Education Sciences & Society

Persona e società



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Educational Research and Policy-Making

Questions, Challenges & Perspectives for a Pedagogical Debate

Gabriella Aleandri*, Luca Girotti**

Riassunto: Vi è oggi un generale consenso sul fatto che l'educazione è una questione chiave per rispondere alle sfide attuali che riguardano società, culture, economie, salute e progresso. Nella prima parte, G. Aleandri approfondisce le politiche di istruzione e formazione nella prospettiva della formazione/educazione permanente. L'istruzione è essenziale per il benessere sia degli individui sia dei Paesi. I Paesi dell'OCSE concordano sull'importanza di conoscere come le singole politiche dell'istruzione stanno fronteggiando le nuove sfide globali. La riforma dell'istruzione è una questione chiave nella maggior parte dei paesi, ma è importante verificare se le riforme scolastiche modificano effettivamente politiche, prassi e risultati. Gli indicatori internazionali dell'OCSE offrono un quadro comparativo per l'analisi, utili alle politiche educative per migliorare la qualità dell'offerta formativa/educativa. La speranza è che si promuova una/un maggiore cooperazione/partenariato tra responsabili politici, pedagogisti e ricercatori nel campo dell'istruzione, nonché la creazione di reti tra istituzioni scolastiche, università, altre agenzie formative, tutte le parti interessate pubbliche e private, in modo da rendere le scelte e le decisioni più condivise e democratiche. Nella seconda parte, L. Girotti considera il complesso rapporto tra ricerca e politiche in prospettiva pedagogica. In realtà, questa partnership/collaborazione esige una seria riflessione e un'indagine profonda da parte delle ricerca educativa su questioni e sfide a ciò connesse. La ricerca pedagogica/educativa può beneficiare del rapporto con le politiche pubbliche non tanto in termini di guadagno di riconoscimento e/o di influenza politico-culturale, bensì in ragione del fatto che questo rapporto pone sfide etiche, scientifiche e metodologiche che possono aiutare a spiegarne obiettivi, prospettive e contributi. L. Girotti riconosce, in particolare, tale contributo in termini di risorsa.

Abstract: Throughout the world countries agree that education is a key matter to responding today's challenges concerning societies, cultures, economies, health and progress. Our lifetime, even defined "postmodernity", characterized by wider and wider globalization, referred not only to economic systems but also to technological, sociocultural, political, and biological factors, is involved in an uncontrolled and unstoppable process of continuing and faster changes.

In the first part, G. Aleandri deepens shared education policies and reforms towards lifelong learning and education. Education is essential both for individuals and for socio-economic well-being of countries: it provides knowledge, competencies and skills, essential to participate effectively and to cooperate together in society and to contribute to the growth of economic, scientific and cultural knowledge. OECD (Organization for

Economic Co-operation and Development) countries agree that is important to know how efficiently each education policy is adapting to new global challenges and issues. Reform in education is a key question in most countries, but it is important to verify if education reforms actually renew policies, practices and outcomes. The international indicators by OECD offer a comparative framework for analysis, useful for education policies to improve quality in the educational offer. The data analyses show that human capital is one of the most important factors for all countries growth. Aleandri chose some international indicators enclosed in each survey since Education at a Glance 2006 (EAG 2006) till Education at a Glance 2009 (EAG 2009), so we can analyze some data of the same indicator across four years. The hope is that more and more kinds of cooperation and partnership among policy makers, pedagogists and education researchers will be promoted, as well as networking among school institutions, universities, other learning organizations, all stake-holders and private companies too, so to make more shared and finally both contemplated and democratic choices and decisions.

In the second part, L. Girotti considers the complex relationship between research and policies through a pedagogical approach. In fact, this partnership/cooperation needs serious reflection and deep investigation by educational research about related questions and challenges. The pedagogical/educational research can benefit from the relationship with public policies not so much in terms of gaining recognition and/or cultural-political influence but because this relation calls for ethical, scientific and methodological challenges that may help to explain its goals, perspectives and contributions. L. Girotti recognizes this contribution in term of resources to validate the experiences of guidance in school, to substain the guidance function of education/school system, to formulate public policies for guidance. The aim of this article is to draw attention on this last aspect for stressing pedagogical debate on some research perspectives.

Key words: school reforms, education policies, pedagogical and educational research, international education indicators, international comparison.

Introduction*

Throughout the world countries agree that education is a key matter to responding today's challenges concerning societies, cultures, economies, health and progress. Our lifetime, even defined "postmodernity", characterized by wider and wider globalization, referred not only to economic systems but also to technological, sociocultural, political, and biological factors, is involved in an uncontrolled and unstoppable process of continuing and faster changes.

Even worse, a serious financial and economic crisis is covering most of globalized economies' countries and nowadays is very important to think about education policies again, to elaborate effective strategies to answer unemployment, inequalities of opportunities, stronger competition, individualism and to promote opportunities for people to engage education courses or programs at every stage of life. In fact, the impact of education is proved to determine beneficial effects both for individuals and for societies, to solve and avoid cultural, social and economic disadvantages and to give a significant contribution to cooperating and social cohesion and stability.

As the sociologist Saskia Sassen wrote, «a good part of globalization consists of an enormous variety of micro-processes that begin to denationalize what had been constructed as national – whether policies, capital, political subjectivities, urban spaces, temporal frames, or any other of a variety of dynamics and domains» (Saskia Sassen, 2006). Cultural globalization was driven by communication technology and the worldwide marketing of Western cultural industries. So, most of countries promoted and increased international trades, free trade zones and networks.

Shared education policies and reforms towards lifelong learning and education*

Education is essential both for individuals and for socio-economic well-being of countries: it provides knowledge, competencies and skills, essential to participate effectively and to cooperate together in society and to contribute to the growth of economic, scientific and cultural knowledge.

The effects of globalization involve many aspects, such as financial, economic, informational, cultural, competition ones, but also political issues. Thus, the ever increasingly international networks require that policy makers focus on respective education system outcomes and may "learn each other", i.e. from the best practices. They can learn from criticisms too, to be able not to repeat them or to avoid from them. OECD countries agree that is important to know how efficiently each education policy is adapting to new global challenges and issues. Reform in education is a key question in most countries, but it is important to verify if education reforms actually renew policies, practices and outcomes.

The OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), in 1973 published the first 46 international indicators of education, about outputs of education on individuals and society and attempting to explain education systems. In the last 80's, under coordination by OECD-CERI (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation)

INES (INdicators of Educational Systems) indicators project started up, to build a comparative framework for analysis, useful for education policians to improve quality in educational offer.

The OECD, then, systematically provides a setting where governments, policy makers and all stake-holders may compare policies effects, seek answers to common issues and identify good practice.

The OECD-INES international indicators of education systems allow more and more several international useful comparisons. They try to increasingly provide both international comparisons and national and country-specific analyses and evaluations. Another challenge is that international indicators are presented both in a straightforward manner and in remaining able to describe and to analyse complex contests and multifaceted educational realities.

Despite all, the OECD indicators show that individuals and societies that make investments in education and skills have positive effects in a short- or long-term. The data analyses show that human capital is one of the most important factors for all countries growth.

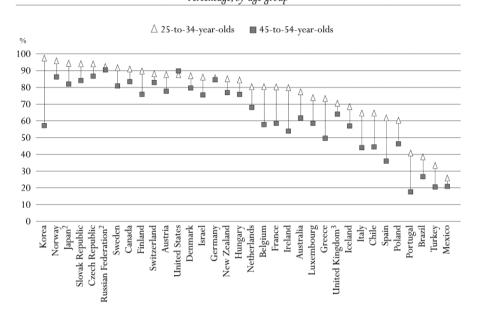
Some current challenges are: a) more and more people can get tertiary education graduations and specialized knowledge and skills and, above all, most of them can extrapolate from what they learned and apply their knowledge in changing contexts; b) more people can be educated to interpersonal competencies and to join forces and connect with other specialists of other disciplines, for a more inclusive and cooperative world.

Now I chose some international indicators enclosed in each survey since *Education at a Glance 2006* (EAG 2006) till *Education at a Glance 2009* (EAG 2009), so we can analyze some data of the same indicator across four years.

Indicators A1 shows, in each survey, to what level students have studied; Chart A1.2 shows population rates in attainment at least upper secondary education. We can see the changes in the same indicator in 2006 (EAG 2006, year of reference: 2004), 2007 (EAG 2007, year of reference: 2005), 2008 (EAG 2008, year of reference: 2006), 2009 surveys (EAG 2009, year of reference: 2007).

Chart A1.2. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education¹ (2004)

Percentage, by age group



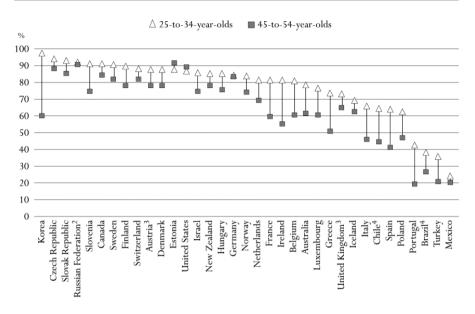
- 1. Excluding ISCED 3C short programmes.
- 2. Year of reference 2003.
- 3. Including some ISCED 3C short programmes.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained at least upper secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table A1.2a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

Chart A1.2. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education¹ (2005)

Percentage, by age group

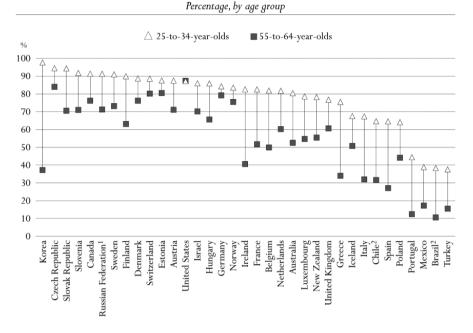


- 1. Excluding ISCED 3C short programmes.
- 2. Year of reference 2003.
- 3. Including some ISCED 3C short programmes.
- 4. Year of reference 2004.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained at least upper secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table A1.2a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007). StatLink and http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068015451617

Chart A1.2. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education (2006)



^{1.} Year of reference 2002.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of the 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained at least upper secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table A1.2a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

^{2.} Year of reference 2004.

