

Investing in Education 2026

Focus on the teaching profession

European Education Policy Paper



European Education Policy Papers series

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Investing in Education 2026

Focus on the teaching profession

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Foreword

Investment in education is one of the most consequential choices societies can make, shaping not only individual life chances but also long-term prosperity, resilience and social cohesion. Quality education strengthens basic skills, supports economic growth, reduces inequality and helps Europe respond to demographic change and skills shortages. Yet, investment in education remains under pressure at a time when Europe faces growing economic, social and geopolitical challenges. At 9.7% of total public expenditure, it is stabilising at EU level, but it is still below the 10% reached before the Covid-19 pandemic, as this report outlines.

Prioritising investment in education is essential to ensure that education systems can attract and retain teachers, improve learning environments and deliver quality for all. This task has become more urgent in the age of artificial intelligence, which is transforming the skills people need, the ways teaching and learning take place, and how societies prepare for the future.

I am delighted to see that this year the report's focus is on teachers. The report, much like the TALIS report of 2026, shows that teachers are more likely to thrive when they work in supportive environments. Excel when valued by society. Able to contribute meaningfully to educational change when recognised. Improving teacher well-being and working conditions is therefore not simply a labour market issue; it is a strategic investment in the future of Europe.

The evidence shows that teachers are motivated by values. They see the importance of their role in building society. But they do question whether society still sees and appreciates them. Concerns about workload, stress, and professional recognition are affecting the attractiveness of the profession, particularly among experienced teachers.

Under the Union of Skills, we are placing a strong focus on teachers and school leaders. We are looking at how European cooperation can contribute to the attractiveness of the profession, professional

development and educational leadership. Later this year we will propose an EU Teachers and Trainers Agenda, as part of an Education Package, to help Member States attract and retain talent, and tackle teacher shortages. This report will guide us.

The Union of Skills and the European Education Area provide the policy framework. To strengthen this, the 2026 Council Recommendation on human capital in the European Union urges EU countries to evaluate spending efficiency and adopt evidence-based education and skills policies. That is why the proposed next Multiannual Financial Framework supports increased funding in education and skills, through National and Regional Partnership Plans, a new European Competitiveness Fund and a reinforced Erasmus+ programme.

The challenges we face—from teacher shortages to skills gaps—are shared challenges, and so too must be the solutions. By working together with our Member States, we can ensure that education remains an essential investment in our present and future.



Roxana Mînzatu
Executive Vice-President
Social Rights and Skills, Quality Jobs and Preparedness



Executive summary

“Investing in Education” is an annual report that informs on developments in education investment in the EU. It is composed of two parts:

- Part 1 analyses the most recent indicators at EU and national levels and the long-term trends concerning public expenditure in education, and compares them with public expenditure in other policy areas.
- Part 2 has a thematic focus that changes every year and aims at strengthening the evidence base to support education investment at EU and country levels. The 2026 topic draws on data from the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2024 to identify the factors that can make the teaching profession more attractive. This is particularly policy-relevant because staff costs are the largest category of public expenditure on education in EU countries.

Education investment in the EU is stabilising, although it is still below pre-pandemic levels as a share of total public expenditure. In 2024, EU countries spent 4.8% of GDP on education, accounting for 9.7% of total public expenditure, although large disparities existed between countries. These levels place the EU in the middle range among large advanced economies. Education’s share of public spending remains below pre-pandemic levels, having declined by 0.3 percentage points compared with 2019. This deserves attention because education is a growth-friendly spending category. The 2024 data do not reflect yet the possible impact of new economic and geopolitical priorities that have emerged in 2025 and 2026 on the composition of public expenditure.

The EU budget and policy initiatives provide substantial support for education. The EU’s 2021–2027 budget allocates around €150 billion to education and skills, targeting such key areas as digital adaptation, infrastructure and mobility. The [Union of Skills](#) initiative highlights that EU funding is complementary, with the core responsibility for investment resting on countries to uphold the bloc’s economic and social model. To strengthen this, the 2026 [Council Recommendation on Human Capital in the European Union](#) urges EU countries to evaluate spending efficiency and adopt evidence-based education and skills policies.

Teacher salaries account for the largest share of public expenditure on education in the EU. In 2024, 66% of public expenditure on pre-primary and primary education and 72% on secondary education in the EU was allocated to compensation of employees – mostly teachers and school principals. Trends over time show that, while staff costs increased substantially in nominal terms between 2015 and 2024, most of this growth reflected rising price levels rather than structural changes in education systems.

Teacher salaries remain below the earnings of similarly educated workers throughout their careers in most EU countries. On average across the EU, lower secondary teachers' statutory starting salaries are 58% of the average earnings of similarly educated workers aged 25-64, while statutory salaries at the top of the scale reach 89% of those earnings. Similarly, lower secondary teachers' average actual salaries are 85% of the full-time earnings of tertiary-educated workers aged 25-64.

Most teachers would still choose the profession again, although willingness to do so varies by gender and experience. In 2024, 76.5% of EU teachers reported that they would choose teaching again, down from 79.2% in 2018. Female teachers were 12 percentage points more likely than male teachers to choose the profession again. This probability declines steadily with experience - by up to 12 percentage points among teachers with more than 20 years of experience compared to early-career teachers - suggesting that perceptions of the attractiveness of the profession among in-service teachers differ across individual characteristics.

Both material and non-material factors matter for the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Teachers satisfied with their salary are about 7 percentage points more likely to choose teaching again, while positive perceptions of the work environment and of the profession's value increase this likelihood by around 4 percentage points. Professional collaboration and social utility motivations also present positive, though smaller, effects. By contrast, all else equal, workplace stress reduces the probability of choosing teaching again by about 5 percentage points.

Effective investment to enhance the attractiveness of the teaching profession requires a comprehensive approach, including salaries as well as other working conditions and well-being which are not directly related to salaries, but also have budgetary implications for national expenditure in education. While competitive salaries can support both recruitment and retention, their impact appears limited when they are not accompanied by supportive working conditions and teacher well-being. Reducing excessive job demands – such as workload and stress – while enhancing job resources (e.g. supportive school environments) can play a key role in sustaining teachers' motivation. This is particularly important for retaining experienced teachers, whose willingness to choose teaching again tends to decline even when they are satisfied with their salaries. Beyond working conditions, the findings highlight the importance of teachers' perceptions of the profession's value and policy influence. Consistent with this, the literature identifies improving teachers' social status as an effective way to enhance the profession's attractiveness. Overall, these findings emphasise the importance of adopting integrated policy frameworks that address both material and non-material aspects of the profession in order to strengthen its attractiveness.

Part 1

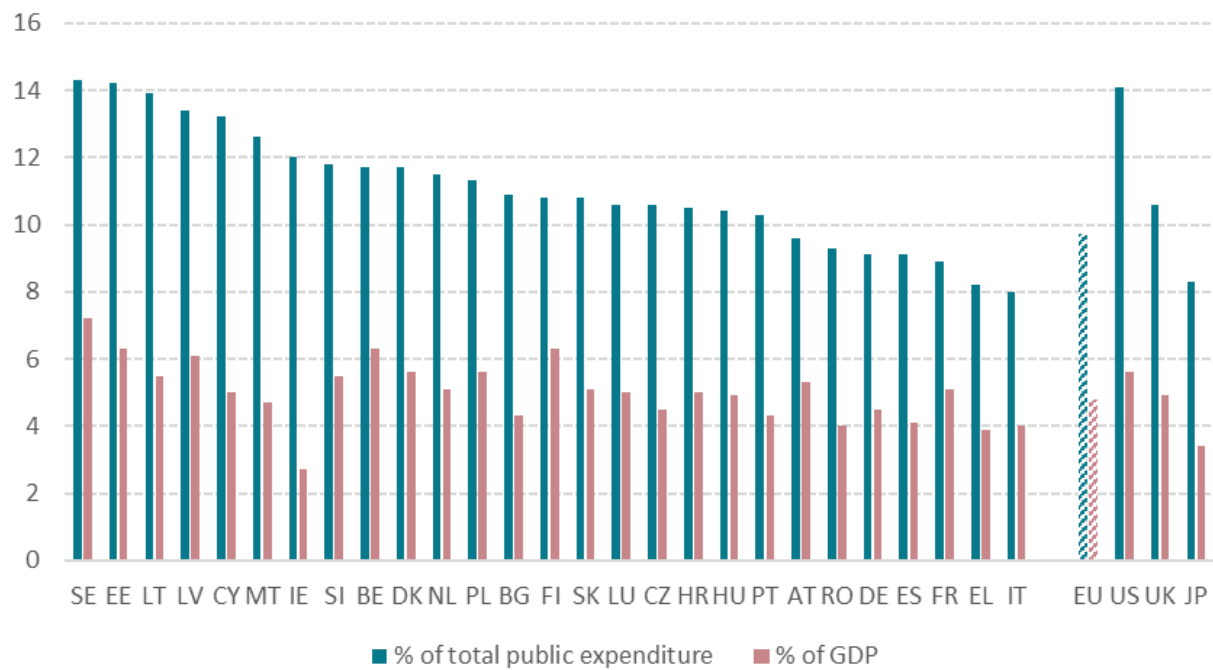
Investment in education is stabilising



The most recent data¹ shows that public expenditure on education² in the EU amounted to 9.7% of total public expenditure and 4.8% of GDP in 2024. At the country level, the former varied from 14.3% in Sweden to 8.0% in Italy; the latter ranged from 7.2% in Sweden to 2.7% in Ireland (Figure 1).³ The correlation between these two indicators is positive and rather strong, but not perfect.⁴ This depends on the different size of total public expenditure in each economy,⁵ reflecting the variety of long-term approaches to welfare in EU countries (European Commission, 2025e).

These figures place the EU in an intermediate position among large advanced economies. Public investment in education in the EU as a whole is higher than in Japan, but significantly lower than in the US, both as a share of total public expenditure and of GDP. It is broadly comparable with UK's investment, especially as a share of GDP (Figure 1). Besides policy preferences, those differences also reflect divergent demographic compositions: 31% of the total population is aged under 25 in the US, compared with 25% in the EU and 21% in Japan (OECD, 2026).

Figure 1. Public expenditure on education (2024)



Notes: Provisional data for BE, DE, ES, FR, PT. See footnote 3 for IE.
Source: Eurostat COFOG data for EU countries, European Commission services' calculations based on OECD COFOG data and OECD GDP data for JP, UK, US.

¹ Eurostat releases data on government expenditure by function (COFOG) for year t in March/April of year t+2. The most recent data available in 2026 refers to 2024.

² This report will use 'investment in education' interchangeably with 'public expenditure on education'.

