

Education at a Glance 2008

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OECD Briefing Note For Mexico

Governments are paying increasing attention to international comparisons as they search for effective policies that enhance individuals' social and economic prospects, provide incentives for greater efficiency in the provision of education, and help to mobilise resources to meet rising demands.

In response to this need, the OECD devotes a major effort to the development and analysis of quantitative, internationally comparable indicators, which are published annually in *Education at a Glance*. These indicators enable educational policy makers and practitioners alike to see their education systems in the light of other countries' performances and, together with OECD's country policy reviews, are designed to support and review the efforts that governments are making towards policy reform.

This note contrasts **key findings for Mexico** with **global trends among OECD countries**, under the headings: quantity and quality challenges, resource and efficiency challenges and equity challenges.

Education at a Glance 2008, as well as its executive summary and the underlying data can be downloaded free of charge at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008

Questions can be directed to:

Andreas Schleicher

Head, Indicators and Analysis Division

OECD Directorate for Education

Tel: +33 1 45 24 93 66, email Andreas.Schleicher@OECD.org

RESOURCE AND EFFICIENCY CHALLENGES

Meeting the demand for more education while improving quality is bound to create pressures for current levels of spending to be maintained or increased and to improve the efficiency of spending on education. Recent years have already seen considerable rises in spending levels, both in absolute terms and as a share of public budgets. The total amount of funds allocated to educational institutions across all levels of education rose in all countries with available data over the last decade, and by 19% on average in real terms between 2000 and 2005 alone. By 2005, OECD countries were spending 6.1% of their collective GDP on education at all levels, of which 86% came from public sources and all but 7 of the 28 OECD countries spent at least 5%. Another visible indication of the efforts made by governments can be found in the fact that from 1995 to 2005, public expenditure on education grew by more than one percentage point as a proportion of all public spending – from 11.9% to 13.2% in 2005. Education spending rose at least as fast as public spending in other sectors in all countries except Canada, France, Hungary, Portugal and Switzerland.

Alongside the increase in public spending on education, there has also been a search for new sources of funding to accommodate the rapid growth in student numbers (particularly at the tertiary level) and to increase the resources available to educational institutions. Although 86% of spending on education still originates from public sources for all levels of education combined, private spending increased more rapidly than public spending between 1995 and 2005 in nearly three-quarters of the countries examined. In some, the proportion of private funding of tertiary educational institutions is high enough to challenge the view that tertiary education is solely a state responsibility. In fact, this view is gradually being replaced by the perception that, given the shared public and private returns that education brings, costs and responsibilities for its provision should also be shared between those who directly benefit and society at large (i.e. private households and businesses as well as governments), at least at the tertiary level of education.

While significant additional investments in education will be important, it is equally clear that more money alone will not be enough. Investments in education will also need to become more efficient. The education sector has not yet re-invented itself in ways that other professions have done to improve outcomes and raise productivity. Indeed, the evidence suggests the reverse, namely that productivity in education has generally declined because the quality of schooling has broadly remained constant, while the price of the inputs has markedly increased. As the place and mode of educational provision have largely remained unchanged, the labour-intensiveness of education and the predominance of teachers' salaries in overall costs (with pay scales based on qualifications and automatic increases) have made personnel costs rise over time. This edition of Education at a Glance provides a first picture of the spending choices that different countries are making.

<i>Global trends</i>	<i>Key results for Mexico</i>
<p><i>OECD countries spend 6.1% of their collective GDP on educational institutions. However, the increase in spending on educational institutions between 1995 and 2005 fell behind growth in national income in nearly half of the 28 OECD countries for which data are available.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The highest spenders on educational institutions are Denmark, Iceland, Korea, the United States and the partner country Israel, with at least 7% of GDP accounted for by public and private spending on educational institutions, followed by Mexico and New Zealand with more than 6.5%. By contrast, seven out of 28 OECD countries for which data are available as well as three out of six partner countries spend less than 5% of GDP on educational institutions; in Greece and in the partner country the Russian Federation, the figure is 4.2 and 3.8%, respectively (Table B2.1). • Tertiary education accounts for nearly one-third of the combined OECD expenditure on educational institutions (2.0% of the combined GDP). In Canada and the United States, expenditure at this level reaches up to 40% of expenditure on educational institutions (Table B2.1). Relative to GDP, the United States spends over three times more on tertiary education than Italy and the Slovak Republic and nearly four times more than the partner countries Brazil and the Russian Federation. • On average across OECD countries, expenditure for all levels of education combined increased relatively more than GDP between 1995 and 2005. The increase in expenditure on educational institutions as a proportion of GDP exceeded 0.8 percentage points over this decade in Denmark, Greece, Mexico and the United Kingdom (Table B2.3). 	<p><i>Mexico has made major investments in education. It has shown consistent increases in educational investment, not just in absolute terms, but also in terms of a rising share of GDP being devoted to education.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mexico has shown rises in its investment in education, not just in absolute terms, where increases were observed in most countries over recent years, but also relative to national income: over the period 1995-2005, spending on educational institutions in Mexico increased from 5.6% to 6.5% of GDP, a level that is above the OECD average of 5.8%. Mexico is one of the three countries with the largest increases in educational expenditure as a percentage of GDP over this 10-year period (Tables B2.1 and B2.3). <p><i>Mexico's share of public spending in education is the highest among OECD countries.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At 23.4%, the share of public spending invested in education is the highest among OECD countries and almost twice as high as at the OECD average level (13.2%) (Table B4.1).
<p><i>OECD countries as a whole spend USD 8 553 per student annually between primary and tertiary education: USD 6 173 per primary student, USD 7 736 per secondary student and USD 15 559 per tertiary student. These expenditures continue to rise in real terms.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expenditure on educational institutions per 	<p><i>Despite high levels of spending relative to GDP as well as available public resources, spending per student remains low in absolute terms.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To assess their potential impact on the quality of educational services, the resources invested in education need to be seen in relation to the number of students enrolled. On that measure, spending

primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary student increased in every country and on average by 35% between 1995 and 2005 during a period of relatively stable student numbers.

- The pattern is different at the tertiary level where spending per student has fallen in some cases, as expenditure has not kept up with the expansion in student numbers. However, from 2000 to 2005, expenditure on educational institutions per tertiary student increased by 11 percentage points on average in OECD countries after remaining stable from 1995 to 2000. Only Australia, Austria, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Mexico, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom saw a larger increase in expenditure on educational institutions per tertiary student than in GDP per capita (Tables B1.4 and B1.5).
- Seven out of the 11 countries in which student enrolments in tertiary education increased by more than 20 percentage points between 2000 and 2005 have increased their expenditure on tertiary educational institutions by at least the same proportion over the period, whereas Hungary, Sweden and the partner countries Brazil and Chile did not (Table B1.5).
- Teacher compensation cost per student at the upper secondary level varies from 3.9% of GDP per capita in the Slovak Republic (less than half the OECD average rate of 10.9%) to over five times that rate in Portugal (20.9%, nearly twice the OECD average). Four factors influence these trends – salary levels, the amount of instruction time for students, the amount of teaching time required of teachers and average class size – so that a given level of compensation cost per student can result from quite different combinations of the four factors. For example, in Korea and Luxembourg, the compensation cost per student (as a percentage of GDP per capita) is 15.5 and 15.2%, respectively, both notably higher than the OECD average. However, whereas in Korea higher than average teacher salary levels coupled with relatively large class sizes are the main influence on this, in Luxembourg, relatively low class size is the main factor which results in such a high teacher compensation cost per student (as a proportion of GDP per capita) compared to the OECD average

per student across all levels of education (excluding pre-primary education) in Mexico is, at USD 2 405 (equivalent), below the OECD average of USD 7 527 (Table B1.1a).

