses and prepare methodological approaches and materials for teaching their subject.

In addition, entitlement to this salary benefit is generally permanent that is, teachers retain it until they reach retirement age.

1.4.3. Salary increases following a performance appraisal

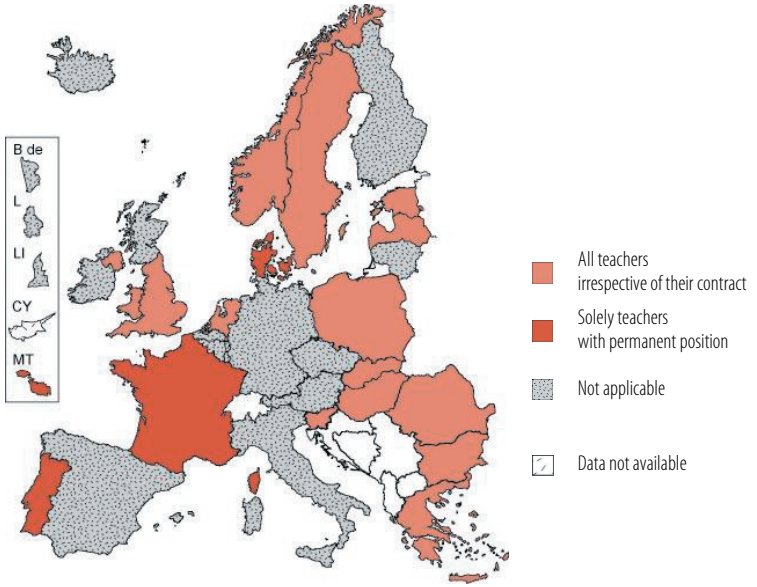
The result of a performance appraisal may affect the position of teachers on the salary scale. This evaluation may be based on two very different considerations, namely their merit or the quality of their teaching as such, and the results they obtain in examinations, competitive or otherwise.

1.4.3.1. Evaluation of teaching performance

In some EU countries and in the majority of candidate countries, the quality or value of the work carried out by teachers may be rewarded by a salary increase following its appraisal. This is not provided for in Belgium, Germany (prior to 2001), Spain, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland, Liechtenstein, the Czech Republic or Lithuania. In Denmark, France and Portugal, it is limited to teachers with a permanent position.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), teachers who have reached the final level on the main scale may request transfer to a higher performance-related scale. As its name suggests, progress on this scale depends on merit. Likewise, teachers in England and Wales may go to a higher level on the main scale when their work has been favourably evaluated.

FIGURE 3.9: TEACHERS ELIGIBLE FOR SALARY INCREASES RELATED TO THEIR PERFORMANCE. GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

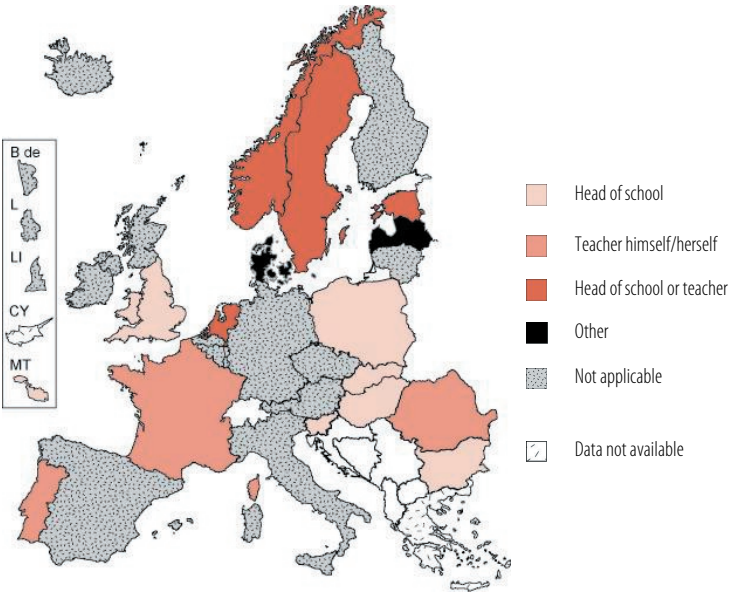
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: Following the implementation of civil service legislation, from 2001 teachers may claim salary increases related to their performance.
Greece: Only teachers paid by the hour are unable to claim these salary increases.
Portugal: Teachers may request an extraordinary evaluation which entitles them to career advancement.
Finland: 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 most uncommon.

Additional notes (continued)

Sweden: Negotiations between municipal employers and unions result in local agreements. Individual teacher salaries are determined jointly at the level of the school by its head and the unions or with the teachers themselves in the case of those who are not union members. In such cases, merit as evaluated by the school head is a relevant factor.
Poland: A favourable appraisal of the work performed by teachers leads to an additional payment known as the 'bonus for motivation' which in no way alters their position on the salary scale

Evaluation procedures are varied. In general, school heads take the lead in initiating the procedure. However, either the head or the teacher concerned may make the first move in the Netherlands, Norway and Estonia. In Denmark and Latvia, this prerogative belongs to the school head with the joint agreement of the municipal council and a special committee, respectively.

FIGURE 3.10: PERSON OR BODY RESPONSIBLE FOR INITIATING PROCEDURES FOR THE AWARD OF PERFORMANCE-RELATED TEACHER SALARY INCREASES IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The municipal council and the school head take the lead in initiating the procedure.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: The deputy school head may also take action to initiate the procedure.
Finland: 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 most uncommon.
Sweden: Negotiations between municipal employers and unions result in local agreements. Individual teacher salaries are determined jointly at the level of the school by its head and the unions or with the teachers themselves in the case of those who are not union members. In such cases, merit as evaluated by the school head is a relevant factor.

United Kingdom (E/W): The Figure illustrates how teachers move up the main salary scale on the basis of merit. Individual teachers themselves apply for transfer to the higher or performance-related scale. Their progress on this scale is determined by the school governing body.
Latvia: The school head and an internal committee take the lead in initiating the procedure

In nearly all countries, school heads have an important part to play in teacher appraisal itself. Their favourable judgement is often an essential element in the evaluation process, or even the sole element as in the Netherlands (in which both school heads and their deputies may act in this capacity), Sweden, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) in the case of the main salary scale, Norway, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia. On occasions, other bodies may be involved, such as the inspectorate (in France and Malta), special internal, external or mixed representation committees, or school governing bodies.

In France, the unions also take part in evaluation. The career advancement of teachers is based on an annual appraisal conducted partly by the *recteur* in response to a proposal from the school head and partly by the *inspecteur pédagogique*. A joint committee consisting of representatives from the administration and teacher representatives designated by the unions, submits proposals for the career advancement of the teachers concerned to the appropriate authority. The unions also have an important part to play in Sweden where, as already noted, there is no salary scale as such and salaries depend on the outcome of negotiations with the employer.

Salary increases related to the performance of teachers at work are in general permanent, even though in some countries salaries reach a maximum level. They are thus retained up to retirement age and may generally be supplemented by similar subsequent increases. In this respect, Hungary constitutes a special case. Salary increases related to merit cannot be maintained for longer than a year. On the other hand, the salary increase may be awarded several times. There is therefore nothing to prevent a teacher securing a fresh increase after the maximum period corresponding to the first increase has expired. In Romania, teacher salary increases resulting from favourable evaluation of performance at work are awarded for periods of one or four years.

Finally, the impact of a favourable appraisal on the real level of remuneration varies considerably from one country to the next. A positive appraisal sometimes goes hand in hand with an upward movement generally corresponding to two levels on the salary scale. However, this does not apply to all countries: either there are no special regulations in this area, or there is simply no relation between merit and the salary scale. Moreover, in many countries, such increases are only possible if a certain number of years in service have been completed. This type of restriction exists in France, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania.

1.4.3.2. Evaluation following a competitive examination or other form of assessment

In some countries, teachers may be evaluated by means of a competitive examination or other forms of assessment, success in which enables them to secure higher status without however ceasing to be teachers as such. This new status leads to a salary increase but not necessarily any new tasks or responsibilities. Where successful performance in a competitive or other examination results in transfer to a different staff category (management, administrative status in the Ministry of Education, the inspectorate, etc.), it is not considered here.

In Spain, teachers with eight years of experience may take part in a competitive examination to secure the status of *catedrático*. The number of *catedráticos* is limited to 30 % of all teachers in secondary education who are career civil servants. While selection procedures depend on the Autonomous Community concerned, they are generally based on an assessment of the academic merit and practical performance of teachers, as well as an oral examination involving discussion of a chosen subject.

In the United Kingdom (England and Wales), the new grade of *Advanced Skills Teachers* (AST) has been established. The purpose of this grade is to provide career advancement for the best teachers without them having immediately to progress to management positions. AST posts are made available by schools and, to secure appointment to them, applicants are externally assessed, on the basis of a career record, observation at work and interviews conducted in school.

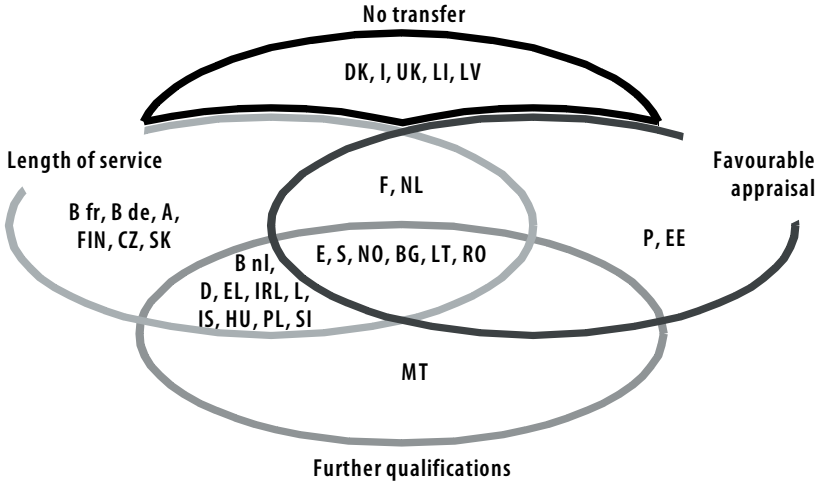
Up to April 2002, teachers in the United Kingdom (Scotland) had to contend with a hierarchy of grades including *non-promoted Teacher, Senior Teacher, Assistant Principal Teacher* and *Principal Teacher*. The recent reform has been devised to offer them an improved and simplified career structure so as to reward the best teachers wishing to continue teaching with the new status of *Chartered Teacher*. The posts made available are publicly advertised so that any qualified teacher may apply for them, irrespective of the school or local authority in which they are vacant.

The situation in Lithuania and Poland, where salary scales are in the form of a matrix, is noteworthy for certain distinctive features. In both countries, teachers may sit examinations or be interviewed in order to gain access to higher grades on the salary scale. In Lithuania, therefore, teachers wishing to obtain the grade of senior teacher are assessed by an internal school committee. For those wishing to become a consultant teacher or one who has specialised in methodology, the assessment committee is external. In either case, candidates have to take examinations. Thus in both countries, teachers have to undergo assessment by means of a competitive or standard examination to move up the salary scale. Such a procedure is therefore in no way exceptional as in the case of Spain.

1.5. Transferable remuneration

As a result of their own wishes or otherwise, teachers may be faced with a change of employer as they move from one teaching post to another, from private to public-sector education or from one regional or local authority to another, etc. Continued entitlement to salary benefits already acquired is undoubtedly an incentive for teachers to remain in the profession and also encourages internal mobility. Such patterns of professional mobility thus prompt the question as to whether salary benefits will be transferable and whether teachers will retain the level of salary they have secured because their professional experience in a sector other than teaching has already been taken into account, or because of their length of service, merit or further qualifications.

FIGURE 3.11: EXTENT TO WHICH SALARY INCREASES ACQUIRED BY TEACHERS IN PUBLIC-SECTOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A) ARE TRANSFERABLE, 2000/01



(:): **CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium and **Netherlands**: The grant-aided private sector is included.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Finland: Teachers have to apply for recognition of their financial benefits each time they change employer, although this is only a formality. Additional payments based on merit are at the latter's discretion.
Sweden: Negotiations between municipal employers and unions result in local agreements. Individual teacher salaries are determined jointly at the level of the school by its head and the unions or with the teachers themselves in the case of those who are not union members. Financial benefits may thus be transferable.
Norway: Further qualifications remain valid if they correspond to a new title recognised by the central authorities and if the local authorities have decided with union agreement that the teachers concerned should in any event receive a salary increase.
Romania: Salary increases related to a favourable performance appraisal are only retained if the change occurs during the period for which they were granted (one or four years).

Nearly all countries provide for the transfer of at least certain categories of salary increase. The only exceptions are Denmark, Italy, United Kingdom, Liechtenstein and Latvia. In France, where the central government is the sole employer, moves from one region to another do not threaten the status quo and any transfer from the public to the private sector or vice versa can normally only occur at the start of a teacher's career (see also Chapter 1, section 6).

However, the various categories are far from uniform. Cash benefits related, in particular, to length of service or to further qualifications are more readily transferable than those acquired following favourable results in a performance appraisal.

2. 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 additional responsibilities, as well as salary bonuses to compensate them for difficult working conditions linked to the area where they teach (which may be remote or affected by considerable social exclusion or a high cost of living) or to characteristics of their pupils (who may have special educational needs, or fail to reach minimum attainment levels at school or master the language of instruction, etc.).

2.1. Overtime

By overtime is meant time spent working which exceeds the number of working hours specified in the contract of employment or conditions of service, and for which teachers receive an additional payment in return for performing duties included in their normal tasks. The list of tasks that teachers may be asked to carry out in their employment contract or the service regulations is given in Chapter 2 of the present report. Overtime may occur on a temporary basis or regularly throughout the year. For example, it may involve the temporary replacement of a colleague on leave ([1]) or, in countries in which the number of hours of service is collectively determined, the allocation throughout the year of a teaching load that exceeds the amount of teaching specified as the norm.

([1]) Conditions governing the replacement (whether remunerated or otherwise) of absent colleagues are set out in: Chapter 4 of Report II: Supply and demand. General lower education. The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. *Key topics in education in Europe*, Volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

FIGURE 3.12: OVERTIME PAYMENTS COMPARED TO THE NORMAL SALARY EXPRESSED AS AN HOURLY RATE. FULL-TIME TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

Not applicable: overtime is not paid	Payment lower than the hourly rate	Payment equivalent to the hourly rate	Payment above the hourly rate		Payment varies
			Between 100 and 150 %	Over 150 %	
E, IRL, UK	**B fr, B de, D, L, FIN, MT**	**B nl, EL, NL, IS, LT, PL, RO**	**DK, A, P, CZ, EE, LV, HU, SI, SK**	**S, NO**	**F, I, LI, BG**

(:): **CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): The total timetable of a teacher corresponds to between 22 and 24 hours a week and, in principle, there are no overtime payments. Nevertheless, if the school authority cannot find a teacher for lessons in a particular subject, the latter may be provided on an exceptional basis by one or several teachers working overtime but at very low rates.
Belgium (B de): As one of several measures to overcome a shortage of teachers, a decree of 25 June 2001 laid down that overtime should be paid at the normal hourly rate solely when there was a demonstrable teacher shortage.
Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: If the number of hours of overtime exceeds the maximum weekly threshold or a half-year, or if teachers do overtime for a period longer than a year, they are entitled to a reduction in their workload in the following year or to overtime payments.
France: Overtime is paid at a flat rate which relates to the status of the individual teacher concerned, rather than to the level reached on the salary scale. Its amount expressed as a percentage of the normal hourly rate thus varies considerably from one case to the next.
Malta: Since the 2001/02 school year, teachers have had to complete three two-hour sessions of in-service training, in return for which they receive overtime payments.

Explanatory note

Regulations regarding the calculation of overtime payments vary very widely depending on the country concerned. Such payments may correspond to a percentage of an hourly wage (e.g. 150 %), a proportion of the monthly salary (e.g. 1/90), a percentage of the monthly salary (e.g. 1.432 %), a proportion of the annual salary, or involve reference to the basic salary, the salary after a certain number of years or the maximum salary, etc. The precise indexes are shown in the annexe, along with the calculation adopted to relate the overtime rate to the normal hourly rate where necessary.

Three countries (Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom) do not provide explicitly for the remuneration of time spent working that exceeds the specification in a teacher's contract. In Spain and the United Kingdom, teachers are contractually obliged to be present and available at school for a given number of hours (see Chapter 2). School heads may thus ask them to work longer hours than those corresponding to their normal workload for no extra payment.

In four countries (Belgium (French Community), Germany, Greece and Austria), teachers are expected to be able to do a certain amount of overtime in addition to their workload, without receiving any further remuneration. Overtime above this amount entitles them to salary bonuses. For example, in Germany, if the amount of overtime exceeds the maximum weekly threshold, or if teachers do overtime for a period of longer than half a year, they are entitled to a reduction in their workload in the following year or to overtime payments.

In the other countries, any hour of work regarded as additional compared to the number of hours determined contractually (whether in law, a collective bargaining agreement or an individual contract) directly entitles teachers to financial compensation or a reduction in working time (as in Portugal in the case of work done after 7 p.m., Liechtenstein or Estonia). Financial compensation is greater than the hourly rate in 11 countries and equivalent to it in seven.

2.2. Additional responsibilities

An additional responsibility is defined as any task that teachers are expected to perform by their employers which is not among the services they normally carry out. Teachers receive a salary bonus because they are willing to assume responsibiities **distinct from those specified in their contracts**. The list of tasks that may be requested of teachers under their employment contract or service regulations is given in Chapter 2 of the present report. These additional responsibilities are exercised for a fixed period and not necessarily linked to the promotion of the teacher concerned. The replacement of absent colleagues is not considered here because it corresponds to extra time devoted to activities specified in the contract of employment (in most cases teaching duties).

Additional remunerated responsibilities may vary greatly. Most common among them are supervisory duties or out-of-class activities with pupils, participation in school management, the provision of advice or support to other teachers, invigilation and marking of examinations, participation in national or international activities, and the organisation of teaching materials or responsibilities in the area of ICT. Figure 3.13 provides an overview of remunerated activity in each of the countries concerned.

In Belgium, Germany and Austria (in *Hauptschulen*), teachers who take on additional responsibilities cannot be remunerated for them. In Luxembourg and the United Kingdom, only one type of responsibility offers entitlement to remuneration, and it depends on decision taken by local or school authority in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). In the other countries, the range of additional responsibilities that may be remunerated is broader.

FIGURE 3.13: RESPONSIBILITIES FURTHER TO THOSE SPECIFIED IN THE CONTRACT OF EMPLOYMENT, FOR WHICH TEACHERS ARE REMUNERATED IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Supervision of pupils after classes and/or out-of-class activities with them	Participation in school management	Provision of advice or support to other teachers	Invigilation and marking of examinations, membership of examination committees or panels	Participation in national/ international activities or activities of representative bodies	Organisation of teaching materials, ICT responsibilities
B fr	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
B de	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
B nl	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
DK	●	●	●	●	●	●
D	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
EL	●	●	❍	●	●	❍
E	❍	●	❍	●	●	❍
F	❍	●	●	●	❍	❍
IRL	●	●	✓	(–)	(–)	(–)
I	●	●	●	❍	❍	❍
L	❍	❍	❍	●	❍	❍
NL	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍
A	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
P	●	●	●	●	●	❍
FIN	●	●	❍	❍	❍	❍
S	✓	✓	✓	❍	✓	✓
UK (E/W/NI)	❍	✓	❍	❍	❍	❍
UK (SC)	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	❍
IS	●	●	●	●	✓	❍
LI	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	●
NO	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
BG	●	●	❍	●	●	❍
CZ	❍	✓	✓	❍	❍	●
EE	●	●	●	●	●	❍
CY	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)
LV	●	●	❍	●	●	❍
LT	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍
HU	❍	●	❍	❍	❍	●
MT	●	❍	❍	●	❍	❍
PL	●	●	●	●	●	❍
RO	❍	❍	●	●	❍	❍
SI	❍	❍	●	●	●	❍
SK	●	●	●	●	●	❍

● Additional responsibilities in return for remuneration

❍ Responsibilities that teachers cannot be asked to assume, or that cannot be regarded as additional responsibilities because they represent a simple extension of their normal duties (see preceding point) or, yet again, additional responsibilities for which they are not remunerated

✓ Decision taken by the local authority or school head

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 3.13)

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Austria: Only teachers who are employed by the *Länder* and work in *Hauptschulen* are considered here.
Portugal: Invigilation and marking are only remunerated in the case of national examinations.
Norway: Teachers receive a bonus when they travel with pupils as part of their supervisory or out-of-class activities with them.
Czech Republic: School heads may decide to pay teachers a bonus for carrying out activities such as work with pupils with special needs, library administration, the supervision of school equipment, the organisation of school competitions and the provision of support to other teachers, etc.
Romania: Only the supervision of prospective teachers during their practice in schools is subject to additional remuneration. A teacher may offer support to other teachers, especially new teachers, at the request of the school head but this will not be remunerated.

Explanatory note

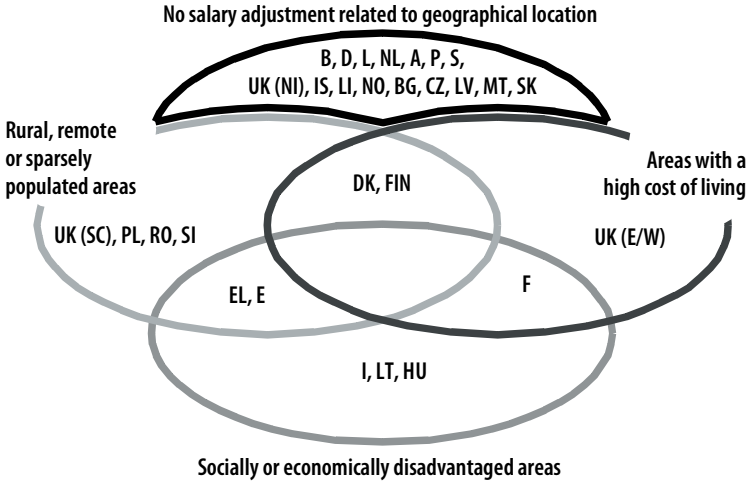
The Figure shows the additional responsibilities for which teachers with a standard employment contract are remunerated.

