

# CHAPTER 3

## TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK: WHERE ARE THE 15-29 YEAR-OLDS?

The length and the quality of the schooling that individuals receive have an impact on students' transition from education to work; as do labour-market conditions, the economic environment and demographics. For example, in some countries, young people traditionally complete schooling before they look for work; in others, education and employment are concurrent. In some countries, there is little difference between how young women and men experience their transitions from school to work, while in other countries, significant proportions of young women raise families full time after leaving the education system and do not enter employment.

The ageing of the population in OECD countries should favour employment among young people, as, theoretically, when older people leave the labour market their jobs are made available to the young. However, during recessionary periods, fewer job vacancies make the transition from school to work substantially more difficult for young people, as those with more work experience are favoured over new entrants into the labour market. When labour-market conditions are unfavourable, young people often tend to stay in education longer, because high unemployment rates drive down the opportunity costs of education. At the same time, most countries are adopting policies that raise the age of retirement. Delaying retirement slows job rotation, which tends to lead to a decrease in job vacancies. This may account for differences in the number of young people (entrants) and older people (leavers) in the labour market.

To improve the transition from school to work, regardless of the economic climate, education systems should aim to ensure that individuals have the skills that are needed in the labour market. During recessions, public investment in education could be a sensible way to counterbalance unemployment and invest in future economic growth by building the needed skills. In addition, public investment could be directed towards potential employers in the form of incentives to hire young people.

### **Expected years in education**

In 2013, a typical 15-year-old in an OECD country could expect to spend about 7 additional years in formal education during the next 15 years. During these seven years in education he/she could expect to hold a job for two years (including work-study programmes) and be unemployed or inactive for 5 years. Almost eight years will therefore be spent not in education, of which he/she could expect to be employed for roughly five and a half years, to be unemployed for just over one year, and to be out of the labour force – that is, neither in

education nor seeking work – for just over one year. There are large differences among countries: in Colombia, Mexico, Turkey, these young people spend an average of about five years in education, and in Denmark, Iceland, Luxembourg and Slovenia, they spend an average of nine years (Table 3.1).

In most countries, 15-year-old students are about to finish compulsory education and efforts have been made over the past decade to encourage their participation in education beyond this level. As a result, the average number of years of formal education expected after compulsory schooling has increased considerably. On average among OECD countries, since 2000, about one year has been added to the duration of formal education; in the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Turkey and the Slovak Republic, two years and more have been added (Table 3.2).

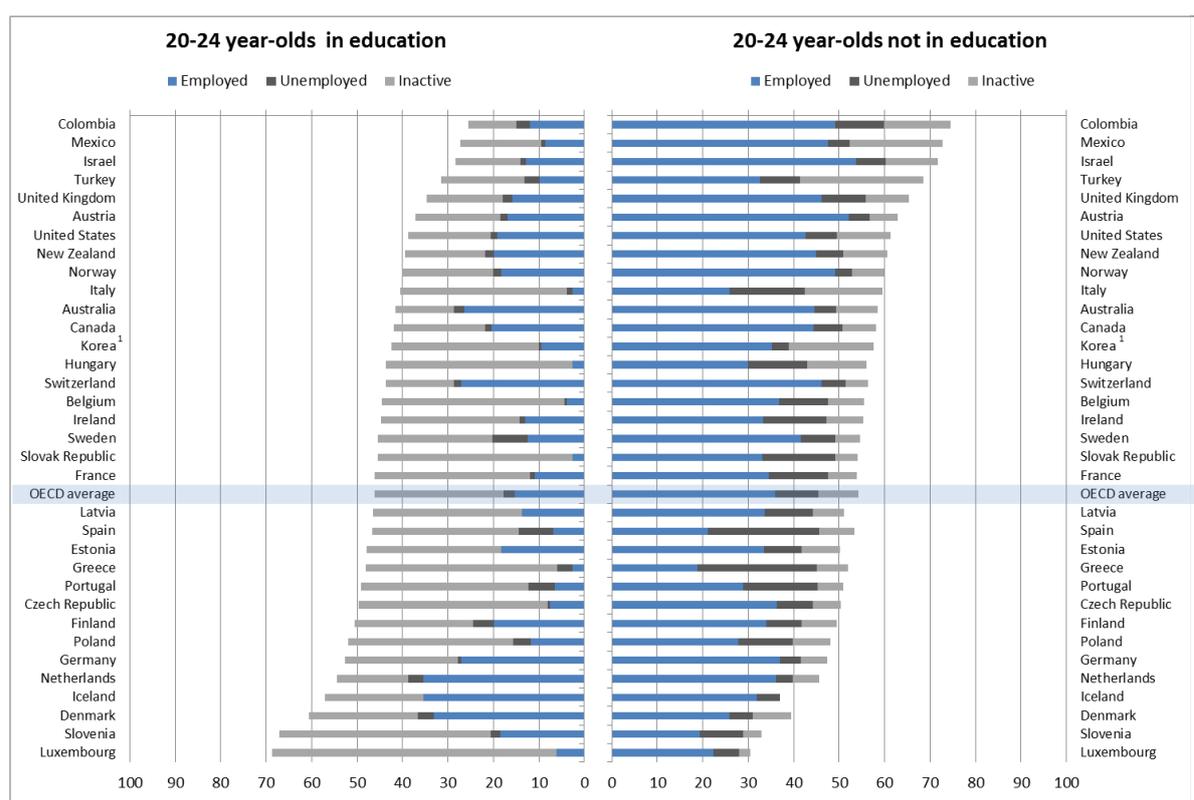
In most countries, years spent in education are normally not combined with work; the only exceptions are Denmark, Iceland, the Netherlands and Switzerland, where young people spend an average of four years or more working (including work-study programmes) while studying. On average across OECD countries, students spend nearly two out of seven years in education working while studying (Table 3.1).

