MIND THE GAP

EDUCATION INEQUALITY ACROSS EU REGIONS

An independent report authored for the European Commission by the NESSE network of experts

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This is an independent report authored for the European Commission's Directorate-General for Education and Culture. It has been authored by Dr. Dimitris Ballas, Dr. Ruth Lupton, Prof. Roger Dale, Dr. Dimitris Kavroudakis, Dr. Benjamin Hennig, Vassiliki Yiagopoulou and Prof. Danny Dorling on behalf of the NESSE network of experts. Other members of the NESSE network and other experts in this field provided input and comments on drafts.

All responsibility for the analysis and interpretation of the data presented in this report lies with the authors.

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Despite commitments by EU Member States to promote equity in education and training, major geographic disparities persist in educational opportunities and outcomes, *across* but also ***within*** EU Member States and regions.

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* This study discusses the distribution of educational inequalities in only 21 of the 27 EU Member States which have two or more NUTS2 regions. Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Malta are EU NUTS2 regions themselves and as a result are not discussed in this report due to lack of suitable data.

Also, as a result of a consistent methodological choice of the researchers, analysis in this report does not include any of the European Union's overseas territories (8 outermost regions and 26 overseas territories linked to Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the UK).

Glossary

1. The **NUTS** (***N**omenclature d'**U**nités **T**erritoriales **S**tatistiques*) classification is a hierarchical system for dividing up the economic territory of the EU for the purpose of the collection, development and harmonisation of EU regional statistics, and socio-economic analyses of the regions. It is divided into three levels:

   NUTS 1: major socio-economic regions—essentially country level

   NUTS 2: basic regions for the application of regional policies—major region level

   NUTS 3: small regions for specific diagnoses—county level, districts, prefectures

   The EU has 271 regions at NUTS level 2 which are distributed within Member States as follows:

EU Member State	*Number of regions*
Austria	9
Belgium	11
Bulgaria	6
Czech Republic	8
Cyprus	1
Denmark	5
Estonia	1
Finland	5
France	26
Germany	39
Greece	13
Hungary	7
Ireland	2

EU Member State	*Number of regions*
Italy	21
Latvia	1
Lithuania	1
Luxembourg	1
Malta	1
The Netherlands	12
Spain	19
Poland	16
Portugal	7
Romania	8
Slovakia	4
Slovenia	2
Sweden	8
United Kingdom	37

2. **ISCED:** The International Standard Classification of Education is an instrument for compiling internationally comparable education statistics. The current version, ISCED 97, covers two classification variables: levels and fields of education as well as general/vocational/prevocational orientation and educational/labour market destination. ISCED 97 was implemented in European Union countries for collecting data starting with the 1997/98 school year. There are seven levels of education in ISCED 97:

   - Level 0: **Pre-primary education** – the initial stage of organised instruction; it is school- or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least three years.
   - Level 1: **Primary education** – begins between five and seven years of age, is the start of compulsory education where it exists and generally covers six years of full-time schooling.
   - Level 2: **Lower secondary education** – continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.
   - Level 3: **Upper secondary education** – generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-oriented than at ISCED level 2. The typical duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.
   - Level 4: **Post-secondary non-tertiary education** – between upper secondary and tertiary education. This level serves to broaden the knowledge of ISCED level 3 graduates. Typical examples are programmes designed to prepare pupils for studies at level 5 or programmes designed to prepare pupils for direct labour market entry.
   - Level 5: **Tertiary education (first stage)** – entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3 or 4. This includes tertiary programmes with academic orientation (type A) which are largely theoretical and tertiary programmes with an occupational orientation (type B). The latter are typically shorter than type A programmes and aimed at preparing students for the labour market.
   - Level 6: **Tertiary education (second stage)** – reserved for tertiary studies that lead to an advanced research qualification (Ph.D. or doctorate).

Figure 01. The EU NUTS2 regions (conventional map)

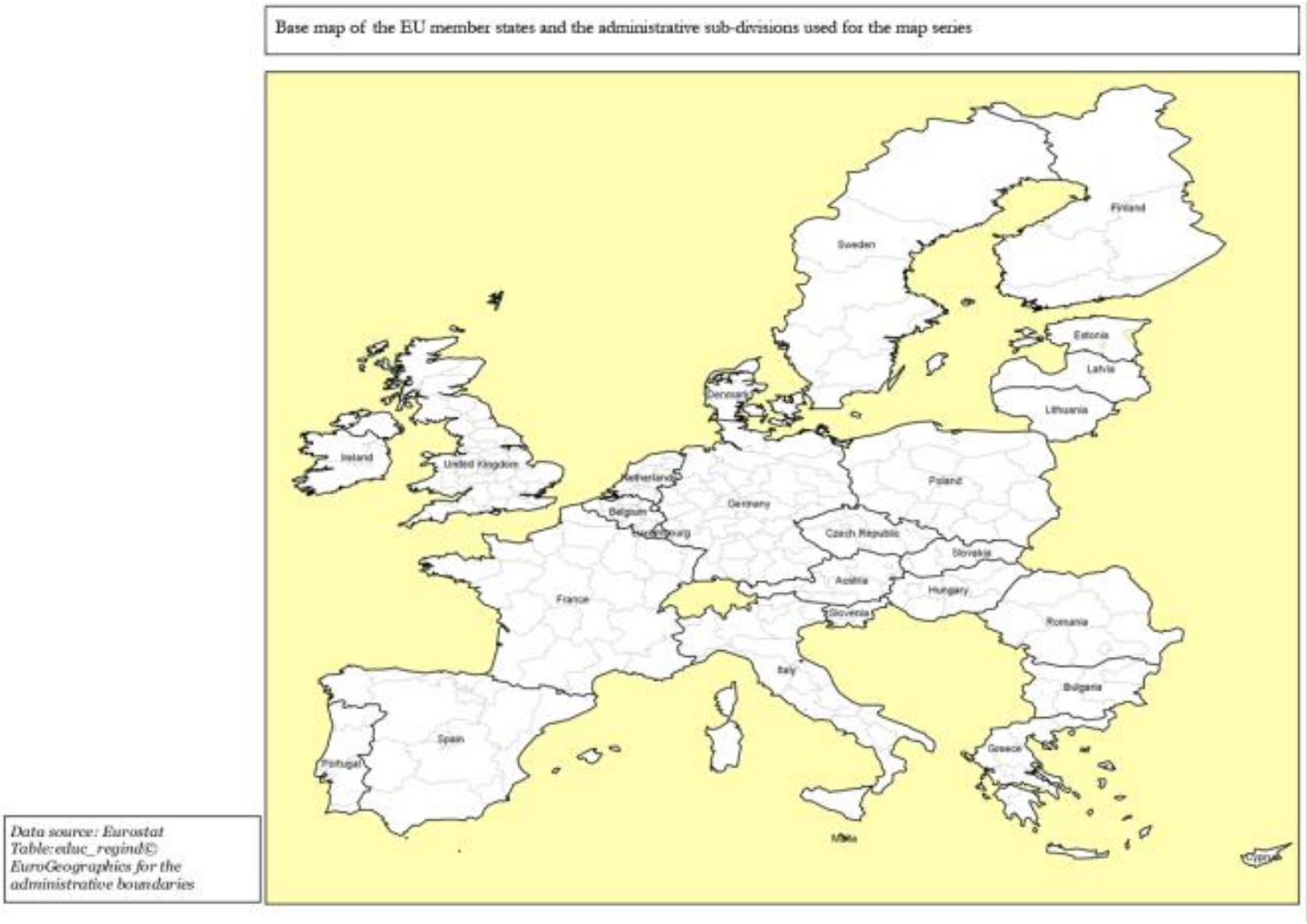
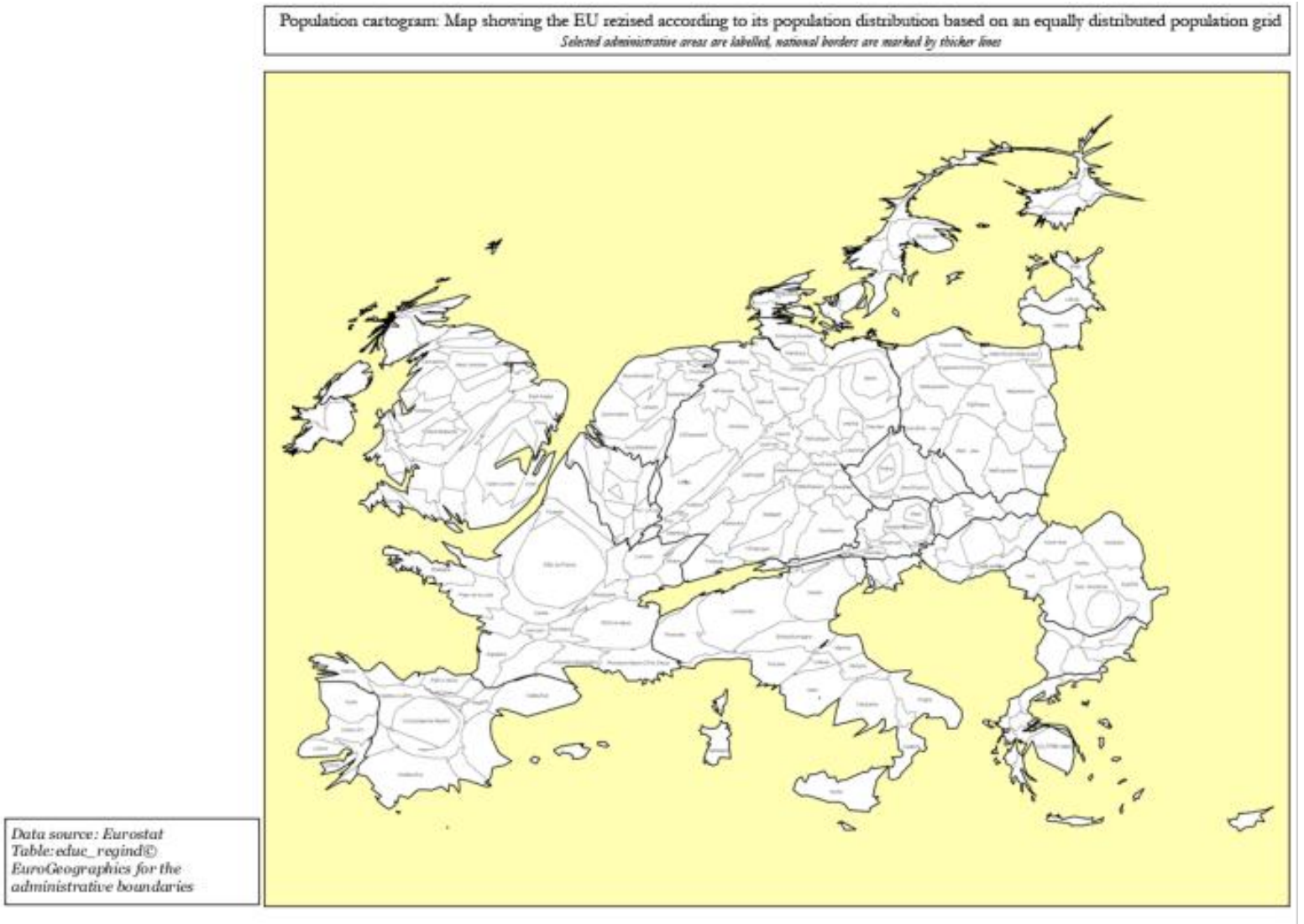


Figure 02. A human (population density) cartogram of EU regions



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Foreword

The future of the European Union and of its regions depends largely on our capacity to learn and to innovate.

Yet, opportunities *for* and benefits *from* learning are far from equally distributed across the European Union. The latest Eurostat Regional Yearbook and other evidence suggest that currently there are major **disparities** in educational opportunities and outcomes both ***across*** but also ***within*** Member States. Access to learning opportunities, success at school and chances of higher education and further learning all remain socially and spatially divided. Millions are left behind –with severe consequences for economic progress, for regional development and for social cohesion. This is a tremendous loss of potential for the EU.

This report introduces a key and neglected dimension to the study of educational inequality in the EU. It seeks to reveal the nature and scale of **intra-national** regional differences in educational opportunity and achievement and to support policy makers to design effective measures to redress them. Drawing largely on **geographic** understandings and tools, this work shows patterns in educational opportunities and outcomes and their geographic and regional variations across the EU. It engages with questions that include:

- *How do EU Member States compare in terms of their internal distribution of educational inequalities?*
- *Which are the particular locations within each EU Member State where educational disadvantage is more pronounced?*
- *What policies could help remedy these disparities?*

A first key message emerging from this report is that national averages often hide unpleasant local and regional realities. Pretending that countries are uniform is myopic. There is concentration of educational disadvantage in particular locations where cycles of disadvantage become entrenched. We need to shift resources and opportunities towards disadvantaged communities in these areas.

A second message from this report is that there is considerable **variation** in the nature, scale and effects of educational inequalities across EU regions. This suggests that policy solutions must be *tailored* rather than generic and that a simple rescaling of policy responses will not be sufficient to mitigate these regional differences.

A third message from the evidence reviewed here is that persisting education inequalities *compound* inequality between EU regions. They feed brain drain towards the richer regions and contribute to persistent inter-regional disparities which are resilient to purely economic interventions.

The findings of this report contribute to the Europe 2020 strategy by refining the analytical capacity for assessing progress of individual Member States and by adding a regional dimension to country-specific recommendations.

The report also shows that more systematic collection and sharing of data at **sub-regional level** is necessary to improve our knowledge base on this crucial topic and to inform policy. Eurostat, national statistical services and the European research community all have an important role to play in this process.

Much has been achieved in recent years through support to regional development and cohesion. But more remains to be done. The Europe 2020 strategy underlines that we cannot afford ignoring inequalities and that inclusive growth is a key aim. To this end, the report suggests, we need to look under the surface of national averages. Ignoring the nature and scale of intra-national educational disparities will merely perpetuate and compound the inequalities they enshrine.

Making effective interventions at the appropriate sub-national level requires not only evidence of where the problems lie, but an understanding of their causes and consequences and the spatial scales at which these operate. This report is a contribution towards evidence-based policy making in this direction. It is also a contribution to the effort to improve the targeting and effectiveness of the **European Structural Funds**.

Brussels, September 2012

Jan Truszczyński
Director-General
European Commission's Directorate-General for Education and Culture

Executive Summary

In a nutshell: Despite commitments by EU Member States to promote equity in education and training, major geographic disparities persist in educational opportunities and outcomes, *across* but also *within* EU Member States.

This report paints a picture of *intra-national* regional inequalities in educational opportunities and outcomes in the EU. Its aim is to support policy makers in their efforts to design effective measures to redress these disparities. It contains over *100 maps* that help visualise inequalities. It identifies the **top 10** and **bottom 10** EU regions for each of the indicators it examines. Its *key messages* are:

Education inequalities across EU regions

- There are considerable inequalities in educational opportunities and outcomes between EU regions. *Intra*-national differences of achievement are frequently at least as large, and often larger, when compared to *inter*-national differences.
- The regions with the highest rates of people with low formal qualifications ("at most pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education") are mostly in southern Europe and especially in Portugal and Spain. In contrast, the regions where people have higher qualifications are mostly found in the UK, as well as central and eastern Europe[1].
- The regions with the highest rates of individuals with tertiary education qualifications are mostly found in the UK, Belgium and the Netherlands, but also in northern Spain and in Cyprus. In contrast, the regions with the lowest rates are in Italy, Portugal, and in central and eastern EU[2].
- The EU regions with the highest rates of "pupils and students in all levels of education as a percentage of the total population" are concentrated in the north and west EU, especially Finland, Sweden but also Belgium and Ireland. The regions with the lowest rates are found mostly in the east of Germany, north of Italy and south-east Europe, but also north-west Spain and Portugal[3].
- The regions with the highest rates of "pupils in primary and lower secondary education as a percentage of the total population" are observed in regions of the Republic of Ireland, Portugal, southern Spain, but also the Netherlands, Denmark and Southern Sweden. In contrast, the lowest rates are observed in the north of Italy and in south-east Europe[4].
- The regions with the highest rates of "pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 years" are mostly in Italy, Belgium, Sweden and Finland, whereas most of the regions with the lowest rates are in Greece, Spain, Portugal, Romania, Bulgaria and France[5].
- The regions with the highest rates of people with "at most upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education" qualifications are mostly in central and eastern Europe, whereas the regions with the lowest rates are mostly found in southern Europe[6].
- There are big regional disparities in terms of adult participation in lifelong learning in the EU. The United Kingdom, Denmark, Finland and Sweden have the highest number of regions with strong participation in lifelong learning, whereas most of the regions with very low rates of participation in lifelong learning are in south-east Europe[7].
- There are significant differences in "geographical accessibility" to tertiary education across EU regions[8]. The regions with the best "geographical accessibility" are mostly in Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. In contrast, most of the regions with the lowest scores for "geographical accessibility" to tertiary education[9] are in south-east Europe, northern Sweden and Finland, the Baltic States, Spain, Denmark and France.

Regional disparities within EU Member States

- Looking at regional disparities within each EU Member State as measured by the difference between the maximum and minimum regional values for each indicator examined[10], Romania has the highest regional disparity with regard to the indicator "pupils and students in all levels of education as a % of the total population", closely followed by the Czech Republic, Belgium and Spain. On the other end, the Republic of Ireland has the smallest value (but note that it has only two regions). Denmark, Sweden, Hungary and Poland also seem to have relatively small differences between the regional maximum and minimum value for this indicator[11].

[1] See Tables 3.17-3.18 and Figure 3.9 (pp. 83-84).
[2] See Figure 3.11; Tables 3.21 and 3.22 (pp.85-86).
[3] See Figure 3.1 and Tables 3.2 and 3.3 (p. 75).
[4] See Figure 3.3 and Tables 3.6 and 3.7 (p. 77).
[5] See Figure 3.4 and Tables 3.8 and 3.9 (p. 78).
[6] See Figure 3.10; Tables 3.19 and 3.20 (pp. 84-85).
[7] See Figure 3.2 and Tables 3.4 and 3.5 (p.76).
[8] See Figure 3.6; Table 3.12 (pp.80-81).
[9] The % of the total population of a region living more than 60 minutes from the nearest university.
[10] The indicators examined are shown in Table 3.1, p. 74.
[11] See Table 4.45, p. 150.

- Looking at the indicator "adult participation in lifelong learning", the United Kingdom has by far the biggest regional disparity, with the difference between the region with the highest value (Inner London, 16.1%) and the region with the lowest value (Northern Ireland, 5.7%) at 10.4%. Slovakia and Denmark also have relatively large regional disparities with regards to this variable[12].
- Belgium has the highest difference between its top and bottom regions in terms of "pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 years".
- In some Member States, there are big differences across regions for the indicator "students in tertiary education as a percentage of the population aged 20-24 years". Belgium has the widest gap, closely followed by the Czech Republic and Austria. In addition, Greece, Italy and Romania all have wide gaps for this indicator with a spread of over 80% between their top and bottom region. In most of these cases this is the result of the dominance of the capital region in terms of tertiary education opportunities[13].
- Spain has the biggest gap between its top and bottom regions in terms of number of people living at more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university, followed closely by Greece with Finland third and Bulgaria fourth.
- Eight EU Member States have a difference of more than 15 percentage points between their top and bottom regions in terms of rates of tertiary education graduates in a region. The United Kingdom is the country with the biggest gap (23.4%), followed by France (21.3%), Belgium (19.4%), the Czech Republic (18.7%), Spain (17.5%), Slovakia (17%) and Romania (15.4%). The gap for this variable is relatively smaller in Ireland, Italy, Slovenia, Portugal, Finland and Austria (all below 10%)[14].
- Looking at the number of people with low educational qualifications (with "at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary qualifications"), France has the highest disparity between its top and bottom regions (gap of 27.2%), followed by Greece, Spain, Romania and Germany. In contrast, the countries with the lowest disparity are Slovenia, Ireland, Slovakia, Austria and Finland[15].

Other key messages

- National averages often hide unpleasant local and regional realities.
- Regional disparities in learning hinder balanced regional development and economic growth.
- Regional disparities in education *compound* inequality between EU regions. They also feed brain-drain towards the more developed/richer regions.
- There is considerable *variation* in the nature, scale and effects of educational inequalities across EU regions. Policy solutions must be *tailored* rather than generic.
- Data at the sub-regional level and at the level of individual schools and classrooms is currently being collected within Member States, but there is a need for better coordination and for this data to become available in the public domain.
- Compiling geographically disaggregated data on educational inequality can be an important tool for local empowerment and de-centralization. It generates *locally-relevant information.* It can help schools, community organisations and government at all levels to engage in evidence-based planning and policy.
- Spatial disparities of educational opportunities and outcomes reflect wider inequalities. Education policy measures alone are not enough. Policies that tackle poverty and related aspects of disadvantage at their roots are likely to be more successful than purely education policy interventions in influencing overall patterns of regional educational inequality.

[12] See Table 4.45, p. 150.
[13] See table 4.45, p. 150.
[14] See Table 4.46, p. 150.
[15] See Table 4.46, p. 150.

Résumé

En bref: Malgré que les États membres se soient engagés à promouvoir l'égalité des chances dans l'éducation et la formation, il subsiste des disparités géographiques dans l'offre et les débouchés éducatifs non seulement entre les États membres, mais aussi à l'intérieur de ceux-ci.

Ce rapport dresse le tableau des inégalités en matière d'offres et de débouchés entre régions d'un même État membre. Il a été conçu à l'intention des décideurs politiques pour les aider à élaborer des mesures efficaces pour résorber ces inégalités. Ce rapport comprend plus de *100 cartes* géographiques permettant de visualiser ces écarts. Les *10 premières* et les *10 dernières* régions du classement ont été identifiées pour chaque indicateur. Les *conclusions* à retenir sont les suivantes:

Inégalité d'éducation entre les régions de l'UE

- Les inégalités dans l'offre et les débouchés entre les différentes régions de l'UE sont très importantes. Les écarts dans les taux de réussite *au sein* d'un même État sont généralement d'une ampleur similaire – et souvent plus importants – à ceux que l'on a constatés *entre* États.
- Les régions où le nombre d'individus ne possédant pas ou guère de qualifications est le plus élevé («niveau préprimaire, primaire ou premier cycle de l'enseignement secondaire, au mieux») se situent pour la plupart dans le sud de l'Europe, en particulier au Portugal et en Espagne. À l'inverse, les régions où la population a le niveau de qualification le plus élevé se situent pour la plupart au Royaume-Uni et en Europe centrale et orientale[16].
- Les régions affichant le plus fort pourcentage de diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur se trouvent principalement au Royaume-Uni, en Belgique et aux Pays-Bas, mais il en existe aussi dans le nord de l'Espagne et à Chypre. À l'inverse, les régions affichant les pourcentages les plus faibles se situent en Italie, au Portugal et en Europe centrale et orientale[17].
- Les régions de l'UE affichant les taux les plus élevés d'«élèves et [d']étudiants à tous les niveaux de formation en pourcentage par rapport à la population totale» se concentrent dans le nord et l'ouest de l'UE: en Finlande et en Suède, essentiellement, mais aussi en Belgique et en Irlande. Les régions affichant les taux les plus bas se situent majoritairement dans l'Est de l'Allemagne, le nord de l'Italie et l'Europe du Sud-Est, mais il en existe aussi dans le nord-ouest de l'Espagne et au Portugal[18].
- Les régions où les «pourcentages d'élèves dans l'enseignement primaire et dans le premier cycle du secondaire par rapport à la population totale» sont les plus élevés se situent dans la République d'Irlande, au Portugal et dans le sud de l'Espagne, mais il en existe également aux Pays-Bas, au Danemark et dans le sud de la Suède. En revanche, les pourcentages les moins élevés s'observent dans le nord de l'Italie et dans l'Europe du Sud-Est[19].
- Les régions où les «pourcentages d'élèves et d'étudiants dans le secondaire et le post-secondaire non supérieur (CITE 3-4) parmi les 15-24 ans» sont les plus élevés se situent principalement en Italie, en Belgique, en Suède et en Finlande, alors que les régions où ces pourcentages sont les plus faibles se situent en Grèce, au Portugal, en Roumanie, en Bulgarie et en France[20].
- Les régions où les pourcentages d'individus avec un niveau d'instruction «de niveau secondaire ou post-secondaire non supérieur (CITE 3-4) au moins» sont les plus élevés se situent principalement en Europe centrale et orientale, tandis que les régions affichant les pourcentages les plus faibles se situent principalement Europe méridionale[21].
- Les écarts de participation des adultes à l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie entre les régions sont importants dans l'UE. Le Royaume-Uni, le Danemark, la Finlande et la Suède ont le plus grand nombre de régions à fort taux de participation, les régions où ce taux est faible se situent en Europe du Sud-Est[22].
- L'«accessibilité géographique» à l'enseignement supérieur montre d'importantes disparités selon les régions[23]. Les régions où l'«accessibilité géographique» est la plus grande se situent principalement en Allemagne, au Royaume-Uni et aux Pays-Bas. À l'inverse, la plupart des régions où l'«accessibilité géographique» à l'enseignement supérieur[24] est plus restreinte se situe en Europe du Sud-Est, dans le nord de la Suède et de la Finlande, dans les États baltes, en Espagne, au Danemark et en France.

Les disparités régionales à l'intérieur des États membres

- Pour ce qui est des disparités régionales à l'intérieur de chaque État membre – mesuré par l'écart entre les valeurs maximales et minimales pour chaque indicateur[25] –, c'est la Roumanie qui affiche l'écart le plus grand pour l'indicateur «Pourcentage d'élèves et étudiants à tous les niveaux d'instruction par rapport à la population totale». Elle est suivie de près par la

[16] Voir tableaux 3.17, 3.18 et figure 3.9 (pp. 83 et 84).
[17] Voir figure 3.11; tableaux 3.21 et 3.22 (pp.85 et 86).
[18] Voir figure 3.1 et tableaux 3.2 et 3.3 (p. 75).
[19] Voir figure 3.3 et tableaux 3.6 et 3.7 (p. 77).
[20] Voir figure 3.4 et tableaux 3.8 et 3.9 (p. 78).
[21] Voir figure 3.10; tableaux 3.19 et 3.20 (pp. 84 et 85).
[22] Voir figure 3.2 et tableaux 3.4 et 3.5 (p.76).
[23] Voir figure 3.6; tableau 3.12 (pp. 80 et 81).
[24] Le % de la population totale d'une région résidant à plus de 60 minutes de l'université la plus proche.
[25] Les indicateurs examinés sont listés dans le tableau 3.1, p. 74.

République tchèque, la Belgique et l'Espagne. L'Irlande affiche l'écart le plus faible (il faut noter toutefois qu'elle ne comporte que deux régions). Le Danemark, la Suède, la Hongrie et la Pologne semblent également se caractériser par de faibles écarts entre les valeurs maximales et minimales de leurs régions pour cet indicateur[26].

- Concernant l'indicateur «Participation des adultes à l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie», le Royaume-Uni est de loin l'État où les inégalités entre régions sont les plus flagrantes, l'écart entre la valeur la plus élevée (Londres *intra-muros*, 16,1 %) et la valeur la plus faible (Irlande du Nord, 5,7 %) étant de 10,4 %. La Slovaquie et le Danemark accusent aussi de fortes inégalités régionales pour cet indicateur[27].
- La Belgique est l'État où la différence est la plus marquée entre les régions affichant, respectivement, les plus élevés et les plus faibles chiffres en ce qui concerne les «pourcentages d'élèves et d'étudiants inscrits dans le secondaire et le post-secondaire non supérieur par rapport à la population des 15-24 ans».
- Dans certains États membres, l'écart entre les régions est très marqué pour l'indicateur «Pourcentage d'étudiants dans l'enseignement supérieur par rapport à la population des 15-24 ans». Les trois États connaissant les écarts les plus accentués sont, dans l'ordre, la Belgique, la République tchèque et l'Autriche. En outre, la Grèce, l'Italie et la Roumanie accusent aussi une forte disparité interrégionale pour cet indicateur, avec un écart de plus de 80 % entre le haut et le bas du classement. Ceci tient souvent au monopole de la région de la capitale nationale sur l'offre en matière d'enseignement supérieur[28].
- Concernant le nombre de personnes résidant à plus de 60 minutes de l'université la plus proche, ce sont les régions espagnoles qui affichent la situation la plus disparate. La Grèce, la Finlande et la Bulgarie occupent les deuxième, troisième et quatrième positions.
- Pour ce qui est du nombre de diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur, on observe un écart interrégional de plus de 15 % dans huit États membres. L'écart le plus important est enregistré au Royaume-Uni (23,4 %), viennent ensuite la France (21,3 %), la Belgique (19,4 %), la République tchèque (18,7 %), l'Espagne (17,5 %), la Slovaquie (17 %) et la Roumanie (15,4 %). La disparité pour cet indicateur est relativement plus faible en Irlande, en Italie, en Slovénie, au Portugal, en Finlande et en Autriche (toujours inférieure à 10 %)[29].
- S'agissant du nombre de personnes qui ne possèdent pas ou guère de diplômes (qui ont reçu «un enseignement préprimaire, primaire ou de premier cycle du secondaire, au mieux»), la France est en première position pour les disparités régionales, avec un écart de 27,2 %; elle est suivie par la Grèce, l'Espagne, la Roumanie et l'Allemagne. En revanche, les pays où les disparités sont les plus faibles sont la Slovénie, l'Irlande, la Slovaquie, l'Autriche et la Finlande[30].

Autres conclusions importantes:

- Les moyennes nationales dissimulent souvent de tristes réalités locales et régionales.
- Les disparités régionales en matière d'apprentissage déséquilibrent le développement et la croissance économique des régions.
- Les disparités régionales en matière d'éducation *aggravent* les inégalités entre régions. Elles alimentent aussi la fuite des cerveaux vers les régions plus riches ou plus développées.
- Les inégalités en matière d'éducation entre les régions de l'UE ont une nature, une ampleur et des conséquences *variables*. Elles requièrent des solutions *sur mesure* plutôt que génériques.
- Les données du niveau sous-régional et du niveau des établissements scolaires et des classes sont actuellement recueillies par les États membres. Cependant, une amélioration s'impose en ce qui concerne la coordination et la divulgation de ces informations.
- La collecte de données sur les inégalités d'éducation avec ventilation géographique peut être utile pour l'autonomie locale et la décentralisation. Les informations recueillies sont *pertinentes au niveau local*. Elles peuvent encourager les écoles, les organisations locales et le gouvernement à s'engager dans la planification et la prise de mesures fondées sur des données précises.
- Les disparités géographiques en matière d'offres et de débouchés reflètent des inégalités plus graves. Les actions en faveur de l'éducation ne sont pas suffisantes. Celles qui s'attaquent aux causes profondes de la pauvreté et d'autres inégalités auront probablement plus d'influence sur les inégalités régionales liées à l'éducation que les mesures uniquement centrées sur l'éducation.

[26] Voir tableau 4.45, p. 150.
[27] Voir tableau 4.45, p. 150.
[28] Voir tableau 4.45, p. 150.
[29] Voir tableau 4.46, p. 150.
[30] Voir tableau 4.46, p. 150.

Zusammenfassung

Kurz gesagt: Obwohl sich die EU-Mitgliedstaaten zur Förderung der Chancengleichheit im Bereich der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung verpflichtet haben, bestehen bei den Ausbildungsangeboten und den Ausbildungsabschlüssen weiterhin große regionale Unterschiede, sowohl *zwischen* den einzelnen Mitgliedstaaten als auch *innerhalb* jedes einzelnen Staates.

Dieser Bericht vermittelt ein Bild der *innerstaatlichen* regionalen Ungleichheiten der Ausbildungsangebote und -abschlüssen in der EU. Dies soll den politischen Entscheidungsträgern helfen, wirksame Maßnahmen zur Beseitigung dieser Ungleichheiten zu ergreifen. Auf über *100 Karten* werden die geografischen Unterschiede optisch veranschaulicht. Der Bericht ermittelt für jeden einzelnen der untersuchten Indikatoren die zehn *besten* und die zehn *schwächsten* EU-Regionen auf. Der Bericht enthält folgende *Schlüsselbotschaften*:

Bildungsungleichheiten zwischen den EU-Regionen

- Bei den einzelnen Ausbildungsangeboten und Ausbildungsabschlüssen bestehen erhebliche Ungleichheiten zwischen den einzelnen EU-Regionen. Verglichen mit den auf *inter*nationaler Ebene festgestellten Leistungsunterschieden sind die Unterschiede beim *inner*staatlichen Vergleich häufig ebenso groß und oftmals größer.
- Den höchsten Prozentsatz von Menschen mit geringer formaler Ausbildung ("maximal Vorschule, Primarbereich und unterer Sekundarbereich") weisen Regionen vorwiegend in Südeuropa und insbesondere in Portugal und Spanien auf. Dagegen liegen die Regionen mit höher qualifizierten Einwohnern größtenteils im Vereinigten Königreich sowie in Mittel- und Osteuropa[31].
- Die Regionen mit dem höchsten Anteil an Hochschulabsolventen finden sich in erster Linie im Vereinigten Königreich, in Belgien und den Niederlanden, aber auch in Nordspanien und auf Zypern. Im Gegensatz dazu liegen die Regionen mit dem geringsten Prozentsatz an Akademikern in Italien, Portugal sowie in Mittel- und Osteuropa[32].
- Die EU-Regionen mit dem höchsten Anteil an "Schülern und Studierenden aller Bildungsebenen ausgedrückt als Prozentsatz der Gesamtbevölkerung" konzentrieren sich im Norden und Westen der EU, insbesondere in Finnland und Schweden sowie in Belgien und Irland. Die Regionen mit dem niedrigsten Anteil liegen vornehmlich in Ostdeutschland, Norditalien und Südosteuropa sowie im Nordwesten Spaniens und in Portugal[33].
- Die Regionen mit dem höchsten Anteil an "Schülern im Primar- und unteren Sekundarbereich ausgedrückt als Prozentsatz der Gesamtbevölkerung" wurden in der Republik Irland, Portugal, Südspanien sowie in den Niederlanden, Dänemark und Südschweden ermittelt. Demgegenüber findet sich der niedrigste Anteil dieser Gruppe in Norditalien und in Südosteuropa[34].
- Die Regionen mit dem höchsten Anteil an "Schülern und Studierenden im postsekundären nicht-universitären Bereich ausgedrückt als Prozentsatz der Bevölkerung der 15-24jährigen" befinden sich vor allem in Italien, Belgien, Schweden und Finnland, die Regionen mit dem niedrigsten Anteil dagegen insbesondere in Griechenland, Spanien, Portugal, Rumänien, Bulgarien und Frankreich[35].
- Die Regionen mit dem höchsten Anteil an Personen, die "mindestens einen Abschluss im postsekundären nicht-universitären Bereich" erworben haben, liegen vor allem in Mittel- und Osteuropa, wohingegen die Regionen mit dem geringsten Anteil solcher Personen überwiegend in Südeuropa zu finden sind[36].
- Es bestehen große regionale Ungleichheiten bei der Zahl der Erwachsenen, die innerhalb der EU am lebenslangen Lernen teilnehmen. Das Vereinigte Königreich, Dänemark, Finnland und Schweden weisen die höchste Zahl von Regionen mit starker Beteiligung am lebenslangen Lernen auf, während die Regionen, deren Einwohner dieses Angebot am wenigsten in Anspruch nehmen, in erster Linie in Südosteuropa liegen[37].
- Zwischen den einzelnen EU-Regionen bestehen erhebliche Unterschiede beim "geografischen Zugang" zur Hochschulbildung[38]. Die Regionen mit dem besten "geografischen Zugang" liegen vornehmlich in Deutschland, dem Vereinigten Königreich und in den Niederlanden. Demgegenüber finden sich die Regionen mit den niedrigsten Werten in Bezug auf den "geografischen Zugang" zur Hochschulbildung[39] vor allem in Südosteuropa, Nordschweden und Finnland sowie in den baltischen Staaten, Spanien, Dänemark und Frankreich.

Regionale Unterschiede innerhalb der einzelnen EU-Mitgliedstaaten

- Werden die regionalen Ungleichheiten, die bei einem Vergleich der höchsten und der niedrigsten Werte der untersuchten Indikatoren[40] innerhalb der einzelnen Mitgliedstaaten ermittelt wurden, zugrunde gelegt, so weist Rumänien die größten regionalen Ungleichheiten in Bezug auf den Indikator "Schüler und Studierende auf allen Bildungsstufen als

[31] Siehe Tabellen 3.17 und 3.18 sowie Schaubild 3.9 (S. 83 f.).
[32] Siehe Schaubild 3.11 sowie die Tabellen 3.21 und 3.22 (S. 85 f.).
[33] Siehe Schaubild 3.1 sowie die Tabellen 3.2 und 3.3 (S. 75).
[34] Siehe Schaubild 3.3 sowie die Tabellen 3.6 und 3.7 (S. 77).
[35] Siehe Schaubild 3.4 sowie die Tabellen 3.8 und 3.9 (S. 78).
[36] Siehe Schaubild 3.10 sowie die Tabellen 3.19 und 3.20 (S. 84 f.).
[37] Siehe Schaubild 3.2 und die Tabellen 3.4 and 3.5 (S. 76).
[38] Siehe Schaubild 3.6 sowie Tabelle 3.12 (S. 80 f.).
[39] Personen, die weiter als 60 Minuten von der nächsten Universität entfernt leben, ausgedrückt als Prozentsatz der Gesamtbevölkerung einer Region.
[40] Die untersuchten Indikatoren, siehe Tabelle 3.1, S. 74.

Prozentsatz der Gesamtbevölkerung" aus, dicht gefolgt von der Tschechischen Republik, Belgien und Spanien. Demgegenüber hat die Republik Irland die niedrigsten Werte (umfasst allerdings auch nur zwei Regionen). Auch in Dänemark, Schweden, Ungarn und Polen sind offensichtlich nur recht kleine Unterschiede zwischen den regionalen Höchst- bzw. Niedrigstwerten zu verzeichnen[41].

- In Bezug auf den Indikator "Beteiligung von Erwachsenen am lebenslangen Lernen" sind im Vereinigten Königreich bei Weitem die größten Unterschiede festzustellen. Der Unterschied zwischen der Region mit dem höchsten Wert (Inner London, 16,1 %) und dem niedrigsten Wert (Nordirland, 5,7 %) beträgt 10,4 %. Die Slowakei und Dänemark weisen ebenfalls relativ große regionale Unterschiede in Bezug auf diesen Indikator auf[42].
- Belgien weist mit seinen Regionen am Anfang bzw. am Ende der Skala bei der Auswertung des Indikators "Schüler und Studierende im oberen Sekundarbereich und im postsekundären nicht-universitären Bereich (ISCED 3-4) ausgedrückt als Prozentsatz der Bevölkerung der 15-24jährigen" den größten Unterschied auf.
- In einigen Mitgliedstaaten bestehen große Unterschiede zwischen den Regionen bei dem Indikator "Hochschulstudierende als Prozentsatz der Bevölkerung zwischen 20 und 24 Jahren". Der größte Abstand besteht in Belgien, dicht gefolgt von der Tschechischen Republik und Österreich. Bei diesem Indikator weisen auch Griechenland, Italien und Rumänien große Unterschiede auf, denn die Spanne zwischen den Regionen, die am besten beziehungsweise am schlechtesten abschneiden, beträgt mehr als 80 %. In den meisten Fällen ist dies auf die vorherrschende Position zurückzuführen, die die Hauptstadtregion bei Bildungsangeboten der Hochschulen einnimmt[43].
- Spanien weist den größten Abstand zwischen denen erfolgreichsten und den am wenigsten erfolgreichen Regionen in Bezug auf die Zahl der Menschen aus, die mehr als 60 Minuten von der nächsten Universität entfernt wohnen; dicht darauf folgt Griechenland, Finnland belegt die dritte Position, und Bulgarien folgt an vierter Stelle.
- Acht EU-Mitgliedstaaten weisen einen Unterschied von über 15% zwischen ihren leistungsfähigsten beziehungsweise leistungsschwächsten Regionen in Bezug auf die Zahl ihrer Hochschulabsolventen auf. Den größten Abstand weist das Vereinigte Königreich (23,4 %) auf gefolgt von Frankreich (21,3 %), Belgien (19,4 %), der Tschechischen Republik (18,7 %), Spanien (17,5 %), der Slowakei (17 %) und Rumänien (15,4 %). Relativ klein ist der Abstand bei dieser Variablen in Irland, Italien, Slowenien, Portugal, Finnland und Österreich (alle unter 10 %)[44].
- Bei der Anzahl der Personen mit niedrigen Bildungsabschlüssen ("maximal Vorschule, Primarbereich und unterer Sekundarbereich") weist Frankreich (mit einem Abstand von 27,2 %) den größten Unterschied zwischen den leistungsstärksten und den leistungsschwächsten Regionen auf, und zwar vor Griechenland, Spanien, Rumänien und Deutschland. Der geringste Abstand wurde dagegen in Slowenien, Irland, der Slowakei, in Österreich und Finnland festgestellt[45].

Weitere Kernaussagen

- Durch die nationalen Durchschnittswerte werden häufig schlechtere Ergebnisse, die die Untersuchungen auf lokaler und regionaler Ebene ergeben haben, kaschiert.
- Die regionalen Ungleichheiten im Bildungsbereich verhindern eine ausgewogene regionale Entwicklung und wirtschaftliches Wachstum.
- Regionale Bildungsunterschiede *verschärfen* die Ungleichheiten zwischen den EU-Regionen. Sie begünstigen ferner die Abwanderung gut ausgebildeter Menschen in stärker entwickelte/reichere Regionen.
- Es bestehen zwischen den EU-Regionen erhebliche *Abweichungen* in Bezug auf Art, Umfang und Auswirkungen der Ungleichheiten im Bildungsbereich. Die politischen Lösungsansätze dürfen nicht einheitlich formuliert werden, sondern müssen *maßgeschneidert* sein.
- In den Mitgliedstaaten werden derzeit Angaben auf regioneninterner Ebene und in einzelnen Schulen und Klassen erhoben, die jedoch besser koordiniert und öffentlich zugänglich gemacht werden müssen.
- Die Zusammenstellung geografisch aufgesplitteter Daten kann ein wichtiges Instrument zur Stärkung der Verantwortung auf lokaler Ebene und zur Dezentralisierung sein. Daraus können *für die lokale Ebene relevante Informationen* abgeleitet werden. Dies kann dazu beitragen, dass Schulen, Gemeindeorganisationen und Regierungsverantwortliche auf allen Ebenen evidenz-basierende Planung und Politiken verwenden
- Räumliche Unterschiede bei den Bildungsangeboten und -abschlüssen sind Ausdruck weiterer Ungleichheiten. Bildungspolitische Maßnahmen allein reichen nicht aus. Maßnahmen, die die Armut und verwandte Aspekte der Benachteiligung bei der Wurzel packen, sind wahrscheinlich wirksamer gegen die Gesamtstruktur der regionalen Bildungsunterschiede als rein bildungspolitische Interventionen.

[41] Siehe Tabelle 4.45, S. 150.
[42] Siehe Tabelle 4.45, S. 150.
[43] Siehe Tabelle 4.45, S. 150.
[44] Siehe Tabelle 4.46, S. 150.
[45] Siehe Tabelle 4.46, S. 150.

Резюме

Накратко: Въпреки ангажиментите, поети от държавите членки на ЕС, за насърчаване на равнопоставеността в образованието и обучението, *между* държавите членки на ЕС, а също така и *вътре* в самите тях, продължават да съществуват големи географски различия по отношение на образователните възможности и постижения.

Този доклад представя регионалните неравенства *вътре* в *самите държави* по отношение на образователните възможности и постижения в ЕС. Целта му е да подкрепи авторите на политики в усилията им за разработване на ефективни мерки за отстраняването на тези несъответствия. В него се съдържат над *100 карти*, които спомагат за визуализирането на неравнопоставеността в образованието. Посочени са *челните 10* региона на ЕС, както и *10-те региона с най-незадоволителни резултати* по всеки от разгледаните показатели. *Ключовите послания* на доклада са:

Неравенства в областта на образованието между регионите на ЕС

- Съществуват значителни неравенства в образователните възможности и постижения между регионите на ЕС. Различията в образователните постижения *вътре* в *самите държави* често са поне толкова големи, колкото различията *между държавите*, като нерядко са и по-големи.
- Регионите с най-висок дял на хората с ниска степен на образование („не по-високо от предучилищно, основно или прогимназиално образование“) са предимно в Южна Европа, и особено в Португалия и Испания. За сравнение, регионите, в които населението е с по-висока степен на образование, се намират главно в Обединеното кралство, както и в Централна и Източна Европа[46].
- Регионите с най-висок дял на хората с висше образование се намират предимно в Обединеното кралство, Белгия и Нидерландия, а също така и в Северна Испания и Кипър. За сравнение, регионите с най-нисък дял са в Италия, Португалия и в Централна и Източна Европа[47].
- Регионите на ЕС с най-висок дял на „ученици и студенти на всички нива на образованието като процент от общото население“ са съсредоточени в Северна и Западна Европа, по-специално във Финландия и Швеция, но също така и в Белгия и Ирландия. Регионите с най-нисък дял в това отношение се намират преобладаващо в източната част на Германия, Северна Италия и Югоизточна Европа, както и в Северозападна Испания и Португалия[48].
- Регионите с най-висок дял на „ученици в началното и средното образование като процент от общото население“ се наблюдават в Република Ирландия, Португалия, Южна Испания, както и в Нидерландия, Дания и Южна Швеция. За сравнение, най-нисък дял в това отношение се наблюдава в северната част на Италия и в Югоизточна Европа[49].
- Регионите с най-висок дял на „ученици и студенти в гимназиалното и полувисшето образование като процент от населението на възраст 15—24 години“ са предимно в Италия, Белгия, Швеция и Финландия, докато повечето от регионите с най-нисък дял са в Гърция, Испания, Португалия, Румъния, България и Франция[50].
- Регионите с най-висок дял на хората с „не по-високо от гимназиално или полувисше образование“ са предимно в Централна и Източна Европа, докато повечето от регионите с най-нисък дял се намират главно в Южна Европа[51].
- В ЕС съществуват големи регионални несъответствия по отношение на участието на възрастните в обучението през целия живот. В Обединеното кралство, Дания, Финландия и Швеция има най-голям брой региони с активно участие в обучението през целия живот, докато повечето региони с много ниска степен на участие са в Югоизточна Европа[52].
- Между регионите на ЕС съществуват значителни разлики в „географската достъпност“ на висшето образование[53]. Регионите с най-добра „географска достъпност“ са предимно в Германия, Обединеното кралство и Нидерландия. За сравнение, повечето от регионите с най-ниска „географска достъпност“ на висшето образование[54] са в Югоизточна Европа, Северна Швеция и Финландия, балтийските държави, Испания, Дания и Франция.