2.3. Differences in salary related to the geographical location of teachers

Salary differences related to the area in which teachers work are salary adjustments that take certain characteristics of the location of a school into account. These adjustments generally take the form of incentives intended to encourage teachers to accept posts in remote, rural or socially disadvantaged regions. They may also be offered other allowances for working in regions such those of capital cities with an above average cost of living.

While these salary differences are not as widespread as remunerated overtime or additional responsibilities, they are nevertheless recognised in the legislation of 13 countries. Eligibility criteria vary considerably. They may be of a geographical nature (remote or isolated areas) as in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Poland, Romania and Slovenia; of an economic nature (very high cost of living) as in Denmark, France, Finland and the United Kingdom (England); or of a social nature (areas affected by considerable social exclusion, high risk areas and areas with a high proportion of pupils from minority ethnic or linguistic backgrounds) as in Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Lithuania and Hungary. In general, all teachers, regardless of their status, are entitled to these bonuses. In some countries, they have to have a permanent contract or public servant status (Denmark and Finland) or teach in a certain type of school (Hungary).

FIGURE 3.14: ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA FOR SALARY ADJUSTMENTS RELATED TO THE GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



(:): **IRL, CY, EE**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Only teachers on permanent contracts.
Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Provided that teachers have been working in the area for at least a month.
France: Two types of residential location have been identified for determining cost-of-living allowances. They correspond to 1 % and 3 % of gross salary respectively.
Italy: Provided that teachers agree to remain in the area for a certain period.
Netherlands: Schools in disadvantaged regions receive supplementary financial resources which may be used for salary adjustments.
Portugal: The career status of teachers provides for salary bonuses in the case of those who work in rural or remote areas, but there are no regulations for administering them.
Finland: Teachers with public servant status, solely when they work in remote or sparsely populated areas; all teachers in the case of areas with an above average cost of living.
United Kingdom (E/W): Only teachers who work in or around London.
Hungary: Solely teachers in schools supported by the local authorities.

2.4. Teaching in mixed classes

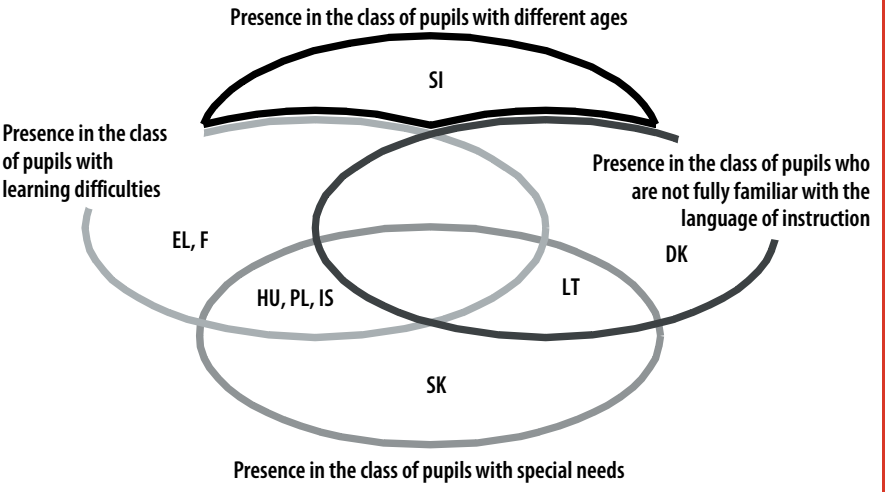
Several countries arrange additional remuneration for teachers who cater for pupils with learning difficulties or special needs in mainstream classes. In general, this kind of bonus is awarded in the case of pupils with special educational needs, but other criteria such as teaching children with language difficulties, children of different ages in the same class, or pupils with low levels of attainment are sometimes taken into account. Additional remuneration generally requires a minimum number of pupils with difficulties and in certain countries, such as

Hungary or Poland, teachers must possess special qualifications in order to be eligible for an adjustment in salary.

In Sweden, the presence of pupils with learning difficulties or special needs may be taken into account in individual salary negotiations.

FIGURE 3.15: TEACHING IN MIXED CLASSES: CRITERIA ENTITLING TEACHERS TO ADDITIONAL REMUNERATION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

Allocations



No salary adjustments

B, D, E, I, L, NL, A, P, FIN, S, UK, LI, NO, CZ, BG, LV, MT, RO

(:): **IRL, CY, EE**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: Schools enrolling children from ethnic minorities receive supplementary financial resources which may be used for salary adjustments.
Czech Republic: School heads may decide to pay a salary bonus to teachers who work with mixed groups or difficult classes.

Explanatory note

The information in the Figure is not concerned with children provided for in separate classes or schools.

3. FINANCIAL BENEFITS

The previous sections have been devoted to the collection of data concerning the basic salary and additional remuneration received by teachers. This third section seeks to review other non-earnings-related incentives for prospective teachers to enter the profession and for practising teachers to remain in it, and to examine the procedures for awarding them.

Financial benefits are defined as **benefits or treatment in kind** corresponding to the goods and services supplied **free** or at **preferential rates** by employers to their employees who can use them as they wish to satisfy their own needs or those of other members of their household (Eurostat, *National Account Statistics*).

Figure 3.16 summarises the different financial benefits that exist in the different countries.

FIGURE 3.16: FINANCIAL BENEFITS FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	B fr	B nl	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A					●		●	●	(:)			●	●	●	●	✓				●				●	(:)		(:)			●			●
B				✓	●	●	●	●	(:)	●		●					✓		✓		✓			●	(:)	✓	●	✓		●	●	✓	
C	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	(:)	●	●	●	●	●	●	✓	●	●	●	●	●			●	(:)	✓	●	●	●	●	●	●	
D				✓			●	✓	(:)		●			●	●	●			●	●			●		(:)	✓		✓		✓		●	●
E				✓	●		●		(:)				●		●	✓	●			●	●			●	(:)	✓		✓		✓			●

A	Health benefits	D	Food and refreshment benefits
B	Accommodation benefits	E	Resource benefits (books, computer facilities, etc.)
C	Travel benefits	☐	Empty box = No benefit
✓	At the discretion of the local authority or school	●	Benefit

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): Since September 2002, teachers working in several different schools on the same day receive a benefit that partially covers their transport costs.
Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.

The various types of incentive considered in the present study are more extensive in a group of countries consisting of Germany, Spain, France, Finland, Sweden (in which they are administered by the local authorities), Estonia, Latvia (in which they are also administered by the local authorities), Hungary and Poland. The most widespread benefits are those related to travel costs, available in the very great majority of countries, albeit sometimes subject to certain conditions. By contrast, in Bulgaria, no type of benefit is provided.

3.1. Health benefits

Some form of social security for citizens is the norm virtually everywhere in Europe, which explains why teachers are rarely granted further benefits related to health. Indeed, this kind of incentive exists solely in Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands, Austria (in some *Länder* only), Finland, Liechtenstein, Estonia, Poland and Slovakia.

These countries sometimes offer additional insurance cover as in Spain and France, in the case of all public servants, Finland, where all staff are beneficiaries, and Liechtenstein. In Poland, a payment is made for any additional time needed for convalescence. In Finland and Slovakia, free medical examinations are also possible, as is the partial reimbursement of medical fees in Germany. Where benefits of this kind exist, they are awarded solely to teachers with a permanent position, except in Finland.

However, it should be noted that teachers in the Netherlands are not necessarily covered by their national health service, in which case they have to join a private medical insurance scheme. However, there are regulations for the protection of teachers confronted with the financial implications of their illness or disablement, particularly by means of the total or partial financing of private insurance cover.

3.2. Accommodation benefits

This type of financial benefit is concerned with the partial or full coverage of expenditure entailed in enabling teachers to settle in the area in which their schools are located.

Teachers are more frequently granted benefits related to accommodation than benefits concerned with health. Almost half of the countries provide for this kind of incentive, the precise nature of which varies. Essentially, incentives may be of three types:

- **house removal allowances**: they are only awarded on initial appointment to a post or in the event of transfer and are often restricted to teachers with a permanent position. They exist in Denmark (at the discretion of the local authorities), Germany, France, Italy (on initial appointment), the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England and Wales, at the discretion of the local authorities), Iceland (at the discretion of the local authorities), Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania. In Lithuania, only teachers whose contract binds them to their post for five years are eligible for this kind of benefit;

- **total or partial financial assistance with accommodation**: arrangements and procedures differ. A teachers' residence, house or flat are sometimes made available to teachers as in Norway (only in remote areas), Latvia, Hungary, Poland (in rural areas or towns with under 5 000 inhabitants) and in Slovenia (for teachers with a permanent position). In the Czech Republic, this possibility exists, but in exceptional circumstances. Another possibility is the total or partial payment of a teacher's rent as in Iceland, Estonia and Hungary. In most cases, this advantage is at the discretion of the local authority or school;
- **preferential terms for a mortgage**: this option is available in Denmark (at the discretion of local authorities), Greece, Spain and Estonia. In Greece, further conditions have to be satisfied: at least five years of experience in service are required, and teachers have to commit themselves to a post in a problem area for at least three years.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), some local authorities offer financial support for accommodation to key public-sector employees, including teachers.

FIGURE 3.17: TYPES OF ACCOMMODATION RELATED BENEFIT AVAILABLE TO TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	B fr	B nl	Bde	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A				✓	●			●	(:)	●		●					✓		✓					●	(:)		●			●	●		
B				✓					(:)								✓		✓		✓			●	(:)	✓		✓		●		✓	
C				✓		●	●		(:)															●	(:)								

A	House removal allowances	●	Benefit
B	Accomodation, rent		Empty box = No benefit
C	Preferential mortgages	✓	At the discretion of the local authority or school

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Italy: Removal expenses are only paid on a teacher's initial appointment.
Norway: Municipalities may supply accommodation if teachers work in remote areas.
Poland: Teachers who work in rural areas or towns with under 5 000 inhabitants are entitled to accommodation within the boundaries of the area concerned. Nevertheless, the *gmina* (local authority) has to be in a position to provide it.

Accommodation related expenditure often represents a very important share of the family budget. The possible financial scale of accommodation related benefits therefore means that they may become a very strong incentive for attracting

teachers to areas that are difficult, remote or sparsely populated, as in the case of Greece, Norway and Poland. Furthermore, in countries in which the administration of financial support for accommodation is decentralised to the local level or to schools, such support may play a significant role in competition between schools, which may be seeking to attract the best teachers.

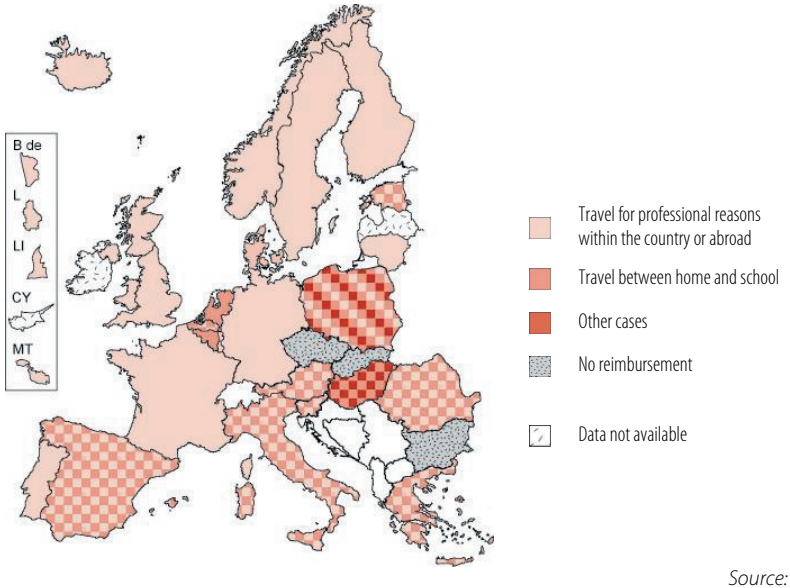
3.3. Benefits related to travel costs

In most countries, the travel costs of teachers for professional reasons may be wholly or partially covered by their employer. Countries in which this kind of incentive is not on offer are Belgium (the German-speaking Community prior to September 2002), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. Several types of travel may be wholly or partially subsidised:

- **travel between the teacher's home and school**: financial support is offered in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Spain, the Netherlands, Estonia, Poland (solely for travel by train) and Slovenia. In Italy, Austria, Hungary and Romania, it is restricted to teachers who live in a locality other than that of the school. In Greece, it is restricted to teachers dividing their time between two different schools in different localities.
- **'official' travel within the country or abroad**, which teachers have to undertake for professional reasons: the costs are generally covered by the employer. This applies – though often subject to limits or conditions – in Belgium (Flemish and German-speaking Communities), Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Estonia, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovenia.
- **other cases**: Hungarian and Polish teachers are entitled to a 50 % reduction on train tickets for all kinds of travel (including private travel).

All teachers are eligible for these benefits in the majority of countries, regardless of their status. Other occasional forms of benefit may be regarded as out-of-the-ordinary. For example, support for teachers in Greece, France and Norway who are seconded overseas is not considered here.

FIGURE 3.18: TYPES OF TRAVEL RELATED BENEFIT FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr), Austria, Hungary and **Poland**: The daily transport costs of teachers are not covered fully.
Belgium (B de): Since September 2002, teachers working in several different schools on the same day have received a benefit that partially covers their transport costs.
Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: Costs are fully paid in the first year and up to a maximum sum after that.
Austria: The costs of travel between home and school are only covered if teachers live in a town or city other than the one in which their school is situated.
Sweden: Teachers are entitled to tax relief if their daily travel between home and school is expensive.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Benefits of this kind may exist in exceptional circumstances, subject to very strict conditions.
Liechtenstein and **Malta**: Road travel costs are only paid if teachers work in several schools and journeys are between these schools.
Poland: The costs of travel between home and school are only covered in the case of transport by train.
Romania: The costs of travel between home and school are only covered if teachers live in a town or city other than the one in which their school is situated. Foreign travel for offical programmes or activities is financed by the Ministry (except in the case of Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci ou similar programmes).

3.4. Other benefits

Besides the financial benefits described here, there may be yet others such as luncheon vouchers, free or subsidised canteen services, reduced rates for the purchase of books, or office or computer equipment, reduced rates for cultural amenities (museums and exhibitions, etc.), and scope for flexible working hours – to mention but a few. Figure 3.19 summarises the main benefits in three major categories:

- **benefits related to food and refreshment**, including luncheon vouchers or free or subsidised canteen services. This is the most frequent type of benefit as it exists in almost half of the countries in some form or other.
- **benefits related to the purchase of computer equipment**, particularly computers themselves. Such benefits are not very common. In the region of Helsinki in Finland, teachers who have acquired a certain level of computer expertise are entitled to their own portable computer (although it is the property of the municipality). In Sweden, teachers taking part in the ITiS programme are similarly entitled to their own computer. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the *Computers for Teachers Initiative* enables teachers to buy computers at reduced rates.
- **benefits relating to the purchase of books or office equipment for personal use by teachers** exist in only 9 countries, including Denmark and Latvia, in which they awarded at the discretion of the local authority or school.

FIGURE 3.19: OTHER BENEFITS FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	B fr	B nl	B de	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A				✓			●	✓	(:)		●			●	●	●			●	●			●		(:)	✓		✓		✓		●	●
B1									(:)						●	✓	●								(:)								
B2				✓	●		●		(:)				●							●	●			●	(:)	✓		✓		✓			●

A	Food and refreshment benefits	B1	Benefits relation to the purchase of computer equipment
✓	At the discretion of the local authority or the school	B2	Benefits related to the purchase of books, office equipment, etc.
●	Benefit		Empty box = No benefit

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Denmark and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.

4. DEGREE TO WHICH POLICIES FOR TEACHER SALARIES ARE UNIFORM AND CENTRALISED

Diversity is the hallmark of policies concerned with salaries in the teaching profession in Europe. Indeed the number of factors affecting the way in which teacher salaries are determined vary very substantially from one country to the next. The policies at issue may thus be described in relation to the extent to which their identity tends to be individual or uniform. The greater the number of factors taken into account in determining the level of a teacher's income and financial benefits, the more those policies will be individually distinctive and vice versa.

The analysis also considers the extent to which policies in this area are centralised or decentralised. At what level are the bodies responsible for awarding teachers various salary adjustments and/or financial benefits situated?

In this study, the central level or top level of education authority is represented by the national ministries of education, except in Belgium (ministries of the three Communities), in Germany (federal government and ministries of the 16 *Länder*) and Spain (national ministry and governments of Autonomous Communities).

Figure 3.20 sets out in detail the factors taken into account in each country and the administrative levels responsible for according them. It illustrates the salary adjustments and financial benefits that exist in each case, as well as the decision-making level responsible for their allocation. It should be noted that, as there may be variations in the case of teachers with temporary status or on hourly wage rates, the Figure considers only teachers with a permanent position.

In the addition to the minimum basic salary whose amount is fixed in all countries, most salary increases are related to length of service, overtime work and additional responsibilities. By contrast, teachers in Europe are far less commonly entitled to special benefits concerned with health care (available in just 12 countries), salary adjustments for teaching mixed classes (11 countries) and financial benefits associated with accommodation (18 countries). In general, factors such as experience in a field other than teaching, length of service, further qualifications and the appraisal of how teachers perform at work are more frequently taken into account than those included under the 'salary adjustments' or 'financial benefits' categories.

FIGURE 3.20: 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 2A), 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
B fr					
B de					
B nl					
DK		❍		❍	❍
D					
EL					
E		▮		▮	▮
F					▮
IRL					
I			❍		
L					
NL		❍		❍	❍
A					
P					
FIN		❍			✓
S		❍●		❍●	❍●
UK (E)		❍			●
UK (W/NI)		❍			●
UK (SC)					
IS					
LI					
NO		(:)		❍	❍
BG					
CZ		❍●			
EE		❍●		▮❍●	▮❍●
CY	(:)				
LV					●
LT					
HU					●
MT					
PL					❍
RO					▮●
SI					●
SK		❍●			●

Central level ❍ Local level ✓ At the discretion of the local authority or the school
▮ Regional level ● School level Not applicable

Source: Eurydice.

FIGURE 3.20 (CONTINUED): 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 2A), 2000/01

	Salary adjustments				Financial benefits			
	Overtime	Additional responsibilities	Geographical area of work	Mixed classes	Health	Accom-modation	Travel	Other benefits
B fr								
B de								
B nl								
DK		❍		(:)		✓	●	✓
D							▮	❍
EL				(:)				
E		▮	▮			▮	▮	
F								✓
IRL		✓	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)
I			(:)			❍●	❍●	
L								
NL		●		✓		❍●		
A					▮			▮❍●
P								(:)
FIN							❍	❍
S	●	✓			✓		✓	●✓
UK (E)		✓				✓	❍●	❍●
UK (W/NI)		✓				✓	❍●	❍●
UK (SC)							❍	
IS		✓		●		✓	❍	
LI								
NO	❍	✓				✓	❍	❍
BG		●						
CZ		✓		✓				●
EE		●	(:)	(:)	●	❍	❍	●
CY				(:)				
LV	●	●				✓	✓	✓
LT					(:)			
HU		❍				✓	●	✓
MT								
PL					●	❍●		✓
RO		▮●				❍	▮❍●	
SI				(:)		✓		
SK					▮●			●

Central level ❍ Local level ✓ At the discretion of the local authority or the school

▮ Regional level ● School level Not applicable

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 3.20)

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: The regional level represents the *Länder*, which have a high level of competencies in education. The central level represents the federal authority.
Spain: The regional level represents the Autonomous Communities, which have a high level of competencies in education. The central level represents national 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*.
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. As regards the relevance of professional experience in a field other than education and appraisal of teacher performance at work, a collective agreement at central level sets out the framework, while the local authorities are responsible for implementing it. As to adjustments related to the geographical area of work, the central government fixes a minimum allocation subject to possible local increases.
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.
United Kingdom (SC): 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 basic salary and salary scale are negotiated by the teacher unions and a central committee representing the municipalities.

It is possible to classify countries in terms of the number of elements that may have a bearing on the salaries of their teachers. The country with the most individually distinctive salary policy is Poland, where all factors, salary adjustments and financial benefits considered are taken into account. Denmark, Greece, Spain, France, the Netherlands, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary and Slovenia constitute the second group of countries where a large number of factors affect teacher income.

By contrast, teacher salary policies are most uniform in Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), where individual teachers are unable to secure benefits linked to their own professional circumstances. This also applies, though to a lesser extent, in Italy, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Malta.

Figure 3.20 also reveals that the central level exercises a determinant influence in decisions regarding salary policies for teachers. The basic salary is always determined at central level, as are the conditions governing the length of service and overtime in almost all countries. By contrast, decisions to increase the salary of teachers following a positive appraisal of their performance at work are very often decentralised.

The countries with the most centralised salary policies are the three Communities of Belgium, Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal and Liechtenstein, where the central authorities are in charge of all matters related to teacher salaries, adjustments and

financial benefits. Salary policy in Spain can also be considered to be centralised, because all salary adjustments and financial benefits are shared between the Ministry of Education and Autonomous Communities authorities.

There is also relatively little decentralisation in another group of countries consisting of Germany, France, Austria, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Malta and Slovenia.

By contrast, the salary policies of a few countries are highly decentralised:

- **primarily at local level**, as in Denmark;
- **at both local and school levels**, as in Sweden and Estonia;
- **primarily at school level**, as in the Netherlands.

It is difficult to conclude from the foregoing analysis that there is a linear relation between the individual distinctiveness of a salary policy and the extent to which decisions relating to it are centralised or decentralised. Clearly, some countries in which decisions regarding salaries and other benefits for teachers are quite highly centralised nonetheless differ as regards the uniformity or otherwise of the salary adjustments or financial benefits awarded. In this respect, France and Greece provide for a fairly wide variety of benefits while the salary policies of Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities) tend to uniformity. Conversely, the individual distinctiveness of salary policies is a feature that Denmark and the Netherlands also have in common with France, from which they differ however in decentralising administration of those benefits to local or school level.

