

## COUNTRY NOTE



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

# EUROPEAN UNION

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## KEY FINDINGS

- The crisis has reinforced the importance of good education. Over the past decade, more than two-thirds of GDP growth in EU21 countries was driven by labour income growth among tertiary-educated individuals, compared with just 51% in the United States. Even in the midst of the recession in 2009, labour income growth among tertiary graduates increased in the majority of EU countries with available data. In contrast, those with mid-range jobs and skills felt the most severe impact of the 2009 drop in GDP.
- The relative earnings premium for those with a tertiary education increased in most EU21 countries over the past ten years, indicating that the demand for more educated individuals still exceeds supply. On average among EU21 countries, a 25-64 year-old with tertiary education earned 62% more in 2010 than an adult in the same age group with an upper secondary education, up by 9 percentage points from 2000. By contrast, the tertiary earnings premium in the United States remained stable, but is still 14 percentage points higher than in the EU.
- Higher levels of education generally lead to better prospects for employment across EU21 countries. In 2010, the average employment rate for individuals with a lower secondary qualification was 65.3% for men and 46.9% for women across EU21 countries, while the average employment rate for individuals with a tertiary-type A (largely theory-based) qualification was 88.0% for men and 81.1% for women.
- The EU leads in early childhood education. In Belgium, France, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Spain and Sweden, more than 90% of 3-year-olds are enrolled in early childhood education.
- Most EU21 and other OECD countries have increased their investment in initial education over the past decade, and many even during the economic crisis. Between 2008 and 2009 expenditure on educational institutions fell in only four EU21 countries (Belgium, Estonia, Iceland, Italy) as well as in Japan and in

the United States, but the reductions seen in these six countries were smaller than the drop in GDP and not necessarily linked to the crisis.

- The massive expansion of tertiary education has been accompanied by increases in public – and, to an even greater extent, private – investment, but many European countries still struggle to share the costs and benefits of higher education equitably between taxpayers and households. Among the European countries for which data are available, only public tertiary institutions in Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (government-dependent private institutions) charge annual tuition fees of more than EUR 960 per full-time national student. By contrast, tuition fees are higher than EUR 1 200 in one-third of the countries with available data, and they reach more than EUR 4 000 in Korea and the United States. The data show no cross-country relationship between the share of private financing and social mobility, while there is a very clear relationship between social inequalities in school systems and social mobility in tertiary education, an area where many EU countries are not doing well.
- Based on current patterns of graduation, it is estimated that an average of 84% of today's young people in OECD countries will complete upper secondary education over their lifetimes; in EU 21 countries, some 87% of young people will. In some countries, it is common for students to graduate from upper secondary programmes after the age of 25. Around 10% of all upper secondary graduates in Denmark, Finland and Norway are 25 or older, while 20% in Iceland and more than 40% in Portugal are (Indicator A2).
- Europe is the preferred destination for students studying outside their country, with EU21 countries in Europe hosting 41% of all international students. Within the share of foreign students enrolled in EU21 countries, 76% of students come from another EU21 country.
- Europe's ageing of the teaching force is an increasing concern and has a significant impact on public budgets. Despite that the groups studied are of unequal size seven of the 32 countries where the teachers are oldest are EU 21 countries. More than 40% of secondary school teachers in five EU21 countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, the Netherlands and Sweden), and in New Zealand and Norway are aged 50 or older. This proportion exceeds 50% only in Germany and Italy.

*Education at a Glance* features data on education from the 34 OECD member countries as well as Argentina, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, the Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia and South Africa. The EU average used below is calculated as the unweighted mean of the data values of the 21 OECD countries that are members of the European Union for which data are available or can be estimated. These 21 countries are Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

The 2012 edition of *Education at a Glance* highlights several areas where European countries have made noteworthy progress (e.g. earnings premiums and labour-market prospects for higher-educated workers, development of early childhood education, tertiary attainment, student mobility) and identifies others that are likely to require continued attention in the future (e.g. the shift towards private funding of education, inequalities between gender in education and employment, and the ageing of the teaching force).

