

Teachers in Europe

Careers, Development and Well-being

Eurydice Report



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FOREWORD



Teachers are the front-line workers in education. Having motivated teachers is one of the essential prerequisites of a successful education system in which students from different backgrounds can flourish and reach their full potential. The transition from face-to-face to distance learning due to the global health crisis has further underlined the vital role of teachers in providing all students with equal and quality learning opportunities.

This crisis has shown the strengths of our education systems, but also weaknesses, and has taught us important lessons on how to adapt to the current context. The crisis required us to improve digital education and equip teachers with relevant and adequate skills. The crisis has also stressed the need to invest in joint efforts and further reinforce the amazing spirit of our education community across Europe. The more we cooperate, the more we can create new exciting opportunities. Among such opportunities are the Erasmus Teacher Academies and eTwinning, and teachers are essential for both initiatives. Erasmus Teacher Academies create communities of practice, notably on initial teacher education and continuous professional development, while eTwinning is a community in which teachers can learn how to adopt innovative teaching methods and support students while at home.

Our Communication on *achieving the European Education Area by 2025* puts teachers at the heart of education. We proposed concrete measures, such as a revised learning mobility framework enabling teachers to overcome obstacles and benefit from travelling abroad for learning purposes when COVID-19 restrictions will be lifted. The Commission also plans to develop a European guidance tool for the development of national career frameworks that support teachers' career progression.

This new report examines the key policy issues that have an impact on lower secondary teachers across Europe. The report connects qualitative Eurydice data on national policies and legislation with quantitative data from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) on practices and perceptions of teachers. The analysis illustrates how national policies and regulations can contribute to enhancing and supporting the teaching profession.

I am confident that this report will be a great help to education policy makers and other stakeholders at national and European level. I hope that it will inspire and support the EU Member States to exchange best practices, to learn from each other and to work towards a strong and effective European Education Area.

Mariya Gabriel

Commissioner responsible for
Innovation, Research, Culture,
Education and Youth

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CODES AND ABBREVIATIONS

Country codes

EU	European Union	CY	Cyprus	UK	United Kingdom
BE	Belgium	LV	Latvia	UK-ENG	England
BE fr	Belgium – French Community	LT	Lithuania	UK-WLS	Wales
BE de	Belgium – German-speaking Community	LU	Luxembourg	UK-NIR	Northern Ireland
BE nl	Belgium – Flemish Community	HU	Hungary	UK-SCT	Scotland
BG	Bulgaria	MT	Malta	EEA and candidate countries	
CZ	Czechia	NL	Netherlands	AL	Albania
DK	Denmark	AT	Austria	BA	Bosnia and Herzegovina
DE	Germany	PL	Poland	CH	Switzerland
EE	Estonia	PT	Portugal	IS	Iceland
IE	Ireland	RO	Romania	LI	Liechtenstein
EL	Greece	SI	Slovenia	ME	Montenegro
ES	Spain	SK	Slovakia	MK	North Macedonia
FR	France	FI	Finland	NO	Norway
HR	Croatia	SE	Sweden	RS	Serbia
IT	Italy			TR	Turkey

Statistics

(:)	Data not available
(–)	Not applicable or zero

Abbreviations and acronyms

International conventions

CPD	Continuing Professional Development
ECTS	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EQF	European Qualification Framework
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education (see the glossary)
ITE	Initial Teacher Education

National abbreviations in their language of origin

AHS	<i>Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule</i>	AT
GCSE	<i>General Certificate of Secondary Education</i>	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
HAVO	<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
NMS	<i>Neue Mittelschule</i>	AT
PGCE	<i>Postgraduate Certificate in Education</i>	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
VMBO	<i>Vorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VWO	<i>Vorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL
ZŠ/G	<i>Základní škola/Gymnázium</i>	CZ

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Teachers are a vital driving force for the learning process of students in every education system ⁽¹⁾, and ‘play the most important role in making education a fruitful experience’ ⁽²⁾. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic and the rapid transition from face-to-face to distance learning have further underlined the important role of teachers in providing all students with equal access to quality learning ⁽³⁾.

The teaching profession has been going through a vocational crisis for some years now, attracting fewer young people and losing others trained to become teachers. Many European education systems are now suffering from shortages. Moreover, the teaching profession is evolving and teachers have ‘increasing demands, responsibilities and expectations put before them’ ⁽⁴⁾.

National and European policy makers have worked together to identify the challenges that make the teaching profession less attractive. At the same time, they have been looking for solutions to mitigate the impact of shortages and maintain high quality teaching standards. Reforms and new policies are needed in areas such as initial teacher education, continuing professional development, working conditions, career frameworks, teacher appraisal, and the well-being of teachers ⁽⁵⁾. However, in order to shape effective policies, evidence is needed on what works and in which circumstances.

This report contributes to the debate in these decisive areas by providing evidence on both policies and practices. It combines Eurydice data on national legislation with data on teachers’ practices and perceptions from the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) ⁽⁶⁾. The pooling of the two data sources in one report allows understanding of the impact of national policies on teachers’ behaviours, and provides ground for evidence-based reforms.

The report focuses on lower secondary teachers (ISCED 2) in Europe and covers all 27 EU Member States, as well as the United Kingdom, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Norway, Serbia and Turkey.

This executive summary provides short bullet points of the main findings and conclusions of the key areas covered in the report.

⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

⁽²⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions ‘on achieving the European Education Area by 2025’. 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final, p. 9.

⁽³⁾ Council conclusions of 16 June 2020 on countering the COVID-19 crisis in education and training, OJ C 212, 26.6.2020.

⁽⁴⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/11.

⁽⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. ‘School development and excellent Teaching for a great Start in Life’. SWD(2017) 165 final. COM(2017) 248 final.

Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions ‘on achieving the European Education Area by 2025’. 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final.

⁽⁶⁾ <http://www.oecd.org/education/talis/>

Main findings

Working conditions

- In the EU, more than one third of teachers below 35 are on fixed-term contracts, and in Spain, Italy, Austria and Portugal more than two-thirds.
- At EU level, teachers dedicate less than half of their working time to teaching. The proportion of teaching time diminishes as teachers work longer hours.
- There is general dissatisfaction among teachers with their salaries. Teachers with wages below the GDP per capita usually express higher levels of dissatisfaction. Salaries above GDP per capita usually correspond to higher salary satisfaction.

Teaching careers

- Teaching careers in Europe are organised either in formal career steps with specific roles, responsibilities and related salary increase, or conceived only in terms of salary increase.
- Teacher appraisal and continuing professional development are usually a requirement for career progression in countries with formal career steps. In countries where there are no formal career steps, career progression is mainly dependent on years of service.
- Teachers in all systems can cover other roles besides teaching, although opportunities are generally limited.

Initial teacher education (ITE) and induction

- Being a lower secondary school teacher usually requires a tertiary education qualification. Most education systems set the minimum qualification at master's level.
- TALIS 2018 data indicates that the highest qualification obtained by teachers tends to correspond to the minimum requirement in regulations.
- Around 70 % of teachers reported that their formal education included subject content, general and subject related pedagogy and classroom practice. Almost all education systems in Europe require professional training (theoretical and practical) to be included in ITE programmes alongside academic subjects.
- The share of professional training varies considerably, ranging from 50 % of the total duration of ITE in Belgium (French Community), Ireland and Malta, to 8 % in Italy and Montenegro.
- Less than 50 % of teachers in Europe have taken part in some form of early career support scheme (induction) during their first employment. Nevertheless, more teachers report this experience in countries where induction is compulsory.
- Recent reforms seem to have had a positive impact on the participation of newly qualified teachers in induction. A higher proportion of young teachers in Europe (less than 35 years old) participated in start of career induction compared to the total teacher population.

Continuing professional development (CPD)

- A high proportion of lower secondary teachers engage in CPD. TALIS 2018 reveals that 93 % of lower secondary teachers in EU countries had participated in at least one type of professional development activity in the 12 months prior to the survey. Before COVID-19 pandemic, teachers usually attended a course/seminar in person, read professional literature or participated in an education conference.
- There is considerable variation between countries in the range of professional training activities that teachers attended. On average, teachers in the Baltic countries participated in five to six different types of training in the 12 months prior to the survey. By contrast, teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France participated in two or three different types of training.
- There is a statutory duty for teachers to participate in CPD in almost all European countries. Moreover, more than half of the European countries allocate time for each teacher to engage in CPD, either as compulsory or as an entitlement.
- Teachers tend to participate in more types of CPD in the countries where time for CPD is defined for every teacher.
- In the majority of European countries, it is compulsory for schools to develop a plan for coordinating CPD training at school level. In the countries where schools are required to have a CPD plan, teachers tend to participate in more varied CPD.
- Most European countries offer teachers the possibility of taking paid study leave to engage in CPD activities outside the school. Teachers who had the possibility of taking paid study leave for a week or longer seemed to perceive lower levels of conflict between CPD and their work schedule.

Teacher appraisal

- In the vast majority of European countries, top-level authorities have issued regulations that guide teacher appraisal, while in 10 education systems schools or local authorities have full autonomy in the matter.
- In almost all countries where teacher appraisal is regulated, the process is intended to provide feedback on performance in order to help teachers to improve their performance. In addition, teacher appraisal often has a summative purpose, as it is used to inform decisions on promotion, salary progression or bonuses.
- Approximately two thirds of teachers reported that feedback received was useful for improving their work. The analysis suggests a positive relationship between having a national framework for teacher appraisal and teachers considering the feedback received to be helpful.
- Teacher appraisal is conducted most of the time by the school head, in comparison with other members of the school management, other teachers and external evaluators.
- Classroom observation and interviews between the teacher and the appraiser are the two most often regulated methods for teacher appraisal. Among the appraisal methods considered, teachers' self-assessments are the least used. Nevertheless, there are 15 education systems where self-assessment is a mandatory component of teacher appraisal.

Mobility

- In 2018, a minority of teachers within the EU (40.9 %) had been abroad at least once for professional purposes during their career, as a student, or both.
- From 2013 to 2018, more teachers have had a chance to experience transnational mobility. Teacher mobility increased by 16 percentage points among the European countries/regions for which data is available.
- Foreign language teachers are the most mobile compared to teachers of four other main subjects (reading, social studies, science and mathematics). Still, almost 30 % of modern foreign language teachers surveyed in the EU have never been abroad for professional purposes.
- Mobility as a student is associated with being mobile later as a teacher. Teachers who were mobile during their initial teacher education tend to be more mobile as practising teachers in all European countries included in the analysis.
- The EU programmes are the main funding schemes for teacher transnational mobility, compared to national or regional programmes.
- National funding programmes supporting teachers to spend some time abroad for professional development purposes exist in a minority of European countries, mainly in Western and Northern Europe. The data suggests that participation in transnational mobility is higher in countries where top-level authorities organise top-level schemes to support teachers' professional stays abroad.

Teachers' well-being

- Almost half of teachers in Europe report high levels of work-related stress. Teachers report that administrative tasks, changing requirements from authorities and being held responsible for students' achievements are major sources of stress.
- Higher levels of stress are positively related to appraisal for career progression, longer working hours, student misbehaviour, and lower levels of self-confidence in managing students.
- Lower levels of stress are positively related to continuing professional development for career progression, collaborative school climate, sense of autonomy, and self-confidence in motivating students.

Conclusions from the report

The attractiveness of the teaching profession

The vocational crisis of teaching: main challenges for governments

Across Europe, education systems are facing a vocational crisis of the teaching profession. Most countries experience a general shortage of teachers, sometimes exacerbated by imbalances in their distribution across subjects and geographical areas, an ageing teacher population, drop-outs from the profession, and low rates of enrolments in initial teacher education. Many education systems face several challenges at the same time, calling for policies that can reinstate the attractiveness of teaching as a career choice. Governments all over Europe are putting in place plans that aim at contrasting teacher attrition, and these often go in the direction of reshaping initial teacher education, improving working conditions, reforming career paths and modernising continuing professional development.

Working conditions

In the Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽⁷⁾, working conditions are identified as an essential element to improve the attractiveness and status of the profession. This report has analysed employment conditions, working hours, salaries and retirement age.

As far as employment conditions are concerned, the analysis reveals that, at EU level, one teacher out of five works on a temporary contract. This precarious employment condition is largely concentrated on young teachers. At EU level, among teachers below 35 years old, one out of three is employed on a fixed term contract, and in some countries, more than two-thirds of young teachers have short-term contracts. The high share of precarious employment contracts among young teachers seems to go beyond the needed flexibility of education systems to adapt to changing scenarios, like demographic changes or the need for temporary replacements. Countries that have high proportions of fixed-term contracts report that this is due to various reasons such as bottlenecks in the recruitment processes, high shares of retiring teachers and the long-term impact of recent economic crises with a consequent reduction of public expenditure. The impact of high shares of precarious contracts concentrated in the first years of the teaching career might play a role in the decision of novice teachers to remain or leave the profession, and influence the perception of teaching as an unattractive career choice altogether.

Teachers' working time is regulated in every European education system. However, countries may define different dimensions of working time: overall working hours, teaching hours and/or time of availability at school. In most countries where overall working time is regulated, full-time teachers work 40 hours per week, ranging from 30 hours in Greece and Albania to 42 hours in Switzerland and Liechtenstein. TALIS data reveals that, on average, teachers in Europe reported working 39 hours per week. According to regulations, teaching hours range from the minimum of 12 hours a week in Turkey to a maximum of 26 hours a week in Hungary. On average, full-time teachers in the EU report teaching almost 20 hours per week. There is therefore a clear convergence between regulations and practice.

When reporting on all their tasks, teachers account dedicating less than half of their time to teaching. Tasks directly connected to teaching (i.e. planning/preparation of lessons and marking/correcting) take

⁽⁷⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

almost one quarter of their time. Other tasks, such as administrative work, school management, communication with parents, etc. take the other quarter. Furthermore, when teachers work longer hours, the balance between these different dimensions changes. Indeed teachers working longer hours tend to dedicate, in proportion, less time to teaching and more time to other tasks. The proportion can go as far as dedicating only one third of their total working time to teaching. Some top-level authorities are reviewing teachers' workload to reduce the burden of unnecessary tasks, refocus efforts towards core responsibilities and decrease time dedicated to administrative demands.

Teacher salaries vary enormously across Europe and so does the satisfaction of teachers with what they earn. At EU level, less than 40 % of teachers are satisfied or very satisfied with their salary. In many countries, where the average gross actual salary of teachers is below the national GDP per capita, teachers express low satisfaction with their earnings. The contrary is also true. Teachers in countries where average salaries are above the GDP per capita express higher satisfaction with their wages. The data reveals that other specific circumstances could play a role in teachers' dissatisfaction with their salaries, such as slow and/or modest salary evolution during the career or long periods of stagnation due to governments' lower investments in public expenditure. When rethinking policies around salaries, considering the pace of salary progression as well as the overall salary level could help improve satisfaction with wages. Making teacher salaries more attractive could also play a role in influencing young people's choices on their professional path.

Retirement age for teachers has followed dynamics similar to other sectors. In most European countries, teachers generally retire at 65. Moreover, education systems that allow teachers to retire earlier are gradually increasing the retirement age. Furthermore, regulations that allow earlier retirement for women than men have disappeared or are planned to disappear in the next decade.

Careers

In Europe, there are two main career models for teachers. The first one, called multi-level career structure, is organised in formal career levels and teachers progress along them. The second one, called single-level, has no formal career levels and career progression consists in advancing on the salary scale.

The first model allows teachers to diversify their job depending on the level reached. Each level is usually associated with a higher salary and career progression is decided through a mixture of criteria such as number of years of service, compliance with CPD requirements and appraisal results. The single-level model also provides opportunities to diversify roles, although compensation mechanisms are not always foreseen. Progression is usually decided on the basis of number of years of service.

Multi-level career structures usually evolve in specific directions, such as management roles. This pushes good teachers that want to progress, more and more out of teaching rather than keeping them in teaching. Similarly, other multi-level career structures may not evolve towards management roles at all, failing to give teachers that want to, the opportunity to experience this kind of responsibility.

In education systems with single-level career structures, the absence of a pre-determined career structure can give the flexibility needed for teachers to evolve in different directions, depending also on their personal wishes and talents, as well as school needs. However, in these education systems, the variety of roles and responsibilities is often limited, there is an absence of formal recognition, and in some cases a lack of monetary/time compensation.

For both models, there is scope for reflection and reform by articulating career paths that allow teachers to evolve in different roles, depending on school and systemic needs, as well as teachers'

wishes, talents and life plans. Elaborating such paths entails also clarifying issues around compensation and reward mechanisms, considering formal recognition, and tailoring the criteria used for career progression. Teaching should cease to be seen as an isolated profession with limited or no career evolution and become a part of the larger family of school education professions instead. The development of national career frameworks could be a starting point for policies around career structures that provide teachers with a diversity of opportunities and connect the different school education professions. These, in turn, could play a favourable role in enhancing the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

Initial teacher education (ITE)

There is a wide consensus among researchers and political leaders that teacher education matters for quality teaching and for students' learning outcomes. Quality ITE and effective support to new teachers help to prevent teacher attrition and have a positive impact on the attractiveness of the teaching profession in general.

Mainstream ITE in Europe is organised around concurrent and consecutive models. In more than half of the European education systems, both models are available. In addition, several education systems have introduced alternative pathways leading to a teaching qualification. However, according to the TALIS 2018 data, the number of teachers qualified through these alternative ways remains marginal.

In the majority of the European education systems, ITE programmes for lower secondary teachers lead to master's level (ISCED 7). In others, the minimum qualification required is a bachelor's degree (ISCED 6). TALIS 2018 data suggests that the highest educational qualification achieved by in-service teachers tends to correspond to the minimum requirement in top-level regulations to ITE.

The content of ITE is one of the key factors impacting its quality. Subject knowledge, pedagogical theory and sufficient classroom practice are the core elements of effective ITE ⁽⁸⁾. Although almost all education systems require professional training to be included in ITE programmes alongside academic subjects, its duration varies considerably across countries. The share of professional training ranges from 50 % of the total duration of ITE in Belgium (French Community), Ireland and Malta to 8 % in Italy and Montenegro. In-school placement is regulated in around half of the European education systems.

According to the TALIS 2018 results, in the EU, nearly 70 % of all teachers report that they were trained in all three core elements (subject content, general and subject related pedagogy, and classroom practice). However, this share is below 60 % in Spain, France and Italy. The new generation of teachers (less than 35 years old) seems to benefit more from a comprehensive teacher education compared with the overall teacher population. In the EU, 75 % of young teachers completed formal education or training including all three core elements.

Induction

Supporting teachers during the early stages of their career is crucial not only to enhance the quality of teaching but also to reduce exit from the profession ⁽⁹⁾. In most European education systems, teachers new to the profession have access to a structured induction that usually lasts one year. In

⁽⁸⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 30 May 2017, on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM(2017) 248 final.

⁽⁹⁾ Ibid.

almost all of them, induction is compulsory. A structured induction for newly qualified teachers has been recently introduced in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Lithuania, Austria and Norway.

Despite the political aspirations and the legislations in force, teachers' participation in induction remains relatively low. TALIS 2018 data shows that in the EU, 43.6 % of teachers have taken part in induction during their first employment. When comparing young teachers (less than 35 years old) with the total teacher population, a small positive trend can be observed at the EU level (plus 2.2 percentage points). However, in eight education systems ⁽¹⁰⁾, young teachers are less likely to have participated in induction activities compared to the whole teacher population. This points to the possible existence of some obstacles to participation in induction (e.g. in Spain and Italy induction being available only to teachers in a permanent position).

The top-level regulations on induction seem to contribute to teachers' participation in induction. In countries where induction for newly qualified teachers is compulsory, 47.2 % of lower secondary teachers participated in induction during their first employment, while this ratio was significantly lower (30.7 %) in the remaining countries.

Induction can be designed in different ways and contain various activities. Mentoring and professional development activities are the two most widespread compulsory elements of structured induction. Although a reduced teaching/working load seems to be particularly helpful during induction, 10 education systems ⁽¹¹⁾ regulate it. Team teaching with more experienced teachers is rarely compulsory.

Evaluating novice teachers at the end of the induction period is a widespread approach across Europe. It aims at confirming employment when induction occurs during a probationary period ⁽¹²⁾ or contributes to certify the teaching qualification when induction is part of the qualification route ⁽¹³⁾. In Lithuania, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, the only purpose of teachers' appraisal at the end of induction is to provide feedback.

Continuing professional development (CPD)

Shared European objectives on education emphasise that teachers need to engage in CPD for good quality teaching and learning. Top-level authorities in almost all European countries consider CPD to be a teacher's professional duty or one of their statutory obligations. Accordingly, TALIS 2018 survey data reveals that a high proportion of lower secondary teachers in Europe engage in CPD activities. In EU countries, 92.5 % of lower secondary teachers had attended at least one type of professional development activity in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future stress that it is important for teachers to participate in 'various training models, including face-to-face, virtual, blended and work-based learning' ⁽¹⁴⁾. The analysis therefore focused on teachers' participation in varied CPD activities.

TALIS 2018 data shows that in the EU, on average, teachers attended three to four different types of professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey. Before COVID-19 pandemic,

⁽¹⁰⁾ Czechia, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Slovakia.

⁽¹¹⁾ Germany, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) and Norway.

⁽¹²⁾ The Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

⁽¹³⁾ Germany, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 11.

teachers usually attended a course/seminar in person, read professional literature or participated in an education conference. There is a considerable variation between countries. Teachers in the Baltic countries attended five to six different types of training in the 12 months prior to the survey. By contrast, teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France participated in two or three different types of training.

The data reveals that some top-level regulations might impact teachers' participation in CPD. Teachers in countries that allocate a certain amount of time for CPD tend to participate in more varied types of CPD. Currently, more than half of the European countries grant some CPD time for each teacher, either as mandatory to take or as an entitlement. CPD is mandatory for all teachers in lower secondary education in 18 education systems ⁽¹⁵⁾. Usually, approximately 18 hours of CPD per year are mandatory. Every teacher is entitled to take a certain amount of time for CPD in eight education systems ⁽¹⁶⁾. The most common practice is to grant approximately five working days for CPD per year.

Another way to allocate time for CPD is to allow paid study leave. This is especially important for training activities that are teacher-initiated and take place outside the school. The data shows that most European countries offer teachers the possibility of taking paid study leave. Short periods of paid study leave (up to one week) are the most common. However, TALIS 2018 data seems to indicate that the length of the leave might be important. Teachers who had the possibility of taking paid study leave for a week or longer seemed to perceive lower levels of conflict between CPD and their work schedule. This was not the case when the period of study leave was shorter.

CPD planning at school level is essential in order to balance individual and organisational learning needs and to establish priorities. In the majority of European education systems, it is compulsory for schools to develop a CPD plan (usually annually). TALIS 2018 data reveals that teachers participated in more varied CPD in those countries where schools are required to have a CPD plan. However, CPD planning is not the most frequent activity of lower secondary school principals. Data indicates that, in the EU, approximately 56.2 % of lower secondary teachers had principals who worked 'often' or 'very often' on a professional development plan for their school during the 12 months prior to the survey. This proportion was significantly higher (65.6 %) in those countries where schools are required to have a CPD plan.

CPD activities may also need coordination and planning at top-level. Many European countries have a body or agency that is responsible for providing support for lower secondary teachers in the area of CPD. Such an organisation usually provides information about available (or accredited) CPD programmes or maintains searchable digital information platforms. Often, the CPD agency organises and implements CPD activities and provides methodological support.

Appraisal

Most European countries have a clear set of rules that guide teacher appraisal, evaluation and feedback. Teacher appraisal is regulated by top-level authorities in the vast majority of European education systems, with a set frequency for appraisals in 20 of them. In the remaining education systems ⁽¹⁷⁾, teacher appraisal is not regulated by top-level authorities and schools or local authorities have full autonomy in the matter.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Belgium (French Community), Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Belgium (French Community), Czechia, Croatia, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Bulgaria, Denmark, Ireland, Greece, the Netherlands, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland, Norway and Turkey.

The TALIS 2018 survey illustrates that teacher appraisal is a common practice in European countries. However, there are some geographic disparities in Europe regarding the frequency of teacher appraisal. Teacher appraisal is carried out most often in the three Baltic countries, several eastern countries, the United Kingdom (England), Sweden and Turkey, where 90 % or more of teachers work in schools in which they are appraised at least every year. In contrast, in the western and southern parts of Europe, as well as in Finland, teachers are less often appraised.

In almost all countries where teacher appraisal is regulated, the process is intended to provide feedback on performance in order to help teachers to improve. The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' identify feedback to teachers as a key element in supporting improvements in teachers' work ⁽¹⁸⁾. TALIS data suggests that in the countries with a national framework for teacher appraisal, more teachers consider the feedback they receive to be helpful, compared to teachers in countries where there is no such framework. Moreover, in the countries which have a national framework, the evaluators tend to provide teachers with feedback more systematically following the appraisal process, compared to countries without national regulations on appraisal. Nevertheless, there are some exceptions to these trends. Indeed, in Belgium (French Community), France, Portugal and Sweden, the number of teachers working in schools where post-appraisal discussions always take place, and who find feedback useful for improving their teaching practices, are significantly below the EU level. This seems to suggest that teacher appraisal does not always fulfil its formative role, despite this being identified in national regulations as one of its objectives.

In addition to providing teachers with feedback, teacher appraisal is also often used to identify good performance, which can subsequently lead to the award of bonuses, salary progression or promotion. The combination of formative and summative goals results in systems of varying complexity. While in some countries there is a single process for teacher appraisal carried out internally at the school (e.g. in Czechia, Malta or Sweden), in others specific appraisal processes for promotion or financial rewards are carried out. Indeed, in a number of eastern and Balkan countries as well as in Portugal and Liechtenstein, when teacher appraisal relates to promotion, salary increase or bonuses, different or more evaluators are involved than for regular appraisals carried out for formative purposes. Beyond the varied existing patterns of evaluators, it is worth mentioning that the school head is involved in almost all countries where the process of teacher appraisal is regulated, whether alone or with other evaluators such as school leaders or inspectors. TALIS 2018 data confirms that teacher appraisal is conducted most of the time by the school head.

TALIS 2018 data shows that overall regulations can only partially account for the methods actually used across Europe to appraise teachers. According to legislation and other official documents, classroom observation and interviews or dialogue discussions between the teacher and the appraiser(s) are the two most common methods used to carry out teacher appraisal. In some countries, this practice is accompanied by teacher self-evaluation. The use of other methods such as student outcomes as well as parent and student surveys to appraise teachers is rarely regulated at top-level. However, TALIS 2018 data shows that the use of students' external results and school-based results is very widespread. Across the EU, more than 90 % of teachers work in schools where such information is used for teacher appraisal. Self-assessment of teachers' work, although emphasised as a key element of the process when the purpose is to improve quality, is the least common method for teacher appraisal. This was reported by principals, as well as by teachers in relation to the type of information used to provide them with feedback. Nevertheless, the data reveals that the use of self-assessments for teacher appraisal was significantly higher in the countries where this method is mandatory according to top-level regulations.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

Transnational mobility

There is agreement at European level that transnational mobility contributes to the development of a wide range of competences among teachers, and should be encouraged. However, only a minority of teachers in Europe have been abroad for professional purposes. In 2018, 40.9 % of teachers in the EU had been mobile at least once as a student, as a teacher, or both. Teacher mobility is above the EU level in the Nordic and Baltic countries, Czechia, Cyprus, Spain, the Netherlands and Slovenia. From 2013 to 2018, teacher transnational mobility has increased in all 17 European countries for which data is available. It is worth mentioning that any trends in teacher mobility in the coming years will have to be analysed in the light of the disruption that COVID-19 has caused to transnational mobility programmes and travel in Europe.

As was already the case in 2013, ‘accompanying visiting students’, ‘language learning’ and ‘studying, as part of my teacher education’ are the three most common reasons for going abroad, each reported by around half of mobile teachers in 2018. Only 21.6 % stated that they travelled abroad to learn other subjects. Unfortunately, TALIS 2018 data does not explore other forms of mobility that also focus on the professional development dimension, such as training courses, seminars/conferences or job-shadowing.

The transnational mobility of teachers varies according to the subject taught. As in 2013, modern foreign language teachers are the most transnationally mobile, compared to teachers of four other main subjects. In 2018, about 70 % of foreign language teachers had been abroad during ITE and/or as a teacher. However, this means that almost 30 % of modern foreign language teachers surveyed in the EU have never been on a transnational mobility programme, which could have negative implications for the quality of foreign language teaching. Compared to foreign language teachers, the transnational mobility of other subject teachers is substantially lower, ranging from about 40 % for reading and social studies teachers, to no more than 30 % for mathematics teachers. Iceland is a marked exception to this pattern, where all subject teachers reported levels of mobility above 70 %.

The TALIS survey (2018) considers the transnational mobility of teachers during two specific periods: mobility during initial teacher education and mobility as a practising teacher. Travelling abroad when studying or when working as a teacher is described as a ‘powerful learning experience’ ⁽¹⁹⁾, which may have benefits for teachers’ linguistic, intercultural or didactical competences. However, transnational mobility is not very widespread among student teachers. In 2018, about one fifth of teachers (20.9 %) in the EU reported they went abroad during their studies, with substantial variations across countries. As far as in-service teachers are concerned, approximately one third (32.9 %) of teachers in the EU reported having had a transnational mobility experience, again with variations across countries. Transnational mobility of in-service teachers is below the EU level in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Croatia, Italy, Malta, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey.

There is a need to remove barriers to teacher transnational mobility, as stated in the recent Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future. As highlighted by other reports, the main obstacles for student teacher mobility include financial and recognition issues (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019c and 2020b). For practising teachers, obstacles include family responsibilities and difficulties in arranging substitute teachers (European Commission, 2012). Moreover, lack of language skills is a cross-cutting issue ⁽²⁰⁾. However, reinforcing student teacher mobility may also improve the transnational mobility of practising teachers. Indeed, data shows that

⁽¹⁹⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 13.

⁽²⁰⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 11.

student teachers who had the chance to spend a study period in another country are more likely to seize opportunities for going abroad for professional purposes later in life.

National funding schemes to support teachers who wish to spend some time abroad for professional development purposes exist in fewer than half of European countries, and mainly in Western and Northern Europe. These funding schemes may apply to all teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, or they may target foreign language teachers specifically. The data seems to indicate that participation in transnational mobility is higher in countries where top-level authorities organise top-level schemes to support teachers' professional stays abroad. However, EU programmes remain the main funding scheme.

Teachers' well-being at work

The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' ⁽²¹⁾ consider teachers' well-being a key factor for enhancing the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

At EU level, almost 50 % of teachers report experiencing 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of stress at work. In Hungary, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England), the share of teachers experiencing 'a lot' of stress at work is double the EU level. When asked about stress factors, teachers mostly point to the burden of administrative tasks, excessive marking, being held responsible for students' achievements and keeping up with changing requirements from authorities. Policies on accountability and administrative requirements, as well as the pace and manner of reforms in education could, therefore, play a role in teachers' experience of stress at work.

Several systemic and contextual factors seem to be related to teachers' stress levels. Teachers who work longer hours reported higher levels of stress, as did teachers with more experience and teachers employed on permanent contracts.

In addition, the findings indicate that teachers report higher levels of stress if they are working in classrooms they consider disruptive, or when they feel less self-confident about managing student behaviour or in motivating students. On the other hand, teachers report lower levels of stress when they consider their school environment to be collaborative and when they believe they have autonomy in their job.

Finally, teachers working in education systems where appraisal is a pre-condition for career progression report higher levels of stress, while teachers working in systems where CPD is a pre-condition for career progression report lower levels of stress.

These results seem to point to different factors that could be related to teachers' experience of stress at work, confirming several of the findings that other scholars have investigated. At systemic level, authorities could analyse the way policies on accountability of teachers translate into teachers' workload, pressure and lower levels of well-being. Similarly, the role, weight and dynamics of appraisal and CPD for career progression should be further analysed considering the relation that these have to levels of perceived stress. Authorities could focus on policies that enhance teachers' social competences, enable them to develop a collaborative culture within schools, and improve self-confidence in their professional relations with peers and students. Such actions could aim to develop support structures, ITE and CPD programmes that can play a role both at school and teacher level.

⁽²¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

INTRODUCTION

Policy context

Teachers are a vital driving force for the learning process of students in every education system. The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽¹⁾ highlight that teachers substantially influence learners' achievements. They have a crucial role to play in supporting young people to develop knowledge, skills and values and reach their full potential both as students and as future citizens. Having quality teachers is one of the cornerstones of a successful education system in which students from different backgrounds can feel inspired and motivated, and can adapt to a rapidly changing world. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic and the rapid transition from face-to-face to distance learning have further underlined the important role of teachers in providing all students with equal access to quality learning ⁽²⁾. According to the Communication from the European Commission on achieving the European Education Area by 2025 ⁽³⁾, 'teachers, trainers and educational staff are at the heart of education [...] and they play the most important role in making education a fruitful experience for all learners'.

The teaching profession has been going through a vocational crisis for some years now, attracting fewer young people and losing others who have been trained to become teachers. Many European education systems are now suffering from shortages of teachers. This can significantly hinder the delivery of quality teaching and learning. Literature has examined the growing concern regarding teacher shortages across Europe (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018; Santiago, 2002) and beyond (Darling-Hammond & Podolsky, 2019; Ingersoll, 2001; Watt & Richardson, 2008). At the same time, together with the constant social, demographic, cultural, economic, scientific, environmental and technological changes, 'the world of education is also changing, and so is the occupation of teachers and trainers, with increasing demands, responsibilities and expectations put before them' ⁽⁴⁾.

National and European policy makers have worked together to identify the challenges that make the teaching profession less attractive, while, at the same time, looking for solutions to mitigate the impact of shortages on education systems and preserving high quality teaching standards. The latest Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers ⁽⁵⁾ and the Communication from the European Commission on school development and excellent teaching ⁽⁶⁾ point to different areas that would benefit from intervention at national and European levels. Among them are initial teacher education (ITE), continuing professional development (CPD), working conditions, career prospects, and the well-being of teachers.

While systems suffer from teacher shortages, the path towards employment as a fully qualified teacher can prove to be a lengthy and rigid process (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). Countries are looking at developing alternative pathways to a teaching qualification, in order to attract professionals from other subject areas, as well as people that want to embrace the teaching profession later in their working life ⁽⁷⁾. Moreover, the Council conclusions emphasise how challenging

⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

⁽²⁾ Council conclusions of 16 June 2020 on countering the COVID-19 crisis in education and training, OJ C 212, 26.6.2020.

⁽³⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions 'on achieving the European Education Area by 2025'. 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final, p. 9.

⁽⁴⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/11.

⁽⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

⁽⁶⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. 'School development and excellent teaching for a great start in life'. SWD(2017) 165 final. COM(2017) 248 final.

⁽⁷⁾ Ibid., p. 8.

the work can be for novice teachers and calls for ‘providing them with additional guidance and mentoring, to facilitate their career start and help them cope with the specific needs they are facing’ ⁽⁸⁾.

Working conditions for teachers are not always competitive on the job market. Evidence from the ‘Education and Training Monitor’ (European Commission, 2019, pp. 39-40), for example, suggests that teachers often earn less than other tertiary-educated employees and this may influence the recruitment and retention of teachers. Moreover, workload and expectations increase. Teachers find themselves having to fulfil ‘ever-more-demanding roles, responsibilities and expectations of learners, institution leaders, policy makers, parents and communities’ ⁽⁹⁾. Besides teaching, they often have to deal with increasing administrative tasks, participate in the management of the school, provide support and guidance to learners, plan and find time for peer collaboration, while continuously developing and maintaining the quality of their teaching and of the learners’ learning outcomes ⁽¹⁰⁾. Last but not least, the COVID-19 pandemic has recently put unprecedented pressure on teachers to adapt quickly to the new digital working environment, requiring increased workload from some and affecting their work-life balance ⁽¹¹⁾.

In terms of career prospects, multiple paths for career progression can increase teachers’ motivation to access and remain in the profession and thus, the attractiveness of the job ⁽¹²⁾. The ET 2020 Working Group on Schools calls for a change of perspective, shifting from the view of teaching as an isolated, confined and one-dimensional profession, to teaching as a role interconnected with the larger family of school education professions that allows each individual to evolve towards multiple, diversified and enriching career paths (European Commission, 2020).

CPD is a vital precondition both for quality teaching and teachers’ evolution as professionals and therefore participation should be encouraged and supported ⁽¹³⁾. Highly competent teachers who can ‘benefit from a range of support and professional development opportunities’ is one of the core objectives of the European Education Area ⁽¹⁴⁾.

Similarly, the role of transnational mobility as a professional development instrument, as well as the need to ‘remove persisting obstacles with a view to increasing participation rates’ are particularly stressed within the conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽¹⁵⁾. The Communication from the European Commission on achieving the European Education Area by 2025 ⁽¹⁶⁾ also underlines the obstacles that educators and learners have to face ‘when they embark upon transnational mobility experiences’ and that such experiences are ‘strong drivers for enhancing the quality of education’.

There is need for more evidence in these decisive areas in order to better shape policies. This report analyses some of the key aspects of teachers’ professional continuum, including how candidates are trained to become teachers, develop their skills and progress throughout their career. It is intended to provide evidence that can guide policy making in these critical areas and contribute to addressing current and future challenges.

⁽⁸⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/15.

⁽⁹⁾ Ibid., C 193/12.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Ibid., C 193/12.

⁽¹¹⁾ OJ C 212, 26.6.2020.

⁽¹²⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/16.

⁽¹³⁾ Ibid., C 193/15.

⁽¹⁴⁾ 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final, p. 9.

⁽¹⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/17.

⁽¹⁶⁾ 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final, p. 6.

Content and structure of the report

The present report examines the key policy issues that affect teachers' professional life throughout their career.

Chapter 1 analyses aspects of the teaching profession related to its attractiveness as a career choice. The first section looks into the types of challenges that education systems are facing in terms of recruitment and retention of teachers. The second section analyses teachers' working conditions, notably employment status and contracts, working hours, salaries and retirement age. The third section explores some of the career options available to teachers in terms of development, progression and diversity of roles.

Chapter 2 discusses how ITE for lower secondary teachers is organised. It provides information on the minimum duration of mainstream ITE and the qualification level it leads to. Then, it looks into the core elements of ITE programmes with a particular focus on professional training and in-school placement. The second part of Chapter 2 analyses the availability, status, duration and selected elements of induction programmes for novice teachers. It also looks at teachers' appraisal at the end of the induction period and its main purposes.

Chapter 3 focuses on how teachers' participation in continuing professional development (CPD) may be reinforced through top-level policy frameworks. The chapter starts with a short overview of teacher participation in various types and topics of CPD. It then describes the status of CPD across Europe, highlighting countries where certain amount of CPD is compulsory or a right for all teachers. The provision of paid study leave as well as the requirement for a CPD plan in every school are explored. The chapter concludes by showing which countries have an agency or a coordinating body dedicated to CPD of lower secondary teachers.

Chapter 4 analyses how the appraisal of in-service teachers operates in Europe. The first section refers to the top-level regulations and looks into how often teachers are appraised. The second section analyses the main aims of teacher appraisal. The third section identifies who is responsible for evaluating individual teachers. The last section describes the methods and instruments which are used for teacher appraisal.

Chapter 5 provides information on the participation of lower secondary teachers (as prospective teachers during ITE or as practising teachers) in the transnational mobility for professional purposes. It provides a comparison of the transnational mobility rates with TALIS data 2013 and TALIS data 2018. It examines the main reasons that teachers go abroad for professional purposes, as well as the influence of the subject(s) taught on mobility rates, and existing mobility schemes at EU level or those organised by national or regional authorities.

Finally, Chapter 6 examines the well-being of teachers at work. The first section looks into stress levels as reported by teachers in TALIS 2018. The following section analyses the sources of stress teachers consider affecting them most, while the third section considers systemic and contextual elements that may influence the perception of stress at work.

The report is supplemented by two Annexes which provide data on the following themes:

Annex I:

- I.1: Teacher career structures and conditions for career progression;
- I.2: Alternative pathways to qualification as a teacher;
- I.3: Name(s) and website(s) of national bodies/agencies with responsibilities in supporting lower secondary teachers' CPD;
- I.4: Type of evaluators involved in teacher appraisal in lower secondary education;
- I.5: Name(s), target population, destination countries and mobility duration of centrally funded schemes promoting transnational mobility of lower secondary teachers.

Annex II gathers all the quantitative data analysed and is organised by chapter.

A methodological note briefly describes the statistical methods used to derive results. This aims to give some essential pointers to the reader regarding some methodological approaches and facilitate the interpretation of the results.

A Glossary defining the specific terms used can be found at the end of the report.

Coverage of the report and sources of information

This report analyses the professional lives of lower secondary teachers (ISCED 2) across Europe. Two main data sources are used: (1) the Eurydice data on education policies and (2) survey data on teacher reported practices and attitudes. In addition, the indicator on teachers' age is based on Eurostat data.

The Eurydice information on education policies has been collected through a questionnaire completed by national experts and/or the national representative of the Eurydice Network. The primary sources of the Eurydice information always refer to regulations/legislation and official guidance issued by top-level education authorities, unless otherwise stated.

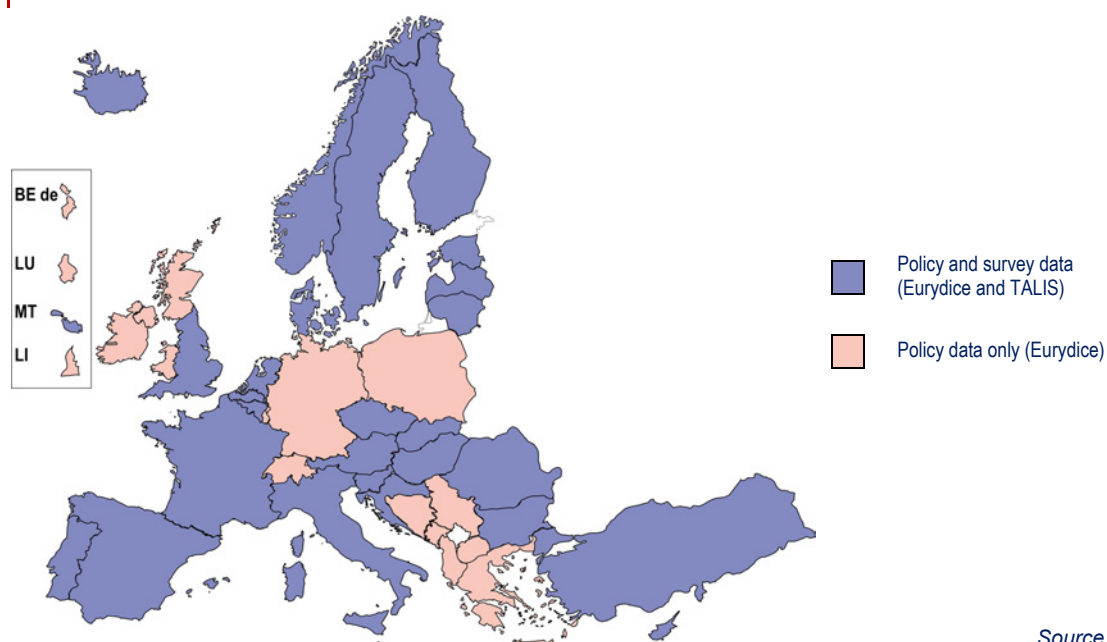
The information on education policies is complemented with the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) data. While the former is used to analyse the policy and systemic context in which teachers learn, work, and progress, the latter gives a voice to teachers themselves as well as to school heads.

The reference year for the Eurydice data is 2019/20, while the reference year for the TALIS data is 2018. When relating TALIS 2018 data to Eurydice policy and systemic context, changes in legislation between 2018 and 2019/20 have been highlighted in the analysis.

The Eurydice data on education policies covers all 27 EU Member States, as well as the United Kingdom, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Norway, Serbia and Turkey. Data from TALIS 2018 includes 22 EU Member States ⁽¹⁷⁾ as well as the United Kingdom (England), Iceland, Norway and Turkey. Figure 1 shows the countries covered in the analysis and the data available for each education system.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Sweden.

Figure 1: Countries covered in the analysis, 2018/20



Source: Eurydice.

The Eurydice data is restricted to public-sector schools with the exception of Belgium, Ireland, and the Netherlands. In these countries, government-dependent private institutions (see the Glossary) account for a significant share of school enrolments and follow the same rules as public schools. The TALIS data, used in this report, includes responses given by teachers working in public schools, government-dependent private institutions, and private independent institutions. The impact of the latter two is overall small, although it can be more important in some countries and for specific age groups, and therefore, affect the reading of statistical analysis. The methodological note provides further information on this aspect.

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An ‘Acknowledgments’ section at the end of the report lists all those who have contributed to it.

CHAPTER 1: THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

School education cannot be imagined without its teachers. They are at the heart of pupils' learning. Teachers support pupils in their development, facilitating the achievement of knowledge and competences key to their future life as individuals. They also transmit social skills, values and behaviours that allow young people to be active citizens of our societies. Teachers also play an important role in stimulating or hampering students' motivation and inspiration. As the Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽¹⁾ emphasise, 'teachers and trainers have the responsibility to facilitate learners' acquisition of key competences and professional skills' and 'to foster their social responsibility and civic engagement, to convey human values, as well as to support their personal growth and wellbeing'. Although the quality of teachers is not the only factor that makes an education system successful, this goal cannot be achieved without them.

Since some years now, teaching has been going through a vocational crisis, attracting fewer young people and losing many of those trained to become teachers. In some European countries, schools are struggling to recruit teachers in certain subjects to the point that their capacity to deliver on the curriculum can be hindered.

There are numerous reasons why teaching is a less attractive job today than it was decades ago. The perceived value and status of the teaching profession is low in many European countries (European Commission, 2019; OECD, 2020). Moreover, as the Council of the European Union points out, the constant social, demographic, cultural, economic, scientific, environmental and technological changes are affecting the world of education and training. In this context, teachers and trainers find themselves with increasing demands, responsibilities and expectations and these have an effect on the competences required, but also on their wellbeing and on the attractiveness of the teaching profession overall ⁽²⁾.

This chapter analyses the aspects of the teaching profession that may enhance and restore its attractiveness as a career choice. Firstly, based on reporting from education systems (Eurydice data), the chapter looks into the types of challenges that education systems face when recruiting and employing teachers. It also presents some of the policies that countries have or are developing to face such challenges. Secondly, the chapter analyses the working conditions of lower secondary teachers. It provides information on employment status and contracts, working hours, salaries and retirement age. Regulations that govern working conditions in each education system are analysed in conjunction with teachers' reporting on the conditions in which they work (TALIS 2018 data). This highlights the areas of tension between regulations and policies on the one hand and teachers' perceptions and practices on the other hand. Thirdly, using Eurydice data from top-level authority regulations, the chapter explores some of the career options available to teachers in terms of development, progression and diversity of roles.

The chapter concludes with a discussion on the main findings from the analysis and the policy implications that these may have. Data shows that the vocational crisis of teaching is translating into a general shortage of professionals. In some countries, this phenomenon is exacerbated by unbalances in their distribution across subjects and geographical areas, an ageing teacher population, low rates of enrolments in initial teacher education (ITE) and high levels of teacher attrition. In response, many countries are trying to develop policies to improve working conditions and career prospects.

However, as far as working conditions are concerned, data indicates that young teachers are often employed on fixed-term contracts. Moreover, at EU level, teachers dedicate less than half of their

⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future (OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. C 193/12).
⁽²⁾ Ibid.

working time to teaching, with other tasks and responsibilities taking a good share. Finally, survey data reveals that very high percentages of teachers are not satisfied with their salaries.

In terms of career paths, teachers have some opportunities to diversify their job and evolve professionally. However, some career models lack formal recognition processes and automatic compensation mechanisms. In other cases, the career structure evolves along the lines of one predetermined function (e.g. management), failing to meet the diversity of interests and expertise that teachers may have.

1.1. The vocational crisis of teaching: main challenges for governments

Across Europe, many education systems are facing a vocational crisis of the teaching profession. This translates into a number of challenges for education authorities, as they struggle to provide a qualified, modern and valued workforce. The demand and supply chain of teachers appears to be broken at several points with countries suffering from shortages and, at times, oversupply of teachers.

This section explores the main challenges the responsible authorities for education are confronted with in recruiting and keeping teachers in the profession. It analyses the extent to which countries are confronted with shortages and oversupply of teachers, the ageing of the teacher population and teachers leaving the profession. It also looks at which countries report difficulties in enrolling and retaining student teachers. Given the growing shortage of teachers across Europe, the section also illustrates, where relevant, some of the policy responses that countries are developing in order to manage an adequate supply of teachers.

1.1.1. Shortages and oversupply of teachers

The following paragraphs analyse the extent to which education systems report being affected by teacher shortages and/or oversupply.

Shortages of teachers is not a new problem, but a persisting one that appears to have worsened in recent years (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond and Carver-Thomas, 2019). Figure 1.1 provides an overview of which education systems report teacher shortages. The shortage of teachers affects 35 ⁽³⁾ education systems across Europe (27 report only shortages and eight more both shortages and oversupply). Shortages can be particularly acute in specific subjects, such as science, technology, engineering and mathematics and foreign languages. It can also affect specific geographical areas due to their remoteness, the socioeconomic disadvantage of some rural areas, the high costs of living in some urban areas or their conflictive social environment. Many countries report both types of shortages as these can be interlinked, i.e. shortages in some subjects affecting only specific areas of the country.

To tackle teacher shortages, some education systems offer incentives to attract teachers to specific geographical areas on the one hand, and to attract students to study specific subjects on the other hand.

In **Bulgaria**, the Ministry of Education and Science is recruiting teachers in mathematics, physics and astronomy, computer science and information technology to teach in specific regions. Those employed receive an increased salary as well as transport and rental allowances. In addition, the government plans to increase the salaries of teachers working in remote areas or with children from vulnerable groups ⁽⁴⁾.

⁽³⁾ Belgium (all communities), Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland), Albania, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Norway and Serbia.

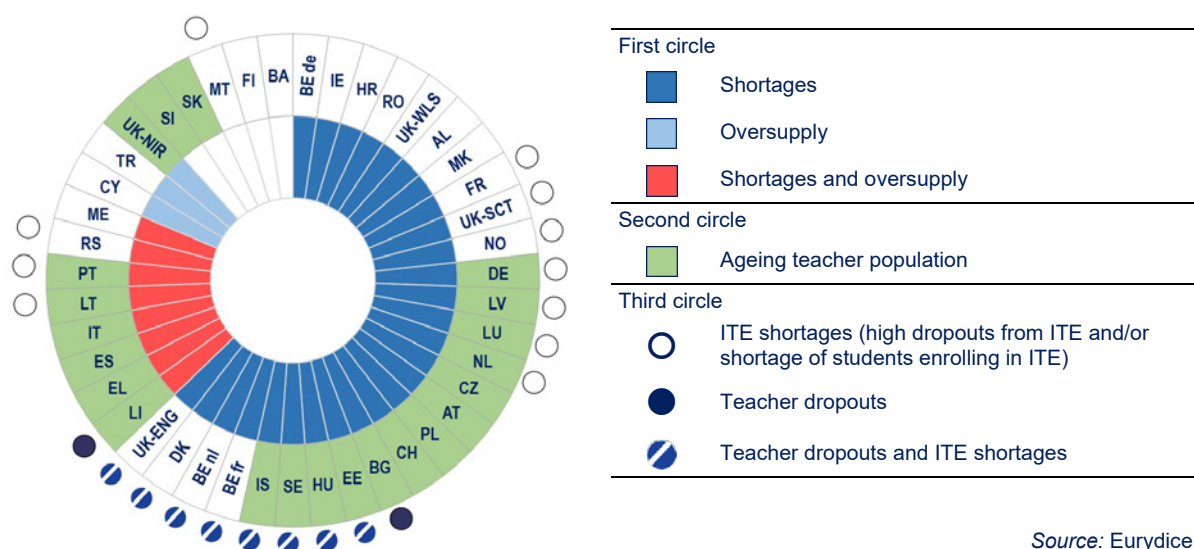
⁽⁴⁾ <https://www.lex.bg/bg/laws/ldoc/2137177162> [Accessed 4 November 2020].
<https://www.mon.bg/bg/100828> [Accessed 4 November 2020].

In **Serbia**, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development is tackling the shortage of teachers in some subjects by supporting, through scholarships, students enrolled in ITE programmes related to such subjects ⁽⁵⁾.

Opposed to teacher shortages is oversupply. As shown in Figure 1.1, in three education systems (Cyprus, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), and Turkey), oversupply is the main challenge. In other words, there are too many qualified teachers in relation to the available posts. This can be due to different reasons, such as the lack of planning in ITE or lower levels of recruitment due to reduced public sector spending.

In **Turkey**, since 2019, 460 000 newly qualified teachers have been waiting for their appointment in state schools. Many new faculties of education have been established over the last two decades. The graduates of the faculties of education, literature and science are given a teaching certificate called the 'Pedagogic Training Certificate Program' enabling them to apply for teaching positions in the Ministry of National Education. Every year, 100 000 people graduate from these faculties.

Figure 1.1: Main challenges in teacher demand and supply in lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The first circle of the graph relates to the categories 'Shortages', 'Oversupply' and the combination of these two. The second circle relates to the category 'Ageing teacher population'. The dots on the third circle relate to the categories 'ITE shortages' and/or 'Teacher dropouts'. Education systems without a colour corresponding to the related category(s) mean that they do not report such challenge(s). Countries are grouped by type of challenge(s) starting from the first circle, and then sorted in protocol order.

Although shortages and oversupply seem to be contradictory, they coexist in eight countries (Spain, Italy, Greece, Lithuania, Portugal, Liechtenstein, Montenegro and Serbia).

In **Greece**, a general oversupply of available teachers due to the freeze in recruitment of permanent teaching staff coexists with shortages in some geographical areas, i.e. remote regions and low-inhabited islands.

In **Portugal**, there is a lack of teachers in specific subjects and regions on the one hand, and a general oversupply of teachers in other subjects and regions. A government programme is being launched to improve forward planning and to introduce incentives to attract students in ITE for subjects in shortage, and more teachers to areas of the country where they are lacking ⁽⁶⁾.

Five education systems do not report issues related to shortages and/or oversupply (Malta, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Bosnia and Herzegovina).

⁽⁵⁾ <http://www.mpn.gov.rs/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Konkurs-za-ponovno-objavljivanje.pdf> [Accessed 26 October 2020].

⁽⁶⁾ <https://www.portugal.gov.pt/download-ficheiros/ficheiro.aspx?v=%3d%3dBAAAAB%2bLCAAAAAAABACzsDA1AQB5Ja9BAAAAA%3d%3d> [Accessed 30 October 2020].

In order to avoid teacher shortages, in **Malta**, the Ministry for Education together with higher education institutions have taken measures to increase enrolments in ITE. Specifically, they have introduced both full-time and part-time blended ITE courses and subsidised the Master in Teaching and Learning for ITE students ⁽⁷⁾.

In **Finland**, the Ministry of Education published in September 2020 a survey examining the perceptions of the quality of ITE programmes and of the teaching profession among young people planning their higher education studies. The results from the survey show that teacher education is considered to be of high quality and to provide good knowledge and skills, and that teaching is perceived as a valuable job for society. However, the survey also highlights a diminished attractiveness of teacher education due to the perception of deteriorating working conditions for teachers ⁽⁸⁾.

1.1.2. Ageing teachers

The ageing of teachers is considered to be a challenge in more than half of the education systems (see Figure 1.1). The latest Eurostat data (see Figure 1.2) indicates that, at EU level, almost 40 % of lower secondary teachers are 50 years old or above, and less than 20 % are below 35 years old. In light of the recent COVID-19 pandemic, the ageing of teachers adds an additional vulnerability to the education systems as a whole. This can play out both in terms of the relation between age and the probability of being seriously affected, and in terms of the capacity of education systems to shift effectively to digital distance learning. The latter is of course dependent on how well teachers in general, and older teachers in particular, have been trained on digital distance education.

In some countries (Estonia, Greece, Italy, Latvia and Lithuania), more than half of lower secondary teachers will retire in the next 15 years. In Bulgaria, Germany, Hungary, Austria and Portugal, the share of this age group is between 40 % and 50 %.

The combination of an ageing teacher population with current shortages indicates that the challenge of recruiting teachers in specific subjects and/or geographical areas might become more severe in the coming years, especially if the system fails to attract students to ITE. This is the case for one third of European education systems (see Figure 1.1). On the other hand, an ageing teacher population in combination with oversupply could mean that the mechanisms for regenerating the teaching workforce are not functioning properly. The United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), for example, is tackling this issue through easing early retirement of older teachers.

In the **United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)**, the Skills Barometer (2019) ⁽⁹⁾ identifies an oversupply of new qualified teachers due to low growth in public sector spending and lower levels of recruitment. It estimates an oversupply of teachers trained each year, from 2018 to 2028. The 'investing in the teaching workforce' scheme ⁽¹⁰⁾ ran in 2018/2019, allowing teachers in permanent posts aged 55 years and above to apply for premature retirement, which provided job opportunities for recently qualified new teachers.

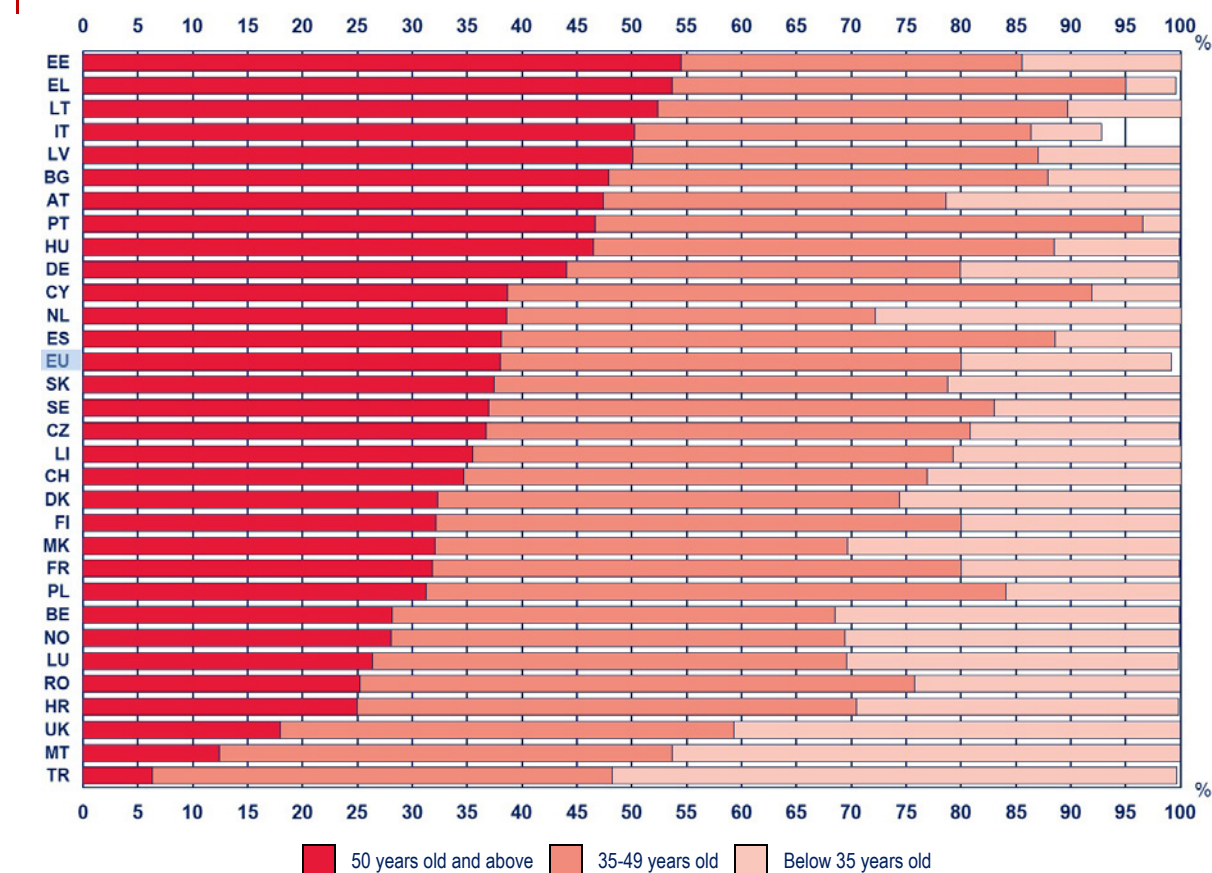
In six countries (Greece, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Portugal and Liechtenstein), the ageing teacher population coexists with both shortages and oversupply (see Figure 1.1.), making the overall picture more complex and calling for a more tailored policy response. With the exception of Liechtenstein, all these countries also have particularly low shares of young teachers (< 12 %, see Figure 1.2).

⁽⁷⁾ [https://education.gov.mt/en/studentsgrants/Documents/Documents_alice/Classification %20of %20Courses2020-2021.pdf](https://education.gov.mt/en/studentsgrants/Documents/Documents_alice/Classification%20of%20Courses2020-2021.pdf) [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁸⁾ http://julkaisut.valtioneuvosto.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/162423/OKM_2020_26.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y [Accessed 19 October 2020].

⁽⁹⁾ <https://www.economy-ni.gov.uk/publications/northern-ireland-skills-barometer-2019-update> [Accessed 26 October 2020].

⁽¹⁰⁾ <https://www.education-ni.gov.uk/articles/investing-teaching-workforce> [Accessed 26 October 2020].

Figure 1.2: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers by age groups, 2018

%	EE	EL	LT	IT	LV	BG	AT	PT	HU	DE	CY	NL	ES	EU-28	SK	SE	CZ	LI
≥ 50	54.5	53.7	52.4	50.3	50.1	47.9	47.4	46.7	46.5	44.1	38.7	38.6	38.1	38.0	37.5	37.0	36.7	35.5
35-49	31.1	41.3	37.3	36.1	36.9	40.0	31.2	49.9	42.0	35.8	53.2	33.6	50.5	42.0	41.3	46.0	44.1	43.8
< 35	14.5	4.6	10.4	6.4	13.0	12.1	21.4	3.4	11.4	19.9	8.1	27.9	11.4	19.2	21.2	17.0	19.1	20.8
	CH	DK	FI	MK	FR	PL	BE	NO	LU	RO	HR	UK	MT	TR	IE	SI	IS	RS
≥ 50	34.7	32.3	32.2	32.1	31.8	31.3	28.2	28.1	26.4	25.2	25.0	18.0	12.4	6.3	:	:	:	:
35-49	42.2	42.1	47.8	37.6	48.2	52.8	40.3	41.3	43.2	50.6	45.5	41.3	41.3	41.9	:	:	:	:
< 35	23.2	25.6	20.0	30.3	19.9	15.9	31.4	30.5	30.2	24.2	29.3	40.7	46.3	51.5	:	:	:	:

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_perd01] [as of April 2020] (see Table 1.1 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The data is arranged in descending order of the teacher age group '50 years old and above'.

EU-28 refers to all members of the European Union at the time of the reference year. It includes the United Kingdom.

EU aggregate: Value based on the available data.

Country-specific notes

Ireland, Slovenia, Iceland and **Serbia**: Data not available.

Italy: Data coverage of 92.8 % of teacher population. For further information, see the quality report for Italy (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/EN/educ_uoe_enr_esqrs_it.htm) attached to the Eurostat UOE statistics metadata file (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/educ_uoe_enr_esms.htm).

1.1.3. Shortages of students in initial teacher education and teacher attrition

Shortages of ITE students and high rates of teachers leaving the profession affect many education systems across Europe. The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers stress that 'there are difficulties related to attracting and retaining high-potential students in initial teacher education, as well as to attracting graduates and retaining practising teachers in the profession' ⁽¹¹⁾.

⁽¹¹⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/13.

Nineteen education systems report shortages in ITE ⁽¹²⁾. This can be both due to high rates of students dropping out of ITE, or to low rates of students enrolling in ITE (see Figure 1.1). This challenge is often combined with the ageing of the teacher population and shortages of teachers, which implies that shortages are set to be long term if action is not taken immediately. In order to oppose this trend, some countries are developing alternative pathways to the teaching qualification (see Chapter 2) or offering flexible ITE courses.

In **Malta**, the Institute for Education has introduced flexible part-time blended ITE courses in order to attract professionals from different backgrounds who wish to move into a teaching career ⁽¹³⁾.