There are no large differences between the genders in expected years in education, but in general women are more time in education than men, with the exceptions of Germany, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Mexico, the Netherlands and Turkey. There are larger differences, in some countries, in the employment experience of those who have left education: in Mexico and Turkey, men work over three years more than women (Table 3.1).

### Young people in education or not, and their labour market status

Young people tend to make the transition from education to the labour market between the ages of 15 and 29 years. As expected, the older individuals in this age band are less likely to be enrolled in educational institutions than the younger individuals. On average across OECD countries, the percentage of people in education by age group in 2013 was: about 87% of the 15-19 year-olds, 46% of the 20-24 year-olds and 16% of the 25-29 year-olds (Table 3.3).

For those who are not in education (i.e. 13% of the 15-19 year-olds, 54% of the 20-24 year-olds and 84% of the 25-29 year-olds), it is important to note their situation in the labour market. Chart 3.1 shows that, on average, among all 20-24 year-olds, 36% are not in education and employed, about 9% are not in education and unemployed, and 9% are not in education and inactive (i.e. not employed and not looking actively for a job). The percentage of 20-24 year-olds not in education ranges from below 35% in Luxembourg and Slovenia to over 65% in Colombia, Israel, Mexico, Turkey and the United Kingdom. For this age group, studying and working at the same time is an option in many countries: over 20% of the 20-24 year-olds are studying and working in Australia, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands and Switzerland (Table 3.3).

**Chart 3.1. Distribution of 20-24 year-olds in education/not in education, by work status (2013)**


**Note:** Data for 20-24 year-olds are not available for Japan.

1. Year of reference 2012.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-24 year-olds in education.

**Source:** OECD. Table 3.3. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

Participation in education and labour market also differs according to educational attainment. Among OECD countries, 68% of 15-29 year-olds who did not complete upper secondary are still in school while 26% with tertiary educational attainment are still in education. Those who have completed tertiary education and are no longer in education are usually employed, whereas individuals who are not in education and who did not complete upper secondary education are distributed almost evenly between employment and unemployment or inactivity. In Mexico, Turkey and the United Kingdom, less than 40% of the 15-29 year-olds who did not complete upper secondary education are still in school. In the Czech Republic, Finland, Luxembourg, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Sweden and Switzerland, more than 80% of young people who did not finish upper secondary education are still in school (Table 3.5).

### Young people neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET)

Unemployment and employment rates are useful indicators of how people engage in the labour market, but young individuals are particularly likely to delay their entry into the labour market or drop out of the labour force and become inactive. While increasing numbers of young people tend to stay in education beyond the age of compulsory schooling without being active on the labour market, it would be inappropriate to consider them as a high-risk group. Consequently, the proportion of young people neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET) is a better measure of the difficulties young people are facing when they

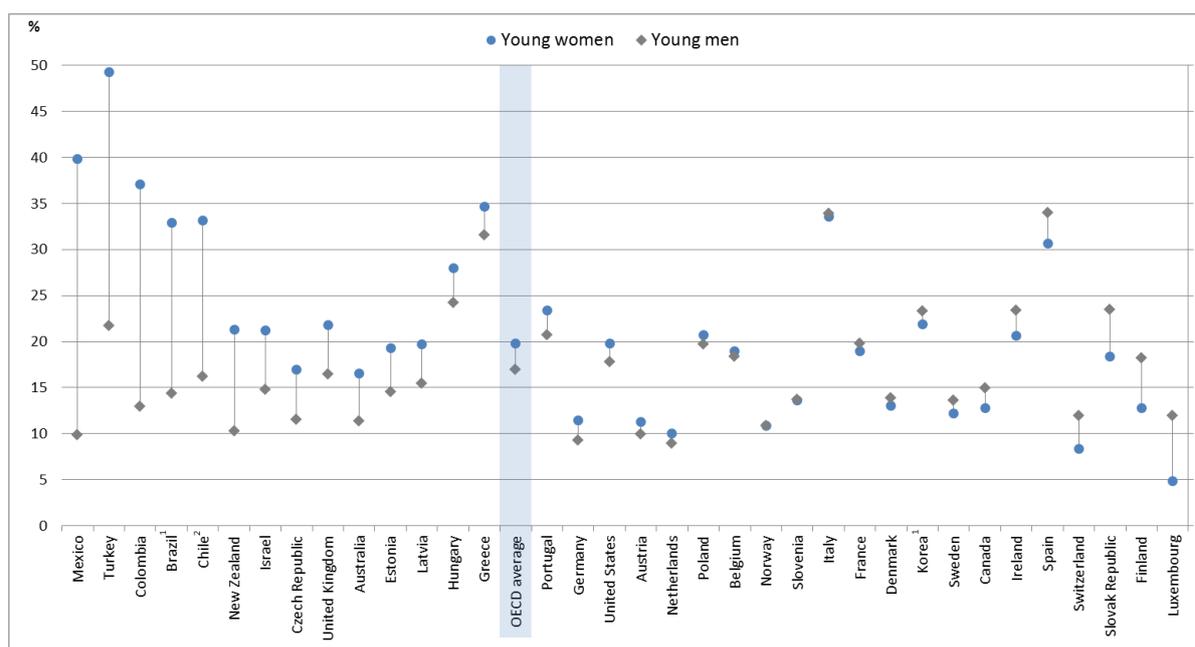
are searching for a job, as it includes not only those who do not manage to find a job (unemployed) but also those who do not actively seek employment (inactive).

