

EQUITY IN EDUCATION THEMATIC REVIEW

COUNTRY ANALYTICAL REPORT

SLOVENIA

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1. CONTEXT

The task of this report is somewhat greater than in most other cases, as we are dealing both with a recently independent state (established in 1991)¹ and with the fact that the entire social system, including economic computations and including the educational system have been fundamentally changed during the observed period 1980-2002, primarily in the post-Independence period.

The notion of equity, as implicitly and explicitly understood in official documents, built into the nature of all social institutions, in everyday life, also has been radically transformed. One could say that the imposed illusory nature of presumed distributive equity in the prior system has been discarded in favour of one more in line with the idea of individual liberty and private initiative being an important component of equity, possibly hierarchically superior to distributive equality. On the other hand, it would be grossly mistaken to say that prior to 1991 there was no idea of equity and equity linked to education, or that there was no connection between the idea and practice in the latter respect. A word of caution is needed, as to the workings of the prior system, which was both difficult to comprehend and impossible to implement, but not without a meritocratic idea relevant to this issue.

1.1 Historical, social, political and economic context

Slovenia is a two million inhabitant country (census 2002 figure = 1 964 036), bordering on Italy, Austria, Hungary and Croatia. Historically, it formed part of Austria (Austria-Hungary), until its dissolution after the First World War, when it became part of Yugoslavia. Slovenia is traditionally a Roman Catholic country, with a small traditional Lutheran minority, but was basically mono-confessional. Only recently has the confessional picture become a more varied one. At the critical historical point of 1990-91, it opted both for independence and democracy. Slovenia has joined the European Union in 2004.

During the Austrian period Slovenia, on the margins of the monarchy, did not attain political emancipation, but Slovenian cultural substructure evolved, along with industrialization and the development of commerce and transportation at the level of characteristic for Central Europe. In 1774, elementary education was proclaimed (though not completely achieved) universal and compulsory, secondary educational institutions began to expand and differentiate during the next century, whereas a university was not established as yet, other forms of higher education also being in the embryonic stage.

During the (1918-1991) period of Yugoslav statehood, Slovenia formed the most economically and generally developed part of that state. In economic growth Slovenia was the most developed part, though this growth was not sufficiently stimulating, owing to a lack of competition.

Nevertheless, industrial and manufacturing development continued throughout the period after the First World War. The same goes for structural changes, where industrialisation may be considered the major one, until the late XX century.

¹ The task of presenting Slovenia's status prior to this could possibly be accomplished statistically i.e. technically, as Slovenia was a political statistical unit within the former state as well.

The illiteracy rate in Slovenia was low during the entire XX century, though present during the period with a one point percent size and diminishing constantly, indicating a sound basis for development. Immediately after the First World War, the first university, the University of Ljubljana was established, the first such institution to teach in the Slovene language.

During the first Yugoslav state, Slovenia did not achieve a measure of territorial autonomy, as the state was a unitary one, the state being also burdened by irresolvable political difficulties and conflicts throughout the entire period.

During the Second World War, socialist Yugoslav state («Tito's Yugoslavia») (1945-1990) Slovenia as a territorial unit emerged. Slovenia's development during that period was a very extensive one in quantitative terms. Industrialization, urbanization and scholarization were stimulated, promoted, even imposed, consecutively deagrarization was marked. Part of these processes were of a coercive nature. The industrial sector grew steadily, though with fluctuations.

As to the qualitative aspects of modernization, it should be mentioned that the «self-governmental socialist» development did not include entrepreneurship, private initiative, nor the possibility of variety in organisational forms, which were all of a uniform, and not-economically stimulative nature. These were limiting factors, which became ever more acute with the modernization evolving.

An influx of population from the other republics, in the form of economic immigration, from the former Yugoslavia was present, particularly in the 1970 and 1980s, totalling less than one tenth of the population on independence 1991.

It may not be an overstatement, if one claimed that as to many economic and cultural indicators (literacy, scholarization, per capita income, productivity, possibly even the economic ethic), Slovenia gained independence, being structurally more similar to its western neighbours than to parts of the former state. In every way, Slovenia matured during Yugoslavia, enabling it to join the EU without much friction and difficulty, though a transitional depression in the economy in the early 90s could be noted.

1.2 Post-1991 Slovenia

The development in the post 1991 period needs to be presented in a more analytical manner.

Slovenia declared and attained independence in 1991, being established as a parliamentary republic, invoking the rule of law and welfare state. The state organisation is fundamentally in line with the traditions of European liberal democracy.

The Human Development Index may be taken as a sound indicator of departure at analyzing Slovenia's social structure and position in international social space. Since 1992 Slovenia has been positioned on the 29th rank of HDI, within the high human development group of countries, but in the lower half. It is relevant for this purpose to note that Slovenia has been positioned relatively higher as to the school enrolment coefficient, on the 23rd place. It has been improving its standing as to most of the components which enter into the HDI computation, but so have other countries. (*Human Development Report 2003*)

In Slovenia, disparities among regions are significant, the ratio in unemployment among regions being approximately 1:3 (*Human Development Report 2003*, 19), whereas the coefficient of variation amounting to 32,26 in 2001 (*Human Development Report 2003*, 19)

As to economic structure, Slovenia underwent, and in some sectors is still undergoing, a transition from a directed towards a fully market economy. Transition reforms were rather smooth and begun early,

but in some sectors slow, lagging behind the most advanced transition countries (*Human Development Report 2003*, 10), particularly as to foreign investments. Privatisation of the banking and insurance sector and lack of competitiveness may be considered the major points where Slovenia is lagging behind in the transition process, even though otherwise considered among the more prepared countries for entry into the EU (*Poročilo*, 2003, 10).

Manufacturing is still more prominent in Slovenia than in the most developed economies (*Human Development Report 2003*, 20). In 2001, the elementary sector contributed 2.7% of the national product, the secondary sector contributed 32.6%, whereas services contributed slightly more than half of the entire product – 53.2% (*Poročilo*, 2003, 23).

It can be assessed, however, that the transition process, coming at its close now, was smooth as to social consequences, in comparison to other transition countries, particularly as to social and welfare countries. Middle strata were not afflicted as hard as in most cases.

Slovenia has officially opted to become a knowledge based society (Strategy of Economic Development of Slovenia, (adopted by the National parliament in 1996). Its economic structure is considered as one »approaching economically developed countries« (*Human Development Report 2003*, 14). According to the per capita national income in 2001, Slovenia attained the position of 70% of the EU average, equalling the one of Portugal and surpassing Greece by 3 percentage points (*Human Development Report 2003*, 19). *The Human Development Report 2003* indicates that in 2001 Slovenia's per capita income in purchasing power was US \$ 17,130.

2. OPPORTUNITIES AND OUTCOMES

2.1 The educational system

At the beginning of the observed period, Slovenia was part of the former socialist »self-management« federal state of Yugoslavia, as a component federal unit. Issues of education were technically within the jurisdiction of federal units. In fact, a single educational system prevailed, one which underwent many systemic changes. Elementary schooling during the beginning of the period at study was in the form of a compulsory and definitely universal in implementation for a number of decades, eight year school, divided into two parts. It was also co-educational, as of before. Pre-elementary education (3-6) was widespread.

At the end of the seventies, Slovenia saw many discussions about the necessity of changes to the field of elementary school. At the beginning of the seventies, compulsory pre-primary school was introduced and a possibility was given by law to organise whole-day elementary school. Goals in the field of pre-school education were oriented primarily towards the increase of the number of children attending pre-school institutions. The basic goal of the introduction of pre-primary school was to improve the readiness of children to enter school. The compulsory pre-primary school was a kind of "compensation measure" for underprivileged children.

Similar was the goal of the gradual introduction of whole-day elementary school. Parents of children in towns were generally employed and consequently their children attended, in addition to the compulsory programme of elementary school, also the so-called after-school care, whereas the number of children from rural schools attending after-school care was considerably smaller. The basic goal of whole-day elementary school therefore was changing the organisation of school time, so that the compulsory attendance was prolonged and the day organisation of instruction lasted from 8 AM to 4 PM. During that time, pupils were to carry out all the activities related to the homework as well. The prolongation of the time spent in school was to provide all pupils with better opportunities for a successful acquisition of knowledge, since teachers were available for pupils for a longer period of time. Whole-day elementary school did not interfere with the structure of the curriculum in any other way. Elementary school lasted eight years and was divided in two educational cycles.

At the beginning of the 80s, the »system of occupationally guided education« was imposed at all post-elementary levels, being a major reform undertaking. This system was to have had a major and long lasting societal impact. Basically, it was to have done away with »dualism«, hierarchic division of secondary education into academic and vocational/technical, allegedly responsible for reproducing inadmissible class distinctions. Secondary education was, thus, within the "vocationally guided system" fragmented into many streams, but without an explicit basic distinction between academic and technical/vocational schooling. In this way, the traditional general academic school *gimnazija* was abolished, being replaced by various type cultural, natural-science, mathematically et simile guided streams, all allegedly of equal rank. The system also contained a special mode of financing, where schools were to link directly with prospective employer organizations within institutions called »self-management communities of vocationally guided education«. The financing was to have been agreed upon without state arbitration and imposition, so as educational institutions to carry out programmes directly needed by the economy, which did not prove feasible. In spite of its, in many ways, utopistic and illusionistic nature, »vocationally guided education« was equity sensitive, in fact equity was its normative

pillar, as it set doing away with class distinctions, but by doing away with general academic secondary education was later assessed as completely erroneous.

The law did away with the traditional division between general-education secondary schools (*gimnazije*) and vocational and technical secondary schools. The main goal of the reform was to strengthen the connection between secondary education and the sphere of work, i.e. the economy. Secondary education programmes were based on the needs defined by economists. The reform was supposed to reduce the drop-out rate and, above all, diminish the possibility to finish secondary education without professional qualifications. The introduction of common – core – curriculum (common educational basis) into all programmes was to increase both vertical and horizontal transitions between programmes.

The reform also brought about many organisational changes. So-called educational centres were established, where several different programmes were carried out. That was supposed to increase the accessibility of education.

Numerous critiques were heard at the very beginning of the introduction of vocationally oriented education. The *gimnazija* as a general-education school was abolished. Completing any programme, the pupil received a formal professional qualification; however, there were many formally acquired occupations which did not have their counterparts in jobs in practice. That was especially the case with the programmes substituting for the abolished *gimnazije* (e.g., the natural science-mathematics technician). There was another difficulty with general secondary education: instead of increased horizontal transitions, the former *gimnazija* pupils chose primarily two programmes – the natural science and the social science programmes. The vertical transition was possible only within the same branch of higher education studies, e.g. the natural science-mathematics technician – natural science studies.

Instead of better horizontal transition, the introduction of the common core curriculum in all programmes caused a very high drop-out rate. The common core curriculum was too demanding for short-term and secondary vocational programmes and was not connected to the practical part of the curriculum. The changed ratio between practice and the core curriculum led to insufficient practical qualifications for the occupation. On the other hand, the core curriculum was not exhaustive enough for those who wished to continue their studies at the tertiary level.

The current state of **education and educational system** will be depicted in greater detail. Slovenia has a rather complex structure of all levels of education, from the pre-school to post-graduate levels. Higher education still contains a specific model of grades and degrees, which are now being channelled into the Bologna model.

The guiding statement on educational policy in Slovenia is the »White Paper on Education in Slovenia« presented in 1995 by the then Ministry of Education as its basic long term policy statement. Pursuing from findings on the pluralist nature of modern culture, worldviews and educational philosophies and models, it sets no school model as superior. The principles it affirms are of a very general nature: universal right to education, pay-free basic education; full development of personality and honouring of human rights as directing education; parents' right to choose type of education for children. As to our topic more closely, it states that »Equal chances are to be supplemented by the requirement for quality and in depth education, linked to a differentiated offer at all levels, enabling the affirmation of the right to varied educational paths and contents«. (www.mszs.si/slo/ministrstvo/publikacije/ministrstvo/bela). Thus, equality of chances is also mentioned as a target, but linked to others, whereas equality in results is, of course, incompatible in such a context.

According to the official Ministry of Education, Science and Sport presentation, (Gaber <rep.>, 2003) the Slovenian education system can be comprehended as consisting of:

1. pre-school education,
2. elementary education (single structure of elementary and lower secondary education),
3. (upper) secondary education:
 - vocational and technical education,
 - secondary general education,
4. post-secondary vocational education,
5. higher education:
 - undergraduate academic and professional education,
 - post-graduate education:
 - specialisation (*specializacija*) and master's studies (*magisterij*),
 - doctoral studies (*doktorat*)

This hierarchic framework is supplemented by:

6. adult education
7. music and dance education
8. special needs education
9. modified programmes and programmes in ethnically and linguistically mixed areas

Pre-school education, offered by pre-school institutions, is not compulsory. It includes children between the ages of 1 and 6. The curriculum is divided in two cycles (from 1 to 3 and from 3 to 6). The new curriculum promotes different types of programme such as: day, half-day and short programmes. There is also possibility of childminders, pre-school education at home or occasional care of children in their homes. *The Curriculum for Pre-school Institutions* was approved by Council of Experts and it defines six areas of activities: movement, language, art, nature, society and mathematics. The goals set in individual fields of activities provide the framework for selection of contents and activities by teachers.

Private pre-school institutions, founded in addition to public ones, allow parents a greater choice of forms and methods of work and educational contents for their children. The *Pre-school Institutions Act* guarantees parents the right to choose a programme in a public or private pre-school institution. If children are ill and cannot go to the pre-school institution, education can be provided at their home.

Children with special needs have a choice of programmes to guarantee their optimal development. The stress is placed on mainstreaming, provided that pre-school institutions can guarantee proper conditions for it.

Elementary (basic, primary) education has been extended from eight years to nine. This has been done gradually. The implementation of the nine-year basic education began in the 1999/2000 school year. Children that reach the age of 6 in a particular calendar year enter the first class in that year. A tenth year of education has been planned for pupils who fail or who wish to improve their results in the external knowledge assessment.

Nine-year basic education is divided into 3 three-year cycles. Elementary schools provide the compulsory and extended curriculum. The compulsory curriculum must be provided by school and studied

by all pupils. It consists of compulsory subjects, electives, home-room periods and activity days (culture, science, sports, technology). The optional elementary school curriculum must be provided by the school, but pupils are free to decide whether they will participate in it or not. It includes educational assistance for children with special needs, remedial classes, additional classes, after-school care and other forms of care for pupils, interest activities and out-of-school classes.

Successful completion of basic education enables pupils to proceed to education of their choice of secondary school. Pupils who fulfil the legal compulsory education requirement and successfully complete at least six classes in the eight-year elementary school or at least seven classes in the nine-year elementary school may continue their education in a short-term vocational education programme. Success at that level opens doors to other more demanding secondary school programmes.

Under the *Organisation and Financing of Education Act*, the minister sets specific standards and criteria for education in disadvantaged areas, in nationally mixed areas, for Romany children, and children and youth with special needs. In all the above cases, standards have been adapted to meet the specific requirements.

The weekly teaching load, expressed in periods of 45 minutes, is 21 periods for the Slovenian language teachers, the Italian language teachers in schools where Italian is the language of instruction, and the Slovenian and Hungarian language teachers in bilingual schools.

The minimum number of pupils for the formation of bilingual elementary school classes is 21.

Secondary education follows the compulsory general education. Secondary schools include vocational and technical schools preparing students predominantly for labour and general secondary schools (*gimnazije*) preparing students predominantly for further studies. Programmes in secondary education vary in content, duration and goals.

General academic secondary school preparing students for further studies is called *gimnazija*. *Gimnazija* programmes are divided into two groups: general and professionally oriented (technical *gimnazija*). It lasts four years. It ends with an external state administered examination called the *matura* examination. Those *gimnazija* students who for various reasons do not wish to continue their education have a possibility to enter the labour market by attending a vocational course and gaining a qualification in the selected occupation.

The aim of vocational courses is to provide a bridge between general and vocational education and to make it possible for graduates from general, classical, and technical *gimnazije* to obtain initial vocational qualifications at the level of corresponding secondary vocational and technical schools. Educational aims are the same as for vocational and technical education. The educational process leads to a vocational qualification needed on the labour market or for further studies at post-secondary vocational and professional colleges.

The planning, programming and provision of *vocational and technical secondary education* are a joint responsibility of social partners (employers and trade unions) and the state. Common aims and goals of secondary vocational and technical education were defined in a common curricular document. This document stresses attainment targets in interdisciplinary fields and interest activities.