CHAPTER 4
IN-SERVICE TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

There is unanimous agreement that all teachers should be provided during their careers with the skills needed to perform their tasks well and thus achieve the aims of quality education in schools. In-service training is one way of acquiring and updating those skills.

There is a twofold significance to the opportunities teachers have for professional development. Besides being an essential aspect of their conditions of service with a direct bearing on the attractiveness of the teaching profession, such opportunities also have an undeniable impact on the quality of education that teachers offer their pupils.

The term 'continuing professional development' is increasingly being used more broadly in several countries to refer to a wide range of professional development opportunities available to teachers, which may also include informal opportunities for training in activities such as teamwork. However, not all countries adopt this approach.

In-service training is directly related to the work of teachers and seeks to update, develop and broaden the knowledge they acquired during initial training and/or provide them with new skills and professional understanding which they may not have at a given stage in their career. In-service training may also be provided specifically to accompany the implementation of educational reforms. And as a process of lifelong learning, it enables teachers to meet their individual professional requirements, which again has an impact on how they perform at work.

Training may address a variety of needs, from nationally identified priorities to the particular needs of schools or individuals and can take many forms. Activities may be offered by a wide range of training providers.

In this context, in-service training should be distinguished from further 'qualifying training' which normally enables teachers to teach another subject or at another educational level. Besides usually lasting longer than in-service training, such training is also generally provided at postgraduate level and includes courses for more specialised qualifications, which is not necessarily the case of in-service training. With the exception of sabbatical leave (section 1.6), which is normally taken to acquire additional qualifications, qualifying training is not therefore considered here. Neither is training in a final 'on-the-job' qualifying phase for

those about to enter the teaching profession, or as an integral part of supporting measures for new entrants, since provision of this kind has already been examined in detail in Report I ([1]).

The quality and effectiveness of in-service training depend on how the provision of such training and access to it are organised, as well as on its content. Section 1 will analyse some of the organisational aspects of professional development, including arrangements for sabbaticals, while Section 2 will focus on content and describe some types of specific skills training in European countries. Finally, Section 3 will provide a set of statistics on participation in in-service training.

1. ORGANISATION AND ACCESS

All countries offer in-service training opportunities for teachers at lower secondary level. However, precisely what is on offer may vary within – as well as between – countries, as may the accessibility of training, depending on how, where and when it is organised. Legislation or working contracts normally specify whether the participation of teachers in in-service training corresponds to a professional obligation or a right which they must be granted.

Provision of training during working hours may cause replacement problems when appropriate mechanisms are not in place to provide cover for absent teachers. On the other hand, in-service training outside working hours may be a less attractive option for teachers and therefore have a negative impact on participation rates. However, this also depends largely on whether they are rewarded for their participation in training, for example by means of the (partial) reimbursement of costs or shorter working hours (with no loss of earnings), or whether their participation is taken into account in determining career advancement and/or salary increases.

In-service training programmes may be planned at different levels (central, regional or local) in accordance with national development plans for education. Schools are well-placed to determine what their own needs are. They may themselves decide whether teachers should take part in certain specific activities, as part of school policies for staff development. Whether one or other type of planning for training needs is considered depends on the degree of (de)centralisation of the education system concerned.

([1]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

The provider and place of training have an undeniable impact on its accessibility. Furthermore, in-service training offered by the same institution as the one responsible for initial training or, on the contrary, by another provider may be a reflection of whether continuity between initial and in-service training is considered desirable, or whether the latter is regarded as an independent concept, undertaken in specialised centres for the professional development of teachers.

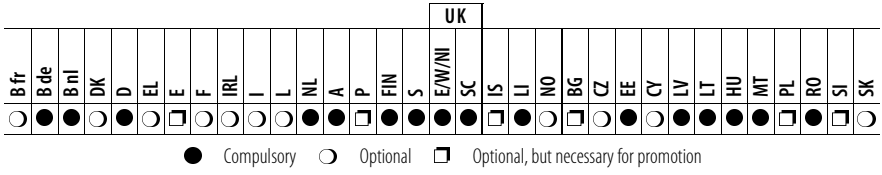
1.1. In-service training – an obligation or a right?

In-service training may be regarded as something to which all teachers in service are entitled, although this may not always be explicitly stated in writing. It may also be an obligation for them. However, the compulsory nature of participation in in-service training is not the same in all countries. In some cases, teachers have a professional duty to update their skills on a regular basis, although there may be no direct link between their career advancement and participation in training activities, and failure to participate is not necessarily penalised. In others, their participation is more explicitly taken into account in evaluation processes.

In some countries where in-service training is optional, no promotion is possible without participating in it so that it may thus be regarded as virtually unavoidable.

Figure 4.1 shows whether in-service teacher training is compulsory, optional, or optional but necessary for promotion in general lower secondary education.

FIGURE 4.1: STATUS OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): Six half-days of in-service training became compulsory in 2002.
Belgium (B nl): In-service training has not been made compulsory by the government. It may however be demanded by the school administrative authority/school management team.
Denmark, Ireland and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Sweden: There is no legal document stating that in-service training is compulsory. However, all teachers normally participate in training activities and schools are obliged to offer training opportunities to all teachers.
Czech Republic: A new bill on teacher careers is in hand and is to provide for compulsory in-service training that will be an essential condition for promotion.
Romania: In-service training once every five years is compulsory for teachers who do not sit an examination providing access to a higher professional level.
Slovenia: In-service training linked to the introduction of new educational reforms is compulsory in Slovenia.

In-service training is compulsory in no more than 16 European countries. In most of them, it is limited to a certain amount of time each year, but teachers may in addition also participate in in-service training on an entirely voluntary basis.

In Spain, Portugal, Iceland, Bulgaria, Poland and Slovenia, in-service training is optional, but clearly linked to career advancement and salary increases. In Spain, teachers who enrol for a certain amount of training are eligible for a salary bonus. In the other countries mentioned, credits may be acquired via participation in in-service training programmes and are taken into account for purposes of promotion. Although in-service training is optional in France, the inspectorate and school director who evaluate teachers may take participation in training into account. This evaluation affects their career prospects and may hasten their promotion. Training is also sometimes 'very strongly' recommended for teachers with declared professional problems.

Several countries have stressed the importance of making in-service training one of the official responsibilities of teachers. Belgium (German-speaking Community), Estonia and Malta have made such training compulsory in the last 10 years. This also occurred in Belgium (French Community) in 2002. The status of continuing professional development as a professional duty for individual teachers has also been reinforced in Belgium (Flemish Community), the Netherlands and Scotland.

Proposals to link participation in training activities more closely to career advancement – and thus make in-service training more rewarding for teachers – have been discussed in Spain, Finland and the Czech Republic.

1.2. Organisation and allocation of time

As Figure 4.2 shows, in-service training in many countries may be organised during working hours, with or without replacements to cover for absence of the teachers concerned. However, this does not mean that most in-service provision necessarily occurs during working hours.

Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Malta organise most of their compulsory in-service training on specific days of the year, in general before the start or at the end of the school year. These days are counted as working time. The situation is similar in Romania (although here training is not counted as working time). In Greece, Spain, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal, the Czech Republic, Cyprus and Slovakia, optional in-service training is provided mostly outside working hours.

In Poland, conditions of training are specified in detail in an agreement between the school head and the teachers concerned. In addition, some countries annually grant their teachers several days of study leave which is meant to be devoted at least partly to in-service training. This applies to Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Italy, Portugal, Estonia and Slovenia in all of which, with the exception of Italy, in-service training is either compulsory or necessary for promotion.

FIGURE 4.2: PROVISION OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Most compulsory in-service training is provided…	Most optional in-service training is provided…
during working hours with replacements to cover for periods of absence	**B de, D, NL, A, LI, EE, LV, LT, HU**	**B fr, DK, F, I, NO, BG, SI**
during working hours without replacements	**B nl, FIN, S, UK, MT**	
outside working hours	**RO**	**EL, E, IRL, L, P, IS, CY, CZ, SK**
Situation may vary		**PL**

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): In addition to training during working hours, the participation of teachers in the 'teacher conferences' that each school may organise for them (up to three days a year) is compulsory and pupils have the day off.
Belgium (B nl): The participation of teachers in the 'teacher conferences' that each school may organise for them (up to three days a year) is compulsory and pupils have the day off.
Denmark, Ireland and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: In-service training is provided almost entirely outside working hours but provision during working hours is sometimes possible, in which case the school head must approve the teacher's leave.
Italy: Teachers are annually granted five days to attend, on an individual basis, training initiatives recognised by the Ministry of Education.
Austria and **Liechtenstein**: Compulsory training may be provided during, as well as outside, working hours.
Portugal: Teachers are granted eight working days a year to attend in-service training activities.
Estonia: Teachers are granted at least 10 working days a year to attend in-service training activities.
Slovenia: Teachers are granted at least five working days a year to attend in-service training activities.

The minimum annual time allocation for compulsory in-service training varies considerably from one country to the next. According to the collective labour agreement in the Netherlands, 10 % of a teacher's annual working time has to be allocated to courses to enhance professionalism, and this results in by far the highest number of hours a year among all countries with compulsory in-service training. Sweden reports the next highest number of hours a year.

In Liechtenstein, United Kingdom (Scotland) and Estonia, between 32 and 42 hours a year are compulsory. In all other countries the annual number of hours is under 20 except in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities) and Malta.

In several countries, the amount of time that should be devoted to in-service training is expressed either in days per year (Finland, United Kingdom (Scotland), Liechtenstein and Malta) or, as in the case of the candidate countries, in days over a certain number of years (Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary and Romania).

Since implementation of the new Civil Service Code for *Hauptschule* teachers, a minimum amount of training has been fixed in Austria.

FIGURE 4.3: MINIMUM ANNUAL TIME ALLOCATION (IN HOURS) FOR COMPULSORY IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

							UK								
B de	B nl	D	NL	A	FIN	S	E/W/NI	SC	LI	EE	LV	LT	HU	MT	RO
21	21	varies	166	15	18	104	varies	35	42	32	12	18	17	21	19

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de, B nl): Three days a year.
Germany: The amount of compulsory in-service training varies from one *Land* to the next.
Austria: The information given refers to *Hauptschule* teachers.
Finland: Three days a year of six hours each.
Sweden: The 104 hours encompass skills development in a very broad sense which may include, for example, internal school discussions. They correspond to a broad indication for school heads who may not allocate precisely the same amount of time to each individual teacher.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): There are five days when school sessions are not required which can be used for in-service training or other activities. Although participation in arrangements for professional development is a key part of the professional duties of a teacher, regulations do not state the number of days which should be devoted to in-service training.
United Kingdom (SC): There is a minimum of five days for in-service training. Teachers should also devote 50 hours a year to planned activities and some of this time can be used for in-service training.
Liechtenstein: Six days a year.
Estonia: 160 hours over a five-year period.
Lithuania: 15 days spread across five years of training. This corresponds to 90 (one hour) periods spread over five years (with six periods a day).
Hungary: Every seven years, 60-120 hours of in-service training courses are compulsory.
Malta: Three days a year at the beginning or end of the school year. Within every school year, three sessions of two hours each after school hours have been introduced since 2001/02.
Romania: 95 hours every five years, unless teachers take professional degrees during this period.

Explanatory note

Calculation: Except mentioned differently in the note, one day corresponds to seven hours. For countries in which a certain amount of training over several years is compulsory, the calculation is based on an average.

1.3. Responsibility for devising training programmes

In some European countries, overall responsibility for in-service training lies with the central education authority. In most cases, this is the ministry of education or a council working for the ministry which specialises in devising the main features of in-service training programmes. Nevertheless, this centrally devised training is often provided at regional or local level.

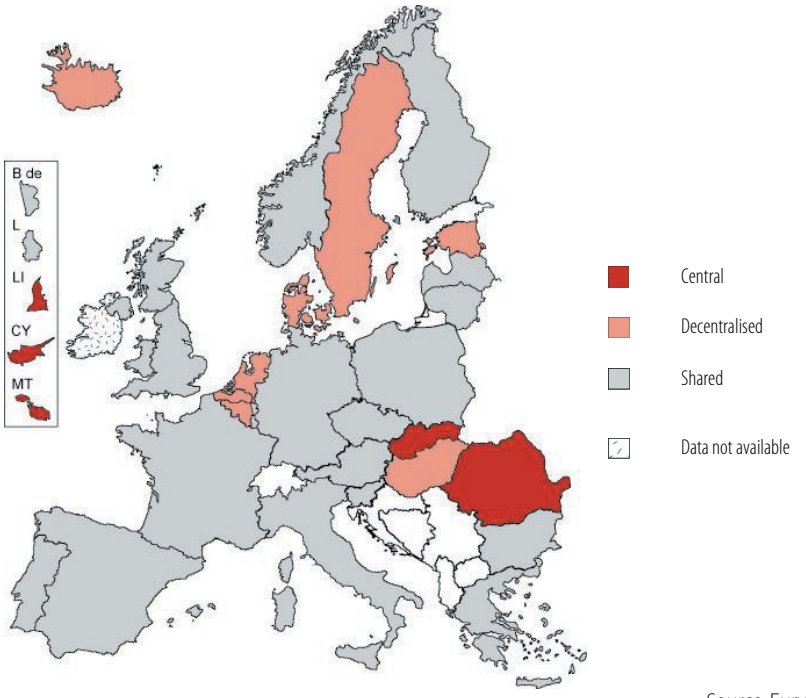
In the majority of European countries however, responsibility for training programmes is at least partly decentralised and shared between the central and regional, local or school levels. In Finland, a ministry development programme for teacher training lists important topics for in-service training, although local employers establish their own staff development programmes. Lithuania decentralised administration of in-service training in 1998, so that school heads are now responsible for the skills development of their staff in accordance with national educational goals. The situation is similar in Slovenia.

Responsibility for in-service training policy is decentralised and lies entirely at regional, local or school level in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Iceland, Estonia and Hungary.

Several decentralisation processes, which have redistributed responsibility for training policies and/or the funding of training have lent new dimensions to in-service training in the last ten years. An approach in which schools or teachers themselves have greater freedom to choose what is most appropriate to their training needs, has become quite widespread in European countries. Until 1993 in the Netherlands, the courses offered by special institutions for in-service teacher training corresponded to their own preferences and not those of schools or teachers, so that there was a regular mismatch between training supply and demand. In order to overcome this problem, in-service training budgets were transferred from training institutions to the schools, which thus became responsible for expenditure on training and were better placed to determine course content and select their preferred training provider. Decentralisation has also occurred in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Italy, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Lithuania and Hungary. In these countries, in-service training plans are prepared at school level as part of the school programme.

With the growing autonomy and freedom of schools to develop their own plans, this trend will undoubtedly become more marked in the years ahead.

FIGURE 4.4: LEVEL OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR DEVISING IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.

Malta: Responsibility for in-service training is becoming shared. Since the 2001/02 school year, schools have been involved in devising in-service training for their teaching staff.

1.4. Providers

Most countries provide in-service training opportunities either in higher education institutions and/or more specifically in institutions for initial teacher training. In some cases, such as Sweden, this makes for greater continuity between initial and in-service training. Teacher education in this country is organised in such a way that the same university teachers may provide both initial and in-service training for prospective and qualified schoolteachers.

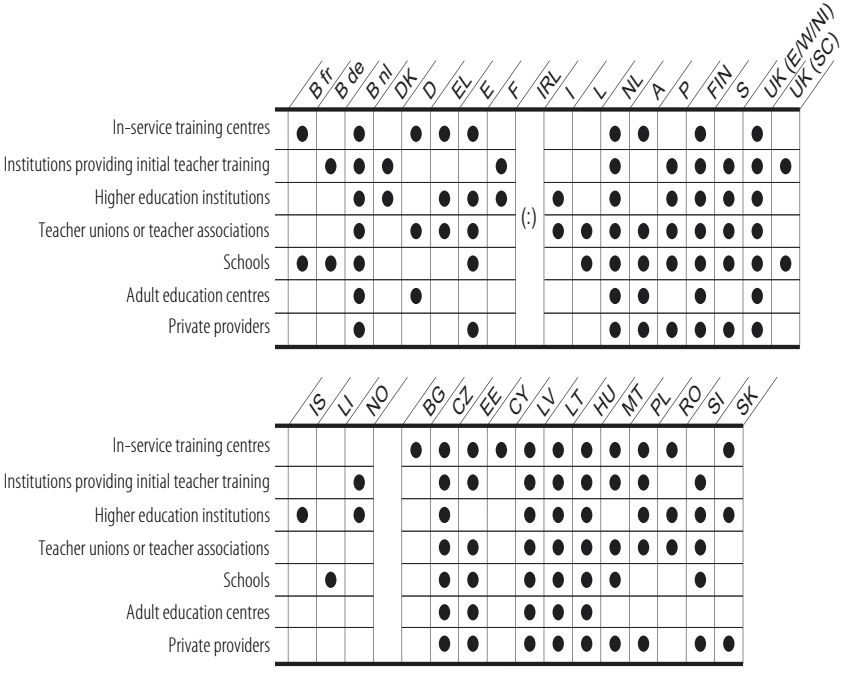
Most countries also have institutions which are exclusively for in-service training. Teacher unions or teacher associations often provide training opportunities too. In many countries, schools offer training directly. A wide range of private establishments may also be regarded as training providers, as may adult education centres, though less frequently.

The availability of in-service training may not be the same throughout a given country, as in the case of Finland in which there are often considerable variations from one municipality to the next. In some municipalities provision abounds whereas, in others, even the provision of compulsory training may suffer from economic uncertainty.

In several countries, efforts are focused on school- or locally-based in-service training opportunities in order to facilitate access. This is the case in Belgium, as well as in Italy, Austria, Finland, the United Kingdom and Slovenia.

The need to organise a variety of training opportunities in line with a coherent concept of continuing professional development of teachers is an important issue in discussions and reform in Europe. In the candidate countries, the organisation of in-service training changed quite considerably during the 1990s. A marked increase in the number and variety of in-service training courses has occurred as a result of the privatisation of educational services in the former socialist countries, and it has therefore become necessary to consolidate the network of accredited facilities for in-service training. More effective registration and accreditation of training programmes has also been discussed in Portugal and United Kingdom (Scotland).

FIGURE 4.5: INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

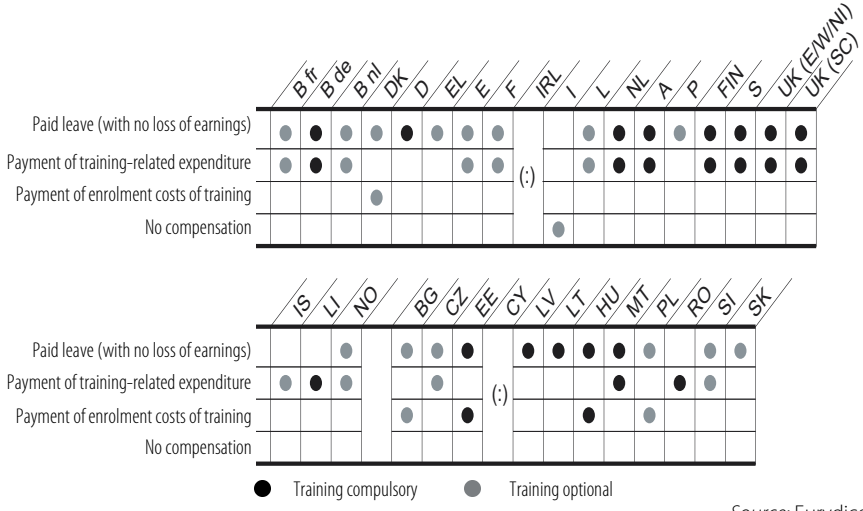
Additional notes

Denmark and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Portugal: Training centres for associations of schools, *Direcções Regionais de Educação* (Regional Directorates of Education), and central services of the Ministry of Education.

1.5. Training-related compensation

There are several possible categories of compensation and incentives for in-service training. Teachers may benefit from a short period of leave for training (sabbaticals are discussed in the following section), which is regarded as working time and paid as such. Expenditure on training fees may be covered, as may additional costs such as travel to and from the place of training.

FIGURE 4.6: TYPES OF TRAINING-RELATED COMPENSATION. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B nl): Costs for enrolment, meals or material and travel costs can be paid by schools, for which they have a budget. Schools and their management determine in advance which costs will be repaid and the amounts involved.
Denmark: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: Courses organised by the ministries or churches are free of charge.
Italy: There is paid leave for some activities organised by the Ministry.
Portugal: The cost of participation in activities organised by the Ministry of Education at central and regional level may be reimbursed.
Bulgaria: This applies to courses organised by the Ministry.
Estonia: Payment of training-related expenditure is not guaranteed but is possible depending on the school budget.
Latvia: Leave with no loss of earnings is only granted in the school in which individual teachers have their main job. Payment of training-related expenditure may occur in the case of some courses.
Lithuania: Some training costs are covered by the central government and municipal budgets.
Hungary: The central budget covers 80 % of the cost of participation.
Poland: Paid leave is for a maximum of 28 working days a year for training, and 21 working days a year for preparing examinations or writing a thesis.
Romania: Payment of training-related expenditure occurs solely in the case of compulsory training.

Explanatory note

Training courses funded by the EU are not considered here.

Payment of training-related expenditure means that everything is paid for (i.e. training, possible travel costs, enrolment fees or any other costs deriving from training).

Payment of enrolment costs of training, on the other hand, means that teachers who participate do not have to pay fees, but that the body responsible for organizing the training pays for the sessions.

With the exception of Liechtenstein and Romania, leave with no loss of earnings or other benefits is granted in all countries where in-service training is compulsory. Training-related expenditure is paid in most countries with compulsory provision, with the exception of Estonia and Hungary, where only the costs of training as such are covered.

Training-related expenditure only is covered in Liechtenstein and Romania.