The most important ages to look into when analysing the NEET population are 20-to 24 year-olds. At this age, compulsory education will not affect the proportion of inactive or unemployed. However, when analysing the proportion of NEET, it is important to realise that a significant proportion of 20-24 year-olds are still continuing their studies after compulsory education, therefore inflating the NEET denominator and consequently dragging down the proportion of NEET even if compulsory education is not covering this age group.

In 2013, Greece, Italy, Spain and Turkey were the only countries where more than 30% of the 20-24 year-olds were NEET. Turkey has the highest proportion of NEET, but it is also the only country among these 4 to show a decrease between 2005 and 2013, declining from 50% in 2005 to 36% in 2013 (Table 3.4).

Germany had a proportion of the 20-24 year-olds NEET that was above the OECD average in 2005 (19% against 18% for the OECD average), but showed significant progress in increasing the percentage of young people in education and/or employment. By 2013, the proportion of NEET was not only below the OECD average (10% against 18% for the OECD average), but it is also among the lowest levels observed among the OECD countries along with Iceland (9%), Luxembourg (8%), the Netherlands (10%) and Switzerland (10%) (Table 3.4).

**Chart 3.2. Percentage of 20-24 year-olds neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET), by gender (2013)**



**Note:** Data for 20-24 year-olds are not available for Japan.

1. Year of reference 2012.

2. Year of reference 2011.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the difference in the proportion of NEET between young women and young men of 20-24 years old.

**Source:** OECD. Table 3.3. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

In most countries the NEET situation is similar between men and women. However, when a difference is observed between genders, women generally have higher percentages. For example, there is more than 25 percentage points difference in the proportion of the NEET population between male and female 20-24 year-olds in Mexico and Turkey. The greatest

difference in favour of women is observed in Luxembourg where 5% of women are NEET whereas 12% of men are in the same situation. Chart 3.2 shows that there is no direct association between a country's overall proportion of NEET and its gender gap. In Italy and Turkey the proportion of NEET for men and women combined is above 30%, however the gender gap is very large in Turkey while it is almost inexistent in Italy (Table 3.3).

### **Working hours**

The extent to which 15-29 year-olds participate in the labour market not only varies in terms of employment, but it also varies in terms of intensity. As the transition between school and work will mostly happen among this age group, work intensity should be analysed separately between students and non-students. The latter mostly represents young people who recently finished their education and are available to work full-time, while students have to divide their time between work and school. The participation levels between these two groups are therefore very different; on one side students are showing lower levels of employment and lower number of hours worked, while on the other side non-students are showing higher employment levels and dedicate a greater number of hours to work.

