

COUNTRY NOTE



Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2012

UNITED KINGDOM

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KEY FINDINGS

- The educational opportunities for people from poorly educated families are limited in most countries, but the UK does better than other countries in moving people up the social ladder: some 41% of 25-34 year-olds in the UK have attained a higher level of education than their parents, compared with an OECD of 37%.
- The socio-economic composition of UK schools poses significant challenges for disadvantaged students as well as students with an immigrant background: 80% of students with an immigrant background attend schools with a high percentage of immigrant students. Even immigrant students with highly-educated mothers are more than twice as likely to be in disadvantaged schools as non-immigrant students.
- In 2010, the UK had one of the highest enrolment rates in early childhood and primary education among four-year-olds but annual expenditure per pre-primary student is less than the OECD average.
- The demand for tertiary graduates in the UK's labour market continued to be strong, even during the global recession. The average employment rate of tertiary-educated individuals in the UK increased even during the crisis (by 0.1 percentage points) while the employment rate among individuals with lower levels of education decreased by 3.3 percentage points between 2008 and 2010.
- Large advantages continue to accrue to both individuals and the public from higher levels of education. The earnings premium from tertiary education is large and has grown further over recent years. Tertiary graduates also generate an extra GBP 55 000 by paying higher income tax and social contributions – far outweighing the public cost of their education. In turn, individuals without an upper secondary qualification, equivalent to five good GCSEs or an equivalent vocational qualification, saw a marked drop in the employment rate by 3.3 percentage points, from 59.3% in 2008 to 56% in 2010 – greater than the OECD average decrease of 2.5 percentage points.
- Expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non tertiary educational institutions as a percentage of GDP increased from 3.6% in 1995 to 4.5% in 2009 in the UK, from below the OECD average to a level that is now clearly above the OECD average of 4.0%. No country saw a steeper increase in spending on tertiary education than the UK, but most of that was funded from private sources.

The costs of secondary education are driven by more hours of instruction, small classes and attractive teacher compensation.

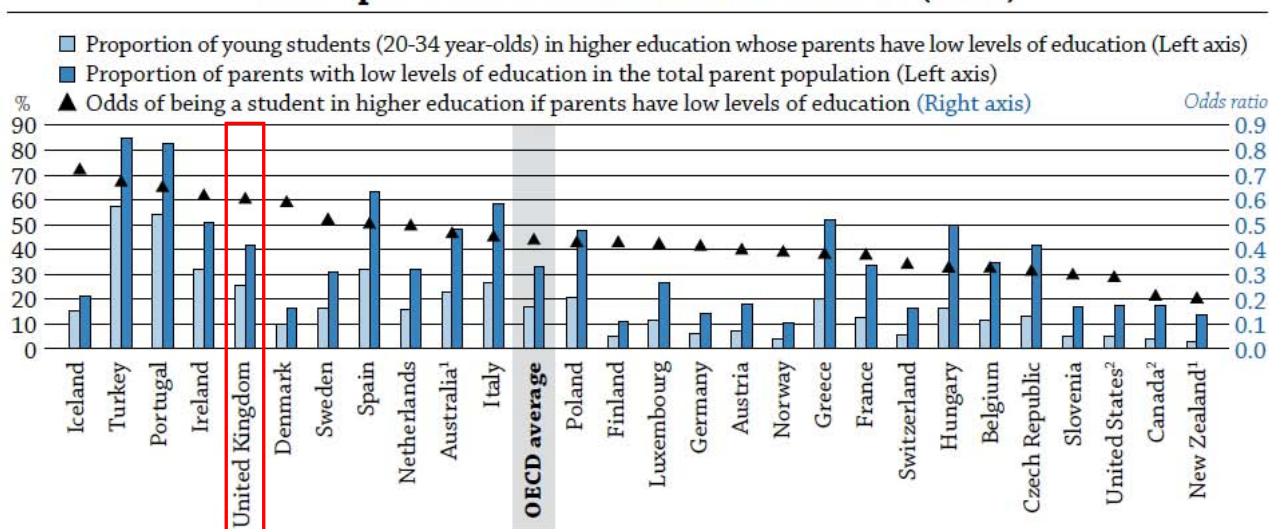
A more level playing field

Because of its strong links to earnings, employment, overall wealth and the well-being of individuals and nations, education is a powerful lever to combat inequalities in societies. But the educational opportunities for people from poorly educated families are limited in most countries.

Across countries, the odds that a 20-34 year-old will attend higher education are low if his or her parents have not completed upper secondary education. On average in OECD countries, young people from families with low levels of education are less than one-half (odds of 0.44) as likely to be in higher education, compared to the proportion of such families in the population. However, in the UK, the odds are, at 0.61, well above the OECD average, suggesting that disadvantaged youth enjoy better access to higher education in the UK (Table A6.1 and Chart A6.1).

In most OECD countries, a young person with at least one parent who has attained a tertiary degree is almost twice as likely (odds of 1.9) to be in higher education, compared to the proportion of such families in the population. For the UK, the corresponding figure is 1.59; only in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, Norway and Sweden is this over-representation of students from highly educated families below 50% (odds below 1.5) (Table A6.1 and Chart A6.2).

Chart A6.1. Participation in higher education of students whose parents have low levels of education (2009)



Note: The number of students attending higher education are under-reported for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States compared to the other countries as they only include students who attained ISCED 5A, while the other countries include students who attained ISCED 5A and/or 5B. Therefore, the omission of data on 5B qualifications may understate intergenerational mobility in these countries.

1. Data source from Adult Literacy and Lifeskills Survey (ALL) of 2006.

2. Data source from Adult Literacy and Lifeskills Survey (ALL) of 2003.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the odds of attending higher education.