### ***In the aftermath of the financial crisis, education matters more than ever***

#### ***The crisis reinforces the importance of a good education for contributing to GDP growth...***

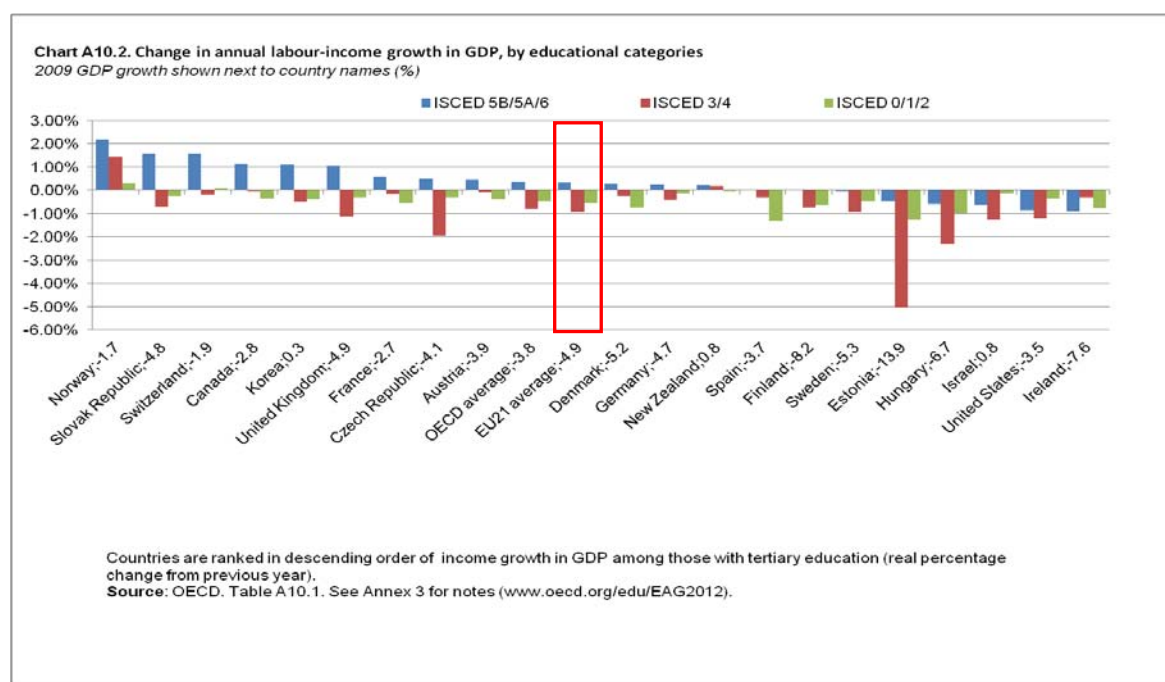
Over the past decade, more than two-thirds of the GDP growth in EU21 countries with available data has been driven by labour income growth among tertiary-educated individuals. The comparable figure for the United States is 51% of GDP. In Denmark and Ireland, the labour income growth of those with a tertiary

education even exceeds GDP growth, largely as a consequence of a strong shift towards higher skills and the impact of the global economic crisis on overall economic activity in these countries. In France, Norway, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, 60% or more of growth is generated by those who have attained a tertiary education (Table A10.1).

Vocational Educational and Training (VET) excellence is also a driver of economic growth. Labour income growth at the upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary level of education (ISCED 3/4) has, on average, made a positive contribution to growth over the past decade. In Austria, the Czech Republic and Germany, these levels of education are more important to GDP growth than tertiary-level education, due to the significance of vocational education in these countries (over 55% of 25-64 year-olds hold a vocational qualification; see Indicator A1).

**... and those with mid-range jobs and skills felt the most severe impact of the 2009 drop in GDP.**

In times of economic recession, structural and transitory adjustments of the production of goods and services typically prompt large changes in demand for labour. In 2009, the economies of the EU21 countries shrank by 4.9%, on average, and most countries faced economic hardship (see Chart A10.2). Despite the severe recession, in 2009 labour income growth among tertiary graduates increased in 9 of 13 EU21 countries with available data. Economic activity in four of them (Denmark, Germany, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom) contracted by over 4.5% that year, yet at the same time, labour income growth among adults with a tertiary education had a positive impact on GDP. Similarly, in two non EU21 countries (Norway and Switzerland), labour income growth among tertiary graduates added over 1.5% to GDP, in spite of the overall contraction of economic activity.



On average across EU21 countries, labour income growth for those with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary level of education had a negative impact on GDP of -0.9% in 2009. The largest shift in the demand for high and mid-range skills appeared in four EU21 countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom), where the difference between the labour income growth of tertiary graduates and those with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education exceeded two percentage points of GDP. Among the other countries, only in New Zealand and Norway did the labour

income growth of those with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary level of education contribute positively to GDP growth.

*The relative earnings premium for those with a tertiary education increased in most EU21 countries over the past ten years, indicating that the demand for more educated individuals still exceeds supply ...*

On average among EU21 countries with available data, a 25-64 year-old with tertiary education earned 62% more in 2010 than an adult in the same age group with an upper secondary education. This proportion increased by 9 percentage points between 2000 and 2010 across EU21 countries (Table A8.2a).

By contrast, the tertiary earnings premium in the United States was stable over the same period, but 14 percentage points higher than the EU21 average in 2010. In Germany and Hungary, the earnings premium increased by over 10 percentage points; however, tertiary attainment levels are low in these countries compared to the OECD average (see Indicator A1). In Ireland, the earnings premium has increased by 22 percentage points between 2000 and 2010 (Tables A8.2b and A8.2c).

*... and figures tend to show that many EU21 countries can expect in the future a significant increase in the proportion of their population that attained a tertiary education.*

Chart A1.3 compares changes in countries' tertiary attainment figures among 25-64 year-olds to show how the global landscape of tertiary attainment evolves over time. For example, some EU21 countries, such as France, Poland and, to a lesser extent, Slovenia, Spain and Portugal, have tertiary attainment levels that are lower than the OECD average of 31%; but given current attainment rates among 25-34 year-olds, these countries' overall tertiary attainment levels could move closer to those of other OECD countries in the future.

Similarly, EU21 countries with already-high levels of tertiary attainment, such as Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, and Japan and Korea for other regions of the world, may see their advantage increase even further in the future.