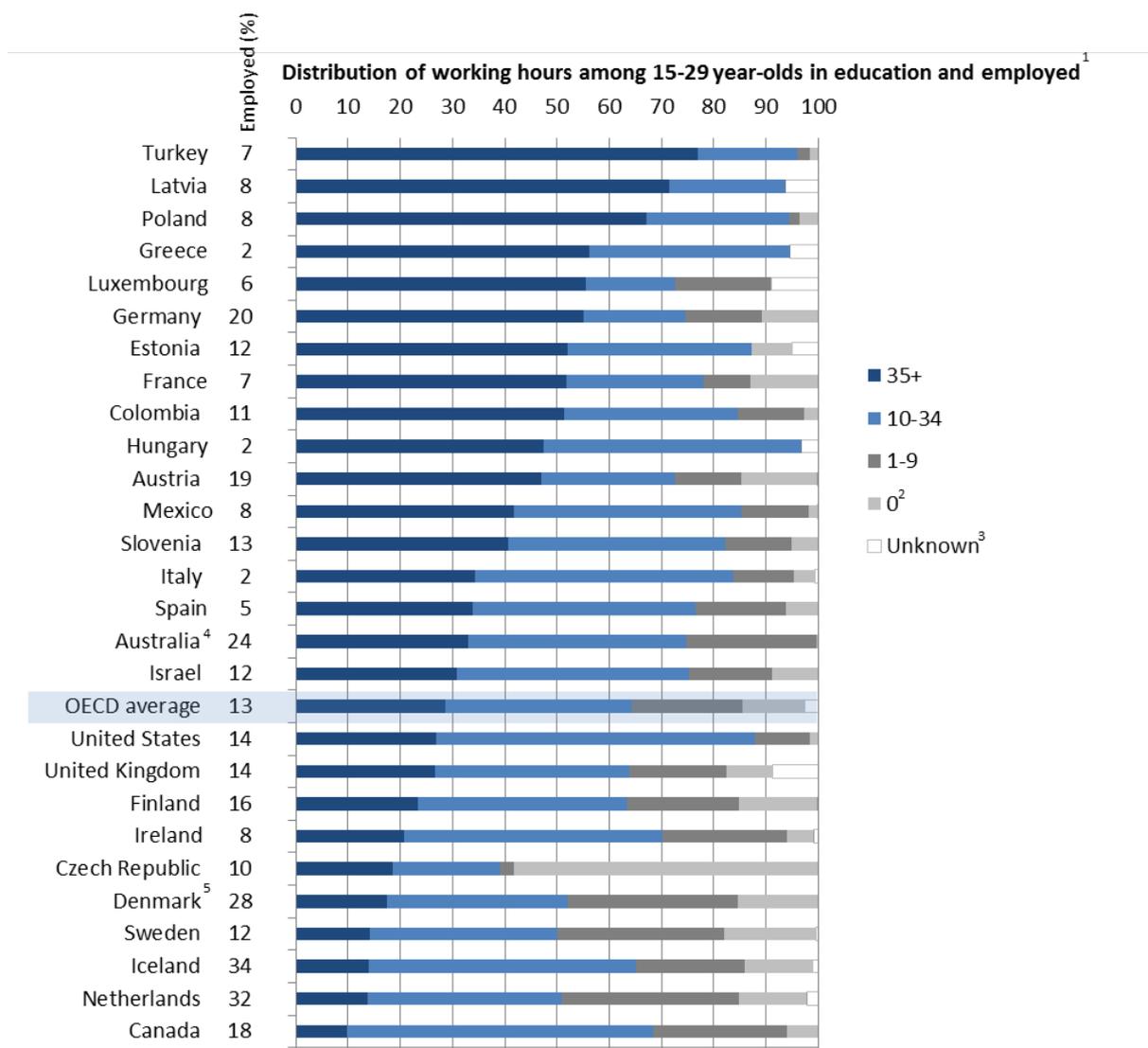
### **Working and studying at the same time – finding a good balance**

The varying levels of employment among students of 15-29 years old can be explained by cultural, economic or social differences across countries. For instance, in some countries, students may wait until they finish their studies before looking for a job, while in other countries, young people may be more inclined to work during their studies to gain some experience on the labour market or to finance their studies (and/or other expenses). In the latter case, as work comes as a concomitant activity with education and learning, attention should be devoted to the intensity of work, making sure students have sufficient time to dedicate to their studies and that work does not become an obstacle to education.

While there is no clear international recommendation for the appropriate number of hours a student should work, studies have shown that the skills and the work experience students are gaining in the labour market can be beneficial for both the academic and the professional spheres. The combination of work and study can provide students the opportunity to try different jobs before fully entering the world of work. Employment can help students to gain financial independence from their parents, develop a sense of responsibility, enhance self-accomplishment and social integration, and develop knowledge and skills that will help them find work after their studies (Dundes and Marx, 2006; Murier, 2006; OECD, 2010).

Dundes and Marx (2006) demonstrated that students who worked between 10 and 19 hours per week had stronger academic performance than other students (working or not), showing that an optimal work-study balance provides structure and discipline that are harder to acquire if working too few or too many hours. Their results indicated that students who worked while attending educational programmes believed that employment forced them to become more efficient.

Chart 3.3. Number of hours worked in a week, by 15-29 year-olds in education (2013)



**Note:** Countries for which the proportion of unknown is higher than 10% are not presented in this chart.

1. Hours worked are representing the actual number of hours worked per week, including overtime. When the actual number of hours worked per week could not be provided for a specific country, the usual hours worked were provided instead. The distribution is calculated based on the data presented in table 3.7. For example, in Turkey 7.4% of the 15-29 year-olds are in education and working and 5.7% of the 15-29 year-olds are in education and working 35 hours or more per week. The proportion shown in the graph for 35+ for Turkey is therefore 5.7% divided by 7.4% and multiplied by 100: 77%.

2. Respondents are classified as having worked zero hours if they did not work during the reference week while being in employment.

3. "Unknown" represents the 15-29 year-olds who are working and are in education for which the information on the number of hours worked could not be collected or published.

4. For Australia, the number of actual hours worked in a week was missing. Data on usual number of hours worked in a week were available and displayed here in place of the number of actual hours worked in a week.

5. Number of hours worked per week is provided for 10-35 hours in Denmark instead of 10-34 hours.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of 15-29 year-olds who are working 35 hours per week or more.