Source: OECD. Table A6.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

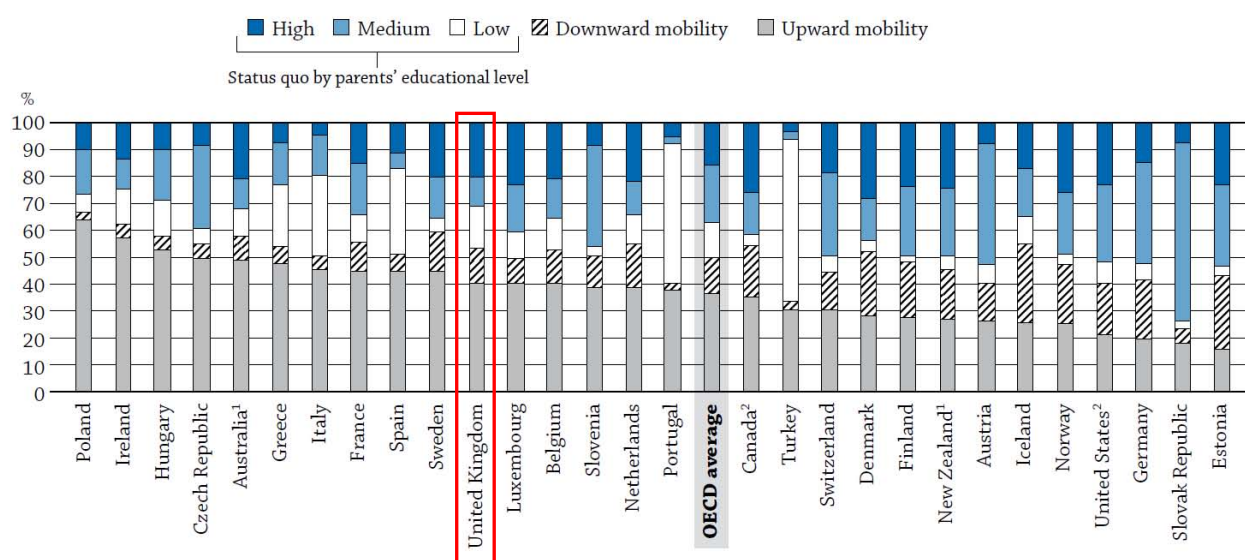
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The playing field is far from level in the UK, but compared with most other OECD countries, students in the UK enjoy relatively fluid intergenerational upward mobility.

Some 41% of 25-34 year-olds in the UK have attained a higher level of education than their parents (upward mobility) (the OECD average is 37%), while 13% have not achieved at least the same level as their parents (downward mobility) (the OECD average is 13%). On this measure (upward mobility), the UK ranks 11th of 29 countries with available data (Table A6.3 and Chart A6.5). In addition, 25% of all 20-34 year-old tertiary students in the UK have parents with low levels of education, above the OECD average of 17%. The likelihood that young people whose parents have low levels of education will enrol in tertiary education exceeds 60% in the UK; only Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Turkey show higher levels of social mobility (Table A6.1, Charts A6.1 and A6.4).

Chart A6.5. Intergenerational mobility in education (2009)

Percentage of 25-34 year-old non-students having an educational attainment higher than their parents, (upward mobility), a lower one (downward mobility) or the same (status quo) and status quo by parents' education level (low, medium, high)



Note: The number of students attending higher education are under-reported for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States compared to the other countries as they only include students who attained ISCED 5A, while the other countries include students who attained ISCED 5A and/or 5B. Therefore, the omission of data on 5B qualifications may understate intergenerational mobility in these countries.

1. Data source from Adult Literacy and Lifeskills Survey (ALL) of 2006.

2. Data source from Adult Literacy and Lifeskills Survey (ALL) of 2003.

Countries are ranked in descending order of upward mobility.

Source: OECD, Table A6.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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Investing in high-quality schooling for all appears to be the best way to enhance educational mobility later in life.

Inequalities in early schooling attributable to different socio-economic backgrounds are strongly linked to inequalities at the tertiary level of education. The impact of students' socio-economic background on their performance at age 15, as measured by PISA 2000, explained 37% of the between-country variation in the proportion of students from families with low levels of education who were enrolled in higher education in 2009 (Table A6.1, Chart A6.3, and Table A6.4, available on line). The impact of socio-economic background on student performance at age 15 remains moderate to strong in the UK, depending on the methodology used for measurement. This signals significant scope for improvement.

It is noteworthy that the data show *no cross-country relationship* between the level of tuition fees for higher education and the participation of disadvantaged youth in this level of education. Together, these findings suggest that private funding for higher education does not *necessarily* pose a barrier to participation in higher education, but social inequalities in schooling consistently do.

Young adults (25-34 year-old non-students) from families with low levels of education enjoy the greatest educational opportunities in Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Iceland, Ireland, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden, where at least 25% of this cohort have attained a tertiary degree, and less than 30% have not completed at least an upper secondary education. For the UK, the corresponding figures are 23% and 34% (Table A6.2 and Chart A6.4).

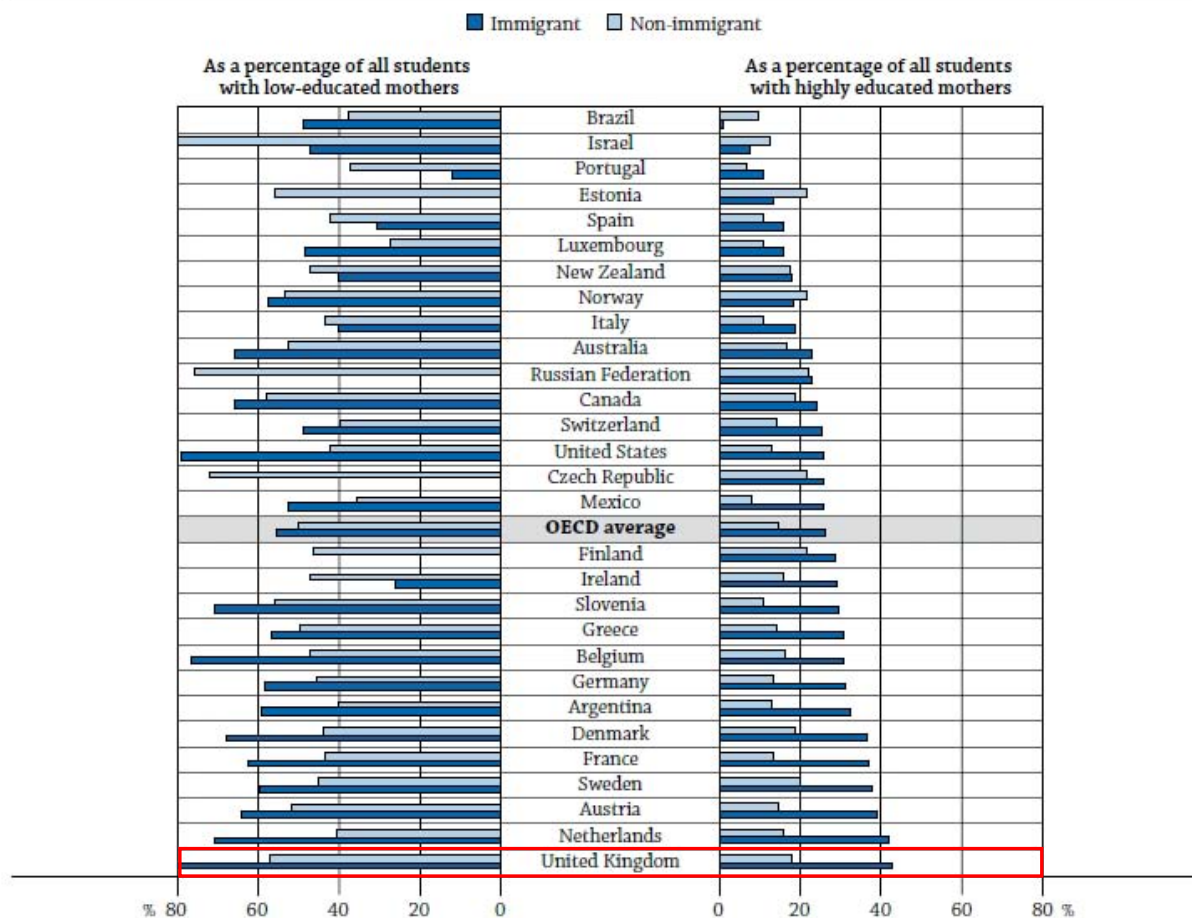
The socio-economic composition of UK schools poses significant challenges for disadvantaged students and students with an immigrant background.