Short-term vocational programmes should last a year and a half for students and apprentices that have completed their basic education, and two and a half years for those without completed basic education and finish with a final examination. The certificate of the final examination enables students to enter the labour market or to enter the first year at any other (upper) secondary vocational school.

Pupils who have successfully completed elementary school can enrol in 3-year *secondary vocational programmes*. Vocational education programmes are offered dually, as apprenticeship and/or in the school-based system.

The core curriculum is common to all programmes and includes a minimal scope of theoretical and practical knowledge and skills specified by occupational standards and required for a certain vocational qualification, regardless of the type of educational provision. This core consists of:

- academic and occupation-specific subjects (theoretical instruction), their attainment target syllabi being based on common core contents,
- practical training components based on standards assuming that examination syllabi are the same for the school-based and apprenticeship systems,
- interest activities.

Practical training in the framework of the dual system is offered by employers. Programmes also specify the part of practical training that can be provided by schools and/or inter-company centres as practical instruction.

The certificate of the final examination enables students to enter the labour market or to continue education in two-year *vocational-technical* programmes. Vocational-technical programmes are developed as upgrade of vocational education. The aims of vocational-technical programmes are the same as those of technical education programmes and lead to educational qualifications at the level of secondary technical school, also called a technical qualification, in a specific field.

On the other hand, graduates who find a job immediately after completing a three-year vocational programme can re-enter education after at least three years of employment to obtain a qualification at the level of a secondary technical school by passing examinations. By passing an examination for *master craftsman, foreman or shop manager*, they demonstrate a higher level of competence in their occupation. If they additionally pass examinations in the general subjects of the vocational external final examination (*poklicna matura*), they can continue their studies in post-secondary vocational education.

Technical education is designed primarily as preparation for vocational and professional colleges, although it also leads to jobs with a broad profile. Secondary technical programmes last four years, which end with the *poklicna matura*.

Post-secondary vocational education is a new feature in the system. First vocational colleges were established in 1996/97. Programmes are markedly practice-oriented and tightly connected with the world of work. Post-secondary vocational education lasts for two years ending with a *diploma* examination. A post-secondary vocational *diploma* enables students to start work in specific occupations. Since the 1998/99 academic year, vocational college graduates have been able to enrol in the second year of professionally oriented higher education programmes if the higher education institution providing this type of study allows such arrangements.

Higher education includes academic university studies and professionally oriented studies. The former are to prepare students for highly demanding professions and for more advanced academic studies and research, while the latter are mainly to prepare them for highly demanding professions. Faculties and art academies, which are members of universities, and single faculties established as private institutions offer both types of programmes, while professional colleges provide only professionally oriented programmes. Study is organised at two levels. At the undergraduate level, students obtain a *diploma* as the

first of the degree titles. At the post-graduate level, students are awarded either a second degree title, the title of *specialist*, or the academic title of either *magister znanosti* (*magister umetnosti* in artistic fields) - the title is comparable to a master's degree - or *doktor znanosti* (comparable to a PhD).

The choice of a higher education study programme is regulated by law and statutes of higher education institutions. In principle, all those meeting the admission requirements for a higher education programme have the right to enrol in such a programme. Actually, the number of students admitted is restricted due to the limited number of places available in specific study programmes. State higher education institutions and private higher education institutions with a concession must obtain the Government's approval for the number of study places for first-year students.

In compliance with current standards for the funding of higher education (Official Gazette RS 39/92), study programmes receive public funds if at least 30 students are enrolled in the programme. If fewer students are enrolled, the programme of study may only be organised in exceptional cases upon the Government's approval. So far only the programmes of national significance have been granted such an approval. The approval has been granted to all three art academies and one faculty of the University of Ljubljana for 15 programmes of study (e.g. dramatic performance, dramaturgy, music, musicology) and one faculty of the University of Maribor for one study programme (Hungarian).

In all other cases, smaller groups (with 10 students and less) are only possible in certain subjects, in particular when smaller study groups are required for work safety reasons and in elective courses in the last years of study.

Adult education (continuing education) is characterised by impressive programme diversity. Schools and higher education institutions, basically providing youth education, also offer formal education courses for adults, adapting the organisation and programmes to the needs of adult learners.

Non-formal education programmes are designed for various target groups, for example, employed people seeking to improve their employment opportunities or gain promotion, individuals wishing to enhance the quality of their lives, individuals pursuing a hobby, the unemployed, marginal groups, ethnic groups, and foreigners. Access to most non-formal education courses is unrestricted.

A new act introducing a certification system was passed in 2000. It enables the assessment and verification of vocation-related knowledge, skills and experiences acquired out of school. It thus makes it possible for individuals to obtain a vocational qualification in ways other than through formal schooling. Candidates undergo a knowledge assessment procedure with a special commission to obtain a state-approved certificate (called *certifikat* in Slovenian) attesting their competence in performing certain vocational tasks. Vocational qualifications obtained in this way can be used by their holders to find a job or, in further training, demonstrating that part of an education programme has already been mastered.

One finds institutions and other possibilities for education intended for adults, drops outs and others, including vocational guidance. These do not constitute a rigid system, though they are varied and differentiated. At dropping out, it is intended that talks between the pupil, parents and vocational guidance experts at the Republic Institute for Employment are carried out, leading to a reintegration into the system of learning. There are programmes for younger unemployed persons with low education, there are possibilities of attainment of education in a part time capacity. Numerous programmes to this end have been launched (Programme 5000, Public Works, Uncovering vocational objective, informal motivational programmes <PUM>, information dissemination outlets and channels, subsidies to employers, »production school« for special needs youths, all mainly sponsored by the Republic Institute for Employment and the Ministry for Education, Science and Sport). The role of general adult education institutions called Popular Universities (*Ljudske Univerze*) should be mentioned. These institutions, having

origin in an earlier period, conduct education for publicly recognized degrees and certificates, improvement of vocational skills and knowledge, as well as education for personal advancement. Curricula for elementary education and for secondary education have been implemented during the 90s there, significantly contributing to educational advancement of the population. (Može, 2002)

2.1.1 Special areas of attention

* The new legislation in the field of **education of children with special needs** was adopted in 2000. According to the new legislation, inclusion is the basic principle of education of children with special needs. Since 2001, different programmes have been developed together with compensation programmes for pupils to help them achieve standards of knowledge. In parallel with this, a process of reorganisation and reconceptualisation of institutions for children with special needs has been started.

* Education in areas where Slovenian nationals live together with the members of the Italian or Hungarian minorities and which are classified as **ethnically and linguistically mixed areas**, is part of the uniform education system in the Republic of Slovenia. It is therefore upgraded and modified at the same time as the rest of the school system.

Education in pre-school institutions and schools in ethnically and linguistically mixed areas is provided in accordance with the *Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia*, educational legislation, and the law regulating special educational rights of the Italian and the Hungarian ethnic minorities.

In the ethnically and linguistically mixed area of Prekmurje, bilingual pre-school institutions, elementary schools, and a secondary school with Slovenian and Hungarian as the language of instruction are attended by the children from this area. Classes are mixed and the languages of instruction are Slovenian and Hungarian. In addition to their mother tongue, children learn each other's language and the history and culture of both nations.

In the ethnically and linguistically mixed area of Slovenian Istria, pre-school institutions, elementary schools, and secondary schools offer Slovenian or Italian as the languages of instruction. Pupils in schools where the language of instruction is Slovenian must learn Italian as the second language and children in schools with Italian as the language of instruction must learn Slovenian as the second language. They also learn about the history, culture, and natural heritage of both nations.

The organisation and the education programmes for pre-school institutions and schools in ethnically mixed areas have been adapted in the following fields: educational aims, timetables, syllabi, attainment target and examination syllabi, admission requirements, and programme implementation guidelines.

Special measures are undertaken to integrate Roma children into the educational system. Additional funding is approved, the establishment of elementary school units for them is more favourable, special funding is approved for school excursions, a Roma language linguistic textbook has been provided, higher education students of Roma origin are all state financed as to scholarship, educational problems of Romanies are subject of special expert attention. In spite of this, Roma educational attainment is still lagging behind.

Other ethnic groups are also provided in certain cases with instruction in maternal language, though this is yet to be achieved in a systematic way.

* The new *Music School Act* (2000) reformed **basic music and dance education** offered by state and private music schools. Music schools offer education for pre-school children, elementary school pupils, secondary school students, apprentices, college students and adults. Most often, music and dance education

is given in parallel to compulsory basic education. Having completed elementary and music schools, pupils can follow the same model at the secondary school level or opt for art *gimnazija*. The curriculum is fully compatible with European guidelines. Also available is music and dance preparatory school.

* Modern information and communication technologies require efficient information management. The **Computer Literacy Project** (Ro Project), instituted in 1994 by the *School Tolar Act*, raised the level of computerisation of Slovenian schools. This was a significant contribution to more efficient, modern, creative and friendly educational institutions.

Three areas of activity were identified within this project with the following principal goals:

1. Education:

- to train teachers and students in using modern information and communication technologies and thus raise the quality of teaching and learning.

2. Computerisation of schools:

- to computerise the educational contents and work methods, set up computer networks at schools, unify the software, provide adequate software and hardware and provide appropriate organisational structure for the computerisation of schools.

3. Research and development:

- to provide the possibility for research and development in the field of the introduction of new information technologies into education.

Foreign language learning as a compulsory subject begins in the fifth grade of the eight-year elementary school at the age of 11, or in the fourth grade of the nine-year elementary school at the age of 9. The foreign language remains a compulsory subject until the completion of the secondary general education (*gimnazije*) at 18/19 years of age. For students in *gimnazije* two foreign languages are compulsory.

* Pupils may choose a foreign language as an elective as early as the first grade of elementary school at the age of 7 or 6, provided that it is offered by the school (as an extra-curricular activity or an optional subject). The project “Foreign Language at the First Stage of Basic Education”, introduced in the school year 1990/91, has already spread the practice of early foreign language teaching. The new project “Teaching French in Elementary School”, introduced in the 1995/96 school year, enhanced the choice of foreign language learning. The possibilities for learning a foreign language as an optional subject increase with the age of the pupil. Students in *gimnazije* programmes can choose a third or even a fourth foreign language as an elective.

The new programme of the last cycle of the nine-year elementary school has introduced electives, among which also a foreign language. In grade 7, at the age of 12, pupils will have the option of choosing a second foreign language. The introduction of a second foreign language as an elective in elementary school in the school year 1998/99 is the basis of the project entitled “Second Foreign Language in Elementary School”.

In 1998, the project “Early Foreign Language Learning in Pre-school Institutions” for children from 3 to 6 was instituted. About a third of pre-school institutions provide foreign language teaching, mostly English, followed by German, as well as Italian and French. Most often, foreign language teaching requires one period per week or half a period to one period twice a week.

For many years Slovenia has been taking part in most international linguistic projects proposed by the Council of Europe. The projects have facilitated the evaluation of Slovenian knowledge and experience in this specific field through internationally comparable procedures.

The findings and recommendations provided in the basic international documents relating to languages, such as the *Threshold Level*, *Common European Framework of Reference*, and the *European Language Portfolio*, have already been partially included in the reformed curricula whilst preserving the specifics of Slovenian language education development.

* At the end of the nineties a conceptual document for work with **gifted pupils** was adopted. The expression "discovery of gifted and talented pupils" is used to describe the entire process of recording and identifying gifted and talented pupils and obtaining parental opinion.

The concept of discovery and work with gifted and talented pupils is based on the modern concept of giftedness. Work with gifted and talented children is supposed to begin as early as possible, at first as internal differentiation in school and subsequently as internal and flexible differentiation, and, at the end of compulsory schooling, also as partial external differentiation.

Teachers, school counsellors, and parents are all involved in the discovery of gifted and talented pupils. If necessary, schools interconnect and also invite experts from other institutions. The discovery is, as a rule, carried out at each educational stage of compulsory schooling and is different for each stage. This should make sure that all gifted and talented pupils have an equal opportunity to be discovered.

In addition to timely discovery of gifted and talented pupils and organisation of different forms of work with them, the concept also involves an ongoing and comprehensive monitoring of the gifted and talented, in all personality traits.

Work with gifted and talented children is based on the following fundamental principles:

- broadening and deepening of the basic knowledge,
- accelerated progress through the learning process,
- development of creativity,
- use of higher forms of learning,
- use of learning through co-operation,
- taking into account special abilities and strong interests,
- taking into account individuality,
- enhancing self-reliance and responsibility,
- concern for a comprehensive personality development,
- variety of provisions and freedom of choice for pupils,
- introduction of mentoring relationship between pupils and teachers and other programme providers,
- taking care that gifted and talented pupils gain peer acceptance,
- providing the possibility for socialising with regard to their special needs and interests.

Care of gifted and talented pupils is part of the annual work programme and included in the mission of every school. The school administration is in charge of implementing the concept.

* **Physical education** in schools exerts a systematic, professional and integrated influence on young generations, shapes their attitude towards sports and promotes a healthy lifestyle. Whilst providing respect for the individual, sports in schools also provide an opportunity for socialising, help individuals to find their place in the society, enhance respect for social norms and protect the young from various forms of addiction.

In lower grades of elementary school, three periods per week are allocated to physical education, while in the last three grades the number is reduced to two, supplemented by electives. In addition to that, at least one block module of out-of-school sports activities is offered during compulsory schooling, while five sports days are provided in each grade. Almost all secondary programmes other than short-term vocational programmes offer three periods of physical education per week.

In 1998 and 1999, new curricula for physical education were adopted for all types of school. They are explicitly target-oriented and provide an integrated approach to school sports. They provide for a variety of contents and organisational forms to be selected by individual schools, such as sports days, out-of-school modules, many extra-curricular activities, school sports competitions, and additional programmes. Many important aims of physical education and the related sports may only be implemented thanks to these specific organisational forms.

Physical education aims to achieve a significant and diverse knowledge of sports and relevant theoretical information, the development of motor and functional motor skills, emphasising, in particular, the formation of personal attitudes and values.

The subject matter of the basic programme includes the natural forms of motion and the basic elements of the following sports: athletics, gymnastics and dance, ball games, swimming, and trekking. The expansion of the programme in the last three-year cycle of elementary school and in secondary school facilitates the knowledge of various other sports, such as tennis, table tennis, martial arts, cycling, skating, roller skating, aerobics, and other sports available to the youth in their free time.

In addition to regular classes and compulsory sports days, schools are required by law to provide an optional programme which, however, pupils and students join on a voluntary basis (extra-curricular sports activities, out-of-school classes, programmes for pupils with special needs). In addition to that, they may provide yet another optional programme; the pupils participate in the activities on a voluntary basis (many additional programmes, school sports competitions, and non-competitive events). All these programmes and their goals complement the aim of regular instruction to provide children and youth with at least one hour of sports daily whilst at the same time facilitating the choice of sports according to the child's preferences. In particular in the first three-year cycle, sports contents intertwine with the contents of the programmes of morning care and after-school classes.

* As to **extra-curricular educational provision**, in Slovenia out-of-school classes were introduced in 1963. The *Elementary School Act* of 1996 was a milestone in the development of this concept. According to this Act, out-of-school classes became a component of the extended elementary school curriculum. They have been defined as a didactic system – a form of educational provision that, thanks to its special organisation, enables the achievement of certain goals, execution of activities and delivery of contents of individual syllabi which are difficult to carry out in regular classes.

The *Elementary School Act* requires schools to offer out-of-school classes to pupils at least twice during their compulsory education. Children attend on voluntary basis. With this Act, out-of-school classes

became a compulsory part of the annual work plan of all schools and one of the quality indicators in education.

At first only swimming and skiing were taught. With out-of-school classes becoming part of the extended elementary school programme, a wider spectrum of goals and contents, related to various fields of education (culture, science, sports, engineering), can be realised. In agreement with parents, each elementary school designs its own model of out-of-school classes taking into account pupils' needs. The model depends on the goals, contents, time, and place of provision. In designing the model, schools take into account all pupils' financial positions and other circumstances.

Out-of-school classes can be offered more than twice provided that the requirements stated below are met.

- Because out-of-school classes are provided within the scope of periods earmarked for the regular programme, they must include objectives contained in syllabi.
- Any such classes beyond the mandatory provision are financed in full by the participants themselves. Schools have to make sure that also socially disadvantaged pupils can participate.
- Because out-of-school classes are provided within the scope of the periods earmarked for the regular programme and because objectives from syllabi must be attained, schools are required to concurrently provide a comparable programme with the same objectives for pupils not taking part in out-of-school classes.
- Normally all parents must agree to sending their children to out-of-school classes.
- All teams of subject teachers must agree with the organisation of additional out-of-school classes.