Another common challenge is teachers leaving the profession. Scholars have highlighted the impact of teacher attrition on student learning (Borman and Dowling, 2008) and the financial costs for education systems and schools (Borman and Dowling, 2008; Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond, 2019). Novice teachers are particularly exposed to abandoning the profession (Cooper and Alvarado, 2006; Luekens, Lyter and Fox, 2004), as they may often 'find themselves working in challenging environments, such as education and training institutions with higher rates of learners with socioeconomically disadvantaged or migrant backgrounds' ⁽¹⁴⁾. The Council stresses that 'special attention should be paid to novice teachers, by providing them with additional guidance and mentoring, to facilitate their career start and help them cope with the specific needs they are facing' ⁽¹⁵⁾. Ten education systems ⁽¹⁶⁾ face high dropout rates from the teaching profession, in some cases in combination with shortages and/or an ageing of teachers.

Some education systems are trying to retain teachers by improving working conditions.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, in 2017, the overall rate of secondary teachers (ISCED 2 and 3) leaving the profession was 9.9 % ⁽¹⁷⁾. In 2019, the government published a teacher recruitment and retention strategy. It includes the following measures: review of the pay framework; reduction of teachers' unnecessary workload; provision of additional support to tackle challenging pupil behaviour; introduction of an early career framework; support to schools to improve the availability of part-time and flexible working opportunities; introduction of new professional development qualifications linked to classroom teaching; and reform of teacher training bursaries.

Out of all the education systems analysed in this report, only Finland and Bosnia and Herzegovina report no challenges related to the recruitment and retention of teachers.

1.2. Working conditions

In the Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽¹⁸⁾, working conditions are identified as an essential element to improve the attractiveness and status of the profession. As also seen through the country examples in the first section of this chapter, national policies aiming at making teaching a more appealing career choice often deal with teachers' working conditions, such as contractual arrangements, working hours and salaries. Therefore, identifying tensions in these areas might be helpful to tailor policies that respond to the needs of both teachers and education authorities.

⁽¹²⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish communities), Denmark, Germany, Estonia, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), Iceland, Norway and Serbia.

⁽¹³⁾ <https://instituteforeducation.gov.mt/en/Pages/default.aspx> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽¹⁴⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/13.

⁽¹⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/13.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish communities), Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England), Liechtenstein and Iceland.

⁽¹⁷⁾ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teacher-recruitment-and-retention-strategy> [Accessed 26 October 2020].

⁽¹⁸⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

This section contains several indicators on working conditions. The first three examine employment in terms of status and contracts, while the indicators that follow look into working hours, salaries and the age at which teachers officially retire.

1.2.1. Employment

Fully qualified teachers have three types of employment contracts in Europe with varying degrees of job security and status. Teachers can be employees subject to general employment legislation, employees subject to special employment legislation governing contractual relations in the public sector without being civil servants, or have the status of civil servants. In the latter case, they are employed in accordance with distinct legislation linked to public administration and usually this involves higher job security compared to non-civil servants.

As Figure 1.3 shows, fully qualified teachers are employed as civil servants in 15 education systems ⁽¹⁹⁾, and as non-civil servant public employees in another 12 ⁽²⁰⁾. In 15 education systems ⁽²¹⁾, all fully qualified teachers are employees with contracts subject to general employment legislation. In Luxembourg, the employment status of teachers varies depending on the type of school or the teachers' nationality.

In **Luxembourg**, teachers can be employed under different statuses. This flexibility was introduced in legislation in order to allow schools to employ teachers from non-EU countries to work in the public international schools, particularly within the context of Brexit ⁽²²⁾.

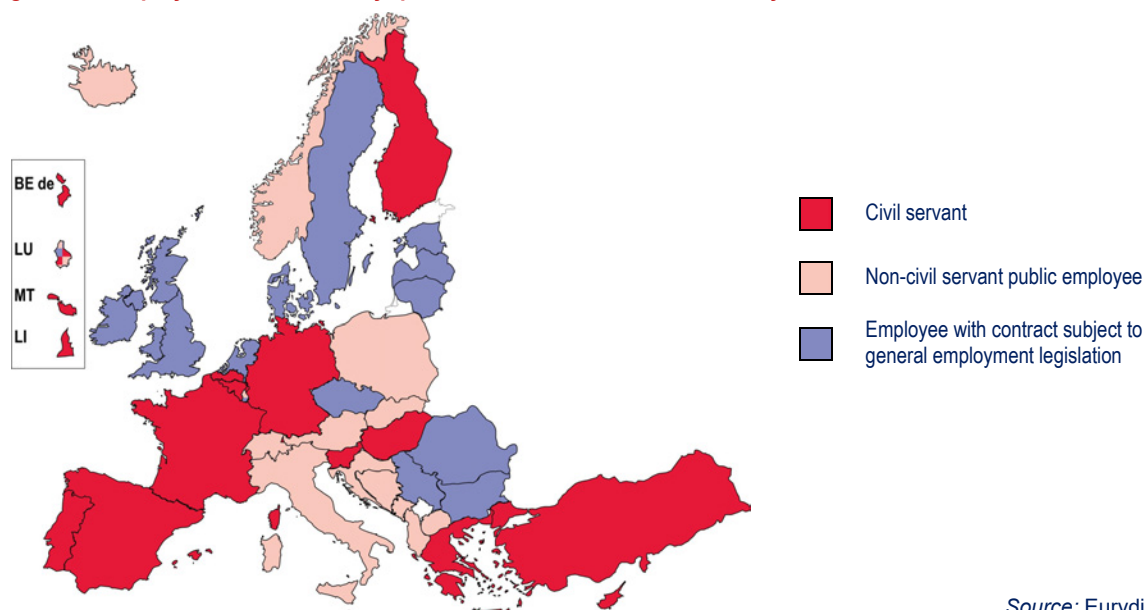
Usually, teachers are employed with contracts of indefinite duration (see Glossary – in some countries these are referred to as permanent contracts). However, the use of temporary contracts is also allowed, although these are normally regulated in terms of the duration and the reasons for which they can be used. For example, teachers can be employed on fixed-term contracts to substitute for other teachers on long leaves (e.g. sick leave or maternity leave) or to cover temporary positions due, for example, to annual fluctuations in the number of pupils registered in a specific school. In some countries, new teachers are employed on a fixed-term contract during their probationary or induction period, or for a few years at the beginning of their career before they receive a contract of indefinite duration. Some countries also report the use of fixed-term contracts to cover positions not yet assigned through the recruitment process of permanent teachers.

⁽¹⁹⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Liechtenstein and Turkey.

⁽²⁰⁾ Croatia, Italy, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Norway.

⁽²¹⁾ Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Romania, Sweden, the United Kingdom (all four jurisdictions) and Serbia.

⁽²²⁾ <http://legilux.public.lu/eli/etat/leg/loi/2019/12/20/a886/jo> [Accessed 11 November 2020].

Figure 1.3: Employment status of fully qualified teachers in lower secondary education, 2019/20

Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: In Berlin, teachers are employed as non-civil servant public employees.

Greece and Portugal: Teachers on fixed-term contracts hold the status of non-civil servant public employees.

Italy: Teachers are public employees with a private contract. These contracts are defined by schools under private law on the basis of a national collective labour bargaining.

Data from TALIS 2018 shows the proportion of teachers employed on permanent or fixed-term contracts, and allows to differentiate the latter in short-term (1 school year or less) and long term (more than 1 school year). Figure 1.4 shows that at EU level, more than 80 % of teachers are employed on a permanent contract. Still, across Europe almost one out of five teachers are employed on fixed-term contracts, and usually on short-term. In some countries, the share of teachers on temporary contracts is well above the EU percentage. In Belgium (French Community), Spain, Italy, Austria, Portugal and Romania, more than 25 % of lower secondary teachers are on fixed-term contracts, with a clear prevalence of short-term ones.

Particularly high percentages of teachers on fixed-term contracts may reveal structural dysfunctions that go beyond the normal management of the profession and the flexibility needed by an education system to govern it.

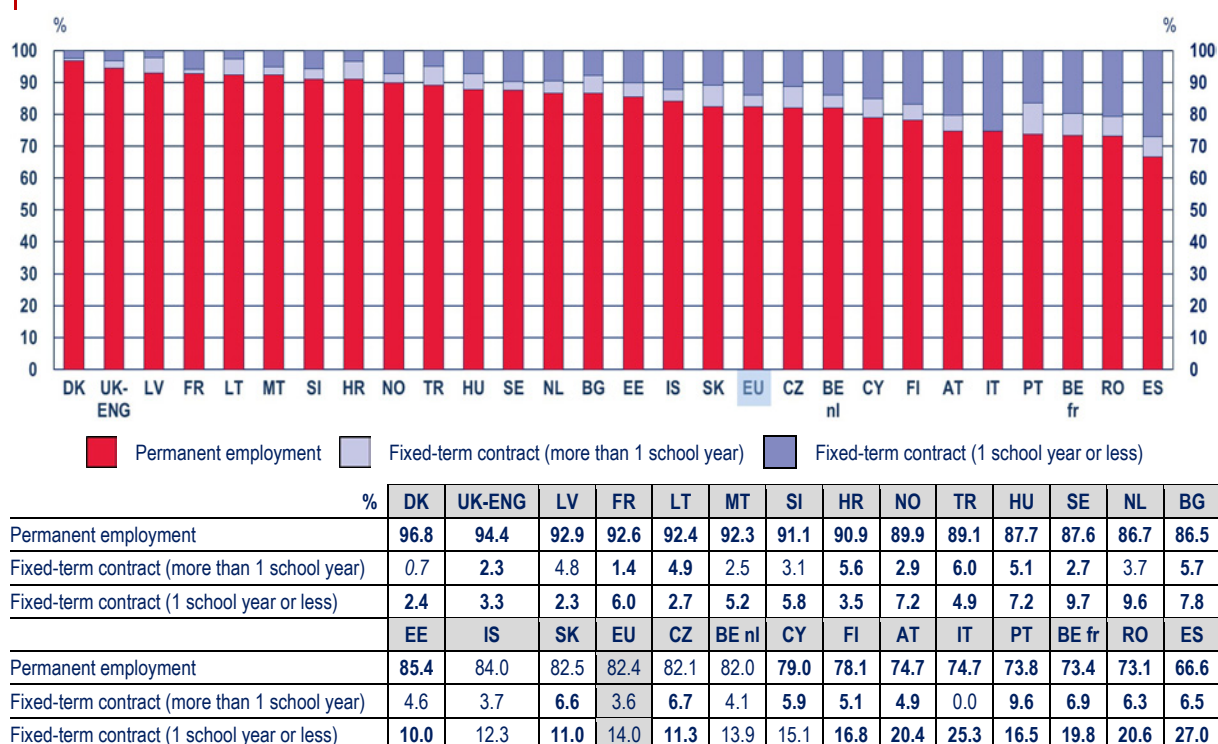
In **Spain**, due to the economic crisis, between 2009 and 2015 only 10 % of the positions left by retired teachers (*tasa de reposición*) could be offered as permanent contracts to new teachers through competitive examinations. Given that the educational provision remained similar, teachers were employed mainly on fixed-term contracts ⁽²³⁾.

In **Italy**, bottlenecks in the recruitment process of fully qualified teachers on permanent positions, also due to limitations to public spending in the past years, have pushed schools in need to employ teachers on short-term contracts.

In **Austria**, teachers at the beginning of their career are usually employed with fixed-term contracts, which normally have a duration of 1 year and cannot be renewed for more than 5 years. Currently, the high number of fixed-term contracts is due to the recruitment of many young teachers called to substitute those reaching the end of their career, a trend that will continue in the coming years given that over 45 % of teachers are currently 50 years old or older.

In **Portugal**, demographic changes, the economic crisis and requirements in the recruitment process of teachers on permanent positions play a role in the high percentages of teachers working on a fixed-term contract. Since 2017 however, the Portuguese government is creating permanent posts for teachers who have at least 3 consecutive years of service ⁽²⁴⁾.

⁽²³⁾ See for example Ley 26/2009, de 23 de diciembre, de Presupuestos Generales del Estado para el año 2010 <https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2009/12/24/pdfs/BOE-A-2009-20765.pdf> [Accessed 11 November 2020].

Figure 1.4: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers on permanent employment or fixed-term contracts, 2018

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 1.2 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The figure is based on teachers' answers to question 9 'What is your employment status as a teacher at this school?'

The data is arranged in descending order of the category 'Permanent employment'.

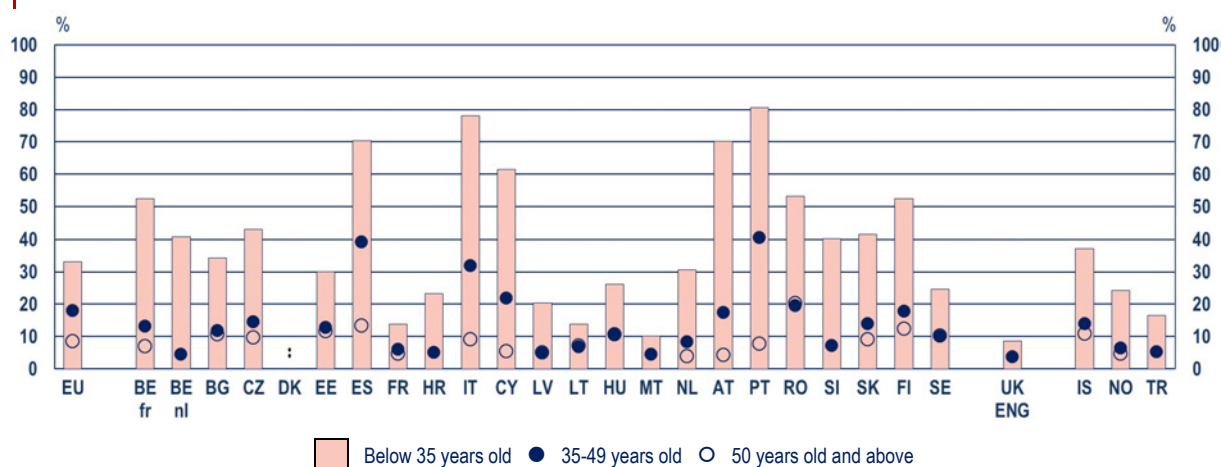
EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant differences from the EU value are indicated in bold.

The OECD (2020, p. 55) stresses that although the use of fixed-term contracts allows some flexibility in teacher supply, teachers working on temporary contracts of less than 1 year tend to report lower levels of self-efficacy. The perception of lower self-efficacy is probably also due to the young age of the teachers who hold fixed-term contracts and have less working experience. The number of young teachers with such contractual arrangements is in fact particularly high in comparison to their older peers. As Figure 1.5 shows, at EU level, one out of three teachers below 35 years old is on a fixed-term contract, a number that drops to less than one out of five in the age group 35-49 and to less than 1 out of 10 in the age group 50 or above. In many countries, very high shares of young teachers have temporary employment contracts. In Italy and Portugal, for example, around 80 % of teachers below 35 years old are on a fixed-term contracts and in Spain and Austria the percentages are very similar. In Belgium (French Community), Cyprus, Romania and Finland, this is the case for more than 50 % of young teachers.

While the share of fixed-term contracts normally drops as teachers get older, in some countries high proportions of teachers in the age group 35-49 are still in temporary employment, for example in Spain (39 %), Italy (32 %) and Portugal (41 %).

⁽²⁴⁾ Article 42, n.º2, from Decree-Law n.º132/2012, 27 June, with the new text of Article 315.º of Law n.º114/2017, of 29 December https://www.dgae.mec.pt/?wpfb_dl=613 and https://www.dgae.mec.pt/?wpfb_dl=34508 [Accessed 28 October 2020].

Figure 1.5: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers on fixed-term contracts by age groups, 2018

%	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT
Below 35	33.1	52.5	40.8	34.3	43.1	:	30.0	70.3	13.9	23.3	78.0	61.5	20.4	13.9
Between 35 and 49	17.9	13.1	4.5	11.7	14.4	:	12.8	39.1	6.0	5.1	31.9	21.8	4.8	6.8
50 or above	8.6	6.9	:	10.6	9.6	:	11.6	13.3	4.6	:	9.0	5.5	4.9	7.1
	HU	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	IS	NO	TR
Below 35	26.1	10.2	30.6	70.2	80.6	53.1	40.2	41.6	52.5	24.6	8.5	37.1	24.3	16.5
Between 35 and 49	10.6	4.5	8.3	17.3	40.6	19.4	7.1	13.9	17.8	10.1	3.7	13.9	6.4	5.3
50 or above	10.7	:	3.9	4.3	7.7	20.3	:	9.0	12.4	10.2	:	10.8	4.6	:

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 1.3 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The figure is based on teachers' answers to question 9 'What is your employment status as a teacher at this school?' with option 2 'Fixed-term contracts for a period of more than 1 school year' and option 3 'Fixed-term contract for a period of 1 school year or less' grouped together and sorted by age groups based on teachers' answers to question 2 'How old are you?'

The data is arranged in protocol order.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant differences from the EU value are indicated in bold.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE nl), Croatia, Malta, Slovenia and United Kingdom (ENG): There are too few or no observations to provide reliable estimates for the age group 50 years old and above.

Denmark: There are too few or no observations to provide reliable estimates for all age groups.

In the context of shortages of teachers, having so many young professionals on fixed-term contracts, and in many cases on short-term ones, can contribute to lowering the attractiveness of the teaching career.

In some education systems, reforms of working conditions are addressing this aspect.

In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, a recent reform has reduced the requirements to obtain a permanent contract. Specifically, fully qualified teachers can now obtain a permanent contract after 2 school years and 580 days of service instead of the 3 school years and 720 days of service previously required ⁽²⁵⁾.

In **Spain**, there are plans to reduce within 2 years the number of staff on fixed-term contracts by 8 % by increasing the number of permanent positions available in public schools ⁽²⁶⁾.

⁽²⁵⁾ <https://data-onderwijs.vlaanderen.be/edulex/document.aspx?docid=15412> [Accessed 3 November 2020].

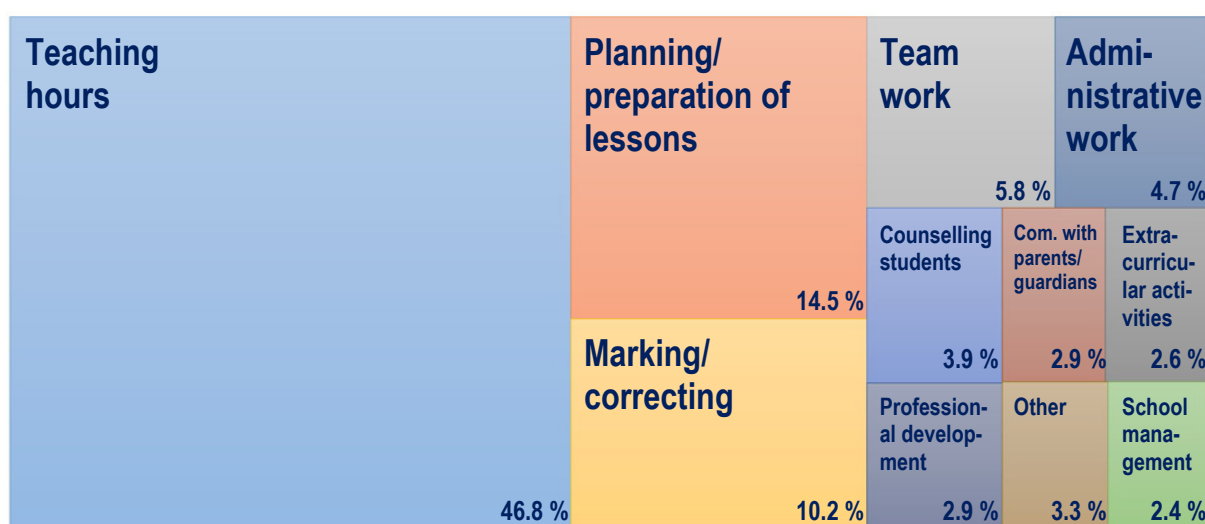
⁽²⁶⁾ Resolución de 22 de marzo de 2018, de la Secretaría de Estado de Función Pública, por la que se publica el II Acuerdo. Gobierno-Sindicatos para la mejora del empleo público y las condiciones de trabajo (BOE 26/3/2018): <https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2018/03/26/pdfs/BOE-A-2018-4222.pdf> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

1.2.2. Working hours

Besides teaching, teachers have to perform many other duties including tasks concerned with administration, organisation and planning, student assessment, extracurricular activities, continuous professional development courses and relations with parents, students and other stakeholders. As the Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽²⁷⁾ recognise, teachers have to deal with ‘ever-more-demanding roles, responsibilities and expectations of learners, institution leaders, policy makers, parents and communities’. Balancing different aspects of their workload, ‘while at the same time continuously developing and maintaining the quality of their teaching and learners’ learning outcomes’ can therefore be challenging. Understanding how teachers use their time to comply with the different facets of their work is therefore paramount to developing policies that can make the most of their expertise.

The following analysis explores teacher workload and the distribution of their tasks. It is based on TALIS 2018 data related to teachers working full-time, and Eurydice data on official definitions of working time for lower secondary education teachers.

Figure 1.6: Proportion of time lower secondary education teachers report on activities related to their job, full-time teachers, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 1.5 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The figure is based on full-time teachers' answers to question 17 'Of this total, how many 60-minute hours did you spend on teaching at this school during your most recent complete calendar week?' and to question 18 'Approximately how many 60-minute hours did you spend on the following tasks during your most recent complete calendar week, in your job at this school?'.

The data shown in the figure is the average of the ratio reported by each full-time teacher considering the total as the sum of the time reported on each individual task in questions 17 and 18. This sum does not always correspond to the total working time reported in question 16.

Full-time teachers are those who have declared to work more than 90 % of full-time hours in all their teaching employments together (question 10 option b, category 1). In those cases where teachers: (1) did not report their employment status across all teaching employments together; (2) reported to work in only one school; (3) reported their employment status at the surveyed school (question 10 option a), then the missing information of question 10 option b was replaced by the teacher response to question 10 option a).

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

⁽²⁷⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/12.

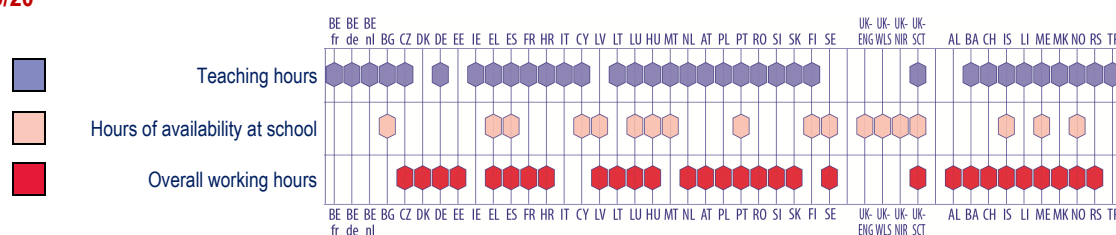
Based on TALIS 2018 data, Figure 1.6 reflects the share of time teachers report working on different tasks. At EU level, teachers report that less than half of their time (46.8 %) is actually dedicated to teaching. One quarter of their time goes into planning, preparing lessons, marking and correcting students' work. The remaining quarter is dedicated to other activities such as student counselling, professional development and communication with parents and guardians.

When looking at data related to single countries/regions some differences emerge in the distribution of time across the tasks. In Belgium (French Community), Estonia, Finland and Turkey, on average, teachers spend more than half of their working time on teaching, while teachers in Cyprus, the United Kingdom (England) and Norway spend as little as 40 % of their working time on teaching. On average, teachers in Turkey also dedicate as little as 12 % of their working time to planning and marking, and in Finland these activities occupy no more than one fifth of their time. Conversely, teachers in France, Malta and Portugal dedicate almost one third of their working time to planning and marking.

Other differences arise when analysing specific additional tasks. Teachers in Belgium (French Community), Romania and Finland spend less than 3 % of their working time on administrative tasks, while teachers in Sweden and the United Kingdom devote 7 % of their time to these tasks. While teachers in the EU report dedicating less than 3 % of their time to professional development activities, teachers in Lithuania report as much as 5 % while in Belgium (Flemish Community) as little as 1.7 %. Teachers in Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway devote more than 7 % of their time to teamwork and dialogue with colleagues. At the other end of the spectrum, teachers in Estonia, Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania and Turkey dedicate far less time to this activity (see Table 1.5 in Annex II).

Teachers' contracts do not always reflect the different tasks and related working hours needed to perform such duties. Based on Eurydice data, the following analysis takes into account three dimensions that usually describe teachers' contractual obligations: teaching time, availability at school and total working time. Figure 1.7 shows the contractual requirements by country and by workload component. It reveals that across Europe there are different combinations of what authorities regulate in terms of teachers' working time.

Figure 1.7: Official definitions of workload components of lower secondary education teachers working time, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Six education systems (Belgium (French, Flemish and German-speaking Communities), Ireland, Italy and Turkey) regulate only teaching time. On the contrary, eight systems do not regulate teaching time at all, and define teachers' working hours only in terms of total working time (Denmark, Estonia and Albania), time of availability at school (the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)) or a combination of both (Latvia and Sweden).

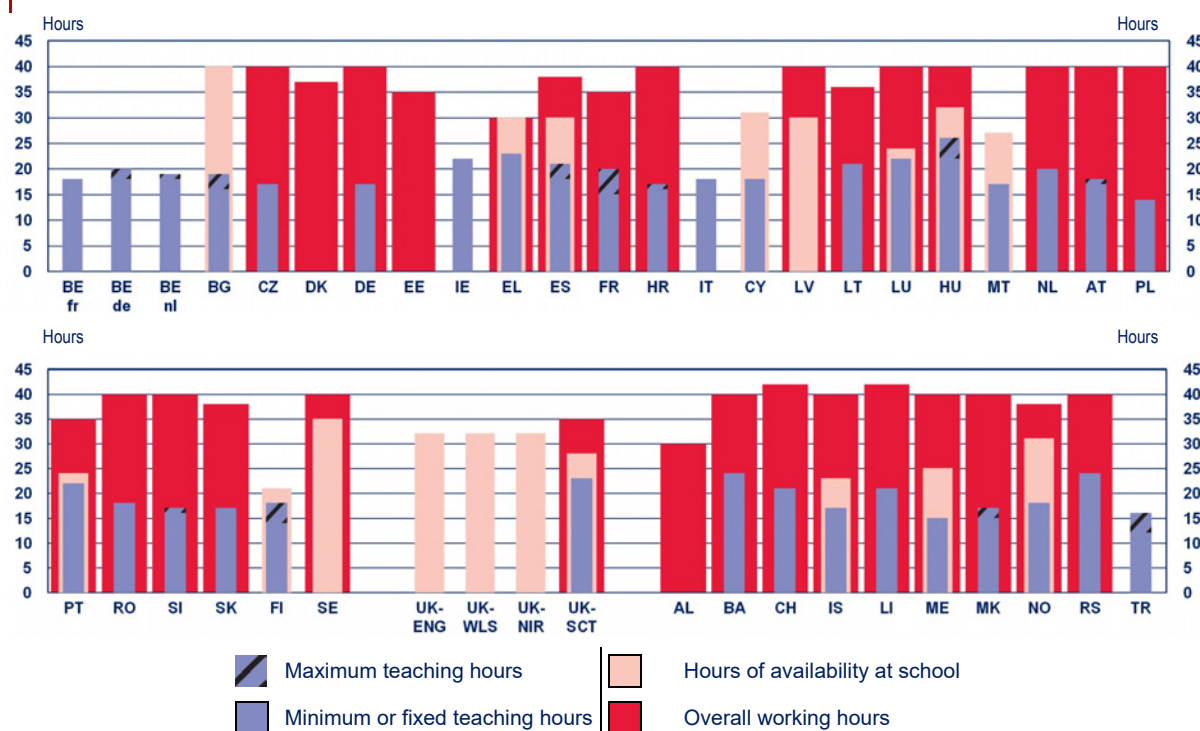
However, in many education systems, the workload components of full-time lower secondary education teachers are defined in terms of both teaching time and total working time. This is the case for 16 countries ⁽²⁸⁾. Four more education systems define the workload components in terms of both

⁽²⁸⁾ Czechia, Germany, France, Croatia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, North Macedonia and Serbia.

teaching time and hours of availability at school (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Malta and Finland). Finally, nine education systems define teachers' workload through all three components (Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Hungary, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland, Montenegro and Norway).

Figure 1.8 provides the weekly number of hours defined by each education system according to these three dimensions.

Figure 1.8: Official definitions of the weekly workload (in hours) of full-time teachers in general lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

		BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	
A					40	37	40	35			30	38	35	40			40	36	40	40		40	40	
B				40							30	30				31	30		24	32	27			
C	min.	18	18	18	16	17		17		22	23	18	15	14	18	18		21	22	22	17	20	17	
	max.		20	19	19							21	20	17						26			18	
		PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE		UK- ENG	UK- WLS	UK- NIR	UK- SCT	AL	BA	CH	IS	LI	ME	MK	NO	RS	TR	
A		40	35	40	40	38		40						35	30	40	42	40	42	40	40	38	40	
B			24				21	35			32	32	32	28				23		25		31		
C	min.	14	22	18	16	17	14							23		24	21	17	21	15	15	18	24	12
	max.			17	17		17		16															

A Overall working hours B Hours of availability at school C Teaching hours

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The figure shows the standard workload of teachers working full-time who do not have other duties (e.g. management tasks, national assessment committees). Reduced timetable requirements for teachers who are not yet qualified or who are newly qualified are not shown. In the case of countries in which the obligations of teachers are determined on an annual basis, an average weekly number of hours has been calculated. Where teaching requirements are expressed in terms of lessons, weekly hours are obtained by multiplying the number of weekly lessons by the number of minutes they last, and dividing the result by 60. Figures have been rounded to the nearest whole hour.

Country-specific notes

Denmark: The number of hours of availability is usually negotiated between the local authorities and the local branch of the teachers union.

Germany: The *Länder* regulate working hours. The number of overall working hours per week varies between 40 and 41.

Ireland: In addition to teaching hours, teachers' contracts include 33 hours (Croke park hours) devoted to other activities over the course of the year. This time equates to 1 hour a week.

Spain: In the Autonomous Community of Andalucía, the weekly overall working hours are 35. Teaching hours vary across Autonomous Communities.

Italy: The collective agreement states that 80 hours per year are specifically set for collegial activities and meetings with staff.

Latvia: Overall working hours can vary depending on the schools' needs.

Netherlands: The number of teaching hours is agreed by the social partners in the collective agreement for teachers and is expressed in terms of the number of annual teaching hours (maximum of 750 hours per year).

Slovenia: In addition to total working hours and teaching hours, working arrangements also define a maximum of 10 weekly hours for activities conducted outside of the school premises.

Sweden: The overall weekly working time includes 104 yearly hours allocated to continuing professional development (CPD).

Serbia: The weekly number of teaching hours is 24, comprising 20 teaching hours working directly with students in class (compulsory subjects and activities) and 4 hours of supplementary classes and individualised student help.

Teaching hours range from the minimum of 12 weekly hours in Turkey to a maximum of 26 weekly hours in Hungary. In some countries, the number of hours teachers dedicate to teaching varies depending on the subject. This is the case in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, France, Croatia, Hungary, Austria, Slovenia, Finland, North Macedonia and Turkey. Such variations are reported in the table below Figure 1.8.

Hours of availability are usually devoted to tasks to be carried out on school premises or in another place specified by the school head. In Finland, hours of availability at school refers to a specified amount of time in addition to teaching hours, while in the remaining education systems it refers to a global amount of availability that includes time spent on teaching. In Bulgaria, where total working time is not defined, availability at school amounts to 40 weekly hours, which coincides with the total working time in other countries and is the highest number of hours of availability at school for teachers across Europe. In Greece, total working time and availability amount to the same 30 weekly hours, suggesting that all non-teaching activities should be carried out on school premises.

Top-level authorities regulate total working hours for teachers in most education systems. This total also varies from the minimum of 30 weekly hours in Greece and Albania to a maximum of 42 weekly hours in Switzerland and Liechtenstein. In most countries, however, the overall working time for teachers is 40 weekly hours.

As shown in Figure 1.8, in almost half of the education systems, teachers are required to work 40 hours per week. In 10 systems ⁽²⁹⁾, the overall working hours are below 40 and in Switzerland and Liechtenstein slightly above. The EU average total working time, reported in the TALIS 2018 survey by teachers working full-time, is around 39 weekly hours (see Table 1.4 in Annex II), which seems to confirm an overall working time close to 40 hours per week. Overall working hours defined in regulations and teachers' reported total working hours in the TALIS 2018 survey are often close, although teachers tend to report working more than what is foreseen in their contracts.

Data on both working hours reported by teachers and overall contractual hours defined in regulations is available for 18 education systems (see Table 1.6 in Annex II). The comparison reveals that teachers tend to report more hours than what is foreseen in their contracts. In eight education systems ⁽³⁰⁾, teachers report working from almost 2 to more than 5 extra working hours per week. It is important to note that two countries stand out as exceptions with a negative balance. Teachers declare they worked fewer weekly hours than the overall working hours stipulated in their contracts in Latvia (-1 hour) and Romania (-5 hours).

In nine education systems, the comparison between contractual and reported working time is not possible because contractual arrangements do not define overall working hours.

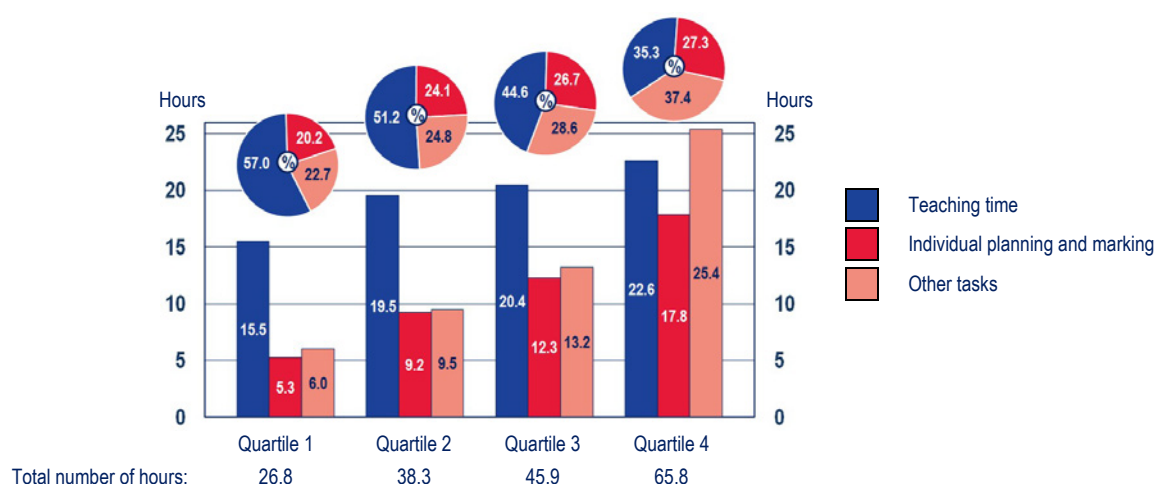
⁽²⁹⁾ Denmark, Estonia, Spain, France, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Albania and Norway.

⁽³⁰⁾ Denmark, Estonia, France, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and Norway.

Analysis of the average working hours per country provides some insights into teachers' working patterns in Europe. However, it is important to analyse the variation in reported working hours not only between countries, but also between teachers. This shows how working time is distributed on different tasks depending on how many hours teachers work.

Figure 1.9 breaks the reported teacher total working time down by quartiles and provides the average working time for each quartile differentiating between different types of tasks: (1) teaching, (2) individual planning and marking and (3) other tasks.

Figure 1.9: Mean working hours and proportion of time dedicated to different tasks by quartiles, lower secondary teachers working full-time, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Tables 1.7 and 1.8 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The figure is based on teachers' answers to question 17 'Of this total, how many 60-minute hours did you spend on teaching at this school during your most recent complete calendar week?', and to question 18 'Approximately how many 60-minute hours did you spend on the following tasks during your most recent complete calendar week, in your job at this school?'. Total working time is the sum of the answers to questions 17 and 18.

The bars specify the working hours dedicated to each type of task. The pies provide the overall proportion of time dedicated to teaching, individual planning and marking and other tasks grouped together (teamwork, counselling, communication with parents, school management, general administrative work, professional development, extracurricular activities and other tasks). The proportion is calculated on the basis of the sum of hours reported on each task (questions 17 and 18). This total does not always correspond to the total working time reported in question 16.

Full-time teachers are those who have declared to work more than 90 % of full-time hours in all their teaching employments together (question 10 option b, category 1). In those cases where teachers: (1) did not report their employment status across all teaching employments together; (2) reported to work in only one school; (3) reported their employment status at the surveyed school (question 10 option a), then the missing information of question 10 option b) was replaced by the teacher response to question 10 option a).

Quartiles at EU level are calculated by pooling all EU data together. EU level quartiles are affected by the average working hours for each country. The first quartile will have a higher number of teachers from countries with lower total working hours. In contrast, the fourth quartile will have a higher number of teachers from countries with higher average total working time.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

At EU level, teachers on the lowest quartile dedicate approximately 15 hours to teaching and another 11 hours to all other non-teaching tasks, including marking and planning. This group of teachers dedicates almost 60 % of their working time to teaching. At the other end of the spectrum, on the highest quartile, at EU level, teachers report teaching almost 23 hours per week while dedicating over 43 hours to other non-teaching tasks. Here, the overall weight of teaching time is reduced to one third of their overall working time. The graph shows that while the overall variation of teaching time between the lowest and highest quartiles is only 7 hours, non-teaching tasks increase by four times.

Among the non-teaching tasks, individual planning and marking/correcting students' work are essential activities for any teacher. It is interesting to note the relation of these tasks with the time

dedicated to teaching. While in the lowest quartile teachers spend 1 hour on them for each 3 hours spent on teaching, in the third quartile, the ratio is nearly 1:2, and in the fourth quartile it is almost 1:1. In terms of the proportion of time, they take around 20 % of total working time in the first quartile and 27 % in the third and fourth quartiles. The weight of these tasks therefore increases as overall working time rises. However its growth is relatively small compared to the increase in the weight of other tasks.

The category 'Other tasks' includes all other activities teachers are requested to undertake, besides teaching, individual planning and marking/correcting students' work. The TALIS 2018 teacher questionnaire listed various activities under question 18, such as teamwork, communication with parents, professional development activities and administrative tasks (see the explanatory notes below Figure 1.9 for a complete list). For the following analysis these have been grouped under the label 'Other tasks'. At EU level, teachers in the first quartile declare dedicating around 6 hours per week to such tasks. However, teachers in the fourth quartile declare dedicating over 25 hours a week to such tasks compared to almost 23 hours to teaching and 18 hours to individual planning and marking/correcting students' work. While other tasks represent around one fifth of the overall working time in the first quartile, they take up one third of teachers' total working time in the third quartile and the highest share in the fourth quartile. This seems to indicate that when teachers report working longer hours, most of their extra working time is dedicated to non-teaching tasks.

The pattern of a lower weight of teaching hours and a higher weight of non-teaching tasks when teachers work longer hours is visible in all the countries/regions analysed (see Tables 1.7 and 1.8). However, differences between the first and the fourth quartile can be more or less striking according to the country and to the type of tasks considered.

As far as teaching is concerned, for example, in Cyprus and the United Kingdom (England), teachers in the first quartile dedicate more than half of their total working time to teaching (50.2 % and 51.6 % respectively), but less than one third in the fourth quartile (29.6 % and 31.5 % respectively). On the contrary, in Finland and Estonia, teachers in the fourth quartile still report teaching for almost half of their total working time (45.4 % and 48.1 % respectively). However, it is in Latvia where the difference in the proportion of time dedicated to teaching between the two quartiles is at its lowest ⁽³¹⁾ showing an overall stability of the share of teaching time in relation to all non-teaching tasks. Conversely, the highest variation between the two quartiles is in Italy ⁽³²⁾.

As far as the proportion of time dedicated to individual planning and marking is concerned, variations between the lowest and highest quartiles are less striking compared to differences in the share of time dedicated to teaching and other tasks (see Table 1.8). This suggests that individual planning and marking has the tendency to take proportionally the same amount of time. In Denmark, for example, the difference between the proportion of time teachers dedicate to these activities in the first and fourth quartiles is less than 1 percentage point (22.2 % and 22.9 % respectively).

In contrast to planning and marking, the share of time dedicated to other tasks grows proportionally with the average total working time in all countries/regions. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England), teachers in the fourth quartile dedicate almost half of their working time to these tasks (42.6 % and 43.3 % respectively). On the contrary, their peers in France and Finland dedicate less than one third of their time to them (28.4 % and 25.7 % respectively). In Latvia, the difference in the proportion of time dedicated to these tasks between the two quartiles is at its lowest (3.2 percentage points). In Italy and the United Kingdom (England), it is at its highest (> 17 percentage points).

⁽³¹⁾ In Latvia, teachers in the first quartile dedicate 49.3 % of their total working time to teaching and those in the fourth quartile 41.4 %. This corresponds to 7.9 percentage points difference between the two quartiles.

⁽³²⁾ In Italy, teachers in the first quartile dedicate 59.6 % of their total working time to teaching and 34.8 % in the fourth quartile. This corresponds to 24.8 percentage points difference between the two quartiles.

As the Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers ⁽³³⁾ point out, teachers need to be supported to cope with the increasing demands on their jobs such as ‘coping with numerous administrative tasks, taking part in institutional leadership, providing support and guidance to their learners, planning and finding time for peer collaboration and their professional development’. Evidence seems to indicate that the share of time teachers actually devote to teaching diminishes as working hours increase, calling for a revision of policies around the working time, tasks and responsibilities of teachers.

1.2.3. Salaries

Among working conditions, remuneration has an important role to play in making any profession appealing. The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽³⁴⁾, highlight that investment in quality education means investing in teachers and trainers and this includes adequate salaries. Similarly, the Education and Training Monitor (European Commission, 2019, p. 40) underlines that ‘competitive teacher salaries are considered as essential for raising the quality of the teacher workforce’. Yet, teachers often earn less than other tertiary-educated workers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019a).

This section analyses the relation between salaries of lower secondary education teachers and the satisfaction with their salary expressed in TALIS 2018.

The TALIS 2018 questionnaire provided teachers with the opportunity to state their satisfaction with their salaries. The analysis of responses from teachers shows that overall, at EU level, only 37.8 % of teachers consider their salary satisfactory or very satisfactory with many countries showing percentages below 30 (see Figure 1.10 and Table 1.9 in Annex II). Less than 1 teacher out of 10 shows satisfaction with their salary in Iceland and Portugal. On the contrary, around 70 % of teachers in Austria and Belgium (Flemish Community) declare themselves to be satisfied or very satisfied with their salary.

The Eurydice report *Teachers’ and School Heads’ Salaries and Allowances 2018/19* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a) provides comprehensive information on the remuneration of full-time, fully qualified teachers in public schools in 42 European education systems, for the school year 2018/19. The report analyses different aspects linked to teachers’ remuneration policies across Europe, such as the salaries of newly qualified teachers and the increase of salaries over time of service.

The Eurydice report on salaries highlights that there are important differences in teacher salaries between eastern European countries and the rest of Europe, with salaries in Czechia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Montenegro and Serbia being among the lowest. At the other end of the spectrum, in Europe, average annual gross actual salaries are among the highest in Denmark, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Iceland and Norway (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a, p. 24). However, average annual gross actual salaries cannot be compared without taking into account the national gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, which can be considered a proxy to understanding the national economic context in which teachers earn their salaries.

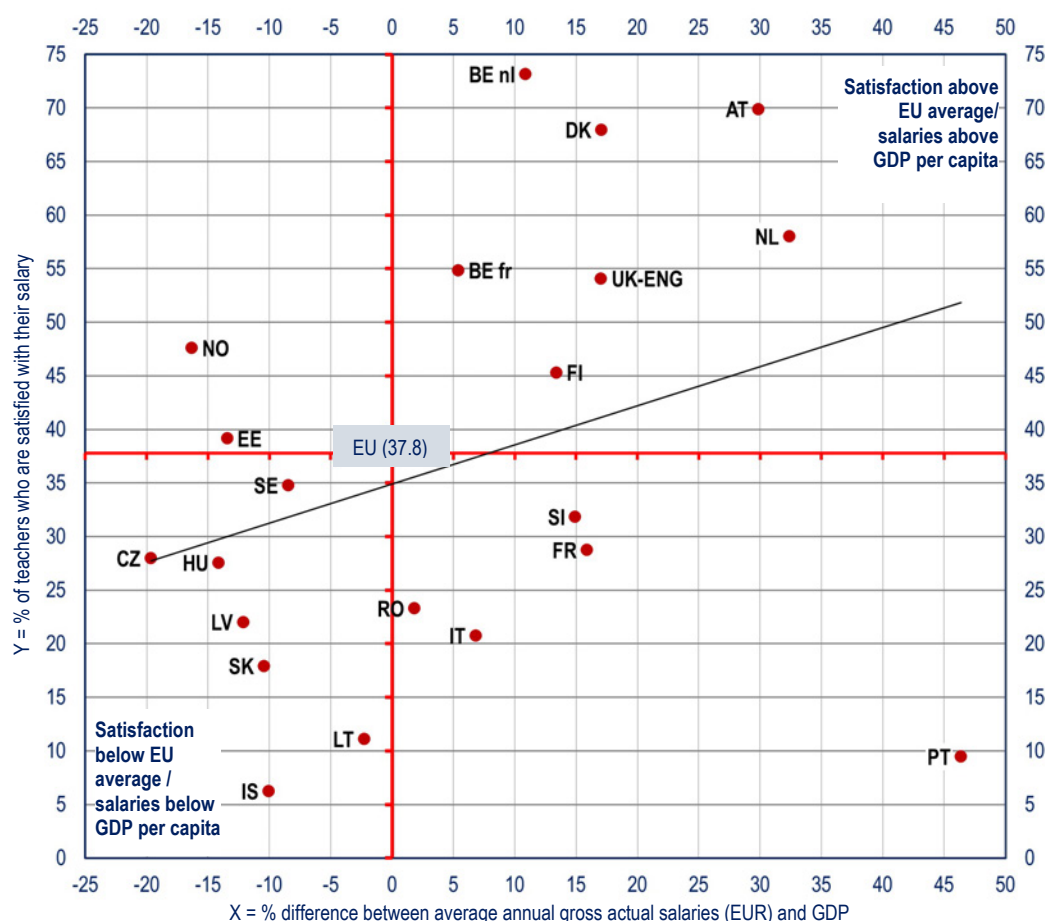
Figure 1.10 shows the proportion of teachers stating themselves to be satisfied or very satisfied with their salary, and the difference in percentage between the GDP per capita and teachers’ average annual gross actual salaries.

⁽³³⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/12.

⁽³⁴⁾ Ibid., C 193/16.

As Figure 1.10 shows, the variation in percentage between the average annual gross actual salary of teachers and the GDP per capita fluctuates substantially among countries. While in the Netherlands the average salary is close to 25 % higher than the GDP per capita, in Czechia it is almost 25 % lower. It is to be noted that with the exception of Slovenia and Romania, in all eastern European countries shown in the figure, salaries are below the GDP per capita.

Figure 1.10: Proportion of teachers satisfied with their salaries and difference between teachers' average annual gross actual salaries (EUR) and GDP per capita, lower secondary education, 2018/19



%	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT
X	:	5.4	10.9	:	-19.6	17.1	-13.4	:	15.9	:	6.8	:	-2.1	-2.3
Y	37.8	54.8	73.1	29.5	28.0	68.0	39.1	50.2	28.7	25.0	20.8	58.5	22.0	11.1
	HU	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	IS	NO	TR
X	-14.1	:	32.4	29.9	46.4	1.8	14.9	-10.4	13.4	-8.4	17.0	-10.0	-16.3	:
Y	27.5	17.9	58.0	69.9	9.4	23.3	31.8	17.9	45.3	34.8	54.1	6.2	47.6	32.1

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurydice and TALIS 2018 (see Table 1.9 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

Teachers' actual salaries are the weighted average gross annual salaries received by full-time fully qualified teachers, including allowances and other financial benefits. Unless otherwise indicated, the reference year for actual salaries is 2018/19, 2019 for the GDP per capita (exceptions are listed below in the country-specific notes). Data on GDP per capita and the exchange rates used to convert salaries into euros (where reported in a different national currency) are available in an annex to the report *Teachers' and School Heads' Salaries and Allowances 2018/19* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a).

Data on satisfaction with the salary is based on teachers' answers to question 54 'How strongly do you agree or disagree with the following statements?' option a 'I am satisfied with the salary I receive for my work'. Answers 'agree' and 'strongly agree' are grouped together.

The figure only considers education systems for which both data on the satisfaction of teachers with their salary and the percentage difference between salaries and GDP are available. The table also includes education systems where only data on the satisfaction of teachers with their salary is available.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant differences from the EU value on satisfaction with the salary are indicated in bold.

Country-specific notes

Belgium: GDP refers to the whole of Belgium, but salaries differ between the three Communities.

Czechia and Portugal: The reference year for salaries is 2017/18 (2018 for the GDP per capita).

Estonia: The reference year for salaries is 2017/18 (2018 for the GDP per capita). Data on salaries refers to teachers for ISCED 1, 24 and 34 together without distinction between levels.

France: The reference year for salaries and GDP is 2017.

Lithuania: The data on actual salaries represents the average of all teachers from pre-primary to upper secondary education levels. Between the school years 2017/18 and 2018/19, actual salaries increased significantly.

Netherlands: Data on salaries are estimations based on the annual gross salary in the collective agreement weighed by the number of teachers in full-time equivalents. Allowances granted at school level are not included but are not significant. Data on salaries refers to teachers in ISCED 24 and 34 together without distinction between levels.

Slovenia: The reference year for salaries is 2017/18 (2018 for the GDP per capita). The annual holiday bonus, meal allowances, reimbursement of travel expenses and the long-service award (*jubilejna nagrada*) are not included.

Slovakia: Data on actual salaries also includes school heads. Data on salaries refers to teachers in ISCED 1 and 24 together without distinction between levels.

Sweden: The reference year is 2018.

United Kingdom (ENG): Data on salaries refers to teachers in ISCED 24 and 34 together without distinction between levels, and includes not fully qualified teachers and leading practitioners. GDP is calculated for the whole of the United Kingdom.

Iceland: Data on salaries includes all teachers (including not fully qualified teachers) and refers to teachers in ISCED 1 and 24 together without distinction between levels.

The following paragraphs analyse teacher satisfaction with their salaries in combination with the salary level expressed in relation with the GDP per capita ⁽³⁵⁾.

In almost all countries with average actual salaries below the GDP per capita, teachers express, on average, less satisfaction with their salary. This is the case for Czechia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Slovakia, Sweden and Iceland. In Iceland, particularly low satisfaction with salaries might be due to the differences in wages according to the qualification level teachers hold. Almost 75 % of teachers hold an ISCED 6 qualification or lower, and earn less compared to the 26 % of teachers who hold an ISCED 7 qualification (see also Section 2.1.1). Estonia is also close to this group of countries, although the share of teachers satisfied with their salary is just 1 percentage point over the EU average and this difference is not statistically significant. Norway is the main outlier. In Norway, teacher average actual salaries are below the GDP per capita, while the proportion of teachers satisfied with their salary is higher than the EU value. However, the high revenues of oil companies might inflate the GDP per capita and be the source of the negative difference between salaries and GDP. In Norway, in fact, teacher salaries are among the highest in Europe (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a, p. 24). Moreover, teacher salaries in Norway have continued to increase in the last decade, especially for teachers with higher qualifications and/or longer experience. For example, the statutory salaries of novice teachers in Norway were 11 % higher in 2016/17 than in 2009/10 and there have been increases since then.

In the countries where teacher average annual gross actual salaries are higher than GDP per capita, teachers express different opinions regarding the satisfaction with their salary. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and the United Kingdom

⁽³⁵⁾ Pearson correlation 0.323 and Spearman correlation 0.344.

(England), the proportion of teachers being satisfied or very satisfied with their salary is above the EU value. On the contrary, in France, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Slovenia, fewer teachers express this view despite the positive difference between GDP per capita and salaries. Two issues could explain the low satisfaction on salaries in this latter group of countries.

Firstly, most of these countries have a slow salary progression career (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a, p. 18). In France, Portugal and Romania, pay rises are not so significant at the beginning of a teacher's career and become more important with time. Although the total percentage increase can be high, many years of service are usually necessary to reach the top, and not all teachers may reach that point. In Italy, in addition to the slow progression, salary increase is relatively modest compared to other countries and teachers need to work for 35 years to reach the top salary, which is approximately 50 % more than the starting salary. This highlights that the salary progression is not only a question of how much, but also of how long it takes to progress, and policymakers could work on the overall salary structure taking into account both dimensions.

Secondly, the impact of the economic crisis in 2009 with the freezing or reduction of public expenditure in many countries could have affected teachers' satisfaction with their earnings. In France, Italy, Portugal and Slovenia, for example, over the last 10 years (i.e. since the economic crisis of 2009) teacher salaries have increased very little. In Slovenia, salary increases linked to promotion to higher levels of the career were temporarily delayed (in 2011 and 2012) and even frozen (in 2013 and 2014). Statutory salaries for novice teachers in 2016/17 had, in fact, decreased since 2009/10 in Italy, Portugal and Slovenia, and increased by less than 3 % in France (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). In these countries, since 2016, increases have been marginal.

Therefore, Figure 1.10 suggests that teachers' satisfaction with their salaries is at its lowest in countries where teachers earn less than the GDP per capita, or in countries where the economic crisis of 2009 has had a long-lasting negative effect on the wages of teachers, affecting their purchasing power. When developing policies around salaries, considering these dynamics can help improve the levels of satisfaction with wages and probably influence choices of young people when considering the professional path they should take.

1.2.4. Retirement age

Retirement age is part of working conditions. Regulations around retirement, however, might not be different for teachers than for other jobs in the public sector. Moreover, this matter has constantly evolved in the last decades with retirement ages raised in almost all countries.

At present, in the majority of European education systems, the official retirement age of lower secondary education teachers for both women and men is 65 (see Figure 1.11). This is the case in 16 education systems ⁽³⁶⁾. In another 13 systems ⁽³⁷⁾, the official retirement age is higher, with teachers in Norway retiring at the age of 70. Conversely, in nine countries (Bulgaria, Czechia, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia and North Macedonia), the official retirement age is lower for both women and men. While in most countries, the retirement age is the same for women and men, in nine education systems (Bulgaria, Czechia, Lithuania, Austria, Poland, Albania, Switzerland, North Macedonia and Serbia) there are differences based on gender. In all these countries, men retire later than women do, although the difference is sometimes no more than one year (Czechia, Lithuania and Switzerland).

⁽³⁶⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Estonia, Spain, Croatia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Liechtenstein and Turkey.

⁽³⁷⁾ Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Iceland, Montenegro and Norway.

However, this situation is bound to change in the coming years. Gradually, in several countries, the retirement age is being increased.

In **Czechia**, the official retirement age for all teachers will be 65 in 2037 ⁽³⁸⁾.

In **Ireland**, the official retirement age will rise to 68 in 2028 ⁽³⁹⁾.

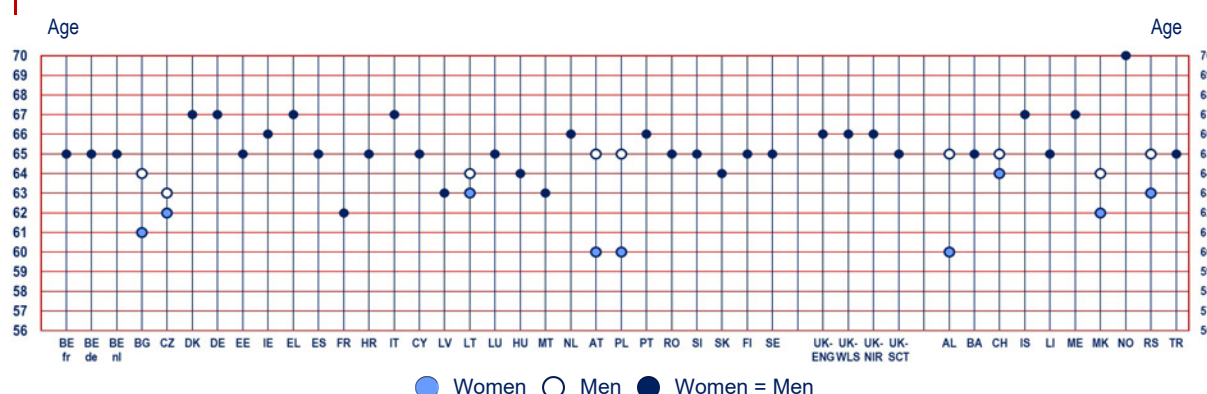
In **Lithuania**, the official retirement age will be 65 for both men and women by 2026. In the transition period, teachers are allowed to work longer than the current official retirement age ⁽⁴⁰⁾.

In **Malta**, the official retirement age will be 65 for both men and women in 2027 ⁽⁴¹⁾.

In **Austria**, between 2024 and 2033 the retirement age for women will increase gradually from 60 to 65 years ⁽⁴²⁾.

In **Serbia**, the official retirement age for women will reach 65 years old in 2032 ⁽⁴³⁾.

Figure 1.11: Official retirement age of lower secondary education teachers, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The figure focuses on the **official retirement age**, which sets the limit at which teachers stop working. Figures are rounded. In certain countries and in special circumstances, teachers may continue to work beyond this age limit. Other aspects play a role in setting the retirement age, such as minimum number of working years and the minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement subject to completion of the number of years of service required. These aspects are not reflected in the figure.

Country-specific notes

Czechia: The official retirement age for women depends on the number of children they have. For women, the figure shows the retirement age of a teacher with two children.

Denmark: The official retirement age varies depending on the date of birth. The figure shows the retirement age of teachers born in 1955.

Germany: The official retirement age varies depending on the date of birth. The figure shows the retirement age of teachers born in 1964.

Estonia: The official retirement age varies depending on the date of birth. The figure shows the retirement age of teachers born in 1961 onwards.

Cyprus: Teachers currently retire at the age of 64.5 years old. By the end of the next school year, the minimum retirement age will be 65 for all teachers.

Slovenia: The official retirement age can also be lower due to specific circumstances (children, compulsory military service, working before the age of 18, retirement according to regulations in force until 2013).

Slovakia: The official retirement age can also be lower depending on the number of children raised.

Sweden: People born in 1955 or later will be allowed to work until 69 years old.

Iceland: Teachers can retire at the age of 67 but are allowed to teach until the age of 70.

Compared to the data conveyed in the report *The Teaching Profession in Europe* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015), in some countries teachers now officially retire later. This is the

⁽³⁸⁾ <https://www.zakonyprolidi.cz/cs/1995-155#cast4> [Accessed 30 October 2020].

⁽³⁹⁾ <http://www.irishstatutebook.ie/eli/2018/act/39/enacted/en/html> [Accessed 23 February 2021].
[https://www.education.ie/en/Education-Staff/Services/Retirement-Pensions/Announcements %20.html](https://www.education.ie/en/Education-Staff/Services/Retirement-Pensions/Announcements_%20.html) [Accessed 23 February 2021].

⁽⁴⁰⁾ <https://e-seimas.lrs.lt/portal/legalAct/lt/TAD/TAIS.5901/asr> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁴¹⁾ <https://legislation.mt/eli/cap/318/eng/pdf> [Accessed 3 November 2020].

⁽⁴²⁾ <https://www.sozialministerium.at/Services/Leichter-Lesen/Soziales/Pensionsarten/Alterspension.html> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁴³⁾ https://www.paragraf.rs/propisi/zakon_o_penzijskom_i_invalidskom_osiguranju.html [Accessed 28 October 2020].

case for 15 education systems ⁽⁴⁴⁾. Furthermore, in many countries the gender difference in the official retirement age is reduced or removed. In Czechia and Serbia, for example, the gap has been reduced from five years to just one and two years respectively, and in Romania and Slovenia it has disappeared entirely.

1.3. Teaching careers

Having career prospects can be an important motivational factor. It can encourage teachers to develop the skills they need to advance in their career, and to continue providing high-quality teaching to pupils. As underlined in the Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers ⁽⁴⁵⁾, different career choices ‘may encourage teachers and trainers to remain dedicated to the profession and committed to both their learners’ and their own learning during the course of their working life’. Moreover, a dynamic and evolving career path can also play a role in making the teaching profession more attractive for young people. The Council, therefore, invites EU Member States to develop national career frameworks for teachers ⁽⁴⁶⁾. Following on the conclusions, the European Commission in its communication on the European education area aims at developing ‘European guidance for the development of national career frameworks during 2021-2022, thus supporting the career progression of school education professionals’ (European Commission, 2020, p. 19).

This section examines the opportunities available to fully qualified, in-service teachers to develop their career. Career development is considered here both in terms of progression through the various levels of the career structure, and progression in terms of experience gained through undertaking additional responsibilities. Only positions that entail keeping teaching responsibilities are considered part of teaching career structures. For instance, the promotion or progress to a management or administrative role (e.g. school head), which does not involve any teaching hours, is excluded from the analysis. While some teachers may envisage the evolution of their professional life towards the latter positions, and these other positions may be part of a continuum in the perspective of the school education professions (European Commission, 2020), they usually entail specific training, recruitment processes and a change of status. Teachers in such positions usually stop teaching and have other tasks and responsibilities.

First, the section identifies the types of career structures in place in European countries. It investigates whether these are formalised in different levels – called multilevel career structures, or if careers are considered mainly in terms of salary progression with no formal levels defined in terms of roles, responsibilities and/or hierarchical relations – called here single-level career structures.

Furthermore, the section analyses the way different criteria are used to establish teachers’ progression in their career. It looks, specifically, at the role played by years of service, CPD and appraisal.

The third part of this section explores which kind of opportunities teachers have to widen their experience and differentiate their role within the school environment, such as mentoring other teachers, coordinating subjects or managing school activities. The section discusses how these play out in the two different career models.

Last but not least, using the types of careers identified by the Education and Training 2020 Working Group on Schools’ final output *Supporting Teacher careers and school leaders – A policy guide* (European Commission, 2020), this section analyses some of the dynamics that animate teachers’ careers.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Czechia, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Greece, Ireland, Hungary, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales, and Northern Ireland), Iceland and Liechtenstein.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/16.

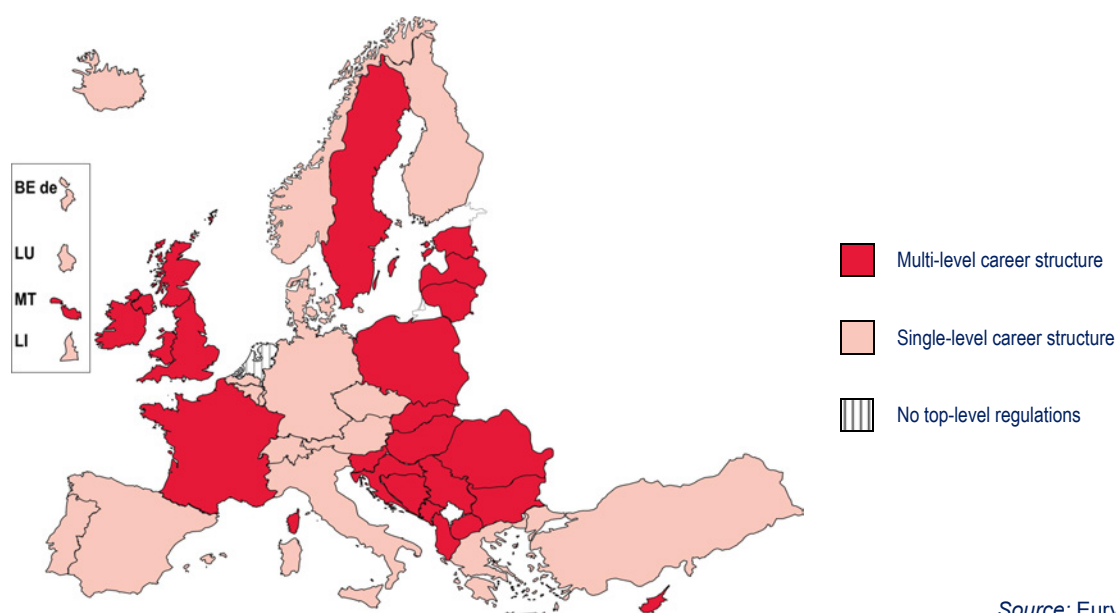
⁽⁴⁶⁾ Ibid.

1.3.1. Career structures

Career structure is defined here as a recognised progression pathway within a job or a profession. Career structures may have one or more levels.

- Usually, in multi-level career structures, levels are defined by a set of competences, responsibilities, roles and/or hierarchical relations. Within a multi-level career structure, career stages are structured in terms of ascending complexity and greater responsibility. A salary scale may be linked to the career structure, but is not its determining feature.
- Career structures with only one level are referred to in this report as single-level career structures. This type of configuration may allow teachers to widen their experience or take on additional tasks or responsibilities. Nevertheless, these are not organised in specific career stages and they do not usually involve a change in formal hierarchical relations between teachers.