**Source:** OECD. Table 3.7. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

Chart 3.3 shows that in Latvia, Poland and Turkey, more than 60% of students who were employed worked 35 hours a week or more. Even if the overall proportion of students who worked was lower than the OECD average, there were still a significant number who worked full-time while studying even though these three countries had no work-study programmes (Tables 3.3 and 3.7).

Countries in which a large share of 15-29 year-olds were employed and studied at the same time usually showed low proportions of students working 35 hours or more per week. More than 25% of students were working in Denmark, Iceland and the Netherlands, but less than 20% of them worked 35 or more hours per week. The picture in Austria and Germany was different because of the prevalence of work-study programmes that represent about half of students in employment. In these 2 countries, about 1 in 5 young adults is studying and working at the same time in 2013, and about half of the individuals in this situation were working 35 hours per week or more. Thus, in a number of countries, the large proportion of students working long hours is part of an arrangement between school and future employers (Tables 3.3 and 3.7).

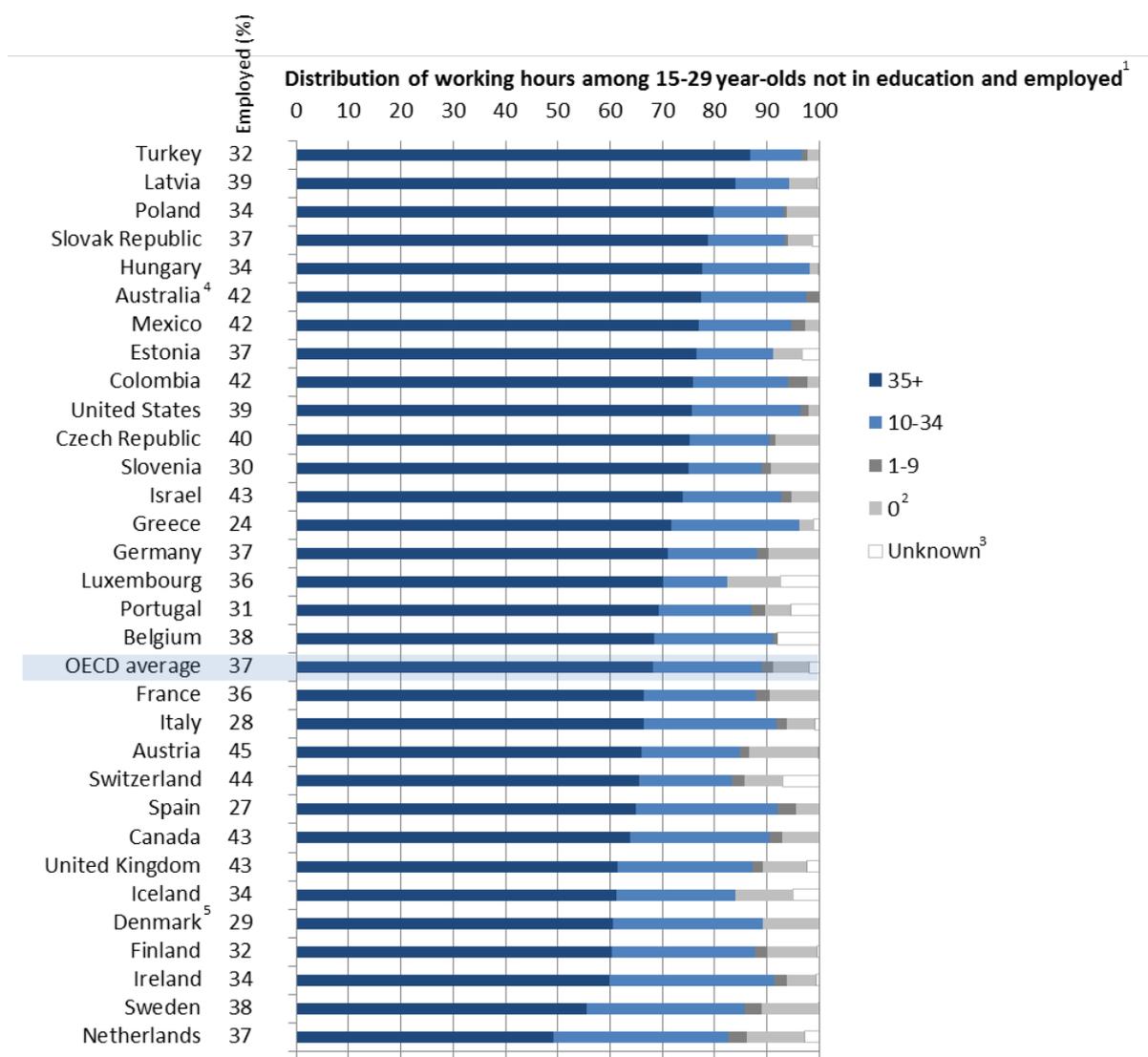
In the Czech Republic, Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden about half and more of the 15-29 year-olds working during their studies in 2013 worked 9 hours or less per week. In Canada, Iceland and the United States, more than 50% of the employed students worked between 10 to 34 hours per week. Finally, in Greece, Hungary and Italy, the proportion of young people who were in education and in employment was below 5%, with most students working 10 hours or more per week (Table 3.7).