By contrast, Canada, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, and the United States already have high levels of tertiary attainment, but they may find that an increasing number of countries approach or surpass those levels of attainment in the coming years.

Among EU21 countries, Austria, Germany and, to a lesser extent, Italy, Greece, Hungary, and the Czech Republic are the six countries that could fall further behind in the ranking in the future.

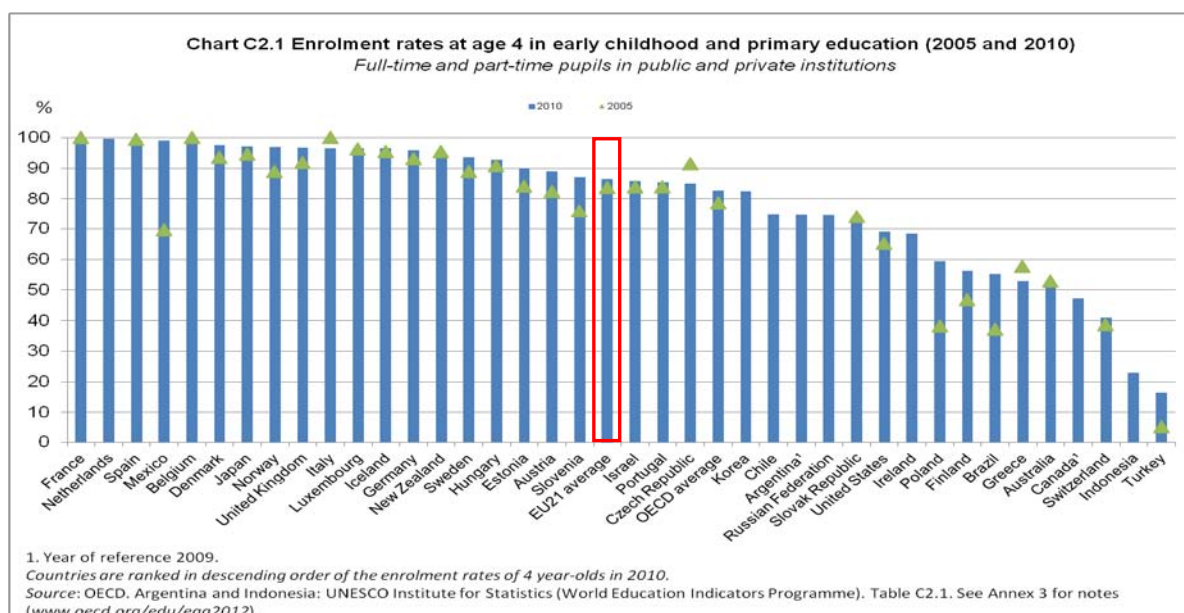
## *A strong start for children*

*Early schooling is more prevalent in EU countries than across OECD countries as a whole ...*

<b>Target for the European Union: at least 95% of children between the age of four and the age for starting compulsory primary education should participate in early childhood education by 2020</b>
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OECD countries are making strides in expanding schooling for their Youngest, an issue that has become more prominent on countries' education policy agendas in recent years. That is important, given that 15-year-old students who attended at least one year of pre-primary education perform better on PISA than those who did not, even after accounting for their socio-economic backgrounds.

For most children in a majority of OECD countries, education now begins well before they are five years old. In Belgium, France, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Spain and Sweden, more than 90% of 3-year-olds are enrolled in early childhood education (Table C2.1).



More than three-quarters (81%) of 4-year-olds are enrolled in early childhood and primary education across OECD countries as a whole, and this rises to 86%, on average, in the OECD countries that are part of the European Union. Enrolment rates for early childhood and primary education at this age range from over 95% in Belgium, France, Germany, Iceland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain and the United Kingdom, to less than 60% in Australia, Brazil, Canada, Finland, Greece, Indonesia, Poland, Switzerland and Turkey (Table C2.1 and Chart C2.1).

*...and early childhood education programmes receive considerable public funding in European countries.*

In Europe, universal access to education for 3- to 6-year-olds is a widely accepted concept. With the exception of Ireland and the Netherlands, such access is generally a statutory right from the age of 3 and, in some countries, even earlier and for at least two years. Publicly-funded pre-primary education tends to be more developed in the European countries of the OECD than in the non-European countries. On average, 18% of pre-primary education in OECD countries is funded from private sources (only 12% among EU21 countries), but the proportion varies widely between countries, ranging from 5% or less in Belgium, Estonia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden, to 19% in the United States, 25% or more in Argentina, Austria and Germany, and to over 48% in Australia, Japan and Korea (Table C2.2).

*More investment in primary, secondary and tertiary education*

*Most EU21 and other OECD countries have increased their investment in initial education over the past decade...*

Expenditure per primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary student by educational institutions increased in every country with available data, and by an average of more than 36% (38% for EU 21 countries) between 2000 and 2009, a period of relatively stable student enrolment in most countries. Between 2000 and 2009, in 24 of the 29 countries for which data are available, expenditure per primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary student by educational institutions increased by at least 16%. The increase exceeded 50% in seven EU21 countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Ireland, Poland, the Slovak



Republic and the United Kingdom), as well as in Brazil and Korea. By contrast, in France, Israel and Italy, this expenditure increased by only 10% or less between 2000 and 2009 (Table B1.5a and Chart B1.6).

Primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education accounts for 64% of expenditure on educational institutions, or 4.0% of the GDP, on average in EU 21 countries. Iceland and New Zealand spend more than 5% of their GDP at these levels, while the Czech Republic, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Japan and the Russian Federation spend 3% or less. Between 2000 and 2009, expenditure for all levels of education combined increased at a faster rate than GDP growth in almost all countries for which data are available. During this period, the increase exceeded one percentage point in Brazil, Denmark, Ireland, Korea, Mexico, the Netherlands, Norway, the Russian Federation and the United Kingdom (Table B2.1).

*...despite the economic crisis.*

Although the initial impact of the crisis hit at different times and in different degrees, depending on the country, 2009 data also sheds light on the first measures some countries took in response to the crisis. For example, was spending on education cut as a result of the economic downturn? The findings show that the education sector was largely spared from early budget cuts in 2009. However, although more recent data are not yet available, the persistence of the crisis is likely to have led to severe cuts in public expenditure on education in a number of countries up to 2009.

Among the 31 countries with available data for 2008 and 2009 only Israel shows a decrease in expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP. In Israel, GDP grew only slightly between 2008 and 2009, while expenditure on education shrank during the period.

The picture is different in other countries. Even though the crisis had already begun, between 2008 and 2009 expenditure on educational institutions started to fall in only four EU21 countries (Belgium, Estonia, Iceland, Italy) as well as in Japan and in the United States, but the reductions seen in these six countries were smaller than the drop in GDP and not necessary linked to the crisis. As a result, the share of GDP devoted to education continued to rise (see Box 1 in Indicator B2).

However, high spending per student cannot automatically be equated with strong performance by education systems: only 13% of the variation in 2009 PISA reading performance is a result of the variation in cumulative expenditure per student aged 6 to 15 (see Indicator B7 in *Education at a Glance 2011*). Similarly, there are few European countries that have achieved significant improvements in quality and equity as measured by PISA 2009 (see Volume 5 of *PISA 2009 Results*).

*The massive expansion of tertiary education has been accompanied by increases in public – and, to an even greater extent, private – investment....*

Expenditure per tertiary student by educational institutions ranges from EUR 5 600 or less in Argentina, Chile, Estonia, Indonesia, the Slovak Republic and South Africa to more than EUR 15 200 in Canada, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States (Table B1.1a and Chart B1.2).

Since 1995, 14 out of the 25 countries with available information implemented reforms to tuition fees. Most of these reforms led to an increase in the average level of tuition fees charged by tertiary educational institutions. Between 1995 and 2009, the share of public funding for tertiary institutions decreased from 78% in 1995, to 77% in 2000, to 73% in 2005 and then stabilised at 73% in 2009 (on average among the OECD countries for which trend data are available for all years). But this trend is mainly influenced by non-European countries, where tuition fees are generally higher and enterprises participate more actively in providing grants to finance tertiary institutions (Table B3.3, Chart B3.3 and Indicator B5).

*...but many European countries still struggle to share the costs and benefits of higher education equitably between public and private entities.*

Among the European countries for which data are available, only public tertiary institutions in Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (government-dependent private institutions) charge annual tuition fees of more than EUR 960 per full-time national student. By contrast, tuition fees are higher than EUR 1 200 in one-third of the countries with available data, and they reach more than EUR 4 000 in Korea and the United States (Table B5.1 and Chart B5.2).

Other countries, such as Australia, Canada, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, have expanded participation in tertiary education by shifting some of the financial burden to students and their families. These measures often go hand in hand with financial support to students, for example in the form of income contingent loans or means-tested grants.