Within the extended programme (not compulsory for pupils) schools provide the following organisational forms to meet the needs of pupils and their parents:

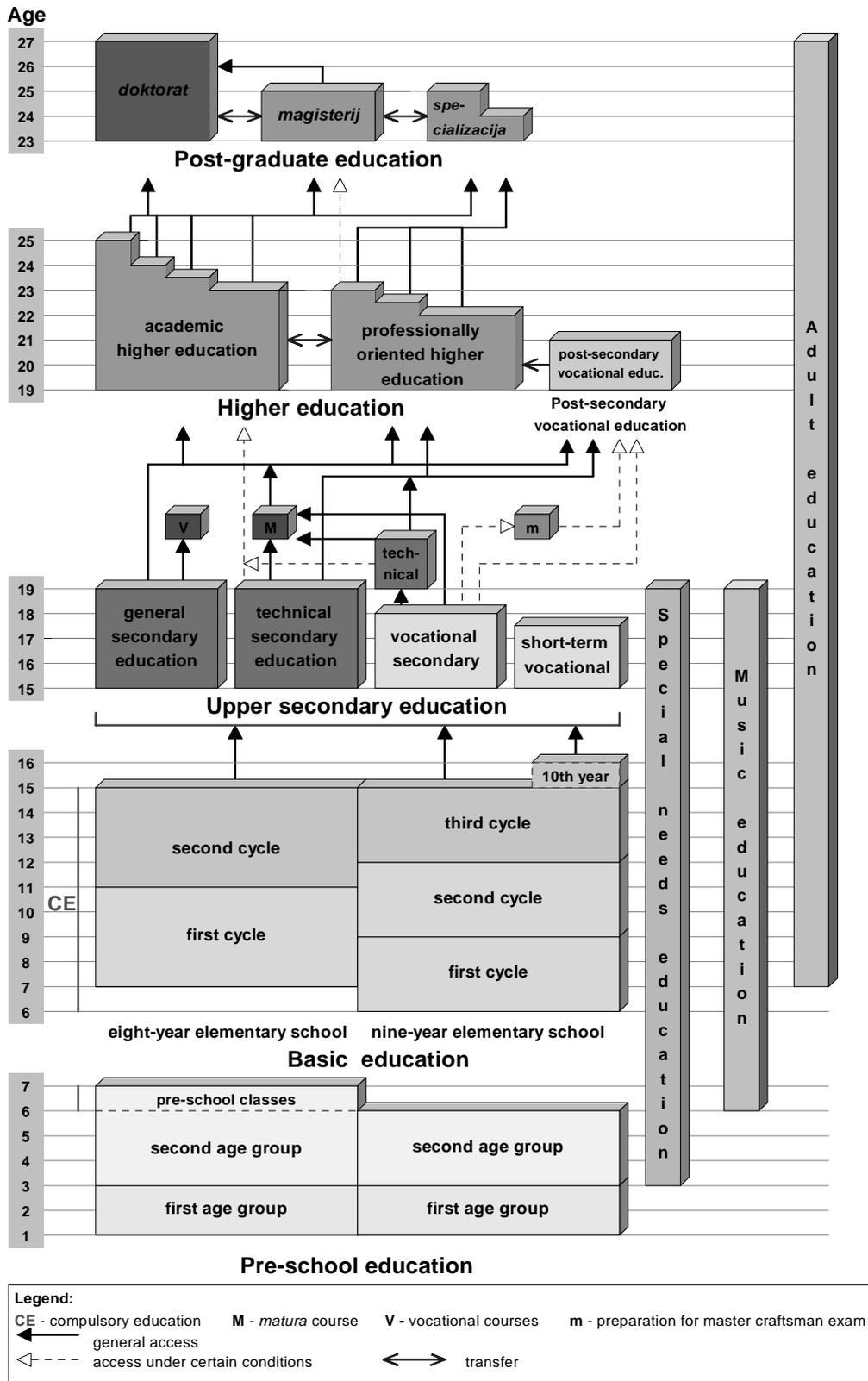
- after-school classes,
- morning care,
- care of commuters, and
- care of pupils waiting for classes to resume.

* Counselling service is provided in Slovenian public pre-school institutions, schools at all educational levels (elementary schools, *gimnazije*, vocational, and technical schools), dormitories, and in facilities offering educational provision to children and youth with special needs. In accordance with educational legislation (1996), counselling is carried out by staff including psychologists, educationalists, social workers, social educationalists and special education teachers.

In accordance with the implementing regulations (1997), a pre-school institution with 30 classes employs or otherwise ensures the services of one counsellor. The counsellors from several pre-school institutions form a counselling team in a specific area where the total number of pre-school classes is between 60 and 70. The counselling team is composed of counsellors of diverse professional background. An elementary school with 20 classes employs one counsellor, schools with a greater and/or smaller number of classes employ a corresponding number of counsellors. The same is the case with *gimnazije*, vocational, and technical schools. In accordance with the new educational legislation, counsellors are employed also by dormitories, namely one counsellor for a dormitory with 20 or more educational groups. One counsellor is employed by every elementary school providing a modified programme for children with

special needs in at least 10 classes, while at least two counsellors work in the special institutions for children with special needs.

The structure of the education system in Slovenia



In the area of **educational governance and management**, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport is responsible for the implementation of the educational policy. Its prime responsibility is to draft and implement educational legislation. It has the authority to decide on administrative matters related to pre-school education, basic education, secondary general, technical and vocational education, post-secondary vocational education, higher education, education of children with special needs, music education, adult education, education of the Italian and Hungarian ethnic minorities in Slovenia, education of Romanies, education of the Slovenian ethnic minority in Italy, Austria and Hungary, supplementary Slovenian language and culture courses for Slovenian nationals abroad, and supplementary courses for Slovenian citizens with other ethnic backgrounds in their respective languages and cultures.

Development and consulting in education is provided by the National Education Institute, the Institute for Vocational Education and Training, and the Slovenian Adult Education Centre. External examinations for learners at all levels of education are administered by the State Examination Centre. A special Centre for Educational and Extracurricular Activities has been established to provide such activities in out-of-school settings. The sphere of sports is covered by the Slovenian Sports Institute.

Scholarships are specified in the *Employment and Unemployment Insurance Act* implemented by the Employment Service of Slovenia. Lower educational attainment than in the developed world and a growing number of socially disadvantaged individuals lacking adequate resources to gain suitable education are the key reasons for state funding of education.

The scholarship system is composed of:

- company scholarships, awarded by companies and employers to attract possible future employees;
- state scholarships for apprentices, secondary school students and university students who otherwise could not afford to remain in education although they have exhibited academic success and personality traits suiting the chosen education and vocation;
- Zois scholarships for exceptionally gifted students in order to increase the educational attainment of the most gifted youth.

The state likewise provides funds for almost a hundred of the best students from Slovenian universities and free-standing higher education institutions, awarded from the Munda Fund. Students applying to study at prominent educational institutions abroad or those foreign students obtaining top results may obtain the Ad Futura Foundation scholarships.

Scholarships awarded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport are planned and target-oriented as they are intended only for students in disciplines characterised by skills gap. (See Sub-chapter 2.2.)

Student loans are a new form of financial assistance helping students to cover the cost of education or tuition. Their purpose is to provide assistance to students who are not eligible for other forms of financial assistance and thus enable a large circle of young people to continue their studies. (See Sub-chapter 2.2.)

The state is involved in student loan schemes primarily by assuring equal conditions for all applicants, providing the legal framework for these conditions, granting concessions to the banks providing such loans, subsidising the real interest rate, and delaying the repayment of the loan until the student finds employment (but not longer than two years after the termination of the loan).

2.2 Financing education

The educational system is financed primarily from public sources. Even private institutions receive significant portions of their income from the state. State funds are administered through the Ministry for Education, Science and Sport. As to **financing of education**, we have been able only to acquire some basic aggregate data indicative of the position of education in public spending. These data relate to the period commencing 1995 and are presented in the following table:

Table 1: Participation of consolidated public finance expenditure for education, as per cent of gross national income

| | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 | 2003* |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| Education | 5.14 | 5.23 | 5.39 | 5.31 | 5.27 | 5.33 | 5.60 | 5.29 | 5.55 |
| Elementary and secondary | 3.80 | 3.92 | 3.96 | 3.96 | 3.84 | 3.88 | 4.12 | 4.06 | 4.27 |
| Tertiary education | 0.65 | 0.66 | 0.72 | 0.68 | 0.76 | 0.84 | 0.74 | 0.75 | 0.77 |
| Assistance to pupils and students | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.64 | 0.59 | 0.68 | 0.65 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.56 |

* Preliminary results.

Data prepared by the COFOG method.

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport (especially prepared computation)

These data indicate a rise in the public expenditure for education during the observed period. The rise is of a modest relative magnitude, but the GNP has also risen significantly itself. What needs to be mentioned as a matter of concern, however, is the structure of the expenditure, which seems to be inadequate, as the number of tertiary students has risen sharply in the past period (along with tertiary education institutions as a whole), whereas the number of elementary pupils has decreased, owing to demographic trends. Relative expenditure per elementary school pupil has risen, in contrast to the relative expenditure per tertiary student, which has significantly fallen in the observed period.

According to the *Human Development Report 2003*, Slovenia had, during 1995-97, distributed 5.7% of its GNP² for education, within public expenditure, which equals to 12.6% of the total government expenditure. By another report, public spending for education has been 5.6-5.8% of GNP (COFOG method of computation) in the period 1995-1998. (*Poročilo o človekovem razvoju*, 2001-2, 84).

As to levels of education, it would ensue from the second cited source pertaining to 1995-97, that 29.9% was intended for pre-elementary and elementary education, 48.4% for secondary and 16.9% for tertiary education, which could possibly be computed within some different methodology. This distribution may be considered contestive, with a view to Slovenia's option to become a knowledge based society and with a view to the rise of the number of tertiary level students in the 90s, which does not seem to have been followed by a rise in the funding. Slovenia is also lagging behind in the allotment of funds for tertiary education in comparison with more developed European countries and some countries at the same level of development (Greece – 37%, Cyprus – 35%). If we were to compare our first quoted data in Table 14 to the data from the *Human Development Report* for other countries, the picture would be much less favourable, indicating a lag of Slovenia in educational financing of an even greater magnitude.

² Which amounted, according to the same *Report*, but relating to the year of 2001, to a per capita sum of US \$ 17 130 in purchasing power parity.

Beyond this, it is unreliable to give data, as research on comparative indicators in this area is yet under way with the Institute of Pedagogics.

State subsidies which enhance the accessibility of education are institutionalised.

The Pre-school Institutions Act specifies that the basis for the tuition is the cost of the programme attended by the child. The tuition fee paid by parents is determined on the basis of a scale, ranking parents into fee classes according to the income per family member in comparison with the average salary in Slovenia. Parents receiving a welfare supplement are exempted from payment. If more than one child from the same family attends a pre-school institution, the fee for older children is reduced by one fee class.

Since 1 January 2000 parents pay not more than 80% and not less than 10% of the cost of the pre-school programme attended by their child. 80% thus represent the full parental contribution. Parents may apply for a reduction in tuition to the competent municipal body. After they are ranked according to their income, the amount of tuition is determined. Ranking is repeated on 1 January every year.

In exceptional cases the municipality may, on the basis of opinions and data of competent services (fiscal body, social service), amend the already specified ranking into a fee class.

In 2000 parents paid the tuition amounting to 32.4% of the actual costs on the average. The difference to the full cost of the programme, that is 67.6%, was provided by the municipalities, as stipulated by law.

Municipalities are required to provide funds to cover the costs of elementary school pupils' transportation and care for the commuting children living more than four kilometres from their schools.

Since 1992, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport has been reimbursing one school meal per day to socially disadvantaged pupils, students and apprentices. The basis for subsidies for school meals is provided by Article 81 of the *Organisation and Financing of Education Act*.

The funds are allocated to schools according to the following criteria: the average personal income and the unemployment rate in the municipality, whilst for secondary schools the type of school and class shifts are additionally taken into account. Funding is increased for elementary schools with modified programmes for children with special needs, institutions for children with special needs and elementary schools attended by Romany children.

Parents may apply for subsidised meals to the school attended by their child. The school counselling service determines the pupils and students entitled to subsidised meals on the basis of certain criteria, such as: family income just above the poverty line, parental unemployment, long-term social problems and diseases in the family, alcoholism in the family, single-parent families, etc.

The Ministry of Education, Science and Sport provides free school meals for those first-graders of the nine-year elementary school whose parents receive a welfare supplement in compliance with social care regulations. Free school meals are available for a certain period of time (six months at the most); parents must therefore report any change with regard to their eligibility for the welfare supplement. This type of aid is expected to continue in the future.

In 2000/2001, 22.8% of all pupils, students and apprentices were eligible for subsidised meals.

Scholarships are specified in the *Employment and Unemployment Insurance Act* implemented by the Employment Service of Slovenia. Lower educational attainment than in the developed world and a growing number of socially disadvantaged individuals lacking adequate resources to gain suitable education are the key reasons for state funding of education.

The scholarship system is based on:

1. company scholarships, awarded by companies and employers to attract possible future employees;
2. state scholarships for apprentices, secondary school students and university students who otherwise could not afford to remain in education although they have exhibited academic success and personality traits suiting the chosen education and vocation;
3. Zois scholarships (named after Baron Žiga (Sigismundus) Zois von Edelstein, Slovenian enlightener, patron, poet, critic, and translator) for exceptionally gifted students in order to increase the educational attainment of the most gifted youth.

The state likewise provides funds for almost a hundred of the best students from Slovenian universities and free-standing higher education institutions, awarded from the Munda Fund. Scholarships are also awarded from other funds in Slovenia, but their scope is limited.

Student loans are a new form of financial assistance helping students to cover the cost of education or tuition. Their purpose is to provide assistance to students who are not eligible for other forms of financial assistance (state, company, Zois scholarships) and thus enable a large circle of young people to continue their studies.

The state is involved in student loan schemes primarily by assuring equal conditions for all applicants, providing the legal framework for these conditions, granting concessions to the banks providing such loans, subsidising the real interest rate, and delaying the repayment of the loan until the student finds employment (but not longer than two years after the termination of the loan).

All citizens of the Republic of Slovenia without a job and not older than 26 at the time of their enrolment in the first year of studies (other than those who have obtained financial assistance from public or private sources at least in the amount of a one-year state scholarship, or enrolled in the education programmes for the unemployed within the framework of the Programme 5000) may apply for a student loan. The age limit for first-time applicants may be higher, depending on the year of study and the programme selected.

These scholarships are planned and target-oriented as they are intended only for students in disciplines characterised by skills gap. All state scholarships are announced in a special brochure of the Employment Service of Slovenia. The grantees sign a contract with the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport binding them to work as teachers after graduation. In order to enable graduates from non-educational programmes of study to become teachers, the Ministry finances their participation in education courses after graduation.

2.3 Dynamics of educational demography

Data on the **dynamics of the number of students at various levels** will be presented, with respect to the period commencing 1980. A significant rise in the number of secondary and tertiary students is noted (the latter in the 90s, primarily).

- As to **pre-elementary education**, its spread during the observed period is evident and marked, at both levels:
 - At the creche level (0-3 years), statistical data indicate the rise of inclusion 13.7% in 1980 to 22.0% in 2002. The level cannot be considered optimal from the viewpoint of those in need, though it may not always be the optimal form of care. This means that this form of

children's care still needs to be expanded. A slight difference, as to greater coverage of male children can be noted (See Statistical Annex, Table 1)

- At the kindergarten level, which has greater educational value, the rise in the same period has been very rapid, indicative of both the rise in the level of women's employment and of state stimulation and legal backing of the establishment and growth of such institutions and programmes which have been legally mandatory for children aged of elementary school age. The number has risen from 32.1% inclusion in 1980 to 70,2% in 1999, with a slight diminution in the later years (indicating earlier starting in elementary school) (Statistical Appendix, Table 2). Here, again, there is a slight majority of male children in the group included.
- **Elementary schooling** has been mandatory during the entire period of observation (in fact prior to that, since the end of the XVIII century), and no statistical deviations are discernible, except for Roma children. Special measures are undertaken to integrate Roma children into the elementary education (presented above).
- As to **secondary education**, certain longitudinal comparisons are suspectful, as the system, levels and duration of secondary schooling has changed over the time period observed. Of particular relevance is the »system of occupationally guided education« which was in force during the late 70s and 80s, where it is impossible to compare the general academic and the vocational secondary education. With this reservation, one may underscore that the shares of all enrolled pupils³ into secondary education (including older than 18) compared to cohort 15-18 has risen from 75% in 1980 to almost nine tenths of the generational cohort (See Statistical Annex, Table 4). It seems, however that the rate of attendance is still somewhat higher among girls, a phenomenon which was consistent through the observed period. When we observe, further, inclusion of youth by types of education, making a large division into academic (gimnazija) and vocational, it may be observed that the share of those included into academic secondary education indicates a steady rise from 1980 (16%) to 35% in 2001 (with the mentioned reservation). Girls have always predominated in this type of education, markedly today, as well.
- In **vocational secondary education**, it is discernible that this type of education was dominant throughout the period, with fluctuations in the inclusion also discernible⁴. The absolute number of attending has been diminishing in all streams of secondary education, owing to demographic trends.
- As to direct **continuation to tertiary level**, there are some imperfect data (Statistical Annex, Table 21), indicating a steep rise from 39% in 1980, reaching 76% in 2002, which is to have directly continued tertiary education after having finished secondary in the same year (2002). The number includes only those enrolled in a full time capacity (*redni študenti*), and as such seems to be suspectful as for validity, but nevertheless a good approximation of the trend.
- As to the **number of tertiary level students**, one has to bear in mind the relevance of the distinction between full time (*redni študenti*) and part time students (*izredni študenti*), which has a special relevance in the Slovene context. Part time study has become a major channel of study, catering not only those employed, but also those who do not succeed to enrol with public financing

³ Taking into consideration enrolment at the beginning of the academic year.