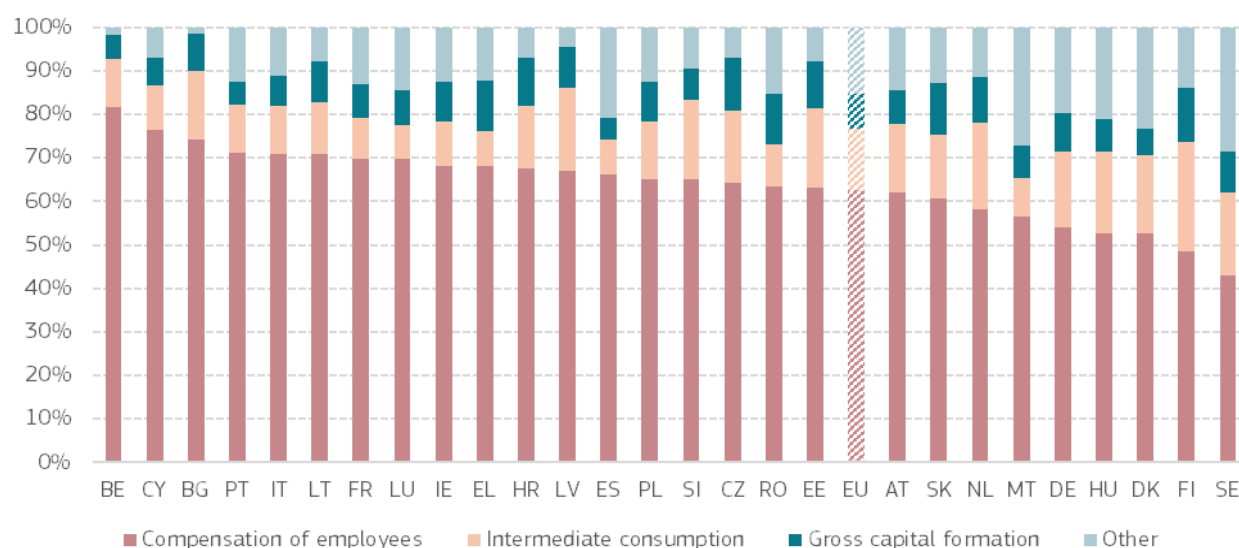
³ The low value of this indicator for Ireland (2.7%) is explained by the specific structure of the Irish economy. In most countries, GDP and Gross National Product (GNP) are very close in value, but in Ireland GDP is larger than GNP because of negative net factor income: income outflows are much larger than income inflows due to the presence of many foreign-owned multinational firms, which pay their profits back to their owners abroad (Central Statistics Office, 2025). Consequently, public expenditure on education as a share of GNP would be higher than as a share of GDP.

⁴ Pearson correlation coefficient (r=0.58) statistically significant at 1% level.

⁵ The mathematical relationship between the two indicators is expressed as:
 $(\text{expenditure on education}/\text{GDP}) = (\text{expenditure on education}/\text{total expenditure}) * (\text{total expenditure}/\text{GDP})$.

Staff costs⁶ – mainly the salaries of teaching staff – account for almost two-thirds of public expenditure on education, making the teaching profession a key component of education spending. In 2024, 63% of total public expenditure on education (i.e. from pre-primary to tertiary level) at EU level was allocated to compensation of employees (i.e. wages and non-wage costs such as employers' social contributions), ranging from 82% in Belgium to 43% in Sweden. Intermediate consumption (i.e. purchases of non-durable goods, such as teaching materials, and services needed to provide education, such as heating, electricity, cleaning and maintenance services) represented 14% of expenditure. Gross capital formation (i.e. investment in acquiring fixed assets and durable goods, such as computers and buildings, and also including the depreciation of fixed assets) accounted for 8% of expenditure (Figure 2). These shares remained largely stable between 2019 and 2024 (European Commission, 2025e).

Figure 2. Distribution of public expenditure on education by category (2024)



Notes: Provisional data for BE, DE, ES, FR, PT. 'Other' is the sum of the following items: subsidies, other taxes on production, property income, social benefits, other current transfers, capital transfers.

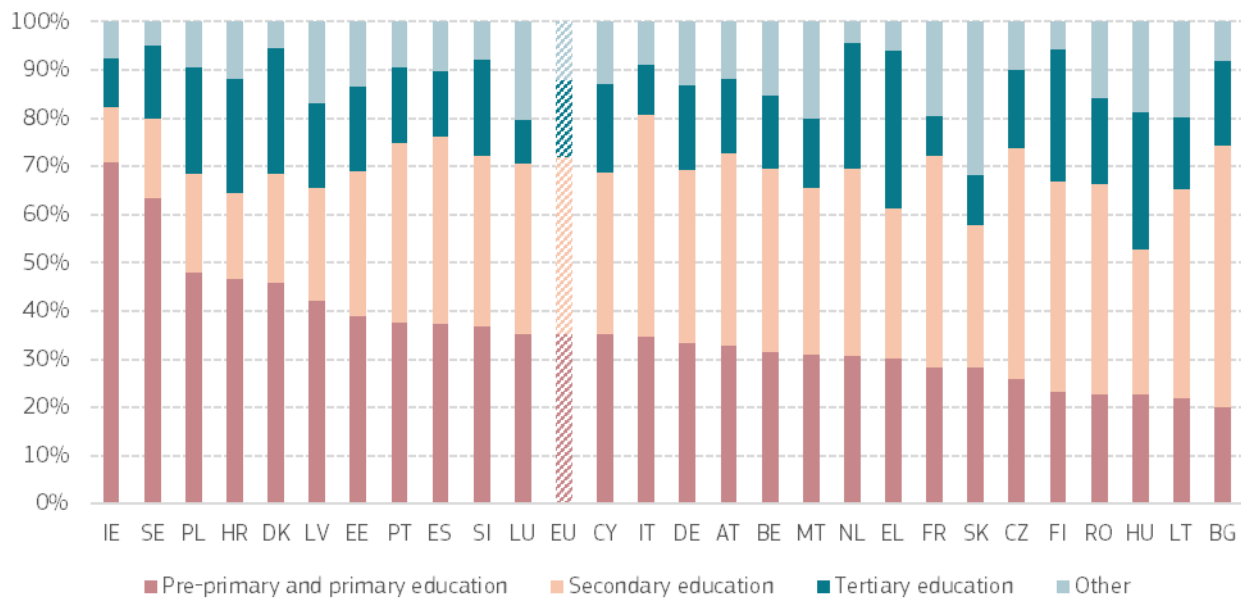
Source: European Commission services' calculations based on [Eurostat COFOG data](#).

The bulk of public expenditure on education in EU countries goes to school education. In 2024, school education received more than 70% of public expenditure on education at EU level. This is roughly equally split between, on the one hand, pre-primary and primary levels (35%) and, on the other hand, secondary level (37%), while tertiary education accounted for 16% of public expenditure. Those shares remained largely stable between 2019 and 2024 (European Commission, 2022; European Commission, 2025e). The EU averages mask large differences among Member States (Figure 3). Those differences can be explained by many factors:

- level of involvement of the general government in the education system (compared with the private sector);
- enrolment levels;
- the duration of compulsory education;
- relative wages in the education sector;
- student demographic composition;
- class size and student-teacher ratios;
- instruction time; and
- the cost of teaching materials and facilities.

At tertiary level, tuition fees and support for students are also determining factors.

⁶ While teaching staff's salaries account for the largest share of staff costs, these also include the remuneration of other education personnel, such as administrative and support staff.

Figure 3. Distribution of public expenditure on education by educational level (2024)

Notes: Provisional data for BE, DE, ES, FR, PT. 'Secondary education' also includes expenditure on post-secondary non tertiary education'. 'Other' is the sum of the following items: education not definable by level, subsidiary services to education, R&D education and education not elsewhere classified.

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on [Eurostat COFOG data](#).

Education still takes up a smaller proportion of total public expenditure than it did before the Covid-19 pandemic. Figure 4 explains how the structure of total public expenditure changed between 2019 and 2024. 'Economic affairs', which includes the government measures to mitigate the economic impact of the Covid-19 pandemic (e.g. subsidies to support various productive sectors affected by Covid-related restrictions), increased markedly in 2020 and 2021. In 2022 and 2023, the financial impact of those measures was significantly reduced, but new measures to mitigate the impact of rising energy prices on productive sectors partly compensated that decrease (European Commission, 2025c). Then in 2024 also the financial impact of those measures declined, but the share of 'Economic affairs' is still 0.7 percentage point above its 2019 level. Among other larger expenditure functions, only 'Health' increased its share during the pandemic, because of the response to new public health needs, but then it reverted to pre-crisis values (European Commission, 2025d). The share of 'Defence' rose steadily between 2021 and 2024. Most other spending areas remained broadly stable, but education is still 0.3 percentage points below its 2019 level.

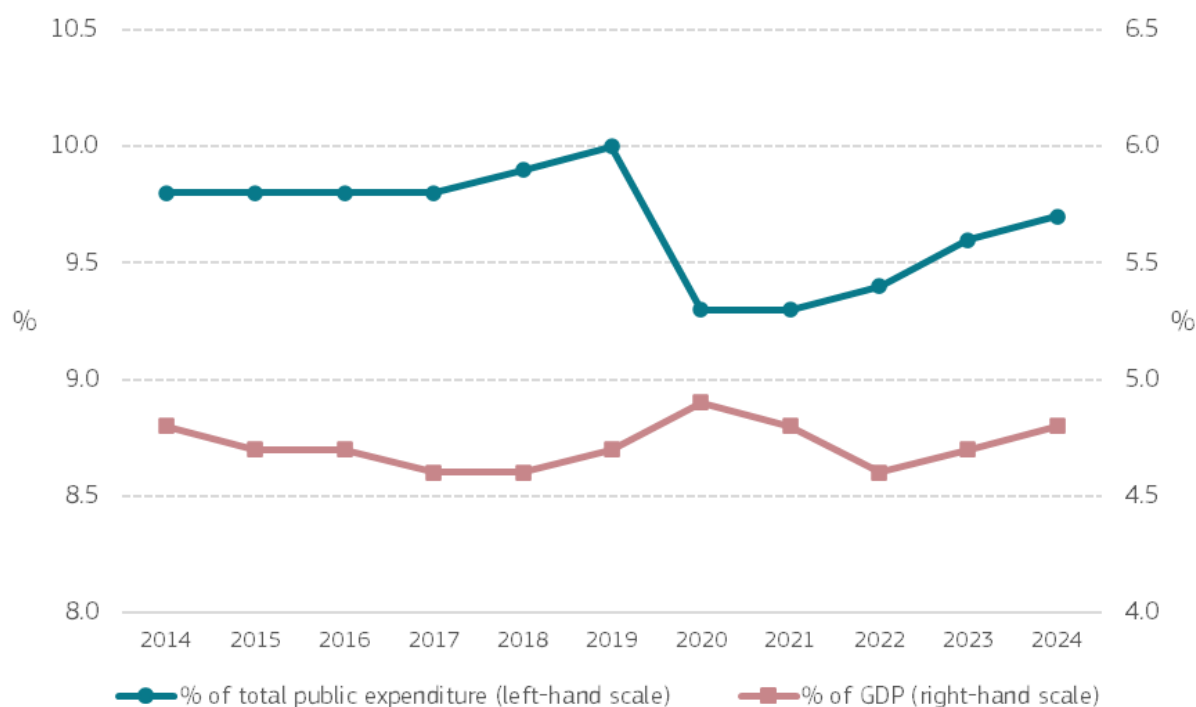
Figure 4. Public expenditure by function (2019-2024)

	2019 % of total	2020 % of total	2021 % of total	2022 % of total	2023 % of total	2024 % of total	2019-2024 percentage point change
Economic affairs	10.1	12.3	12.8	12.2	11.8	10.8	0.7
Defence	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.7	3.0	0.5
Housing and community amenities	1.2	1.2	1.6	2	2.4	1.5	0.3
General public services	12.3	11.3	11.4	11.9	12.0	12.4	0.1
Health	14.9	15.1	15.7	15.4	14.8	15	0.1
Environmental protection	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	0.0
Public order and safety	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	-0.1
Recreation, culture and religion	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	-0.1
Education	10	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.6	9.7	-0.3
Social protection	41.2	41.1	39.6	39.3	39.2	40.0	-1.2

Source: [Eurostat COFOG data](#).