### **Seeking a full-time job when leaving school**

Cross national data collected through labour force surveys show that most young people take up a full-time job after finishing their studies, but in some countries such as the Netherlands and Sweden, there is a significant proportion of 15-29 year-olds who are not in education and who work less than 35 hours per week (48% and 44% respectively). Young people who work part-time without being in education can do so for different reasons. Some may decide to work part-time to accommodate family related tasks such as taking care of children or other family members, but others may want to work full-time but are unable to find a position (Table 3.7).

Charts 3.3 and 3.4 show that the proportion of full-time workers among students and non-students was highest in Latvia, Poland and Turkey. Less than a quarter of non-student workers were working 34 hours or less in 2013, indicating that in those countries no matter whether you are a student or not, either you are employed full-time or you are not employed at all (Table 3.7).

Chart 3.4. Number of hours worked in a week, by 15-29 year-olds not in education (2013)



**Note:** Countries for which the proportion of unknown is higher than 10% are not presented in this chart.

1. Hours worked are representing the actual number of hours worked per week, including overtime. When the actual number of hours worked per week could not be provided for a specific country, the usual hours worked were provided instead. The distribution is calculated based on the data presented in table 3.7. For example, in Turkey 32.3% of the 15-29 year-olds are not education and working and 28.0% of the 15-29 year-olds are not education and working 35 hours or more per week. The proportion shown in the graph for 35+ for Turkey is therefore 28.0% divided by 32.3% and multiplied by 100: 87%.

2. Respondents are classified as having worked zero hours if they did not work during the reference week while being in employment.

3. "Unknown" represents the 15-29 year-olds who are working and are not in education for which the information on the number of hours worked could not be collected or published.

4. For Australia, the number of actual hours worked in a week was missing. Data on usual number of hours worked in a week were available and displayed here in place of the number of actual hours worked in a week.

5. Number of hours worked per week is provided for 10-35 hours in Denmark instead of 10-34 hours.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of 15-29 year-olds who are working 35 hours per week or more.

**Source:** OECD. Table 3.7. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

## Definitions

**Employed individuals** are those who, during the survey reference week: *i*) work for pay (employees) or profit (self-employed and unpaid family workers) for at least one hour; or *ii*) have a job but are temporarily not at work (through injury, illness, holiday, strike or lock-out, educational or training leave, maternity or parental leave, etc.).

**Inactive individuals** are those who are, during the survey reference week, neither employed nor unemployed, i.e. individuals who are not looking for a job. The number of inactive individuals is calculated by subtracting the number of active people (labour force) from the number of all working-age people.

**Hours worked:** Hours worked is the number of hours actually worked, defined as the sum of all periods spent on direct and ancillary activities to produce goods and services. The number of hours actually worked covers all hours including extra hours regardless of whether they were paid or not. The reference period for the actual work would be the week of reference. Data on usual number of hours worked were used in the cases where the number of actual hours worked could not be collected.

**Levels of education: below upper secondary** corresponds to ISCED levels 0, 1, 2 and 3C short programmes; **upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary** corresponds to ISCED levels 3A, 3B, 3C long programmes, and ISCED level 4; and **tertiary corresponds** to ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6. See the Reader's Guide for a presentation of all ISCED levels.

**NEET:** Neither in employment nor in education or training.

**Unemployed individuals** are those who are, during the survey reference week, without work (i.e. neither had a job nor were at work for one hour or more in paid employment or self-employment), actively seeking employment (i.e. had taken specific steps during the four weeks prior to the reference week to seek paid employment or self-employment), and currently available to start work (i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment before the end of the two weeks following the reference week).

## Methodology

Data on population, educational attainment and labour-market status for most countries are taken from OECD and Eurostat databases, which are compiled from National Labour Force Surveys by the OECD LSO (Labour Market, Economic and Social Outcomes of Learning) Network, and usually refer to the first quarter, or the average of the first three months of the calendar year. Some discrepancies may exist in the data collected. For example some countries may refer to all jobs instead of main job.

For Israel, the proportion of NEETs in 2013 is not comparable with data from 2011 and previous years. Conscripts in the army are considered to be employed in 2013, as opposed to 2011 and the previous year, when they were counted as not in the labour force.

### Note regarding data from Israel

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and are under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

## References

Dundes, L. and J. Marx (2006), "Balancing Work and Academics in College: Why Do Students Working 10 to 19 Hours per Week Excel?", *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice*, Vol. 8, No. 1.

Murier, T. (2006), “L’activité professionnelle des élèves et des étudiants : Une étude basée sur les résultats de l’enquête suisse sur la population active 1996-2005”, *Actualité OFS*, No. 3, Neuchâtel.

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### Tables of Chapter 3

Only extracts of Tables 3.1 and 3.3 are shown in this chapter. The full set of tables listed below is available at <http://www.oecd.org/edu/Chapter3-TablesandCharts-IEAG2015web.xlsx>.