Figure 1.12: Types of career structure for fully qualified lower secondary education teachers, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The figure considers only positions that have a teaching role. Non-teaching posts are not considered (e.g. teachers seconded to bodies in charge of inspection, research or education administration, school heads without any regular teaching responsibilities).

Figure 1.12 shows that 24 European education systems have a career structure system organised in different levels and 18 organised in one single level. In the Netherlands, career frameworks are negotiated through collective agreements and there are no top-level authority regulations on the matter.

Education systems with a multi-level career structure follow different patterns and principles that reflect what a career means within that system. This is discussed further in the following sections. A mapping of the career steps for multi-level career structures is available in Annex I.1.

1.3.2. Patterns for career progression

The following analysis looks at the criteria used for career progression. In multi-level career structures progression means promotion to the next career level, while in single-level systems progression is considered as salary advancement, as the latter do not have formalised career levels. The analysis focuses on three criteria that usually play a role in the decision-making process: years of service, CPD

and teacher appraisal. As these might not be the only criteria used in each single education system, Annex I.1 provides an overview of all the criteria that are considered a precondition for career progression. A precondition means that the criterion needs to be fulfilled before the candidate is considered for career advancement, for example having been in service for a certain number of years or having followed a minimum number of hours of CPD.

Figure 1.13 shows that there is some relation between career models and patterns for progression. While years of service are widely used as a criterion in both career structures, CPD and evaluations on performance are not. Overall, the latter two are often part of the promotion mechanisms in education systems with multi-level career structures, and far less considered in countries with single-level career structures.

Single-level career structures

In education systems with single-level career structures, all education systems consider years of service a basis for advancement, with the exception of Liechtenstein, which considers teachers' age. In 14 education systems ⁽⁴⁷⁾, this is the only formal requirement for career progression.

In most countries, the number of years needed for progression is regular, spanning from every year in Switzerland and Turkey to every five years in Iceland. In Italy, the required years of service vary depending on the level reached on the salary scale.

Among the countries with a single-level career structure, CPD (see also Chapter 3) is a criterion for salary progression in only three education systems (Spain, Luxembourg and Portugal), and teacher appraisal (see also Chapter 4) in two (Portugal and Liechtenstein).

Only Portugal bases the decision for salary progression on all three criteria.

In **Portugal**, salary progression is granted upon complying with four years of service (two years in level 5), attendance of at least 50 hours (25 hours for level 5) of CPD in four years and a performance evaluation with at least the grade 'good' ⁽⁴⁸⁾.

Multi-level career structures

In most education systems with a multi-level career structure, in order to progress, teachers need to fulfil various criteria. Two thirds of the countries take into account years of service, more than half of the systems take into account teachers' CPD, and appraisal is part of the promotion process in almost two thirds of the systems. Moreover, one third of the education systems with a multi-level career model make use of all three elements (France, Croatia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Serbia).

In **Croatia**, years of service and CPD requirements differ depending on the career level. For example, a teacher mentor can be promoted to teacher advisor only after 10 years of service in teaching activities, five years of which must be as teacher mentor, and 150 hours of CPD acquired in the last five years. Moving from teacher advisor to excellent teacher advisor requires 15 years of service, five of which as Teacher Advisor, and 200 hours of CPD acquired in the last five years. In all cases, teachers must also show they have achieved the learning outcomes defined by the framework of the national standard for qualifications for teachers in primary and secondary schools. Evaluation criteria also vary depending on the career level ⁽⁴⁹⁾.

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Czechia, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Italy, Austria, Finland, Switzerland, Iceland, Norway and Turkey.

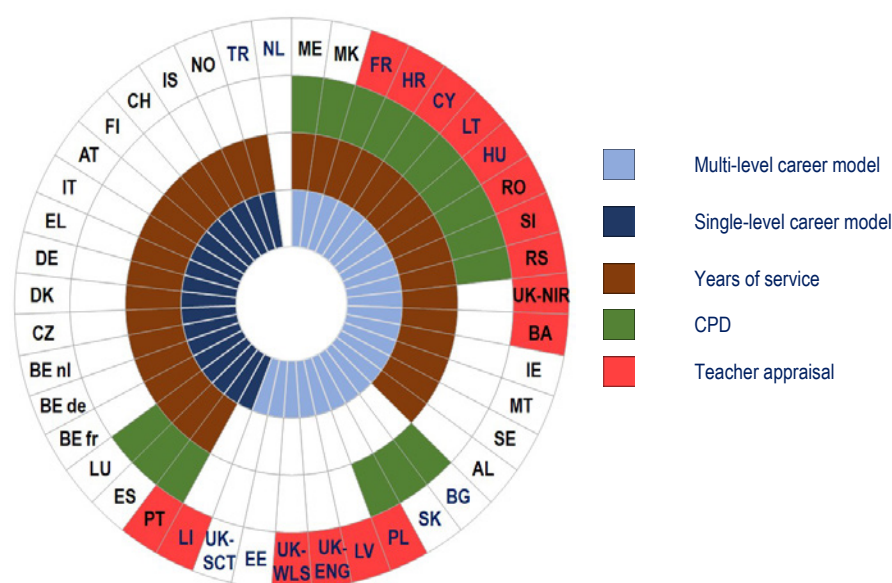
⁽⁴⁸⁾ <https://dre.pt/web/guest/legislacao-consolidada/-/lc/117104379/202010281834/73637034/diploma/indice>
<https://www.dgae.mec.pt/gestrehumanos/pessoal-docente/carreira/carreira-docente/#estrutura>
 [Accessed 30 October 2020].

⁽⁴⁹⁾ https://narodne-novine.nn.hr/clanci/sluzbeni/2019_07_68_1372.html [Accessed 28 October 2020].

In another five systems, two of the analysed elements are considered: years of service and teacher appraisal (the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and Bosnia and Herzegovina), years of service and CPD (Montenegro and North Macedonia), CPD and teacher appraisal (Poland).

In **Montenegro**, the number of years of service required to move to the next career level differs from one level to another. For example, a teacher needs 12 years of service to be eligible for the position of senior teacher advisor and 15 years for teacher researcher. CPD requirements also vary from one level to another. Promotion is also dependent on other criteria such as being the author of professional papers ⁽⁵⁰⁾.

Figure 1.13: Role of years of service, CPD and teacher appraisal as requirements for career progression in single-level and multi-level career structures, lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The figure only considers the role of years of service, CPD requirements and teacher appraisal for career progression, when these are requirements from legislation. The absence of the colour corresponding to each category means that the criterion is not a requirement for career progression. In some countries, other factors, such as demonstration of specific competences, publication of articles in scientific journals or obtaining an additional higher qualification, may be taken into account to decide on career progression. Countries are sorted by career model first and then by groups of criteria for career progression. Within such groups education systems are in protocol order.

Country-specific notes

Czechia: Teacher appraisal can lead to salary increase at the discretion of the school head.

Malta: Teacher appraisal is used only for salary progression but not for promotion to a higher career level.

Austria: Additional allowances can be granted to teachers if they cover certain functions (e.g. pedagogical coordinator). In order to access these functions, specific training must be followed as a prerequisite.

Slovakia: Teacher appraisal can lead to salary increase at the discretion of the school head.

Sweden: The regular individual development talk between school heads and teachers can influence salary increase, but it is not a requirement.

In the remaining countries, only one out of the three analysed criteria are used for promotion: years of service (Ireland, Malta, Sweden and Albania), CPD (Bulgaria and Slovakia) or teacher appraisal (Latvia and the United Kingdom (England and Wales)).

In some countries, other additional criteria are also considered, such as demonstrating specific competences or obtaining a higher qualification level.

Finally, in Estonia and the United Kingdom (Scotland), other requirements than years of service, CPD and teacher appraisal have to be met in order to be promoted.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ [http://www.mps.gov.me/ResourceManager/FileDownload.aspx?rid=202494&rType=2&file=Pravilnik %20o %20vrstama %20zvanja,uslovima,na %C4 %8Dinu %20i %20postupku %20predlaganja %20i %20dodjeljivanju %20zvanja.docx](http://www.mps.gov.me/ResourceManager/FileDownload.aspx?rid=202494&rType=2&file=Pravilnik%20o%20vrstama%20zvanja,uslovima,na%C4%8Dinu%20i%20postupku%20predlaganja%20i%20dodjeljivanju%20zvanja.docx) [Accessed 30 October 2020].

In **Estonia**, the career structure has three levels: teacher, senior teacher and master teacher. Promotion to a higher level is based on the demonstration of specific competences proven during the occupational certification process ⁽⁵¹⁾.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, the career structure has four levels: main grade teachers, principal teachers, deputy head teachers and head teachers. Promotion to a higher level is based on a recruitment process for appointing teachers to promoted posts. This process includes assessment of teacher competences against the GTCS Professional Standards. Head teachers retain teaching duties if required by the curricular needs of the school ⁽⁵²⁾.

Moreover, career progression in a multi-level career model does not mean that there is salary stagnation between each level. In fact, the contrary can happen: teachers move along salary scales between career levels. Within these mechanisms, some criteria that are not considered for promotion, might be considered for salary progression.

In **Malta**, for example, teacher appraisal is required for salary progression within the grade of teacher but not for promotion to the grade of head of department. This kind of promotion is subject to being successful in a selective interview, besides meeting other requirements, such as years of service ⁽⁵³⁾.

1.3.3. Diversifying roles and responsibilities

The following paragraphs analyse the changes in roles and responsibilities for teachers during their professional career, and explore if such changes have an impact on salaries. The analysis deals with multi-level career structures first, and then moves on to single-level career structures.

Multi-level career structures

Career progression within a multi-level career system means, in most cases, a higher salary, probably enhanced personal prestige, and in many cases the possibility to exercise different roles within the school. The complete mapping and comparative analysis of the additional roles available to teachers at specific career levels is beyond the scope of this report. However, by analysing the main responsibilities teachers hold at different career levels, some general patterns seem to emerge (see also Annex I.1 where career steps are listed).

In some countries, career progression is expressed in terms of additional management roles. Specifically, teachers become deputy head teachers, principal assistants or heads of departments, implying an increased responsibility in sharing the management of the school with the school head. This is the case, for example, in Ireland, Cyprus, Malta and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

In other countries, the career progression pattern follows the logic of underlying additional pedagogical roles where teachers become teacher mentors, pedagogical advisors or teacher councillors, with new responsibilities in the area of subject, curriculum and pedagogical coordination and expertise. For example, this is the case in France, where one of the career steps is *professeur formateur académique* with specific responsibilities in training other teachers.

Finally, several other countries express progression in terms of teaching expertise. In these countries, teachers become master teachers, chartered teachers, expert teachers, senior teachers or chief teachers. In these cases, there is no automatic correspondence between roles and career levels, also because schools have some autonomy in distributing tasks and assigning specific responsibilities. However, there are cases where specific roles can only be covered at certain career levels.

⁽⁵¹⁾ <https://www.kutsereregister.ee/en/standardid/> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁵²⁾ https://www.snct.org.uk/wiki/index.php?title=Part_2_Section_2 [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁵³⁾ https://education.gov.mt/en/Documents/Sectoral_%20Agreement.pdf [Accessed 3 November 2020].

In **Bulgaria**, for example, only senior and chief teachers can be appointed as mentors to other teachers. Similarly, positions linked to curriculum and/or pedagogical coordination, as well as managerial positions such as deputy head or head of department, can only be covered by chief teachers.

Similarly, in **Hungary**, only master and researcher teachers can be mentors to other teachers, teacher trainers, pedagogical and curriculum coordinators and inspectors in other schools.

In **Slovenia**, advisor and councillor teachers, as well as teachers who have been in the position of mentor for at least three years, can be mentors to trainee or novice teachers, and advisor and councillor teachers can also participate as members of the Committee for National Assessment of knowledge in basic school.

Promotion to a higher level in the career structure is linked to salary increase in all countries with a multi-level career structure, with the exception of Estonia.

In **Estonia**, local authorities pay salaries and there are no top-level authority regulations that link career levels with salaries. However, the upcoming education strategy (coming into force in 2021) contains a plan to reform this aspect by linking the career levels to salaries and CPD opportunities ⁽⁵⁴⁾.

Single-level career structures

While career progression in a multi-level career model often means exercising additional roles to teaching, teachers can also diversify their work within the school in systems with single-level career structures.

Figure 1.14 maps some of the roles teachers can cover in the 18 systems with a single-level career structure and shows if teachers receive monetary or time compensation. The mapping focuses on three different areas: teacher and student support (mentor, teacher trainer and coach / student guidance); school support (coordination roles for CPD, subject, curriculum, pedagogy or ICT); and management roles (deputy head or head of department). This is not an exhaustive list and other roles could be available to teachers.

As shown in Figure 1.14, in 12 education systems ⁽⁵⁵⁾, top-level authority regulations provide teachers with different possibilities of diversifying their work within the school. In six other countries (Czechia, Denmark, Italy, Switzerland, Iceland and Norway), this is entirely or to a large extent a matter of school autonomy, both in terms of roles and compensation mechanisms. The analysis below looks at the roles and compensation mechanisms of the former group, and includes countries where the schools have autonomy but some roles are still regulated by the top-level authority (Czechia and Norway).

As far as teacher and student support is concerned, coaching and guidance for students is a job teachers can carry out in most education systems ⁽⁵⁶⁾ with top-level authority regulation, including Czechia and Norway, although time and/or monetary compensation is foreseen in only eight of them ⁽⁵⁷⁾. Similarly, 10 education systems ⁽⁵⁸⁾ consider mentoring peers a role that teachers can cover. However, only six ⁽⁵⁹⁾ of them foresee time and/or monetary compensations for this role. Training other teachers is possible in half of the systems with a single-level career structure. However, in this case teachers would always receive time and/or monetary compensation.

⁽⁵⁴⁾ <https://www.hm.ee/en/activities/strategic-planning-2021-2035/education-strategy-2035-objectives-and-preliminary-analysis> [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁵⁵⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Germany, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Liechtenstein and Turkey.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Czechia, Germany, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Turkey.

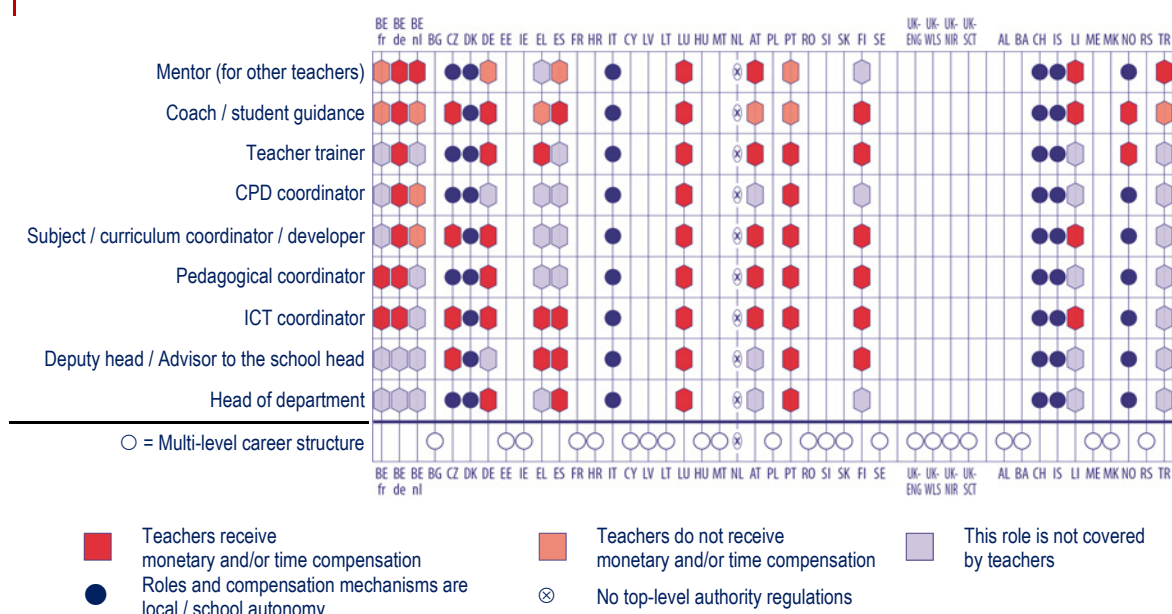
⁽⁵⁷⁾ Belgium (German-speaking Community), Czechia, Germany, Spain, Luxembourg, Finland, Liechtenstein and Norway.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ Belgium (all three communities), Germany, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Liechtenstein and Turkey.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish communities), Luxembourg, Austria, Liechtenstein and Turkey.

Within the area of school support, 11 education systems ⁽⁶⁰⁾ consider that coordination roles dealing with ICT should be covered by teachers and are always compensated. Subject and/or curriculum coordination and development is also a possibility in nine education systems ⁽⁶¹⁾ and usually teachers receive some form of compensation for it. Only one third of the systems with single-level career structures foresee the role of pedagogical coordinator, although this is usually compensated. Last but not least, teachers can become CPD coordinators only in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Luxembourg and Portugal, although in the Flemish Community of Belgium without any form of compensation.

Figure 1.14: Existence of compensation mechanisms available to teachers in single-level career structures to cover specific roles according to top-level authority regulations, lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

As far as management positions are concerned, only in a minority of systems, teachers can cover roles such as deputy head / advisor to the school head ⁽⁶²⁾ or head of department ⁽⁶³⁾, and in most cases time and/or monetary compensations come with the job.

Among education systems with central regulations on the roles that teachers can cover during their professional life, Luxembourg and Portugal clearly stand out as the education systems with the most variety. However, in Luxembourg, all roles under analysis are covered through time and/or monetary compensation while in Portugal, mentoring and student guidance are not compensated.

At the other end of the spectrum, Turkey is the country that has the least variation in terms of different roles available to teachers. Similarly, in the French Community of Belgium, teachers do not have many possibilities to diversify their work, and monetary and/or time compensation are foreseen only for the roles of ICT and pedagogical coordinators.

Among the six countries ⁽⁶⁴⁾ that consider additional roles and related compensation mechanisms matters to be dealt with at local or school level, Czechia and Norway still regulate some responsibilities. In all such cases, teachers are entitled to time and/or monetary compensations.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ Belgium (French and German-speaking communities), Czechia, Germany, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Liechtenstein.

⁽⁶¹⁾ Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish communities), Czechia, Germany, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Finland and Liechtenstein.

⁽⁶²⁾ Czechia, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Portugal and Finland.

⁽⁶³⁾ Germany, Spain, Luxembourg and Portugal.

This analysis shows that single-level career structures per se do not mean that teachers have fewer possibilities to diversify their work. Indeed, in some education systems teachers have a variety of roles at their disposal that allow professional development. However, in other education systems there are margins for opening up additional opportunities and/or for providing teachers with incentives that add to the intrinsic motivational factors.

1.3.4. Career structures and career types

The following analysis maps the career structures analysed above within the scheme of career types developed by the ET 2020 Working Group on Schools. This group, set up by the European Commission and gathering representatives from European education ministries and stakeholder organisations ⁽⁶⁵⁾, has worked specifically on developing policy guidelines in the area of teachers' and school leaders' career development. In its final output *Supporting Teacher careers and school leaders: a policy guide* (European Commission, 2020), the group describes six possible types of career paths that can be made available to teachers, as Figure 1.15 indicates.

Considering the caveats of the analysis carried out in this report, such as excluding positions that do not hold teaching hours, the formal career paths identified can be traced back to at least three of the six models described by the ET 2020 Working Group on Schools, notably 'Moving upwards', 'Moving up and along' and 'Moving sideways'. As far as the other three are concerned, they are either out of the scope for this report ('Moving in and out' and 'Adding layers of system') or have been analysed to a certain extent in previous work ('Changing contexts') ⁽⁶⁶⁾. Nevertheless, they represent interesting paths to follow in future investigations on teaching career models.

As seen in this report, a number of education systems with multi-level career structures allow teachers to 'Move upwards' towards managerial roles (Ireland, Cyprus, Malta, the United Kingdom (Scotland)). This is also possible in some education systems with single-level career structures (Czechia, Germany, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal and Finland), although access to such positions is not framed within a formal career advancement structure. Teachers could be taking these roles temporarily, on the basis of their school organisational needs, and following processes that are usually decided at school level.

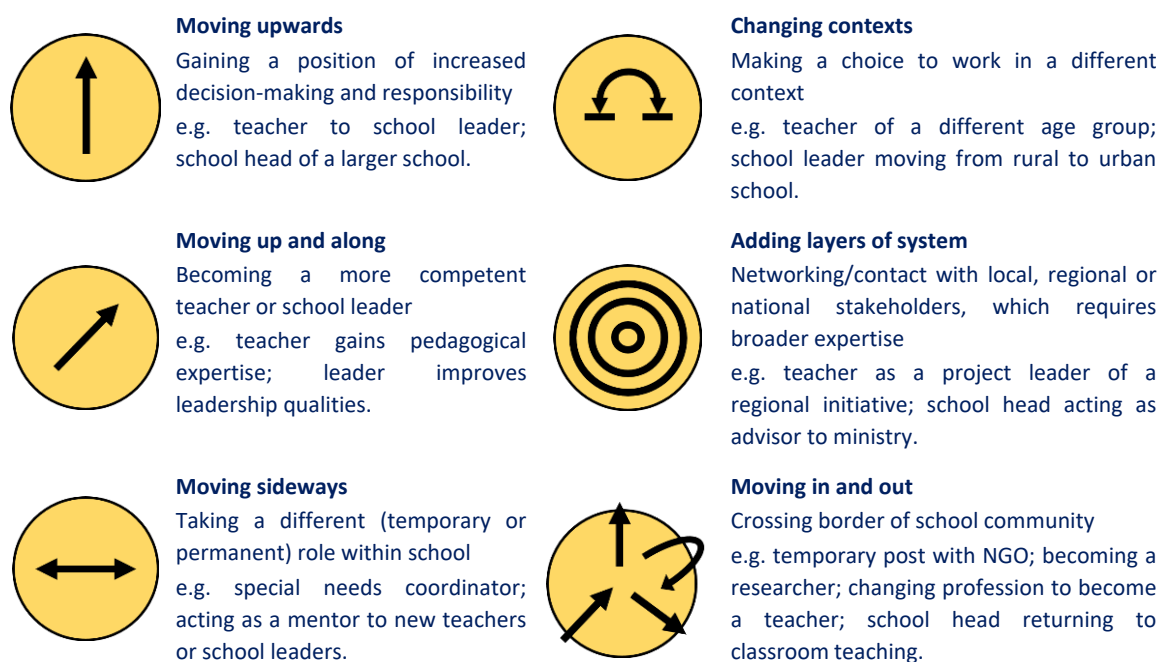
In other education systems, the accent is on pedagogical and/or teaching expertise, close to the concept of 'Moving up and along'. Assuming that 'Moving up' includes a notion of progression to a formal higher career level, this category would count many education systems with a multi-level career structure. In single-level career structures, teachers can also take on board roles that presume deeper and wider expertise in pedagogical, curriculum or subject matter. However, as highlighted before, these possibilities could be largely based on dynamics internal to the schools with no formal career advancement pattern in place, and would therefore be less visible for young people who might be considering teaching as a profession.

⁽⁶⁴⁾ Czechia, Denmark, Italy, Switzerland, Iceland and Norway.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ For further information on the ET 2020 working groups see: https://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/european-policy-cooperation/et2020-working-groups_en [Accessed 28 October 2020].

⁽⁶⁶⁾ To a certain extent, 'Changing contexts' has been analysed in terms of teacher mobility within education systems in the report *Teaching Careers in Europe – Access, progression and support* (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice, 2018).

Figure 1.15: Six types of teacher career path



Source: European Commission (2020).

Similarly, assuming that 'Moving sideways' implies that there is no formal progression to a higher level, all single-level career models would fall in this category. As seen in Figure 1.14, in some of these systems, opportunities are still extremely limited, while in others there is plenty of variation. Nevertheless, such opportunities do not always come with time or monetary compensations, leaving it to the intrinsic motivation and discretion of teachers whether they want to assume further responsibilities/roles or not.

Last but not least, France and Hungary have elements that mix the 'Moving up and along' model with 'Moving sideways'. In France, teachers can move up from the position of teacher, to teacher trainer, pedagogical counsellor and subject coordinator, and sideways between the latter three (see Annex I.1). To become a teacher trainer, however, teachers need to obtain a certificate (CAFFA – *Certificat d'aptitude aux fonctions de formateur académique*). In Hungary, master teachers can become teacher researchers for a 5-year period. After five years, they go back to their master teacher status – or apply for an additional five years of research.

1.4. Conclusions

The vocational crisis of teaching: main challenges for governments

Across Europe, education systems are facing a vocational crisis of the teaching profession. Most countries experience a general shortage of teachers, sometimes exacerbated by imbalances in their distribution across subjects and geographical areas, an ageing teacher population, drop-outs from the profession and low rates of enrolments in ITE. Many education systems face several challenges at the same time, calling for policies that can reinstate the attractiveness of teaching as a career choice. Governments all over Europe are putting in place plans that aim at contrasting teacher attrition, and these often go in the direction of reshaping ITE, improving working conditions, reforming career paths and modernising CPD.

Working conditions

In the Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future ⁽⁶⁷⁾, working conditions are identified as an essential element to improve the attractiveness and status of the profession. This chapter has analysed employment conditions, working hours, salaries and retirement age.

As far as employment conditions are concerned, the analysis reveals that at EU level, one teacher out of five works on a temporary contract. This precarious employment condition is largely concentrated on young teachers. At EU level, among teachers below 35 years old, one out of three is employed on a fixed-term contract, and in some countries, more than two thirds of young teachers have short-term contracts. The high share of precarious employment contracts among young teachers seems to go beyond the needed flexibility of education systems to adapt to changing scenarios, like demographic changes or the need for temporary replacements. Countries that have high proportions of fixed-term contracts report that this is due to various reasons such as bottlenecks in the recruitment processes, high shares of retiring teachers and the long-term impact of recent economic crises with a consequent reduction of public expenditure. The impact of high shares of precarious contracts concentrated in the first years of the teaching career might play a role in the decision of novice teachers to remain or leave the profession, and influence the perception of teaching as an unattractive career choice altogether.

Teachers' working time is regulated in every European education system. However, countries may define different dimensions of working time: overall working hours, teaching hours and/or time of availability at school. In most countries where overall working time is regulated, full-time teachers work 40 hours per week, ranging from 30 hours in Greece and Albania to 42 hours in Switzerland and Liechtenstein. TALIS data reveals that, on average, teachers in Europe reported working 39 hours per week. According to regulations, teaching hours range from the minimum of 12 hours a week in Turkey to a maximum of 26 hours a week in Hungary. On average, full-time teachers in the EU report teaching almost 20 hours per week. There is therefore a clear convergence between regulations and practice.

Teachers report dedicating less than half of their time to teaching, while tasks directly connected to teaching (i.e. planning/preparing lessons and marking/correcting) take up almost one quarter of their time. Other tasks, such as administrative work, school management and communication with parents take up the other quarter. Furthermore, when teachers work longer hours, the balance between these different dimensions changes. Indeed, teachers working longer hours tend to dedicate, in proportion, less time to teaching and more time to other tasks. The proportion can go as far as dedicating, on average, only one third of their total working time to teaching. Some top-level authorities are reviewing teachers' workload to reduce the burden of unnecessary tasks, refocus efforts towards core responsibilities and decrease time dedicated to administrative demands.

Teacher salaries vary enormously across Europe and so does the satisfaction of teachers with what they earn. At EU level, less than 40 % of teachers are satisfied or very satisfied with their salary. Data reveals that there is a certain correlation between satisfaction with the salary and wages in relation to the GDP per capita. In many countries, where the average gross actual salary of teachers is below the national GDP per capita, teachers express low satisfaction with their earnings. The contrary is also true. Teachers in countries where average salaries are above the GDP per capita express higher satisfaction with their wages. The data reveals that other specific circumstances could play a role in teachers' dissatisfaction with their salaries, such as slow and/or modest salary evolution during their career or long periods of stagnation due to governments' lower investments in public expenditure.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

When rethinking policies around salaries, considering the pace of salary progression as well as the overall salary level could help improve satisfaction with wages. Making teacher salaries more attractive could also play a role in influencing young people's choices on their professional path.

The retirement age for teachers has followed dynamics similar to other sectors. In most European countries, teachers generally retire at 65. Moreover, education systems that allow teachers to retire earlier are gradually increasing the retirement age. Furthermore, regulations that allow earlier retirement for women than men have disappeared or are planned to disappear in the next decade.

Careers

In Europe, there are two main career models for teachers. The first, called multi-level career structure, is organised in formal career levels and teachers progress along them. The second, called single-level, has no formal career levels and career progression consists in advancing on the salary scale.

The first model allows teachers to diversify their job depending on the level reached. Each level is usually associated with a higher salary and career progression is decided through a mixture of criteria such as number of years of service, compliance with CPD requirements and appraisal results. The single-level model also provides opportunities to diversify roles, although compensation mechanisms are not always foreseen. Progression is usually decided on the basis of number of years of service.

Multi-level career structures usually evolve in specific directions, such as management roles. This means good teachers that want to progress are being pushed more and more out of teaching rather than keeping them in teaching. Similarly, other multi-level career structures may not evolve towards management roles at all, failing to give the teachers that want to, the opportunity to experience this kind of responsibility.

In education systems with single-level career structures, the absence of a predetermined career structure can give teachers the flexibility to evolve in different directions, depending also on their personal wishes and talents, as well as school needs. However, in these education systems, the variety of roles and responsibilities is often limited, there is an absence of formal recognition and in some cases a lack of monetary/time compensation.

For both models, there is scope for reflection and reform by articulating career paths that allow teachers to evolve in different roles, depending on school and systemic needs, as well as teachers' wishes, talents and life plans. Elaborating such paths also entails clarifying issues around compensation and reward mechanisms, considering formal recognition and tailoring the criteria used for career progression. Teaching should cease to be seen as an isolated profession with limited or no career evolution and become a part of the larger family of school education professions instead. The development of national career frameworks could be a starting point for policies around career structures that provide teachers with a diversity of opportunities and connect the different school education professions. These, in turn, could play a favourable role in enhancing the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

CHAPTER 2: INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION AND INDUCTION INTO THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Initial teacher education (ITE) and induction are the first steps of the continuing process of teachers' professional development. The European Commission handbook on induction states that 'becoming a teacher should be seen as a gradual process including initial teacher education, the induction phase and continuing professional development' ⁽¹⁾.

ITE is a starting point for this ongoing process of professional development and 'the way it is organised plays a key role in determining both the quality and the quantity of teachers' (Musset, 2010, p. 4). It aims to provide prospective teachers with core professional competences and to develop the attitudes needed for their future role and responsibilities. It offers opportunities to build awareness about the profession and usually to have a first teaching experience through in-school placements. Higher education institutions (HEIs) are the main providers of ITE in most European education systems. As a result of the developments of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the Bologna process, many education systems have reformed ITE to fit a new three-cycle structure (Bachelor/Master/PhD).

Induction at the early stage of the career allows teachers to consolidate knowledge and skills and link them to the real school environment. It also aims at facilitating teachers' transition into the profession by providing individual support and by helping them to cope with the challenges they may face in the first years of teaching. Most European education systems have made available a structured induction phase for newly qualified teachers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018, p. 52).

Both European and national policy makers focus strongly on the quality of ITE and induction. It is widely acknowledged that teachers' quality impacts students' outcomes. The Council's conclusions on effective teacher education consider the provision of high quality ITE and induction to be a significant factor in ensuring that teachers possess the relevant competences to be effective in the classroom ⁽²⁾. Moreover, it has become evident that a structured induction phase plays a crucial role in ensuring continuing professionalisation for newly qualified teachers and in supporting their transition into professional activity. The Council's conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future stress that 'special attention should be paid to novice teachers, by providing them with additional guidance and mentoring, to facilitate their career start and help them to cope with the specific needs they are facing' ⁽³⁾.

The European Union political documents have been continuously underlining that quality ITE and availability of support for newly-qualified teachers play an important role in attracting and retaining high-potential candidates into the profession. As stated in the Council's conclusions in 2014, teacher education is an integral part of the broader policy objective to raise the attractiveness and quality of the profession ⁽⁴⁾. In 2020, the Council's conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future reaffirm that the quality of ITE contributes to the attractiveness of the teaching profession and stress the need of 'a complementary and comprehensive approach at all levels and in all parts of teacher and trainer education and training including ITE, induction and mentoring' ⁽⁵⁾.

⁽¹⁾ European Commission Staff Working Document SEC(2010) 538 final. Developing Coherent and System-wide Induction Programmes for Beginning Teachers. A handbook for policymakers, p. 9. The document is available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/school/doc/handbook0410_en.pdf [Accessed 18 November 2020].

⁽²⁾ Council conclusions of 20 May 2014 on effective teacher education, OJ C 183, 14.06.2014.

⁽³⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/12.

⁽⁴⁾ OJ C 183, 14.06.2014.

⁽⁵⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/11.

This chapter provides information on the structure of ITE and early career support measures. The analyses are mainly based on top-level regulations and recommendations. The secondary analyses of TALIS 2018 data feed the discussion by shedding light on the reality of teachers' educational attainment and experience. This chapter consists of two main sections. The first one addresses the way ITE for lower secondary teachers is organised and its duration. It also provides information on the minimum qualification level granted at the end of ITE. This data is interrelated with TALIS 2018 data on the highest educational attainment in-service teachers actually possess. To help address the quality of ITE, the analysis looks into the core elements of ITE by focusing on the share of professional training and in-school placement. Finally, this section reports on alternative paths to access the teaching qualification.

The second section investigates the availability, status, duration and provisions of induction programmes for newly qualified teachers. Based on the TALIS 2018 survey results, the analysis looks into the proportion of lower secondary education teachers who took part in formal or informal induction programmes as newcomers to teaching. It also addresses the relationship between regulations and participation in induction. To complement the picture, this section looks at the status and aims of the appraisal of teachers at the end of induction.

2.1. Initial teacher education

The organisation of mainstream ITE widely differs across Europe and may appear as a quite complex structure. As a result of the increasing flexibility in tertiary education, some education systems have introduced several ITE programmes preparing lower secondary teachers ⁽⁶⁾. The first part of this section, however, focuses on the two main organisational models of mainstream ITE (the consecutive and the concurrent ones). It analyses how they relate to regulations concerning the minimum duration of the ITE, the minimum level of qualification they lead to and the minimum required time for professional training (see 2.1.1 and 2.1.2). This part is supplemented by the analysis of the TALIS 2018 data on the highest educational attainment of teachers in lower secondary education and the core elements included in their formal education and training.

The second part of this section (2.1.3) addresses alternative pathways into the teaching qualification, while structured descriptions of national alternative pathways can be found in Annex I.2.

2.1.1. Mainstream ITE: organisation and qualification level

Mainstream ITE programmes can be divided in two main models: concurrent and consecutive. Concurrent programmes are dedicated to ITE from their start, with general academic subjects provided alongside professional subjects. Consecutive models cover programmes where students, who have undertaken higher education in particular fields, move on to professional teacher training in a separate successive phase. Pros and cons of these models have been largely identified and described in the literature. The concurrent model of ITE is usually perceived as allowing a more integrated learning experience. The consecutive programmes are usually seen as offering a more flexible entry into the teaching qualification as they allow the professional choice to be made at a later stage of the training (Musset, 2010).

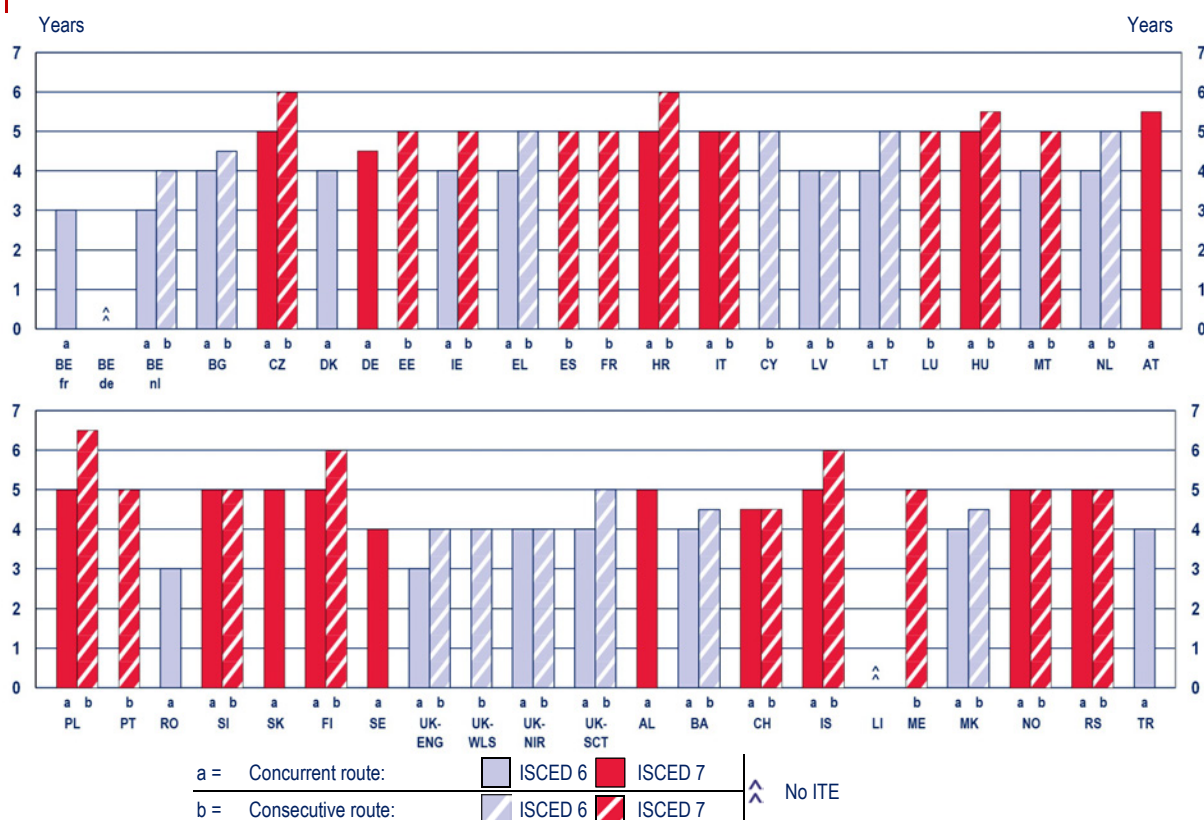
Figure 2.1 shows that more than half of the European education systems offer both training routes for lower secondary teachers. In nine education systems ⁽⁷⁾, mainstream ITE is provided exclusively

⁽⁶⁾ The detailed information on all initial teacher education programmes in the European education systems, can be found on: https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/national-description_en

⁽⁷⁾ Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Germany, Austria, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden, Albania and Turkey.

through a concurrent model, while in eight systems ⁽⁸⁾ the consecutive route is the only one available. Nevertheless, it is worth highlighting that half of the education systems offering only one of these two models, have introduced alternative entry points into the teaching profession by developing new teacher training schemes (see the part 2.1.3).

Figure 2.1: Minimum level and minimum total duration of the mainstream initial teacher education (in years) for work in lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

The minimum qualification level is based on the [International classification of Education \(ISCED 2011\)](#). Bachelor corresponds to ISCED level 6 and masters to ISCED 7 level.

When the official documents specify the duration of ITE only in study credits (ECTS), the following conversion was applied: 1 year = 60 study credits.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE de): No teacher education is organised within the Community. Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium. The minimum requirement for recruitment is a bachelor's degree.

Czechia: The consecutive model is defined as non-pedagogical master's degree plus 188 hours of professional training. The professional training may be followed in parallel to or after a non-pedagogical master's degree. It usually lasts from one to two years.

Germany: The minimum total duration of ITE is 4.5 to 5.5 years, depending on the length of the preparatory service (*Vorbereitungsdienst*) the duration of which varies between 12 and 24 months depending on the *Land*. The bar in the Figure displays the minimum total duration for the *Länder* with a First State Examination (*Erste Staatsprüfung*) at the end of the first phase. Generally, no ECTS credits can be acquired during the second phase of ITE.

Greece: Master and PhD graduates from Educational sciences can be qualified as teacher without following a teacher-training programme.

Luxembourg: Most of lower secondary education teachers obtain their master's degree abroad.

Malta: Due to a reform in ITE (2016/17), the concurrent Bachelor of Education programme was replaced by a consecutive five-year course leading to Master in Teaching and Learning. A small number of concurrent ITE courses are still being provided.

Hungary: The duration of ITE programmes depends on several factors (e.g. number of subject covered; study field; type of the study). The data in the Figure indicate the features of the most typical ITE programmes.

Austria: After having obtained the Bachelor diploma, trainee teachers can start working. But they have to complete a master's degree within five years, possibly on a part-time basis.

Slovenia: The consecutive programme can also last six years.

⁽⁸⁾ Estonia, Spain, France, Cyprus, Luxemburg, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Wales) and Montenegro.

Sweden: The total duration of ITE is 4 years if it prepares in two subjects, and 4.5 years if it prepares teachers in three subjects.

United Kingdom (WLS): There is no concurrent training route for lower secondary teachers in 2019/20 anymore. This programme will be reintroduced starting from 2020/21.

Liechtenstein: No teacher education is organised within the country. Most teachers are trained in Austria or Switzerland. The minimum requirement for recruitment is a master's degree.

Norway: Most ITE programmes lead to a master's degree. The exceptions are the ITE programmes preparing teachers of practical and aesthetic subjects, which final qualification being bachelor.

In the majority of the European education systems, ITE programmes for lower secondary teachers lead to master's degree (ISCED 7) ⁽⁹⁾. In others, the minimum qualification is the bachelor (ISCED 6). Some education systems – those where the bachelor's degree is the minimum level of ITE required to be a lower-secondary school teacher – offer the option of longer studies up to a master's degree. This is the case, for example, in the French Community of Belgium, Bulgaria, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England). In Romania and the United Kingdom (Wales), new ITE programme leading to a master's degree will be available from 2020/21 academic year.

In **Romania**, starting with academic year 2020/21, a pilot for the consecutive model of ITE offering Didactic/Educational Master (Master degree in teaching) will be implemented in eight universities.

In the **United Kingdom (Wales)**, a new postgraduate part-time route into teaching will be available from September 2020. This route will take two years to complete and lead to a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (including 60 master's level credits) and Qualified Teacher Status.

The duration of ITE may be expressed in a number of years (see Figure 2.1). As a rule, ITE programmes leading to the bachelor's degree last four years. Only in the French Community of Belgium, the Flemish Community of Belgium (concurrent model), Romania and the United Kingdom (England – concurrent model) is the duration three years. In contrast, in Greece, Cyprus, Lithuania, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), ITE programmes organised according to the consecutive model last five years. The master's degree is commonly granted after completing the five-year ITE programme.

In the last five years, in some education systems, different aspects of ITE related to Figure 2.1 have been reformed. In Ireland (consecutive model), Malta (consecutive model), Austria, Montenegro and Norway, the minimum level of ITE to work in lower secondary schools has been upgraded up to a master's degree.

In Greece, North Macedonia and Serbia, the consecutive model has been introduced alongside traditional concurrent routes. In contrast, two countries have reduced the number of ITE routes. In Austria and Montenegro, one single route at master's level (concurrent in Austria and consecutive in Montenegro) has replaced the previous models.

Highest qualification level achieved by teachers

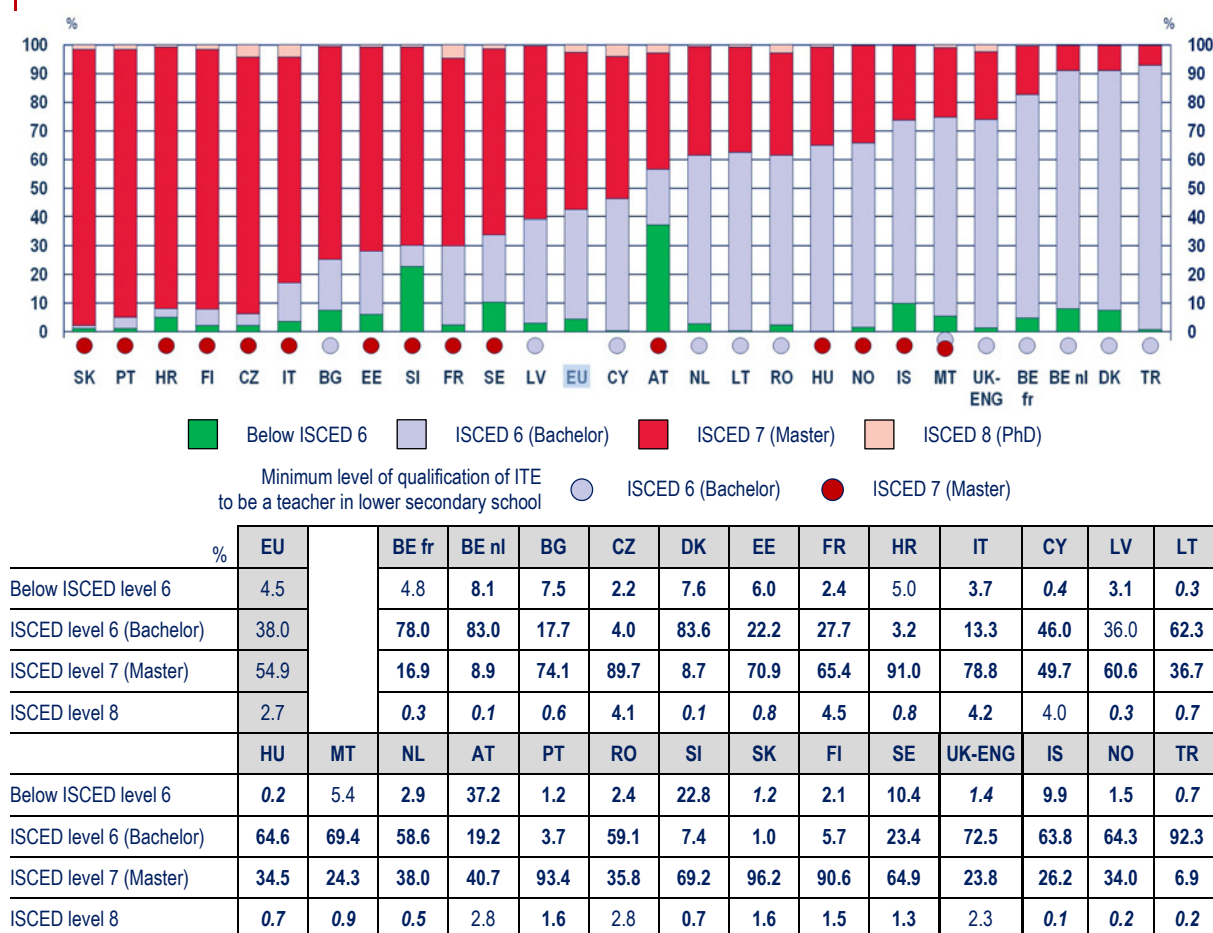
The TALIS 2018 data provides information on the teachers' highest educational attainment. This can shed light on the qualification level that in-service teachers actually have in Europe. Comparison between the two sets of data should, however, be made with caution. While Eurydice data provides information on current regulations, TALIS 2018 data includes responses from all teachers including those qualified under the previous legislation. Moreover, Eurydice data refers to the minimum qualification, while TALIS 2018 refers to teachers' highest qualification ⁽¹⁰⁾.

⁽⁹⁾ In some education systems, particularly where the initial teacher training was recently reformed, there may be a lag between the current legislation on the minimum qualification level for employment and the minimum qualification level of ITE programmes. This is the case for instance in Poland and Albania, where short-cycle tertiary education (ISCED 5) is still stated as the minimum qualification level for employment of lower-secondary teachers, while the ITE programmes starting in the academic year 2019/20 lead to the master's degrees.

⁽¹⁰⁾ It was not possible to analyse the highest education attainment of teachers who were qualified within the current legislation. The sample for recently-qualified teachers (those who are completed their formation education or training less than 5 years ago) was too small to be representative.

Despite these limitations, TALIS 2018 data indicates that the highest qualification obtained by teachers tends to correspond to the minimum requirement in regulations. In 19 education systems ⁽¹¹⁾, most teachers (75 % and more) report being qualified at least to the minimum level required by current regulations concerning ITE.

Figure 2.2: Proportion of lower secondary teachers by highest educational attainment, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 2.1 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 3 'What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?'. Answers to the items 1-4 are aggregated in the category 'Below ISCED 6'.

The minimum qualification level is based on the International classification of education (ISCED 2011).

EU includes the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant differences from EU values are indicated in bold in the table below the figure.

The data in the Figure is arranged in descending order of all teachers whose highest formal education is a master's degree (ISCED 7).

The dots 'ISCED 6 (Bachelor)', 'ISCED 7 (Master)' show the top-level regulations on the minimum level of ITE, see Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.2 shows that in the EU, 54.9 % of teachers report holding a master's degree, while 38.0 % of teachers stated a bachelor's degree as their highest qualification. Few teachers hold an advanced research qualification. At EU level, 2.7 % of lower secondary teachers indicated that they have finished a PhD programme. In Czechia, France and Italy, a proportion of PhD graduates among lower secondary education teachers is significantly higher (4.1 %, 4.5 % and 4.2 % respectively). Finally, 4.5 % of teachers in the EU have reported to be qualified at a level below Bachelor (ISCED 6). In

⁽¹¹⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Finland, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey.

Austria (37.2 %) and Slovenia (22.8 %) ⁽¹²⁾, the proportions are particularly high. This may be related to the fact that in these countries short-cycle tertiary education programmes (ISCED 5) used to be the most common way to obtain a teaching qualification. Although new ITE programmes leading to the master's degree have been introduced, more years are needed for this share to decrease.

In several countries most teachers tend to hold the same qualification level. More than 75.0 % of teachers in Czechia, Croatia, Italy, Portugal, Slovakia and Finland hold a master's degree. In these countries, master's degree is the minimum required qualification to be a teacher in lower secondary education. More than 75.0 % of teachers reported holding a bachelor's degree in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark and Turkey.

In six countries, although the minimum level of ITE is fixed at bachelor's level, many teachers have reported to hold a master's degree. The share of masters' graduates in Lithuania, the Netherlands and Romania is 36.7 %, 38.0 % and 35.8 % respectively, while it reaches 74.1 % in Bulgaria, 49.7 % in Cyprus and 60.6 % in Latvia. Several reasons can explain this high proportion of master's graduates. For example, it can be linked to the fact that in all these countries, except Romania, teachers can be qualified through the consecutive ITE route, which means that some hold a master's degree in the subject area before undertaking professional teacher training. Moreover, in Lithuania and Cyprus, teachers are encouraged to obtain a master's degree as this counts for career progression. While in Lithuania, a master's degree is the required qualification to become a school head, in Cyprus, teachers who hold further qualifications are credited with extra qualification points contributing towards a salary increase. Finally, in some education systems where the bachelor's degree is the minimum level of ITE, programmes lead to both bachelor's and master's degrees. For example:

In the **Netherlands**, although the bachelor's degree is the minimum required level of qualification, both concurrent and consecutive ITE routes offer longer studies leading to a master's degree.

In eight countries ⁽¹³⁾, although ITE leads to the master's degree, fewer than 75 % of teachers reported to be qualified at master's level. The share of teachers qualified below the minimum required masters' degree exceeds 50 % in Hungary, Austria, Iceland and Norway. This may be explained by the fact that in these four countries, a master's degree has recently been set as the minimum level of ITE ⁽¹⁴⁾.

2.1.2. Mainstream ITE programmes: core elements

Irrespective of which model is adopted and to which qualification level it leads to, the content of ITE is particularly important for teachers to be fully equipped to do their job. European Union policy documents have been continuously underlining the point that prospective teachers should develop not only subject knowledge, but also professional skills during their studies. In 2014, the Council of the European Union acknowledged that subject(s) knowledge and professional skills are core elements of effective ITE ⁽¹⁵⁾. The Communication from the European Commission on school development and excellent teaching stressed that quality ITE should combine subject knowledge, pedagogical theory and sufficient classroom practice ⁽¹⁶⁾.

⁽¹²⁾ In Slovenia, 22.7 % of lower secondary teachers obtained qualification with completion of old academic degree study programmes carried out until the 1990s, which correspond to the first cycle of the Bologna system. This programme was classified at ISCED 5 level because its duration (2-3 years). 0.1 % of lower secondary teachers are qualified under ISCED 5 level (see OECD, TALIS 2018 Database, Tables I.4.8).

⁽¹³⁾ Estonia, France, Hungary, Austria, Slovenia, Sweden, Iceland and Norway.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Master degree as the minimum level of ITE was set: France (2010), Hungary (2006), Austria (2015), Iceland (2008) and Norway (2017).

⁽¹⁵⁾ Council conclusions of 20 May 2014 on effective teacher education, OJ C 183, 14.6.2014.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. School development and excellent teaching for a great start in life. SWD(2017) 165 final. COM(2017) 248 final. [pdf] Available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2017/EN/CO-M-2017-248-F1-EN-MAIN-PART-1.PDF> [Accessed 7 July 2020].

Professional training, as understood here, is a part of ITE that provides prospective teachers with both the specific theoretical knowledge and practical skills for the teaching profession. In-school placement is an integral part of professional training that can include observation of teaching and sometimes teaching itself. Usually, it is an unremunerated practical training in a real working environment that can be integrated at different stages of ITE programme(s).

The first part of this section analyses whether top-level education authorities require professional training and in-school placement to be included in the ITE of lower secondary teachers and what its minimum regulated duration is. The second part looks at the TALIS 2018 data to show the proportion of lower secondary education teachers who have completed a formal education or training that included content, pedagogy and classroom practice.

Figure 2.3 shows the total duration of ITE as well as the duration of professional training and in-school placement when it is regulated. To enable comparison of workload across the programmes, the duration is expressed in the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System credits (ECTS). Through the framework of the Bologna process and European cooperation programmes such as Erasmus+, European education systems have developed ECTS as a key instrument for transparent curriculum design as well as to facilitate credit transfer between programmes and institutions. It enables the learning outcomes and workload of ITE programmes to be expressed in study credits. Therefore, both the duration of ITE programmes and their main components can be compared.

Figure 2.3 shows that almost all education systems require professional training to be included in ITE programmes. Most education systems also regulate a minimum duration of professional training, while in 11 education systems ⁽¹⁷⁾, the share of professional training is decided by ITE institutions themselves.

In nine education systems, where the duration is regulated ⁽¹⁸⁾, the workload of professional training is 60 ECTS corresponding to around a year of full-time training. In Ireland, France, Malta (consecutive programme) and Portugal professional training is twice as long. In Bulgaria, Romania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, North Macedonia and Serbia, the minimum duration of professional training does not exceed 40 ECTS, while the shortest durations are in Italy (24 ECTS), Montenegro (23 ECTS) and Turkey (25 ECTS).

When looking at the share of professional training as a part of ITE programmes, big cross-country variations can be observed. The share of professional training ranges from 50 % of the total duration of ITE in Belgium (French Community), Ireland (concurrent programme) and Malta (concurrent programme) to 8 % in Italy and Montenegro. The share of professional training is 15 % or less in Bulgaria, Italy, Romania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Serbia and Turkey where the duration of professional training is also the shortest.

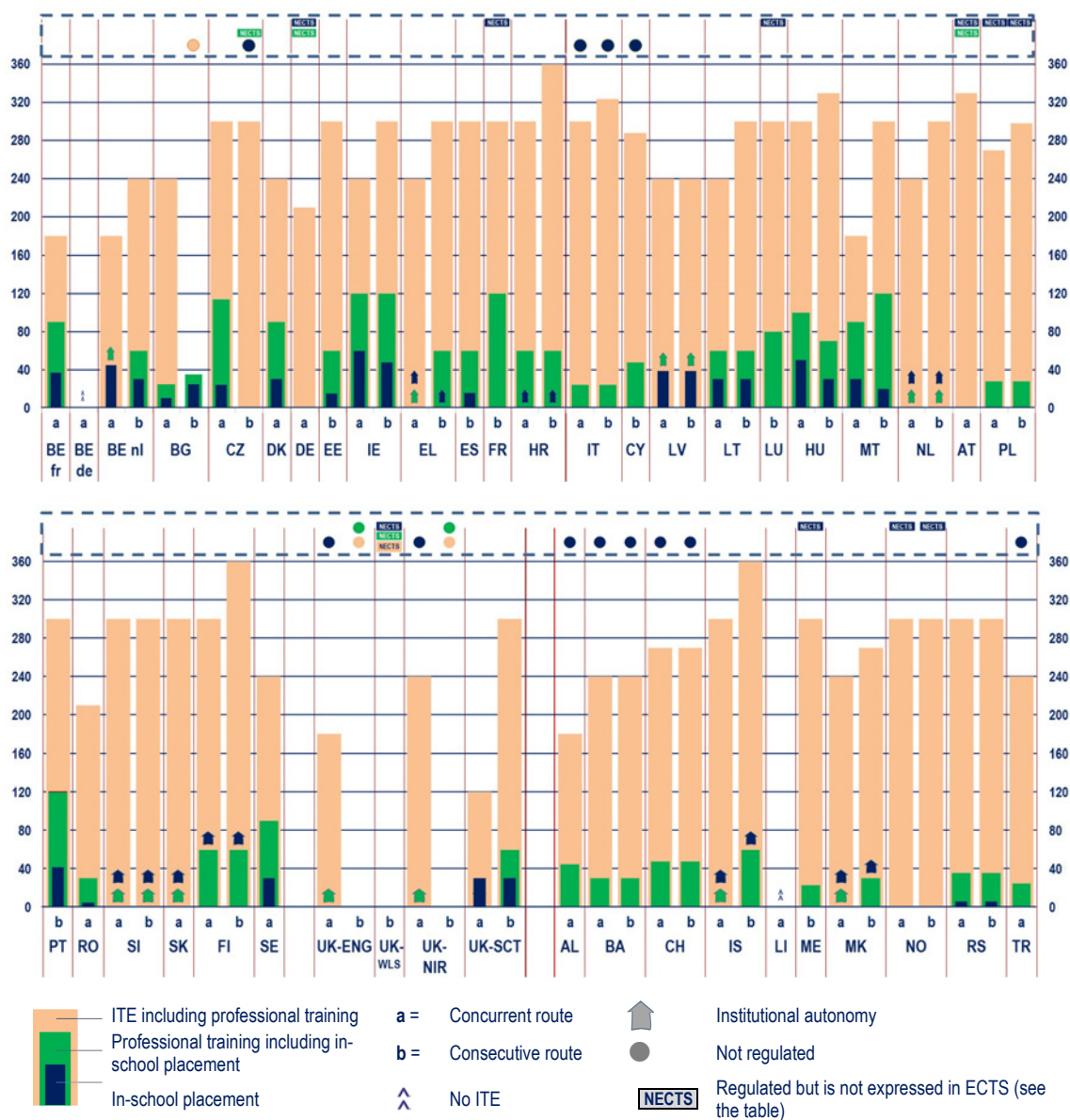
While the duration of in-school placements as part of professional training is regulated in about half of the European education systems, in others it is a matter left to the discretion of the ITE institutions or it is not regulated. Where regulated, the minimum length of in-school placement shows considerable cross-country variations. It ranges from 60 ECTS in Ireland (concurrent model) to five ECTS in Romania. In eight education systems ⁽¹⁹⁾, practical training takes up around half of the time dedicated to professional training.

⁽¹⁷⁾ This applies to the concurrent models of ITE in Belgium (Flemish Community), Greece, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Northern Ireland and Scotland), Iceland and North Macedonia. In Latvia, the Netherlands and Slovenia institutional autonomy applies to all mainstream ITE programmes.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Belgium (Flemish Community, consecutive programme), Estonia, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Lithuania, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland) (consecutive programme) and Iceland (consecutive programme).

⁽¹⁹⁾ Belgium (French Community) and Flemish Community (consecutive model), Bulgaria (concurrent model), Denmark, Ireland, Lithuania, Hungary and the United Kingdom (Scotland – consecutive model).

Figure 2.3: Minimum duration of ITE, professional training and in-school placement (in ECTS), in lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The duration of ITE corresponds to the total duration, i.e. it includes the duration of professional training and in-school placement. The duration of professional training includes the duration of in-school placement.

(ECTS, except for special mention)

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR
	a	-	a b	a b	a b	a	a	b	a b	a b	b	b
ITE	180	>>	180 240	240 ●	300 300	240	210	300	240 300	240 300	300	300
Professional training	90	>>	↑ 60	25 35	114 188 hours	90	See note	60	120 120	↑ 60	60	120
In-school placement	37	>>	45 30	10 25	24 ●	30	See note	15	60 48	↑ ↑	16	4-6 weeks

	HR		IT		CY	LV		LT		LU	HU		MT		NL		AT
	a	b	a	b	b	a	b	a	b	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a
ITE	300	360	300	300	288	240	240	240	300	300	300	330	180	300	240	300	330
Professional training	60	60	24	24	48	↑	↑	60	60	80	100	70	90	120	↑	↑	See note
In-school placement	↑	↑	●	●	●	39	39	30	30	180 hours	50	30	30	20	↑	↑	See note

	PL		PT	RO	SI		SK	FI		SE	UK-ENG		UK-WLS	UK-NIR		UK-SCT	
	a	b	b	a	a	b	a	a	b	a	a	b	b	a	b	a	b
ITE	270	298	300	210	300	300	300	300	360	240	180	●	4 years	240	●	120	300
Professional training	28	28	120	30	↑	↑	↑	60	60	90	↑	●	1 year	↑	●	↑	60
In-school placement	150 hours	150 hours	42	5	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	30	●	●	24 weeks	●	●	30	30

	AL	BA		CH		IS		LI	ME	MK		NO		RS		TR
	a	a	b	a	b	a	b	-	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a
ITE	180	240	240	270	270	300	360	>>	300	240	270	300	300	300	300	240
Professional training	45	30	30	48	48	↑	60	>>	23	↑	30	0.5 year	0.3 year	36	36	25
In-school placement	●	●	●	●	●	↑	↑	>>	See note	↑	↑	100-110 days	60 days	6	6	●

a Concurrent route b Consecutive route ↑ Institutional autonomy ● Not regulated >> ITE abroad

Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE de): No teacher education is organised within the Community. Most teachers are trained in the French Community of Belgium.

Belgium (BE nl): 'In-school placements' are equated with the wider concept of 'practical component' in ITE. This practical component includes in-school-placements, but can also contain the practical lessons in the university college.

Czechia: The duration of the consecutive route does not include 188 hours of professional training. The professional training may be followed in parallel to or after a non-pedagogical master's degree.

Germany: The length of professional training and in-school placements is regulated, but cannot be expressed separately in ECTS. The ratio of didactics or educational sciences and school placements to studies in the subjects to be taught should be approximately 1:2. Furthermore, the preparatory service constitutes professional training in school. Their organisation and duration depend on the *Land*.

Luxembourg: Data in the Figure refers to the ITE in the University of Luxembourg.

Spain: According to the regulation, at least 16 ECTS credits must correspond to a 'practicum', which includes in-school placements as well as the final Master's dissertation.

France: For the majority of students who qualify as described in the Figure, a minimum number of weeks of observation at school is specified (4-6 weeks for students who passed the competitive examination at the end of year 4; 8-12 weeks for the others). The corresponding number of ECTS credits is at the discretion of the institution. In addition, students who passed the examination at the end of year 4 have 324 teaching hours in year 5.

Italy: To become a qualified teacher, HEIs' graduates have to pass a competition. To be admitted to this competition, the candidates have to complete 24 ECTS in anthro-psycho-pedagogical subjects as well as in teaching methodologies and technologies. These 24 ECTS can be obtained during master's degree programmes (if included) or after the completion of master's degree programmes (if not included).

Cyprus: There is no in-school placement as student teachers get a practical experience in school during induction which is a structured phase of the ITE program.

Lithuania: Students who have obtained at least a bachelor's level qualification may start teaching, provided they complete the teacher qualification (corresponding to 60 ECTS credits) at the latest within the first two years of teaching.

Austria: Professional training and in-school placement are included in 330 ECTS (ITE workload), they are not expressed in ECTS separately.

Poland: In-school placement is included in professional training (28 ECTS), but it is expressed in hours only (minimum of 150 hours).

Slovakia: A 'supplementary pedagogical study' (*Doplňujúce pedagogické štúdium*) of 200 hours (usually two years) may also be followed in parallel to or after a relevant non-pedagogical master's degree. In-school placements represent a minimum of 40 hours, but there is no ECTS equivalent.