- Mexico has still the one of the largest gaps between spending per primary student and spending per tertiary student: Expenditure per tertiary student is three times the expenditure per primary student (Table B1.1.a).
- Spending per primary student in Mexico, at USD 1 913 (adjusted for differences in Purchasing Power Parities), is still very low and is approximately one third of the OECD average (USD 6 252). Spending per student in lower secondary education (USD 1 839) is approximately one quarter of the OECD average of USD 7 437 (Table B1.1a).
- At the upper secondary level spending per student is, at USD 2 853 significantly higher, but represents only one third of the OECD average level (USD 8 366).
- At the tertiary level, spending per student is, at USD 6 402, slightly more than half of spending per student at the OECD average level (USD 11 512) (Table B1.1a). Although tertiary students have more spent on them than primary or lower secondary students, spending per tertiary student over the average duration of studies in Mexico (USD 21 896, Table B1.3b) is equal or less than what the United States and Switzerland spend per student in a single year, namely USD 24 370 and USD 21 734, respectively (Table B1.1b).
- Different supply and demand factors have influenced variation in spending per student across countries. In Mexico, between 1995 and 2005, spending on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education increased by 54%, the steepest increase in the OECD after Greece, Ireland, Poland, and the United Kingdom. Spending per student increased by 36%, at a somewhat lower rate, because enrolment also rose by 14%. Both the change in expenditure and the change in the number of students in Mexico are above the OECD average (Table B1.5).

High teacher salaries are traded against large class sizes

- In an analysis new to this year's edition of

(Table B7.2).

- In countries with the lowest compensation cost per student (as a percentage of GDP per capita) at the upper secondary level, low salary levels as a proportion of GDP is usually the main driver. This is the case in Iceland, Ireland, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Sweden. The main exception to this pattern is Mexico where teacher salary costs relative to GDP per capita are well above the OECD average but this is more than compensated for by large class sizes (Table B7.2).
- In contrast, among countries with the highest levels of compensation cost per student (Portugal, Spain, Switzerland), no single factor determines this position, but rather each of the four factors act to increase costs to varying degrees (Table B7.2).
- High spending per student cannot automatically be equated with strong performance by education systems. Spending per student up to the age of 15 in the Czech Republic is roughly one-third of, and in Korea roughly one-half of, spending levels in the United States. However, while both the Czech Republic and Korea are among the top ten performers in the PISA 2006 assessment of science achievement among 15-year-olds, the United States performs below the OECD average. Similarly, Spain and the United States perform almost equally well, but while the United States spends roughly USD 95 600 per student up to the age of 15 years, Spain only spends USD 61 860 (Table B7.1).

Education at a Glance, comparisons of costs per student (as a percentage of GDP per capita) at the upper secondary level are decomposed into some of the factors that influence these comparisons. Mexico has a lower than average cost for teacher compensation per student at the upper secondary level, which is the result of two opposite effects: above-average teacher salary costs relative to GDP per capita (which is well above the OECD average), but this influence is more than compensated for by large class sizes (Table B7.2 and chart B7.1).

- This contrasts with the policy choices made in some other countries. For example, in Iceland, where compensation costs per student are similar to those of Mexico, these costs are instead driven by below average teacher salary costs, which outweigh the effect of below average teaching time.
- These comparisons show that the same levels of expenditure can be deployed quite differently and serve to illustrate why the relationship between expenditure and performance is not straightforward. Indeed, cumulative expenditure per student aged between 6 and 15 explains merely 14% of the variation in mean PISA performance in science. In Mexico, both the cumulative expenditure per student aged between 6 and 15 (USD 19 846) and the mean score in PISA performance in science are below the average (Table B7.1).

In tertiary education, an above-average increase in spending in Mexico exceeded the above-average increase in student enrolment.

- At the tertiary level, an above-average increase in spending in Mexico (77%) exceeded the above-average increase in student enrolment (57%), such that spending per student increased by 13% in real terms between 1995 and 2005. This was a higher increase in per student spending than across the OECD on average, with the result that expenditure per student at the tertiary level is still above the OECD average. Notably, however, there are also countries where spending per student has fallen by about 10% or more, as spending levels have not kept pace with expanding student numbers, such as in Hungary and Ireland (Table B1.5).

	<p><i>A significant proportion of university students do not complete their programmes successfully</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Mexico, 61% of those who enter tertiary-type A programmes go on to successfully complete their programme. This is below the OECD average of 69%. Contrary to the trend in most OECD countries, tertiary-type B completion rates in Mexico are somewhat higher than those for tertiary-type A programmes, at 64% (above the OECD average of 62%) (Table A4.1).
<p><i>In all countries, public funding on educational institutions increased between 1995 and 2005. However, private spending increased faster in nearly three-quarters of these countries.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On average over 90% of primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in OECD countries, and other than in Korea, no less than 80%, is paid for publicly (Table B3.2a). • In tertiary education the proportion funded privately varies widely, from less than 5% in Denmark, Finland and Greece, to more than 40% in Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, the United States and in the partner country Israel, and to over 75% in Korea and the partner country Chile. As with tertiary graduation and entry rates, the proportion of private funding can be influenced by the incidence of international students who form a relatively high proportion of the student body in Australia and New Zealand (Table B3.2b). • On average among the 18 OECD countries for which trend data are available, the share of public funding in tertiary institutions decreased slightly from 79% in 1995 to 77% in 2000 and to 73% in 2005. However, the increase in private investment has not displaced but complemented public financing, the amount of public funding has simply tended to increase at a lower rate (Table B3.2b). • In eight out of the 11 OECD countries with the largest increases in public expenditure on tertiary education between 2000 and 2005, tertiary institutions charge low or no tuition fees. The exceptions are Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States (Indicator B5). • In tertiary education, households account for 	<p><i>Private sources of funding provide an above-average share of educational spending in Mexico.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking all levels of education together, private spending as a proportion of total spending rose in Mexico between 2000 and 2005 (as was the case in nearly three-quarters of the countries with comparable data), resulting in an increase in the share of private funding of more than 5 percentage points (only Portugal, the Slovak Republic and the UK recorded a similar increase in the private share of funding) (Table B3.1). [Note that private spending originates both in households and other private entities and can go to private as well as public institutions.] • Looking specifically at the primary and secondary levels in Mexico over the same period, the private share of funding increased from 13.9% to 17.1% (the largest increase in percentage points after Canada, the Czech Republic, Italy, Korea, the Slovak Republic and the UK). Moreover, in both years this represented one of the lowest proportions of public funding among the 26 OECD countries reporting data for both years (Table B3.2a). • At the pre-primary level, where the relative proportions of public funding range from 100% in Sweden to 41.1% in Korea, the public funding share in Mexico was 81.1% in 2005, above the OECD average of 80.2% (Table B3.2a). • Public spending on tertiary education in Mexico rose by 19% between 2000 and 2005 (below the OECD average of 26%). However, over the same period private spending increased by 106%, with the result that the private share of funding in tertiary education in Mexico increased from 20.6% to 31.0% (Table B3.2b and Table B3.3).