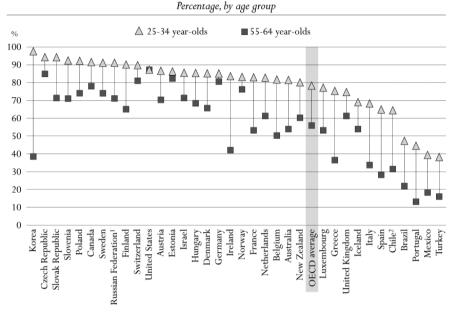


Chart A1.2. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education (2007)

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of the 25-34 year-olds who have attained at least upper secondary education.

Source: OECD. Table A1.2a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009). StatLink | http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664024334566

On average across OECD countries, in EAG 2006 only 42 % of the adult population has attained an upper secondary education; in EAG 2007 only 41 % of the adult population has attained an upper secondary education; in EAG 2008 only 42 % of the adult population has attained an upper secondary education; in EAG 2009 only 44 % of the adult population has attained an upper secondary education. In 23 of 29 OECD countries at least 60 % of population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education, as well as some partner countries such as Israel, Russian Federation, Estonia and Slovenia.

^{1.} Year of reference 2002.

^{2.} Year of reference 2004.

Table A1.2a. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education¹ (2004) Percentage, by age group

		rerceilinge, by ag	· a····r		
			Age group		
	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
Australia Austria Belgium Canada	64	77	65	62	49
Austria	80	87	84	78	69
Belgium	64	80	70	58	45
Canada	84	91	88	83	73
Czech Republic	89	94	93	87	82
Denmark	81	86	82	79	77
Finland	78	89	86	76	59
France	65	80	70	59	49
Germany	84	85	86	84	79
Greece	56	73	64	50	31
Hungary	75	84	82	76	57
Iceland	60	68	64	57	46
Ireland	63	79	68	54	39
Italy	48	64	52	44	28
Japan ²	84	94	94	82	65
Korea	74	97	86	57	34
Luxembourg	62	74	64	58	51
Mexico	23	25	25	21	13
Netherlands	71	80	74	68	59
New Zealand	78	85	81	77	64
Norway	88	96	92	86	78
Poland	50	60	49	46	42
Portugal	25	40	26	18	12
Slovak Republic	85	94	91	84	64
Spain	45	61	50	36	21
Sweden	83	91	89	81	71
Switzerland	85	89	86	83	79
Turkey	26	33	24	20	14
United Kingdom ³	65	70	65	64	59
United States	88	87	88	90	86
OECD average	67	77	71	64	53
EU19 average	67	78	71	63	52
Brazil	30	38	32	27	11
Chile	50	64	53	44	32
Brazil Chile Israel	79	86	81	75	68
Russian Federation ²	89	92	95	90	72

^{1.} Excluding ISCED 3C short programmes.

Partner

^{2.} Year of reference 2003.

^{3.} Including some ISCED 3C short programmes.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

Table A1.2a. Population that has attained at least upper secondary education¹ (2005) Percentage, by age group

	Age group												
	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64								
Australia	65	79	66	61	50								
Australia Austria ² Belgium Canada	81	87	84	78	70								
Belgium	66	81	72	60	48								
Canada	85	91	88	84	75								
Czech Republic	90	94	93	88	83								
Denmark	81	87	83	78	75								
Finland	79	89	87	78	61								
France	66	81	71	60	51								
Germany	83	84	85	84	79								
Greece	57	74	65	51	32								
Hungary	76	85	81	76	61								
Iceland	63	69	67	63	49								
Ireland	65	81	70	55	40								
Italy	50	66	54	46	30								
Korea	76			60	35								
Luxembourg	66 77		68	60	55								
Mexico	21	24	23	20	12								
Netherlands	72 81 76		76	69	59								
New Zealand	79	85	82	78	66								
Norway	77 83 78		74	73									
Poland	51	62	50	47	43								
Portugal	26	43	26	19	13								
Slovak Republic	86	93	92	85	68								
Spain	49	64	54	41	26								
Sweden	84	91	90	82	72								
Switzerland	83	88	85	82	77								
Turkey	27	36	25	21	15								
United Kingdom ²	67	73	67	65	60								
United States	88	87	88	89	86								
OECD average	68	77	71	64	54								
EU19 average	68	79	72	64	54								
Brazil ³	30	38	32	27	11								
Chile ³	50	64	52	44	32								
Estonia	89	87	95	92	80								
Israel	79	86	82	75	69								
Russian Federation ⁴	89	92	95	90	72								
Slovenia	80	91	84	75	69								

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).
StatLink as http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068015451617

^{1.} Excluding ISCED 3C short programmes.
2. Including some ISCED 3C short programmes.
3. Year of reference 2004.

^{4.} Year of reference 2003.

Table A1.2a.

Population that has attained at least upper secondary education¹ (2006)

Percentage, by age group

	25 to 64	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	
Australia Austria Belgium Canada	67	80	68	63	52	
Austria	80	87	84	77	71	
8 Belgium	67	82	74	60	50	
Canada	86	91	89	85	76	
Czech Republic	90	94	94	89	84	
Denmark	82	88	84	78	76	
Finland	80	90	87	80	63	
France	67	82	72	61	52	
Germany	83	84	85	83	79	
Greece	59	75	67	53	34	
Hungary	78	86	82	77	66	
Iceland	63	67	67	64	51	
Ireland	66	82	71	58	41	
Italy	51	67	55	47	32	
Korea	77	97	90	62	37	
Luxembourg	66	78	67	60	55	
Mexico	32	39	36	28	17	
Netherlands	72	81	76	70	60	
New Zealand	69	78	72	69	55	
Norway	79	83	79	77	75	
Poland	53	64	51	49	44	
Portugal	28	44	28	20	12	
Slovak Republic	87	94	91	86	70	
Spain	50	64	55	43	27	
Sweden	84	91	90	82	73	
Switzerland	85	88	87	84	80	
Turkey	28	37	25	22	15	
United Kingdom	69	76	70	67	61	
United States	88	87	88	89	87	
OECD average	68	78	72	65	55	
EU19 average	69	80	73	65	55	
3 Brazil ²	30	38	32	27	11	
E Chile ²	50	64	52	44	32	
Estonia	88	87	93	92	80	
Brazil ² Chile ² Estonia Israel	80	86	82	76	70	
Russian Federation ³	88	91	94	89	71	
Slovenia	82	91	85	77	71	

 $^{1.\} Excluding\ ISCED\ 3C\ short\ programmes.$

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008). StatLink ISB http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/401474646362

^{2.} Year of reference 2004.

^{3.} Year of reference 2002.

Table A1.2a. Population with at least upper secondary education¹ (2007) Percentage, by age group

			Age group			
	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
Australia	68	81	70	64	54	
Austria	80	87	84	78	70	
Belgium	68	82	75	63	50	
Canada	87	91	90	86	78	
Czech Republic	91	94	94	89	85	
Denmark	75	85	80	71	66	
Finland	81	90	87	81	65	
France	69	83	74	63	53	
Germany	84	85	86	85	81	
Greece	60	75	67	53	37	
Hungary	79	85	83	79	68	
Iceland	65	69	70	62	54	
Ireland	68	83	72	60	42	
Italy	52	68	56	48	34	
Korea	78	97	92	65	39	
Luxembourg	66	77	67	62	53	
Mexico	33	39	37	29	18	
Netherlands	73	83	77	71	61	
New Zealand	72	80	74	70	60	
Norway	79	83	80	77	76	
Poland	86	92	90	86	74	
Portugal	27	44	27	20	13	
Slovak Republic	87	94	92	86	71	
Spain	51	65	56	44	28	
Sweden	85	91	90	83	74	
Switzerland	86	90	87	85	81	
Turkey	29	38	26	22	16	
United Kingdom	68	75	69	66	61	
United States	88	87	88	89	87	
OECD average	70	79	74	67	57	
EU19 average	71	81	75	68	57	
Brazil	37	47	37	31	22	
Chile ²	50	64	52	44	32	
Estonia	89	86	94	93	82	
Israel	80	85	83	77	71	
Russian Federation ³	88	91	94	89	71	
Slovenia	82	92	84	78	71	

1. Excluding ISCED 3C short programmes.
2. Year of reference 2004.
3. Year of reference 2002.
Source OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).
StatLink *** http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664024334566

In Italy, in EAG 2006 48 % of population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education (64 % of population aged 25 o 34; 52 % of population aged 35 to 44; 44 % of population aged 45 to 54; 28 % of population aged 55 to 64); in EAG 2007 50 % of population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education (66 % of population aged 25 o 34; 54 % of population aged 35 to 44; 46 % of population aged 45 to 54; 30 % of population aged 55 to 64); in EAG 2008 51 % of population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education (67 % of population aged 25 o 34; 55 % of population aged 35 to 44; 47 % of population aged 45 to 54; 32 % of population aged 55 to 64); in EAG 2009 52 % of population aged 25 to 64 has completed upper secondary education (68 % of population aged 25 o 34; 56 % of population aged 35 to 44; 48 % of population aged 45 to 54; 34 % of population aged 55 to 64) (see Table A1.2a).

On average across OECD countries, in EAG 2009 the proportion of population aged 25 to 34 years old that has completed at least upper secondary education is 22 % higher than that of 55-64. In Italy, this increase is particularly evident: the proportion of population aged 25 to 34 years old that has completed at least upper secondary education is 34 % higher than that of 55-64.