### *Providing a level playing field is still a major challenge for many EU countries*

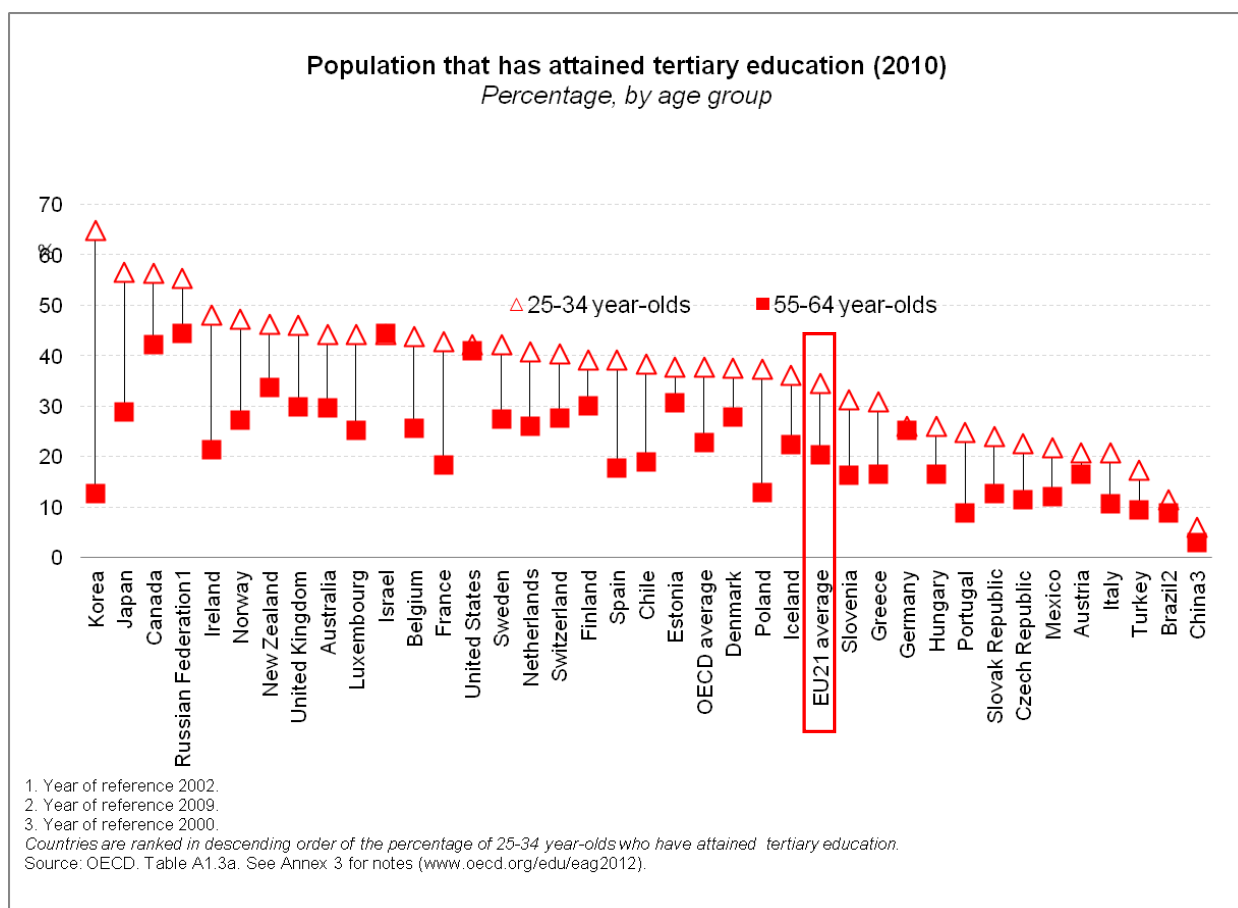
*There is no cross-country relationship between the share of private financing and social mobility, while there is a very clear relationship between social inequalities in school systems and social mobility in tertiary education.*

The data show no strong link between tuition fees charged by tertiary educational institutions and access to tertiary education. In fact, the high entry rates into tertiary education in some countries that charge no tuition fees are likely to result, in part, from those countries' highly developed student financial support systems that cover living expenses, not just from the absence of tuition fees. Similarly, OECD countries in which students are required to pay tuition fees but can benefit from sizeable financial support do not have below-average levels of access to tertiary-type A education. Globally, *Education at a Glance 2012* shows no relationship between the share of private financing and social mobility, while there is a very clear relationship between social inequalities in school systems and social mobility in tertiary education (see Indicators B5 and A6).

*Tertiary attainment levels have increased considerably over the past 30 years...*

- **Target for the European Union: At least 40% of 30-34 year-olds completing tertiary education by 2020**

In most OECD countries, the percentage of 25-34 year-olds who have completed the tertiary level of education is moderately to considerably higher than the percentage of 55-64 year-olds with tertiary attainment. On average across OECD countries, 38% of 25-34 year-olds have a tertiary education (35% for EU21 countries), compared with 23% (20% for EU21 countries) of 55-64 year-olds (Table A1.3a). However, Canada, Japan, Korea and the Russian Federation lead OECD and G20 countries in the proportion of 25-34 year-olds with a tertiary education, with 55% or more of this age group having reached this level of education (Chart A1.1). Among EU21 countries, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom meet or exceed the 40% benchmark set by the European Union if the 30-34 year-old age group is analysed. However, Chart A1.3 and Indicator A3 on graduation rates in tertiary education show that most countries are likely to achieve this goal by 2020.



*...however, socio-economic and gender inequalities in access to tertiary education may hamper expansion over the next decades.*

Programmes recruiting almost exclusively from only one gender are in danger of excluding many able candidates. This is particularly the case in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction, which are often viewed as “masculine” fields and perceived to be more suited for men, and care-related fields, such as education and health, which are sometimes viewed as “feminine” and more appropriate for women.

Women predominate among graduates in the field of education: they represent 70% or more of tertiary students (tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes) in this field in all countries except Indonesia (55%), Japan (59%) and Turkey (57%). They also dominate in the fields of health and welfare, accounting for 74% of all degrees awarded in this field (75% for EU 21 countries), on average (Table A4.6 and Chart A4.5). In contrast, in all countries except Argentina, Denmark, Estonia, France, Greece, Iceland, Indonesia, Italy, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Saudi Arabia, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Spain, 30% or fewer of all graduates in the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction are women.

Moreover, this situation has changed only slightly since 2000, despite many initiatives to promote gender equality in OECD countries and at the EU level. For example, in 2000, the European Union established a goal to increase the number of tertiary-type A graduates in mathematics, science and technology by at least 15% by 2010, and to reduce the gender imbalance in these subjects. So far, however, progress towards this goal has been negligible for EU countries as well for other regions of the world. Only in the Czech Republic, Germany, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland did the proportion of women in science grow by at least 10 percentage points between 2000 and 2010.