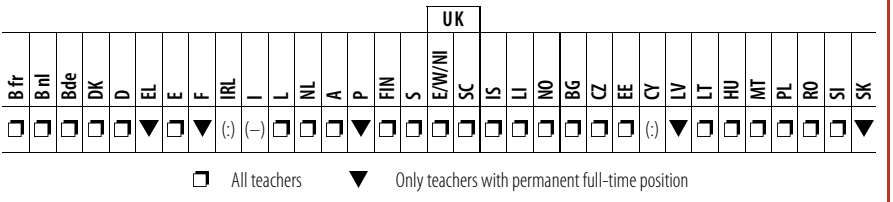
The situation is very similar in countries with optional in-service training. Paid leave is granted in a majority of countries, often in combination with the payment of either training-related expenditure or the enrolment costs of training.

In Greece, Portugal and Slovakia, teachers may benefit from paid leave but training costs are generally not paid.

Italy is the only country not to provide any training-related compensation.

In general, countries with compulsory training do not necessarily grant more compensation than those with optional in-service training.

FIGURE 4.7: CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS ENTITLED TO TRAINING-RELATED COMPENSATION IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



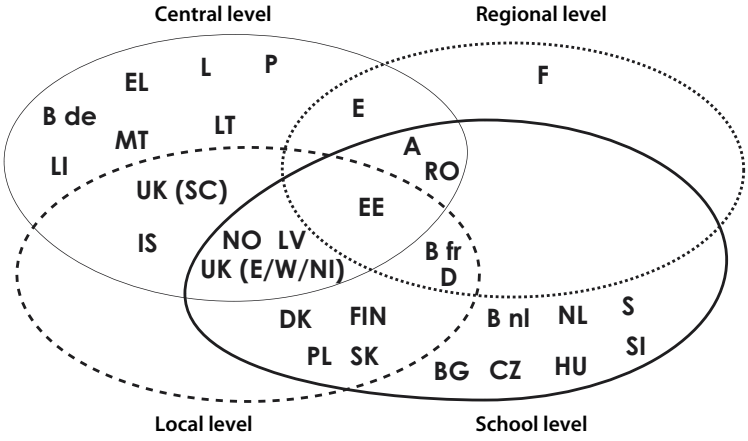
Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Information not verified at national level.
France: Teachers in permanent full-time positions *(fonctionnaires titulaires)* are eligible for all training schemes. Short-term contractual staff *(non-titulaires)* are eligible for some of the schemes and programmes only. In the event of eligibility, they are entitled to the same training-related compensation.

In many countries, all teachers may receive training-related compensation. In Greece, France, Italy, Portugal, Latvia and Slovakia, specified compensation is normally limited to public servant teachers or those in permanent full-time positions.

FIGURE 4.8: LOCATION OF THE BODY WHICH DETERMINES AND ADMINISTERS TRAINING-RELATED COMPENSATION. TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



(–): **I**.
(:): **IRL, CY**.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: Information not verified at national level.
Iceland: Icelandic Teachers Union and the Association of Local Authorities.
Liechtenstein: School Office Inspector.

The bodies which determine and administer training-related compensation are very often decentralised. Compensation is administered solely at central level in Belgium (German-speaking Community), Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal, Liechtenstein, Lithuania and Malta. In some countries, responsibility for them is shared between two levels.

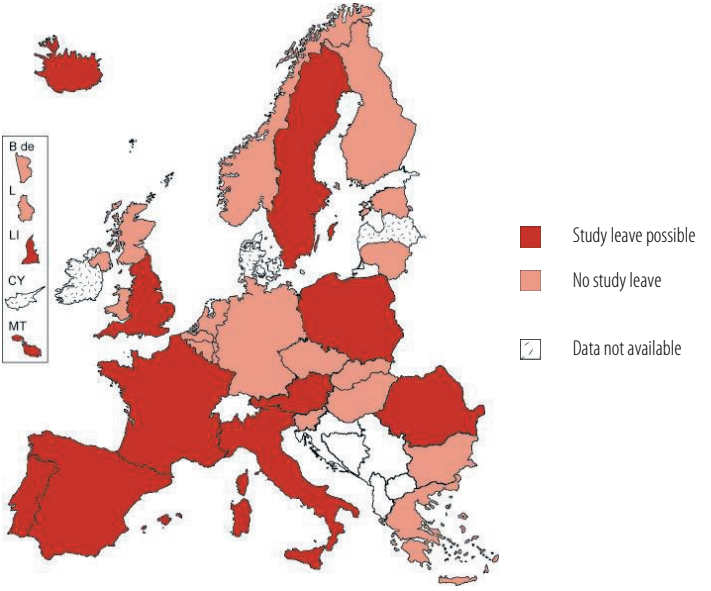
In 11 countries, administration of training-related compensation is entirely decentralised and managed at local and/or school level.

1.6. Sabbatical leave

Sabbatical leave may be defined as a period of study leave during which teachers are released from their duties without giving up their post. Such leave for purposes of professional development is usually paid and covers a longer period of several months to a year or more. However, in certain countries unpaid sabbaticals are also possible, in which case only retention of the teaching post as such is guaranteed.

Figure 4.9 shows the countries in which sabbatical leave is possible.

FIGURE 4.9: EXISTENCE OF SABBATICAL LEAVE FOR TRAINING PURPOSES IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Czech Republic: Paid study leave for teachers is provided for in a new education bill.

Sabbatical leave is not very widespread in Europe, with schemes on offer in only 12 countries.

In all countries where such leave is possible, with the exception of Sweden, Iceland and Malta, only teachers in a permanent, full-time position are eligible for it. In Sweden, all employees are entitled by law to study leave provided they have had the same employer for at least six months or for 12 months in the two preceding years. In Iceland, teachers working part time are also considered eligible.

In Malta, teachers who have completed at least one year of service can benefit from this arrangement.

Normally, the limited number of sabbatical places available are allocated in accordance with the length of service and merit of candidates. In France and Portugal, places are awarded on a competitive basis.

Figure 4.10 shows the possible length of sabbatical leave in the countries concerned and whether it is paid or unpaid.

FIGURE 4.10: LENGTH AND TYPES OF SABBATICAL LEAVE FOR TEACHERS WORKING ON A PERMANENT CONTRACT IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	E	F	I	A	P	S	UK (E)	IS	LI	MT	PL	RO
Less than 1 year			❍				●		●			
1 year	●	●		❍	●							
2 years								●				
3 years		❍										❍
No restrictions						❍●				❍●	❍	

● Paid ❍ Not paid

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Austria: The length of unpaid study leave may be longer than a year depending on the supply of teachers at any given time.
United Kingdom (E): Six weeks.
Liechtenstein: Six months.

In Spain, France, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England), Iceland, Liechtenstein and Malta, teachers may benefit from paid sabbatical leave. Leave usually lasts up to a year except in the United Kingdom (six weeks), Liechtenstein (six months) and is particularly long in Iceland (two years). In Spain, the one year of leave may be extended to two under certain circumstances.

In France, all civil servants are eligible for training leave *(congé individuel de formation)* for a maximum of three years in their whole career, up to one year of which is paid. In return, they have to commit themselves to remaining in service for a period equal to three times the duration of the paid leave.

In Portugal, there are two forms of paid study leave for teachers. In the first, which is provided for in their career regulations, they are eligible for a sabbatical year after eight years of continuous service and a satisfactory appraisal. Sabbatical leave of this kind may be requested twice by them during their career but not granted a second time until at least seven years after the first period of leave. It is meant to be used for research projects or specialised courses aimed at enhancing the professional and personal development of the teacher concerned.

In the second form of paid study leave *(equiparação a bolseiro)* for which all public servants are eligible, teachers are entitled to discontinue their duties partially or totally for up to five years with no loss of earnings or job security. They have to submit a research proposal concerned with the level of education in which they are working to the appropriate department of the ministry. If their proposal is

selected for the annual quota of places, they may stop working. After this, they have to return to work in a school (i.e. not a tertiary level institution) and remain there for a length of time corresponding to at least half of the period during which they received their grant.

In Sweden, a school head and individual members of the teaching staff may jointly decide that their school would benefit significantly if the individual teacher took paid leave to receive special training lasting for a longer period than usual. However, agreements of this kind are in no way regulated and there are no restrictions on the length of any such leave, so it is entirely up to the school head and staff concerned to decide on the arrangements involved. In addition, all employees are legally entitled to unpaid study leave of unrestricted duration and, irrespective of their employment status, to attend courses which are arranged by the trade unions. While teachers may choose their preferred area of study, the legislation does not apply to self-tuition.

In Iceland, teachers are allowed to apply to the municipalities for leave of absence to improve their knowledge and skills. In order to be granted paid leave of absence for a year, a teacher must have taught for 10 years in at least a part-time position. Two years is the maximum amount of paid leave of absence available to teachers in compulsory education throughout their entire careers. There are similar conditions in Liechtenstein, although the amount of time available for leave is much shorter.

In the United Kingdom (England), a sabbatical scheme for teachers lasting up to six weeks was introduced in 2001. It is intended to create opportunities for experienced teachers to undertake a significant period of development to enhance their own learning and effectiveness. The scheme applies only to teachers working in challenging schools (defined as those in which at least 50 % of pupils are eligible for free school meals).

In Malta, teachers may apply for sabbatical leave for professional and personal development. Courses drawn up by or in agreement with the Ministry of Education are advertised in an open call for applications. Applicants selected by interview receive paid study leave, with the Ministry paying for the course concerned. If this is taken abroad, the Ministry also provides travel costs and living allowances. Nominees are contractually bound to return to their posts and remain in government service for a specified period of up to five years, which is related to the period of leave. Some courses are sponsored by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It is also possible for teachers to take up courses on their own initiative, in which

case they may be granted assistance in the form of paid study leave. If the course in question is not directly related to their work, they may be granted unpaid study leave provided this does not inconvenience the public service. There are no restrictions on the periods of leave entailed.

In Italy, Austria, Poland and Romania, only unpaid study leave is granted and for periods that vary in length.

In Italy, teachers may apply for sabbatical study leave *(congedo per la formazione)* for a maximum period of 11 months. By law, all public- and private-sector employees who have been working for the same employer for at least five years, are entitled to sabbatical leave involving training activities different from those offered or financed by their employer. This leave can only be taken once in the teacher's career.

Until the beginning of the 2002/03 school year in Austria, teachers in the *allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen* could be exempted from teaching duties for one school year on a lower salary. Now, however, they may take at least one year of unpaid leave with full job security.

In Poland, full-time teachers are entitled to unpaid sabbatical leave for scientific, artistic or educational purposes.

In Romania, the legislation entitles teachers to at least three years of leave within a seven-year period for research, further education and training. An extra six months may be granted once only for a doctorate or other work 'for educational purposes' (e.g. writing a textbook, etc.) with the approval of the County School Inspectorate, subject to evidence that the leave is to be used to this end.

2. CONTENT

Bearing in mind that in-service teacher training in most countries is relatively decentralised and that central recommendations, where they exist, do not generally stipulate the actual content of training in any great detail, European countries offer a broadly diversified range of activities geared to the continuing professional development of teachers.

Besides the updating of subject knowledge – which is traditionally an important part of in-service training – and the courses that accompany curricular reforms, training providers also offer courses for cross-curricular knowledge and skills. Such expertise is intended to facilitate the daily work of teachers and/or give them new directions for classroom interactions.

The following table is meant to offer an overview of specific topics covered by recognised in-service training providers in European countries. These topics include training in teaching methodology and in the five specific skills discussed in the analysis of the content of initial training in Report I ([2]).

FIGURE 4.11: SPECIFIC SKILLS AS TOPICS OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING FOR GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	ICT	Teaching methodology	Management/ School development	Special needs	Multicultural teaching	Conflict/Behaviour management		ICT	Teaching methodology	Management/ School development	Special needs	Multicultural teaching	Conflict/Behaviour management
B fr	●	●	●	●	●	●	**IS**	●	●	●	●	●	●
B de	●	●	●	●		●	**LI**	●	●	●	●	●	●
B nl	●	●	●	●	●	●	**NO**	●	●	●	●	●	●
DK	●	●	●	●	●								
D	●	●		●	●								
EL	●				●								
E	●	●	●	●	●	●	**BG**	●	●	●			
F	●	●	●	●	●	●	**CZ**	●	●	●	●	●	●
IRL	(:)						**EE**	●	●	●	●	●	●
I	●		●				**CY**				●	●	
L	●			●			**LV**		●				
NL	●	●	●	●	●	●	**LT**	●	●		●	●	
A	●	●	●	●	●	●	**HU**	●	●	●	●	●	●
P	●	●	●	●	●	●	**MT**	●	●	●	●	●	
FIN	●	●	●	●	●		**PL**	●	●	●	●	●	●
S	●	●	●	●	●	●	**RO**	●	●		●		●
UK (E/W/NI)	●	●	●	●	●	●	**SI**	●	●	●	●	●	
UK (SC)	●	●	●	●	●	●	**SK**	●	●	●	●		

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
France: The most widespread topics are ICT and teaching methodology.
Portugal: The most widespread topic is ICT.
Malta: As part of the implementation plan of the new National Minimum Curriculum, a national training programme has been initiated as from the 2001/02 school year. This envisages teacher training in teaching methodologies within the context of the curricular reforms.

Explanatory note

The topics indicated in each case mean that activities in these fields are on offer, although it is not compulsory for teachers to take part in them.

([2]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe*, volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

In more than half of the countries, all or almost all of the specific topics mentioned here are offered in in-service training programmes.

In almost all countries, information and communication technology (ICT) is a major topic covered in in-service training and much time and money are invested in developing the skills of teachers in this area.

In several countries, in-service training in ICT is part of a national programme to initiate, develop and improve the use of ICT by teachers. The following table provides an overview of national in-service training programmes to enhance their skills in this area.

FIGURE 4.12: NATIONAL PROGRAMMES TO ENHANCE THE ICT SKILLS OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A)

	Name of the programme	Period covered
B	(–)	
DK	(:)	
D	*Neue Lernwelten*	1998-2003
	InfoSchul	1997-2002
EL	(–)	
E	*Programa de formación del profesorado del CNICE*	1998-ongoing
F	(–)	
IRL	(:)	
I	(–)	
L	(–)	
NL	(–)	
A	*Intel – Lehren für die Zukunft*	since 2000
P	(–)	
FIN	OPE.FI	1996-2004
S	Itis *(Delegationen för IT i skolan)*	1999-2002
UK (E/W/NI)	NOF *(New Opportunities Fund)* Training	1999-2002
UK (SC)	(–)	
IS	(–)	
LI	(–)	
NO	*LærerIKT*	2002-2004

FIGURE 4.12 (CONTINUED): NATIONAL PROGRAMMES TO ENHANCE THE ICT SKILLS OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A)

	Name of the programme	Period covered
BG	(–)	
CZ	*Státní informační politika ve vzdělávání, Projekt I Informační gramotnost*	2001-2005
EE	*Tiigrihüpe*	1996-2000
CY	(:)	
LV	(–)	
LT	*Informacijos ir komunikacijos technologijų diegimo švietime strategija*	2001-2004
HU	(–)	
MT	(–)	
PL	(–)	
RO	(–)	
SI	RO *(program računalniškega opismenjevanja)*	1994-2003
SK	(–)	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Germany: Some *Länder* provide specific programmes to improve the use of ICT by teachers.
Spain: Some Autonomous Communities provide specific programmes to launch, develop and improve the use of ICT in educational establishments within their jurisdiction.
France: There is a specialist ICT office in the Ministry of Education, but no national training plan.
Malta: ICT courses for teachers are offered by the Department of Technology in Education within the Ministry of Education.

The inclusion of general teaching methodology in in-service training is very frequently reported.

Also quite frequently cited are in-service courses dealing with various aspects of special education or teaching multicultural classes. As noted in Chapter 5 on support for teachers, in-service training has become the context in which special forms of provision are most often available to teachers who have to deal with increasingly mixed groups of pupils.

The inclusion of courses in management and school development or activities related to conflict and behaviour management in in-service training provision is less frequently reported.

3. STATISTICS ON PARTICIPATION

Statistics for the number of teachers involved in in-service training exist in only a few countries. The following information therefore provides no more than a rough general indication.

FIGURE 4.13: TEACHERS INVOLVED IN IN-SERVICE TRAINING, GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Total number of teachers	Teachers involved (or enrolled) in in-service training activities	
		percentage	total number of enrolments
B de	440	54.7	241
L	1 253	(:)	2 094
IS	3 149	(54.8)	1 727
NO	67 518	61.9	41 861
LT	50 900	(:)	120 000
HU	179 847	(21.4)	38 409
MT	1 657	50	829
PL	67 835	17.5	11 840
SI	7 118	(76.3)	5 428

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B de): The reference year is the 2001 calendar year. In addition to these figures, it should be noted that all teachers participate in the 'teacher conferences' organised by each school.
Belgium (B nl): A recent survey ([3]) has revealed that in over 50 % of schools, 76-100 % of teachers take part in in-service training.
Luxembourg: The data include ISCED levels 2 and 3. Teachers may enrol more than once and all enrolments are counted.
Iceland: Solely the 2000 calendar year and only one institution is considered. Teachers may enrol more than once and all enrolments are counted.
Lithuania and **Slovenia**: Teachers may enrol more than once and all enrolments are counted.
Hungary: The reference year is 2001/02 and the data covers ISCED levels 1-3. Teachers may enrol more than once and all enrolments are counted.
Malta: The reference year is 1999/2000. Since February 2001, all teachers have had to attend in-service training annually. Previously, they had to attend in-service courses every two years.
Poland: Only full-time teachers, including those working in special schools, are taken into account. The data relate solely to courses organised by higher education institutions.

([3]) Roland Vandenberghe. *Nascholing in Basis- en Secundair onderwijs: Follow-up onderzoek en ontwikkelen van instrument Secundair onderwijs*. Leuven: Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, June 2000.

In the few countries possessing data it is sometimes difficult to calculate percentages, as all enrolments are counted with the result that the figures indicate the number of teachers enrolled in various training activities rather than the number of those involved in in-service training.

Given the problematic nature of the data, it is hard to establish a relation between in-service training that is compulsory and participation rates. In Belgium (German-speaking Community) and Malta, where in-service training is compulsory, half of all teachers took part in in-service training. In the case of the former, this may be because the reference year indicated was the first after the change from optional to compulsory training. In Malta, training was compulsory every second year.

Among the countries with optional in-service training, Norway has relatively high participation rates.

CHAPTER 5
SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS IN SERVICE

INTRODUCTION

Teachers may be confronted at a particular point in their careers by situations which prevent them from performing their duties to full capacity. Under such circumstances, they feel the need for assistance, and the provision of one or more types of support is normally very helpful. Where such support exists, its aim is to improve the well-being and effectiveness of teachers by preventing major problems such as absenteeism or even teachers leaving the profession for good, problems which are seen as being increasingly widespread within the profession.

Supporting measures for new teachers in several countries are not dealt with in this report. Initiatives of this kind have been discussed in Chapter 6 of the first Report ([1]) in this series devoted to the teaching profession in Europe. The present chapter therefore sets out to identify the various types of support and professional counselling on which teachers can rely in the course of their daily work, in case of need or when faced with difficult circumstances at any point in their career. Four situations that may trigger a need for support have been identified as those that teachers encounter most frequently:

- problems of a **personal** nature;
- **interpersonal conflicts** involving other members of the educational community (including pupils, parents and/or colleagues);
- problems related to **teaching activity** as such;
- teaching **mixed groups of pupils** and the challenges that this may pose.

The stress associated with teaching is sometimes cited as one of the main sources of **personal difficulty** experienced by teachers. A term often used in this context is *burnout*, a form of stress characterised by physical and nervous exhaustion making it hard for the teachers concerned to carry out their duties effectively.

Teachers may also have to deal with **interpersonal conflict** in their relations with pupils, parents or colleagues. Most frequently cited are conflicts associated with the need for discipline among pupils (disruptive classroom behaviour, verbal and/or physical attacks on teachers, etc.).

([1]) The teaching profession in Europe: Profile, trends and concerns. Report I: Initial training and transition to working life. General lower secondary education. *Key topics in education in Europe,* volume 3. Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

Problems concerned with teaching activity itself may also be encountered**.** For example, the introduction of a new subject into the curriculum or the use of new teaching equipment or materials in the classroom may result in teachers experiencing some difficulty in adapting their working methods accordingly.

Finally, four main areas associated with **mixed groups of pupils** which may be challenging for teachers have been identified in the course of this study, namely working with pupils with special educational needs, pupils from migrant families, pupils with social problems (disadvantaged backgrounds, etc.), and those who either have considerable problems with learning or achieve exceptionally high levels of attainment.

As the present discussion will demonstrate, teachers confronted with any of the foregoing types of problem do not always benefit from the help they require. For example, those who experience transitory personal difficulties, classroom violence or problems related to their own approach to teaching do not always receive the support they would have welcomed from school management staff, the inspectorate or other specialised bodies. Education authorities have acted most frequently to provide support where teachers work with mixed groups of pupils. In general, such assistance involves the allocation of extra staff (especially in the case of teachers working alongside pupils with special needs) to support regular teachers as they carry out their activity.

1. EXTENT TO WHICH SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS IS FORMALISED

The various arrangements for supporting teachers confronted with difficult situations are not always regulated (see Figure 5.1). Only a third of countries have devised both regulations and/or recommendations for the four different types of situation for which support may be necessary identified above. In the other countries, a regulatory framework establishing procedures for supporting teachers applies solely to certain situations. Nevertheless, in practice, teachers who request help generally receive it on an informal basis. In the event of interpersonal conflict in Denmark, for example, teachers informally seek support from the school head; where they have problems concerned with teaching activity, they may be supported by colleagues in their own working team or department. In Luxembourg, although teachers are not supported on an official basis, they are normally offered various forms of assistance if they experience personal problems (use of school psychological facilities) or conflicts with pupils (support from the school head), or difficulties associated with teaching as such (help from other experienced teachers).