Sweden: The total duration of ITE is 240 ECTS if it prepares in two subjects, and 270 ECTS if it prepares teachers in three subjects.

United Kingdom (ENG): For the consecutive model, the duration of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which usually corresponds to a one-year programme, is not available under ECTS. For concurrent routes and consecutive routes that are not employment-based, in-school placements usually represent a minimum of 120 days (24 weeks) with no ECTS equivalent.

United Kingdom (NIR): For the consecutive model, the duration of the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which usually corresponds to a one-year programme, is not available under ECTS. For concurrent post-primary routes, in-school placements usually last 32 weeks, with no ECTS equivalent, while for consecutive post-primary routes, they last 24 weeks.

Liechtenstein: No teacher education is organised within the country. Most teachers are trained in Austria or Switzerland.

Montenegro: In-school placement is provided continuously throughout the semesters.

Inclusion of teaching content, pedagogy and practices in ITE

TALIS 2018 has asked teachers to report on several elements included in their formal education or training. This section focuses on the inclusion of content, pedagogy (general and subject related) and school practice.

In the EU, 92.4 % of teachers reported having studied the content of all or some subjects they teach. Most European countries follow the average trends regarding the inclusion of subject content in initial education or training. Similarly, over 80 % of teachers in the EU have followed training in subject-related and general pedagogy. There is very little variation across countries in this area. Only in Spain, France and Italy are proportions significantly lower (see Table 2.4 in Annex II).

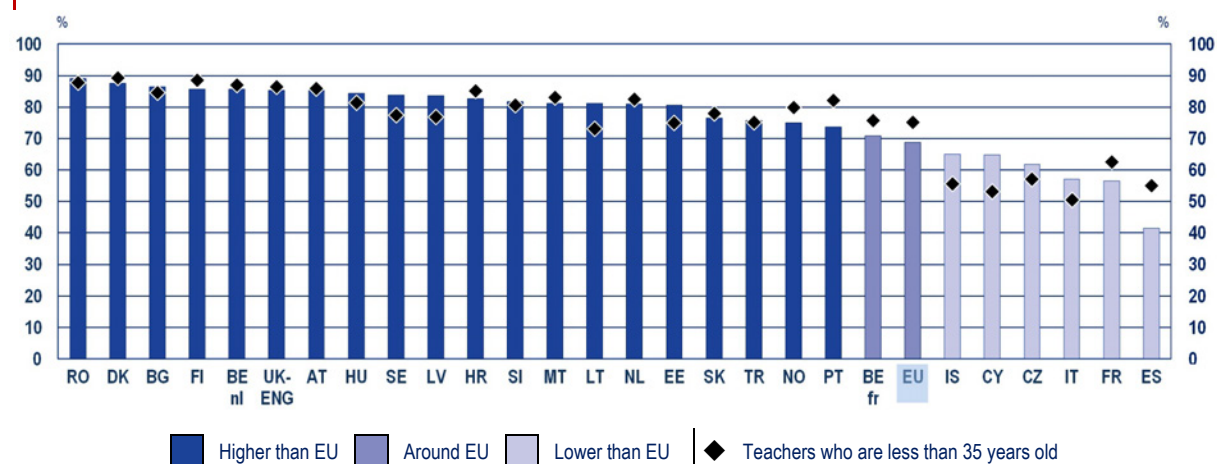
School practice is also reported to have been part of the ITE by most teachers in the EU (84.3 %). It reaches 98.1 % in Finland, 97.1 % in the United Kingdom (England) and 95.0 % in the Flemish Community of Belgium, while the lowest rate can be observed in Czechia (66.9 %) and Spain (67.3 %).

Figure 2.4 shows the percentage of teachers who report having received initial education or training that included all core components. It also shows responses from the younger generation of teachers (less than 35 years old) in order to understand if ITE is changing.

According to the TALIS 2018 results, nearly 70 % of teachers across the EU report that their formal education or training included all core components⁽²⁰⁾. In around three-quarters of the European education systems, this proportion is significantly higher than the EU level. This ratio exceeds 85.0 % in Belgium (Flemish Community), Bulgaria, Denmark, Austria, Romania, Finland and the United Kingdom (England) where there is the long tradition of combining teaching content, pedagogy and practice in ITE. In contrast, in Czechia, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus and Iceland, the proportion of teachers who were trained in all core elements is below the EU level. In Spain, France and Italy, this share is below 60.0 %, with the lowest proportion found in Spain (41.5 %).

⁽²⁰⁾ In Spain, France and Italy (three of the biggest EU countries), the proportion of teachers who were trained in all core elements is low, which drives the EU average down.

Figure 2.4: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers who have completed a formal education or training programme that includes content, pedagogy and classroom practice, 2018



	%	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT
All teachers		68.8	70.7	85.7	86.5	61.8	87.6	80.5	41.5	56.5	82.7	57.1	64.8	83.6	81.2
Teachers who are less than 35 years old		75.0	75.6	86.9	84.5	57.1	89.2	74.9	55.0	62.4	85.0	50.4	53.1	76.8	72.9
	%	HU	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	IS	NO	TR
All teachers		84.4	81.3	81.0	85.4	73.7	89.1	81.8	76.5	85.8	83.9	85.4	65.1	74.9	75.7
Teachers who are less than 35 years old		81.2	82.9	82.4	85.8	82.1	87.7	80.6	77.8	88.5	77.4	86.4	55.5	79.7	75.0

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 2.3 in the Appendix II).

Explanatory notes

Data based on teachers' answers to question 6 'Were the following elements included in your formal <education or training>, and to what extent did you feel prepared for each element in your teaching?' sorted by age groups according to answers given to the question 'How old are you?'.

Bars show the proportion of lower secondary teachers who completed formal education or training that included teaching content, pedagogy and classroom practice, i.e. teachers who answered 'yes' to the variables a (some or all subject(s) I teach), b (pedagogy of some or all subject(s)), c (general pedagogy) and d (classroom practice in all or some subject(s) I teach) of question 6 (A).

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of the bold in the table indicate statistically significant differences from the EU values.

The data shown in bars is arranged in descending order. The data in the table is in protocol order.

EU includes the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Diamonds show the proportion of lower secondary teachers younger than 35 years old who completed formal education or training that included teaching content, pedagogy and classroom practice.

When comparing novice teachers with the entire teacher population, a positive trend can be observed at EU level (plus 6.2 percentage points, S.E. 0.59). In around half of the education systems, young teachers are more likely to have completed an initial training incorporating all core elements, while the biggest difference is observed in Spain and France (plus 13.6 percentage points, S.E. 2.56 and 5.9 percentage points, S.E. 1.58 respectively) (see the Table 2.3 in Annex II). This probably reflects the following recent policies that introduced changes in the structure and content of ITE:

In **Spain**, the Royal Decree of 2008 ⁽²¹⁾ established the basis of the initial teacher education for each educational stage. Therefore, since the academic year 2009/10, all ITE programmes leading to the secondary teacher's diploma have to include pedagogy, psychology and classroom management.

In **France**, since the implementation of the master's programme for teaching in 2013/14, the professional component of the initial teacher training has constantly been reinforced. This trend continues with the ongoing reform which increases professionalisation by including more internship periods and more training by teachers actually teaching in the level concerned.

⁽²¹⁾ The Royal Decree (2008), <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2008-19174>

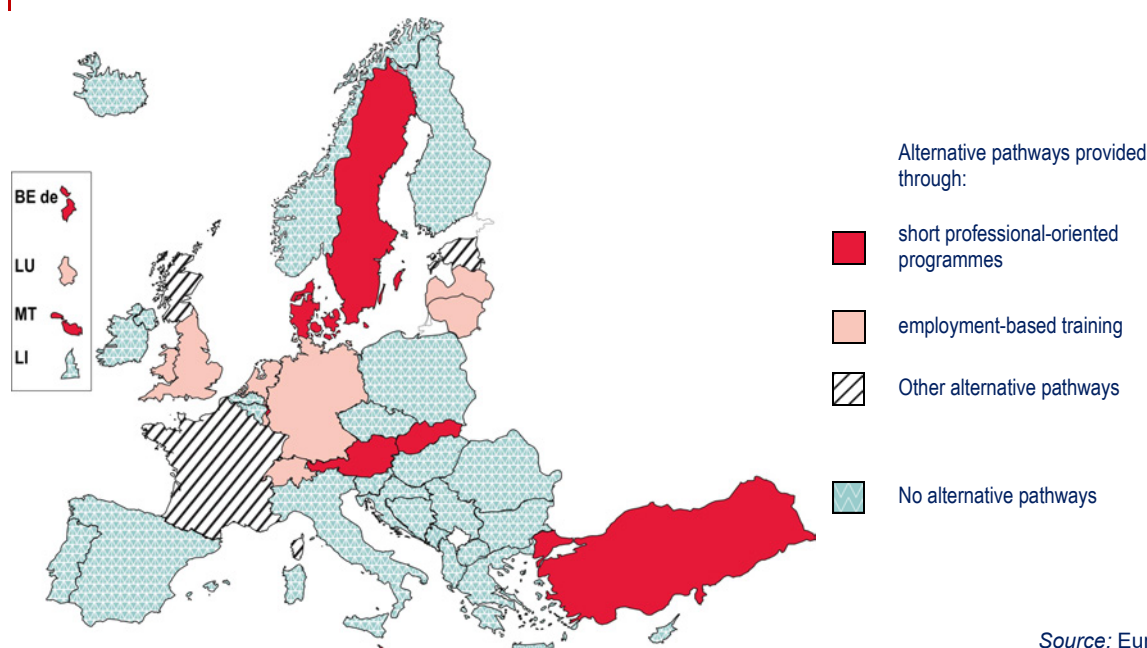
In around half of the education systems, the opposite trend can be observed whereby young teachers (less than 35) are less likely to have accomplished an education or training including the four elements. In Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania and Iceland, the difference between young teachers and the whole teacher population exceeds 6.5 percentage points.

2.1.3. Alternative pathways

Alternative pathways to a teaching qualification refer to education and/or training programmes that have been introduced alongside regular ITE programmes as an alternative entry point to a teaching qualification. Compared to mainstream ITE, these programmes are usually characterised by a high degree of flexibility, a shorter duration and being partly or entirely employment-based. In some education systems, alternative pathways have been introduced to respond to the shortage of teachers. In others, such pathways serve to diversify the profession by attracting high quality graduates and/or highly skilled professionals from other fields. Alternative programmes typically target either individuals with professional experience gained inside or outside education (lateral entrants) or graduates from other disciplines. They may offer flexible forms of enrolment such as part-time, distance or blended learning, as well as evening courses.

Across Europe, 18 education systems report the introduction of alternative pathways to the teaching qualification. Although there is no single model of alternative pathway, two main approaches can be observed.

Figure 2.5: Alternative pathways to a teaching qualification and their duration, lower secondary education, 2019/20



Duration of alternative programmes expressed in ECTS (c), years (y) or hours (h)

BE de	DE	DK	EE	FR	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	AT	SK	SE	UK- ENG	UK- WLS	UK- SCT	CH	TR
30 c	1-2 y	150 c	●	●	650 h	60 c	230 h	180 c	●	120 c	2 y	90-120 c	○	○	○	300 c	1 y

● Duration is not regulated

○ Several alternative routes exist

Explanatory note

A brief description of the alternative pathway(s) is provided in Annex I.2.

Short professional-orientated programmes

Short professional-oriented programmes, are mainly designed for graduates from other higher education fields. As shown in Figure 2.5, seven education systems, namely Belgium (German-speaking Community) ⁽²²⁾, Denmark, Malta, Austria, Slovakia, Sweden and Turkey, have developed short professional-orientated programmes. To access such programmes, candidates have to hold at least a bachelor's degree, whereas a master's degree is required only in Slovakia. In Denmark, candidates who do not hold a higher education degree have to prove two years of professional experience in the education field in addition to having completed a vocational upper secondary education programme.

Short professional-oriented programmes have many similarities with the organisation and content of the second phase of the consecutive route. They are usually provided by teacher education institutions, and include pedagogical and psychological disciplines, methodology, didactics and practical training. These programmes generally last between one and two years. The only exception is in Belgium (German-speaking Community), where the workload of the alternative programme is 30 ECTS which corresponds to one semester of study.

Moreover, in all countries providing short professional-oriented programmes except Malta, the only regular route to obtain a teaching qualification is to complete programmes entirely dedicated to ITE (concurrent model). Looked at from this perspective, the creation of these short professional-oriented programmes in the above-mentioned education systems might be seen as a gradual introduction of the consecutive model.

Employment-based training

The students enrolled in employment-based programmes follow an individual training programme in parallel to work in a school. Candidates with professional experience as well as recent graduates with subject knowledge usually access these programmes. Eight education systems (Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England and Wales) and Switzerland) offer an alternative employment-based training, besides the mainstream ITE programmes. In Latvia and Lithuania, the alternative programmes specifically target young higher education graduates. For instance, age (maximum 35 years old) is one of the admission criteria to the 'Choose to teach' programme in Lithuania. In Switzerland, in contrast, the employment-based ITE training targets candidates who are at least 30 years old and have three years of professional experience.

The Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) have a relatively long tradition of providing alternative routes into the teaching profession.

In the **Netherlands**, the long-standing 'Minor in education' programme allows bachelor students at universities to earn a limited second-level qualification for teaching in years 1-3 at general secondary education.

Among several alternative routes offered in the **United Kingdom (England)**, the most widespread is 'Teach First' programme. It has been existing for 17 years; around 7 % of secondary school teachers are qualified through this route. The Additional Graduate Training Programme (AGTP) is the **Welsh** variant of the 'Teach First' programme. Both programmes aim at recruiting exceptional graduates from various fields into teaching in schools in disadvantaged areas.

Other alternative pathways

In Estonia, France and the United Kingdom (Scotland), the alternative pathways to the teaching qualification follow different patterns.

⁽²²⁾ Most of the teachers exercising the profession in the German-speaking Community of Belgium are trained in the French Community of Belgium. A few graduates are qualified through an alternative programme.

In **Estonia**, professionals from other fields can obtain a teaching qualification through the national professional qualifications system. The professional certificate can be obtained by anybody who demonstrates the necessary competences described in the teacher's professional standard. Training courses are not obligatory.

In **France**, the competitive examination at the end of year 4 (Master 1) is the mandatory part of the main pathway to a teaching qualification. Alternative possibilities to become a fully qualified teacher consist of passing the so-called 'third competition' or 'internal competition'. To be able to sit these competitions, the candidates need to demonstrate between three and five years of professional teaching experience.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, several additional routes into the profession have been introduced to help address recruitment challenges for teachers in priority subjects as well as in remote and rural areas. These pathways must still involve an ITE institution based within a university and must be accredited by the General Teaching Council for Scotland. Some of the new routes include a combined ITE and Induction Year and a programme to train existing local authority staff as teachers.

TALIS data on alternative pathways

Although several European education systems have introduced alternative routes into the teaching qualification, the number of teachers qualified this way remains marginal. According to the TALIS 2018, in the EU, only 4.4 %, are qualified through the fast-track or specialised teacher education programmes ⁽²³⁾ (see Table 2.2 in Annex II). The highest share was observed in Estonia (6.9 %) and the United Kingdom (England) (7.9 %), two of the countries that offer alternative possibilities to obtain the teaching qualification.

2.2. Induction into the teaching profession

The transition from initial teacher education (ITE) to professional life is a crucial phase both for teachers and education systems. As stated in the European Commission handbook for policy makers on induction into the teaching profession, 'the point at which newly educated teachers transfer from initial education and move into professional life is seen as crucial for further professional commitment and development and for reducing the number of teachers leaving the profession' (European Commission, 2010, p. 9). The European Commission's Communication on school development and excellent teaching ⁽²⁴⁾ emphasises the importance of providing specific support to teachers during the early stage of their career. In 2020, the Council's conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future reaffirm that novice teachers should be provided with 'additional guidance and mentoring, to facilitate their career start and help them cope with the specific needs they are facing' ⁽²⁵⁾.

Induction for newly-qualified teachers ⁽²⁶⁾ is understood here as a structured support phase that lasts at least several months. During this phase, teachers carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and are remunerated for their work. Induction has important formative and supportive components; it usually includes additional training as well as personalised help and advice. Moreover, in some education systems, it also acts as a probation period prior to confirming the recruitment. In some education systems, a successful accomplishment of the induction phase is a compulsory prerequisite to obtain a full teaching qualification (European Commission\EACEA\Eurydice, 2018, p. 34).

⁽²³⁾ In TALIS 2018, fast-track or specialised teacher education or training programme refer to pathways into a teaching job that are not <regular teacher education or training programmes> in terms of duration and/or content, for example short or fast-track programmes designed for specific groups such as high-profile young graduates, second-career candidates, candidates with some teaching experience, or graduates with high levels of subject knowledge. This definition fits with the definition of alternative pathways used in the present report.

⁽²⁴⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM(2017)165 final.

⁽²⁵⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 11.

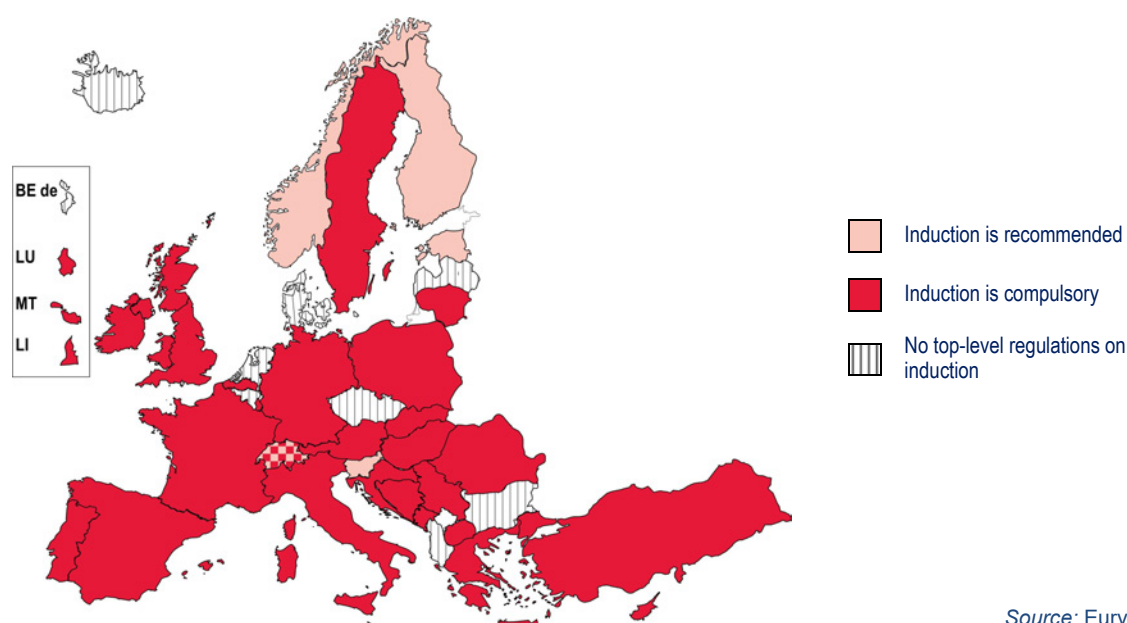
⁽²⁶⁾ In Germany, France and Cyprus, induction happens during ITE, so induction is designed for trainees/prospective teachers.

This section addresses different key aspects of induction such as its status, length, compulsory elements and the final assessment. It also analyses TALIS 2018 data on lower secondary teachers' participation in induction. As this section focuses on the transition to the teaching profession, its scope is limited solely to the induction for teachers new to the profession. The induction for in-service teachers new to a school is out of scope.

2.2.1. Status, length and organisation of formal induction

Offering early career support is a widespread practice in Europe. As shown in Figure 2.6, in most education systems, induction is compulsory, while in Estonia, Slovenia, Finland, Switzerland (in some Cantons) and Norway, it is recommended.

Figure 2.6: Status and duration of induction for lower secondary education teachers, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Duration (in months)

BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT
⊗	⊗	○	⊗	⊗	⊗	12-24	12	(200 hours)	○	3.5-6	12	12	12	5	⊗	12	24	24	24	⊗	12
PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE		UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT	AL	BA	CH	IS	LI	ME	MK	NO	RS	TR
9	12	12	10	○	○	12		12	12	12	12	⊗	12	12-24	⊗	○	9	12	24	12	12

⊗ No top-level regulations on induction

○ Minimum duration of induction is not regulated at top-level

Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Information provided in the Figure refers to compulsory remunerated preparatory service at school (*Vorbereitungsdienst*). In addition, ten *Länder* organise an induction programme for fully qualified teachers. In seven of them it is optional, while in Brandenburg and Hessen it is compulsory, and in Bremen partially compulsory.

Ireland: Since September 2020, *Droichead* is the only induction model available to newly qualified teachers. The *Droichead* process consists of two strands: school-based induction (underpinned by reflective practice, mentoring and professional conversations) and additional professional learning activities (cluster meetings and one other activity chosen in consultation with Professional Support Team (PST)). A post-primary teacher must complete a minimum of 200 hours of teaching in an eligible setting from the date on which they were first appointed to a post recognised appropriate/eligible for *Droichead* in a post-primary school. Newly qualified teachers have 36 months to meet their registration requirements.

Spain: The content and duration of the induction phase vary depending on the Autonomous Community.

Slovenia: The data provided in the Figure and the table above refer to the induction phase that applies only to trainees recruited by the Ministry. Qualified candidates, directly recruited by schools to fill vacant posts, receive mentoring for two months in order to prepare for the professional examination.

United Kingdom (SCT): Induction can be undertaken either through the Teacher Induction Scheme (TIS) or following the Flexible Route. The information on the duration of induction period refers to the Teacher Induction Scheme.

Switzerland: Induction programmes are regulated at cantonal level. A majority of Cantons have compulsory programmes, in others these are optional. In some Cantons, the duration may be tailored to individual needs.

Structured induction may be organised in different ways. In most education systems, induction is organised at the start of the first contract as a teacher and it may occur during the probationary period. In some education systems, teachers starting induction are already fully qualified, while for others, induction is an additional step towards the fully qualified teacher status (see 2.2.4). In Germany, France and Cyprus, induction takes place within the framework of ITE.

In **Germany**, preparatory service at school (*Vorbereitungsdienst*) is considered induction. It is a part of ITE and all graduates (with a First State Examination or Master's degree in ITE depending on the particular *Land*) have to undertake it in order to pass the Second State Examination which is a necessary condition to be fully qualified and obtain permanent employment.

In France and Cyprus, where teacher training is organised through the consecutive route, induction is integrated into the second phase of ITE dedicated to professional teacher training (see section 2.1.1).

In **France**, students take the competitive examination at the end of year 4 (*Master 1*). During the second year of the Master's programme (*Master 2*), the successful candidates follow an induction programme alongside the theoretical courses. During induction, they are remunerated as trainee teachers/civil servants for teaching activities. Those who fail the competitive examination at the end of year 4 can continue on to *Master 2* level. During their second year of this Master, they follow an in-school placement (8-12 weeks) instead of an induction programme and are not remunerated for teaching activities. They can take the competitive examination at the end of year 5 and if successful undertake an induction programme.

In **Cyprus**, during the last semester of the one-year Pedagogical Training, student teachers follow an induction programme in schools. They have full teacher duties and responsibilities and attend all school activities. There is no reduction in their working time. During afternoon hours, student teachers keep taking theoretical courses at the University of Cyprus.

The induction period usually lasts one year (see Figure 2.6). In Spain and Cyprus, its duration does not exceed six months, while in Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta and Norway, newly qualified teachers are entitled to a two-year induction programme. In Luxembourg, however, induction can be shortened to one year for graduates from ITE programmes that include professional training, while in Hungary, the same rule applies to graduates from the new five-year ITE programme (concurrent model) that includes one year school-based apprenticeship.

In some education systems, the duration of induction is not fixed. Nevertheless, top-level official documents might limit the period in which induction has to be completed. This is the case in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Slovakia, where induction has to be completed within the first two years of the career. In Ireland and Liechtenstein, induction takes place within three years from the start of the first appointment at a school. In Finland, the decision on the duration of induction is left to the local autonomy of the school.

Since the last Eurydice report on teaching careers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018), a mandatory induction for novice teachers has been introduced in the Flemish Community of Belgium (2019), Lithuania (2019) and Austria (2019). In Norway, induction for prospective/beginning teachers is now recommended.

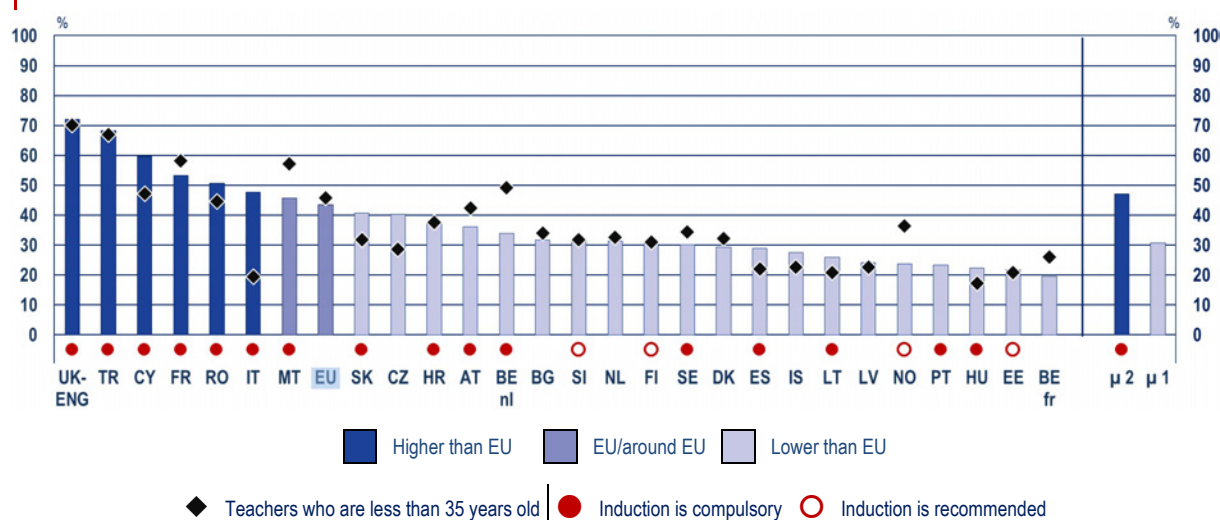
In **Norway**, in 2017, the Government signed an agreement with stakeholder unions about principles and duties regarding induction of new teachers in kindergartens and schools. These principles give guidelines and recommendations for induction, and clarify roles and duties for school heads, school owners, universities and teacher colleges.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the statutory induction period will be extended to two years from September 2021.

2.2.2. Participation in induction

According to the TALIS 2018 survey, in the EU, 43.6 % of teachers said that they had taken part in formal or informal induction during their first employment. In six education systems (France, Italy, Cyprus, Romania, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey), this share exceeds the EU level, reaching 72.0 % in the United Kingdom (England). In Belgium (French Community), Estonia, Hungary, Portugal, and Norway, less than one teacher out of four reports participation in an induction.

Figure 2.7: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers who took part in formal or informal induction programmes as newcomers to teaching, 2018



	%	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT	HU
All teachers		43.6	19.6	33.9	31.8	40.4	29.3	21.7	29.0	53.3	37.6	47.7	59.6	24.1	25.9	22.3
Teachers who are less than 35 years old		45.7	26.1	49.1	33.9	28.7	32.2	20.8	22.0	58.1	37.7	19.5	47.3	22.7	20.9	17.2
	%	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	IS	NO	TR	μ2	μ1
All teachers		45.6	31.3	36.2	23.4	50.8	31.7	40.6	31.0	30.1	72.0	27.5	23.8	68.3	47.2	30.6
Teachers who are less than 35 years old		57.2	32.7	42.3	:	44.6	31.8	31.8	30.9	34.5	70.2	22.7	36.4	66.9		

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 2.5 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

Data based on teachers' answers to question 19 'Did you take part in any induction activities?' sorted by age groups according to answers given to the question 2 'How old are you?'. Only teachers having answered 'yes during my first employment' in question 19a (I took part in a formal induction programme) or 19b (I took part in informal induction programme) are considered as having taken part in a formal or informal induction. Teachers who ticked both answers a) and b), were counted only once.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of the bold in the table indicate statistically significant differences from the EU values.

The data in the Figure is arranged in descending order of all teachers who have participated in induction and in protocol order in the table.

EU includes the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

The dots 'Induction is compulsory'/'induction is recommended' show the top-level regulations, see Figure 2.6.

μ1=average for countries where induction is recommended or there are no regulations on induction, μ2=average for countries where induction is compulsory.

Country-specific note

Portugal: For the novice teachers (<35 years old), there are too few or no observations to provide reliable estimates.

When looking at the proportion of young teachers (less than 35 years old) who reported participating in formal or informal induction compared to the total teacher population, a positive significant difference can be observed at EU level (2.1 percentage points (S.E. 0.68)). This is also the case in seven education systems⁽²⁷⁾, with the highest difference observed in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Malta and Norway. In Czechia, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Slovakia, young teachers are less likely to have participated in induction activities compared to the whole teacher population. The difference is particularly marked in Italy where barely one young teacher out of five reported taking part in induction, while this was the case for almost half of the total teacher population. In Spain and Italy, fixed-term contract seems to be a principal obstacle to the

⁽²⁷⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), France, Malta, Austria, Sweden and Norway.

participation in induction of young teachers. Induction activities in these countries are only available for teachers in a permanent employment position (Italy) or with a particular employment status equivalent to the permanent position (Spain), while according to TALIS 2018 data, the majority of young teachers there are working on fixed-term contract (70.3 % in Spain and 78.0 % in Italy) (see Section 1.2.1 and Figure 1.5).

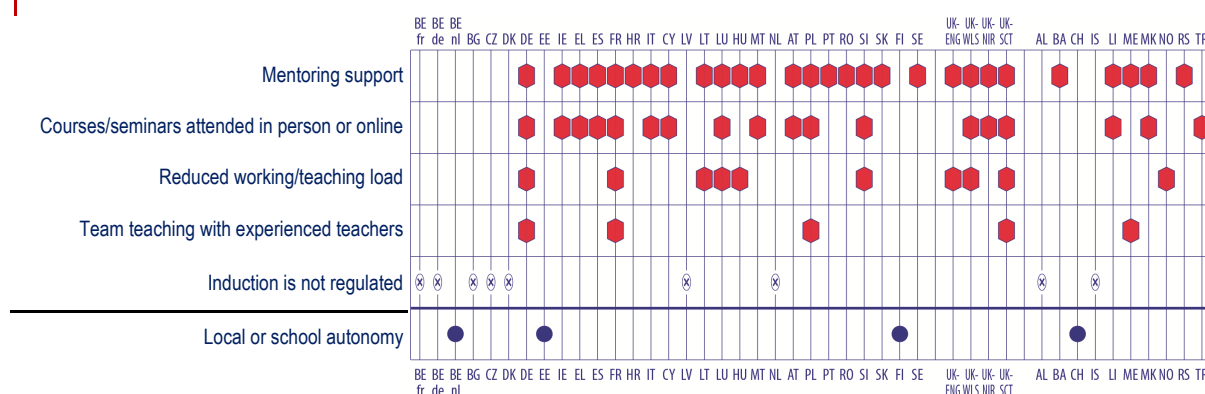
The statistical analysis of teachers' answers suggests that the existence of top-level regulations making induction compulsory contributes to teachers' participation in induction at the beginning of their career. In countries where induction for newly qualified teachers is compulsory, 47.2 % (S.E. 0.31) of lower secondary teachers participated in induction during their first employment. In contrast, in countries where induction is recommended or not regulated, the ratio was 30.7 % (S.E. 0.46). The difference between these two estimates (16.5 percentage points) (S.E. 0.50) is statistically significant.

Overall, the TALIS 2018 results show that despite the political aspirations and the legislation in force, teachers' participation in induction remains low. On the one hand, this may be explained by the fact that in some education systems, the impact of the recent reforms introducing the induction phase is not yet visible (e.g. the Flemish Community of Belgium, Lithuania, Austria and Norway). On the other hand, this can be linked to the fact that induction is available only to some staff categories (e.g. Spain and Italy). Finally, it raises the question of which other obstacles prevent the implementation of these provisions (e.g. lack of financial support).

2.2.3. Compulsory elements of induction

Although compulsory induction for novice teachers is widely regulated across Europe, it can be designed in different ways and contain several elements. Some of these elements are stated in the official documents issued by top-level authorities, while others are left to the discretion of local authorities or schools. Figure 2.8 shows some of the most commonly regulated elements of induction such as mentoring and professional development activities (courses and seminars), and looks at team teaching and reduced teaching load during induction. It shows the education systems where these elements are mandatory. In Estonia, Slovenia and Norway, although structured induction itself is not mandatory when it is provided, it must include some elements.

Figure 2.8 shows that it is compulsory to provide mentoring support to all newly-qualified teachers in almost all education systems where induction is regulated. Mentoring is considered the main pillar of the induction programme. As a rule, the assigned mentor is an experienced teacher, sometimes trained for this role. Mentors can use a range of strategies to introduce, support and monitor novice teachers in the school community and professional life. The interaction between trainee teachers and mentors can go from simple guidance to an intensive day-to-day monitoring and support. The close collaboration may include mutual preparation of lessons, mutual class observations and regular feedback and coaching. Mentors usually participate in the trainee teachers' appraisal at the end of induction, if this applies.

Figure 2.8: Compulsory elements of induction for teachers in lower secondary education, 2019/20

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure refers only to four listed mandatory elements.

Country-specific notes

Germany: The information provided in the Figure refers to *Vorbereitungsdienst*.

Germany, France and Cyprus: Trainee teachers attend courses and seminars in the ITE institutions where they are enrolled.

Estonia: Induction is recommended, but enrolment in induction programme is not mandatory. When it is provided, mentoring and courses/seminars are compulsory.

Ireland: Information in the Figure refers to *Droichead*.

Spain: Types of support included in the induction programme may differ between the Autonomous Communities.

France: Information presented in the Figure relates only to ITE students who have succeeded in the competitive examination the first time.

Slovenia: The data provided in the Figure refers to the induction for trainees recruited by the Ministry.

United Kingdom (SCT): The data in the Figure refers to the Teacher Induction Scheme.

The second most widespread element of structured induction are courses and seminars. Courses and seminars can take place in or out of school premises. Legislation sometimes regulates also the minimum number of hours for these activities. For instance, this is the case in Spain (between 100 hours in Canarias, and 16 hours in Comunidad Foral de Navarra), Italy (38 hours) and Malta (40 hours).

At the beginning of the teaching career, a reduced workload in general and teaching load in particular may help for a smooth transition into professional life. Novice teachers, who benefit from reduced teaching time, could fully participate in induction activities, use this time for lesson preparation and establish their professional network. According to TALIS 2018 findings, a reduced teaching load during induction, as well as team teaching with an experienced teacher are positively correlated to teacher's self-efficacy and job satisfaction (OECD, 2019, p. 141). Moreover, as shown in Figure 6.4, long working hours are likely to increase teachers' levels of stress, while at the beginning of the career many teachers already find real school environment challenging ⁽²⁸⁾.

Although reduced teaching/working load seems to be particularly helpful support during induction, teachers new to the profession are entitled to it in only in one-third of the education systems where induction provisions are regulated (see Figure 2.8). The rules regarding the reduction of teaching/working workload during induction vary considerably across countries. The reduction of 50 % applies in France, Lithuania and Hungary, while in the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Norway, the total working load is reduced by 10 % and 6 % respectively. In Luxembourg, during the first year of induction, the teaching load is reduced by 36 % and during the second year by 18 %. In Germany and

⁽²⁸⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. School development and excellent teaching for a great start in life. SWD(2017) 165 final. COM(2017) 248 final. [pdf] Available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2017/EN/COM-2017-248-F1-EN-MAIN-PART-1.PDF> [Accessed 26 January 2021].

Slovenia, the teaching load of trainee teachers is lower than for in-service ones, but this cannot be expressed as a percentage of total teaching load. In Lithuania and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland), the time not dedicated to teaching has to be spent on professional development activities.

Although teaching within a team has been acknowledged as one of the powerful forms of peer collaboration ⁽²⁹⁾, only Germany, France, Poland, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Montenegro mention it among the provisions to be included in induction. For example:

In **Montenegro**, the 'Rulebook on Teachers internship' states that before delivering individual lessons, candidate teachers should practice team teaching with his/her mentor.

As Figure 2.8 shows, in Germany, France and the United Kingdom (Scotland), all four provisions are compulsory elements of induction. In contrast, in Portugal, Sweden, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia, only mentoring is mandatory. In Turkey, professional training is the only required element. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, Finland and some Cantons of Switzerland, the decision on the content of the induction programme is left to the discretion of the local or school authority.

In some education systems, certain activities, other than those described above, are made compulsory during induction. In Estonia and Spain, for instance, novice teachers are required to prepare a final report at the end of the induction phase. Class and/or lesson observation is a mandatory part of induction in Austria, Slovenia, Romania and Serbia, while in Croatia and Slovenia, beginning teachers are also required to keep a diary/journal.

2.2.4. Appraisal at the end of induction

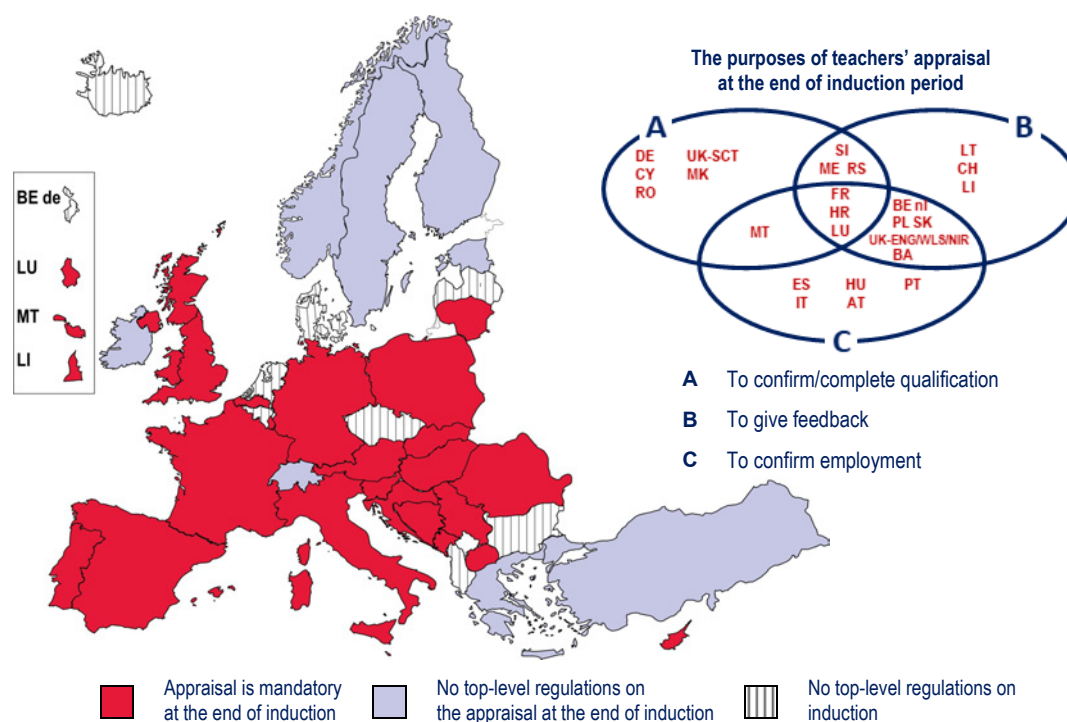
Evaluating novice teachers at the end of induction period is a widespread approach across Europe. Indeed, Figure 2.9 shows that in most European education systems, where induction is compulsory or recommended, novice teachers go through a formal appraisal at the end of the induction programme. There are no top-level regulations making assessment at the end of induction compulsory in Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Finland, Sweden, Switzerland (some Cantons), Norway and Turkey.

Generally speaking, appraisal at the end of induction aims at ensuring that newly qualified teachers are fully equipped with the necessary practical skills to work independently, and have acquired sufficient experience in the working environment. When induction is part of the qualification process or occurs during the probationary period, the final evaluation takes the form of a summative assessment.

Appraisal at the end of induction may be conducted for different purposes, some of which (i.e. to confirm/complete qualification, to confirm employment and to provide feedback) are shown in Figure 2.9.

The analysis reveals that in more than half of the education systems, appraisal at the end of induction is needed to confirm employment. In these education systems, induction is part of the probationary period. In Hungary and Poland, where induction corresponds to the first career step, appraisal leads from trainee teacher status to the next professional grade (see Annex I.1).

⁽²⁹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 30 May 2017, on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM(2017) 248 final, p. 9

Figure 2.9: Appraisal at the end of induction period of lower secondary education teachers, 2019/20**Country-specific note**

Luxembourg: The data in the Figure refer to teachers with the status of civil servant with contracts of indefinite duration. For teachers with the status of a public employee with a contract of indefinite duration under public law, the appraisal at the end of induction period is not mandatory.

In almost half of the education systems, appraisal at the end of induction aims at completing or confirming the teaching qualification. In Germany, France and Cyprus, where induction takes place during ITE, its results contribute to the final evaluation at the end of ITE. In Croatia, Romania, Slovenia, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia, appraisal takes the form of a professional examination also called the 'state' or 'national' examination. This assessment process can be organised in different ways. For example, in Slovenia, the professional examination is oral, while in Croatia it combines written and oral tests. The professional examination can include theoretical and practical parts. This is the case in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Serbia, where both theoretical knowledge and practical skills are evaluated during the professional examination. In Luxembourg, Malta and the United Kingdom (Scotland), successful accomplishment of induction contributes respectively to the final certification, registration and accreditation as a fully qualified teacher.

In around a half of the education systems, where appraisal at the end of induction is required, teachers receive feedback and recommendations based on continuing and final evaluations. In Lithuania, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, it is the only purpose of teachers' appraisal at the end of induction.

In France, Croatia and Luxembourg, appraisal aims at all three purposes.

2.3. Conclusions

There is a wide consensus among researchers and political leaders that teacher education matters for quality teaching and for students' learning outcomes. Quality ITE and effective support to new teachers help to prevent teacher attrition and have a positive impact on the attractiveness of the teaching profession in general.

Mainstream ITE in Europe is organised around concurrent and consecutive models. In more than half of the European education systems, both models are available. In addition, several education systems have introduced alternative pathways leading to a teaching qualification. However, according to the TALIS 2018 data, the number of teachers qualified through these alternative ways remains marginal.

In the majority of the European education systems, ITE programmes for lower secondary teachers lead to master's level (ISCED 7). In others, the minimum qualification required is a bachelor's degree (ISCED 6). TALIS 2018 data suggests that the highest educational qualification achieved by in-service teachers tends to correspond to the minimum requirement in top-level regulations to ITE.

The content of ITE is one of the key factors impacting its quality. Subject knowledge, pedagogical theory and sufficient classroom practice are the core elements of effective ITE ⁽³⁰⁾. Although almost all education systems require professional training to be included in ITE programmes alongside academic subjects, its duration varies considerably across countries. The share of professional training ranges from 50 % of the total duration of ITE in Belgium (French Community), Ireland and Malta to 8 % in Italy and Montenegro. In-school placement is regulated in around half of the European education systems.

According to the TALIS 2018 results, nearly 70 % of all teachers in the EU report that they were trained in all three core elements (subject content, general and subject related pedagogy, and classroom practice). However, this share is below 60 % in Spain, France and Italy. The new generation of teachers (less than 35 years old) seems to benefit more from a comprehensive teacher education compared with the overall teacher population. In the EU, 75 % of young teachers completed formal education or training including all three core elements.

Supporting teachers during the early stages of their career is crucial not only to enhance the quality of teaching but also to reduce exit from the profession ⁽³¹⁾. In most European education systems, teachers new to the profession have access to a structured induction that usually lasts one year. In almost all of them, induction is compulsory. A structured induction for newly qualified teachers has been recently introduced in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Lithuania, Austria and Norway.

Despite the political aspirations and the legislations in force, teachers' participation in induction remains relatively low. TALIS 2018 data shows that in the EU, 43.6 % of teachers have taken part in induction during their first employment. When comparing young teachers (less than 35 years old) with the total teacher population, a small positive trend can be observed at the EU level (plus 2.2 percentage points). However, in eight education systems ⁽³²⁾, young teachers are less likely to have participated in induction activities compared to the whole teacher population. This points to the possible existence of some obstacles to participation in induction (e.g. in Spain and Italy induction being available only to teachers in a permanent position).

⁽³⁰⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 30 May 2017, on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM(2017) 248 final.

⁽³¹⁾ Ibid.

⁽³²⁾ Czechia, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Slovakia.

The top-level regulations on induction seem to contribute to teachers' participation in induction. In countries where induction for newly qualified teachers is compulsory, 47.2 % of lower secondary teachers, participated in induction during their first employment, while this ratio was significantly lower (30.7 %) in the remaining countries.

Induction can be designed in different ways and contain various activities. Mentoring and professional development activities are the two most widespread compulsory elements of structured induction. Although a reduced teaching/working load seems to be particularly helpful during induction, only 10 education systems ⁽³³⁾ regulate it. Team teaching with more experienced teachers is rarely compulsory.

Evaluating novice teachers at the end of the induction period is a widespread approach across Europe. It aims at confirming employment when induction occurs during a probationary period ⁽³⁴⁾ or contributes to certify the teaching qualification when induction is part of the qualification route ⁽³⁵⁾. In Lithuania, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, the only purpose of teachers' appraisal at the end of induction is to provide feedback.

⁽³³⁾ Germany, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) and Norway.

⁽³⁴⁾ The Flemish Community of Belgium, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

⁽³⁵⁾ Germany, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

CHAPTER 3: CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Lifelong learning is important in every person's life, but especially for people working in professions that transmit knowledge and facilitate learning. The recent Communication on achieving the European Education Area by 2025 emphasises that 'teachers and trainers need continuous opportunities for professional development' ⁽¹⁾. The Council's conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' affirm that good quality teaching and learning can be achieved when teachers engage in continuing professional development. Therefore, the conclusions stress that 'it is essential to further develop and update the competences of teachers and trainers, to ensure their expertise and encourage their autonomy and engagement' ⁽²⁾.

This chapter aims to shed some light on how teachers' participation in continuing professional development (CPD) may be encouraged through top-level policy frameworks. It explores the extent to which CPD participation patterns, as reported by lower secondary teachers, relate to countries' regulations and policies. The chapter starts with a short overview of TALIS 2018 data on lower secondary teacher participation in professional development. Since most teachers in Europe attended at least one professional training activity, the analysis focuses on participation in various types of CPD. Teachers who attended more types of CPD were more likely to have engaged in collaborative and interactive training. Moreover, those teachers were more likely to perceive their CPD as useful. The average number of types of professional training is, therefore, used as the main dependent variable in the analysis.

The chapter goes on to present the main top-level regulations regarding teachers' continuing professional development. These country-level indicators are employed to explain the variation in teachers' take up of professional training and to account for some perceived barriers to take up. The description starts with the status of CPD, highlighting countries that set a clear mandatory minimum for all teachers and those that grant a certain amount of CPD time as an entitlement. Providing the possibility of taking paid study leave is another way to allocate time for professional development. The types of study leave available to teachers in European countries are discussed, and some examples of the types of training involved are presented.

In addition to allocating time for professional development, top-level regulations may support the planning and coordination of CPD. The chapter explores some of the measures in place, both at school and country level. Countries that require schools to have a CPD plan are highlighted, as well as the frequency with which these plans are required to be updated. At country level, CPD planning and coordination may be organised through a body or agency, outside the ministry of education, charged with these functions. The countries that have such an agency are presented, along with a short discussion of the main CPD-related functions involved.

The chapter concludes with a summary of the most important country-level factors impacting on CPD. The data seems to indicate that teachers participate in more varied types of CPD in those countries where a certain amount of time is allocated for CPD for every teacher – either as an obligation or as an entitlement. Availability of paid study leave for longer than a week seems to reduce the perception of conflict with a teacher's work schedule. Moreover, teachers in countries where a school CPD plan is compulsory tend to engage in more types of CPD.

⁽¹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions 'on achieving the European Education Area by 2025'. 30.09.2020, COM(2020) 625 final, p. 10.

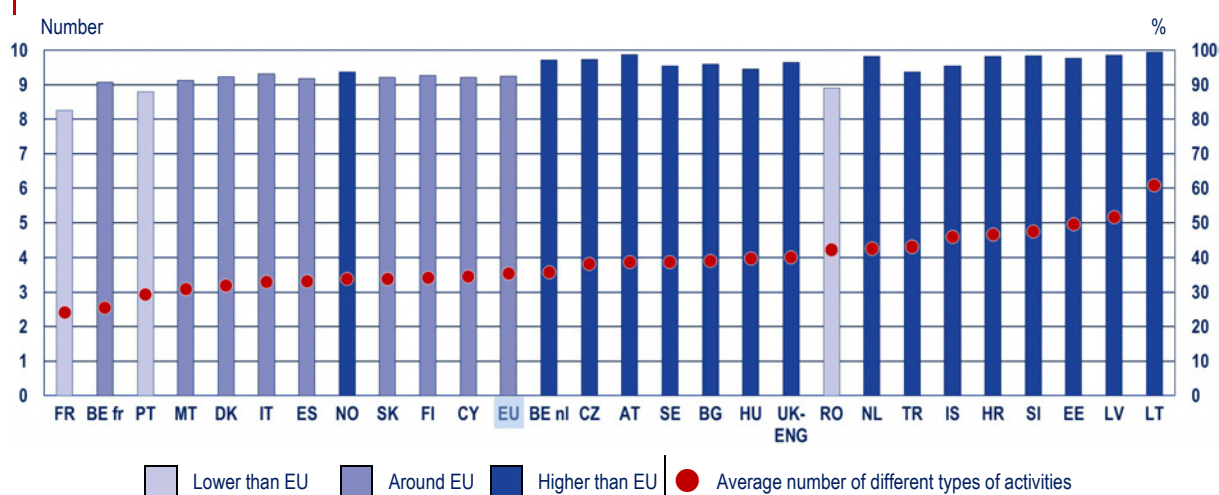
⁽²⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/04, p. 11.

3.1. Teacher participation in professional development

The Council conclusions on ‘European teachers and trainers for the future’ invite member states to ‘promote and support greater participation of teachers and trainers in continuous professional development’ ⁽³⁾. Before exploring the ways that countries may encourage the take up, this section describes the CPD participation patterns of lower secondary teachers as reported in 2018. The TALIS survey included several questions about teacher participation in professional development, highlighting several different aspects of behaviour and perception. This section focuses on practices as reported. It first presents the overall rate of participation, namely the proportion of teachers who reported attending at least one type of CPD in the 12 months prior to the survey. It then discusses the different types and topics of the professional training that teachers have attended.

TALIS 2018 data reveals that a high proportion of teachers participate in CPD activities (see Figure 3.1). 92.5 % of lower secondary teachers in EU countries have attended at least one type of professional development activity in the 12 months prior to the survey. Three countries stand out with lower than EU level (although still relatively high) participation rates. In France, Portugal and Romania, the proportion of teachers who have participated in CPD are 82.6 %, 88.0 % and 89.0 % respectively.

Figure 3.1: Lower secondary teacher participation in professional development, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 3.1 in Annex II).

	FR	BE fr	PT	MT	DK	IT	ES	NO	SK	FI	CY	EU	BE nl	CZ
%	82.6	90.8	88.0	91.3	92.4	93.2	91.8	93.8	92.2	92.7	92.2	92.5	97.1	97.3
Average	2.4	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8
	AT	SE	BG	HU	UK-ENG	RO	NL	TR	IS	HR	SI	EE	LV	LT
%	98.7	95.4	95.9	94.5	96.5	89.0	98.2	93.6	95.5	98.1	98.3	97.7	98.6	99.4
Average	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.7	5.0	5.2	6.1

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 22: 'During the last 12 months, did you participate in any of the following professional development activities?'. The length of bars shows the proportion of teachers who answered 'yes' to at least one type of professional development activity (for the exact categories see in Figure 3.2). The dots show the average number of different types of CPD activities. Cases with missing values in all sub questions (a-j) are excluded.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of the bold in the table indicate statistically significant differences from the EU value.

The data is arranged in ascending order of average number of different types of activities.

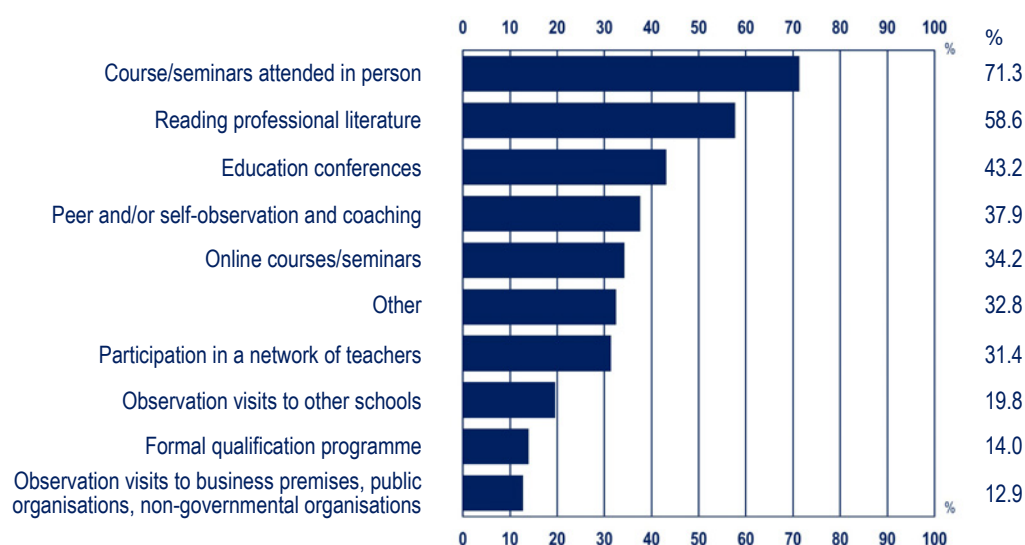
EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

⁽³⁾ Ibid., p. 15.

The variation between the countries is higher when it comes to considering how many different types of professional development activities teachers have attended. In the TALIS 2018 questionnaire, teachers could indicate ten types of CPD activities, such as attending course/seminars in person or online, reading professional literature, participating in education conferences or a network of teachers, coaching, observation visits or formal qualification programme (see the exact categories in Figure 3.2). Unfortunately, TALIS 2018 data does not distinguish teachers who have engaged in many CPD activities of the same type from those who did so only once. Neither is the duration of each type of CPD training examined.

The data shows that in the EU, on average, teachers attended three to four different types of professional development activities (average 3.5) in the 12 months prior to the survey. The number varies from 2.4 to 6.1. On the lower end, teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France participated in two or three different types of training (approximately 2.5 on average). Teachers in Denmark, Malta and Portugal participated, on average, in three different types of professional development activities. On the higher end, teachers in Lithuania stand out, with the most varied CPD activities, attending on average six different types of training in the 12 months prior to the survey. In the neighbouring Baltic countries (Estonia and Latvia), teachers attended approximately five different types of professional development activities.

Figure 3.2: Proportion of lower secondary teachers who participated in different types of professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 3.1 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 22: 'During the last 12 months, did you participate in any of the following professional development activities?'. The length of bars shows the proportion of teachers who answered 'yes' to the different types of professional development activities (answer options a-j). Cases with missing values in all sub questions (a-j) are excluded.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future stress that 'it is beneficial to offer various training models, including face-to-face, virtual, blended and work-based learning' ⁽⁴⁾. They invite member states 'to provide impactful and research-based continuous professional development opportunities for teachers and trainers, based on collaboration, peer observation and peer-learning, guidance, mentoring and networking' ⁽⁵⁾. Despite these aspirations, analysis of

⁽⁴⁾ Ibid., p. 11.

⁽⁵⁾ Ibid., p. 16.

teachers' participation in different types of professional development activities (see Figure 3.2) shows that traditional types of training are predominant. Teachers reported the highest participation in 'information transfer' type of professional development activities that do not necessarily involve much interaction between participants.

Courses or seminars attended in person were the most popular type of training. TALIS 2018 data shows that 71.3 % of lower secondary teachers attended at least one course or seminar in person in the 12 months prior to the survey. Individual self-learning, namely reading professional literature, was the second most popular type of training, reported by 58.6 % of teachers, while 43.2 % of teachers participated in education conferences. Although many contemporary conferences try to complement the 'on stage' keynotes, presentations and question-and-answer sessions with participant-driven discussions, this still largely remains a traditional knowledge transfer method.

Lower secondary teachers reported lower levels of participation in peer-based and collaborative modern-type professional development activities. In the EU, 37.9 % of teachers reported engaging in peer and/or self-observation and coaching; 31.4 % in professional network activities; 19.8 % in observation visits to other schools; and only 12.9 % visited business premises, public organisations or non-governmental organisations as part of their professional development.

It is important to note that the survey data dates back to 2018. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, continuing professional development activities that involve direct contact between people have considerably reduced. By contrast, the proportion of e-learning and distance learning is likely to have increased. In 2018, approximately one third of teachers (34.2 %) in Europe reported participation in online courses/seminars. During the COVID-19 pandemic, this proportion is likely to have increased and become the most dominant form of learning.

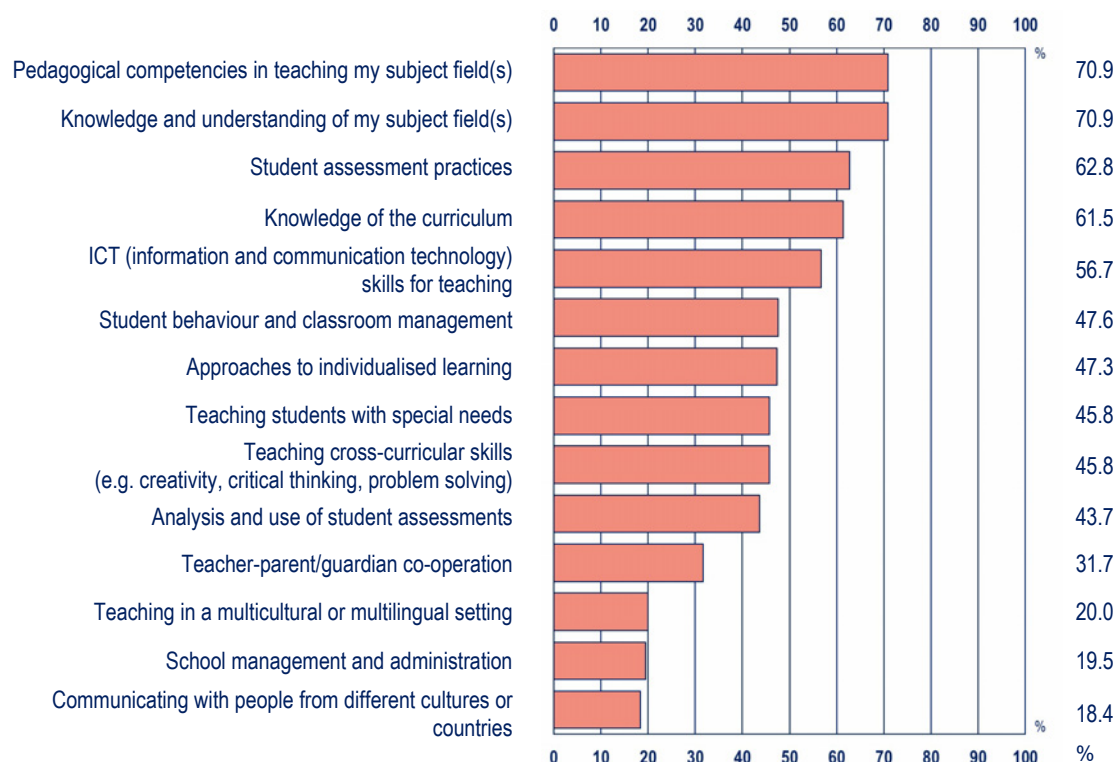
Most European countries follow the average trends regarding the popular types of continuing professional development. However, it is worth highlighting some exceptions. Teachers in two education systems – Belgium (French Community) and Romania – attended far fewer courses/seminars in person than in other European countries. Instead, education conferences and participation in a network of teachers were popular types of professional development in Belgium (French Community). In Romania, the most common forms of continuing professional development were peer and/or self-observation and coaching, as well as reading professional literature.

The types of professional activities on which teachers have embarked are, of course, just one element among several that could be taken into account. The topics addressed in CPD are another important dimension to be considered when analysing teachers' professional development. TALIS 2018 data reveals that, in the EU, professional development related to teachers' subject field(s) was most common (see Figure 3.3). 'Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field(s)', 'knowledge and understanding of my subject field(s)' and 'knowledge of the curriculum' were among the most frequently recurring responses. Professional development related to interdisciplinary skills, e.g. assessment, ICT, student behaviour and classroom management, and individualised learning also featured. By contrast, teaching in a multilingual setting and communicating with people from different cultures were less frequent. Likewise, few teachers had participated in professional development activities related to school management and administration.

It is important to highlight the fact that the TALIS data shows teachers' responses in 2018. During the subsequent COVID-19 pandemic crisis, one particular professional development topic may have become much more prominent. In almost all European countries, distance learning became the main form of instruction in lower secondary schools in spring 2020. Nearly all lower secondary schools were closed for face-to-face teaching for several weeks or months. Teachers in Europe, therefore, had to rapidly change their regular way of working and master ICT technologies that enabled them to teach

from a distance. Council conclusions on countering the COVID-19 crisis in education and training from June 2020 highlighted the need for additional, targeted training and member states were invited to 'support further development of teachers' and trainers' digital skills and competences, in order to facilitate teaching and assessment in digital learning environments' ⁽⁶⁾.

Figure 3.3: Distribution of different professional development topics followed by lower secondary teachers, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 3.2 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

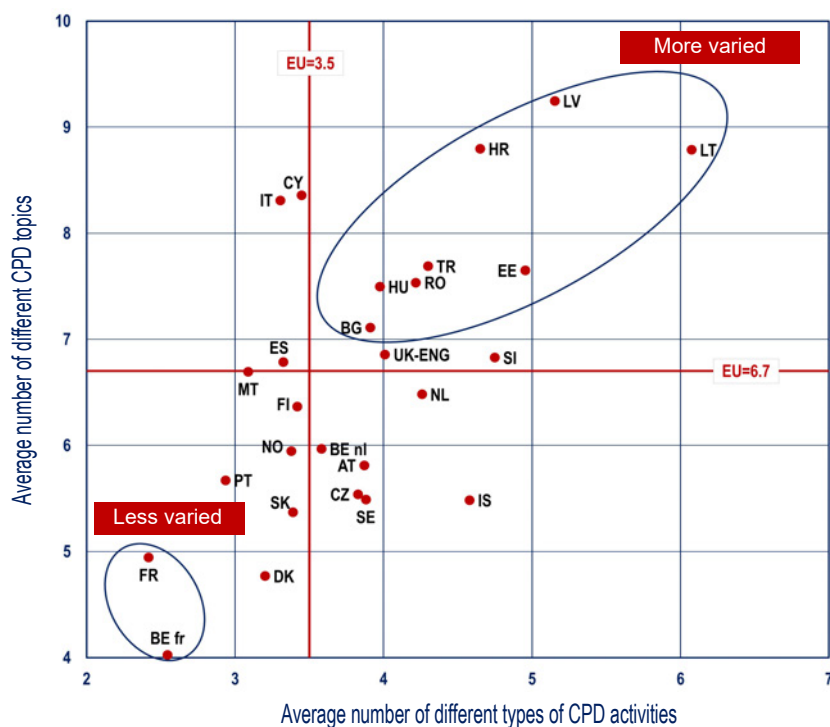
The Figure is based on teachers' answers to the question 23 'Were any of the topics listed below included in your professional development activities during the last 12 months?'. The length of bars shows the proportion of teachers who answered 'yes' to the different topics of professional development activities (answer options a-o). Cases with missing values in all sub questions (a-o) are excluded.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Combining the two aspects of professional training analysed – different types of CPD activities and different CPD topics – may provide an indication of where teachers engage in more diverse CPD activities. Figure 3.4 plots the European countries against those two axes. The average values on both dimensions are high in countries positioned in the top right corner. It shows that lower secondary teachers in Bulgaria, Estonia, Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Turkey followed varied types and topics of CPD to a significantly higher extent than in the EU on average. By contrast, significantly lower than EU participation in both varied types and topics of professional training was reported by teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France.

The Figure also highlights some other interesting situations. For example, lower secondary teachers in Italy and Cyprus reported participating on average in three or four different types of training, but covered approximately eight or nine different topics. On the other hand, teachers in the Netherlands and Iceland attended more varied types of training on fewer topics.