Immigrant children's performance on PISA is more strongly, and negatively, associated with a concentration of disadvantage in schools than with the size of the population of immigrant students in a school or the concentration of students who speak a different language at home than the language of instruction at school. Reducing the concentration of disadvantage in schools may require changes in other areas of social policy besides education, such as housing policies that promote a more balanced social mix in schools at an early age (see Indicator A5).

In the UK, 80% of students with an immigrant background attend schools with a high concentration of immigrant students – a proportion 12.4 percentage points higher than the OECD average (67.6%). Some 75% of immigrant students attend schools with large proportions of students who speak a different language at home (the OECD average is 56.5%), while 50.1% of immigrant students attend schools where a large proportion of their peers have mothers with low levels of education (the OECD average is 36.2%). These findings are important because PISA results show that, in any given school, the higher the proportion of students whose mothers have low levels of education, the poorer the reading performance of students in that school (Table A5.2 and Chart A5.2).

Similarly, in the UK 79.8% of immigrant students whose mothers have not attained an upper secondary education attend disadvantaged schools. This is 22.7 percentage points higher than non-immigrant students whose mothers have a similar level of education, and 23.9 percentage points higher than the OECD average. More surprisingly, the findings show that a larger proportion of immigrant students whose mothers are highly educated also attend disadvantaged schools. In the UK, 42.5% of immigrant students whose mothers have attained a tertiary education attend disadvantaged schools – compared to only 17.7% of non-immigrant students (Table A5.3 and Chart A5.3).

In order to narrow the performance gap between disadvantaged children and other pupils, the UK plans to spend GBP 2.5 billion a year on the “pupil premium” – extra cash for schools with disadvantaged students – as part of a social mobility strategy. Disadvantaged pupils who are behind in reading and writing will also be offered extra lessons before starting secondary school. The initiative may provide a way of reducing inequities in education quality and opportunities.

Chart A5.3. Percentage of students by mothers' education in disadvantaged schools


Note: A student with a low-educated mother is one whose mother has not attained an upper secondary education. A student with a highly educated mother is one whose mother has attained a tertiary education.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of immigrant students with highly educated mothers in disadvantaged schools.

Source: OECD, PISA 2009 Database, Table A5.3.

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In 2010, the UK had one of the highest enrolment rates in early childhood and primary education among four-year-olds...

Another policy lever to enhance equity in educational opportunities is to provide a strong start. In 2010, 96.7% of four-year-olds in the UK were enrolled in early childhood and primary education, an increase of 4.9 percentage points since 2005 and 15.3 percentage points higher than the OECD average of 81.4%. Some 79% of these children attend public institutions. Participation is also strong among three-year-olds (83% compared to an OECD average of 66%) (Tables C2.1, C2.2 and Chart C2.1).

...even if annual expenditure per pre-primary student is slightly less than the OECD average.

The UK annually spends USD 6 493 (GBP 4 097) per pre-primary student, less than the OECD average of USD 6 670 (GBP 4 209). In comparison, Luxembourg, for example, spends 2.5 times more per student than the UK (Table C2.2). This is reflected in comparatively large student-staff ratios (15.0 compared to an OECD average of 12.3) (Table D2.2).

A growing divide between the better- and less-educated

The demand for tertiary graduates in the UK's labour market continued to be strong, even during the global recession...

The average employment rate of tertiary-educated 25-64 year-olds in the UK increased even during the crisis (by 0.1 percentage points) while the employment rate among individuals with lower levels of education decreased by 3.3 percentage points between 2008 and 2010 (Table A7.3a). During this period, the increase in unemployment among UK tertiary-educated individuals was 0.6 percentage points, significantly lower than the OECD average increase of 1.4 percentage points. In contrast, unemployment among individuals with an upper secondary education rose by 1.9 percentage points, compared to the OECD average of 2.7 percentage points, and by 2.8 percentage points among individuals without upper secondary education, compared to the OECD average of 3.7 percentage points (Table A7.4a).

During the same period, the earnings premium for tertiary-educated individuals increased from 54% to 65% while it decreased for individuals without upper secondary education from 71% to 67%, compared with the average earnings for upper secondary graduates (Table A8.2a).

...and large and growing advantages continue to accrue to both individuals and the public from higher levels of education...

After direct and indirect costs are taken into account, the earnings and employment benefits that accrue over the working life of an individual with an upper secondary education in the UK amount to a net present value of USD 140 000 (GBP 88 000) – the 4th highest value after that observed in the United States, Ireland, Korea and the Slovak Republic (Table A9.1 and Chart A9.2). The private net present value that accrues to a man with a tertiary education is USD 143 000 (GBP 90 000), close to the OECD average of USD 161 000 (GBP 101 000) (Table A9.3).

More education not only benefits individuals, but the general public too. In the UK, tertiary graduates generate USD 87 000 (GBP 55 000) through income tax and social contributions – far outweighing the public cost of their education (Tables A9.2 and A9.4). Even between 2008 and 2009, when GDP fell by 4.9%, the increase in labour income among tertiary-educated individuals contributed more than one percentage point to the UK's annual growth in GDP (Table A10.1).

...while the penalties for those without baseline qualifications are severe.

Individuals without an upper secondary qualification, equivalent to five good GCSEs or an equivalent vocational qualification, saw a marked drop in the employment rate by 3.3 percentage points, from 59.3% in 2008 to 56% in 2010 – greater than the OECD average decrease of 2.5 percentage points. In addition, the earnings disadvantage for individuals without an upper secondary education grew during the economic downturn. In 2008, individuals without an upper secondary education earned 29% less than individuals with that level of education, but in 2010 they earned 33% less.

During the crisis, the transition to the labour market has been particularly difficult for poorly educated young adults.

Some 42.1% of 15-29 year-olds were in education in 2010, compared to 38.2% in 2008. This increase is mostly due to a greater proportion of 25-29 year-olds remaining in education (Table C5.4a). In addition, there has been an increase of 1.1 percentage points in the proportion of 15-29 year-olds who were neither employed nor in education or training since 2008 (the “NEET” population). In 2010, they accounted for 15.9% of this age group, which is around the OECD average (Table C5.4a).