<p>most private expenditure in most countries for which data are available. Exceptions are Canada, Greece, Hungary, the Slovak Republic and Sweden where private expenditure from entities other than households is more significant (Table B3.2b).</p>	
<p><i>On average, OECD countries devote 13.2% of total public expenditure to education, but values for countries range from 10% or below in the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy and Japan to more than 23% in Mexico.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Between 1995 and 2005, education took a growing share of total public expenditure in most countries, and on average grew at a similar pace than GDP. Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and the partner country Brazil saw the largest shifts in favour of education (Table B4.1). • On average across OECD countries, 85% of public expenditure on education is transferred to public institutions. In two-thirds of OECD countries, as well as in the partner countries Brazil, Estonia and Slovenia, the share of public expenditure on education going to public institutions exceeds 80%. The share of public expenditure transferred to the private sector is larger at the tertiary level than at primary to post-secondary non-tertiary levels and reaches 26% on average among OECD countries for which data are available (Table B4.2). 	<p><i>Education has received a growing share of the public budget, with most of the resources invested at the school level.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The share of public expenditure that is devoted to education has also increased in Mexico over the 1995-2005 period, and at similar pace to the OECD on average. The share of all public spending devoted to educational institutions at all levels in the system, or paid in the form of subsidies to households, increased over this ten-year period from 22.2 to 23.4% (1.2 percentage points) (which is well above the OECD average) in Mexico while the OECD average increased by 1.3 percentage points (11.9 to 13.2%) (Table B4.1). • Similar to most countries, the main increase in public expenditure on education relative to total public expenditure during this ten-year period took place between 1995 and 2000. Between 2000 and 2005, public expenditure on education as a proportion of total public expenditure remained unchanged (Table B4.1).
<p><i>There are large differences among OECD countries in the average tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A public institutions, as well as in how students pay for them.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In eight OECD countries public institutions charge no tuition fees, but in one-third of countries public institutions charge annual tuition fees for national students in excess of USD 1 500. Among the EU19 countries, only the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have annual tuition fees that represent more than USD 1 000 per full-time student; these relate to government-dependent institutions (Table B5.1a). • When tuition fees are charged, tertiary institutions are responsible for setting tuition fee 	<p><i>In Mexico, tertiary-type A independent private institutions charge high levels of tuition fees compared to other countries with available data.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Mexico, tuition fees charged to national students by tertiary-type A independent private institutions is on average USD 11 359 (Table B5.1). • Although entry to Mexico's tertiary-type A education increased by 4 percentage points between 2000 and 2006, the rate (31%) is still below the OECD average (56%), (Table A2.5).

<p>levels in almost all countries. Only the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland have levels of tuition fees set exclusively by educational authorities (at central, regional or local levels) at least for some of their tertiary institutions (Table B5.1d).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An average of 18% of public spending on tertiary education is devoted to supporting students, households and other private entities. In Australia, Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden and the partner country Chile, public subsidies to households account for some 27% or more of public tertiary education budgets (Table B5.2). • Low annual tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A institutions are not systematically associated with a low proportion of students who benefit from public subsidies. In tertiary-type A education, the tuition fees charged by public institutions for national students are negligible in the Nordic countries and in the Czech Republic and are low in Turkey. And yet more than 55% of the students enrolled in tertiary-type A education in these countries can benefit from scholarships/grants and/or public loans. Moreover, Finland, Norway and Sweden are among the seven countries with the highest entry rate to tertiary-type A education. • OECD countries in which students are required to pay tuition fees and who can benefit from particularly large public subsidies do not show lower levels of access to tertiary-type A education than the OECD average. For example, Australia (82%) and New Zealand (79%) have among the highest entry rates to tertiary-type A education, and the Netherlands (59%) and the United States (64%) are above the OECD average. The United Kingdom (51%) and partner country Chile (48%) are just below the OECD average (54%), although entry to tertiary-type A education increased by 4 and 6 percentage points, respectively, between 2000 and 2005 in these countries. 	
<p><i>Instruction time, teachers' salaries, and student-teacher ratios vary widely among countries, which affects the level of expenditure per student.</i></p>	<p><i>Most of educational spending is tied up in salaries, leaving little room to improve student/staff ratios or to invest in instructional time or spending on other</i></p>

- The choices countries make about how many hours and years students spend in the classroom and the subjects they study reflect national priorities and preferences. Budgetary considerations also help shape education: Teachers' salaries represent the largest single cost in providing school education and, as such, are a critical consideration for policy-makers striving to both maintain the quality of education and to contain spending. While class size has become a hot topic in many OECD countries, evidence on its impact on student performance is mixed.
- Differences in teachers' salaries, along with other factors such as student-to-staff ratios (see Indicator D2), provide some explanation of the differences in expenditure per student (see Indicators B1 and B7).
- Salaries of teachers with at least 15 years' experience at the lower secondary level range from less than USD 15 000 in Hungary and in partner countries Chile and Estonia to USD 51 000 or more in Germany, Korea and Switzerland, and exceed USD 90 000 in Luxembourg (Table D3.1).
- Salaries for teachers with at least 15 years' experience in lower secondary education are over twice the GDP per capita in Korea, whereas in Norway, and in partner countries Estonia and Israel, salaries are 75% or less than the GDP per capita.
- Teachers' salaries have risen in real terms between 1996 and 2006 in virtually all countries, with the largest increases in Finland, Hungary and Mexico (and in starting salaries in Australia) and in partner country Estonia. Salaries at the primary and upper secondary levels in Spain fell in real terms over the period, although they remain above the OECD average (Tables D3.1 and D3.2).
- On average in OECD countries, upper secondary teachers' salaries per teaching hour exceed those of primary teachers by 44%; the difference is 5% or less in New Zealand, Scotland and the partner country Chile and is equal to or greater than 75% in Denmark and the Netherlands (Table D3.2).

educational resources.

Mexico devotes a much smaller share of spending to the schooling infrastructure and to educational material than other countries.