Inequalities in early schooling related to differences in socio-economic backgrounds are strongly linked to inequalities at the tertiary level of education. In addition, the relationship between socio-economic background and student performance at age 15 (PISA 2000) explains 37% of the variation between countries in the extent to which students from families with low levels of education were admitted to institutions of higher education in 2009.

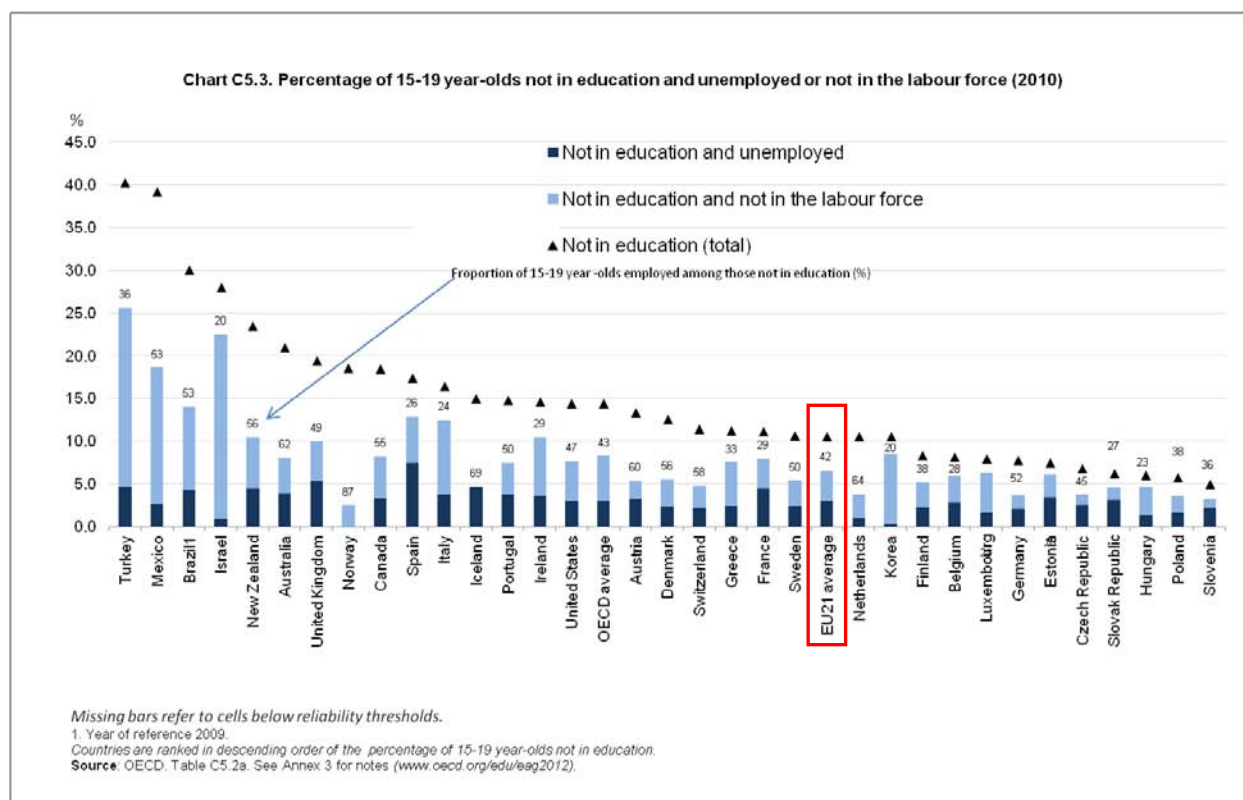
On average across EU 21 countries, a young person with at least one parent who has attained a tertiary degree is almost twice as likely (odds of 1.9) to be in higher education, compared to the proportion of such families in the population. Only in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, Norway and Sweden is this over-representation of students from high educational backgrounds below 50% (odds below 1.5). The greatest likelihood that students from highly educated families will continue into higher education is found in Portugal and Turkey, where this ratio exceeds 3. In one third of EU 21 countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Slovak Republic and Spain), young people are more than twice as likely to be in higher education if their parents hold a tertiary degree, as compared to the percentage of such families in the population (Table A6.1).

*The proportion of individuals in education has increased over time, and only 11% of 15-19 year-olds are not in education across EU21 countries.*

- Target for the European Union: Reduce early school leavers to below 10% by 2020

Early school leavers rates are defined by the European Union as the proportion of the population aged 18-24 with only lower secondary education or less and no longer in education or training. Despite recent improvements, the figure for early school leavers is actually 13.5% on average among EU27 countries. In most OECD and EU countries, education policy seeks to encourage youth to complete at least upper secondary education. The effect of these efforts is seen in young people's strong participation in education beyond compulsory schooling (Table C5.2a). Many countries have reached near universal access to education for 15-19 year-olds. The proportion of individuals in education decreases with age in all EU21 countries. On average across these countries, in 2010 89% of 15-19 year-olds were in education (against 86% for the OECD average and the United States).