The majority of education authorities in the different countries offer special support to teachers working with mixed groups of pupils. By contrast,

psychological support in case of problems of a personal nature is, in general, only infrequently provided for teachers who require it. In some countries, it is felt that support of this kind may cause difficulties for teachers who request it, simply because it presupposes explicit acknowledgement of the fact that they have a psychological problem. For example, in Romania, the lack of any supporting measures for teachers who experience personal problems or interpersonal conflict is partly attributable to cultural factors. Indeed, people in this country rarely seek psychological help, as consulting a psychologist is tantamount to admitting that one is prone to abnormal forms of behaviour. In other countries, such as France, a similar lack of supporting initiatives may partly be put down to deep-rooted individualistic attitudes on the part of French schoolteachers and the virtual non-existence of teamwork among them. Where difficulties arise, teachers themselves believe they should assume exclusive individual responsibility for them and are thus reluctant to discuss them openly.

In this chapter, in-service training (see Chapter 4) is not regarded as a facility for special support to teachers in service. Only special training courses for those working with mixed groups of pupils have been examined (see Figure 5.4).

FIGURE 5.1: EXISTENCE OR OTHERWISE OF REGULATIONS AND/OR RECOMMENDATIONS ON SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A) IN THE CASE OF THE FOUR CATEGORIES IDENTIFIED, 2000/01

	B fr	Bde	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A	❍	❍			●			●	●		❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍		●			●		❍	●	❍		❍		●	❍
B	❍	❍	●		●		●	❍	●		❍	●	●	●	❍	●	●		❍	●	●			●		❍	●	●	●	●		●	●
C	●	●	●	❍	●	●	●	❍			❍	●	●	●	❍	●	●	❍	●	●	●		●	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	❍	●	●
D	●	●	●		●		●	●	●	●		●	●	●	❍	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●		❍	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

A	Personal problems (excluding support offered by national public health service facilities)	●	Existence of regulations and/or recommendations (at central/regional/local level)
B	Conflicts	❍	Support exists but is not formal (not systematically organised)
C	Teaching problems (other than those associated with mixed groups of pupils)		An empty space means that no kind of support is provided
D	Work with mixed groups of pupils		

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark: The Danish Union of Teachers has established permanent arrangements for the provision of guidance to members who have problems with the psychological working environment.
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Italy: Legislation concerned with categories A, B and C was introduced, then later withdrawn. It sought to provide each school with a team of psychologists and educationists who would offer any necessary support to teachers and pupils.

2. SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS WITH PERSONAL DIFFICULTIES, OR PROBLEMS RELATED TO TEACHING AND/OR ARISING FROM CONFLICTS

It should first of all be pointed out that different types of assistance for teachers with personal difficulties, or problems related to teaching and/or arising from conflicts have not been devised specifically for teachers alone. In general, initiatives of this kind are part of a package of measures for various members of the broader educational community. Thus teachers benefit from the same facilities as pupils and their parents whenever they require psychological support or assistance with matters related to teaching or learning.

In the first three situations identified above as a possible source of problems (personal difficulties, conflicts and aspects of teaching itself), assistance generally involves the presence of **resource persons** responsible for providing support to teachers who request it. These persons are professionals from relevant sectors, such as psychologists, social workers and educationists. They are usually employed by counselling or guidance services within the school concerned, or by bodies established at national, regional or local levels.

In all countries, teachers may consult various resource persons of this kind free of charge but only outside normal teaching hours.

In most cases, procedures for obtaining support are informal. In general, either the teachers concerned or their school head place a request with the appropriate services.

Figure 5.2 enumerates the various categories of support staff and/or services ([2]) in the case of each of the three above-mentioned areas. Only staff and services (inside or outside the school) corresponding to formal measures for support within the country are included in this Figure. Instances in which teachers turn to mainstream medical facilities in the national public health service (particularly in the event of personal problems) are not considered here.

([2]) For full details on the special training, evaluation and recruitment procedures for teacher support staff, see: Management, monitoring and support staff. European Glossary on Education, volume 4. *Ready Reference.* Brussels: Eurydice, 2002.

FIGURE 5.2: STAFF AND/OR SERVICES PROVIDING FORMAL SUPPORT TO TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	School head	Head of department/ studies/year/tutor	Inspector	Experienced colleague(s)/ Teachers responsible for the same subject areas	Psychologist	Service/committee/adviser/ educational coordinator/ leader	Staff attached to (initial and/or in-service) training institutions	Support service/unit	Complaints committee	Other
B fr	■	■	■		■	■				
B de	■		■			■				
B nl	■▼		■			■				
DK										
D	▼		▼❑		▼❑		■			
EL						■				
E		▼			■	■				■
F								❑		❑
IRL								▼❑		
I										
L										
NL				■				■	▼	❑
A	■▼❑	▼	■▼❑		▼❑					
P	▼❑	■	▼❑							
FIN										❑
S	■▼❑			■	▼❑			▼❑		
UK (E/W/NI)	■▼	■▼		■				■❑		❑
UK (SC)										
IS	■▼❑	■		❑	▼❑	■				
LI	■		■▼			■				
NO	■▼❑		■▼							
BG										
CZ			■			■				
EE					▼❑					■▼
CY			■							
LV										
LT				■	▼❑					▼
HU						■▼				■
MT	▼	■▼								▼
PL	■▼				■▼	■▼				
RO										
SI	■				▼❑	■▼❑				
SK	■▼					■				▼

❑ Support staff/service in the event of personal problems

▼ Support staff/service/mediator in the event of conflict

■ Support staff/service in the event of teaching problems

Only countries with regulations and/or recommendations on support measures for teachers during their career (see Figure 5.1) are included in this Figure.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 5.2)

Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Netherlands: The majority of schools (or the authority responsible for them) have a contract with one of the private services operating within the scope of the ARBO-wet (Dutch Occupational Health and Safety Act).
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): The *Teacher Support Network* enables all teachers to have access to practical and emotional support to improve their well-being and effectiveness. This is achieved through services such as 'Teacher Support Line' (available 24 hours a day, every day of the year) and is provided independently from schools, local authorities or employers. Depending on the particular need, a range of measures to support teachers may be provided by the school, local authority, teacher unions or other bodies.
Estonia: A Ministry of Education Regulation establishes the minimum number of staff required at schools. A school with 600 or more pupils can have its own psychologist, while a psychologist recruited by the local authority serves smaller schools.
Lithuania: The post of 'social welfare instructor' *(Socialinis pedagogas)* has recently been established in April 2001 for the purpose of assisting the entire educational community with problems related primarily to pupil behaviour and social adjustment. Over 800 such posts are being created between 2001 and 2005.
Poland: In mainstream schools, new posts for school educators and psychologists have been introduced. Although the possibility has existed for several years, staff numbers in these categories have been considerably increased as part of the educational reform. The staff concerned deal with learning difficulties, mediate in interpersonal relations and help teachers – and especially class teachers – to deal with psychological and educational problems. The creation of posts depends on the school budget. The *Nauczyciel/ka konsultant* (teacher/methodological adviser) whose priority is to work with new entrants to the teaching profession also assists fully qualified teachers in the course of their careers.

More information relating to this Figure is to be found in the annexes, where details are given of the name (in the original language) of the different categories of staff and support services available to teachers. This annexe also contains information on staff to whom teachers may turn informally when formal support is not on offer.

Figure 5.2 shows that, in the event of **personal difficulties**, some countries offer supervisory assistance and ensure that teachers receive help from professionals in the psychological sector who work at the school and/or for the local/regional services of the education authorities.

In situations involving **conflict** with which teachers may be confronted, persons who act as mediators are very often members of the school management team (including the school head, heads of department or directors of studies, etc.) as well as psychologists.

Finally, in the case of problems linked specifically to **teaching activity**, educationists and/or methodological specialists in particular come to the assistance of teachers. School heads may also offer support in countries such as Belgium, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia. The inspectorate may also be involved, sometimes in the same countries in which school heads provide support.

3. SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS IN CLASSES WITH MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS

3.1. Heterogeneity in groups of pupils

Before discussing the various types of support that may be available to teachers working with mixed groups of pupils, it is important to clarify the 'heterogeneity' characteristic of such groups, with due regard for the way in which it is defined in the relevant legislation of each country.

Different national policies for integration ([3]) reflect a very wide variety of types of mixed group and the concepts used to define a particular target group also vary widely. Some countries specify categories of disability, whereas others have adopted the concept of 'special educational needs' which includes pupils with a variety of differing needs. Figure 5.3 reflects this variety in definitions associated with mixed groups of pupils. All the categories (from A to I) shown in this diagram are based on official definitions, often in national legislation concerned with educational provision corresponding to particular types of mixed groups of pupils integrated within mainstream education. The way in which the categories have been grouped together here represent the most generally encountered situations across Europe; variations on these categories do, however, exist. Children who receive separate forms of provision (in special classes and/or schools) are not dealt with in the present chapter.

([3]) For further information on educational provision for children with special needs, see: *Key Data on Education in Europe, 2002* (Chapter B) as well as the reports produced by the *European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education* (http://www.european-agency.org).

FIGURE 5.3: DEFINITIONS CONTAINED IN NATIONAL LEGISLATION RELATING TO MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS INTEGRATED WITHIN MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

		B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	UK IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
SEN	A	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●		●	●	(:)		●	●	●	●	●	●	●
	B	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●		●	●	●		●			●	(:)		●	●	●	●	●	●	●
	C					●	●						●	●	●	●			●		●			●	●	(:)		●	●		●	●	●	●
Migrants	D	●	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●		●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●			●	●	(:)		●	●		●	●	●	●
	E	●		●				●		●	●				●			●	●							(:)						●		
Social problems	F			●		●		●	●	●			●	●	●	●		●						●		(:)		●			●	●		●
	G	●	●			●	●	●		●			●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●				●	(:)		●	●		●		●	●
Learning	H	●	●	●	●	●	●		●	●			●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●		●	●	(:)		●	●		●		●	●
	I							●						●	●			●								(:)					●	●	●	

Pupils with special educational needs (SEN)	A	Pupils with a physical or sensory disability
	B	Pupils with a psychological disorder
	C	Pupils with language-related difficulties (e.g. dyslexia, dyscalculia)
Migrants	D	Pupils from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds
	E	Children of travellers
Social problems	F	Children from disadvantaged social backgrounds
	G	Pupils with behavioural problems, or problems of social adjustment
Learning	H	Pupils with learning difficulties
	I	Pupils with exceptional learning ability

● Existence of definitions contained in national legislation (at central/regional/local level)

An empty space means there is no formal definition at national level associated with mixed groups of pupils

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): In June 2001, a decree was adopted for the purpose of integrating foreign pupils who were newcomers to Belgium, within primary or secondary education provided or subsidised by the French Community.

Belgium (B de): In December 2001, a decree was adopted concerning the education of pupils who were newcomers to Belgium, unfamiliar with the language of instruction (German) and generally caming from families seeking political asylum or political refugee status, etc.

Belgium (B nl): In the 2002/03 school year, the 'Equality of Educational Opportunities Decree' (GOK) came into force. Its aim is to offer schools arrangements for support so that they can draw up long-term plans for the integration of disadvantaged children, whether native or of foreign mother tongue.

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.

Germany: In some *Länder*, provision for children with social problems (categories F and G) is regulated and so-called *Soziale Brennpunkt Schulen* have been established.

Spain: The official definition of pupils with special educational needs includes not just pupils in categories A and B but also those in categories D, E, F, G and I. Pupils in categories C and H, who are not defined in the legislation, nevertheless receive mainstream secondary school provision.
France: Education of the children of travellers is provided mainly at primary level. At secondary level, enrolment at the *Centre national d'enseignement à distance* (National Centre for Distance Education) is the norm.
Luxembourg: In contrast to primary education, there are no official regulations referring to the provision of classes for mixed groups of pupils in secondary education.
Austria: Pilot schemes in the different provinces of Austria exist concerning specialised training for teachers integrating children with problems of a social nature, but the job profile is not centrally regulated (that is, for the whole territory of Austria).
Sweden: No category is indicated in Figure 5.3, as there is no legal definition for this type of pupil at central level.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Other children for whom particular support may be provided include sick children, young carers, children from families under stress, pregnant schoolgirls and teenage mothers, those for whom English is not their first language and children who are 'looked after' by local authority social services. The definition of children with special educational needs is very broad and encompasses children with learning difficulties and behavioural problems.
Bulgaria: No category is indicated in Figure 5.3 given that most children regarded as having special educational needs attend special schools or classes.
Malta: Children with language difficulties are not included in the definition of SEN. However, they are integrated in the mainstream and teachers who have children with language-related difficulties in their classes are given support by specialised peripatetic teachers.
Romania: In 2000, the government issued official regulations stating that some children with SEN (minor to medium disabilities) would be integrated within mainstream education, as well as an official regulation (in force since the 2001/02 academic year) on 'pupils with exceptional learning abilities'.
Slovenia: Pupils whose native language is not an official language in Slovenia receive additional support similar to that offered pupils with learning difficulties, or in the form of remedial classes. Lessons specifically for Romanies are also provided.

Each of the foregoing groups includes several categories. Figure 5.3 reveals that certain countries distinguish between many different categories (all or almost all in Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)). Conversely, several countries refer to only two or three categories in their regulations (Norway and Malta). It should nonetheless be pointed out that the lack of official definitions in national legislation does not prevent countries from catering for this category of pupils in mainstream schools.

In Sweden, the classification of children in accordance with their disabilities or difficulties is systematically avoided. This country has moved away from the expression 'with special educational needs' to 'in need of special support' which shifts the focus from the individual to the environment and gives the flexibility to modify that environment if necessary.

Definitions concerning mixed groups of pupils which relate to children with a physical or sensory disability (A), or a psychological disorder (B), as well as those from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds (D) are most widespread in countries with some form of policy for integration in mainstream education.

Frequently, only categories A and B are included under the heading of 'pupils with special educational needs'. Category C (comprising pupils with language-related difficulties) is included in just half of the countries.

In certain countries, classes whose composition is multiethnic (category D) are taken primarily to be a linguistic problem for pupils from migrant families in which there is little, if any, knowledge of the language of instruction (Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Denmark in the case of pupils enrolled in the final stage of the *folkeskole,* Greece, Ireland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Lithuania and Slovenia). However, other countries view this issue more broadly in terms of cultural difficulties, or the existence of different value systems or different residential status in the case of pupils whose families are seeking political asylum, or refugee status, or who are illegally resident in the 'host' country. Slovenia has introduced arrangements for integrating the children of refugees into mainstream education. Category E, which relates to the children of travellers, is cited solely by Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Spain, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom and particularly in Romania, where the travelling Romany community is present in significant numbers. The Romany Communities of the Czech Republic and Hungary are no longer travelling communities and their children are therefore considered to be in categories F and D, respectively.

Pupils with learning difficulties (category H) also comprise a group specifically identified by a considerable number of countries. Such difficulties may be partially attributable to different rates of learning or specific developmental problems faced by some children. The situation involving support for children of exceptional learning ability (category I) is far less widespread and taken into account only in Spain, Austria, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Poland, Romania and Slovenia.

Finally, clearly defined categories in national legislation also take account of social disadvantage (category F) or problems of social adjustment (category G).

3.2. Types of support offered to teachers

In general, teachers working in compulsory lower secondary education are required to accept all pupils in their class, irrespective of the nature of their differences. However, some countries lay down conditions: in Germany, teachers are not required to accept pupils with a serious physical disability or psychological disorder unless they have agreed to contribute to a scheme for the integration of pupils with disabilities. In Poland, they are only obliged to accept pupils whose disabilities are slight. In other instances, children are placed in special classes.

Supporting measures available to teachers working with mixed groups of pupils may be very varied. Figure 5.4 sets out not just formal measures for support but also those of an informal nature. Besides the allocation of **additional staff** (C), this kind of support may further involve **a reduction in the size of classes** (B) or a **reduction in workload** (A). However, formal application of this last measure is not at all widespread.

Other forms of support for teachers working with mixed classes are also reported. Thus in some countries, assistance involves offering teachers special training to avoid and/or manage situations in which they face an element of risk. Several countries provide special formal or informal **in-service training courses** (D) for the benefit of teachers working with mixed groups of pupils. In-service training has become the context in which special forms of provision are most routinely available to classroom teachers who have to deal with increasingly mixed groups of pupils from one year to the next.

In other countries, forms of **financial compensation or promotion** (E) are offered teachers to ensure that they do not leave their posts. In Greece, for example, teachers involved in the additional curriculum for pupils with learning difficulties may receive a financial bonus. Teachers in Spain who are involved in programmes to develop compensatory initiatives *(Educación compensatoria)* intended to minimise inequalities among certain groups of pupils (as a result of their ethnic, cultural, social or economic origin, etc.) are awarded benefits and promotions during their career. In France, teachers working in schools in a *zone d'éducation prioritaire* (ZEP, or priority education area) receive salary bonuses. In Iceland, teachers who have pupils with physical disabilities or psychological disorders in their classes and do not receive assistance from additional staff are awarded a compensatory payment. In Hungary, there is a bonus for 'fighting exclusion' for teachers working with pupils who have difficulty in integrating, or behavioural or learning problems. In Poland, teachers have to satisfy certain

requirements (possess a further qualification and have 3-5 pupils with special educational needs in the class) in order to receive additional remuneration.

FIGURE 5.4: TYPES OF SUPPORT OFFERED TO TEACHERS WORKING WITH MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS INTEGRATED WITHIN MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	B fr	B de	B nl	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK E/W/NI	UK SC	IS	LI	NO	BG	CZ	EE	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	PL	RO	SI	SK
A	❍	❍			❍											❍						●						●			●		
B	❍		❍		❍		●	●		●		❍	●	●		❍		●					❍	●			●	●	●	●		●	●
C	●	●	❍		●	●	●	●	●	●	❍	❍	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●	●	●	●		❍	●			●	●	●		●	●	●
D	❍	●	❍		●	❍	●	❍			❍	●	●	●	❍	❍	❍	●		❍	●			❍	●		●	●	●	❍		●	❍
E						●	●	●											●									●	●		●	●		

A Reduction in teaching/working time
B Reduction in class size
C Allocation of additional staff
D In-service training courses (for the benefit of teachers working with mixed groups of pupils)
E Promotion and/or financial compensation

● formal support (in the framework of some regulations and/or recommendations at central/regional/localevel)
❍ support exists but is not formal (not systematically organised)
An empty space means that no kind of support is provided

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B nl): If the number of pupils in the target group reaches a certain level, schools get additional 'teacher-periods' which they can use as they wish within categories B and C.
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Germany: A reduction in working time and the allocation of additional posts to classes with mixed groups of pupils are possible only if pupils with a physical or mental disability are integrated within mainstream education.
Greece: This Figure is only concerned with teachers involved in the additional curriculum for pupils with learning difficulties in several subjects in the main curriculum (who are unable to follow or participate in the learning process in general lower secondary education).
France: School heads are free to distribute as they wish additional teaching staff allocations received by schools in ZEPs.
Ireland: Additional staff allocations are made to schools in disadvantaged areas and/or offering specific programmes (e.g. for pupils with learning difficulties).
Netherlands: VMBO schools, with a relatively large number of pupils from cultural minority groups, receive more resources for the recruitment of teachers.
Portugal: The experiments that were carried out and evaluated under the Multicultural Education Programme between 1993 and 1997 have subsequently served as a reference for in-service teacher training institutions.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Additional support depends on individual school circumstances and the funding available. The level of need of pupils and the number of pupils with special educational needs within a class would normally be taken into account when allocating additional staff.
Czech Republic: There is no formal support available for teachers who work with mixed groups of pupils. The law allows class sizes to be reduced but without any change in the minimum average class size for the school as a whole.
Estonia: There are plans to revise current legislation so that a bonus can be offered to teachers working with mixed groups of pupils.

3.2.1. Allocation of additional staff

It should be noted from the outset that the qualifications required for teaching classes with mixed groups of pupils in mainstream education do not differ from those required for all qualifications at this level. Only exceptionally do regular class teachers (as opposed to the additional staff allocated to help them) have further qualifications enabling them to handle the management of mixed groups of pupils entirely on their own.

Generally speaking, teachers responsible for classes of mixed composition are assisted by various specially trained and experienced professionals. Figure 5.5 indicates the different types of additional support staff, along with the specific tasks they carry out in close cooperation with the class teacher ([4]). These professionals may be **directly** responsible for certain teaching activities (in the case of assistants/support teachers) or work **outside** the class (educationists, psychologists, etc.). Only the first group is considered here.

Besides these support staff, support may also involve mobilising services outside the educational sector, such as health services (for example, physiotherapists) or social services (for example, social workers). This type of assistance for pupils with physical disabilities is not considered here.

([4]) For full details on the special training, evaluation and methods of recruiting additional supervisory teaching staff, see: Teaching Staff. European Glossary on Education, volume 3. *Ready Reference*. Brussels: Eurydice, 2001.

FIGURE 5.5: ADDITIONAL TEACHING SUPPORT STAFF ALLOCATED TO CLASSES WITH MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS INTEGRATED WITHIN MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

Country	Types of additional staff Specific tasks

(–) Not applicable because this formal supporting measure does not exist (see category C in Figure 5.4).
[ ] Additional teaching support staff to which teachers may turn informally if formal support facilities do not exist.

B fr

Teacher
Mediator

Fighting school failure and drop-out and encouraging the educational integration of mixed groups of pupils.

B de

Teacher
Specialised teacher

Providing teaching support either by assisting the tenured class teacher, or by working with individual pupils in mixed groups, so as to help them with the process of integration. Teachers very often offer a first grounding in German, the language of instruction, to pupils from migrant families new to Belgium.

B nl

Schools are free to organise the type of support they prefer

DK

(–)

D

Lehrer für sonderpädagogische Lehrämter

Looking after pupils with disabilities (no more than 3 or 4) in the class.

EL

Daskalos Idikis Agogis (Δάσκαλος Ειδικής Αγωγής)

Assisting teachers in classes with pupils with special needs.

Kathigitis enischitikis didaskalias (Καθηγητής ενισχυτικής διδασκαλίας)

Working on the additional curriculum for pupils with learning difficulties in several subjects in the main curriculum.

E

Profesor de apoyo a la Educación Especial
Profesor de apoyo al programa de Educación Compensatoria

In both cases, the *profesores de apoyo*:

- help pupils in need of educational support in their group/classroom, and/or individually, or in small groups if necessary;
- contribute to the coordination of teaching activity and work with other teachers at the school to respond as fully as possible to the wide range of differences between pupils;
- cooperate with class teachers and other teaching staff to devise changes in organisation and the curriculum, as well as in material resources, and to monitor and evaluate pupils with differing needs;
- coordinate their duties with the school counselling department and sectoral counselling team;
- assist teaching staff in the provision of advice to the parents or tutors of pupils with special educational needs.