Регионални несъответствия в рамките на държавите членки на ЕС

- По отношение на регионалните несъответствия в рамките на всяка държава членка на ЕС, измерени въз основа на разликата между максималните и минималните регионални стойности за всеки изследван показател[55], Румъния е с най-високото регионално несъответствие по отношение на показателя „ученици и студенти от всички нива на образованието като процент от общото

[46] Вж. таблици 3.17—3.18 и фигура 3.9 (стр. 83—84).
[47] Вж. фигура 3.11 по-долу; таблици 3.21 и 3.22 (стр. 85—86).
[48] Вж. фигура 3.1 и таблици 3.2 и 3.3 (стр. 75).
[49] Вж. фигура 3.3 и таблици 3.6 и 3.7 (стр. 77).
[50] Вж. фигура 3.4 и таблици 3.8 и 3.9 (стр. 78).
[51] Вж. фигура 3.10 по-долу; таблици 3.19 и 3.20 (стр. 84 —85).
[52] Вж. фигура 3.2 и таблици 3.4 и 3.5 (стр. 76).
[53] Вж. фигура 3.6 по-долу; таблица 3.12 (стр. 80—81).
[54] % от общото население на региона, което живее на повече от 60 минути от най-близкия университет.
[55] Изследваните показатели са показани в таблица 3.1, стр. 74.

население“, следвана плътно от Чешката република, Белгия и Испания. На другия край е Република Ирландия с най-ниски стойности (трябва да се отбележи, че тя има само два региона). Дания, Швеция, Унгария и Полша също така имат относително малки разлики между максималните и минималните регионални стойности за този показател[56].

- По отношение на показателя „участие на възрастните в обучение през целия живот“ Обединеното кралство е определено с най-голямо регионално несъответствие, като разликата между региона с най-висока стойност (Лондон—град, 16,1 %) и региона с най-ниска стойност (Северна Ирландия, 5,7 %) е 10,4 %. Словакия и Дания също така имат относително големи регионални несъответствия по отношение на тази променлива[57].
- Белгия е с най-голяма разлика между региона с най-висока и този с най-ниска стойност за „ученици и студенти в гимназиалното и полувисшето образование (ISCED 3-4) като процент от населението на възраст 15 — 24 години“.
- В някои държави членки съществуват големи различия между регионите по показателя „студенти във висшето образование като процент от населението на възраст 20—24 години“. Белгия е с най-голямата разлика, следвана плътно от Чешката република и Австрия. В Гърция, Италия и Румъния също са налице големи различия по този показател - разликата между регионите им с най-висока и с най-ниска стойност е над 80 %. В повечето случаи това се дължи на концентрацията на висши учебни заведения в региона на столицата.[58].
- В Испания се наблюдава най-голяма разлика между регионите по брой жители, които живеят на повече от 60 минути от най-близкия университет. Веднага след нея е Гърция, трета е Финландия, а България е на четвърто място.
- В осем държави членки на ЕС има разлика от повече от 15 % между регионите с най-голям и с най-малък брой на завършилите висше образование. Обединеното кралство е държавата с най-голяма разлика (23,4 %), следвана от Франция (21,3 %), Белгия (19,4 %), Чешката република (18,7 %), Испания (17,5 %), Словакия (17 %) и Румъния (15,4 %). Разликата по тази променлива е относително по-малка в Ирландия, Италия, Словения, Португалия, Финландия и Австрия (всички под 10 %)[59].
- Що се отнася до ниско образованите хора (с „не по-висока степен от предучилищно, основно или прогимназиално образование“), най-голямата разлика между регионите с най-голям и най-малък брой слабо образовани хора, е във Франция (27,2 %). Следват Гърция, Испания, Румъния и Германия. За сравнение, държавите с най-малки разлики между регионите са Словения, Ирландия, Словакия, Австрия и Финландия[60].

Други ключови послания

- Средните национални стойности често прикриват неприятната местна и регионална действителност.
- Регионалните различия в сферата на образованието възпрепятстват балансираното регионално развитие и икономически растеж.
- Регионалните несъответствия в образованието *задълбочават* неравенството между регионите на ЕС. Те също така захранват изтичането на мозъци към по-развитите/по-богатите региони.
- Съществуват значителни *особености* в естеството, мащаба и последиците от неравенствата в образованието в отделните региони на ЕС. Следователно, политиките и решенията трябва да се *съобразяват с тези регионални особености*, а не да следват *един универсален модел*.
- Понастоящем в рамките на държавите членки се събират данни на подрегионално ниво и на ниво отделни училища и класове, като е необходима по-добра координация, както и тези данни да бъдат направени публично достояние.
- Събирането на географски необобщени данни за неравенството в областта на образованието може да бъде важен инструмент за овластяване на местната администрация и за постигане на децентрализация. По този начин се събира полезна информация, която е *специфична за съответното населено място*. . Това също би помогнало на училищата, различните общности и на администрациите на всички нива да се включат в планирането и правенето на политики като се базират на реални данни.
- Различията във възможностите и постиженията в образованието отразяват по-дълбоки различия между регионите. Мерките на образователната политика сами по себе си са недостатъчни. Политики, насочени към изкореняване на бедността и нейните последствия биха били по-успешни в това начинание отколкото чисто образователни интервенции.

[56] Вж. таблица 4.45, стр. 150.
[57] Вж. таблица 4.45, стр. 150.
[58] Вж. таблица 4.45, стр. 150.
[59] Вж. таблица 4.46, стр. 150.
[60] Вж. таблица 4.46, стр. 150.

Shrnutí

Ve stručnosti: Navzdory závazkům členských států EU prosazovat rovný přístup ve vzdělávání a odborné přípravě přetrvávají velké zeměpisné rozdíly ve vzdělávacích příležitostech a výsledcích vzdělávání *mezi* členskými státy, ale i *v rámci* členských států EU.

Tato zpráva popisuje *vnitrostátní* regionální nerovnosti ve vzdělávacích příležitostech a výsledcích vzdělávání v EU. Jejím cílem je podpořit tvůrce politik v jejich úsilí o vypracování účinných opatření k odstranění těchto rozdílů. Obsahuje více než *100 map*, které napomáhají názornému vyobrazení nerovností. Pro každý z posuzovaných ukazatelů zpráva určuje *10 nejsilnějších a 10 nejslabších regionů* EU. Jejími *klíčovými zjištěními* jsou:

Nerovnosti ve vzdělávání mezi regiony EU

- Mezi regiony EU existují značné nerovnosti ve vzdělávacích příležitostech a výsledcích vzdělávání. *Vnitrostátní* rozdíly jsou často přinejmenším stejně velké a někdy i větší, srovnáme-li je s *mezinárodními* rozdíly.
- Regiony s nejvyšším podílem obyvatel s nízkou formální kvalifikací („nejvýše předškolní, základní nebo nižší střední vzdělání“) jsou většinou v jižní Evropě, a zejména v Portugalsku a ve Španělsku. Naopak regiony, kde lidé disponují vyšší kvalifikací, jsou většinou ve Spojeném království a také ve střední a východní Evropě[61].
- Regiony s nejvyšším podílem osob s terciárním vzděláním jsou většinou ve Spojeném království, Belgii a Nizozemsku, ale také v severním Španělsku a na Kypru. Naproti tomu regiony s nejnižším podílem jsou v Itálii, Portugalsku a v zemích EU střední a východní Evropy[62].
- Nejvíce regionů EU „s nejvyšším podílem žáků a studentů na všech úrovních vzdělávání z celkové populace“ je soustředěno v severní a západní části EU, zejména jde o Finsko, Švédsko, ale také Belgii a Irsko. Regiony s nejnižším podílem se nacházejí především na východě Německa, severu Itálie a v jihovýchodní Evropě, ale také v severozápadním Španělsku a v Portugalsku[63].
- Regiony s nejvyšším procentuálním podílem „žáků na základním a nižším stupni středoškolského vzdělávání z celkové populace“ se nacházejí mezi regiony Irska, Portugalska, jižního Španělska, ale také Nizozemska, Dánska a na jihu Švédska. Naproti tomu regiony s nejnižšími podíly jsou v severní Itálii a v jihovýchodní Evropě[64].
- Regiony s nejvyššími „procentuálními podíly žáků a studentů na stupni vyššího středního vzdělání a postsekundárního neterciárního vzdělání z celkové populace ve věku 15–24 let“ jsou především v Itálii, Belgii, Švédsku a Finsku, zatímco většina regionů s nejnižšími podíly jsou v Řecku, Španělsku, Portugalsku, Rumunsku, Bulharsku a ve Francii[65].
- Regiony s nejvyššími podíly obyvatel s „nanejvýš vyšším středním vzděláním a postsekundárním neterciárním vzděláním“ jsou většinou ve střední a východní Evropě, zatímco regiony s nejnižšími podíly jsou většinou v jižní Evropě[66].
- Existují velké regionální rozdíly, pokud jde o účast dospělých na celoživotním vzdělávání v EU. Spojené království, Dánsko, Finsko a Švédsko mají nejvyšší počet regionů s výraznou účastí na celoživotním učení, zatímco většina regionů s velmi nízkou mírou zapojení do celoživotního vzdělávání se nachází v jihovýchodní Evropě[67].
- Existují značné rozdíly v „zeměpisné přístupnosti“ terciárního vzdělávání mezi regiony EU[68]. Regiony s nejlepší „zeměpisnou přístupností“ jsou většinou v Německu, Spojeném království a Nizozemsku. Naproti tomu většina regionů s nejslabší hodnotou ukazatele „zeměpisná dostupnost“ terciárního vzdělávání[69] se nachází v jihovýchodní Evropě, severní části Švédska a Finska, v pobaltských státech, Španělsku, Dánsku a ve Francii.

Regionální rozdíly v rámci členských států EU

- Co se týče rozdílnosti regionů v rámci jednotlivých členských států EU vyjádřené rozdíly mezi nejvyšší a nejnižší regionální hodnotou pro každý posuzovaný ukazatel[70], má nejvyšší regionální rozdíly, pokud jde o ukazatel „procentuální podíl žáků a studentů na všech úrovních vzdělávání z celkové populace“, Rumunsko těsně následované Českou republikou, Belgií a Španělskem. Na opačném konci se s nejnižší hodnotou nachází Irsko (ale všimněme si, že má pouze dva regiony). Zdá se, že Dánsko, Švédsko, Maďarsko a Polsko vykazují také poměrně malé rozdíly mezi nejvyšší a nejnižší regionální hodnotou tohoto ukazatele[71].

[61] Viz tabulky 3.17-3.18 a obrázek 3.9 (s. 83–84).
[62] Viz obrázek 3.11; Tabulky 3.21 a 3.22 (s. 85–86).
[63] Viz obrázek 3.1 a tabulky 3.2 a 3.3 (s. 75).
[64] Viz obrázek 3.3 a tabulky 3.6 a 3.7 (s. 77).
[65] Viz obrázek 3.4 a tabulky 3.8 a 3.9 (s. 78).
[66] Viz obrázek 3.10; Tabulky 3.19 a 3.20 (s. 84–85).
[67] Viz obrázek 3.2 a tabulky 3.4 a 3.5 (s. 76).
[68] Viz obrázek 3.6; Tabulka 3.12 (s.80–81).
[69] Procento celkového obyvatelstva regionu, žijící více než 60 minut od nejbližší vysoké školy.
[70] Posuzované ukazatele viz tabulka 3.1, s. 74.
[71] Viz tabulka 4.45, s. 150.

- Co se týče ukazatele „účast dospělých na celoživotním učení“, zdaleka největší regionální rozdíly má Spojené království, přičemž rozdíl mezi regionem s nejvyšší hodnotou (Vnitřní Londýn, 16,1 %) a regionem s nejnižší hodnotou (Severní Irsko, 5,7 %) činí 10,4 %. Slovensko a Dánsko rovněž vykazují relativně velké rozdíly mezi regiony, pokud jde o tuto proměnnou[72].
- Největší rozdíly mezi svým nejlepším a neslabším regionem vykazuje Belgie, pokud jde o „procentuální podíl žáků a studentů ve vyšším středním a postsekundárním neterciárním vzdělání (ISCED 3–4) z obyvatelstva ve věku 15–24 let“.
- V některých členských státech existují velké rozdíly mezi regiony u ukazatele „procentuální podíl studentů v terciárním vzdělávání z obyvatelstva ve věku 20–24 let“. Největší rozdíl vykazuje Belgie, těsně následována Českou republikou a Rakouskem. Řecko, Itálie a Rumunsko dále mají velké rozdíly u tohoto ukazatele s rozpětím více než 80 % mezi svým nejlepším a nejslabším regionem. Ve většině těchto případů se jedná o výsledek dominantního postavení regionu hlavního města, pokud jde o příležitosti v oblasti terciárního vzdělávání[73].
- Španělsko vykazuje největší rozdíl mezi svým nejlepším a nejslabším regionem, pokud jde o počet lidí žijících více než 60 minut od nejbližší vysoké školy, za ním těsně následují Řecko s Finskem na třetím a Bulharsko na čtvrtém místě.
- Osm členských států EU vykazuje rozdíl více než 15 % mezi svým nejlepším a nejslabším regionem, pokud jde o počet absolventů terciárního vzdělávání v regionu. Spojené království je zemí s největším rozdílem (23,4 %), následují Francie (21,3 %), Belgie (19,4 %), Česká republika (18,7 %), Španělsko (17,5 %), Slovensko (17 %) a Rumunsko (15,4 %). Rozdíl u této proměnné je relativně menší u Irska, Itálie, Slovinska, Portugalska, Finska a Rakouska (všechny méně než 10 %)[74].
- Co se týče počtu lidí s nízkou úrovní vzdělání („nanejvýš předškolní, základní a nižší středoškolské“), ukazuje se, že největší rozdíly mezi svými nejlepšími a nejslabšími regiony má Francie (rozdíl 27,2 %), následují Řecko, Španělsko, Rumunsko a Německo. Naproti tomu zeměmi s nejnižšími rozdíly jsou Slovinsko, Irsko, Slovensko, Rakousko, Finsko[75].

Další klíčová zjištění

- Vnitrostátní průměry často zakrývají nepříznivou situaci na místní a regionální úrovni.
- Regionální rozdíly ve vzdělávání zabraňují vyváženému regionálnímu rozvoji a hospodářskému růstu.
- Regionální rozdíly v úrovni vzdělávání *prohlubují* nerovnost mezi regiony EU. Zvyšují i odliv mozků směrem k rozvinutějším/bohatším regionům.
- Existují značné *odlišnosti* v povaze, rozsahu a dopadech nerovností v oblasti vzdělávání mezi jednotlivými regiony EU. Politická řešení musí být *šita na míru* a nebýt pouze obecná.
- Údaje na subregionální úrovni a na úrovni jednotlivých škol a školních tříd se v současnosti shromažďují v rámci členských států, je však třeba zlepšit koordinaci a poskytnout údaje k dispozici veřejnosti.
- Sestavování zeměpisně rozlišených údajů o nerovnostech ve vzdělávání může být důležitým nástrojem k posílení účasti na místní úrovni a k decentralizaci. Vytvářejí se tak informace *vztahující se k místní úrovni*. To může pomoci školám, komunitním organizacím a orgánům státní správy na všech úrovních, aby se zapojily do plánování a tvorby politiky na základě skutečných poznatků.
- Územní rozdíly, pokud jde o vzdělávací příležitosti a výsledky vzdělávání, odrážejí širší nerovnosti. Samotná opatření v oblasti vzdělávací politiky nepostačují. Politiky, které řeší otázky chudoby a související aspekty znevýhodnění již u jejich kořenů, budou mít při ovlivňování celkové struktury regionálních vzdělávacích nerovností pravděpodobně větší úspěch než čisté zásahy do vzdělávací politiky.

[72] Viz tabulka 4.45, s. 150.
[73] Viz tabulka 4.45, s. 150.
[74] Viz tabulka č. 4.46, s. 150.
[75] Viz tabulka č. 4.46, s. 150.

Resumé

Helt kortfattet: På trods af EU-medlemsstaternes forpligtelser til at fremme lighed på uddannelses-området er der fortsat store geografiske forskelle i uddannelsesmuligheder og -resultater *på tværs af*, men også *inden for* EU's medlemsstater.

Denne rapport tegner et billede af de *intranationale* regionale uligheder med hensyn til uddannelses-muligheder og -resultater i EU. Den har til hensigt at bistå beslutningstagerne i deres bestræbelser på at udforme effektive foranstaltninger til udjævning af disse forskelle. Den indeholder mere end *100 kort*, som bidrager til at synliggøre ulighederne. De **10 bedste** og de **10 dårligste** EU-regioner udpeges for hver af de undersøgte indikatorer. De *vigtigste budskaber* i rapporten er følgende:

Uligheder inden for uddannelse på tværs af EU's regioner

- Der er betydelige uligheder mellem EU's regioner med hensyn til uddannelses-muligheder og -resultater. De *intranationale* forskelle i opnåede resultater er typisk mindst lige så store og ofte endda større end de *internationale* forskelle.
- De regioner, som har det højeste antal personer med ringe formelle kvalifikationer ("hvis højest gennemførte uddannelse er førskole, grundskole til 7. eller til 9./10. klassetrin"), ligger i Sydeuropa og navnlig i Portugal og Spanien. I modsætning hertil ligger de regioner, hvor folk har højere kvalifikationer, hovedsagelig i Det Forenede Kongerige og i Central- og Østeuropa[76].
- Regioner med den højeste andel af personer med en videregående uddannelse ligger hovedsagelig i Det Forenede Kongerige, Belgien og Nederlandene, men også i det nordlige Spanien og i Cypern. I modsætning hertil ligger regioner med den laveste andel af personer med en videregående uddannelse i Italien, Portugal og i den centrale og østlige del af EU[77].
- EU-regioner med den højeste andel af "elever og studerende på alle uddannelsestrin som procentdel af den samlede befolkning" findes i den nordlige og vestlige del af EU, især i Finland og Sverige, men også i Belgien og Irland. Regioner med den tilsvarende laveste andel ligger hovedsagelig i det tidligere Østtyskland, det nordlige Italien og Sydøsteuropa, men også i det nordvestlige Spanien og Portugal[78].
- Regioner med den højeste andel af "elever i folkeskolen som procentdel af den samlede befolkning" findes i Republikken Irland, Portugal, det sydlige Spanien, men også i Nederlandene, Danmark og det sydlige Sverige. I modsætning hertil findes den laveste andel i det nordlige Italien og i Sydøsteuropa[79].
- Regioner med den højeste andel af "elever og studerende ved gymnasiale uddannelser og eftergymnasiale uddannelser, som ikke er en højere uddannelse, som procentdel af befolkningen i alderen 15-24 år" ligger hovedsagelig i Italien, Belgien, Sverige og Finland, mens de fleste regioner med den laveste andel findes i Grækenland, Spanien, Portugal, Rumænien, Bulgarien og Frankrig[80].
- Regioner med den højeste andel af personer, hvis "højest gennemførte uddannelse er en gymnasial uddannelse eller eftergymnasial uddannelse, som ikke er en højere uddannelse", ligger hovedsagelig i Central- og Østeuropa, mens regionerne med den laveste andel hovedsagelig ligger i Sydeuropa[81].
- Der er store regionale forskelle i EU for så vidt angår voksnes deltagelse i livslang læring. Det Forenede Kongerige, Danmark, Finland og Sverige har det højeste antal regioner med høj deltagelse i livslang læring, mens de fleste regioner med lav deltagelse i livslang læring ligger i Sydøsteuropa[82].
- Der er betydelige forskelle mellem EU's regioner for så vidt angår den "geografiske tilgængelighed" til videregående uddannelser[83]. Regioner med den bedste "geografiske tilgængelighed" findes hovedsagelig i Tyskland, Det Forenede Kongerige og Nederlandene. I modsætning hertil ligger regioner med færrest point i vurderingen af "geografisk tilgængelighed" af videregående uddannelser[84] i Sydøsteuropa, det nordlige Sverige og Finland, de baltiske lande, Spanien, Danmark og Frankrig.

Regionale forskelle inden for EU's medlemsstater

- Hvis man ser på de regionale forskelle inden for EU's medlemsstater målt som forskellen mellem de højeste og laveste regionale værdier for hver undersøgt indikator[85], har Rumænien den største regionale ulighed for så vidt angår indikatoren "elever og studerende på alle uddannelsestrin som procentdel af den samlede befolkning", tæt efterfulgt af Tjekkiet, Belgien og Spanien. I den anden ende af skalaen har Republikken Irland den laveste værdi

[76] Jf. tabel 3.17-3.18 og figur 3.9 (s. 83-84).
[77] Jf. figur 3.11, tabel 3.21 og 3.22 (s. 85-86).
[78] Jf. figur 3.1, tabel 3.2 og 3.3 (s. 75).
[79] Jf. figur 3.3, tabel 3.6 og 3.7 (s. 77).
[80] Jf. figur 3.4, tabel 3.8 og 3.9 (s. 78).
[81] Jf. figur 3.10, tabel 3.19 og 3.20 (s. 84-85).
[82] Jf. figur 3.2 og tabel 3.4 og 3.5 (s. 76).
[83] Jf. figur 3.6, tabel 3.12 (s. 80-81).
[84] Procentdel af en regions samlede befolkning, som bor mere end 60 minutter fra det nærmeste universitet.
[85] De undersøgte indikatorer vises i tabel 3.1, s. 74.

(men bemærk, at landet kun har to regioner). Danmark, Sverige, Ungarn og Polen udviser også relativt små forskelle mellem den højeste og laveste regionale værdi for denne indikator[86].

- Hvis man ser på indikatoren "voksnes deltagelse i livslang læring", har Det Forenede Kongerige langt den største regionale ulighed, idet forskellen mellem regionen med den højeste værdi (det indre London, 16,1 %) og regionen med den laveste værdi (Nordirland, 5,7 %) er 10,4 %. Slovakiet og Danmark har også rimelig store regionale forskelle for så vidt angår denne indikator[87].
- Belgien udviser størst forskel mellem regionerne med det højeste og laveste niveau for så vidt angår "elever og studerende ved gymnasiale uddannelser og eftergymnasiale uddannelser, som ikke er en højere uddannelse (ISCED 3-4), som procentdel af befolkningen i alderen 15-24 år".
- I nogle medlemsstater er der stor forskel mellem regionerne for så vidt angår indikatoren "studerende ved videregående uddannelser som procentdel af befolkningen i alderen 20-24 år". Belgien udviser den største forskel, tæt efterfulgt af Tjekkiet og Østrig. Grækenland, Italien og Rumænien udviser ligeledes en stor spredning for så vidt angår denne indikator med over 80 % mellem regionerne med det højeste og det laveste niveau. I de fleste af de nævnte tilfælde skyldes dette hovedstadsregionens dominerende stilling med hensyn til udbuddet af videregående uddannelser[88].
- Spanien udviser størst forskel mellem regioner med det højeste og laveste niveau for så vidt angår befolkning, som bor mere end 60 minutter fra det nærmeste universitet, tæt efterfulgt af Grækenland på andenpladsen, Finland på tredjepladsen og Bulgarien på fjerdepladsen.
- Otte EU-medlemsstater udviser en forskel på mere end 15 % mellem regionerne med det højeste og laveste niveau for så vidt angår antallet af personer med en videregående uddannelse i en region. Det Forenede Kongerige udviser den største forskel (23,4 %), herefter følger Frankrig (21,3 %), Belgien (19,4 %), Tjekkiet (18,7 %), Spanien (17,5 %), Slovakiet (17 %) og Rumænien (15,4 %). Forskellen for så vidt angår denne indikator er noget mindre i Irland, Italien, Slovenien, Portugal, Finland og Østrig (for alles vedkommende under 10 %)[89].
- Hvis man ser på antallet af personer med ringe uddannelsesmæssige kvalifikationer ("hvis højest gennemførte uddannelse er førskole eller folkeskole"), udviser Frankrig den største forskel mellem regionerne med det højeste og laveste niveau (forskel på 27,2 %), efterfulgt af Grækenland, Spanien, Rumænien og Tyskland. I den anden ende af skalaen udviser Slovenien, Irland, Slovakiet, Østrig og Finland den mindste forskel[90].

Andre vigtige budskaber

- Det nationale gennemsnit dækker ofte over ubehagelige lokale og regionale omstændigheder.
- Regionale forskelle på uddannelsesområdet forhindrer ensartet regional udvikling og økonomisk vækst.
- Regionale forskelle på uddannelsesområdet *forstørrer* uligheden mellem EU's regioner. De bidrager også til hjerneflugt i retning af mere udviklede og rigere regioner.
- Der er betydelige *variationer* i arten, omfanget og virkningerne af de uddannelsesmæssige uligheder på tværs af EU's regioner. Politiske løsningsmodeller skal specifikt *tilpasses til* disse forhold, og ikke blot være generelle.
- Der indsamles for øjeblikket oplysninger om de subregionale niveauer og de enkelte skoler og klasser i medlemsstaterne, men der er behov for en bedre koordinering heraf og for, at disse oplysninger bliver gjort offentligt tilgængelige.
- Samling af geografisk spredte oplysninger om uligheder på uddannelsesområdet kan fungere som et vigtigt redskab til lokal myndiggørelse og decentralisering. Herved fremskaffes *oplysninger med lokal relevans*. Disse oplysninger kan bidrage til at inddrage skoler, lokalsamfundsorganisationer og myndigheder på alle planer i evidensbaseret planlægning og politik.
- De rumlige forskelle med hensyn til uddannelsesmuligheder og -resultater afspejler mere vidtrækkende uligheder. Uddannelses-politiske foranstaltninger kan ikke stå alene. Politiske tiltag, som sikrer en varig løsning på fattigdomsproblemer og hertil knyttede ulemper, vil sandsynligvis være mere effektive med hensyn til udjævning af de overordnede regionale uligheder på uddannelsesområdet, hvis de rækker ud over rent uddannelsespolitiske indgreb.

[86] Jf. tabel 4.45, s. 150.
[87] Jf. tabel 4.45, s. 150.
[88] Jf. tabel 4.45, s. 150.
[89] Jf. tabel 4.46, s. 150.
[90] Jf. tabel 4.46, s. 150.

Resumen

En síntesis: A pesar de los compromisos de los Estados miembros de la UE por promover la igualdad en educación y formación, todavía existen importantes diferencias geográficas en las oportunidades y los resultados educativos, *entre* y también *dentro de* los Estados miembros de la UE.

Este informe presenta un panorama de las desigualdades regionales *intranacionales* que existen en las oportunidades y los resultados educativos en la UE. Su objetivo es colaborar con los responsables políticos en su esfuerzo por elaborar medidas eficaces que corrijan dichas desigualdades. Contiene más de *cien mapas* que ayudan a visualizar las desigualdades y localiza las *diez primeras* y las *diez últimas* regiones de la UE para cada uno de los indicadores que estudia. Sus *mensajes clave* son:

Desigualdades educativas entre las regiones de la UE

- Existen desigualdades considerables en las oportunidades y resultados educativos entre las regiones de la UE. Las diferencias *intranacionales* en el rendimiento son frecuentemente y como mínimo tan amplias como las diferencias *internacionales*, llegando en ocasiones a superarlas.
- Las regiones con las tasas más altas de individuos con bajas cualificaciones formales («en la mayoría de los casos educación infantil, primaria y secundaria obligatoria») se encuentran fundamentalmente en el sur de Europa, especialmente en Portugal y España. Por el contrario, las regiones en las que están más cualificados se encuentran fundamentalmente en el Reino Unido, así como en Europa central y oriental[91].
- Las regiones con las tasas más altas de individuos con una cualificación de educación superior se encuentran fundamentalmente en el Reino Unido, Bélgica y los Países Bajos, pero también en el norte de España y en Chipre. Por el contrario, las regiones con las tasas más bajas se encuentran en Italia, Portugal y en la UE central y oriental[92].
- Las regiones de la UE con las tasas más altas de «alumnos y estudiantes de todos los niveles de educación como porcentaje del total de la población» están concentradas en la zona norte y oeste de la UE, especialmente en Finlandia y Suecia, pero también en Bélgica e Irlanda. Las regiones con las tasas más bajas se encuentran en su mayoría en el este de Alemania, el norte de Italia y el sureste de Europa, pero también en el noroeste de España y Portugal[93].
- Las regiones con las tasas más altas de «alumnos en educación primaria y secundaria obligatoria como porcentaje de la población total» se observan en regiones de la República de Irlanda, Portugal y en el sur de España, pero también en los Países Bajos, Dinamarca y Suecia Meridional. Por el contrario, las tasas más bajas se observan en el norte de Italia y en el sureste de Europa[94].
- Las regiones con las tasas más altas de «alumnos y estudiantes en Bachillerato y ciclos formativos de grado superior como porcentaje de la población con edades comprendidas entre quince y veinticuatro años» se encuentran fundamentalmente en Italia, Bélgica, Suecia y Finlandia, mientras que la mayoría de las regiones con las tasas más bajas están en Grecia, España, Portugal, Rumanía, Bulgaria y Francia[95].
- Las regiones con las tasas más altas de individuos con «como máximo Bachillerato y ciclos formativos de grado superior » se encuentran fundamentalmente en Europa central y oriental. Por lo que se refiere a las regiones con las tasas más bajas, éstas están localizadas, en su mayoría, en el sur de Europa[96].
- Existen grandes desigualdades regionales en lo que respecta a la participación de adultos en aprendizaje permanente en la UE. El Reino Unido, Dinamarca, Finlandia y Suecia tienen el mayor número de regiones en las que existe una gran participación en aprendizaje permanente, mientras que la mayoría de las regiones con tasas muy bajas de participación en aprendizaje permanente se encuentran en el sureste de Europa[97].
- Existen diferencias significativas con respecto al «accesibilidad geográfica» a la educación superior en las distintas regiones de la UE[98]. Las regiones con mejor «accesibilidad geográfica» se encuentran, en la mayoría de los casos, en Alemania, el Reino Unido y los Países Bajos, mientras que, la mayoría de las regiones con peores resultados en la «accesibilidad geográfica» a la educación superior[99] están en el sureste de Europa, el norte de Suecia y Finlandia, los países bálticos, España, Dinamarca y Francia.

Desigualdades regionales dentro de los Estados miembros de la UE

- Observando las desigualdades regionales que se producen dentro de cada Estado miembro de la UE calculadas mediante la diferencia entre los valores regionales máximos y mínimos para cada indicador estudiado[100], Rumanía tiene la desigualdad regional

[91] Véanse las tablas 3.17 y 3.18 y la figura 3.9 (pp.83-84).
[92] Véase la figura 3.11; las tablas 3.21 y 3.22 (pp.85-86).
[93] Véanse la figura 3.1 y las tablas 3.2 y 3.3 (p.75).
[94] Véanse la figura 3.3 y las tablas 3.6 y 3.7 (p.77).
[95] Véanse la figura 3.4 y las tablas 3,8 y 3.9 (p.78).
[96] Véase la figura 3.10; Las tablas 3.19 y 3.20 (pp.84-85).
[97] Véanse la figura 3.12 y las tablas 3.4 y 3.5 (p.76).
[98] Véase la figura 3.6; Tabla 3.12 (pp.80-81).
[99] El % de la población total de una región que vive a más de 60 minutos de la universidad más cercana.
[100] Los indicadores examinados aparecen en la tabla 3.1, p.74.

más alta con respecto al indicador «alumnos y estudiantes de todos los niveles de educación como porcentaje de la población total», seguida de cerca por la República Checa, Bélgica y España. En el extremo opuesto, la República de Irlanda tiene el valor más bajo (pero considérese que solo tiene dos regiones). Dinamarca, Suecia, Hungría y Polonia también parecen contar con diferencias relativamente pequeñas entre los valores máximos y mínimos regionales para este indicador[101].

- Si observamos el indicador «participación de adultos en el aprendizaje permanente», el Reino Unido tiene, con mucho, la mayor desigualdad regional, con una diferencia entre la región con el valor más alto (Londres-Centro, 16,1 %) y la región con el valor más bajo (Irlanda del Norte, 5,7 %) del 10,4 %. Eslovaquia y Dinamarca también tienen desigualdades regionales relativamente amplias en lo que a esta variable se refiere[102].
- Bélgica tiene la mayor diferencia entre su región con el valor más alto y su región con el valor más bajo con respecto a «alumnos y estudiantes en Bachillerato y ciclos formativos de grado superior (niveles 3 y 4 de la CINE) como porcentaje de la población con edad comprendida entre los quince y los veinticuatro años».
- En algunos de los Estados miembros, existen grandes diferencias entre sus regiones respecto al indicador «estudiantes de educación superior como porcentaje de la población con edad comprendida entre los veinte y los veinticuatro años». Bélgica tiene la mayor desigualdad, seguida de cerca por la República Checa y Austria. Además, Grecia, Italia y Rumanía tienen grandes desigualdades para este indicador con una diferencia que supera el 80% entre su región más alta y más baja. En la mayoría de estos casos, esto se debe al predominio de la región de la capital en lo que respecta a las oportunidades para la educación superior[103].
- España tiene la mayor desigualdad entre su región con un valor más alto y su región con un valor más bajo en lo que respecta al número de personas que viven a más de sesenta minutos de la universidad más cercana, seguida de cerca por Grecia, con Finlandia y Bulgaria en tercera y cuarta posición, respectivamente.
- Ocho Estados miembros de la UE tienen una diferencia que supera en 15 puntos el porcentaje entre su región con el valor más alto y su región con el valor más bajo en lo que respecta al número de graduados en educación superior en una región. El Reino Unido es el país con la mayor desigualdad (23,4 %), seguido por Francia (21,3 %), Bélgica (19,4 %), la República Checa (18,7 %), España (17,5 %), Eslovaquia (17%) y Rumanía (15,4 %). La desigualdad en esta variable es relativamente inferior en Irlanda, Italia, Eslovenia, Portugal, Finlandia y Austria (en todos ellos por debajo del 10 %)[104].
- Si observamos el número de personas con bajas cualificaciones educativas (con cualificaciones «a lo sumo, de infantil, primaria y secundaria obligatoria»), Francia tiene la mayor desigualdad entre su región con el valor más alto y su región con el valor más bajo (diferencia del 27,2 %), seguida por Grecia, España, Rumanía y Alemania. En cambio, los países con menor desigualdad son Eslovenia, Irlanda, Eslovaquia, Austria y Finlandia[105].

Otros mensajes clave

- Las medias nacionales esconden, a menudo, desagradables realidades locales y regionales.
- Las desigualdades regionales en el aprendizaje dificultan el desarrollo regional equilibrado y el crecimiento económico.
- Las desigualdades regionales en educación *agravan* la desigualdad entre las regiones de la UE. También alimentan la fuga de cerebros hacia las regiones más desarrolladas y más ricas.
- Existe una considerable *variedad* en la naturaleza, escala y efectos de las desigualdades educativas en las regiones de la UE. Las soluciones políticas deben estar, pues, hechas *a medida* y no ser genéricas.
- Actualmente, los Estados miembros están recabando datos a nivel subregional y a nivel de centros educativos y clases, pero es necesaria una mejor coordinación, así como que estos datos estén disponibles y sean de dominio público.
- Compilar datos desglosados geográficamente sobre desigualdad educativa puede ser una importante herramienta que favorezca el aumento de los poderes locales y la descentralización. Además, genera *información localmente relevante* y puede ayudar a que los centros educativos las organizaciones y los gobiernos a todos los niveles se comprometan en el desarrollo de políticas y planes basadas en datos reales.
- Las desigualdades espaciales en oportunidades y resultados educativos ponen de manifiesto desigualdades todavía mayores. Por sí solas, las medidas políticas en educación no son suficientes. Es posible que las políticas que abordan las causas de la pobreza y de los aspectos relacionados sean más eficaces que las intervenciones políticas puramente educativas a la hora de influir en las pautas generales de la desigualdad educativa regional.

[101] Véase la tabla 4.45, p. 150.
[102] Véase la tabla 4.45, p. 150.
[103] Véase la tabla 4.45, p. 150.
[104] Véase la tabla 4.46, p. 150.
[105] Véase la tabla 4.46, p. 150.

Περίληψη

Συνοπτικά: Παρά τις δεσμεύσεις των κρατών μελών της ΕΕ να προωθήσουν την ισότητα στον τομέα της εκπαίδευσης και της κατάρτισης, σημαντικές γεωγραφικές ανισότητες εξακολουθούν να υφίστανται *μεταξύ* αλλά και ***εντός*** των κρατών μελών της Ευρωπαϊκής Ενωσης (ΕΕ) όσον αφορά τις εκπαιδευτικές ευκαιρίες και τα εκπαιδευτικά αποτελέσματα.

Η παρούσα έκθεση σκιαγραφεί τις ανισότητες σε εκπαιδευτικές ευκαιρίες και αποτελέσματα μεταξύ περιφερειών εντός των κρατών μελών. Στόχος της έκθεσης είναι να υποστηρίξει τους υπεύθυνους για τη χάραξη πολιτικής στις προσπάθειές τους για τον σχεδιασμό αποτελεσματικών μέτρων για την εξάλειψη αυτών των διαφορών. Η έκθεση περιέχει περισσότερους από *100 χάρτες* στους οποίους παρουσιάζονται γραφικά οι ανισότητες αυτές. Η έκθεση προσδιορίζει τις περιφέρειες της ΕΕ με τις ***10 καλύτερες*** και τις ***10 χειρότερες*** επιδόσεις για καθέναν από τους δείκτες που εξετάζει. Τα βασικά μηνύματά της είναι τα εξής:

Εκπαιδευτικές ανισότητες μεταξύ των περιφερειών της Ευρωπαϊκής Ενωσης

- Παρατηρούνται σημαντικές ανισότητες όσον αφορά τις εκπαιδευτικές ευκαρίες και τα εκπαιδευτικά αποτελέσματα μεταξύ των περιφερειών της ΕΕ. Οι διαφορές μεταξύ περιφερειών *εντός* του ίδιου κράτους μέλους είναι συχνά το ίδιο μεγάλες , ή και μεγαλύτερες, από τις διαφορές μεταξύ των κρατών μελών.
- Οι περιφέρειες που εμφανίζουν τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά ατόμων με χαμηλούς τίτλους σπουδών (το ανώτερο τίτλους πρωτοβάθμιας ή κατώτερης δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης) βρίσκονται κυρίως στη νότια Ευρώπη, και ειδικότερα στην Πορτογαλία και την Ισπανία. Αντιθέτως, οι περιφέρειες στις οποίες τα άτομα έχουν υψηλότερους τίτλους σπουδών εντοπίζονται κυρίως στο Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο καθώς και στην κεντρική και ανατολική Ευρώπη[106].
- Οι περιφέρειες με τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά ατόμων με τίτλους τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης βρίσκονται κυρίως στο Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο, το Βέλγιο και τις Κάτω Χώρες, αλλά και στη βόρεια Ισπανία και την Κύπρο. Αντίθετα, οι περιφέρειες με τα χαμηλότερα ποσοστά βρίσκονται στην Ιταλία, την Πορτογαλία και την κεντρική και ανατολική ΕΕ[107].
- Οι περιφέρειες της ΕΕ με τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά «μαθητών και φοιτητών σε όλα τα επίπεδα της εκπαίδευσης ως ποσοστό του συνολικού πληθυσμού» εντοπίζονται στη βόρεια και δυτική ΕΕ, ειδικότερα στη Φινλανδία, τη Σουηδία αλλά και στο Βέλγιο και την Ιρλανδία. Οι περιφέρειες με τα χαμηλότερα ποσοστά βρίσκονται κυρίως στην ανατολική Γερμανία, τη βόρεια Ιταλία και τη νοτιοδυτική Ισπανία και την Πορτογαλία[108].
- Οι περιφέρειες με τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά «μαθητών στην πρωτοβάθμια και την κατώτερη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση ως ποσοστό του συνολικού πληθυσμού» βρίσκονται στην Ιρλανδία, την Πορτογαλία, τη νότια Ισπανία, αλλά και στις Κάτω Χώρες, τη Δανία και τη νότια Σουηδία. Αντίθετα, τα χαμηλότερα ποσοστά παρατηρούνται στη βόρεια Ιταλία και την νοτιοανατολική Ευρώπη[109].
- Οι περιφέρειες με τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά «μαθητών και φοιτητών στην ανώτερη δευτεροβάθμια και τη μεταδευτεροβάθμια μη τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση ως ποσοστό του πληθυσμού ηλικίας 15-24 ετών» βρίσκονται κυρίως στην Ιταλία, το Βέλγιο, τη Σουηδία και τη Φινλανδία, ενώ οι περισσότερες από τις περιφέρειες με τα χαμηλότερα ποσοστά βρίσκονται στην Ελλάδα, την Ισπανία, την Πορτογαλία, τη Ρουμανία, τη Βουλγαρία και τη Γαλλία[110].
- Οι περιφέρειες με τα υψηλότερα ποσοστά ατόμων «με τίτλο ανώτατης δευτεροβάθμιας ή μεταδευτεροβάθμιας μη τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης» βρίσκονται κυρίως στην κεντρική και ανατολική Ευρώπη, ενώ οι περιφέρειες με τα χαμηλότερα ποσοστά βρίσκονται κυρίως στη νότια Ευρώπη[111].
- Υπάρχουν μεγάλες περιφερειακές διαφορές στη συμμετοχή των ενηλίκων στη διά βίου μάθηση στην ΕΕ. Το Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο, η Δανία, η Φινλανδία και η Σουηδία έχουν τους μεγαλύτερους αριθμούς περιφερειών με υψηλή συμμετοχή στη διά βίου μάθηση, ενώ οι περισσότερες από τις περιφέρειες με πολύ χαμηλά ποσοστά συμμετοχής στη διά βίου μάθηση βρίσκονται στη νοτιοανατολική Ευρώπη[112].
- Υπάρχουν σημαντικές διαφορές στη «γεωγραφική προσβασιμότητα» στην τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση μεταξύ των περιφερειών της ΕΕ[113]. Οι περιφέρειες με την καλύτερη «γεωγραφική προσβασιμότητα» βρίσκονται κυρίως στη Γερμανία, το Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο και τις Κάτω Χώρες. Αντιθέτως, οι περισσότερες από τις περιφέρειες με τις χαμηλότερες επιδόσεις όσον αφορά τη «γεωγραφική προσβασιμότητα» στην τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση[114] βρίσκονται στη νοτιοανατολική Ευρώπη, τη βόρεια Σουηδία και τη Φινλανδία, στα κράτη της Βαλτικής, την Ισπανία, τη Δανία και τη Γαλλία.

Περιφερειακές ανισότητες <u>εντός</u> των κρατών μελών της ΕΕ

- Όσον αφορά τις περιφερειακές διαφορές που παρατηρούνται εντός κάθε κράτους μέλους της ΕΕ, υπολογιζόμενες με βάση τη διαφορά μεταξύ των μέγιστων και των ελάχιστων περιφερειακών τιμών

[106] Βλ. π ίνακες 3.17-3.18 και εικόνα 3.9 (σ. 83-84).
[107] Βλ. εικόνα 3.11· πίνακες 3.21 και 3.22 (σ.85-86).
[108] Βλ. εικόνα 3.1 και πίνακες 3.2 και 3.3 (σ. 75).
[109] Βλ. εικόνα 3.3 και πίνακες 3.6 και 3.7 (σ. 77).
[110] Βλ. εικόνα 3.4 και πίνακες 3.8 και 3.9 (σ. 78).
[111] Βλ. εικόνα 3.10· πίνακες 3.19 και 3.20 (σ. 84-85).
[112] Βλ. εικόνα 3.2 και πίνακες 3.4 και 3.5 (σ.76).
[113] Βλ. εικόνα 3.6· πίνακα 3.12 (σ.80-81).
[114] Το % του συνολικού πληθυσμού μιας περιφέρειας που διαμένει σε απόσταση μεγαλύτερη από 60 λεπτά από το πλησιέστερο πανεπιστήμιο.

για κάθε εξεταζόμενο δείκτη[115], η Ρουμανία εμφανίζει το μεγαλύτερο χάσμα μεταξύ περιφερειών όσον αφορά τον δείκτη «μαθητές και φοιτητές σε όλα τα επίπεδα της εκπαίδευσης ως % του συνολικού πληθυσμού», ενώ ακολουθούν η Τσεχία, το Βέλγιο και η Ισπανία. Από την άλλη, η Ιρλανδία παρουσιάζει τη χαμηλότερη τιμή (αλλά επισημαίνεται ότι έχει μόνον δύο περιφέρειες). Η Δανία, η Σουηδία, η Ουγγαρία και η Πολωνία επίσης φαίνονται να εμφανίζουν σχετικά μικρές διαφορές μεταξύ της περιφερειακής μέγιστης και ελάχιστης τιμής για τον εν λόγω δείκτη[116].