However, among the proportion of 15-19 year-olds not in education across EU21 countries (10.6%), only 42%, on average, were employed (against 43% for the OECD average and 47% in the United States) (see Chart C5.3).



*Higher levels of education generally lead to better prospects for employment across EU21 countries and in other regions of the world...*

**Target for the European Union: 75% employment rate for women and men aged 20-64 by 2020** – achieved by getting more people into work, especially women, the young, older and low-skilled people and legal migrants

Higher levels of education generally lead to better prospects for employment across OECD countries. In 2010, the average employment rate for individuals with a lower secondary qualification was 69.1% for men and 48.7% for women (against 65.3% for men and 46.9% for women across EU21 countries), while the average employment rate for individuals with a tertiary-type A (largely theory-based) qualification was 88.3% for men and 79.3% for women (against 88.0% for men and 81.1% for women across EU21 countries, Table A7.1a).

On average across OECD countries, the employment rate is 18.2 percentage points higher for people with an upper secondary education (against 21 percentage points across EU21 countries), compared to the rate for people without an upper secondary education. The difference is exceptionally large in a small group of European countries, namely Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and the Slovak Republic. In the Slovak Republic, for example, the average employment rate among people with an upper secondary education is 70%, but drops to 30% for those without an upper secondary degree.

Although the gap in the employment rate between men and women aged 25-64 narrows among tertiary educated individuals, the employment rate among women is far below that among men at all levels of education (65% for women against 78% for men, on average, among EU21 countries). Policies that aim to boost labour-market participation among women can help ensure that women's skills are used more effectively in the workplace.

*...but unemployment rates remain high among all workers – though less so among the most educated workers.*

Analysis of data collected during the recent economic crisis shows the importance of a good education in all OECD countries. People with university degrees suffered far fewer job losses during the crisis than those who left school without qualifications (Indicator A7).

Individuals without an upper secondary education have been hardest hit by the global recession. Unemployment rates among 25-64 year-olds without an upper secondary education rose by 3.8 percentage points between 2008 and 2010 (against 4.8 percentage points across EU21 countries and 6.7 percentage points in the United States), whereas for individuals with an upper secondary education the unemployment rate increased by 2.7 percentage points (against 3.3 percentage points across EU21 countries and 5.9 percentage points in the United States). Among tertiary-educated individuals, the rate climbed 1.4 percentage points between 2008 and 2010 (against 0.6 percentage points across EU21 countries and 2.9 percentage points in the United States) (Table A7.4a and Chart A7.2).

Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, Spain and the United States reported the most significant increases in unemployment rates among people without an upper secondary education between 2008 and 2009. This continued in 2010 for Estonia, Ireland and Spain, although the increase was smaller than in 2009 (Table A7.4a and Chart A7.2).

## *An ageing teaching force*

*The ageing of the teaching force is an increasing concern and has a significant impact on public budgets.*

Even where recruiting the most highly qualified graduates remains a challenge, policy makers acknowledge that the quality of teaching is strongly affected by the pool of talent from which teachers are recruited. This connection is particularly important to bear in mind in light of teacher shortages that many advanced economies already face and that will grow in the near future as large numbers of teachers reach retirement age (Table D5.1 and Chart D5.1).

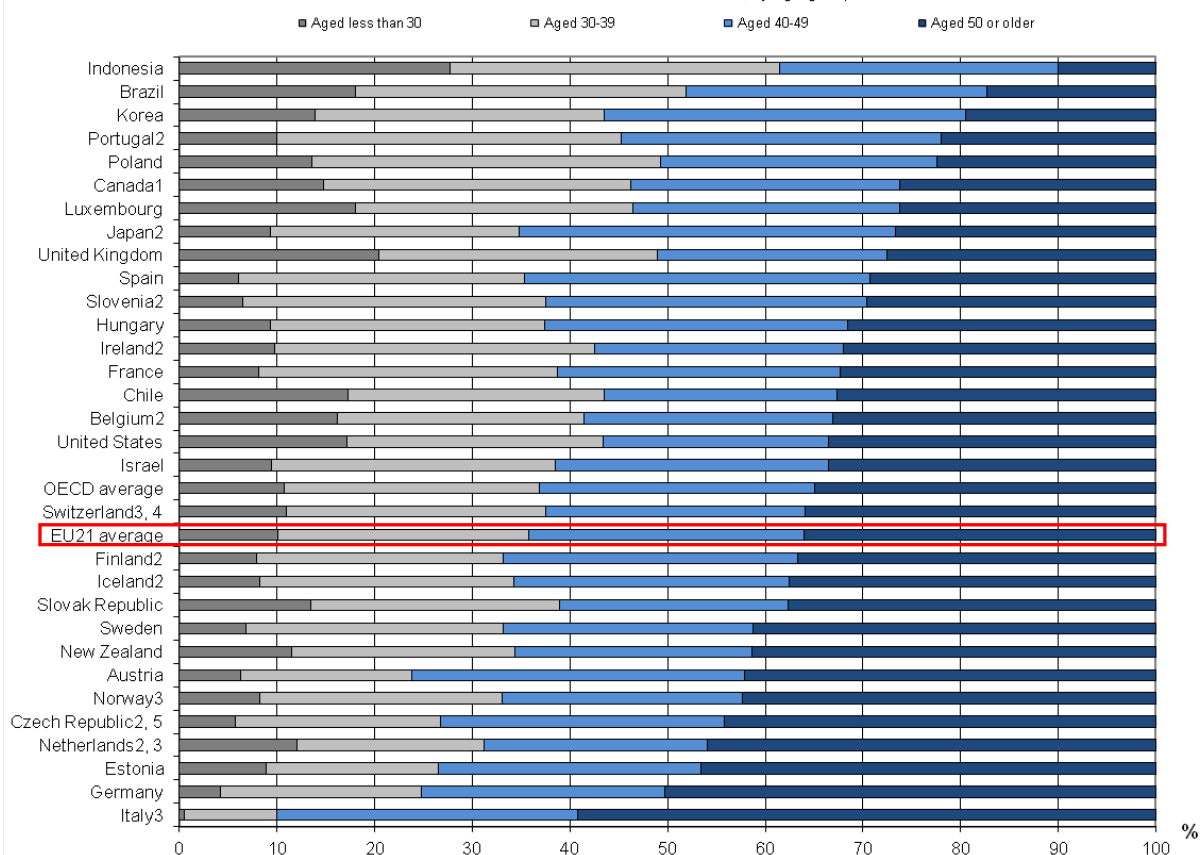
In addition to prompting recruitment and training efforts to replace retiring teachers, the ageing of the teaching force also has budgetary implications. In most school systems, there is a link between teachers' salaries and years of teaching experience. As teachers age, school costs increase, and that, in turn, limits the resources available to implement other initiatives at the school level (see Indicator D3).