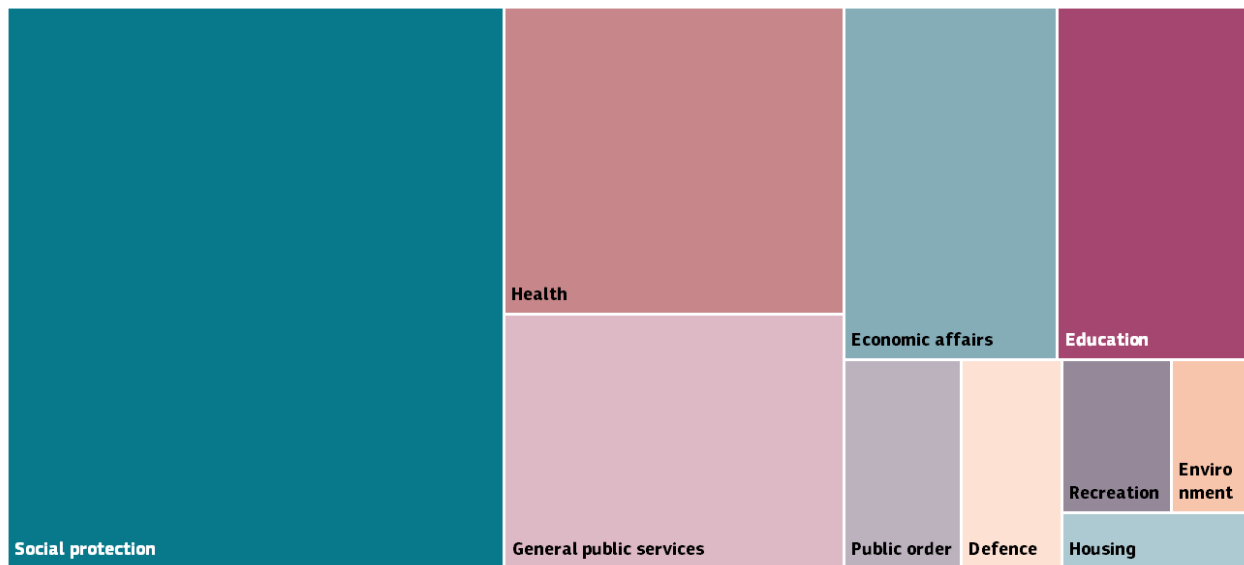
Overall, investment in education at EU level is stabilising, although new geopolitical and economic priorities may increase competition for public funding over the next few years. After bouncing back from its post-pandemic low, investment in education as a share of total public expenditure remained almost stable between 2023 and 2024. As a share of GDP, it has reverted to its pre-pandemic level (Figure 5). Education is the fifth largest public function for EU countries' budget, after social protection, health, economic affairs and general public services (Figure 6). In 2024, data still showed little variation in the composition of public expenditure in the EU compared to 2023 (Figure 4). However, any possible impact of the new economic and geopolitical priorities that have emerged after 2024 will only be visible in the data over the next few years. The European Commission's Spring 2026 Economic Forecast notices that *"Before the outbreak of the conflict in the Middle East, the global economy was gaining momentum [...]. The conflict materially changed this picture, delivering one of the most significant global energy supply disruptions in recent history"* (European Commission, 2026b, p. 1). This is expected to affect the level and composition of public expenditure: *"The EU aggregate general government deficit is projected to gradually widen over the forecast horizon, rising from 3.1% of GDP in 2025 to 3.6% in 2027. This deterioration reflects a combination of subdued economic activity, higher interest expenditure, rising defence spending and new fiscal measures that aim to shield consumers and firms from high energy prices"* (European Commission, 2026b, p.5).

Figure 5. Public expenditure on education as a share of GDP and of total public expenditure in the EU-27 (2014-2024)



Source: [Eurostat COFOG data](#).

Figure 6. Breakdown of public expenditure by function in the EU (2024)



Source: [Eurostat COFOG data](#).

Long-term variations are more visible at country level. Between 2014 and 2024, the changes in investment in education as a share of total public expenditure ranged from a 2.5-percentage-point increase in Cyprus to a 1.8-percentage-point decrease in Latvia. Over the same period, the changes in public investment on education as a share of GDP varied from a 1.0-percentage-point increase in Romania and Slovakia to a 1.5-percentage-point decrease in Denmark and Latvia. For both indicators, EU countries are almost equally split between those which experienced a positive or no change, and those with a negative change.

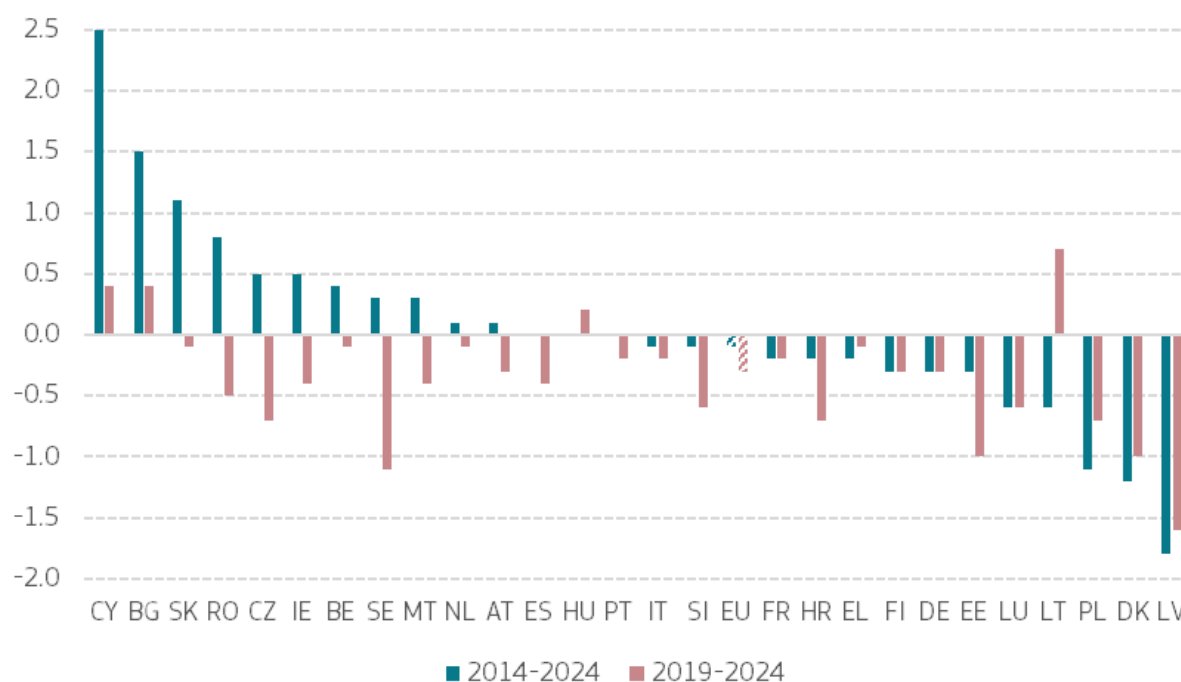
Some recent trends deserve attention. Between 2019 and 2024, investment in education as a share of total public expenditure decreased in 23 countries, while as a share of GDP it increased or remained stable in 20 countries (Figure 7). While the increases as share of GDP can mainly be explained by a statistical ‘pandemic effect’ – a spike in 2020 due to a strong GDP contraction that reduced the denominator of the expenditure-to-GDP ratio – the decreases as a share of total public expenditure deserve attention because education is a growth-friendly spending function (European Commission, 2026a).

Prioritising expenditure on education is important to strengthen EU competitiveness, and the EU budget plays a significant role in supporting education and skills investment. As discussed in previous editions of this report (e.g. European Commission, 2025e; European Commission, 2022), skill formation is a key driver of sustainable competitiveness, economic growth and intergenerational fairness. By enhancing the stock and quality of human capital, education boosts labour productivity and supports the pace of innovation required in a knowledge-based economy. The Union of Skills identifies investment in education and skills as key to strengthening the European economic and social model (European Commission, 2025b). The seven-year EU budget (2021-2027) allocates around €150 billion for education and skills over a seven-year period (European Commission, 2026e).⁷ This funding is key for several areas, such as improving educational infrastructure, adapting education systems to the digital transition, promoting learning mobility, and supporting upskilling and reskilling. That is why the proposed next Multiannual Financial Framework 2028-2034, presented in July 2025, supports increased funding in education and skills (European Commission, 2025b). However, the Union of Skills acknowledges that “*the EU budget is only one part of the picture*” (European Commission, 2025a, p.17). The ultimate choice to prioritise public investment in education depends on EU countries.

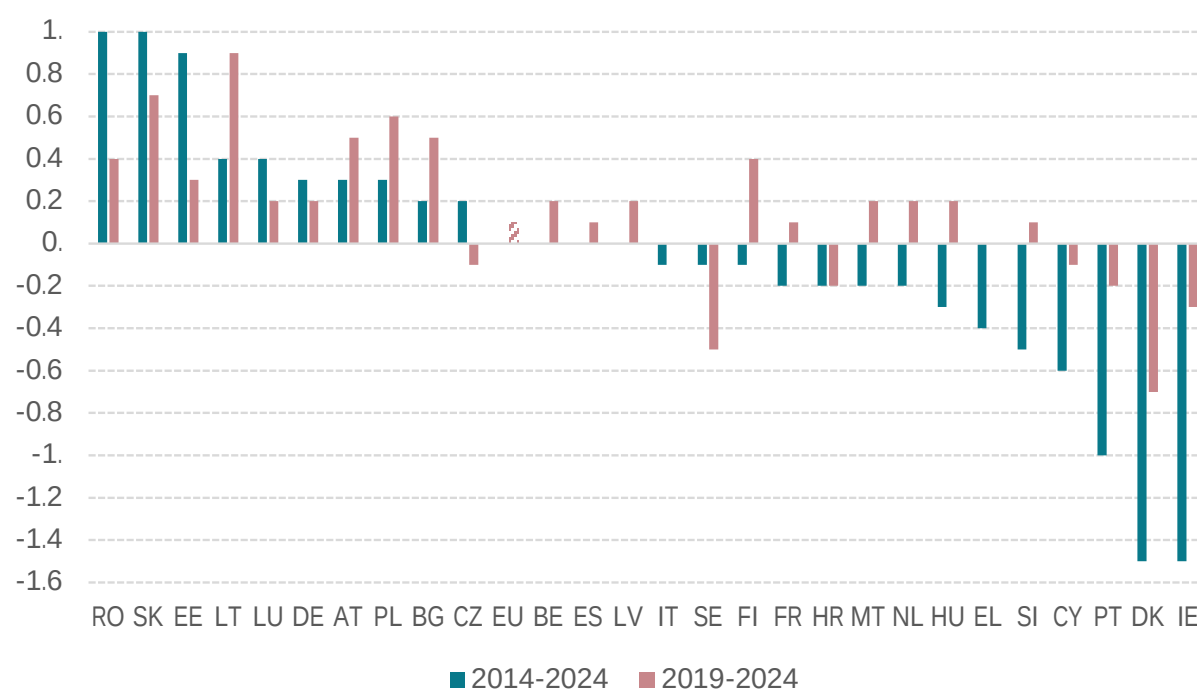
⁷ This amount includes investment through the European Social Fund Plus, the Recovery and Resilience Facility, the European Regional Development Fund, Erasmus+, Just Transition Fund and InvestEU.

Figure 7. Change in public expenditure on education by country (percentage points, 2014-2024 and 2019-2024)

a) As a share of total public expenditure (percentage points)



b) As a share of GDP (percentage points)



Notes: Provisional data for BE, DE, ES, FR, PT in 2024.

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on [Eurostat COFOG data](#).



Box 1. The Recovery and Resilience Facility (RRF)

The RRF is the EU's largest ever funding instrument (with a total financial envelope of €578 billion over 2021-2026 as of 15 June 2026) and aims to support European economies and societies to recover from the Covid-19 pandemic and build resilience against future shocks. Figure 8 illustrates the allocation of RRF funds for education and skills by country, as estimated on 15 June 2026. The EU-27 amount for education and skills reaches almost €70 billion, representing 12.1% of total RRF funding. Italy is the largest beneficiary, followed by Spain and France.