⁴ The data for 1985 and 1990 should not be taken into consideration, as they include academic education, as well

into regular status. The position of part time students has been improved, by way of governmental action, extending some student privileges and benefits to them as well. Part time students make up 28% of the entire undergraduate full cycle student body⁵. Part time student status is not recognized in some vocational colleges (*višje strokovne šole*), but it is in full cycle studies, where they make an even greater portion in studies in social sciences (*Statistične Informacije 319/2003*). Further, one should bear in mind the types and tracks of tertiary studies. Presently, there are short cycle 2 year studies (*višja izobrazba*) and two streams of long cycle (academic, *univerzitetni študij*, lasting 4-5 years) and professional (*strokovni študij*, lasting 3 years). The full name of the age cohort 19-23 enrolled into any form of higher education as a student has risen to more than two fifths of the group (see Tables 8 and 9).

- **Adult education** takes a number of forms, with »popular universities« as the main institutional route, i.e. institution carrying out this activity, in a licenced manner, along with others. The data beginning with 1998, indicating a significantly larger number, approaching 18% in 2001 (*Human Development Report* data) should be trusted more, as they encompass more types of continued education. According to the Population census of 2002, 731 641 persons took part in some form of organized education for adults. They did so in 447 693 instances of adult education, the majority (224 979) doing so for job purposes, a somewhat smaller number for personal growth (186 155), while a small fraction (36 559) indicated both objectives. The structure of participants indicates that those already educated make use of these possibilities more often, thus indicating a reproduction of social disparities in this area, as well, though some forms of educational compensation must be included also, as this embraces almost one half of the adult population. Data indicate a slightly larger participation of males in these programmes, which may be in response to their higher drop out rate in secondary education. Structural data, further, indicate that these programmes benefit more the younger adult population and that with age taking part in them diminishes. As to stratificational aspects, though, data indicate that those with higher education make greater use of this resource. Thus, according to our Census 2002 source, adults with higher education, who make up 11.3% of all adults, made up at the same time 14.0% of all those taking part in such forms of education. 19.3% of the aged 15 and more were taking part in **further education**. 82% of them took part in one such activity, 13% in two, while 5% were taking advantage of three or more such instructional activities. The greatest number was the unemployed seeking knowledge for employment, 12% of the unemployed being educated in this manner. The largest number of those taking part was in age brackets 25–34, 35–44 and 45–54 let. Among those elder, this activity diminishes sharply. Two thirds of those taking part had employment needs in mind, whereas one third had personal development as the major objective.

Of course, a more detailed analysis would be needed in order to assess whether this indicates cultural reproduction, or those with varied types of education avail themselves of adequate types of lifelong education and possibly, those lacking vocational educational titles are the ones who benefit the most. (www.stat.si/popis2002/si/rezultati_html/SLO-T-63SLO.htm)

Data on Table 12 of the Statistical Annex indicate of another situation: it depicts the number of adults, aged 35+ enrolled into regular levels of education and it indicates of 2.2% of the population from this age bracket attaining such education in an organized manner.

⁵ In the fall 2003 the number of all full cycle tertiary students was 86.931

- The problem of **dropping out during schooling** is particularly pertinent as to secondary education, but recently the problem as to tertiary education has begun receiving the same character as the prior one earlier, as tertiary education attains a mass nature and becomes a precondition for entry into the labour market for ever more numerous jobs. Data on dropping out are presented in the Statistical Annex, Table 14 (secondary education) and Table 15 (tertiary education). The dimensions of dropping out, its rate, can be considered below the OECD average, as depicted in *Overcoming Failure at School* (1998). Namely, our data are not directly comparable, but indicating a diminution of dropping out as not completing secondary education within prescribed time from 18.8% for those enrolled in 1987 to 13.1% for those enrolled in 1991, and they would probably fall within a below average rate among observed countries. Nevertheless, dropping out is a serious educational problem, particularly in vocational schools and among boys, furthermore a problem of greater relevance at a time when work without skill has lost value and possibility of permanent employment.
- Further, attention should be paid to the **educational structure** of the Slovene population. In the observed period, this structure changed dramatically. Though elementary education was compulsory and universal throughout the 20th century, the rise of educational attainment above this level was in a demographically marked sense present mainly after the Second World War. The changes all signified a steep rise of educational degrees and averages. These issues are presented in a more detailed manner in the further text.

**Table 2: Population according to attained school education
(In per cents of population aged 15+)**

| | 1953* | 1961 | 1971 | 1981 | 1991 | 2002 |
|-------------------------------------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Up to 3 grades of elementary school | 15.1 | 7.7 | 4.6 | 3.6 | 1.8 | 0.1 |
| 4-7 grades of elementary school | 68.6 | 52.7 | 25.3 | 22.4 | 15.3 | 6.2 |
| Elementary school | **** | 19.6 | 40.9 | 32.5 | 29.9 | 26.0 |
| Vocational school | 7.1 | 13.1 | 17.5 | 22.0 | 24.4 | 27.2 |
| 4 year secondary school | 3.6 | 4.6 | 7.8 | 12.5 | 19.4 | 26.8 |
| Higher education** | 0.8 | 1.8 | 3.3 | 5.9 | 8.8 | 12,0 |
| Postgraduate education*** | | | | | | 1.0 |

Unknown declarations omitted.

* In 1953, the data were collected on an age 10+ basis and are thus not strictly comaparable, elementary school lasting 7 years.

** Higher education encompasses both the short cycle and complete university levels.

*** Postgraduate education was not collected as a separate group prior to 2002, being an insignificant group in size. Prior to 2002 such individuals were assigned to the higher education group.

**** Included in rubric above, as elementary school lasted 4 years only at the time.

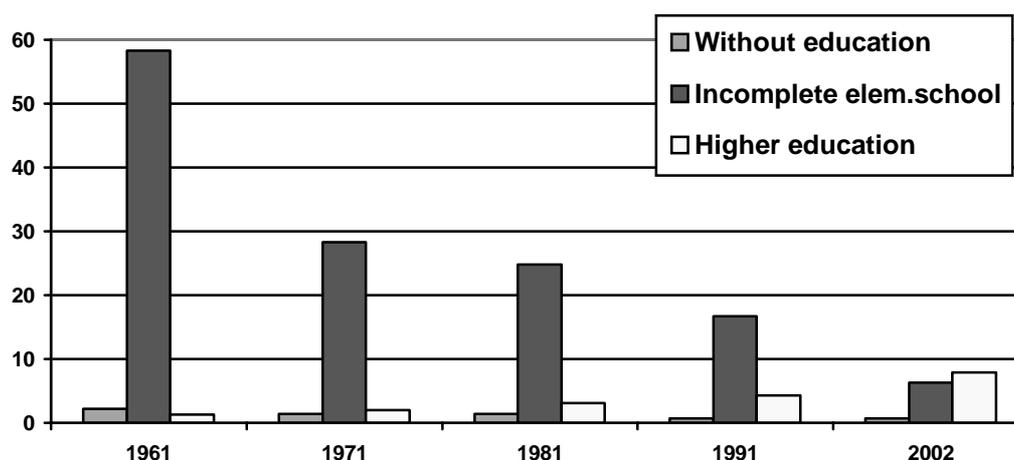
Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia: Statistični Letopis LR Slovenije 1955, Popisi na Slovenskem 1948-1991 and Popis 2002.

In 1953, a significant number was without any schooling, in spite of mandatory elementary schooling having been proclaimed decades ago. At that time, this could not be attributed to in-migrants, but to incomplete implementation of universality. This fact lasts until present. Thus, the last Population Census of

2002, indicates a small number of those without schooling (up to 3 grades 11 337), but it is indicative where they are concentrated: 1001 belong to males aged 65+ and 3622 belong to females of the same age bracket. (www.stat.si/popis2002).

The basic picture is one of a speedy expansion of education over the observed decades, one which evolved more in an »organic« manner, without the stage with a large number of higher educated and low number of secondarily educated, characteristic of some underdeveloped countries.

Graph 1: Population according to attained certain school educational levels
(In per cents of population aged 15+)



On Graph 1, only some levels where the changes were most dramatic are depicted. The first column, indicating those with less than elementary education, almost disappears during the 40 odd year period (a fall from 2.2% to 0.7%). Those who had only elementary school completed also dramatically diminished from the absolute majority of 58.3% at the beginning of the observed period to only 6.3% at the end. In contrast, the number of those with full cycle secondary education has constantly risen and in fact approximately six-fold⁶. Thus the average of years of completed education in Slovenian population has risen from 6.1 in 1960 to 10.3 in 2002.

Of course, levels of attained education were connected with generational dynamics as well. As to generational distribution, see Statistical Annex, Tables 16-18 and 24-26.

2.4 Social disparities in education

A general insight into social disparities in educational attainment in Slovenia may be viewed from the following presentation by way of aggregate statistical parameters, which yet do not indicate particular groups.

⁶ For details see Statistical Annex, TableS 24-26.

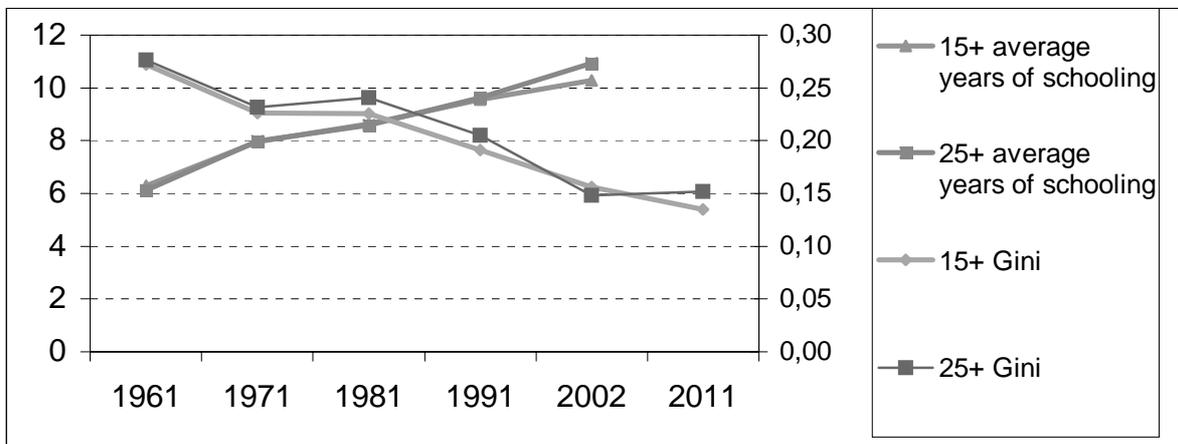
2.4.1 The gini Coefficient of Education

The Gini coefficient⁷ of education inequality has been steadily declining in Slovenia since 1961 up to 2002. Furthermore, forecasts point to a further decline of the Gini coefficient, that is, towards a higher education equity, namely among the sub-population older than 15 years.

Table 3: Gini coefficient for schooling, 1961-2002

| | 15+ | | 25+ | |
|-------------|---------------|----------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|
| | Gini | Average years of schooling | Gini | Average years of schooling |
| 1961 | 0,2723 | 6,30 | 0,2762 | 6,11 |
| 1971 | 0,2263 | 7,97 | 0,2316 | 7,97 |
| 1981 | 0,2258 | 8,65 | 0,2410 | 8,59 |
| 1991 | 0,1909 | 9,56 | 0,2053 | 9,63 |
| 2002 | 0,1557 | 10,28 | 0,1484 | 10,92 |
| 2011 | 0,1349 | | 0,1520 | |

Graph 2: Historical trends of education Gini & average years of schooling by age



The Gini coefficient of education has been declining since 1961. This certainly applies for the sub-population older than 15 years old, where an autoregressive time series model with a 1st-order differencing – ARIMA (1,1,0) has been applied, yielding an education Gini of 0,1349 for the year 2011.

The 25+ sub-population also shows a downtrend, even though not as steep as the 15+ education Gini. We witnessed a minor increase of the Gini coefficient in 1981. The forecast produced by an autoregressive

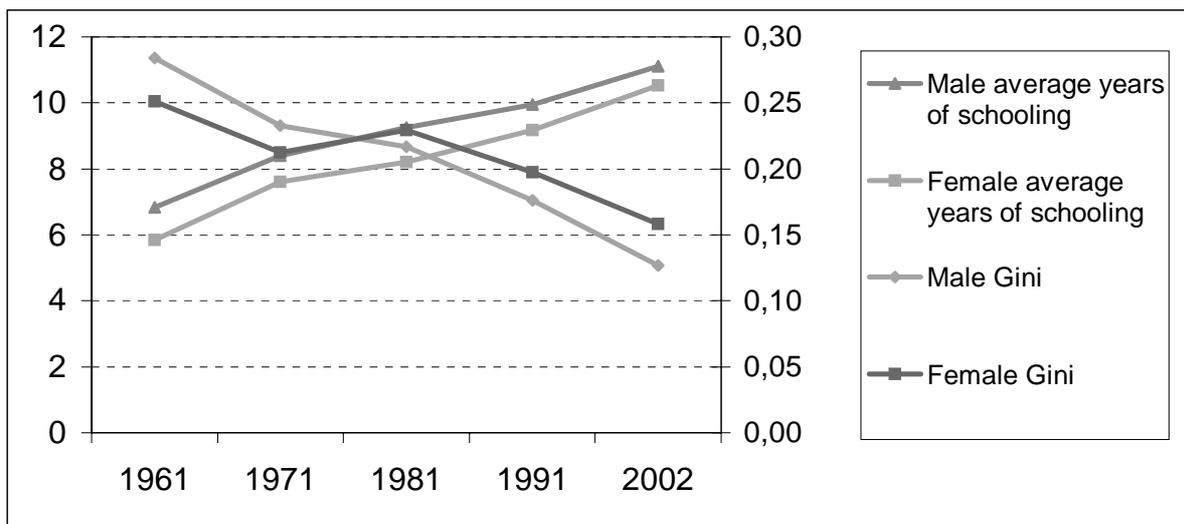
⁷ All computations in this section by Hugo Nunes.

time series model with a 1st-order differencing – ARIMA (2,1,0) for 2011 also indicates towards a slight increase of the education Gini.