Table A1.1a. Educational attainment: adult population (2004) Distribution of the 25-to-64-year-old population, by highest level of education attained

		Distribution	i oj the 25-tt				level of education ditained						
				Upper se	condary e	ducation		Terti	ary educ	cation			
		Pre- primary and primary education		ISCED 3C Short	ISCED 3C Long/3B	ISCED 3A	Post- secondary non- tertiary education	Type B	Type A	Advanced research programmes	All levels of education		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)		
rries	Australia	x(2)	36	a	11	20	3	9	22	x(8)	100		
oun	Austria	x(2)	20	a	47	6	9	9	9	x(8)	100		
OECD countries	Belgium	16	19	a	9	24	1	17	13	n	100		
OEC	Canada	5	11	a	x(5)	27	12	22	22	x(8)	100		
	Czech Republic	n	11	n	43	33	n	x(8)	12	x(8)	100		
	Denmark	1	16	2	45	4	n	7	25	n	100		
	Finland	13	10	a	a	43	n	17	16	1	100		
	France	15	20	a	31	10	n	10	14	x(8)	100		
	Germany	2	14	a	50	2	6	10	13	2	100		
	Greece	31	11 23	2	n 29	27	8 2	6	14	n	100		
	Hungary	3		a		28		n	16	n			
	Iceland		29	7	21	9	3	4	24	n	100		
	Ireland	18	19	n	a 7	24	10	10	17	n	100		
	Italy	19	32	1		28	1	x(8)	11	n	100		
	Japan ¹	x(2)	16	a	x(5)	47	a	17	21	x(8)	100		
	Korea	13	13	a	x(5)	44	a	8	22	x(8)	100		
	Luxembourg	19	3	15	18	15	6	9	11	2	100		
	Mexico	51	26	a	6	x(2)	a	2	14	x(8)	100		
	Netherlands	8	21 22	x(4)	16	22 43	10	2	26	n	100 100		
	New Zealand	x(2)		a	x(5) 41	12	3	8	18 29	x(8)	100		
	Norway Poland	n(2)	11	a 34			4						
		x(2) 61	16 14		a(5)	31 12	1	x(8)	16 12	x(8)	100		
	Portugal Slovak Republic	1	15	x(5) x(4)	x(5) 36	36	x(5)	x(8)	12		100		
		28	27	` '	6	12	` '	7	19	n	100		
	Spain Sweden	7	10	С	x(5)	48	c v(7)	15	19	c x(8)	100		
	Switzerland	3	12	a 2	41	6	x(7)	10	16	2	100		
	Turkey	64	10	a	6	11	a	x(8)	9	x(8)	100		
	United Kingdom	n or	15	20	21	15	a	9	14	6	100		
	United States	5	8	x(5)	x(5)	49	x(5)	9	28	1	100		
	difficu states			X(3)	X(3)	77	X(3)		20		100		
		or below		Attained	upper second of education	lary level			ned tertiar of educatio				
	OECD average EU19 average		80 29		42 45				25 23				
es	Brazil	57	14	x(5)	x(5)	22	a	x(8)	8	x(8)	100		
untries	Chile	24	26	x(5)	x(5)	37	a	3	10	x(8)	100		
- 8	Brazil Chile Israel	x(2)	21	x(5)	x(5)	34	a	16	28	1	100		
	Russian Federation ¹	3	8	x(5)	x(5)	34	x(5)	34	21	x(8)	100		

Note: Due to discrepant data, averages have not been calculated for each column individually.

^{1.} Year of reference 2003.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

Table A1.1a. Educational attainment: adult population (2005)
Distribution of the 25-to-64-year-old population, by highest level of education attained

								,			
		Pre-		Upper see	condary ec	lucation		Teı	tiary ed	ucation	
		primary and primary education	Lower secondary education	ISCED 3C Short	ISCED 3C Long/3B	ISCED 3A	Post- secondary non-tertiary education	Туре В	Type A	Advanced research programmes	All levels of education
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
ries	Australia	9	26	a	a	31	3	9	23	x(8)	100
ğ	Austria	x(2)	19	a	48	6	9	9	9	x(8)	100
OECD countries	Belgium	15	18	a	9	24	2	17	13	n	100
OEC	Canada	5	10	a	x(5)	27	12	23	23	x(8)	100
	Czech Republic	n	10	a	43	34	a	x(8)	13	x(8)	100
	Denmark	1	16	2	44	4	n	8	26	n	100
	Finland	11	10	a	a	44	n	17	17	1	100
	France	14	19	a	31	11	n	10	14	1	100
	Germany	3	14	a	49	3	6	10	14	1	100
	Greece	29	11	3	3	26	7	7	14	n	100
	Hungary	2	22	a	30	28	2	n	17	n	99
	Iceland	3	28	7	21	9	3	5	26	x(8)	100
	Ireland	17	18	n	a	25	11	11	18	n	99
	Italy	17	32	1	7	29	1	1	12	n	100
	Japan	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	60	a	18	22	x(8)	100
	Korea	12	13	a	x(5)	44	a	9	23	x(8)	100
	Luxembourg	19	9	6	18	18	4	10	16	1	100
	Mexico	50	29	a	6	x(2)	a	1	14	x(8)	100
	Netherlands	8	21	x(4)	15	23	3	2	28	1	100
	New Zealand	x(2)	21	a	22	19	11	7	20	x(8)	100
	Norway	n	22	a	30	11	4	2	30	1	100
	Poland	x(2)	15	34	a	31	4	x(8)	17	x(8)	100
	Portugal	59	15	x(5)	x(5)	13	1	x(8)	12	1	100
	Slovak Republic	1	14	x(4)	35	37	x(5)	1	13	n	100
	Spain	24	27	a	7	13	n	8	19	1	100
	Sweden	7	10	a	x(5)	48	6	9	21	x(8)	100
	Switzerland	3	10	4	45	6	3	10	17	2	100
	Turkey	63	10	a	7	10	a	x(8)	10	x(8)	100
	United Kingdom	n	14	19	21	16	a	9	15	6	100
	United States	5	8	x(5)	x(5)	49	x(5)	9	28	1	100
		Attained lower second level of education or below			l upper seco			Atta	nined tert of educa		
	OECD average	2			41				26		
	EU19 average	2	9		44				24		
ies	Brazil ¹	57	14	x(5)	x(5)	22	a	x(8)	8	x(8)	100
Partner	Chile ¹	24	26	x(5)	x(5)	37	a	3	10	x(8)	100

42

33

34

32

x(5)

x(5)

x(5)

28

11

16

34

10

22

29

21

9

1

x(8)

100

100

100

100

Russian Federation² Slovenia 1. Year of reference 2004.

Estonia

Israel

2. Year of reference 2003.

x(2)

3

2. rea of reference 2003.

Source: OECD, See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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

10

21

8

17

x(5)

Table A1.1a. Educational attainment: adult population (2006)
Distribution of the 25-to-64-year-old population, by highest level of education attained

Distribution of the 25-to-64-year-old population, by highest level of education attained											
		nary			educ	condary ation	uc	Tert	iary educa	ition	
		Pre-primary and primary education	Lower secondary education	ISCED 3C (short programme)	ISCED 3C (long programme)/3B	ISCED 3A	Post-secondary non-tertiary education	Type B	Type A	Advanced research programmes	All levels of education
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
ies	Australia	9	24	a	a	31	3	9	24	x(8)	100
OECD countries	Austria	x(2)	18	2	47	6	10	7	10	x(8)	100
8	Belgium	15	18	a	9	24	2	18	14	1	100
Œ	Canada	5	10	a	x(5)	27	12	23	24	x(8)	100
•	Czech Republic	n	10	a	42	35	a	x(8)	14	x(8)	100
	Denmark	1	16	2	43	4	n	8	27	1	100
	Finland	10	10	a	a	44	n	16	18	1	100
	France	14	19	a	30	11	n	11	15	1	100
	Germany	3	14	a	49	3	7	9	14	1	100
	Greece	28	11	3	3	26	8	7	15	n	100
	Hungary	2	20	a	30	29	2	n	17	n	100
	Iceland	3	27	6	16	10	8	4	25	1	100
	Ireland	16	18	n	a	25	11	11	19	n	100
	Italy	16	32	1 -(5)	7	30	1	1	12	n	100
	Japan Korea	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	60 44	a	18 9	23	x(8)	100
		18	9	a 8	x(5) 17	20	a 5	8	15	x(8)	100
	Luxembourg Mexico	48	30		7			1	14	x(8)	100
	Netherlands	7	20	a x(4)	16	x(2) 23	a 3	2	28	x(8)	100
	New Zealand	x(2)	20	X(4) 8	11	9	11	15	23	x(8)	100
	Norway	n x(2)	21	a	31	12	3	2	30	1	100
	Poland	x(2)	14	33	a	31	4	x(8)	18	x(8)	100
	Portugal	57	15	x(5)	x(5)	13	1	x(8)	13	1	100
	Slovak Republic	1	13	x(4)	35	37	x(5)	1	13	n	100
	Spain	23	27	a a	8	13	n n	9	19	1	100
	Sweden	6	10	a	x(5)	47	6	9	22	x(8)	100
	Switzerland	3	10	2	46	6	3	10	17	3	100
	Turkey	61	10	a	8	10	a	x(8)	10	x(8)	100
	United Kingdom	n	14	17	23	16	n	9	21	n	100
	United States	5	8	x(5)	x(5)	48	x(5)	5	33	1	100
		D -1				er secondary					
		Below	upper seco education	naary		of education		Tertiary	v level of ed	lucation	
	OECD average		31			42			27		
	EU19 average		31			45			24		
92	Brazil ¹	57	14	x(5)	x(5)	22	a	x(8)	8	x(8)	100
Partner countries	Chile ¹	24	26	x(5) x(5)	x(5) x(5)	37	a a	x(8)	10	x(8)	100
com	Estonia	1	11	a a	5	43	7	11	22	n x(o)	100
ner	Israel	4	17	a	x(5)	34	a	15	30	1	100
Part	Russian Federation ²	3	8	x(4)	16	18	x(4)	33	20	n	100
_	Slovenia	2	16	a a	28	32	a a	10	9	2	100
			10			32		10			1.50

Notes: Due to discrepancies in the data, averages have not been calculated for each column individually.