Figure 8. Allocation of RRF funds for education and skills by country (15 June 2026)

Country	Education and skills (€ million)	% of total RRF funding in the country
Italy	28255.2	14.5%
Spain	8812.6	8.6%
France	6540.5	15.9%
Poland	3727.6	6.8%
Portugal	2929.8	13.4%
Romania	2907.6	13.6%
Greece	2835.6	7.8%
Germany	2255.9	7.4%
Croatia	1788.6	17.8%
Czechia	1373.1	15.7%
Hungary	1273.0	12.2%
Belgium	1202.3	22.8%
Slovakia	1178.2	18.4%
Sweden	955.8	27.7%
Bulgaria	780.3	12.6%
Lithuania	565.6	14.7%
Austria	549.6	13.5%
Netherlands	460.1	8.5%
Latvia	372.1	18.9%
Ireland	356.2	30.9%
Slovenia	328.6	15.8%
Finland	103.4	5.3%
Cyprus	91.5	9.0%
Denmark	34.1	1.9%
Malta	27.5	8.4%
Estonia	25.0	2.6%
Luxembourg	1.5	0.6%
EU-27	69731.4	12.1%

Notes: Estimated expenditure on education and skills based on the pillar tagging methodology for the Recovery and Resilience Scoreboard and corresponding to the measures allocated to the policy areas "Early Childhood Education and Care", "General, Vocational and Higher Education", "Adult Learning, Including Continuous Vocational Education and Training; Recognition and Validation of Skills", "Green Skills and Jobs" and "Human Capital in Digitalisation" as primary or secondary policy areas. Data extracted on 15 June 2026. For more information, see the [Recovery and Resilience Scoreboard](#).

Source: European Commission services' calculations.

As part of the 2026 European Semester, the Council adopted for the first time a Recommendation on human capital in the European Union as a tool within the European Semester to address labour and skills shortages. In the area of education and training, the Recommendation (Council of the European Union, 2026) calls on EU countries to boost skills acquisition across all ages and levels, with a particular focus on disadvantaged groups. It recommends ensuring fair access to high-quality early childhood education and care, raising the attractiveness of the teaching profession, strengthening vocational education and training, and increasing the capacity, relevance and attractiveness of science, mathematics, engineering and technology (STEM) programmes in tertiary education. It also calls on EU countries to monitor and evaluate public investment in education at national, regional and local level to ensure that spending is effective, efficient, and based on solid evidence. Within the framework of the European Education Area, EU Member States and the Commission are working together through the Learning Lab on Investing in Quality Education and Training (European Commission, 2026c). The Learning Lab supports EU countries in further developing an evidence-informed approach to policy design and implementation. This includes strengthening the expertise on rigorous evaluation methods among policymakers and sharing knowledge about properly evaluated policies (see Box 2 below).



Box 2. The Learning Lab on Investing in Quality Education and Training

Launched in November 2022, the Learning Lab on Investing in Quality Education and Training aims to promote a culture of evaluation in education policy and provide knowledge and resources to identify how to make EU education systems more effective, efficient and equitable. Its activities cover three main areas:

- Capacity building on evaluation methodologies: the Learning Lab proposes training courses on education policy evaluation methodologies to policymakers at all levels (national, regional, and local) and education practitioners. So far, specific trainings tailored to the education system's needs took place in Malta, Latvia, the French Community of Belgium, Ireland, Portugal and Lithuania.
- Collaborative work among Member States: the Learning Lab has created a Community of Practice, where representatives of Member States and international organisations meet twice a year to discuss their experiences with impact evaluation in education and share good practices.
- Analysis and evaluation of education policies: the Learning Lab regularly runs the open call 'Learning Lab for Evaluation (LL-4E)': EU education systems can apply for a free-of-charge counterfactual impact evaluation to be carried out by the Learning Lab. The first call was held in 2024. As a result, the first counterfactual impact evaluation started in September 2024 with Lithuania. It aims to assess the impact of a policy promoting the integration of pupils with special needs in mainstream schools, and it will be completed in 2026. The second call took place in 2025, and two new evaluations are starting in 2026 in cooperation with the Flemish Community of Belgium and the French Community of Belgium.



Part 2

What makes the teaching profession
more attractive?



Part 2 of this report explores the links between investment in education and the attractiveness of the teaching profession, complementing recent evidence on the state of the teaching profession in the EU (European Commission, 2026d)⁸. The teaching workforce represents an important component of European economies, both through its contribution to public expenditure and its share of national labour markets. As shown in Part 1, staff costs account for about two-thirds of public expenditure on education. In particular, staff costs represent 66% of educational expenditure in pre-primary and primary education and 72% in secondary education⁹ (see Box 3 for further analysis of the drivers of staff costs over time).¹⁰ Furthermore, there are more than 5 million teachers across the EU (Eurostat, 2025), representing approximately 3% of total employment (Eurostat, 2025a; Eurostat, 2025b).

Investing in teachers translates into investing in learning, given the crucial role of teachers in shaping student outcomes. Their impact ranges from short-term student achievement (e.g., Jackson, 2018; Konstantopoulos, 2006) to long-term outcomes, such as critical thinking (e.g. Jegstad et al., 2025), educational attainment, earnings and non-cognitive skills (e.g., Chetty et al., 2014; Gilraine and Pope, 2021; Kraft et al., 2023). The literature shows that differences in teacher effectiveness explain a substantial share of the variation in student achievement, even within the same schools (Chetty et al., 2014; Gilraine and Pope, 2021; Rivkin et al., 2005), and that several years of exposure to above-average teachers can fully offset the disadvantage associated with a lower socio-economic background (Hanushek, 2011). At the same time, the negative effects of teacher shortages are well documented and intersect with broader concerns about declining basic skills, as shortages can amplify learning deficits, particularly in foundational skills such as reading and mathematics (Gambi and De Witte, 2023; OECD, 2024).

Ensuring the attractiveness of the teaching profession is thus an important policy lever for investing effectively in education. This applies not only for increasing the number of teachers entering the profession, but also for attracting and retaining highly-effective teachers (De Witte et al., 2023).



Box 3. The drivers of staff costs over time

Investigating trends in staff costs over time shows that, while they increased substantially in nominal terms between 2015 and 2024, most of this growth reflects rising price levels rather than structural changes in education systems.

In nominal terms, staff costs rose by 51% in pre-primary and primary education and 37% in secondary education at the EU level between 2015 and 2024. Rising price levels explain most of those increases¹¹, especially after 2020. Real (i.e. at constant prices)¹² staff costs only grew by 18% and 7%, respectively (Figure 9). Real increases in staff costs could be explained by larger-than-inflation salary increases and a rise in the number of staff. Indeed, the number of teachers grew modestly at all educational levels over the same period, with some yearly fluctuations (Figure 10).

⁸ This complementary report (European Commission, 2026d) provides a comprehensive overview of the key features of the teaching profession in the EU, examining teachers' motivations and experiences related to the profession as well as the factors that enhance the profession's attractiveness and empower teachers, and those that pose challenges and increase job demands. The report approaches the attractiveness of the profession indirectly, by investigating the predictors of satisfaction, well-being, and career intentions, rather than explicitly modelling the relationship between attractiveness and its determinants within a single analytical framework. In this sense, the complementary report (European Commission, 2026d) provides the basis for the analysis developed in this Part 2, offering insights into the factors that are likely to matter most for the attractiveness of the profession in light of the findings on satisfaction, well-being, and career intentions.

⁹ Source: Eurostat [COFOG](#) data.

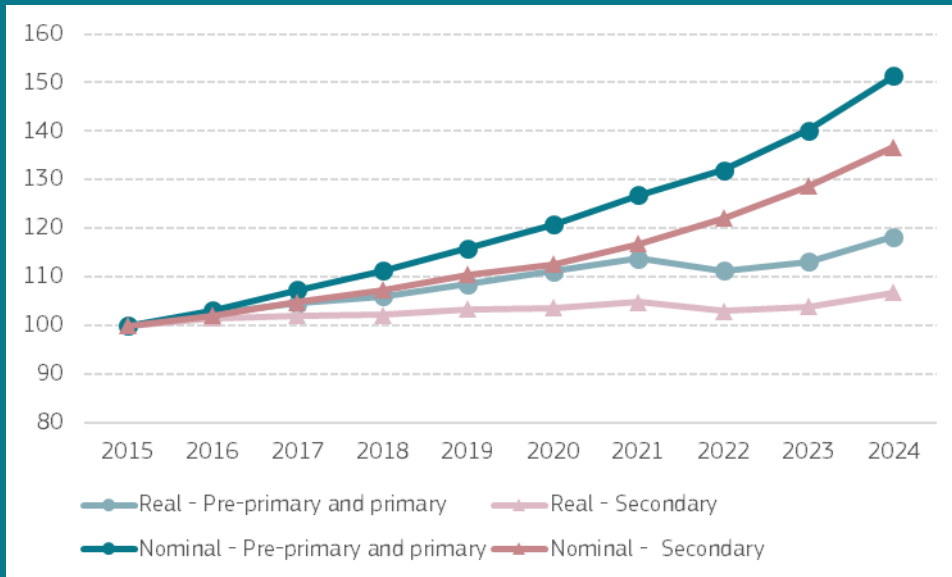
¹⁰ Part 2 excludes tertiary education from the discussion on staff costs because of the different structural features of its teaching workforce and focuses on staff costs from pre-primary to secondary education instead.

¹¹ Around two-thirds of the increase in staff costs at pre-primary and primary level and more than four-fifths at secondary level.

¹² This report uses the price deflator for collective consumption expenditure of general government to convert public expenditure on education from current prices to 2015 constant prices.

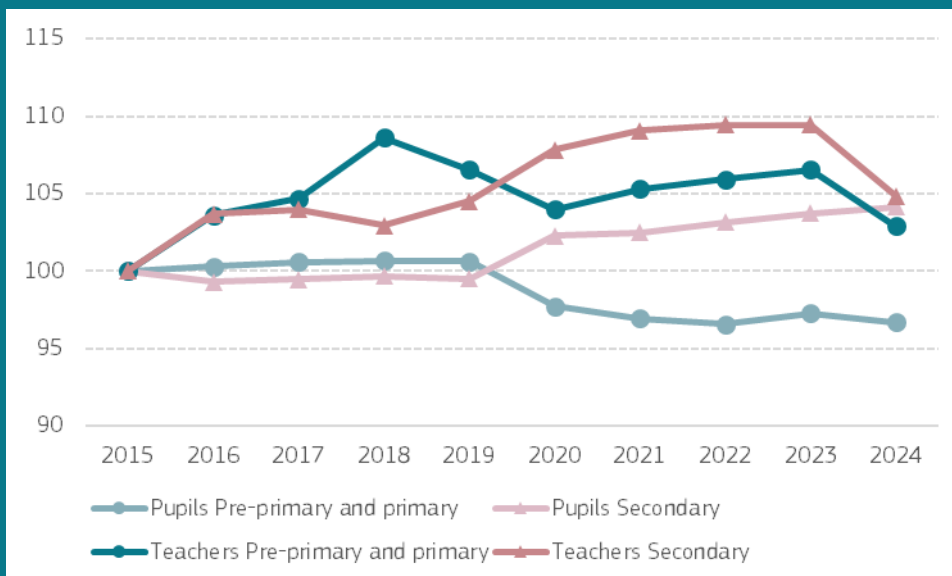
The numbers of pupils were remarkably stable between 2015 and 2019, then they decreased by 4% in pre-primary and primary education between 2019 and 2024, while they rose by 4% in secondary education over the same period (Figure 10). A large dispersion in the variation in the number of pupils is visible at the country level. However, Figure 11 shows that there is no significant correlation between the change in the number of pupils and the change in staff costs over the past decade. Staff costs – and expenditure on education in general – are largely independent from variations in the number of pupils. This may happen because teacher numbers and class organisation tend to adjust only gradually and over a long time span, and demographic changes often affect regions, schools and educational levels unevenly, limiting the short- and medium-term impact of variations in pupil numbers on aggregate staff costs.