- Όσον αφορά τον δείκτη «συμμετοχή των ενηλίκων στη διά βίου μάθηση», το Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο εμφανίζει τη μεγαλύτερη περιφερειακή ανισότητα, με τη διαφορά μεταξύ της περιφέρειας με τη μέγιστη τιμή (Inner London, 16,1%) και της περιφέρειας με την ελάχιστη τιμή (Βόρεια Ιρλανδία, 5,7%) να ανέρχεται στο 10,4%. Η Σλοβακία και η Δανία παρουσιάζουν επίσης σχετικά μεγάλες διαφορές μεταξύ των περιφερειών όσον αφορά τη μεταβλητή αυτή[117].
- Το Βέλγιο παρουσιάζει τη μεγαλύτερη διαφορά μεταξύ των περιφερειών του με την καλύτερη και τη χειρότερη επίδοση όσον αφορά τους «μαθητές και φοιτητές στην ανώτατη δευτεροβάθμια και μεταδευτεροβάθμια μη τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση (ISCED 3-4) ως ποσοστό του πληθυσμού ηλικίας 15-24 ετών».
- Σε ορισμένα κράτη μέλη υπάρχουν μεγάλες διαφορές μεταξύ των περιφερειών όσον αφορά τον δείκτη "φοιτητές στην τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση ως ποσοστό του πληθυσμού ηλικίας 20-24 ετών". Το Βέλγιο παρουσιάζει τη μεγαλύτερη διαφορά, ενώ δεν απέχουν πολύ η Τσεχία και η Αυστρία. Επιπλέον, η Ελλάδα, η Ιταλία και η Ρουμανία εμφανίζουν όλες μεγάλες διαφορές ως προς τον δείκτη αυτό με άνοιγμα της ψαλίδας που υπερβαίνει το 80% μεταξύ των περιφερειών τους με την καλύτερη και τη χειρότερη επίδοση. Στις περισσότερες περιπτώσεις, αυτό οφείλεται στην κυρίαρχη θέση της περιφέρειας της πρωτεύουσας όσον αφορά τις ευκαιρίες τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης[118].
- Η Ισπανία εμφανίζει το μεγαλύτερο χάσμα μεταξύ των περιφερειών της με την καλύτερη και τη χειρότερη επίδοση όσον αφορά τον αριθμό των ατόμων που διαμένουν σε περιοχή που απέχει περισσότερο από 60 λεπτά από το πλησιέστερο πανεπιστήμιο. Ακολουθεί η Ελλάδα, ενώ στην τρίτη και την τέταρτη θέση βρίσκονται η Φινλανδία και η Βουλγαρία αντίστοιχα.
- Οκτώ κράτη μέλη της ΕΕ εμφανίζουν διαφορά άνω του 15% μεταξύ των περιφερειών με την καλύτερη και τη χειρότερη επίδοση όσον αφορά τον αριθμό των αποφοίτων τριτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης που υπάρχουν σε μια περιφέρεια. Το Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο είναι η χώρα με τη μεγαλύτερη διαφορά (23,4%) και ακολουθούν η Γαλλία (21,3%), το Βέλγιο (19,4%), η Τσεχία (18,7%), η Ισπανία (17,5%), η Σλοβακία (17%) και η Ρουμανία (15,4%). Η διαφορά ως προς τη μεταβλητή αυτή είναι σχετικά μικρότερη στην Ιρλανδία, την Ιταλία, τη Σλοβενία, την Πορτογαλία, τη Φινλανδία και την Αυστρία (σε όλες κάτω από 10%)[119].
- Όσον αφορά τον αριθμό των ατόμων με χαμηλούς εκπαιδευτικούς τίτλους (με «τίτλους το ανώτερο πρωτοβάθμιας ή κατώτερης δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης»), η Γαλλία εμφανίζει τη μεγαλύτερη διαφορά μεταξύ των περιφερειών με την καλύτερη και τη χειρότερη επίδοση (διαφορά 27,2%) και ακολουθούν η Ελλάδα, η Ισπανία, η Ρουμανία και η Γερμανία. Αντίθετα, οι χώρες με τη μικρότερη διαφορά είναι η Σλοβενία, η Ιρλανδία, η Σλοβακία, η Αυστρία και η Φινλανδία[120].

Άλλα βασικά μηνύματα

- Οι εθνικοί μέσοι όροι συχνά κρύβουν δυσάρεστες τοπικές και περιφερειακές πραγματικότητες.
- Οι περιφερειακές ανισότητες στη μάθηση εμποδίζουν την ισόρροπη περιφερειακή και οικονομική ανάπτυξη.
- Οι περιφερειακές ανισότητες στην εκπαίδευση *επιτείνουν* την ανισότητα μεταξύ των περιφερειών της ΕΕ. Αποτελούν επίσης αιτία για διαρροή εγκεφάλων προς πιο ανεπτυγμένες/πλουσιότερες περιφέρειες.
- Υπάρχει σημαντική *διακύμανση* ως προς τη φύση, την κλίμακα και τα αποτελέσματα των εκπαιδευτικών ανισοτήτων μεταξύ των περιφερειών της ΕΕ. Οι πολιτικές πρέπει να *είναι ειδικά σχεδιασμένες* και όχι γενικού χαρακτήρα.
- Επί του παρόντος συλλέγονται στα κράτη μέλη στοιχεία σε υπο-περιφερειακό επίπεδο και σε επίπεδο μεμονωμένων σχολείων και τάξεων, αλλά χρειάζεται καλύτερος συντονισμός και η δημοσιοποίηση των στοιχείων αυτών.
- Η συλλογή χωριστών δεδομένων για κάθε γεωγραφική περιοχή σχετικά με την εκπαιδευτική ανισότητα είναι σημαντικό εργαλείο για την ενδυνάμωση των επιμέρους περιοχών και την αποκέντρωση, ενώ παράλληλα παράγει στοιχεία *σημαντικά σε τοπικό επίπεδο*. Μπορεί να βοηθήσει τα σχολεία, τους κοινοτικούς οργανισμούς και την κυβέρνηση σε όλα τα επίπεδα να προβούν σε τεκμηριωμένο σχεδιασμό και χάραξη πολιτικής.
- Οι γεωγραφικές ανισότητες στις εκπαιδευτικές ευκαιρίες και τα εκπαιδευτικά αποτελέσματα αντανακλούν ευρύτερες ανισότητες. Τα μέτρα της εκπαιδευτικής πολιτικής από μόνα τους δεν αρκούν. Οι πολιτικές για την αντιμετώπιση φτώχειας καθώς και σχετικών προβλημάτων στη ρίζα τους είναι πιθανό να είναι περισσότερο αποτελεσματικές από τις παρεμβάσεις της αμιγώς εκπαιδευτικής πολιτικής στην καταπολέμηση της περιφερειακής εκπαιδευτικής ανισότητας.

[115] Οι δείκτες που εξετάζονται εμφανίζονται στον πίνακα 3.1, σ. 74.
[116] Βλ. πίνακα 4.45, σ. 150.
[117] Βλ. πίνακα 4.45, σ. 150.
[118] Βλ. πίνακα 4.45, σ. 150.
[119] Βλ. πίνακα 4.46, σ. 150.
[120] Βλ. πίνακα 4.46, σ. 150.

Kokkuvõte

Vaatamata sellele, et liikmesriigid on võtnud kohustuse edendada võrdseid võimalusi hariduses ja koolituses, on haridusvõimalused ja -tulemused oma geograafilise jaotumise poolest jätkuvalt ebavõrdsed nii ELi liikmesriikide vahel kui ka *riigisiseselt*.

Käesolev aruanne annab ülevaate ELi *riigisisestest* piirkondlikest ebavõrdsetest haridusvõimalustest ja -tulemustest. Aruande eesmärk on toetada poliitikakujundajate jõupingutusi luua tõhusad meetmed piirkondlike erinevuste vähendamiseks. Aruanne sisaldab üle *100 kaardi*, mis aitavad ebavõrdsustest pilti luua ning teeb iga näitaja puhul kindlaks *10 parimate* ja *10 halvimate tulemustega* piirkonda. Aruande *põhisõnumid* on järgmised.

ELi piirkondade haridusalane ebavõrdsus

- ELi piirkonnad on haridusvõimaluste ja -tulemuste poolest märkimisväärselt ebavõrdsed. *Riigisisesed* erinevused saavutustes on sageli vähemalt sama suured kui *riikidevahelised* erinevused ning tihti suuremadki.
- Kõige rohkem elab madala ametliku kvalifikatsiooniga inimesi (kes on „parimal juhul omandanud alus-, esimese taseme või teise taseme hariduse alumise astme") Lõuna-Euroopas, eriti Portugalis ja Hispaanias. Seevastu nii Ühendkuningriigi kui ka Euroopa kesk- ja idaosa piirkondades elavatel inimestel on kõrgem kvalifikatsioon.[121]
- Kõige rohkem kolmanda taseme haridusega isikuid elab põhiliselt Ühendkuningriigi, Belgia ja Madalmaade, kuid ka Põhja-Hispaania ja Küprose piirkondades. Seevastu kõige vähem elab kolmanda taseme hariduse omandanuid Itaalia, Portugali ning ELi kesk- ja idaosa piirkondades[122].
- Kõige suurem "kõikidel haridustasemetel õppivate õpilaste ja üliõpilaste osakaal liikmesriigi kogurahvastikust" on koondunud ELi põhja- ja lääneossa, eriti Soome, Rootsi, kuid ka Belgiasse ja Iirimaale. Kõige väiksem on osakaal enamjaolt Saksamaa idaosas, Põhja-Itaalias ja Euroopa kaguosas, kuid ka Loode-Hispaanias ja Portugalis[123].
- Kõige suurem on "esimese taseme haridust ja teise taseme alumist astet omandavate õpilaste osakaal liikmesriigi kogurahvastikust" Iiri Vabariigi piirkondades, Portugalis, Lõuna-Hispaanias, kuid ka Madalmaades, Taanis ja Lõuna-Rootsis. Seevastu Põhja-Itaalias ja Euroopa kaguosas on osakaal väikseim[124].
- Kõige suurem on „teise taseme hariduse ülemist astet ning teise taseme järgset, kolmanda taseme eelset haridust omandavate õpilaste ja üliõpilaste osakaal liikmesriigi 15.–24. aastastest elanikest" Itaalias, Belgias, Rootsis ja Soomes, seevastu Kreeka, Hispaania, Portugali, Rumeenia, Bulgaaria ja Prantsusmaa piirkondades on see näitaja madalaim.[125].
- Kõige rohkem „parimal juhul teise taseme hariduse ülemise astme ning teise taseme järgse, kolmanda taseme eelse hariduse" omandanutest elab Kesk- ja Ida-Euroopas, kõige vähem aga Lõuna-Euroopas[126].
- Täiskasvanute elukestvas õppes osalemise määr on piirkonniti väga erinev. Ühendkuningriigi, Taani, Soome ja Rootsi piirkondades osaletakse elukestvas õppes kõige rohkem, Euroopa kaguosas aga kõige vähem.[127]
- Geograafiline juurdepääsetavus kolmanda taseme haridusele on ELis piirkonniti märkimisväärselt erinev.[128] Parima "geograafilise juurdepääse-tavusega piirkonnad asuvad Saksamaal, Ühendkuningriigis ja Madalmaades. Seevastu Kagu-Euroopa, Põhja-Rootsi ja -Soome, Balti riikide, Hispaania, Taani ja Prantsusmaa piirkondades on "geograafiline juurdepääsetavus" kolmanda taseme haridusele halvim.[129]

ELi liikmesriikide <u>sisesed</u> piirkondlikud erinevused

- Kui mõõta iga ELi liikmesriigi sisest ebavõrdsust iga vaadeldava näitaja puhul suurima ja väikseima piirkondliku väärtuse vahega[130], on Rumeenias piirkondlik erinevus suurim näitaja „kõikidel haridustasemetel õppivate õpilaste ja üliõpilaste osakaal liikmesriigi kogurahvastikust" osas, järgnevad Tšehhi Vabariik, Belgia ja Hispaania. Skaala teise otsa jäävas Iiri Vabariigis on väärtus väikseim (kuid pange tähele, et Iirimaal on vaid kaks piirkonda). Paistab, et ka Taanis, Rootsis, Ungaris ja Poolas ei erine selle näitaja osas piirkonna suurim ja väikseim väärtus palju.
- Näitajast „täiskasvanute osalemine elukestvas õppes" ilmneb, et Ühendkuningriigis on piirkondlik erinevus vaieldamatult suurim, erinevus kõrgeima

[121] Vt tabelid 3.17-3.18 ja joonis 3.9 (lk 83-84).
[122] Vt joonis 3.11; tabelid 3.21 ja 3.22 (lk 85-86).
[123] Vt joonis 3.1 ja tabelid 3.2 ja 3.3 (lk 75).
[124] Vt joonis 3.3 ja tabelid 3.6 ja 3.7 (lk 77)
[125] Vt joonis 3.4 ja tabelid 3.8 ja 3.9 (lk 78).
Vt joonis 3.10; Tabelid 3.19 ja 3.20 (lk 84-85).
[127] Vt joonis 3.2 ja tabelid 3.4 ja 3.5 (lk 76).
Vt joonis 3.6; tabel 3.12 (lk 80-81).
[129] Lähimast ülikoolist üle 60 minuti tee kaugusel elavate inimeste osakaal piirkonna kogurahvastikust.
[130] Vaadeldavad näitajad on esitatud tabelis 3.1, lk 74.

(Inner London, 16,1 %) ja madalaima väärtusega piirkonna (Põhja-Iirimaa, 5,7 %) vahel ulatub 10,4 %-ni. Ka Slovakkia ja Taani piirkondades on erinevus selle muutuja osas suur.[131]

- Näitaja „teise taseme ülemise astme haridust või teise taseme järgset, kolmanda taseme eelset haridust (ISCED 3–4) omandavate õpilaste ja üliõpilaste osakaal 15.–24. aastastest elanikest" osas erinevad parimate ja halvimate tulemustega piirkonnad kõige rohkem Belgias.
- Mõne liikmesriigi piirkonnad erinevad palju näitaja „kolmanda taseme haridust omandavate üliõpilaste osakaal 20.–24. aasta vanusest rahvastikust" osas. Erinevus on suurim Belgias, millele järgnevad tihedalt Tšehhi Vabariik ja Austria. Lisaks on selle näitaja osas suur erinevus ka Kreekas, Itaalias ja Rumeenias, kus erinevus parimate ja halvimate tulemustega piirkondade vahel ulatub 80 %-ni. Enamasti põhjustab suurt vahet see, et pealinna piirkonnas on kõige paremad võimalused kolmanda taseme hariduse omandamiseks.[132]
- Erinevus parimate ja halvimate tulemustega piirkondade vahel selles osas, kui palju inimesi elab lähimast ülikoolist üle 60 minuti tee kaugusel, on suurim Hispaanias talle järgneb tihedalt Kreeka, kolmas on Soome ning neljas Bulgaaria.
- Kaheksas ELi liikmesriigis erinevad parimate ja halvimate tulemustega piirkonnad kolmanda taseme hariduse omandanute arvu osas üle 15 %. Erinevus on suurim Ühendkuningriigis (23,4 %), järgnevad Prantsusmaa (21,3 %), Belgia (19,4 %), Tšehhi Vabariik (18,7 %), Hispaania (17,5 %), Slovakkia (17 %) ja Rumeenia (15,4 %). Selle näitaja osas on piirkondade vaheline erinevus suhteliselt väike Iirimaal, Itaalias, Sloveenias, Portugalis, Soomes ja Austrias (kõigis alla 10 %).[133]
- Madala haridustasemega inimeste (kes on „parimal juhul omandanud alus-, esimese taseme või teise taseme hariduse alumise astme") arvu osas on erinevus parimate ja halvimate tulemustega piirkondade vahel kõige suurem Prantsusmaal (27,2 %), järgnevad Kreeka, Hispaania, Rumeenia ja Saksamaa. Erinevus on aga väiksem Sloveenias, Iirimaal, Slovakkias, Austrias ja Soomes.[134]

Muud põhisõnumid

- Riigi keskmine kätkeb endas tihti ebameeldivaid kohalikke ja piirkondlikke olusid.
- Piirkondlikud erinevused õpivaldkonnas pidurdavad piirkondlikku arengut ja majanduskasvu.
- Piirkondlikud erinevused haridusvaldkonnas *süvendavad* ELi piirkondade vahelist ebavõrdsust. Samuti hoogustab see ajude äravoolu arenenumatesse/rikkamatesse piirkondadesse.
- Haridusalase ebavõrdsuse olemus, ulatus ja mõju *varieeruvad* ELi piirkondade lõikes silmatorkavalt. Üldiste lahenduste asemel peavad poliitilised lahendused lähtuma konkreetsetest oludest.
- Liikmesriikides kogutakse praegu andmeid allpiirkondlikul ning üksikute koolide ja klasside tasandil, kuid tegevust oleks vaja paremini koordineerida ning andmed avalikustada.
- Haridusalase ebavõrdsuse kohta geograafiliselt liigendatud andmete kogumisest võiks kasu olla kohaliku mõjuvõimu suurendamisel ja detsentraliseerimisel. Sel viisil kogutud teave on *oluline kohalikul tasandil*. Andmed võivad koolidele, kogukondlikele organisatsioonidele ja kõikide tasandite valitsusasutustele tõenduspõhisel planeerimisel ja poliitika väljatöötamisel toeks olla.
- Piirkondlikud erinevused haridusvõimalustes ja -tulemustes viitavad laiemale ebavõrdsusele. Ainult hariduspoliitika meetmetest ei piisa. Üldiseid piirkondlikke haridusalaseid tavasid mõjutab üksnes haridust käsitleva poliitika asemel tõenäoliselt paremini poliitika, millega võideldakse vaesuse ja sellega seotud ebasoodsa olukorraga juba nende tekkimise ajal.

Vt tabel 4.45, lk 150.
Vt tabel 4.45, lk 150.
Vt tabel 4.46, lk 150.
Vt tabel 4.46, lk 150.

Tiivistelmä

Asia pähkinänkuoressa: Vaikka EU:n jäsenvaltiot ovat sitoutuneet edistämään koulutuksen tasapuolisuutta, koulutusmahdollisuuksien ja oppimistulosten välillä on vielä suuria maantieteellisiä eroja paitsi jäsenvaltioiden *välillä* myös niiden *sisällä*.

Tässä raportissa tarkastellaan *kansallisten* alueiden koulutusmahdollisuuksien ja tulosten eriarvoisuutta EU:ssa. Sen tavoitteena on tukea päätöksentekijöiden pyrkimyksiä suunnitella tehokkaita toimenpiteitä näiden erojen korjaamiseksi. Raportti sisältää yli 100 karttaa, jotka havainnollistavat eriarvoisuuksia. Siinä määritetään 10 parhaiten ja 10 huonoiten sijoittunutta EU-aluetta kunkin tutkitun indikaattorin osalta. *Tärkeimmät havainnot* ovat:

Koulutuksen eriarvoisuus EU:n alueilla

- EU:n alueiden väliset erot koulutusmahdollisuuksien ja oppimistulosten osalta ovat huomattavat. Oppimistulosten erot *kansallisessa* vertailussa ovat usein vähintään yhtä suuret kuin *kansainvälisessä* vertailussa esiin tulevat erot.
- Eniten sellaisia ihmisiä, joilla on vain perusasteen koulutus ("enintään esiasteen, alemman perusasteen tai ylemmän perusasteen koulutus"), on Etelä-Euroopan ja erityisesti Portugalin ja Espanjan alueilla. Sen sijaan alueet, joilla ihmisillä on korkeampi koulutus, sijaitsevat useimmiten Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa sekä Keski- ja Itä-Euroopassa[135].
- Alueet, joilla on eniten korkea-asteen koulutuksen saaneita ihmisiä sijaitsevat lähinnä Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa, Belgiassa ja Alankomaissa sekä Pohjois-Espanjassa ja Kyproksella. Sen sijaan alueet, joilla on vähiten korkea-asteen koulutuksen saaneita ihmisiä, sijaitsevat Italiassa, Portugalissa ja EU:n keski- ja itäosissa[136].
- Alueet, joilla on eniten "oppilaita ja opiskelijoita kaikilla koulutustasoilla suhteessa kokonaisväestöön" sijaitsevat lähinnä EU:n pohjois- ja länsiosissa, erityisesti Suomessa ja Ruotsissa sekä Belgiassa ja Irlannissa. Alueet, joilla on vähiten oppilaita ja opiskelijoita kaikilla koulutustasolla suhteessa kokonaisväestöön, sijaitsevat pääasiassa Saksan itäosassa, Pohjois-Italiassa ja Kaakkois-Euroopassa sekä Luoteis-Espanjassa ja Portugalissa[137].
- Eniten "oppilaita alemman perusasteen ja ylemmän perusasteen koulutuksessa suhteessa kokonaisväestöön" on Irlannin, Portugalin ja Etelä-Espanjan alueilla sekä Alankomaiden, Tanskan ja Etelä-Ruotsin alueilla. Vähiten oppilaita perusasteen koulutuksessa suhteessa kokonaisväestöön on sen sijaan Pohjois-Italiassa ja Kaakkois-Euroopassa[138].
- Alueet, joilla on eniten "oppilaita ja opiskelijoita keskiasteen koulutuksessa ja keskiasteen jälkeisessä koulutuksessa, joka ei ole korkea-asteen koulutusta, prosenttiosuutena 15–24-vuotiaista", sijaitsevat lähinnä Italiassa, Belgiassa, Ruotsissa ja Suomessa, kun taas suurin osa alueista, joilla osuudet ovat alhaisimmat, sijaitsevat Kreikassa, Espanjassa, Portugalissa, Romaniassa, Bulgariassa ja Ranskassa[139].
- Eniten ihmisiä, joilla on "enintään keskiasteen koulutus tai keskiasteen jälkeinen koulutus, joka ei ole korkea-asteen koulutusta", on lähinnä Keski- ja Itä-Euroopan alueilla, kun taas alueet, joilla määrät ovat alhaisimmat, sijaitsevat useimmiten Etelä-Euroopassa[140].
- Alueelliset erot aikuisten osallistumisessa elinikäiseen oppimiseen ovat EU:ssa suuret. Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa, Tanskassa, Suomessa ja Ruotsissa on eniten alueita, joilla osallistuminen elinikäiseen oppimiseen on aktiivista, kun taas useimmat alueet, joilla osallistuminen elinikäiseen oppimiseen on hyvin vähäistä, sijaitsevat Kaakkois-Euroopassa[141].
- Korkea-asteen koulutuksen maantieteellisessä saavutettavuudessa on suuria eroja EU:n eri alueiden välillä[142]. Alueet, joilla maantieteellinen saavutettavuus on parhainta, sijaitsevat pääasiassa Saksassa, Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa ja Alankomaissa. Sen sijaan useimmat alueet, joilla korkea-asteen koulutuksen maantieteellinen saavutettavuus[143] on heikointa, sijaitsevat Kaakkois-Euroopassa, Pohjois-Ruotsissa, Pohjois-Suomessa, Baltian maissa, Espanjassa, Tanskassa ja Ranskassa.

Alueelliset erot EU:n jäsenvaltioiden sisällä

- Kun tarkastellaan alueellisia eroja kunkin EU:n jäsenvaltion sisällä (mitattuna suurimpien ja pienimpien alueellisten arvojen välisinä eroina kunkin tutkitun indikaattorin[144] osalta), käy ilmi

[135] Ks. taulukot 3.17–3.18 ja kuvio 3.9 (s. 83–84).
[136] Ks. kuvio 3.11 ja taulukot 3.21 ja 3.22 (s.85–86).
[137] Ks. kuvio 3.1 ja taulukot 3.2 ja 3.3 (s. 75).
[138] Ks. kuvio 3.3 ja taulukot 3.6 ja 3.7 (s. 77).
[139] Ks. kuvio 3.4 ja taulukot 3.8 ja 3.9 (s. 78).
[140] Ks. kuvio 3.10 ja taulukot 3.19 ja 3.20 (s. 84–85).
[141] Ks. kuvio 3.2 ja taulukot 3.4 ja 3.5 (s.76).
[142] Ks. kuvio 3.6 ja taulukko 3.12 (s.80–81).
[143] Prosenttiosuus alueen kokonaisväestöstä, joka asuu yli 60 minuutin matkan päässä lähimmästä yliopistosta.
[144] Tutkitut indikaattorit esitetään taulukossa 3.1, s. 74.

että indikaattorin "oppilaita ja opiskelijoita kaikilla koulutustasoilla suhteessa kokonaisväestöön" alueelliset erot ovat suurimmat Romaniassa. Heti perässä tulevat Tšekki, Belgia ja Espanja. Toisaalta pienin arvo mitattiin Irlannissa (jossa alueita on tosin vain kaksi). Myös Tanskassa, Ruotsissa, Unkarissa ja Puolassa kyseisen indikaattorin suurimman ja pienimmän arvon väliset erot vaikuttavat suhteellisen vähäisiltä[145].

- Indikaattorin "aikuisten osallistuminen elinikäiseen oppimiseen" osalta alueelliset erot ovat selvästi suurimmat Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa, jossa suurimman (Inner London, 16,4 %) ja pienimmän (Pohjois-Irlanti, 5,7 %) arvon välinen ero on 10,4 %. Myös Slovakiassa ja Tanskassa alueelliset erot ovat suhteellisen suuria tämän muuttujan osalta[146].
- Indikaattorin “oppilaita ja opiskelijoita keskiasteen koulutuksessa ja keskiasteen jälkeisessä koulutuksessa, joka ei ole korkea-asteen koulutusta, (ISCED 3–4) prosenttiosuutena 15–24-vuotiaista” osalta ero alueiden suurimman ja pienimmän arvon välillä on suurin Belgiassa.
- Joissakin jäsenvaltioissa alueiden väliset erot ovat suuret indikaattorissa ”opiskelijoita korkea-asteen koulutuksessa, prosenttiosuutena 15–24-vuotiaista”. Ero on suurin Belgiassa, ja heti sen jälkeen tulevat Tšekki ja Itävalta. Ero on suuri tämän indikaattorin osalta myös Kreikassa, Italiassa ja Romaniassa, joissa haarukka alueiden parhaimman ja heikoimman arvon välillä on yli 80 %. Useimmissa tapauksissa tämä johtuu siitä, että maan pääkaupunkiseutu on hallitsevassa asemassa korkea-asteen koulutuksen mahdollisuuksien osalta[147].
- Espanjassa on suurin ero alueiden suurimman ja pienimmän arvon välillä sen suhteen, kuinka monta ihmistä asuu yli 60 minuutin matkan päässä lähimmästä yliopistosta, ja sen perässä tulee heti Kreikka Suomen ollessa kolmannella ja Bulgarian neljännellä sijalla.
- Kahdeksassa EU:n jäsenvaltiossa on yli 15 prosentin ero niiden alueiden välillä, joilla asuu eniten ja vähiten korkeakoulututkinnon suorittaneita. Ero on suurin Yhdistyneessä kuningaskunnassa (23,4 %), ja sen jälkeen tulevat Ranska (21,3 %), Belgia (19,4 %), Tšekki (18,7 %), Espanja (17,5 %), Slovakia (17 %) ja Romania (15,4 %). Ero tämän muuttujan osalta on suhteellisen vähäinen Irlannissa, Italiassa, Sloveniassa, Portugalissa, Suomessa ja Itävallassa (kaikissa alle 10 %)[148].
- Kun tarkastellaan niiden ihmisten määrää, joilla on vain perusasteen koulutus ("enintään esiasteen, alemman perusasteen tai ylemmän perusasteen koulutus"), alueiden suurimman ja pienimmän arvon välinen ero on suurin Ranskassa (27,2 %), ja sen jälkeen Kreikassa, Espanjassa, Romaniassa ja Saksassa. Sen sijaan ero on pienin Sloveniassa, Irlannissa, Slovakiassa, Itävallassa ja Suomessa[149].

Muut keskeiset havainnot

- Kansalliset keskiarvot kätkevät usein ikäviä paikallisia ja alueellisia tosiasioita.
- Oppimisen alueelliset erot ovat tasapainoisen alueellisen kehityksen ja talouskasvun esteenä.
- Koulutuksen alueelliset erot vahvistavat EU:n alueiden eriarvoisuutta. Erot myös edesauttavat osaamisen siirtymistä (aivovientiä) kehittyneemmille ja rikkaammille alueille.
- Koulutuksen eriarvoisuuden luonne, mittakaava ja vaikutukset ovat hyvin erilaisia eri EU:n alueilla. Siksi ratkaisumallit on sovitettava kutakin aluetta varten sen sijaan, että ne olisivat yleisiä.
- Jäsenvaltiot keräävät tällä hetkellä tietoja aluetasoa alemmalta tasolta sekä yksittäisten koulujen ja luokkahuoneiden tasolta, mutta toimintaa on koordinoitava paremmin ja tiedot on asetettava julkisesti saataville.
- Koulutuksen eriarvoisuutta koskevien maantieteellisesti eriteltyjen tietojen kerääminen voi olla tärkeä väline paikallisten vaikutusmahdollisuuksien lisäämiseksi ja hallinnon hajauttamiseksi. Siten saadaan *paikallisesti hyödynnettävissä olevia tietoja*. Tiedot voivat auttaa kouluja, yhteisöjen elimiä ja kaikkia hallintotasoja sitoutumaan näyttöön perustuvaan suunnitteluun ja päätöksentekoon.
- Koulutusmahdollisuuksien alueelliset erot ja oppimistulokset antavat viitteitä myös laajemmasta eriarvoisuudesta. Koulutuspolitiikan toimenpiteet yksin eivät riitä. Toimintatavat, joilla puututaan köyhyyteen ja huono-osaisuuteen liittyviin näkökohtiin syvemmällä tasolla, vaikuttavat alueellisiin koulutusrakenteisiin todennäköisesti paremmin kuin puhtaasti koulutuspoliittiset toimet.

[145] Ks. taulukko 4.45, s. 150.
[146] Ks. taulukko 4.45, s. 150.
[147] Ks. taulukko 4.45, s. 150.
[148] Ks. taulukko 4.46, s. 150.
[149] Ks. taulukko 4.46, s. 150.

Összefoglaló

Röviden: Annak ellenére, hogy az uniós tagállamok elkötelezték magukat amellett, hogy az oktatásban és a képzésben előmozdítják a méltányosságot, továbbra is nagy földrajzi egyenlőtlenségek mutathatók ki az oktatási lehetőségek és a tanulási eredmények terén mind a tagállamok *között*, mind *azokon belül*.

A jelentés felvázolja az oktatási lehetőségek és a tanulási eredmények terén a egyes uniós *tagállamokon belül* a régiók között fennálló egyenlőtlenségeket. Célja, hogy támogassa a politikai döntéshozókat arra irányuló erőfeszítéseikben, hogy e különbségek kiküszöbölése érdekében hatékony intézkedéseket hozzanak. A jelentés több mint *100 térképet* tartalmaz, melyek vizuálisan is megjelenítik e különbségeket. A térképek bemutatják, hogy az egyes vizsgált mutatókat tekintve mely uniós régiók tartoznak a *tíz legmagasabb*, illetve *legalacsonyabb értéket mutató* régió közé. A jelentés *legfontosabb üzenetei* a következők:

Oktatási egyenlőtlenségek az EU régióiban

- Az uniós régiók között jelentős egyenlőtlenségek mutathatók ki az oktatási lehetőségek és a tanulási eredmények terén. A tagállamokon *belüli* teljesítménybeli különbségek gyakran legalább olyan nagyok – sőt, időnként nagyobbak –, mint a tagállamok *közöttiek*.
- Azok a régiók, ahol az alacsony formális képzettséggel rendelkezők (legfeljebb iskola előtti nevelésben részesülő, az általános iskola alsó vagy felső tagozatát befejező személyek) aránya a legmagasabb, elsősorban a dél-európai – különösen a portugáliai és spanyolországi – régiók közül kerülnek ki. Ezzel szemben főként az Egyesült Királyság, valamint Közép- és Kelet-Európa egyes régióira jellemző a magasabb képzettséggel rendelkezők nagyobb aránya[150].
- A felsőfokú végzettséggel rendelkezők aránya jellemzően az Egyesült Királyság, Belgium, Hollandia egyes régióiban, valamint Észak-Spanyolországban és Cipruson a legmagasabb. Ezzel szemben ez az arány egyes olaszországi, portugáliai, valamint közép- és kelet-európai régiókban a legalacsonyabb[151].
- Az EU északi és nyugati tagállamaiban – elsősorban Finnországban, Svédországban, valamint Belgiumban és Dániában – koncentrálódnak azok a régiók, ahol a teljes lakosságra kivetítve a legmagasabb a tanulók és hallgatók aránya az oktatás valamennyi szintjén. Ez az arány többnyire Kelet-Németország, Észak-Olaszország és Délkelet-Európa, valamint Délnyugat-Spanyolország és Portugália egyes régióiban a legalacsonyabb[152].
- A teljes lakosságra kivetítve az általános iskola alsó vagy felső tagozatán tanulók aránya az Ír Köztársaság, Portugália, Dél-Spanyolország, Hollandia, Dánia és Dél-Svédország egyes régióiban a legmagasabb. Ezzel szemben a legalacsonyabb arány Észak-Olaszországban és Délkelet-Európában figyelhető meg[153].
- A középfokú oktatásban és a nem felsőfokú posztszekunder képzésben részt vevő tanulók aránya a 15-24 évesekre vetítve főként Olaszország, Belgium, Svédország és Finnország egyes régióiban a legmagasabb, míg Görögország, Spanyolország, Portugália, Románia, Bulgária és Franciaország egyes régióiban a legalacsonyabb[154].
- A legfeljebb középfokú oktatásban és a nem felsőfokú posztszekunder képzésben képesítést szerző személyek aránya többnyire közép-és kelet-európai régiókban a legmagasabb, míg a legalacsonyabb arány elsősorban dél-európai régiókban mutatható ki[155].
- Az egész életen át tartó tanulásban részt vevő felnőttek arányát tekintve az EU-n belül jelentős regionális különbségek mutathatók ki. A legtöbb régió, ahol az egész életen át tartó tanulásban való részvétel kiemelkedően magas, az Egyesült Királyságban, Dániában, Finnországban és Svédországban (található), míg a legtöbb olyan régió, ahol az egész életen át tartó tanulásban részt vevők aránya kifejezetten alacsony, Délkelet-Európában van[156].
- Az uniós régiók között jelentős különbségek adódnak a felsőoktatás földrajzi elérhetősége terén[157]. Elsősorban Németországban, az Egyesült Királyságban és Hollandiában találhatók a legkedvezőbb földrajzi elérhetőséggel rendelkező régiók. Ezzel szemben a felsőoktatáshoz való földrajzi hozzáférhetőség terén a legrosszabb eredményekkel rendelkező régiók többsége[158] Délkelet-Európában, Svédország és Finnország északi részein, a balti államokban, Spanyolországban, Dániában és Franciaországban található.

Regionális különbségek az uniós tagállamokon belül

- Ha megvizsgáljuk az egyes tagállamokon belüli, az egyes vizsgált mutatók legnagyobb és legkisebb regionális értékei közötti különbség szerint mért regionális egyenlőtlenségeket[159], a teljes lakosságra

[150] Lásd: 3.17-3.18. táblázat és 3.9. ábra (83–84. oldal).
[151] Lásd: 3.11. ábra; 3.21. és 3.22. táblázat (85–86. oldal).
[152] Lásd: 3.1. ábra, valamint 3.2. és 3.3. táblázat (75. oldal).
[153] Lásd: 3.3. ábra, valamint 3.6. és 3.7. táblázat (77. oldal).
[154] Lásd: 3.4. ábra, valamint 3.8. és 3.9. táblázat (78. oldal).
[155] Lásd: 3.10. ábra; 3.19. és 3.20. táblázat (84–85. o.).
[156] Lásd 3.2. ábra, 3.4. és 3.5. táblázat (76. o.).
[157] Lásd: 3.6. ábra; 3.12. táblázat (80–81. o.).
[158] Az adott régió összlakosságának az a hányada, amely a legközelebbi egyetemtől több mint hatvan percre lakik.
[159] A vizsgált mutatókat a 3.1. táblázat mutatja (74. o.).

kivetítve Romániában a legnagyobbak a regionális különbségek a tanulók és hallgatók arányában az oktatás valamennyi szintjén; ezeket az adatokat szorosan követik a Cseh Köztársaságra, Belgiumra és Spanyolországra vonatkozó értékek. Ugyanakkor ez az eltérés az Ír Köztársaság esetében a legkisebb (figyelembe kell venni ugyanakkor, hogy az ország mindössze két régióból áll). E mutatót tekintve Dánia, Svédország, Magyarország és Lengyelország esetében szintén viszonylag alacsony az eltérés a regionális felső és alsó értékek között[160].

- Az egész életen át tartó tanulásban részt vevő felnőttek arányát tekintve az Egyesült Királyság mutatói tanúskodnak messze a legnagyobb regionális különbségekről: 10,4% az eltérés a legmagasabb (Belső-London, 16,1%) és legalacsonyabb (Észak-Írország, 5,7%) értéket mutató régiók között. E változót tekintve Szlovákiában és Dániában szintén viszonylag nagy regionális különbségek mutathatók ki[161].
- A középfokú oktatásban és a nem felsőfokú posztszekunder képzésben részt vevő tanulóknak a 15-24 évesekre vetített arányát tekintve a legmagasabb és legalacsonyabb értéket mutató régiók közötti különbség Belgiumban a legnagyobb.
- Egyes tagállamokban a felsőfokú oktatásban részt vevő tanulóknak a 15-24 évesekre vetített arányát tekintve mutathatók ki jelentős regionális eltérések. Belgiumban a legszélesebb a szakadék, majd szorosan következik a Cseh Köztársaság és Ausztria. Görögország, Olaszország és Románia adatai szintén számottevő különbségekről tanúskodnak: a mutatót tekintve a legmagasabb és legalacsonyabb arányt elérő régiók között 80% az eltérés. A legtöbb esetben ez az eredmény annak tulajdonítható, hogy a felsőoktatási lehetőségek elsősorban a fővárosi régióban összpontosulnak[162].
- A legközelebbi egyetemtől több mint 60 percre élők számát tekintve Spanyolországban a legnagyobbak a regionális különbségek; Görögország szoros eredménnyel a második, Finnország a harmadik és Bulgária a negyedik e téren.
- Az egyes régiókban felsőfokú képzettséggel rendelkezők arányát tekintve nyolc tagállamban haladja meg a 15%-ot a két szélső regionális érték közötti különbség. A legnagyobb különbséget az Egyesült Királyságban mérték (23,4%), ezt követi Franciaország (21,3%), Belgium (19,4%), a Cseh Köztársaság (18,7%), Spanyolország (17,5%), Szlovákia (17%) és Románia (15,4%). E változót tekintve viszonylag kisebb az eltérés Írországban, Olaszországban, Szlovéniában, Portugáliában, Finnországban és Ausztriában (valamennyi országban 10% alatti)[163].
- Az alacsony képzettséggel rendelkezők (legfeljebb iskola előtti nevelésben részesülő, az általános iskola alsó vagy felső tagozatát befejező személyek) számát tekintve Franciaországban a legnagyobbak a regionális különbségek (27,2% a két szélső érték között), majd Görögország, Spanyolország, Románia és Németország következik. Ezzel szemben Szlovéniában, Írországban, Szlovákiában, Ausztriában és Finnországban a legkisebb a különbség e téren[164].

Egyéb fő üzenetek

- A nemzeti átlagok gyakran kedvezőtlen helyi és regionális adatokat takarnak.
- Az oktatásban jelentkező regionális egyenlőtlenségek akadályozzák a kiegyensúlyozott regionális fejlődést és a gazdasági növekedést.
- Az oktatásban jelentkező regionális különbségek *fokozzák* az EU régiói közötti egyenlőtlenségeket. Emellett hozzájárulnak a fejlettebb/gazdagabb régiókba irányuló agyelszíváshoz is.
- Az uniós régiók között jelentős *különbségek* vannak az oktatási egyenlőtlenségek jellege, mértéke és hatásai között. Általános szakpolitikai megoldások helyett az egyes helyzetekre szabott megoldásra kell törekedni.
- Az alregionális szintű, valamint az egyes iskolákra és osztályokra vonatkozó adatok gyűjtése jelenleg zajlik a tagállamokban, de hatékonyabb koordinációra van szükség, illetve arra, hogy ennek érdekében az adatok hozzáférhetők legyenek a nyilvánosság számára.
- Az oktatásbeli egyenlőtlenségekre vonatkozó, földrajzi bontásban szereplő adatok összeállítása fontos eszköz lehet a helyi felelősségteremtés és a decentralizáció számára, *helyi szinten fontos információkat* nyújt, továbbá segíthet az iskoláknak, a közösségi szervezeteknek és a kormányzásnak (minden szinten) abban, hogy bizonyítékokon alapuló tervezést és szakpolitikákat alkalmazzanak.
- Az oktatási lehetőségek és a tanulási eredmények területi egyenlőtlenségei szélesebb értelemben vett egyenlőtlenségeket tükröznek. Az oktatáspolitikai intézkedések önmagukban nem elégségesek. Az oktatásban mutatkozó regionális egyenlőtlenségek enyhítésében nagy valószínűséggel sikeresebbek lennének a szegénységet és a hátrányos helyzet ezzel összefüggő tényezőit a probléma gyökerénél kezelő szakpolitikák, mint a kizárólag oktatáspolitikai fellépések.

[160] Lásd: 4.45. táblázat (150. o.).
[161] Lásd: 4.45. táblázat (150. o.).
[162] Lásd: 4.45. táblázat (150. o.).
[163] Lásd: 4.46. táblázat (150. o.).
[164] Lásd: 4.46. táblázat (150. o.).

Sommario

In sintesi: Nonostante gli sforzi compiuti dagli Stati membri dell'UE per creare condizioni di maggiore equità in materia d'istruzione e formazione, persistono forti disparità educative su base geografica nelle opportunità e nei risultati, non solo *tra* Stati ma anche *al loro interno*.

Questa relazione traccia un quadro delle disuguaglianze educative regionali all'interno dei singoli paesi . L'obiettivo è di contribuire alla definizione di misure efficaci per correggere queste disparità. La relazione include più di *100 mappe* che aiutano a visualizzare le disuguaglianze e identifica le *prime e le ultime dieci regioni* dell'UE in relazione a ciascuno degli indicatori esaminati. I *messaggi chiave* sono i seguenti:

Le diseguaglianze educative fra le regioni dell'UE

- Esistono notevoli disuguaglianze tra le regioni dell'UE nelle opportunità e nei risultati nel campo dell'istruzione. Le differenze *intra*nazionali nei risultati conseguiti sono spesso almeno uguali, se non maggiori, rispetto alle differenze *inter*nazionali.
- Le regioni con i tassi più elevati di persone con qualifiche formali di livello inferiore ("istruzione prescolastica, istruzione primaria o secondaria inferiore") sono per lo più nell'Europa meridionale e in particolare in Spagna e Portogallo. Quelle in cui le persone hanno qualifiche di livello più elevato si trovano invece soprattutto nel Regno Unito e nell'Europa centrale e orientale[165].
- Le regioni con i tassi più elevati di persone con un titolo d'istruzione terziaria sono soprattutto nel Regno Unito, in Belgio e nei Paesi Bassi, ma anche nel nord della Spagna e a Cipro. Quelle con i tassi più bassi si trovano invece in Italia, in Portogallo e nell'Europa centrale e orientale[166].
- Le regioni dell'UE con i tassi più elevati di "alunni e studenti a tutti i livelli di istruzione in percentuale della popolazione totale" sono concentrate nelle aree settentrionali e occidentali dell'UE, in particolare in Finlandia e Svezia ma anche in Belgio e Irlanda. Le regioni con i tassi più bassi si trovano principalmente nell'est della Germania, nel nord dell'Italia, nell'Europa sudorientale, ma anche nel nordovest della Spagna e in Portogallo[167].
- Le regioni con i tassi più elevati di "alunni delle scuole primarie e secondarie inferiori in percentuale della popolazione totale" sono nella Repubblica di Irlanda, in Portogallo, nel sud della Spagna, ma anche nei Paesi Bassi, in Danimarca e nel sud della Svezia. I tassi più bassi si osservano invece nel nord dell'Italia e nell'Europa sudorientale[168].
- Le regioni con i tassi più elevati di "alunni e studenti dell'istruzione secondaria superiore e post-secondaria non universitaria in percentuale della popolazione di età compresa tra i 15 e i 24 anni" sono in Italia, Belgio, Svezia e Finlandia, mentre le regioni con i tassi più bassi sono in Grecia, Spagna, Portogallo, Romania, Bulgaria e Francia[169].
- Le regioni con i tassi più elevati di persone con "istruzione secondaria superiore e istruzione post-secondaria non universitaria" sono soprattutto nell'Europa centrale e orientale, mentre le regioni con i tassi più bassi sono concentrate nell'Europa meridionale[170].
- Nell'UE vi sono notevoli disparità regionali nella partecipazione degli adulti all'apprendimento permanente. Regno Unito, Danimarca, Finlandia e Svezia hanno il maggior numero di regioni con una forte partecipazione, mentre le regioni con un tasso di partecipazione molto basso si concentrano nell'Europa sudorientale[171].
- "L'accessibilità geografica" all'istruzione terziaria presenta notevoli differenze tra le regioni dell'UE[172]. Le regioni con la migliore accessibilità geografica sono soprattutto in Germania, nel Regno Unito e nei Paesi Bassi, quelle con la peggiore accessibilità geografica all'istruzione terziaria[173] sono nell'Europa sudoccidentale, nel nord della Svezia e della Finlandia, nei paesi baltici, in Spagna, Danimarca e Francia.