1. Year of reference 2004.

2. Year of reference 2002.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

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

StatLink

EP http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/401474646362

Table A1.1a. Educational attainment: adult population (2007) Distribution of the 25-64 year-old population, by highest level of education attained

			9	-		, ,	9				
						condary ation		Terti	ary educ	ation	
		Pre-primary and primary education	Lower secondary education	ISCED 3C (short programme)	ISCED 3C (long programme)/3B	ISCED 3A	Post-secondary non- tertiary education	Type B	Type A	Advanced research programmes	All levels of education
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
ies	Australia	8	24	x(5)	x(5)	31	3	10	24	x(8)	100
i i	Austria	x(2)	18	1	47	6	9	7	10	x(8)	100
OECD countries	Belgium	14	18	a	10	24	2	18	14	1	100
EG.	Canada	4	9	a	x(5)	26	12	24	25	x(8)	100
ō	Czech Republic	n	9	a	41	35	a	x(8)	14	x(8)	100
	Denmark	1	22	2	37	6	n	7	25	1	100
	Finland	10	10	a	a	44	n	15	20	1	100
	France	13	18	a	31	11	n	11	15	1	100
	Germany	3	13	a	50	3	7	9	14	1	100
	Greece	26 1	11 19	3	3 31	26 28	8 2	7	15 17	n	100 100
	Hungary Iceland	3	24	a 9	13	28 10	11	n 4	25	n 1	100
	Ireland	15	17	n		25	11	11	25	n	100
	Italy	15	32	n 1	x(5)	30	1	1	13	n n	100
	Japan	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	59	a	18	23	x(8)	100
	Korea	11	12	a a	x(5)	43	a	10	24	x(8)	100
	Luxembourg	18	9	7	17	19	4	9	17	1	100
	Mexico	47	20	a	a	18	a	a	15	x(8)	100
	Netherlands	7	20	x(4)	16	23	3	2	28	1	100
	New Zealand	x(2)	21	8	10	9	11	16	25	x(8)	100
	Norway	n	21	a	30	11	3	2	31	1	100
	Poland	x(2)	14	a	33	31	4	x(8)	19	x(8)	100
	Portugal	56	16	x(5)	x(5)	13	1	x(8)	13	1	100
	Slovak Republic	1	12	x(4)	35	38	x(5)	1	13	n	100
	Spain	22	27	a	8	14	n	9	19	1	100
	Sweden	6	10	a	x(5)	47	6	9	23	x(8)	100
	Switzerland	3	9	1	46	6	3	10	19	3	100
	Turkey	61	10	a	8	10	a	x(8)	11	x(8)	100
	United Kingdom	n	14	18	30	7	n	9	22	1	100
	United States	4	8	x(5)	x(5)	48	x(5)	9	30	1	100
		Ralaw	upper second	dami	Hon	er seconda	wy lovol	T	ertiary le	ual.	
		Below	education	iary	Орр	of educati			f educatio		
	OECD average		30			44			27		
	EU19 average		29			46			24		
	LO1) average		2)			70			2-7		
ies	Brazil	48	15	x(5)	x(5)	27	a	x(8)	10	x(8)	100
countries	Chile ¹	24	26	x(5)	x(5)	37	a	3	10	x(8)	100
COL	Estonia	1	10	a	5	44	7	11	22	n	100
ner	Israel	12	8	a	9	27	a	15	27	1	100
-					1						

18

34

20

100

100

Note: Due to discrepancies in the data, averages have not been calculated for each column individually. 1. Year of reference 2004. 2. Year of reference 2002. Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009). Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data. StatLink ***IR** http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664024334566

x(4)

Russian Federation²

Slovenia

About tertiary level, on average across OECD countries, in EAG 2006 25 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education, in EAG 2007 26 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education, in EAG 2008 and in EAG 2009 27 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education (see Table A1.1a).

In Italy, in EAG 2006 11 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education, in EAG 2007 and in EAG 2008 13 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education, and in EAG 2009 14 % of the adult population (aged 25 to 64) has attained a tertiary education (see Table A1.1a).

Russian Federation Federation Formula Formula

Chart A1.3. Population that has attained tertiary education (2004)

1. Year of reference 2003.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained tertiary education. Source: OECD. Table A1.3a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

Table A1.3a.

Population that has attained tertiary education (2004)

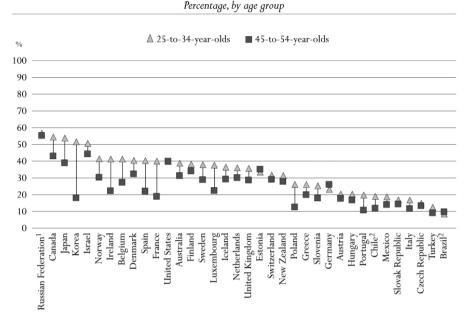
Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary-type B education or tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, by age group

	0 5 11											10 7001				
		Te	rtiary-	type B	educat	ion	Tertiary-type A and Advanced research programmes					Total tertiary				
		25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
ries	Australia	9	9	9	9	8	22	27	22	22	15	31	36	31	31	23
ŭ	Austria	9	9	9	10	9	9	11	11	8	6	18	20	20	18	15
OECD countries	Belgium	17	22	19	14	11	14	19	15	11	9	30	41	32	25	20
OEC	Canada	22	26	23	21	15	22	27	23	20	18	45	53	47	41	35
	Czech Republic	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	12	13	14	12	10
	Denmark	7	8	8	7	6	25	27	26	26	21	32	35	34	33	27
	Finland	17	14	22	18	12	17	24	18	14	13	34	38	40	32	25
	France	10	16	10	7	4	14	22	13	11	10	24	38	24	18	14
	Germany	10	8	11	11	10	15	15	15	16	12	25	23	27	26	23
	Greece	6	7	8	5	3	15	17	17	14	9	21	25	25	19	12
	Hungary	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	17	19	18	16	14
	Iceland	4	3	7	5	2	24	28	27	21	16	28	31	33	25	17
	Ireland	10	15	11	8	6	18	26	18	13	10	28	40	29	22	16
	Italy	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	11	15	12	11	7
	Japan ¹	17	25	20	13	7	21	26	25	20	12	37	52	45	33	19
	Korea	8	18	7	2	1	22	31	26	14	9	30	49	33	16	10
	Luxembourg	9	13	10	8	6	13	17	13	13	10	23	31	22	21	16
	Mexico	2	3	2	1	1	14	16	16	14	8	16	19	18	15	8
	Netherlands	2	2	3	2	2	27	32	27	26	22	29	34	30	29	24
	New Zealand	8	5	7	9	10	18	23	19	16	10	25	28	26	26	20
	Norway	2	2	2	3	2	29	37	32	26	21	32	39	34	29	23
	Poland	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	16	23	14	12	12
	Portugal	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	13	19	13	10	7
	Slovak Republic	1	1	1	1	0	12	14	12	12	9	12	14	12	13	9
	Spain	7	12	9	4	3	19	27	20	15	10	26	38	28	19	12
	Sweden	15	16	18	16	11	19	26	18	17	16	35	42	36	33	27
	Switzerland	10	10	11	11	8	18	20	20	17	14	28	30	31	28	22
	Turkey	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	9	11	8	9	7
	United Kingdom	8	8	8	8	7	18	23	17	16	14	26	31	25	24	21
	United States	9	9	10	10	8	30	30	30	31	28	39	39	39	41	36
	OECD average	9	11	10	8	6	19	24	20	17	13	25	31	27	23	18
	EU19 average	9	11	10	9	6	17	21	17	15	12	23	28	24	21	16
es	Brazil	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	8	8	9	9	4
countries	Chile	3	4	3	2	1	10	14	9	9	8	13	18	13	11	9
2 2	Israel	16	15	16	16	17	29	34	27	27	26	45	49	44	44	42
	Russian Federation ¹	34	35	37	34	26	21	22	22	20	19	55	56	59	55	45

^{1.} Year of reference 2003.

1. teat of reference 2005.
Source: OECD.See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).
Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.

Chart A1.3. Population that has attained at least tertiary education (2005)



^{1.} Year of reference 2003.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained tertiary education. Source: OECD. Table A1. 3a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

^{2.} Year of reference 2004.

Table A1.3a. Population that has attained tertiary education (2005)

Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary-type B education or tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, by age group

	rereasinge of the popular					OF D						Togrammes, by age group					
		Ter	rtiary-1	ype B	educat	ion			pe A an h prog			Total Tertiary					
		25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	
ries	Australia	9	9	9	9	8	23	29	23	21	16	32	38	32	31	24	
m	Austria	9	8	9	10	8	9	12	10	8	6	18	20	19	17	14	
00	Belgium	17	21	19	15	13	14	19	14	12	9	31	41	33	27	22	
OECD countries	Canada	23	26	25	22	18	23	28	25	21	19	46	54	50	43	36	
•	Czech Republic	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	13	14	14	13	11	13	14	14	13	11	
	Denmark	8	9	8	6	7	26	31	27	26	21	34	40	35	32	27	
	Finland	17	11	22	19	14	18	27	19	15	13	35	38	41	34	27	
	France	10	17	10	7	5	15	22	14	11	11	25	39	25	18	16	
	Germany	10	7	11	10	10	15	15	16	15	13	25	22	26	26	23	
	Greece	7	8	8	6	3	15	17	17	14	8	21	25	26	19	12	
	Hungary	0	1	0	0	0	17	19	17	16	15	17	20	17	16	15	
	Iceland	5	3	5	6	3	26	33	29	22	17	31	36	34	29	21	
	Ireland	11	14	11	8	6	18	26	19	14	11	29	41	30	22	17	
	Italy	1	1	1	0	0	12	15	12	11	8	12	16	13	11	8	
	Japan	18	25	21	15	8	22	28	25	23	13	40	53	47	38	22	
	Korea	9	19	8	3	1	23	32	27	15	9	32	51	36	18	10	
	Luxembourg	10	13	10	7	8	17	24	17	15	11	27	37	27	22	19	
	Mexico	1	1	1	1	1	14	17	14	13	7	15	18	16	14	8	
	Netherlands	2	2	2	2	2	28	34	28	28	23	30	35	30	30	24	
	New Zealand	7	5	6	10	10	20	26	22	17	11	27	31	28	27	21	
	Norway	2	2	2	3	2	30	39	33	26	22	33	41	35	30	24	
	Poland	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	17	26	16	12	13	17	26	16	12	13	
	Portugal	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	13	19	13	10	7	13	19	13	10	7	
	Slovak Republic	1	1	1	1	1	13	15	12	13	10	14	16	13	14	11	
	Spain	8	13	10	5	3	20	27	20	17	11	28	40	30	22	14	
	Sweden	9	9	8	11	8	21	28	20	18	17	30	37	28	28	25	
	Switzerland	10	9	12	10	8	19	22	20	19	14	29	31	32	29	22	
	Turkey	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	10	12	8	9	7	10	12	8	9	7	
	United Kingdom	9	8	10	9	7	21	27	20	19	16	30	35	30	28	24	
	United States	9	9	10	10	8	30	30	30	30	28	39	39	40	39	37	
	OECD average	8	10	9	8	6	19	24	19	17	13	26	32	27	24	19	
	EU19 average	8	9	9	7	6	17	22	17	15	12	24	30	25	21	17	
H 28	Brazil ¹	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	8	8	9	9	4	
economie	Chile ¹	3	4	3	2	1	10	14	x(13)	9	8	13	18	13	11	9	
con	Estonia	11	9	12	13	10	22	24	23	22	19	33	33	36	35	29	
9	Israel	16	15	16	17	16	30	35	28	27	26	46	50	44	44	43	
	Russian Federation ²	34	35	37	34	26	21	22	22	20	19	55	56	59	55	45	
	Slovenia	10	9	10	9	10	11	15	11	8	7	20	25	21	17	16	
	siovenia	10	9	10	9	10	11	15	11	0	/	20	23	Z I	17	10	

^{1.} Year of reference 2004.