Figure 9. Evolution of nominal and real staff costs in school education (index 2015=100)



Notes: Real values are expressed at 2020 constant prices by using the price deflator for collective consumption expenditure of general government.
Source: European Commission services' calculations based on Eurostat [COFOG](#) data and European Commission's Directorate General for Economic and Financial Affairs [AMECO](#) data.

Figure 10. Evolution of the number of pupils and teachers in school education (index 2015=100)



Source: European Commission services' calculations based on Eurostat UOE data on [teachers](#) and [pupils](#).

Figure 11. Change in nominal staff costs vs. change in number of pupils (% , 2015-2024)

Panel A: pre-primary and primary education

Panel B: secondary education



Notes: CZ and IE are excluded because of missing values for 2024. No correlation is statistically significant at any conventional level. Provisional data on staff costs for BE, DE, ES, FR, PT in 2024.

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on Eurostat [UOE](#) and [COFOG](#) data

Understanding the factors that make the profession attractive is particularly relevant for teacher retention and teachers entering the profession. The attractiveness of the teaching profession has been defined as “a set of characteristics of this profession that make it relatively attractive to skilled candidates concerning other professions requiring the same level of qualification and that encourage competent teachers to stay in the profession” (European Commission, 2013, p. 13). It can be understood both through its consequences (teacher shortages or oversupply, Box 4) and through the factors that determine it, such as working conditions and the status of the profession (e.g. Thomas Dotta et al., 2025). The declining attractiveness of the profession is closely linked to teacher shortages, as it may discourage young people from entering the profession and reduce teachers' willingness to remain in it over time (European Commission, 2023; See and Gorard, 2020). Data from the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) 2024¹³ can be used to examine which non-material factors (e.g. motivation, perception of social status, workload stress) drive the attractiveness of the teaching profession.



Box 4. Forecasting teacher shortages is important for education investment but remains challenging

The attractiveness of the teaching profession shapes teacher supply which, in turn, can contribute to teacher shortages or oversupply, ultimately reflecting imbalances between the supply of and demand for teachers (OECD, 2024; James and Wyckoff, 2022).¹⁴ However, quantifying and comparing teacher shortages across countries is far from straightforward, as different conceptualisations of what constitutes a shortage exist. While some education systems adopt a quantitative approach that focuses on ‘unfilled’ or ‘vacant’ positions at the start of the school year or attrition rates, others take a broader perspective, defining teacher shortages as positions filled by teachers who do not meet national qualification standards, or measuring shortages based on school principal surveys (Sutcher et al., 2019; European Commission, 2023). There is no single indicator that “can fully capture the scale or nature of teacher shortages, nor the ways in which teachers are distributed across schools” (OECD, 2025a, p. 482). Consequently, no consolidated EU-level projection exists, as such a model would require many strong

¹³ TALIS is the largest international survey of teachers and school leaders. First introduced in 2008, TALIS has since been administered in 2013, 2018, and 2024, with participation expanding in each cycle. TALIS 2024 covers 53 education systems (23 EU Member States) at the lower secondary level (ISCED 2). Germany, Greece, Ireland, and Luxembourg did not participate at ISCED level 2 (OECD, 2025b). For Belgium, the data cover only the Flemish and French Communities, as the German-speaking Community did not participate.

¹⁴ The teacher labour market is particularly distinctive in this regard, as it lacks several compensatory mechanisms (e.g. wage flexibility or mobility) typically observed in other labour markets that help restore equilibrium (Johnston, 2025).

assumptions, including about statutory and effective retirement ages, inflows into initial teacher education, expected attrition rates beyond retirement, and education policy choices (e.g. on class sizes, support staff, subject allocation).

Several EU countries have developed national forecasting models of their teaching workforce to project teacher supply and demand (and assess potential shortages). However, national models differ in how they combine multiple indicators, including unfilled vacancies, enrolment in teacher education programmes, and expected teacher outflows (Edwards et al., 2024; Eurydice, 2021). Some recent national forecasting exercises have been financed through the Technical Support Instrument (TSI) and implemented in cooperation with the European Commission, including the Teacher Workforce Planning Model in [Ireland](#) (alongside UNESCO), as well as forecasting exercises in [Italy](#) and in [Austria](#).

In Ireland, for example, a series of teacher projection studies has been conducted over time (DoEY, 2019d 2021b, 2021c, 2024f; Government of Ireland, 2021a), alongside several Teacher Demand and Supply Models (DoEY, 2020b; 2021d; 2024d, unpublished). The most recent Teacher Demand and Supply Model (2024d, unpublished) uses projections of student enrolment – that is, estimates of the number of pupils expected to be enrolled in the education system in the coming years – to estimate the number of teachers required to meet future demand. The model accounts for factors such as resignations and retirements, newly qualified teachers entering the workforce, alternative working patterns, and estimates of teachers on career breaks and those returning to the profession. It also distinguishes between demand for primary and post-primary teachers.

To operationalise the concept of attractiveness, this report draws on two indicators from TALIS 2024: **whether teaching was teachers' first career choice and whether they would choose the profession** again. These measures capture both retrospective and forward-looking dimensions of career attractiveness, reflecting initial motivations to enter the profession as well as satisfaction with it over time. While they do not provide a direct measure¹⁵ of attractiveness per se, they offer good proxies for understanding how appealing the profession is to in-service teachers.¹⁶ Their use is consistent with the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) framework (e.g., Admiraal and Kittelsen Røberg, 2023; European Commission, 2026d; Sheridan et al., 2025), as teachers' career choices and intentions can be interpreted as outcomes shaped by the interaction between job demands and job resources. In this sense, these indicators reflect how in-service teachers evaluate their professional experience in light of their working conditions, as well as how they perceived the profession before entering it (in the case of the “first career choice” indicator). As such, they provide a way to empirically assess the factors that contribute to the attractiveness of the teaching profession.

Around five in ten novice teachers in Europe report that teaching was their first career choice, although this share varies considerably across countries and shows signs of gradual decline in several of them. The demand for initial teacher education programmes remains low compared with other fields of study (European Commission, 2023; Eurostat, 2024), while the share of novice teachers reporting that teaching was their first career choice declined across the EU from 54.3% in TALIS 2018 to 52.4% in TALIS 2024 (Figure 12).¹⁷ This slight decline in the EU average masks substantial cross-country variation. Compared with 2018, the share of teachers reporting teaching as their first career choice increased only in Sweden (+13.2 percentage points) and Austria (+8.9 percentage points), while it declined in Czechia (-7.3 percentage points), Estonia (-7.9 percentage points), Slovakia

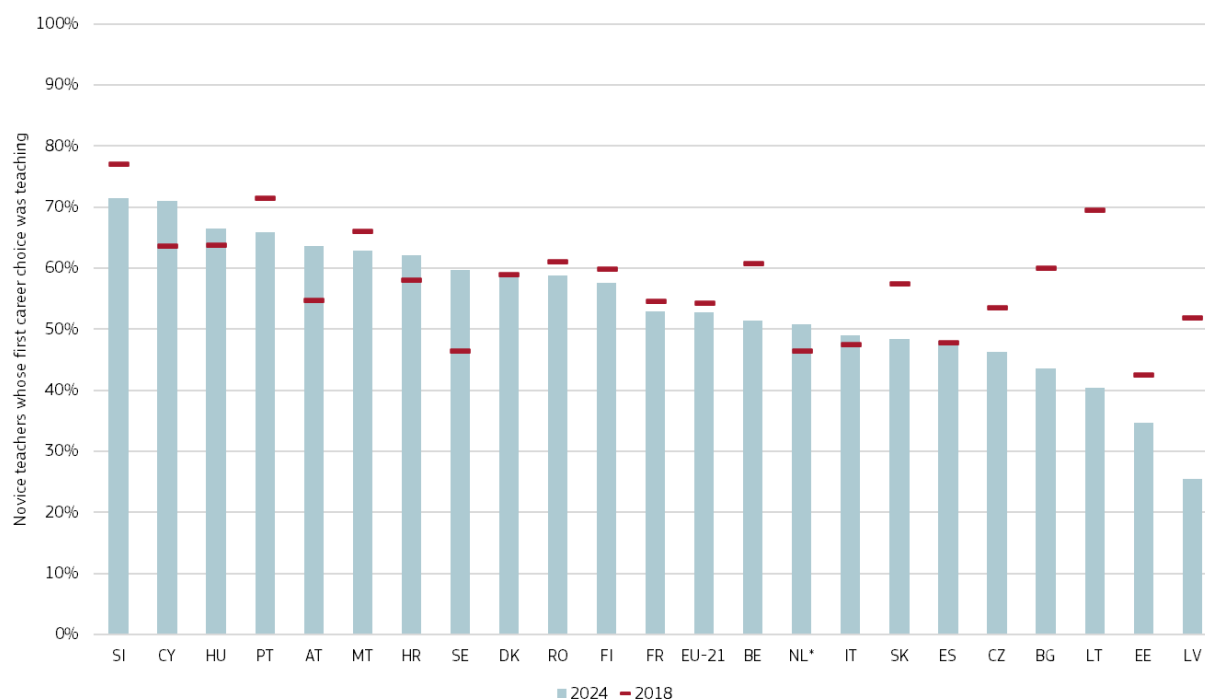
¹⁵ A potentially more direct proxy for the overall attractiveness of the teaching profession would be the number of applicants to initial teacher education programmes which could be operationalised using Eurostat data ([educ_uoe_enrt04](#)) on the distribution of students enrolled at tertiary education levels by field of education. However, this measure is at the country level, making it unsuitable for our analysis of the determinants of attractiveness based on teacher-level TALIS data.

¹⁶ Similarly, a large body of literature has examined the career choices of pre-service teachers (e.g. An et al., 2021; De Cort and De Witte, 2025; Fray and Gore, 2018; Heinz, 2015; Wang et al., 2025; Watt and Richardson, 2007), shedding light on the factors that influence the attractiveness of the teaching profession at the point of entry.

¹⁷ This decline is statistically significant. Differences across age cohorts in the share of teachers for whom teaching was their first career choice suggest a decline in the attractiveness of the profession over time in some countries. For example, in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, older teachers (those aged 50 and above) are far more likely than younger teachers (those under 30) to report teaching as their first career choice (Table 7.33).

(-9 percentage points), Belgium (-9.3 percentage points on average, driven by the Flemish Community, -16.0 percentage points), Bulgaria (-16.4 percentage points), Latvia (-26.4 percentage points) and Lithuania (-29.2 percentage points) (OECD, 2025b, Table 7.32). In 2024, teaching was the first choice for the largest shares of teachers in Hungary (66.5%) and Portugal (65.9%), while the lowest shares were observed in Latvia (25.6%) and Estonia (34.7%) (OECD, 2025b, Table 7.31). Similarly, a decline in girls' interest in teaching at age 15 has driven the narrowing of the gender gap in expectations to become teachers since 2000, rather than an increase in interest among boys. Specifically, the share of girls expecting to become teachers fell from 12% to 7.3% over the past two decades (OECD, 2025c).

Figure 12. Teaching as a first career choice among novice teachers



Notes: Novice (or early-career) teachers are defined as those with less than five years in the profession. Caution is required when interpreting data for the Netherlands due to higher risk of non-response bias. The EU-21 aggregate includes countries that administered both the 2018 and 2024 surveys: Austria; Belgium (French and Flemish Communities); Bulgaria; Croatia; Cyprus; Czechia; Denmark; Estonia; Finland; France; Hungary; Italy; Latvia; Lithuania; Malta; Portugal; Romania; Slovakia; Slovenia; Spain; and Sweden.