⁽⁶⁾ Council conclusions of 16 June 2020 on countering the COVID-19 crisis in education and training, OJ C 212, 26.6.2020, p. 9.

Figure 3.4: Teacher participation in continuing professional development activities, by average number of topics and types, 2018

Average number of different	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT
types of CPD activities	3.5	2.5	3.6	3.9	3.8	3.2	5.0	3.3	2.4	4.7	3.3	3.4	5.2	6.1
CPD topics	6.7	4.0	6.0	7.1	5.5	4.8	7.6	6.8	4.9	8.8	8.3	8.4	9.2	8.8
Average number of different	HU	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK-ENG	IS	NO	TR
types of CPD activities	4.0	3.1	4.3	3.9	2.9	4.2	4.7	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.0	4.6	3.4	4.3
CPD topics	7.5	6.7	6.5	5.8	5.7	7.5	6.8	5.4	6.4	5.5	6.9	5.5	5.9	7.7

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Tables 3.1 and 3.2 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The horizontal axis is based on teachers' answers to question 22: 'During the last 12 months, did you participate in any of the following professional development activities?'. The x value shows the average number of different types of CPD activities per country. The vertical axis is based on teachers' answers to question 23: 'Were any of the topics listed below included in your professional development activities during the last 12 months?'. The y value shows the average number of different types of CPD topics taken by those lower secondary teachers who followed at least one type of professional development activity. Cases with missing values in all sub questions are excluded.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

The use of the bold in the table indicates statistically significant differences from the EU average.

The next sections present some aspects of top-level regulations that may influence teacher participation in professional development. From TALIS 2018 data, the average number of different types of CPD activities (see Figure 3.1) will be used as the main indicator. This variable shows considerable variation between the countries, and clearly relates to European policy priorities that encourage varied, modern and participatory forms of professional training. Moreover, the analysis of TALIS 2018 data shows that teachers who participated in more types of CPD tended to report more positive impact on teaching practices (see Table 3.3 in Annex II). In the EU, those teachers who thought that their professional development activities had a positive impact on their teaching practice attended four different types of CPD. By contrast, those that thought there was no positive impact attended fewer than three different types of CPD. This relation between the number of types of CPD attended and the perception of impact was observed in every country.

3.2. Status of continuing professional development in top-level regulations

Top-level regulations and policies establish the framework for teacher participation in professional development. This section describes the core regulations that define the status of CPD in the education system. It then explores the relationship between the status of CPD and teacher participation patterns reported in TALIS 2018.

Countries regulate the CPD of teachers in different ways (see Figure 3.5). The most fundamental distinction is between CPD considered as a professional duty or as an optional activity. For the purposes of this report, CPD is considered a teacher's professional duty if participation in such activities is explicitly defined as such in top-level regulations. It is considered optional if there is no statutory obligation in top-level policy documents for teachers to participate in CPD.

CPD may also be defined in terms of the time that is allocated to each teacher for various CPD activities. Two types of time allocation are considered: mandatory and/or entitlement. CPD is considered mandatory when every teacher must complete a certain minimum amount of CPD during a certain period of time. When CPD is defined as an entitlement, a certain amount of CPD time is granted for each teacher during or outside of teaching (working) hours. The teacher has no obligation to use the time, but schools are obliged to provide the opportunity.

Figure 3.5: Status of continuing professional development of lower secondary teachers and minimum number of defined CPD hours, 2019/20



Minimum number of defined CPD hours (h) or days (d) for the given number of years (row below).

Mandatory time is shown in bold blue, while entitlement is marked in regular dark red.

BE fr	BG	CZ	HR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PT	RO	SI	FI	SE	UK SCT	AL	BA	IS	ME	MK	RS
3d+3d	48h	12d	5d	5d	16h	36h	5d	16h	120h	40h	83h	15h	50h	(9d)	5d	(3d)	5d	35h	6h	(12h)	150h	24h	60h	100h
1	3	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	7	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	3		

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

Mandatory: CPD is considered to have mandatory status when there is a set minimum number of hours, days or credits that all teachers are obliged to complete.

Entitlement: CPD is considered to be a teacher's entitlement when there are specific hours, days or credits that all teachers are entitled to take, and schools are obliged to provide the opportunity.

Professional duty: CPD is considered to be one of a teacher's professional duties according to regulations or other relevant policy documents.

Optional: There is no statutory obligation for teachers to participate in CPD.

Required for career progression: CPD is an essential element for all teachers. Teachers do not progress unless they comply with the CPD requirements (see Figure 1.13).

Country-specific notes

Germany: Regulations and definitions vary between the *Länder*. For an overview, see KMK (2017).

Romania: The table shows a possible conversion of the system used: 90 credits per five years.

Finland: The collective agreement sets three days for CPD and planning altogether. There is local autonomy in deciding how much of the time is devoted to CPD.

United Kingdom (NIR): Early Professional Development, which covers the second and third year of a teacher's career, is mandatory for all teachers and must include at least two Professional Development Activities mapped against appropriate teacher competences from those defined by the General Teaching Council (GTCNI).

Bosnia and Herzegovina: Cantons define the required minimum; the average is 12 hours per year.

Switzerland: Regulations on the minimum number of required hours vary between Cantons. In a few Cantons, CPD is a professional duty with no minimum time defined.

In parallel, teachers' participation in CPD may be required for career progression. In countries with multi-level career systems (see Figure 1.12), the completion of a certain amount or of certain topics of CPD activities might be mandatory for promotion to the next career level. In countries with single-level career structure (see Section 1.3), CPD might be a prerequisite for salary progression.

The data reveals that CPD is a professional duty for teachers in almost all European countries. Teacher participation in CPD is optional in only five countries. There is no statutory obligation for teachers to participate in CPD in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway and Turkey.

In approximately one third of European education systems, engagement in CPD is considered to be one of a teacher's statutory professional duties, but regulations and policy documents do not define a minimum number of mandatory hours or a certain amount of time granted as an entitlement to CPD.

In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, CPD is considered an inherent part of the teaching profession⁽⁷⁾. Regulation does not determine certain mandatory topics or does not define the minimum time.

In **France**, according to the law, every teacher is obliged to participate in CPD⁽⁸⁾. It is included in the duties of teachers and is one of the elements of teacher appraisal.

In more than half of European countries, top-level regulations define a certain amount of time that is mandatory or available (as an entitlement) for each teacher to engage in CPD.

CPD is mandatory for all teachers in lower secondary education in 18 education systems⁽⁹⁾. In Switzerland, CPD is mandatory for all teachers in most cantons. In all of these systems, there is a minimum number of hours, days or credits that teachers must complete within a specific period of time (see table below Figure 3.5). On average, approximately 18 hours of CPD per year are mandatory in those countries where there is a minimum defined. Malta and the United Kingdom (Scotland) require the most: in Malta, teachers have to complete 40 hours of CPD per year; in Scotland, the requirement is set at 35 hours per year.

In **Luxembourg**, for all teachers, it is a professional duty to participate in 48 hours of CPD in a 3-year period (i.e. on average 16 hours per year). This obligation is integrated in the workload of the teachers⁽¹⁰⁾.

In **Hungary**, the completion of a total of 120 hours further training programmes within seven years is compulsory for all teachers. It can, however, be substituted by participation in professional further teacher training and passing a related final examination; or by obtaining a teacher qualification for another teaching field or subject; or by participating in a training programme offered in several EU funded development projects in the field of public education.

In **Malta**, CPD is a professional duty as defined by the 2017 agreement between the Government of Malta and the Malta Union of Teachers, where it is stated that 'All teaching grades rendering service in schools represented by this agreement are required to actively participate in management-driven Community of Professional Educators (CoPE) sessions, and shall be encouraged to also take part in self-sought CPD sessions'⁽¹¹⁾. The mandatory CPD is made up of 25 hours of school-driven CPD and 15 hours of central authorities-driven CPD.

In **Slovenia**, according to the Organisation and Financing of Education Act (Articles 105 and 119) professional education and training is one of a teacher's mandatory tasks and is also required for promotion. Regulations stipulate a mandatory minimum of 5 days of CPD a year or 15 days over three years. The Collective Agreement for Education stipulates that unjustified refusal of participation in CPD is a minor violation of work obligations (Article 65).

Teachers in the **United Kingdom (Scotland)** are required to engage in professional learning, self-evaluate this learning using the GTC Scotland Professional Standards, and maintain a record of this learning. The Professional Review and Development (PRD)

⁽⁷⁾ Legal status decrees; JV: Article 73 quinquies, subsidised education: Article 47 quinquies.

⁽⁸⁾ Loi n° 2019-791 du 26 juillet 2019 pour une école de la confiance, Article 50.

⁽⁹⁾ Belgium (French Community), Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

⁽¹⁰⁾ http://legilux.public.lu/eli/etat/leg/code/education_nationale/20200120, p. 463/1223.

⁽¹¹⁾ <https://education.gov.mt/en/Documents/Sectoral%20Agreement.pdf>, p. 30-31.

discussion is also an integral part of the process. Every five years, confirmation of this engagement is required from the teacher and their line manager in order to maintain full registration.

In **North Macedonia**, the minimum required CPD is set at 60 hours of training, spread over three school years ⁽¹²⁾. Of those, at least 40 are in programmes accredited by the Bureau for Development of Education and the rest are in other programmes (projects approved by the Ministry, internal training, inter-schools teams for learning, individual forms).

In nine education systems, CPD is considered an entitlement, with a set amount of time specified in top-level regulations or collective agreements. The most common practice is to grant approximately five working days for CPD per year, but several countries recommend more than that.

In **Czechia**, according to the Act on Education Staff Section 24, education staff participating in further education shall be entitled to 12 working days off per school year for self-study. This may be limited by the school's operational conditions, as the school head determines when the days off for self-study are to be taken.

In **Lithuania**, teachers have a duty and an entitlement to engage in CPD activities for at least five days per year.

In **Sweden**, according to the collective agreement, professional development should aim at 104 hours (approximately 13 days) for full-time teachers per year. The academic calendar allows up to 5 days of school closing when CPD is provided for all teachers/staff.

Iceland's collective agreement between the teachers, municipalities and the State specifies that teachers are to undergo 150 hours of CPD per year.

In one education system, CPD is both mandatory and an entitlement. A certain amount of CPD is compulsory for all teachers, with an additional amount of time set as an entitlement for those who wish to train more.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, the compulsory CPD includes six half-days spread over the number of class days in a school year. In addition to mandatory training, teachers may also engage in voluntary CPD activities during or outside the working hours. Outside the working hours, voluntary training is not limited. During their working hours, secondary school teachers have an entitlement to take six half-days per year for training. This number may be increased under a derogation granted by the Government.

In addition to the major regulations on CPD status discussed above, CPD may be required for career progression. As discussed in Chapter 1, teacher career progression may follow two different models: multi- or single-level career structures. Countries with a multi-level career structure may require completion of certain CPD activities in order to progress to the next career level. In single-level career structures, CPD may be a criterion for salary progression. Figure 3.5 merges these two different approaches, highlighting whether professional development is required for career progression.

The data shows that, according to top-level regulations, CPD is an essential pre-requisite for career progression in many European countries. That is, teachers in those countries, marked with a dot in Figure 3.5, do not progress unless they comply with the CPD requirements.

The data seems to show no direct relation between the status of CPD and the use of CPD as a requirement for career progression. In some countries where CPD is mandatory, it is not specifically required for career progression. In other words, CPD is a requirement for all teachers and not only for those who wish to advance in their career. In some other countries, where CPD is not mandatory, it is among the essential prerequisites for career progression.

Some countries with mandatory CPD require no more than the set minimum for promotion or for progression on the salary scale (e.g. Hungary, Portugal and Albania). Others may require additional courses or more than the set minimum. In some countries, CPD requirements increase with promotion or titles.

⁽¹²⁾ The Law for teachers and professional support staff (Official Gazette of the Republic of North Macedonia, no.161, August 2019), Article 27.

In **Croatia**, teachers can be promoted to the status of teacher mentor (*mentor*) if they have CPD of 100 hours in the previous 5 years, to the position of teacher advisor (*savjetnik*) if they have CPD of 150 hours in the previous 5 years and to the position of excellent teacher advisor (*izvrstan savjetnik*) if they have at least 200 hours of CPD in the previous 5 years ⁽¹³⁾.

In **Slovenia**, CPD is one of the prerequisites for promotion to titles. In order to be promoted to the relevant title, a teacher has to collect a certain number of points awarded for CPD: 'teacher mentor' – 4 points, 'teacher advisor' – 5 points, 'teacher councillor' – 7 points ⁽¹⁴⁾.

In some cases, CPD is only required at certain points in a teacher's career.

In **Spain**, 100 hours ⁽¹⁵⁾ of CPD are required to get the additional payment for six years' service (*sexenios*).

In **Luxembourg**, after 12 years of service, 90 hours CPD are required, and after 8 more years of service, another 90 hours.

Completion of certain specific CPD courses may be required when career progression is associated with certain roles, e.g. ICT coordinator or special needs teacher. In some countries the completion of a degree programme which upgrades a teacher's qualifications leads to a higher salary. As these are particular conditions applying only in certain situations, they are not reflected in Figure 3.5.

The regulations regarding CPD and career progression can be rather complex, and largely depend on the career model of the teaching profession in each country. Further research is needed to clarify the relationship between CPD and career progression.

Some countries are in the process of carrying out reforms in the regulation of CPD.

In **Germany**, in March 2020, the Standing Conference adopted a resolution on CPD for teachers binding for all *Länder*.

The Teaching Council, the professional standards body for teaching in **Ireland**, has developed *Cosán*, the National Framework for Teachers' Learning. *Cosán* is the Gaelic word for pathway. That framework sets out the principles underpinning the CPD, the variety of learning processes teachers engage in, six broad learning areas, and the standards which should guide teachers in reflecting on their learning. It is currently undergoing a development process in schools, whereby teachers are applying the framework in context, and using it to support them in reflecting on their learning, so as to determine impact. Annual allocation of 22 CPD hours is given for teacher reflection and planning for the reform of the junior cycle.

In some other countries, CPD regulations may be affected by general reforms:

In the **United Kingdom (Wales)**, in order to prepare the new curriculum, until 2022 the regulations are amended allowing schools one additional CPD day ⁽¹⁶⁾.

CPD status and teacher participation in professional development

In order to explore whether the top-level regulations of CPD status relate to teacher's participation in varied CPD activities, statistical analysis of TALIS 2018 data was carried out, assigning the same country-level variable for all teachers from the countries with the same regulations. The data reveals that, on average, teachers participated in more varied CPD activities in those countries that allocate a certain amount of time for CPD. Teachers in the countries where a CPD was mandatory or an entitlement participated, on average, in 3.80 (S.E. 0.02) different types of CPD activities (see the list in Figure 3.2). By contrast, the number was 3.58 (S.E. 0.02) in the countries where CPD is voluntary or defined as a professional duty, but no specific time is set. The difference between these two estimates

⁽¹³⁾ Pravilnik o napredovanju učitelja, nastavnika, stručnih suradnika i ravnatelja u osnovnim i srednjim školama i učeničkim domovima, OG 68/19, link: https://narodne-novine.nn.hr/clanci/sluzbeni/2019_07_68_1372.html

⁽¹⁴⁾ Rules on the Title Promotion of the Employees in the Education, <http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=PRAV4272>

⁽¹⁵⁾ Except for Andalucía, where it is 60 hours.

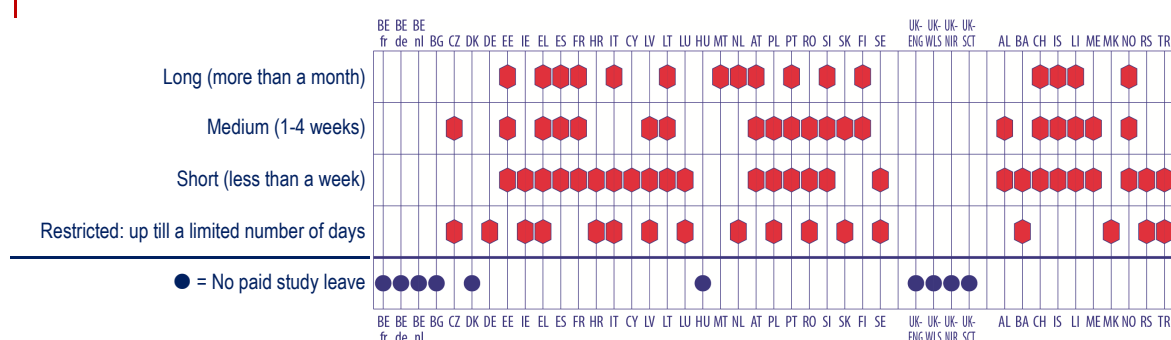
⁽¹⁶⁾ Welsh Government (2019). Written statement: additional national professional learning INSET days 2019-22, <https://gov.wales/written-statement-additional-national-professional-learning-inset-days-2019-22-response>

(0.22) was statistically significant (S.E. 0.03, $p < 0.05$) ⁽¹⁷⁾. When considering only the EU countries, the difference was even higher ⁽¹⁸⁾.

3.3. Paid study leave

Time is needed in order to engage in CPD activities. The recent Council conclusions on ‘European teachers and trainers for the future’ stress the importance of giving teachers time to participate in professional training ⁽¹⁹⁾. The days or hours of CPD that are considered mandatory or an entitlement (see Figure 3.5) are normally included in the teachers’ regular workload. This is especially the case for the CPD that is organised at school level. However, countries may also enable and encourage teachers to engage in other types of CPD that are organised outside the school. Top-level regulations (laws or collective agreements) may provide a possibility for a teacher to receive paid study leave.

Figure 3.6: Paid study leave available to lower secondary teachers per year, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: The procedures for making an application, being released from teaching duties and receiving permission to attend a course vary between the *Länder*. However, in all *Länder*, teachers need to apply for release from duties if in-service training is held during lesson time.

Ireland: Long paid study leave available only for certain specializations.

Greece: Long study leave and short study leave may be granted only in a limited number of cases (in case of a scholarship or in some other cases without pay).

Spain: Different lengths of study leave available in different Autonomous Communities. Short study leave for examinations is available when studying degree programmes in Castilla-La Mancha, Aragón, Extremadura, Illes Balears, Comunidad de Madrid, Principado de Asturias, Comunidad Foral de Navarra and La Rioja. Long paid study leave is available only in Extremadura.

Figure 3.6 indicates which countries allow teachers to take paid study leave. It specifies the possible length: short (less than a week), medium (one to four weeks) and long (more than a month). In addition, the Figure also shows whether paid study leave is restricted to a total number of days by law or top-level collective agreements. The Figure includes all possible arrangements that countries may provide: leave available for all employees as specified in the general labour law, special regulations for civil servants or public employees as well as study leave offered only to teachers. Unpaid study leave is excluded from this analysis. It is important to note that the Figure 3.6 includes leave with compensation that might be less than the full regular salary. This is often the case when long study leave is granted.

The data shows that most European countries offer a possibility for teachers to take paid study leave. Short periods of paid study leave (up to one week) are the most common. Participation in a

⁽¹⁷⁾ See Annex II for detailed description of statistical terms and methodology applied in this report.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Teachers in the EU countries where a CPD was mandatory or an entitlement participated, on average, in 3.82 (S.E. 0.02) different types of CPD activities. By contrast, the number was 3.29 (S.E. 0.03) in the EU countries where CPD is voluntary or defined as a professional duty, but no specific time is set. The difference between these two estimates (0.53) was statistically significant (S.E. 0.03, $p < 0.05$).

⁽¹⁹⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 12.

conference or a workshop, sitting an examination or an observation visit may require a teacher to take a short period of study leave (less than a week).

In **Norway**, teachers may get paid study leave on the day(s) of the exam(s), and two additional days prior to each exam.

Teachers may be allowed short periods of paid leave for certain types of studies or examinations.

In **Spain**, lower secondary teachers may be given study leave for examinations set by the Official Schools of Languages (*Escuelas Oficiales de Idiomas*) and Music and Dance Conservatories, both of them known as *Enseñanzas de Régimen Especial*.

Medium-length study leave (between one and four weeks) may be necessary for attending summer schools, writing a thesis, carrying out research projects, etc.

In **Poland**, full-time employed teachers are entitled to paid study leave and other allowances and benefits related to training. These are granted to teachers to attend compulsory classes, prepare for examinations and write a Master's thesis.

Long study leave (more than a month) is typically granted to teachers who enrol in a formal degree programme, participate in research and innovative education projects or in training programmes in companies. Teachers may take long study leave in approximately one third of the education systems analysed ⁽²⁰⁾. Sometimes there are restrictions: only teachers of a certain age, or after a certain number of years of service, or only teachers working in public schools may be eligible.

In **Malta**, a one-time period of paid study leave of up to one school year has been available since 2015 to education professionals having at least 10 years of service, either in private or public schools. The scheme aims to provide more opportunities to promote further studies in areas of specialisation in education at tertiary level. Up to 2019, a total of 40 teaching professionals have benefited from this measure by pursuing studies at master's and doctoral or equivalent levels.

In **Finland**, all employees, including teachers, can take study leave for a maximum of two years during a period of five years (under certain conditions). While on study leave, the teacher is entitled to an adult education allowance for a maximum of 15 months from the Employment Fund ⁽²¹⁾.

In **Liechtenstein**, teachers between the age of 40 and 55 who have taught for more than five years at a public school can apply for long term study leave (once). Up to 10 weeks of this study leave are paid.

Many countries allow teachers to take different types and lengths of study leave.

In **Portugal**, the Ministry of Education defines the maximum number of long periods of study leave that can be authorized every year. The leave is allocated on the basis of a plan of activities presented in advance. Short periods of study leave can be authorised by school principals. Teachers can also be allowed study leave for examination days in a degree programme, under the same conditions as apply to any other working student.

In **Slovenia**, attending conferences and other CPD programmes is part of a teacher's total workload (working hours). In addition, teachers are entitled to paid study leave for degree programmes. If the enrolment of a teacher in formal education is part of a school's agenda, a teacher is entitled to study leave: 5-10 days for examination preparation, 15 days for participation in short-cycle higher education programmes, and 25-35 days for drafting a master's/doctoral thesis ⁽²²⁾.

Most countries restrict the total length of paid study leave. For example,

In **Croatia**, each lower secondary teacher is entitled to paid leave of up to five working days a year for education and professional training. Exceptionally, the employee is entitled to paid leave of up to 15 working days per year, for professional seminars and consultations organised by the Ministry, the Education and Teacher Training Agency, the National Centre for External Evaluation of Education or Agency for Mobility and EU Programmes to which he or she has been sent by the employer.

In **Luxembourg**, paid study leave for civil servants, including teachers, is possible upon authorisation. Total paid study leave is restricted to a maximum of 80 days in the whole career and not more than 20 days in two years.

⁽²⁰⁾ Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Slovenia, Finland, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway.

⁽²¹⁾ <https://www.tyollisyysrahasto.fi/en/benefits-for-adult-students/>

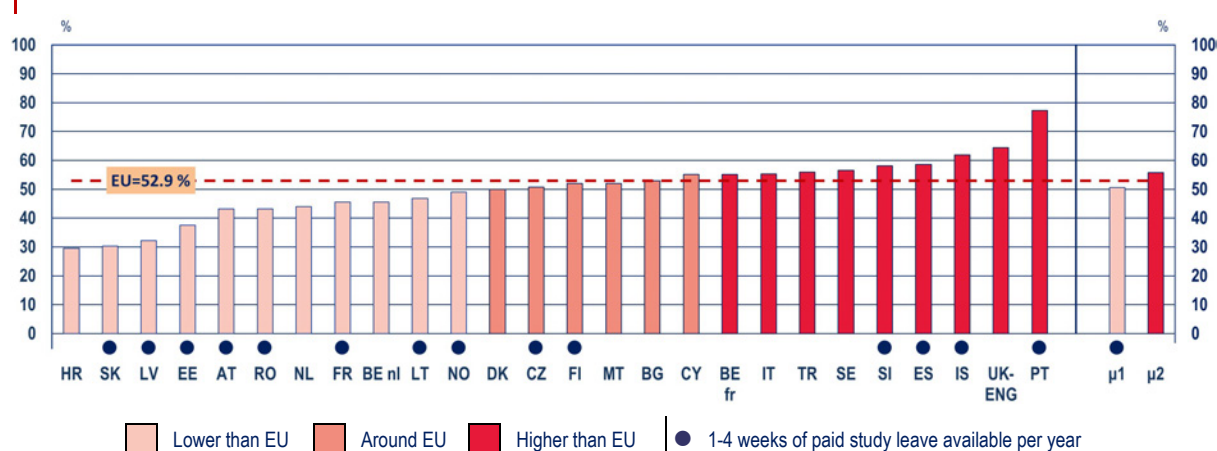
⁽²²⁾ The Collective Agreement for Education in Republic of Slovenia (Articles 55 and 55a). <http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=KOLP19>

In **Romania**, any employee has the right to professional training, accompanied by paid study leave, in accordance with the Labour Code. The leave cannot exceed ten working days or 80 hours per year.

Teacher views on their work schedule and professional development

Most European countries allow lower secondary teachers to avail of paid study leave. Figure 3.6 shows that short study leave (less than a week) is the most common type available. TALIS data suggests that there might be a correlation between the length of the paid study leave available and the proportion of teachers who feel that professional development conflicts with their work schedule (see Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7: Proportion of lower secondary teachers who 'agree' or 'strongly agree' that professional development conflicts with their work schedule, and availability of paid study leave for 1-4 weeks per year, 2018



EU	HR	SK	LV	EE	AT	RO	NL	FR	BE nl	LT	NO	DK	CZ	FI
52.9	29.6	30.4	32.3	37.6	43.2	43.3	44.0	45.5	45.6	46.9	49.1	49.9	50.8	52.0
MT	BG	CY	BE fr	IT	TR	SE	SI	ES	IS	UK-ENG	PT	μ1 μ2		
52.0	52.9	55.2	55.2	55.3	55.9	56.5	58.2	58.6	61.9	64.5	77.2	50.5	55.8	

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 3.4 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 28: 'How strongly do you agree or disagree that the following present barriers to your participation in professional development?' option (d) 'Professional development conflicts with my work schedule' (missing data excluded). Answers 'agree' and 'strongly agree' are grouped together.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of the bold in the table indicate statistically significant differences from the EU value.

The data is arranged in ascending order.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

'1-4 weeks of paid study leave available per year' according to top-level regulations, see Figure 3.6.

μ1=average for countries that have '1-4 weeks of paid study leave available per year'.

μ2=average for countries that have no '1-4 weeks of paid study leave available per year'.

Country-specific note

Hungary: Although the country participated in TALIS 2018, this question was not included.

TALIS 2018 gathered information on what issues lower secondary teachers perceived as barriers to their participation in professional development. In the EU, approximately 52.9 % of lower secondary teachers 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that professional development conflicted with their work schedule. The proportion of teachers who indicated this ranged from approximately 29.6 % in Croatia to 77.2 % in Portugal.

Availability of paid study leave as set down in top-level regulations allows teachers to take time off their busy work schedules for professional development. However, only availability of paid leave for a

week or longer seems to alleviate the feeling that work schedule is a barrier for CPD. In those countries where medium length paid leave is available, 50.5 % (S.E. 0.43) of teachers indicated that professional development conflicted with their work schedule. This proportion was significantly higher (55.8 %, S.E. 0.52) in those countries that do not provide this possibility ⁽²³⁾. There was a similar, although less pronounced relationship in countries that offer long periods of study leave. By contrast, availability of short periods of study leave (less than a week) had no relationship with perception of work schedule as a barrier to CPD.

3.4. CPD planning at school level

In order to balance the wide range of individual and organisational learning needs as well as top-level policy priorities, schools have an important role to play in planning CPD for their teachers. Figure 3.8 shows some of the general requirements that top-level authorities set for schools regarding their CPD planning. It combines two types of information: firstly, the Figure shows whether it is compulsory for schools to have a CPD plan. Secondly, in those education systems where a CPD plan is compulsory, it indicates whether the plans are required to be updated regularly.

The data reveals that, in the majority of the European education systems, it is compulsory for schools to develop a CPD plan. Usually, it is part of the school development plan and is required to be updated annually. Certain elements that school CPD plans must include may be specified, e.g., planned activities, outcomes, time frame or budget.

The **Croatian** Primary and Secondary School Education Act determines that the annual work programme of the school should include a continuing professional development plan. The CPD plan should be developed on the basis of the needs of the school and the mandatory CPD areas defined annually by the Teachers' Council. The school's CPD plan should specify the type and number of estimated CPD hours for each teacher. Moreover, teachers are requested to submit a report of their professional development at least once a year.

In **Hungary**, school CPD plans must indicate the formal university courses and other activities to be provided, the budget allocated, and the plan for replacing teachers undertaking CPD. The CPD plan is updated annually in accordance with the five-year programme. All school staff must be involved in the development process and give their approval to the CPD plan.

In **Poland**, for each school year, the school head determines the needs for teacher professional development, taking into account (a) findings from pedagogical supervision; (b) results of the national tests, as appropriate; (c) tasks related to the implementation of the national core curriculum; (d) requirements for schools (against which schools' activities are reviewed as part of external evaluation); (e) applications for CPD funding submitted by teachers.

The **Icelandic** National Curriculum Guide for compulsory schools requires each school to formulate the school's development plan taking into account both governmental and municipal education policies. The continuing education plans for individual employees or the school as a whole are to be consistent with and support the school's development plan.

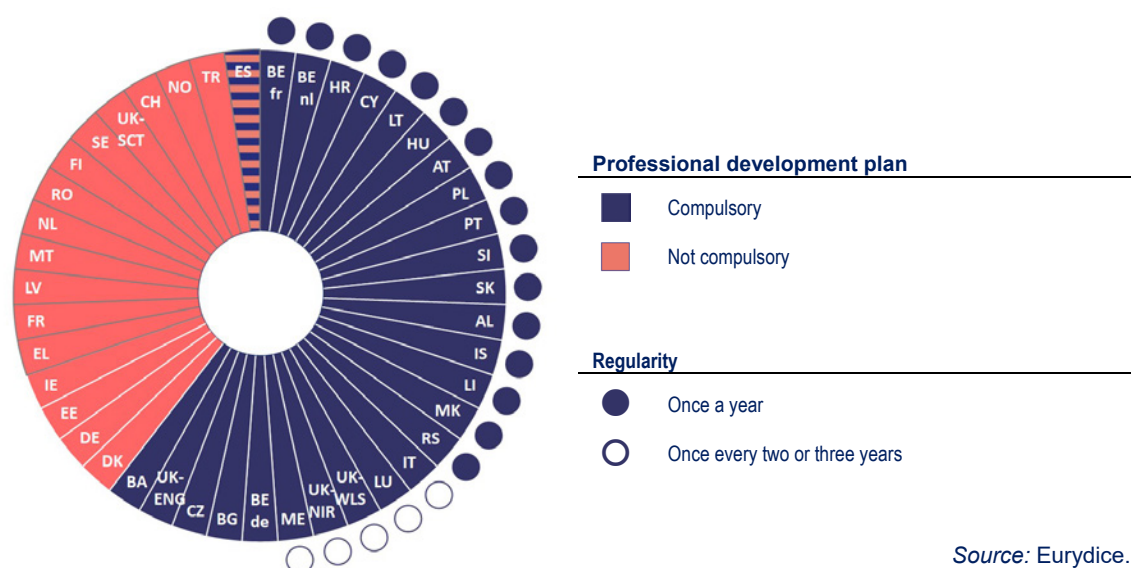
In **North Macedonia**, the CPD plan is integrated into the annual work programme, which in turn is linked to the school development programme with four years' duration. In addition, the Law for Teachers and Professional Staff, Article 28, regulates that each teacher prepare their annual CPD plan, which is then approved by the school head and a professional development team from the school.

In the French Community of Belgium and Albania, schools are required to draw up a plan of CPD as a standalone document. However, links with the school development plan might be emphasized.

In the **French Community of Belgium**, CPD plans must specify the objectives of the training activities and how they are linked to the school project.

⁽²³⁾ The difference was statistically significant (5.2 percentage points, S.E. 0.73). When considering only participating EU countries, the difference was a bit less pronounced. On average, in those EU countries where medium length paid leave is available, 50.6 % (S.E. 0.43) of teachers indicated that the professional development conflicts with their work schedule. This proportion was significantly higher (5.1 percentage points, S.E. 0.86) in those EU countries that do not provide this possibility.

Figure 3.8: Top-level requirement for lower secondary schools to have a continuing professional development plan, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Countries are ordered on the basis of the requirement and then by regularity.

Country-specific note

Spain: The Autonomous Communities have the power to establish regulations regarding school CPD plans. In most Autonomous Communities, it is compulsory, while in others it is strongly recommended.

Schools are required to update their CPD plans every two or three years in Italy, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland) and Montenegro.

In **Italy**, the three-year plan must combine school and teachers' individual needs with national priorities regarding the development of systemic skills (e.g. school autonomy, evaluation, innovative teaching), 21st century skills (e.g. foreign languages, digital skills, school-based and workplace learning) and skills for inclusive schooling⁽²⁴⁾. Schools may update the plan more frequently if different needs arise⁽²⁵⁾.

In **Luxembourg**, the school development plans should include objectives in a certain number of topics determined by the ministry. The CPD-plan should be related to these objectives.

In the **United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland)**, each individual teacher's development is planned in the context of the school development plan, which must be revised every three years⁽²⁶⁾.

In **Montenegro**, based on the CPD catalogue published by the National Council for Education, schools must prepare a two-year CPD plan indicating: the objectives, the activities needed to reach each objective, the target group, the time framework, the person responsible and the indicators for measuring success.

In some education systems, the CPD plan is mandatory, but the content or the regularity is left for schools to decide.

In **Czechia**, the plan for CPD is a compulsory document for schools, but no specific requirements are laid down. Rather than specifying the regularity of CPD planning, it is required that schools include information on CPD in their Annual Report on the School Activity.

⁽²⁴⁾ See the Ministry recommendations on how to draw up the school development plan https://www.miur.gov.it/documents/20182/0/nota+17832+del+16_10_2018+%281%29.pdf/763ea629-97a4-4dbe-8f01-72b0f899936b?version=1.0&t=1539775111356

⁽²⁵⁾ https://www.miur.gov.it/documents/20182/0/MIUR.AOODPIT.REGISTRO_UFFICIALE%28U%29.0001830.06-10-2017.pdf/bee7204e-9fa0-458a-8932-6cc799e30906?version=1.0&t=1507288405361

⁽²⁶⁾ See School Development Plans – <https://gov.wales/school-development-plans> and the Education (School Development Plans) Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2010 – <https://www.education-ni.gov.uk/publications/education-school-development-plans-regulations-northern-ireland-2010>

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, individual teacher professional development is expected to sit within the context of the school's plan for improving educational provision and performance. It is a matter for the school to determine the regularity with which the school improvement plan is updated ⁽²⁷⁾.

In one third of European education systems ⁽²⁸⁾, it is not mandatory for schools to develop a CPD plan. Some of these countries make a CPD plan compulsory for teachers, not for schools. In others, CPD planning is done at local or regional level.

In **Denmark**, it is mandatory for the municipalities to develop a CPD plan that describes which activities the municipality will initiate to achieve the national goal of full competence coverage (all teachers need to have teaching competence in the specific courses they are teaching).

In **France**, the National Training Plan (*Plan national de formation*) is developed at the level of the *académies* – the main administrative districts of the Ministry of Education – through the *Académies' Training Plan* (*Plan académique de formation*) and is made available to teachers through their schools.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, schools are not required to have a CPD plan. Instead, to maintain their registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland, teachers are required to engage in the Professional Update process which includes maintaining records of professional learning activities and confirmation of engagement every five years ⁽²⁹⁾.

In **Norway**, it is compulsory to have a CPD plan at local level. The local authorities cooperate with their schools and the local universities/teacher colleges to elaborate the local CPD plan.

CPD planning at school level and teacher participation in professional training

TALIS 2018 survey data seems to suggest that CPD planning at school level contributes to teacher participation in more varied professional development activities. Lower secondary teachers from countries where a CPD plan is required, on average, reported participating in 3.74 (S.E. 0.02) different types of professional training in the 12 months prior to the survey. By contrast, the average number was 3.62 (S.E. 0.03) in countries that do not have this requirement. The difference between these two estimates (0.12) was statistically significant (S.E. 0.04, $p < 0.05$) ⁽³⁰⁾. When considering only EU countries, the difference between these two groups is higher ⁽³¹⁾.

However, CPD planning is not the most frequent activity of lower secondary school principals. Data indicates that, in the EU, approximately 56.2 % of lower secondary teachers had principals who worked 'often' or 'very often' on a professional development plan for their school during the 12 months prior to the survey (see Figure 3.9). This percentage is much lower than those who 'often' or 'very often' reviewed school administrative procedures and reports (71.2 %), took actions to ensure that teachers feel responsible for their students' learning outcomes (68.7 %), provided parents with information (61.5 %), etc. (see Table 3.5 in Annex II).

⁽²⁷⁾ See the Education (School Teachers' Appraisal) Regulations 2012, <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/uksi/2012/115/regulation/7/made> Welsh Government (2014).

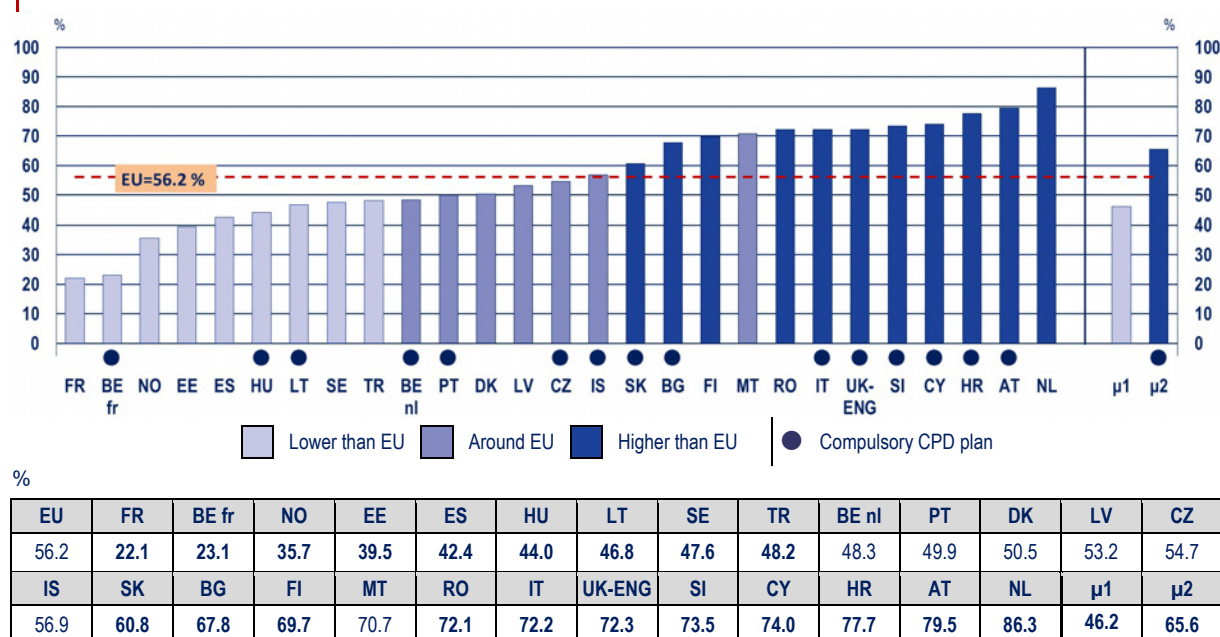
⁽²⁸⁾ Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, some Autonomous Communities of Spain, France, Latvia, Malta, the Netherlands, Romania, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Switzerland, Norway and Turkey.

⁽²⁹⁾ Guidance can be found on the General Teaching Council for Scotland website at <http://www.gtcs.org.uk/nmsruntime/saveasdialog.aspx?IID=7912&slID=10743>

⁽³⁰⁾ See Annex II for detailed description of statistical terms and methodology applied in this report.

⁽³¹⁾ Lower secondary teachers from EU countries where a CPD plan is required, on average, reported participating in 3.73 (S.E. 0.02) different types of professional training in the 12 months prior to the survey. By contrast, the average number was 3.31 (S.E. 0.03) in EU countries that do not have this requirement. The difference between these two estimates (0.42) was statistically significant (S.E. 0.04, $p < 0.05$).

Figure 3.9: Proportion of lower secondary teachers whose principals worked 'often' or 'very often' on a professional development plan for their school during the 12 months prior to the survey, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 3.6 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on lower secondary school principals' answers to question 22: 'Please indicate how frequently you engaged in the following activities in this school during the last 12 months', option (k) 'I worked on a professional development plan for this school' (missing data excluded). Answers 'often' and 'very often' grouped together. The data is weighted by teacher.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of the bold in the table indicate statistically significant differences from the EU value.

The data is arranged in ascending order.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

'Compulsory CPD plan' shows the top-level regulations, see Figure 3.8.

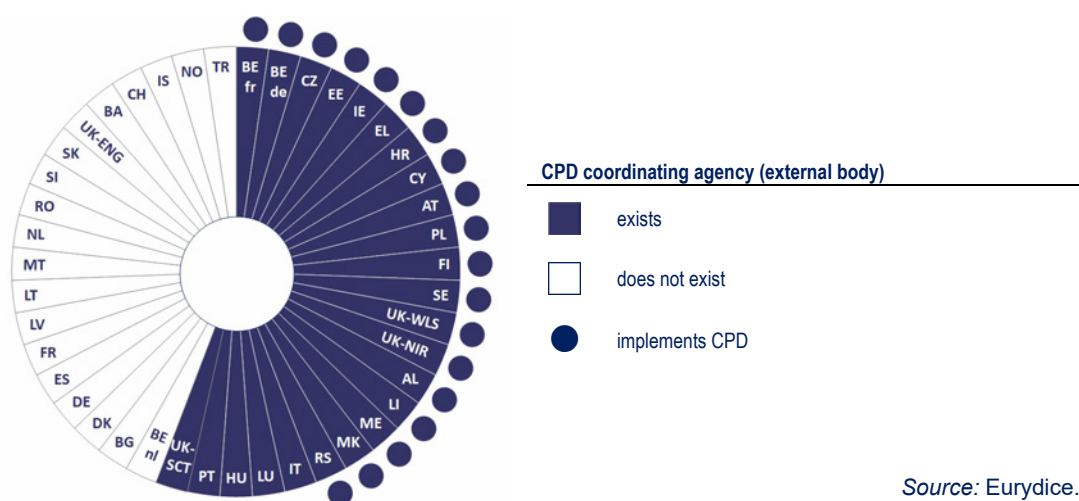
μ1=average for countries that have no 'Compulsory school plan'. μ2=average for countries that have 'Compulsory school plan'.

TALIS 2018 data reveals that there is a great variation between European countries. The proportion of teachers whose principals reported working 'often' or 'very often' on a professional development plan, range from 22.1 % in France to 86.3 % in the Netherlands. Top-level regulations requiring schools to have a CPD plan seem to have a positive correlation with the proportion. In countries where a school CPD plan is mandatory, a significantly higher proportion of teachers had principals working on the plan (65.6 %, S.E. 1.44) than in the countries with no such requirement (46.2 %, S.E. 1.31). The difference of 19.4 percentage points (S.E. 1.84) was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

3.5. Continuing professional development coordinating bodies

Teachers' CPD may take different forms and can be provided by various institutions. To ensure that teacher's CPD activities are coordinated, quality assured and provide support for teachers and schools, many countries have set up a body or agency outside the ministry of education.

For the purposes of this report, a continuing professional development body/agency is an organisation with a legal status external to the top-level education authority but supported financially by it. The CPD body/agency would be responsible for providing support for lower secondary teachers in the area of continuing professional development.

Figure 3.10: Continuing professional development coordinating agency (external body), 2019/20

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

This Figure indicates which countries have an external body (not within the top-level authority) to provide support for lower secondary teachers in the area of continuing professional development. Countries are ordered on the basis of the existence of the CPD agency and then by CPD implementation.

Country-specific note

Iceland: Recent legislation establishes a new committee (*Kennararáð*) which, among other functions, has the role of supporting, coordinating and analysing CPD of compulsory school teachers. See Article 7 of the Act on education, qualification and hiring of teachers and school heads of pre-primary, compulsory, and upper secondary schools ([Act 95/2019](#), in force as of 01/01/2020).

As Figure 3.10 shows, more than half of the European countries have a CPD coordinating agency in place to support lower secondary teachers' continuing professional development. Such a responsibility can be the main mission of the body/agency (e.g. Cyprus, Portugal and Serbia). In other cases, CPD may be a part of a broader mission that covers other aspects linked to education (e.g. Estonia, Croatia, Finland and North Macedonia). An entity mainly dedicated to the teaching profession and teacher CPD may cover such functions:

In **Portugal**, the Scientific-Pedagogical Council of Continuing Professional Training is responsible for accrediting trainers and continuing teacher training actions and monitoring the process of evaluating the teacher continuing training system. It is also responsible for the accreditation of specialized training courses.

In **Serbia**, the Institute for the Improvement of Education is an accreditation body for CDP programmes for teachers. It publishes the catalogue of accredited programmes, gathers information on participation and evaluation of programmes as well as organises some CPD programmes in their premises.

CPD coordination and even implementation functions may be carried out in an agency that is responsible for a broader set of tasks. These may include the development of national curricula, managing the national examination and testing system, quality assurance, teacher evaluation, recognition of foreign qualifications, administering various funding programmes, education research, etc.

The competences and responsibilities of the CPD agencies in relation to teachers' professional training itself also vary greatly across countries. However, several typical functions might be highlighted. The most common task of the CPD agency is to provide information about CPD. The coordinating body usually publishes lists of available (or accredited) CPD programmes or maintains searchable digital information platforms.

In **Hungary**, the Educational Authority runs the accreditation process of new training programmes, maintains a register of accredited training programmes, publishes training programmes offered by providers and supervises the conduct of training programmes. It provides information to teachers on the CPD requirements.

Education Scotland is a **Scottish** Government executive agency charged with supporting quality and improvement in Scottish education. It supports education professionals to make a difference in the classroom, school and wider community through access to a wide range of professional learning and leadership opportunities. An online resource enables teachers to engage with learning activities within their own secure account area, search for high-quality programmes of learning and access materials which support professional learning and leadership.

In 19 education systems, the CPD agency itself organises and implements CPD activities ⁽³²⁾. Usually, the CPD coordinating body provides methodological support both for schools and teachers. Most CPD agencies organise CPD activities both in schools and other locations, usually on their own premises.

In **Estonia**, the Education and Youth Authority develops the teachers' and school heads' CDP system, coordinates CDP and organises various CDP courses.

Another very common set of CPD agency functions relates to management of the CPD offer across different CPD providers. Most of the CPD agencies control CPD quality across CPD providers, analyse the CPD demand and/or coordinate the CPD offer. In some cases, the agencies run the formal accreditation or certification processes of the CPD programmes/courses.

In **Luxembourg**, the Training Institute of Education designs, implements and evaluates the arrangements for the induction period, the alternative pathways (*certificat de formation pédagogique*) and CPD for national education staff.

Sometimes, the CPD agency acts as a coordinating body for regional/local CPD providers or other network organisations.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, schools operate within networks that organise CPD for their member schools and teachers. The Institute for in-service training is in charge of organising CPD for all members of the teaching body, regardless of the organizing authority for which they practice their profession. As such, it is responsible for taking into account and meeting the common needs of the entire system. It is responsible for CPD activities in the school networks.

In **Austria**, the university colleges of teacher education are situated in all nine provinces. The so-called 'Rectors' Conference of the Austrian university colleges of teacher education' coordinates the opinion of the colleges of teacher education in fundamental questions of teacher education (initial, continuing and further education as well as school development support), research and teaching.

In **Greece**, the Institute of Educational Policy (IEP) is responsible for design and development of CPD policy as well as accreditation of CPD providers. On a regional level, the Regional Centres for Educational Planning (PEKES) are responsible for organising and implementing teacher training seminars and programmes in collaboration with IEP, where centrally planned programmes are concerned, or their own planning for issues coming up at school level of their region.

Less common functions include providing support to schools when developing their CPD plans. A task which is much less frequently delegated to the coordinating body is the distribution of grants for teachers and schools. Few external agencies are charged with the distribution of CPD funding.

In those countries that have no top-level CPD coordinating agency or external body, CPD coordination is usually the task of the top-level authorities (e.g. ministries or governmental departments). These functions may also be decentralised to regional/local entities or school networks. If there is no national CPD coordination, CPD providers themselves analyse the demand and implement CPD offers as well as providing information to teachers and schools.

⁽³²⁾ Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Czechia, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Austria, Poland, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland), Albania, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

Some countries have several CPD coordinating bodies or several entities being in charge of CPD-related activities. This is especially common in decentralised education systems, e.g. Germany or Bosnia and Herzegovina. Figure 3.10 shows these countries as not having one central coordinating agency, since more than one organisation is involved in these functions.

In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, there is more than one body offering CPD as various network-based pedagogical counselling services ⁽³³⁾ are available for different types of schools (e.g. public schools, private Catholic schools, Steiner schools, etc.). They organise CPD activities, provide information about CPD and help schools to prepare their own CPD plans.

In **Germany**, the *Länder* are responsible for the CPD activities. State-run CPD is organised in the *Länder* at central, regional and local level. All *Länder* have established state-run CPD training institutes which for the most part are subordinate to the Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs as dependent *Länder* institutions.

In **Bosnia and Herzegovina**, the Pedagogical Offices of Cantons and Entities (*Pedagoški zavodi kantona i entiteta*) are responsible for CPD.

In some countries, the CPD coordination functions may be split between an external agency and the ministry.

The **Italian** Ministry of Education implements a digital information platform [S.O.F.I.A.](#), which offers a comprehensive catalogue of the CPD offer, as well as course evaluation and certification. However, the National Institute for Documentation, Innovation and Educational Research (INDIRE) monitors the quality of professional development and in-service training at national level.

3.6. Conclusions

Shared European objectives on education emphasise that teachers need to engage in continuing professional development (CPD) for good quality teaching and learning. Top-level authorities in almost all European countries consider CPD to be a teacher's professional duty or one of their statutory obligations. Accordingly, TALIS 2018 survey data reveals that a high proportion of lower secondary teachers in Europe engage in CPD activities. In the EU, 92.5 % of lower secondary teachers had attended at least one type of professional development activity in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future stress that it is important for teachers to participate in 'various training models, including face-to-face, virtual, blended and work-based learning' ⁽³⁴⁾. The chapter therefore focused on teachers' participation in varied CPD activities.

TALIS 2018 data shows that in the EU, on average, teachers attended three to four different types of professional development activities in the 12 months prior to the survey. Before COVID-19 pandemic, teachers usually attended a course/seminar in person, read professional literature or participated in an education conference. There is a considerable variation between countries. Teachers in the Baltic countries attended on average five to six different types of training. By contrast, teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France participated in two or three different types of training.

The data reveals that some top-level regulations might impact teachers' participation in CPD. Teachers in countries that allocate a certain amount of time for CPD tend to participate in more varied types of CPD. Currently, more than half of the European countries grant some CPD time for each teacher, either as mandatory to take or as an entitlement. CPD is mandatory for all teachers in lower secondary education in 18 education systems ⁽³⁵⁾. Usually, approximately 18 hours of CPD per year

⁽³³⁾ <https://onderwijs.vlaanderen.be/nl/contacteer-je-pedagogische-begeleidingsdienst>

⁽³⁴⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 11.

⁽³⁵⁾ Belgium (French Community), Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia.

are mandatory. Every teacher is entitled to take a certain amount of time for CPD in eight education systems ⁽³⁶⁾. The most common practice is to grant approximately five working days for CPD per year.

Another way to allocate time for CPD is to allow paid study leave. This is especially important for training activities that are teacher-initiated and take place outside the school. The data shows that most European countries offer teachers the possibility of taking paid study leave. Short periods of paid study leave (up to one week) are the most common. However, TALIS 2018 data seems to indicate that the length of the leave might be important. Teachers who had the possibility of taking paid study leave for a week or longer seemed to perceive lower levels of conflict between CPD and their work schedule. This was not the case when the period of study leave was shorter.

CPD planning at school level is essential in order to balance individual and organisational learning needs and to establish priorities. In the majority of European education systems, it is compulsory for schools to develop a CPD plan (usually annually). TALIS 2018 data reveals that teachers participated in more varied CPD in those countries where schools are required to have a CPD plan. However, CPD planning is not the most frequent activity of lower secondary school principals. Data indicates that, in the EU, approximately 56.2 % of lower secondary teachers had principals who worked 'often' or 'very often' on a professional development plan for their school during the 12 months prior to the survey. This proportion was significantly higher (65.6 %) in those countries where schools are required to have a CPD plan.

CPD activities may also need coordination and planning at top-level. Many European countries have a body or agency that is responsible for providing support for lower secondary teachers in the area of CPD. Such an organisation usually provides information about available (or accredited) CPD programmes or maintains searchable digital information platforms. Often, the CPD agency organises and implements CPD activities and provides methodological support.

⁽³⁶⁾ Belgium (French Community), Czechia, Croatia, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Sweden and Iceland.

CHAPTER 4: TEACHER APPRAISAL

Teacher appraisal offers opportunities for improving both teacher performance and the quality of education systems. The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' highlight appraisal as one way to enhance teaching quality 'by supporting improvements in teachers' work, by providing constructive evaluation and feedback on their performance, setting up criteria for promotion and recognition of those who accomplish significant achievements' ⁽¹⁾.

In this report, teacher appraisal refers to the evaluation of individual teachers in order to make a judgement about their work and performance. As well as examining their performance in the classroom, appraisal can also involve an evaluation of a teacher's contribution to the broader objectives of the school in which they work. Usually, appraisal is carried out separately from other quality assurance processes such as school evaluation, although it can take place as part of these procedures as well.

Individual teacher evaluation can have different aims and take various forms. It can be carried out to support the improvement of teaching practices, to ensure teacher accountability and compliance with standards, or both. The actors and methods involved differ widely across education systems, as do the consequences for teachers. Some countries have a single appraisal process, while others have developed several processes.

This chapter focuses on the appraisal of in-service teachers. Appraisal of novice teachers carried out at the end of the induction period is analysed in Chapter 2. Appraisal processes carried out as a form of disciplinary measure in cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are not analysed in this chapter.

This chapter is structured in four sections. The first section provides an overview of the existence of top-level regulations and looks into how often teachers are appraised. The second section analyses the main aims of teacher appraisal. It then looks at certain aspects of the formative dimension, such as measures to remedy weaknesses, as well as teachers' opinions on the usefulness of the feedback received. The third section identifies who is responsible for evaluating individual teachers, and highlights the key role of school heads in the process. The last section identifies the methods and tools used for teacher appraisal. All sections combine Eurydice and TALIS data. The main findings are summarised at the end of the chapter.

4.1. Extent and frequency of teacher appraisal

This section looks into the way public authorities regulate teacher appraisal, including whether it has to be carried out regularly or if it takes place under specific circumstances such as a teacher request or at the initiative of the appraiser. It then presents TALIS 2018 results on the frequency of teacher appraisal as reported by school principals.

Teacher appraisal is regulated by a framework established by top-level authorities in three-quarters of European education systems. In the remaining education systems, there are no top-level regulations on individual teacher evaluations. Schools or local authorities have full autonomy in this matter. In two countries, there is regional variation regarding teacher appraisal. In Germany, the top-level authorities regulating teacher appraisal are the *Länder*. In Spain, while the central regulations on inspection are issued by the Ministry of Education and refer in very broad terms to the role of inspectors in teacher appraisal, the Autonomous Communities are responsible for issuing more specific regulations.

⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 14.

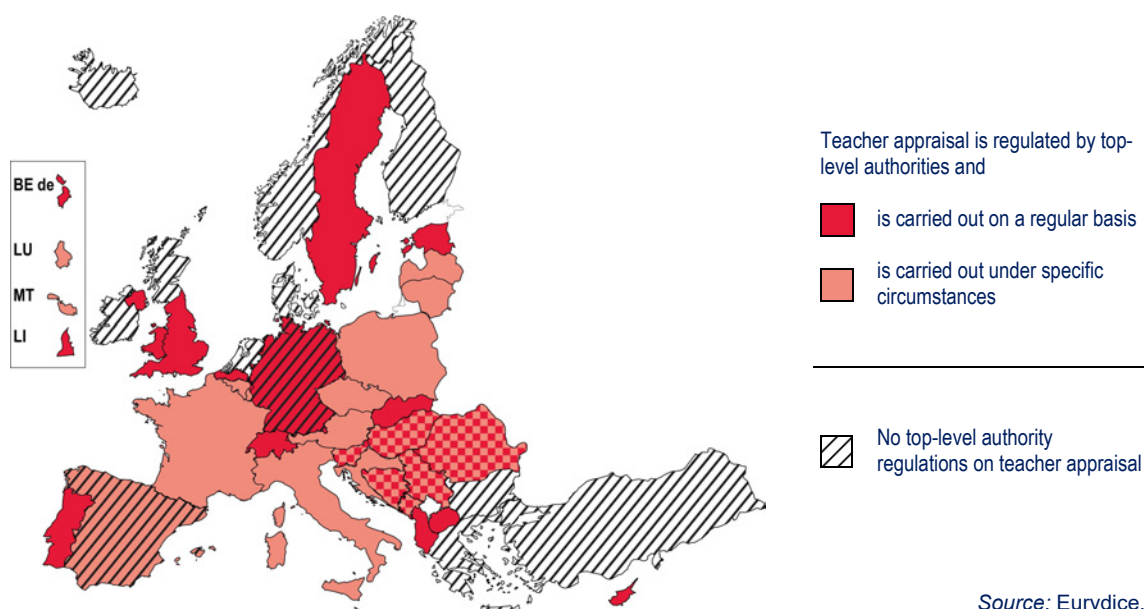
In half the education systems, top-level authorities set the frequency of teacher appraisal. The period between appraisal exercises ranges from one to six years. The appraisal is carried out every year in Estonia, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Albania, Switzerland and Liechtenstein. At the other end of the scale, lower secondary teachers are appraised every six years in Serbia. In Cyprus, regular appraisal starts only after the 10th year of service and takes place every other year thereafter. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), Liechtenstein and North Macedonia, the frequency varies depending on different factors.

In **Belgium (German-speaking Community)**, teachers with a temporary contract are appraised either annually or every two years. Teachers with an indefinite contract are appraised either every three years or upon request, depending on their status.

In **Liechtenstein**, teacher appraisal to help teachers improve performance is carried out annually, while salary-relevant appraisal only occurs every five years.

In **North Macedonia**, teachers are appraised annually by the school head and by a representative from the top-level authority. Moreover, inspectors evaluate the work of teachers as part of the integral evaluation of the school every three years.

Figure 4.1: Existence and frequency of teacher appraisal in lower secondary education according to top-level authority regulations, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Minimum frequency of regular individual teacher evaluation (years)

BE de	BE nl	DE	EE	CY	HU	PT	RO	SI	SK	SE	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	AL	BA	CH	LI	ME	MK	RS
1-3	4	:	1	10	5	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2-4	1-4	1-5	4	1-3	6

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures. Appraisal processes carried out as a form of disciplinary measure in cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are outside the scope. Teacher appraisal carried out under specific circumstances refers to teachers evaluated upon their request, at the initiative of the appraiser or at certain points in their career.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE de): Frequency varies according to the type of contract.

Germany: A minority of *Länder* have issued regulations on teacher appraisal and have made it a regular exercise.

Greece: A new law adopted in 2020 (Law 4692/2020) introduces a framework for the appraisal of teachers in 'model' and 'experimental' schools. This framework is expected to be implemented starting from 2020/21.

Spain: Information is available only for eight Autonomous Communities. Four of them have issued regulations on teacher appraisal (Castilla-La Mancha, La Rioja, Asturias and Aragón), and appraisal takes place under specific circumstances. Four other Autonomous Communities (Ceuta, Extremadura, Illes Balears and Comunidad de Madrid) have not issued regulations on teacher appraisal.

Cyprus: Regular appraisal starts only after the 10th year of lower secondary teachers' service.

Bosnia and Herzegovina: Teacher inspection occurs every two to four years, depending on Canton or entity.

Switzerland: Teacher appraisal is required in the majority of the Cantons. Frequency varies across Cantons between one and four years.

In countries where appraisal takes place at regular intervals, a distinct evaluation process can be carried out at the initiative of the teacher or of the appraiser. This is the case in several eastern and Balkan countries. In Hungary, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Serbia, these distinct appraisal processes aim to inform decisions on promotion, while in Romania, they aim at determining which teachers will receive salary increases. In contrast, the purpose in Montenegro is to help teachers improve their teaching performance.

In **Hungary**, teachers can request appraisal for promotion after a given number of years that vary from 6 to 14 years, according to career level. In addition, teachers are appraised as part of internal and external school evaluation, which both take place at least every five years.

In **Slovenia**, the head teacher must monitor the work and the careers of teachers, and at least once a year conduct an interview with each one. Moreover, appraisal for promotion is performed at the initiative of the head teacher in agreement with the teacher evaluated or at the teacher's own initiative. Finally, since July 2020, after an 11-year suspension due to austerity measures taken following the financial crisis, teacher appraisal for reward schemes linked to exceptional performance can be carried out again at the initiative of the appraiser, usually the head teacher.

In **Serbia**, the frequency of appraisal to improve performance as part of external and internal school evaluations is fixed, while appraisal for promotion purposes is organised at the teachers' request. Moreover, teacher appraisal as part of pedagogical supervision is carried out according to an annual pedagogical supervision work plan made by the Ministry.

In 12 education systems, the frequency of teacher appraisal is not set at top-level. Instead, this process is carried out under specific circumstances that differ across countries. In Luxembourg, teachers are evaluated only twice in order to help them improve performance: in their 12th and 20th years of service. In France and Malta, teacher appraisal takes place in specific years of service that vary according to teachers' progress along the salary scale.

In **France**, appraisal is based on four career interviews throughout teachers' professional life. Career interviews take place when teachers reach certain steps in the salary scale. On average, it takes place every seven years.

In **Malta**, teachers are appraised either by the school principal and/or by subject specialists before moving from one salary scale to the next. New teachers are in salary scale 9 and move to salary scale 8 after eight years of service and then to salary scale 7 after another eight years of service.

Teacher appraisal that is carried out under specific circumstances can be initiated by different parties. In Spain (Asturias and La Rioja), Croatia, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland, teacher appraisal takes place at the teacher's request. In such cases, it is used to inform decisions on teacher promotion to a higher career level or to award financial rewards.

In **Italy**, teachers are appraised when they apply to receive a reward under a scheme that may be launched annually by the school head.

Moreover, in Lithuania and Poland, the school head may also take the initiative to evaluate teachers in order to help them improve their performance. In Croatia, teacher appraisal aimed at improving teacher's performance can also be initiated by the evaluator (usually the school head), but can also be undertaken at the teacher's or parents' request.

Finally, in Belgium (French Community), Czechia and Austria, it is the evaluator – either the school head or an inspector – who decides when to evaluate teachers.

It is worth mentioning that regulations on the frequency of teacher appraisal changed over the last years in some countries. In Latvia, teacher appraisal had to be carried out every five years until 2017, when the regulations changed to give schools autonomy in this matter. In Poland, since 2019, a periodic performance appraisal is no longer obligatory.

In 10 European education systems, there are no top-level regulations on individual teacher evaluation ⁽²⁾. Whether and how teachers are appraised is a matter of local autonomy. More general regulations may, nevertheless, guide the teacher appraisal process.

In **Denmark**, the *Folkeskole* Act entrusts the responsibility of the administrative and pedagogical management of the school, including the professional development of teachers, to the school head. Moreover, based on teachers' collective agreement ⁽³⁾, the school head and the individual teacher are expected to hold a dialogue in order to prepare an individual education plan addressing the teacher's needs in terms of competences and qualifications in order to perform his/her tasks.

In **Finland**, the municipal collective agreements for the education sector 2018 ⁽⁴⁾ and 2020 ⁽⁵⁾ state that in general the decision on staff salary increase should be based on an assessment of his/her performance. The criteria and procedures for such assessments are defined locally. Appraisal of performance may be assessed annually, for example, during a development discussion with the teacher concerned.

In **Norway**, although the employee dialogue is not explicitly enshrined in legislation, according to the guidelines provided by the Working Environment Act ⁽⁶⁾, the employer is requested to give the individual employee the opportunity to take part in processes and decisions concerning their own workplace. The employee dialogue is normally a formal dialogue between the teacher and school head during which the teachers receive feedback on their work.

In **Turkey**, inspectors can assess the competence and work of individual teachers, and provide them with feedback within the framework of school evaluation. This however is not regulated and is left to the initiative of the school inspectors.