2.1car of reference 2003.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

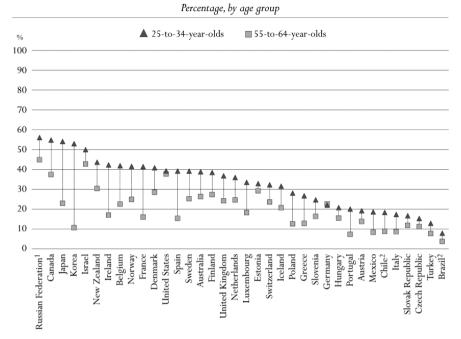
Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.

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^{2.} Year of reference 2003.

Chart A1.3. Population that has attained at least tertiary education (2006)



- 1. Year of reference 2002.
- 2. Year of reference 2004.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of the 25-to-34-year-olds who have attained tertiary education. Source: OECD. Table A1.3a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

Table A1.3a. Population that has attained tertiary education (2006)

Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary-type B education or tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, by age group

		Tertiary-type B education						ary-typ				Total tertiary					
		25 to 64	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	25 to 64	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	25 to 64	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	
ries	Australia	9	10	9	9	8	24	29	24	23	18	33	39	33	32	26	
ij	Austria	7	6	8	9	7	10	13	11	9	7	18	19	19	18	14	
o	Belgium	18	22	20	15	13	14	19	15	12	10	32	42	35	27	22	
OECD countries	Canada	23	26	25	22	18	24	29	26	21	19	47	55	51	43	37	
•	Czech Republic	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	14	15	15	13	11	14	15	15	13	11	
	Denmark	8	9	8	7	7	27	32	28	26	22	35	41	36	33	28	
	Finland	16	9	21	18	14	19	29	20	16	13	35	38	41	34	27	
	France	11	18	11	8	5	16	24	15	12	11	26	41	27	19	16	
	Germany	9	7	10	10	9	15	15	16	15	14	24	22	25	25	23	
	Greece	7	9	9	6	3	15	18	18	14	9	22	27	26	20	13	
	Hungary	0	1	0	0	0	17	20	17	17	15	18	21	17	17	15	
	Iceland	4	3	4	6	3	26	28	30	24	18	30	32	34	29	21	
	Ireland	11	14	12	9	6	20	28	20	15	11	31	42	33	24	17	
	Italy	1	1	1	0	0	12	17	13	11	8	13	17	14	11	9	
	Japan	18	24	21	16	9	23	30	25	24	14	40	54	46	39	23	
	Korea	9	20	9	3	1	23	33	28	16	10	33	53	37	19	11	
	Luxembourg	8	11	7	5	8	16	23	17	14	11	24	33	24	19	18	
	Mexico	1	1	1	1	1	14	17	15	14	8	15	19	16	15	8	
	Netherlands	2	2	2	2	2	28	34	28	28	23	30	36	30	30	25	
	New Zealand	15	14	15	17	16	23	30	25	21	15	38	44	39	38	30	
	Norway	2	2	2	4	2	31	40	32	27	23	33	42	35	30	25	
	Poland	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	18	28	17	13	13	18	28	17	13	13	
	Portugal	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	13	20	14	11	7	13	20	14	11	7	
	Slovak Republic	1	1	1	1	1	13	16	12	13	11	14	17	13	14	12	
	Spain	9	13	10	6	3	20	26	21	17	12	28	39	31	22	15	
	Sweden	9	9	9	10	8	22	31	21	19	17	31	39	29	29	25	
	Switzerland	10	9	11	11	8	20	23	22	19	15	30	32	33	29	24	
	Turkey	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	10	13	9	9	8	10	13	9	9	8	
	United Kingdom	9	8	9	9	8	22	29	21	20	16	30	37	31	29	24	
	United States	5	5	5	5	5	35	35	36	34	33	39	39	41	40	38	
	OECD average	8	10	9	8	6	19	25	20	17	14	27	33	28	24	19	
	EU19 average	8	9	9	7	6	17	23	18	15	13	24	30	25	21	18	
Partner countries	Brazil ¹	(11)	(12)	(12)	(14)	(15)	(11)	(12)	(12)	(14)	(1.5)		8	9	9	4	
	Chile 1	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	8	18	13		9	
	Estonia	11	9	12	13	10	10 22	24	23	22	8 19	33	33	36	11 35	29	
	Israel	16	15	16	17	16	30	35	28	27	26	46	50	36 44	35 44	43	
	Russian Federation ²	33	34	37	34	26	21	21	28	20	19	54	55	58	54	44	
		10	9	10	9	10	11	15	11	8	7	20	25	21	17		
	Slovenia	10	9	10	9	10	11	15	11	8		20	25	21	17	16	

^{1.} Year of reference 2004.

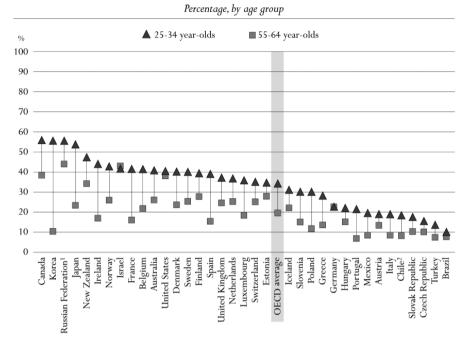
^{2.} Year of reference 2002.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

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

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Chart A1.3. Population that has attained at least tertiary education (2007)



^{1.} Year of reference 2002.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of the 25-34 year-olds who have attained at least tertiary education. Source: OECD. Table A1.3a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

^{2.} Year of reference 2004.

Table A1.3a. Population with tertiary education (2007)

Percentage of the population that has attained tertiary-type B education or tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, by age group

		Tertiary-type B education								d Adva ramme		Total tertiary					
		25-64		35-44	45-54	55-64	25-64			45-54	55-64	25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	
ries	Australia	10	10	9	10	9	24	31	25	22	18	34	41	34	32	27	
Ę.	Austria	7	6	7	8	7	10	13	12	9	7	18	19	19	17	14	
8	Belgium	18	23	19	16	13	14	18	16	12	9	32	41	36	28	22	
OECD countries	Canada	24	26	26	23	18	25	29	26	21	21	48	56	53	45	39	
ō	Czech Republic	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	14	15	14	14	11	14	15	14	14	11	
	Denmark	7	8	7	6	5	25	32	27	24	19	32	40	34	30	24	
	Finland	15	8	20	18	15	21	32	22	17	14	36	39	43	36	28	
	France	11	18	12	8	5	16	24	17	12	11	27	41	29	20	17	
	Germany	9	6	9	10	9	16	16	16	15	14	24	23	26	25	23	
	Greece	7	9	9	6	4	15	19	17	14	10	23	28	26	21	14	
	Hungary	n	1	n	n	n	18	21	17	16	16	18	22	17	16	16	
	Iceland	4	3	4	4	2	26	28	31	23	20	30	31	35	28	23	
	Ireland	11	14	13	9	6	21	30	22	16	11	32	44	34	25	17	
	Italy	1	1	1	1	n	13	18	13	11	9	14	19	14	11	9	
	Japan	18	25	22	16	9	23	29	24	25	15	41	54	46	41	24	
	Korea	10	22	10	4	1	24	34	30	17	10	35	56	40	21	11	
	Luxembourg	9	12	8	7	8	18	24	19	15	11	27	36	27	22	19	
	Mexico	1	1	1	1	1	15	18	15	14	8	16	19	16	15	9	
	Netherlands	2	2	2	2	2	29	35	29	28	24	31	37	31	30	26	
	New Zealand	16	14	15	17	17	25	33	26	22	18	41	47	41	39	35	
	Norway	2	2	2	3	3	32	41	34	28	24	34	43	36	31	26	
	Poland	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	19	30	18	13	12	19	30	18	13	12	
	Portugal	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	14	21	14	10	7	14	21	14	10	7	
	Slovak Republic	1	1	1	1	1	13	17	12	13	10	14	17	13	14	11	
	Spain	9	13	11	6	4	20	26	22	17	12	29	39	32	23	16	
	Sweden	9	8	9	9	8	23	31	22	20	18	31	40	31	29	26	
	Switzerland	10	9	11	10	9	21	26	23	20	17	31	35	34	30	26	
	Turkey	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	11	14	10	9	8	11	14	10	9	8	
	United Kingdom	9	8	10	10	8	23	29	22	21	17	32	37	32	31	25	
	United States	9	9	10	10	8	31	31	33	30	30	40	40	42	40	39	
	OECD average	9	10	10	9	7	20	26	21	18	14	28	34	29	25	20	
	EU19 average	8	9	9	9	7	18	24	19	16	13	24	31	26	22	18	
Partner countries	Brazil	-/11	(12)	(12)	(14)	/1E\	10	10	10	10	8	10	10	10	10	8	
	Chile ¹	x(11)	x(12)	x(13)	x(14)	x(15)	10	10	10	9		13	18			9	
		3	4	3	2	1			-		8			13 34	11		
	Estonia	11	9	12	13	10	22	25	22	22	18	33	35		35	28	
	Israel	15	13	16	16	16	28	28	30	28	27	44	42	46	44	43	
	Russian Federation ²	33	34	37	34	26	21	21	21	20	19	54	55	58	54	44	
	Slovenia	11	12	10	11	9	12	18	13	9	7	22	30	23	19	16	

^{1.} Year of reference 2004.

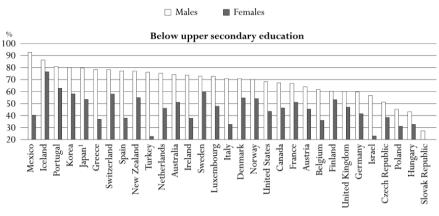
In EAG 2009, in almost all countries, besides, the proportion of population aged 25 to 34 years old that has completed at least upper secondary education is about 14 points % higher than that of 55-64. In Italy, 19 % of population aged 25 to 34 has completed tertiary education, 14 % of population aged 35 to 44 has completed tertiary education, 11 % of population aged 45 to 45 has completed tertiary education and 9 % of population aged 55 to 64 has completed tertiary education (see Chart A1.3 and Table A1.3).