- Most of spending is absorbed in teacher compensation. At the primary level, only 2.3% of spending is devoted to capital spending, compared with an OECD average of 8.9%. At the secondary level it is 2.7% compared with an OECD average of 7.8% and at the tertiary level 4.5% compared with an OECD average of 9.5%. This leaves little room for improvements in the schooling infrastructure (Table B6.2a and b).
- The picture is similar for current spending other than for staff compensation. At the primary level Mexico spends 6.4% of its total spending compared with an OECD average of 19.5%. At the secondary level it is 10.1% compared with an OECD average of 20.1% and at the tertiary level 28.3% compared with an OECD average of 32.0% (Table B6.2a and b). This leaves little room for procurement of state-of-the-art instructional material.
- Statutory salaries in Mexico are low by absolute standards (little more than half the OECD average) but among the highest in the OECD when compared with GDP per capita. The ratios of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita, for Mexico in primary and in lower secondary education at 1.50 and 1.91 respectively, are well above the OECD average of 1.22 and 1.26 (Table D3.1). Moreover, since 1996, teachers in Mexico have seen the third steepest increase in salaries, with gains for a teacher with 15 years experience of 33% over the period at the primary level and 38% in lower secondary education (Table D3.2).
- The ratio of students to teaching staff in Mexico has increased in pre-primary education to 28 students per teacher (13 more than the OECD average), as a result of policies to increase participation and to make this level mandatory in 2002. A similar difference exists in primary education. In secondary education in Mexico, there are over twice the number of students per teacher compared to the OECD average (Table D2.2). This high ratio is likely to influence the amount of attention devoted to each student. These ratios

	<p>raise important challenges for teachers, but they also indicate progress in increasing educational participation and thus student numbers.</p>
<p><i>The average class size in primary education is slightly more than 21 students per class, but varies from 32 in Korea, to fewer than half that number in Luxembourg and the partner country the Russian Federation.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The average class size in lower secondary education is 24 students per class, but varies from about 30 or more in Japan, Korea and Mexico and the partner countries Brazil, Chile and Israel, to 20 or fewer in Denmark, Iceland, Ireland (public institutions), Luxembourg and Switzerland and the partner country the Russian Federation (Table D2.1). • Between 2000 and 2006, differences in average class sizes among OECD countries have somewhat diminished. Class size tended to decrease in countries that had relatively large class sizes in 2000 (such as Japan, Korea and Turkey) whereas it increased in some of the countries with relatively small class sizes (such as Iceland) (Tables D2.1 and D2.4 available online). 	<p><i>Class sizes in lower secondary schools remain very large in Mexico.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Mexico, the average class size in primary education is slightly less than 20 students per class (only 9 other OECD countries have smaller classes), while in 14 OECD countries there are 20 or more students per primary-level class (the OECD average is 21.5) (Table D2.1). • In lower secondary education (general programmes) with around 30 students per class, Mexico has the third largest average class size at this level of education. Only Japan and Korea have larger classes, while in 18 OECD countries there are 25 or less students per lower secondary-level class (the OECD average is 24.0).
<p><i>Students in OECD countries are expected to receive, on average, 6 907 hours of instruction between the ages of 7 and 14, of which 1 591 hours take place between ages 7 and 8, 2 518 between ages 9 and 11, and 2 798 between ages 12 and 14. The large majority of intended hours of instruction are compulsory.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In OECD countries, 7-to-8-year-olds receive an average of 770 hours per year of compulsory instruction time and 796 hours per year of intended instruction time in the classroom. Those aged 9 to 11 receive about 40 compulsory hours more per year than 7-to-8-year-olds and those aged 12 to 14 receive just over 86 hours more per year than 9-to-11-year-olds (Table D1.1). • On average across OECD countries, the teaching of reading, writing and literature, mathematics and science represents nearly 50% of the compulsory instruction time for 9-to-11-year-olds and 40% for 12-to-14-year-olds. For 9-to-11-year-olds, the proportion of compulsory 	<p><i>Young students have long school days.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In Mexico, intended hours of instruction are compulsory. Here, 7-to-11-year olds receive an average of 800 hours per year of intended instruction time, which is just above the OECD average for 7-to-8-year-olds, and just below the OECD average for 9-to-11-year-olds. • At 1167 hours, Mexico has the longest annual intended instruction time for a 12-to-14-year-old, and at 1058 hours, it has the fourth longest intended instruction time for a 15 year old (Table D1.1).

<p>curriculum devoted to reading, writing and literature varies widely from 13% in Australia to 30% or more in France, Mexico and the Netherlands (Table D1.2).</p>	
<p><i>The number of teaching hours in public lower secondary schools averages 717 hours a year but ranges from 548 hours in Korea to over 1 000 in Mexico (1 047) and the United States (1 080).</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of teaching hours in public primary schools averages 812 per year (9 more than in 2005), but ranges from less than 650 in Denmark, Turkey and the partner country Estonia to 1 080 in the United States (Table D4.1). • The average number of teaching hours in upper secondary general education is 667, but ranges from 364 in Denmark to 1 080 in the United States (Table D4.1). • The composition of teachers' annual teaching time, in terms of days, weeks and hours per day, varies considerably. For instance, while teachers in Denmark teach for 42 weeks per year (in primary and secondary education) and teachers in Iceland for 35-36 weeks per year, teachers in Iceland have more total annual teaching time (in hours) than teachers in Denmark (Table D4.1). • Regulations concerning teachers' working time also vary. In most countries, teachers are formally required to work a specific number of hours; in some, teaching time is only specified as the number of lessons per week and assumptions may be made on the amount of non-teaching time required per lesson (at school or elsewhere). For example, in Belgium (French Community), additional non-teaching hours at school are set at the school level; the government only defines the minimum and maximum number of teaching periods per week at each level of education. 	<p><i>The teaching load for teachers has remained comparatively high in secondary education.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At the primary level, the teaching load in Mexico, 800 statutory hours per year, is slightly below the OECD average of 812 hours. By contrast, a lower secondary teacher in Mexico is required to teach 1047 hours per year, the highest number of statutory teaching hours among OECD countries except the United States (OECD average 717 hours). In addition, the net teaching time for Mexican upper secondary general programme teachers is 843 hours per year, the fourth highest among the 25 OECD countries with comparable data (the OECD average is 667 hours) (Table D4.1).