Table 4: Gini coefficient for schooling, by gender

| | MALE | | FEMALE | |
|-------------|--------|----------------------------|--------|----------------------------|
| | Gini | Average years of schooling | Gini | Average years of schooling |
| 1961 | 0,2838 | 6,83 | 0,2512 | 5,84 |
| 1971 | 0,2325 | 8,40 | 0,2125 | 7,61 |
| 1981 | 0,2168 | 9,24 | 0,2292 | 8,21 |
| 1991 | 0,1762 | 9,95 | 0,1972 | 9,18 |
| 2002 | 0,1267 | 11,10 | 0,1582 | 10,53 |

Graph 3: Historical trends of education Gini & average years of schooling by gender



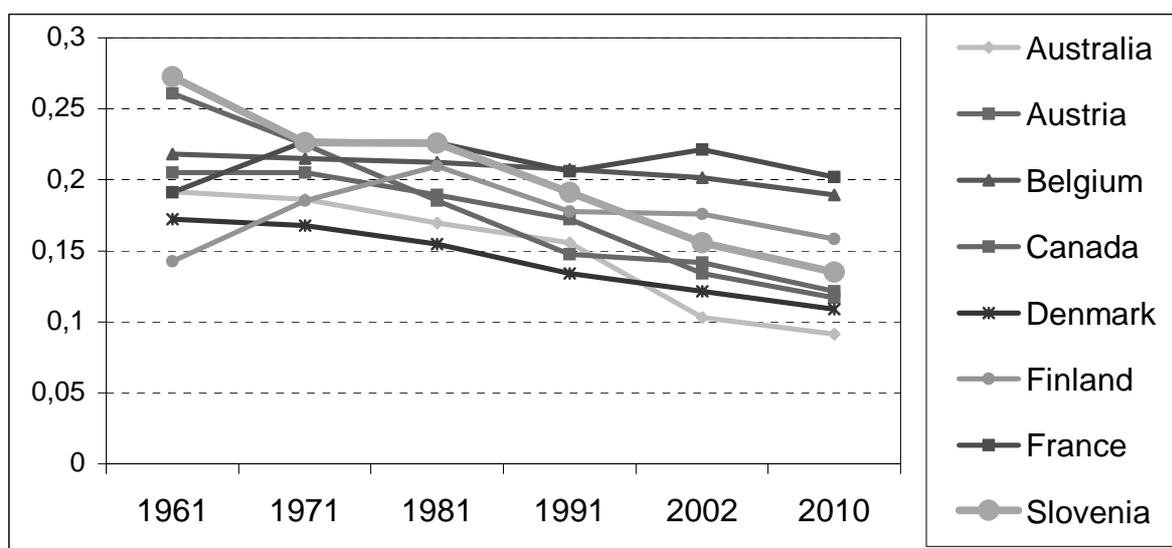
The analysis of the Gini coefficient for education shows that the male education Gini has been lower than the female education Gini since 1981, both showing a downtrend. As for the average years of schooling, men had always had the opportunity to study longer than women.

Table 5: An eight country comparison of educational Gini coefficients

| | Australia | Austria | Belgium | Canada | Denmark | Finland | France | Slovenia |
|-------------|-----------|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------|---------------|
| 1961 | 0,1918 | 0,2607 | 0,2183 | 0,205 | 0,1721 | 0,1426 | 0,191 | 0,2723 |
| 1971 | 0,186 | 0,225 | 0,2149 | 0,2049 | 0,1676 | 0,1853 | 0,227 | 0,2263 |
| 1981 | 0,1694 | 0,1853 | 0,2121 | 0,1895 | 0,1546 | 0,2094 | 0,2264 | 0,2258 |
| 1991 | 0,1557 | 0,1477 | 0,2072 | 0,1721 | 0,1341 | 0,1777 | 0,2061 | 0,1909 |
| 2002 | 0,1028 | 0,1416 | 0,2013 | 0,1342 | 0,1214 | 0,1759 | 0,2211 | 0,1557 |
| 2010 | 0,0915 | 0,1214 | 0,1893 | 0,1171 | 0,1087 | 0,1585 | 0,2021 | 0,1349 |

Note: postgraduate education not taken into consideration, though this would have an impact upon up-sizing the coefficient.

Graph 4: Historical trends of education Gini by country



An eight-country comparison of the education Gini shows the tremendous progress Slovenia has made towards higher education quality. In 1961, Slovenia had the highest Gini coefficient for education. Forecasts for the year 2011 point to an education Gini of 0.1349, which is the 5th lowest among the eight countries.

There is a very strong negative correlation between education inequality measure by education Gini and the average years of attained schooling. This means that higher education attainment level in the population lead to better education equality. We must remark, though, that if post-graduate studies were taken as a separate level, the Gini coefficient for 2002, as for the 15+ aged groups, would be raised to approximately 0.17. This would be meaningful, as this has become a distinct group during the past decade, amounting to 1% of the adult population, whereas it was an insignificantly rare phenomenon before.

The lowest education Gini has been found is the Australian, whereas the French is the highest.

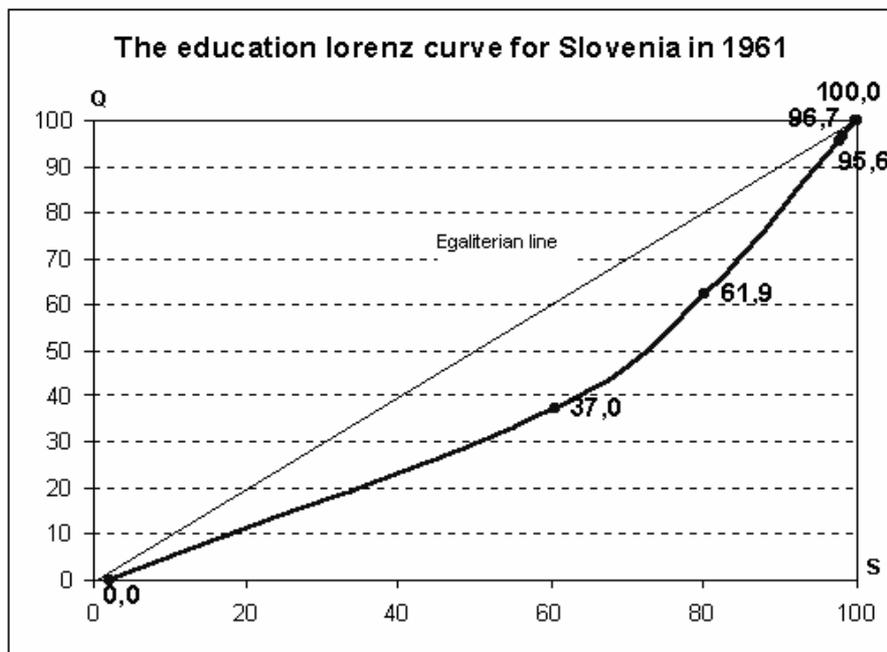
All forecasts up to the year 2010 point to a downtrend in all countries included in this group.

2.4.1.1 The education Lorenz curve

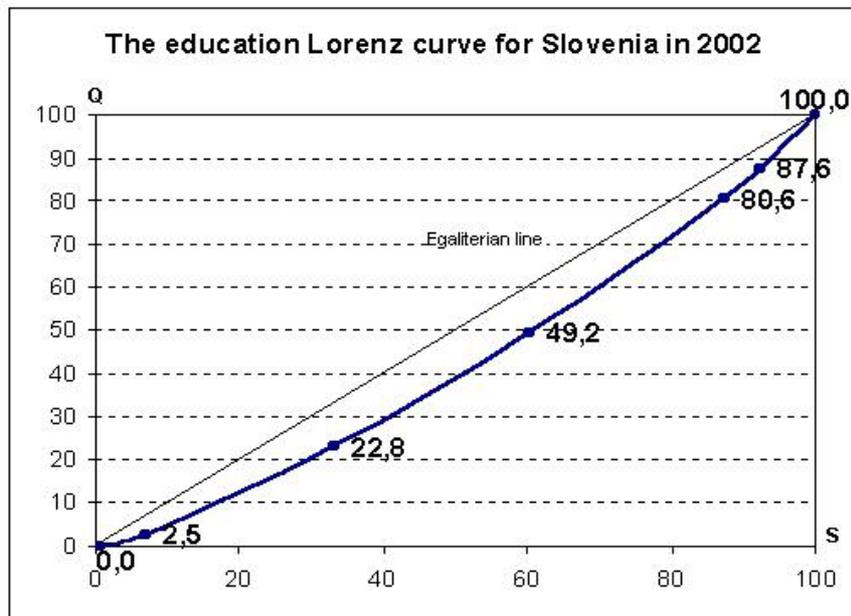
The education Lorenz curve is constructed by assigning the cumulative proportion of population on the horizontal axis (S) and the cumulative proportion of schooling to the vertical axis (Q). Both of them sum up to 100%, as they are cumulative proportions.

Below are presented the education Lorenz curves for Slovenia concerning the years 1961 and 2002. The area between the Lorenz curve and the egalitarian line (under absolute education equality) shows the level of inequality. In fact, it can be seen from both charts below the progress made towards a higher education equality, as the area between the two lines diminished significantly from 1961 to 2002.

Graph 5a: The education Lorenz Curve for Slovenia in 1961



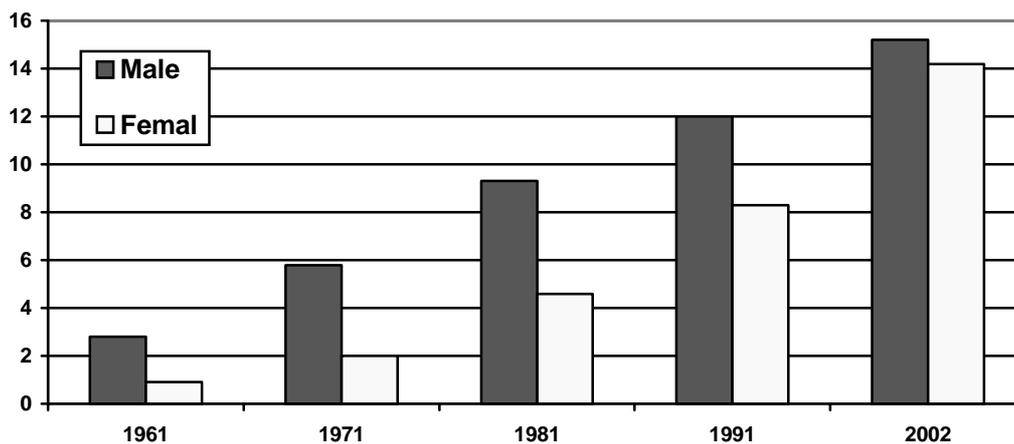
Graph 5b: The education Lorenz Curve for Slovenia in 2002



2.4.2 Gender

We shall firstly observe *gender*, where traditional inequalities are well on the way to disappear. The general level of education indicates that average scholarisation among women has risen dramatically. These can perhaps best be shown if we observe percentages of man and women, who have completed tertiary education during the period 1961-2002.

Graph 6: Percentage of 30 year and older who have completed tertiary education by gender



While the differences between genders almost disappeared in observed age cohort, we are today witnessing somewhat opposite situation, where women are attaining better educational achievements than man. Thus in the year 2002, within the age group 30-34, 26% of females attained tertiary education as opposed to only 15,8% among males. Slovenia has therefore joined the group of developed countries where scholarisation of women supersedes that of men. Nevertheless, some disparities remain, indicating a

privileged position of males, in spite of greater current general scholarisation of females (in the secondary and tertiary level). According to Census 2002, among those without any education, women outnumber men at a 7:4 ratio, while men outnumber women at the postgraduate level at approximately a 3:2 ratio. Otherwise, greater scholarisation of women may be discerned from the numbers pertaining to full cycle and short cycle tertiary education and those with a complete secondary education. (www.stat.si/popis2002).

Equal educational opportunities for both sexes have been one of the principles of the curricular reform in Slovenia. They are one of the proclaimed educational aims specified by law and included in the guidelines for the introduction of concrete changes in programmes and curricula.

In drafting the programmes and curricula, the following objectives were set down:

- systematically incorporate the contents and topics relating to the differences between the sexes in the subject area (special attention had to be paid to the history curriculum and the issue of the absence of women from the history of mankind and from the teaching of history);
- draft suitable recommendations for the writing of textbooks, manuals, and didactic tools from the point of view of content, language, illustration, exercise, etc. (e.g., ensure equal representation of male and female identification figures);
- elaborate a standardised procedure for verifying how these recommendations were taken into account;
- provide, within the cross-curricular theme of educational and vocational information, non-traditional models for the choice of an educational pathway and vocation;
- organise, in accordance with didactic recommendations, regular discussion groups and instruction, also in single sex groups, promote writing about the topic of gender roles and stereotypes, sexual harassment, violence, etc.;
- provide systematic information for parents and the public and alert them to the issue of gender-specific education;
- examine potential topics for in-service training of teachers and counsellors;
- in all documents, stress the importance of individuality, respect for privacy, and the feeling of intimacy, enable otherness and choice, promote tolerance, solidarity, and multiculturalism (and indirectly discard stereotypes), take into account the individual and group differences and provide the conditions for expression of these differences, develop critical thinking and resist the ideological, political, religious and similar pressures, and introduce the possibility of different perceptions of the same thing or event.

2.4.3 Social stratification

We shall further observe *stratification*, which can be followed longitudinally as to educational stratification, even though we are aware the problem is more complex.

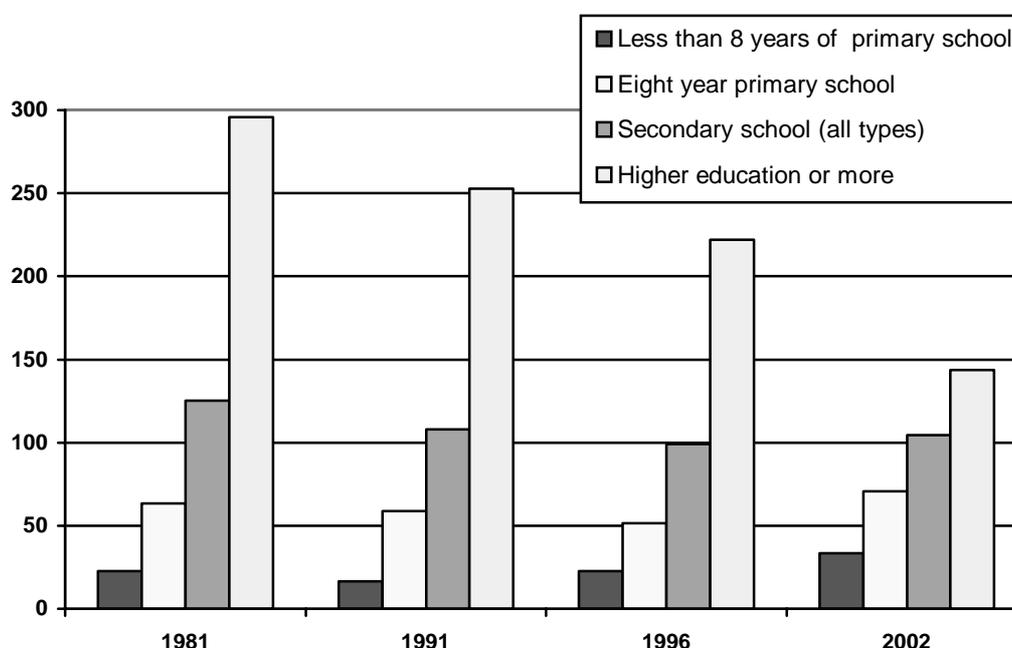
Considering available data, we were able to compute coefficients of participation in tertiary education according to father's education⁸ and from that also the Odds ratios for extreme groups regarding achieved father's education.

⁸ Coefficients represent the quotient between the percentage of fathers with certain educational attainment and percentage of students with same as the fathers educational achievement.

Table 6: Indicators of social inequality in school attainment at tertiary level (1981-2002)

| Father's education | Coefficients of participation | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------|------------|------------|
| | 1981 | 1991 | 1996 | 2002 |
| Less than 8 years of elementary school | 22,8 | 16,6 | 22,6 | 33,3 |
| Eight year elementary school | 63,4 | 58,9 | 51,6 | 70,7 |
| Secondary school (all types) | 125,2 | 107,8 | 99,0 | 104,4 |
| Higher education or more | 295,7 | 252,7 | 222,2 | 143,8 |
| ODDS RATIO* | 12,9 | 15,2 | 9,8 | 4,3 |

Graph 7: Coefficient of participation at tertiary level according to fathers' attained education (1981-2002).



Obviously, the differences concerning coefficients of participation have been diminishing over the observed period. One way to look at it, is to compare extreme groups by the Odds ratio⁹, which indicate a slight growth of inequalities in the last decade of socialist regime (1981-1991)¹⁰, but a convincing decline

* Odds ratio is a statistical measure indicating the disparity in chances, in this case as to achieving the level of education among children/youths of from parental educational strata.

⁹ Derived as a quotient between the two coefficients at the extremes.

¹⁰ This slight increase is related to the structure of expansion of tertiary education, which included predominantly middle class at the first stage, living behind the less educated social stratus. In the later years some structural changes caused the rise of relative participation of children of less educated fathers in tertiary education. Namely, the magnitude of that stratus declined sharply (from 22,9% in 1991 to 6,3% in 2002), causing also sharp rise of the coefficient of participation (from 16,6, to 33,3).

in the decade later. Thus, our findings indicate a general diminution of social disparity in educational opportunity and attainment, along with the expansion of tertiary education. This is a finding which could have been expected, practically because by way of expansion tertiary entrance and particularly degrees become a social currency which relatively loses value within the meaning of scarcity.