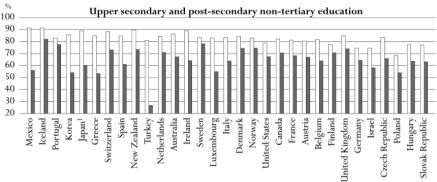
In most of OECD countries, employment rates rise with educational attainment, even because more educated people did larger investment in human capital and they have to "restore" those investments. At the same time, unemployment rates are lower for higher-educated people, due to their higher attractiveness in the labour market. But there are differences between genders, female workers in the labour participation rates are usually lowers than male workers with the same education attainment level.

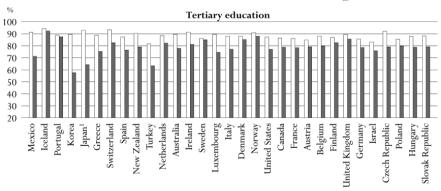
Females with an upper secondary education improve their employment rate by 19 % points and females with a tertiary education improve their employment rate by 32 % points over those with below upper secondary education (EAG, 2009). In Italy, employment rates for females aged 25 to 64 with an upper secondary education are about 30 percentage points higher than for females with below upper secondary education (EAG, 2009, see Chart A6.2).

Chart A8.2. Employment rates, by educational attainment (2004)

Percentage of the 25-to-64-year-old population that is employed







^{1.} Year of reference 2003.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of males having attained less than upper secondary education. Source: OECD. Table A8.3b and A8.3c. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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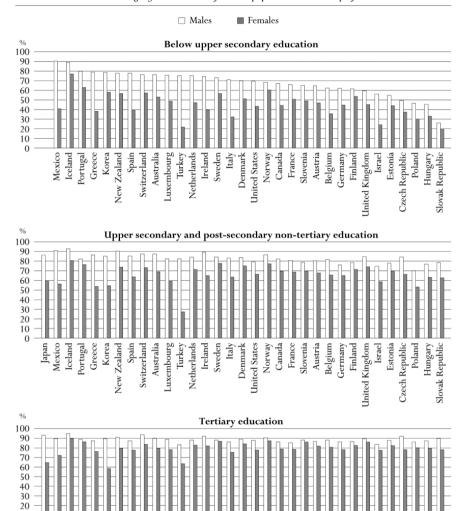
Greece Korea

Spain

New Zealand Switzerland Australia

Chart A8.2. Employment rates, by educational attainment (2005)

Percentage of the 25-to-64-year-old population that is employed



Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of males having attained less than upper secondary education. Source: OECD. Table A8.3b and A8.3c. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007). StatLink * http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068152681851

United States

Denmark Norway

Italy

Canada Slovenia

Luxembourg

Turkey Ireland Sweden

Netherlands

Finland United Kingdom

Germany

Austria

Estonia Poland

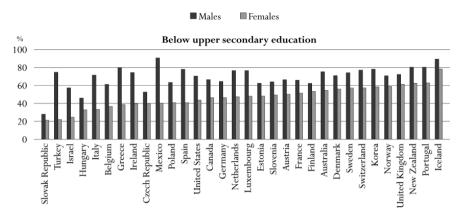
Czech Republic

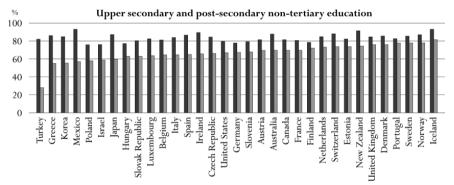
Republic

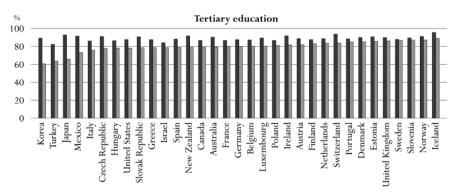
Slovak J

Chart A8.2. Employment rates, by educational attainment (2006)

Percentage of the 25-to-64-year-old population that is employed







Countries are ranked in ascending order of the employment rate of females.

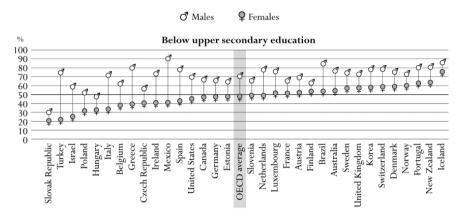
Source: OECD. Tables A8.3b and A8.3c. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

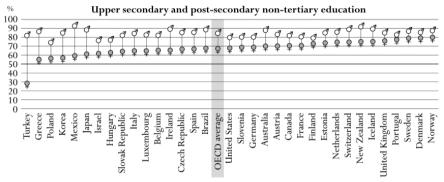
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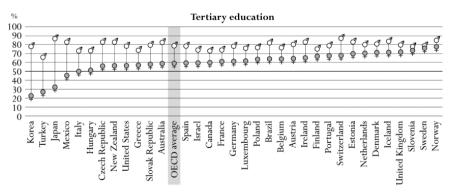
http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/401775543762

Chart A6.2. Employment rates, by gender and educational attainment (2007)

Percentage of the 25-64 year-old population that is employed







 $Countries \ are \ ranked \ in \ ascending \ order \ of \ the \ employment \ rate \ of \ females.$

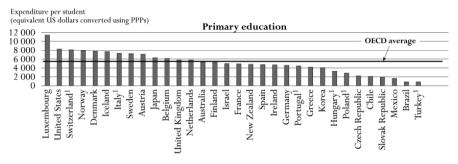
Source: OECD. Table A6.2b and Table A6.2c, available on line. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009). StatLink lttp://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664108032182

In Italy, in EAG 2006 employment rates for males with below upper secondary education are about 70 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 32-33 %; employment rates for males with upper secondary education are about 82 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 64 %; employment rates for males with tertiary education are about 89 % and employment rates for females with tertiary education are about 78 %. In EAG 2007 employment rates for males with below upper secondary education are about 70 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 32 %; employment rates for males with upper secondary education are about 82 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 63 %; employment rates for males with tertiary education are about 88 % and employment rates for females with tertiary education are about 75 %. EAG 2008 employment rates for males with below upper secondary education are about 67 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 35 %; employment rates for males with upper secondary education are about 82 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 62 %; employment rates for males with tertiary education are about 84 % and employment rates for females with tertiary education are about 77 %. EAG 2009 employment rates for males with below upper secondary education are about 72 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 34 %; employment rates for males with upper secondary education are about 85 % and employment rates for females with below upper secondary education are about 65 %; employment rates for males with tertiary education are about 75 % and employment rates for females with tertiary education are about 50 %.

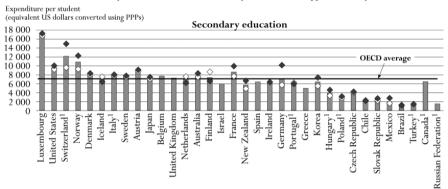
International comparisons of spending on educational institution are an important focus and a starting point for evaluating effectiveness of different educational provisions. In many OECD countries, higher trends in enrolments, specially at tertiary level, are not often accompanied by higher investments.

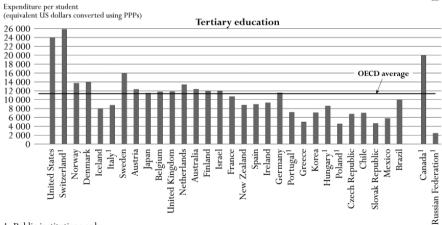
Chart B1.2. Annual expenditure on educational institutions per student for all services, by level of education (2003)

In equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs, based on full-time equivalents



■ Secondary education ♦ Lower secondary education ◆ Upper secondary education



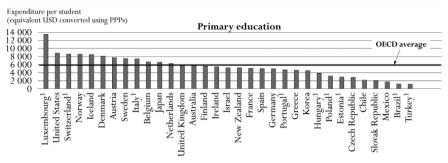


1. Public institutions only.

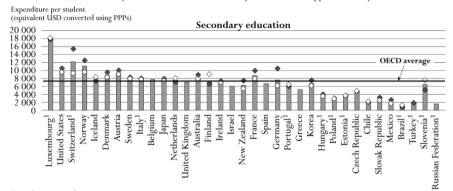
Countries are ranked in descending order of expenditure per student in primary education. Source: OECD. Table B1.1a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

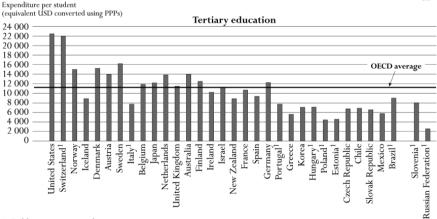
Chart B1.2. Annual expenditure on educational institutions per student for all services, by level of education (2004)

In equivalent USD converted using PPPs, based on full-time equivalents



■ Secondary education ♦ Lower secondary education ♦ Upper secondary education



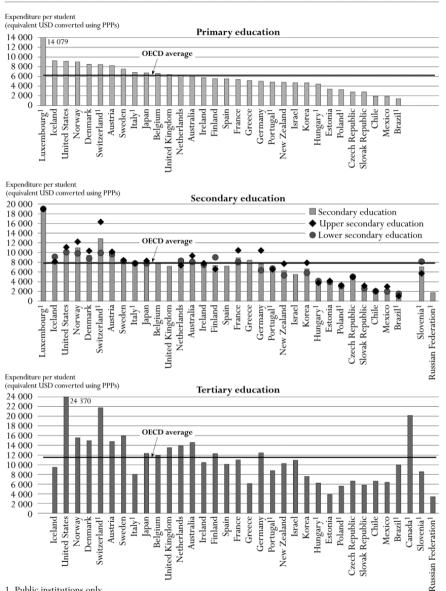


1. Public institutions only.

Countries are ranked in descending order of expenditure per student in primary education. Source: OECD. Table B1.1a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

Chart B1.2. Annual expenditure on educational institutions per student for all services, by level of education (2005)

In equivalent USD converted using PPPs, based on full-time equivalents



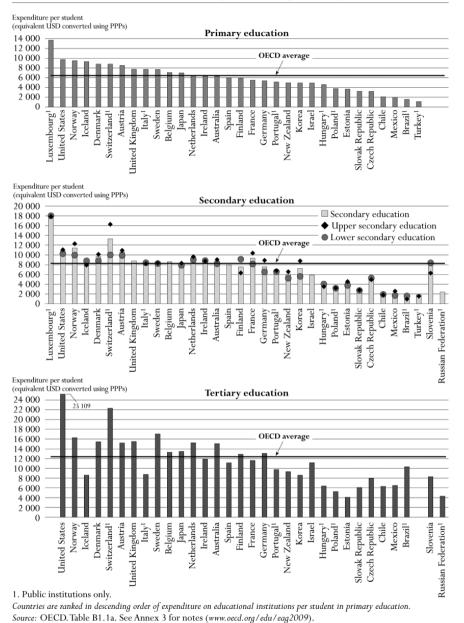
1. Public institutions only.