QUANTITY AND QUALITY CHALLENGES

*The decades-old expansion in educational participation and outputs continues – and at a pace that outstrips many past projections. With completion of upper secondary education close to universal in most OECD countries, the greatest recent expansion has come in the tertiary sector. While, in 1995, 37% of a cohort went into university-level programmes it is now 57%, on average across OECD countries. It is hard to predict the future from past trends. Will the expansion of tertiary education continue at this rapid pace, driven by an ever-rising demand for the highly skilled? Or will it level off and will relative earnings decline? At the beginning of the 20th century, few would have predicted that, among OECD countries, upper secondary education would be largely universal by the end of the century. So it is equally difficult to predict how tertiary qualifications will have evolved by the end of the 21st century. **Education at a Glance 2008** provides a profile of educational qualifications in populations as well as indicators on trends in the quantity and quality of the output of educational institutions. For the first time, it also relates the qualifications that are produced by the education system to their actual deployment across occupational groups.*

<i>Global trends</i>	<i>Key results for Mexico</i>
<p data-bbox="153 356 751 423"><i>Education systems continue to expand at a rapid pace...</i></p> <ul data-bbox="161 443 759 1265" style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="161 443 759 913">• Tertiary attainment levels have increased substantially, for the first time reaching one-third of the cohort of 25-to-34-year-olds, on average across OECD countries. In France, Ireland, Japan and Korea, there is a difference of 25 percentage points or more in tertiary attainment between the older and younger age group (Table A1.3a). Between 1995 and 2006 alone, the university-level graduation rate rose, on average across countries, from 20 to 37% (Table A3.2) and more than half of those at the typical age of graduation completed their first tertiary-type A degree in Australia, Finland, Iceland and New Zealand (Table A3.1). <li data-bbox="161 931 759 1265">• The social sciences, business and law are the major educational fields in most countries. Across OECD countries, they constitute 28% of the overall tertiary-type A attainment in the population. On average, there are 3.6 times as many individuals with degrees in these fields in the younger cohort entering the labour market than in the older one nearing retirement age. By contrast, in the field of education, this ratio is close to 1 in the OECD countries (Table A1.5). <p data-bbox="153 1301 692 1364"><i>...and current entry rates suggest that these trends will continue.</i></p> <ul data-bbox="161 1384 759 1977" style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="161 1384 759 1921">• Entry rates in tertiary-type A education increased substantially between 1995 and 2006, by 20 percentage points on average in OECD countries. Between 2000 and 2006, growth exceeded 10 percentage points in 11 of the 25 OECD countries for which data are available. In 2006, in Australia, Finland, Hungary, Iceland, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Sweden, and the partner country the Russian Federation, it is estimated that 65% or more of young adults will enter tertiary-type A programmes. In almost all countries, the majority of new entrants choose to follow tertiary programmes in the field of social sciences, business, law and services (Tables A2.4, A2.5 and A2.6). <li data-bbox="161 1939 759 1977">• Overall, females represent 54% of new 	<p data-bbox="780 356 1337 423"><i>In Mexico, tertiary qualifications continue to expand.</i></p> <ul data-bbox="788 443 1433 1776" style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="788 443 1433 745">• Despite being among the lowest levels in the OECD in university-level attainment, Mexico has seen impressive growth in tertiary qualifications over past generations, rising from 8% among 55-to-64-year-olds to 19% among 25-to-34-year-olds. As a result, its relative standing among OECD countries rose slightly, from rank equal 28 among 55-to-64-year-olds to rank equal 25 among 25-to-34-year-olds (Table A1.3a). <li data-bbox="788 763 1433 1234">• Rates of current participation suggest that graduation rates will continue to increase. The increase in tertiary enrolment between 1995 and 2005, which will influence graduation rates, was, at 57%, considerably above the OECD average level of 40% (Table B1.5), and only exceeded by six OECD countries: the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Poland, and the Slovak Republic, that ranged from 57% to 161% during the same period. This trend is further underlined by Mexico's increasing entry rates in university. The proportion of Mexico's age cohort entering tertiary-type A programmes increased from 27% in 2000 to 31% in 2006 (Table A2.5). <li data-bbox="788 1252 1433 1554">• In contrast to other OECD countries, Mexico has put much less emphasis on vocational tertiary education (tertiary-type B level programmes) during the last two decades. Mexico has one of the lowest entry rates for vocational tertiary education, with an entry rate of 2% for these programmes in 2006, and this has changed little over the past six years. Note that it is not possible to add tertiary-type A and tertiary-type B entry rates (Table A2.5). <li data-bbox="788 1572 1433 1776">• Although only 0.2% of today's young people in Mexico enter advanced research programmes (Table A2.4), among the 12 OECD countries with comparable data, it has, at 90%, the highest survival rate in advanced research programmes (<i>Education at a Glance 2007</i>, Table A3.6). <p data-bbox="780 1807 1374 1870"><i>The number of science graduates in Mexico has increased.</i></p> <ul data-bbox="788 1890 1433 1989" style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="788 1890 1433 1989">• In Mexico there are some 930 people with university-level or advanced research qualifications in science per 100 000 employed 25-34-year-olds,

<p>entrants in tertiary education in OECD countries. However, the breakdown by gender varies considerably according to the field of education. In the fields of health and welfare, the arts and humanities, and education between 68 and 75% of new entrants are women. The proportion of women choosing science studies (including life sciences, physical sciences, mathematics, computing, engineering, manufacturing and construction and agriculture) ranges from less than 25% in Japan, the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland and the partner country Chile, to more than 35% in Denmark, Iceland, Italy and New Zealand (Table A2.6).</p>	<p>compared with an OECD average of 1 340, and when tertiary-type B qualifications are included, there are 1 057 sciences graduates per 100 000 employed 25-34-year-olds in Mexico, compared to only 1 694 on average. (Table A3.6). However, an analysis of the ratio of younger to older age groups with tertiary science degree show that there has been an improvement over the last decade as three times as many young individuals have attained a degree in science compared with the older age group in Mexico (Table A1.5).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The share of students in Mexico studying science (11%) is quite similar to the OECD average (10%). This is also true in the remaining fields, with the exception of education, where the share is lower, and in arts and humanities and services where it is higher (Table A1.4).
<p><i>This expansion relates to strong labour-market outcomes for those with advanced qualifications.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Earnings increase with each level of education. Those who have attained upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary or tertiary education enjoy substantial earnings advantages compared with those of the same gender who have not completed upper secondary education (Table A9.1a). In 15 out of 21 countries with available data, the earnings premium for those with tertiary education increased during the last decade, often despite massive growth in tertiary participation. In Germany, Hungary, and Italy this increase has been between 30 and 40 percentage points (Table A9.2a). • On average across countries, completion of tertiary education yields a 12 and 11% return for males and females, respectively, and returns are above 22% for males in the Czech Republic, Poland and Portugal. The rewards for tertiary education are relatively small in Germany, Norway, Spain, and Sweden where the rate of return ranges from 5 to 8% (Table A10.2). In most countries, the returns to investment in tertiary education in mid-career are lower, but still substantial enough to motivate the investment without government intervention (Table A10.4). • Employment rates rise with educational attainment. With few exceptions, the 	<p><i>Tertiary graduates in Mexico have a much greater chance of finding jobs.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In most OECD countries, employment rates rise with the level of attainment. In Mexico, tertiary education attainment is associated with a 20 percentage point increase in the employment rate (from 63 to 83%) (Table A8.3a). • However, the level of educational attainment has less of impact on unemployment rates in Mexico than in most OECD countries. In Mexico, Greece, Korea and Turkey, a lack of upper secondary education is not associated with a higher unemployment risk (Table A8.5a).