*The age distribution of teachers varies widely among EU21 countries.*

Seven of the 32 countries where the teachers are oldest are EU 21 countries. More than 40% of secondary school teachers in seven EU21 countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden), and in New Zealand and Norway are aged 50 or older. By contrast, fewer than 30% of teachers are aged 50 or older in six EU21 countries (Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom) and in Brazil, Canada, Indonesia, Japan and Korea.

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 50 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](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012)).

**KEY FACTS**

Indicator	EU average	OECD average
<b>Enrolment rates</b>		
3-year-olds (in early childhood education)	73%	66%
4-year-olds (in early childhood and primary education)	86%	81%
5-14 year-olds (all levels)	99%	96%
<b>Percentage of population that has attained at least upper secondary education</b>		
25-64 year-olds	75%	74%
25-34 year-olds	83%	82%
55-64 year-olds	64%	62%
<b>Percentage of population that has attained tertiary education</b>		
25-64 year-olds	28%	31%
25-34 year-olds	35%	38%
55-64 year-olds	20%	23%
<b>Entry rates into tertiary education</b>		
Vocational programmes (Tertiary-type B)	15%	17%
University programmes (Tertiary-type A)	60%	62%
<b>Graduation rates</b>		
Percentage of today's young people expected to complete upper secondary education in their lifetime	87%	84%
Percentage of today's young people expected to complete university education (tertiary-type A) in their lifetime	40%	39%
<b>Economic and Labour Market Outcomes</b>		
<b>Unemployment rate of 25-64 year-olds</b>		
Below upper secondary	15.2%	12.5%
Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	8.5%	7.6%
Tertiary	4.9%	4.7%
<b>Average earnings premium for 25-64 year-olds with tertiary education (compared to people with upper secondary education; upper secondary = 100)</b>		
Men and women	159	155
Men	166	160
Women	159	157
<b>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)</b>		
Men and women	78	77
Men	79	78
Women	75	74



Indicator	EU average	OECD average
<b>Percentage of people not in employment, education or training</b>		
15-29 year-olds (2005 data)	13.8%	15.0%
15-29 year-olds (2010 data)	14.8%	15.8%
<b>Financial Investment in Education</b>		
<b>Annual expenditure per student (in equivalent USD, using PPPs)</b>		
Pre-primary education	6 807	6 670
Primary education	7 762	7 719
Secondary education	9 513	9 312
Tertiary education	12 967	13 728
<b>Total public and private expenditure on education</b>		
As a percentage of GDP	5.9%	6.2%
<b>Total public expenditure on education</b>		
As a percentage of total public expenditure	11.5%	13.0%
<b>Share of private expenditure on educational institutions</b>		
Primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education	6.3%	8.8%
Tertiary education	21.4%	30.0%
All levels of education	10.5%	16.0%
<b>Schools and Teachers</b>		
<b>Ratio of students to teaching staff</b>		
Pre-primary education	13.4	14.4
Primary education	14.3	15.9
Secondary education	12.3	13.8
<b>Number of hours of compulsory instruction time per year</b>		
7-8 year-olds	750 hours	774 hours
9-11 year-olds	800 hours	821 hours
12-14 year-olds	877 hours	899 hours
<b>Number of hours of teaching time per year (for teachers in public institutions)</b>		
Primary education	778 hours	782 hours
Lower secondary education	671 hours	704 hours
Upper secondary education	635 hours	658 hours
<b>Ratio of teachers' salaries to earnings for full-time, full-year adult workers with tertiary education</b>		
Primary school teachers	0.81	0.82
Lower secondary school teachers	0.85	0.85
Upper secondary school teachers	0.90	0.90

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

Visit: [www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag2012)

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