Countries are ranked in descending order of expenditure on educational institutions per student in primary education.

Source: OECD. Table B1.1a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

Chart B1.2. Annual expenditure on educational institutions per student for all services, by level of education (2006)

In equivalent USD converted using PPPs, based on full-time equivalents



PERSONA E SOCIETÀ

About direct public and private expenditure on educational institutions in relation to the number of full-time students enrolled, on average across OECD countries as a whole annually spend:

- USD 7 471 per student (enrolled in primary through tertiary education) (EAG, 2006)
- USD 7 572 per student (enrolled in primary through tertiary education) (EAG, 2007)
- USD 8 533 per student (enrolled in primary through tertiary education) (EAG, 2008)
- USD 8 857 per student (enrolled in primary through tertiary education) (EAG, 2009).

Italy annually spend (EAG, 2006):

- around USD 7 500 per student (enrolled in primary education)
- around USD 8 000 per student (enrolled in secondary education)
- around USD 8 800 per student (enrolled in tertiary education) (see Chart B1.2).

Italy annually spend (EAG, 2007):

- around USD 7 800 per student (enrolled in primary education)
- around USD 8 000 per student (enrolled in secondary education)
- around USD 8 800 per student (enrolled in tertiary education) (see Chart B1.2).

Italy annually spend (EAG, 2008):

- around USD 6 300 per student (enrolled in primary education)
- around USD 8 000 per student (enrolled in secondary education)
- around USD 8 000 per student (enrolled in tertiary education) (see Chart B1.2).

Italy annually spend (EAG, 2009):

- around USD 7 800 per student (enrolled in primary education)
- around USD 8 000 per student (enrolled in secondary education)
- around USD 8 500 per student (enrolled in tertiary education) (see Chart B1.2).

Indicator D3 shows how much teachers earn, that is the starting, midcareer and maximum statutory salaries of teacher in public primary, lower and upper secondary education. Differences in teachers' salaries can provide some elucidation about differences in expenditure per student (Indicator B1).

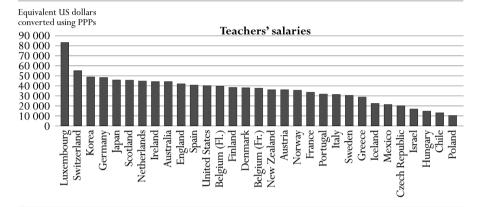
Teachers' salaries increased since 1996 till 2007 in most OECD countries (all but Spain). Teachers' salaries are the highest single cost in school education. On average in OECD countries, upper secondary teachers' salaries per teaching hour are 42 % higher than those of primary teachers. Salaries at the top of the scale exceed around 70% starting salaries both primary and secondary education, but not all teachers can reach the maximum salary level.

International comparisons of salaries require caution in interpreting, because they provide simplified statements. In OECD countries, in fact, there are differences in taxation and welfare inferences, social benefits systems and financial incentives.

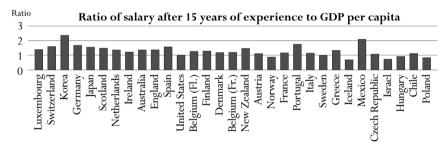
Chart D3.1. Teachers' salaries in lower secondary education (2004)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions in lower secondary education, in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs, and the ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita

Salaries of teachers with at least 15 years experience at the lower secondary level range from about USD 10 000 in Poland to USD 48 000 or more in Germany, Korea and Switzerland and even exceed USD 80 000 in Luxembourg.



Salaries for teachers with at least 15 years experience in lower secondary education are over twice the level of GDP per capita in Korea and Mexico whereas in Iceland and the partner country Israel salaries are less than 75% of GDP per capita.



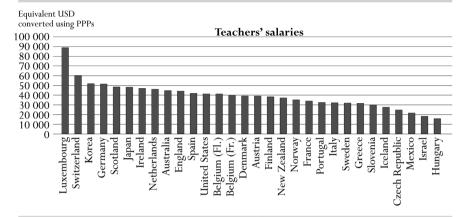
Countries are ranked in descending order of teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience and minimum training.

Source: OECD. Table D3.3. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

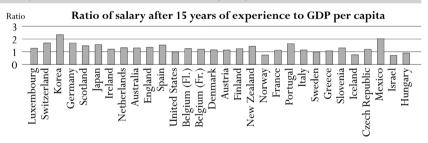
Chart D3.1. Teachers' salaries in lower secondary education (2005)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions in lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs, and the ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita

Salaries of teachers with at least 15 years experience at the lower secondary level range from less than USD 16 000 in Hungary to USD 51 000 or more in Germany, Korea and Switzerland, and exceed USD 88 000 in Luxembourg.



Salaries of teachers with at least 15 years experience in lower secondary education are over twice the level of GDP per capita in Korea and Mexico, whereas in Iceland and Norway, and the partner economy Israel, salaries are 75% or less than GDP per capita.



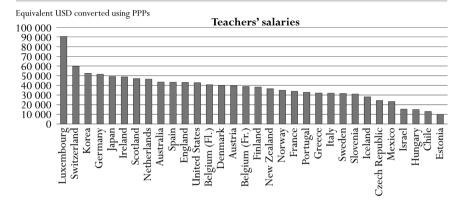
Countries are ranked in descending order of teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience and minimum training.

Source: OECD. Table D3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

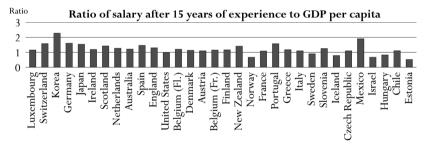
Chart D3.1. Teachers' salaries in lower secondary education (2006)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions in lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs, and the ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita

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.



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 GDP per capita.



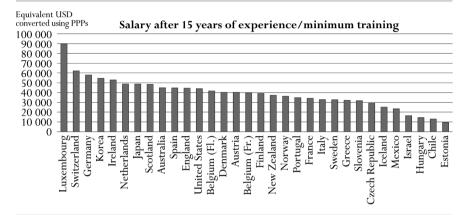
Countries are ranked in descending order of teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience and minimum training.

Source: OECD. Table D3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2008).

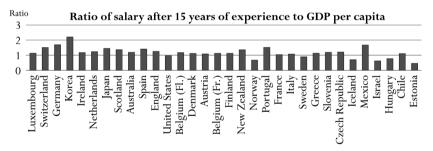
Chart D3.1. Teachers' salaries in lower secondary education (2007)

Annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions in lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs, and the ratio of salary after 15 years of experience to GDP per capita

Salaries of teachers with at least 15 years of experience at the lower secondary level range from less than USD 15 000 in Hungary and in the partner countries Chile and Estonia to USD 52 000 or more in Germany, Ireland, Korea and Switzerland, and exceed USD 89 000 in Luxembourg.



Salaries for teachers with at least 15 years of experience in lower secondary education are over twice the GDP per capita in Korea, whereas in Iceland, Norway, and in the partner countries Estonia and Israel, salaries are 75% or less than the GDP per capita.



Countries are ranked in descending order of teachers' salaries in lower secondary education after 15 years of experience and minimum training.

Source: OECD. Table D3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

In EAG 2006, OECD average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 25 727 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 35 099 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 42 347 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 27 560 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 37 488 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 45 277 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 28 892 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 40 295 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 48 197 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2007, OECD average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 27 723 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 37 603 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 45 666 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 29 772 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 40 322 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 48 983 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 31 154 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 43 239 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 51 879 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2008, OECD average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 27 828 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 37 832 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)

- USD 46 290 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 30 047 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 40 682 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 49 788 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 31 110 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 43 360 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 52 369 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2009, OECD average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 26 687 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 39 007 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 47 747 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 31 000 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 41 993 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 51 470 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 32 183 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 44 782 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 54 440 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In Italy, teachers learn less than OECD average at every education level and every salary scale's level.

In EAG 2006, Italy average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 23 753 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 28 731 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 34 951 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 25 595 (starting salary, lower secondary education)

- USD 31 291 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 38 370 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 25 595 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 32 168 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 40 113 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2007, Italy average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 24 224 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 29 301 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 35 641 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 26 108 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 31 917 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 39 135 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 26 108 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 32 813 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 40 917 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2008, Italy average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 24 211 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 29 287 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 35 686 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 26 084 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 31 890 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 39 162 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 26 084 (starting salary, upper secondary education)

- USD 32 781 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 40 934 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education).

In EAG 2009, Italy average of annual statutory teachers' salaries in public institutions are:

- USD 24 945 (starting salary, primary education)
- USD 30 174 (salary after 15 years of experience, primary education)
- USD 36 765 (salary at the top of the scale, primary education)
- USD 26 877 (starting salary, lower secondary education)
- USD 32 859 (salary after 15 years of experience, lower secondary education)
- USD 40 351 (salary at the top of the scale, lower secondary education)
- USD 26 877 (starting salary, upper secondary education)
- USD 33 778 (salary after 15 years of experience, upper secondary education)
- USD 42 179 (salary at the top of the scale, upper secondary education) (see Table D3.1).

In OECD countries, reforms in education systems are required, but it's important, at the same time, that reforms actually can get expected changes, first of all in practices and outcomes.

Reforms, indeed, require time to get their aims, their goals, their proposals. Reforms have to be lead and put to the test for a middle-long time, and to be collected and analyzed processes and outcomes at each level. All suggest that interventions have to be widely shared, coherent, consistent and ordered and they haven't to be changed or stopped at every government staff's turnover.

International comparisons would be able to relieve, more and again, pedagogists and policy makers in OECD countries in identifying common challenges, criticisms and best practices.

For example, reading OECD international indicators' analyses we can envisage that teachers and school leaders often aren't adequately and properly trained to use performance tests and to identify lacks and difficulties in their students so to help them to improve themselves in their learning process. Besides, teachers and school leaders spend too much time in ad-

ministrative issues. In Italy, moreover, teachers' remunerations are lower than OECD countries' average. In Finland, instead, teachers are well-paid and Finland always come out at the top.