F

Aide éducateur

Assisting the team of teaching staff in all areas of school activity.

Enseignant spécialisé

Working in the field of integration and adjustment at school in the *unites pédagogiques d'intégration* (teaching staff units for integration that may be organised within schools) and the *sections d'enseignement général professionnel adapté* (sections for special general vocational education that exist in some schools for pupils who have difficulty with schoolwork).

IRL

Resource teacher

Providing support with aspects of teaching and assessing the needs and progress of pupils, while also advising the class teacher.

Special Needs Assistant

Providing additional assistance to pupils with special educational needs.

I

Insegnante di sostegno

Assisting the class teacher when one or more pupils with disabilities are present, and carrying out certain educational and teaching activities.

L

(–)

NL

(–)

A

Sonderschullehrer

Special needs teachers are jointly responsible, with classroom teachers, for ensuring that pupils with or without special educational needs receive appropriate educational provision.

Begleitlehrer

Responsibility, as an assistant teacher, for teaching German as an additional language for pupils of foreign mother tongue.

Lehrer für den muttersprachlichen Unterricht

Responsibility, as a mother tongue teacher, for teaching that language to pupils of the same mother tongue.

P

Professor de apoio educativo

Assisting pupils between and during their classroom activities.

FIN

[Erityisluokanopettaja/Specialklasslärare]

Familiarising the class teacher with special needs teaching methods and the specific needs of the pupils concerned, thus helping them to integrate into the group.

[Erityisopettaja/Speciallärare]

Provision of special education on a part-time basis to pupils with learning difficulties or minor problems of adjustment, or problems specific to a particular subject.

[Koulunkäyntiavustaja]

Supporting the learning process of pupils and their growth as human beings.

S	***[Specialpedagog]*** Responsibility for pupils who experience functional learning disorders.
UK	
E/W/NI	***[Specialist support teacher]*** This would depend on the individual circumstances (such as support for a child with SEN, specialist teaching for those with English as an additional language, etc.).
	[Learning support assistant] These staff provide the extra help often needed for pupils/students with special educational needs (including those with physical disabilities).
SC	***Learning support teacher*** Staff in this category have the key role in helping pupils with learning difficulties or special educational needs.
	Learning support assistant These staff provide the extra help often needed for pupils/students with special educational needs (including those with physical disabilities).
IS	***Sérkennari*** Assisting teachers and pupils with special educational needs in all possible ways with their teaching and learning activities.
	Aðstoðarmaður vegna sérþarfa Provision of extra help to teachers working with pupils with special educational needs.
	Interpreter Assisting pupils whose mother tongue is not Icelandic.
LI	***Ergänzungslehrer*** Working jointly with the classroom teacher for a limited period each week (3 hours in the classroom and 1 hour to prepare meetings), and assisting pupils who have learning difficulties.
NO	***Allmennlærer*** Ordinary teacher who assists pupils with special educational needs.
	Logoped Providing teachers or pupils, individually or in groups, with assistance and advice on problems related to speech and literacy.
	Spesial Pedagog Teacher with supplementary education in pedagogy which enables him to assist pupils with special educational needs.
	Assistent Providing assistance to pupils with special educational needs during both teaching and non-teaching activities.
BG	**(–)**

CZ ***[Vychovatel –asistent učitele]***

Offering priority assistance to teachers in classes in which Romany children form a majority. This new post was created in 2000 to help pupils with social problems, but it has not yet been introduced on a general basis because of lack of funds.

EE ***Kasvataja abi***

These 'assistant educators' work with teachers in classes of pupils with severe and multiple disabilities.

Eripedagogoog

Supporting teachers who have pupils with special needs.

CY **(–)**

LV **(–)**

LT ***Specialusis/lioji pedagogas/gė***

The tasks depend on the nature of the one or more disabilities from which a particular pupil suffers.

HU ***Gyógypedagógus***

Leading rehabilitation classes, teaching cultural technical subjects and offering provision geared to individual needs.

Konduktor

These staff have specialised in teaching pupils with physical disabilities.

Szociálpedagógus

Working with children (including Romany children) from difficult social backgrounds, as well as with their parents and teachers.

MT ***Facilitator***

Helping children to become integrated within their class.

PL **(–)**

RO ***Profesor itinerant***

Responsible for providing support to classes for the integration of pupils, duties include adapting the curriculum , evaluating pupils' needs, analysing the interaction between pupils with special educational needs and other pupils, assisting with rehabilitation activities and giving methodological support to the teachers concerned.

SI ***Učitelj s specialno pedagoško izobrazbo***

Helping pupils with special educational needs to achieve the aims and minimum standards of knowledge specified in the curriculum.

SK ***Asistent ucitela*** (since 2000)

Duties include assisting teachers with children of Romany origin.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes (Figure 5.5)

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Poland: There are no teaching assistants in either mainstream or 'inclusive' education, in which class sizes of 15-20 students have been introduced. The employment of support teachers *(Nauczyciel wspomagający)* who are specialised in special needs pedagogy is possible in mainstream schools, but only in special classes.

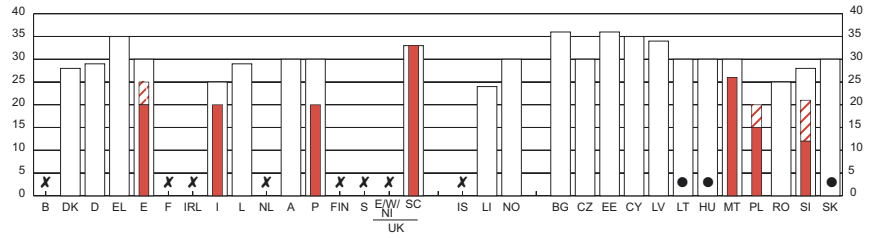
The way in which the allocation of support staff is calculated varies from one country to the next. In general, the calculation depends on the one or more differences as a result of which pupils in a particular class or school constitute a mixed group. In certain cases, as in Spain and Estonia, the law stipulates a very precise pupil/teacher ratio. Supplementary information on the way in which education authorities calculate the allocation of one or more additional staff who support the work of teachers in classes with mixed groups of pupils can be found in the annexes.

3.2.2. Reduced class sizes

Generally speaking, official recommendations specify the maximum number of pupils that a class or group should contain. However, indications regarding the maximum size of a class comprising a mixed group of pupils are not always provided. Figure 5.6 shows that very few teachers who are faced with mixed groups of pupils work with fewer pupils. Instructions or recommendations regarding the maximum size of classes with mixed groups of pupils in European countries are very uncommon. Only Spain, Italy, Portugal, United Kingdom (Scotland), Malta, Poland and Slovenia have specific formal requirements regarding reductions in the number of pupils per class.

Reductions in class size vary from one country to the next. Some countries recommend reducing the size of classes by a quarter, a third or even a half. Certain countries such as Lithuania, Hungary and Slovakia comply with other types of norm in deciding on the extent to which there should be fewer pupils per class. In Lithuania, for example, one pupil with a disability is regarded as equivalent to two pupils when calculating the total class size. In Hungary, pupils with language difficulties, those who have a slight mental disability, or who have problems in integrating, learning difficulties or behavioural problems are regarded as equivalent to two pupils, whereas those with a physical or sensory disability, or a more severe mental disability, count for three. Similarly, for each pupil with a disability in Slovakia, three others are discounted when the size of a class is calculated so that it will necessarily be smaller if it comprises a mixed group.

FIGURE 5.6: PRESCRIBED OR RECOMMENDED NORMS FOR THE MAXIMUM SIZE OF CLASSES IN MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Recommended maximum number of pupils

Recommended maximum number of pupils in mixed classes (all categories considered as a whole)

Range within which the maximum number of pupils in mixed classes (all categories considered as a whole) can vary

The calculation may vary ✗ No recommendations regarding the maximum size of classes

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (B fr): A reduction in class size is planned (but not yet implemented), given that it is possible to secure additional *périodes-professeurs* (decree of 14 June 2001 for the integration of foreign pupils new to Belgium).
Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.
Spain: Remedial education programmes *(programas de Educación Compensatoria)* are intended for pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds, whether in social, economic, cultural, geographical, ethnic or other respects. Special education programmes *(programas de Educación Especial)* are for pupils with physical, mental or sensory disabilities, pupils who have serious behavioural problems or those with exceptional learning ability.
Austria: In cases where children have special educational needs, a reduction in class size is possible; the precise number of pupils is decided at regional level.
United Kingdom (E/W/NI): Class size depends on individual school circumstances and is determined locally.
Czech Republic: School heads determine the reduction in class sizes.
Malta: The maximum number of pupils varies: it is 30 pupils in the case of the first two years of lower secondary education, 25 in the final three years, and 16 in boys'/girls' schools for low achievers.
Poland: The official requirements refer to 15-20 pupils among whom three to five may have different types of special need in each group.
Slovenia: The official requirements refer to 21 or 18 for a class containing pupils with special needs (depending on the number of pupils of this kind in the class); the figure is 16 for a class containing pupils of Romany origin (21 for a class with at least three pupils of Romany origin); in socially disadvantaged areas, the size of the class may be reduced to as few as 12 pupils.

Explanatory note

The information in this chapter does not deal with children educated in separate special classes or schools.

3.2.3. Reduction in teaching/working time

In general, teachers working with mixed groups of pupils are not granted any reduction in their workload. Only in Belgium (German-speaking and French Communities), Germany, Sweden, Norway and Hungary are they able to reduce their teaching hours if they are working with mixed groups of children. In

Germany and Hungary, this type of support is offered under certain circumstances. Figure 5.7 indicates the conditions subject to which teachers working with mixed groups of pupils may benefit from a reduction in their teaching and/or working time. It also indicates this reduction as a percentage, which is generally 9-16 %.

FIGURE 5.7: CONDITIONS SUBJECT TO WHICH TEACHERS WORKING WITH MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS INTEGRATED INTO MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A) MAY OBTAIN A REDUCTION IN THEIR WORKLOAD AND THE PERCENTAGE REDUCTION CONCERNED, 2000/01

	Conditions	Percentage reduction
B fr	The teachers concerned may be awarded time for coordination (teamwork) which replaces some of their actual teaching load per se. It is up to the school head to decide whether a part of the total number of 'teacher periods' *(périodes-professeurs)* attributed to the school should be used in this way.	Variable
B de	It is possible for the school head and *Pädagogischer Rat* (advisory board of teachers) to provide several periods of coordination or guidance for teachers working with mixed groups of pupils and coordinating a lot of teamwork, as a result of which the number of class periods they have to teach is reduced. The decision on how to use the sum of 'teacher periods' *(Stundenkapital)* is left to the discretion of the school head (who must consult the *Pädagogischer Rat*).	Around 10 %
D	Only if pupils with a physical disability or pyschological disorder have to be integrated within the class.	Variable
S	Locally determined.	Variable
NO	Time taken off the teaching load has to be used for diagnosis and to achieve a good dialogue with the pupils and parents concerned.	9-16 %
HU	Reduction in teaching hours if, at the start of the school year, the proportion of pupils with disabilities in a class is equal to or greater than 33 % of the total number of pupils.	10 % (corresponding to a weekly total of 19 hours of teaching)

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Norway: Since the beginning of 2002, an overall budgetary allocation has been granted to each school for it to manage its own particular problems (and not solely those concerned with the integration of mixed groups of pupils).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The attractiveness of an occupation depends largely on an optimal combination of the working conditions associated with it. Teaching is no exception. Good salary prospects do not in themselves generally guarantee that a profession will be attractive. The organisation of working time, tasks to be performed, status of staff, job security and training available in service are other important factors that have to be taken into account when examining the quality of teachers' working conditions.

1. DEVELOPING A STATUTORY DEFINITION OF THE OVERALL WORKING TIME OF TEACHERS

In the last ten years or so, the workload of teachers has been the focus of increasingly greater attention. The new expectations of society vis-à-vis schools have created new tasks and responsibilities for teachers in a way that has very often been unplanned. Yet, according to available national surveys, in some countries public opinion often perceives teachers as working less than other professionals.

Today, official definitions of the working time of teachers (see Chapter 2 and the Glossary for the various definitions) cover duties that vary quite widely from one country to another. For some employers (central government, local authorities and schools), teachers are appointed to provide a given number of hours of teaching; others require that teachers should be available on school premises to carry out tasks that go beyond the scope of lessons as such. In either case, a certain amount of extra time (not necessarily specified in a teacher's contract or job description) has to be devoted to preparing lessons and correcting tests or homework done by pupils.

In many countries, these various statutory embodiments of the workload of teachers have led to a fresh definition of their working time. In some countries, the latter does not consist of just a statutorily determined number of hours of teaching supplemented by a few hours of presence in school to perform other tasks, but is also expressed as an overall amount of time to accommodate all duties, including the preparation of lessons and correcting work by pupils. By defining overall working time in this way, it has been possible to establish a relationship between what is required of teachers and what is stipulated for other workers with the same professional status. This broadening of the definition reflects a concern on the part of the competent authorities to account more accurately for the work that is expected of teachers. Indirectly, this may help to correct the widespread stereotype of the profession, according to which teachers have a less demanding workload than that of other occupations.

Instead of opting for a definition of overall working time, some countries prefer to establish a given number of hours during which teachers should be present in school to carry out tasks determined by the school head. Where this is so, considerable flexibility on their part is required.

2. AUTONOMY OF SCHOOL HEADS IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT: TEACHERS FACE PRESSURE WITH LITTLE SUPPORT TO MATCH

By examining the flexibility required of teachers in the light of their task description and the amount of time they are expected to work (Chapter 2), it has been possible to identify three major categories:

- countries in which both tasks and teaching time are statutorily defined (minimum flexibility required on the part of teachers);
- countries in which employers (often local authorities, or even school heads) have considerable leeway in organising the working time and tasks of their employees (teachers) (high flexibility required on the part of teachers);
- countries in an intermediate position.

Countries in which the working time and tasks to be carried out are very strictly specified by central government or the top-level authority for education are just as numerous as those that prefer more flexible arrangements. In the latter case, teachers may sometimes have to perform several tasks for which they may consider themselves to be neither necessarily responsible (administrative duties) nor qualified (school 'public relations'). They must also be available to satisfy various school needs. It should be noted that excessive workloads are mainly an issue in countries in which teachers are expected to be very flexible, such as Denmark, Sweden and the United Kingdom. It is perhaps unsurprising, therefore, that the policies of these three countries are currently geared to reducing the general workload of teachers so that they can concentrate more effectively on teaching activities as such.

As Chapter 2 indicates, management responsibilities are increasing and teachers are becoming more involved in activities calling for coordination and teamwork. At the same time they are having to cope with increasingly mixed groups of pupils, which represents a further challenge for them. In addition to these new responsibilities, yet other considerations may call for a considerable investment in time, such as the incorporation of information and communication technology (ICT) into education, changes in curricula, and new obligations related to the internal evaluation of schools.

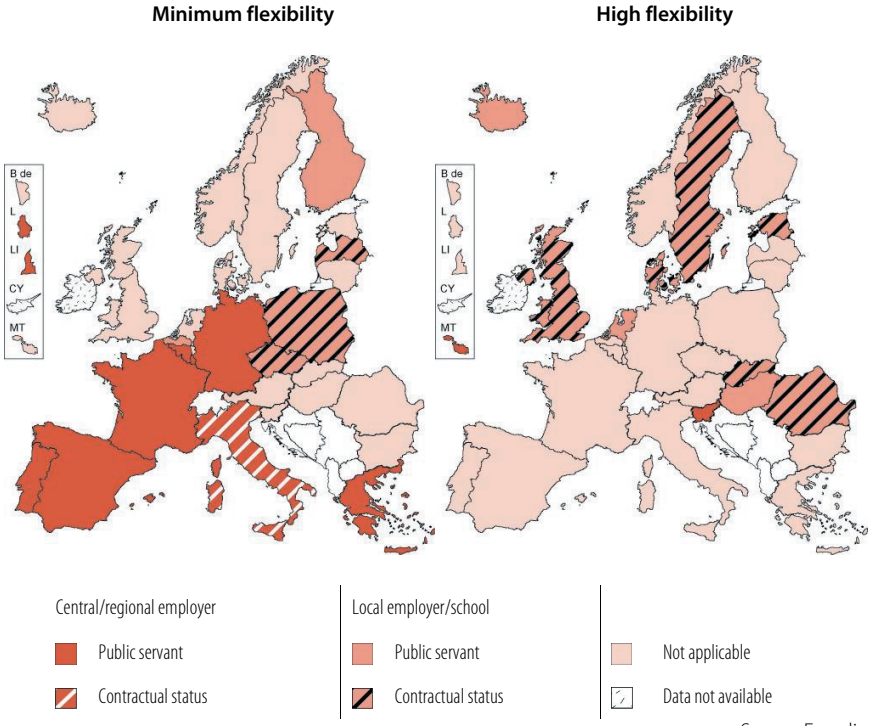
With an increasing workload and the challenges posed by new working practices, many teachers experience significant work-related stress which hampers their abilities to meet the demands placed on them. However, as Chapter 5 has indicated, at present few formal arrangements for support exist to help them. Among countries with very flexible or fairly flexible arrangements for organising the working time of teachers and the tasks they have to carry out, only the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Norway, Estonia, Lithuania and Slovenia have devised both regulations and/or recommendations on initiatives to support teachers for the four areas of difficulty identified in Chapter 5. In most cases, action of this kind has not been developed as a priority to overcome the problems of teachers but included in a set of measures for the benefit of various members of the educational community.

That said, education authorities pay special attention to the challenges teachers face with so called 'mixed' groups of pupils (who have special educational needs of various kinds, problems of social adjustment or learning difficulties, or who come from the families of migrants, etc. See section 3.1 of Chapter 5 for the various official definitions). Chapter 5 draws attention to the importance of support for teachers in this kind of situation in which differences between pupils in a single group are increasingly becoming the norm. The support that teachers receive primarily entails the allocation of additional staff who assist them with various aspects of their teaching.

3. A RELATIVELY HIGH LEVEL OF JOB SECURITY, IRRESPECTIVE OF PROFESSIONAL STATUS

The relative high level of job security among teachers in Europe may still be regarded as one of the chief rewards of their profession (Chapter 1). Membership of the profession normally means that they are likely to be guaranteed employment until retirement age and that their conditions of employment will remain unchanged or be improved during their period in service. Almost everywhere, teachers still enjoy a high level of protection against redundancy, regardless of whether they are an integral part of the public service or have some other status. However, in some countries in which the majority of teachers are public servants, the protection afforded by this status is sometimes viewed as problematic when teachers who, for a variety of reasons, are no longer able to teach nonetheless remain in the profession.

FIGURE A: ADMINISTRATIVE DECISION-MAKING LEVEL OF EMPLOYERS, THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS AND THE DEGREE OF FLEXIBILITY WITH WHICH THEIR TASK DESCRIPTIONS MAY BE DETERMINED IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

See the additional notes and explanatory note to Figures 1.3 (Chapter 1) and 2.12 (Chapter 2). For the definitions of professional status and flexibility, see the introduction to Chapter 1 and section 2.3 of Chapter 2, respectively.

Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands and **Austria**: Both types of professional status are possible.

Belgium (B de), Austria, Norway, Bulgaria and **Lithuania**: Countries in which flexibility is regarded as intermediate.

Ireland and **Cyprus**: Data on the degree of flexibility is lacking.

The professional status of teachers does not therefore have a really determinant impact on their employment security. However, the fact that their 'employer' (see section 2.1 of Chapter 1) may be the central (or regional) government, a local authority, or even the management of the school concerned, may imply differences in their employment contracts and, by the same token, in the way their tasks are formally defined.

In a major proportion of countries in which teachers are employed by a central or regional body and in general granted career civil servant status, the flexibility that may be required of them in relation to the tasks/amount of work they have to complete is very restricted (see Figure A). The centralised responsibility of the employer appears to partially relieve them of the obligation to adapt flexibly to their tasks, in so far as the central authority does not have a great deal of leeway with respect to teachers. By contrast, in most countries in which the employment relationship is established with the local authorities or school head, teachers' contracts often allow flexibility to adapt to new circumstances and needs as they arise. Local employers may require that they perform duties other than purely classroom teaching roles. This applies in particular to Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, as well as to some of the EU candidate countries.

4. A WIDE VARIETY OF POLICIES ON TEACHER SALARIES

The attractiveness of the teaching profession is bound to depend in part on the salary levels offered to its members.

In this respect, the statistics indicate that the salaries of teachers in Europe do not as a rule rise markedly during their period in service (see Figure 3.1 of Chapter 3). On the contrary, their salary increases tend, if anything, to be very modest. As Chapter 3 has shown, the basic minimum salary is in general lower than or equivalent to per capita GDP. There is relatively little difference in the income of teachers at the start of their careers and when they retire (except in Portugal and Cyprus). In some cases, the minimum salaries do not reach 80 % of per capita GDP. This applies to the majority of candidate countries as well as Ireland, Iceland and Norway.

Besides the starting salary, an additional set of important factors has to be taken into account in examining the likelihood of salary increases. Factors such as the further qualifications obtained by teachers, evaluation of their teaching performance at work, salary adjustments and other financial benefits mean that differences in salary levels amongst teachers working at the same level may exist.

Policies for teacher salaries in Europe differ depending on the extent to which they take account of one or more of these factors. Some countries take many of them into consideration in determining the income of their teachers, with the result that salary differences between teachers at the same educational level may be quite marked.

Similarly, countries in which the basic salaries of teachers are somewhat low compared to per capita GDP grant them other types of financial compensation to a greater extent than elsewhere, which may partly make up for their relatively modest income. For example, from an examination of further possible forms of remuneration for teachers, it is clear that all the foregoing countries remunerate them for overtime or in return for assuming additional responsibilities. Indeed, in Sweden and Norway the hourly overtime rate corresponds to more than 150 % of the normal salary hourly rate. By contrast, where the minimum salary of teachers is greater than per capita GDP, overtime is not paid, as is the case in Spain, or paid at only a modest rate (Germany, Greece and Malta). Portugal is an exception as its teachers are the best paid in comparison with per capita GDP, while its remuneration for overtime or additional responsibilities is also the most generous.