The transition to the labour market has been significantly smoother for more educated 15-29 year-olds. Some 5.2% of young tertiary graduates in the UK were unemployed in 2010, compared to 6.6% of those with an upper secondary education and 9.2% of those without an upper secondary education (Table C5.2d). Young adults with a tertiary education were also less likely to be unemployed for more than six months: only 1.8% of tertiary graduates are in that situation in the UK, while 5.6% of those without an upper secondary education are not in education and are unemployed for more than six months, a level that is significantly higher than the OECD average of 3.1%. Young adults who do not have an upper secondary education and who are not in education are 12.6 percentage points less likely to be in the labour force than those with a tertiary education (Table C5.2d).

Some progress towards reducing the share of workers without baseline qualifications

The UK has been more successful than other countries in reducing the share of working-age individuals without an upper secondary qualification...

In 1997, 41% of 25-64 year-olds in the UK had not attained an upper secondary qualification (five good GCSEs or an equivalent vocational qualification). By 2010, this proportion had decreased to 25%, slightly below the OECD average of 26%. This represents a drop of 16 percentage points over 14 years, compared with an average decrease of 11 percentage points across OECD countries (Table A1.4).

...and the UK has relatively high tertiary graduation rate.

The UK also had the 3rd highest university-level (tertiary-type 5A) first-time graduation rate in 2010, with 57% of women and 45% men expecting to complete tertiary-type A education over their lifetimes; and the UK ranked 6th of 39 countries in the proportion of graduates from advanced research programmes (2.3%) (Tables A3.1 and A3.2a, available on line).

The UK remains one of the most attractive destinations for foreign students: it holds 13% of the global tertiary education market share, a 2.2 percentage point increase since 2000, and the 2nd largest share after the United States (16.6%) (Table C4.7, available on line). In 2010, 16% of all students enrolled in UK universities were international students; they account for more than 41.7% of enrolments in advanced research programmes (Table C4.1).

But a smaller percentage of students than the OECD average completes upper secondary education within the expected time frame.

“Successful completion” measures the percentage of students who enter an upper secondary programme and graduate within the expected two years. The UK’s successful completion rate is below the OECD average. Some 61% of students successfully completed upper secondary education within two years; and within four years, 80% of students completed the programme. This indicates that a large proportion of upper secondary students do not graduate within the expected two-year duration of their upper secondary programmes (Table A2.1 and Chart A2.4). This is particularly the case among young men: in 2006, 56% of young men completed upper secondary education in the expected two years – a rate 11 percentage points below that of young women (Table A2.1).

Rapid growth in investment in education

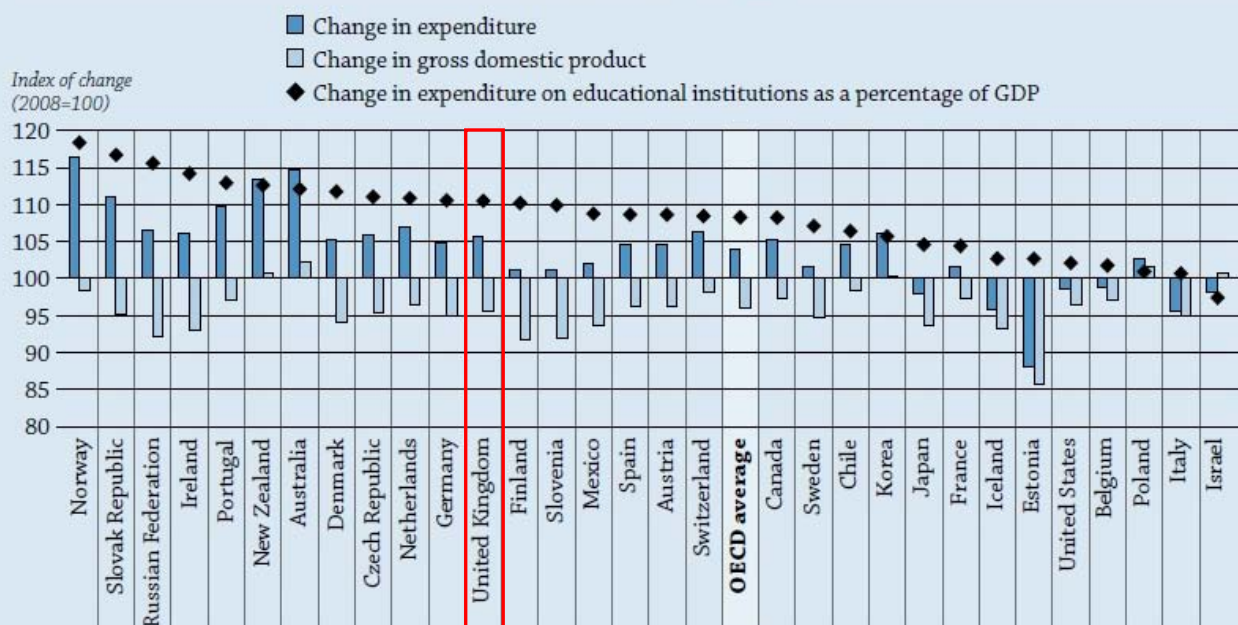
Expenditure on education grew significantly, even during the economic crisis.

Expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational institutions as a percentage of GDP increased from 3.6% in 1995 to 4.5% in 2009 in the UK, from below the OECD average to a level that is now clearly above the OECD average of 4.0% (Tables B2.1 and B2.3). This trend was most

remarkable during the economic crisis. Despite a decline in the UK's GDP between 2008 and 2009, expenditure on education grew by 10.5 percentage points, 2.2 percentage points more than the OECD average (Box B2.1).

Box B2.1. The financial crisis and expenditure on educational institutions (2008-09)

Index of change between 2008 and 2009 in expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP, for all levels of education (2008=100, constant prices)



Countries are ranked in descending order of the change in expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP.

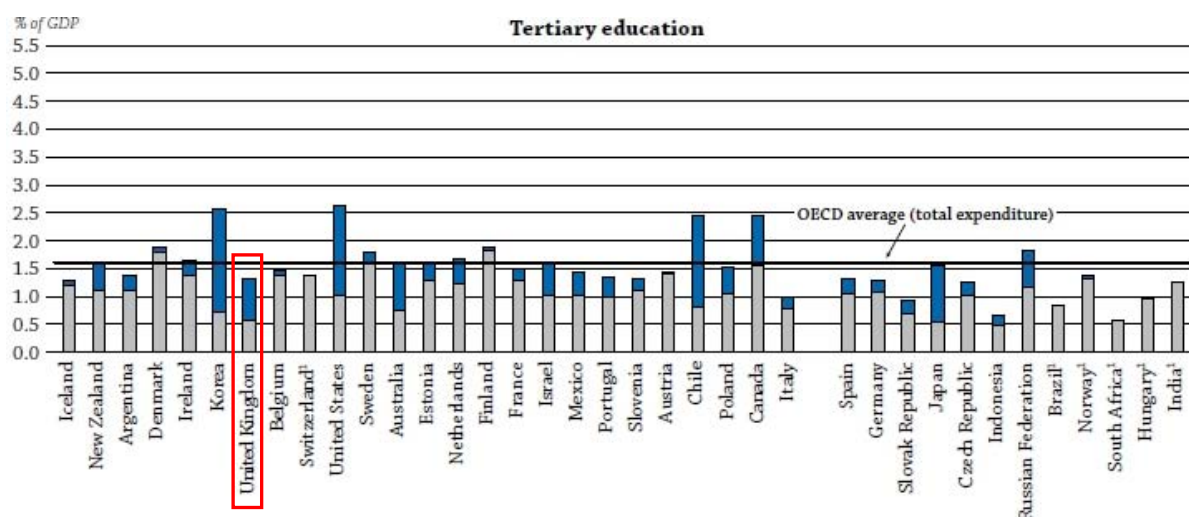
Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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The UK increased expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education significantly between 2000 and 2009, despite falling enrolments.

Expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary students by educational institutions increased by 50% between 2000 and 2009, even as student enrolments declined by 11% over the same period. As a result, expenditure per student increased by 68% between 2000 and 2009, the 8th highest increase among 29 countries with available data (Chart B1.6). In addition, expenditure on these levels of education as a percentage of GDP increased from 3.6% in 1995 to 4.5% in 2009 in the UK, higher than the OECD average of 4.0% (Tables B2.1 and B2.3). At the same time, however, results from PISA show no improvement in student learning outcomes.

Chart B2.2. Expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP (2009)
 From public and private sources, by level of education and source of funds



1. Public expenditure only (for Switzerland, in tertiary education only; for Norway, in primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education only). Countries are ranked in descending order of expenditure from both public and private sources on educational institutions in primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Source: OECD. Argentina, India, Indonesia: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (World Education Indicators programme). South Africa: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Table B2.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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No country saw a steeper increase in spending on tertiary education than the UK...

Expenditure per tertiary student increased by 72% between 2000 and 2009 – the highest increase among 26 OECD countries with available data (Chart B1.6).

...which was largely funded from private sources.

The steep rise in spending on tertiary education in the UK was largely the result of a significant increase in the share of private sources of funding for tertiary education – from 32.3% to 70.4% between 2000 and 2009 (Chart B3.3 and Table B3.1 and Table B3.2b). Nevertheless, the increase in private financing has *not* led to a decline in public expenditure on tertiary education, which increased by 17% over the same period (Table B3.2b).

The growth in the share of private sources of funding is a result of major reforms of tuition fees and public subsidies since 1995, including differentiating tuition fees by field of education and between national and international students (Box B5.1 in the publication). Virtually all students are enrolled in government-dependent private educational institutions, and more than half of their budgets are financed through tuition fees. For the academic year 2009-10, students who were citizens of the UK paid the 3rd highest annual tuition fee (USD 4 731) among all OECD countries (Table B5.1). Tuition fees doubled or nearly tripled in some universities in 2012 as part of a government plan to stabilise university finances. As a result, there was a 7.7% decrease in the number of applications to British universities in 2012, including a 10% drop in the number of English applicants, according to the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service. These changes will be apparent in future editions of *Education at a Glance*.

As a result of these changes, the share of public expenditure on tertiary educational institutions dropped from 80% in 1995 to 67.7% in 2000 and to 29.6% in 2009, while the OECD average remained relatively stable at around 70% during the same period (Table B3.3).

Public subsidies to households and other private entities are provided to ease the financial burden on students and their families and also to encourage students from disadvantaged backgrounds to participate in education. The UK spends 54.2% of its total public expenditure, and 0.44% of its GDP, on these subsidies (Table B5.3).

Costs for secondary education are driven by more hours of instruction, small classes and attractive teacher compensation

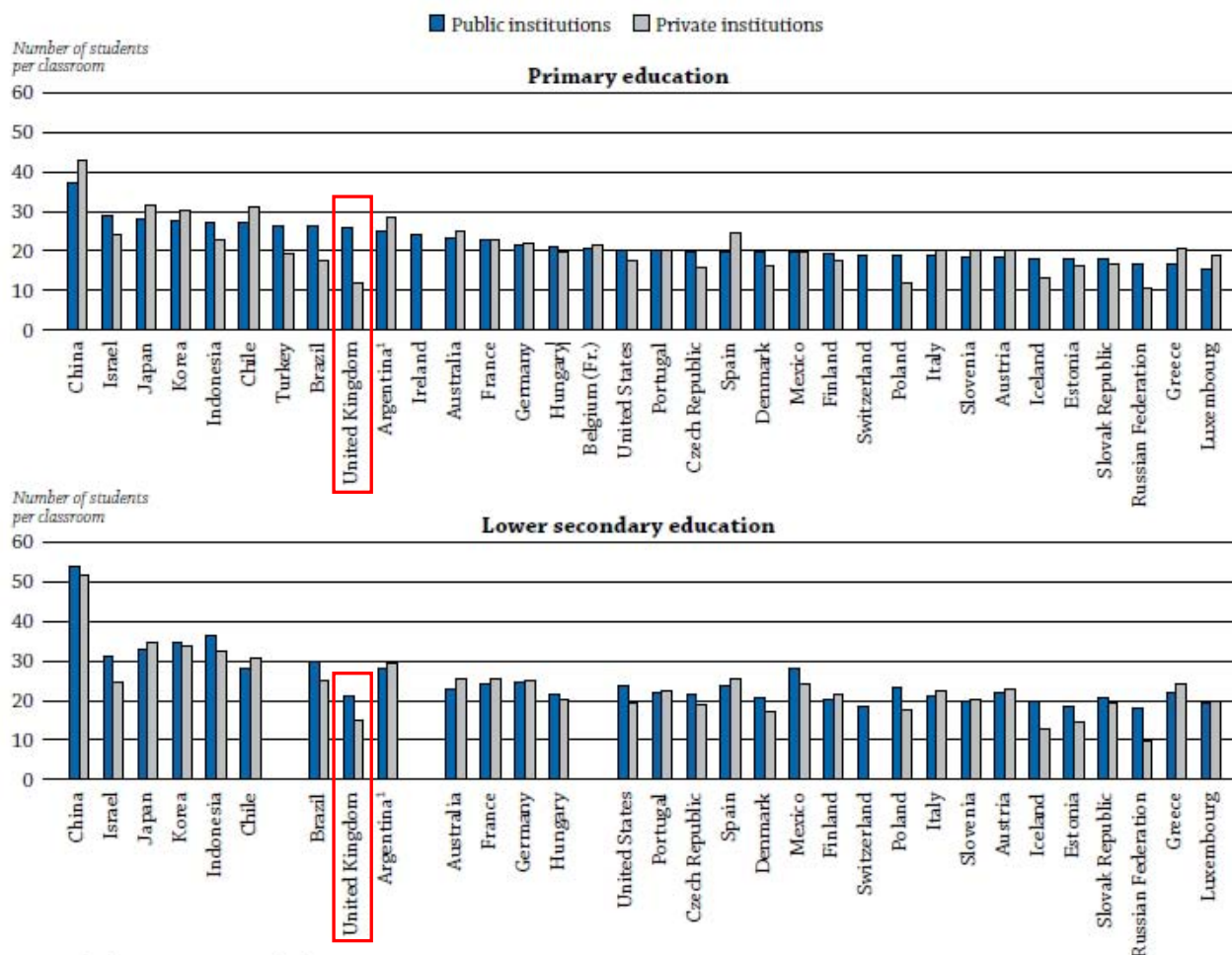
Students study for long hours.