<p>employment rate for graduates of tertiary education is markedly higher than the rate for upper secondary graduates. For males, the gap is particularly wide between upper secondary graduates and those without an upper secondary qualification (Table A8.1a).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Those with low educational attainment are both less likely to be labour force participants and more likely to be unemployed. Differences in employment rates between males and females are also wider among less educated groups. • The labour-market penalties for low levels of education are particularly high for females. The chance of being employed is 23 percentage points higher for males than for females among those without upper secondary qualifications but falls to 10 points for the most highly qualified (Tables A8.1a and A8.2a). • Employment rates tend to drop long before the stipulated retirement age in most countries. On average, employment rates among 55-to-64-year-olds are approximately 20 percentage points below those of the total working-age population (25-to-64-year-olds). However, employment rates increase with educational attainment in most countries, and in all countries except Iceland, tertiary attainment provides an important employment advantage at an older age. The advantage is particularly large in the Czech Republic, Italy, Luxembourg and the Slovak Republic (Table A8.4). 	
<p><i>There are also marked shifts towards more skilled jobs in labour markets.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Across OECD countries between 1998 and 2006, there was a marked shift from semi-skilled jobs to skilled jobs, with an increase of almost 4 percentage points in skilled occupations and a close to 4 percentage point decline in semi-skilled occupations. In most countries, the decline has not been at the very low end of the skills distribution but among semi-skilled jobs, with the proportion of the population working in unskilled occupations remaining substantially unchanged (Table A1.6). 	<p>[No data available]</p>

The proportion of skilled jobs is generally larger than the potential supply of tertiary graduates...

- In OECD countries, the proportion of skilled jobs in the economy is generally larger than the potential supply of tertiary educated individuals. For countries in which work-based learning is central to occupational advancement, this difference is large. A broader initial skill base might require additional investment in higher education. In a few countries, tertiary attainment matches or marginally exceeds the proportion of skilled jobs, so that further expansion of higher education will to some extent depend on the growth of skilled jobs in the coming years (Tables A1.3a and A1.6).

...but more recently the growth in the proportion of people with tertiary qualifications has generally been faster than the growth in skilled jobs, suggesting that the gap is closing.

- The increase in skilled jobs has been met and exceeded in most OECD countries by increases in the proportion of the population with tertiary attainment. However, in most countries, there are still substantially more skilled jobs than tertiary educated individuals. On average, across OECD countries, 69% of all those with a tertiary type 5B qualification and 85% of those with a tertiary 5A/6 qualification have skilled jobs. However the matching of higher education to skilled jobs varies substantially among countries. Those with a tertiary 5A/6 qualification in Denmark, Finland, Luxembourg and the partner country Slovenia do substantially better in finding a skilled job given the labour market conditions for those with tertiary education (Tables A1.6, A1.7 and A3.2).

[No data available]

The internationalisation of tertiary education is proceeding rapidly.

- In 2006, over 2.9 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a 3% increase from the previous year in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (Box C3.1).
- Student mobility – *i.e.* international students

The United States is the preferred destination of Mexican foreign students.

- When studying abroad in tertiary education, 96% of foreign students from Mexico are enrolled in another OECD country. The destinations of choice for the Mexicans are the United States (53.9%), followed by Spain (12.1%), Canada (7.0%), the United Kingdom (6.5%), France (5.5%) and Germany (4.7%) (Table C3.3). Language considerations, geographic proximity, similarity of

<p>who travelled to a country different from their own for the purpose of tertiary study – ranges from below 1 to almost 18% of tertiary enrolments across OECD countries.</p> <p>International students are most numerous in tertiary enrolments in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (Table C3.1).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive 49% of all foreign students worldwide. The largest absolute numbers of international students from OECD countries are from France, Germany, Japan and Korea. Students from China and India comprise the largest numbers of international students from partner countries (Chart C3.2). • International students make up 15% or more of the enrolments in tertiary education in Australia and New Zealand and more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programmes in Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States (Table C3.1). • 30% or more of international students are enrolled in sciences, agriculture or engineering in Finland, Germany, Hungary, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States (Table C3.5). 	<p>education systems and migration networks are important determinants of the choice of destination. Note that many Mexican universities have exchange programmes with the United States.</p>
<p><i>New analyses of PISA data provide a first picture of school education from the perspective of parents.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Among the 10 OECD countries with available data, on average, 77% of parents “strongly agreed or agreed” that standards of achievement were high in their child’s school. On average, their children scored 20 score points higher on the PISA 2006 assessment than students whose parents “disagreed or strongly disagreed” with that statement. Much of the advantage remains when taking into account socio-economic factors (Table A6.2). • An average of 79% of parents reported being satisfied with the disciplinary atmosphere in their child’s school and 85% felt that the school did a good job of educating students. In both cases, their children had a performance advantage of 12 score points on average (Table 	<p>[No data available]</p>

<p>A6.2b).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> On average, 88% of parents “strongly agreed or agreed” that their child’s teachers seemed competent and dedicated, but the relationship to student performance was inconsistent across countries, with an average advantage of 7 score points (Table A6.3a). 	
<p><i>For the first time, the indicators compare approaches to monitoring school standards.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A total of 22 OECD and partner countries undertake student examinations and/or assessments and 17 require schools to be evaluated (either self-evaluations and/or inspections by an external body) at regular intervals. Student assessments (evaluations without civil effect for the student) are practised in 17 OECD and partner countries, whereas national examinations (with a civil effect for the student) are practised in 10 OECD and partner countries (Tables D5.1 and D5.2). School self-evaluations are required in 14 countries, generally on an annual basis (Table D5.6). School inspections are required in 14 countries, generally once every three years (Table D5.5). Although school self-evaluations are held more often than school inspections, evaluations by school inspectorates appear in general to have more influence on schools and teachers in terms of the implications of the evaluation and the accountability structure (Tables D5.5 and D5.6). Both school evaluation and student performance measures are mainly used to provide performance feedback to schools (Tables D5.3 to D5.6). In general, they have relatively little influence on school financing and other financial implications such as changes to the school budget, provision of rewards or sanctions for schools, or remunerations and bonuses received by teachers (Tables D5.3 to D5.6). In a larger number of countries, the influence of school evaluations is greater than student examinations for the performance appraisals of schools (13 countries, compared to 7 for student 	<p><i>Mexico places considerable emphasis on assessment and evaluation.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> At the lower secondary level Mexico does not have national examinations but it does have national periodical assessments in place for lower secondary programmes, which are compulsory for schools (Table D5.1 and D5.2). However, Mexico does not make the results of the assessments publicly available (Table D5.4). Mexico requires schools to conduct self-evaluations on a yearly basis (Table D5.6).