FIGURE B: MINIMUM BASIC SALARY COMPARED TO PER CAPITA GDP AND HOURLY OVERTIME RATES COMPARED TO THE NORMAL SALARY HOURLY RATE IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Minimum basic salary compared to per capita GDP		
	below	broadly equivalent	above
Overtime unremunerated	**IRL, UK (SC)**	**UK (E/W/NI)**	**E**
Payment lower than or equivalent to the hourly rate	**B, IS, LT, PL, RO**	**L, NL, FIN**	**D, EL, MT**
Payment above the hourly rate			
Between 100 and 150 %	**DK, A, CZ, EE, LV, HU, SI, SK**		**P**
Over 150 %	**S, NO**		
Payment varies	**I**	**F**	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

See the additional notes and explanatory note to Figures 3.1 and 3.12 (Chapter 3). For the definition of basic salary, see section 1.1 of Chapter 3.
Germany, Greece and **Austria**: Teachers may do a certain amount of overtime in accordance with their job description, which is not additionally remunerated. Over and above that amount, they are entitled to a salary bonus based on the number of extra hours worked.
Liechtenstein and **Bulgaria**: Data on the basic minimum salary is lacking.
Cyprus: Data on the amount of overtime paid is lacking.

In countries in which the salaries of teachers are relatively low, they may be allowed under certain circumstances to undertake professional activities not referred to in their contract. For example, in some candidate countries teachers are allowed to undertake further teaching duties unrelated to their initial employment, although this situation is becoming less widespread and subject to more restrictive regulations.

The investigation may be taken further by comparing the maximum basic salary to which teachers are entitled just before retirement and the number of additional

factors, with the exception of length of service, that may lead to supplementary remuneration as their career progresses. Figure C shows that, generally speaking, in countries in which teacher salaries are relatively low (less than or between 100 % and 150 % of per capita GDP), a greater number of factors liable to increase salaries or financial benefits are taken into account, thus boosting teacher income to some extent. In Poland, all factors are considered ([1]). Exceptions, however, are Greece, Spain and Portugal, where the basic salaries of teachers about to retire are fairly high but may nonetheless be supplemented by many further salary adjustments and other financial benefits.

FIGURE C: MAXIMUM BASIC SALARY COMPARED TO PER CAPITA GDP AND THE MAIN FACTORS RELEVANT TO POSSIBLE INCREASES IN TEACHER SALARY (INCLUDING OTHER FINANCIAL BENEFITS) IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Maximum basic salary compared to per capita GDP			
	below 100 %	Between 100 and 150 %	between 150 and 200 %	Between 200 and 300 %
All factors relevant to possible salary increases or other financial benefits		**PL**		
Between 7 and 9 factors relevant to possible salary increases or other financial benefits	**IS, NO, EE, HU**	**DK, S, FIN, LT, RO, SI**	**F, NL**	**EL, E, P**
Between 4 and 6 factors relevant to possible salary increases or other financial benefits	**CZ, LV,SK**	**I**	**B nl, D, L, A, UK (E/W/NI), MT**	
Between 1 and 3 factors relevant to possible salary increases or other financial benefits		**IRL, UK (SC)**	**Bfr, B de**	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

See the additional notes and explanatory note to Figures 3.1 and 3.20 (Chapter 3).
Liechtenstein and **Bulgaria**: Data on salary is lacking.
Czech Republic: It is not possible from the data available to distinguish between the salaries of teachers and school heads. Teacher salaries are believed to be slightly lower than per capita GDP.
Cyprus: Data on the number of relevant factors is lacking.

Finally, the remuneration of teachers may depend on their professional status. As Figure D illustrates, in the great majority of countries in which they are employed under contract in accordance with general employment legislation, their salaries are lower than per capita GDP. Nevertheless, in countries in which the majority of teachers are public servants the relation between their professional status and salary level is not clear-cut. In some of these countries, the salaries of teachers who are public servants are less than per capita GDP, while in others they are much higher.

([1]) Besides length of service or professional experience in a field other than education, the ten factors relevant to possible increases in teachers' salary, salary adjustments or financial benefits are further qualifications, evaluation of teaching performance at work, overtime, additional responsibilities, employment locality, mixed classes, health, accommodation, essential travel, and a set of other miscellaneous considerations.

FIGURE D: MINIMUM BASIC SALARY COMPARED TO PER CAPITA GDP AND THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Minimum basic salary compared to per capita GDP		
	Below	broadly equivalent	Above
Public servant status	**B, A, IS, LT, HU, SI**	**F, L, NL, FIN**	**D, E, EL, P, CY, MT**
Employment under contract in accordance with general labour legislation	**DK, IRL, I, S, UK (SC), NO, CZ, EE, LV, PL, RO, SK**	**UK (E/W/NI)**	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

See the additional notes and the explanatory note to Figures 1.1 (Chapter 1) and 3.1 (Chapter 3).
Only the dominant employment status, whether this is public servant (or status assimilated to public servant) or employee is shown in this figure.
Liechtenstein and **Bulgaria**: Data on salary is lacking.

5. THE TEACHING LOAD IS RARELY REDUCED IN THE FINAL STAGES OF SERVICE

The general trend towards the reduction of working time among salaried staff in many professional sectors is not typical of teaching staff. In very few countries is their working and/or teaching time reduced. Where this does occur, the reduction in workload is related to very precise conditions, such as length of service, the amount of work involved preparing lessons in or marking certain subjects, or the level of qualifications of the teachers concerned.

Only in ten countries (Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, Portugal, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Cyprus, Romania and Slovenia) may teaching load be reduced (sometimes very gradually) with the length of time spent in service, without any decrease in salary. Salary increases of teachers in these countries correspond to reasonable levels of income. For example, in Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, Norway and Slovenia, the teaching load of teachers decreases with length of service but their salaries continue to rise until retirement. In Germany, Greece, Portugal and Iceland, where teaching time is reduced with effect from a given age, salary increases are discontinued, or are only very modest, after 24-31 years in service. In these countries, the reduction in teaching load may be regarded as a way of compensating for no further rise in salary.

Finally, in Romania the teaching time of teachers with a university qualification is reduced after a given number of years in service, whereas their salaries are increased until they retire.

6. IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING IS INCREASINGLY REGARDED AS AN OBLIGATION

The growing importance of in-service teacher training is reflected in the attempt in several countries to adopt policies aimed at establishing closer links between initial and in-service training. These efforts are sometimes part and parcel of approaches that integrate the objectives of initial and in-service teacher training within a single consistent strategy for skills development as is currently being developed in the United Kingdom.

Where efforts are being made to view (initial and in-service) teacher training as a smoothly integrated whole, many countries now make it compulsory for teachers to undertake in-service training activities. As already indicated in Chapter 4, teachers in around half of all European countries are professionally obliged to regularly update their knowledge. In a further six countries, in-service training is to all intents and purposes compulsory in that teachers who have not undertaken it cannot be promoted.

Whether or not in-service training is a statutorily required – and therefore compulsory – activity for teachers is in general stipulated in their employment contract or in legislation. In this respect, the authorities concerned enforce the requirement particularly strictly in the case of teachers who are public servants. As Figure E shows, for the majority of teachers with public servant status, in-service training activity is either mandatory or firmly recommended in the case of those seeking promotion.

FIGURE E: THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS AND COMPULSORY OR OPTIONAL IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Public servant	Employment under contract in accordance with general labour legislation
Compulsory in-service training	**B de, B nl, D, NL, A, FIN, LI, LT, HU, MT**	**S, UK, EE, LV, RO**
In-service training is optional but essential for promotion	**E, P, IS, BG, SI**	**PL**
In-service training is optional	**B fr, EL, F, L, CY**	**DK, IRL, I, NO, CZ, SK**

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

See the additional notes and explanatory note to Figures 1.1 (Chapter 1) and 4.1 (Chapter 4).
Only the dominant employment status, whether this is public servant (or status assimilated to public servant) or employee is shown in this figure.

As regards the curricula and activities of institutions for in-service teacher training (comprising a relatively decentralised sector in most countries), they reflect the new skills expected of teachers in recent years, in addition to those customarily associated with their profession. As a priority, this involves training in the use of

ICT and in catering for pupils with special educational needs who are integrated within mainstream classes. Furthermore, as already noted, most measures on the part of education authorities to provide support have been motivated by concern for these mixed groups of pupils.

It is also worth considering whether a greater degree of flexibility in the way teachers' working time is organised has an impact on the status of in-service training. In countries in which the latter is compulsory, teachers work within a system characterised by substantial operational flexibility as regards the obligations they have to fulfil, including participation in in-service training. Conversely, in almost all countries in which flexibility is very limited, in-service training is generally an option available to teachers wishing to benefit from it.

FIGURE F: COMPULSORY OR OPTIONAL NATURE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING AND THE DEGREE OF FLEXIBILITY WITH WHICH THE TASK DESCRIPTIONS OF TEACHERS MAY BE DETERMINED IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Compulsory in-service training	Optional in-service training
Minimum flexibility	**B nl, D, FIN, LI, LV**	**B fr, E, EL, F, I, L, P, CZ, PL**
Intermediate flexibility	**B de, A, LT**	**NO, BG**
High flexibility	**NL, S, UK, EE, MT, RO, HU**	**DK, IS, SI, SK**

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

See the additional notes and explanatory note to Figures 2.12 (Chapter 2) and 4.1 (Chapter 4).
Ireland and **Cyprus**: Data on the level of flexibility is lacking.

In-service training is no doubt the most common means for teachers to update and enrich their professional knowledge and expertise. While paid sabbatical leave (see Chapter 4 for the definition) may be regarded as an alternative form of career-long training, it still has only a fairly limited impact on the teaching profession in Europe as a whole, since it can only be taken in eight countries and the amount of time available for it may vary.

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Working conditions for teachers in Europe definitely play their part in determining whether prospective teachers will join the profession and, if so, remain in it for an appreciable length of time. This report has examined many aspects of the conditions of employment that educational policy-makers in European countries offer teachers in general lower secondary education.

In the present economic context, education authorities have to weigh up the types of commitment they can make vis-à-vis all practising and prospective teachers alike. The fourth and final report in this study of the teaching profession in Europe will be particularly concerned with an examination of major reforms that have affected the profession and the reasons underlying them. It will draw together the factors which contribute to the identity of the profession and which were examined separately in the first three reports, in order to gain a better understanding of the considerations determining whether qualified teachers capable of ensuring sound educational provision will remain in the profession or leave it.

ANNEXES

FIGURES 2.5 AND 2.6: CALCULATION OF TEACHERS' WORKLOAD:

	Duration of a teaching period	Number of periods of teaching per week	Number of hours of teaching per week	Teaching time without breaks (hours) per week	Teaching time without breaks (hours) annual	Number of school days	Duration of breaks per lesson (minutes)	Duration of breaks per week (hours)
B	**50′**	**22**		**18.33** 22*50/60	**667 min.** 18.33*182/5	**182**	**5′ (*)**	**1.833 (*)** 22*5/60
		24		**20** 24*50/60	**728 max.** 20*182/5			**2 (*)** 24*5/60
DK					**750**	**200**		
D	**45′**	**23**		**17.25** 23*45/60	**649 min.** 17.25*188/5	**188**	**15′**	**5.75** 23*15/60
		28.5		**21.375** 28.5*45/60	**803.7 max.** 21.375*188/5			**7.125** 28.5*15/60
EL	**45′**	**21**		**15.75** 21*45/60	**614.25** 15.75*195/5	**195**	**5-10′**	
E			**18**			**175**		
			21					
F	**55′**	**15**				**180**	**5′**	
		18						
IRL								
I			**18**		**600** 18*200/6	**200**		
L	**50′**	**21**		**17.5** 21*50/60	**630 min.** 17.5*216/6	**216**	**5′ (*)**	**1.75 (*)** 21*5/60
		23		**19.17** 23*50/60	**690 max.** 19.17*216/6			**1.9 (*)** 23*5/60
NL	**40/50′**					**200**		
A					**720**	**180**		
					756			
P	**50′**	**22**		**18.33** 22*50/60	**660** 18.33*180/5	**180**		
FIN	**45′**	**17**		**12.75** 17*45/60	**485 max.** 12.75*190/5	**190**	**5′- 15′**	**2.83** 17*10/60
		23		**17.25** 23*45/60	**656 min.** 17.25*190/5			**3.83** 23*10/60
S								
UK (E/W/NI)						**190**		
UK (SC)						**190**		
IS				**18.67** 28*40/60	**653.3 max.** 18.67*175/5	**175**		**2.92**
LI	**45′**	**20**		**15** 20*45/60	**630** 15*210/5	**210**	**7.5** 15′/2	**2.5** 20*15/2/60
NO	**45′**	**16**		**12** 16*45/60	**456** 12*190/5	**190**		
		24		**18** 24*45/60	**684** 18*190/5			

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	Teaching time and breaks (hours)		Directed time			Individual time		Overall working time		
			per week	annual		per week	annual	per week	annual	
	per week	annual	(hours)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)
B	**19.66** 18.33+1.33	**734.1** 19.66*182/5								
	22 20+2	**800.8** 22*182/5								
DK					**209**		**375**	**37**		
D	**23** 17.25+5.75	**864.8** 23*188/5								
	28.5 21.375+7.125	**1 072** 28.5*188/5								
EL			**30 max.**	**1 170** 30*195/5	**195**					
E		**578** 18*175/5	**30**	**1 134** 20*189/5	**189**			**37.5**		
		673.75 21*175/5								
F		**540** 15*180/5								
		648 18*180/5								
IRL	**22**	**734.8** 22*167/5								
I		**748** (18*220/6)+88			**220**					
L	**19.25** 17.5+1.75	**693** 19.25*216/6								
	21.8 19.17+1.9	**759** 21.8*216/6								
NL								**36.9**	**225**	**1 659** 36.9*225/5
A							**600**		**222**	**1 776**
							660			222*8
P			**35**	**1 603** 35*229/5	**229**					
FIN	**15.58** 12.75+2.83	**679** (15.58+2)*190/5			**193**					
	21.03 17.25+3.83	**891** (21.03+2)*190/5								
S			**35**	**1 358** 35*194/5	**194**			**(45)**	**194**	**1 767**
UK (E/W/NI)				**1 265**	**195**					
UK (SC)	**23.5**	**893 max.** 23.5*190/5	**27.5**	**1 073** 27.5*195/5	**195**			**35**		
IS			**32.5**	**1 176** 32.5*181/5	**181**		**143**	**45.8**	**181**	**1 800** 45.8*181/5+143
LI	**17.5** 15+2.5	**735** 17.5*210/5						**42.5**	**210**	**1 784** 42.5*210/5
NO				**809**	**195**		**530**			**1 717.5**
				1 185			**892**			

FIGURES 2.5 AND 2.6 (CONTINUED): CALCULATION OF TEACHERS' WORKLOAD:

	Duration of a teaching period	Number of periods of teaching per week	Number of hours of teaching per week	Teaching time without breaks (hours) per week	Teaching time without breaks (hours) annual	Number of school days	Duration of breaks per lesson (minutes)	Duration of breaks per week (hours)
BG	**15′**	**22**		**16.5** 22*45/60	**594** 16.5*180/5	**180**	**20′**	
		32		**24** 32*45/60	**864** 24*180/5			
CZ	**45′**	**22**		**16.5** 22*45/60	**643.5** 16.5*195/5	**195**	**10′/20′**	**5.5 (*)** 22*15′/60
EE	**45′**	**18**		**13.5** 18*45/60	**473** 13.5*175/5	**175 min.**		
		24		**18** 24*45/60	**630** 24*175/5			
CY	**40/45′**	**24**		**17** 24*42.5/60	**578 (*)** 17*170/5	**170**		**2.08** 25*5/60
LV	**40′**	**21**		**14** 21*40/60	**490** 14*175/5	**175**	**10′ (*)**	**3.5 (*)** 21*10/60
					518 14*185/5	**185**		
LT	**45′**	**18**		**13.5** 18*45/60	**459** 13.5*170/5	**170**		
HU	**45′**	**20**		**15** 20*45/60	**555** 15*185/5	**185**	**15′**	**5** 21*15/60
MT **full days**	**45′**	**26**		**19.5** 26*45/60	**592.8** 19.5*152/5	**152**		
half days	**30′**			**13** 26*30/60	**88.4** 13*34/5	**34**		
total					**681.2** 592.8 + 88.4	**186**		
PL	**45′**	**18**		**13.5** 18*45/60	**500** 13.5*185/5	**185**	**10′ (*)**	**3** 18*10/60
RO						**170**		
SI	**45**	**21**		**15.75** 21*45/60	**599** 15.75*190/5	**190**	**10′ (*)**	**3.5** 21*10/60
		22		**16.5** 22*45/60	**627** 16.5*190/5			**3.66** 22*10/60
SK	**45′**	**23**		**17.25** 23*45/60	**652** 17.25*189/5	**189**	**10′/ 20′**	**5.75** 23*15/60

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	Teaching time and breaks (hours)		Directed time			Individual time		Overall working time		
			per week	annual		per week	annual	per week	annual	
	per week	annual	(hours)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)	(days)	(hours)
BG		**648**		**710** 648+62						
		792		**1 080** 792+288						
CZ	**22** 16.5+5.5	**937.2** 22*213/5						**40**	**213**	**1 704**
EE			**32**	**1 344** 32*210/5	**210**					
CY	**19.08** 17+2.08	**648.8 (*)** 19.08*170/5								
LV	**17.5** 14+3.5	**612.5** 17.5*175/5						**40**		
		648.72 17.5*185/5								
LT			**27**	**1 053** 27*195/5	**195**	**6.8 (*)**		**45**		
HU	**20** 15+5	**740** 20*185/5			**185**			**40**	**225**	
		800 20*200/5			**200**					
MT **full days**			**27.5**	**836** 27.5*152/5	**152**					
half days			**18.75**	**127.5** 18.75*34/5	**34**					
total				**963.5** 836+127.5	**186**					
PL	**16.5** 13.5+3	**610.5** 16.5*185/5						**40**	**185**	**1 480** 40*185/5
RO	**18**	**612** 18*170/5						**40**	**170**	**1 360** 40*170/5
	24	**816** 24*170/5								
SI	**19.25** 15.75+3.5	**731.5** 19.25*190/5						**40**		
	21.17 16.5+3.66	**766.3** 21.17*190/5								
SK	**23** 17.25+5.75	**869.4** 23*189/5						**42.5**	**208**	**1 768** 42.5*208/5

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.

FIGURE 2.12: CALCULATION OF THE DEGREE OF FLEXIBILITY THAT MAY BE REQUIRED ON THE PART OF TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

																	UK	
	B fr	**B de**	**B nl**	**DK**	**D**	**EL**	**E**	**F**	**IRL**	**I**	**L**	**NL**	**A**	**P**	**FIN**	**S**	**E/W/NI**	**SC**
A	3	1	3	1 or 2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	1 or 2	2	3	1 or 2	1	1
B	3	1 or 2	3	2	2	3	1	2	(:)	2	3	1	3	2	2	1	1	1
C	1	1 or 3	2	2	3	3	3	2	(:)	3	2	3	1 or 2	3	3	2	1	1

	IS	**LI**	**NO**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**CY**	**LV**	**LT**	**HU**	**MT**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
A	1	2	1	3	3	1, 2 or 3	(:)	2	1 or 3	1	3	3	1 or 2	1	1
B	1	2	3	1	2	1	(:)	3	1	2	1	2	1	1	1
C	3	3	2	2	2	2	(:)	3	3	2	1	3	2	2	2

A. Description of tasks:
- 1 = Individualised
- 2 = Shared between a group of teachers
- 3 = No description of tasks (implicit consensus on tasks that may be required)

B. Breakdown of working hours between teaching hours and time spent on other activities:
- 1 = Allocation of tasks by the headteacher depending on the needs of the school
- 2 = Possibility of reducing the number of lessons to account for work done when standing in for an absent colleague, participation in councils or evaluation of schools, providing support for future teachers, etc.
- 3 = No flexibility

C. Possibility of extending the number of lessons:
- 1 = Where needed, with no extra pay
- 2 = Where needed, with extra pay/time off in lieu
- 3 = Only on a voluntary basis, with extra pay or no possibility of extending the number of lessons

The degree of flexibility shown in Figure 2.12 has been defined as follows:

A = Minimal flexibility: sum of indices greater than 6 (2, 2, 3), (2, 3, 3), (3, 3, 3), (3, 3, 1)

B = Intermediate flexibility: sum of indices equal to 6 (2, 2, 2), (1, 2, 3)

C = High flexibility: sum of indices less than 6 (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 1, 3), (2, 1, 2)

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland and **Liechtenstein**: Information not verified at national level.
Denmark: Teaching time is decreased if the teacher concerned exercises administrative activities, such as those of municipal school consultant, education counsellor or school librarian.
Germany: Staff members may temporarily stand in for absent colleagues. The possibility of reducing the number of lessons to compensate for this work is at the discretion of the school head. Regulations and usage vary from one *Land* to the next.
Spain: Of the 30 hours that teachers have to spend in school, 25 (from 18 to 21 hours of teaching and 7 to 4 supplementary hours) are fixed by the school head. The remainder are devoted to teacher meetings and other extraordinary meetings not previously fixed in their schedule.
France: Line B: The maximum number of hours of service can be modified under certain circumstances: it can be decreased in cases in which teaching certain pupils or classes is exceptionally challenging, and increased where numbers are small. Teachers may obtain reductions when they work with final-year pupils, or are responsible for laboratories or work in several schools or municipalities. Line C: The number of hours which a teacher may be obliged to work is limited to one or two a week.
Italy: Teachers can devote a maximum of 3 hours weekly to tasks other than teaching.