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on OECD, 2025b (Table 7.31).

Teacher salaries, both in absolute terms and relative to those of other professions, play a significant role in the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Salaries can influence decisions to enter the teaching profession (Nagler, Piopiunik and West, 2020) as well as decisions to remain in teaching (e.g., Hendricks, 2014; Burge et al., 2021). The education sector competes with other professions to attract and retain high quality graduates. Thus, teacher salaries relative to those of occupations requiring similar levels of education¹⁸, as well as teachers' expected future earnings, can shape decisions about the teaching career (e.g. Nagler, Piopiunik and West, 2020; Qin, 2020). All other things being equal, the higher teachers' relative salaries, the more attractive the profession.

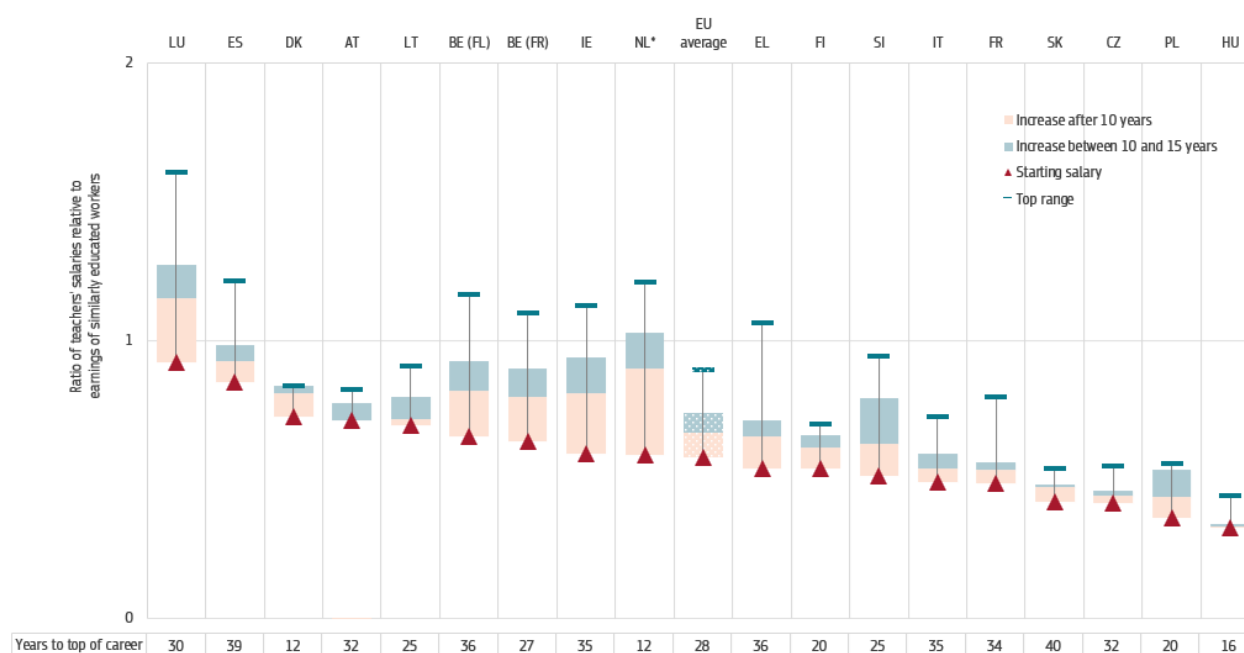
In most EU countries, teacher salaries remain below the earnings of similarly educated workers throughout their careers. On average across the EU, lower secondary teachers' starting salaries are 58% of the average earnings of similarly educated workers aged 25-64, while salaries at the top of the scale reach 89%¹⁹ of

¹⁸ The comparison of teacher salaries with those of similarly educated workers is weighted by the share of teachers at each level of tertiary educational attainment. This approach ensures that cross-country comparisons account for differences in the distribution of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral (or equivalent) qualifications among teachers relative to the broader population of tertiary-educated workers.

¹⁹ This share is significantly lower than the OECD average, where top-of-scale salaries reach 99% of the earnings of similarly educated workers.

those earnings (Figure 13).²⁰ Similarly, lower secondary teachers' average actual salaries are 85% of the full-time earnings of tertiary-educated workers aged 25–64 (European Commission, 2026d). In six EU education systems – Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Greece, Spain, the Flemish and French Communities of Belgium, and Ireland – teachers' statutory salaries at the top of the salary scale exceed the average earnings of similarly educated workers. However, reaching this level generally requires more than 15 years of experience, with the exception of Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

Figure 13. Lower secondary teachers' statutory salaries at different stages of their career relative to earnings of similarly educated workers (2024)



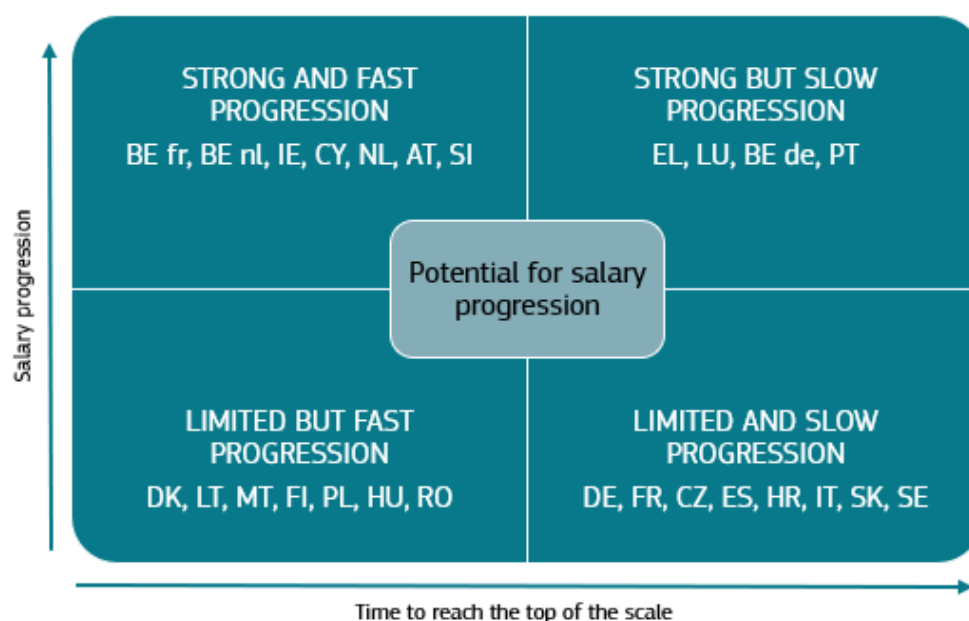
Notes: Ratio of salaries of teachers with the most prevalent qualification at the time of entry in public institutions relative to the earnings of full-time, full-year workers aged 25-64 with similar educational attainment. Years to top of the career refers to the average number of years required to reach the salary at the top of the scale for teachers. *For the Netherlands, the 12-year period corresponds to the time required to reach the top of the career scale within each of the three existing salary scales (LB, LC and LD). Moving into a higher salary scale requires extra specialisation (AOB, 2023).

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on full dataset on statutory salaries of teachers and school heads (OECD, 2025a).

Another important element contributing to the attractiveness of the profession is the role of career structures, especially advancement opportunities. Although direct evidence remains limited, such opportunities may help attract potential teachers or help to retain current teachers (De Witte et al., 2023; Kyriacou and Coulthard (2000); OECD, 2005; OECD, 2018). Furthermore, recent evidence suggests that career prospects, alongside salary and workload, are at least as important to the average pre-service teacher as the opportunity to work with children. Moreover, high-performing pre-service teachers place particular value on career advancement opportunities (De Cort and De Witte, 2025). Figures 13 and 14 show that career prospects in terms of salary progression at different stages of a teacher's career vary significantly across Europe. Starting salaries can increase anywhere from 16 % (Denmark) to 149 % (Cyprus) during a teacher's career. In Denmark and the Netherlands, it takes 12 years to reach the highest salary level, while in Slovakia (40 years), Spain (39 years), the Flemish Community of Belgium and Greece (36 years), and Ireland and Italy (35 years), it takes at least 35 years to reach the top of the salary scale. These differences in salary progression trajectories can influence teachers' motivation to enter the profession and long-term commitment to the profession, with stronger and faster progression potentially contributing to greater attractiveness and retention.

²⁰ Cross-country comparisons should also be interpreted in light of differences in broader compensation packages, including pension regimes, which are not captured by the statutory salary indicator presented here. Pensions are only indirectly taken into account in the statutory salary data of teachers through the exclusion of social contributions from the reported amounts (OECD, 2021).

Figure 14. Typology of teachers' salary progression across EU countries



Notes: Countries are grouped according to the magnitude of statutory salary progression (from starting salary to top of the salary scale) and the number of years required to reach the top of the salary scale. Following Eurydice/EACEA/Eurydice (2023), "strong and fast progression" refers to salary increases of at least 60% over the career and 40% within the first 15 years; "strong but slow progression" to increases of at least 60% over the career but less than 40% within the first 15 years. "Limited but fast progression" refers to increases below 60% over the career, with the top salary reached within 25 years, while "limited and slow progression" refers to increases below 60% with more than 25 years required to reach the top salary level.

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on [Eurydice's Teachers' and School Heads' Salaries and Allowances 2023-2024](#) and European Commission (2026d).

Alongside salaries, other aspects of working conditions can also influence the attractiveness of the teaching profession. These include, but are not limited to, opportunities for professional development, manageable workloads, and the social status of teachers (Burge et al., 2021; Johnston, 2025; OECD, 2023, 2024). All these factors, even if they are not directly related to salaries, require some degree of public investment – for example, in teachers' professional development, including initial teacher education (ITE) — and can complement salary policies in enhancing the attractiveness of the teaching profession relative to other occupations in the labour market (Wrona et al., 2025).

Most teachers would stand by their career choice, although willingness to do so varies by gender and experience. This suggests that perceptions of the attractiveness of the profession among in-service teachers varies across individual characteristics. Based on an analysis of individual TALIS data, across the EU, 76.5% of teachers report that they would still choose teaching if they could decide again (down from 79.2% in 2018²¹), with values ranging from 62.3% in Latvia to 87.5% in Italy (Table 2.6, OECD, 2025b). Econometric analyses²² provide further insight into the factors associated with teachers' willingness to choose the profession again. Among personal