From educational enrolment, peaking at the tertiary level (and such degrees) social disparities and inequity move elsewhere, to put it so. Firstly, they move upwards and possibly one could speak of the relative standing of a master degree today in comparison to the standing of a higher educational degree during the 60s, not at the beginning of the observed period but somewhat earlier. The numbers would fit exactly, if we compared full cycle tertiary education degree holders within population in 1961 and postgraduate degree holders in 2002. Secondly, some inequalities of an educational nature become horizontal as some of the higher education professions become more »elite«, e.g. law, architecture, medicine. There are some other forms of education and knowledge which are not discernible from the statistics, e.g. computer proficiency, foreign languages, diplomas from prestigious institutions etc. Thirdly, one could hypothesise, that due to the change of the social system, educational inequality loses some of its relevance, because of the gain of relevance of previously practically inexistent economic capital.

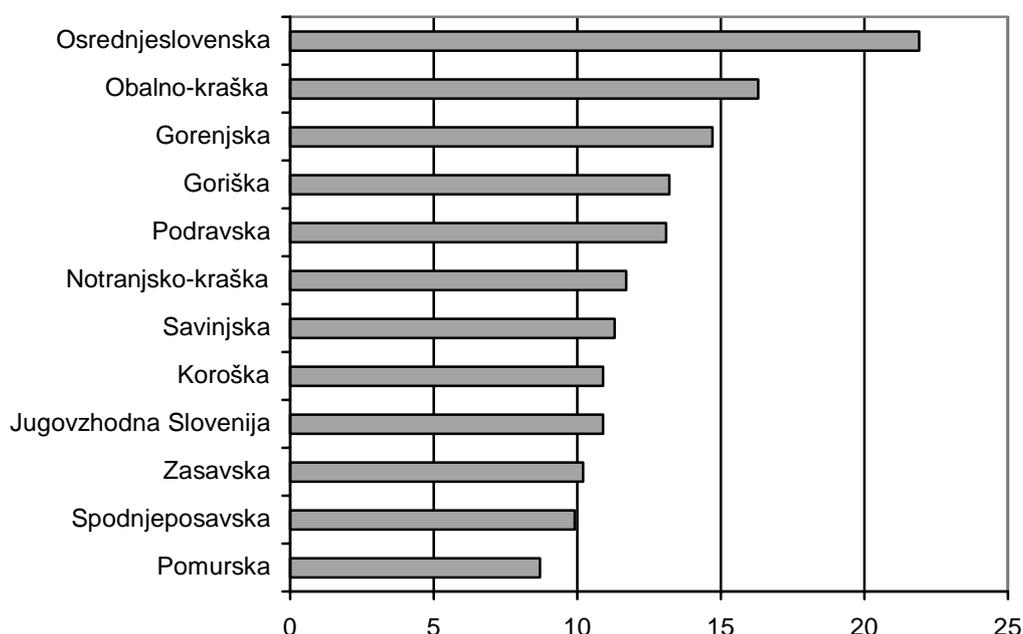
2.4.4 Ethnicity and migration

Further, something needs to be said of *ethnic and migrant* educational disparity. Here, one should differentiate among 1. the recognized, autochthonous national minorities of Hungarians and Italians, 2. in-migrating groups (particularly those from the former Yugoslav lands), and 3. Romanies. All of these groups are relatively minute, though the second group (if taken as a whole is the most numerous one). Romanies are the major group which departs from the Slovene average situation, indicating a lack of integration. Taking into account that statistics may not be precise (if Romanies do not declare themselves ethnically as Romanies), one can observe their lagging behind in all forms of educational attainment. See Statistical Annex (particularly Table 19). Educational policies targetting Romanies are relatively recent and are yet to yield results. Some of the in-migrating groups are also lagging behind in educational attainment (particularly those originating from Bosnia and Herzegovina). This is to do with the social background of their parents. Nevertheless, data on Table 19, indicating the number of those completing academic secondary education (*gimnazija*) in the Census year of 2002, pertain to minute absolute numbers and are not to be considered as reliable signs of disparities.

2.4.5 Regional Differences

There are significant *regional* differences in the educational structure of the population. The capital region is the one with the greatest concentration of educated population. These disparities are significant, pointing to imbalances: they are partly to do with existing economic disparities, partly causing their further reproduction. See Graph 8.

Graph 8: Regional differences in percentage of 30 year and older who have completed tertiary education, 2002



2.4.6 Refugees

In accordance with the World Declaration on Education for All, the state is required to meet the basic learning needs of all children of compulsory school age, and thus also of refugees. At the time only estimates of the number of refugees of school age were available, indicating that such a numerous refugee population could not be immediately integrated in the Slovenian school system due to a lack of facilities. It was decided in agreement with the representatives of BH that the children would receive education in their mother tongue in accordance with a partially reduced national education programme of BH. With this form of education it was possible to make the lives of refugee children in a foreign environment as little traumatic as possible. The drawback of this form of education, however, was that the pupils had fewer opportunities for inclusion in the Slovenian environment and had fewer contacts with their Slovenian peers.

Table 7: Network of schools providing the national curriculum of Bosnia and Herzegovina in the Republic of Slovenia

| School year | No. of municipalities | No. of schools | No. of pupils | No. of teachers | Overall performance |
|-------------|-----------------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| 1992/93 | 45 | 55 | 5224 | 362 | 97 % |
| 1993/94 | 32 | 32 | 3835 | 368 | 95 % |
| 1994/95** | 23 | 23 | 2267 | 307 | 94 % |
| 1995/96 | 1* | 1 | 101 | 19 | 98 % |

* in the municipality of Postojna

** in the school year 1994/95, 520 pupils – temporary refugees already attended Slovenian schools.

The above Table 7 reveals that the number of children and elementary schools has been reduced over the years in parallel with a reduction in the number of teachers.

In the first year, the education programme contained the complete number of hours for core subjects (mother tongue, foreign tongue, and mathematics) and fewer hours for other subjects. In the next years, the number of contact hours increased slowly and the Slovenian language teaching was made part of the education programme.

After three years, it became clear that this method of schooling had to be changed. The decreasing number of pupils made the formation of classes difficult. An increasing number of parents wanted to include their children in regular Slovenian schools. As a result, in 1995, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport prepared a programme for integrating temporary refugee children in Slovenian elementary schools.

From the beginning of the school year 1998/99 refugees from Kosovo have been enrolling in Slovenian elementary schools. The Ministry of Education, Science and Sport began to collect data on the number of school age children from Kosovo and to prepare uniform starting points for work with the refugees in elementary schools: the programme of learning assistance and the learning of the Slovenian language, basic health checks, free snacks, and the provision of school requisites.

3. Causes and explanations

It is difficult to pinpoint the causes of social disparity in education. In Slovenia, a major part of disparities certainly has to do with the generally known determinisms, as depicted in the sociology of education and socio-linguistics: the combination of economic, institutional, cultural and motivational factors. Another part is peculiar to the transition period, when general stratificational disparities seem to have grown, but not educational ones, though the highly educated having done well during the transition period. A third part has to deal with the school system itself, which efficiency minded and may be detrimental to equity. An attempt will be made to draw conclusions from the structure of school success and drop out.

As to causes and processes by which disparities are transformed from social inequalities into unequal educational incomes, some educational investigations point to a certain amount of disparities in educational attainment.

To begin with, we shall present some findings regarding the **effect of stratificational factors upon intellectual achievements during elementary school**. Slovenian children ranked 11th among 31 countries in the PIRLS comparative investigation of literacy and reading of 4 graders in elementary school carried out in 2001. Results indicated the fundamental impact of parents' education, though the impact is not of the magnitude to explain the amount of educational disparity we have found in tertiary degree. The PIRLS investigation found that in case of Slovenia, differences in test scores between those whose either parent has completed university (or higher) education (the average test score was 537 points) and those whose either parent has completed at the most lower secondary education¹¹ (the average score was 460 points) amounted to about 17% (PIRLS 2001, 114). Compared to other investigated countries, Slovenia does not indicate a significant deviation from the average. It should be mentioned that the same investigation highlighted some other interesting factors of inequalities as well:

- children of parents who often read books before children entered elementary school achieved an average of 524 points in the literacy test, in comparison to children of 'non-reading' parents who achieved an average of 483 points.

¹¹ There were no children whose either parent finished at the most some elementary or lower secondary education - in the Slovene case that would mean not having completed the 8 year elementary school.

- ❑ students who often or always spoke the language of the test at home, achieved an average of 507 points, whereas those who did it sometimes or less achieved only 471 average points,¹²
- ❑ number of books at home also correlates with literacy: those who have more than 200 books attained 531 points, in contrast to those who have up to 10 books, who achieved 463 points,
- ❑ a computer at home marks a difference between 512 and 484 points (those not having a computer at home, a minority by now). (PIRLS, 2001, ch. 4).

All these are interesting and substantial correlations, though none of them is individually marked, particularly not as much as to explain the entirety of the differences in tertiary student participation.

A similar study of natural sciences and mathematics, also conducted upon elementary 4 graders (and further) in 2002 (TIMSS) (Straus, 2003). Slovenian children ranked within the upper half of countries in all cases. Also within an international educational science research project, some basic social background characteristics were controlled in examination of natural sciences knowledge. In case of Slovenia, the results (point average) according to the parent's highest educational level varied from 496 (completed elementary school as the highest level of any parent) to 576 among those whose parents achieved higher/university education (the rise in grade is linear and amounts to a total of 16%). The rise is approximately the same as with reading test, not giving any support to (B. Bernstein) thesis that stratification is achieved primarily via linguistic skills in a narrow meaning (mathematics should be relatively the most verballity free subject). Other environmental factors also proved relevant: the number of books at home, pupils' aspirations, home educational facilities, mother's pressure to succeed. Similar results were achieved as to physics, chemistry and biology. No differences among boys and girls were detected. (Straus, 2003).

Dropping out is becoming ever more serious personal and social problem, because unskilled labour is less needed and less stably employable. Dropping out is found more (as elsewhere) in vocational secondary education, than in academic secondary education (*gimnazija*). The social background of students dropping out indicates a stratificationally, socially and psychologically poorer family. The lower personal adaptation and self control in comparison to those staying in has also been confirmed. Further, some educational characteristics have been pointed out: a too demanding nature of vocational secondary education, particularly of those which are not to be demanding (2-3 year programmes), fragmentation of subjects and lack of trust among students and teachers. (Tome, 2002, Ule *et al.* 2004). As indicated on Table 14 of the Statistical Appendix, the drop out rate in secondary education has been diminishing during the 90s, whereas the rate of dropping out at the tertiary level is unacceptably high, as indicated on Table 15 of the Statistical Appendix.

Further, we shall explore **other factors influencing school attainment**. Surveys and social science research in Slovenia indicate an abundance of data on social disparities linked, in various ways, to education. Thus the survey »Quality of Life 1994«, based on a random sample of 2.100 found some interesting findings regarding the **magnitude of intergenerational reproduction of educational achievements**. Data for instance show that children of fathers with at least higher education had more than 18 times greater chances of achieving that level of education, compared to their coevals whose fathers achieved less than elementary education (46,2% : 2,5%). The ratio for mothers is somewhat slighter.

¹² The combination of the use of various correlates, indicated, though, a group of one parent not native speaker of Slovene, who has higher educational level of the other parent, as being very stimulative (personal communication with researcher)

Table 8: The relationship between father's education and educational achievement

% within Fathers education

| | | Respondents education | | | | Total |
|-------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
| | | Less than elementary | Elementary | Upper secondary | Higher or more | |
| Fathers education | Less than elementary | 30,3% | 33,3% | 33,9% | 2,5% | 100,0% |
| | Elementary | 7,2% | 28,5% | 57,5% | 6,7% | 100,0% |
| | Upper secondary | 4,9% | 13,9% | 64,9% | 16,3% | 100,0% |
| | Higher or more | 2,9% | 6,7% | 44,2% | 46,2% | 100,0% |
| Total | | 13,1% | 23,1% | 52,3% | 11,5% | 100,0% |

Source: Quality of Life, 1994. Survey data.

Slovenia, otherwise known for a rural-urban continuum nevertheless demonstrates, according to the findings of this investigation, clear disparities in chances for the attainment of education according to **type of settlement** at the age of 15. Those having attained higher education (4.8%) in all would have a lighter chance to complete this level of education if living in a village (3.4% of those residing there would complete higher education), in contrast to the capital (11.0%).

On the other hand this study shows how many sided the effects of education are: not only as for dimensions of social status, but also for such issues as **health**. The evaluation of a »very good state of health« rises from 2.9% among those with completed less than elementary education to 19.3% among those who completed higher education. Possibly age interferes here, but not significantly.

The series of studies on youth by M. Nastran-Ule and associates sheds light upon some other aspects of social inequalities dealing with education. It is particularly interesting to note **school grades as linked to parents' social status**. As to the **perception of economic status**, one may note that the best two general grades (excellent and very good, in secondary education) correlate with economic status, as perceived by respondents. The best grade, excellent, is to be found among 13.5% of those assessing their position as »barely having ends meet«, 20.2% among those declaring to »live modestly«, rising to 29.1% among those stating to »live in comfort« and reaching a maximum of 30.3% among those declaring to »live in luxury«. The same trend is to be found among those with the second best general grade, whereas the reverse is to be found among those having the lowest passing general grade. They rise from 15.7% among those in the best perceived class of living to 37.8% among those perceiving the poorest. There is no trend among those having the second lowest passing general grade of good. Though subjectivity may influence the answers as to economic status assessment, the trend's existence is, nevertheless, doubtless.

The same clear impacts of social status upon school grades are to be found when observing the **parents' educational attainment**. In both the case of the mother and of the father the pattern is clear: children, whose parents have a higher educational attainment, have a better grade average. The pattern is slightly more acute in case of the father. The general grade of excellent is more than 5 times more frequent among those whose fathers have at least higher education degree than among those whose fathers completed elementary school or less. Odds to have the lowest passing grade ('Sufficient') are nearly 8 times greater among of children of less educated fathers than of those in the highest bracket. The odds ratio for mothers is slighter in case of the superior grades, but stronger in case of the lowest passing grade, but the number of mothers in some groups is too small to generalize

Table 9: The relationship between father's education and pupil's school grades

Fathers education * Shool grades Crosstabulation

% within Fathers education

| | | Shool grades | | | | Total |
|-------------------|--------------------|--------------|-----------|-------|------------|--------|
| | | Exelent | Very good | Good | Sufficient | |
| Fathers education | Elementary or less | 8,5% | 19,0% | 38,6% | 34,0% | 100,0% |
| | Upper secondary | 23,9% | 27,1% | 32,7% | 16,3% | 100,0% |
| | Higher or more | 43,7% | 29,4% | 22,3% | 4,5% | 100,0% |
| Total | | 28,3% | 27,0% | 30,2% | 14,5% | 100,0% |

Source: Youth '98, 1998. Survey data.

Possibly, the most extensive study of educational disparities is to be found in the work of Flere and Lavrič (2003). Following that work and including some up-to-date data, we will indicate only the social stratificational part of the study, as the impact of educational stratification has already been demonstrated in a broader and more valid way¹³. The study was conducted at the University of Maribor and is limited to higher education only, implicitly encompassing all in-flowing levels. But the study has a longitudinal aspect to it as well.

It is difficult to operationalise social positions and social strata under any circumstances, but this task is even more difficult under conditions of stratificational change during the transition from Communism. Certain statuses disappear¹⁴, whereas others appear, sometimes in a paradoxical and chaotic way: e.g., by various forms of semi-legitimate privatisation. How are we to compare one parents' position (fathers' only) to the data of the 2002 population census? We have tackled this task mainly by aggregating some groups, so as to achieve strata within which we can suppose little internal change to have appeared, enabling us to make hypothetical comparisons. We have focused on three large strata, amongst which little stratificational mobility can be said to have come about in the preceding period. Beside fathers as workers (manual, regardless of degree of skill) and agriculturists (mostly small proprietors), all others were aggregated into a stratum titled »middle and upper«. Significant changes came about within this group in the transition period, owing to the introduction of private property on an unlimited scale (though gradually in some sectors). Nevertheless, it can also be asserted that the middle stratum has survived transition in Slovenia, in contrast to most transition countries. Agriculturists and workers appear to be rather clearly defined strata, though workers have been affected by unemployment.

¹³ Also we can say that social stratification is more relevant, as it encompasses the entire social status.

¹⁴ E.g., Communist party affiliation was certainly of stratificational relevance.