Portugal: Activities which give rise to reductions in teaching time are participation in executive councils, special responsibility for a particular class of pupils *(direcção de turma)*, course coordination, and responsibility for management of educational support facilities (language clubs, etc.). Besides the hours allocated to executive council members, an overall credit allocation in hours is granted to schools whose council is responsible for the foregoing management activities.
Finland: Line C: The position reflects the common practice. The law states that in general public servants must be prepared to do overtime to a reasonable extent. In reality, it is impossible to show that teachers are neglecting their duties or breaking any regulations when declining to do so.
Hungary: The number of teaching hours may be reduced at the discretion of the school head under special circumstances if a school possesses the resources needed to finance the difference between actual working hours and the statutory obligation.
Romania: It is not possible to reduce the number of teaching hours below the standard formal requirement but school heads can require teachers to carry out additional activities that are nationally regulated.

FIGURE 3.12: INDEX USED TO CALCULATE OVERTIME AMOUNTS AND HOW THEY COMPARE WITH HOURLY RATES OF PAY FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Index used to calculate overtime amounts	Number of hours of work (annual or monthly)	How the overtime amount compares with the hourly rate
B fr	Basic annual salary/1000	Notional maximum: 801 hours of teaching a year	Lower
B de	Basic annual salary/1000 In the event of a teacher shortage: annual teacher salary/801	Notional maximum: 801 hours of teaching a year	Lower Equivalent
B nl	100 % of the hourly rate up to a maximum of one-third of the monthly salary	(–)	Equivalent
DK	Between 100 and 150 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher or equal
D	(:)		In exceptional cases, lower
EL	1/90 of the monthly salary	Max.: around 85 (45 - minute) lessons a week	Equivalent
E	(–)		(–)
F	Rates set at national level in accordance with the status of teachers.	(–)	On average, 100 %
IRL	(–)		(–)
I	Variable	(–)	Variable
L	Variable %, but lower than the hourly rate	(–)	Lower
NL	100 %	(–)	Equivalent
A	1.432 % of the monthly salary (= 1/70)	Max.: around 90 hours of teaching a week	Higher
P	Between 125 and 150 %	(–)	Higher
FIN	89 %	(–)	Higher
S	Between 180 and 240 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher
UK	(–)		(–)
IS	1.0385 % of the monthly salary (= 1/96,3)	Max.: around 90 (45 - minute) lessons a week	Equivalent
LI	100 % of the salary of a teacher with 5 years of experience	(–)	Variable
NO	150 % up to 8 p.m. and 200 % between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m.	(–)	Higher
BG	Not constant	(–)	Variable
CZ	125 % of the average hourly rate	(–)	Higher
EE	150 % of the hourly rate	Max.: 42 hours a week (overtime included)	Higher
CY	(:)		
HU	Between 130 and 150 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher
LV	150 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher
LT	100 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Equivalent
MT	85.9 % compared to the minimum salary scale for new teachers	(–)	Lower
PL	95 % of the hourly rate	27 lessons (of 45 minutes each) per week	Equivalent
RO	100 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Equivalent
SI	150 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher
SK	125 % of the hourly rate	(–)	Higher

Source: Eurydice.

FIGURE 5.2: SUPPORT STAFF AND SERVICES FOR TEACHERS IN GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

	Support staff/service in the event of personal problems	Support staff/service/ mediator in the event of conflict	Support staff/service in the event of problems concerned with teaching
B fr	(–) [Centre for psychological, medical or social work counselling under contract to the school]	(–) [Mediator, school head]	*Inspecteur* (inspector) Educational counsellors from the sector concerned
B de	(–) [*Schulleiter* (school head)] [Psychologist in the school] [Psychological, medical or social work counselling service]	(–) [*Schulleiter* (school head)]	*Schulleiter* (school head) *Inspektor* (Inspector specialised in the subject concerned) *Pädagogischer Inspektor-Berater* (Inspector giving general teaching advice) *Pädagogischer Animator* (Teaching supervisor in grant-aided private education
B nl	(–)	*Directeur* (school head)	School counselling service for the educational sector or school concerned. *Inspecteur* (inspector)
DK	(–)	(–) [*Skoleinspektør* (school head)]	(–)
D	Psychologists in the *Schulämter* (local education authorities) *Schulamtsdirektor/Schulräte* (inspector)	*Schulleiter* (school head) *Schulamtsdirektor/Schulräte* (inspector) Psychologists in the *Schulämter* (local education authorities)	Staff at the *Studienseminare* (institutions of initial teacher training) and the *Institute der Lehrerfortbildung* (institutions of in-service teacher training)
EL	(–)	(–)	Educational counsellors in the regional directorate for secondary education
E	(–)	*Jefe de estudios* (head of studies)	*Orientador* (psychologist and educational adviser) at the school counselling department Members of sector-based counselling teams in each Autonomous Community
F	*Cellule académique d'aide* *Médecin de prévention, médecin conseil*	(–) *[Chef d'établissement]* *[Inspecteur de la vie scolaire]*	(–) *[Chef d'établissement]* *[Inspecteur pédagogique]*
IRL	*Employee Assistance Service for Teachers*	*Employee Assistance Service for Teachers*	(–)
I	(–)	(–)	(–)
L	(–) [Psychologist in the school psychological counselling department]	(–) [School head]	(–) [Experienced teachers at the school]
NL	Variety of institutions	Complaints committee	Experienced teachers at the school Institutions for educational support

	Support staff/service in the event of personal problems	Support staff/service/ mediator in the event of conflict	Support staff/service in the event of problems concerned with teaching
A	*Schulpsychologe* (psychologist in the *Schulpsychologische Beratungsstelle*, the educational and psychological counselling service for schools) *Direktor* (school head) *Schulaufsicht* (school inspectorate)	*Klassenvorstand* (teacher responsible for coordinating all educational and organisational aspects of a class) *Schulpsychologe* (psychologist in the *Schulpsychologische Beratungsstelle*, the educational and psychological counselling service for schools) *Direktor* (school head) *Schulaufsicht* (school inspectorate)	*Direktor* (school head) *Schulaufsicht* (school inspectorate)
P	*Presidente do Conselho Executivo*	*Presidente do Conselho Executivo* *Inspecção*	*Director de turma* *Coordenador do departamento/conselho pedagógico*
FIN	Occupational health care specialist for employees	(–) [*Rehtori* (school head)]	(–) [*Rehtori* (school head)] [Senior teacher/teacher in charge]
S	*Rektor* (school head) Psychologists Support service	*Rektor* (school head) Psychologists Support service	*Rektor* (school head) Experienced colleagues
UK (E/W/NI)	Staff of local authority services: confidential staff counselling services or training and advice on stress management. *Teacher Support Network*	*Head of Department* *Head of Year* *Head teacher*	*Head of Department* *Head of Year* *Headteacher* *LEA advisers* Teachers responsible for subjects areas
UK (SC)	(–) [Professionals of the statutory advisory services (medical, psychological, social work and careers advisory services)]	(–)	(–) *[Her Majesty's Inspector of Education]* *[Learning support teacher]* *[Head of Department]* [*LEA* support]
IS	(–) [*Skólastjóri* (school head)] [*Sálfræðingur* (psychologist)]	(–) [*Skólastjóri* (school head)] [*Sálfræðingur* (psychologist)]	*Skólastjóri* (school head) *Árgangastjóri* (head of year) *Kennsluráðgjafi* (educational counsellor)
LI	(–)	*Inspektor* (inspector)	*Inspektor* (inspector) *Mitglied der Unterrichtskommission* (member of an education committee) *Rektor* (school head)
NO	*Rektor* (school head)	*Rektor* (school head) *Inspektør* (inspector)	*Rektor* (school head) *Inspektør* (inspector)
BG	(–)	(–)	(–)
CZ	(–)	(–)	Expert in methodology from a regional group of experts in this area. Experts from the school inspectorate in case of major educational problems.
EE	School psychologist	School psychologist and social worker	County council education department
CY	(–)	(–)	*Epitheoritís (Επιθεωρητής)* (inspector)
LV	(–) [School psychologist]	(–) [School head and School psychologist]	(–) [Head of studies and School head]

	Support staff/service in the event of personal problems	Support staff/service/ mediator in the event of conflict	Support staff/service in the event of problems concerned with teaching
LT	School psychologist or psychologist in the municipally-based service of educational psychology	School psychologist or psychologist in the municipally-based service of educational psychology *Socialinis pedagogas* (social welfare instructor of the school)	Group of teachers responsible for the same subject(s) at the school concerned or from the local/municipal authority (*Dalykiniai metodiniai mokytojų būreliai*).
HU	(–) *[Vezető tanár* (staff member from the county educational counselling centre)] *[Óvoda- és iskola-pszichológus* (network of school psychologists)] *[Munkaközösségvezető* (leader of the so-called professional team)]	*Vezető tanár* (staff member from the county educational counselling centre)	*Vezető tanár* (staff member from the county educational counselling centre) *Pedagógiai szakértő, pedagógiai előadó* (staff of the pedagogical services) *Munkaközösségvezető* (leader of the so-called 'professional team')
MT	(–)	*Head of school* or his/her assistant *Head Office*, where the matter is dealt with by an education officer Subject co-ordinator, education officer	Subject co-ordinator, education officer
PL	(–) [*Nauczyciel psycholog/pedagog* (school psychologist or educationist)] [*Dyrektor szkoły* (school head)]	*Nauczyciel psycholog/pedagog* (school psychologist or educationist) *Dyrektor szkoły* (school head)	*Nauczyciel psycholog/pedagog* (school psychologist or educationist) *Nauczyciel konsultant* (teacher-methodological adviser) *Dyrektor szkoły* (school head)
RO	(–)	(–)	(–) [*Profesor psihopedagog* (psychopédagogue)]
SI	Psychologist and other staff (social workers, educationists, social educationists, etc.) from the school counselling service.	Psychologist and other staff (social workers, educationists, social educationists and educationist for children with special educational needs, etc.) from the school counselling service.	A member of the counselling and guidance services or educational adviser from a regional unit of the Educational Institute, depending on the type of problem. *Direktor* (school head)
SK	(–) [Psychologist from the Educational-Psychological Counselling Centre]	*Riaditeľ/ka školy* (school head) Unions Local authorities	*Riaditeľ/ka školy* (school head) Educational advisor

(–) Not applicable because this supporting measure has not been formally established.

[ ] Staff/service to which teachers may turn informally if formal support facilities do not exist.

Source: Eurydice.

Additional note

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.

FIGURE 5.5: METHODS OF CALCULATION AND PROCEDURES FOR THE ALLOCATION OF ADDITIONAL STAFF FOR CLASSES WITH MIXED GROUPS OF PUPILS INTEGRATED INTO MAINSTREAM GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01

B fr	Additional 'teacher periods' *(périodes-professeur)* are available, enabling teachers, auxiliary education staff, head teachers or deputy head teachers to be employed in or allocated to secondary education. In the case of teachers, this is primarily to cut down the size of groups of pupils, implement differing forms of provision or organise special language classes for pupils unable to speak French.
B de	In the case of the integration of pupils with disabilities, additional assistance is specified in the 'development proposal' that has to be drawn up for each pupil to be integrated. For pupils new to Belgium: the school receives 3.5 additional units to the *Stundenkapital* per pupil for a school year or one-and-a-half school years (depending on exactly when the pupil arrives). In two schools, an entire 'transitional' class is provided to cater for these pupils, for which the former receive additional 30 units to the *Stundenkapital*.
B nl	Schools are free to organise the kind of support they wish.
Dk	(–)
D	Varies from one Land to the next and with the severity of the disability affecting pupils.
EL	The calculation is based on applications made by pupils.
E	As an example, support teachers assigned to the programme of compensatory education: one support teacher for every 25 pupils needing compensatory education in general lower secondary education, and a maximum of two support teachers for each stage at this level. As an example, support teachers assigned to the programme of special education: – pupils with bodily movement disorders: 1/8-12 – pupils with mental disabilities 1/9-12 – pupils with serious emotional problems: 1/6-8 – pupils with hearing or visual impairments: 1/9-12 This information corresponds to educational establishments financed with public funds under the scope of the Ministry of Education and in the Educational Administrations of the Autonomous Communities implementing the above regulation in this regard. The way support is organised depends on the educational administration of individual Autonomous Communities and from one school to the next, with due regard for the needs of particular pupils and the organisation of the school concerned. In any event, schools have to maintain a balanced distribution of pupils, taking into account their numbers, special circumstances and the number of units available to each institution.
F	The distribution of pupils and teachers is freely determined by the school concerned which explains the reasons for its decisions in the 'school plan'.
IRL	This varies depending on the scheme under which application is being made. In the case of non-national pupils and of pupils from the traveling community, the minimum requirement is one pupil. Schools which have disadvantaged status are allocated 1 post on the basis of that designation.
I	There has to be more than one pupil with disabilities in a given class. As regards the allocation, the number of teachers available at provincial level is taken into account. It is estimated that there should be one post of support teacher for every 138 pupils enrolled in the various types of school. All the pupils are counted without taking the particular type of school into consideration. The provincial director of education allocates support teachers to schools according to need.
L	Where there is a need for additional staff, teachers may propose to the school head that extra staff be allocated to the school. It is then up to the head to apply for them to the ministry.
NL	(–)
A	In the case of the *Hauptschule*, the school head applies for additional staff to the district school board. From there, the application is forwarded to the provincial government or the regional school board (depending on the regulations in each of the nine Länder). In the case of *Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule*, the school head applies for additional staff directly to the regional school board.
P	Specialised teams of educational support staff are responsible for groups of schools. Each school also has a small time allocation that it is able to administer on its own, so that support can be strengthened for the benefit of classes facing the most difficult and varied situations.
FIN	The needs of pupils are the starting point and a decisive factor when deciding on support.
S	While additional staff may be allocated to each group in need, there is no special calculation for determining the allocation.

UK (E/W/ NI)	Additional assistance depends on individual school circumstances and the funding available.
UK (SC)	Additional staff is allocated by the local authority on the basis of individual school circumstances. This allocation can be monitored through school inspections.
IS	The school head allocates a special teacher to pupils with learning difficulties, pupils whose mother tongue is not Icelandic (who may also benefit from an interpreter) or pupils with physical or mental disabilities. The cost is covered by the municipality concerned.
LI	Depending on the kind of disability, an additional teacher may be allocated to the class for up to 14 lessons.
NO	Additional assistance depends on the individual needs of the pupils in question.
BG	(–)
CZ	The cost of a *vychovatel –asistent učitele* is covered by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports via regional (district) authorities (as in the case of other educational staff).
EE	One post of speech therapist is created to provide a general service for every 40-50 students needing speech therapy in basic schools (levels 1-9). One post of speech therapist is created to provide therapy for every 30-40 students needing such therapy in schools catering for those with special needs. One post of 'special education teacher' is created for work in hearing facilities for deaf children in schools for the deaf. One post of hearing facilities instructor is created for work in schools for children with hearing difficulties. One post of school psychologist is created to provide a general service for every 600 students in single structure schools *(Põhikool)*. Where the number of students is less than that prescribed for the above-mentioned minimum staff allocations, then 0.25, 0.5 or 0.75 posts of 'special education teacher' or school psychologist are created.
CY	(–)
LV	(–)
LT	It is within the discretion of the special education commission of the school concerned to decide on the number of additional staff. The decision is normally based on the nature of the one or more disabilities. There may be one additional staff member for the whole class containing mixed groups of pupils, one for several pupils with the same disability, or one for a single pupil only.
HU	Not regulated at central level. School decides on distribution.
MT	Additional staff are assigned to pupils and not to the class. A child may require one-to-one support where a *facilitator* is assigned to one pupil, or shared support where a *facilitator* is assigned to two or more pupils.
PL	(–)
RO	No specific calcualtion method.
SI	The number of periods of additional help – which is determined in the orders on placement and professional help specifically for children with special needs – and the number of classes (with special needs pupils integrated) are taken into account. The number of additional staff for pupils with learning problems is proportional to the number of classes in a given school. The additional posts are not allocated to a particular class. The number of periods of additional help is determined in accordance both with the needs of individual pupils with learning difficulties in the class concerned and with the order on professional help specifically for special needs children. Additional supporting staff are allocated to the school as a whole in accordance with the number of additional periods required.
SK	The school head allocates a teacher assistant to pupils of Romany origin within particular projects on an experimental basis.

(–) Not applicable because this supporting measure does not exist (see category C in Figure 5.4).

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Denmark, Ireland, Liechtenstein and **Cyprus**: Information not verified at national level.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION COVERED BY THE STUDY:
FULL-TIME GENERAL LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (ISCED 2A), 2000/01 SCHOOL YEAR

	LEVEL OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION [1] Except for B, F, NL, A, UK (E/W/NI)		POST-COMPULSORY
	SINGLE STRUCTURE		
	First years	Final years or stage	
	PRIMARY EDUCATION	LOWER SECONDARY	UPPER SECONDARY
B fr	ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE	SECONDAIRE DE TRANSITION GÉNÉRAL first 2 years	last 4 years
B de	PRIMARUNTERRICHT	ALLGEMEINBILDENDER ÜBERGANGSUNTERRICHT first 2 years	last 4 years
B nl	LAGER ONDERWIJS	ALGEMEEN SECUNDAIR ONDERWIJS first 2 years	last 4 years
DK	FOLKESKOLE first 6 years	last 3 years	HF / GYMNASIUM / HHX / HTX
D	GRUNDSCHULE	GYMNASIUM / GESAMTSCHULE / REALSCHULE / SCHULARTEN MIT MEHREREN BILDUNGSGÄNGEN / HAUPTSCHULE	GYMNASIALE OBERSTUFE / BERUFLICHES GYMNASIUM / FACHGYMNASIUM /GESAMTSCHULE
EL	DIMOTIKO SCHOLEIO	GYMNASIO	ENIAIO LYKEIO
E	EDUCACIÓN PRIMARIA	EDUCACIÓN SECUNDARIA OBLIGATORIA	BACHILLERATO
F	ÉCOLE ÉLÉMENTAIRE	COLLÈGE	LYCÉE GÉNÉRAL ET TECHNOLOGIQUE
IRL	PRIMARY SCHOOL	SECONDARY/VOCATIONAL/COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL COMMUNITY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE first 3 years	last 2/3 years
I	SCUOLA PRIMARIA	SCUOLA MEDIA	SCUOLA SECONDARIA SUPERIORE
L	ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE	LYCÉE GÉNÉRAL first 3 years	last 4 years
NL	BASISONDERWIJS	VWO first 3 years	last 3 years
		HAVO first 3 years	last 2 years
		VMBO first 2 years	
A	VOLKSSCHULE	HAUPTSCHULE	AHS (OBERSTUFE) / OBERSTUFENREALGYMNASIUM
		ALLGEMEINBILDENDE HÖHERE SCHULE first 4 years	last 4 years
P	ENSINO BÁSICO (1st and 2nd stages)	(3rd stage)	CURSOS GERAIS
FIN	PERUSOPETUS – GRUNDLÄGGANDE UTBILDNING first 6 years	last 3 years	LUKIO / GYMNASIUM
S	GRUNDSKOLA first 6 years	last 3 years	GYMNASIESKOLA
UK (E/W/NI)	PRIMARY SCHOOL	SECONDARY SCHOOL first 3 years	last 4 years
UK (SC)	PRIMARY SCHOOL	SECONDARY SCHOOL first 4 years	last 2 years

(1) Full-time compulsory education does not necessarily come to an end in all countries on completion of lower secondary education and may continue for one or more years. This is the case in B, F, NL, A (1 year), UK (E/W/NI) (2 years).

	LEVEL OF FULL-TIME COMPULSORY EDUCATION (2) Except for BG, HU and SK		POST-COMPULSORY
	SINGLE STRUCTURE		
	First years	Final years or stage	
	PRIMARY EDUCATION	LOWER SECONDARY	UPPER SECONDARY
IS	GRUNNSKÓLI		MENNTASKÓLI / FJÖLBRAUTASKÓLI
	first 7 years	last 3 years	
LI	PRIMARSCHULE	OBERSCHULE / REALSCHULE / GYMNASIUM UNTERSTUFE	GYMNASIUM OBERSTUFE
NO	GRUNNSKOLE		VIDEREGÅENDE SKOLE
	(1st and 2nd stages)	(3rd stage)	
BG	NATCHALNO UTCHILISHTE	PROGIMNAZIALNO UTCHILISHTE	GIMNAZIA / PROFILIRANA GIMNAZIA
CZ	ZÁKLADNÍ ŠKOLA		
		last 4 years	
		GYMNÁZIUM	
	first 5 years	first 4 years	last 4 years
EE	PÕHIKOOL		GÜMNAASIUM
	first 6 years	last 3 years	
CY	DIMOTIKO SCHOLEIO	GYMNASIO	LYKEIO
LV	PAMATIZGLĪTĪBA		VIDĒJĀ IZGLĪTĪBA
	first 4 years	last 5 years	
LT	PRADINĖ MOKYKLA	PAGRINDINĖ MOKYKLA / GIMNAZIJA	VIDURINĖ MOKYKLA / GIMNAZIJA
		first 2 years	last 2 years
HU	ÁLTALÁNOS ISKOLA		
		last 4 years	
		GIMNÁZIUM	
	first 4 years	first 4 years	last 4 years
MT	PRIMARY SCHOOL	JUNIOR LYCEUM / SECONDARY SCHOOL / BOYS' GIRLS' SCHOOL	JUNIOR COLLEGE / HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOL
PL	SZKOŁA PODSTAWOWA	GIMNAZJUM	LICEUM OGÓLNOKSZTAŁCĄCE
RO	ŞCOALĂ PRIMARĂ	GIMNAZIU	LICEU
SI	OSNOVNA ŠOLA (8 years)		GIMNAZIJA
	first 4 years	last 4 years	
	OSNOVNA ŠOLA (9 years)		
	first 6 years	last 3 years	
SK	ZÁKLADNÁ ŠKOLA		
		last 5 years	
		GYMNÁZIUM	
	first 4 years	first 4 years	last 4 years

(2) Full-time compulsory education does not necessarily come to an end in all countries on completion of lower secondary education and may continue for one or more years. This is the case in BG (1 year), HU (4 years) and SK (1 year, *Gymnázium* 2 years).

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