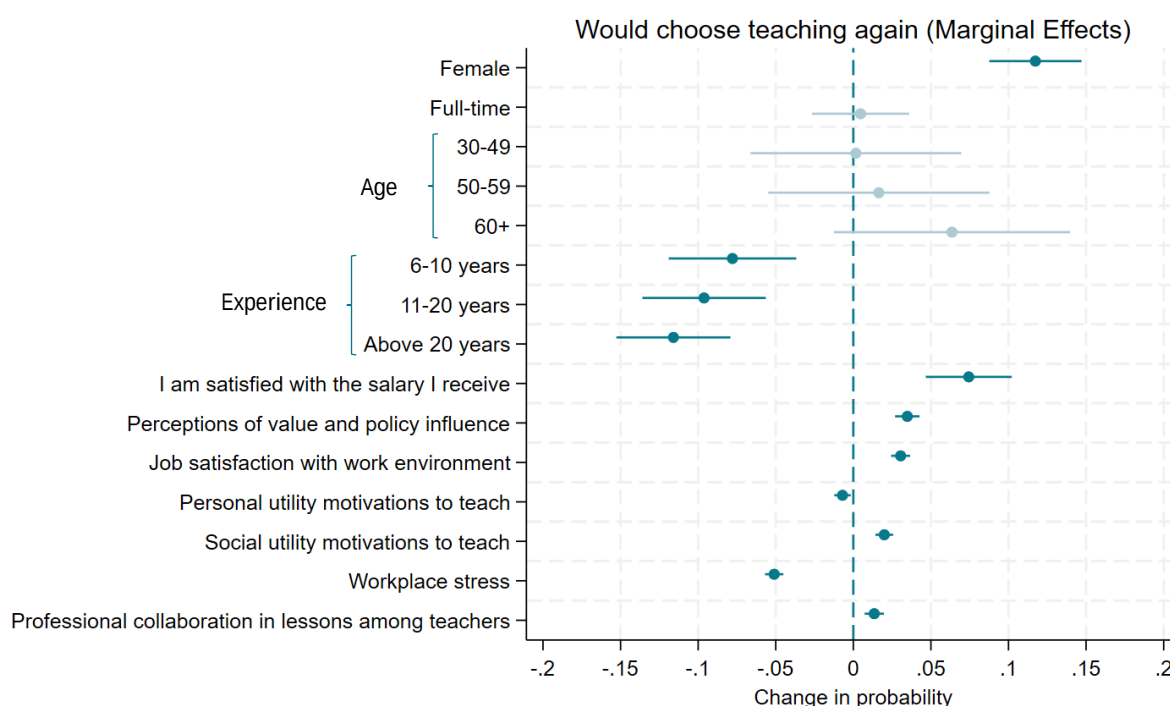
²¹ This decline is statistically significant. The EU average refers to the EU-21 aggregate (European Commission calculation applying country weights), which includes the countries that administered both the 2018 and 2024 surveys: Austria; Belgium (French and Flemish Communities); Bulgaria; Croatia; Cyprus; Czechia; Denmark; Estonia; Finland; France; Hungary; Italy; Latvia; Lithuania; Malta; Portugal; Romania; Slovakia; Slovenia; Spain; and Sweden. Data from the Netherlands are excluded from the EU-21 aggregate due to a higher risk of non-response bias.

²² Specifically, logistic regression models are estimated to explain whether teachers would choose the profession again, using several TALIS 2024 scales as explanatory variables, alongside general teacher characteristics (gender, years of experience, contract type) and satisfaction with salary. The following TALIS 2024 scales are included in the models: perceptions of value and policy influence (T4VALP); job satisfaction with the work environment (T4JSENV); social utility motivations to teach (T4MOSU); personal utility motivations to teach (T4MOPU); workplace well-being and stress (T4WELS); and professional collaboration in lessons among teachers (T4COLES). These scales are constructed using common international model parameters to ensure comparability of scale scores across education systems. More information on their construction can be found in the notes to Figure 13 and 14, and in the [TALIS 2024 Statistical Compendium and Codebook](#).

characteristics, female teachers are about 12 percentage points more likely than male teachers to report that they would choose teaching again. Years of experience are negatively associated with choosing teaching again: compared to early-career teachers, those with 6–10 years of experience are about 8 percentage points less likely to choose teaching again, those with 11–20 years about 10 percentage points less likely, and those with more than 20 years about 12 percentage points less likely (see Figure 15).

Working conditions and job-related perceptions are also associated with teachers' willingness to choose the profession again. Salary satisfaction is associated with a higher probability of choosing teaching again (about 7 percentage points), while perceptions of value and policy influence²³ and job satisfaction with the work environment are associated with increases of about 3–4 percentage points. Social utility motivations and professional collaboration among teachers are also positively associated with choosing teaching again, although they predict smaller changes in the probability of choosing teaching again (2 and 1 percentage points, respectively). By contrast, workplace stress²⁴ shows a strong negative association, reducing the probability of choosing teaching again by about 5 percentage points. Overall, the results suggest that both material factors, such as salary satisfaction, and non-material factors, such as professional recognition and working environment, play an important role in shaping the attractiveness of the profession. Professional collaboration and motivations related to social utility also show positive, though considerably weaker, correlations with teachers' willingness to choose the profession again.

Figure 15. Factors associated with the probability that teachers would choose teaching again (marginal effects)



Notes: This figure shows average marginal effects from a logistic regression model explaining whether teachers would choose teaching again, estimated on pooled data across EU countries with available data (i.e. not separately by country). Values represent changes in predicted probability relative to the following reference categories: male (gender), part-time (working time), under 30 (age), and less than five years of experience (experience). Confidence intervals are shown at the 95% level and lighter-coloured estimates are not statistically different from zero. Higher values on the workplace stress scale reflect lower levels of well-being.

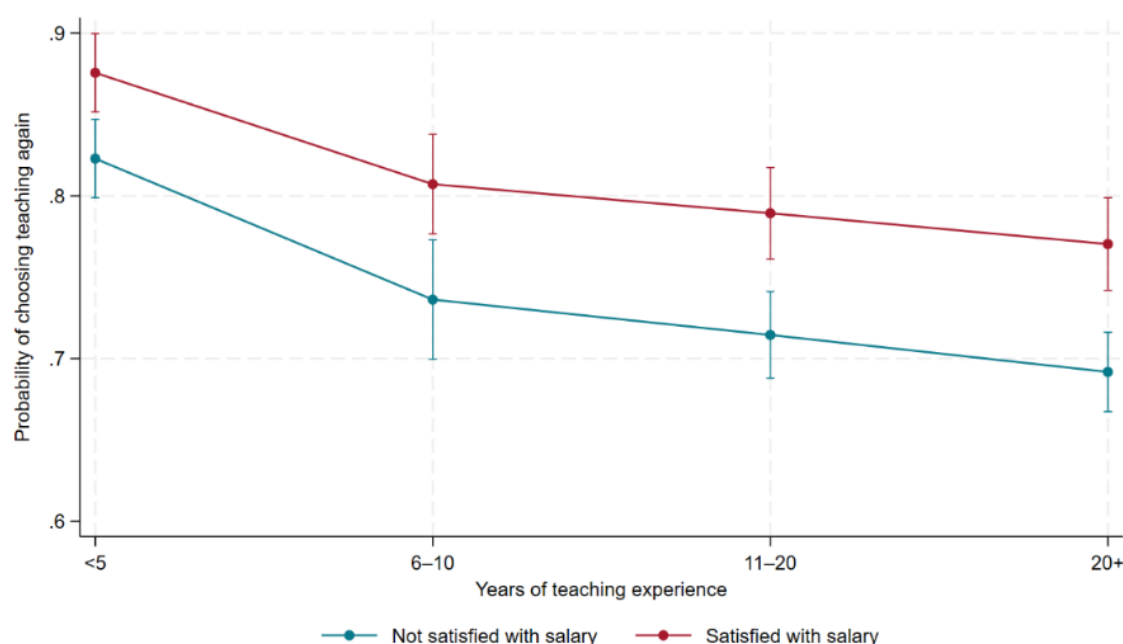
Source: European Commission services' calculations, based on OECD, 2025b

²³ The scale of perceptions of value and policy influence (T4VALP) is constructed from teachers' responses ("strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree", "strongly agree") to the following statements: "Teachers' views are valued by policymakers in this country/region"; "Teachers can influence educational policy in this country/region"; and "Teachers are valued in the media in this country/region".

²⁴ The underlying scale is the TALIS 2024 "workplace well-being and stress" scale (T4WELS), here simply renamed "workplace stress", which is constructed using teacher responses ("not at all", "to some extent", "quite a bit", "a lot") regarding the extent to which the following situations occur: "I experience stress in my work"; "My job leaves me time for my personal life"; "My job negatively impacts my mental health"; and "My job negatively impacts my physical health" (OECD, 2025b).

Teachers who are satisfied with their salary are consistently more likely to report that they would choose teaching again across all experience levels. However, the probability of choosing teaching again declines with years of experience both among teachers who are satisfied and teachers who are dissatisfied with their salary. This suggests that while salary satisfaction matters for teacher retention and attractiveness, it does not compensate for the decline in willingness to remain in the profession observed among more experienced teachers (Figure 16).

Figure 16. Probability of choosing teaching again, by salary satisfaction and years of teaching experience



Notes: This figure shows predicted probabilities from logistic regression models, estimated on pooled data across all 22 EU countries (i.e. not separately by country). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. “Not satisfied with salary” corresponds to the responses “strongly disagree” and “disagree”, while “satisfied with salary” corresponds to “agree” and “strongly agree”.

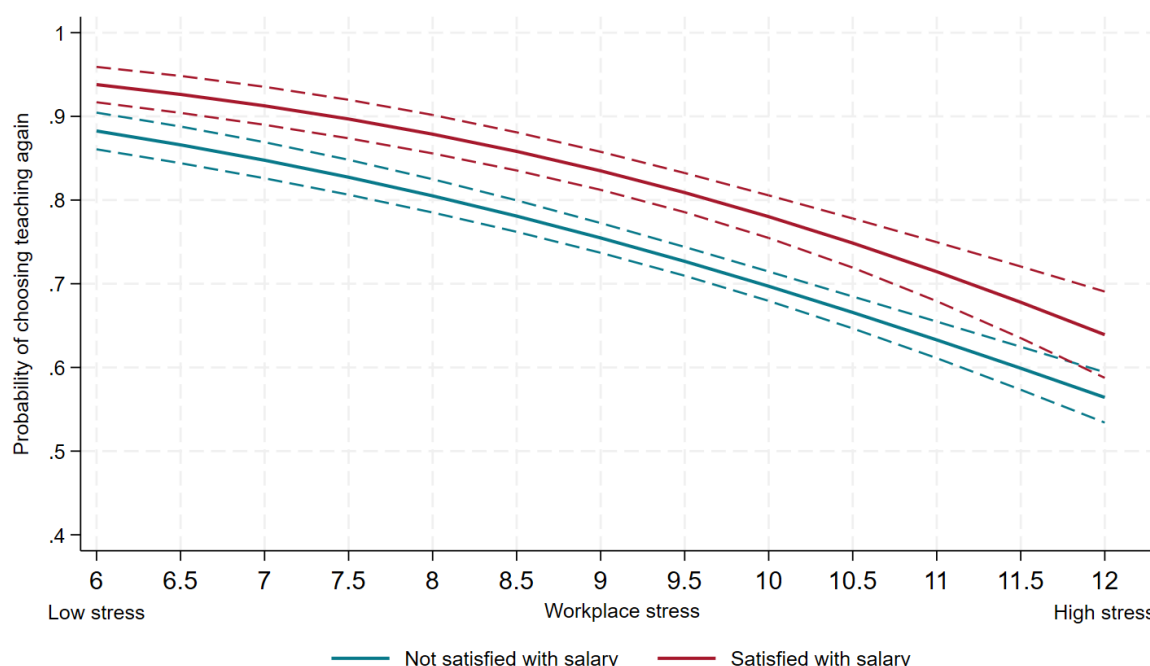
Source: European Commission services’ calculations based on OECD, 2025b

However, salary satisfaction alone may not significantly increase the likelihood of choosing teaching again. At low levels of job satisfaction and perceived value of the profession, the probability of choosing teaching again is not significantly different between teachers who are satisfied with their salary and those who are dissatisfied.²⁵ This indicates that improving salaries alone may not be sufficient to improve teacher retention if working conditions and professional recognition remain poor. Salary satisfaction appears to have a stronger effect when job satisfaction and perceived professional value are already relatively high (see Figure A.2 in Annex A.2).

Similarly, salary satisfaction does not fully compensate for the negative effect of high stress. Higher levels of workplace stress are associated with a lower probability of teachers reporting that they would choose the teaching profession again, also for teachers who are satisfied with their salary (Figure 18).²⁶

²⁵ This is shown graphically in Figure 14 (b), where confidence intervals (indicated with dotted red and blue bars) overlap at low levels of job satisfaction and perceived value of the profession.