<p>examinations), for the appraisal of the performance of school management (9 countries, compared to 1 for student examinations) and the appraisal of the performance of individual teachers (4 countries, compared to 1 for student examinations) (Tables D5.3 to D5.6).</p>	
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EQUITY CHALLENGES

*On average across OECD countries, close to 8 out of 10 young adults have now a qualification at least at the upper secondary level of education, which was true for little more than half of 55 to 64-year-olds. In the last 11 years alone, the proportion of students graduating from upper secondary programmes has increased by seven percentage points in OECD countries. Despite this rapid progress towards universal upper secondary education **Education at a Glance 2008** also shows that in most countries a significant minority of individuals remain without baseline qualifications at the upper secondary level. In many countries, these individuals are seeing rapidly-deteriorating labour market prospects. **Education at a Glance 2008** also shows that access to education as well as educational success often remain closely tied to socio-economic conditions, which implies that countries do not fully capitalise on their human potential. **Education at a Glance 2008** provides a range of indicators on disparities in educational attainment and their labour-market consequences.*

<i>Global trends</i>	<i>Key results for Mexico</i>
<p data-bbox="156 360 751 595"><i>In most OECD countries, virtually everyone now has access to at least 12 years of formal education and full enrolment (defined here as enrolment rates exceeding 90%) tends to begin between the ages of 5 and 6, but there is significant variability both at the beginning and ending of initial education.</i></p> <ul data-bbox="164 613 762 1688" style="list-style-type: none"> • At least 90% of students are enrolled in education in an age range spanning 14 or more years in Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Norway and Spain. In contrast, Mexico and Turkey have enrolment rates exceeding 90% for only nine and six years, respectively; the corresponding figure for the partner country the Russian Federation is nine years (Table C2.1). • Enrolment rates for children 4 years or younger range from less than 25% in Korea and Turkey to over 90% in Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Iceland, Italy, New Zealand, Spain and the United Kingdom (Table C2.1). Young children are more likely to be enrolled in the countries of the European Union than in other OECD countries (the enrolment rate for 3-to-4-year-olds averages 76.7% for the EU19, while the OECD average is 69.4%) (Table C2.1). • Enrolment rates for 15-to-19-year-olds increased on average from 74 to 81% from 1995 to 2006. In Belgium, Greece and Poland, and the partner country Slovenia, they reached more than 90% in 2006 (in Belgium they had already reached this level in 1995). The pattern is similar for 20-to-29-year-olds, an age group in which most students are enrolled in tertiary education; between 1995 and 2006, their enrolment rates increased in all OECD countries except Portugal (Table C2.2). 	<p data-bbox="790 360 1337 427"><i>Education in Mexico can build on a growing foundation in early childhood...</i></p> <ul data-bbox="798 445 1425 947" style="list-style-type: none"> • In Mexico, 53 children under age 4 for every 100 3-to-4-year-olds now participate in pre-primary education. Although this is significantly below the OECD average of 69%, it is more than in a fair number of other OECD countries, including Australia, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. The rate increased from 22% in 1998 to 53% in 2006 (Table C2.1 and <i>Education at a Glance 2000</i>, Table C1.2). It is worth noting that spending per child at the pre-primary level is, in Mexico, higher than at the primary and lower secondary level (Table B1.1a). Further progress can be expected if three years of pre-primary education will become mandatory in 2008. <p data-bbox="790 981 1390 1014"><i>... but staying-on rates remain comparatively low</i></p> <ul data-bbox="798 1032 1414 1167" style="list-style-type: none"> • At 48.8%, the enrolment rate for 15-19 year olds in Mexico is well below the OECD average of 81.5% and higher than the rate in only one OECD country: Turkey (45.2%) (Table C2.1).
<p data-bbox="156 1738 746 1906"><i>The proportion of individuals who have completed upper secondary education has been growing in almost all OECD countries and is now the norm among the younger cohorts, but a significant minority remains left out.</i></p> <ul data-bbox="164 1924 746 1989" style="list-style-type: none"> • In the last 11 years, the proportion of students graduating from upper secondary programmes 	<p data-bbox="790 1738 1425 1839"><i>Over the past generations, Mexico has seen limited progress in ensuring that young people leave school with strong baseline qualifications...</i></p> <ul data-bbox="798 1856 1425 1989" style="list-style-type: none"> • Only 39% of 25-to-34-year-old Mexicans have completed a baseline qualification at the upper secondary level, the second lowest level among OECD countries (after Turkey), where this level of

has increased by seven percentage points on average in OECD countries with available data. In 17 of 24 OECD countries, the ratio of upper secondary graduates to the population at the typical age of graduation is 80% or higher and in the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Japan, Korea and Norway it exceeds 90%. However, in Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and the United States, more than 20% leave school without attaining an upper secondary degree (Tables A1.2 and A2.2).

- Those who have attained at least upper secondary education enjoy substantial earnings advantages (Chart A9.4). For many countries, the earnings disadvantage of those without upper secondary qualifications has significantly worsened (Table A9.2a).
- Gender differences in employment and unemployment rates are largest among those without upper secondary education (Chart A8.1)

education is now becoming the norm. There has been less progress in Mexico in raising upper secondary attainment than in most other countries, such that Mexico has fallen behind in relative terms over past generations, from rank 28 among 45-to-54-year-olds (*i.e.* those who completed school some 30 years ago) and 35-to-44 year-olds, to rank 29 among 25-to-34-year-olds (*i.e.* those who completed school a decade ago). In contrast, over the same period, Korea moved from rank 23 to 1 (Table A1.2a). Note that the individuals (25-to-34-year-olds in 2006) in this analysis passed the age of sixteen in between 1987 and 1997.

... however, more recently upper secondary completion rates have picked up.

- The proportion of students graduating at upper secondary level has risen from 33% in 2000 to 42% in 2005, thus reducing the upper secondary attainment gap between Mexico and other OECD countries (Table A2.2).

Employment prospects for females who have no upper secondary qualification are particularly poor.

- In Mexico, the level of education attainment has less of an impact on employment rate for males than for females. The gap in employment rates for males aged 25 to 64 with and without an upper secondary education is only 2 percentage points. In contrast, employment rates for females aged 25 to 64 show substantial differences, not only between those with and without an upper secondary education (22 percentage points), but also between those with upper secondary and those with tertiary attainment (13 percentage points) (Table A8.1a).

Some countries have been successful in improving educational opportunities among youths in difficult labour-market situations.

- Most OECD countries have expanded their education system to accommodate more of the younger cohorts. For 15-to-19-year-olds, recruitment to education has largely taken place among individuals outside the labour market (not in education or employment) and to a lesser extent among employed individuals. With few exceptions, policies to expand education systems have thus helped to lower unemployment and inactivity among young adults (Tables C4.1b).