Disparità regionali all'interno degli Stati membri dell'UE

- Se si considerano le disparità regionali all'interno di ciascuno Stato membro dell'UE, misurate dalla differenza tra valori regionali massimo e minimo di ciascun indicatore[174], la maggiore disuguaglianza regionale per quanto riguarda l'indicatore "alunni e studenti a tutti i livelli di istruzione in percentuale della popolazione totale" si registra in Romania,

[165] Cfr. tabelle 3.17-3.18 e figura 3.9 (pagg. 83-84).
[166] Cfr. figura 3.10; Tabelle 3.21 e 3.22 (pp.85-86).
[167] Cfr. figura 3.1 e tabelle 3.2 e 3.3 (pag. 75).
[168] Cfr figura 3.3 e tabelle 3.6 e 3.7 (p. 77)
[169] Cfr. figura 3.4 e tabelle 3.8 e 3.9 (pag. 78).
[170] Cfr. figura 3.10; Tabelle 3.19 e 3.20 (pagg. 84-85).
[171] Cfr. figura 3.2 e tabelle 3.4 e 3.5 (pag. 76).
[172] Cfr. figura 3.6; Tabella 3.12 (pagg. 80-81).
[173] La percentuale del totale della popolazione di una regione che vive a più di 60 minuti dalla più vicina università.
[174] Gli indicatori esaminati figurano nella tabella 3.1, pag. 74.

seguita da vicino dalla Repubblica ceca, dal Belgio e dalla Spagna. La Repubblica di Irlanda ha invece il valore minimo (ma le regioni sono solo due). Anche in Danimarca, Svezia, Ungheria e Polonia le differenze tra il valore regionale massimo e minimo per questo indicatore[175] sono relativamente piccole.

- Per l'indicatore "partecipazione degli adulti all'apprendimento permanente" la disparità maggiore si nota nel Regno Unito, con una differenza del 10,4% tra la regione con il valore più elevato (Inner London, 16,1%) e la regione con il valore più basso (Irlanda del Nord, 5,7%). Anche in Slovacchia e Danimarca le disparità regionali per questa variabile sono relativamente forti[176].
- Il divario maggiore tra le regioni per l'indicatore "alunni e studenti dell'istruzione secondaria superiore e post-secondaria non universitaria (ISCED 3-4) in percentuale della popolazione di età compresa tra i 15 e i 24 anni" si registra in Belgio.
- In alcuni Stati membri vi sono grandi differenze tra le regioni per l'indicatore "studenti dell'istruzione terziaria in percentuale della popolazione dai 20 ai 24 anni". Lo scarto più elevato si registra in Belgio, seguito da vicino da Repubblica ceca e Austria. Questo indicatore mostra ampi scarti anche in Grecia, Italia e Romania, tutte con un divario superiore all'80% tra la regione con i valori più alti e quella con i valori più bassi. Nella maggior parte dei casi questa è una conseguenza della posizione dominante della regione della capitale in termini di offerta di istruzione terziaria[177].
- La Spagna ha lo scarto maggiore tra le regioni con i valori massimi e minimi per l'indicatore relativo al numero di persone che vivono a più di 60 minuti di distanza dalla più vicina università; segue da vicino la Grecia, poi la Bulgaria (terza) e la Finlandia (quarta).
- In otto Stati membri dell'UE si registra una differenza superiore al 15% tra la regione con il numero più alto e quella con il numero più basso di diplomati dell'istruzione terziaria. Il Regno Unito è il paese con lo scarto più ampio (23,4%), seguito da Francia (21,3%), Belgio (19,4%), Repubblica ceca (18,7%), Spagna (17,5%), Slovacchia (17%) e Romania (15,4%). Lo scarto per questa variabile è relativamente minore in Irlanda, Italia, Slovenia, Portogallo, Finlandia e Austria (dove è inferiore al 10%)[178].
- Per quanto riguarda il numero di persone con un basso livello d'istruzione (con "al massimo titoli di istruzione prescolastica, primaria e secondaria inferiore"), la Francia è il paese con il divario maggiore (27,2%) tra la regione con il valore più alto e quella con il valore più basso; seguono Grecia, Spagna, Romania e Germania. I paesi con i divari minori sono invece Slovenia, Irlanda, Slovacchia, Austria e Finlandia[179].

Altri messaggi chiave

- Le medie nazionali spesso nascondono spiacevoli realtà locali e regionali.
- Le disparità regionali ostacolano lo sviluppo regionale equilibrato e la crescita economica.
- Le disparità regionali nel campo dell'istruzione *aggravano* la disuguaglianza tra le regioni dell'UE e alimentano la fuga dei cervelli verso le regioni più sviluppate e più ricche.
- Vi è una notevole *variabilità* nella natura, nella portata e nelle conseguenze delle disuguaglianze scolastiche tra le regioni dell'UE. Le politiche da adottare devono tener conto di questa diversità di situazioni.
- I dati a livello subregionale e a livello delle singole scuole e classi sono attualmente rilevati dagli Stati membri, è tuttavia necessario un migliore coordinamento e tali dati vanno resi di pubblico dominio.
- I dati sulle disuguaglianze educative disaggregati dal punto di vista geografico possono essere uno strumento importante per il rafforzamento dei poteri locali e la decentralizzazione. Queste informazioni sono *significative a livello locale* e possono aiutare le scuole, le collettività e tutti i livelli di governo a impegnarsi nella pianificazione e nelle politiche basate su dati di fatto.
- Le disparità territoriali nelle opportunità e nei risultati educativi riflettono disuguaglianze ancor più ampie. Le misure di politica educativa da sole non bastano. Politiche che affrontino alla radice il problema della povertà e le sue conseguenze possono risultare più efficaci degli interventi settoriali per ridurre le disparità regionali.

[175] Cfr. tabella 4.45, pag. 150.
[176] Cfr. tabella 4.45, pag. 150.
[177] Cfr. tabella 4.45, pag. 150.
[178] Cfr. tabella 4.46, pag. 150.
[179] Cfr. tabella 4.46, pag. 150.

Santrauka

Apibendrinant galima teigti: nors ES valstybės narės yra įsipareigojusios skatinti lygias galimybes švietimo ir mokymo srityje, geografiniai – tiek lyginant valstybes nares, tiek kiekvienos valstybės regionus – švietimo galimybių ir rezultatų skirtumai tebėra didžiuliai.

Šioje ataskaitoje analizuojami ES šalių vidiniai regioniniai švietimo galimybių ir rezultatų skirtumai. Taip siekiama paremti politikus, rengiančius veiksmingas šių skirtumų mažinimo priemones. Ataskaitoje pateikiama daugiau kaip 100 žemėlapių, kuriuose minėti skirtumai parodyti vizualiai. Be to, pagal kiekvieną iš rodiklių nustatyti dešimt geriausių ir dešimt prasčiausių regionų. Toliau aptariamos svarbiausios ataskaitos mintys.

Nevienodos švietimo galimybės ES regionuose

- Švietimo galimybių ir rezultatų skirtumai tarp ES regionų yra gana ryškūs. Skirtumai šalies viduje paprastai yra ne mažesni (o neretai – ir didesni) nei skirtumai tarp šalių.
- Daugiausiai menką oficialią kvalifikaciją (ne aukštesnį kaip priešmokyklinį, pradinį ar pagrindinį išsilavinimą) turinčių asmenų yra Pietų Europos šalių (visų pirma Portugalijos ir Ispanijos) regionuose. Aukštesnės kvalifikacijos žmonių daugiausia gyvena Jungtinėje Karalystėje, Vidurio ir Rytų Europos regionuose[180].
- Daugiausiai aukštąjį išsilavinimą įgijusių asmenų yra Jungtinėje Karalystėje, Belgijoje, Nyderlanduose, taip pat šiauriniuose Ispanijos regionuose ir Kipre. Italijos, Portugalijos bei Vidurio ir Rytų Europos valstybėse narėse aukštąjį išsilavinimą įgyja mažiausiai žmonių[181].
- Didžiausia mokinių ir studentų visose švietimo pakopose procentinė dalis, vertinant pagal bendrą gyventojų skaičių, yra šiaurinėje ir vakarinėje ES dalyse. Tai visų pirma Suomija, Švedija, Belgija ir Airija. Rytų Vokietijoje, šiaurės Italijoje, pietryčių Europos šalyse ir šiaurės vakarų Ispanijoje mokinių ir studentų procentinė dalis yra mažiausia[182].
- Didžiausia mokinių pradinio ir pagrindinio mokymo pakopose procentinė dalis, vertinant pagal bendrą gyventojų skaičių, yra tam tikruose Airijos, Portugalijos, Pietų Ispanijos regionuose, taip pat Nyderlanduose, Danijoje ir Švedijos pietuose. Mažiausia procentinė dalis užfiksuota šiauriniuose Italijos ir pietryčių Europos regionuose[183].
- Didžiausia mokinių ir studentų vidurinio ugdymo arba povidurinio neuniversitetinio ugdymo programose procentinė dalis, vertinant pagal bendrą 15–24 m. asmenų skaičių, yra Italijos, Belgijos, Švedijos ir Suomijos regionuose; mažiausia – Graikijos, Ispanijos, Portugalijos, Rumunijos, Bulgarijos ir Prancūzijos regionuose[184].
- Daugiausiai žmonių, įgijusių ne didesnį kaip vidurinį arba povidurinį neuniversitetinį išsilavinimą, yra Vidurio ir Rytų Europoje. Mažiausiai tokių žmonių yra Pietų Europos šalyse[185].
- ES yra didelių regioninių suaugusiųjų mokymosi visą gyvenimą skirtumų. Daugiausiai žmonių mokymosi visą gyvenimą programose dalyvauja Jungtinėje Karalystėje, Danijoje, Suomijoje ir Švedijoje, mažiausiai – pietryčių Europos šalyse[186].
- Ryškių ES regionų skirtumų matyti ir aukštųjų mokyklų geografinio prieinamumo srityje[187]. Didžiausio geografinio prieinamumo regionų daugiausia yra Vokietijoje, Jungtinėje Karalystėje ir Nyderlanduose. Prasčiausio geografinio prieinamumo regionų[188] daugiausia yra pietryčių Europoje, Švedijos ir Suomijos šiaurėje, Baltijos šalyse, Ispanijoje, Danijoje ir Prancūzijoje.

Regioniniai skirtumai ES valstybėse narėse

- Regioniniai skirtumai ES valstybėse narėse vertinami pagal didžiausias ir mažiausias visų nagrinėtų rodiklių regionines vertes[189]. Didžiausi regioniniai mokinių ir studentų visose švietimo pakopose procentinės dalies, vertinant pagal visų gyventojų skaičių, skirtumai pagal šį rodiklį nustatyti Rumunijoje. Nedaug geresnė padėtis ir Čekijoje, Belgijoje ir Ispanijoje. Mažiausia skirtumų nustatyta Airijoje (tačiau reikia pabrėžti, kad ši šalis teturi du regionus). Palyginti menki mažiausios ir didžiausios rodiklio vertės skirtumai nustatyti ir Danijoje, Švedijoje, Vengrijoje bei Lenkijoje[190].
- Pagal suaugusiųjų dalyvavimo mokymosi visą gyvenimą programose rodiklį didžiausi regioniniai skirtumai nustatyti Jungtinėje Karalystėje: daugiausiai suaugusiųjų (16,1 proc.) mokosi Vidinio Londono regione, mažiausiai (5,7 proc.) – Šiaurės Airijoje, taigi, vertės skirtumas yra net 10,4 proc.

[180] Žr. 3.17–3.18 lenteles ir 3.9 paveikslą (p. 83–84).
[181] Žr. 3.11 paveikslą bei 3.21 ir 3.11 lenteles (p. 85–86).
[182] Žr. 3.1 paveikslą bei 3.2 ir 3.3 lenteles (p. 75).
[183] Žr. 3.3 paveikslą bei 3.6 ir 3.7 lenteles (p. 77).
[184] Žr. 3.4 paveikslą bei 3.8 ir 3.9 lenteles (p. 78).
[185] Žr. 3.10 paveikslą bei 3.19 ir 3.20 lenteles (p. 84–85).
[186] Žr. 3.2 paveikslą bei 3.4 ir 3.5 lenteles (p.76).
[187] Žr. 3.6 paveikslą ir 3.12 lentelę (p. 80–81).
[188] Procentinė visų regiono gyventojų, kurių kelionė iki artimiausios aukštosios mokyklos trunka ne mažiau kaip valandą, dalis.
[189] Nagrinėti rodikliai pateikti 3.1 lentelėje, p. 74.
[190] Žr. 4.45 lentelę, p. 150.

Dideli regioniniai skirtumai pagal šį rodiklį pastebėti ir Slovakijoje bei Danijoje[191].

- Didžiausi regioniniai Belgijos skirtumai nustatyti pagal mokinių ir studentų dalyvavimo vidurinio ugdymo arba neuniversitetinio povidurinio ugdymo programose procentinės dalies, vertinant pagal bendrą 15–24 m. asmenų skaičių, rodiklį.
- Kai kuriose valstybėse narėse yra didelių regioninių aukštųjų mokyklų studentų procentinės dalies, palyginti su visais 20–24 m. amžiaus gyventojais, skirtumų. Didžiausias atotrūkis nustatytas Belgijoje, Čekijoje ir Austrijoje. Nemenki skirtumai pagal šį rodiklį būdingi ir Graikijai, Italijai, Rumunijai – pirmaujančius ir atsiliekančius regionus skiria net 80 proc. atotrūkis. Daugeliu atvejų tokią padėtį lemia tai, kad sostinės regione teikiama daugiausia aukštojo mokslo galimybių[192].
- Vertinant žmonių, kuriems kelionė iki artimiausios aukštosios mokyklos trunka daugiau kaip valandą, skaičių, didžiausias atotrūkis nustatytas Ispanijos regionuose. Toliau – Graikija, Suomija ir Bulgarija.
- Vertinant aukštąjį išslavinimą įgijusių asmenų skaičių, didesnis nei 15 proc. atotrūkis tarp pirmojo ir paskutinio regiono nustatytas aštuoniose ES valstybėse narėse. Didžiausi skirtumai – Jungtinėje Karalystėje (23,4 proc.), Prancūzijoje (21,3 proc.), Belgijoje (19,4 proc.), Čekijoje (18,7 proc.), Ispanijoje (17,5 proc.), Slovakijoje (17 proc.) ir Rumunijoje (15,4 proc.). Palyginti nedidelis – mažesnis kaip 10 proc. – šio rodiklio atotrūkis nustatytas Airijoje, Italijoje, Slovėnijoje, Portugalijoje, Suomijoje ir Austrijoje[193].
- Vertinant pagal menką (ne didesnį kaip priešmokyklinį, pradinį ar pagrindinį) išsilavinimą turinčių žmonių skaičių, didžiausias regionų atotrūkis nustatytas Prancūzijoje (27,2 proc.), Graikijoje, Ispanijoje, Rumunijoje ir Vokietijoje. Mažiausias atotrūkis šioje srityje nustatytas Slovėnijoje, Airijoje, Slovakijoje, Austrijoje ir Suomijoje[194].

Kiti svarbūs ataskaitos aspektai

- Nacionaliniai vidurkiai neretai slepia nepalankią vietos ir regionų padėtį.
- Švietimo srities regioniniai skirtumai trukdo proporcingam regionų vystymuisi ir ekonomikos augimui.
- Švietimo srities regioniniai skirtumai prisideda prie ES regionų nelygybės. Be to, kyla protų nutekėjimo į labiau išsivysčiusius ir turtingesnius regionus pavojus.
- Švietimo skirtumų ES regionuose pobūdis, mastas ir poveikis smarkiai skiriasi. Todėl politiniai sprendimai turi būti ne bendri, o pritaikyti konkretiems regionams.
- Šiuo metu valstybėse narėse renkami subregioninio lygmens ir pavienių mokyklų bei klasių duomenys, tačiau reikėtų užtikrinti geresnį koordinavimą ir šių duomenų viešinimą.
- Geografiškai nekonsoliduotų duomenų apie švietimo skirtumus rinkimas gali būti svarbi galios regionams suteikimo ir decentralizavimo priemonė. Taip kaupiama konkrečiam regionui aktuali informacija. Tokie duomenys gali padėti mokykloms, bendruomenės organizacijoms ir visų lygmenų valdžios institucijoms dalyvauti faktais grindžiamoje planavimo ir politikos veikloje.
- Regioniniai švietimo galimybių ir rezultatų skirtumai atspindi didesnio masto nelygybę. Vien švietimo politikos priemonių nepakaks. Siekiant pakeisti regioninės nelygybės švietimo srityje tendencijas, politinės priemonės, kuriomis siekiama įveikti skurdą ir jo lemiamą nepalankią padėtį visuomenėje, gali būti kur kas sėkmingesnės nei vien intervencinės švietimo politikos priemonės.

[191] Žr. 4.45 lentelę, p. 150.
[192] Žr. 4.45 lentelę, p. 150.
[193] Žr. 4.46 lentelę, p. 150.
[194] Žr. 4.46 lentelę, p. 150.

Kopsavilkums

Īsumā. Lai gan dalībvalstis cenšas veicināt vienlīdzību izglītības un apmācības jomā, joprojām pastāv lielas ģeogrāfiskās atšķirības izglītības iespēju un rezultātu ziņā gan *starp* ES dalībvalstīm, gan pašu valstu *iekšienē*.

Šajā ziņojumā ir sniegts ieskats par izglītības iespēju un rezultātu nevienlīdzību *starp katras valsts reģioniem* Eiropas Savienībā. Ziņojuma mērķis ir palīdzēt politikas veidotājiem centienos izstrādāt iedarbīgus pasākumus šo atšķirību mazināšanai. Tajā iekļauts vairāk nekā *100 karšu*, kas uzskatami parāda minētās atšķirības. Par pamatu ņemot katru rādītāju, kas aplūkots ziņojumā, ir noteikti *10 labākie* un *10 sliktākie* ES reģioni. Turpmāk izklāstītas ziņojuma galvenās atziņas.

Izglītības nevienlīdzīgā situācija ES reģionos

- Starp ES reģioniem pastāv ievērojamas atšķirības izglītības iespēju un rezultātu ziņā. *Valstu iekšienē* vērojamās atšķirības sasnieguma ziņā bieži vien ir tikpat lielas vai pat lielākas nekā atšķirības valstu starpā.
- Cilvēki ar zemu formālo kvalifikāciju ("tikai pirmsskolas, sākumskolas vai pamatskolas izglītība") vislielākā skaitā mīt Dienvideiropas reģionos un it īpaši Portugālē un Spānijā. Turpretī reģioni, kuros dzīvo cilvēki ar augstāku kvalifikāciju, galvenokārt atrodas Apvienotajā Karalistē, kā arī Centrāleiropā un Austrumeiropā[195].
- Reģioni ar vislielāko rādītāju augstāko izglītību ieguvušo cilvēku skaita ziņā galvenokārt atrodas Apvienotajā Karalistē, Beļģijā un Nīderlandē, kā arī Spānijas ziemeļos un Kiprā. Savukārt reģioni, kuros šis rādītājs ir viszemākais, ir Itālijā, Portugālē un ES centrālajā un austrumu daļā[196].
- ES reģioni, kuros ir visvairāk "skolēnu un studentu visu līmeņu izglītības iestādēs procentuāli no visu iedzīvotāju skaita", atrodas ES ziemeļos un rietumos, jo īpaši Somijā un Zviedrijā, kā arī Beļģijā un Īrijā. Reģioni ar viszemākajiem rādītājiem atrodas galvenokārt Vācijas austrumos, Itālijas ziemeļos un Eiropas dienvidaustrumos, kā arī Spānijas ziemeļrietumos un Portugālē[197].
- Reģioni, kuros ir visvairāk "skolēnu pamatizglītības iestādēs procentuāli no visu iedzīvotāju skaita", atrodas Īrijā, Portugālē, Spānijas dienvidos, kā arī Nīderlandē, Dānijā un Zviedrijas dienvidu daļā. Turpretī zemākie rādītāji ir vērojami Itālijas ziemeļos un Eiropas dienvidaustrumos[198].
- Reģioni, kuros ir visvairāk "skolēnu un studentu vidējās izglītības un pēcvidusskolas neterciārās izglītības iestādēs procentuāli no 15–24 g.v. jauniešu skaita", galvenokārt atrodas Itālijā, Beļģijā, Zviedrijā un Somijā, bet lielākā daļa reģionu ar attiecīgi viszemākajiem rādītājiem atrodas Grieķijā, Spānijā, Portugālē, Rumānijā, Bulgārijā un Francijā[199].
- Reģioni ar vislielāko to cilvēku skaitu, kuriem ir "tikai vidusskolas un pēcvidusskolas neterciārā izglītība", galvenokārt atrodas Centrāleiropā un Austrumeiropā, bet reģioni ar attiecīgi viszemākajiem rādītājiem pārsvarā atrodas Dienvideiropā[200].
- Lielas reģionālās atšķirības Eiropas Savienībā vērojamas pieaugušo mūžizglītībā. Lielākā daļa reģionu ar iedzīvotāju procentuāli nozīmīgu līdzdalību mūžizglītībā atrodas Apvienotajā Karalistē, Dānijā, Somijā un Zviedrijā, bet lielākā daļa reģionu ar ļoti zemiem rādītājiem mūžizglītībā atrodas Eiropas dienvidaustrumos[201].
- ES reģionos[202] ir vērojamas būtiskas atšķirības terciārās izglītības "ģeogrāfiskajā pieejamībā". Reģioni ar vislabāko "ģeogrāfisko pieejamību" galvenokārt ir Vācijā, Apvienotajā Karalistē un Nīderlandē. Turpretī lielākā daļa reģionu ar viszemākajiem rādītājiem terciārās izglītības "ģeogrāfiskās pieejamības"[203] ziņā atrodas Eiropas dienvidaustrumos, Zviedrijas ziemeļos un Somijā, Baltijas valstīs, Spānijā, Dānijā un Francijā.

Reģionālās atšķirības ES dalībvalstu iekšienē

- Aplūkojot reģionālās atšķirības katras ES dalībvalsts iekšienē un aprēķinot starpību starp maksimālajām un minimālajām reģionālajām vērtībām par katru vērtēto rādītāju[204], Rumānija ir valsts ar vislielākajām reģionālajām atšķirībām attiecībā uz rādītāju "skolēni un studenti visu līmeņu izglītības iestādēs proporcionāli no kopējā iedzīvotāju skaita", tai seko Čehija, Beļģija un Spānija. Turpretim vismazākās atšķirības ir Īrijā (tomēr jāpiemin, ka Īrijā ir tikai divi reģioni). Arī Dānijā, Zviedrijā, Ungārijā un Polijā ir relatīvi mazas atšķirības starp šā rādītāja[205] maksimālajām un minimālajām reģionālajām vērtībām.
- Aplūkojot rādītāju "pieaugušo līdzdalība mūžizglītībā", Apvienotajā Karalistē vērojamas vislielākās reģionālās atšķirības, jo starpība starp reģionu ar augstāko rādītāju (Iekšlondona, 16,1 %) un reģionu ar zemāko rādītāju (Ziemeļīrija, 5,7 %) ir 10,4 %. Slovākijā un

[195] Sk. 3.17. un 3.18. tabulu un 3.9. attēlu (83., 84. lpp.)
[196] Sk. 3.11. attēlu, 3.21. un 3.22. tabulu (85., 86. lpp.).
[197] Sk. 3.1. attēlu un 3.2. un 3.3. tabulu (75. lpp.)
[198] Sk. 3.3. attēlu un 3.6. un 3.7. tabulu (77. lpp.)
[199] Sk. 3.4. attēlu un 3.8. un 3.9. tabulu (78. lpp.)
[200] Sk. 3.10. attēlu, 3.19. un 3.20. tabulu (84., 85. lpp.).
[201] Sk. 3.2. attēlu un 3.4. un 3.5. tabulu (76. lpp.).
[202] Sk. 3.6. attēlu, 3.12. tabulu (80., 81. lpp).
[203] Procentuāls skaits no visiem reģiona iedzīvotājiem, kas dzīvo vairāk nekā 60 minūšu attālumā no tuvākās augstskolas.
[204] Vērtētie rādītāji ir uzskaitīti 3.1. tabulā 74. lpp.
[205] Sk. 4.45. tabulu 150. lpp.

Dānijā arī pastāv samērā lielas reģionālās atšķirības attiecībā uz šo mainīgo lielumu[206].

- Beļģijā ir vislielākā starpība starp saraksta augšgala un apakšgala reģioniem attiecībā uz rādītāju "skolēni un studenti vidusskolas un pēcvidusskolas neterciārās izglītības iestādēs (*ISCED* 3-4) procentuāli no 15–24 g.v. jauniešiem)".
- Dažās dalībvalstīs pastāv lielas reģionālās atšķirības attiecībā uz rādītāju "studenti terciārās izglītības iestādēs procentuāli no 20–24 g.v. jauniešu skaita". Beļģijā šī starpība ir vislielākā, tai cieši seko Čehija un Austrija. Turklāt attiecībā uz šo rādītāju liela starpība ir Grieķijā, Itālijā un Rumānijā, kur tā pārsniedz 80 %, salīdzinot starp reģioniem, kas šajās valstīs atrodas saraksta pirmajā un pēdējā vietā. Lielākoties to izraisa galvaspilsētas reģiona pārsvars terciārās izglītības iespēju[207] ziņā.
- Spānijā ir vislielākā starpība starp saraksta augšgala un apakšgala reģioniem attiecībā uz cilvēkiem, kas dzīvo vairāk nekā 60 minūšu attālumā no tuvākās augstskolas, tai cieši seko Grieķija, tad Somija trešajā vietā un Bulgārija ceturtajā vietā.
- Astoņās ES dalībvalstīs starpība starp saraksta augšgala un apakšgala reģioniem attiecībā uz cilvēkiem ar pabeigtu augstāko izglītību reģionā pārsniedz 15 %. Apvienotā Karaliste ir valsts ar vislielāko starpību (23,4 %), tai seko Francija (21,3 %), Beļģija (19,4 %), Čehija (18,7 %), Spānija (17,5 %), Slovākija (17 %) un Rumānija (15,4 %). Starpība attiecībā uz šo mainīgo lielumu ir relatīvi zemāka Īrijā, Itālijā, Slovēnijā, Portugālē, Somijā un Austrijā (visās zem 10 %)[208].
- Vērtējot cilvēku skaitu ar zemu izglītību (tikai "pirmsskolas, sākumskolas un pamatskolas izglītība"), Francijā ir vislielākā starpība starp saraksta pirmajā un pēdējā pozīcijā ierindotajiem reģioniem (27,2 % starpība), tai seko Grieķija, Spānija, Rumānija un Vācija. Turpretī valstis ar viszemāko starpību ir Slovēnija, Īrija, Slovākija, Austrija un Somija[209].

Citas svarīgas atziņas

- Vidējie rādītāji valstī ļoti bieži apslēpj nepatīkamo vietējo un reģionālo situāciju.
- Reģionālās atšķirības izglītībā kavē līdzsvarotu reģionālo attīstību un ekonomikas izaugsmi.
- Reģionālās atšķirības izglītības jomā *veicina* nevienlīdzību starp ES reģioniem. Tās ir arī iemesls "smadzeņu aizplūšanai" uz attīstītākiem/bagātākiem reģioniem.
- Nevienlīdzība izglītības jomā starp ES reģioniem ievērojami *atšķiras* pēc rakstura, mēroga un ietekmes. Politikas risinājumiem jābūt *īpaši pielāgotiem*, nevis universāliem.
- Pašlaik dalībvalstīs tiek vākti dati par apakšreģionālo līmeni un par skolu un klašu līmeni, bet ir nepieciešama labāka koordinācija un šo datu publiska pieejamība.
- Ģeogrāfiski neapkopotu datu vākšana par izglītības nevienlīdzību var būt svarīgs instruments vietējo iestāžu līdzdalības veicināšanai un decentralizācijai. Tas nodrošinātu *vietējā līmenī būtisku informāciju*, varētu palīdzēt skolām, sabiedrības organizācijām un visu līmeņu pārvaldes iestādēm iesaistīties uz konkrētiem datiem balstītā plānošanā un politikas veidošanā.
- Izglītības iespēju un rezultātu nevienmērīgā izplatība liecina par dziļāku nevienlīdzību. Ar izglītības politikas pasākumiem vien situāciju nav iespējams atrisināt. Lai ietekmētu izglītības reģionālās nevienlīdzības kopējās tendences, salīdzinājumā ar klasiskiem izglītības politikas pasākumiem lielāka iedarbība visticamāk būs politikas pasākumiem, kas ir vērsti uz nabadzības un saistīto problēmu risināšanu pašā saknē.

[206] Sk. 4.45. tabulu 150. lpp.
[207] Sk. 4.45. tabulu 150. lpp.
[208] Sk. 4.46. tabulu 150. lpp.
[209] Sk. 4.46. tabulu 150. lpp.

Sommarju eżekuttiv

Fi ftit kliem: Minkejja l-impenji mill-Istati Membri tal-UE biex jippromwovu l-ekwità fl-edukazzjoni u t-taħriġ, għad baqa' differenzi ġeografiċi kbar fl-opportunitajiet u l-eżiti edukattivi, kemm *bejn* l-Istati Membri tal-UE kif ukoll *fi ħdanhom*.

Dan ir-rapport jagħti stampa tal-inugwaljanzi reġjonali *intranazzjonali* fl-opportunitajiet u l-eżiti edukattivi fl-UE. L-għan tiegħu huwa li jappoġġa lil dawk li jfasslu l-politika fl-isforzi tagħhom biex ifasslu miżuri effettivi biex jikkoreġu dawn id-diskrepanzi. Fih iktar minn *100 mappa* li jgħinu biex jiġu viżwalizzati l-inugwaljanzi. Huwa jidentifika l-*aqwa* u l-*agħar* 10 reġjuni tal-UE għal kull wieħed mill-indikaturi li jifli. Il-*messaġġi ewlenin* tiegħu huma:

L-inugwaljanzi fl-edukazzjoni bejn ir-reġjuni tal-UE

- Hemm inugwaljanzi konsiderevoli fl-opportunitajiet u l-eżiti edukattivi bejn ir-reġjuni tal-UE. Id-differenzi *intra*nazzjonali fir-rati ta' suċċess huma ta' spiss talanqas kbar daqs, u ħafna drabi akbar, mid-differenzi *inter*nazzjonali.
- Ir-reġjuni bl-ogħla rata ta' nies bi ftit kwalifiki formali ("bl-akbar kisba edukattiva fil-livell ta' qabel il-primarja, tal-primarja jew tas-sekondarja inferjuri") jinsabu l-aktar fin-nofsinhar tal-Ewropa u speċjalment fil-Portugall u Spanja. B'kuntrast ma' dan, ir-reġjuni fejn in-nies għandhom kwalifiki ogħla jinsabu l-aktar fir-Renju Unit, kif ukoll fl-Ewropa Ċentrali u tal-Lvant[210].
- Ir-reġjuni bl-ogħla rata ta' individwi bi kwalifiki tal-edukazzjoni terzjarja jinsabu l-aktar fir-Renju Unit, fil-Belġju u fil-Pajjiżi l-Baxxi, iżda wkoll fit-tramuntana ta' Spanja u f'Ċipru. B'kuntrast ma' dan, ir-reġjuni bl-inqas rati jinsabu fl-Italja, fil-Portugall, u fil-pajjiżi tal-UE ċentrali u tal-lvant[211].
- Ir-reġjuni tal-UE bl-ogħla rata ta "tfal tal-iskola u studenti f'kull livell tal-edukazzjoni bħala perċentwal tal-popolazzjoni totali" huma kkonċentrati fit-tramuntana u fil-punent tal-UE, speċjalment fil-Finlandja, fl-Isvezja, iżda wkoll fil-Belġju u l-Irlanda. Ir-reġjuni bl-inqas rati jinsabu l-aktar fil-lvant tal-Ġermanja, fit-tramuntana tal-Italja u fix-xlokk tal-Ewropa, iżda wkoll fil-majjistral ta' Spanja u l-Portugall[212].
- Ir-reġjuni bl-ogħla rata ta "studenti fil-primarja u l-edukazzjoni sekondarja inferjuri bħala perċentwal tal-popolazzjoni totali" huma osservati f'reġjuni tar-Repubblika tal-Irlanda, il-Portugall, in-nofsinhar ta' Spanja, iżda wkoll fil-Pajjiżi l-Baxxi, id-Danimarka u l-Isvezja tan-nofsinhar. B'kuntrast ma' dan, huma osservati rati baxxi fit-tramuntana tal-Italja u fix-xlokk tal-Ewropa[213].
- Ir-reġjuni bl-ogħla rata ta "tfal tal-iskola u studenti fl-iskola sekondarja superjuri u fl-edukazzjoni postsekondarja mhux terzjarja bħala perċentwal tal-popolazzjoni ta' età bejn il-15 u l-24 sena" jinsabu l-aktar fl-Italja, il-Belġju, l-Isvezja u l-Finlandja, filwaqt li l-biċċa l-kbira tar-reġjuni bl-aktar rati baxxi jinsabu fil-Greċja, Spanja, il-Portugall, ir-Rumanija, il-Bulgarija u Franza[214].
- Ir-reġjuni bl-ogħla rata ta' persuni b'"l-aktar edukazzjoni għolja tagħhom fil-livell ta' sekondarja superjuri u edukazzjoni postsekondarja mhux terzjarja" jinsabu l-aktar fl-Ewropa Ċentrali u tal-Lvant, filwaqt li r-reġjuni bl-inqas rati jinsabu l-aktar fin-nofsinhar tal-Ewropa[215].
- Hemm differenzi reġjonali kbar f'termini tal-parteċipazzjoni adulta fit-tagħlim tul il-ħajja fl-UE. Ir-Renju Unit, id-Danimarka, il-Finlandja u l-Isvezja għandhom l-ogħla għadd ta' reġjuni b'parteċipazzjoni qawwija fit-tagħlim tul il-ħajja, filwaqt li l-biċċa l-kbira tar-reġjuni b'rati baxxi ħafna ta' parteċipazzjoni fit-tagħlim tul il-ħajja huma fl-Ewropa tax-Xlokk[216].
- Hemm differenzi sinifikanti f'"l-aċċessibbiltà ġeografika" għall-edukazzjoni terzjarja madwar ir-reġjuni tal-UE[217]. Ir-reġjuni li għandhom l-aħjar "aċċessibbiltà ġeografika" jinsabu l-aktar fil-Ġermanja, ir-Renju Unit u l-Pajjiżi l-Baxxi. B'kuntrast ma' dan, ħafna mir-reġjuni bl-inqas punteġġi dwar "l-aċċessibbiltà ġeografika" għall-edukazzjoni terzjarja[218] huma fl-Ewropa tax-Xlokk, it-Tramuntana tal-Isvezja u l-Finlandja, l-Istati Baltiċi, Spanja, id-Danimarka u Franza.

Id-disparitajiet reġjonali fi ħdan l-Istati Membri tal-UE

- Jekk inħarsu lejn id-diskrepanzi reġjonali fi ħdan kull Stat Membru tal-UE kif imkejla permezz tad-differenza bejn il-valuri reġjonali massimi u minimi għal kull indikatur eżaminat[219], ir-Rumanija għandha l-ogħla diverġenza reġjonali rigward l-indikatur "tfal tal-iskola u studenti f'kull livell tal-edukazzjoni bħala % tal-popolazzjoni totali", segwita mill-qrib mir-Repubblika Ċeka, il-Belġju u Spanja. Fit-tarf l-ieħor, ir-Repubblika tal-Irlanda għandha l-inqas valur (iżda innota li din għandha biss żewġ reġjuni). Id-

210 Ara t-Tabelli 3.17-3.18 u l-Figuri 3.9 (pp. 83-84).
211 Ara l-Figura 3.11; It-Tabelli 3.21 u 3.22 (pp.85-86).
212 Ara l-Figura 3.1 u t-Tabelli 3.2 u 3.3 (p. 75).
213 Ara l-Figura 3.3 u t-Tabelli 3.6 u 3.7 (p. 77).
214 Ara l-Figura 3.4 u t-Tabelli 3.8 u 3.9 (p. 78).
215 Ara l-Figura 3.10; It-Tabelli 3.19 u 3.20 (pp. 84-85).
216 Ara l-Figura 3.2 u t-Tabelli 3.4 u 3.5 (p.76).
217 Ara l-Figura 3.6; Tabella 3.12 (pp.80-81).
218 Il-% tal-popolazzjoni totali ta'reġjun li tgħix aktar minn 60 minuta bogħod mill-eqreb università.
219 L-indikaturi eżaminati huma murija fit-Tabella 3.1, p. 74.

Danimarka, l-Isvezja, l-Ungerija u l-Polonja wkoll jidhru li għandhom relattivament differenzi żgħar bejn il-valur reġjonali massimu u dak minimu għal dan l-indikatur[220].

- Jekk inħarsu lejn l-indikatur "il-parteċipazzjoni tal-adulti fit-tagħlim tul il-ħajja", ir-Renju Unit għandu bil-bosta l-akbar diverġenza reġjonali, bid-differenza bejn ir-reġjun bl-ogħla valur (Inner London, 16.1%) u r-reġjun bl-anqas valur (l-Irlanda ta' Fuq, 5.7%) fil-livell ta' 10.4%. Is-Slovakkja u d-Danimarka għandhom ukoll differenzi reġjonali relattivament kbar fir-rigward ta' dan il-varjabbli[221].
- Il-Belġju għandu l-ogħla differenza bejn l-ogħla reġjuni tiegħu u dawk l-aktar baxxi f'termini ta' "tfal tal-iskola u studenti fl-iskola sekondarja għolja u l-edukazzjoni postsekondarja mhux terzjarja (ISCED 3-4) bħala perċentwal tal-popolazzjoni ta' età bejn il-15 u l-24 sena".
- F'xi Stati Membri, hemm differenzi kbar bejn ir-reġjuni għall-indikatur "studenti fl-edukazzjoni terzjarja bħala perċentwal tal-popolazzjoni ta' età bejn l-20 l-24 sena". Il-Belġju għandu l-iktar diskrepanza estensiva, segwit mill-qrib mir-Repubblika Ċeka u l-Awstrija. Barra minn hekk, il-Greċja, l-Italja u r-Rumanija kollha għandhom diskrepanzi kbar għal dan l-indikatur b'differenza ta' aktar minn 80% bejn l-ogħla reġjun tagħhom u dak l-aktar baxx. Fil-biċċa l-kbira ta' dawn il-każijiet dan huwa r-riżultat ta' dominanza mir-reġjun tal-belt kapitali f'termini ta' opportunitajiet ta' edukazzjoni terzjarja[222].
- Spanja għandha l-akbar differenza bejn l-ogħla reġjuni tagħha u dawk l-aktar baxxi f'termini ta' għadd ta' persuni li jgħixu aktar minn 60 minuta 'l bogħod mill-eqreb Università, segwita mill-qrib mill-Greċja, il-Finlandja u l-Bulgarija fit-tielet u r-raba' post rispettivament.
- Tmien Stati Membri tal-UE għandhom differenza ta' aktar minn 15% bejn l-ogħla reġjuni tagħhom u dawk l-aktar baxxi f'termini ta' numri ta' gradwati fl-edukazzjoni terzjarja f'kull reġjun. Ir-Renju Unit huwa l-pajjiż bl-akbar diskrepanza (23.4%), segwit minn Franza (21.3%), il-Belġju (19.4%), ir-Repubblika Ċeka (18.7%), Spanja (17,5%), is-Slovakkja (17%) u r-Rumanija (15.4%). Id-distakk għal dan il-varjabbli huwa relattivament iżgħar fl-Irlanda, l-Italja, is-Slovenja, il-Portugall, il-Finlandja u l-Awstrija (kollha taħt l-10%)[223].
- Jekk inħarsu lejn l-għadd ta' nies li għandhom kwalifiki ta' edukazzjoni baxxi ("l-aktar kwalifika għolja tkun qabel il-primarja, primarja u sekondarja inferjuri"), Franza għandha l-ogħla disparità bejn l-ogħla reġjuni tagħha u dawk l-aktar baxxi (distakk ta' 27.2%), segwita mill-Greċja, Spanja, ir-Rumanija u l-Ġermanja. B'kuntrast, il-pajjiżi bl-inqas disparità huma s-Slovenja, l-Irlanda, is-Slovakkja, l-Awstrija u l-Finlandja[224].

Messaġġi ewlenin oħra

- Il-medji nazzjonali ħafna drabi jostru r-realtajiet lokali u reġjonali mhux mixtieqa.
- Id-disparitajiet reġjonali fit-tagħlim ifixklu l-iżvilupp reġjonali u t-tkabbir ekonomiku bbilanċjat.
- Id-disparitajiet reġjonali fl-edukazzjoni ikomplu *jikkumplikaw* l-inugwaljanza bejn ir-reġjuni tal-UE. Iħeġġu wkoll lil dawk l-aktar edukati jemigraw lejn ir-reġuni l-aktar żviluppati jew għanja.
- Hemm *varjazzjoni* konsiderevoli fin-natura, l-iskala u l-effetti tal-inugwaljanzi edukattivi fost ir-reġjuni tal-UE. Is-soluzzjonijiet politiċi għandhom jiġu *mfassla apposta* aktar milli jkunu ta' natura ġenerika.
- Bħalissa qed tinġabar dejta fuq il-livell subreġjonali u fil-livell ta' skejjel u klassijiet individwali fi ħdan l-Istati Membri, iżda hemm bżonn ta' koordinazzjoni aħjar u li din id-dejta ssir disponibbli fid-dominju pubbliku.
- Il-kompilazzjoni ta' dejta diżaggregata ġeografikament dwar l-inugwaljanza fl-edukazzjoni tista' tkun strument importanti għad-deċentralizzazzjoni u l-emanċipazzjoni lokali. Din tiġġenera informazzjoni ta' *relevanza lokali*. Tista' tgħin lill-iskejjel, l-organizzazzjonijiet komunitarji u l-livelli kollha tal-gvern biex jipparteċipaw fi ppjanar u politika msejsa fuq l-evidenza.
- Id-disparitajiet ġeografiċi tal-opportunitajiet u l-eżiti edukattivi jirriflettu inugwaljanzi usa'. Il-miżuri tal-politika edukattiva waħedhom mhumiex biżżejjed. Il-politiki li jindirizzaw l-għeruq tal-faqar u tal-aspetti żvantaġġanti relatati x'aktarx li jirnexxu aktar minn interventi ta' politika purament edukattiva fil-mod kif jinfluwenzaw ix-xejriet kumplessivi tal-inugwaljanza edukattiva reġjonali.

220 Ara t-Tabella 4.45, p. 150.
221 Ara t-Tabella 4.45, p. 150.
222 Ara t-Tabella 4.45, p. 150.
223 Ara t-Tabella 4.46, p. 150.
224 Ara t-Tabella 4.46, p. 150.

Samenvatting

In het kort: ondanks de toezeggingen van de EU-lidstaten dat zij de kansengelijkheid in onderwijs en opleiding zouden bevorderen, blijven er zowel *tussen* maar ook *binnen* de EU-lidstaten grote geografische verschillen in onderwijskansen en -resultaten bestaan.

Dit verslag geeft een beeld van de regionale ongelijkheden *binnen de afzonderlijke EU-lidstaten* wat de onderwijskansen en –resultaten betreft. Beoogd wordt de beleidsmakers te ondersteunen in hun inspanningen om doeltreffende maatregelen te nemen die deze verschillen moeten wegwerken. Het bevat meer dan *100 kaarten* die de ongelijkheden helpen visualiseren. Voor elk van de indicatoren die erin aan bod komen, noemt het verslag de *10* EU-regio's die respectievelijk het *best* en het *slechtst* scoren. Dit zijn de *belangrijkste boodschappen*:

Ongelijkheden op het gebied van onderwijs in de verschillende regio's van de EU

- De onderwijskansen en –resultaten verschillen aanzienlijk tussen de EU-regio's. De verschillen in prestaties zijn tussen de regio's van eenzelfde lidstaat vaak minstens zo groot als en soms zelfs groter dan tussen verschillende lidstaten.
- De regio's met de hoogste percentages personen met lage formele kwalificaties ("hoogstens lager middelbaar onderwijs") bevinden zich vooral in Zuid-Europa en in het bijzonder in Portugal en Spanje. De regio's waar de bevolking hoger gekwalificeerd is, bevinden zich daarentegen vooral in het VK en in Midden- en Oost-Europa[225].
- De regio's waar het grootste percentage van de bevolking tertiair onderwijs heeft genoten, bevinden zich vooral in het Verenigd Koninkrijk, België en Nederland, maar ook in Noord-Spanje en in Cyprus. De regio's met de laagste percentages daarentegen bevinden zich in Italië, Portugal, en in het midden en het oosten van de EU[226].
- De EU-regio's met de hoogste percentages "leerlingen en studenten in alle onderwijsniveaus als percentage van de totale bevolking" zijn geconcentreerd in het noorden en westen van de EU, en in het bijzonder in Finland en Zweden, maar ook in België en Ierland. De regio's met de laagste percentages bevinden zich vooral in het oosten van Duitsland, in het noorden van Italië en in het zuidoosten van Europa, maar ook in het noordwesten van Spanje en in Portugal[227].
- De regio's met de hoogste percentages "leerlingen in het lager en lager middelbaar onderwijs als percentage van de totale bevolking" bevinden zich in Ierland, Portugal, Zuid-Spanje, maar ook in Nederland, Denemarken en Zuid-Zweden. De laagste percentages daarentegen komen voor in Noord-Italië en Zuidoost-Europa[228].
- De regio's met de hoogste percentages "leerlingen en studenten in het hoger middelbaar en postsecundair niet-tertiair onderwijs in procent van de bevolkingsgroep 15-24 jaar" bevinden zich vooral in Italië, België, Zweden en Finland, terwijl de regio's met de laagste percentages zich in Griekenland, Spanje, Portugal, Roemenië, Bulgarije en Frankrijk bevinden[229].
- De regio's met de hoogste percentages personen met "hoogstens hoger middelbaar en postsecundair niet-tertiair onderwijs" bevinden zich hoofdzakelijk in Midden- en Oost-Europa, terwijl de regio's met de laagste percentages zich meestal in Zuid-Europa bevinden[230].
- Er zijn in de EU grote regionale verschillen wat de participatie van volwassenen in een leven lang leren betreft. Het Verenigd Koninkrijk, Denemarken, Finland en Zweden hebben het hoogste aantal regio's met een hoge participatie in een leven lang leren, terwijl de meeste regio's met een heel lage participatie in een leven lang leren zich in Zuidoost-Europa bevinden[231].
- Naar gelang van de EU-regio zijn er aanzienlijke verschillen in de "geografische toegankelijkheid" van het tertiair onderwijs[232]. De regio's met de beste "geografische toegankelijkheid" bevinden zich hoofdzakelijk in Duitsland, het Verenigd Koninkrijk en Nederland. De meeste regio's met de laagste scores voor "geografische toegankelijkheid" van het tertiair onderwijs[233] bevinden zich daarentegen in Zuidoost-Europa, het noorden van Zweden en van Finland, de Baltische Staten, Spanje, Denemarken en Frankrijk.