In **Iceland**, a new legislation Act on education, qualification and hiring of teachers and school heads (Act 95/2019) ⁽⁷⁾ requires rules framing a system for teacher appraisal to be established. This task, which is entrusted to the new Teacher Council established by the abovementioned law, is on-going.

The TALIS 2018 survey provides some information on how appraisal is carried out in schools. Principals were asked how often their teachers are appraised by five different types of evaluators, including themselves. The other evaluators mentioned were other members of the school management team, assigned mentors, teachers (who are not part of the school management team) and external individuals or bodies. Figure 4.2 shows the frequency reported by school principal.

Data illustrates that teacher appraisal is a common practice in European countries. In the EU, 64.5 % of teachers work in schools where formal appraisal is carried out at least once a year by at least one evaluator. However, there are some geographical disparities in Europe. Teacher appraisal is carried out most often in the three Baltic countries, several eastern European countries (Czechia, Bulgaria, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia), as well as in the United Kingdom (England), Sweden and Turkey, with approximately 90 % or more of teachers working in schools where they are appraised at least every year. In contrast, in the western and southern parts of Europe, as well as in Finland, teachers work in schools where they are appraised less frequently. For instance, in Belgium (Flemish Community), Italy, Spain, France, Cyprus, Austria, the Netherlands, Portugal and Finland, the proportion of teachers working in schools where they are appraised at least every year is below the EU level.

⁽²⁾ Bulgaria, Denmark, Ireland, Greece, the Netherlands, Finland, the UK (Scotland), Iceland, Norway and Turkey.

⁽³⁾ Local Government Denmark (Kommunernes Landsforening) and the Confederation of Teachers Unions (Lærernes Centralorganisation), 50.01 O.18 17/2019. Protocol 6 - *Continuing education plans in Collective agreement for teachers and others in primary and lower secondary school and for special education for adults* (*Overenskomst for lærere m.fl. i folkeskolen og ved specialundervisning for voksne*), [Accessed 15 October 2019].

⁽⁴⁾ Municipal employers (KT Kuntatyöntajat, KT Kommunarbetsgivarna), 2018. Municipal collective agreement for the education sector 2018-2019 (Kunnallinen opetushenkilöstön virka- ja työehtosopimus 2018-2019, Det kommunala tjänste- och arbetskollektivavtalet för undervisningspersonal 2018-2019), [Accessed 18 November 2020].

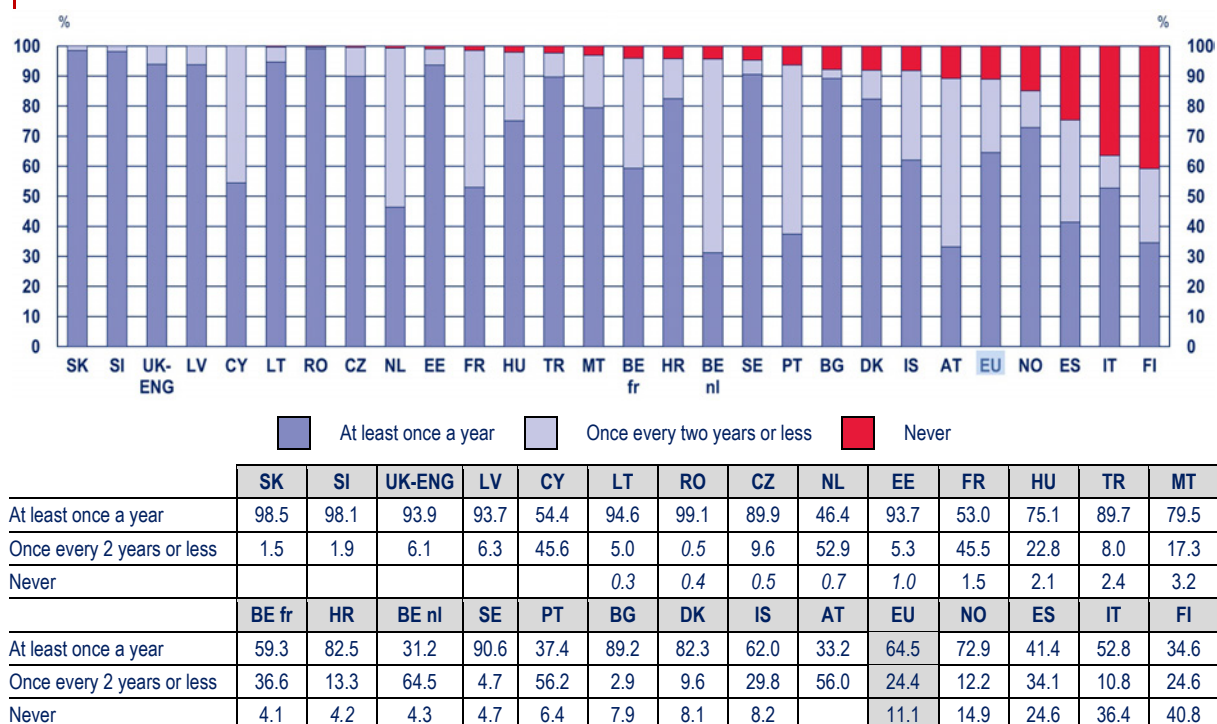
⁽⁵⁾ Municipal employers (KT Kuntatyöntajat, KT Kommunarbetsgivarna), 2020, *Municipal collective agreement for the education sector 2020-2021* (Kunnallinen opetushenkilöstön virka- ja työehtosopimus 2020-2021, Det kommunala tjänste- och arbetskollektivavtalet för undervisningspersonal 2020-2021), [Accessed 18 November 2020].

⁽⁶⁾ Chapter 4, §4-2. https://lovdata.no/dokument/NL/lov/2005-06-17-62/KAPITTEL_5#KAPITTEL_5

⁽⁷⁾ <https://www.althingi.is/altext/stjt/2019.095.html>.

In **Italy**, teacher appraisal had begun to be regulated a few years prior to the time of the survey. Indeed, in 2015, a financial reward scheme based on the results of teacher appraisal was introduced for all teachers with an indefinite contract ⁽⁸⁾. The implementation of this policy was clearly reflected in the substantial decrease (-33.7 percentage points) between TALIS 2013 and TALIS 2018 in the proportion of teachers working in schools where they are never appraised (OECD 2020, Table II.3.33). However, since the new budget law of December 2019, whether schools allocate part of their funding for the improvement of the educational offer to a financial reward scheme based on teacher appraisal may vary from one school to another ⁽⁹⁾.

Figure 4.2: Proportion of lower secondary teachers working in schools where the principal reports the frequency of their appraisal, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.1 in Annex II).

Explanatory note

The Figure is based on principals' answers to question 23 'On average, how often is each teacher formally appraised in this school by the following people?'. Answers 'less than once every two years' and 'once every two years' are grouped together. Answers 'once per year' and 'twice or more per year' are grouped together.

The length of the bars shows the proportion of teachers working in schools where the principal reports the corresponding category of frequency. The value taken is the highest frequency reported by principals across sub-questions a-e.

The data is arranged in ascending order of the frequency category 'never'. For the first five countries, the data is arranged in ascending order of the frequency category 'once every two years or less'.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Varied situations can be observed in countries where teacher appraisal is not nationally regulated (see Figure 4.1). In Bulgaria, Denmark, Norway and Turkey, a higher proportion of teachers than the EU level work in schools where they are appraised at least every year. In Bulgaria and Turkey specifically, around 90 % of teachers work in schools where they are appraised at least every year. In contrast, in Spain and Finland are the proportions of teachers working in schools where they are never appraised at least 10 percentage points above the EU level (respectively 24.6 % and 40.8 %).

In **Spain**, the Autonomous Communities have the autonomy to issue regional-level regulations on teacher appraisal and not all of them have done so (see Figure 4.1).

⁽⁸⁾ Education Reform Law 'Buona Scuola', Article 1, paragraph 126, of Law no. 107 of 13 July 2015.

⁽⁹⁾ 2020 Budget Law, art. 1, paragraph 249.

In **Finland**, the quality assurance system does not rely on appraising individual teachers in a formal way. The development discussions between teachers and school heads may contain evaluative elements, but very often these focus on the coming school year and the teachers' needs and plans for CPD. Teachers are expected to be ready to reflect on their work and the quality of it, as well as to continuously maintain their professional skills.

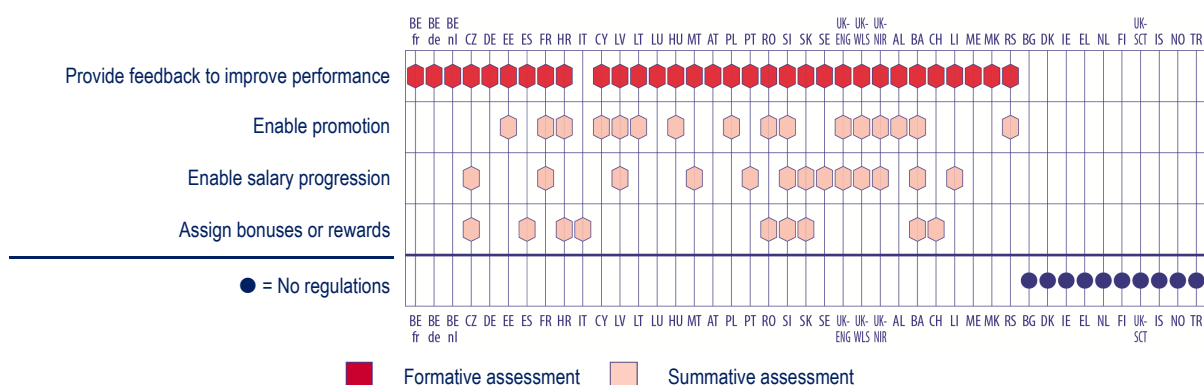
4.2. Aims and consequences of teacher appraisal

As for any kind of evaluation, two main goals of teacher appraisal can be identified. On the one hand, appraisals can have a formative purpose, providing teachers with input to help them identify ways to address weaknesses and improve their teaching skills. On the other hand, teacher appraisal can also have a summative purpose, when it looks at past performance in order to determine whether the required standards are met or recommended practices are followed.

The main aims of teacher appraisal, listed in Figure 4.3, can be related either to the formative or the summative nature of teacher appraisal. The formative dimension of teacher appraisal is in evidence when the process aims to provide feedback in areas requiring improvement, while teacher appraisal has a summative dimension when it aims to inform decisions on promotion to a higher career level, salary progression or other financial rewards.

This section analyses whether appraisal is intended only to provide teachers with feedback on their performance or whether it also has other purposes such as assessing readiness for promotion. It then focuses on appraisal for formative purposes, by discussing teachers' opinions on the usefulness of feedback they receive at school, as well as the frequency of discussions on how to remedy weaknesses following teacher appraisal as reported by school principals.

Figure 4.3: Main aims of teacher appraisal in lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures: appraisal processes carried out as a form of disciplinary measure in cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are out of scope.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Information applies to the minority of *Länder* that issued regulations on teacher appraisals (see Section 4.1).

Spain: Figure 4.3 shows the situation in four Autonomous Communities. In Asturias and La Rioja, the aim of teacher appraisal is to inform decisions on financial rewards. In Aragón and Castilla-La Mancha, the aim is to provide teachers with feedback in order to help them improve their performance.

As shown on Figure 4.3, the most common reason for appraisal is to provide teachers with feedback on their performance in order to help them improve. Except Italy, all countries with regulations report that providing feedback on performance is among the aims of their teacher appraisal system. In a few education systems (Belgium, certain *Länder* in Germany, Spain (Castilla-La Mancha and Aragón), Luxembourg, Austria, Montenegro and North Macedonia (until 2022)), driving improvement is the

single main aim of teacher appraisal. In Belgium (French Community) since 2019 and in Austria, however, the results of teacher appraisal, although not directly linked to financial rewards, are taken into account when deciding to assign new responsibilities to teachers.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, the changes being introduced as part of the Pact for excellence in teaching (*Pacte pour un enseignement d'excellence*) reform, now take teacher appraisal results into account when assigning additional responsibilities to teachers. Since 1 September 2019, teachers with 15 years' seniority and no unfavourable evaluation reports are classed as 'experienced teachers' to whom specific whole-school tasks such as pedagogical coordination, relations with parents, or referent roles for beginning teachers may be entrusted. These roles may be accompanied by a slight reduction of classroom hours.

In **Austria**, the school head takes teacher appraisal results into account when deciding to award teachers new functions such as subject coordinator, transition manager for cooperation between primary school and lower secondary school or substitute school head.

In other countries where there are regulations, teachers are appraised for a variety of reasons. The most common pattern, as stated previously, is that in addition to a formative evaluation aimed at providing feedback (see Figure 4.3), there are forms of summative evaluation intended to assess whether a teacher's performance and/or competences should be recognised via promotion, salary progression, bonuses or other rewards.

Teachers' appraisal results are used as part of the promotion process in 16 education systems. In 14 of them, it is a requirement (see Figure 1.13). In the remaining two countries (Estonia and Albania), school heads have the autonomy to use teacher appraisal as part of the criteria for deciding on teachers' career advancement.

Teacher appraisal is used to inform decisions on salaries in 13 education systems. In France, Malta, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Liechtenstein, teacher appraisal results are taken into account when deciding on teachers' progression along the salary scale (see Section 1.3.2). In Sweden, collective agreements stipulate that salary increase is influenced by the regular individual 'development talk' between school head and teacher. In Czechia, Latvia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Bosnia-Herzegovina, the teacher appraisal process can lead to a salary increase at the discretion of the school head.

Teacher appraisal is taken into account for the awarding of bonuses or other financial rewards to teachers in nine education systems: Czechia, Spain (La Rioja and Asturias), Croatia, Italy, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia (since July 2020, see Section 4.1), Switzerland and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Frequency of remedial discussions and impact of feedback to teachers

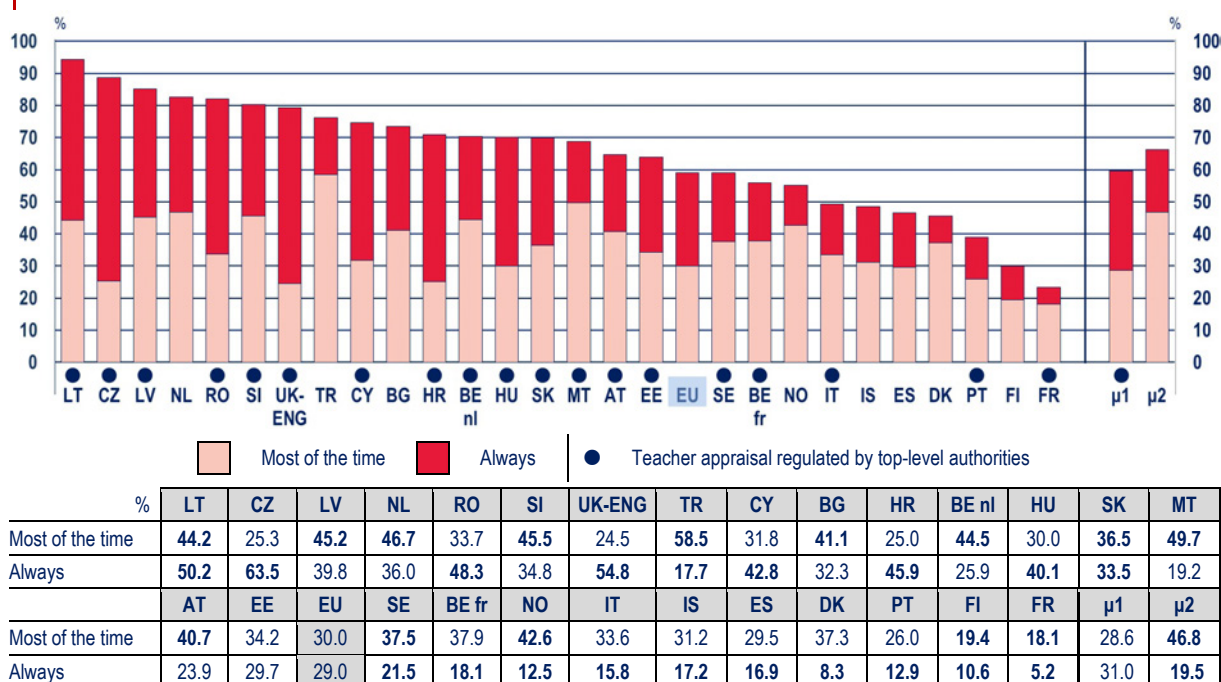
In the Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' ⁽¹⁰⁾, providing teachers with feedback is identified as a key element in supporting improvements in teachers' work. Additionally, the latest report of the ET 2020 Working Group on Schools, which was set up by the European Commission, highlights that a well-designed teacher evaluation process 'should include positive feedback and improve, through encouragement and practical support, the performance of teachers' (European Commission 2020, p. 52).

Eurydice data reveals that, except Italy, all countries with top-level regulations on teacher appraisal see providing feedback to improve teachers' performance as one of the goals (see Figure 4.3). However, research suggests that beyond simply providing feedback, the quality of feedback also plays an important role in determining whether teachers can use it to improve their practice (Ford T.G & Hewitt K.K., 2020). In order to shed light on what kind of feedback is provided to lower secondary teachers, two sets of TALIS 2018 data are considered here.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

In the TALIS 2018 questionnaire, principals were asked to what extent (never, sometimes, most of the time or always) measures to remedy weaknesses in teaching are discussed with the teacher following formal teacher appraisal. This question was addressed only to the principals of schools where teacher appraisal is carried out (see Figure 4.2). Data reveals that although post-appraisal discussions exist almost everywhere, they do not take place systematically in all countries. In 2018, across the EU, 95.4 % of teachers worked in schools where the principal reports that post-appraisal discussions on remedial measures take place (OECD 2020, Table II.3.42). However, the proportion of teachers working in schools where appraisal is ‘always’ followed by such discussions is much lower (29.0 %, across the EU, see Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4: Proportion of lower secondary teachers working in schools where the principal reports that remedial discussions follow appraisal, by frequency, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.2 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on principals' answers to question 25 'Please indicate the frequency that each of the following occurs following teacher appraisal', option (a) 'measures to remedy any weaknesses are discussed with the teacher following teacher appraisal'. Schools where the principal reported 'never' to each option of appraisal in question 23 are excluded from the calculations.

The data is arranged in descending order of the sum of the frequency for categories 'most of the time' and 'always'.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant differences from the EU value are indicated in bold (in the table below the figure).

For 'teacher appraisal regulated by top-level authorities', see Figure 4.1.

μ1=average for countries where teacher appraisal is regulated by top-level authorities.

μ2=average for countries where teacher appraisal is not regulated by top-level authorities.

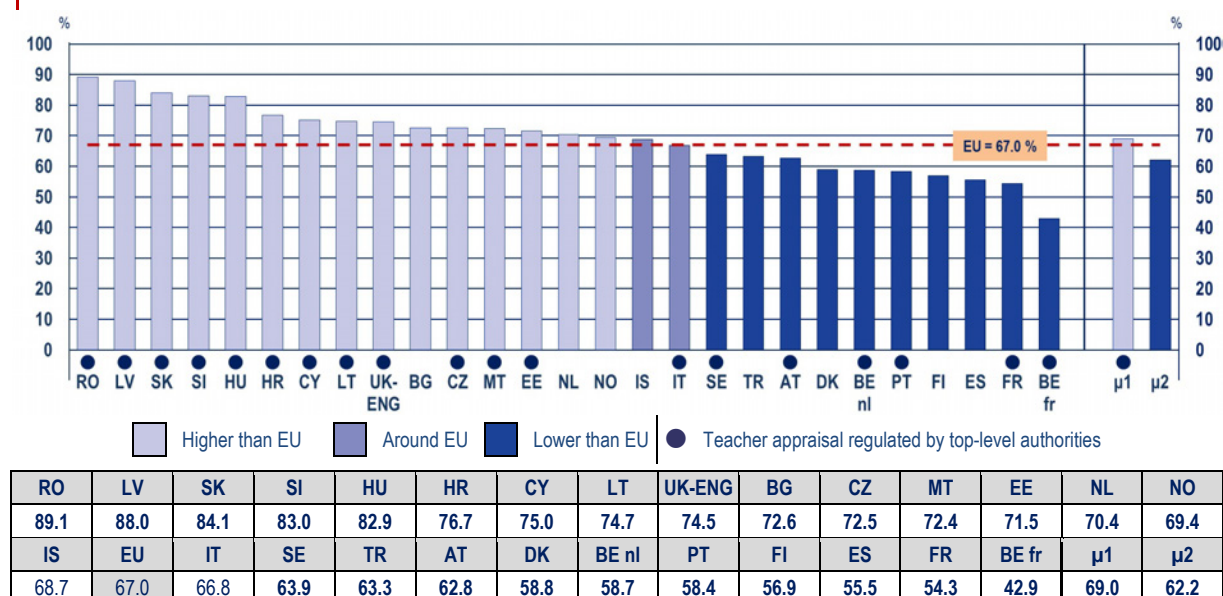
TALIS 2018 data suggests that post-appraisal discussions take place more systematically in the countries where there is a national framework for teacher appraisal. In those countries, a significantly higher proportion of teachers worked in schools where a discussion on remedial measures always occurs following teacher appraisal (31.0 %, S.E. 1.25) than in countries with no such framework (19.5 %, S.E. 1.14). Moreover, it is worth bearing in mind that schools where appraisals do not take place are excluded from these calculations. This is important when considering data related to countries where there are no regulations on appraisal, especially as three of these countries also have the largest share of teachers for whom appraisal never takes place at all (see Figure 4.2).

Except in Bulgaria and the Netherlands, the countries where appraisal is not regulated are below the EU level for systematic remedial discussions taking place after appraisal. In contrast, most countries with a national framework for appraisal are above or around the EU level for such remedial discussions. This is true in the participating eastern and Balkan countries, Belgium (Flemish Community), Cyprus, Austria, Malta and the United Kingdom (England). However, there are a few exceptions to this trend. In Belgium (French Community), France, Portugal and Sweden, the proportion of teachers who work in schools where appraisal is 'always' followed by a remedial discussion is lower than the EU level. In France, in particular, only 5.2 % of teachers work in schools where appraisal is 'always' followed by a discussion with the teacher on measures to remedy any weaknesses in teaching. In addition, the proportion of teachers working in schools where post-appraisal discussions take place systematically is also below the EU level in Italy, where teacher appraisal is carried out for reward and does not aim to provide teachers with feedback for improvement.

The opinion of teachers on the usefulness of the feedback they received also varies across countries. Teachers were asked whether feedback received during the last 12 months before the survey had a positive impact on their teaching. Although feedback can be provided both through formal appraisal and as part of more informal discussions, it can nevertheless be assumed that teachers' responses regarding its impact is a valid indicator of their opinion on feedback received as part of appraisal.

At EU level, 67.0 % of teachers who received feedback during the last 12 months before the survey found that it had a positive impact on their teaching practices (see Figure 4.5). Still, approximately a third of teachers reported that feedback was not useful for improving their work. There seems to be a relationship between the proportion of teachers who expressed a positive view about feedback received, and national guidelines on teacher appraisal. In the countries where teacher appraisal is regulated, 69.0 % (S.E. 0.34) of lower secondary teachers indicated that the feedback received was useful for changing their teaching practices. In contrast, 62.2 % (S.E. 0.62) of teachers expressed this opinion in countries where there is no national framework for teacher appraisal.

Figure 4.5: Proportion of lower secondary teachers who found feedback received during the last 12 months had a positive impact, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.5 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 30 'Thinking of all the feedback that you have received during the last 12 months, did any of these have a positive impact on your teaching practice?' The dataset was restricted to teachers who report having received feedback in question 29.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of bold in the table indicate(s) statistically significant differences from the EU value.

The data is arranged in descending order of the proportion of teachers who found feedback had a positive impact.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

For 'teacher appraisal regulated by top-level authorities', see Figure 4.1.

μ_1 =average for countries where teacher appraisal is regulated by top-level authorities.

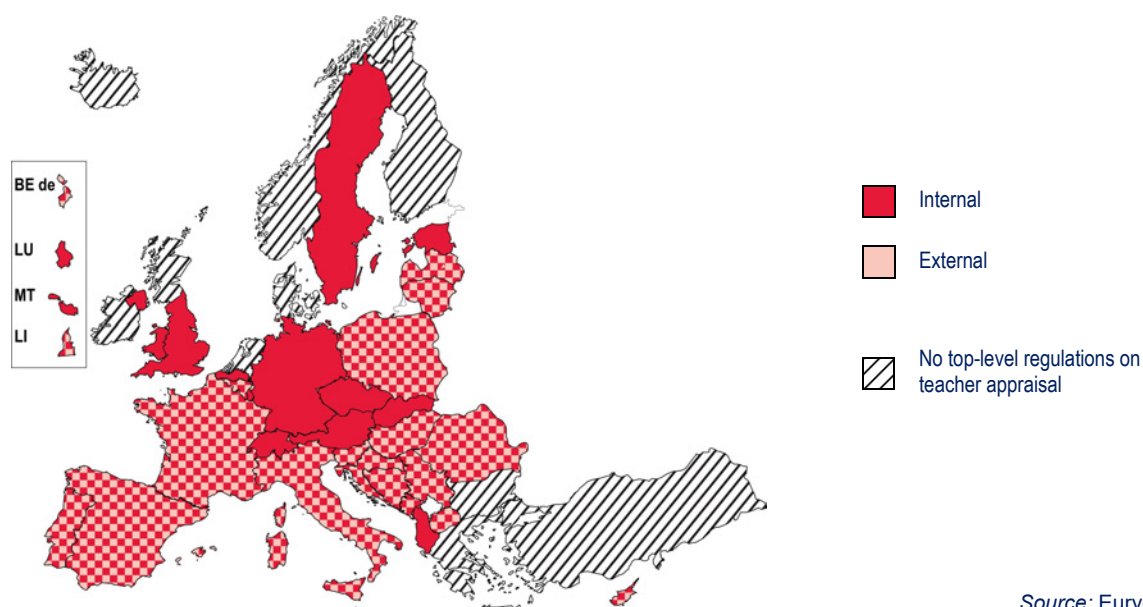
μ_2 =average for countries where teacher appraisal is not regulated by top-level authorities.

Interesting patterns are revealed when the TALIS 2018 results on the frequency of post-appraisal remedial discussions are put together with teachers' opinions on the impact of feedback received. In many countries where the proportion of teachers working in schools where post-appraisal discussions are systematically carried out is above or around the EU level, the proportion of teachers finding feedback useful is also higher than the EU level. This can be observed in the participating eastern and Balkan countries, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Malta and the United Kingdom (England). In contrast, in most of the countries/regions where post-appraisal remedial discussions take place less often, the proportion of teachers who find feedback useful is below the EU level. This applies to four countries where there are no national frameworks and therefore no common aims for teacher appraisals: Denmark, Spain, Finland and Turkey. The combination of fewer post-appraisal discussions and fewer teachers finding feedback useful for improving their teaching practices can also be observed in four countries/regions where providing feedback for improvement is among the aims of teacher appraisal, i.e. in Belgium (French Community), France, Portugal and Sweden. This would suggest that feedback could be provided more often and more systematically following teacher appraisal in those education systems. Moreover, principals and other evaluators involved might benefit from CPD on how to provide formative feedback.

4.3. Appraisers

This section looks at who is responsible for evaluating individual teachers. It investigates whether it is a process internal to the school or if external stakeholders are involved. It also looks at the links between the evaluators involved and the main purposes of appraisal (to provide feedback, for promotion or for salary increase/rewards). Finally, it analyses the importance of the school head as appraiser.

Figure 4.6: Teacher appraisal as an internal and/or external process at lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures: appraisal processes carried out as a form of disciplinary measure in cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are out of scope. More information on the appraisers involved in each country is available in Annex I.4.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Information applies to the minority of *Länder* that issued regulations on teacher appraisals (see Section 4.1).

Spain: Information applies to the four Autonomous Communities that have issued regulations on teacher appraisals. In Asturias, teachers are appraised by the school head. In Aragón, Castilla-La Mancha and La Rioja, teachers are appraised by the inspector.

Teacher appraisal is considered an internal process when it is conducted by stakeholders from within the school where the appraisee works (e.g. the school head or a member of the school board). It is considered external when it involves stakeholders from outside the school (e.g. the inspectorate or ministry representatives).

In 14 education systems where teacher appraisal is regulated by top-level authorities, appraisals are conducted only within the school, usually by the school head, and sometimes with other school staff (see Annex I.4). In Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Sweden and Switzerland, teacher appraisal is conducted solely by the school head. In the other education systems, school leaders, other members of the management team or school body are also involved in the process.

In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, the first evaluator, who is in charge of the appraisal process and takes the final decision, should have a management role (head teacher, deputy head teacher) or a teacher support role (technical advisors, coordinator). The second evaluator should have at least the same 'grade' as the first evaluator, or should be a member of the school board. The second evaluator has a guiding role and can be asked by either the staff member concerned or the first evaluator to be present during evaluation interviews.

In **Czechia**, the school head may entrust another member of the school's management (usually his or her deputy) to carry out teacher appraisal.

In **Estonia**, the school head might delegate teacher appraisal duties to the head of studies.

In the maintained schools ⁽¹¹⁾ in the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, teachers are appraised by their line manager, who can be the head teacher or another teacher.

In **Slovakia**, teachers are appraised by their 'direct supervisor' (senior teacher) while the school head makes decisions in terms of salary progression on the basis of the results.

In **Albania**, the teacher appraisal process involves both the school head and the school board.

There is no clear relationship between the purpose of appraisal and the evaluators involved. Teacher appraisal is conducted solely within the school in three education systems where the main aim of teacher appraisal is to improve performance (Belgium (Flemish Community), Luxembourg and Austria). Teacher appraisal is also an internal process in a number of education systems where the goal of appraisal is to improve performance and to inform decisions on promotion, salary progression or bonuses.

In 19 education systems where the process is regulated by top-level authorities, teachers are appraised by both external and internal stakeholders (see Figure 4.6). This is the case in five education systems where the main aim of teacher appraisal is formative.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, teachers may be appraised by inspectors at the request of the school organising body or at the request of the school head. Teachers may also be appraised by the school head.

In **Belgium (German-speaking Community)**, teacher appraisal is always carried out by the school head. School inspectors may contribute to the process at the request of the school head or the school supervisory authority.

In **Germany**, school principals and school supervisory authorities are responsible for different aspects of the appraisal procedure depending on the regulations of the individual *Land*, on the grounds for appraisal, on types of schools, etc.

⁽¹¹⁾ A maintained school is a publicly funded school that is funded via the local authority.

In **Montenegro**, teachers are evaluated by three different external evaluators: education inspectors who focus on schools, advisors for quality assurance and teachers' professional organisations. Moreover, teachers are also appraised by the school head or school management as part of internal school evaluation.

In **North Macedonia**, external advisers from the Bureau for Educational Development and school head are each in charge of conducting a teacher appraisal process annually. Moreover, inspectors from the municipality or from the State Education Inspectorate monitor the work of the teachers as part of the integral evaluation of schools.

In France, Cyprus and Latvia, both external and internal evaluators are involved in a single appraisal process that is carried out both to improve performance and inform decisions on promotion and/or salary progression. In Italy, external and internal evaluators are also involved in a single appraisal process to identify which teachers are entitled to receive a reward based on their performance.

In **France**, the teacher appraisal process includes classroom observation by an inspector followed by separate interviews with the inspector and the school head.

In **Italy**, the school committee responsible for teacher appraisal linked to rewards comprises the school head, three teachers, an external appraiser (a teacher or school leader from another school or an inspector) and two parents.

In **Cyprus**, both the inspector and the school head evaluate teachers. The external evaluator consults the school head but he/she takes the final decision.

In **Latvia**, teacher appraisal is carried out by a commission that includes the school head, other members of the school management team, other colleagues from the school, representatives from national and local level authorities and from teachers' professional organisations. This commission delivers a decision on the teacher's evaluation on the basis of which the school head decides on the final result of the appraisal process.

Other countries have even more complex teacher appraisal systems. Hence in Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia, when teacher appraisal is related to promotion, more or different evaluators are involved compared to the regular appraisal process carried out for formative purposes.

In **Lithuania**, when the school head initiates an evaluation of teacher performance in order to set recommendations for improvement, he/she can ask a more experienced teacher or the deputy head to help in this process. In the case of teacher appraisal for promotion purposes, the school head sets up the team of evaluators, which can include the deputy head, higher level teachers, local authority representatives, members of the school board, or experts from higher education institutions.

In **Hungary**, regular appraisal is carried out by Master teachers from other schools trained as inspectors on the one hand, and on the other hand by other teachers in the school as part of the school's self-evaluation. Appraisal for promotion involves the school head or the deputy head as well as Master teachers.

In **Poland**, teacher appraisal is carried out by the school head, who has the leeway to consult diverse internal stakeholders such as the parents' council, the students' body or other teachers. Appraisal for promotion purposes also involves the school head, as well as representatives of the local school authorities and of the regional pedagogical supervision body.

In **Slovenia**, both regular teacher appraisal and appraisal for the purpose of reward schemes are carried out by the school head. However, in the case of appraisal for promotion to a specific title, teachers are evaluated by the school assembly of teachers. It is the Minister, following a proposal by the head teacher, who decides on the teacher's advancement.

In **Bosnia and Herzegovina**, inspectors evaluate teachers as part of the school evaluation, while the school head is in charge of teacher appraisal for the purposes of promotion and salary increase.

In **Serbia**, teacher appraisal that takes place as part of school evaluation is carried out by either internal or external evaluators. However, when teachers apply for career advancement, both types of evaluators are involved. The school head informs and consults different internal stakeholders – the teachers' council, the parents' council and an internal body that consists of teachers teaching the same subject – while an educational advisor from the district school authority carries out an appraisal procedure.

In Portugal, Romania and Liechtenstein, evaluations for the purposes of a salary increase or financial bonuses involve different evaluators compared to regular teacher appraisals.

In **Portugal**, teacher appraisal is carried out by the department coordinator. However, when a teacher states that he or she hopes to obtain the highest mark (Excellent), the evaluation includes also class observation by a teacher from another school who is specifically qualified in supervision or teacher evaluation. A special committee of the pedagogical board, coordinated by the school head, is responsible for the supervision of the whole process.

In **Romania**, the first stage of annual teacher appraisal is performed by the school methodical team, which consists of a minimum of three members, gathered by study subjects, related subjects or curricular areas, while the second stage is carried out by the school board. On the other hand, the appraisal process for obtaining the merit grade, which involves an increase in salary for five years, is carried out by an inspector.

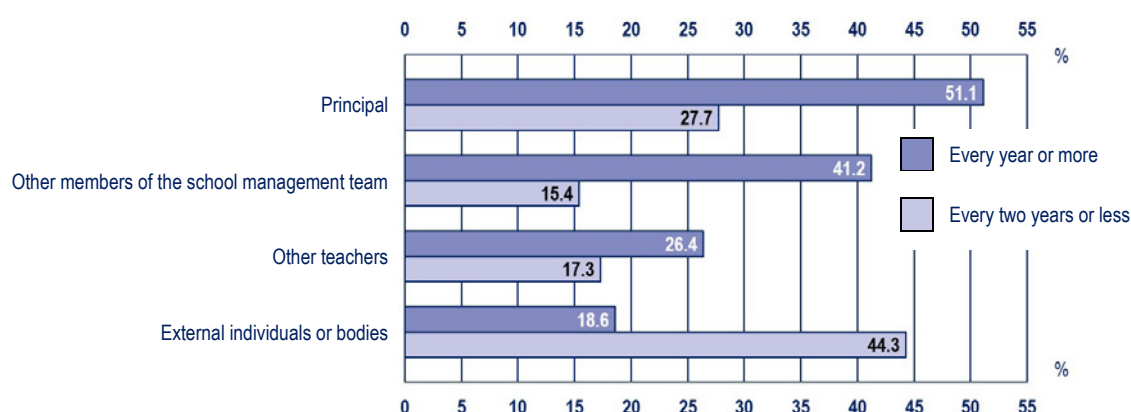
In **Liechtenstein**, both school heads and inspectors jointly carry out the usual appraisal of teachers. Moreover, in the case of the salary-relevant appraisals, a top-level authority representative (head of relevant division) is involved as he/she has to attend the final staff discussion between teacher, inspector and school head and sign the appraisal form alongside the school head and the inspector.

Finally, in some cases, appraisals that provide feedback for improvement, or which lead to financial rewards and promotion, are each carried out by different evaluators.

In **Croatia**, appraisals that mainly aim at providing teachers with feedback to improve performance are carried out by the school head, sometimes with the support of other school staff. In contrast, appraisals for promotion and rewards are carried out by a committee composed of teachers, professional associates and the school head, or a person elected to a scientific and teaching position who does not work in the school of the teacher concerned. Moreover, an expert committee formed of individuals who have at least 11 years of experience as teachers, professional associates or school the head is also involved in appraisals for promotion.

The data reveals that, in most types of appraisal processes, the school head (or other members of the school management team) is the main evaluator. TALIS 2018 data confirms that the school head is most often the one conducting teacher appraisals. Indeed, approximately half of teachers work in schools where they are appraised at least once a year by the school principal (51.1 %), which is more than for any of the other appraisers considered (see Figure 4.7). For comparison, 41.2 % of teachers work in schools where they are appraised at least once a year by other members of school management, 26.4 % by other teachers and 18.6 % by external individuals or bodies. Similarly, the smallest proportion of teachers (21.2 %) work in schools where they are never appraised by the school head (see Table 4.3). For the other evaluators, these proportions range from 37.2 % (by external individuals or bodies) to 56.3 % (by other teachers).

Figure 4.7: Proportion of lower secondary teachers working in schools where the principal reports frequency of appraisal by evaluator, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.3 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

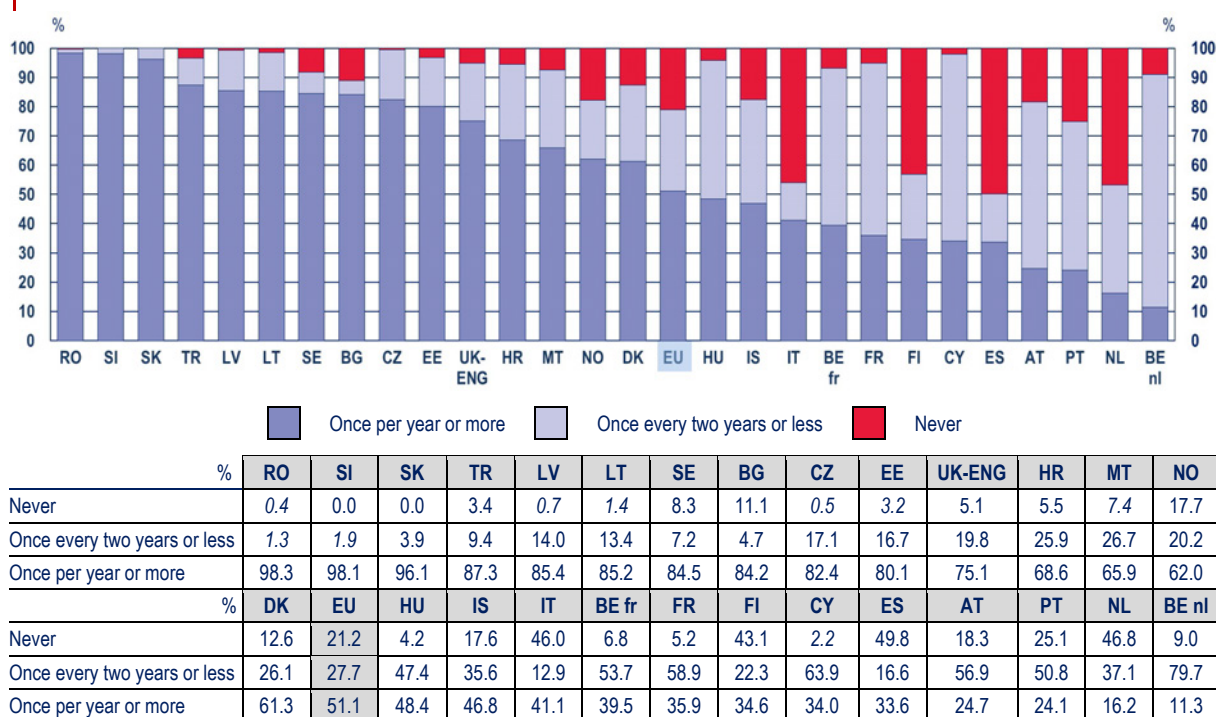
The Figure is based on principals' answers to question 23 'On average, how often is each teacher formally appraised in this school by the following people?' options (a), (b), (d) and (e). Answers 'less than once every two years' and 'once every two years' are grouped together. Answers 'once per year' and 'twice or more per year' are grouped together.

The length of the bars shows the proportion of teachers working in schools where the principal reports the corresponding category of frequency by evaluator.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

There is some variation between countries. In Czechia, Latvia, Slovenia, Slovakia and Romania, principals reported that they are involved in the evaluation of all or almost all teachers (see Figure 4.8). The proportion of teachers working in schools where they are never appraised by the school head is above the EU level in four countries: Finland (43.1 %), Italy (46.0 %), the Netherlands (46.8 %) and Spain (49.8 %). In Spain and Finland, there are no national frameworks on teacher appraisal (see Figure 4.1). Spain, Italy and Finland are also the three countries with the highest proportion of teachers working in schools where they are never appraised (see Figure 4.2). In the Netherlands, the picture is different. While almost half of teachers work in schools where they are never appraised by the school head, this is the case for only 9.7 % of teachers when the appraiser is a member of school management (see Table 4.3 in Annex II). This would indicate that in the Netherlands, where there is no national framework on teacher appraisal, teachers are appraised regularly by their management.

Figure 4.8: Proportion of lower secondary teachers working in schools where the principal reports being the appraiser of teachers, by frequency of appraisal, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.3 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on principals' answers to question 23 'On average, how often is each teacher formally appraised in this school by the principal?' option (a). Answers 'less than once every two years' and 'once every two years' are grouped together. Answers 'once per year' and 'twice or more per year' are grouped together.

The length of the bars shows the proportion of teachers working in schools where the principal reports the corresponding category of frequency.

The data is arranged in descending order of the frequency category 'at least once a year'.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

4.4. Methods of evaluation

Teachers may be appraised using a variety of different methods and sources of information, such as classroom observation or analysis of student survey replies. This section starts by describing the evaluation methods that are included in the top-level regulations on teacher appraisal and distinguishes between those methods that are mandatory and those that can be used optionally. It

education in the 2018/19 school year (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019b). However, these tests are rarely used for teacher appraisal. Considering the results of students' national tests for teacher appraisal is mandatory only in Lithuania and Austria. National tests are used as an optional source of information during teacher appraisal in Belgium (French Community) and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

In several countries, the regulations on evaluation methods differ according to the type of appraisal process. For instance, in Montenegro, student surveys or student interviews are used in the case of teacher appraisal carried out by inspectors as part of external school evaluation but not when the school head or other management staff member evaluates teachers. In Lithuania, Portugal, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia, different regulations apply in the case of appraisal carried out for promotion or salary progression purposes in contrast to regular appraisal. In Lithuania, only the evaluation methods to be used in the case of appraisal for promotion are regulated. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, classroom observation is compulsory only in the case of appraisal for promotion. In Serbia, student outcomes and surveys for students evaluating the teacher's work are additional sources of information used systematically only in the case of appraisal for promotion.

In **Portugal**, while teacher self-evaluation is always mandatory, classroom observation is only mandatory in three cases: firstly, for the progression to salary levels 3 and 5; secondly, for teachers with prior negative results; and lastly, for teachers that hope to obtain the highest mark (excellent). Interview/dialogue between teacher and evaluator is optional in all cases.

In a few countries, the evaluation process is little standardised or not regulated at all. In Czechia, Estonia and Slovakia, no regulations cover the methods to be used in teacher appraisal, and schools have full autonomy in this matter. In three other countries, the requirements are limited to conducting an evaluation interview, providing the appraisers with broad room for manoeuvre in designing the process according to the circumstances.

In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, when a member of staff is evaluated, an evaluation interview must take place between the staff member and the evaluator(s). The other methods used are to be decided by the appraiser and agreements can be made locally (i.e. at the level of the school or the level of the school umbrella organisation), if necessary.

In **Sweden**, student surveys or other methods can also be used as sources of information in addition to the annual meeting/interview between teacher and school head linked to salary progression. However, this is optional.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, while strictly speaking the only mandatory method is a teacher-appraiser interview, different policy appraisal models⁽¹³⁾ recommend using a variety of methods and provide further guidance on how to use them in an appropriate way.

TALIS 2018 data shows that top-level regulations can only partially account for the methods actually used across Europe to appraise teachers. In particular, the use of students' results in national tests and school-based student results is very widespread, although little regulated (see Table 4.4 in Annex II). Classroom observations, school-based results and students' external results are the three most common sources of information reported by principals in those schools where teacher appraisal takes place.

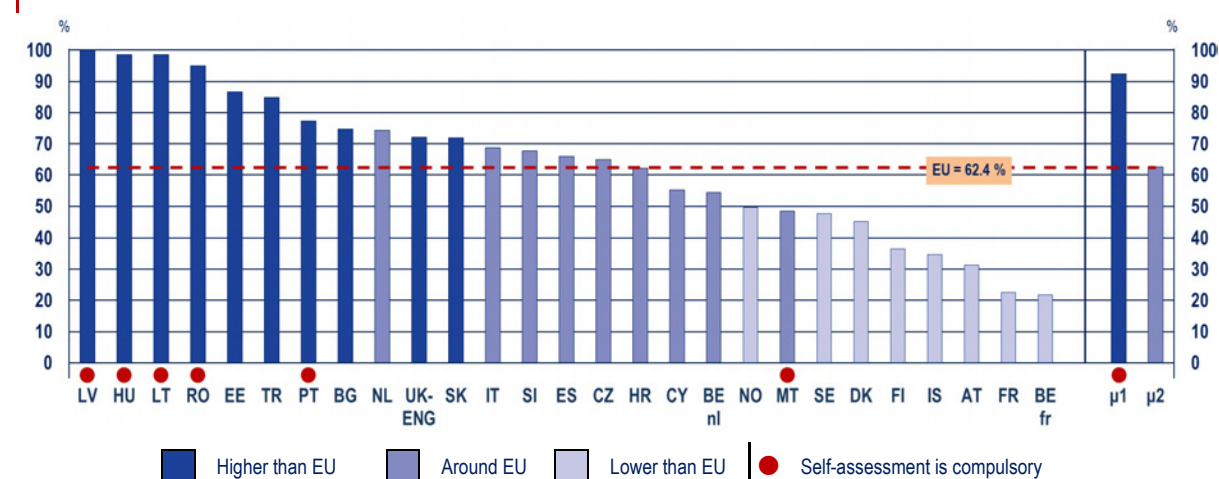
Across the EU, a smaller but yet substantial proportion of teachers work in schools where, in the process of teacher appraisal, student survey responses related to teaching are used (71.4 %). Only in France does a minority of teachers (24.4 %) work in schools where this happens.

⁽¹³⁾ DfE guidance (revised 2019) – Implementing your school's approach to pay – https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/786098/Implementing_your_school_s_approach_to_pay.pdf
DfE (revised 2019) – Teacher appraisal and capability: model policy – <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teacher-appraisal-and-capability-model-policy>

According to TALIS 2018 data, among the methods analysed, teachers' self-assessments are the least used. In the EU countries, slightly less than two thirds of teachers (62.4 %) work in schools where the principal reports that self-assessment is used in formal teacher appraisal (see Figure 4.10). However, when the purpose is to improve quality, self-evaluation is often emphasised as an important element. As highlighted by the ET 2020 Working Group on Schools set up by the European Commission, self-evaluation can help to make appraisals effective and balanced, and contribute to a positive perception of the process among teachers (European Commission 2020, p. 57).

The use of teachers' self-assessment in appraisals, as reported by school principals, varies a lot across countries (see Figure 4.10). Indeed, in Latvia, Hungary, Lithuania and Romania, 95 % or more work in schools where the principal reports that self-evaluation is used for teacher appraisal. In contrast, in Belgium (French Community), France, Malta, Austria, Sweden, as well as in the other four Nordic countries (where teacher appraisal is not regulated), a minority of teachers work in schools where this method is used for teacher appraisal. At the lower end, barely one in five teachers in Belgium (French Community) and France works in a school where self-assessment is part of teacher appraisal.

Figure 4.10: Proportion of lower secondary teachers working in schools where the principal reports the use of self-assessment of teachers' work as part of appraisal, 2018



LV	HU	LT	RO	EE	TR	PT	BG	NL	UK-ENG	SK	IT	SI	ES	CZ
100.0	98.7	98.7	95.0	86.6	84.8	77.2	74.8	74.3	72.2	71.8	68.8	67.8	65.9	65.0
EU	HR	CY	BE nl	NO	MT	SE	DK	FI	IS	AT	FR	BE fr	μ1	μ2
62.4	62.2	55.1	54.3	49.5	48.4	47.5	45.1	36.4	34.7	31.2	22.6	21.8	92.5	62.6

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 4.4 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on principals' answers to question 24 'Who uses the following types of information as part of the formal appraisal of teachers' work in this school?' option (f) 'self-assessment'. The length of the bars shows the proportion of teachers working in schools where the principal reports the use of self-assessment across the five different possible evaluators.

Schools where the principal answers 'never' to each option of appraisal in question 23 are excluded from the calculations.

The intensity of the bar colour and the use of bold in the table indicate(s) statistically significant differences from the EU value.

The data is arranged in descending order.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

For 'self-assessment is compulsory', see Figure 4.9.

μ1 = average for countries where self-assessment is compulsory according to top-level regulations.

μ2 = average for countries where self-assessment is not compulsory according to top-level regulations.

TALIS 2018 survey data seems to suggest that the existence of national regulations making self-assessment mandatory contributes to the use of this method for teacher appraisal. Among the countries where self-assessment is required by top-level authorities, 92.5 % of teachers work in schools where this evaluation method is used for teacher appraisal. By contrast, this number was 62.6 % in the countries where self-assessment is not mandatory.

Teachers also shed light on the use of self-assessment as a source of information in the context of their evaluation. They were asked whether the feedback they received was based on a self-assessment of their work among different sources of information. Like school principals, teachers rank self-assessment as the least used method of information for providing feedback. However, the proportions differ substantially: while according to principals 62.4 % of teachers work in schools where self-assessment is used in their formal appraisal, only 35.4 % of teachers report that self-assessment is used for providing feedback (see Table 4.6 in Annex II). This difference may partly be explained by the fact that data reported by principals only applies to those schools where appraisal takes place (see Figure 4.2), and would be slightly lower if reported against the scale of the whole teacher population. Another reason that might explain such differences in the results is that in some teacher appraisal processes, teacher self-assessment is used but does not lead to feedback for teachers. This could be the case, for instance, when the goal is promotion or financial rewards, and when self-assessment takes the form of a self-evaluation regarding compliance with standards. It is important not to overestimate, on the basis of the principals' reporting, the proportion of teachers who work in schools where self-assessment is used as a method that contributes to the formative dimension of teacher appraisal.

4.5. Conclusions

Most European countries have a clear set of rules that guide teacher appraisal, evaluation and feedback. Teacher appraisal is regulated by top-level authorities in the vast majority of European education systems, with a set frequency for appraisals in 20 of them. In the remaining education systems ⁽¹⁴⁾, teacher appraisal is not regulated by top-level authorities and schools or local authorities have full autonomy in the matter.

The TALIS 2018 survey illustrates that teacher appraisal is a common practice in European countries. However, there are some geographic disparities in Europe regarding the frequency of teacher appraisal. Teacher appraisal is carried out most often in the three Baltic countries, several eastern countries, the United Kingdom (England), Sweden and Turkey, where 90 % or more of teachers work in schools in which they are appraised at least every year. In contrast, in the western and southern parts of Europe, as well as in Finland, teachers are less often appraised.

In almost all countries where teacher appraisal is regulated, the process is intended to provide feedback on performance in order to help teachers to improve. The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' identify feedback to teachers as a key element in supporting improvements in teachers' work ⁽¹⁵⁾. TALIS data suggests that in the countries with a national framework for teacher appraisal, more teachers consider the feedback they receive to be helpful, compared to teachers in countries where there is no such framework. Moreover, in the countries which have a national framework, the evaluators tend to provide teachers with feedback more systematically following the appraisal process, compared to countries without national regulations on appraisal.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Bulgaria, Denmark, Ireland, Greece, the Netherlands, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland, Norway and Turkey.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

Nevertheless, there are some exceptions to these trends. Indeed, in Belgium (French Community), France, Portugal and Sweden, the number of teachers working in schools where post-appraisal discussions always take place, and who find feedback useful for improving their teaching practices, are significantly below the EU level. This seems to suggest that teacher appraisal does not always fulfil its formative role, despite this being identified in national regulations as one of its objectives.

In addition to providing teachers with feedback, teacher appraisal is also often used to identify good performance, which can subsequently lead to the award of bonuses, salary progression or promotion. The combination of formative and summative goals results in systems of varying complexity. While in some countries there is a single process for teacher appraisal carried out internally at the school (e.g. in Czechia, Malta, or Sweden), in others specific appraisal processes for promotion or financial rewards are carried out. Indeed, in a number of eastern and Balkan countries as well as in Portugal and Liechtenstein, when teacher appraisal relates to promotion, salary increase or bonuses, different or more evaluators are involved than for regular appraisals carried out for formative purposes. Beyond the varied existing patterns of evaluators, it is worth mentioning that the school head is involved in almost all countries where the process of teacher appraisal is regulated, whether alone or with other evaluators such as school leaders or inspectors. TALIS 2018 data confirms that teacher appraisal is conducted most of the time by the school head.

TALIS 2018 data shows that overall regulations can only partially account for the methods actually used across Europe to appraise teachers. According to legislation and other official documents, classroom observation and interviews or dialogue discussions between the teacher and the appraiser(s) are the two most common methods used to carry out teacher appraisal. In some countries, this practice is accompanied by teacher self-evaluation. The use of other methods such as student outcomes as well as parent and student surveys to appraise teachers is rarely regulated at top-level. However, TALIS 2018 data shows that the use of students' external results and school-based results is very widespread. Across the EU, more than 90 % of teachers work in schools where such information is used for teacher appraisal. Self-assessment of teachers' work, although emphasised as a key element of the process when the purpose is to improve quality, is the least common method for teacher appraisal. This was reported by principals, as well as by teachers in relation to the type of information used to provide them with feedback. Nevertheless, the data reveals that the use of self-assessments for teacher appraisal was significantly higher in the countries where this method is mandatory according to top-level regulations.

CHAPTER 5: TRANSNATIONAL MOBILITY

Developing the transnational mobility of teachers for professional development purposes has been a long-standing priority of the European Union. In 2009, the Council of the European Union's conclusions on the professional development of teachers and school leaders highlighted the need to gradually expand transnational mobility, notably for teachers, with a 'view to making periods of learning abroad – both within Europe and the wider world – the rule rather than the exception' ⁽¹⁾. Strengthening the intensity and scale of the mobility of school staff is necessary to improve the quality of school education in the EU. This was an aim of the 2014-2020 Erasmus+ programme: the EU's programme for education, training, youth and sport ⁽²⁾. Despite the halt to transnational mobility programmes in Europe due to COVID-19, the May 2020 Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' emphasised that transnational mobility of students and practising teachers is a key element for the quality of education and training institutions ⁽³⁾.

Transnational mobility of teachers is important for several reasons, as revealed by several studies on the impact of teachers' participation in EU-funded or national programmes involving a professional experience abroad. For those involved, the experience offers first-hand contact with a different education system, in which teaching approaches and organisation may differ (European Parliament, 2008). It is a unique opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own ways of teaching (Maiworm et al., 2010) and to exchange views about their experiences of national curricula, student assessment, use of pedagogical tools, autonomy, and working conditions with colleagues abroad (European Commission, 2012). Transnational mobility may also help teachers overcome scepticism towards other teaching methods or strategies, by providing them with a direct opportunity to observe the impact of these strategies on students. This experience may, in turn, motivate them to gain fresh skills and participate in continuing professional development (European Parliament, 2008). Finally, working visits by teachers to a country whose main language is not their mother tongue is likely to help them improve their language skills (Maiworm et al., 2010), which is of special importance to those teaching modern foreign languages.

Students may also benefit from transnational teacher mobility, as teachers are motivated to improve their teaching style and impart a more European or international dimension to learning at school (Education Exchanges Support Foundation, 2017). Increased teacher's openness to Europe resulting from mobility can be of particular importance to students unable to travel abroad on their own (European Parliament, 2008).

This chapter examines transnational mobility for professional purposes of teachers in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). Mobility is defined here as physical mobility for professional purposes to a country other than the country of residence, either during initial teacher education (ITE) or as a practising teacher. Private mobility – such as holiday travel abroad for non-professional purposes – is not taken into account here.

In this chapter, TALIS data is used for the findings on transnational teacher mobility for the year 2018, while for the school year 2019/20 Eurydice data is used. Both are evaluated in the light of the COVID-19 crisis, which has heavily affected travel in Europe since March 2020. Future mobility possibilities are not yet fully clear, and it remains uncertain whether mobility will one day be back to pre-COVID-19 levels again. Although the transnational mobility of teachers remains a policy priority at EU level, the

⁽¹⁾ OJ C 119, 28.05.2009, p. 3.

⁽²⁾ Regulation (EU) No 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013 establishing 'Erasmus+': the Union programme for education, training, youth and sport and repealing Decisions No 1719/2006/EC, No 1720/2006/EC and No 1298/2008/EC, OJ L 347, 20.12.2013, p. 52.

⁽³⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

trends examined in this chapter might be affected in the coming years by the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic.

This chapter contains information on the overall mobility of lower secondary teachers and examines their participation during specific periods (as a student teacher or as a practising teacher). The results suggest that experiencing mobility as a student teacher is related with higher mobility as a practising teacher. This chapter examines the main reasons why teachers go abroad for professional purposes, and looks at the influence of the subject(s) taught on mobility rates. It reveals that mobility increased from 2013 to 2018 and shows that the main patterns observed in TALIS 2013 have continued. The chapter briefly describes the existing mobility schemes which are available at EU level or organised by national or regional authorities. Annex I.5 lists the centrally funded schemes supporting transnational mobility of teachers. The main findings are summarised at the end of this chapter.

The TALIS 2018 survey covers 27 European countries/regions, including 24 EU Member States/regions. However, two EU Member States – Lithuania and Austria – as well as Norway, did not respond to the questions on transnational mobility. As a result, the TALIS data used in this chapter covers 24 European countries/regions while the EU levels are calculated on the basis of 22 EU Member States/regions.

5.1. Mobility rates of lower secondary teachers

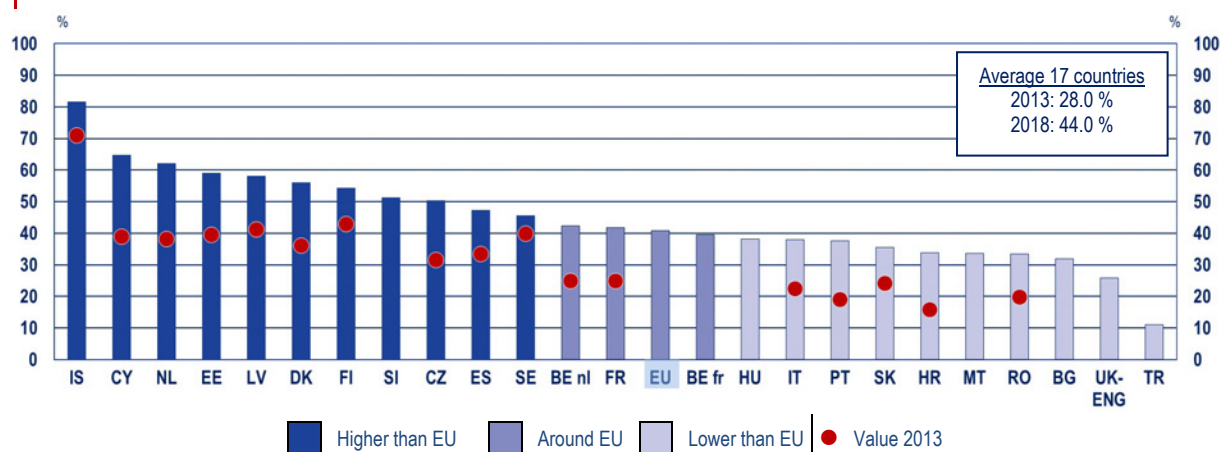
Survey data provides useful information about transnational teacher mobility in Europe. The TALIS 2018 questionnaire included the following question on teacher mobility: 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training?' This section provides an overview of teachers' participation rates in 2018 and a comparison with TALIS 2013 data.

The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' emphasised cross-border mobility as 'a powerful learning experience and a valuable opportunity in developing participants' social, intercultural, multilingual and interpersonal competences', both for students and practising teachers ⁽⁴⁾. However, fewer than half the teachers in Europe have experienced transnational mobility. As shown in Figure 5.1, 40.9 % of teachers in the EU went abroad at least once as a student, as a teacher, or both. In almost two thirds of the participating countries/regions ⁽⁵⁾, only a minority of teachers have been mobile. The proportion of mobile teachers is lowest in Turkey, where only 11.0 % of teachers have ever been abroad as a practising teacher or during ITE. The United Kingdom (England) is the country with the second-lowest rate of transnational mobility for teachers, with only a quarter having experienced transnational mobility.

Teacher mobility is above the EU level in the Nordic and Baltic countries, Czechia, Cyprus, Spain, the Netherlands and Slovenia. It is exceptionally high in Iceland, where over 80 % of teachers have gone abroad, as well as in Cyprus and the Netherlands, where almost two thirds have done so.

⁽⁴⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 13.

⁽⁵⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey.

Figure 5.1: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers who have been abroad, in 2018 and in 2013

	IS	CY	NL	EE	LV	DK	FI	SI	CZ	ES	SE	BE nl	FR
2018	81.6	64.8	62.0	59.0	58.0	55.9	54.2	51.2	50.4	47.2	45.7	42.4	41.8
2013	71.0	38.9	38.2	39.5	41.2	36.0	42.9		31.5	33.4	39.9	24.9	24.9
	EU		BE fr	HU	IT	PT	SK	HR	MT	RO	BG	UK-ENG	TR
2018	40.9		39.5	38.2	38.0	37.7	35.5	33.8	33.7	33.4	32.0	25.9	11.0
2013					22.5	19.0	24.2	15.8		19.8			

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Tables 5.1 and 5.4 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to questions 56 of TALIS 2018 and 48 of TALIS 2013: 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training?'.

The lengths of the bars and the positions of the red circles show the proportion of teachers who answered 'yes' to at least one of the mobility situations (sub-questions a-e in 2018 and b-f in 2013 respectively). The data is arranged in descending order of teacher mobility rate in 2018. The intensity of the bar colour indicates statistically significant differences from the EU value in 2018.

EU level refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated to the TALIS survey in 2018, except Lithuania and Austria. It includes UK-ENG.

Comparison of the data from the TALIS 2013 and 2018 surveys reveals that teacher mobility has increased in all countries. In European countries, the proportion of teachers who had been abroad was 16.0 percentage points higher in 2018 than in 2013, rising from 28.0 % to 44.0 % (see Table 5.4). This comparison is based on the 17 countries/regions ⁽⁶⁾ that responded to the questions on transnational mobility in both rounds of the TALIS survey ⁽⁷⁾, including one non-EU Member State (Iceland).

Teacher mobility increased in all the 17 countries that responded to the mobility questions in both 2013 and 2018 (see Table 5.4 in Annex II). Even in Iceland, which already had the highest mobility rate of teachers in 2013 (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015), teachers' transnational mobility increased by 10.6 percentage points. The greatest increase was in Cyprus, with a rise of 25.9 percentage points. The lowest increase was in Sweden, with only 5.8 percentage points more in 2018 compared to 2013.

⁽⁶⁾ Belgium (Flemish Community), Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Finland, Slovakia, Sweden and Iceland.

⁽⁷⁾ Regarding the validity of the comparison, readers should know that the questions on mobility were slightly different between 2013 and 2018. In 2013, the questions on mobility were introduced by a filtering question (Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training: yes/no) while in 2018 there was no filtering question. Despite this difference in the mobility questions between 2013 and 2018, and although the impact of this difference is unknown, it can nevertheless be assumed that the increase is not due solely to the changes in the questionnaire.