The length of instruction time is one factor that determines the level of expenditure on education. Students in England receive an average of 7 258 hours of instruction time between the ages of 7 and 14 396 hours more than the OECD average of 6 862 hours. Virtually all of that time is compulsory (Table D1.1).

Classes in the UK are comparatively large at the primary level but comparatively small in secondary education.

The average public primary school class has about 26 students, more than the OECD average of 21 students per class. But private institutions in the UK have significantly smaller classes of around 12 students (Chart D2.4).


At the lower secondary level, the average public school class in the UK has 21 students while the average class in private institutions has 15 students. Both public and private institutions have smaller classes than the OECD average of 23 students in public institutions and 22 students in private institutions (Chart D2.4).

Chart D2.4. Average class size in public and private institutions, by level of education (2010)


1. Year of reference 2009 instead of 2010.

Countries are ranked in descending order of average class size in public institutions in primary education.

Source: OECD. Argentina, China, Indonesia: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (World Education Indicators programme). Table D2.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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Primary school teachers in England teach fewer hours while upper secondary teachers have a comparatively heavy teaching load.

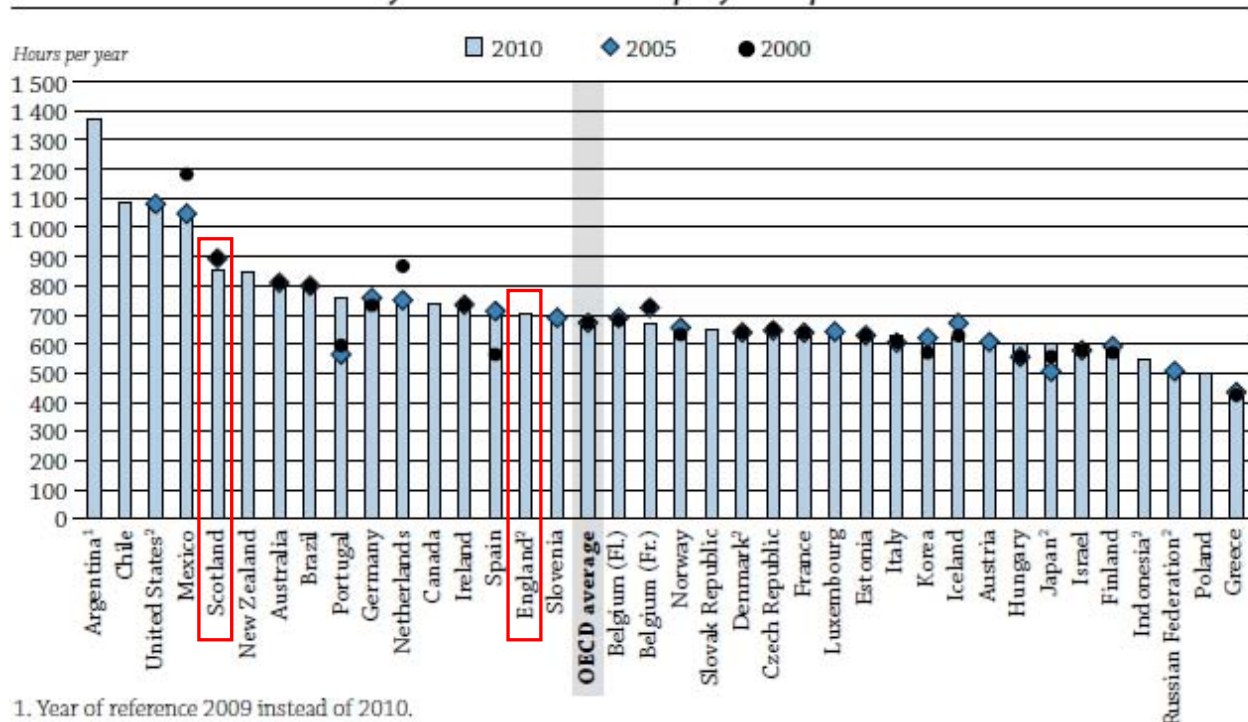
While primary school teachers in England have to cope with comparatively large classes, they have a lighter teaching load. The number of teaching hours per teacher in English public schools averaged 684 hours per year in primary education (the OECD average is 782 hours), 703 hours in lower secondary education (the OECD average is 704 hours), and 703 hours in upper secondary education (the OECD average is 658 hours) in 2010 (Table D4.2 and Chart D4.1).

The teaching load in Scotland is significantly heavier. In 2010, the number of teaching hours per teacher in Scottish public schools averaged 855 hours per year in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education. However, the number of teaching hours has been decreasing over time in Scotland, from 950 hours in 2000 to 893 hours in 2005 and to 855 hours in 2010 at the primary level. This pattern was also

observed at the secondary level, albeit to a lesser degree (893 hours in both 2000 and 2005 to 855 in 2010 for lower secondary and upper secondary levels) (Table D4.2 and Chart D4.1).

Chart D4.1. Number of teaching hours per year in lower secondary education in 2000, 2005 and 2010

Net statutory contact time in hours per year in public institutions



1. Year of reference 2009 instead of 2010.

2. Actual teaching hours.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the number of teaching hours per year in lower secondary education in 2010.

Source: OECD. Argentina: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (World Education Indicators programme). Table D4.2. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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Teachers are well-paid in comparison to teachers in other OECD countries, and their salaries are similar to those of full-time, full-year workers with tertiary education in other professions.