Finally, teachers, school leaders and all educational staff are widely considered as central to educational success. Education policies focus on the need to professionalise, modernise, innovate and reform about teachers matter, investment in ITC and effective learning. Besides, it's a key aim to get an active participation and involvement by students and parents along all formative process.

Early childhood education and care are increasingly becoming a key priority in many countries, not at least in a perspective of lifelong and lifewide education. Many countries, despite the enormous differences, now agree about the need to allocate higher investment on pre-primary education and to place well-being and early development, learning and education as quality pedagogical goals, even improving professional education of early education childhood education and care, working conditions, families and communities involment in early childhood services and broad curricular standards and guidelines.

But we can consider that changes are possible even if policy makers and the stake-holders move from the mere control about the expenditure and contents of education toward a focus on outcomes and if they will be able to recognize international and shared high standards, preserving, at the same time, diversities and peculiarities of each person.

Education policy makers have to gauge both education highlights and improvements by comparisons with past outcomes and to take a look on other countries outcomes too.

We all agree about the need to think and think again about education so to prepare effectively and to empower more and more people, lifelong and lifewide, for such a challenging future.

I hope that more and more kinds of cooperation and partnership among policy makers, pedagogists and education researchers will be promoted, as well as networking among school institutions, universities, other learning organizations, all stake-holders and private companies too so to make more shared and finally both contemplated and democratic choices and decisions.

The complex relationship between research and policies: a pedagogical approach**

This partnership/cooperation needs serious reflection and deep investigation by educational research about questions and challenges in order to set a relationship between research and policies in a pedagogical perspective, in Italy too, where nowadays there is a meaningful debate about educational system, referring to the transition from school into work. In fact, when international institutions publish reports, public opinion begs for reforms and all political parties agree with innovation, but the impression is that – as R. Coe wrote – «politicians, government agencies and others repeatedly impose policy on schools with no – or at best limited – evidence about the likely costs and benefits. Change of any sort is always disruptive and should surely have to be justified. It would generally not be difficult or expensive to evaluate policies before they are imposed, and this should be routinely required» (Coe, 1999).

The relationship between scientific research and public politics is complex in every field of knowledge: the latter is fond of research for innovation and progress and the former aspires to spread its results beyond borders of academic/scientific community. There are clashes and problems in educational field; therefore it is necessary to think about proposals made in the name of science or research and to understand desirability of changes indicated by research. Notwithstanding, research can contribute to the change by studying in-depth strategies of implementation and evaluating results of projects or actions for innovation. At an other level, educational research can stand as a resource for governance of educational/school system. The aim of the present work is to improve pedagogical reflection about the relationship between scientific research & public politics for the innovation of school system, regardless if political choices are made by the Right parties or the Left ones.

The reflection on the complex relationship between research and politics in education must go beyond considerations that are common sense of researchers' and politicians' experiences: on the one hand, the existence of this relationship is clear even when confined in a mutual cultural influence; on the other hand, the aim of research cannot overlap with checking of political/government action, and political activity cannot have the scientific/ academic community as its single reference. Moreover there is the temptation of instrumental use of term/concept complexity in order to avoid epistemological questions and methodological problems, especially related to

singular nature of the research field. Besides, it could also be risky to make use of the adjective "educational" for increasing the complex nature of this relationship in order to give a scientific and autonomous disciplinar value. This is particularly true for educational research, that seems to project an image of itself which is often unconvincing and unsatisfactory (Viganò, 2002). Equally important is to critically approach to the *cliché*, widespread in public opinion, that is necessary to base and evaluate in the so-called scientific way any reform of education/school/training/guidance system. In fact, in this case the reference to science/scientific mostly derives from the inability of political parties to reach an institutional agreement about school. This idea can lead to deny right/principle of freedom of research and to make an instrumental use of science, and of each discipline of the field of knowledge invocated to support political choices.

The pedagogical and educational research can benefit from the relationship with public policies not only in terms of gaining recognition and/or cultural-political influence. Actually this relationship calls for ethical, scientific and methodological challenges that may help to explain its goals, perspectives and contributions. In this context the reflection about evidence as a reference/base for education policies and school reforms must be placed, in order to focus on epistemological and methodological questions and problems. This may contribute to describe the intrinsic complexity of research-policy relationship. It is important to consider, for example, the scientific identity of pedagogical knowledge and the significance of evidence in educational field, in the meaning of something that provides proof, or evidence of what works, or that includes the results of a systematic investigation to increase knowledge (Hargreaves, 1997; Hammersley, 2001; Brusling, 2009). Then, there are many critical aspects on how education policies can be helped/supported/ oriented by research and which evidence of/from research counts or could count in/for policies and practices in education (Slavin, 2008).

The main problems regard, firstly, the nature of the evidence produced by research on the reality/object under investigation (education) and the meaning given to adjective "scientific" in order to describe both the substantives "evidence" and "research". Secondly, the questions about specificity of pedagogical/educational investigation cannot be avoided; and especially about which scientific evidence should, or could, be considered in education policies or school reform. Furthermore, it must be clarified which scientific evidence can be accessed by educational research, and which methods and tools are adequate to bring it out so that it can really be used as one of the criteria for public policies.

Additional questions concern, on one hand, communicability and dissemination of research results – in terms of scientific evidence acquired – among several stakeholders (academic community, policy makers, teachers/educators, families, etc...); on the other hand, feasibility/viability in the educational system (schools, universities, high education, etc.) and desirability of a social change envisaged by such evidence.

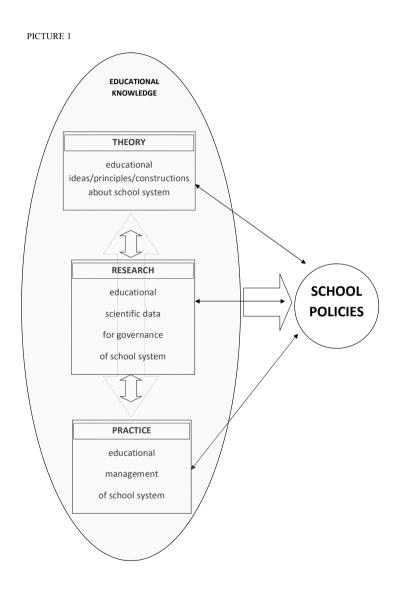
Then, further questions concern the use of research evidence by practitioners and how to deal with possible contradictions with professional experience (Hammersley, 2001), the level of awareness of policy makers about such evidence, and its value in decision making process for education/school/training/guidance (laws, measures, proceedings). This situation makes necessary to consider both the importance of interpretation of research results and the possible imbalance between time of policy-decision/policy-makers and time of research/researchers (OECD, 2007).

In reality, the questions above can find different answers depending on the epistemological and methodological paradigms. However, these paradigms cannot be separated from the theory-practice relationship, that is an essential dimension of education itself. In this aspect the particular approach and characteristic contribution of educational/pedagogical research to public policies can be recognized. Unlike other forms/types of investigation, educational/pedagogical research is a scientific knowledge not merely "on" education but rather "for" education (Van der Maren, 1996). It offers itself as a specific scientific discourse in order to know what it is, and to discriminate what it must be, in relation to what it takes to reach the chosen end (Viganò, 2002).

In this perspective, the scientific research – understood as purposeful and systematic activities directed to the development of new knowledge – of educational/pedagogical nature/identity is carried out in the constant tension between theory and practice. This relationship is, at once, the singular size of education, the particular object of investigation and the critical core for the definition of the methodological principles of validity of educational theory, practice and research. The contribution of pedagogical and educational research to public policies relating to school can this way be recognized as educational knowledge and, especially, as a required condition for policies to be fairly and effectively planned, implemented, and evaluated.

This particular contribution is generated as a process of interrelated knowledge areas – intrinsically linked – of educational theory, practice, research about school system. The pedagogical/educational research finds the

information/data to bring to the attention of policy makers in continuous relationship between theory and practice, and in the virtuous cycle that activates itself between one another (picture 1).



The relationship between educational research and public policies has in orientation/guidance a theme of particular relevance. This is due to three main reasons:

- a) school is one of the keys and strategic locations/places for orientation/guidance (Grimaldi-Del Lungo, 2003);
- b) orientation/guidance is one of the aspects in which school shows and realizes its educational function (Castelli, 2002);
- c) guidance/orientation is a critical and problematic theme/aspect for the education system, especially referring to the relationship between school and society (Capano, 2006).

The reflection on the contribution of research to the formulation of public policies – today more than ever – is related to complex and problematic issues regarding the education system, even for the present political-institutional debate on school and university. The different positions in this debate should bear in mind that education policies should have long-term perspective and continuity in their choices (Delors, 2000).

The contribution/role of educational research can concern many different areas, including: identifying educational needs resulting from professional choices; clarifying the role of school experiences for the development of professional vocation; recognizing needs of existential orientation in transitions among different kinds of schools and from school to university, from school/university into work; deepening pedagogical skills related to guidance counseling, skills assessment during career, and condition for job placement of persons suffering disabilities.

At an another level, educational research can be a resource for the governance, management and development of the education/training system. The contribution of educational research is recognized in terms of resources to validate the experiences of guidance conducted in school, sustaining the guidance function of education system, and formulating public policies for guidance. The aim of this article is to draw attention on this last aspect, in order to stress the pedagogical debate on some research perspectives.

This function can be implemented in the examination of outcomes of public policies, especially referring to achievement of educational goals pursued, the analysis of the effect induced in educational/school practices and the conditions/reasons that they have or not have helped in short/medium/long term; the assessment of what has or has not worked at all levels of the education/school system and the available resources.

Among many iusses/problems associated with guidance, in particular the implementation of policies stands out for the transition from school into university/work and school/university innovation in the perspective of long-life education. In the awareness that politicians always seek for scientific support for their reforms and researchers are always tempted to prescribe "in the name of science", suggesting that their convictions are entitled to research results (Marcel, 2003).

Conclusion**

These reflections recall the topic/problem of funding for educational research, and especially the problems connected with the appropriate benchmarks to orient public funds on research in pedagogical/educational field: the appeal to scientific evaluation is likely to be rhetorical, whereas not followed by legislative measures aimed at establishing transparent, consistent, and stable in time parameters/indicators and criteria suitable to the particularities of the research context.

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