The education and labour market situation of young people in Mexico remains a concern

- Some 45.1% of the population aged 15-19 years are not in education in Mexico, the second highest figures among OECD and partner countries. Moreover, only 62% of this group is employed; the other 38% are either unemployed or not engaged in employment, education or training (Table C4.2a and Table C4.4a).
- Examining trends in these rates over the period 1995 to 2006 indicates that the situation of young people based on these measures has improved in

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The 15-to-19-year-old population that is not in education is generally associated with being unemployed or out of the labour force. Some countries are better able than others to provide employment for young adults with relatively low educational attainment. In Iceland, Japan and Norway, more than 70% of this age group not in education have employment (Table C4.2a). • On average, completing upper secondary education reduces unemployment among 20-to-24-year-olds by 7.4 percentage points and that of 25-to-29-year-olds by 6.2 percentage points. The lack of an upper secondary qualification is a serious impediment to finding employment, and a tertiary qualification further increases the likelihood of job seekers finding employment (Table C4.3). 	<p>Mexico as education has gone up while unemployment has dropped (Table C4.4a).</p>
<p><i>Continuing education and training often does not reach those who need it most.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In many countries, non-formal continuing education and training now also plays a significant role in raising the stock of knowledge and skills. There are major differences among countries in the number of hours that individuals can expect to spend in non-formal job-related education and training over a typical working life. At the tertiary level, it ranges from less than 350 hours in Greece, Italy and the Netherlands to more than 1 000 in Denmark, Finland, France and Switzerland (Table C5.1a). • The relative intensity (number of hours) of non-formal job-related education and training typically increases sharply with educational attainment (except in the United Kingdom, Italy and the Netherlands). The expected hours in non-formal job-related education and training among 25-64-year-olds with tertiary qualifications is, on average across countries, nearly twice as high as among those with upper secondary qualifications and more than three times as high as among those without upper secondary qualifications (Table C5.1a). • An older worker with tertiary education can expect to receive at least 70% of the education and training of a younger worker in Denmark, Sweden and the United States, but the proportion falls below 20% in France, Hungary 	<p>[No data available]</p>

<p>and the Netherlands. Adults with higher levels of educational attainment are more likely to participate in non-formal job-related continuing education and training than adults with lower educational attainment (Table C5.1a).</p>	
<p><i>Countries vary greatly in how well they succeed in enabling students from blue-collar backgrounds to participate in higher education.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ireland and Spain stand out as providing the most equitable access to higher education, whereas in Austria, France, Germany and Portugal students from a blue-collar background are about one-half as likely to be in higher education compared with what their proportion in the population would suggest (Indicator A7). • When measuring the socio-economic status of students in higher education by their fathers' educational background large differences between countries emerge. In many countries, students are substantially more likely to be in higher education if their fathers completed higher education. Students from such a background are more than twice as likely to be in higher education in Austria, France, Germany, Portugal and the United Kingdom than are students whose fathers did not complete higher education. In Ireland and Spain this ratio drops to 1.1 and 1.5, respectively. • Among the countries providing information on the socio-economic status of students in higher education it appears that inequalities in previous schooling are reflected in the intake of students from less advantaged backgrounds. The countries providing more equitable access to higher education – such as Finland, Ireland and Spain – were also the countries with the most equal between-school performances, as show by data collected in 2000 by OECD PISA. 	<p>[No data available]</p>
<p><i>In almost half of the countries, the majority of upper secondary students are enrolled in vocational programmes. However, in key subject areas, the performance of students in vocational programmes tends to lag considerably behind student performance in general programmes.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 13 out of 28 OECD countries and the 	<p><i>The majority of upper secondary students are enrolled in general programmes in Mexico.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 90% of upper secondary enrolment is in general programmes (OECD average 54%), while 10% is in vocational programmes (OECD average 44%) (Table C1.1).

<p>partner country Slovenia, the majority of upper secondary students are enrolled in pre-vocational and vocational programmes. In most OECD countries, a significant proportion of upper secondary vocational education is school-based (Table C1.1).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In OECD countries with available data, vocational qualification is concentrated in engineering, manufacturing and construction at both the upper secondary (34%) and post-secondary non-tertiary (22%) levels (Table C1.2). • The 14 OECD countries for which data are available spend, on average, USD 925 more per student on upper secondary vocational programmes than on general programmes (Table C1.3). • PISA 2006 shows that 15-year-olds in pre-vocational and vocational programmes have statistically significant lower performance in science compared to students enrolled in general programmes in 12 out of the 14 OECD countries for which data are available. On average, 15-year-olds enrolled in general programmes score 35 points higher and after adjusting for socio-economic factors a difference of 24 points still remains (Table C1.4). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [No data are available by field of study or by student performance] • Mexico spends USD 897 more per student on upper secondary vocational programmes than on general programmes (Table C1.3). • PISA 2006 shows that in Mexico, 15-year-olds in vocational programmes have statistically significant higher performance in science compared to students enrolled in general programmes (12 score points) (Table C1.4).
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NOTES

- “Educational attainment” is defined as the highest grade completed within the most advanced level attended in the educational system of the country where the education was received. Some countries may also find it useful to present data on educational attainment in terms of the highest grade attended.
- “Lower secondary education generally continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Lower secondary education may either be “terminal” (i.e. preparing students for entry directly into working life) and/or “preparatory” (i.e. preparing students for upper secondary education). This level usually consists of three years of schooling in OECD countries.
- “Non-formal education” is defined as organised and sustained educational activities that are not typically provided in the system of schools, colleges, universities and other formal institutions that constitutes a continuous ladder of full-time education for children and young people. Non-formal education may take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. For detailed definitions, see Indicator C5 in Education at a Glance 2008.
- “Post-secondary non-tertiary education” is defined as programmes straddling the boundary between upper secondary and post-secondary education from an international point of view, even though they might clearly be considered upper secondary or post-secondary programmes in a national context. Although their content may not be significantly more advanced than upper secondary programmes, they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already gained an upper secondary qualification. The students tend to be older than those enrolled at the upper secondary level.
- “Pre-primary education” is defined as the initial stage of organised instruction, designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, that is, to provide a bridge between home and a school-based atmosphere. They are centre or school-based, designed to meet the educational and developmental needs of children at least three years of age, and have staff qualified to provide an educational programme for children.
- “Primary education” usually begins at ages five, six or seven and generally lasts six years in OECD countries. Programmes at the primary level generally require no previous formal education, although it is becoming increasingly common for children to have attended a pre-primary programme before entering primary education. The boundary between pre-primary and primary education is typically the beginning of systematic studies characteristic of primary education, i.e. reading, writing and mathematics. It is common, however, for children to begin learning basic literacy and numeracy skills at the pre-primary level.
- “Statutory salaries” refers to teachers’ salaries according to official pay scales. The salaries reported are defined as gross salaries (total sum of money that is paid by the employer for the labour supplied) minus the employer’s contribution to social security and pension (according to existing salary scales). Salaries are “before tax”, i.e. before deductions for income taxes.
- Indicators in Education at a Glance 2008 cover both the current performance of the HE system and the proportion of the adult population (25-to-64-year-olds) who have attained HE qualifications. Tertiary programmes are generally divided by type of course: “tertiary-type A” (largely theory-based and designed to provide sufficient qualifications for entry to advanced research programmes and professions with high skill requirements, such as medicine, dentistry or architecture) and “tertiary-type B” (typically shorter and focused on practical, technical or occupational skills for direct entry into the labour market). “Graduation rate” is defined as the ratio of tertiary graduates to the population at typical age of graduation.
- “Upper secondary” education corresponds to the final stage of secondary education in most OECD countries. Instruction is often more organised along subject-matter lines. The entrance age to this level is

typically 15 or 16 years.