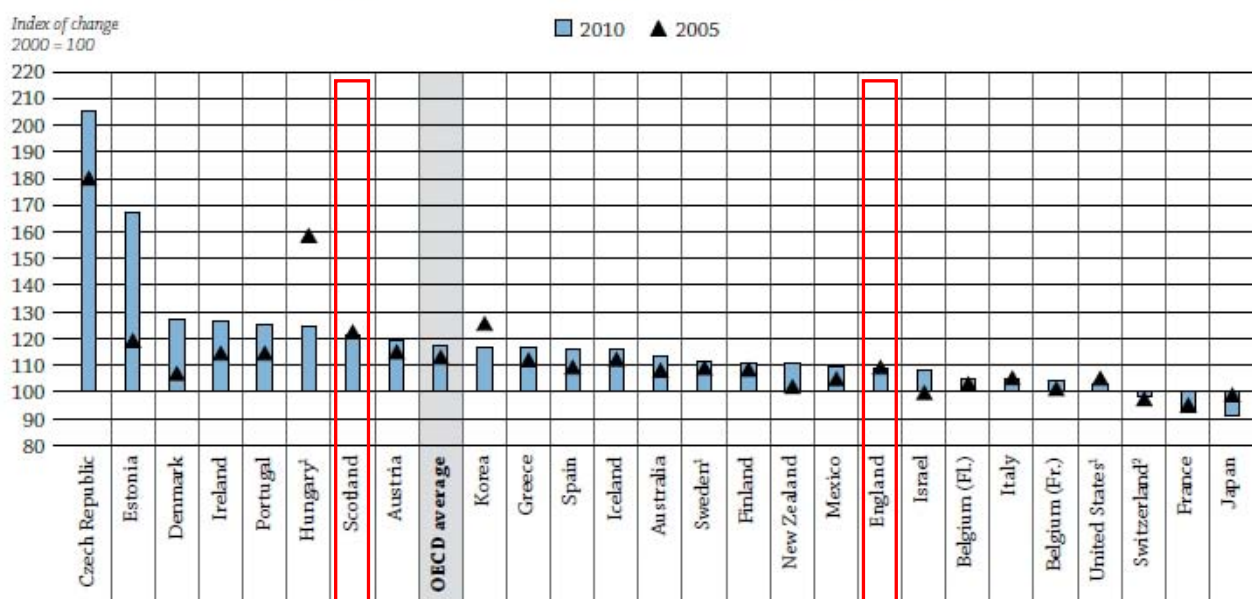
For primary school teachers with at least 15 years of experience, statutory salaries in the UK average USD 44 145 (GBP 28 000), above the OECD average of USD 37 603 (GBP 23 800). The statutory salaries of lower secondary school teachers with at least 15 years of experience average USD 44 145, also higher than the OECD average of USD 39 401 (GBP 25 000) (Table D3.1).

Primary school teachers' salaries in England amount to 99% of the average full-time, full-year earnings of 25-64 year-olds with tertiary education (the OECD average is 82%; in Scotland, the figure is 95%). Lower and upper secondary school teachers in England earn more (109%) than similarly educated workers in other professions (the OECD averages are 85% and 90%, respectively; in Scotland, 95% for both levels of education), making teaching a reasonably attractive career choice for graduates in England (Table D3.1 and Chart D3.1).

Between 2000 and 2010, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary teachers' salaries increased by 21% in real terms in Scotland – the 7th highest increase among OECD countries and a 4-percentage-point increase greater than the OECD average. During the same period, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary teachers' salaries increased 9% in England (Table D3.2 and Chart D3.3).

Chart D3.3. Changes in teachers' salaries after 15 years of experience/minimum training in lower secondary education (2000, 2005, 2010)

Index of change between 2000 and 2010 (2000 = 100, constant prices)



1. Actual base salaries.

2. Salaries after 11 years of experience.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the index of change between 2000 and 2010 in teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience.

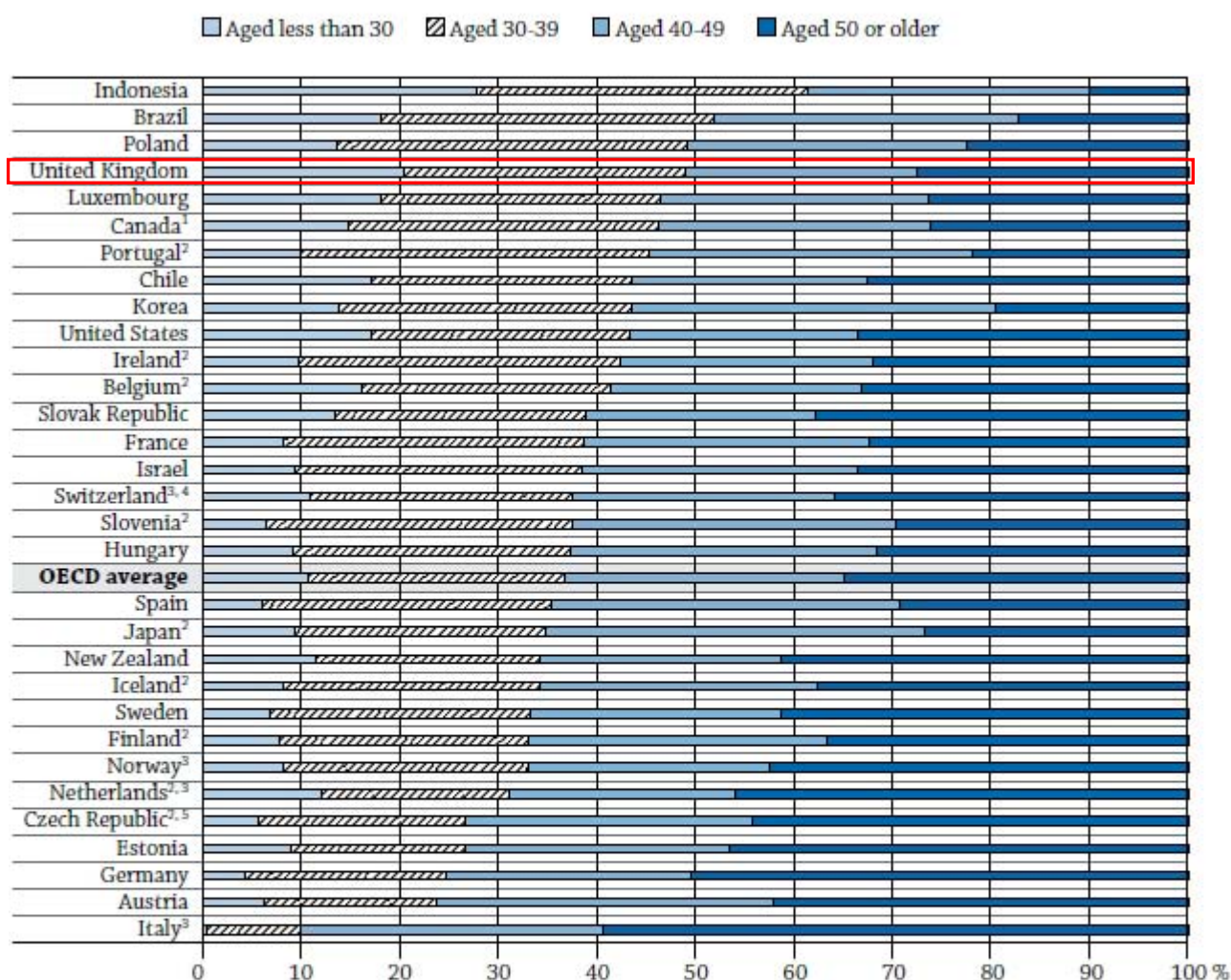
Source: OECD, Table D3.2. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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The UK has a notably young teaching force.

