Teachers in Europe
Careers, Development and Well-being

Eurydice Report


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Teachers in Europe

Careers, Development and Well-being

Eurydice Report
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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

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### 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

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<td>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</td>
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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

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(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.

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](image)

**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 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).

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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).

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

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).

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.

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(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.


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


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.

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(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.
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).


(24)
Chapter 1: The Attractiveness of the Teaching Profession

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

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<th>MT</th>
<th>HR</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>TR</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>NL</th>
<th>BG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent employment</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>90.9</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed-term contract (more than 1 school year)</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed-term contract (1 school year or less)</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 %).

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>EU</th>
<th>BE fr</th>
<th>BE nl</th>
<th>BG</th>
<th>CZ</th>
<th>DK</th>
<th>EE</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>FR</th>
<th>HR</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>CY</th>
<th>LV</th>
<th>LT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 35 years</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 35 and 49</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 or above</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 35 years</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 35 and 49</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 or above</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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).

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### 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching hours</th>
<th>Planning/ preparation of lessons</th>
<th>Team work</th>
<th>Administrative work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Counselling students</td>
<td>Com. with parents/ guardians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marking/ correcting</td>
<td>14.5 %</td>
<td>3.9 %</td>
<td>2.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching hours</td>
<td>46.8 %</td>
<td>10.2 %</td>
<td>4.7 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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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**

![Bar chart showing workload components](chart_image)

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.

**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.

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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quartile</th>
<th>Teaching Time</th>
<th>Individual Planning and Marking</th>
<th>Other Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quartile 1</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quartile 2</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quartile 3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quartile 4</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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**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 (question 10 option b, category 1), 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.

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.

(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

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

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(35) Pearson correlation 0.323 and Spearman correlation 0.344.
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(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](image)

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


\(^{(42)}\) [https://www.sozialministerium.at/Services/Leichter-Lesen/Soziales/Pensionsarten/Alterspension.html](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](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.
(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

![Map showing types of career structures in European education systems](image)

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.

[Accessed 30 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 and 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

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.

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.

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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.


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

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

(57) Belgium (German-speaking Community), Czechia, Germany, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Liechtenstein and Turley.

(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.

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.
(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).
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.

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.
### 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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Career Structure</th>
<th>Conditions for Career Progression/Salary Progression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 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 (uchitel);  
2. Senior Teacher (starší uchitel);  
3. Chief Teacher (glaven uchitel); | 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 (õpetaja);  
2. Senior Teacher (vanemõpetaja);  
3. Master Teacher (meisterõpetaja); | 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 (professeur);  
2a. Teacher Trainer (professeur formateur académique)  
2b. Pedagogical Counsellor (tuteur des professeurs stagiaires); OR  
2c. Subject Coordinator (professeur coordonnateur de discipline); | 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 (učitelj);  
2. Teacher mentor (mentorn);  
3. Teacher advisor (savjetnik);  
4. Excellent teacher advisor (izvrstan savjetnik). | 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 (kathigitis);  
2. Deputy Head Teacher (boithos diefthintis);  
3. Deputy Head Teacher A’ (boithos diefthintis A’). | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
| LV      | Multi-level career structure  
1. Teacher Quality Level 1 (1. kvalitātes pakāpe);  
2. Teacher Quality Level 2 (2. kvalitātes pakāpe);  
3. Teacher Quality Level 3 (3. kvalitātes pakāpe). | Conditions for promotion:  
- teacher appraisal results |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Career levels</th>
<th>Conditions for promotion/salary progression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| LT      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
|         |               | Conditions for salary progression:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
| LU      | Single-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements |
| HU      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- holding an additional qualification level  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
| MT      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service |
| NL      | No top-level regulations | No top-level regulations |
| AT      | Single-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
| PL      | Multi-level career structure | 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 | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results |
| SI      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- fulfilling CPD requirements  
- teacher appraisal results  
- additional professional work |
| SK      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- fulfilling CPD requirements |
| FI      | Single-level career structure | Conditions for salary progression:  
- years of service |
| SE      | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- years of service  
- holding a higher or additional qualification level |
| UK-ENG/WLS | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- teacher appraisal results  
- performance against Teacher Standards |
| UK-NIR | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
- year of service  
- teacher appraisal results  
- performance against Teacher Standards |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Career levels</th>
<th>Conditions for promotion/salary progression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| UK-SCT  | Multi-level career structure | Conditions for promotion:  
  - no conditions |
| AL      | Multi-level career structure  
  1. Teacher (mësues)  
  2. Qualified Teacher (mësues i kualifikuar)  
  3. Specialist Teacher (mësues specialist)  
  4. Master Teacher (mësues mjeshtrë) | Conditions for promotion:  
  - years of service |
| BA      | Multi-level career structure  
  1. [Trainee teacher (Nastavnik pripravnik)]  
  2. Teacher (Nastavnik)  
  3. Teacher mentor (Nastavnik mentor)  
  4. Pedagogical advisor (Pedagoški savjetnik) | 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 (Nastavnik)  
  2. Teacher mentor (Nastavnik mentor)  
  3. Teacher advisor (Nastavnik sovetnik) | 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 (nastavnik pripravnik)]  
  2. Teacher (nastavnik)  
  3. Teacher mentor (nastavnik mentor)  
  4. Teacher Advisor (nastavnik savjetnik)  
  5. Senior Teacher Advisor (nastavnik viši savjetnik)  
  6. Teacher Researcher (nastavnik istraživač) | 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 (nastavnik)  
  2. Pedagogical Advisor (pedagoški savjetnik)  
  3. Independent Pedagogical Advisor (samostalni pedagoški savjetnik)  
  4. Higher Pedagogical Advisor (viši pedagoški savjetnik)  
  5. Senior Pedagogical Advisor (visoki pedagoški savjetnik) | 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 II: Statistical tables

Open the Excel file Statistical Annex

Chapter 1: The Attractiveness of the Teaching Profession

Table 1.1: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers by age groups, 2018

Table 1.2: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers on permanent employment or fixed-term contracts, 2018

Table 1.3: Proportion of lower secondary education teachers on fixed-term contracts by age groups, 2018

Table 1.4: Average working time in hours reported by full-time lower secondary education teachers on activities related to their job, 2018

Table 1.5: Mean proportion of time lower secondary education teachers report on activities related to their job, full-time teachers, 2018

Table 1.6: Difference between weekly contractual working time and average reported working time, full-time lower secondary education teachers, 2018/20

Table 1.7: Mean working hours dedicated to different tasks by quartiles, full-time lower secondary teachers, 2018

Table 1.8: Proportion of working hours dedicated to different tasks by quartiles, full-time lower secondary teachers, 2018

Table 1.9: 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

Figure 1.2
Figure 1.4
Figure 1.5
Figure 1.6
Figure 1.9
Figure 1.9
Figure 1.10
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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.

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