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**Table 3.1** Expected years in education/not in education from age 15 through 29, by work status and gender (2013)

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**Table 3.2** Trends in expected years in education/not in education for 15-29 year-olds, by gender (2000, 2005-2013)

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**Table 3.3** Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, by age group, work status and gender (2013)

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**Table 3.4** Trends in the percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, employed or not, by age group and gender (2000, 2005-2013)

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**Table 3.5** Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, by educational attainment, work status and gender (2013)

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**Table 3.6** Trends in the percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, employed or not, by educational attainment and gender (2006-2013)

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**Table 3.7** Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, by age group and number of hours worked (2013)

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**Table 3.8** Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, by educational attainment and number of hours worked (2013)

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**Table 3.1. Expected years in education/not in education from age 15 through 29, by work status and gender (2013)**

	Total (young men + young women)						
	Expected years in education			Expected years not in education			
	Unemployed or inactive	Employed (including work-study programmes) <sup>1</sup>	Sub-total	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Sub-total
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<b>OECD</b>							
Australia	3.1	3.6	6.7	6.3	0.6	1.3	8.3
Austria	4.0	2.8	6.8	6.7	0.6	0.8	8.2
Belgium	6.5	0.5	7.1	5.7	1.1	1.2	7.9
Canada	4.0	2.7	6.7	6.4	0.8	1.1	8.3
Chile	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	5.6	1.5	7.0	6.0	0.9	1.1	8.0
Denmark	4.7	4.2	9.0	4.3	0.7	1.1	6.0
Estonia	5.4	1.8	7.2	5.6	0.9	1.3	7.8
Finland	5.8	2.5	8.3	4.9	0.8	1.1	6.7
France	6.0	1.1	7.1	5.5	1.4	1.0	7.9
Germany	4.9	3.0	7.9	5.6	0.6	0.8	7.1
Greece	6.8	0.3	7.1	3.6	3.3	1.0	7.9
Hungary	6.5	0.3	6.8	5.1	1.4	1.7	8.2
Iceland	3.7	5.0	8.7	5.1	0.7	0.5	6.3
Ireland	5.7	1.2	6.9	5.2	1.5	1.4	8.1
Israel	4.5	1.8	6.3	6.4	0.7	1.5	8.7
Italy	6.6	0.3	6.9	4.2	1.8	2.2	8.1
Japan <sup>2</sup>	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Korea <sup>3</sup>	6.2	0.8	7.0	5.3	0.4	2.3	8.0
Luxembourg	7.8	0.9	8.7	5.4	0.5	0.4	6.3
Mexico	4.2	1.2	5.4	6.3	0.6	2.8	9.6
Netherlands	3.3	4.8	8.2	5.5	0.5	0.8	6.8
New Zealand	4.3	2.5	6.8	6.1	0.8	1.3	8.2
Norway	4.5	2.3	6.8	6.9	0.5	0.9	8.2
Poland	6.2	1.1	7.3	5.1	1.3	1.2	7.7
Portugal	6.8	1.0	7.7	4.7	1.9	0.7	7.3
Slovak Republic	5.9	0.7	6.6	5.5	1.9	1.0	8.4
Slovenia	6.7	1.9	8.6	4.4	1.3	0.7	6.4
Spain	6.3	0.7	6.9	4.0	3.0	1.0	8.1
Sweden	6.1	1.7	7.9	5.7	0.7	0.7	7.1
Switzerland	3.2	3.9	7.1	6.5	0.7	0.7	7.9
Turkey	4.4	1.1	5.5	4.8	1.0	3.7	9.5
United Kingdom	4.2	2.1	6.3	6.4	1.0	1.3	8.7
United States	4.7	2.1	6.8	5.8	0.8	1.6	8.2
<b>OECD average<sup>4</sup></b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>7.8</b>
<b>EU21 average</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>1.3</b>	<b>1.1</b>	<b>7.6</b>
<b>Partners</b>							
Argentina	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
China	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Colombia	3.7	1.7	5.4	6.4	1.2	2.1	9.6
India	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Indonesia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Latvia	5.6	1.2	6.8	5.8	1.3	1.1	8.2
Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
South Africa	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
<b>G20 average</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>

**Note:** Columns showing data by gender are available for consultation at: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/Chapter3-TablesandCharts-IEAG2015web.xlsx>.

1. Students in work-study programmes are considered to be both in education and employed, irrespective of their labour market status according to the ILO definition.

2. Data refer to 15-24 year-olds.

3. Year of reference 2012.

4. OECD average excluding Japan and Korea.

**Source:** OECD. Colombia: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Latvia: Eurostat. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.