Regionale verschillen binnen de EU-lidstaten

- Wat de regionale verschillen binnen elke EU-lidstaat betreft, gemeten aan de hand van het verschil tussen de hoogste en de laagste regionale waarden voor elke indicator[234], vertoont Roemenië het grootste regionale verschil voor de indicator "leerlingen en studenten in alle onderwijsniveaus in procent van de totale bevolking". Het wordt op de voet gevolgd door

[225] Zie de tabellen 3.17 en 3.18 en figuur 3.9 (blz. 83-84).
[226] Zie figuur 3.11 en de tabellen 3.21 en 3.22 (blz.85-86).
[227] Zie figuur 3.1 en de tabellen 3.2 en 3.3 (blz. 75).
[228] Zie figuur 3.3 en de tabellen 3.6 en 3.7 (blz. 77).
[229] Zie figuur 3.4 en de tabellen 3.8 en 3.9 (blz. 78).
[230] Zie figuur 3.10 en de tabellen 3.19 en 3.20 (blz. 84-85).
[231] Zie figuur 3.2 en de tabellen 3.4 en 3.5 (blz. 76).
[232] Zie figuur 3.6 en tabel 3.12 (blz. 80-81).
[233] Het percentage van de totale bevolking van een regio dat op meer dan 60 minuten van de dichtstbijzijnde universiteit woont.
[234] De verschillende indicatoren zijn opgenomen in tabel 3.1, blz. 74.

Tsjechië, België en Spanje. Ierland heeft de laagste waarde (het land telt slechts twee regio's). Ook Denemarken, Zweden, Hongarije en Polen blijken relatief kleine verschillen te kennen tussen de regionale maximum- en minimumwaarde voor deze indicator[235].

- Voor de indicator "participatie van volwassenen in een leven lang leren" vertoont het Verenigd Koninkrijk veruit de grootste variatie: de discrepantie tussen de regio met de hoogste waarde (het centrum van Londen, 16,1 %) en de regio met de laagste waarde (Noord-Ierland, 5,7 %) bedraagt er 10,4 %. Slowakije en Denemarken vertonen eveneens vrij grote regionale verschillen voor deze waarde[236].
- België vertoont het grootste verschil tussen zijn regio's met respectievelijk de hoogste en de laagste waarde voor "leerlingen en studenten in het hoger middelbaar en postsecundair niet-tertiair onderwijs (ISCED 3-4) als percentage van de bevolkingsgroep 15-24 jaar".
- In een aantal lidstaten zijn er grote verschillen tussen de regio's voor de indicator "studenten in het tertiair onderwijs als percentage van de bevolkingsgroep 15-24 jaar". De kloof is het grootst in België, onmiddellijk gevolgd door Tsjechië en Oostenrijk. Voorts vertonen ook Griekenland, Italië en Roemenië tussen hun regio's met respectievelijk de hoogste en de laagste waarden voor deze indicator grote kloven van zelfs meer dan 80 %. In de meeste gevallen is dit toe te schrijven aan het overwicht van de hoofdstedelijke regio wat de kansen op tertiair onderwijs betreft[237].
- Spanje vertoont de grootste kloof tussen zijn regio's met respectievelijk de hoogste en de laagste waarde wat het aantal personen betreft dat op meer dan 60 minuten van de dichtstbijzijnde universiteit woont, en wordt onmiddellijk gevolgd door Griekenland. Finland komt op de derde en Bulgarije op de vierde plaats.
- Acht EU-lidstaten vertonen voor het aantal afgestudeerden in het tertiair onderwijs een verschil van meer dan 15 % tussen hun regio's met respectievelijk de hoogste en de laagste waarde. Het Verenigd Koninkrijk is het land met de grootste kloof (23,4 %), gevolgd door Frankrijk (21,3 %), België (19,4 %), Tsjechië (18,7 %), Spanje (17,5 %), Slowakije (17 %) en Roemenië (15,4 %). Voor deze indicator is de kloof relatief kleiner in Ierland, Italië, Slovenië, Portugal, Finland en Oostenrijk (telkens minder dan 10 %)[238].
- Wat het aantal personen met lage onderwijs-kwalificaties ("hoogstens lager middelbaar onderwijs") betreft, zijn in Frankrijk de verschillen tussen de regio met de hoogste en de regio met de laagste waarde het grootst (een kloof van 27,2 %). Daarna komen Griekenland, Spanje, Roemenië en Duitsland. De landen waar de verschillen het kleinst zijn, zijn Slovenië, Ierland, Slowakije, Oostenrijk en Finland[239].

Andere belangrijke boodschappen

- Nationale gemiddelden verbergen vaak onaangename plaatselijke en regionale situaties.
- Regionale verschillen in leren vormen een belemmering voor een evenwichtige regionale ontwikkeling en economische groei.
- Regionale verschillen in onderwijs *versterken* de ongelijkheid tussen EU-regio's. Zij werken ook de braindrain naar de meer ontwikkelde/rijkere regio's in de hand.
- Er is heel wat *variatie* in de aard, de schaal en de effecten van ongelijkheden op onderwijsgebied in de verschillende EU-regio's. De beleidsoplossingen mogen niet algemeen zijn, maar moeten *op maat gesneden* zijn.
- Binnen de lidstaten worden momenteel gegevens op subregionaal niveau en op het niveau van individuele scholen en klassen verzameld, maar er is behoefte aan meer coördinatie. Ook moeten deze gegevens publiek beschikbaar worden.
- De compilatie van gegevens over ongelijkheden op onderwijsgebied die per regio worden uitgesplitst, kan voor een regio een belangrijk instrument zijn voor decentralisatie en om voor zijn rechten op te komen. Het genereert informatie die *voor het lokale niveau relevant* is. Het reikt scholen, maat-schappelijke organisaties en alle beleidsniveaus feiten aan waarop zij hun planning en beleid kunnen baseren.
- Ruimtelijke ongelijkheden in onderwijskansen en –resultaten weerspiegelen bredere ongelijkheden. Beleidsmaatregelen op onderwijsgebied alleen volstaan niet. Beleidsmaatregelen die armoede en daarmee verband houdende aspecten van achterstelling bij de wortel aanpakken, hebben meer kans op succes dan maatregelen die enkel op onderwijs gericht zijn – wanneer het erop aankomt algemene patronen van regionale ongelijkheden op onderwijsgebied te beïnvloeden.

[235] Zie tabel 4.45, blz. 150.
[236] Zie tabel 4.45, blz. 150.
[237] Zie tabel 4.45, blz. 150.
[238] Zie tabel 4.46, blz. 150.
[239] Zie tabel 4.46, blz. 150.

Streszczenie

W skrócie: Pomimo zobowiązania się państw członkowskich UE do promowania równości szans w zakresie kształcenia i szkoleń, nadal utrzymują się wielkie geograficzne różnice w możliwościach edukacyjnych i osiąganych rezultatach zarówno między poszczególnymi państwami, jak i wewnątrz państw członkowskich UE.

Niniejsze sprawozdanie opisuje regionalne nierówności wewnątrz państw UE w dziedzinie możliwości edukacyjnych i osiąganych rezultatów. Celem sprawozdania jest wsparcie decydentów w wysiłkach na rzecz opracowania skutecznych środków w celu zlikwidowania tych różnic. Zawiera ono ponad 100 map, które pomagają zobrazować nierówności. Określa ono dziesięć przodujących regionów UE dla każdego z badanych wskaźników i dziesięć regionów o najgorszych wynikach. *Kluczowe kwestie jego przesłania* to:

Nierówności w edukacji we wszystkich regionach UE

- Między regionami UE istnieją znaczne różnice w możliwościach edukacyjnych i osiąganych rezultatach. Różnice w osiąganych wynikach wewnątrz poszczególnych państw w porównaniu z różnicami między państwami są często co najmniej równie duże, a nawet większe.
- Regiony z najwyższym odsetkiem osób o niskich kwalifikacjach („co najwyżej wykształcenie niższe niż podstawowe, podstawowe lub średnie I stopnia") znajdują się głównie w Europie Południowej, szczególnie w Portugalii i Hiszpanii. Regiony, gdzie ludność posiada wysokie kwalifikacje znajdują się natomiast głównie w Zjednoczonym Królestwie, jak również w Europie Środkowej i Wschodniej[240].
- Regiony z najwyższym odsetkiem osób posiadających wyższe wykształcenie można znaleźć głównie w Zjednoczonym Królestwie, Belgii i Holandii, ale również w północnej Hiszpanii i na Cyprze. Regiony o najniższych wskaźnikach znajdują się natomiast we Włoszech, Portugalii oraz w centralnej i wschodniej części UE[241].
- Regiony UE o najwyższym wskaźniku „uczniów i studentów na wszystkich poziomach kształcenia, liczonym jako odsetek całej populacji" koncentrują się w północnej i zachodniej części UE, zwłaszcza w Finlandii, Szwecji, ale także w Belgii i Irlandii. Regiony o najniższych wskaźnikach znajdują się głównie na wschodzie Niemiec, na północy Włoch i w południowo-wschodniej Europie, ale również w północno-zachodniej Hiszpanii i Portugalii[242].
- Regiony o najwyższym wskaźniku „uczniów szkół podstawowych i średnich I stopnia, liczonym jako odsetek całej populacji" znaleźć można w Republice Irlandii, w Portugalii, w południowej Hiszpanii, ale również w Niderlandach, w Danii i w południowej Szwecji. Najniższe wskaźniki odnotowano natomiast na północy Włoch i w Europie Południowo-Wschodniej[243].
- Regiony o najwyższym wskaźniku „uczniów i studentów szkół średnich II stopnia i policealnych, liczonym jako odsetek populacji w wieku 15 – 24 lat" znaleźć można głównie we Włoszech, Belgii, Szwecji i Finlandii, natomiast większość regionów o wskaźniku najniższym znajduje się w Grecji, Hiszpanii, Portugalii, Rumunii, Bułgarii i Francji[244].
- Regiony o najwyższym wskaźniku osób z "ukończoną, co najwyżej szkołą średnią II stopnia lub policealną" znajdują się głównie w Europie Środkowej i Wschodniej, natomiast regiony o najniższym wskaźniku występują głównie w Europie Południowej[245].
- W UE istnieją duże dysproporcje regionalne w dziedzinie uczestnictwa dorosłych w uczeniu się przez całe życie. Zjednoczone Królestwo , Dania, Finlandia i Szwecja mają najwięcej regionów z wysokim poziomem uczestnictwa w procesie uczenia się przez całe życie, natomiast większość regionów, w których ten poziom jest bardzo niski, leży w Europie Południowo-Wschodniej[246].
- Pomiędzy regionami UE istnieją znaczne różnice w dostępności geograficznej do szkolnictwa wyższego[247]. Regiony o najlepszej dostępności geograficznej znajdują się przede wszystkim w Niemczech, Zjednoczonym Królestwie i Holandii. Natomiast większość regionów o najniższej punktacji pod względem dostępności geograficznej do szkolnictwa wyższego[248] leży w Europie Południowo-Wschodniej, północnej Szwecji i Finlandii, państwach bałtyckich, Hiszpanii, Danii i Francji.

Dysproporcje regionalne wewnątrz państw członkowskich UE

- Jeśli wziąć pod uwagę różnice regionalne w każdym państwie członkowskim UE mierzone jako różnica między największą i najmniejszą wartością na poziomie regionalnym dla każdego badanego wskaźnika[249], Rumunia ma największe regionalne zróżnicowanie w odniesieniu do wskaźnika „uczniów i studentów na wszystkich szczeblach edukacji, liczonego jako odsetek łącznej liczby ludności".

[240] Zob. tabele 3.17-3.18 i rysunek 3.9. (s. 83 – 84).
[241] Zob. wykres 3.11; Tabele 3.21 i 3.22 (s.85-86).
[242] Zob. rys. 3.1 i tabele 3.2 i 3.3 (s. 75).
[243] Zob. rys. 3.3 i tabele 3.6 i 3.7 (s. 77).
[244] Zob. rys. 3.4 i tabele 3.8 i 3.9 (s. 78).
[245] Zob. wykres 3.10; Tabele 3.19 i 3.20 (s. 84-85).
[246] Zob. rys. 3.2 i tabele 3.4 i 3.5 (s. 76).
[247] Zob. wykres 3.6; Tabela 3.12 (s. 80-81).
[248] Odsetek całkowitej liczby ludności regionu mieszkającej ponad 60 minut od najbliższego uniwersytetu.
[249] Badane wskaźniki dostępne są w tabeli 3.1, s. 74.

Nieznacznie mniejsze regionalne zróżnicowanie występuje w Republice Czeskiej, Belgii i Hiszpanii. Na drugim końcu plasuje się Republika Irlandii z najniższym wskaźnikiem (pamiętać jednak należy, że posiada ona tylko dwa regiony). Również w Danii, Szwecji, na Węgrzech i w Polsce różnice między najwyższą a najniższą regionalną wartością tego wskaźnika[250] wydają się być stosunkowo niewielkie.

- Jeśli chodzi o wskaźnik „uczestnictwo dorosłych w uczeniu się przez całe życie", największe regionalne zróżnicowanie występuje zdecydowanie w Zjednoczonym Królestwie, z różnicą wynoszącą 10,4 % między regionem o najwyższej wartości - Inner London (16,1 %), a regionem o najniższej wartości - Irlandia Północna, (5,7 %). Również w Słowacji i w Danii istnieją względnie duże dyspro-porcje regionalne w odniesieniu do tej zmiennej[251].
- W Belgii odnotowano największą różnicę między najwyższymi i najniższymi regionalnymi wartościami wskaźnika „uczniowie i studenci szkół średnich II stopnia i policealnych (ISCED 3-4) jako procent ogółu populacji w wieku 15 – 24 lat".
- W niektórych państwach członkowskich istnieją duże różnice między regionami dla wskaźnika „studenci wyższych uczelni jako procent ludności w wieku 20-24 lat". Największą taka różnica występuje w Belgii, a nieznacznie mniejsze różnice odnotowano w Republice Czeskiej i w Austrii. Również w Grecji, we Włoszech i w Rumunii odnotowano znaczne różnice dla tego wskaźnika, dochodzące nawet do ponad 80 % między regionami o najwyższych i najniższych wartościach. W większości tych przypadków jest to wynik dominacji regionu stołecznego w dziedzinie szkolnictwa wyższego[252].
- Największą różnicę między regionami o najwyższych i najniższych wartościach co do liczby osób żyjących w miejscach oddalonych o ponad 60 minut drogi od najbliższego uniwersytetu odnotowano w Hiszpanii, nieznacznie mniejsze różnice pod tym względem odnotowano kolejno w Grecji, Finlandii i Bułgarii.
- Osiem państw członkowskich UE wykazuje różnicę wynoszącą ponad 15 %, między przodującymi i znajdującymi się najniżej w klasyfikacji regionami w zakresie liczby absolwentów szkół wyższych w danym regionie. Państwem o największej dysproporcji (23,4 %) jest Zjednoczone Królestwo, a kolejne miejsca zajmują: Francja (21,3 %), Belgia (19,4 %), Republika Czeska (18,7 %), Hiszpania (17,5 %), Słowacja (17 %) i Rumunia (15,4 %). Różnica między wartościami tej zmiennej jest stosunkowo mniejsza w Irlandii, we Włoszech, w Słowenii, Portugalii, Finlandii i Austrii (we wszystkich poniżej 10 %)[253].
- Biorąc pod uwagę liczbę osób o niskim poziomie wykształcenia ("co najwyżej niższe niż podstawowe, podstawowe i średnie II stopnia"), największe rozbieżności między przodującymi i znajdującymi się najniżej w klasyfikacji regionami odnotowano we Francji (27,2 %), a za nią plasują się Grecja, Hiszpania, Rumunia i Niemcy. Natomiast państwa o najmniejszych różnicach to Słowenia, Irlandia, Słowacja, Austria i Finlandia[254].

Inne ważne przesłania

- Za średnimi krajowymi często kryją się negatywne realia lokalne i regionalne.
- Regionalne dysproporcje w kształceniu utrudniają zrównoważony rozwój regionalny i wzrost gospodarczy.
- Regionalne dysproporcje w edukacji *potęgują* nierówności między regionami UE. Stymulują one również drenaż mózgów w kierunku bardziej rozwiniętych/bogatszych regionów.
- We wszystkich regionach UE istnieje znaczne *zróżnicowanie* pod względem charakteru, skali i skutków nierówności edukacyjnych. Rozwiązania polityczne muszą raczej być dostosowywane do konkretnych przypadków, a nie standardowe.
- W państwach członkowskich gromadzone są obecnie dane na szczeblu podregionu oraz na poziomie poszczególnych szkół i klas, konieczna jest jednak lepsza koordynacja oraz dostępność tych danych na forum publicznym.
- Opracowywanie zdezagregowanych pod względem geograficznym danych na temat nierówności edukacyjnych może być ważnym narzędziem zwiększania kompetencji na szczeblu lokalnym i decentralizacji. Generuje ono i*nformacje o ważnym znaczeniu lokalnym.* Może ono pomóc szkołom, organizacjom społecznym i władzy na wszystkich szczeblach w planowaniu i prowadzeniu polityki na podstawie faktów.
- Różnice geograficzne dotyczące szans edukacyjnych i osiąganych wyników odzwierciedlają szerszy zakres nierówności. Stosowanie w dziedzinie edukacji samych środków politycznych nie jest wystarczające. Polityka podejmująca u źródeł walkę z ubóstwem oraz powiązanymi z nim aspektami nierówności społecznej może być bardziej skuteczna w celu poprawy ogólnego stanu regionalnych nierówności w edukacji, niż czysto polityczne działania w tej dziedzinie.

[250] Zob. tabela 4.45, s. 150.
[251] Zob. tabela 4.45, s. 150.
[252] Zob. tabela 4.45, s. 150.
[253] Zob. tabela 4.46, s. 150.
[254] Zob. tabela 4.46, s. 150.

Síntese

Resumo: Apesar dos compromissos assumidos pelos Estados-Membros da UE para promover a equidade nos sistemas de educação e formação, continuam a verificar-se grandes disparidades geográficas nas oportunidades e nos resultados educativos entre os Estados-Membros da UE e no interior de cada um deles.

O presente relatório traça uma panorâmica das desigualdades regionais existentes *nos países* da UE, em termos de oportunidades e resultados educativos. É seu objetivo apoiar os esforços dos responsáveis políticos para corrigir eficazmente estas diferenças. Contém mais de *100 mapas* que permitem visualizar as desigualdades e identifica as *10 regiões mais avançadas e as 10 menos avançadas* relativamente a cada um dos indicadores examinados. As *principais conclusões* são:

Desigualdades na educação entre as regiões da União Europeia

- Existem grandes desigualdades entre as oportunidades e os resultados educativos das regiões da UE. As diferenças nos resultados a nível nacional são frequentemente tão grandes ou maiores que as diferenças *internacionais*.
- As regiões com as percentagens mais elevadas de pessoas com reduzidas qualificações formais (pelo menos, educação pré-escolar, básica e secundária) são sobretudo as do sul da Europa e, em especial, em Portugal e Espanha. Em contrapartida, as regiões onde as pessoas são mais qualificadas são sobretudo as do Reino Unido, bem como da Europa Central e Oriental[255].
- As regiões com as percentagens mais elevadas de pessoas com habilitações superiores situam-se sobretudo no Reino Unido, na Bélgica e nos Países Baixos, mas também no norte de Espanha e em Chipre. Em contrapartida, as regiões com as taxas mais baixas registam-se em Itália, Portugal, e UE central e oriental[256].
- As regiões da UE com as taxas mais elevadas de «alunos e estudantes em todos os níveis do sistema educativo em percentagem da população total» estão concentradas no norte e oeste da UE, especialmente Finlândia, Suécia, e mesmo Bélgica e Irlanda. As regiões com as taxas mais baixas encontram-se principalmente no leste da Alemanha, no norte de Itália e sudeste da Europa, mas também no noroeste de Espanha e Portugal[257].
- As regiões com as percentagens mais elevadas de «alunos no ensino primário e secundário inferior em percentagem da população total» situam-se na República da Irlanda, em Portugal e no sul de Espanha, mas também nos Países Baixos, na Dinamarca e no sul da Suécia. Em contrapartida, as taxas mais baixas observam-se no norte de Itália e sudeste da Europa[258].
- As regiões com as percentagens mais elevadas de «alunos e estudantes no ensino secundário e pós-secundário não superior em percentagem da população com idade entre os 15-24 anos» encontram-se principalmente em Itália, Bélgica, Suécia e Finlândia, ao passo que a maioria das regiões com as taxas mais baixas se encontram na Grécia, Espanha, Portugal, Roménia, Bulgária e França[259].
- As regiões com as percentagens mais elevadas de pessoas com «no máximo, o ensino secundário e pós-secundário não superior» situam-se sobretudo na Europa central e oriental, enquanto as regiões com as taxas mais baixas se registam sobretudo no sul da Europa[260].
- Na UE, existem grandes diferenças regionais em termos de participação dos adultos na aprendizagem ao longo da vida. O Reino Unido, a Dinamarca, a Finlândia e a Suécia têm o maior número de regiões com forte participação na aprendizagem ao longo da vida, enquanto a maioria das regiões com taxas de participação muito baixas neste tipo de aprendizagem se situam no sudeste da Europa[261].
- Há diferenças significativas de «acessibilidade geográfica» ao ensino superior entre as regiões da UE[262]. As regiões com a melhor «acessibilidade geográfica» são, na sua maioria, da Alemanha, do Reino Unido e dos Países Baixos. Em contrapartida, a maioria das regiões com os resultados mais baixos de «acessibilidade geográfica» ao ensino superior[263] situam-se no sudeste da Europa, no norte da Suécia e Finlândia, nos Estados bálticos, em Espanha, na Dinamarca e em França.

Disparidades regionais no interior dos Estados-Membros da UE

- Se tivermos em conta as disparidades regionais existentes dentro de cada Estado-Membro da UE, medidas pela diferença entre os valores regionais máximos e mínimos de cada indicador analisado[264], a

[255] Ver quadros 3.17-3.18 e gráfico 3.9 (pp. 83-84).
[256] Ver gráfico 3.11. Quadros 3.21 e 3.22 (pp.85-86).
[257] Ver gráfico 3.1 e quadros 3.2 e 3.3 (p. 75).
[258] Ver gráfico 3.3 e quadros 3.6 e 3.7 (p. 77).
[259] Ver gráfico 3.4 e quadros 3.8 e 3.9 (p. 78).
[260] Ver gráfico 3.10. quadros 3.19 e 3.20 (pp. 84-85).
[261] Ver gráfico 3.2 e quadros 3.4 e 3.5 (p.76).
[262] Ver gráfico 3.6 e quadro 3.12 (pp.80-81).
[263] Percentagem da população total de uma região que vive a mais de 60 minutos da universidade mais próxima.
[264] Os indicadores analisados encontram-se referidos no quadro 3.1, p. 74.

Roménia tem a maior disparidade regional no que respeita ao indicador «alunos e estudantes de todos os níveis de ensino em % da população total», seguida de perto pela República Checa, a Bélgica e a Espanha. No outro extremo, a República da Irlanda apresenta os mais baixos números (mas note-se que tem apenas duas regiões). A Dinamarca, a Suécia, a Hungria e a Polónia também apresentam diferenças relativamente pequenas entre o valor regional máximo e mínimo deste indicador[265].

- Tendo em conta o indicador «participação dos adultos na aprendizagem ao longo da vida», o Reino Unido tem, de longe, a maior disparidade regional, apresentando em *Inner London* (16,1 %) o valor mais elevado e na Irlanda do Norte (5,7 %) o mais baixo. A Eslováquia e a Dinamarca também apresentam grandes disparidades regionais no que respeita a esta variável[266].
- A Bélgica tem a maior diferença entre as regiões mais avançadas e mais atrasadas, em termos de «alunos e estudantes no ensino secundário e pós-secundário não superior (CITE 3-4) em percentagem da população com idade entre os 15-24 anos».
- Alguns Estados-Membros têm grandes diferenças entre regiões, no que toca ao indicador «estudantes no ensino superior em percentagem da população entre 20-24 anos». A Bélgica regista a maior diferença, seguida de perto pela República Checa e a Áustria. Além disso, a Grécia, a Itália e a Roménia registam disparidades consideráveis no que toca a este indicador, com uma diferença superior a 80 % entre as regiões do topo e da base da tabela. Na maior parte dos casos, tal é o resultado da dominância da região da capital em termos de oportunidades de ensino superior[267].
- A Espanha apresenta a maior diferença entre as regiões mais e menos avançadas em termos do número de pessoas que vivem a mais de 60 minutos de distância da universidade mais próxima, seguida de perto pela Grécia, a Finlândia, em terceiro lugar, e a Bulgária, em quarto.
- Oito Estados-Membros da UE registam uma diferença superior a 15 pontos percentuais entre as regiões mais e menos avançadas, em termos de número de diplomados do ensino superior. O Reino Unido é o país com a maior diferença (23,4 %), seguido de França (21,3 %), Bélgica (19,4 %), República Checa (18,7 %), Espanha (17,5 %), Eslováquia (17 %) e Roménia (15,4 %). A diferença apresentada por esta variável é relativamente mais pequena na Irlanda, Itália, Eslovénia, Portugal, Finlândia e Áustria (todos abaixo de 10 %)[268].
- Em termos do número de pessoas com poucas habilitações (no máximo, educação pré-escolar, básica e secundária), França apresenta a maior diferença (27,2 %) entre as suas regiões, seguida pela Grécia, Espanha, Roménia e Alemanha. Em contrapartida, os países com a diferença mais pequena são a Eslovénia, Irlanda, Eslováquia, Áustria e Finlândia[269].

Outras conclusões importantes

- As médias nacionais escondem muitas vezes realidades locais e regionais difíceis.
- As disparidades regionais em termos de educação impedem o desenvolvimento regional equilibrado e o crescimento económico.
- As disparidades regionais em termos de educação *são uma componente* das desigualdades entre as regiões da UE. Por outro lado, alimentam a fuga de cérebros para as regiões mais desenvolvidas/ricas.
- Existe uma *variação* considerável na natureza, na escala e nos efeitos das desigualdades, em termos de educação, consoante as regiões da União Europeia. As soluções políticas devem ser *especificamente adaptadas* e não genéricas.
- Os dados ao nível sub-regional, bem como ao nível das escolas e salas de aulas individuais estão atualmente a ser recolhidos nos Estados-Membros, mas carecem de mais coordenação e divulgação.
- A compilação de dados discriminados geograficamente sobre as desigualdades educativas pode ser um instrumento importante para a responsabilização local e a descentralização. Gera *informações pertinentes ao nível local*. Pode ajudar as escolas, as organizações comunitárias e os governos, a todos os níveis, a fazer planeamento e política com bases concretas.
- As disparidades entre locais, em termos de oportunidades e resultados educativos, refletem desigualdades bem mais vastas. As medidas relativas à política de ensino não são suficientes só por si. As políticas que combatem a pobreza e os seus efeitos na fonte são suscetíveis de ter mais impacto nas desigualdades educativas regionais do que as meras intervenções de política educativa.

[265] Ver quadro 4.45, p. 150.
[266] Ver quadro 4.45, p. 150.
[267] Ver quadro 4.45, p. 150.
[268] Ver quadro 4.6, p. 150.
[269] Ver quadro 4.6, p. 150.

Rezumat

Pe scurt: În pofida angajamentelor asumate de statele membre ale UE în vederea promovării echității în domeniul educației și formării profesionale, continuă să existe disparități geografice mari în ceea ce privește oportunitățile și rezultatele educaționale, *de la un stat membru la altul*, dar și *pe teritoriul* aceluiași stat membru.

Prezentul raport oferă o imagine a inegalităților regionale *intra-naționale* la nivelul oportunităților și rezultatelor educaționale din UE. Scopul său este de a sprijini factorii de decizie în eforturile lor de a concepe măsuri eficiente pentru a remedia aceste disparități. Raportul conține peste *100 de hărți* care permit vizualizarea inegalităților. El identifică un top al *primelor 10* și al *ultimelor 10* regiuni ale UE cu privire la fiecare dintre indicatorii examinați. *Mesajele* esențiale sunt următoarele:

Inegalități în materie de educație între regiunile din UE

- Există inegalități considerabile între regiunile din UE în ceea ce privește oportunitățile și rezultatele educaționale. Diferențele *intra*-naționale în materie de performanțe sunt în mod frecvent cel puțin la fel de mari, și adesea mult mai mari, în comparație cu diferențele *inter*-naționale.
- Regiunile care înregistrează proporția cea mai ridicată de persoane cu un nivel scăzut de calificare formală („cel mult învățământ preșcolar, primar sau secundar inferior") se situează, în cea mai mare parte, în Europa de Sud și, în special, în Portugalia și Spania. În schimb, regiunile în care oamenii dispun de un nivel superior de calificare se situează, în cea mai mare parte, în Regatul Unit, precum și în Europa Centrală și de Est[270].
- Regiunile care înregistrează proporția cea mai ridicată de persoane cu calificări în învățământul terțiar se situează, în cea mai mare parte, în Regatul Unit, Belgia și Țările de Jos, dar și în nordul Spaniei și în Cipru. În schimb, regiunile cu proporția cea mai scăzută se situează în Italia, Portugalia și în centrul și estul Uniunii Europene[271].
- Regiunile UE cu proporția cea mai ridicată de „elevi și studenți înscriși la toate nivelurile de învățământ, ca procentaj din populația totală" sunt concentrate în nordul și vestul UE, în special în Finlanda, Suedia, dar și în Belgia și Irlanda. Regiunile care înregistrează proporția cea mai scăzută se situează, în special, în partea de est a Germaniei, în nordul Italiei și în Europa de Sud-Est, dar și în nord-vestul Spaniei și în Portugalia[272].
- Regiunile care înregistrează proporția cea mai ridicată de „elevi înscriși în învățământul primar și secundar inferior, ca procentaj din populația totală" se situează în zone din Irlanda, Portugalia, sudul Spaniei, dar și în Țările de Jos, Danemarca și în sudul Suediei. În schimb, proporția cea mai scăzută se observă în nordul Italiei și în Europa de Sud-Est[273].
- Regiunile cu proporția cea mai ridicată de „elevi și studenți înscriși în învățământul secundar superior și în învățământul postsecundar neuniversitar, ca procentaj din populația cu vârsta cuprinsă între 15 și 24 de ani" se situează, în cea mai mare parte, în Italia, Belgia, Suedia și Finlanda, în timp ce majoritatea regiunilor cu proporția cea mai scăzută se află în Grecia, Spania, Portugalia, România, Bulgaria și Franța[274].
- Regiunile cu proporția cea mai ridicată de persoane cu studii de „cel mult învățământ secundar superior și învățământ postsecundar neuniversitar" se află, în cea mai mare parte, în Europa Centrală și de Est, în timp ce regiunile cu proporția cea mai scăzută se situează, în cea mai mare parte, în Europa de Sud[275].
- Există disparități regionale mari în UE în ceea ce privește participarea adulților la învățarea pe tot parcursul vieții. Regatul Unit, Danemarca, Finlanda și Suedia au cel mai mare număr de regiuni cu o participare puternică la procesul de învățare pe tot parcursul vieții, în timp ce majoritatea regiunilor care înregistrează un nivel de participare foarte redus la procesul de învățare pe tot parcursul vieții se află în Europa de Sud- Est[276].
- Există diferențe semnificative între regiunile din UE în ceea ce privește „accesibilitatea geografică" la învățământul terțiar[277]. Regiunile cu cea mai bună "accesibilitate geografică" se află, în principal, în Germania, Regatul Unit și Țările de Jos. În schimb, majoritatea regiunilor cu cele mai slabe rezultate obținute la capitolul „accesibilitate geografică" la învățământul terțiar[278] se situează în Europa de Sud-Est, partea de nord din Suedia și Finlanda, statele baltice, Spania, Danemarca și Franța.

Disparitățile regionale de pe teritoriul fiecărui stat membru al UE

- Luând în considerare disparitățile regionale de pe teritoriul fiecărui stat membru al UE, măsurate prin calcularea diferenței dintre valorile regionale maxime și valorile minime pentru fiecare indicator analizat[279], România cunoaște cele mai mari disparități regionale în ceea ce privește indicatorul „elevi și studenți înscriși la toate nivelurile de învățământ, ca % din totalul populației", urmată îndeaproape de Republica

[270] A se vedea tabelele 3.17-3.18 și figura 3.9 (pp. 83-84).
[271] A se vedea figura 3.11, tabelele 3.21 și 3.22 (pp.85-86).
[272] A se vedea figura 3.1 și tabelele 3.2 și 3.3 (p. 75).
[273] A se vedea figura 3.3 și tabelele 3.6 și 3.7 (p. 77).
[274] A se vedea figura 3.4 și tabelele 3.8 și 3.9 (p. 78).
[275] A se vedea figura 3.10, tabelele 3.19 și 3.20 (pp. 84-85).
[276] A se vedea figura 3.2 și tabelele 3.4 și 3.5 (p. 76).
[277] A se vedea figura 3.6, tabelul 3.12 (pp.80-81).
[278] % de persoane din populația totală a unei regiuni care locuiesc la peste 60 de minute de cea mai apropiată universitate.
[279] Indicatorii analizați sunt prezentați în tabelul 3.1, p. 74.

Cehă, Belgia și Spania. La capătul opus, Irlanda înregistrează valoarea cea mai mică (însă trebuie remarcat faptul că aceasta are numai două regiuni). Danemarca, Suedia, Ungaria și Polonia par, de asemenea, să înregistreze diferențe relativ mici între valoarea regională maximă și valoarea minimă pentru acest indicator[280].

- În ceea ce privește indicatorul „participarea adulților la învățarea pe tot parcursul vieții", Regatul Unit înregistrează, de departe, cele mai mari disparități regionale, diferența între regiunea cu valoarea cea mai ridicată (zona Inner London, 16,1%) și regiunea cu valoarea cea mai redusă (Irlanda de Nord, 5,7%) fiind de 10,4%. Slovacia și Danemarca înregistrează, de asemenea, disparități regionale relativ mari în ceea ce privește această variabilă[281].
- Belgia cunoaște cea mai mare diferență între regiunile fruntașe și regiunile cu cele mai slabe rezultate în ceea ce privește „elevii și studenții înscriși în învățământul secundar superior și învățământul postsecundar neuniversitar (ISCED 3-4), ca procentaj din populația cu vârsta cuprinsă între 15 și 24 de ani".
- În unele state membre, există diferențe mari între regiuni în ceea ce privește indicatorul „studenți din învățământul terțiar, ca procentaj din populația cu vârsta cuprinsă între 20 și 24 ani". Belgia înregistrează diferența cea mai accentuată, urmată îndeaproape de Republica Cehă și Austria. În plus, Grecia, Italia și România cunosc discrepanțe mari în ceea ce privește acest indicator, înregistrând o diferență de peste 80% între regiunea fruntașă și regiunea cu cele mai slabe rezultate. În majoritatea cazurilor, aceasta se întâmplă din cauza dominanței regiunii capitalei în ceea ce privește oportunitățile în materie de învățământ terțiar[282].
- Spania înregistrează cea mai mare diferență între regiunile fruntașe și regiunile cu cele mai slabe rezultate în ceea ce privește numărul de persoane care locuiesc la peste 60 de minute distanță de cea mai apropiată universitate, urmată îndeaproape de Grecia, de Finlanda pe locul al treilea și de Bulgaria pe locul al patrulea.
- Opt state membre ale UE înregistrează o diferență de peste 15% între regiunile fruntașe și regiunile cu cele mai slabe rezultate în ceea ce privește numărul de absolvenți de învățământ terțiar dintr-o regiune. Regatul Unit este țara care înregistrează cea mai mare diferență (23,4%), urmată de Franța (21,3%), Belgia (19,4%), Republica Cehă (18,7%), Spania (17,5%), Slovacia (17%) și România (15,4%). Diferența pentru această variabilă este relativ mai mică în Irlanda, Italia, Slovenia, Portugalia, Finlanda și Austria (toate sub 10%)[283].
- În ceea ce privește numărul de persoane cu un nivel scăzut de educație („cel mult învățământ preșcolar, primar sau secundar inferior"), Franța înregistrează gradul cel mai înalt de disparitate între regiunile sale fruntașe și regiunile sale cu cele mai slabe rezultate (o diferență de 27,2%), urmată de Grecia, Spania, România și Germania. În schimb, țările care înregistrează gradul cel mai redus de disparitate sunt Slovenia, Irlanda, Slovacia, Austria și Finlanda[284].

Alte mesaje esențiale

- Mediile naționale adesea ascund realități neplăcute la nivel local și regional.
- Disparitățile regionale în ceea ce privește învățarea constituie un obstacol în calea dezvoltării regionale și a creșterii economice.
- Disparitățile regionale în domeniul educației *înrăutățesc* inegalitățile între regiunile UE. Ele contribuie, de asemenea, la „exportul de inteligență" în regiunile mai dezvoltate/mai bogate.
- Există o *variație* considerabilă în ceea ce privește natura, amploarea și efectele inegalităților educaționale între regiunile din UE. Soluțiile politice trebuie să fie mai degrabă *adaptate nevoilor locale* decât generice.
- În cadrul statelor membre sunt colectate, în prezent, date la nivel subregional și la nivelul școlilor individuale și al claselor, însă este nevoie de o mai bună coordonare și este necesar ca aceste date să fie făcute publice.
- Compilarea datelor defalcate din punct de vedere geografic privind inegalitățile educaționale poate constitui un instrument important pentru o mai mare responsabilizare la nivel local și pentru descentralizare. Aceasta generează *informații relevante la nivel local*. Astfel li se poate permite școlilor, organizațiilor comunitare și autorităților de la toate nivelurile să se implice într-un proces de planificare și formulare de politici pe baza unor elemente concrete.
- Disparitățile spațiale în ceea ce privește oportunitățile și rezultatele educaționale reflectă inegalități mai mari. Doar măsurile în materie de politică educațională nu sunt suficiente. Este probabil că politicile care combat sărăcia și aspectele legate de defavorizare la rădăcina acestora sunt mai eficiente decât intervențiile care țin numai de politica în domeniul educației în ceea ce privește influențarea structurii globale a inegalității educaționale la nivel regional.

[280] A se vedea tabelul 4.45, p. 150.
[281] A se vedea tabelul 4.45, p. 150.
[282] A se vedea tabelul 4.45, p. 150.
[283] A se vedea tabelul 4.46, p. 150.
[284] A se vedea tabelul 4.46, p. 150.

Zhrnutie

Krátke zhrnutie: Napriek záväzkom členských štátov EÚ presadzovať spravodlivosť vo vzdelávaní a v odbornej príprave, ešte stále pretrvávajú veľké geografické rozdiely v príležitostiach na vzdelávanie a jeho výsledkoch medzi členskými štátmi EÚ, ale aj v rámci nich.

Táto správa vykresľuje vnútroštátne rozdiely v jednotlivých regiónoch EÚ, čo sa týka príležitostí na vzdelávanie a ich výsledkov. Jej cieľom je podporiť tvorcov politík v ich snahách o vytvorenie účinných opatrení na nápravu týchto rozdielov. Obsahuje viac než 100 máp, ktoré pomáhajú uvedomiť si tieto nezrovnalosti. Vymedzuje 10 najvyššie umiestnených regiónov, ako aj 10 najnižšie umiestnených regiónov pre každý ukazovateľ, ktorý skúma. Jej kľúčové odkazy sú:

Nerovnosti vo vzdelávaní v regiónoch EÚ

- Medzi regiónmi EÚ existujú značné nerovnosti v príležitostiach na vzdelávanie a jeho výsledkoch. Vnútroštátne rozdiely v dosahovaní výsledkov vo vzdelávaní sú často minimálne rovnako veľké, a mnoho krát ešte väčšie, ako sú rozdiely medzi jednotlivými krajinami.
- Regióny, ktoré majú najvyšší pomer ľudí s nízkym vzdelaním (predovšetkým so základným vzdelaním a nižším stredoškolským vzdelaním), sa nachádzajú väčšinou v južnej Európe, a to predovšetkým v Portugalsku a Španielsku. Naopak regióny, v ktorých majú ľudia vyššie vzdelanie, sa nachádzajú väčšinou vo Veľkej Británii, ako aj v strednej a východnej Európe[285].
- Regióny s najvyšším pomerom jednotlivcov, ktorí majú terciárne vzdelanie, možno nájsť predovšetkým vo Veľkej Británii, Belgicku a Holandsku, ale aj v severnom Španielsku a na Cypre. Naopak regióny s najnižším pomerom sa nachádzajú v Taliansku, Portugalsku a v štátoch strednej a východnej časti EÚ[286].
- Regióny EÚ s najvyšším pomerom žiakov a študentov na všetkých úrovniach vzdelávania ako percento z celkovej populácie sa sústreďujú na severe a západe EÚ, predovšetkým vo Fínsku, Švédsku, ale aj v Belgicku a Írsku. Regióny s najnižším pomerom možno nájsť najmä na východe Nemecka, severe Talianska a v juhovýchodnej Európe, ale aj na severozápade Španielska a Portugalska[287].
- Regióny s najvyšším pomerom žiakov v procese základného a nižšieho sekundárneho vzdelávania ako percento z celkovej populácie možno pozorovať v Írsku, Portugalsku, južnom Španielsku, ale aj v Holandsku, Dánsku a južnom Švédsku. Naopak najnižší pomer pozorujeme na severe Talianska a v juhovýchodnej Európe[288].
- Regióny s najvyšším pomerom žiakov a študentov vo vyššom sekundárnom vzdelávaní a postsekundárnom vzdelávaní (mimo terciárneho) ako percento z populácie vo veku 15 – 24 rokov sú najmä v Taliansku, Belgicku, Švédsku a Fínsku, kým väčšina regiónov s najnižším pomerom je v Grécku, Španielsku, Portugalsku, Rumunsku, Bulharsku a vo Francúzsku[289].
- Regióny s najvyšším pomerom ľudí nanajvýš s vyšším sekundárnym vzdelaním a postsekundárnym vzdelaním (mimo terciárneho) sú väčšinou v strednej a východnej Európe, kým regióny s najnižším pomerom možno nájsť predovšetkým v južnej Európe[290].
- Existujú veľké rozdiely medzi jednotlivými regiónmi EÚ, čo sa týka účasti dospelej populácie na celoživotnom vzdelávaní. Vo Veľkej Británii, Dánsku, Fínsku a Švédsku je najväčší počet regiónov, kde je silná účasť na celoživotnom vzdelávaní, kým vo väčšine regiónov v juhovýchodnej Európe je veľmi nízky pomer účasti na celoživotnom vzdelávaní[291].
- V regiónoch EÚ existujú významné rozdiely v geografickej prístupnosti k terciárnemu vzdelávaniu[292]. Regióny s najlepšou geografickou prístupnosťou sú väčšinou v Nemecku, Veľkej Británii a Holandsku. Naopak väčšina regiónov s najnižším „počtom bodov za geografickú prístupnosť" k terciárnemu vzdelávaniu[293] je v juhovýchodnej Európe, severnom Švédsku a vo Fínsku, v baltských štátoch, Španielsku, Dánsku a vo Francúzsku.