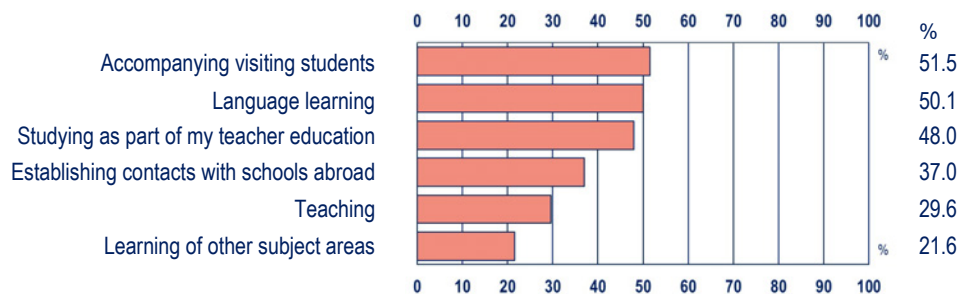
5.2. Purposes of transnational teacher mobility

This section explores the purposes for which student teachers and practicing teachers spent periods in another country. Figure 5.2 shows the proportions of transnationally mobile teachers by type of professional reason for going abroad. In the TALIS 2018 questionnaire, mobile teachers were asked to provide as many answers as seemed necessary.

‘Accompanying visiting students’, ‘language learning’ and ‘studying as part of my teacher education’ are the three most common reasons for going abroad, each reported by around half of the mobile teachers. ‘Accompanying visiting students’ was indicated by 51.5 % of mobile teachers in the EU. The proportion of teachers who indicated that they went abroad for this purpose is highest in Czechia, France and Portugal, and exceeds the EU level by twenty percentage points or more (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

Learning languages is also one of the most common motivations, with 50.1 % of mobile teachers in the EU stating that they went abroad for this reason. The same was also reportedly the case for almost three quarters of mobile teachers in Spain and Italy (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

Figure 5.2: Proportion of mobile teachers in lower secondary education by professional reasons for going abroad, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 57 of TALIS 2018: 'Were the following activities professional purposes of your visits abroad?'.

Mobile teachers are those who ticked 'yes' to at least one of the sub-questions (a-e) of question 56.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated to the TALIS survey in 2018, except Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Lithuania and Austria. It includes UK-ENG.

Studying abroad as part of teacher education was mentioned by 48.0 % of mobile teachers in the EU. These proportions exceed the EU level by at least 10 percentage points in Estonia, Spain, Italy and Cyprus (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

Establishing contacts with schools abroad is a preparatory phase in organising cooperation between schools or visits by students to a school abroad. Visiting schools abroad generally involves teachers and students in a medium-term project, in which the visit is a small part of a longer period of physical or virtual student mobility, often using digital technologies. At EU level, 37.0 % of mobile teachers said they went abroad to establish contacts with schools, while over half the mobile teachers in Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Finland gave this as a reason for doing having gone abroad (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

Only 29.6 % of mobile teachers in the EU gave 'teaching abroad' as a reason for mobility. 'Teaching abroad' was most commonly given as the reason for mobility in Romania (indicated by 56.6 % of mobile teachers). Moreover, Romania is the only country where mobility for the purpose of teaching abroad came second behind 'establishing contact with schools abroad' (63.4 % of teachers). The mobility pattern for Romania is thus highly unique.

Finally, travelling abroad to learn about other subjects is the least common reason for mobility, with only 21.6 % of mobile teachers in the EU reporting that they went abroad for this purpose. In Turkey, which has the lowest teacher mobility rate in Europe (see Figure 5.1), learning about other subjects is the first reason for going abroad, with 69.4 % of mobile teachers giving this as a reason for doing so.

As highlighted by several studies on the impact of European programmes, professional development opportunities abroad are highly beneficial for the improvement of school staff competences (Education Exchanges Support Foundation, 2017; Maiwrom et al., 2010). Unfortunately, apart from language learning and learning other subjects, the TALIS 2018 data does not explore forms of mobility that focus on professional development such as training courses, seminars/conferences or job-shadowing. This might explain why a substantial share of mobile teachers (43.9 %) reported that the main reason for at least one of their professional trips abroad did not match any of the options in the TALIS 2018 questionnaire (see Table 5.7 in Annex II).

The comparison with TALIS data 2013 (see European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015) reveals that the pattern of purposes for teachers' transnational mobility remained steady over time. The ranking from the most to the least common reasons why teachers go abroad for professional purposes is very similar in 2013 and 2018, despite the increase in teacher mobility in all countries (see Figure 5.1).

5.3. Influence of the subject taught

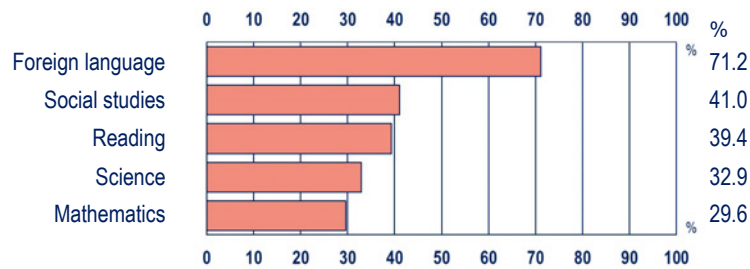
The transnational mobility of teachers may depend on the nature of the subject(s) taught. This section provides the mobility rates of teachers across five main subjects: foreign languages, social studies, reading, science and mathematics.

In the EU, about 70 % of modern foreign language teachers have been abroad (see Figure 5.3). They are the most mobile compared to teachers of the other four main subjects represented in Figure 5.3. Modern foreign language teachers are the most mobile in all countries except in Iceland, where the exceptionally high mobility rate of teachers (see Figure 5.1) is reflected to a similar extent in all subjects (see Table 5.6 in Annex II). Modern foreign language teachers obviously need to train and practice the language they teach. Therefore, for foreign language teachers more than for those of other subjects, transnational mobility seems to be a professional need. The purposes of periods spent abroad by foreign language teachers differ to some extent from those of teachers of other subjects. The most common reason for a professional trip abroad that foreign language teachers expressed was 'language learning' (see Table 5.2 in Annex II). This was cited almost twice as much as by teachers of other subjects (76.3 against 38.1 %). 'Studying as part of teacher education', the second most cited reason for foreign language teachers' mobility, was also substantially higher than for teachers of other subjects (66.8 against 39.4 %). Finally, 'accompanying visiting students' is only the third most cited reason by foreign language teachers for their trips abroad, while for teachers of other subjects it is the most common reason.

On the other hand, almost 30 % of modern foreign language teachers surveyed in the EU have never been abroad for professional purposes (see Figure 5.3), which may have a bearing on the quality of foreign language teaching. In Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey, more than half of foreign language teachers have never been abroad for professional purposes (see Table 5.6 in Annex II).

After language teachers, the next most mobile groups of teachers by subject are teachers of social studies followed by teachers of reading, writing and literature. About 40 % of these two groups have been abroad for professional purposes.

Figure 5.3: Proportion of teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes by subject taught, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 5.6 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to questions 15 and 56 of TALIS 2018: 'Do you teach the following subject categories in the current school year?' and 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education or training?'.

The lengths of the bars show the proportion of teachers who reported teaching one or more than one subject (answer options a-e) and answered 'yes' to at least one of the mobility questions (sub-questions a-e).

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated to the TALIS survey in 2018, except Lithuania and Austria. It includes UK-ENG.

Teachers of science and of mathematics are the least transnationally mobile groups in the EU compared with the main subjects analysed here. Respectively, only 32.9 % and 29.6 % reported that they had been abroad for professional purposes.

In the EU, teachers of all the other subjects examined are less mobile compared to foreign language teachers. This was already the case in 2013 (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). However, while mobility represents an obvious benefit for language teachers, teachers of other subjects can also gain from a professional trip abroad. For instance, in addition to linguistic skills, professional trips abroad have been found to improve openness to change as well as intercultural and didactical competences (Education Exchanges Support Foundation, 2017).

5.4. Periods of transnational mobility during teachers' careers

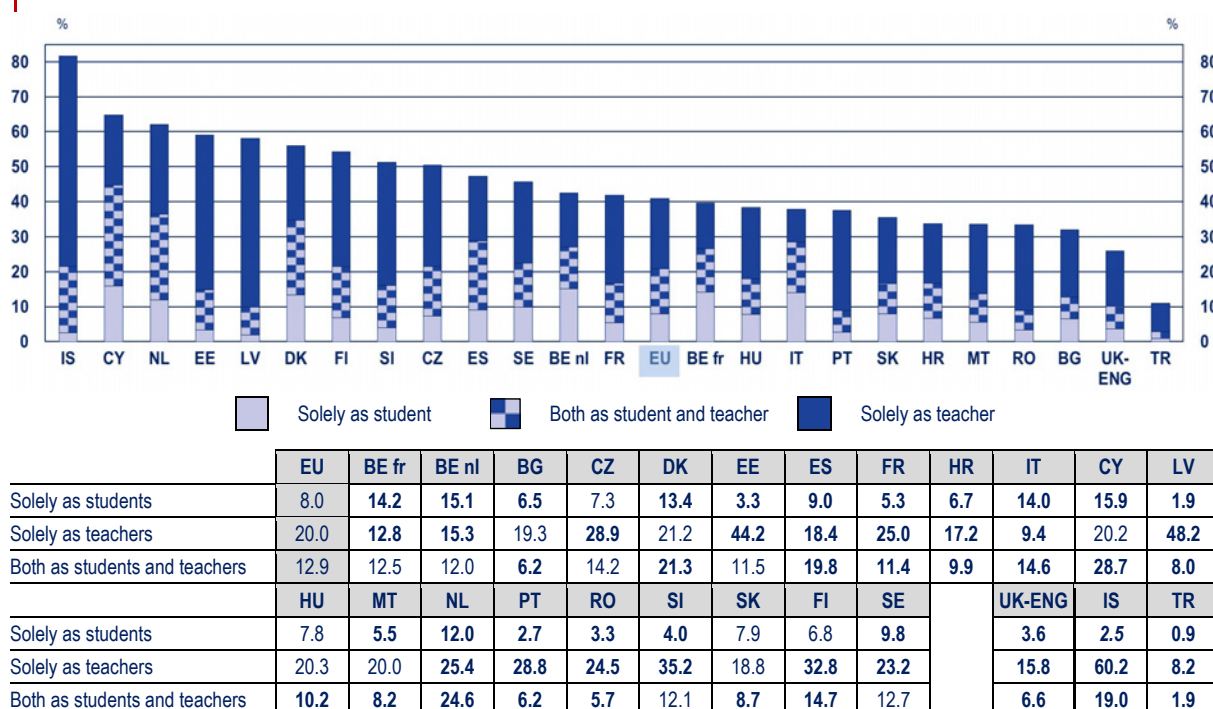
The TALIS 2018 survey asked respondents to specify whether their transnational mobility experience took place during their ITE studies and/or as in-service teachers. As underlined by the Council conclusions, the mobility of both students and practising teachers should be encouraged, and the obstacles to their participation should be removed. Student teacher mobility is hampered by 'the weak international dimension of initial teacher education programmes and challenges related to the recognition of mobility periods abroad and learning outcomes' ⁽⁸⁾. Furthermore, the additional costs of studying abroad are often identified as a main barrier to student learning mobility (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020b). In addition, there are also issues related to the portability of domestic grants and loans when students study abroad (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019c). Finding replacements for teachers who go abroad has been identified as one of the main obstacles to transnational mobility faced by schools, due to the lack of means for hiring substitute teachers (European Parliament, 2008; European Commission, 2012). Family responsibilities are also reported to be a recurrent obstacle, especially for long-term periods abroad (European Commission, 2013b). On top of all this, both prospective and practising teachers need to have already gained sufficient language skills to be able to spend a period abroad for professional purposes.

⁽⁸⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, pp. 13-19.

As barriers to the mobility of students and practising teachers vary and require different measures, this section looks into the mobility situation of each. It also analyses the relationship between mobility as a student and mobility as a teacher.

International mobility as part of initial teacher education is important in order to 'broaden the access to the diversity of quality teaching approaches to meet the needs of pupils', as emphasised in the recent Communication on achieving the European Education Area by 2025⁽⁹⁾. However, transnational mobility of prospective teachers during their studies is not widespread. In 2018, in the EU, about one fifth of teachers (20.9 %) reported going abroad during their studies (see Figure 5.4). Moreover, the mobility of student teachers varies substantially between different countries. In Cyprus, almost half of teachers spent time abroad during their studies, and in Denmark and the Netherlands, slightly over a third of teachers participated in an international mobility experience as students. In contrast, only around 10 % or less of teachers in Latvia, Portugal, Romania, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey went abroad during their studies. From 2013 to 2018, student teacher mobility increased by 13.0 percentage points across the countries with available data (see Table 5.4). The increase ranges from +27.6 percentage points in Cyprus to approximately +5 percentage points in Latvia, Portugal and Romania.

Figure 5.4: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers who have been abroad at different periods (during ITE and/or as practising teachers), 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 5.3 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 56 of TALIS 2018: 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training?'

The lengths of each of the three colours in the bars show the proportion of teachers who answered: for light blue 'yes' to sub-question a and no to sub-questions b-e, for dark blue 'no' to sub-question a and 'yes' to any of the sub-questions b-e, and for the chequered part 'yes' to sub-question a and 'yes' to any of the sub-questions b-e. Data is arranged in descending order of total teacher mobility rate in 2018. The use of bold in the table indicates statistically significant differences from the EU value.

EU level refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated to the TALIS survey in 2018, except Lithuania and Austria. It includes UK-ENG.

⁽⁹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions 'on achieving the European Education Area by 2025'. 30.09.2020 COM(2020) 625 final, p. 10.

In the EU, approximately one third of practising teachers (32.9 %) have been abroad for professional purposes (see Figure 5.4). There are some variations across countries. In Iceland, where teachers are the most mobile in all of Europe (see Figure 5.1), 79.2 % went abroad during their career. Around half of the teachers in Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Finland experienced a trip abroad while they were in service. The lowest rates of teachers' transnational mobility during their career, below the EU level, are in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Croatia, Italy, Malta, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey. The mobility of in-service teachers increased by 11.2 percentage points (see Table 5.4 in Annex II). It increased the most in the Netherlands (+21.1 percentage points), whereas the slowest developments were observed in Italy (+5.1) and Sweden (+4.7).

From Figure 5.4 it is clear that in all countries, a proportion of teachers were mobile both during their studies and as a practising teacher. In the EU, 12.9 % of teachers went abroad as both student and teachers.

In order to explore which characteristics contribute to teacher mobility, logistic regression analyses were performed on TALIS 2018 data. The model aimed to predict the probability of being a mobile (versus non-mobile) practising teacher. Two independent (or 'explanatory') variables were included: having been mobile during ITE, and teaching the subject 'foreign languages'. The results (see Table 5.5 in Annex II) show a statistically significant and positive relationship between mobility during ITE and mobility later in a teacher's career. This relationship holds for foreign language teachers and for teachers of other subjects alike. Teachers who were mobile during their ITE tend to be more mobile as practising teachers, both at EU level, and in all 24 European countries included in the analysis. Reinforcing student teacher mobility is therefore important not only due to the added value this experience brings to young people but also because mobility as a student is associated with being mobile later as a teacher.

When controlled for mobility during ITE, foreign language teachers tend to be more mobile in all European countries, except Cyprus and Iceland.

5.5. Transnational mobility funding programmes

This section looks at funding schemes that promote the transnational mobility of teachers. First, it discusses the countries that support transnational mobility with national schemes. Then, it provides information on the proportion of mobile teachers who have been abroad with the support of an EU or a national programme.

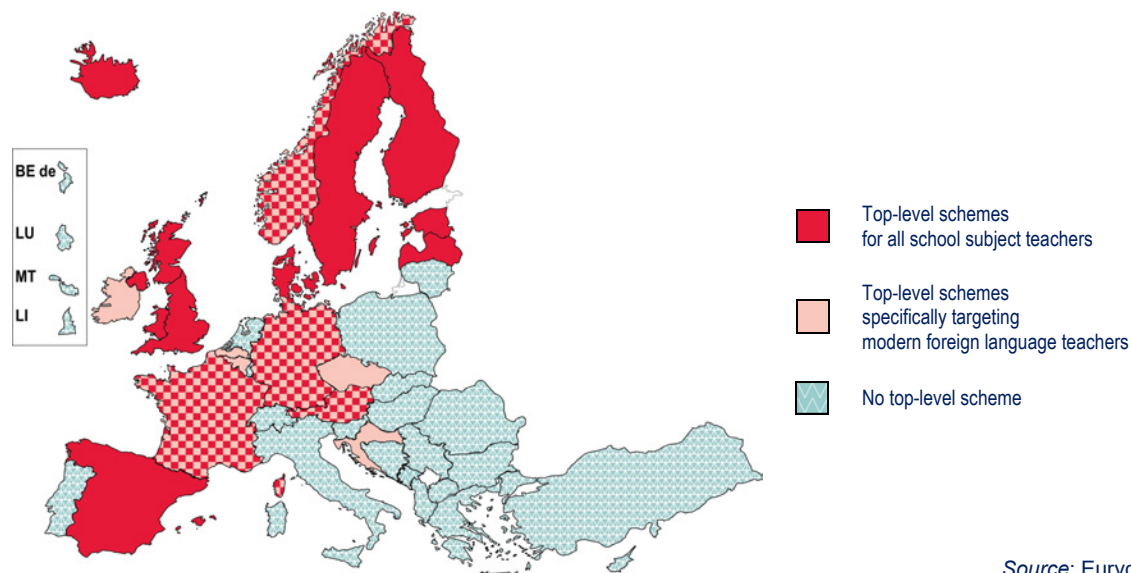
5.5.1. Organisation of national funding schemes

Teachers' mobility is promoted and sponsored at EU level, and may also be supported by funding schemes at national level. Figure 5.5 shows countries with funding schemes for transnational teacher mobility organised by top-level authorities. The objective of these schemes is to support teachers wishing to spend some time abroad for professional development purposes. Mobility schemes that aim primarily at promoting national culture and language abroad, and through which teachers are employed abroad in a national school of their country of origin, are not included in this analysis.

Funding schemes for transnational mobility exist in a minority of European countries, mainly in Western and Northern Europe. The funding schemes may apply to all teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, or they may target foreign language teachers specifically. Twelve countries have national schemes available for all lower secondary teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach (see Figure 5.5). In Germany, France, Austria and Norway, other national schemes specifically target modern foreign language teachers. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Czechia, Ireland

and Croatia, this is currently the only type of scheme that exists. Some countries without a central scheme nevertheless have regional mobility schemes.

Figure 5.5: Funding schemes organised by top-level authorities to support the transnational mobility of teachers in lower secondary education, 2019/20



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

See the definition of '**transnational mobility**' in the Glossary. Teachers moving abroad to work in a school under the authority of their own country are not considered here. International funding schemes, such as the European Union's Erasmus+ programme, are not included. For a list of the centrally funded schemes promoting transnational mobility of lower secondary teachers, see Annex I.5.

A number of countries have made bilateral agreements to support transnational teacher mobility ⁽¹⁰⁾. Transnational mobility schemes have different aims and objectives, such as to improve language skills, develop or augment teaching skills, or promote cultural awareness. They may take place in the context of continuing professional development activities, language assistance or exchange programmes, and may consist of study visits, training courses, job-shadowing, participation in conferences or periods of teaching. The length of mobility periods supported by national schemes also varies. In a number of national schemes, teachers go abroad for a short period of time, usually one or two weeks.

For instance, in **Belgium (French and Flemish Communities)**, German teachers may take part in a one-week training course in Germany. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, French teachers may take part in a two-week training course in France, while in the French Community of Belgium, Dutch teachers may undertake a four-day training course in the Netherlands.

In **Spain**, the Professional Visits (*Estancias Profesionales*) scheme supports primary and secondary teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, in spending two weeks abroad for observation in schools.

In **France**, teachers may take part in language, pedagogic and cultural development activities abroad for two weeks.

In **Finland**, Swedish teachers can participate in teacher exchanges and courses focusing on teaching methods in other Nordic countries for one or two weeks.

In **Sweden**, the Atlas Conference scheme aims to facilitate teachers' participation in conferences abroad for a period of a few days.

In **Norway**, French teachers have the opportunity to attend further education courses or individual programmes (job-shadowing) in France for two up to 21 days.

Teachers from the **United Kingdom** can visit schools in several countries for around a week in order to compare their learning practices via the Connecting Classrooms programme.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Czechia, Ireland, France, Croatia, Austria, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

Some countries also organise mobility schemes involving a longer-term period abroad.

For instance, in **France**, teachers can take part in different exchange programmes allowing them to exchange posts with a teacher in another country for a full school year. These include a cooperation programme with seven European countries, exchanges with North America (especially through the Codofil programme) and worldwide exchanges (through the Jules Verne programme).

Teachers in **Austria** may spend a school year abroad on a language assistance scheme.

Teachers from the **United Kingdom** may spend a semester in the USA where they engage in continuing professional development (CPD) courses and exchange expertise and best practices.

Eight Nordic and Baltic countries (Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Norway) are involved in the Nordplus programme which supports their involvement in a variety of educational cooperation activities. Nordplus has several sub-programmes aimed at different target groups and fields of education. The Nordplus Junior programme funds, among other things, mobility activities in the form of teacher exchanges and preparatory visits. Lithuania, although a member of the Nordplus programme, was not involved in teacher mobility in 2019/20.

Some countries also organise specific programmes for foreign language teachers working in another country as a way to promote the learning of their national language abroad. For instance, the German initiative 'Schools: Partners for the Future' (*Schulen: Partner der Zukunft*) enables teachers of German who work abroad to participate in continuing professional development activities and job-shadowing programmes in Germany itself.

The three Communities of Belgium, with three different languages of schooling (French, Dutch and German), signed an agreement in March 2015 to promote opportunities for teachers of each Community to teach in one of the two other Communities for a period of at least one year. Although not transnational per se, this trans-community initiative is also worth mentioning. The objective is to provide courses with native speakers as teachers, especially in schools where content and language integrated learning (CLIL) ⁽¹¹⁾ is offered. However, only a few teachers from the Flemish Community took up this opportunity between 2015 and 2019/20.

5.5.2. Use of mobility programmes

After having presented existing nationally funded schemes for transnational mobility, it is interesting to observe the proportion of mobile teachers who report that they have taken part in these schemes and/or in an EU programme. Teacher mobility has been supported by EU programmes for education, through the Comenius programme and more recently through Key Action 1 of the Erasmus+ programme for 2014-2020. The main aim of supporting mobility projects in 2014-2020 for school staff was to develop staff competences by offering professional development opportunities abroad in the form of structured courses, job-shadowing or teaching ⁽¹²⁾.

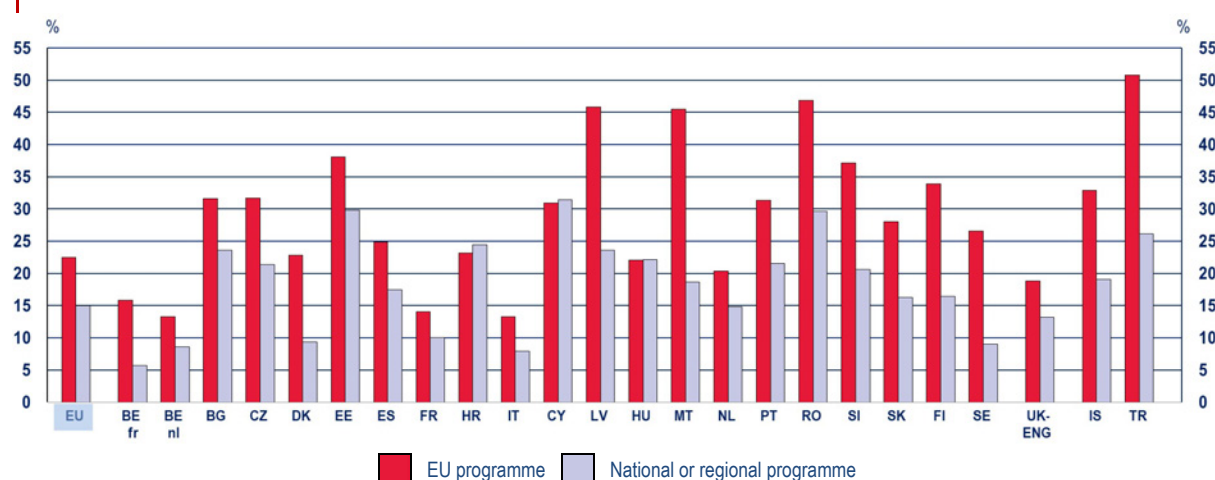
In the TALIS 2018 questionnaire, mobile teachers were asked two questions on this topic, namely whether they went abroad for professional purposes 'as a teacher in an EU programme (e.g. Erasmus+ programme/Comenius)' and/or 'as a teacher in a regional or national programme'. For this reason, there is no information on the participation of trainee teachers in such programmes during their ITE.

⁽¹¹⁾ CLIL refers to types of provision in which a language different to the language of schooling is used to teach certain curriculum subjects other than languages themselves (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017a).

⁽¹²⁾ See the Erasmus+ programme guide 2020 at https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/resources/documents/erasmus-programme-guide-2020_en

Figure 5.6 shows that EU programmes are the main funding scheme used. The share of mobile teachers who went abroad for professional purposes through an EU programme is 22.5 %, compared to 15.0 % in the case of national or regional programmes. In a few countries, this trend was even more marked, with at least twice as many teachers or more going abroad with EU funding than with national or regional funding. This was the case in Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Malta, Finland and Sweden. In contrast, in Croatia, Cyprus and Hungary, the impact of both funding sources was roughly the same. Previous TALIS data (2013) already highlighted that a bigger proportion of mobile teachers went abroad with the support of an EU programme compared to the support of a national programme.

Figure 5.6: Proportion of mobile teachers in lower secondary education who have gone abroad for professional purposes with the support of a mobility programme, 2018



	%	EU	BE fr	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	EE	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY	LV
EU programme		22.5	15.8	13.3	31.6	31.7	22.8	38.1	24.9	14.0	23.1	13.3	30.9	45.8
National or regional programme		15.0	5.7	8.6	23.6	21.4	9.3	29.8	17.4	10.0	24.4	7.9	31.5	23.6
		HU	MT	NL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE				
EU programme		22.0	45.5	20.4	31.4	46.9	37.2	28.0	33.9	26.6				
National or regional programme		22.2	18.6	14.8	21.5	29.7	20.6	16.3	16.4	9.0				
												UK-ENG	IS	TR
												18.8	32.9	50.8
												13.2	19.1	26.2

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 5.8 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 56 of TALIS 2018: 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training?', option (b) 'as a teacher in an EU programme' and (c) 'as a teacher in a regional or national programme'. Teachers may have used both types of programmes.

Mobile teachers are those who ticked 'yes' to at least one of the sub-questions (a-e) of question 56.

The use of bold in the table indicates statistically significant differences from the EU value.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated to the TALIS survey in 2018, except Lithuania and Austria. It includes UK-ENG.

Some observations can be made from considering both transnational teacher mobility rates (see Figure 5.1) and the existence or absence of national funding schemes for mobility (see Figure 5.5). Statistical analysis of teachers' reported participation in transnational mobility in TALIS 2018 suggests that the national schemes enabling periods spent abroad for professional purpose may be an important supporting factor. In those countries where there are no national mobility schemes, 29.4% of teachers have been mobile (see Table 5.1 in Annex II). Participation is higher by slightly over 10 percentage points in those countries that have a national mobility scheme (41.1 %). However, EU funding schemes remain the most important financial supporting means to access transnational mobility schemes.

5.6. Conclusions

There is agreement at European level that transnational mobility contributes to the development of a wide range of competences among teachers and should be encouraged. However, only a minority of teachers in Europe have been abroad for professional purposes. In 2018, 40.9 % of teachers in the EU had been mobile at least once as a student, as a teacher, or both. Teacher mobility is above the EU level in the Nordic and Baltic countries, Czechia, Cyprus, Spain, the Netherlands and Slovenia. From 2013 to 2018, teacher transnational mobility has increased in all 17 European countries for which data is available. It is worth mentioning that any trends in teacher mobility in the coming years will have to be analysed in the light of the disruption that COVID-19 has caused to transnational mobility programmes and travel in Europe.

As was already the case in 2013, ‘accompanying visiting students’, ‘language learning’ and ‘studying, as part of my teacher education’ are the three most common reasons for going abroad, each reported by around half of mobile teachers in 2018. Only 21.6 % stated that they travelled abroad to learn other subjects. Unfortunately, TALIS 2018 data does not explore other forms of mobility that also focus on the professional development dimension, such as training courses, seminars/conferences or job-shadowing.

The transnational mobility of teachers varies according to the subject taught. As in 2013, modern foreign language teachers are the most transnationally mobile, compared to teachers of four other main subjects. In 2018, about 70 % of foreign language teachers had been abroad during ITE and/or as a teacher. However, this means that almost 30 % of modern foreign language teachers surveyed in the EU have never been on a transnational mobility programme, which could have negative implications for the quality of foreign language teaching. Compared to foreign language teachers, the transnational mobility of other subject teachers is substantially lower, ranging from about 40 % for reading and social studies teachers, to no more than 30 % for mathematics teachers. Iceland is a marked exception to this pattern, where all subject teachers reported levels of mobility above 70 %.

The TALIS survey (2018) considers the transnational mobility of teachers during two specific periods: mobility during initial teacher education and mobility as a practising teacher. Travelling abroad when studying or when working as a teacher is described as a ‘powerful learning experience’ ⁽¹³⁾, which may have benefits for teachers’ linguistic, intercultural or didactical competences. However, transnational mobility is not very widespread among student teachers. In 2018, about one fifth of teachers (20.9 %) in the EU reported they went abroad during their studies, with substantial variations across countries. As far as in-service teachers are concerned, approximately one-third (32.9 %) of teachers in the EU reported having had a transnational mobility experience, again with variations across countries. Transnational mobility of in-service teachers is below the EU level in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Croatia, Italy, Malta, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey. There is a need to remove barriers to teacher transnational mobility, as stated in the recent Council conclusions on European teachers and trainers for the future. As highlighted by other reports, the main obstacles for student teacher mobility include financial and recognition issues (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2019c and 2020b). For practising teachers, obstacles include family responsibilities and difficulties in arranging substitute teachers (European Commission, 2012). Moreover, lack of language skills is a cross-cutting issue ⁽¹⁴⁾. However, reinforcing student teacher mobility may also improve the transnational mobility of practising teachers. Indeed, data shows that student teachers who had the chance to spend a study period in another country are more likely to seize opportunities for going abroad for professional purposes later in life.

⁽¹³⁾ OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 13.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, p. 11.

National funding schemes to support teachers who wish to spend some time abroad for professional development purposes exist in fewer than half of European countries, and mainly in Western and Northern Europe. These funding schemes may apply to all teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, or they may target foreign language teachers specifically. The data seems to indicate that participation in transnational mobility is higher in countries where top-level authorities organise top-level schemes to support teachers' professional stays abroad. However, EU programmes remain the main funding scheme.

CHAPTER 6: TEACHERS' WELL-BEING AT WORK

Teachers' well-being at work has come into focus on the European and national policy agendas. The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' ⁽¹⁾ underline that teachers' well-being is a key factor for enhancing the attractiveness of the profession: 'The wellbeing of teachers and trainers influences their job satisfaction and enthusiasm for their work, and has an impact on the attractiveness of their profession, and subsequently on their retention in the profession. It is an important factor in quality and performance, correlating with their own motivation and with the motivation and achievements of their learners'. Member States are, therefore, invited to consider the well-being of teachers and their resilience as a key policy area.

Well-being may relate to different aspects of the teaching profession: workload; work environments; working conditions; sense of safety; peer and institutional support; relational aspects with learners, parents, colleagues and other stakeholders involved with the school; and of course, appreciation from the wider community. If these aspects are a source of negative experiences, teachers may find themselves in a state of physical and emotional exhaustion, stress and burnout, and their mental and physical health can be affected. The European Commission's study on policy measures to improve the attractiveness of the teaching profession in Europe highlights stress as one of the factors that make the teaching profession particularly difficult (European Commission, 2013a, p. 175). The OECD (2020, p. 102) underlines that teachers experiencing high levels of stress at work are more likely to report their intention to leave teaching and move to other careers in the five years that follow. There is evidence that teachers' stress can impact the quality of their teaching and the motivation of their students (Fernet et al., 2012; Klusmann et al., 2008). One study found that teachers' stress levels also affected the stress levels of primary students in the morning when they arrived at school (Oberle and Schonert-Reichl, 2016). Some evidence also associates teachers' stress with job satisfaction (Collie, Shapka and Perry, 2012), commitment (Klassen et al., 2013), burnout rates (Betoret, 2009), and teacher attrition (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011).

Working conditions are generally considered a primary driver for well-being (Béteille and Loeb, 2009; French, 1993; Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Moriarty, Edmonds, Blatchford and Martin, 2001). Kyriacou (2001) highlights that teachers' stress should be considered the result of a perceived imbalance between the demands on their work and the resources they have at their disposal. Likewise, McCarthy (2019) underlines that understanding teachers' capacity for coping with stress at work means exploring how they evaluate the balance between such demands and resources. Other authors have underlined the links between student learning outcomes and teachers' stress levels, burnout rate, self-efficacy and coping abilities (Herman, Hickmon-Rosa, Reinke, 2017), the impact of cooperation among teachers on stress levels (Wolgast and Fischer, 2017), the link between accountability policies and higher levels of teacher stress (Ryan et al., 2017), and the importance of the teacher-student relationship (Spilt et al., 2011).

This chapter analyses the experience of stress at work as reported by teachers, and investigates possible sources of stress as well as elements that seem to mitigate stress levels. The first section explores perceived stress levels as reported by teachers in the TALIS 2018 survey. The data reveals that, in some countries, the number of teachers reporting high stress levels should be a matter of concern. This can affect both the attractiveness of the teacher profession, and the overall capacity of education systems to retain good teachers.

The second section analyses the sources of stress as reported by teachers in the survey. Section 3 looks into the links between stress levels and working conditions, working environment and perception of self-efficacy, all elements that – according to the research literature – might play a role in enhancing stress levels or reinforcing coping mechanism among teachers.

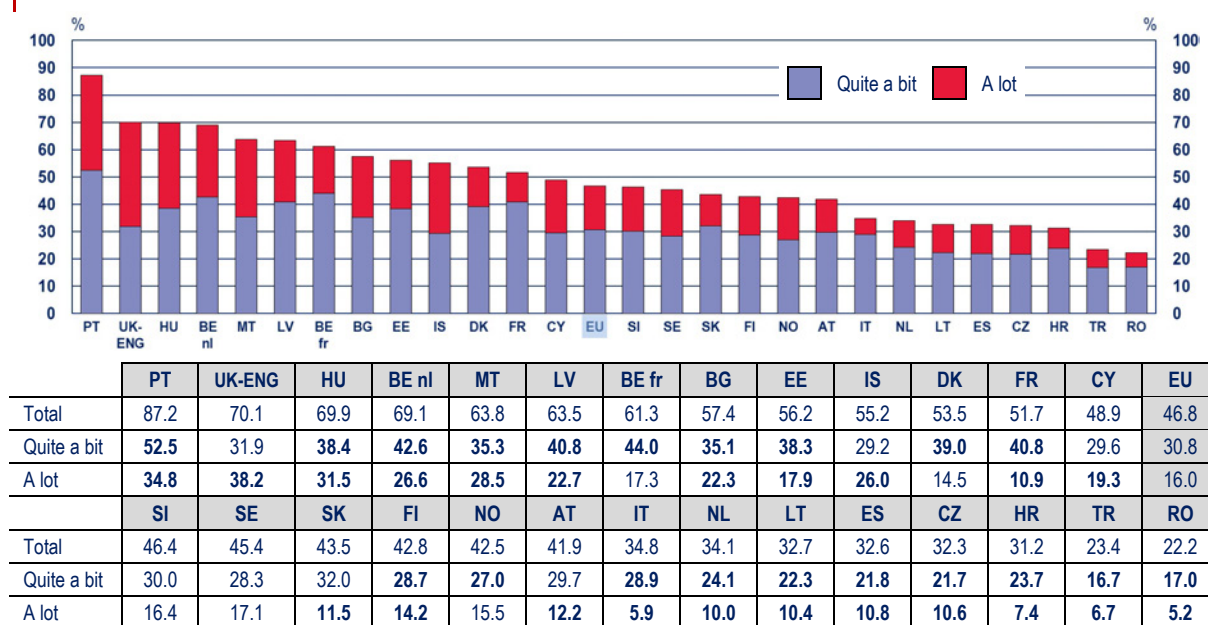
⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020, C 193/16.

The analysis reveals that across Europe many teachers experience stress at work. Evidence seems to indicate that the levels of stress are lower when teachers work in school environments that they perceive as collaborative, when they feel self-confident about motivating students and managing their behaviour, and when they feel they have autonomy in their work. On the contrary, teachers report experiencing more stress when they work in classrooms they perceive as disruptive, work longer hours, and are subject to appraisal as a requirement for career progression.

6.1. Stress levels

TALIS 2018 data reveals that stress is common among European teachers. Figure 6.1 shows that in Europe, almost 50 % of lower secondary school teachers experience stress at work. In 12 education systems ⁽²⁾, more than 50 % of teachers report experiencing stress 'quite a bit' or 'a lot'. In Portugal, almost 90 % of teachers reported being stressed, as did 70 % of teachers in Hungary and the United Kingdom (England). Even more worrying is that in all three countries, the share of teachers experiencing 'a lot' of stress is double the EU value. In Belgium (Flemish Community), Malta and Iceland, the share of teachers experiencing 'a lot' of stress is 10 percentage points higher than in the EU. At the other end of the spectrum are teachers working in Romania and Turkey, where only one out of five teachers reported experiencing stress at work.

Figure 6.1: Proportion of lower secondary teachers experiencing 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of stress at work, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 6.1 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 51 'In your experience as a teacher at this school, to what extent do the following occur?' option (a) 'I experience stress at work'. The possible answers are 'not at all', 'to some extent', 'quite a bit' and 'a lot'.

The data is arranged in descending order of the total of the two categories 'quite a bit' and 'a lot'.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

For categories 'quite a bit' and 'a lot' statistically significant differences from the EU value are indicated in bold. For the category 'Total' statistically significant differences are not calculated.

⁽²⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, France, Latvia, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, the United Kingdom (England) and Iceland.

In addition to the general experience of stress at work, the TALIS 2018 questionnaire explores three other dimensions: the impact that working as a teacher has on teachers' mental health, the impact on teachers' physical health, and the balance between work and personal life.

Overall, in Europe, 24 % and 22 % of teachers report that their job has a negative impact on their mental and physical health respectively (see Table 6.1). However, in Belgium (French Community) and Portugal, more than half of teachers consider that their job negatively affects their mental and physical health. Mental health is also a concern for one out of three teachers in Belgium (Flemish Community), Bulgaria, Denmark, France, Latvia and the United Kingdom (England).

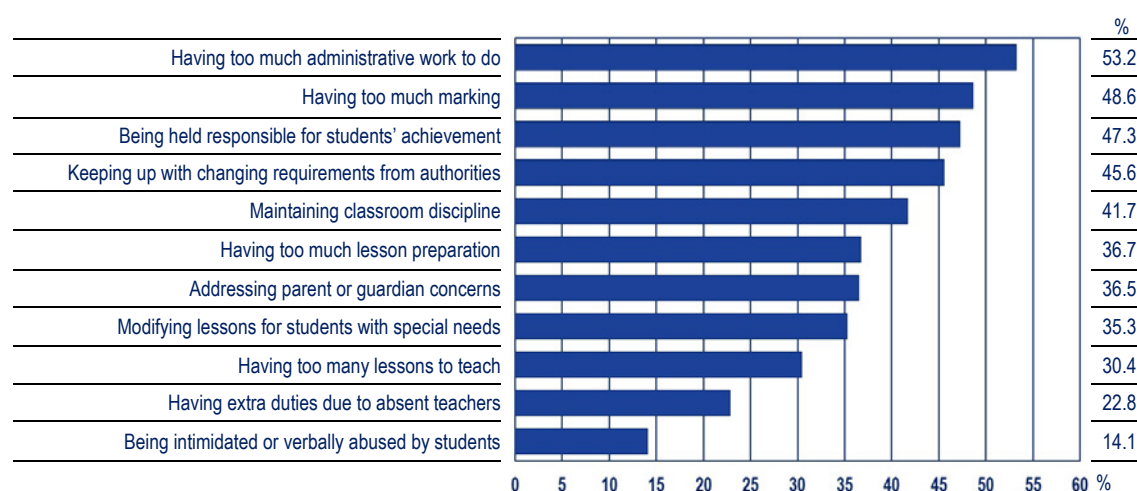
The balance between work and personal life is also an important factor when measuring well-being, and can have an impact on the attractiveness of the teaching profession. According to the OECD (2019a, p. 124), the statement 'teaching schedule fit with responsibilities in my personal life' was indicated by a large proportion of teachers as one of the motivations for becoming a teacher, demonstrating that this balance is therefore an important element in choosing a career in teaching. TALIS 2018 data indicates that at EU level, almost 55 % of teachers state that their job leaves them 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of time for their personal life, which still means that a large proportion of teachers doesn't view the teaching profession's work/personal life balance so positively. Moreover, in the United Kingdom and in Iceland, only one out of four teachers considers that their job leaves them 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of time for their personal life. The impact of total working hours as a stress factor is further analysed in section 6.3.

6.2. Sources of stress: the role of tasks and responsibilities

The TALIS 2018 survey asked teachers to indicate to what extent a predetermined list of issues could be considered a source of stress. The following paragraphs analyse their answers.

Figure 6.2 shows that, at EU level, lower secondary teachers list 'administrative work' as their main source of stress. Moreover, the data reveals that three of the top four sources of stress are not directly linked with the core tasks of teaching: administrative work, responsibility for students' achievements, and requirements from authorities.

Figure 6.2: Proportion of teachers indicating that the following issues are a source of 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of stress, lower secondary education, EU level, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 6.2 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 52 'Thinking about your job at this school, to what extent are the following sources of stress in your work?'. Answers 'quite a bit' and 'a lot' are grouped together.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

The perception that administrative work is a source of stress varies across countries (see Table 6.2 in Annex II). While in Estonia and Finland only one out of three teachers considers this a source of stress, more than two thirds do so in Belgium (Flemish Community) and Portugal. It is not surprising that in those countries where teachers reported spending more time on administrative tasks (see Table 1.4 in Annex II), they also indicated, on average, higher levels of stress due to administrative tasks.

At EU level, 'Having too much marking' is the second highest source of stress that teachers indicated. Also, in countries where teachers reported spending more time on marking (see Table 1.4 in Annex II), they also indicated, on average, higher levels of stress due to having too much marking.

Scholars have pointed to test-based accountability policies as one of the predictors of teachers' stress and job dissatisfaction (Ryan et al., 2017; von der Embse et al., 2016a; von der Embse et al., 2016b). 'Being held responsible for students' achievement' is the third most signalled source of stress. In Finland and Norway, however, only one out of five teachers indicates this is a source of 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of stress.

'Keeping up with changing requirements from authorities' is the fourth most reported source of stress. In the Netherlands, fewer than 20 % of teachers are concerned by this, while in France, Malta, Lithuania and Portugal more than 60 % of teachers experience stress due to changing requirements from authorities.

The remaining causes of stress listed in Figure 6.2 are more directly linked to teachers' work. These are either core tasks related to teaching (e.g. lesson preparation), or part of teachers' relational tasks (e.g. maintaining classroom discipline, addressing parent or guardian concerns). Some of these, as well as broader issues linked to school climate, are examined in the following analyses.

6.3. Sources of stress: the impact of systemic elements and working contexts

In addition to the sources of stress listed in Figure 6.2, other factors might contribute to increasing or lowering teachers' experience of stress. The following analysis explores the impact of systemic elements, such as career models, as well as perceptions and experiences of teachers, such as collaborative school climate and perception of self-efficacy. It uses three different regression models further explained below.

The analysis is based on a stress index score, which combines the answers given by teachers to all four items related to stress included in the survey ⁽³⁾:

1. 'I experience stress in my work';
2. 'My job leaves me time for my personal life';
3. 'My job negatively impacts my mental health'; and
4. 'My job negatively impacts my physical health'.

⁽³⁾ TALIS Teacher questionnaire 2018, question 51.

Each question has four answer categories, which were assigned values from 1 to 4: 'Not at all' (1), 'To some extent' (2), 'Quite a bit' (3) and 'A lot' (4). The stress index score therefore has a minimum value of 4 and a maximum value of 16. Figure 6.3 shows the average values of the stress index score by country. At EU level, the average score is 8.6. The mean score of the stress index in France, Slovakia and Sweden is close to this average. Teachers in Romania indicated the lowest levels of stress (7.6 points), while teachers in Portugal scored the highest (11 points).

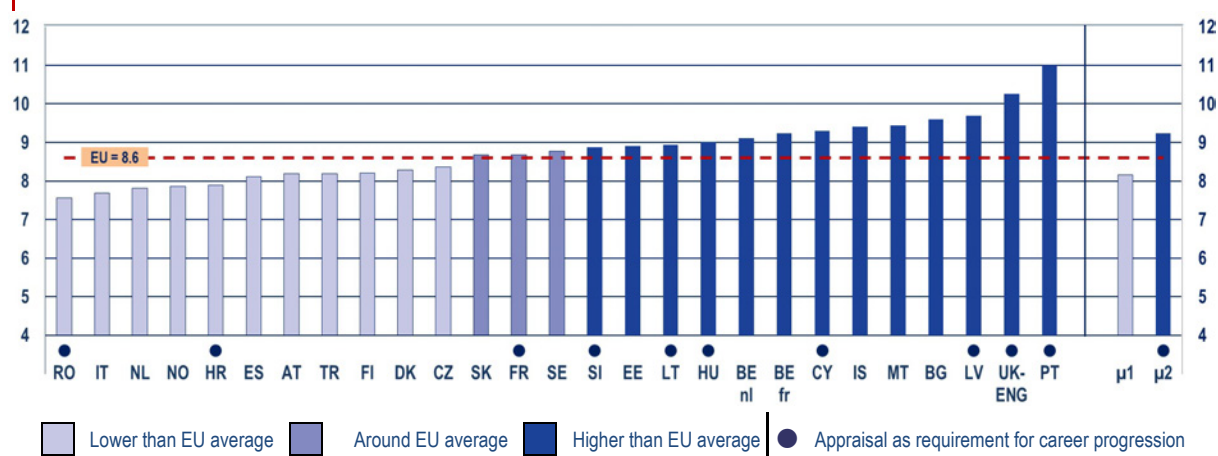
The impact of systemic elements: career models, summative appraisal and continuing professional development (CPD)

Chapter 1 looked at career models and the role played by summative appraisal and CPD in career progression processes. The following analysis looks into possible links between such systemic elements and stress levels. Regression analyses have been run using the stress index score as a dependent variable and three different systemic elements as independent variables. These are: career model (single-level or multi-level – see Figure 1.12); appraisal as a requirement for career progression (see Figure 1.13); and CPD as a requirement for career progression (see Figure 1.13).

Two systemic variables have a statistically significant impact on stress levels (see Annex II Table 6.4). Appraisal as a requirement for career progression is associated with an increase in the stress index score (1.26; S.E. 0.04). Teachers in countries where CPD is a requirement for career progression report, on average, lower stress levels (-0.53; S.E. 0.04). Changes in teacher reported stress and career structures is minor (-0.07; S.E. 0.04) and this difference is statistically not significant. Therefore, there is no substantial difference in stress levels reported by teachers working in systems with multi-level career models and those working in single-level career environments.

Figure 6.3 illustrates the relationship between stress levels and appraisal as a requirement for career progression (see also Figure 1.13). The figure compares mean scores of the stress index by country and indicates which systems have teacher appraisal as a requirement for career progression. The data reveals that, on average, teachers report higher levels of stress in those countries where appraisal is a formal requirement for career progression (μ_2 mean 9.2; S.E. 0.03). In countries with no such requirement, teachers' stress levels, on average, were lower (μ_1 mean 8.2; S.E. 0.02) ⁽⁴⁾.

Figure 6.3: Teachers' stress index score versus appraisal as a requirement for career progression, lower secondary education, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurydice and TALIS 2018 (see Table 6.3 in Annex II).

⁽⁴⁾ Difference between μ_1 and μ_2 : 1.08; S.E. 0.04.

Data (Figure 6.3)

EU	RO	IT	NL	NO	HR	ES	AT	TR	FI	DK	CZ	SK	FR	SE
8.6	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.7	8.7	8.8
SI	EE	LT	HU	BE nl	BE fr	CY	IS	MT	BG	LV	UK-ENG	PT	μ1	μ2
8.9	8.9	8.9	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.6	9.7	10.3	11.0	8.2	9.2

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurydice and TALIS 2018 (see Table 6.3 in Annex II).

Explanatory notes

The Figure is based on teachers' answers to question 51 'In your experience as a teacher at this school, to what extent do the following occur?', option (a) 'I experience stress in my work', option (b) 'My job leaves me time for my personal life', option (c) 'My job negatively impacts my mental health', option (d) 'My job negatively impacts my physical health'.

The data is arranged in ascending order of the stress index score. The intensity of the bar colour and the use of **bold** in the table below the figure indicate statistically significant differences from the EU average.

'Appraisal as requirement for career progression' shows the top-level regulations, see Figure 1.13.

μ1=average for countries that do not have 'Appraisal as requirement for career progression'. μ2=average for countries that do have 'Appraisal as requirement for career progression'.

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

While only two countries (Croatia and Romania) among those with an average stress score below the EU mean have appraisal as a requirement for career progression, seven countries (Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Portugal, Slovenia and the United Kingdom (England)) which have appraisal as a requirement have a mean score higher than the EU average.

The impact of context: working conditions, school and classroom climate, and self-perception

A second model for regression analyses has been developed using a mixture of contextual elements encompassing teachers' working conditions, the environment in which they work, and the perception of their self-efficacy.

As highlighted in the introduction to this chapter, working conditions are generally considered a primary driver for well-being (Béteille and Loeb, 2009; French, 1993; Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Moriarty, Edmonds, Blatchford and Martin, 2001). The regression model includes three elements for this first dimension: working time, years of experience, and being employed on a permanent contract.

Evidence from empirical research also points to contextual elements, such as student behaviour (Collie et al., 2012; Geving, 2007; Lewis, Roache and Romi, 2011; Pang, 2012), school climate (Fernet et al., 2012; Greyson and Alvarez, 2008; Wolgast and Fischer, 2017), and teachers' sense of autonomy (Pearson and Moomaw, 2005; Tuettemann and Punch, 1992) as factors that influence the well-being of teachers at work. Therefore, the regression model includes these three aspects through the following elements: the perception of working in a disruptive classroom, the perception of working in a collaborative school, and how autonomous teachers consider themselves in their job.

The third dimension considered in the regression analyses is linked to teachers' self-perception of their abilities. Several scholars have indicated that teacher self-efficacy is positively correlated with job satisfaction and engagement (Collie et al, 2012; Gilbert, Adesope and Schroeder, 2014; Klassen and Chiu, 2010; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2014) and negatively correlated with work-related stress and burnout (Brouwers and Tomic, 2000; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2010, 2014). Bandura (2006) considers the perception of self-efficacy to be a central mechanism of human agency. Beliefs in one's own self-efficacy influence the way people see contextual opportunities and challenges, influencing behaviours, choices, and the energy, determination and resilience people will put into pursuing their goals when confronted with obstacles. The confidence that teachers have in their abilities as professionals might, therefore, play a role in the stress they experience: a self-confident teacher might have lower levels of stress, while a teacher who is not as confident might experience the different facets of his or her work

in a more stressful way. This might also be a reciprocal relation, with highly-stressed teachers losing self-confidence (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2017). Teaching today is not only about the act of facilitating knowledge and skills, although this remains the main purpose of a teacher's job. It is also about managing a group of learners and motivating them to be confident, curious and autonomous. Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy (2001) consider teachers' self-efficacy as a self-evaluation of their own abilities to reach desired outcomes in student engagement and learning, even when confronted with difficult or unmotivated students. Therefore, the regression analyses have been conducted using three variables that deal with these three aspects: self-efficacy in instructional abilities, management of student behaviour and ability to motivate students.

Table 6.5 in Annex II provides detailed information on the construction of each independent variable.

Figure 6.4 summarises the results of the multivariate regression analyses performed on these variables for each European education system participating in TALIS 2018. The numbers in the axes show in how many education systems a particular variable has a statistically significant impact on the dependent variable (the stress index). The maximum number (27) is reached when an independent variable has a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) impact on the stress index score in all education systems. The effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable is observed under control of all other factors included in the regression.

There is certain variation in the model fit across the countries analysed. In the United Kingdom (England), the proportion of explained variance is almost 20 % ($RSQ = 0.19$), while in Denmark and Malta it is 10 % ($RSQ = 0.096$ and 0.098 respectively). In addition, the multivariate regression with all variables listed in Figure 6.4 was performed by pooling all participating EU education systems. At EU level, the model with nine independent variables explains 16 % of variance in stress levels ($RSQ = 0.16$).

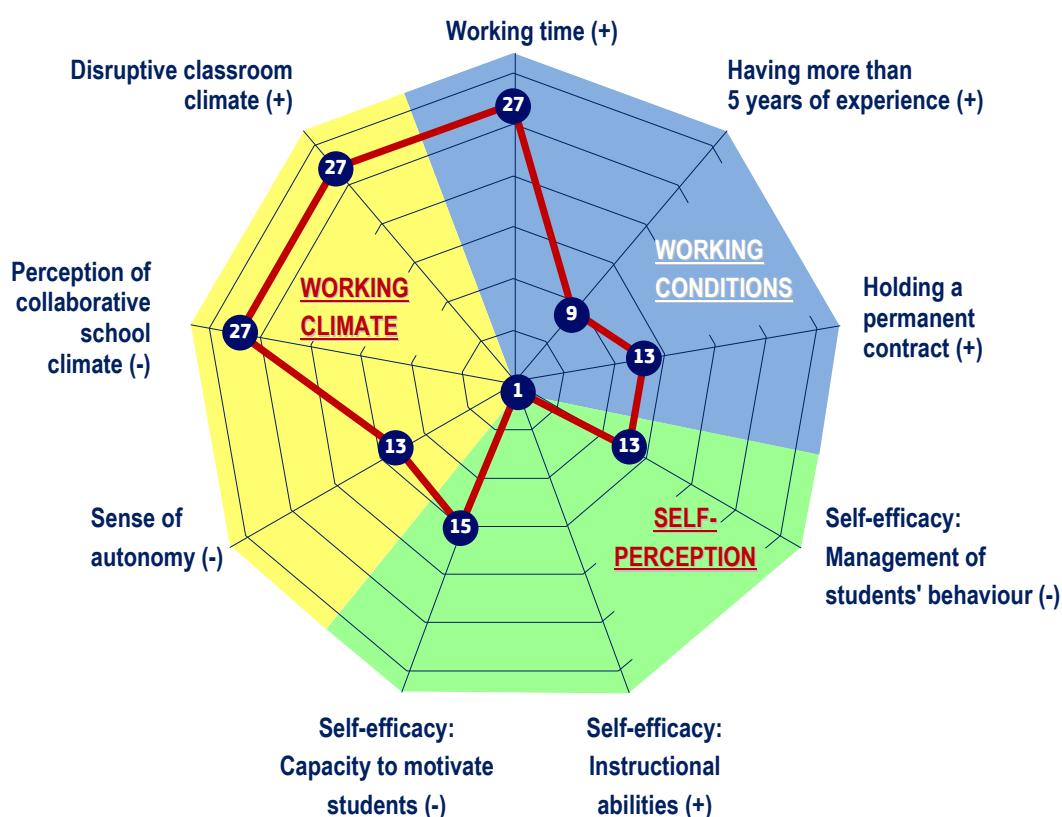
Working climate:

disruptive classrooms, collaborative school environment and sense of autonomy

The results highlight the importance of the working environment. The multivariate regression analyses show that in all 27 education systems considered, teachers working in disruptive classrooms and/or in schools with perceived low levels of collaboration among teachers are more likely to indicate higher levels of stress. At EU level, the change in the mean stress index score is 1.00 point (S.E. 0.04) if teachers consider the classroom environment disruptive, and -1.17 points (S.E. 0.05) if teachers consider the school environment collaborative. Moreover, teachers experiencing more autonomy in their work are more likely to indicate lower levels of stress. At EU level, the mean in the stress index score changes by -0.81 point (S.E. 0.11) when teachers consider themselves more autonomous in their work. Moreover, at national level, this independent variable shows statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) values in 13 education systems ⁽⁵⁾. These results would seem to indicate that school and classroom climate, as well as the sense of autonomy that teachers have in their work, can play an important role in the well-being of teachers. Policies aimed at enhancing the well-being of teachers could, therefore, seek to reinforce the role of teamwork and collaboration within schools, support teachers in developing social and interpersonal competences, and develop teachers' sense of autonomy in their work.

⁽⁵⁾ In the following 13 education system the stress index score diminishes: Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Spain, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Portugal, United Kingdom (England) and Turkey. In Finland, the stress index score is higher.

Figure 6.4: Number of countries/regions where selected aspects of lower secondary teachers' professional life have a statistically significant impact on the stress index score, 2018



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2018 (see Table 6.5 in Annex II).

EU level regression results

	EU β	S.E.		EU β	S.E.
Working time	0.05	(0.00)	Perception of sense of autonomy	-0.81	(0.11)
Having more than 5 years of experience	0.19	(0.06)	Perception of collaborative school climate	-1.17	(0.05)
Holding a permanent employment	0.51	(0.06)	Perception of disruptive classroom climate	1.00	(0.04)
Perception of self-efficacy: Management of students' behaviour	-0.57	(0.06)			
Perception of self-efficacy: Instructional abilities	-0.14	(0.08)			
Perception of self-efficacy: Capacity to motivate students	-0.10	(0.05)			

Explanatory notes

The figure shows the number of countries in which the impact of the independent variable is statistically significant on the dependent variable (stress index score – see Figure 1.18). The symbol '+' refers to a positive relation, while the symbol '-' refers to a negative relation. The categories 'Working time', 'Having more than 5 years of experience', 'Holding a permanent employment', 'Disruptive classroom climate' and 'Self-efficacy: Instructional abilities' are positively related to higher stress levels (e.g. the more working hours, the more teachers express higher levels of stress). The categories 'Self-efficacy: Management of students' behaviour', 'Self-efficacy: Capacity to motivate students', 'Sense of autonomy' and 'Collaborative school climate' are negatively related to stress levels (i.e. the higher the levels of autonomy, the more teachers express lower levels of stress).

'Sense of autonomy' is negatively related with the stress index score in 13 countries/regions and positively related in one country (Finland).

EU refers to all the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes UK-ENG.

Statistically significant results at EU level are indicated in bold.

Working conditions:**working hours, experience and employment contract**

Within the category of working conditions, a key factor is working time. The likelihood of teachers to indicate higher levels of stress if their working hours are longer is statistically significant in all (27) education systems analysed. At EU level, the mean score in the stress index score increases by 0.05 points (S.E. 0.00) for each additional hour teachers declare to be working. This is not surprising: the more hours teachers work, the more teachers report experiencing stress at work. This is valid in all education systems despite differences in working hours, as seen in section 1.2.2. The other two variables linked to working conditions, years of experience and permanent employment show statistically significant results in nine ⁽⁶⁾ and 13 ⁽⁷⁾ education systems respectively. At EU level, the change in the mean score in the stress level index is statistically significant for both teachers with more than five years of experience (0.19; S.E. 0.06) and teachers holding a permanent employment (0.51; S.E. 0.06). The results suggest that experienced teachers tend to report higher levels of stress compared to novice teachers. In Bulgaria and Portugal, the stress index score of teachers with more than five years of working experience changes by +1.10 (S.E. 0.16) and +1.09 (S.E. 0.25) respectively. Similarly, all other variables being the same, teachers in permanent employment indicate higher levels of stress in half of the education systems analysed.

Self-perception:**managing students' behaviour, motivating students, and instructional abilities**

Regarding the third dimension, the two elements that most impact the change in the stress index score are the perception of teachers' own abilities in managing student behaviour and in motivating students. At EU level, the stress index mean score diminishes by 0.57 points (S.E. 0.06) when teachers feel confident about managing student behaviour, and by 0.10 (S.E. 0.05) when teachers feel confident about motivating students. As far as these two independent variables are concerned the change in the stress index score is statistically significant in 13 ⁽⁸⁾ and 15 ⁽⁹⁾ education systems respectively. Surprisingly, the perception of instructional self-efficacy as a factor that impacts stress levels is not statistically significant at EU level. Only in one country (the Netherlands: 0.89; S.E. 0.36) is the relationship positive, with teachers who indicate higher levels of self-confidence in their teaching abilities also reporting higher levels of stress.

These results seem to emphasise that teachers' self-confidence in their social competences is an important dimension for their work and well-being. Social competences enable teachers to motivate their students to engage in classroom discussions and provide a learning environment in which everyone is able to contribute freely and critically (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017b, p. 136). Feeling self-confident in managing student behaviour as well as in inspiring and engaging students in learning might have a positive impact on teachers' well-being, which in turn would reduce burnout, attrition and disengagement. There are probably several possible sources of support, starting with initial teacher education and CPD providers, as well as school support structures that focus on social and interpersonal competences.

⁽⁶⁾ Bulgaria, Spain, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Portugal and Slovakia.

⁽⁷⁾ Belgium (Flemish Community), Bulgaria, Czechia, Denmark, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden and Iceland.

⁽⁸⁾ Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Czechia, Spain, France, Croatia, Lithuania, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia, Iceland and Turkey.

⁽⁹⁾ Belgium (French Community), Czechia, Estonia, France, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Netherlands, Austria, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Turkey.

Combining systemic and contextual elements

Finally, in addition to the two models analysed above, a third model integrates all independent variables discussed in this section, both systemic and contextual, and is run at EU level. Full information and results of the regression analyses are provided in Table 6.6 in Annex II.

In this final model, at EU level, all independent variables have a statistically significant impact on the stress index score, except the perception of instructional self-efficacy. There are however, some variations both in the systemic dimension and in the contextual one.

As far as systemic elements are concerned, teachers in countries with a multi-level career structure report lower levels of stress (-0.12; S.E. 0.03) and the impact of this independent variable is statistically significant ⁽¹⁰⁾. As far as summative appraisal and CPD are concerned, the change in the stress index score is 1.06 (S.E. 0.04) and -0.51 (S.E. 0.04) respectively ⁽¹¹⁾, and both variables have a statistically significant impact.

As far as contextual elements are concerned, when these are combined with systemic elements, the impact of some independent variables is higher. This is the case for years of experience, with an overall higher impact of experience on the stress index score (0.32; S.E. 0.06) ⁽¹²⁾; and on two dimensions of self-efficacy: management of student behaviour (-0.61; S.E. 0.06) and capacity to motivate students (-0.15 S.E. 0.05) ⁽¹³⁾. Moreover, the perception of working in a school with a collaborative climate and the perception of working in a disruptive classroom remain the two elements that most greatly impact the changes in the stress index score (respectively -1.14; S.E. 0.04 and 1.06; S.E. 0.04) ⁽¹⁴⁾.

6.4. Conclusions

The Council conclusions on 'European teachers and trainers for the future' ⁽¹⁵⁾ consider teachers' well-being a key factor for enhancing the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

At EU level, almost 50 % of teachers report experiencing 'quite a bit' or 'a lot' of stress at work. In Hungary, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England), the share of teachers experiencing 'a lot' of stress at work is double the EU value. When asked about stress factors, teachers mostly point to the burden of administrative tasks, excessive marking, being held responsible for students' achievements and keeping up with changing requirements from authorities. Policies on accountability and administrative requirements, as well as the pace and manner of reforms in education could, therefore, play a role in teachers' experience of stress at work.

Several systemic and contextual factors seem to be related to teachers' stress levels. Teachers who work longer hours reported higher levels of stress, as did teachers with more experience and teachers employed on permanent contracts.

In addition, the findings indicate that teachers report higher levels of stress if they are working in classrooms they consider disruptive, or when they feel less self-confident about managing student behaviour or in motivating students. On the other hand, teachers report lower levels of stress when they consider their school environment to be collaborative and when they believe they have autonomy in their job.

⁽¹⁰⁾ In the first model the impact of career models is statistically not significant (-0.07; S.E. 0.03).

⁽¹¹⁾ In the first model the change in the stress index score is 1.26 (S.E. 0.04) and -0.53 (S.E. 0.04) respectively.

⁽¹²⁾ In the second model the change in the stress index score is 0.19 (S.E. 0.06).

⁽¹³⁾ In the second model the change in the stress index score is - 0.57 (S.E. 0.06) and -0.10 (S.E. 0.05) respectively.