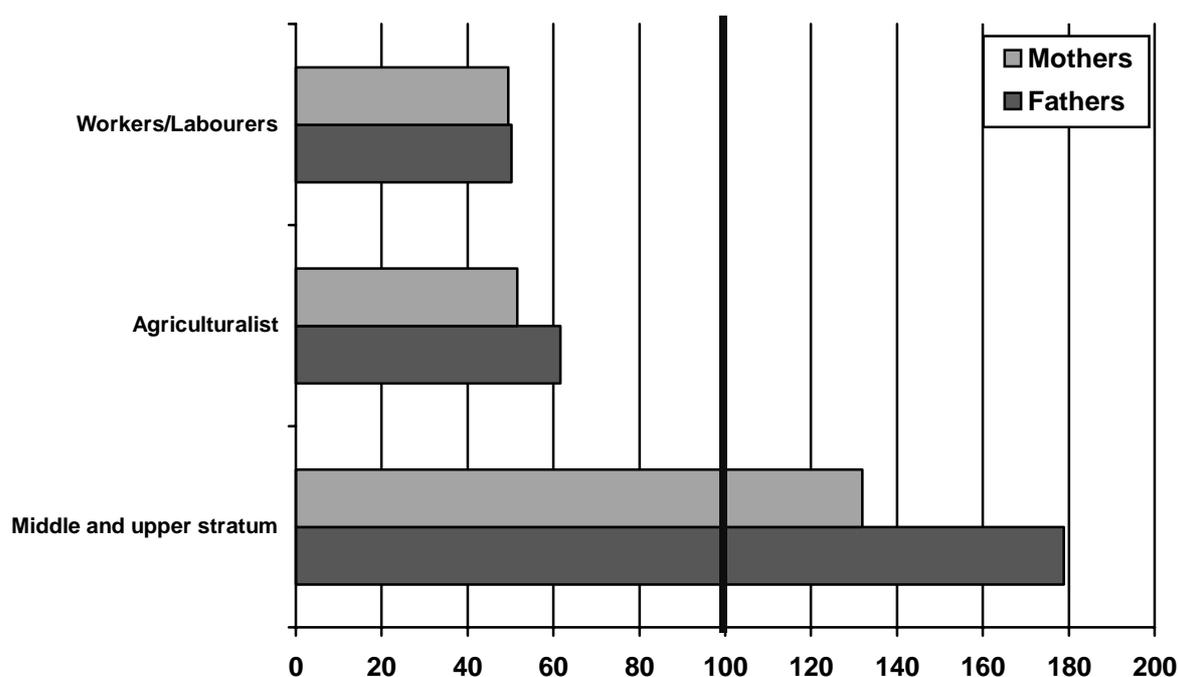
Table 10: Social origin of Maribor students according to father's social stratum position, 2003

| Social stratum position | % in Slovenian population - fathers' age cohort | % of fathers among Maribor students | Coefficient of participation |
|--------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Middle and upper stratum | 37,3 | 66,7 | 178,8 |
| Agriculturists | 10,7 | 6,6 | 61,6 |
| Workers/Labourers | 50,8 | 25,5 | 50,2 |
| Total | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

Data source: Statistical office of Republic of Slovenia, census of 1991 taken as basis for comparison.

In similar way, coefficients of participation were computed for mothers, resulting in data presented in Graph 9.

Graph 9: Social origin of Maribor students according to father's and mother's social stratum position, 2003



Data in Table 10 and Graph 9 indicate major social disparities of a nature having to do with fundamental social inequality. At the underprivileged end workers and farmers are to be found, whereas at the other are those pertaining to the »middle and upper stratum«. In case of the fathers the disparity ratio between the extreme groups is approximately 1:3,6. A further valid fragmentation of the »middle and upper stratum« would certainly indicate more acute disparities.

In our study of almost three decades ago, we were able to speak of a ratio of disparities of approximately 1:5 among the basic stratificational groups (Flere 1976, 245). But in the earlier study, we were studying higher education graduates¹⁵. As some selection comes about during the period of higher

¹⁵ Data on parents' social position taken at the point of higher education graduation over all of the former Yugoslavia.

education itself, we could speak of a **basic stability as to ratios of presence of various social strata, but a trend of decrease regarding these inequalities**¹⁶ during the past 30 or so years will appear discernible later. These findings seem to be in line with the above presented findings regarding trends in the intergenerational reproduction of educational achievements as such.

Yet, taken in consideration the shift in the social system and above all the huge student population growth, the relative modest magnitude of these changes seems to indicate most of all the stubborn nature of inequalities in education in general.

¹⁶ Although it is difficult to estimate the magnitude of stratificational influence upon drop out rates at tertiary level, according to available data, it seems safe to assume that this influence can not explain the totality of decrease regarding the disparity ratios between the extreme groups. Thus, the mentioned 'basic stability as to ratios of presence of various social strata' should be understood in terms of longitudinal slight decrease regarding these inequalities.

4. POLICIES, PROGRAMMES AND INITIATIVES

Educational policy and the educational system have changed fundamentally during the observed 20 odd year period. These changes have been probably more radical than in any of the other observed countries, dealing with financing of education, the mode of governance of education, the organisation of secondary education even twice (both times radically) and later with the elementary education as well (the last changes could not have yet had an impact upon the observed inequities). We have also witnessed an immense expansion of secondary and particularly of tertiary education in the observed period. This may also be considered as a policy achievement, possibly the major one from the social equity issue point of view. These changes have been, of course, only a component part of broader social changes, themselves probably even more radical (than the educational ones) encompassing attainment of independence, political democratization and privatization and marketization of the economy.

At the end of the seventies, Slovenia experienced much discussion on the necessity of changes to the field of elementary school. Already by the beginning of the seventies, compulsory pre-primary school was introduced and a possibility was given by law to organise whole-day elementary school. Goals in the field of pre-school education were oriented primarily towards the increase of the number of children attending pre-school institutions. The basic goal of the introduction of pre-primary school (*mala šola*) was to improve the readiness of children to enter school. The compulsory pre-primary school was a kind of "compensatory measure" for underprivileged children. Thus social equity was stressed, though without taking into consideration determinisms of functioning of society.

Parents of children in towns were generally employed and consequently their children attended, in addition to the compulsory programme of elementary school, also the so-called after-school care, whereas the number of children from rural schools attending after-school care was considerably smaller. The basic goal of whole-day elementary school therefore was changing the organisation of school time, so that the compulsory attendance was extended and the day organisation of instruction lasted from 8 AM to 4 PM. During that time, pupils should carry out all the activities related to homework as well. The prolongation of the time spent in school should provide all pupils with better opportunities for a successful acquisition of knowledge, since teachers were available for pupils for a longer period of time. Whole-day elementary school did not interfere with the structure of the curriculum in any other way. Elementary school lasted eight years and was divided in two educational cycles.

Both measures – the introduction of pre-primary school and of whole-day elementary school – encountered resistance not only from the part of parents but also from the part of teachers. Teachers faced increased working obligations, parents claimed that the time their children spent in school was too prolonged and thus the possibility to pass freely their leisure time was taken away from them. The failure of both measures was even furthered by inadequate space conditions, since the majority of elementary schools were not adapted properly to a different school organisation.

Vocationally guided education practically meant law did away with the traditional division between general-education secondary schools (*gimnazije*) and vocational and technical secondary schools. The main declared goal of the reform was to strengthen the connection between secondary education and the sphere of work, i.e. the economy. Secondary education programmes were based on the needs defined by economists. The reform was supposed to reduce the drop-out rate and, above all, diminish the possibility to finish secondary education without occupational qualifications. The introduction of common – core –

curriculum (common educational basis) into all programmes was to increase both vertical and horizontal transitions between programmes.

The reform also brought about many organisational changes. There emerged the so-called educational centres, where several different syllabi were carried out. That was supposed to increase the accessibility of education.

Numerous criticisms were to be heard at the very beginning of the introduction of vocationally guided education. The *gimnazija* as a general-education school was ultimately abolished. Completing any programme, the pupil received a formal occupational qualification; however, there were many formally acquired occupations which did not have their counterparts in jobs in practice. That was especially the case with the programmes substituting for the abolished *gimnazije* (e.g., the natural science-mathematics technician). There was another difficulty with general secondary education: instead of increased horizontal transitions, the former *gimnazija* pupils chose primarily two programmes – the natural science and the social science programmes. The vertical transition was possible only within the same branch of higher education studies, e.g. the natural science-mathematics technician – natural science studies.

Instead of improved horizontal transition, the introduction of the common core curriculum in all programmes caused a high drop-out rate. The common core curriculum was too demanding for short-term and secondary vocational programmes and was not connected to the practical part of the curriculum. The changed ratio between practice and the core curriculum led to insufficient practical qualifications for the occupation. On the other hand, the core curriculum was not exhaustive enough for those who wished to continue their studies at the tertiary level.

At the end of the eighties, the first systematic evaluation studies were carried out, which highlighted the drawbacks of the vocationally oriented education.

After doing away with the system of vocationally guided education, new views were asserted. The Ministry of Education published *The White Paper of 1995* on principles on educational reform. The principles it affirms are of a very general nature: universal right to education, pay-free basic education; full development of personality and respect of human rights as the guiding principles of education; parents' right to choose type of education for children. As to our topic more closely, it states that »Equal chances is to be supplemented by the requirement for quality and in depth education, linked to a differentiated offer at all levels, enabling the affirmation of the right to varied educational paths and contents«. www.mszs.si/slo/ministrstvo/publikacije/ministrstvo/bela).

Thus, equality of chances is also mentioned as a target, but linked to others and within a different context, whereas equality in results is, of course, incompatible in such a context. The major changes targeted by the policy were widespread and systemic in nature, having to do mainly with advancing the Slovenian population in preparation for entry into an information and knowledge based society and economy, within much wider geographic dimensions (entry into the EU, general globalization processes). Thus, the quality, level of demand, management and professionalism system control of elementary and secondary education have been up-graded. Certain groups were offered new or expanded modes of educational attainment (mostly the latter): education of the talented, of special needs youth, of adults was systematically promoted. Refugees were offered adequate educational services.

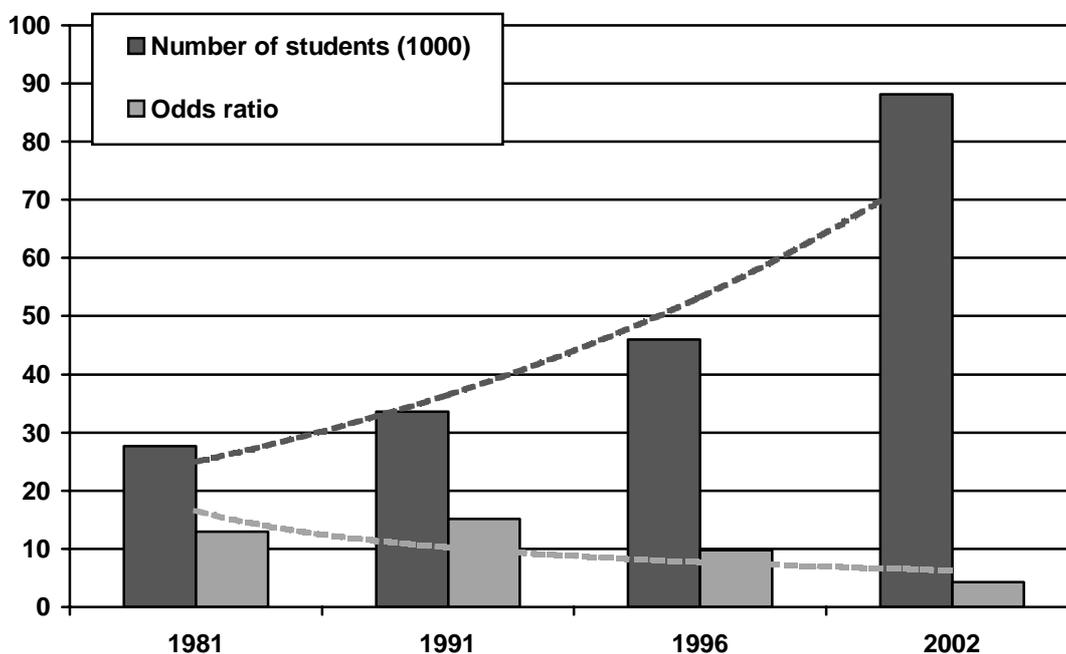
Expansion of secondary education has been constant, until saturation has been reached during the observed period. Practically all youth enter secondary education today (rate of above 98%). Tertiary education has expanded dramatically, particularly in the last decade of the last century.

One should stress that the objectives of educational policy, dealing with our issue in the strict sense, have changed radically as well. Equity was stressed in very varied manners, within different contexts, priorly within the normative socialist selfgoverning model, and later within a liberal democratic and market model. The former not only stressed equity more radically, but also illusionistically. The latter definitely tied equity to other educational and extra-educational policy objectives, linking it to efficacious preparation of youth to entry the labour market in the age of globalisation, and subjugating equity to such a situation and such elementary objectives. Institutional changes followed this, primarily at the secondary level, reintroducing differentiation of an academic nature, which was also one of a social nature. The elementary rigid differentiation, as envisioned by the 1994 introduction of the state final secondary education exam of *matura*, which was to have been (according to the official proposal of the law on this exam) the only route to academic tertiary study, was later abandoned, by the introduction of the occupational secondary education final exam (*poklicna matura*), also offering possibility in the same direction.

These reforms and measures were always sensitive to equity, though efficiency became ever more stressed. Our findings indicate that also these reforms and policy changes were a major influence upon equity primarily by way of educational expansion and the internal organisation of the educational system, pointing to deeper stratificational origins of this phenomenon. Possibly, in Slovenia this can be perceived more than in any of the observed countries, as both social, state, economic, political and educational changes were fundamental and radical, whereas tertiary participation of stratificational youth segments seems to depend almost only on tertiary educational expansion.

Graph 10: Dynamics of the number of tertiary students and the odds ratio of entry to tertiary education among extreme educational classes

(less than elementary education/higher education of father)



The data on the above Graph 10, indicating a diminution of inequality, social disparity in reaching entry to the highest level of education, linking it to the expansion of education in the observed period, offers little space for another basic explanation as to the relative chances of entry to tertiary education but as dependent on expansion, where social stratificational inequity diminishes along with expansion.

Stratificational inequity is probably under lesser effect of educational policy and the formal school system. Nevertheless, more detailed studies would be needed to observe what effects the two tides of reform had any impact upon inequity within this basic meaning. Nevertheless, we should not blind ourselves as to inequity disappearing: mostly this basic type of inequity is moving elsewhere. It is moving upwards, towards post-graduate education, it is moving towards niches of elite types and forms of education, it is moving towards participation in education abroad, it is moving towards certain special skills, towards certain educational tracks which become refuge of the elite and upper class children and youth. Social inequity may be moving outside education, as economic capital may play a relatively major role in comparison to educational capital, in comparison to the previous social system. This is not to say that economic distributional inequalities in Slovenia are relatively pronounced (*Human Development Report 2002*). On the other hand, one should not assert that nothing has been achieved by the expansion of education. Particularly important has been its contribution to the emancipation of women. It has also been relevant as to regional disparities, while in the narrow meaning of ethnicity there have been no relevant disparities in Slovenia, not even as far as migrants are concerned. The major exception is the Roma population, which remains to be integrated into the school system on a parity basis.

The school system remains an important vehicle to educational and general social equity. Within this meaning, one can hypothesise that the original establishment of the final secondary exam of *matura*, which could be approached only by academic secondary graduates (*gimnazija*), was initially a step back as to social equity (though otherwise positive, as to raising cognitive efficiency of secondary education)¹⁷. This equity-wise negative assessment can be given, particularly with a view to the social composition of the *gimnazija* students, which differs little from the present tertiary student composition. The extension of the *matura* exam to vocational secondary graduates in the form of vocational *matura* (*poklicna matura*), reopening the path to academic tertiary education for the graduates of such schools was certainly a positive step towards social equity achievement.

A rise in the participation of education in the national income during the past decade was significant and definitely positive as to our issue as well. On the other hand, a disbalance in the distribution of educational spending is clearly discernible, as spending for higher education was relatively diminishing (per student), in contrast with expenditure for elementary education.

Other steps may also be mentioned in a positive manner: the distribution of elementary schools in scarcely populated areas, certain benefits school children have, the system of loans and scholarships on the part of the state, extending welfare privileges to part time students and the general benefits higher education students have and which are paid by the state. On the other hand, non-state parties, particularly companies are rather reluctant in their long term investments in human resources.