The UK has the highest proportion of teachers below the age of 30 among OECD countries and a large proportion of teachers between the ages of 30 and 39. Some 61.4% of primary school teachers are younger than 40 – a significantly larger proportion than the OECD average of 41.1%. Only 38.6% of primary school teachers in the UK are 40 or older, compared to the OECD average of 58.3% (Table D5.1 and Chart D5.3). While 47% of lower secondary teachers and 53.3% of upper secondary teachers are at least 40 years old, the age range of teachers in the UK is still younger than the average across OECD countries (Table D5.1 and Chart D5.3).

Chart D5.1. Age distribution of teachers in secondary education (2010)
Distribution of teachers in educational institutions, by age group



1. Year of reference 2009.

2. Secondary education includes post-secondary non-tertiary education.

3. Public institutions only.

4. Upper secondary education includes general programmes only.

5. Upper secondary education includes tertiary-type B education.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of teachers aged 40 or older at the secondary level.

Source: OECD. Indonesia: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (World Education Indicators programme). Table D5.2. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012).

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High but declining levels of school autonomy

England has one of the highest degrees of school autonomy among OECD countries...

In 2011, schools in England had the greatest decision-making authority, after the Netherlands, among all OECD countries (35 percentage points higher than the OECD average) in 2011 (Table D6.1 and Chart D6.1).

...but the share of decisions taken at the school level has declined.

At the same time, the trend in England shows a decrease in the percentage of decisions taken at school level, from 85% in 2003 to 75% in 2011 (Table D6.5 and Tables D6.6a, D6.6b, D6.6c and D6.6d, available on line). England also shows a decline in the percentage of decisions taken at the central level (from 11% in 2003 to 4% in 2007), while more decisions were taken at the local level in 2011 (25%) than in 2003 (4%).

KEY FACTS

Indicator	United Kingdom	OECD average	United Kingdom rank*
Educational Access and Output			
Enrolment rates			
3-year-olds (in early childhood education)	83%	66%	12 of 36 countries
4-year-olds (in early childhood and primary education)	97%	81%	9 of 38 countries
5-14 year-olds (all levels)	103%	96%	3 of 39 countries
Percentage of population that has attained at least upper secondary education			
25-64 year-olds	75%	74%	20 of 40 countries
25-34 year-olds	83%	82%	23 of 36 countries
55-64 year-olds	65%	62%	19 of 36 countries
Percentage of population that has attained tertiary education			
25-64 year-olds	38%	31%	8 of 41 countries
25-34 year-olds	46%	38%	8 of 37 countries
55-64 year-olds	30%	23%	8 of 37 countries
Entry rates into tertiary education			
Vocational programmes (Tertiary-type B)	26%	17%	12 of 33 countries
University programmes (Tertiary-type A)	63%	62%	17 of 36 countries
Graduation rates			
Percentage of today's young people expected to complete upper secondary education in their lifetime	92%	84%	9 of 27 countries
Percentage of today's young people expected to complete university education (tertiary-type A) in their lifetime	51%	39%	3 of 28 countries
Economic and Labour Market Outcomes			
Unemployment rate of 25-64 year-olds			
Below upper secondary	10.3%	12.5%	19 of 33 countries
Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	6.2%	7.6%	20 of 34 countries
Tertiary	3.4%	4.7%	26 of 34 countries
Average earnings premium for 25-64 year-olds with tertiary education (compared to people with upper secondary education; upper secondary = 100)			
Men and women	165	155	11 of 32 countries
Men	162	160	14 of 32 countries
Women	177	157	5 of 32 countries
Average earnings penalty for 25-64 year-olds who have not attained upper secondary education (compared to people with upper secondary education; upper secondary = 100)			
Men and women	67	77	28 of 32 countries
Men	64	78	30 of 32 countries
Women	69	74	25 of 32 countries

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Indicator	United Kingdom	OECD average	United Kingdom rank*
Percentage of people not in employment, education or training			
15-29 year-olds (2005 data)	14.2%	15.0%	15 of 32 countries
15-29 year-olds (2010 data)	15.9%	15.8%	15 of 32 countries
Financial Investment in Education			
Annual expenditure per student (in equivalent USD, using PPPs)			
Pre-primary education	6 493	6 670	15 of 34 countries
Primary education	9 088	7 719	9 of 35 countries
Secondary education	10 013	9 312	14 of 37 countries
Tertiary education	16 338	13 728	10 of 37 countries
Total public and private expenditure on education			
As a percentage of GDP	6%	6.2%	19 of 37 countries
Total public expenditure on education			
As a percentage of total public expenditure	11.3%	13.0%	24 of 32 countries
Share of private expenditure on educational institutions			
Primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education	21.3%	8.8%	3 of 32 countries
Tertiary education	70.4%	30%	3 of 31 countries
All levels of education	31.1%	16%	4 of 30 countries
Schools and Teachers			
Ratio of students to teaching staff			
Pre-primary education	15.9	14.4	13 of 32 countries
Primary education	19.8	15.8	8 of 36 countries
Secondary education	16.0	13.8	11 of 38 countries

Indicator	England	OECD average	England rank*
Number of hours of compulsory instruction time per year			
7-8 year-olds	893	774 hours	8 of 33 countries
9-11 year-olds	899	821 hours	9 of 34 countries
12-14 year-olds	925	899 hours	12 of 34 countries
Number of hours of teaching time per year (for teachers in public institutions)			
Primary education	684	782 hours	26 of 36 countries
Lower secondary education	703	704 hours	15 of 35 countries
Upper secondary education	703	658 hours	14 of 36 countries
Ratio of teachers' salaries to earnings for full-time, full-year adult workers with tertiary education			
Primary school teachers	0.99	0.82	6 of 28 countries
Lower secondary school teachers	1.09	0.85	5 of 28 countries
Upper secondary school teachers	1.09	0.90	6 of 28 countries
Indicator	Scotland	OECD average	Scotland rank*
Number of hours of compulsory instruction time per year			
7-8 year-olds	a	774 hours	m
9-11 year-olds	a	821 hours	m
12-14 year-olds	a	899 hours	m
Number of hours of teaching time per year (for teachers in public institutions)			
Primary education	855	782 hours	11 of 36 countries
Lower secondary education	855	704 hours	5 of 35 countries
Upper secondary education	855	658 hours	4 of 36 countries
Ratio of teachers' salaries to earnings for full-time, full-year adult workers with tertiary education			
Primary school teachers	0.95	0.82	8 of 28 countries
Lower secondary school teachers	0.95	0.85	10 of 28 countries
Upper secondary school teachers	0.95	0.90	11 of 28 countries

* Countries are ranked in descending order of values.

See: *Education at a Glance 2012: OECD Indicators*

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