Regionálne rozdiely v rámci členských štátov EÚ

- Hľadiac na regionálne rozdiely v rámci každého členského štátu EÚ, ktoré sú merané ako rozdiel medzi maximálnymi a minimálnymi regionálnymi hodnotami pre každý skúmaný ukazovateľ[294], má najväčšie rozdiely medzi regiónmi, čo sa týka ukazovateľa „žiaci a študenti na všetkých úrovniach vzdelávania ako percento z celkovej populácie" Rumunsko, a hneď po ňom nasleduje Česká republika, Belgicko a Španielsko. Na druhej strane má

[285] Pozri tabuľky 3.17-3.18 a obrázok 3.9 (s. 83-84).
[286] Pozri obrázok 3.11; tabuľky 3.21 a 3.22 (str. 85-86).
[287] Pozri obrázok 3.1 a tabuľky 3.2 a 3.3 (s. 75).
[288] Pozri obrázok 3.3 a tabuľky 3.6 a 3.7 (s. 77).
[289] Pozri obrázok 3.4 a tabuľky 3.8 a 3.9 (s. 78).
[290] Pozri obrázok 3.10; Tabuľky 3.19 a 3.20 (s. 84 – 85).
[291] Pozri obrázok 3.2 a tabuľky 3.4 a 3.5 (s. 76).
[292] Pozri obrázok 3.6; Tabuľka 3.12 (s. 80 – 81).
[293] % celkovej populácie regiónu, ktorej bydlisko je vzdialené viac než 60 minút od najbližšej univerzity.
[294] Skúmané ukazovatele sú v tabuľke 3.1, s. 74.

najnižšie hodnoty Írsko (treba však pripomenúť, že má len dva regióny). Zdá sa, že v Dánsku, Švédsku, Maďarsku a Poľsku sú tiež pomerne malé rozdiely medzi maximálnymi a minimálnymi hodnotami v jednotlivých regiónoch, čo sa týka tohto ukazovateľa[295].

- Hľadiac na ukazovateľ „účasť dospelej populácie na celoživotnom vzdelávaní" sú zďaleka najväčšie rozdiely medzi regiónmi vo Veľkej Británii, kde je rozdiel medzi regiónom s najvyššou hodnotou (Vnútorný Londýn 16,1 %) a regiónom s najnižšou hodnotou (Severné Írsko 5,7 %) na úrovni 10,4 %. Slovensko a Dánsko majú tiež pomerne veľké rozdiely v jednotlivých regiónoch, čo sa týka tohto ukazovateľa[296].
- V Belgicku sú najväčšie rozdiely medzi regiónmi s najvyššími a najnižšími hodnotami, čo sa týka žiakov a študentov vo vyššom sekundárnom vzdelávaní a postsekundárnom vzdelávaní (mimo terciárneho) (ISCED 3-4) ako percento populácie vo veku 15 – 24 rokov.
- V niektorých členských štátoch sú veľké rozdiely medzi jednotlivými regiónmi, čo sa týka ukazovateľa „študenti v terciárnom vzdelávaní ako percento populácie vo veku 20 – 24 rokov". Najväčšie rozdiely sú v Belgicku, po ktorom tesne nasleduje Česká republika a Rakúsko. Okrem toho v Grécku, Taliansku a Rumunsku sú veľké rozdiely, čo sa týka tohto ukazovateľa, kde je medzi regiónmi s najvyššími a najnižšími hodnotami rozdiel až 80 %. Vo väčšine týchto prípadov je to následkom prevahy regiónu hlavného mesta, čo sa týka príležitostí na terciárne vzdelávanie[297].
- V Španielsku sú najväčšie rozdiely medzi regiónmi s najvyššími a najnižšími hodnotami, čo sa týka počtu ľudí, ktorých bydlisko je vzdialené viac než 60 minút od najbližšej univerzity, a hneď po ňom nasleduje Grécko, tretie je Fínsko a na štvrtom mieste je Bulharsko.
- V ôsmich členských štátoch EÚ je rozdiel viac než 15 % medzi ich regiónmi s najvyššími a najnižšími hodnotami, čo sa týka počtu absolventov terciárneho vzdelávania v regióne. Spojené kráľovstvo je krajina s najväčším rozdielom (23,4 %), po ktorej nasleduje Francúzsko (21,3 %), Belgicko (19,4 %), Česká republika (18,7 %), Španielsko (17,5 %), Slovensko (17 %) a Rumunsko (15,4 %). Rozdiely týkajúce sa tohto ukazovateľa sú pomerne malé v Írsku, Taliansku, Slovinsku, Portugalsku, Fínsku a Rakúsku (u všetkých menej než 10 %)[298].
- Hľadiac na počet ľudí, ktorí majú nízke vzdelanie (najviac základné a nižšie stredné vzdelanie), má Francúzsko najväčšie rozdiely medzi svojimi regiónmi s najvyššími a najnižšími hodnotami (rozdiel 27,2 %), po ktorom nasleduje Grécko, Španielsko, Rumunsko a Nemecko. Naopak krajiny s najmenšími rozdielmi sú Slovinsko, Írsko, Slovensko, Rakúsko a Fínsko[299].

Ďalšie kľúčové odkazy

- Vnútroštátne priemery často zakrývajú nepríjemnú realitu, ktorá je prítomná na miestnej a regionálnej úrovni.
- Regionálne rozdiely vo vzdelávaní bránia vyváženému regionálnemu rozvoju a hospodárskemu rastu.
- Regionálne rozdiely vo vzdelávaní ešte zhoršujú nerovnosť medzi regiónmi EÚ. Tiež podporujú únik mozgov do rozvinutejších alebo bohatších regiónov.
- Existuje značná rôznorodosť čo sa týka povahy, rozsahu a vplyvu nerovností vo vzdelávaní v regiónoch EÚ. Reformné riešenia musia byť presne zamerané a nie plošné. .
- V súčasnosti sa v členských štátoch zbierajú informácie na subregionálnej úrovni a na úrovni jednotlivých škôl a tried, potrebná je však lepšia koordinácia a sprístupnenie týchto informácií verejnosti.
- Zozbieranie údajov o nerovnostiach vo vzdelávaní, ktoré sú geograficky členené, môže byť dôležitým nástrojom posilnenia právomocí na miestnej úrovni a decentralizácie. Poskytuje relevantné údaje pre miestnu úroveň. Môže to pomôcť školám, miestnym organizáciám a vláde uplatňovať také plánovanie a politiku na všetkých úrovniach, ktoré bude založené na faktoch.
- Územné rozdiely v príležitostiach na vzdelávanie a jeho výsledkoch odrážajú širšie nerovnosti. Opatrenia len v oblasti politiky vzdelávania nie sú postačujúce. Je pravdepodobné, že politiky, ktoré sa zaoberajú chudobou a s tým spojenými oblasťami znevýhodnenia už pri ich výskyte, budú pri ovplyvňovaní celkových modelov nerovností vo vzdelávaní na regionálnej úrovni úspešnejšie než len zásahy výlučne upravujúce politiky vzdelávania.

[295] Pozri tabuľku č. 4.45, s. 150.
[296] Pozri tabuľku č. 4.45, s. 150.
[297] Pozri tabuľku č. 4.45, s. 150.
[298] Pozri tabuľku č. 4.46, s. 150.
[299] Pozri tabuľku č. 4.46, s. 150.

Povzetek

Na kratko: Kljub zavezi držav članic EU k spodbujanju pravičnosti v izobraževanju in usposabljanju se možnosti in rezultati izobraževanja med državami članicami in znotraj njihovih nacionalnih meja z geografskega vidika še vedno precej razlikujejo.

To poročilo prikazuje regionalne neenakosti v možnostih in rezultatih izobraževanja znotraj nacionalnih meja držav članic EU. Namen poročila je podpreti oblikovalce politik pri njihovih prizadevanjih za oblikovanje učinkovitih ukrepov za odpravo teh razlik. Vsebuje več kot *100 zemljevidov za boljšo predstavo o neenakostih.* Za vsak kazalnik opredeljuje *10 najbolj in 10 najmanj uspešnih* regij EU. V nadaljevanju so navedena glavne ugotovitve poročila.

Razlike v izobraževanju v regijah EU

- Med regijami EU so precejšnje razlike v možnostih za izobraževanje. Razlike v izobraževalnih dosežkih znotraj nacionalnih meja so večkrat prav tako velike, pogosto pa celo večje od razlik med posameznimi državami.
- Regije z največjim deležem ljudi z nizkimi formalnimi kvalifikacijami („največ predšolska vzgoja ali osnovnošolsko izobraževanje"), so večinoma v južni Evropi, zlasti pa na Portugalskem in v Španiji. V nasprotju z njimi so regije, v katerih imajo prebivalci višje kvalifikacije, večinoma v Združenem Kraljestvu ter v srednji in vzhodni Evropi[300].
- Regije z najvišjim deležem oseb z dokončano terciarno izobrazbo so večinoma v Združenem Kraljestvu, Belgiji in na Nizozemskem, pa tudi v severni Španiji in na Cipru. Najnižji delež takih oseb je v regijah v Italiji, na Portugalskem ter v srednji in vzhodni Evropi[301].
- Regije EU z najvišjimi deleži „učencev, dijakov in študentov na vseh ravneh izobraževanja kot odstotek celotne populacije“ so skoncentrirane na severu in zahodu EU, zlasti na Finskem, Švedskem, pa tudi v Belgiji in na Irskem. Najnižji deleži te populacije so večinoma v vzhodni Nemčiji, severni Italiji in jugovzhodni Evropi, pa tudi v severozahodni Španiji in na Portugalskem[302].
- Regije z najvišjim deležem „učencev v osnovnošolskem izobraževanju kot odstotek celotnega prebivalstva“ so na Irskem, Portugalskem, v južni Španiji, pa tudi na Nizozemskem, Danskem in jugu Švedske. V nasprotju z njimi je ta delež najnižji v severni Italiji in jugovzhodni Evropi[303].
- Regije z najvišjim deležem „dijakov in študentov v srednješolskem in višjem strokovnem izobraževanju kot odstotek prebivalcev, starih od 15 do 24 let“ so večinoma v Italiji, Belgiji, na Švedskem in Finskem; večina regij, v katerih je ta delež najnižji, pa je v Grčiji, Španiji, na Portugalskem, v Romuniji, Bolgariji in Franciji[304].
- Regije z najvišjim deležem ljudi z „največ srednješolsko in višjo strokovno izobrazbo" so večinoma v srednji in vzhodni Evropi, regije z najnižjim deležem pa večinoma v južni Evropi[305].
- V EU obstajajo velike regionalne razlike glede sodelovanja odraslih v vseživljenjskem učenju. V Združenem Kraljestvu, na Danskem, Finskem in Švedskem je največje število regij z visoko udeležbo v vseživljenjskem učenju, večina regij z zelo nizkim deležem sodelovanja v vseživljenjskem učenju pa je v jugovzhodni Evropi[306].
- Razlike v „geografski dostopnosti“ visokošolskega izobraževanja so med regijami EU zelo velike[307]. Tiste z najboljšo „geografsko dostopnostjo“ so večinoma v Nemčiji, Združenem Kraljestvu in na Nizozemskem, večina regij z najslabšo „geografsko dostopnostjo“ visokošolskega izobraževanja[308] pa je v jugovzhodni Evropi, na severu Švedske in Finske, v baltskih državah, Španiji, na Danskem in v Franciji.

Regionalne razlike <u>znotraj</u> držav članic EU

- Regionalne razlike znotraj držav članic EU, izražene kot razlika med najvišjimi in najnižjimi regionalnimi vrednostmi za vsak obravnavan kazalnik[309], so glede na kazalnik „delež učencev, dijakov in študentov na vseh ravneh izobraževanja kot odstotek celotnega prebivalstva“ največje v Romuniji, tesno pa ji sledijo Češka, Belgija in Španija. Na drugi strani je ta razlika najmanjša na Irskem (ki pa ima samo dve regiji). Raziskave kažejo, da so razlike med regionalnimi najvišjimi in najnižjimi vrednostmi za ta kazalnik razmeroma majhne tudi na Danskem, Švedskem, Madžarskem in Poljskem.

[300] Glej preglednici 3.17 in 3.18 ter sliko 3.9 (str. 83–84).
[301] Glej sliko 3.11 in preglednici 3.21 in 3.22 (str. 85–86).
[302] Glej sliko 3.1 in preglednici 3.2 in 3.3 (str. 75).
[303] Glej sliko 3.3 in preglednici 3.6 in 3.7 (str. 77).
[304] Glej sliko 3.4 in preglednici 3.8 in 3.9 (str. 78).
[305] Glej sliko 3.10 in preglednici 3.19 in 3.20 (str. 84–85).
[306] Glej sliko 3.2 in preglednici 3.4 in 3.5 (str. 76).
[307] Glej sliko 3.6 in tabelo 3.12 (str. 80-81).
[308] Odstotek vseh prebivalcev regije, ki živi več kot 60 minut od najbližje univerze.
[309] Obravnavani kazalniki so prikazani v preglednici 3.1, str. 74.

- Glede na kazalnik „vključenost odraslih v vseživljenjskem učenju“ so zdaleč največje regionalne razlike v Združenem Kraljestvu, kjer je razlika med regijo z najvišjim deležem (Inner London, 16,1 %) in regijo z najnižjo deležem (Severna Irska, 5,7 %) 10,4 %. Tudi na Slovaškem in Danskem so regionalne razlike glede na ta kazalnik razmeroma velike[310].
- Najvišja razlika med najbolj in najmanj uspešno regijo glede na kazalnik „dijaki in študenti v srednješolskem in višjem strokovnem izobraževanju (ISCED 3-4) kot odstotek prebivalstva, starega od 15 do 24 let“ je v Belgiji.
- V nekaterih državah članicah so med regijami velike razlike glede na kazalnik „študenti v visokošolskem izobraževanju kot odstotek prebivalstva, starega od 20 do 24 let“. Največje so v Belgiji, tesno pa ji sledita Češka in Avstrija. Poleg tega so po tem kazalniku velike razlike tudi v Grčiji, Italiji in Romuniji, saj se njihove najboljše in najslabše regije razlikujejo za več kot 80 %. V večini teh primerov je to posledica prevladujočega položaja regije glavnega mesta glede možnosti za visokošolsko izobraževanje[311].
- Največji razkorak med najbolj in najmanj uspešnimi regijami po številu ljudi, ki živijo več kot 60 minut od najbližje univerze, je v Španiji, sledijo pa ji Grčija, Finska in Bolgarija.
- V osmih državah članicah EU je razlika med najbolj in najmanj uspešnimi regijami glede na število ljudi v regiji z zaključeno terciarno izobrazbo večja od 15 %. Največji razkorak je v Združenem Kraljestvu (23,4 %), sledijo pa mu Francija (21,3 %), Belgija (19,4 %), Češka (18,7 %), Španija (17,5 %), Slovaška (17 %) in Romunija (15,4 %). Za to spremenljivko je razkorak razmeroma majhen na Irskem, v Italiji, Sloveniji, na Portugalskem, Finskem in v Avstriji (povsod manj kot 10 %)[312].
- Upoštevajoč število ljudi z nizko izobrazbo („največ predšolska vzgoja ali osnovnošolsko izobrazba“) je največja razlika med najboljšo in najslabšo regijo v Franciji (27,2 %), sledijo pa ji Grčija, Španija, Romunija in Nemčija. Ta razlika je najmanjša v Sloveniji, na Irskem, Slovaškem, v Avstriji in na Finskem[313].

Druge ključne ugotovitve

- Nacionalna povprečja pogosto zakrivajo nespodbudne lokalne in regionalne razmere.
- Regionalne razlike v učenju ovirajo uravnotežen regionalni razvoj in gospodarsko rast.
- Regionalne razlike v izobraževanju *povečujejo* neenakosti med regijami EU. Pospešujejo tudi beg možganov v bolj razvite/bogatejše regije.
- Narava, obseg in posledice neenakosti v izobraževanju se med regijami EU precej *razlikujejo*. Politične rešitve morajo biti *prilagojene*, ne pa splošne.
- Podatke na podregionalni ravni ter na ravni posameznih šol in razredov zdaj zbirajo v državah članicah, vendar je treba zagotoviti boljše usklajevanje zbiranja teh podatkov in njihovo dostopnost javnosti.
- Priprava geografsko razčlenjenih podatkov o neenakosti v izobraževanju je lahko pomembno orodje za krepitev lokalnega vpliva in decentralizacijo. Taki podatki so *pomembni za posamezne skupnosti*. Šolam, organizacijam posameznih skupnosti in javnim upravam na vseh ravneh oblasti lahko pomagajo sodelovati pri načrtovanju in oblikovanju politik na podlagi dejstev.
- Geografske razlike v možnostih in rezultatih izobraževanja kažejo na neenakosti v širšem smislu. Samo ukrepi na področju politike izobraževanja ne zadostujejo. Politike, ki revščino in z njo povezane vidike prikrajšanosti obravnavajo pri njihovih koreninah, imajo pri vplivanju na splošne vzorce regionalnih neenakosti v izobraževanju večjo možnost za uspeh kot zgolj ukrepi na področju politike izobraževanja.

[310] Glej preglednico 4.45, str. 150.
[311] Glej preglednico 4.45, str. 150.
[312] Glej preglednico 4.46, str. 150.
[313] Glej preglednico 4.46, str. 150.

Sammanfattning

Kort sagt: Trots EU-ländernas uttalade vilja att verka för lika chanser inom utbildningen finns det fortfarande stora geografiska skillnader i fråga om möjligheter och resultat både *mellan* och *inom* länderna.

Rapporten riktar uppmärksamheten mot regionala skillnader *inom länderna* i fråga om möjligheter och resultat i utbildningen i EU. Syftet är att hjälpa beslutsfattarna att utforma effektiva åtgärder mot skillnaderna. Rapporten innehåller mer än *100 kartor* för att illustrera klyftorna, och presenterar de *tio bästa* och *sämsta* EU-regionerna för de indikatorer som granskas. Rapportens *huvudbudskap* är följande:

Ojämlik utbildning mellan EU:s regioner

- Det råder avsevärd ojämlikhet i fråga om möjligheter och resultat inom utbildningen mellan regionerna i EU. Skillnaderna *inom* länderna i resultat är ofta minst lika stora och ibland större än skillnaderna *mellan* länderna.
- Regionerna med högst andel personer med låga formella kvalifikationer (högst grundskola) ligger främst i södra Europa, särskilt Portugal och Spanien. De regioner där flest människor har uppnått högre kvalifikationer finns främst i Förenade kungariket och Central- och Östeuropa[314].
- Regionerna med flest personer med högskoleexamen finns främst i Förenade kungariket, Belgien och Nederländerna, men även i norra Spanien och Cypern. Italien, Portugal och Central- och Östeuropa[315] har däremot regionerna med lägst andel högskoleutbildade.
- De EU-regioner med störst andel studerande inom alla nivåer av utbildningen som andel av den totala befolkningen finns främst i norra och västra EU, särskilt Finland, Sverige, Belgien och Irland. Regionerna med lägst andel finns främst i östra Tyskland, norra Italien och sydöstra EU, men även i nordvästra Spanien och i Portugal[316].
- Regionerna med flest elever i grundskolan som andel av den totala befolkningen finns i Irland, Portugal, södra Spanien, Nederländerna, Danmark och södra Sverige. De lägsta andelarna förekommer i norra Italien och i sydöstra Europa[317].
- Regionerna med högst andel studerande på gymnasium och postgymnasial utbildning under högskolenivå som andel av befolkningen i åldrarna 15–24 finns främst i Italien, Belgien, Sverige och Finland, medan regionerna med lägst andel finns främst i Grekland, Spanien, Portugal, Rumänien, Bulgarien och Frankrike[318].
- Regionerna med störst andel personer med upp till gymnasial eller postgymnasial utbildning under högskolenivå finns främst i Central- och Östeuropa, medan regionerna med lägst andel främst ligger i södra Europa[319].
- Det finns stora regionala skillnader i vuxnas deltagande i livslångt lärande i EU. Förenade kungariket, Danmark, Finland och Sverige har det största antalet regioner med omfattande deltagande i vuxenutbildning, medan de regioner med mycket lågt deltagande främst ligger i sydöstra Europa[320].
- Det råder stora skillnader i den geografiska tillgängligheten till högre utbildning mellan EU:s regioner[321]. Regionerna med bäst geografisk tillgänglighet ligger främst i Tyskland, Förenade kungariket och Nederländerna. De regioner som ligger sämst till i fråga om geografisk tillgänglighet till högre utbildning[322] ligger i sydöstra Europa, norra Sverige och Finland, Baltikum, Spanien, Danmark och Frankrike.

Regionala skillnader inom EU-länderna

- När det gäller regionala skillnader inom EU-länderna, uttryckt som differensen mellan största och minsta regionala värden för varje indikator[323], har Rumänien den största regionala klyftan för indikatorn "studerande på alla utbildningsnivåer som andel av den totala befolkningen", tätt följt av Tjeckien, Belgien och Spanien. I skalans andra ände har Irland det lägsta värdet (men man bör ha i åtanke att Irland bara har två regioner). Danmark, Sverige, Ungern och Polen förefaller också ha små skillnader mellan de största och minsta regionala värdena på denna indikator[324].
- För indikatorn "vuxnas deltagande i livslångt lärande" har Förenade kungariket de överlägset största regionala skillnaderna: regionen med det högsta värdet (centrala London, 16,1 %) och det lägsta (Nordirland, 5,7 %) skiljer sig åt med 10,4 procentenheter. Slovakien och Danmark har

[314] Se tabellerna 3.17–3.18 och figur 3.9 (s. 83–84).
[315] Se figur 3.11 och tabellerna 3.21 och 3.22 (s. 85–86).
[316] Se figur 3.1 och tabellerna 3.2 och 3.3 (s. 75).
[317] Se figur 3.3 och tabellerna 3.6 och 3.7 (s. 77).
[318] Se figur 3.4 och tabellerna 3.8 och 3.9 (s. 78).
[319] Se figur 3.10 och tabellerna 3.19 och 3.20 (s. 84–85).
[320] Se figur 3.2 och tabellerna 3.4 och 3.5 (s. 76).
[321] Se figur 3.6 och tabell 3.12 (s. 80–81).
[322] Andel av regionens totala befolkning som bor mer än 60 minuters resväg från närmsta högskola.
[323] Indikatorerna visas i tabell 3.1, s. 74.
[324] Se tabell 4.45, s. 150.

också stora regionala skillnader för denna indikator[325].

- Belgien uppvisar den största skillnaden mellan bästa och sämsta regioner för indikatorn "studerande på gymnasium och postgymnasial utbildning utom högskola" (ISCED 3-4) som andel av befolkningen i åldrarna 15–24.
- I några medlemsstater råder stora skillnader mellan regionerna för indikatorn "högskolestuderande som andel av befolkningen i åldrarna 20–24". Belgien har det största gapet, tätt följt av Tjeckien och Österrike. Dessutom uppvisar Grekland, Italien och Rumänien alla stora klyftor för denna indikator med en spridning på över 80 procentenheter mellan den bästa och den sämsta regionen. Mestadels beror det på att huvudstadsregionen dominerar utbudet av högre utbildning[326].
- Spanien har det största gapet mellan bästa och sämsta region i andel av befolkningen som bor med mer än 60 minuters resväg från närmsta högskola, följt av Grekland, med Finland på tredje plats och Bulgarien på fjärde plats.
- Åtta EU-länder har en skillnad på över 15 procentenheter mellan bästa och sämsta region vad gäller antalet högskoleutexaminerade i regionen. Förenade kungariket har det största gapet (23,4 %), följt av Frankrike (21,3 %), Belgien (19,4 %), Tjeckien (18,7 %), Spanien (17,5 %), Slovakien (17 %) och Rumänien (15,4 %). Skillnaden i denna indikator är lägre i Irland, Italien, Slovenien, Portugal, Finland och Österrike (samtliga lägre än 10 %)[327].
- När det gäller lågutbildade (dvs. personer med högst förskola eller grundskola) har Frankrike den största skillnaden mellan bästa och sämsta region (på 27,2 %), följt av Grekland, Spanien, Rumänien och Tyskland. Länderna med minst skillnader är däremot Slovenien, Irland, Slovakien, Österrike och Finland[328].

Andra viktiga budskap

- Nationella medelvärden döljer ofta ogynnsamma lokala och regionala förhållanden.
- Regionala skillnader i lärande hindrar en balanserad regional utveckling och ekonomisk tillväxt.
- Regionala skillnader inom utbildningen *förvärrar* ojämlikheterna mellan EU:s regioner. De underblåser också kompetensflykt till mer utvecklade, rikare regioner.
- Ojämlikheterna i utbildningen *varierar* avsevärt till sin natur, omfattning och inverkan mellan EU:s regioner. De politiska lösningarna måste därför vara *skräddarsydda*, inte standardiserade.
- Det förekommer att uppgifter samlas in på underregional nivå och för enskilda skolor och klasser i medlemsstaterna, men det behövs bättre samordning och uppgifterna bör offentliggöras.
- Sammanställningar av geografiskt isolerade uppgifter om ojämlikheter i utbildningen kan vara viktiga verktyg för lokalt självstyre och decentralisering. De ger *lokalt relevant information* och kan hjälpa skolor, lokala organisationer och myndigheter på alla nivåer att bedriva planering och politik grundad på fakta.
- Geografiska ojämlikheter i fråga om möjligheter och resultat i utbildningen är tecken på större ojämlikheter. Det räcker inte med bara utbildningspolitiska åtgärder. Grundläggande åtgärder mot orsakerna till fattigdom och utanförskap har större möjligheter att kunna påverka de stora mönstren inom regionala utbildningsskillnader än rent utbildningspolitiska insatser.

[325] Se tabell 4.45, s. 150.
[326] Se tabell 4.45, s. 150.
[327] Se tabell 4.46, s. 150.
[328] Se tabell 4.46, s. 150.

Chapter One. Introduction

Opportunities *for* and benefits *from* learning are far from equally distributed across EU regions. Where you live in Europe can strongly influence your educational opportunities and prospects in life. Access to quality learning opportunities, success at school, chances of higher education and further learning or second chance provision all remain socially and spatially divided. Major geographic disparities persist *across* but also ***within*** EU Member States and regions. The evidence of continuing and even growing inequalities of educational access and success across EU regions, and their consequences, continues to mount. This report contributes to showing the scale and significance of these disparities.

Intra-national differences matter

EU Member States are far from homogeneous. Aggregate national statistics obscure considerable spatial variations in terms of educational opportunities and outcomes. Often these differences are most marked in remote rural areas or in urban or suburban locations where educational disadvantage reflects, and compounds, the effects of wider socio-economic disadvantage.

Therefore there is a need to construct geographically disaggregated data that reveal the **spatial** distribution of educational inequality within a country. Such data sets allow the visualization of inequality across space, encourage visual comparison and make it easier to look for spatial trends or patterns.

Compiling disaggregated information on educational inequality generates **locally-relevant information**. It can provide a resource to help schools, community organisations and government at all levels to engage in evidence-based planning, policy development and implementation. Inequality maps can also support local stakeholders in local decision making and in negotiation with government agencies. They are an important tool for local empowerment and decentrelization. This report is an effort to produce such maps. These maps are shown in chapters 3 and 4.

The evidence set out in this report shows that **levels of educational inequality in the EU do vary greatly between sub-national regions as well as between whole Member States**. This is hugely important for a number of reasons, but most immediately because these *intra*-national differences of achievement are frequently at least as large, and often larger, than *inter*-national differences. And the most immediate consequence of this for policy is that if the scale at which the most important differences are found should constitute the main target for intervention to overcome inequalities then it should be the **regional** and not the national level -certainly not the national alone- that should be targeted. Continuing to ignore the nature and extent of intra-national disparities will merely perpetuate and extend the inequalities they enshrine.

This report seeks to reveal the nature and extent of intra-national regional differences in educational opportunity and achievement in the EU and to support policy makers in their efforts to design effective and targeted measures to redress them.

This is by no means an easy or straightforward undertaking, for a number of reasons. The great majority of analyses of educational inequality are *nationally* based and aimed at addressing and redressing inequalities and their consequences at national level. National averages are usually used to compare the performance of national education systems. In fact, such inter-national comparisons lie at the heart of the EU's own accounting of its aggregate educational performance, with the emphasis on the best and worst -national- performers on a range of measures of educational achievement.

Beyond methodological nationalism

It is **sub-national** rather than trans-national differences that concern us in this report. It is not just between countries that we see significant differences in educational achievement and associated forms of disadvantage, but also *between regions within countries*, across almost the whole of the EU. This is not merely an education policy problem.

The sources, nature, extent and consequences of regional disadvantage in Europe have become increasingly evident over the past three decades. Despite very large regional policy expenditures, regional disparities have shown little sign of narrowing. Income differences between states have fallen, but those between regions within states have risen, and European regions have become increasingly polarized in their unemployment rates. This has led to an increased focus on the part of researchers and policy makers on identifying crucial differentiating regional characteristics and on producing indicators to provide information about the *spatial* distribution of inequality within a country.

However, while the spatial element of social inequality has been increasingly recognized in geographic and economic analyses, there has been less attention paid to the social structures, processes and experiences that generate and shape educational disparities at a regional level, and of the consequences of these disparities. "Regional" introduces a key and neglected dimension to the study of educational inequality in the EU. Comparison at the level of the region both gets closer to the most badly affected places, and enables a clearer view of the wider effects of socio-economic policy and possibilities for education policy.

It thus overcomes some of the problems of methodological nationalism -the identification of "societies" with nation-states- on the one hand, and the tendency to perceive "local" problems in parochial and exclusive ways, on the other. Methodological nationalism privileges the national level as not only the most important level -which for many purposes it is- but also as effectively the *only* level of analysis, and of the production of statistics, for instance -which, as will be shown in this report, is a major cause of the neglect of regionally based differences in educational opportunities and outcomes. However, while we need both national and local/neighbourhood studies, we cannot assume that they "join up" in the middle in ways that make investigating an intermediate "regional" level unnecessary. Nor, crucially in policy terms, can we assume that a simple rescaling of policy responses will be sufficient to mitigate regional differences.

The need for better data

Our intentions can be achieved only as far as the available data make it possible. The main sources of data are available only at the level of NUTS2. This represents a major limitation on the kinds of analysis we are able to provide, since: (a) it is at NUTS3 level that we would expect to find the most important evidence for a clear understanding of the structures and processes at work in causing and maintaining spatially based inequalities; and (b) the categorisations of regions are based on statistical or administrative concepts. There is a need for data collection and sharing at NUTS3 and at the level of individual schools and classrooms. A lot of these data is being collected at national level across the EU, but there is a need for better coordination and for this data to become available in the public domain through Eurostat.

Our approach

The approach we adopt in this report is based on two main components. The first is a review of the theoretical and empirical work available. The second is an empirical investigation into the sub-national patterns of regional difference. This draws on extensive data sets that enable us to - literally- map the scale and patterns of regional inequalities and the nature and scale of educational disparities at sub-national level across the EU, using advanced mapping techniques that allow the **visualization** of inequality across space.

Following this Introduction, in **Chapter 2**, we set out to elaborate the nature of the relationship between regions and educational inequality. In a sense, this is also intended to provide an "interpretive companion" to the geographical and mapping evidence that is presented in the following chapters. Drawing on relevant sociological literature and on literature from the economics of education, and recognizing that the causes of inequalities manifested at regional level are structural rather than spatial[329], we will discuss the causes and consequences of these disparities, what they mean, the forms they take, the groups they affect.

Chapter 3 provides a mapping of educational inequalities across EU regions in 21 of the 27 EU Member States which have two or more NUTS2 regions. Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Malta are EU NUTS2 regions themselves and as a result are not discussed in this report due to lack of suitable data.

Using GIS mapping techniques that allow the visualization of inequality across space, **Chapter 4** provides a mapping of the nature and scale of educational disparities within each EU Member State which has two or more NUTS2 regions. It paints a picture - to the degree that this is possible on the basis of publicly available data- of patterns of educational opportunities and outcomes and their geographic and regional variations across EU regions.

Finally, **Chapter 5** illustrates the possibilities created by analyses of regional inequalities in education that are able to draw on NUTS3 level data available for the city of Sheffield, UK, and a series of studies drawing on NUTS 3 level data for the whole of Greece.

The final pages of the report (Annex) provide the population cartogram versions (population-density visualisations) of the conventional maps used in Chapter 3 to help readers visualise more accurately the distribution of education inequalities across EU regions.

[329] The majority of studies regarding regions and more locally neighbourhoods show that inequalities in education are both an indicator of existing deeper social inequalities and the cause of further inequality with socioeconomic segregation being the root of the problem rather than their spatial contexts and outcomes.

Chapter Two. Regional inequalities in education: causes, consequences and policy challenges

2.1. Introduction

Educational outcomes within countries are spatially patterned, with young people in richer neighbourhoods, cities, counties and regions tending to participate in education for longer and achieve higher qualifications than those in poorer areas. This concerns governments of varying political complexions on grounds both of individual treatment (with concerns around justice, fairness, equality of opportunity and social mobility) and economic progress, on the basis that in knowledge economies poorly educated populations hold back inward investment and economic growth.

In some countries governments address spatial inequalities through redistributive funding systems that target more resources towards schools and other educational institutions in disadvantaged areas as a matter of regular mainstream allocation. Some have also developed targeted programmes aimed at particular areas and providing locally developed and tailored interventions, for example *Zones d'Education Prioritaires* (ZEPs) in France, *Territórios Educativos de Intervenção Prioritária* in Portugal, *Education Action Zones* and *City Challenges* in England. Attention has tended to be given to neighbourhood-level inequalities, although arguably there is a case for simultaneous interventions at a number of different sub-national spatial scales, including city-regions and regions. Governments in some countries (such as Sweden and the Czech Republic) have targeted minority groups who tend to be clustered in particular areas, thus addressing one of the causes of spatial inequalities without taking an explicitly spatial approach.

The variety of approaches suggests that **making effective interventions at the appropriate sub-national level requires not only evidence of where the problems lie, but an understanding of their causes and consequences and the spatial scales at which these operate**. In this chapter we briefly review what is known about spatial inequalities in education, focusing mainly on the regional level, and reflect on the implications for education policy, before moving on to describe current patterns in the EU in Chapter 3.

2.2. Causes of Regional Educational Inequalities

Why do some regions have highly educated populations and others not? Why is progress greater in some regions than others? Why is there sometimes more similarity between regions in different countries than regions within the same country, even when education systems are ostensibly the same country-wide? To what extent can education policy impact on these regional disparities, or how much are they caused by wider economic conditions, demographic chara-cteristics and population movements?

The Wider Causes of Regional Inequalities

Spatial disparities in educational attainment can largely be seen as the geographical manifestations of deeper divisions in income, wealth, power and recognition that historically and contemporaneously govern which groups have access to educational provision and the economic, social and cultural capitals to exploit it. Data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD, 2008) shows that learners from poor backgrounds attain less well in all OECD countries. The problem is more acute in more unequal societies (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2009).

Social and economic inequalities translate into educational disparities through a complex set of mechanisms, interacting over the life course. These include:

- Material inequalities, manifesting in differential access to some of the perquisites of learning such as food, sleep, clothing, adequate housing and stability, emotional security, books, computers, space and quiet, and transport, as well as requirements to earn and contribute to family income.
- Educational expectations, desires, and dispositions: the status and meaning of education and whether it is seen as being for "people like us".
- Social and cultural capital; social networks, "system knowledge" and the ability to "speak the right language" to negotiate access to education and relationships with other students, teachers and tutors, and to translate educational qualifications into jobs and earnings[330].
- The privileging, by educational institutions, of some forms of knowledge, and some ways of knowing and behaving, over others[331].
- The ways that institutions reinforce social divisions as they group students into classes, subjects and streams[332], or fail to compensate for material inequalities, so that equal access to education does not provide the equalising effect on outcomes that might be expected.

In these ways, educational disparities between social and ethnic groups arise from a combination of their economic and social position and the design and functioning of the education systems available to them. These differ from country to country and are historically conditioned, as well as being mediated by the different roles that states have played in smoothing inequalities through legislation, fiscal policies and transfers. Ethnicity and migration status as well as material circumstances are important. Ethnic minorities in most EU countries tend to be disadvantaged by their lack of inherited wealth, status and connections, as well as (in some countries) by histories of colonial oppression and racial discrimination, although this does differ from one country to another. Countries clearly differ in the extent of privatisation and selection within their education systems, and in their attempts to deliver equality of provision in all areas. So inter-national differences will be highly influential on educational disparities, but for the same reasons we can also expect differences between regions arising from what may be described as *compositional factors* i.e. who lives there and their historic and current relationships with education.

Area Effects

This interpretation -that regional differences are simply a manifestation of wider structural differences- rests somewhat on the idea of the region (or space in general) as a blank canvas or container of people, having no effect of its own. In recent years, this has been challenged to some extent by a "spatial turn" in educational theory and research, with more interest from geographers in the field of education (Gulson and Symes, 2007).

This development is important in two main ways. Firstly it has drawn attention to the spatial patterning of educational resources and its effect (e.g. Taylor, 2001). Countries vary in the extent to which their education systems are centrally, regionally and locally controlled, giving rise to different degrees of local variation in investment in education and different decisions about the kinds of schools and colleges provided. For example, in England, although curriculum is centrally controlled, local authorities decide on the provision of school places. Some have made historic decisions to provide education for 16-18 year-olds in local schools, while others provide this in

[330] Bourdieu 1984; Bernstein 1975.
[331] Young, 1971.
[332] Willis 1977; Ball 1981.

large further education or sixth form colleges: a decision which affects the accessibility of continuing education and participation rates.

Another important factor is the extent of selection and social and ethnic segregation between schools. Work on this issue in the UK and elsewhere has suggested that the extent of segregation varies between regions and also within regions, with more segregation in urban areas. Johnston et al. (2006a) also suggest that segregation in schools is greater than that in neighbourhoods, which opens up the question of whether this issue is best tackled through mixed community policies which aim to achieve less residential segregation, by housing voucher programmes which help individuals change neighbour-hood or by school admission policies. In the UK, recent findings from a school admissions lottery programme (Allen et al. 2010) have found that it had little effect on social segregation, since admissions also remained linked to residential "catchment areas". From the US, Deluca and Dayton (2009) compared young people who changed school and neighbour-hoods through housing policy and school voucher programmes. They suggested that housing programmes had assisted poor families to move to less segregated neighbourhoods which in some cases were also linked to early educational benefits. On the other hand, they suggested that school voucher programmes have given the opportunity to disadvantaged young people to "attend higher-performing private schools in less segregated environments with more middle-class peers" (DeLuca & Dayton, 2009:457). The overall point is that sub-national patterns of provision and policy intervention matter. Regional disparities in educational outcomes are not solely manifestations of wider structural inequalities.

The second important insight for education provided by the spatial approach is that places are not merely containers of people – backdrops to human activity. Their characteristics are shaped in part by the people who live in them, and their meaning is socially constructed, produced by the social relations, activities and imaginaries of people within and outside them (Lefebvre, 1991). At different times, and in relation to other places, cities, regions and neighbourhoods can take on meanings as places of decline, conflict, danger, community, excitement, culture, growth, or innovation (Taylor et al., 1996). These meanings and understandings of place can themselves shape identities, aspirations and values around education. For example, what it means to be poor or a migrant in terms of education and what constitutes valid and useful knowledge might well be different from one region to another and from one place to another within a region. This is well illustrated in qualitative studies, which tend for methodological reasons to focus on particular neighbourhoods and schools rather than at the regional level.

For example, Dillabough et al. (2007) describe how an inner urban neighbourhood in a major North American city, adjacent to areas being gentrified by the influx of international capital, provides a sense of marginality for young people, exacerbated by their segregation within "demonised" schools abandoned by more advantaged families. Rather than utilising education as a tool to grasp the opportunity of social mobility created by these global and local political and economic forces, some of the young people resist "good girl" expectations around education in order to craft an identity and place for themselves in this changing arena. Thomson (2002), in an Australian study, points to the ways in which through neighbourhood issues, narratives and resources influence the work of schools as well as (and partly because of) the identities and attitudes of students. Teachers and principals are also involved in working out the meaning of formal education and qualifications in economically marginalised former industrial working class neighbourhoods, while tackling the material and emotional consequences of poverty and long term unemployment. Local, regional, national and global changes come together in the schools, as Thomson puts it as "spatially distributed material and cultural resources and as possibilities for action" (Thomson, 2002). Thrupp (1999) has demonstrated how local contexts have implications for school management and organisation of schools and for approaches to curriculum and pedagogy, as well as for peer relations.

In practical terms this means that while we can expect to derive a great deal of the explanation for spatial disparities in education simply by reading off the spatial patterning of wider structural inequalities, two other things are also likely to be important. One is how particular spatial characteristics manifest in particular places -distinct geographies and topographies, local histories, identities and social relations, forms of industrial or agrarian organisation and ownership, as well as politics, cultural resources, facilities and services. The other is the ways in which these combinations of national, region and local circumstances combine to shape material inequalities, forms of capital, educational habitus, and issues of recognition and status, as well as having direct influences on opportunities to learn.

Understanding the balance between local factors and wider structural influences is not straightforward. There is an extensive literature which has attempted, using quantitative methodologies, to investigate these relationships, and the existence and size of "area effects" on education[333]. A review by Lupton and Kintrea (2011) suggests that overall, and despite some contradictory findings, the conclusion of this body of work is that there are demonstrable area effects: the characteristics of places do matter for child development in the early years, school attainment and school drop-out rates. These effects tend to be smaller than the effects of individual characteristics and abilities, parental characteristics and family influences, but they are not insignificant (Galster et al. 2007). In policy terms this would tend to suggest that location-specific interventions designed either to improve neighbourhoods by changing population mix or improving local conditions and services are valuable and can make some difference, although in themselves they are unlikely to be wholly transformative.

The quantitative literature to date leaves some important issues unresolved. One is that most work to date has concentrated on identifying evidence of effects rather than testing which mechanisms are at work, and many studies use single or very limited indicators of neighbour-hood characteristics (such as overall poverty or unemployment rates). Galster (2010) identifies fifteen different kinds of causal mechanisms by which neighbourhoods might have an effect. He groups these into four categories: social interactive, environmental, geographic and institutional, and points to the need to test these explicitly. The analysis suggested that neighbourhood characteristics had a very strong and significant impact upon educational outcomes. Andersson and Subramanian (2006) explored the impact of neighbourhood characteristics on the educational outcome of adolescents in Sweden. Their analysis suggested that neighbourhood characteristics related to socio-economic resources and demographic stability had a strong association with individual educational outcomes. They also found a strong association between neighbour-hood socio-cultural capital variables and educational outcomes.

A specific and important example of the difficulty in identifying what it is about neighbourhoods that matter is the failure of many studies to separate school effects from other neighbourhood factors. This makes it difficult to distinguish whether all the neighbourhood effects observed are in fact school effects, or the extent to which investments in school quality can offset the effects of environmental or economic characteristics. Sykes and Musterd (2010) examined both school and neighbourhood effects upon academic achievement in secondary school, using Dutch longitudinal data. Their analysis suggested a strong and statistically significant relationship between school characteristics and achievement, but the respective association with neighbourhood chara-cteristics was not significant. The relatively greater importance of school than neighbourhood factors is also suggested by the results of the Moving to Opportunity programme in the US (Sanbonmatsu et al. 2006).

[333] For reviews of the literature, see, e.g. Blasius et al, 2007; Ellen and Turner, 2003; Jencks and Mayer, 1990; Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn, 2000; Sampson, 2001; Sampson et al, 2002.

A final issue, and perhaps the most important one in this context, is that of *spatial scale*. The complexity of spatial meanings and relationships implies that different issues operate at different spatial scales from the regional (connectivity, economic function, political history and governance) to the street or block (housing and environ-mental management, peer effects). However, studies have tended to be driven by the availability of data, and the terms “area effects” and "neighbourhood effects" are used loosely to describe place effects at a wide range of scales. Lupton and Kneale (2011) have pointed to the need to take a more theoretically informed approach to selecting the right scale for specific mechanisms (for example, labour market effects on teenage outcomes should not in theory be measured at the neighbourhood level, although peer effects might be), although their paper also demonstrates how difficult it is to do this in practice.

At this stage much existing research points to the importance of spatial effects on education, although the scale at which these effects operate is not entirely clear. In the context of this report, this should caution us against the assumption that because differences exist at the regional level, their causes must also be found at this level. Many of the studies referred to above, and some of our own illustrations later in this report, show acute intra-region differences. Regional aggregate figures may well conceal important differences within regions, caused by local mechanisms and demanding local action. However, just as an exclusive focus on the national can obscure large differences in experience within countries, an exclusive focus on the sub-regional, local or neighbourhood levels can tend to obscure the importance of regional economic factors in favour of the local dynamics of housing markets, resource provision or cultural relations. A regional focus opens up the possibility of understanding sub-national causes of educational disparities, while not losing sight of major economic driving forces. It provides a particular window for observation, understanding and action.

2.3 Consequences of regional educational inequalities

The region is also an important spatial scale for understanding the consequences of educational disparities. For the reasons described above, regional inequalities in education will tend to reinforce inequalities between regions in incomes, wealth and social status, contributing to persistent inter-regional disparities which are resilient to purely economic interventions. Indeed regional educational disparities may exacerbate such inequalities over time as well-educated people leave less advantaged regions while less well educated people stay.

A number of studies in Europe (e.g. Rodríguez-Pose and Tselios (2009), López-Bazo and Motellón (2009) and Duranton and Monastiriotis (2001 & 2002) demonstrate the relationship between educational inequality and income inequality at the regional level. Rodríguez-Pose and Tselios (2009) use the European Community Household Panel dataset for 102 European Union regions over the period 1995–2000 and show how changes in human capital distribution affect income inequality. Their analysis suggests that high levels of inequality in educational attainment have a strong and statistically significant association with higher income inequality. López-Bazo and Motellón (2009) present an analysis of the effect of human capital on regional wage inequality in Spanish regions. Their results show that Spanish regions differ in the endowment of human capital as well as the return that individuals obtain from it and there are strong regional differences. They also conclude that regional differences in human capital endowment have a significant impact on regional wage gaps. Duranton and Monastiriotis (2001) analyse a database that includes information on earnings and education across regions in the United Kingdom over 15 years (1982-1997) and point out that there had been a worsening of UK regional inequalities and a rise in the North-South divide in the country. Their analysis also suggests that regions in the south of the country (e.g. London) gained in terms of income over the period because their workforce became more educated. In addition, they point out that during their study period income returns to education increased nationwide and this further favoured regions such as London and the

south-east that had higher rates of people with educational qualifications. Duranton and Monastiriotis (2002) built further on this analysis by exploring the degree to which similar individuals (including in terms of educational qualifications) have the same wage across regions and how differences evolved over a 20-year period. A similar study of regions outside Europe that is worth mentioning is the work of Azzoni and Servo (2002) on education and wage inequality in Brazilian regions. They discovered that the most important of the control variables for explaining wage inequalities in Brazil is education, while variables such as region, experience and race follow.