¹⁷ In the official explanation of the proposal of the Act on the *Matura* (state final secondary education examination), it was explicitly stated that “the most significant innovation is doing away with the concept of vocationally guided education as simultaneous vocational education and education for further education. Thus, the same educational syllabus cannot be completed either by the *matura* (final exam leading to tertiary academic education) and the concluding exam (final exam not enabling this). (*Poročevalec*, 46, 1995). Such an approach clearly envisions that educational division must have direct major repercussions as to cultural stratification and would segregate youth. It was done away with not much later, by the above mentioned further institutional changes, not having a serious detrimental effect upon equity.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The Slovene educational system is basically efficiency sound and the Slovene population is educationally well serviced and has been so in the past, conducive to societal and economic modernization. Nevertheless, educational equity always remains a distant goal, though one can discern systematic and continuous measures towards reaching it and coming closer to achieving this goal in the observed period. The single most important such step is educational expansion, enabling ever more children and youth from all walks of life to take part at and complete practically all levels and types of education and schooling. Educational expansion has been evolving both as a policy objective and as a spontaneous process. Other policy objectives have been also relevant as to this goal, including scholarships, student loans, financing student living costs, maintaining schools in sparsely populated areas etc. This system of stimulative measures was particularly enhanced during the recent period.

Social disparities in education and outreaching from education are varied and many sided in spite of the fact that we have found a valid and reliable datum on its diminution at the tertiary level. The latter holds only at the general level of inspection. Closer inspection indicates new forms of social disparities in education, to the transfer of inequity to post-graduate studies and degrees, to special forms of knowledge and licences, to new forms of social reproduction within tracking and other means (not to speak of those channels of social reproduction of inequity outside education).

Educational policy has been targeted at suppressing social inequity throughout the observed period. During the period post-1990, a system of welfare and educational policy measures and support in favour of the disadvantaged has been introduced, along with academic up-grading and structuring of the educational system, within Slovenia becoming a »knowledge-based society«. Romanies have become a target of such special policies.

As to the life cycle aspect of educational equity, we may state that the basic hierarchic inequities between strata are established at the (upper) secondary educational level, with the division between the academic secondary school (*gimnazija*) and youth in other tracks and outside any (about one tenth), confirmed in a »licensed« way at the tertiary level. Adult education plays a compensatory role as to this and is a »second chance«, though those already educated formally benefit from it relatively to a greater extent. Part time tertiary study (*izredni študij*) has, though become more of a channel for those who directly continue their studies after completing secondary education, than a second chance during adulthood.

As to gender, one may say that parity within education has been achieved, though inequities from the past are still discernible in the population. From the point of view of equity, it is more acute that educational achievements of women do not produce adequate social equality of women in adult life, particularly in the field of politics.

Ethnic parity is also not a major issue, with the exception of Romanies, a significant minority, who are at the beginning of social integration. Significant policy measures are under way to improve the educational participation and achievement of Romanies. In-migrants do not represent a group which is not able to integrate, owing to educational closure, though results for Bosniaks/Muslim indicate them to be lagging behind in the general educational attainment.

Stratificational disparities in education have been proven widespread and systemic, simply doing with the nature of stratification. A major part of social and cultural reproduction of stratification takes place within education, though the channels may be less visible than previously. Some new forms of inequity appear, such as postgraduate studies becoming a new level of study and certificate, some areas of higher education become elite, when higher education itself ceases to be elite.

The basic social disparities which are discernible have to do with the need of efficiency oriented education, leading to a very structured system of education with external examinations at various points. As this is hard to do away with, compensatory measures need to be stimulated, particularly at the early level. These would include greater foreign language education at an early stage, earlier computer education, the promotion life long education and target group advancement. In the future, other in-migrant groups will also need to be targeted as special need groups.

But, as sociologists of education stress when dealing with this issue, the most important part is in the controlling of social disparities in society in general.

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STATISTICAL ANNEX

Table 1: Participation rates early childhood (0-3 years) education programmes, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 14.3 | 21.4 | 24.7 | 28.3 | 27.5 | 27.2 | 17.0 | 18.4 | 19.7 | 20.5 | 22.2 |
| Female | 13.0 | 19.9 | 22.5 | 26.8 | 26.2 | 25.9 | 16.2 | 17.3 | 18.8 | 19.5 | 21.8 |
| Total | 13.7 | 20.7 | 23.6 | 27.6 | 26.9 | 26.6 | 16.6 | 17.9 | 19.3 | 20.0 | 22.0 |

Notes about the Country Data

Numbers of children 0-3 years old included in early childhood programs are compared with numbers of 0-3 years old children in the whole population.

Sources of the Country Data

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 2: Participation rates in pre-primary education (Key data 2002), Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 32.5 | 35.6 | 39.4 | 58.8 | 60.4 | 59.7 | 71.4 | 71.3 | 70.3 | 69.6 | 65.1 |
| Female | 31.6 | 34.7 | 37.4 | 55.9 | 58.3 | 57.8 | 65.0 | 69.0 | 68.6 | 66.8 | 63.3 |
| Total | 32.1 | 35.2 | 38.4 | 57.4 | 59.4 | 58.8 | 68.3 | 70.2 | 69.5 | 68.3 | 64.2 |

Notes about the Country Data

Numbers of children 3-6 years old included in early childhood programs are compared with numbers of 3-6 years old children in the whole population.

Sources of the Country Data

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

Table 3: Targeted pre-school programmes

No data available.

Table 4: Participation Rates in Upper Secondary Education by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 74.5 | 73.3 | 78.8 | 84.0 | 86.0 | 88.6 | 91.0 | 93.6 | 96.1 | 97.9 | 85.7 |
| Female | 76.2 | 75.0 | 81.8 | 89.0 | 92.5 | 94.1 | 95.6 | 97.7 | 99.0 | 100.3 | 89.4 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 87.2 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 87.8 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 73.4 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 83.3 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 89.6 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 93.9 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 93.3 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 87.8 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 77.0 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 87.6 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 86.4 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 88.7 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 87.0 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 88.0 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 89.6 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 86.4 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 88.2 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 87.1 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 89.3 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 88.5 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 86.5 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 89.6 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 86.2 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 88.8 |
| Romanians | | | | | | | | | | | 22.4 |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 64.1 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 82.2 |
| Montenegrians | | | | | | | | | | | 84.7 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 87.8 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 77.3 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 79.3 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 86.1 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | 78.9 |
| Total | 75.3 | 74.1 | 80.3 | 86.4 | 89.2 | 91.3 | 93.3 | 95.6 | 97.5 | 99.0 | 87.5 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Shares refer to all enrolled students (including older than 18) compared to cohort 15-18.
For Year 2002: Shares refer to enrolled students aged 15-18 years compared to cohort 15-18.

Sources of the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004
For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 5: Participation Rates in General/Academic Upper Secondary Education by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|------|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 10.4 | m | m | 15.6 | 16.6 | 17.6 | 21.0 | 23.0 | 25.7 | 28.2 | 26.2 |
| Female | 22.0 | m | m | 26.3 | 27.3 | 28.2 | 30.4 | 35.4 | 38.4 | 42.3 | 40.3 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 38.0 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 28.4 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 7.6 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 13.4 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 31.9 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 62.6 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 75.7 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 33.5 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 20.3 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 27.7 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 32.4 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 30.1 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 27.2 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 31.8 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 28.3 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 28.6 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 40.5 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 32.4 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 29.3 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 36.3 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 35.4 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 36.2 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 53.8 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 27.8 |
| Romanians | | | | | | | | | | | n |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 11.1 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 10.9 |
| Montenegrians | | | | | | | | | | | 22.2 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 24.0 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 16.2 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 8.8 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 20.0 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | n |
| Total | 16.1 | | | 20.7 | 21.8 | 22.7 | 25.6 | 29.0 | 31.9 | 35.1 | 33.1 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Shares refer to all enrolled students (including older than 18) compared to cohort 15-18.

For Year 2002: Shares refer to enrolled students aged 15-18 years compared to cohort 15-18.

Sources of the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004

For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 6: Participation Rates in Vocational/Technical Upper Secondary Education by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985** | 1990* | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 64.1 | 73.3 | 78.8 | 68.4 | 69.4 | 71.0 | 70.0 | 70.6 | 70.4 | 69.6 | 59.5 |
| Female | 54.2 | 75.0 | 81.8 | 62.7 | 65.2 | 65.9 | 65.2 | 62.4 | 60.6 | 58.0 | 49.1 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 49.2 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 59.5 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 65.7 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 69.9 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 57.7 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 31.3 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 17.6 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 54.3 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 56.7 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 59.9 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 54.0 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 58.5 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 59.8 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 56.1 |
| Spodnjeposavska | | | | | | | | | | | 61.4 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 57.8 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 47.7 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 54.6 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 60.0 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 52.3 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 51.1 |
| Total | 59.2 | 74.1 | 80.3 | 65.7 | 67.4 | 68.5 | 67.7 | 66.6 | 65.6 | 63.9 | 54.4 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

**The data for 1985 and 1990 should not be taken into consideration, as they include academic education, as well

Notes about the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Shares refer to all enrolled students (including older than 18) compared to cohort 15-18.

For Year 2002: Shares refer to enrolled students aged 15-18 years compared to cohort 15-18.

Sources of the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004

For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

Table 7: Number of students attending general and vocational branches of upper secondary education, by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| Male | 42911 | 41904 | 47479 | 52585 | 53390 | 53665 | 53216 | 53143 | 52809 | 52160 | 44841 |
| Female | 42389 | 41207 | 47097 | 52242 | 53651 | 53697 | 53342 | 52791 | 52031 | 51368 | 45032 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 44044 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 45829 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 2369 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 11384 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 51887 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 5013 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 6923 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 87485 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 2388 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 5488 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 13638 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 3629 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 12084 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 2166 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 3301 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 6738 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 21708 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 9424 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 2399 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 5091 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 4207 |
| Total | 85300 | 83111 | 94576 | 104827 | 107041 | 107362 | 106558 | 105934 | 104840 | 103528 | 89873 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Numbers refer to all enrolled students (including older than 18).
For Year 2002: Numbers refer to enrolled students aged 15-18 years.

Sources of the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004
For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 8: Participation Rates in Tertiary Education by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | m | m | m | m | m | 25.1 | 27.3 | 29.0 | 30.6 | 33.1 | 35.0 |
| Female | m | m | m | m | m | 36.5 | 41.0 | 43.2 | 45.4 | 50.8 | 51.0 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 45.5 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 40.1 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 23.3 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 27.7 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 46.3 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 69.2 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 77.9 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 43.6 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 24.0 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 35.9 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 41.2 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 41.2 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 40.9 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 37.9 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 42.1 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 41.3 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 47.4 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 42.7 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 42.3 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 44.8 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 42.9 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 45.8 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 50.0 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 41.5 |
| Romanies | | | | | | | | | | | n |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 8.1 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 18.2 |
| Montenegrians | | | | | | | | | | | 29.7 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 34.9 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 17.9 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 13.9 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 28.7 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | n |
| Total | 13.2 | 14.6 | 18.1 | 21.5 | 25.4 | 30.6 | 33.9 | 36.0 | 37.7 | 41.7 | 42.8 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

All shares refer to enrolled students aged 19-23 years compared to cohort 19-23.

Sources of the Country Data

For Years 1980-2001: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004
 For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 9: Participation rates in Tertiary Education by population sub-group, (Differentiate by type of HE Institution and type of degree), Years 1980-2002

Table 9-a: Participation rates in first stage of Tertiary Education by population sub-group (ISCED 5), Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 10.4 | 12.2 | 13.5 | 14.8 | 16.0 | 16.7 |
| Female | 13.1 | 16.4 | 17.9 | 19.2 | 20.8 | 20.6 |
| Total | 11.7 | 14.2 | 15.7 | 16.9 | 18.3 | 18.6 |

Table 9-b: Participation rates in second stage of Tertiary Education by population sub-group (ISCED 6), Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Male | 14.7 | 15.1 | 15.5 | 15.8 | 17.1 | 16.9 |
| Female | 23.4 | 24.6 | 25.3 | 26.2 | 30.0 | 28.5 |
| Total | 18.9 | 19.7 | 20.3 | 20.8 | 23.4 | 22.5 |

Notes about the Country Data

All shares refer to enrolled students aged 19-23 years compared to cohort 19-23.

Sources of the Country Data

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Educational statistics, 2004

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 10: Percentage of 15 to 19-year-olds not in education or work, by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | 6.9 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | 5.9 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 6.9 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 5.9 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 14.1 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 8.6 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 4.7 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 2.1 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 2.0 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 6.2 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 13.8 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 8.8 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 8.0 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 5.2 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 6.6 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 7.4 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 5.7 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 6.7 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 5.7 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 5.5 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 5.4 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 4.3 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 7.1 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 4.7 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 7.7 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 9.8 |
| Romanians | | | | | | | | | | | 61.6 |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 15.2 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 8.8 |
| Montenegrians | | | | | | | | | | | 10.1 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 6.3 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 10.4 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 13.3 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 6.9 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | 11.0 |
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | 6.4 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

Sources of the Country Data

For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 11: Percentage of 20 to 24-year-olds not in education or work, by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | 15.0 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | 15.7 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 16.6 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 14.1 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 18.2 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 16.5 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 12.9 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 9.9 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 8.8 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 14.9 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 26.1 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 22.2 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 20.5 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 14.2 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 15.2 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 19.0 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 15.3 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 12.4 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 13.7 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 13.0 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 12.3 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 10.4 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 15.6 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 13.5 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 11.3 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 19.0 |
| Romanians | | | | | | | | | | | 83.4 |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 30.6 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 24.7 |
| Montenegrins | | | | | | | | | | | 23.3 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 19.7 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 21.3 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 26.8 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 20.5 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | 21.0 |
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | 15.4 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

Sources of the Country Data

For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 12: Percentage of adults aged 35 and over in enrolment in -- all levels of education, lower or upper secondary, and tertiary -- by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------------|
| Male | | | | | | | | | | | 2.3 |
| Female | | | | | | | | | | | 2.3 |
| Location | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | | | | | | | | | | | 2.9 |
| Rural | | | | | | | | | | | 1.6 |
| Fathers education* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ISCED 0,1 | | | | | | | | | | | 2.8 |
| ISCED 2 | | | | | | | | | | | 3.4 |
| ISCED 3 | | | | | | | | | | | 7.3 |
| ISCED 5 | | | | | | | | | | | 12.7 |
| ISCED 6 | | | | | | | | | | | 15.1 |
| Immigration Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Born in Slovenia | | | | | | | | | | | 2.4 |
| Born in a different country | | | | | | | | | | | 1.5 |
| Region | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pomurska | | | | | | | | | | | 1.3 |
| Podravska | | | | | | | | | | | 2.1 |
| Koroška | | | | | | | | | | | 1.9 |
| Savinjska | | | | | | | | | | | 2.0 |
| Zasavska | | | | | | | | | | | 2.1 |
| Spodnje-posavska | | | | | | | | | | | 1.8 |
| Jugovzhodna Slovenija | | | | | | | | | | | 2.2 |
| Osrednjeslovenska | | | | | | | | | | | 3.1 |
| Gorenjska | | | | | | | | | | | 2.2 |
| Notranjsko-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 1.9 |
| Goriška | | | | | | | | | | | 1.7 |
| Obalno-kraška | | | | | | | | | | | 2.7 |
| Ethnicity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Slovenians | | | | | | | | | | | 2.4 |
| Italians | | | | | | | | | | | 3.1 |
| Hungarians | | | | | | | | | | | 1.1 |
| Romanians | | | | | | | | | | | 0.8 |
| Albanians | | | | | | | | | | | 0.5 |
| Bosnians | | | | | | | | | | | 0.9 |
| Montenegrians | | | | | | | | | | | 2.3 |
| Croats | | | | | | | | | | | 1.8 |
| Macedonians | | | | | | | | | | | 1.9 |
| Muslims | | | | | | | | | | | 0.8 |
| Serbs | | | | | | | | | | | 1.3 |
| Other | | | | | | | | | | | 2.7 |
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | 2.3 |

*Data refer only to those living in families (with the father).

Notes about the Country Data

Data refer to participation of population aged 35 years and over in formal education.

Sources of the Country Data

For Year 2002: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; Population Census, 2002

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies

No data available

Table 13: Adult Participation in Continuing Education and Training-- by population sub-group, Years 1980-2002

| <i>By sub-population group</i> | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | 2001 | 2002 |
|--------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Men | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 3.1 | 2.7 |
| Women | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 3.9 | 3.2 | 3.1 |
| Total | 2.6 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 3.5 | 3.2 | 2.9 |

Notes about the Country Data

Shares refer to participation of population aged 15 years and more in continuing education

Sources of the Country Data

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, SORS, Labour Force Survey

Disaggregated Data and Related Studies