**Table 3.3. Percentage of 15-29 year-olds in education/not in education, by age group, work status and gender (2013)**

	Total (young men + young women)										
	In education						Not in education				
	Employed	Employed		Un-employed	Inactive	Sub-total (employed + un-employed + inactive)	Employed	NEET <sup>2</sup>	NEET <sup>2</sup>		Sub-total (employed + un-employed + inactive)
		Students in work-study programmes <sup>1</sup>	Other employed						Un-employed	Inactive	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	
<b>OECD</b>											
Australia	24.1	3.5	20.6	2.6	18.2	44.8	42.2	13.0	4.0	9.0	55.2
Austria	18.8	8.3	10.5	1.3	25.3	45.4	45.0	9.6	4.3	5.4	54.6
Belgium	3.6	0.8	2.8	0.4	43.1	47.1	38.0	14.9	7.1	7.8	52.9
Canada	17.8	a	17.8	2.7	24.3	44.7	42.8	12.4	5.2	7.3	55.3
Chile	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	9.9	5.5	4.4	0.4	36.6	46.9	39.8	13.2	5.8	7.5	53.1
Denmark	28.2	a	28.2	3.5	28.0	59.7	28.5	11.7	4.4	7.3	40.3
Estonia	11.8	a	11.8	1.4	34.8	47.9	37.3	14.8	6.3	8.5	52.1
Finland	16.4	a	16.4	4.2	34.6	55.2	32.4	12.3	5.2	7.1	44.8
France	7.0	a	7.0	0.7	39.6	47.3	36.3	16.3	9.6	6.8	52.7
Germany	20.0	10.2	9.8	0.8	32.1	52.9	37.5	9.7	4.1	5.6	47.1
Greece	1.8	a	1.8	2.2	43.2	47.2	24.3	28.5	21.7	6.7	52.8
Hungary	2.0	a	2.0	0.3	43.4	45.6	33.9	20.5	9.2	11.3	54.4
Iceland	33.6	a	33.6	2.8	21.6	58.0	34.1	7.9	4.4	3.5	42.0
Ireland	8.1	a	8.1	0.8	37.4	46.3	34.4	19.2	9.9	9.3	53.7
Israel	12.3	a	12.3	1.3	28.6	42.2	42.8	15.0	4.9	10.0	57.8
Italy	2.1	0.2	1.9	1.0	42.8	46.0	27.9	26.1	11.7	14.4	54.0
Korea <sup>3</sup>	5.3	a	5.3	0.4	40.7	46.5	35.0	18.5	2.9	15.6	53.5
Luxembourg	5.7	a	5.7	0.7	51.6	57.9	36.0	6.1	3.4	2.6	42.1
Mexico	8.0	a	8.0	0.7	27.1	35.8	41.9	22.3	3.8	18.5	64.2
Netherlands	32.2	a	32.2	3.9	18.4	54.5	36.6	8.9	3.4	5.5	45.5
New Zealand	16.4	a	16.4	3.1	25.6	45.0	40.9	14.1	5.2	9.0	55.0
Norway	15.5	a	15.5	2.0	27.7	45.2	45.7	9.1	3.0	6.1	54.8
Poland	7.5	a	7.5	1.8	39.6	48.9	34.2	17.0	8.7	8.3	51.1
Portugal	6.4	a	6.4	4.6	40.6	51.6	31.1	17.3	12.6	4.7	48.4
Slovak Republic	4.5	2.8	1.7	0.3	39.4	44.1	36.8	19.1	12.4	6.7	55.9
Slovenia	12.7	a	12.7	1.7	42.8	57.2	29.6	13.2	8.8	4.4	42.8
Spain	4.6	a	4.6	4.5	37.3	46.3	26.8	26.8	20.2	6.6	53.7
Sweden	11.6	a	11.6	6.8	34.0	52.3	38.3	9.4	5.0	4.4	47.7
Switzerland	26.3	15.0	11.2	1.2	20.0	47.4	43.5	9.0	4.6	4.5	52.6
Turkey	7.4	a	7.4	1.9	27.2	36.5	32.3	31.3	6.3	24.9	63.5
United Kingdom	14.0	2.8	11.2	2.8	25.1	41.9	42.5	15.6	6.9	8.7	58.1
United States	14.1	a	14.1	1.8	29.3	45.2	38.8	16.0	5.2	10.8	54.8
<b>OECD average<sup>4</sup></b>	<b>13.1</b>		<b>11.6</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>32.8</b>	<b>48.0</b>	<b>36.8</b>	<b>15.2</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>52.0</b>
<b>EU21 average</b>	<b>10.9</b>		<b>9.4</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>36.6</b>	<b>49.6</b>	<b>34.6</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>50.4</b>
<b>Partners</b>											
Argentina	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
China	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Colombia	11.1	m	11.1	2.4	22.5	36.0	42.4	21.6	7.9	13.7	64.0
India	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Indonesia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Latvia	8.2	a	8.2	1.5	35.8	45.5	38.7	15.8	8.6	7.2	54.5
Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
South Africa	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
<b>G20 average</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>	<b>m</b>

**Note:** Columns showing data by gender are available for consultation at: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/Chapter3-TablesandCharts-IEAG2015web.xlsx>.

1. Students in work-study programmes are considered to be both in education and employed, irrespective of their labour market status according to the ILO definition.
2. Young people neither in employment nor in education or training.
3. Year of reference 2012.
4. OECD average excluding Japan and Korea.

**Source:** OECD. Colombia: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Latvia: Eurostat. See Annex for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm)).

Please refer to Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.