The relationship between education levels and the capacities of different regions to produce strong economic performance and growth has two important dimensions, with different implications for how we conceptualise and measure "educational disadvantage" and for policy interventions.

The first is the relationship between *current* levels of human capital and *current* levels of economic performance as well as the potential for future economic growth. A number of studies demonstrate that higher human capital is associated with higher performance and that the presence of skilled and educated workers can attract firms and enhance productivity. For example López-Bazo and Moreno Serrano (2008) looked at the relationship between human capital and regional growth in Spain. Their analysis suggested that human capital has an indirect effect of making private capital investment more attractive. Regions with high rates of workers with higher level skills offered higher returns to be extracted from investment in physical capital. Another study of regional economic performance and human capital in Spain that is worth noting is the work of Serrano and Cabrer (2004). They suggested that local sector human capital and specialisation patterns, public R&D efforts (local and from other regions) and international technological imports reduced growth differentials in Spanish regions. This kind of analysis can also be further disaggregated geographically (when suitable data are available) and a good example of this is the work of Eriksson (2004) who presents a more localised study of Swedish data, showing how proximity to workers with high levels of skills and education has a very strong positive influence on plants.

This implies that increasing inequalities in human capital between regions are likely to be associated with increasing economic inequalities. Thus **in countries where regional economic disparities are widening, investment in education and training in weaker regions may play a part in achieving more even growth**. Lackenbauer (2004a and 2004b) for example, points to the uneven spatial impact of intense economic reforms and integration with Western Europe, in Eastern European countries and that in particular, only a small number of metropolitan areas and regions bordering the EU have benefited from the transition process. For this reason Lackenbauer (2004a and 2004b) calls for additional funding in support of some promising EU programmes and for regional policies such as R&D investment, investment in education and ICT infra-structure, in order to reduce the cost of and increase the diffusion of innovation.

The case for regional investment in education is well made in numerous European studies. Ciccone et al. (2004) explore individual and social returns to schooling in macro-regions of Italy (North West, North East, Centre and South). Their analysis, which includes estimates such as the effects of schooling on net wages by region, suggests that individual returns to schooling compare favourably to the return to financial assets, especially in the South of the country and that the social returns to schooling exceeds that to infrastructures in the South. Mendolicchio (2006) also looks at individual returns of education in Italy at the macro-region level as well as for the 20 smaller regions of Italy. According to a simulation that Mendolicchio (2006:19) calls "the basic scenario", the positive effects of education seem to be more important than the negative effects of taxes and unemployment benefits.

The case for investment in education and human capital is put forward in a report by de la Fuente and Ciccone (2002) who reconfirmed that human resources investment can be profitable, that it promotes economic and productivity growth, as well as technological change and diffusion, increasing social cohesion. De la Fuente (2003) also looked at the effect of structural fund spending on Spanish regions, as well as (2009) social cohesion in Spanish regions. The results are encouraging for the period 1994-2000 with the creation of new jobs and the decrease of the initial gap in income per capita between regions that received funding and the rest of the country. The same applies to more recent results (de la Fuente, 2009) that highlight the positive impact of cohesion support policies. In addition, de la Fuente Moreno (2009) explores whether investment in human capital could reduce regional disparities in Spain by quantifying the importance of education as a source of regional income disparities and estimating the social return to investment. He concluded that education is an important source of regional income disparities and also that changes in investment patterns may reduce internal inequalities and speed up the growth of the country as a whole.

Rodríguez-Pose and Fratesi (2004) included education in a discussion of the impact of structural funds on EU regional growth. They discovered that among criticisms of European development policies, investment in education and human capital - compared to infrastructure business support and agriculture - is the only area with significant medium-term and positive returns and they called for more innovative and region-specific development strategies. Wostner and Šlander (2009) also discussed education in the context of European Cohesion Policy. In a review of the literature on the role of public expenditure in relation to economic growth, they arrived at similar results as Rodríguez-Pose and Fratesi (2004). Although the overall impact of fiscal policies on long-term economic growth was generally weak, there was a robust effect of investment in education and infrastructure. Especially with regard to education, ninety percent of the studies reviewed point to the statistically significant positive impact of such investments for the period 1983-1988. The same applies to the period from 1971 to 2006 with studies on "structural" or "development" spending concluding that public spending on education has a particularly significant positive effect.

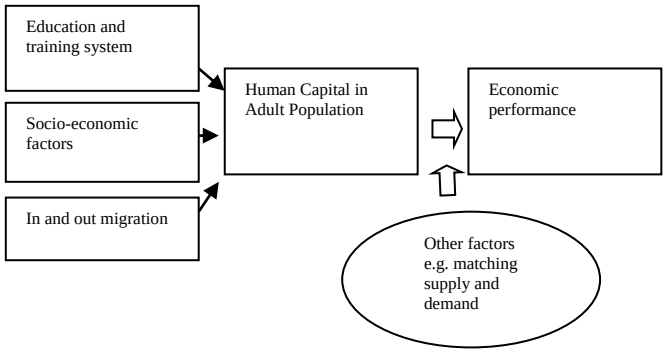
Thus, the overwhelming majority of studies suggest that **investment in education, training and infrastructure is invaluable and has a positive impact on regions and individuals**. However, there are a number of caveats. Firstly, other studies caution against a simple model of "increasing stocks of human capital lead to stronger economic performance" suggesting that other factors matter too, including accessibility and demographic factors, and the need to match supply and demand. Rodríguez-Pose and Vilalta-Bufi (2005) have investigated the links between human capital and regional economic performance in the EU. Their analysis suggests that the economic performance of European regions is generally associated with differences in human capital. But they also suggest that, in contrast to other studies in this field, factors such as matching educational supply and local labour market needs as well as job satisfaction and migration may actually have a stronger relationship with economic performance, rather than traditional measures of "educational stock". Returns to education may differ in different regions. De la Fuente and Vives (1995) discuss the role of infrastructure and education as instruments of regional policy, presenting evidence from Spain. They argue that theoretically, public investment in education reduces regional disparities; however, in practice it depends on the overall volume of the investment and the extent to which its regional allocation varies with regional need. De la Croix and Vandenberghe (2004) present a very interesting study of the spatial distribution of human capital in Belgian regions and its impact on economic growth. Their analysis includes a number of educational attainment measures that enables them to explore issues of regional convergence in Belgium. They also present estimates of the effects of schooling on wages and employment and report strong regional variation of the effect of education on employment, with stronger effects in regions where the average employment rate is low.

Secondly, investment in human capital does not necessarily have a direct relationship either with human capital stocks or economic performance. Dreger et al. (2009) looked at EU regional data on human capital and regional economic performance. Their analysis suggests that although "schooling and human resources in science and technology explain some part of the regional human capital stock, they cannot explain the bulk of the experience". One factor is migration - investment in "home-grown" talent may be less important for growth than in-migration of highly skilled workers educated and trained elsewhere, while a variety of factors may lead to out-migration of highly educated people. One line of argument is that while high levels of education in the home population may support employment and wage levels in the general population, within knowledge economies it is the locational decisions of key highly skilled individuals which creates clusters of innovation, activity and inward investment and fuels growth. For example Maier et al. (2007) explored the impact of the spatial distribution of "star scientists" upon regional development. In particular they argued that knowledge and highly skilled individuals play a key role in the development and growth of cities. Their analysis empirically tested this hypothesis and showed that the mobility patterns of so called "star scientists" had a highly uneven nature in favour of a limited set of countries and regions that were capable to act as magnets for scientific talent benefit. Florida (2002) has influentially argued that the capacities of cities to attract “the creative class” is critical to their economic development and that what attracts such people is investment in culture and support for diversity – the creation of "Bohemian" spaces where creative people can be themselves and indulge their leisure interests. This is not unrelated to education. University towns are often associated with such cultural spaces, as well as being able to attract intelligent young people at the start of their careers. Understanding migration patterns and motivations is therefore a critical element in understanding relationships between education, human capital and regional economic performance. One study which attempts this is the work of Champion and Coombes (2007) which looked at human capital movement affecting 27 British city regions using British 2001 Census data. The analysis includes the performance of all city regions in terms of in and out-migration of human capital and confirms the findings of previous studies about the dominant role of the city region of London in the British migration system.

Thirdly, where educational levels are implicated as an important factor in regional economic performance, the literature suggests that it is levels of tertiary education that are most strongly linked with stronger performance. In other words, human capital counts most at higher levels. For example, Ramos et al. (2009) explored the distribution of human capital in relation to productivity and regional inequalities in Spain. In particular, they investigated the influence of different levels of schooling on regional productivity and growth and also analysed whether there were any differences in the effects of this human capital on neighbouring regions reflecting its composition. Their analysis suggests that the composition of human capital improves regional productivity and growth and that tertiary studies especially have a significant positive effect on regional productivity. Similarly they found that secondary studies also have a significant positive impact on regional growth, but that was not the case for primary studies which had no effect on the variables they considered. Tondl and Vuksic (2003) looked at regions in central and eastern Europe and highlighted the role of foreign direct investment, human resources and geography. They suggested that the high level of secondary education in eastern European regions played no role with regard to growth but that higher education, in contrast, served to facilitate technology transfer. This would suggest that while overall levels of rates of primary and secondary education may be important building blocks (and important for social reasons) rates of progression of students into tertiary education are critical for economic performance, as well the ability to attract students into tertiary education from elsewhere, and retain them following their studies.

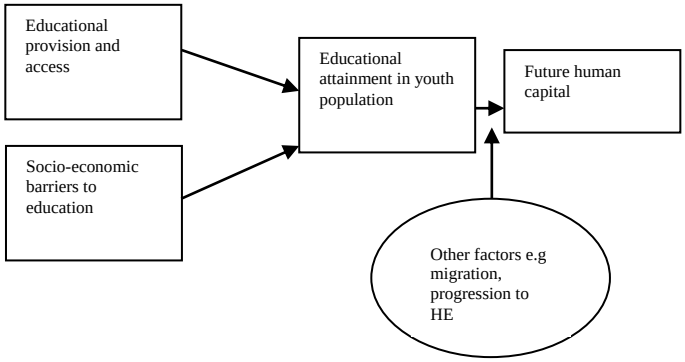
Figure 2.1 sets out a simplified model of relationships between current human capital and **current** economic performance. Seen from this perspective, "educational disadvantage" at a regional level could be conceptualised as a lack of people in the adult population qualified at tertiary level, a lack of highly-educated in-migrants and a lack of the institutions that attract them (or prevent out-migration). Policy interventions would focus on adult populations in order to generate impacts on performance in the short and medium term.

Figure 2.1: Current Human Capital and Economic Performance/Growth (simplified model)



However, we may also want to consider a *second* dimension of the relationship between education and economic performance which is concerned with how *current* levels of educational disadvantage impact on *future* levels of human capital (and economic performance) – in other words to focus not on the adult population but on educational levels in the youth population that provide the capacity for economic development in the future (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Current Educational Attainment and Future Human Capital (simplified model)



The logical arguments and evidence about the mechanisms involved are the same as rehearsed above (investment in education systems, migration rates of return to education and so on), and therefore not repeated, but the emphasis here is on education for longer term development, with a focus on generating a stock of well qualified adults in the future. Seen from this perspective, "educational disadvantage" at a regional level would be characterised by indicators of low educational attainment at lower levels in the system (primary and secondary) and also by lower levels of educational opportunity. The two dimensions are of course logically linked over time. Poor economic performance is likely to lead to diminishing quality of life and out-migration, and thus to worsening socio-economic conditions and lower educational attainment in future populations. However, there are questions of policy priority: how to balance investment in tertiary education and attracting in-migrants in order to fuel growth in the short term, and the need to build foundations for future growth by concentrating on lower educational levels and the youth population. In both cases the evidence suggests that regional educational inequalities are likely to have direct consequences for regional economies, providing economic imperatives for regional, national and European policy interventions as well as those arising from concerns for social justice, equality and social cohesion.

2.4. Relationships to education policy

What role, then, does education policy have to play in combating regional educational disparities and what form might it take? Six themes emerge from our review here:

1. First, **much of what drives regional educational disparities is beyond the immediate scope of education policy and will be driven by economic, fiscal and wider welfare state policies**. Educational policy may have a limited role in tackling causes. However, this does not negate its importance in tackling symptoms of wider inequalities and in mediating their worst effects on educational outcomes. Moreover, education policies can be seen as a longer term investment in creating the economic conditions that will lead to lower educational disparities in the future. This is well explored in the case of China. Zhang and Fan (2004) investigate types of public investment and regional inequality in rural China and conclude that the most beneficial for reducing regional inequalities are investments in rural education and agricultural R&D in the least-developed western region. In addition, Heckman (2005) discusses human capital investment in China and calls for a more balanced investment strategy across regions and types of capital as urban areas are favoured over rural areas and physical capital investment is preferred over investment in schooling. At the same time the children of migrants are at a disadvantage. Moreover, as Liefner (2009) points out, China's economy is an example of how disparities between rural and urban regions, and between city regions, reflect differences in the ability to absorb knowledge and to generate technology; therefore, he argues that creating an economic environment suitable for learning is essential, and investment in education and in science and technology infrastructure is paramount. In a European context, Martin (1999) also recommends investment in education as a means of increasing the capacity of poor regions to absorb new technologies and to increase spatial diffusion of innovation.

2. Second and linked to this, **action is likely to be necessary at different spatial scales**. There is scope for EU, national, regional and local policy interventions but a need for clarity about what can reasonably be tackled at different levels. **The "failure" of neighbourhood-level interventions, for example, to eradicate educational inequalities is hardly surprising when many of the mechanisms driving these inequalities are operating at wider spatial scales. But this does not mean that neighbourhood-level interventions have no role to play**. In a review of the contribution of educational policies to reducing social inequality, Ross (2009) analysed 284 national, regional and local projects in fourteen European countries and came to the conclusion that investment strategies should cover multilateral approaches to the whole population as a range of approaches are more successful in addressing inequalities.

3. Third, a regional perspective on educational disparities highlights a number of potential motivations for intervention at the regional scale, ranging from boosting individual countries' (and the EU's) economic performance by lifting lagging regions, to reducing injustices of birth, increasing geographical and social mobility and building cohesion. These will shape the nature of interventions in significant ways, for example whether to prioritise investment in current or future workforces.

4. Fourth, educational disadvantages evolve and **accumulate across the life-course** as success at one stage governs access to another. This means not only that policy interventions are necessary at all levels but also that transitions are important. For example, if we accept that high levels of tertiary education are important for economic development, there will be a need to focus not only on tertiary but on its underpinnings at primary and secondary level and also on regional disparities in rates of transition from secondary to tertiary and the mechanisms underlying these.

5. Fifth, **migration** is a key factor in policy priorities and evaluation. Clearly, neither policies to tackle socio-economic disadvantage nor policies of educational investment will lead to greater future human capital in the event of high out-migration from a region. For instance, a recent study by Labrianidis (2011), entitled "Investing in Leaving", investigates and highlights the extent as well as the causes (and impacts) of brain drain outflows from Greece. In addition, Martin (1998) provides an interesting discussion of the role of regional policies in Europe, including educational policies. He highlights the migration of human capital, which means that increasing education infrastructure in poorer regions indirectly benefits the richest regions in a country. In the same vein, Suedekum (2005) provides an overview of what he calls the "pitfalls of regional education policy", namely the brain drain of recipient areas of education subsidies due to the increase of geographic mobility that is associated with personal skill level. On the other hand, as de la Fuente Moreno (2009) argues, this may only cause some concern if the focus is on regions as such. He advocates that the focus should be on the people and on regional investment that will benefit the country as a whole, and in that case the degree of mobility of the populations of low-income regions should not affect educational investment. On the other hand, if higher level qualifications are what counts in economic growth (and some studies point to the importance of very small numbers of very highly qualified and specialised individuals) then attracting highly-qualified in-migrants may be as important as investment in lower strata of education. The presence of universities will be a key issue[334].
6. Sixth, educational provision cannot be assumed to be a neutral force. Modes of provision, access and regulation can all produce educational inequalities as well as reducing them, as a vast body of work in educational sociology demonstrates.

Perhaps most fundamentally, the material in this chapter suggests that policy should be based on a close understanding of causes and consequences of particular observed regional disparities, identifying:

- Compositional factors leading to particular regional manifestations of wider structural forces.
- Spatial factors at the regional level that shape particular regional experiences (such as political economy, history, location).
- The relative size and importance of regional disparities compared to inter-national and intra-regional differences.
- The extent and nature of regional differences in education systems.

The data presented in Chapters 3 and 4 provide a platform for such further detailed analysis.

[334] It is also interesting to note that there have been good case studies of the local regional impacts of Universities which could be the basis for further work (e.g. see Armstrong, 1993; Armstrong et al., 1997; Labrianidis, 1995).

Chapter Three. Mapping educational inequality across EU regions

This chapter provides a (literal) "mapping" of educational inequalities across the EU, painting a picture - to the degree that this is possible on the basis of publicly available data for EU regions - of patterns of educational opportunities and outcomes and their geographic and regional variations.

As noted in the introductory chapter, there is a general paucity of research into the geographic dimension of educational inequalities across the EU, with most studies focusing on differences between *countries* rather than regions. This paucity may be attributed to some extent to social science (and in particular educational) researchers' unfamiliarity with geographic data and methods as well as the general lack of good quality geographic data on education-related variables at the regional and local level. On the other hand, most human geographers with expertise in Geographical Information Systems and relevant data and methods do not have adequate knowledge of education theory and policy. There is therefore a need for complementarity of expertise between researchers working in fields such as human geography, education economics, and sociology of education, given the interdisciplinary nature of this subject. Achieving such a complementarity is a challenge that we have attempted to take up in this report, and that we seek to realise in this chapter.

Ideally, in order to address the geographical dimension of the issues discussed in Chapter 2 in the EU, we would need to have at our disposal data on all aspects of the models set out in Figures 2.1 and 2.2.

Thus in relation to current differences in human capital, we would want measures of skills and qualifications in the adult population, particularly at tertiary level, and perhaps indicators of migration patterns of highly-educated adults or (as a proxy) the institutions that attract them.

In relation to future differences in human capital we would want to look at measures of educational attainment in the current youth population, and rates of progression to higher education. Since this report focuses on education policy rather than investments in policies to tackle socio-economic disadvantage, we would also want to look at measures of educational opportunity, access and participation.

It should be noted that there is considerable variation in the educational data availability, quality and geographical aggregation (or disaggregation) across EU member states. For instance, as seen in Chapter 2 (and as will be illustrated in Chapter 5), there is (NUTS3) data on educational attainment as well as outcomes at very local levels in Britain (Thomas et al., 2009) and at small regional (prefecture) level in Greece (KANEP/GSEE, 2010). It should also be noted that there are on-going efforts by Eurostat to bring such regional data together in one database (e.g. see European Commission, 2009 and 2010), but not all such data is readily available for researchers interested in performing analysis at the EU level.

In the context of this study, we conducted a review of all education-related variables in the EU which were available through Eurostat's web-site at the time of conducting the research for this report and we extracted a selection of datasets that were available at the geographic level of NUTS 1 and NUTS2 and we then further analysed them and put them together in a geographical data-base that can be used for mapping and analysis. We explored all datasets readily available to researchers by Eurostat, trying to identify variables that are available at NUTS2 level or smaller. Table 3.1 (next page) lists the education-related variables (indicators) that we included in our database. These can be distinguished between:

a. *educational target groups* and *opportunity* indicators; and

b. *outcome* and *performance* indicators.

In addition to the variables provided by Eurostat, we included a *University Accessibility* variable[335] as well as two additional variables that were created by Annoni and Kozovska (2010) who used them for the construction of an EU Regional Competitiveness Index.

These data collectively provide a rough but not misleading picture of existing educational levels and inequality within the region. They indicate the proportions of the regional population with a particular level of education, which enables cross-regional and cross-national comparison. This provides a snapshot of the current regional profile of educational inequality.

For each of the variables shown in Table 3.1, we have created **thematic maps and tables** showing its regional distribution for each EU Member State that has more than one NUTS2 region (i.e. all states except for Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg and Malta). In addition, we have identified the **"top 10" and "bottom 10"** EU regions for each variable.

Table 3.1. Education-related regional indicators used in this study.

"Target group" and "opportunity" indicators – Current educational levels of the population of the area or region	
IND 1:	Pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) as % of total population in a region
IND 2:	Lifelong learning - participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (as % of total population in a region)
IND 3:	Pupils in primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1-2) as % of total population in a region
IND 4:	Pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old in a region
IND 5:	Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years in a region
IND 6:	Population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university (% of total population in a region)
"Outcome" and "performance" indicators -Potential climate for educational development within the region	
IND 7:	All persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment as % of total population in a region
IND 8:	All persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment as % of total population in a region
IND 9:	Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education as % of all population over 15 years old in a region
IND 10:	Persons with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education as % of all population over 15 years old in a region
IND 11:	With tertiary education as % of all population over 15 years old in a region
IND 12:	RCI Education pillars rank (H. Education/Training and Lifelong Learning pillar sub-rank; RCI Competitiveness Index Report, Annoni & Kozovska, 2010)

This chapter presents and discusses the spatial distribution of these variables across EU regions[336].

[335] Created by Nordregio/EuroGeographics/GISCO/EEA ETC-TE (kindly provided by Annoni and Kozovska).

[336] It is possible that the maps presented in this chapter may be masking geographical patterns of inequalities within EU Member States and to cover this possibility further mapping was performed for each member state, in the form of a series of maps of the regional distribution of all variables presented above, for each member state that has more than one NUTS2 region. This also enables the further classification of member-state regions into quantiles on the basis of the distribution of each variable in the member state. This body of data appears in Chapter 4.

Figure 3.1 shows the spatial distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) as a proportion of total population in each NUTS2 region. It shows that most of the regions with the highest rates are concentrated in north and west Europe, especially Finland, Sweden but also Belgium and Ireland. The regions with the lowest rates are found mostly in the east of Germany, north of Italy and south-east Europe, but also north-west Spain and Portugal.

Figure 3.1: Pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) as % of total population in a region

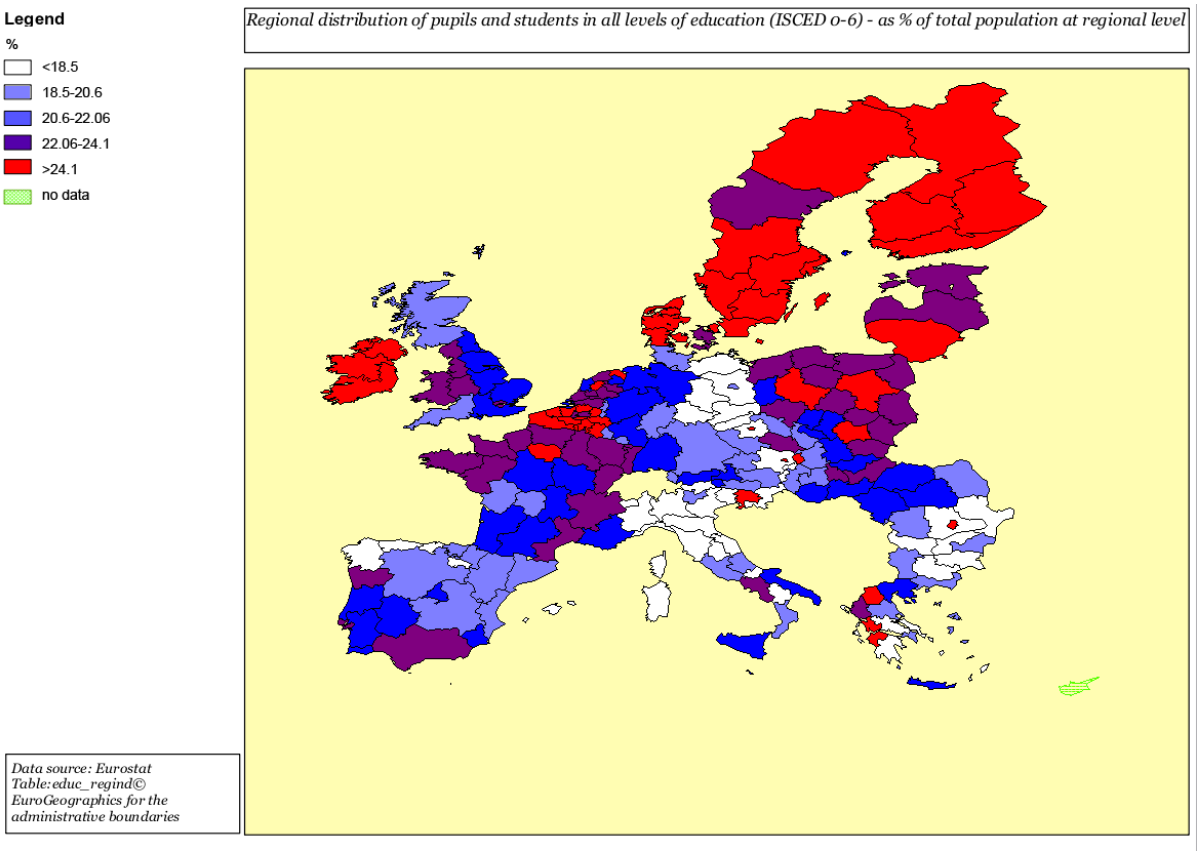


Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 show the "top 10" and "bottom 10" regions respectively. The region with the highest rate of pupils and students in all levels of education is the greater Brussels area (Région de Bruxelles-Capitale) in Belgium (35.93%), which typifies the "attractiveness" of capital cities generally. At the other end, Severozapaden in Bulgaria is the EU region with the lowest proportion of pupils and students.

Table 3.2. Top 10 regions - Pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) as % of total region population

Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	NUTS CODE BE10	35.93
Bucureşti – Ilfov	R032	33.3
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	29.2
Praha	CZ01	28.7
Prov. Luxembourg	BE34	28.51
Pohjois-Suomi	FI1A	28.4
Prov. Brabant Wallon	BE31	27.73
Prov. Namur	BE35	27.55
Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	BE23	26.94
Östra Mellansverige	SE12	26.8

Table 3.3. Bottom 10 regions - Pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) as % of total region population

Severozapaden	NUTS CODE BG31	14.4
Střední Čechy	CZ02	14.7
Valle d'Aosta/Vallée d'Aoste	ITC2	14.7
Principado de Asturias	ES12	15.4
Peloponnisos	GR25	15.41
Liguria	ITC3	15.8
Piemonte	ITC1	16.1
Burgenland	AT11	16.2
Yugoiztochen	BG34	16.2
Ionia Nisia	GR22	16.23

Figure 3.2 depicts the geographical distribution of the participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (as a percentage of total population in a region). The EU member states with the highest number of regions in the top quantile include the United Kingdom, Denmark, Finland and Sweden. In contrast, most of the regions in the bottom quantile of the distribution are in south-east Europe.

Figure 3.2. Lifelong learning - participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training as % of total population in a region

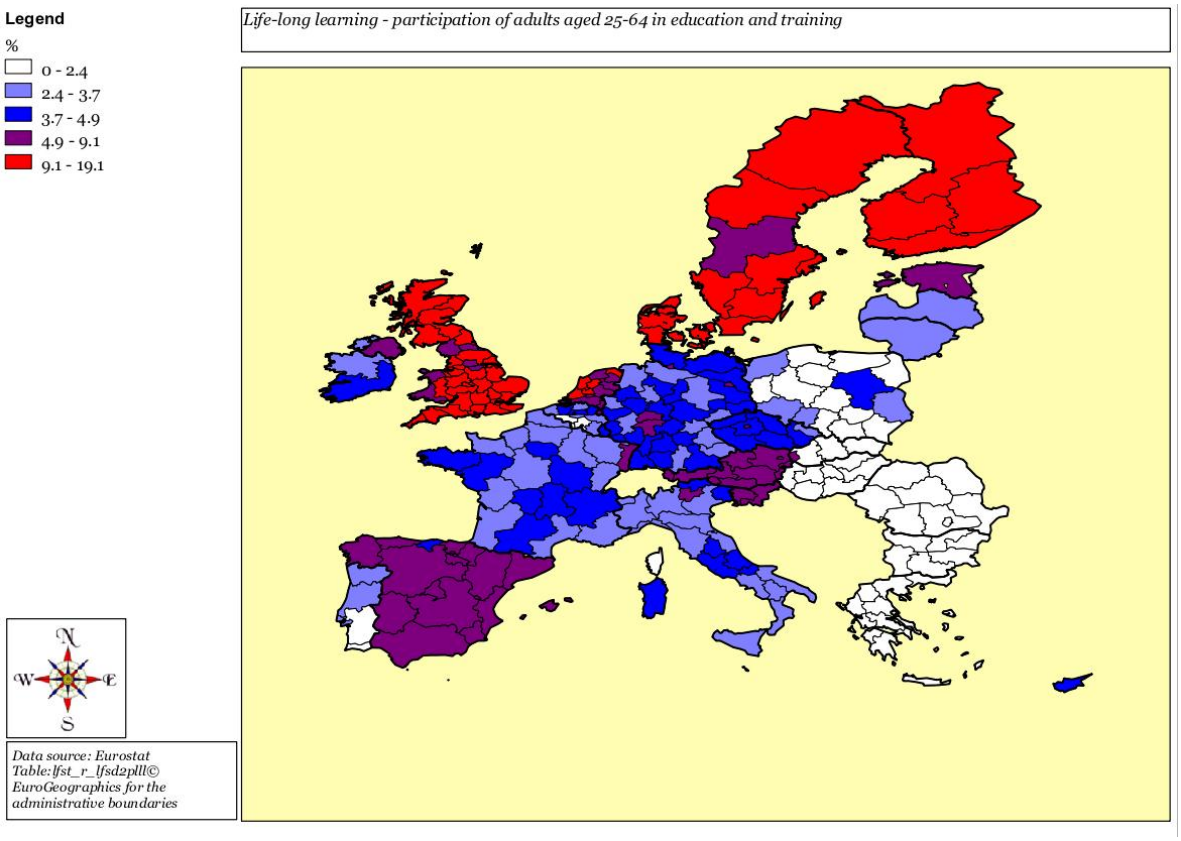


Table 3.4 and Table 3.5 show the "top 10" and "bottom 10" regions respectively. As can be seen, the region of Hovedstaden in Denmark has the highest rates of lifelong learning adults. In contrast, Severozapaden in Bulgaria is the EU region with the lowest rates of lifelong learning adults.

Table 3.4. Top 10 regions - Lifelong learning - participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (% of the total population in a region)

Hovedstaden	NUTS CODE DK01	19.2
Inner London	UK11	16.1
Midtjylland	DK04	15.8
Highlands and Islands	UKM6	15.2
Syddanmark	DK03	15.0
Sjælland	DK02	14.9
Nordjylland	DK05	14.2
Etelä-Suomi	FI18	13.8
Åland	FI20	13.6
Västsverige	SE23	12.8

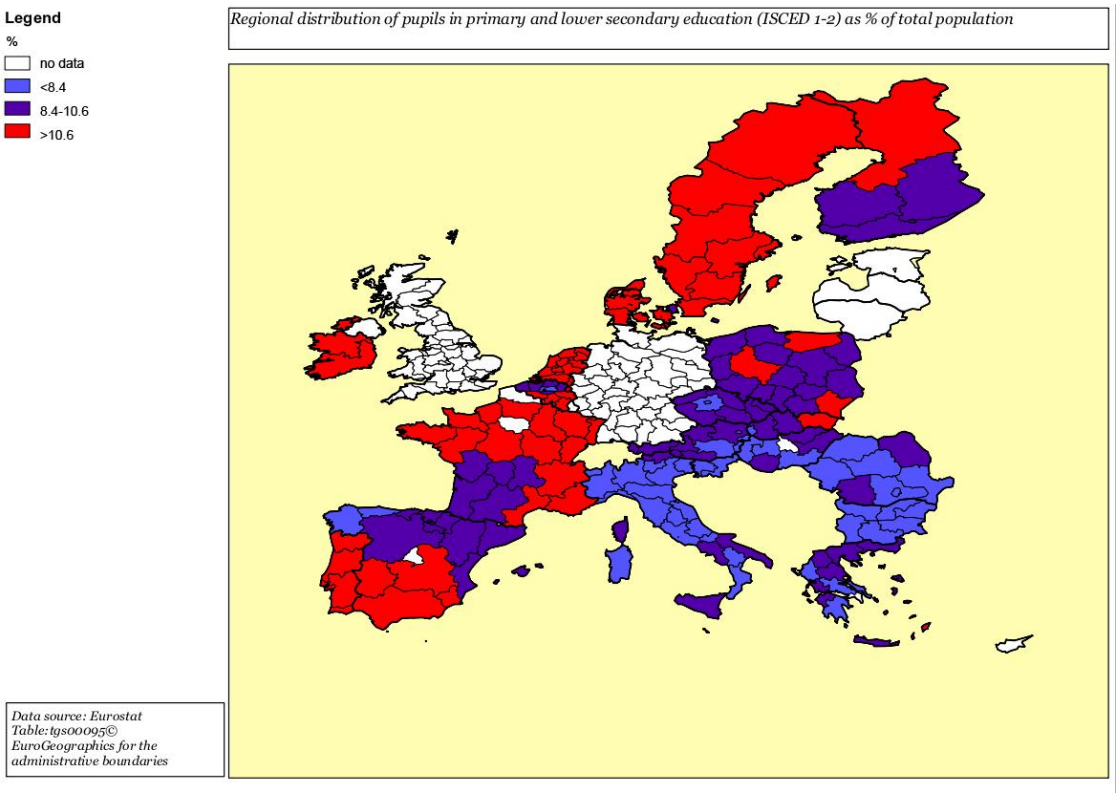
Table 3.5. Bottom 10 Regions - Lifelong learning - participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (% of the total population in a region)

Severozapaden	NUTS CODE BG31	0.27
Notio Egeo	GR42	0.39
Sterea Ellada	GR24	0.45
Yugoiztochen	BG34	0.45
Severoiztochen	BG33	0.47
Yuzhen tsentralen	BG42	0.50
Severen tsentralen	BG32	0.52
Ionia Nisia	GR22	0.52
Vorio Egeo	GR41	0.60
Sud – Muntenia	RO31	0.70

Figure 3.3 (next page) shows the spatial distribution of pupils in primary and lower secondary education as a proportion of the total population in a region. The highest rates are observed in regions of the Republic of Ireland, Portugal, southern Spain, but also the Netherlands and Denmark. In contrast the lowest rates are observed in the north of Italy, in Romania and in Bulgaria[337].

[337] It should be noted however that there is a large number of missing values for this variable (most notably the whole of the United Kingdom, Germany, Cyprus, the Baltic states, but also large urban regions such Attiki, Madrid, and Paris) which considerably limits its value.

Figure 3.3: Pupils in primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1-2) as a % of the total population in a region



Tables 3.6 and 3.7 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively. As can be seen, the Spanish region of Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla has the highest percentage of students in primary and lower secondary education. In contrast, Bucuresti-Ilfov in Romania is the EU region with the lowest percentage of pupils in primary and secondary education.

Table 3.6: Top 10 regions - Pupils in primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1-2) as % of total population in a region

Syddanmark	NUTS CODE DK03	12.7
Gelderland	NL22	12.8
Overijssel	NL21	13
Norte	PT11	13
Prov. Luxembourg	BE34	13.3
Southern and Eastern	IE02	14.7
Flevoland	NL23	14.9
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	ES63	15.1
Border, Midland and Western	IE01	15.8
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	16

Table 3.7: Bottom 10 regions - Pupils in primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1-2) as % of total population in a region

Bucureşti – Ilfov	NUTS CODE RO32	6.2
Yugozapaden	BG41	6.3
Liguria	ITC3	6.3
Severen tsentralen	BG32	6.5
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	ITD4	6.6
Toscana	ITE1	6.7
Umbria	ITE2	6.8
Emilia-Romagna	ITD5	6.9
Severozapaden	BG31	7.1
Valle d'Aosta	ITC2	7.1

Figure 3.4 shows the geographical distribution of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as a proportion of the population aged 15-24 years old in each region (NUTS2 except for Germany and the United Kingdom where it is NUTS1; note that there are missing data for Scotland, Northern Ireland and Cyprus). As can be seen, the regions with the highest values are mostly in Italy, Belgium, Sweden and Finland, whereas most of the regions with the lowest values are found in Greece, Spain, Portugal, Romania, Bulgaria and France. This is another strong indicator of regional education climate.

Figure 3.4: Regional distribution of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old in a region

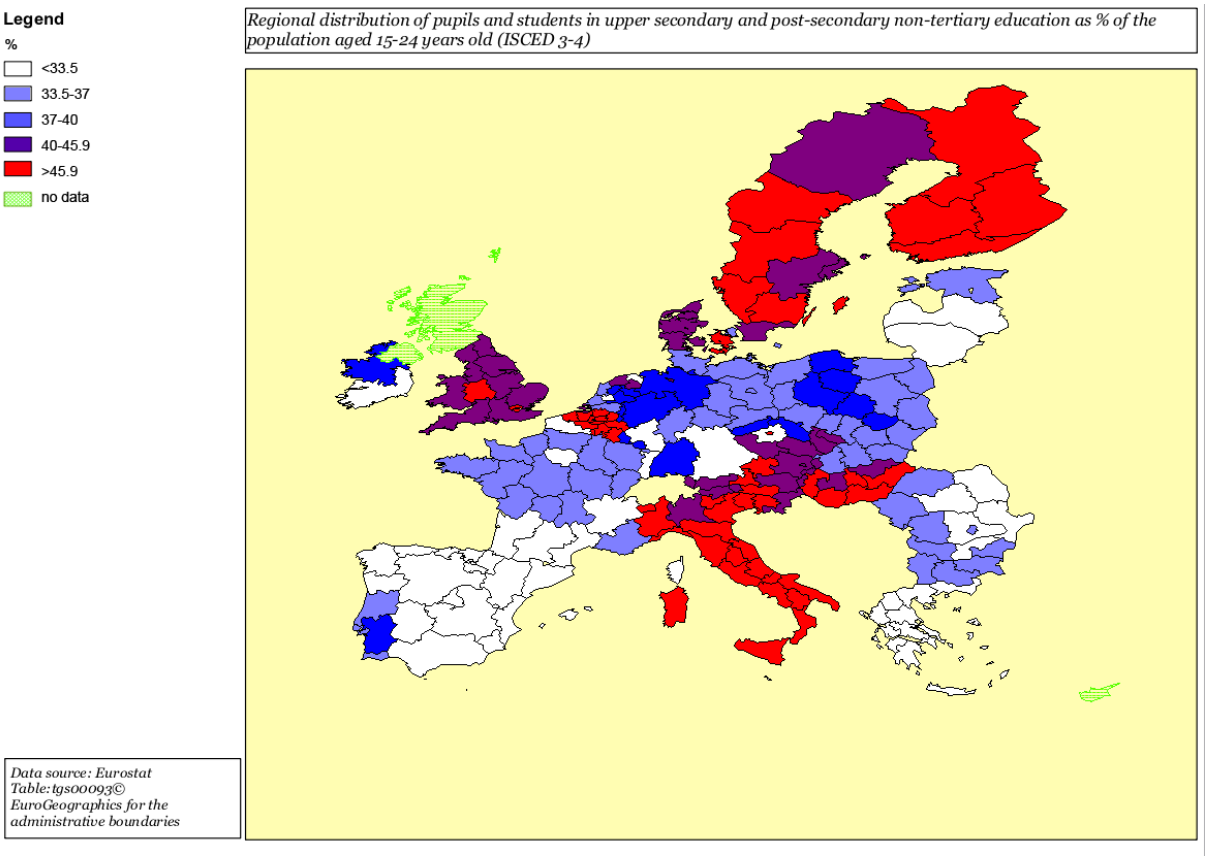


Table 3.8 and Table 3.9 show the "top 10" and "bottom 10" regions respectively. As can be seen, the region of Prov. West-Vlaanderen in Belgium has the highest percentage of students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education while, Illes Baleares in Spain have the lowest percentage.

Table 3.8: Top 10 regions - Pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old in a region

Liguria	NUTS CODE ITC3	61.6
Prov. Hainaut	BE32	62.5
Prov. Namur	BE35	64.6
Prov. Luxembourg	BE34	66
Prov. Vlaams-Brabant	BE24	72.3
Prov. Antwerpen	BE21	74.7
Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	BE10	78.41
Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	BE23	83.9
Prov. Limburg	BE22	85.2
Prov. West-Vlaanderen	BE25	88.1

Table 3.9: Bottom 10 regions - Pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old

Illes Baleares	NUTS CODE ES53	17.1
Comunidad Valenciana	ES52	19.6
Malta	MT00	20.09
Región de Murcia	ES62	20.4
Cataluña	ES51	20.6
Comunidad de Madrid	ES30	20.61
Andalucía	ES61	20.8
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	21.2
Aragón	ES24	22.7
Lietuva	LT00	23.11

Figure 3.5 depicts the spatial distribution of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as a proportion of the population aged 20-24 years in each region (again NUTS2 except for Germany and the United Kingdom where it is NUTS 1, and there are missing data for Scotland, Northern Ireland and Cyprus). This map indicates a very high concentration of the age group in Scandinavia, which may possibly have been predicted, but also in Eastern Europe and Northern Greece, which is not so expected. And we see again the capital city phenomenon in Madrid and Paris.

Figure 3.5: Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the total population aged 20-24 in a region

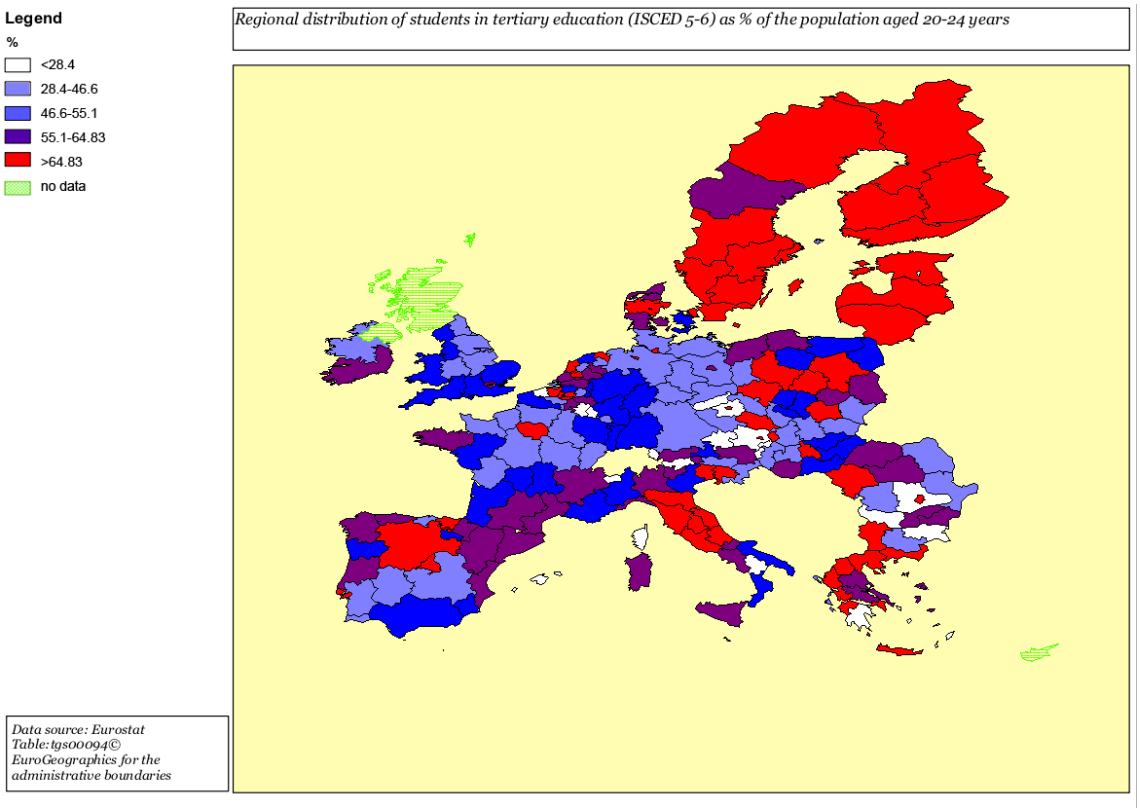


Table 3.10 and Table 3.11 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively. As can be seen, the region of Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest in Belgium has the highest percentage of tertiary education students as a percentage of the 20-24 population. In contrast, Severozapaden in Bulgaria is the EU region with the lowest rate of students in tertiary education in the same age-group.