⁽¹⁴⁾ In the second model the change in the stress index score is -1.17 points (S.E. 0.05) and 1.00 point (S.E. 0.04) respectively.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Council conclusions of 26 May 2020 on European teachers and trainers for the future, OJ C 193, 9.6.2020.

Finally, teachers working in education systems where appraisal is a pre-condition for career progression report higher levels of stress, while teachers working in systems where CPD is a pre-condition for career progression report lower levels of stress.

These results seem to point to different factors that could be related to teachers' experience of stress at work, confirming several of the findings that other scholars have investigated. At systemic level, authorities could analyse their policies on the accountability of teachers, and how these contribute to teachers' workload, pressure and lower levels of well-being. Similarly, the role, weight and dynamics of appraisal and CPD for career progression should be further analysed considering the relation that these have to levels of perceived stress. Authorities could focus on policies that enhance teachers' social competences, enable them to develop a collaborative culture within schools, and improve self-confidence in their professional relations with peers and students. Such actions could aim to develop support structures, ITE and CPD programmes that can play a role both at school and teacher level.

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I. Definitions

Accreditation: in some countries, this is a mandatory process which teachers must undergo to obtain official certification or a licence to teach. It normally involves an evaluation of the professional competences of teachers and can be a highly formal process. In some cases, appraisal at the end of the induction programme feeds into this process. Accreditation is intended to provide official confirmation of a teacher's ability to do the job. In some education systems, the accreditation must be renewed with teachers being re-evaluated at least once during their career.

Actual salaries: the weighted average gross annual salary actually received by all teachers or school heads within the age range 24-65 at a specific education level, including the statutory salary and other additional payments. This amount excludes the employers' social security and pension contributions but includes those paid by the employees. The additional payments refer to bonuses and allowances which teachers may be awarded on top of their base salary set according to their educational qualifications and experience. Actual salary data can be drawn from national administrative registers, statistical databases, representative sample surveys or other representative sources.

Alternative pathways: in the context of the present study, these refer to routes leading to a teaching qualification different from the main initial teacher education programmes ► **Concurrent model** ► **Consecutive model**. Usually, alternative pathways are flexible, shorter than traditional pathways and target individuals with professional experience gained inside or outside education. They are often introduced to combat teacher shortages and to attract graduates from other professional fields. Two main organisational models can be distinguished: ► **short professional oriented programmes** and ► **employment-based training**. In the TALIS 2018 survey ⁽¹⁾, alternatives pathways are also referred as fast-track or specialised teacher education and training programmes.

Availability at school: refers to the time teachers must be available (as specified in contracts) for performing duties at school or in another place specified by the school head. In some cases, this refers to a specified amount of time in addition to the number of ► **teaching hours** and, in others, to a global amount of hours of availability that include the time spent teaching. During this time, teachers perform non-teaching activities such as preparing lessons, counselling students, correcting assignments, meeting with parents and other staff, or activities that take place outside the school such as attending trainings or conferences. Depending on what is specified in the contract, it can also include teaching time. This time can be defined on a weekly or annual basis. See also ► **Overall working time**.

Career: an occupation or profession undertaken for a significant period of a person's life that offers opportunities for progression.

Career structure: is the recognised progression pathway within a job or profession. Career structures may be single-level or multi-level. Career levels are not necessarily linked to different pay scales. See also ► **Single-level career structure** and ► **Multi-level career structure**.

⁽¹⁾ OECD (2019a), *TALIS 2018 Results (Volume 1): Teachers and School Leaders as Lifelong Learners*, TALIS, OECD Publishing, Paris.

Civil servants: teachers in some countries are employed by the public authorities/administration (at central, regional or local level) as civil servants. The employment/appointment is in accordance with legislation regulating the functioning of public administrations, distinct from the one governing contractual relations in the public or private sector. In some countries, teachers may be appointed with the expectation of a lifelong career as a civil servant. Usually, transfers between institutions do not affect their civil servant status. Common synonyms: public official, official, functionary. See also ► **Non-civil servant public employee**.

Classroom teaching observation: an instrument used by ► **evaluators** to assess teacher performance in the classroom environment, usually in the context of ► **teacher appraisal**.

Concurrent model: teacher students receive the theoretical and practical professional training at the same time as general education. The upper secondary school leaving certificate is the qualification required to undertake training in accordance with this model as well as, in some cases, a certificate of aptitude for tertiary education. Other selection procedures for admission may also apply.

Consecutive model: teacher students receive the theoretical and practical professional training after having completed their general education. In this model, students who have undertaken higher education in a particular field, move on to professional training in a separate phase.

Continuing professional development (CPD): the in-service training undertaken throughout a teacher's career that allows them to broaden, develop and update their knowledge, skills and attitudes. It may be formal or non-formal and include both subject-based and pedagogical training. Different formats are offered such as courses, seminars, workshops, degree programs, peer or self-observation and/or reflection, support from teacher networks, observation visits, etc. In certain cases, CPD activities may lead to supplementary qualifications.

CPD agency/body: in the context of this report continuing professional development (CPD) body/agency is considered an organisation with a legal status external to the top-level education authority but supported financially by it. The CPD body/agency would be responsible for providing support for ISCED 2 teachers in the area of continuing professional development. Such responsibility can be the only mission of the body/agency or part of a broader mission that covers other aspects linked to education or grant administration. If its mandate is broader, the mission must make explicit reference to the responsibility(ies) of the body/agency in the field of CPD and examples of concrete actions must be provided to consider it within the scope of this report.

Contract of indefinite duration: a type of employment contract which is open-ended, i.e. does not specify a definite time period. In some countries, these are known as permanent contracts. See also ► **Fixed-term contract**.

ECTS credits: express the volume of learning based on the defined learning outcomes and their associated workload. 60 ECTS credits are allocated to the learning outcomes and associated workload of a full-time academic year or its equivalent, which normally comprises a number of educational components to which credits (on the basis of the learning outcomes and workload) are allocated. ECTS credits are generally expressed in whole numbers. (Definition from ECTS, 2015, p. 10). ► **European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System**.

Employees with contractual status: teachers generally employed by local or school authorities on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation, with or without central agreements on pay and conditions.

Employment-based training: is considered in the context of this report as ► **alternative pathway** to a teaching qualification. It allows trainee teachers to work in a school and follow an individual training programme leading to the teaching qualification. In some education systems, however, some mainstream ITE programmes are employment-based.

Employment contract: see ► **Fixed-term contract** and ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS): is a learner-centred system for credit accumulation and transfer, based on the principle of transparency of the learning, teaching and assessment processes. Its objective is to facilitate the planning, delivery and evaluation of study programmes and student mobility by recognising learning achievements and qualifications and periods of learning (Definition from ECTS, 2015, p. 10). ► **ECTS credits**.

Evaluator(s): is the person or group of persons whose responsibility is to form an evaluative judgement on the basis of selected relevant data. Evaluators can be external, internal, or both internal and external.

Feedback: feedback can be formal or informal, written or oral, or both. Feedback on performance can be intended as an instrument to look back at classroom practice and contribution to wider school activities and reflect on areas of improvement. Feedback can also be limited to a summative purpose, providing teachers with an overall judgement on their performance with no further action expected.

Fixed-term contract: a type of employment contract that expires at the end of a specified period. See also ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

Formative evaluation: in the context of teacher appraisal, formative evaluation focuses on the developmental dimension of the process and seeks to improve teachers' professional skills and abilities (e.g. through identifying needs and implementing professional development plans). The process does not normally result in ratings or judgements. See also ► **Summative evaluation**.

Fully-qualified teacher: a teacher who has completed initial teacher education and has fulfilled all the other official ► **accreditation** and certification requirements to be employed as a teacher at the level of education concerned.

Government-dependent private institutions: an institution that receives more than 50 per cent of its core funding from government agencies. 'Core funding' refers to the funds that support the basic educational services of the institutions. It does not include funds provided specifically for research projects, payments for services purchased or contracted by private organisations, or fees and subsidies received for ancillary services, such as lodging and meals. The term 'government dependent' refers only to the degree of a private institution's dependence on funding from government sources; it does not refer to the degree of government direction or regulation.

Independent private institutions: an institution that receives less than 50 per cent of its core funding from government agencies. 'Core funding' refers to the funds that support the basic educational services of the institutions. It does not include funds provided specifically for research projects, payments for services purchased or contracted by private organisations, or fees and subsidies received for ancillary services, such as lodging and meals. The term 'independent' refers only to the degree of a private institution's dependence on funding from government sources; it does not refer to the degree of government direction or regulation.

Induction: a structured support phase provided for teachers new to the profession or for prospective teachers. It can take place at the start of their first contract as a teacher in school or within the framework of initial teacher education. ► **In-school placements** during the formal initial teacher education programme – is not considered as induction, even if remunerated. During induction, teachers new to the profession or prospective teachers carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and are remunerated for their activity. Normally, induction includes training and evaluation, and a ► **mentor** providing personal, social and professional support is appointed to help these teachers within a structured system. The phase lasts at least several months, and can occur during the ► **probationary period**.

In-school placement: a placement (remunerated or not) in a real working environment lasting typically not more than a few weeks. It is supervised by a class teacher, with periodic assessment by teachers at the training institution. These placements are an integral part of ► **professional training** which is a part of initial teacher education. In-school placements are distinct from ► **induction**.

Interview/dialogue: in the context of ► **teacher appraisal**, this is the direct face-to-face interaction between the teacher and the ► **evaluator**, whereby information is exchanged and the teacher is appraised. The interview or discussion can be structured, semi-structured or open, depending on the aim of the appraisal and the evaluation framework.

Line manager: a senior teacher or head of department within a school, who has responsibilities for supervising and appraising junior colleagues.

Local authority: the lowest level of territorial government in a nation with a responsibility for education. The local authority may be the education department within a general-purpose local authority or it may be a special-purpose authority whose sole area of responsibility is education. See also ► **Top-level authority** and ► **School level**.

Mentor: a teacher within the same school who is responsible for providing guidance and advice to another colleague. Mentors are not necessarily more senior hierarchically, although they usually have more experience in the specific school or in the job.

Mentoring support: the professional guidance provided to teachers by more experienced colleagues. Mentoring can be part of the ► **induction** phase for teachers new to the profession. Mentoring may also be available to any teachers in need of support.

Minimum number of years of service: denotes the minimum number of years that teachers need to work before they are entitled to a full pension, in addition to having reached the minimum retirement age. ► **Minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement** ► **Official retirement age**.

Minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement: offers teachers the possibility of retiring before they reach the official retirement age. Their full pension entitlement is subject to completion of the number of years of service required. ► **Official retirement age** ► **Minimum number of years of service**.

Multi-level career structure: a ► **career structure** that applies to all ► **fully-qualified teachers**, with several formally distinct career levels (e.g. senior teacher, master teacher, teacher level 1, teacher level 2, etc.). These levels are usually defined by a set of competences and/or responsibilities. Within a multi-level career structure, different levels can be structured in terms of greater responsibility, additional roles, hierarchical relations, increased value of the status, and in most cases higher salary. These elements may not be all present. Multi-level career structures are also defined in contrast to ► **single-level career structures**.

Non-civil servant public employee: status of a teacher employed by public authorities (at central, regional or local level) in accordance with legislation governing contractual relations in the public sector. Such legislation is distinct from the one governing contractual relations for ► **civil servants**.

Official retirement age: sets the age limit at which teachers stop working. In certain countries and in special circumstances, they may continue to work beyond this age limit. ► **Minimum retirement age with full pension entitlement** ► **Minimum number of years of service**.

Overall working hours: the total number of working time as specified in the employment contracts. This can be the same as the ► **teaching hours** or it can be the sum of teaching hours and hours of ► **availability at school**, or can be the only contractually specified working time. It includes time directly associated with teaching as well as non-teaching activities such as preparing lessons, counselling students, correcting assignments, meeting with parents and other staff, or activities that take place outside the school such as attending trainings or conferences. The number of hours may be either earmarked specifically for different activities or defined globally. The overall working hours can be defined on a weekly or annual basis.

Permanent contract: see ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

Private educational institutions: an institution is classified as private if ultimate control rests with a non-governmental organisation (e.g. a church, trade union or business enterprise), or if its Governing Board consists mostly of members not selected by a public agency. Private educational institutions can be referred to as 'government-dependent' and 'independent'. These terms refer to the degree of a private institution's dependence on funding from government sources; they do not refer to the degree of government direction or regulation.

Probationary period (or probation period): a temporary appointment in the form of a trial period. Conditions may vary depending on working regulations but it may last from several months to several years. At the end of this period, the teacher may be subject to a final assessment and, if successful, is normally offered a ► **contract of indefinite duration**.

Professional development: see ► **Continuing professional development**.

Professional duty: a task described as such in working regulations/contracts/legislation or other regulations on the teaching profession.

Professional training: in the context of initial teacher education, it provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed to be a teacher but does not include the academic knowledge of the subject(s) to be taught. In addition to courses in psychology, teaching methods and methodology, professional training may include ► **in-school placements**.

Promotion: advancement to a higher level in a ► **multi-level career structure**. In the context of this report, only promotion to another teaching role is considered – promotion to the position of school head, teacher educator, inspector or other non-teaching post is excluded if these roles do not involve teaching duties. ► **Salary progression** is not considered per se as promotion.

Public educational institutions: an institution is classified as public if ultimate control rests with (1) a public education authority or agency or, (2) a governing body (Council, Committee, etc.), most of whose members are appointed by a public authority or elected by public franchise.

Regulations/recommendations (top-level): two of the main ways by which government authorities seek to influence the behaviour of subordinate bodies. Regulations are rules or orders having the force of law, and are prescribed by a public authority to regulate the conduct of those under the

authority's control. Recommendations are suggestions or proposals as to the best course of action to take. They are usually published in official documents but are not mandatory. With respect to education, regulations and recommendations prescribe or propose strategies, methods and the use of specific tools for teaching and learning.

Reward: something given, financial or otherwise, in recognition of service, effort, or achievement. In the context of teacher appraisal, it is one possible outcomes of the evaluation process.

Ring-fenced: the means by which a budget is protected and only able to be used for particular purposes.

Salary progression: salary progression is understood as the advancement in the salary range. Positions within a salary range may correspond to steps, grades, or coefficients within one or more pay scales. Additional allowances granted on a permanent basis are considered salary progression. Salary progression takes place both in ► **single-level career structures** and in ► **multi-level career structures**. Progression in salary is understood as different from ► **promotion**.

Salary range: one or more graded scales of wages or salaries within a particular organisation or profession. The salary paid to an employee may change according to performance, time spent on the job, and other criteria.

School head: the most senior school leadership position – the person with overall responsibility for the pedagogical and administrative management of the school or cluster of schools, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities, which may include a teaching commitment, as well as responsibility for the general functioning of the institution. The head's duties in this respect may cover timetabling, implementing the curriculum, deciding what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, as well as teacher performance and appraisal. Some financial responsibilities may also be given to the head but these are often limited to administering the resources allocated to the school. This role might also be referred to as 'head teacher', ► **School principal** or 'school director'.

School leaders: those who hold a formal position of responsibility within the school besides teaching. Such positions can relate to the management of the school, such as deputy heads, or to specific functions, such as pedagogical coordinator and subject coordinator. In the context of this report, school leaders are also teachers, and are still involved in learner development.

School level: referred to in the context of decision-making, where decisions affecting the school are taken by individuals or bodies within a school such as the school head, the school board, the parent committee, etc. See also ► **Top-level authority** and ► **Local authority**.

School management staff: refers to staff within the school that has responsibilities for leading and managing the school in decisions such as those involving instruction, use of resources, curriculum, assessment and evaluation, and other strategic decisions related to the appropriate functioning of the school. This will typically be the ► **school head**, deputy head(s), and heads of department and/or subjects and/or other ► **school leaders**. School management staff does not necessarily hold teaching positions.

School principal: see ► **School head**.

Short professional-oriented programmes: are considered in the context of this report as ► **alternative pathway** to a teaching qualification. They are usually provided by 'traditional' initial teacher education institutions and include pedagogical and psychological disciplines, methodology,

didactics and practical training. They usually offer flexible forms of enrolment such part-time, distance or blended learning, as well as evening courses.

Single-level career structure: a ► **career structure** that applies to all fully qualified teachers, with no formally defined and distinct career levels (e.g. senior teacher, master teacher, teacher level 1, teacher level 2, etc.). In a single-level structure, there might be one or more pay scales, grades or coefficients associated to different salary levels. ► **Salary progression** may be granted upon satisfying certain criteria, such as years in service or performance. Single-level career structures do not exclude the performance of other roles and responsibilities (e.g. mentor, deputy-head, ICT coordinator, etc.). These may be regulated and rewarded with a monetary compensation or the reduction of teaching time. Single-level career structure is also defined in contrast to a ► **multi-level career structure**.

Standardised test: any form of test that (1) requires all test takers to answer the same questions, or a selection of questions from common bank of questions, in the same way, and that (2) is scored in a 'standard' or consistent manner, which makes it possible to compare the relative performance of individual students or groups of students. While different types of tests and assessments may be 'standardised' in this way, the term is primarily associated with large-scale tests administered to large populations of students, such as a multiple-choice test given to all students in a particular grade.

Statistical significance: refers to 95 % confidence level. For example, a significant difference from EU average indicated that the difference is statistically significant from at 95 % confidence level.

Student outcomes: are often defined in terms of classroom-based tests scores, pass rates, graduation rates, retention rates, etc. These data may be used in the context of teacher appraisal to assess performance and the ability to meet objectives.

Summative evaluation: involves a judgemental dimension of the process of appraisal and its goals. Usually it results in ratings or judgements that allow comparison with peers and is used to determine readiness for career advancement, pay increases, entitlement to rewards, sanctions, professional development activities, and so on. See also ► **Formative evaluation**.

Teacher appraisal: the evaluation of individual teachers with a view to formulating a judgement about their work and performance. It can be both ► **formative evaluation** and/or ► **summative evaluation** and usually results in verbal or written feedback that is intended to guide and help them to improve their teaching. It can lead to individual professional development plans, ► **promotion**, ► **salary progression** and other formal and/or informal outcomes.

Teaching hours: refers to the time spent by teachers with groups of pupils for teaching and learning activities, as specified in contracts. Time spent on class preparation, marking, planning of teaching content, counselling students, meeting with parents and other staff, or activities that take place outside the school such as attending trainings or conferences are not included in the teaching hours. In some countries, this is the only contractually specified working time. It can be defined on a weekly or annual basis. See also ► **Availability at school** and ► **Overall working time**.

Top-level authority: refers to the highest level of authority with responsibility for education in a given country, usually located at national (state) level. However, for Belgium, Germany, Spain, the United Kingdom and Switzerland, the *Communautés*, *Länder*, *Comunidades Autónomas*, devolved administrations and Cantons respectively are responsible for all or most areas relating to education. Therefore, these administrations are considered as the top-level authority for the areas where they hold sole responsibility, and for the areas of responsibility shared with the national (state) level, both are considered to be top-level authorities. See also ► **Local authority** and ► **School level**.

Transnational mobility: refers to a physical mobility for professional development purposes (e.g. to study, research, teach, participate in an international cooperation project or in a seminar) which is not permanent (a return to the home institution is intended) and involves a transnational crossing of geographical borders. Transnational mobility may be achieved within programmes set up for this purpose, or individually.

II. ISCED Classification

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) has been developed to facilitate comparisons of education statistics and indicators across countries on the basis of uniform and internationally agreed definitions. The coverage of ISCED extends to all organised and sustained learning opportunities for children, young people and adults, including those with special educational needs, irrespective of the institutions or organisations providing them or the form in which they are delivered. The first statistical data collection based on the new classification (ISCED 2011) took place in 2014 (text and definitions adopted from UNESCO, 1997, UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat, 2013 and UNESCO/UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011).

ISCED 0: Pre-primary education

Programmes at level 0 (pre-primary), defined as the initial stage of organised instruction, are designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education).

ISCED level 0 programmes are usually school-based or otherwise institutionalised for a group of children (e.g. centre-based, community-based, home-based).

Early childhood educational development (ISCED level 010) has educational content designed for younger children (in the age range of 0 to 2 years). Pre-primary education (ISCED level 020) is designed for children aged at least 3 years.

ISCED 1: Primary education

Primary education provides learning and educational activities typically designed to provide students with fundamental skills in reading, writing and mathematics (i.e. literacy and numeracy). It establishes a sound foundation for learning, a solid understanding of core areas of knowledge and fosters personal development, thus preparing students for lower secondary education. It provides basic learning with little specialisation, if any.

This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

ISCED 2: Lower secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 2, or lower secondary education, typically build upon the fundamental teaching and learning processes which begin at ISCED level 1. Usually, the educational aim is to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and personal development that prepares students for further educational opportunities. Programmes at this level are usually organised around a more subject-oriented curriculum, introducing theoretical concepts across a broad range of subjects.

This level typically begins around the age of 11 or 12 and usually ends at age 15 or 16, often coinciding with the end of compulsory education.

ISCED 3: Upper secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 3, or upper secondary education, are typically designed to complete secondary education in preparation for tertiary or higher education, or to provide skills relevant to employment, or both. Programmes at this level offer students more subject-based, specialist and in-depth programmes than in lower secondary education (ISCED level 2). They are more differentiated, with an increased range of options and streams available.

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entry age is typically age 15 or 16. Entry qualifications (e.g. completion of compulsory education) or other minimum requirements are usually needed. The duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education

Post-secondary non-tertiary programmes build on secondary education to provide learning and educational activities to prepare students for entry into the labour market and/or tertiary education. It typically targets students who have completed upper secondary (ISCED level 3) but who want to improve their skills and increase the opportunities available to them. Programmes are often not significantly more advanced than those at upper secondary level as they typically serve to broaden rather than deepen knowledge, skills and competences. They are therefore pitched below the higher level of complexity characteristic of tertiary education.

ISCED 5: Short-cycle tertiary education

Programmes at ISCED level 5 are short-cycle tertiary education, and are often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge, skills and competences. Typically, they are practice-based and occupation-specific, preparing students to enter the labour market. However, these programmes may also provide a pathway to other tertiary education programmes.

Academic tertiary education programmes below the level of a Bachelor's programme or equivalent are also classified as ISCED level 5.

ISCED 6: Bachelor's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 6 are at Bachelor's or equivalent level, which are often designed to provide participants with intermediate academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competences, leading to a first degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level are typically theory-based but may include practical elements; they are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. ISCED 6 programmes are traditionally offered by universities and equivalent tertiary educational institutions.

ISCED 7: Master's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 7 are at Master's or equivalent level, and are often designed to provide participants with advanced academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competences, leading to a second degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level may have a substantial research component but do not lead to the award of a doctoral qualification. Typically, programmes at this level are theory-based but may include practical components and are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. They are traditionally offered by universities and other tertiary educational institutions.

ISCED 8: Doctoral or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 8 are at doctoral or equivalent level, and are designed primarily to lead to an advanced research qualification. Programmes at this ISCED level are devoted to advanced study and original research and are typically offered only by research-oriented tertiary educational institutions such as universities. Doctoral programmes exist in both academic and professional fields.

For more information on the ISCED classification, see <http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/international-standard-classification-of-education-isced-2011-en.pdf> [Accessed March 2017].

METHODOLOGICAL NOTE

This methodological note provides some essential information about the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS). It also briefly describes the statistical methods used to derive results from the survey. The note offers some essential pointers to the reader regarding the methodological approaches and aims to facilitate the interpretation of the results.

TALIS statistical data presented in the Figures are available in a **Statistical Annex**, together with the standard errors and the explanatory notes. The Statistical Annex also includes some additional computations that are used in text, but not presented in Figures.

Basic information about TALIS international survey

The Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) asks teachers and school leaders about working conditions and learning environments at their schools. This report uses the main survey that focuses on lower secondary education (ISCED level 2). The most recent data come from the third cycle of the survey (2018). This report uses the data from 26 European countries. In some cases, changes since the second cycle (2013) are presented in this report. The trend data refers to 17 European education systems that took part in the two last cycles of the main TALIS survey.

Within participating countries, schools, as well as teachers within schools, were randomly selected to take part in TALIS. For each country, a minimum of 200 schools and 20 teachers within each of these schools were sampled. Separate questionnaires for teachers and school heads were administered. See the questionnaires at: <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/talis2018questionnaires.htm>.

It is important to exercise some caution when interpreting the results. TALIS data is based on self-reporting and therefore consists of subjective information rather than observed practice. Moreover, being an international survey, cultural and linguistic issues may influence respondents' behaviour. It is also essential to bear in mind that links between items revealed by the statistical analysis in this report do not imply causality. Further information on the methodology and interpretation of the results is available in TALIS 2018 Technical Report (OECD, 2019b).

The TALIS 2018 data is available at <https://www.oecd.org/education/talis/talis-2018-data.htm>.

Technical notes on statistical methods

Public and private schools

TALIS data includes both publicly and privately managed schools. Eurydice data covers public-sector schools and the government-dependent private institutions that follow the same rules as public schools. The choice of limiting the analysis of TALIS data to public schools for better comparability with Eurydice data was considered. However, due to high levels of missing information on the school type variable in some countries ⁽¹⁾ and the overall weight of government-dependent schools among the private institutions, it was decided to keep all entries of the TALIS 2018 database. The highest proportion of independent private schools was in Cyprus, the United Kingdom (England) and Malta. In these three education systems, Eurydice data (e.g. regulations and policies) might relate less to TALIS 2018 reported lower secondary teacher perceptions and behaviours than in other countries discussed in this report.

⁽¹⁾ This distinction was withdrawn at the Netherlands' request because the public/private status of schools in the Netherlands is not always obvious and this question was often misinterpreted (OECD, 2019b, p. 182). There was a high proportion of missing data on private/public school distinction in Sweden (26.0 %) and the Flemish Community in Belgium (7.4 %).

Weighting and the EU values

Instead of gathering answers from every teacher in every school, TALIS data is based on a survey that questioned only some teachers in some schools. A stratified two-stage sampling was used in order to reflect the entire population of the lower secondary schools and teachers in every education system. In order to obtain unbiased estimates of the population parameters, the data is weighted. In the TALIS 2018 database, the sum of the teacher weights therefore constitutes an unbiased estimate of the size of the target population, i.e. the number of teachers in a country in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). In a few cases where school principal data is used, the weighting estimates the proportion of teachers affected, not the principals.

The EU values that are presented in this report are based on merged data from the European Union countries/regions that participated in the TALIS survey in 2018. It includes the United Kingdom (England). Each country's contribution to the estimation of the statistical indicator at the European level is proportional to the country's size, i.e. the number of ISCED 2 teachers with non-missing values ⁽²⁾.

Standard errors and significance intervals

TALIS surveys, just like any other large-scale education surveys (OECD/PISA; IEA/PIRLS; IEA/TIMSS, etc.), only look at a representative sample of the target populations. Generally, an infinite number of possible samples exist for any given population. From one sample to another, estimates made for a population parameter (a proportion, an average, etc.) can vary. The standard error associated with any estimation of a population parameter quantifies this sampling uncertainty. Based on this estimated parameter and its respective standard error, it is possible to construct the confidence interval that reflects by how much the value calculated from a sample may vary. In this report, as customary in such surveys, a 95 % confidence level is used to determine statistical significance. A 95 % confidence level indicates that at least in 95 of 100 random samples drawn from the target population, the confidence intervals would contain the true value of the population. The 95 % confidence interval is computed using such formula:

Sample estimate $\pm 1.96 \times$ standard error of the estimate

For example, Table 1.2 in the Statistical Annex shows that the proportion of lower secondary education teachers on permanent contracts in Spain in 2018 was 66.6 % with a standard error 1.12. The 95 % confidence interval for this indicator is $[66.6 - 1.96 \times 1.12 \text{ and } 66.6 + 1.96 \times 1.12]$, namely between 64.4 % and 68.8 %.

All the standard errors recorded in this report were calculated using a balanced repeated replication (BRR) methodology.

Statistically significant values are indicated in bold in the Statistical Annex. In most cases, the tables report the proportion of teachers who have a certain characteristic or a mean value of a certain characteristic. In such cases, statistically significant differences from the EU value ($p < 0.05$) are indicated in bold. A few tables report differences between sub-groups of teachers (along teacher or country-level characteristics) or estimates of regression (see below) coefficients. In such cases, estimates that differ statistically significantly from 0 at the 95 % level ($p < 0.05$) are indicated in bold. The meaning of bold is duly explained in the notes under the data tables.

⁽²⁾ Due to differences in treatment of missing values, the estimates of the EU values reported by OECD and the estimates in this report might marginally vary. For example, OECD estimates of EU average correspond to the weighted arithmetic mean of the respective country estimates. Countries with a higher weighted number of missing values will have a higher contribution for the OECD EU estimate than in the Eurydice EU estimate.

Regression models

Regression is a statistical method that aims to determine the strength of a relationship between a dependent (or ‘to be explained’) variable and one or more independent (‘explanatory’) variables. If the model has one explanatory variable, it is called simple or bivariate regression. For more than one explanatory variable, it is called multiple regression.

In **linear regression**, the observations are assumed to be the result of random deviations from an underlying linear relationship (depicted as a straight line) between an outcome variable and an explanatory variable. The smaller the deviations from the underlying relationship (i.e. the smaller the distance of the observations from the line), the better the fit of the model to the observed values. The ‘goodness of fit’ of linear regression models is measured by **R square statistics**. The RSQ reported in the Statistical Annex shows the proportion of the variance in the outcome variable that is predictable from the explanatory variable(s).

Binary logistic regression is a regression that estimates a relationship between explanatory variable(s) and a dependent variable that has two categories. The purpose of the model is to predict the probability for a particular observation to have one of the two alternatives of the dependent variable (e.g. for a lower secondary teacher to have been mobile or not). In the tables showing the results of the logistic regressions, the regression coefficients and odds ratios (OR) are reported. The regression coefficient of a logistic regression shows if a change in explanatory variable makes the dependent variable more likely or less likely. The coefficients that are statistically significantly different from 0 at the 95% level are marked in bold. The **odds ratio** (OR) shows the relative likelihood of a particular outcome in the dependent variable (e.g. mobile vs non-mobile teacher). An odds ratio below one denotes a negative association (i.e. a lower probability); an odds ratio above one indicates a positive association (i.e. a higher probability); and an odds ratio of one means that there is no association.

Missing values

In line with the OECD methodology, observations with (any type of) missing values are excluded when reporting univariate statistics. When reporting frequencies, all valid answers sum up to 100 %; the proportion of missing values is not shown.

When computing aggregate estimates or indexes, in most cases, only observations with no missing values on all sub-items were included. However, in a few cases, only cases with all values being missing were excluded. These exceptions are indicated in explanatory notes.

Regression models excluded any observation with at least one missing information. In other words, only cases with no missing values are included.

Flagged data

When population estimates are based on less than 30 teachers or based on teachers from less than 5 different schools, then the estimates are considered too few to be representative. This data is shown in italics when related to simple frequencies and as missing (:) when such data is used for additional breakdowns.

ANNEXES

Annex I: Context

Annex I.1: Levels in the teacher career structure and conditions for career progression, lower secondary education, 2019/20 (Data to Figures 1.12 and 1.13)

	Career levels	Conditions for career promotion/salary progression
BE fr	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - holding a higher qualification level
BE de	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - holding a higher qualification level
BE nl	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - holding a higher qualification level
BG	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>uchitel</i>); 2. Senior Teacher (<i>starshi uchitel</i>); 3. Chief Teacher (<i>glaven uchitel</i>).	Conditions for promotion: fulfilling CPD requirements
CZ	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service
DK	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service
DE	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service
EE	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>õpetaja</i>) 2. Senior Teacher (<i>vanemõpetaja</i>) 3. Master Teacher (<i>meisterõpetaja</i>)	Conditions for promotion: demonstration of specific competencies
IE	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher 2. Assistant Principal II 3. Assistant Principal I 4. Deputy Principal 5. Principal	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - demonstration of specific competencies
EL	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - holding a qualification level higher than the minimum required
ES	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements
FR	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>professeur</i>) 2a. Teacher Trainer (<i>professeur formateur académique</i>) OR 2b. Pedagogical Counsellor (<i>tuteur des professeurs stagiaires</i>) 2c. Subject Coordinator (<i>professeur coordonnateur de discipline</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements - teacher appraisal results - holding a specific qualification (only for Teacher Trainer position)
HR	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>učitelj</i>) 2. Teacher mentor (<i>mentor</i>) 3. Teacher advisor (<i>savjetnik</i>) 4. Excellent teacher advisor (<i>Izvrstan savjetnik</i>).	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements - teacher appraisal results - demonstration of specific competencies
IT	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service
CY	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>kathigitis</i>) 2. Deputy Head Teacher (<i>boithos diefhintis</i>) 3. Deputy Head Teacher A' (<i>boithos diefhintis A'</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements - teacher appraisal results
LV	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher Quality Level 1 (1. <i>kvalitātes pakāpe</i>) 2. Teacher Quality Level 2 (2. <i>kvalitātes pakāpe</i>) 3. Teacher Quality Level 3 (3. <i>kvalitātes pakāpe</i>)	Conditions for promotion: teacher appraisal results

	Career levels	Conditions for career promotion/salary progression
LT	Multi-level career structure 1. [Beginner Teacher (<i>pradedantysis mokytojas</i>)] 2. Teacher (<i>mokytojas</i>) 3. Senior Teacher (<i>vyresnysis mokytojas</i>) 4. Teacher Methodologist (<i>mokytojas metodininkas</i>) 5. Expert Teacher (<i>mokytojas ekspertas</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • years of service • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results
LU	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: • years of service • fulfilling CPD requirements
HU	Multi-level career structure 1. [Trainee Teacher (<i>gyakornok</i>)] 2. Teacher I (<i>pedagógus I</i>) 3. Teacher II (<i>pedagógus II</i>) 4. Master Teacher (<i>Mestertanár</i>) 5. Teacher Researcher (<i>Kutatótanár</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • years of service • holding an additional qualification level • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results
MT	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>Għalliem</i>) 2. Head of Department (<i>Kap ta' dipartiment</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • years of service
NL	No top-level regulations	No top-level regulations
AT	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: • years of service
PL	Multi-level career structure 1. [Trainee Teacher (<i>nauczyciel stażysta</i>)] 2. Contract Teacher (<i>nauczyciel kontraktowy</i>) 3. Appointed Teacher (<i>nauczyciel mianowany</i>) 4. Chartered Teacher (<i>nauczyciel dyplomowany</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results
PT	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: • years of service • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results
RO	Multi-level career structure 1. [Beginning Teacher (<i>profesor debutant</i>)] 2. Teacher (<i>profesor cu definitivat</i>) 3. Teacher with Teaching Level II (<i>profesor grad II</i>) 4. Teacher with Teaching Level I (<i>profesor grad I</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • years of service • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results
SI	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>učitelj</i>) 2. Teacher Mentor (<i>učitelj mentor</i>) 3. Teacher Advisor (<i>učitelj svetovalec</i>) 4. Teacher Councillor (<i>učitelj svetnik</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • years of service • fulfilling CPD requirements • teacher appraisal results • additional professional work
SK	Multi-level career structure 1. [Beginner Teacher (<i>začínajúci pedagogický zamestnanec</i>)] 2. Independent Teacher (<i>samostatný pedagogický zamestnanec</i>) 3. Teacher with First Attestation (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s 1. atestáciou</i>) 4. Teacher with Second Attestation (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s 2. atestáciou</i>)	Conditions for promotion: • fulfilling CPD requirements
FI	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: • years of service
SE	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>lärare</i>) 2. First Teacher (<i>förstlärare</i>) 3. Lecturer (<i>Lektor</i>) OR	Conditions for promotion: • years of service • holding a higher or additional qualification level
UK-ENG/WLS	Multi-level career structure 1. Main pay range 2. Upper pay range 3. Leading practitioner	Conditions for promotion: • teacher appraisal results • performance against Teacher Standards
UK-NIR	Multi-level career structure 1. Main pay scale 2. Upper pay scale	Conditions for promotion: • year of service • teacher appraisal results • performance against Teacher Standards

	Career levels	Conditions for career promotion/salary progression
UK-SCT	Multi-level career structure 1. Main Grade Teacher 2. Principal Teacher 3. Depute Headteacher 4. Headteacher	Conditions for promotion: no conditions
AL	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>mësues</i>) 2. Qualified Teacher (<i>mësues i kualifikuar</i>) 3. Specialist Teacher (<i>mësues specialist</i>) 4. Master Teacher (<i>mësues mjeshtër</i>)	Conditions for promotion: years of service
BA	Multi-level career structure 1. [Trainee teacher (<i>Nastavnik pripravnik</i>)] 2. Teacher (<i>Nastavnik</i>) 3. Teacher mentor (<i>Nastavnik mentor</i>) 4. Pedagogical advisor (<i>Pedagoški savjetnik</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - teacher appraisal results
CH	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service
MK	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>Nastavnik</i>) 2. Teacher mentor (<i>Nastavnik mentor</i>) 3. Teacher advisor (<i>Nastavnik sovetnik</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements
IS	Single-level career structure	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - holding a higher or additional qualification level
LI	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - teacher appraisal results - teachers' age
ME	Multi-level career structure 1. [Trainee Teacher (<i>nastavnik pripravnik</i>)] 2. Teacher (<i>nastavnik</i>) 3. Teacher Mentor (<i>nastavnik mentor</i>) 4. Teacher Advisor (<i>nastavnik savjetnik</i>) 5. Senior Teacher Advisor (<i>nastavnik viši savjetnik</i>) 6. Teacher Researcher (<i>nastavnik istraživač</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements - authoring professional papers
NO	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: - years of service - holding a higher qualification level
RS	Multi-level career structure 1. Teacher (<i>nastavnik</i>) 2. Pedagogical Advisor (<i>pedagoški savetnik</i>) 3. Independent Pedagogical Advisor (<i>samostalni pedagoški savetnik</i>) 4. Higher Pedagogical Advisor (<i>viši pedagoški savetnik</i>) 5. Senior Pedagogical Advisor (<i>visoki pedagoški savetnik</i>)	Conditions for promotion: - years of service - fulfilling CPD requirements - teacher appraisal results - conduct and implement research studies relevant to the field of education - be author or co-author of an accredited professional development program
TR	Single-level career structure	Conditions for salary progression: years of service

Explanatory note

The table mentions the various career levels in multi-level career structures as described in the national legislation. In some cases, the first career level corresponds to the induction period. These are indicated in squared brackets [].

Country-specific notes

Ireland: Principals retain teaching duties if required by the curricular needs of the school.

Lithuania, Romania and Slovakia: Beginner teacher corresponds to the first step of the teaching career during induction.

Hungary, Poland and Bosnia and Herzegovina: Trainee teacher corresponds to the first step of the teaching career during induction.

United Kingdom (SCT): Headteachers retain teaching duties if required by the curricular needs of the school.

Annex I.2: Alternative pathways into the teaching qualification, general lower secondary education (ISCED 2), 2019/20 (Data to section 2.1.3)

Belgium – German-speaking Community

Cap+

Brief description:

Duration: 30 ECTS

Provider: AHS, Autonome Hochschule

Admission criteria: Bachelor's degree or non-qualified teachers already in service

Website: www.ahs-dg.be

Denmark

Merit-Teacher programme

The Merit-Teacher programme is designed for university/university college graduates and individuals who have obtained knowledge and experience outside teaching. After completion of this programme, they are accredited as a 'Merit Teacher'.

Duration: 150 ECTS

Provider: ITE (University Colleges)

Admission criteria: 1) the applicant has completed a master's, bachelor's or professional bachelor's degree programme, or 2) the applicant is at least 25 years old, has completed a vocational training programme (at least at vocational education level) and has at least two years of professional experience.

Website: <https://www.retsinformation.dk/Forms/R0710.aspx?id=174218#Kap8>

Germany

Practical teacher training (*Vorbereitungsdienst*)

The main teacher education institutions provide opportunities for graduates from other areas to access directly the second part of mainstream ITE programmes (*Vorbereitungsdienst*). The minimum requirements for the qualification of lateral entrants (*Seiteneinsteiger*): completion of the *Vorbereitungsdienst* (preparatory service) or a comparable training which also ensures basic educational competences through a (second) state examination (*Staatsexamen*) or an equivalent state-certified qualification. Designations of the individual programmes for lateral entrants vary between the *Länder*.

Duration: 12-24 months

Provider: ITE

Admission criteria: minimum requirements for the qualification of lateral entrants (*Seiteneinsteiger*): university Master's degree or equivalent higher education qualification from which at least two teaching-related subjects can be derived.

Website: http://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/Dateien/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2013/2013_12_05-Gestaltung-von-Sondermassnahmen-Lehrkraefte.pdf

Estonia

National occupational qualifications system

Professional certificate can be obtained by anybody who demonstrates the necessary competences described in the teacher's professional standard. Training courses are not obligatory.

Provider: Estonian Qualifications Authority

Admission criteria: Master's degree or corresponding qualification

Website: Professions Act, 2008, <https://www.riigiteataja.ee/en/eli/521032019015/consolide>

France

Third competition (*le troisième concours*) and internal competition (*le concours interne*)

In France, in order for students to be fully qualified, they need to take a competitive examination at the end of year 4 (Master 1). Those who are unsuccessful can take the competitive examination at the end of year 5.

For those who have not taken or have not succeeded in the competitive examination, two additional possibilities exist.

The third competition, namely *le troisième concours*, is available for those who have at least five years of professional experience in any activity in the private sector.

Non-qualified teachers with at least three years of professional experience in public services or institutions that depend on them (whether it be a school or not, as a teacher or not, as a civil servant or not – it includes teachers from private state-funded schools) and those who are bachelor's degree or equivalent level holders can take an internal competition, namely *le concours interne*.

Admission criteria: For 3rd competition: five years of professional experience in any activity in the private sector. For internal competition: at least a Bachelor's degree and minimum five years of professional experience in the public sector.

Website: <https://www.devenirenseignant.gouv.fr/pid33985/enseigner-college-lycee-general-capes.html>

Latvia

Employment-based programme NGOs Mission Possible

The NGO Mission Possible recruits Latvia's university graduates and places them as teachers in schools across the country. They have a two-year commitment of full-time teaching and learning within the framework of the programme.

Duration: two years (650 hours)

Provider: NGO Mission Possible

Admission criteria: Latvia's university graduates

Website: <https://likumi.lv/ta/id/301572-noteikumi-par-pedagogiem-nepieciesamo-izglitiba-un-profesionalo-kvalifikaciju-un-pedagogu-profesionalas-kompetences-pilnveides>

Lithuania

Choose to teach (*Renkuosi mokyti*)

'Choose to teach' (*Renkuosi mokyti*) programme is an employment-based training for recent university graduates and young professionals.

Duration: ITE part is not less than 60 ECTS

Provider: Centre for School Improvement

Admission criteria: Minimum a Bachelor's degree, not older than 35

Website: <https://www.renkuosimokyti.lt/>

Luxembourg

Teacher training certificat (*certificat de formation pédagogique*)

Brief description:

Duration: 230 hours

Provider: Administration of the Ministry of education, childhood and youth of Luxembourg (*Institut de formation de l'Éducation nationale*)

Admission criteria: Master diploma in the subject studies

Website: http://legilux.public.lu/eli/etat/leg/code/education_nationale/20200120/page_77/1223

Malta

Bachelor of education

The Bachelor of Education is offered as a series of part-time evening courses and it is considered an alternative ITE programme.

Duration: 4 years/180 ECTS

Provider: Institute for Education

Admission criteria:

- 1) Level 3 qualifications in Maltese, English and Mathematics (according to Malta Qualifications Framework (MQF)); and
- 2) a) Level 4 (general education) MATSEC qualification in one of the subjects taught in the primary curriculum; or
b) An MQF Level 4 (VET) qualification in Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC); or
c) Three subjects at MQF Level 4 (general education) in one of the subjects taught in the primary school curriculum.

Website: https://instituteforeducation.gov.mt/en/Documents/Prospectus/lfe_Prospectus%202020-21%20Desktop%20friendly.pdf

Netherlands

Minor in Education programme

A 'Minor in Education' programme allows university bachelor students to obtain a limited second-level teaching qualification (years 1-3 of general secondary education). The Lateral Entry programme provides another option for people with tertiary education qualifications to enter the teaching profession without a prior teaching qualification. Teachers being appointed this way can work on a temporary contract for a maximum of two years while receiving the training and support needed to gain a full teaching qualification and thus, a permanent contract.

Provider: ITE institutions

Admission criteria: Minimum of ISCED 6 level (bachelor diploma)

Website: <https://www.rijksoverheid.nl/onderwerpen/werken-in-het-onderwijs/vraag-en-antwoord/leraar-voortgezet-onderwijs>

Austria

Alternative training

The alternative training allows the graduates of relevant studies (e.g. physics) to acquire a qualification to teach the corresponding subject (e.g. physics) as part of secondary-level general education. It leads to the Master's degree diploma for the teaching profession secondary level (general education) in only one subject.

This programme is offered according to the demand for graduates in the respective subjects.

Duration: 120 ECTS, at least four semesters

Provider: University colleges of teacher education

Admission criteria: Completion of a relevant study at a recognised post-secondary educational institution to the extent of at least 180 ECTS and relevant professional experience of at least 3 000 hours

Website: <https://www.bmbwf.gv.at/Themen/schule/fpp/ausb/ab.html>

Slovakia

Supplementary pedagogical study (*Doplňujúce pedagogické štúdium*)

Professionals from other fields, holding a master's degree can obtain the teaching qualification by completing the 'Supplementary pedagogical study' offered by pedagogical/philosophical faculties. This programme may also be attended in parallel to or after a non-pedagogical Master's degree. It includes pedagogical and psychological disciplines, methodology, didactics and practical training.

Duration: 200 hours (2 academic years)

Provider: Universities – pedagogical/philosophical faculties

Admission criteria: Master/PhD degree student – if it is parallel with the master/PhD study. Master/PhD degree – if it is not parallel with master/PhD study. Other criteria can vary depending on the faculty/university

Website: <https://www.slov-lex.sk/pravne-predpisy/SK/ZZ/2019/138/20191015>;
<https://www.slov-lex.sk/pravne-predpisy/SK/ZZ/2002/131/20190901?ucinost=07.01.2020>

Sweden

KPU – *Kompletterande pedagogisk utbildning*

Some KPU in cooperation with school organisers on the local level, make it possible for students to start working as teachers with a full-time salary while studying part time to become qualified teachers.

Duration: 90 ECTS

Provider: ITE

Admission criteria: At least 90 ECTS in a subject relevant to the school curriculum.

Website: <https://www.studera.nu/att-valja-utbildning/lararutbildningar/lararutbildningsguiden/kpu/>

VAL – *vidareutbildning av lärare*

In-service teachers without a teacher's degree can supplement previous studies and experiences through further training of teachers (VAL). Admission depends on previous studies and experiences. There is an individual study plan to reach the desired degree. Studies are often offered from distance and at a half-time study pace.

Duration: Depends on earlier studies but maximum 120 ECTS

Provider: ITE

Admission criteria: Depends on the previous studies

Website: <https://www.studera.nu/att-valja-utbildning/lararutbildningar/lararutbildningsguiden/val/>

ULV – *utländska lärares vidareutbildning*

People holding a teacher's degree from another country or with academic studies in a subject relevant to the school curriculum from another country. Individual study plan depending on what needs to be supplemented.

Duration: Depends on earlier studies but maximum 120 ECTS

Provider: ITE

Admission criteria: Depends on the previous studies

Website: <https://www.studera.nu/att-valja-utbildning/lararutbildningar/lararutbildningsguiden/ulv/>

United Kingdom (England)

Teach First

Teach First works with accredited initial teacher training (ITT) providers to provide the training, and places participants in schools in low-income communities/challenging circumstances. Trainees are paid a salary as unqualified teachers for the first year and at the end of it, they become qualified teachers. Then, they work for an additional year as newly qualified teachers (NQT) at the same school.

Participants begin their training teaching in a school on a reduced timetable; this is 60 % of the full timetable at first, rising to 80 % of the full timetable once they're more established (usually after the first half term). The in-school training follows an intensive 5-week residential summer course.

The completion of the training leads to professional accreditation (Qualified Teacher Status, QTS) at the end of the first year, and an academic qualification – the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) – at the end of the second.

Having achieved these qualifications (QTS and the PGDE), participants can also work part-time towards a postgraduate Master's qualification in an optional third year of the programme.

Duration: 2 years. Participants achieve QTS after the first year and then they work for a further year as newly qualified teachers (NQT) at the same school. They achieve the PGDE at the end of this second year. There is an optional third year in which participants can work part-time towards a postgraduate Master's degree.

Provider: Organisation 'Teach First' – a charity – works with accredited initial teacher training providers and schools in low-income communities in providing the programme.

Admission criteria: Participants must usually have a bachelor's degree or higher. The programme is aimed, specifically, at high-attaining graduates with leadership potential who might not otherwise consider a career in teaching.

Website: <https://www.teachfirst.org.uk/training-programme>

United Kingdom (Wales)

Teach First Cymru

The Teach First initial teacher education (ITE) programme – known as the Additional Graduate Training Programme (AGTP) (Teach First) in Wales – is aimed at high-attaining graduates with leadership potential who might not otherwise consider a career in teaching. It is provided by Teach First Cymru, the Welsh arm of Teach First which is an independent charity funded by corporate contributions and fees are paid by schools and training grants for AGTP courses from the Welsh Government.

AGTP (Teach First) participants must be 'high quality' graduate entrants to the profession. They are normally placed in secondary schools in economically disadvantaged areas and Teach First Cymru works with accredited providers to provide the training.

Participants begin their training teaching in a school on a reduced timetable; this is 60 % of the full timetable at first, rising to 80 % of the full timetable once they're more established (usually after the first half term). The in-school training follows an intensive 5-week residential summer course. Trainees are paid a salary as an unqualified teacher for the first year, on the successful completion of which they are awarded qualified teacher status (QTS). Then, they work (full-time) for an additional year at the same school as newly qualified teachers (NQT) and, on the successful completion of this second year, they are awarded an academic qualification – the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE).

Having obtained these qualifications (QTS and the PGDE), participants can also work part-time towards a postgraduate master's qualification in an optional third year of the programme.

Duration: The Teach First (AGTP) programme lasts two years. Participants obtain the QTS after the first year and then they work for an additional year as newly qualified teachers (NQT) at the same school. They obtain the PGDE at the end of this second year. There is an optional third year in which participants can work part-time towards a postgraduate master's degree.

Provider: Teach First – a charity – works with accredited initial teacher training providers and schools in low-income communities in providing the programme.

Admission criteria: General entry criteria and course content are the same as for other postgraduate ITE routes, but the programme is aimed, specifically, at high-attaining graduates with leadership potential who, otherwise, would not consider a career in teaching. It is only available in South Wales and for those holding a bachelor's degree at 2:1 or higher.

Website: <https://www.teachfirst.org.uk/training-programme>

Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP)

This programme for existing school employees is intended for candidates who have a bachelor's degree or equivalent in a relevant subject. Programmes often require from teachers to spend a small amount of time for training at a different school from the one they work at, and include a minimum of 10 days of university-led training. This programme leads to professional accreditation (Qualified Teacher Status, QTS).

In 2020/21, GTP will be replaced by a new (salaried) employment-based scheme which will last two years and lead to QTS and an academic qualification (the Postgraduate Certificate of Education, PGCE).

Duration: GTP normally lasts one year (three terms) but trainees with suitable experience and qualifications (e.g. a qualification for teaching in further education or an overseas teaching qualification) may complete the programme in a shorter time (the minimum length is three months).

Provider: The GTP is managed and delivered by three regional teacher training centres in Wales: the North and Mid Wales Centre for Teacher Education, the South West Wales Centre of Teacher Education, and the South East Wales Centre for Teacher Education. The school in which the trainee is employed manages the day-to-day training in conjunction with the training

provider who manages the training process and devises the training plan which will enable a trainee to meet the QTS Standards (defined by the Professional Standards for Teaching and Leadership). At the end of the training programme, the provider/regional teacher training centre assesses the trainee and decides whether he/she should be recommended for QTS to the Education Workforce Council (EWC).

Admission criteria: There is a limited number of places available on the GTP each year and applications are sent directly to the regional teacher training centres. Applicants must meet the initial teacher education eligibility criteria, be employed in a school (i.e. have a contract of employment as unqualified teachers) and have a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification in a relevant subject.

Website: <https://gov.wales/sites/default/files/publications/2019-03/graduate-teacher-programme-policy-and-priorities-statement-2019-20.pdf>
<https://www.ucas.com/postgraduate/teacher-training/train-teach-wales/postgraduate-teacher-training-wales>

United Kingdom (Scotland)

Several additional routes into the profession have been introduced to help address recruitment challenges for teachers in the priority subjects as well as in the remote and rural areas of Scotland:

University of Aberdeen, Distance Learning (DLITE) Primary PGDE

University of Aberdeen, Distance Learning (DLITE) Secondary PGDE

University of Aberdeen, PG Certificate in Educational Studies

University of Dundee, PGCE Secondary Education with Supported Induction Route (SIR)

University of Edinburgh, MSc in Transformative Learning and Teaching

Reference: <https://www.gtcs.org.uk/registration/register-of-teachers/courses-postgraduate-ite.aspx>.

Switzerland

Special training programme

Universities of teacher education may offer a special training programme for people wishing to be retrained for teaching, who are at least 30 years old, and who can demonstrate professional experience. This special programme enables them to take up a paid part-time teaching position corresponding to the degree in demand (on-the-job training) the earliest at the end of the first year of training. The teaching activity is part of the full-time studies and must be supervised by the university.

Duration: 270-300 ECTS (same duration as for regular ITE)

Provider: Universities of teacher education

Admission criteria: A minimum of three years of professional experience is required and an age restriction (minimum 30 years old)

Website: <http://www.edk.ch/dyn/27621.php>

Turkey

Pedagogic Formation Certificate Program

The programme includes the theoretical courses (14 credits), professional subjects and school practicum (11 ECTS). This programme should be abolished soon.

Duration: two semesters, 25 credits (course hours) of weekly load.

Provider: Faculties of Education in accredited universities

Admission criteria: Certain majors of 4-year bachelor programmes

Website: https://www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Kurumsal/IdariBirimler/egitim_ogretim_daire_bsk/pedagojik-formasyon-usul-ve-esaslar.aspx

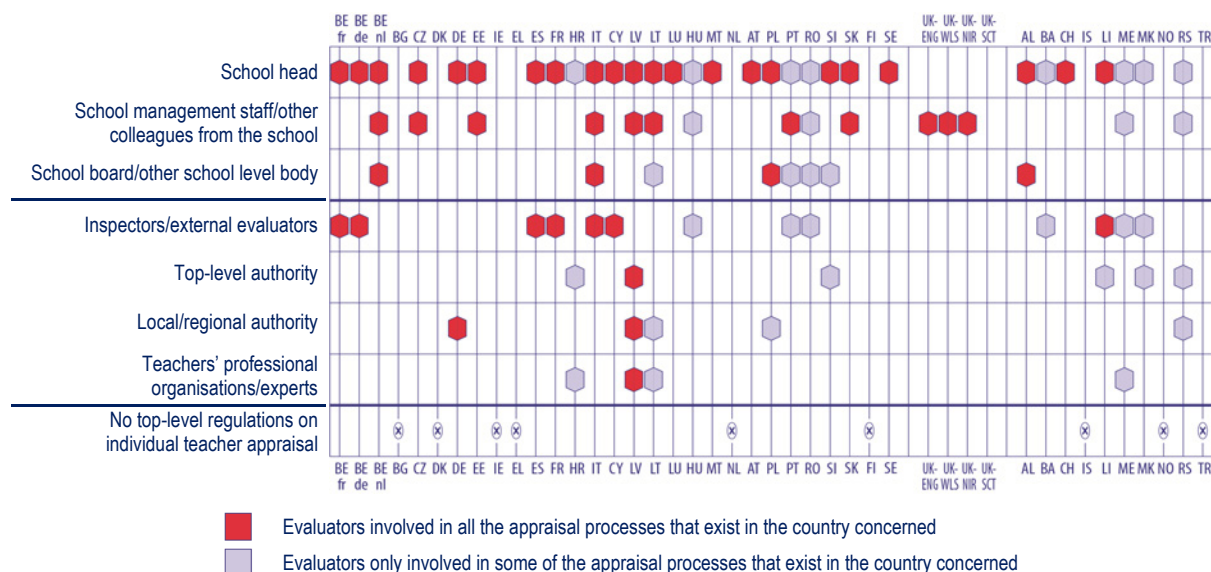
Explanatory note

Only the most widespread alternative pathways are described here.

Annex I.3: Name(s) and website(s) of national bodies/agencies with responsibilities in supporting lower secondary teachers' continuing professional development, 2019/20 (Data to Figure 3.10)

	Name	Link
BE fr	<i>Institut de la Formation en cours de Carrière</i> Institute for in-service training	www.ifc.cfwb.be
BE de	<i>Weiterbildungskommission</i>	www.ahs-dg.be
CZ	<i>Národní pedagogický institut České republiky</i> National Pedagogical Institute of the Czech Republic	www.npícr.cz
EE	<i>Haridus- ja Noorteamet</i> Education and Youth Authority	https://www.harno.ee/
IE	<i>Professional Development Service for Teachers (PDST)</i>	www.pdst.ie
EL	<i>Institute of Educational Policy</i>	www.iep.edu.gr
HR	<i>Agencija za odgoj i obrazovanje</i> Education and Teacher Training Agency	www.azoo.hr
IT	<i>INDIRE (Istituto Nazionale di Documentazione, Innovazione e Ricerca Educativa)</i> National Institute for Documentation, Innovation and Educational Research	www.indire.it
CY	<i>Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο Κύπρου</i> The Cyprus Pedagogical Institute	www.pi.ac.cy
LU	<i>Institut de formation de l'Éducation nationale</i> Training institute of education	www.ifen.lu
HU	<i>Oktatási Hivatal</i> Educational Authority	https://www.oktatas.hu/tovabbkepzes/pedagogus_tovabbkepzesek/altalanos_tajekoztato
AT	<i>RektorInnenkonferenz der Pädagogischen Hochschulen</i> Rectors' Conference of the Austrian university colleges of teacher education	
PL	<i>Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji</i> The Centre for Education Development	www.ore.edu.pl
PT	<i>Conselho Científico-Pedagógico Da Formação Contínua</i> Scientific-Pedagogical Council of Continuing Professional Training	www.ccpfc.uminho.pt
FI	<i>Opetushallitus/Utbildningsstyrelsen</i> Finnish National Agency for Education	www.oph.fi
SE	<i>Skolverket</i> Swedish National Agency for Education	www.skolverket.se
UK-WLS	<i>Education Workforce Council</i>	www.ewc.wales
UK-NIR	<i>The Education Authority</i>	www.eani.org.uk
UK-SCT	<i>Education Scotland</i>	https://education.gov.scot/
AL	<i>Agjencia e Sigurimit te Cilesise ne Arsimin Parauniversitar</i> Agency for Quality Assurance of Pre-university Education	www.ascap.edu.al
LI	<i>Schulamt – Zentrum für Schulmedien</i>	https://www.llv.li/inhalt/11239/amtsstellen/zentrum-fur-schulmedien
ME	<i>Zavod za školstvo</i> Bureau for Educational Services	https://www.zzs.gov.me
MK	<i>Biro za razvoj na obrazovanie</i> Bureau for Development of Education	www.bro.gov.mk
RS	<i>Zavod za unapređivanje obrazovanja i vaspitanja</i> Institute for the Improvement of Education	zuov.gov.rs

Annex I.4: Evaluators involved in teacher appraisal in lower secondary education, 2019/20 (complement to Figure 4.6).



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The first horizontal line separates the internal evaluators from the external evaluators. The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures: appraisal processes carried out as a form of disciplinary measure in cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are out of scope. Management staff shares the management of the school with the head teacher and fulfil roles such as deputy head, head of department or line manager.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Information applies to the minority of *Länder* that issued regulations on teacher appraisal (see Section 4.1).

Spain: Information applies to the four Autonomous Communities that have issued regulations on teacher appraisal. In Asturias, teachers are appraised by the school head. In Aragón, Castilla-La Mancha and La Rioja, teachers are appraised by the inspector.

Montenegro: 'Inspectors' refer to both inspectors and advisers for quality assurance.

Annex I.5: Name(s), target population, destination countries and mobility duration of centrally funded schemes promoting transnational mobility of lower secondary teachers, 2019/20 (Data to Figure 5.5)

	Name	Target population	Destination countries	Duration of mobility
BE fr	Seminar for teachers in the Netherlands	Dutch teachers	The Netherlands	4 days
BE fr	Seminar for teachers in Germany	German teachers	Germany	1 week
BE nl	Francoform	French teachers	France	2 weeks
BE nl	Seminar for Flemish teachers in Germany	German teachers	Germany	1 week
CZ	International pedagogical workshops for German teachers based on the Czech-Bavarian/Czech-Saxony work programmes	German teachers	Germany – Bavaria/Saxony	1-2 weeks
CZ	Didactic internships for French teachers	French teachers	Belgium – Wallonia	3 weeks
DE	CPD courses for French language teachers in Belgium	French teachers	Belgium	1 week
DE	Work shadowing of teachers in Spain	All teachers who speak Spanish	Spain	2 to 3 weeks
DE	Schools: Partners for the Future	German language teachers from abroad	Germany	3 weeks
DK, EE, LV, FI, SE, IS, NO	Sub-programmes Nordplus Junior	All teachers	Nordic and Baltic countries	From 5 working days up to 1 year

	Name	Target population	Destination countries	Duration of mobility
IE	French/Irish Professional Teacher visit	French teachers	France	1-2 weeks
IE	German teacher exchange scheme	German teachers	Germany	1 semester
ES	Professional visit	All teachers	14 European countries ⁽¹⁾	2 weeks
FR	CIEP professional stays	Foreign language teachers	7 European countries ⁽²⁾	1-2 weeks
FR	Jules Verne program	All teachers	No predetermined list	1-3 years
FR	Stages de perfectionnement linguistique, pédagogique et culturel	All teachers	9 European countries	2 weeks
FR	Codofil	All teachers	USA	1 year
HR	Bilateral cooperation	French, German and history teachers	France, Germany, Israel	(:)
AT	Language Assistance Programme	All teachers	12 countries ⁽³⁾	6-8 months
AT	Visiting Programme for Austrian Teachers to France and Spain	French and Spanish teachers	France, Spain	1-2 weeks
AT	Visiting Programme for Austrian teachers at Austrian Schools abroad	All teachers		1-2 weeks
AT	Visiting Programme for Austrian Teachers at Bilingual Schools	German teachers		1-2 weeks
FI	Pohjola-Norden grants for teacher-exchange and courses in Nordic countries	All teachers	Nordic countries	1-2 weeks
SE	Atlas conference	All teachers	All countries	(:)
UK	Connecting Classrooms	All teachers	more than 30 participating countries overseas	Around a week
UK	Fulbright Distinguished Awards in Teaching Programme for International Teachers	All teachers	United States	A semester
NO	TROLL Scholarships	French teachers	France	2-21 days

⁽¹⁾ Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Switzerland and Norway.

⁽²⁾ Germany, Ireland, Spain, Italy, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

⁽³⁾ The Language Assistance Programme currently exists between Austria and Belgium, Croatia, France, Hungary, Italy, Spain, Ireland, the United Kingdom, Russia, Slovenia and Switzerland.

Annex II: Statistical tables

[Open the Excel file](#)

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Teachers in Europe

Careers, Development and Well-being

This report analyses key aspects of the professional life of lower secondary teachers (ISCED 2) across Europe. It is based on qualitative Eurydice data from national policies and legislation, and quantitative data from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) on practices and perceptions of teachers and school heads.

Connecting these two data sources, the analysis aims to illustrate how national policies and regulations may contribute to making the teaching profession more attractive. It examines ways teachers receive their initial education, and policies that may influence the take up of continuing professional development. Among other issues, the report investigates working conditions, career prospects and teachers' well-being at work. It also explores to what extent teacher evaluation is used to provide formative feedback, and ways to encourage teachers to travel abroad for learning and working. The challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic, with the shift to distance teaching and learning, are briefly addressed.

The report covers all 27 EU Member States, as well as the United Kingdom, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Norway, Serbia and Turkey. The reference years are 2018-2020.

The Eurydice network's task is to understand and explain how Europe's different education systems are organised and how they work. The network provides evidence-based information and descriptions of national education systems, comparative studies devoted to specific topics, indicators and statistics. All Eurydice publications are available free of charge on the Eurydice website or in print upon request. Through its work, Eurydice aims to promote understanding, cooperation, trust and mobility at European and international levels. The network consists of national units located in European countries and is coordinated by the EU Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency. For more information about Eurydice, see <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/>