²⁶ The interaction between salary satisfaction and workplace stress is not statistically significant, suggesting that the negative relationship between stress and willingness to choose teaching again is similar across groups regardless of salary satisfaction.

Figure 17. Probability of choosing teaching again, by salary satisfaction and workplace stress

Notes: This figure shows predicted probabilities from logistic regression models, estimated on pooled data across all 22 EU countries (i.e. not separately by country). Dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals. Higher values on the workplace well-being and stress scale (T4WELS) reflect lower levels of well-being. The scale is constructed using teacher responses ("not at all", "to some extent", "quite a bit", "a lot") about the extent to which the following situations occur: "I experience stress in my work"; "My job leaves me time for my personal life"; "My job negatively impacts my mental health"; "My job negatively impacts my physical health" (OECD, 2025b). "Not satisfied with salary" corresponds to the responses "strongly disagree" and "disagree", while "satisfied with salary" corresponds to "agree" and "strongly agree".

Source: European Commission services' calculations, based on OECD, 2025b

The findings above suggest that effective investment into the teaching profession requires a comprehensive approach that considers the importance of improving working conditions and teacher well-being in addition to salaries. While competitive salaries can support both recruitment and retention (Nagler et al., 2020; Hendricks, 2014; Burge et al., 2021), their impact appears more limited when not accompanied by supportive working conditions and teacher well-being. In line with the Job Demands–Resources framework (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017), reducing excessive job demands – such as workload and stress – while enhancing job resources (e.g. supportive school environments) can play a key role in sustaining teachers' motivation. This is particularly important for retaining experienced teachers, whose willingness to choose teaching again tends to decline even when they are satisfied with their salaries. Beyond working conditions, the findings highlight the importance of teachers' perceptions of value and policy influence of the teaching profession. Consistent with this, the literature identifies improving teachers' social status as an effective way to enhance the profession's attractiveness (Kyriacou et al., 2003).

Taken together, these findings stress the need for integrated policies that address both material and non-material aspects of the profession to make teaching more attractive. Although many of these aspects are not directly related to salaries, their implementation nevertheless requires some degree of public investment. For example, initiatives aimed at reducing workload can involve reducing class sizes²⁷ or increasing the use of teaching assistants, both of which can have significant budgetary implications. Similarly, policies aimed at improving teachers' perceptions of being valued by society may include promotional campaigns to improve media coverage or even across-the-board salary increases as a signal of the profession's status (De Witte et al., 2023).

²⁷ However, research points to limited effects of general class size reductions on student learning relative to their cost, making them less cost-effective than alternative approaches such as small-group tutoring (Sanz, 2025).

Annexes and references



Annex A.1. Evolution of public expenditure on education

Table A.1. Evolution of public expenditure on education (2019-2024)

	Share of total public expenditure (%)						Share of GDP (%)						Total amount €bn, 2024
	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	
EU	10.0	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.6	9.7	4.7	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.7	4.8	859.5
BE	11.8	11.2	11.3	11.8	11.9	11.7	6.1	6.5	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.3	39.3
BG	10.5	9.4	10.5	9.5	10.6	10.9	3.8	3.9	4.3	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.5
CZ	11.3	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.3	10.6	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.5	14.6
DK	12.7	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.7	11.7	6.3	6.2	5.9	5.3	5.6	5.6	21.8
DE	9.4	8.9	8.8	9.0	9.3	9.1	4.3	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5	194.6
EE	15.2	14.1	14.0	14.4	14.6	14.2	6.0	6.3	5.9	5.7	6.3	6.3	2.5
IE	12.4	11.4	11.2	12.0	12.1	12.0	3.0	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.7	2.7	15.1
EL	8.3	7.5	7.1	7.8	8.1	8.2	3.9	4.4	4.0	4.2	4.0	3.9	9.3
ES	9.5	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.2	9.1	4.0	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.1	65.9
FR	9.1	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	5.0	5.2	5.1	5.0	5.0	5.1	148.6
HR	11.2	10.6	11.2	11.1	11.4	10.5	5.2	5.7	5.4	5.0	5.3	5.0	4.3
IT	8.2	7.6	7.5	7.3	7.3	8.0	4.0	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.9	4.0	89.2
CY	12.8	12.3	12.0	12.7	12.2	13.2	5.1	5.7	5.1	4.8	4.9	5.0	1.8
LV	15.0	13.5	12.7	12.8	14.0	13.4	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.7	6.1	6.1	2.5
LT	13.2	12.1	12.7	13.4	13.8	13.9	4.6	5.1	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.5	4.3
LU	11.2	10.6	11.0	10.7	10.6	10.6	4.8	5.0	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	4.3
HU	10.2	9.3	9.5	8.8	9.3	10.4	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.3	4.6	4.9	10.1
MT	13.0	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.5	12.6	4.5	4.9	4.6	4.5	4.1	4.7	1.1
NL	11.6	10.7	10.8	11.2	11.5	11.5	4.9	5.1	5.0	4.9	5.1	5.1	57.2
AT	9.9	8.8	8.7	9.0	9.3	9.6	4.8	5.1	4.9	4.7	4.9	5.3	26.1
PL	12.0	10.6	11.2	10.5	10.6	11.3	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.6	4.9	5.6	47.6
PT	10.5	9.6	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.3	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.3	12.6
RO	9.8	8.7	8.0	8.0	8.4	9.3	3.6	3.6	3.2	3.3	3.5	4.0	14.3
SI	12.4	10.9	11.7	11.8	11.7	11.8	5.4	5.7	5.8	5.6	5.4	5.5	3.7
SK	10.9	10.6	10.2	10.9	10.3	10.8	4.4	4.7	4.6	4.7	5.0	5.1	6.7
FI	11.1	10.8	10.8	11.0	10.9	10.8	5.9	6.1	5.9	5.8	6.1	6.3	17.3
SE	15.4	14.7	14.7	14.5	14.6	14.3	7.7	7.8	7.4	7.2	7.3	7.2	40.4

Notes: Provisional data for: BE, DE, ES, FR, PT in 2024; DE, FR in 2023; DE in 2022.

Source: [Eurostat COFOG data](#)

Annex A.2. Results from main logistic regression

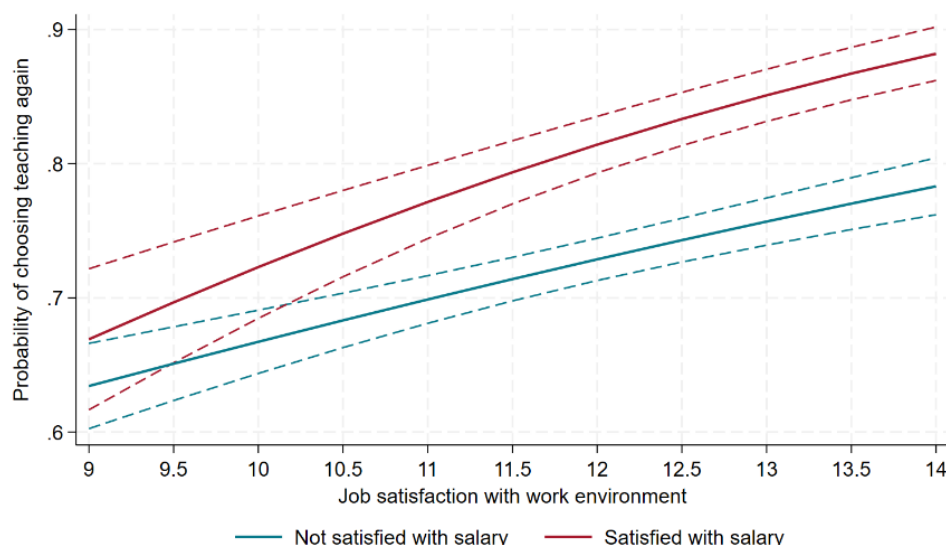
Table A.2. Logistic regression results on the likelihood of choosing teaching again (odds ratios)

	Would choose teaching again Odds Ratios
Female (ref: male)	2.088** (0.195)
Full-time (ref: part-time)	1.032 (0.108)
Age 30-49 (ref: less than 30 years of age)	1.011 (0.224)
Age 50-59	1.114 (0.260)
Age 60+	1.558* (0.404)
6-10 years (ref: up to 5 years of experience)	0.549** (0.087)
11-20 years	0.486** (0.076)
Above 20 years	0.428** (0.064)
I am satisfied with the salary I receive	1.664** (0.164)
Perceptions of value and policy influence	1.261** (0.034)
Job satisfaction with work environment	1.226** (0.026)
Personal utility motivations to teach	0.955** (0.017)
Social utility motivations to teach	1.143** (0.022)
Workplace stress	0.712** (0.016)
Professional collaboration in lessons among teachers	1.094** (0.023)

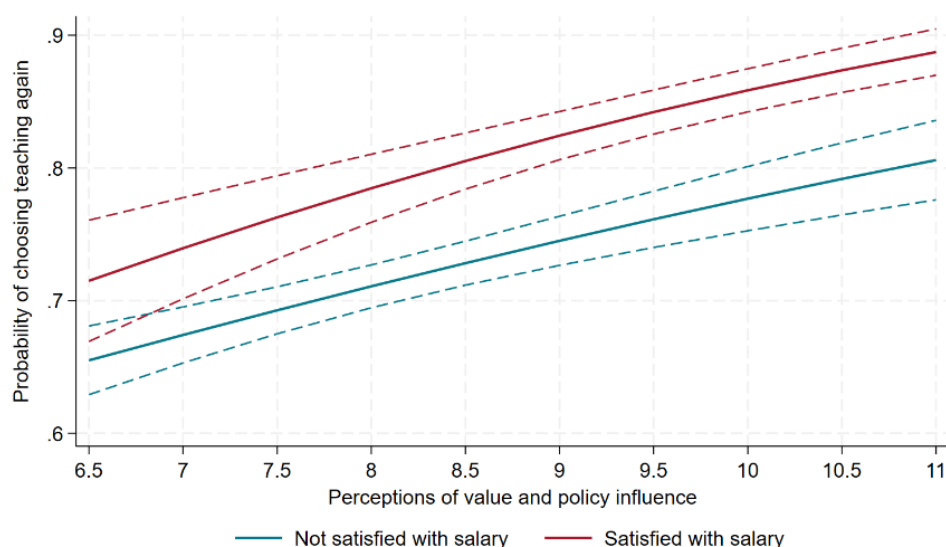
Dependent variable: Would choose teaching again (binary outcome). Reference categories: male; part-time; age <30; ≤5 years of experience. Standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels: * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Figure A.2. Predicted probability of choosing teaching again, by salary satisfaction and (a) job satisfaction with the work environment and (b) the perceptions of value and policy influence

(a) Interaction between salary satisfaction and job satisfaction with the work environment



(b) Interaction between salary satisfaction and teachers' perceptions of value and policy influence



Notes: The figures show predicted probabilities of choosing teaching again from logistic regression models, estimated on pooled data across all 22 EU countries (i.e. not separately by country). Dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals. The scale of perceptions of value and policy influence (T4VALP) is constructed from teachers' responses ("strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree", "strongly agree") to the following statements: "Teachers' views are valued by policymakers in this country/region"; "Teachers can influence educational policy in this country/region"; and "Teachers are valued in the media in this country/region". The scale of job satisfaction with the work environment (T4JSENV) is constructed from teachers' responses to the same response categories for the following statements about their job: "I would like to change to another school if that were possible"; "I enjoy working at this school"; and "I would recommend this school as a good place to work" (OECD, 2025b). Both scale scores are standardised with a standard deviation of 2 and the value of 10 corresponding to the item mid-point value of the response scale. "Not satisfied with salary" corresponds to the responses "strongly disagree" and "disagree", while "satisfied with salary" corresponds to "agree" and "strongly agree".

Source: European Commission services' calculations based on OECD, 2025b

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