Table 3.10: Top 10 regions - Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years in a region

Ditiki Makedonia	NUTS CODE GR13	100
Ipiros	GR21	100
Ditiki Ellada	GR23	100
Lazio	ITE4	100
Mazowieckie	PL12	100
Bucureşti – Ilfov	RO32	100
Zahodna Slovenija	SI02	100
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	100
Praha	CZ01	100
Hovedstaden	DK01	100
Kentriki Makedonia	GR12	100
Prov. Brabant Wallon	BE31	100
Wien	AT13	100*
Közép-Magyarország	HU10	105.83
Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	BE10	120.67

* Note that there are 13 regions ranked joint third

Table 3.11: Bottom 10 regions - Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years in a region

Severozapaden	NUTS CODE BG31	4.3
Střední Čechy	CZ02	5.6
Vorarlberg	AT34	7.3
Luxembourg (Grand-Duché)	LU00	9.63
Provincia Autonoma	ITD1	10.7
Burgenland	AT11	10.8
Niederösterreich	AT12	13
Notio Egeo	GR42	16.1
Valle d'Aosta	ITC2	18.5
Sud – Muntenia	RO31	19.7

Figure 3.6 shows the spatial distribution of the "geographical accessibility" to higher education index. In particular, it depicts the spatial distribution of regional populations living at more than 60 minutes travel distance (by car or train) from the nearest university as a proportion of the total population in the region. It is noteworthy that there are a total of 97 regions where virtually all population is within 60 minutes from the nearest University. Most of these regions are in Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. In contrast, the most of the regions with the lowest "accessibility" scores (14.25% or more of total population living in localities more than 60 minutes from the nearest university) are in south-east Europe, northern Sweden and Finland, the Baltic states, Spain, Denmark and France.

It is interesting to observe (and reflect upon) the spatial patterns of this "physical geographical accessibility" index to universities together with the geographical distribution of other measures capturing the participation of populations across EU regions in higher education. In particular, it is interesting to note that although the populations of central and western EU are on average located very near universities compared to southern Europe and Nordic countries, there are comparably higher participation rates of tertiary education students in several regions in Greece, Spain, Italy, the Scandinavian and Baltic countries. And it is also interesting to consider how this map maps on to the previous one, especially perhaps in Scandinavia.

Figure 3.6: Population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university (as % of the total population in a region)

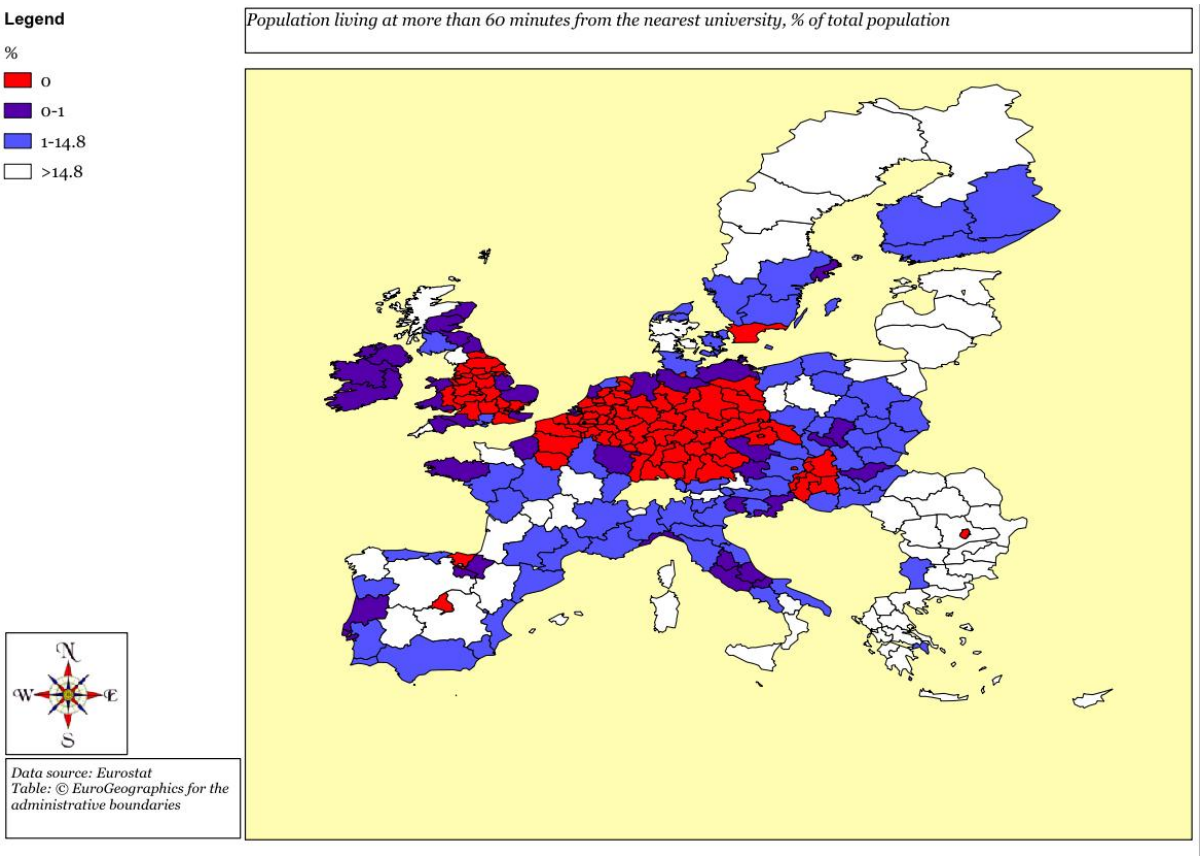


Table 3.12 shows the "top 10" regions for this variable. The region of Ditiki Makedonia in Greece has the highest percentage of population living at more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university.

Table 3.12: "Top 10" regions - population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university (% of total population in a region)

Peloponnisos	NUTS CODE GR25	85.9
Sterea Ellada	GR24	87.8
Åland	FI20	88.5
Ionia Nisia	GR22	88.5
Notio Egeo	GR42	90
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	94.2
Malta	MT00	96
Severozapaden	BG31	97.4
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	ES63	99.7
Ditiki Makedonia	GR13	100

The next group of indicators provide a broad picture of the existing level of educational activity and inequality within the region. They indicate the proportions of the regional population involved at particular levels of education, which enables cross-regional and cross-national comparison. This provides a snapshot of the current regional profile of educational inequality.

Figure 3.7 shows the geographical distribution of all persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment as a percentage of total population in each region. The areas with the highest values are almost entirely located in the south of Europe (Portugal, Italy, Greece), but also Estonia, Northern Ireland and the Irish region "Border, Midland and Western".

Figure 3.7: All persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

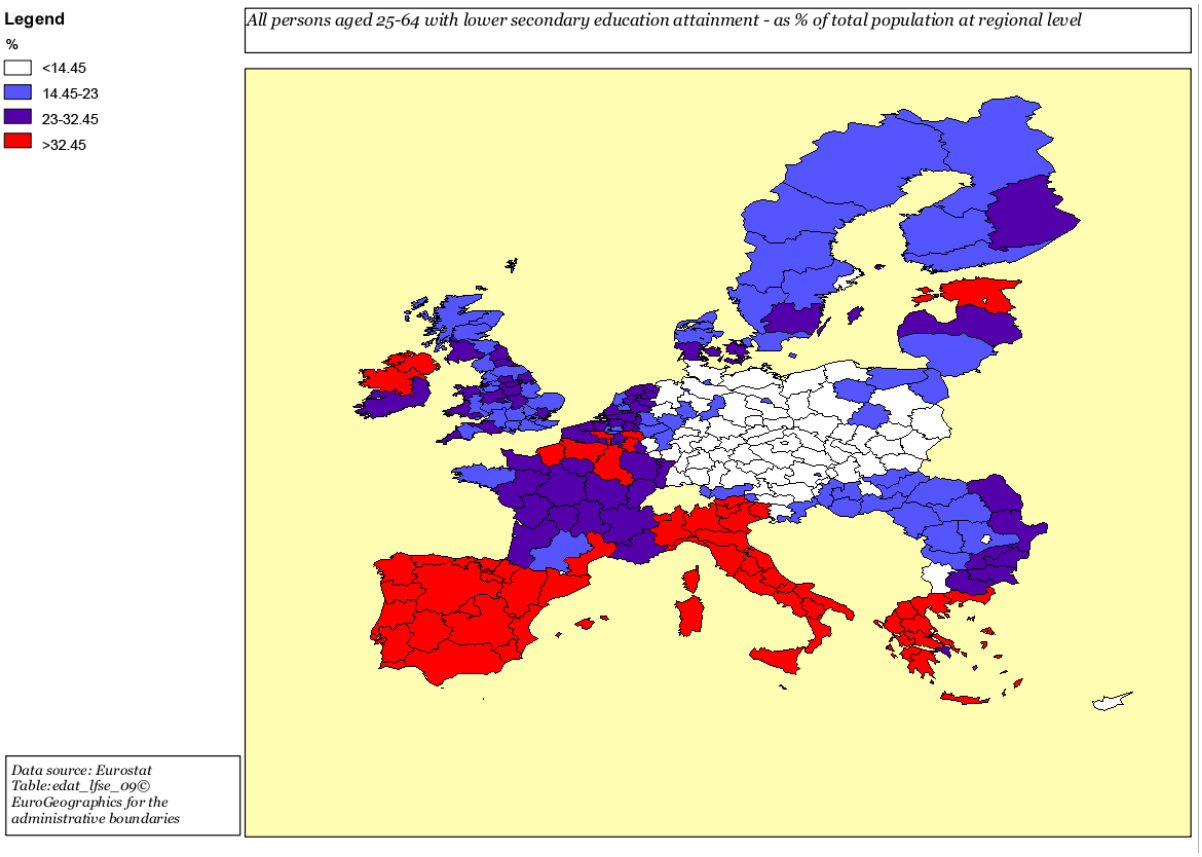


Table 3.13 and Table 3.14 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively:

Table 3.13. Top 10 regions - All persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

Centro	NUTS CODE PT16	77.9
Alentejo	PT18	77.8
Norte	PT11	77.3
Algarve	PT15	70.2
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	63.5
Extremadura	ES43	62.9
Lisboa	PT17	59.8
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	59
Sardegna	ITG2	58.5
Ionia Nisia	GR22	57.8

Table 3.14. Bottom 10 regions - All persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment(% of the total population in a region)

Leipzig	NUTS CODE DED3	5
Dresden	DED2	5
Střední Čechy	CZ02	5
Thüringen	DEG0	4.8
Střední Morava	CZ07	4.8
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	4.3
Jihovýchod	CZ06	4.3
Cyprus	CY00	4.2
Trier	DEB2	4.1
Praha	CZ01	3.2

Figure 3.8 depicts the spatial distribution of all persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment as a proportion of the total population in each region. Most of the regions with the highest values are in central and Eastern Europe, whereas the regions with the lowest values are mostly located in Spain, Portugal, Greece, Ireland and Scotland (also see Chapter 4).

Figure 3.8: All persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

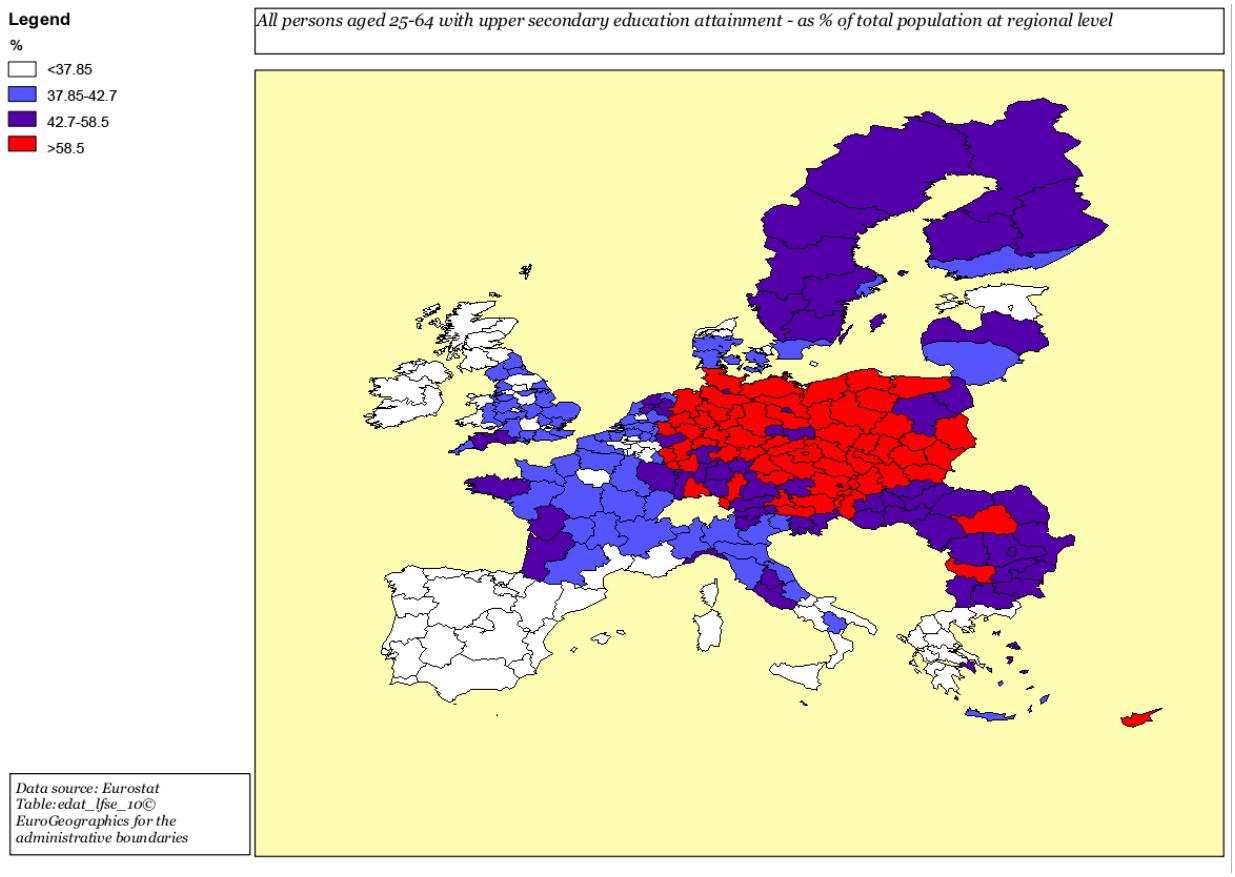


Table 3.15 and Table 3.16 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively:

Table 3.15: Top 10 regions - all persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

	NUTS CODE	
Střední Morava	CZ07	77.1
Střední Čechy	CZ02	75.8
Jihozápad	CZ03	75.5
Východné Slovensko	SK04	75.3
Severovýchod	CZ05	75.2
Západné Slovensko	SK02	75
Jihovýchod	CZ06	74.5
Severozápad	CZ04	73.3
Moravskoslezsko	CZ08	71.8
Stredné Slovensko	SK03	70.7

Table 3.16: Bottom 10 regions - all persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

	NUTS CODE	
Castilla y León	ES41	20.3
País Vasco	ES21	20.2
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	ES63	19.6
Andalucía	ES61	18.6
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	18.3
Galicia	ES11	17.1
Alentejo	PT18	16.3
Extremadura	ES43	15.6
Centro	PT16	13.4
Norte	PT11	11.4

Figure 3.9 shows the spatial distribution of population with relatively low level of formal educational qualifications in Europe. In particular, it depicts the geographical distribution of people with at most pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education (levels 0-2, ISCED 1997) as a proportion of all people over 15 years old. The regions with the highest rates are mostly in southern Europe and especially in Portugal, Spain, Malta, Italy and Greece. In contrast, the regions with the lowest rates (where people have higher qualifications) are mostly found in central and Eastern Europe as well as in the United Kingdom. Indeed, this map in some ways inverts the pattern of the previous one.

Figure 3.9: Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education attainment (% of the total population in a region)

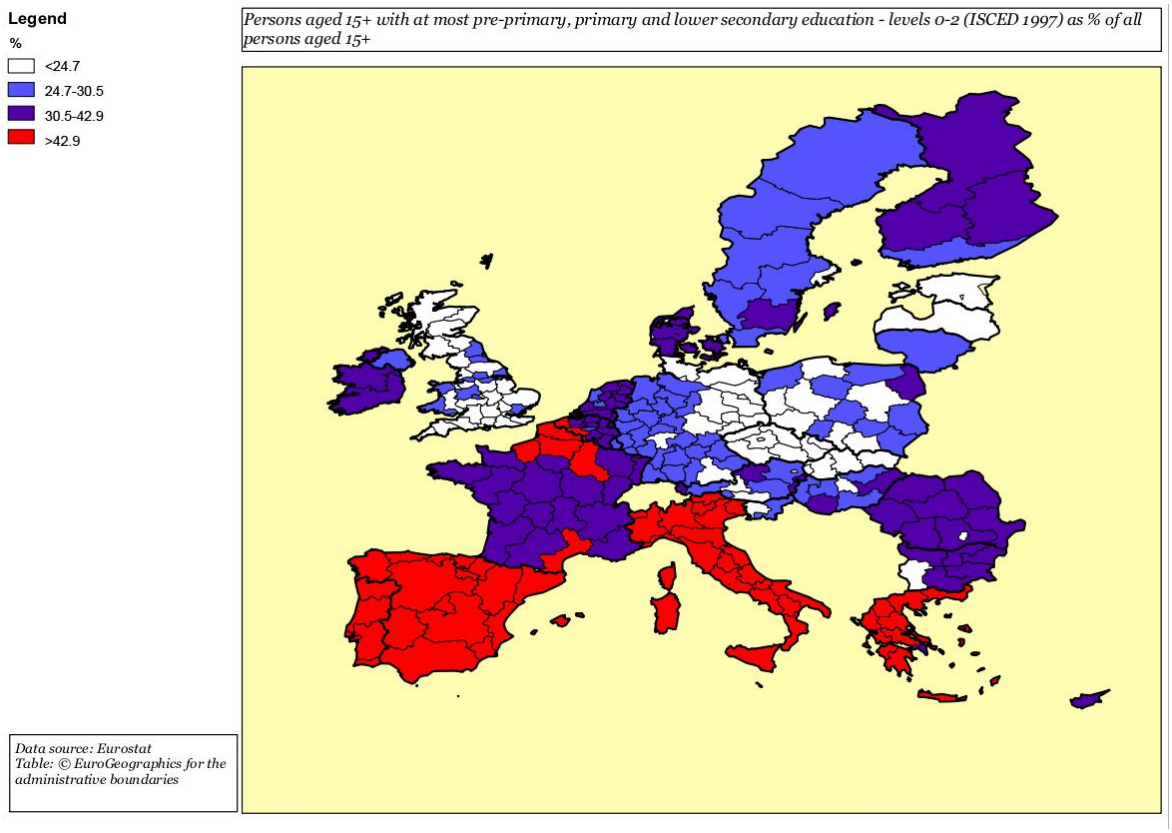


Table 3.17 and Table 3.18 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively:

Table 3.17: Top 10 regions -persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2, ISCED 1997) as % of all population over 15 years old in a region

	NUTS CODE	
Alentejo	PT18	78.36
Centro	PT16	78.16
Norte	PT11	77.65
Malta	MT00	74.16
Algarve	PT15	71.72
Extremadura	ES43	67.42
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	64.95
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	64.76
Lisboa	PT17	64.48
Ionia Nissia	GR22	64.12

Table 3.18: Bottom 10 regions -persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2, ISCED 1997) as % of all population over 15 years old in a region

	NUTS CODE	
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	DE80	16.29
Brandenburg - Nordost	DE41	16.23
Sachsen-Anhalt	DEE0	15.97
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	14.11
Brandenburg – Südwest	DE42	14.04
Leipzig	DED3	13.44
Thüringen	DEG0	13.12
Dresden	DED2	13.00
Chemnitz	DED1	11.85
Praha	CZ01	10.69

Figure 3.10 shows the geographical distribution of people with at most upper and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3-4, ISCED 1997) as a proportion of all persons aged 15 years old and over. The regions with the highest values are mostly in central and eastern Europe, whereas the regions with the lowest rates are mostly located in southern Europe. Some of these patterns seem to be consistent with the findings of Lackenbauer (2004a & 2004b) which were discussed in Chapter 2, suggesting that an overall picture is that of widening disparities between and within countries as the spatial impact of intense economic reforms and integration with Western Europe is uneven.

Figure 3.10: Persons with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education attainment (% of the total population aged 15+ in a region)

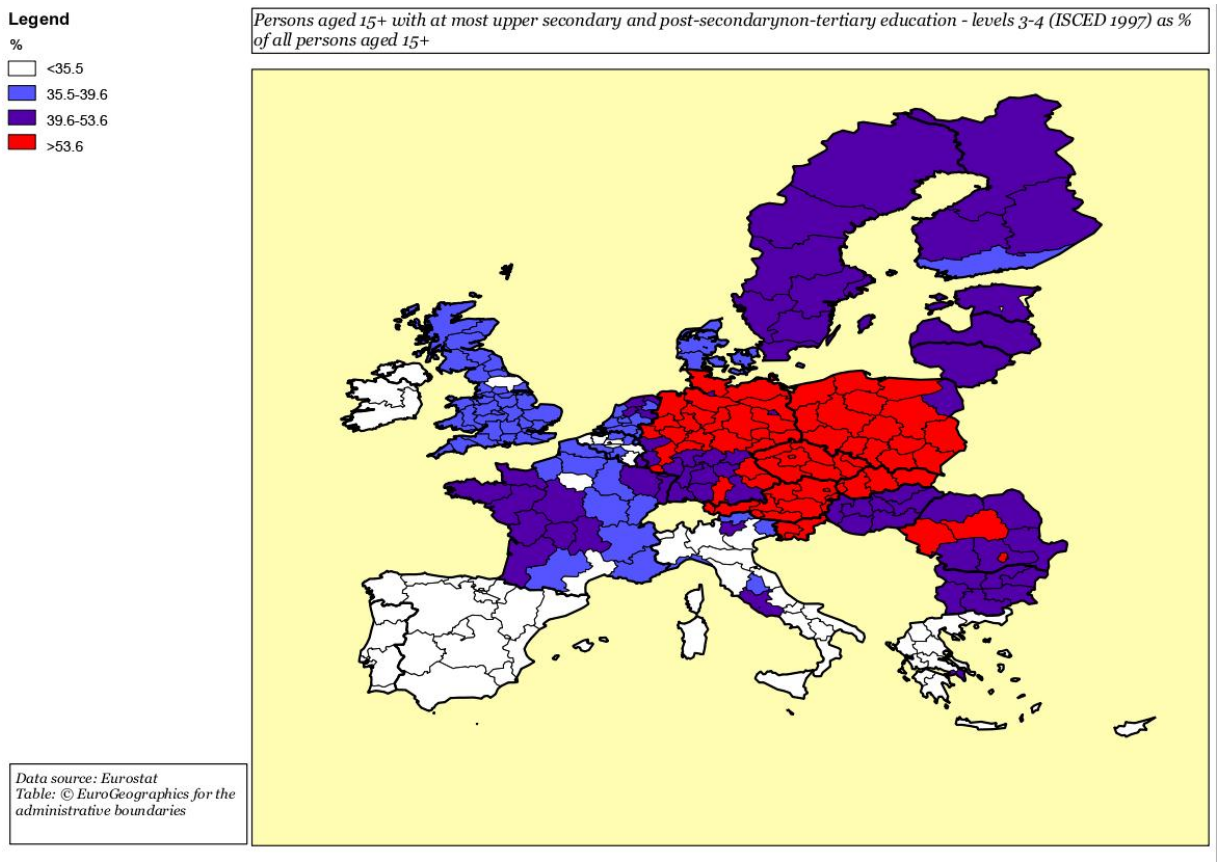


Table 3.19 and Table 3.20 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively:

Table 3.19: Top 10 regions - persons with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3-4, ISCED 1997) as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region

	NUTS CODE	
Střední Čechy	CZ02	72.50
Severovýchod	CZ05	72.06
Jihozápad	CZ03	71.11
Střední Morava	CZ07	71.04
Jihovýchod	CZ06	69.43
Severozápad	CZ04	69.16
Moravskoslezsko	CZ08	68.60
Západné Slovensko	SK02	68.35
Východné Slovensk	SK04	67.26
Stredné Slovensko	SK03	65.44

Table 3.20: Bottom 10 regions - persons with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3-4, ISCED 1997) as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region

	NUTS CODE	
Andalucía	ES61	17.34
Algarve	PT15	17.29
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	16.35
Galicia	ES11	15.82
Malta	MT00	14.52
Extremadura	ES43	14.43
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	13.39
Centro	PT16	13.32
Alentejo	PT18	13.24
Norte	PT11	12.62

Figure 3.11 shows the geographical distribution of individuals with tertiary education qualifications (levels 5-6, ISCED 1997) as a proportion of all persons aged 15 and over. Most of the regions in the top quantile are found in the UK, Belgium and the Netherlands, but also in northern Spain and Cyprus. The region with the highest rate is Inner London, closely followed by Prov. Brabant Wallon.

On the other side of the distribution, the regions with the lowest rates of tertiary education graduates are in Italy, Portugal, and in central and eastern Europe. This shows a very clearly discriminating spatial distribution of life chances, perhaps the most decisive one we have had so far. It points to the **clear gap** between regions and countries that are more and less likely to provide a supportive educational milieu.

These data represent a valuable resource for anyone interested in the relationship between regions and educational achievement and potential.

Figure 3.11: Persons with tertiary education (levels 5-6, ISCED 1997) as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region

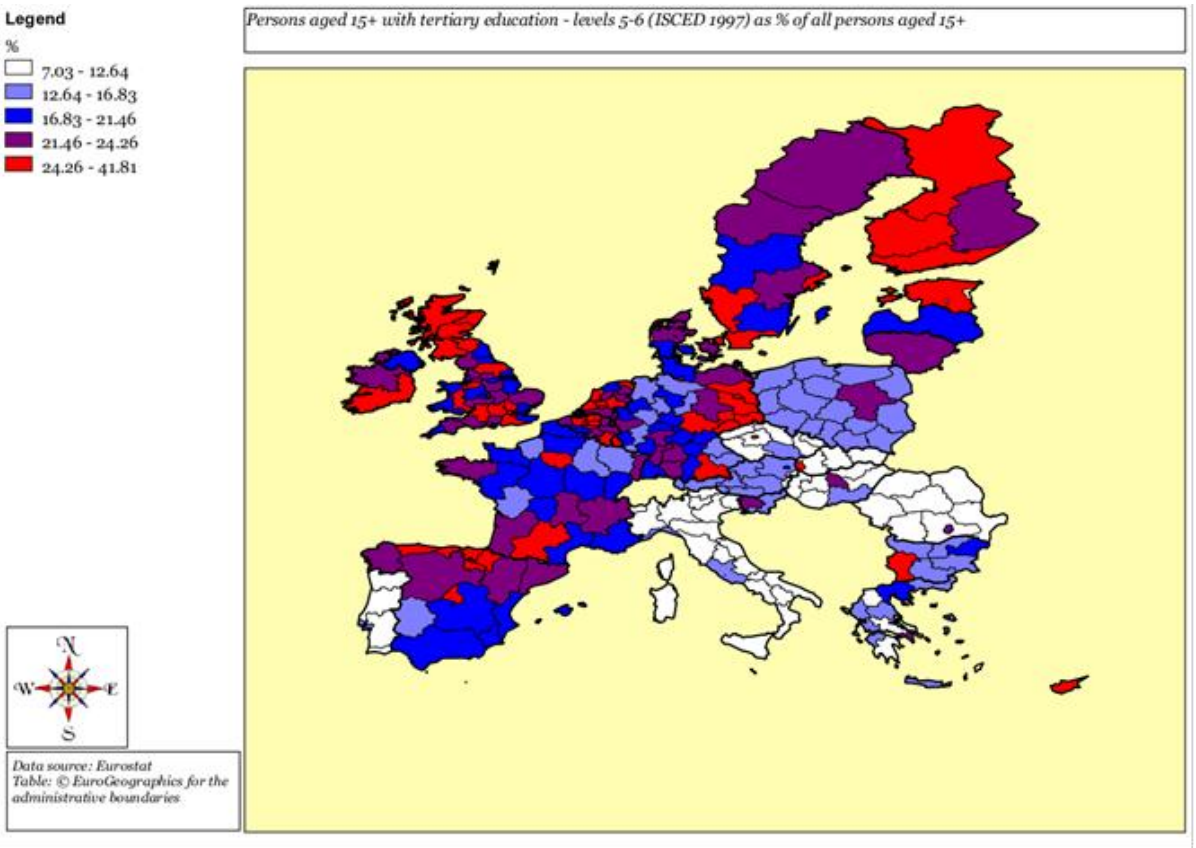


Table 3.21 and Table 3.22 show the "top" and "bottom" 10 regions respectively:

Table 3.21: Top 10 regions – persons with tertiary education (levels 5-6, ISCED 1997) as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region

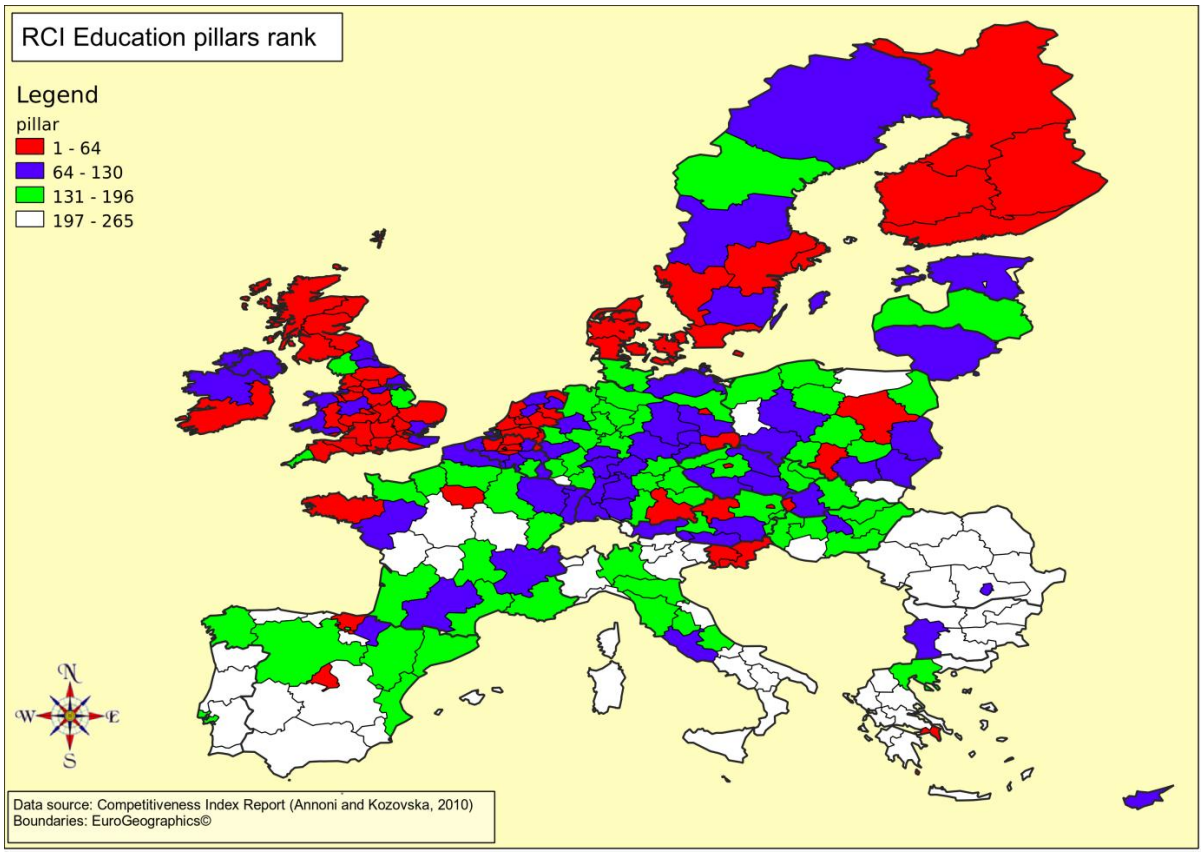
Inner London	NUTS CODE UK11	41.82
Prov. Brabant Wallon	BE31	38.12
Stockholm	SE11	34.50
País Vasco	ES21	34.30
Prov. Vlaams-Brabant	BE24	34.13
Utrecht	NL31	34.07
Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	BE10	33.87
Île de France	FR10	32.98
Noord-Holland	NL32	32.79
Hovedstaden	DK01	32.25

Table 3.22: Bottom 10 regions - persons with tertiary education (levels 5-6, ISCED 1997) as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region

Basilicata	NUTS CODE ITF5	8.63
Centro	PT16	8.52
Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen	ITD1	8.45
Puglia	ITF4	8.44
Alentejo	PT18	8.41
Valle d'Aosta	ITC2	8.27
Nord-Est	RO21	8.18
Sud-Est	RO22	7.51
Sud – Muntenia	RO31	7.11
Severozápad	CZ04	7.03

Figure 3.12 illustrates the ranking of EU regions according to the composite Regional Competitiveness Indicator (RCI) developed by Annoni and Koszovska (2010). "Education" was one of the eleven pillars underpinning this indicator. Each pillar was designed to capture the short-term and long-term capabilities of the region. The "Education" pillar was based on a wide range of variables pertaining to primary, secondary and tertiary education (see Annoni and Koszovska, 2010 for more details). Figure 3.12 maps the Higher Education/Training and Lifelong Learning pillar sub-rank (table 50, Annoni & Koszovska, 2010:127). As can be seen, most of the regions ranked highly are in northern and Western Europe. In contrast, the regions ranked 197-265 are mostly in southern and Eastern Europe.

Figure 3.12: Higher Education/Training and Lifelong Learning pillar sub-rank (after Annoni and Kozovska, 2010: 127)



This chapter has laid a basis for the analysis of the relationship between educational inequalities and regional characteristics. It has provided a means for calculating and comparing the current educational levels and participation at a regional rather than a national level –which further underlines the depth of regional inequalities in education. We have also been able to distinguish, albeit at a very broad level, those regions which seem most and least likely to attract and support productive activities and people.

It would be very useful to have longitudinal forms of such data so as to establish more clearly the relationship between regions and education inequality. Closer analysis than what we have been able to conduct here would reveal more clearly where and how policy interventions may be possible to redress some of the regional inequalities.

In the next chapter we investigate further the regional patterns of the two bodies of indicators and of the potential supportiveness of regional educational levels.

Following this, in Chapter 5, we will carry out a much closer analysis based on NUTS level 3 and smaller area data, which gives an idea of the potential of such work, and makes a very strong case for extending the availability of such data.

Annex 1 provides the **human population cartogram version** of the conventional maps shown in this chapter as an alternative way of visualising regional data on educational inequalities across EU regions.

Chapter Four. Regional inequalities in education in each EU Member State

Introduction

The discussion so far provided a picture of the regional dimension of educational inequalities at the EU-wide level. This chapter illustrates the geographical patterns of educational inequality within each EU member state[338]. It also presents and discusses a series of tables with data at regional level.

The **highest regional values in these tables are colour-coded red** and **the lowest values colour-coded blue**.

The same tables also present a basic index of inequality for each country: the ***range***, which is the difference between the maximum and minimum regional value for each indicator.

4.1. Regional inequalities in Austria

Table 4.1 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for Austrian regions. There is relatively high regional variation in the rates of pupils and students in all levels of education across the country, in lifelong learning rates, and in the rates of students in higher education (ISCED5-6). The greater Vienna (Wien) region has the highest rate of pupils and students in all levels of education (as a percentage of total population) whereas the region of Burgenland (A) has the smallest rate (see also Figure 4.1, next page). The difference between the values in these two regions is 8.3%. These two regions also have the highest and lowest rates respectively of adults aged 25-64 participating in education and training (also see Figure 4.2).

The biggest difference between rates pertaining to the "target groups" is observed for the indicator "all students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as a percentage of the population aged 20-24 years" (100% in Wien and 7.3% in Vorarlberg). Similarly, it is worth noting that there are no people living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university in the regions of Wien and Burgenland (A), whereas on the other hand the region with the highest rate is Salzburg (18%; see Figure 4.3)

Table 4.2 (p. 58) presents the values of "outcome" and "performance" indicators in Austrian regions. The region with the highest number of "Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education" (as a percentage of total population aged over 15 years old) is Burgenland (A). The region with the lowest rate for this indicator is Wien. These two regions are also at the extremes of the distribution of rates of people with tertiary education qualifications (21.4% in Wien and 11.7% in Burgenland). There is also considerable variation of these variables across Austrian regions as can be seen in Figures 4.4 and 4.5.

Table 4.1: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Austrian regions

Region	NUTS Code	All pupils and students	In lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Burgenland (A)	AT11	**16.2**	**5.8**	**7.8**	45.9	10.8	**0**
Nieder-österreich	AT12	17.2	**6.7**	**8.6**	**41.8**	13	5.3
Wien	AT13	**24.5**	**9.2**	**7.9**	44.9	**100**	**0**
Kärnten	AT21	18.6	6.4	**8.6**	49.4	31.4	7.6
Steiermark	AT22	19.7	6.4	**8.2**	44.5	60	5.2
Ober-österreich	AT31	19.9	7.1	**9.3**	47.6	26.2	0.2
Salzburg	AT32	21.8	7.3	**9.2**	**50.8**	52.9	18
Tirol	AT33	22	7.1	**9.1**	45.9	64.5	11.5
Vorarlberg	AT34	19.6	7.2	10	44.1	**7.3**	7.2
	Range*	***8.3***	**3.4**	***2.2***	***9***	***92.7***	***18***

*The ***range*** is the difference between the maximum and minimum regional value for each indicator.

[338] A full set of the maps for each country can be downloaded from: http://www.dimitrisk.gr/download/euReport/

Figure 4.1. Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) in Austria

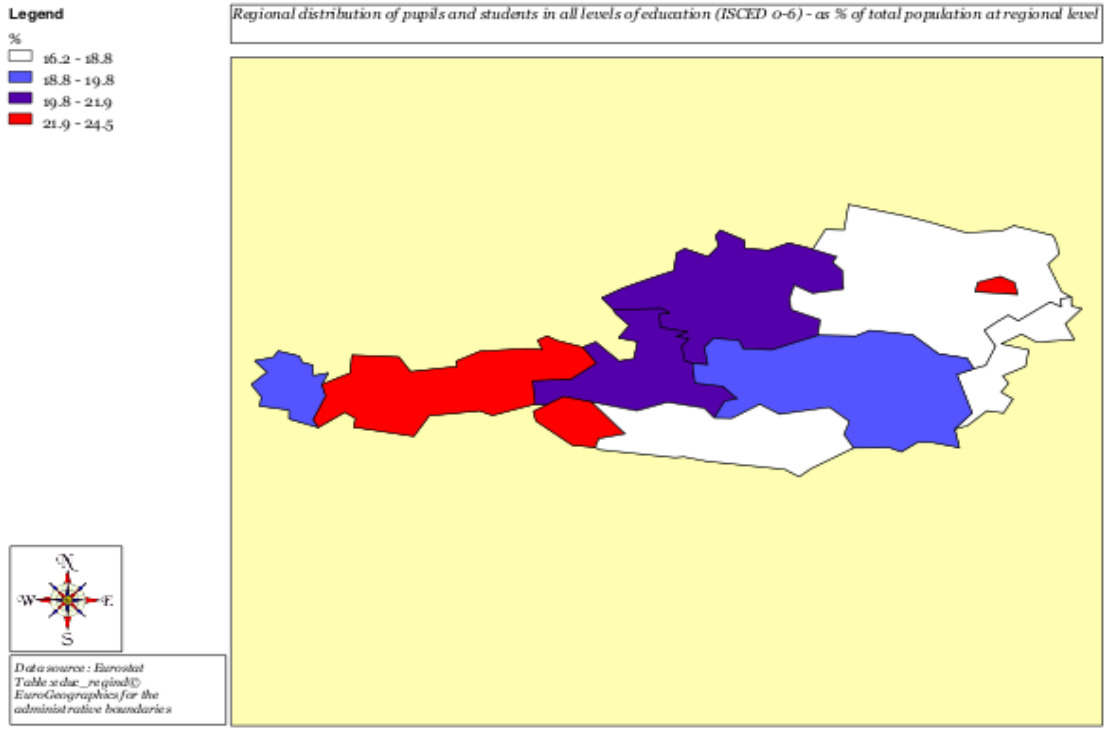


Figure 4.2. Lifelong learning – participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training, Austrian regions

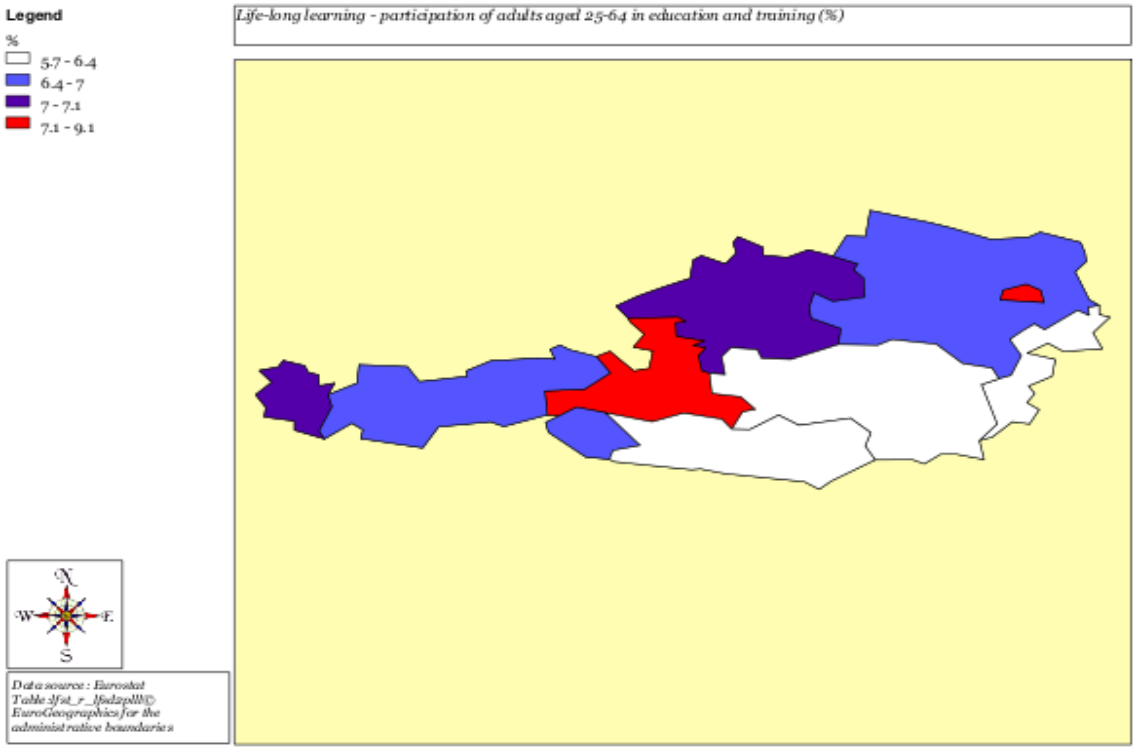


Figure 4.3: University "geographical accessibility" by region in Austria

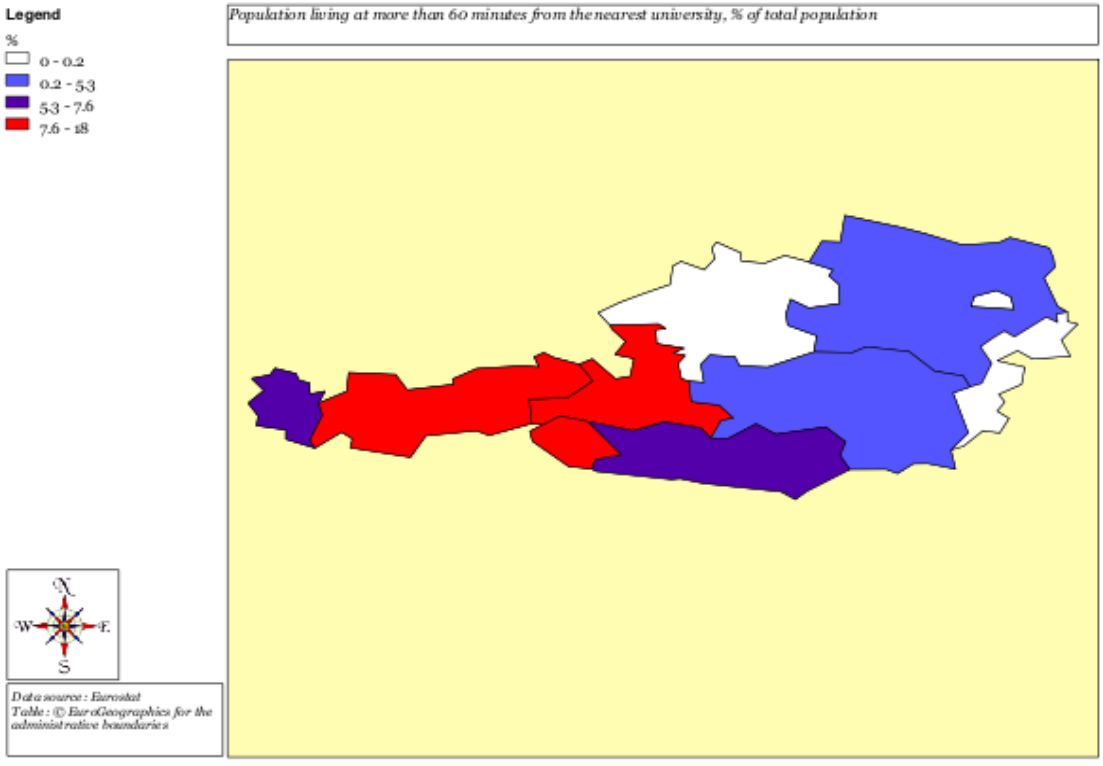


Figure 4.4: Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Austrian regions

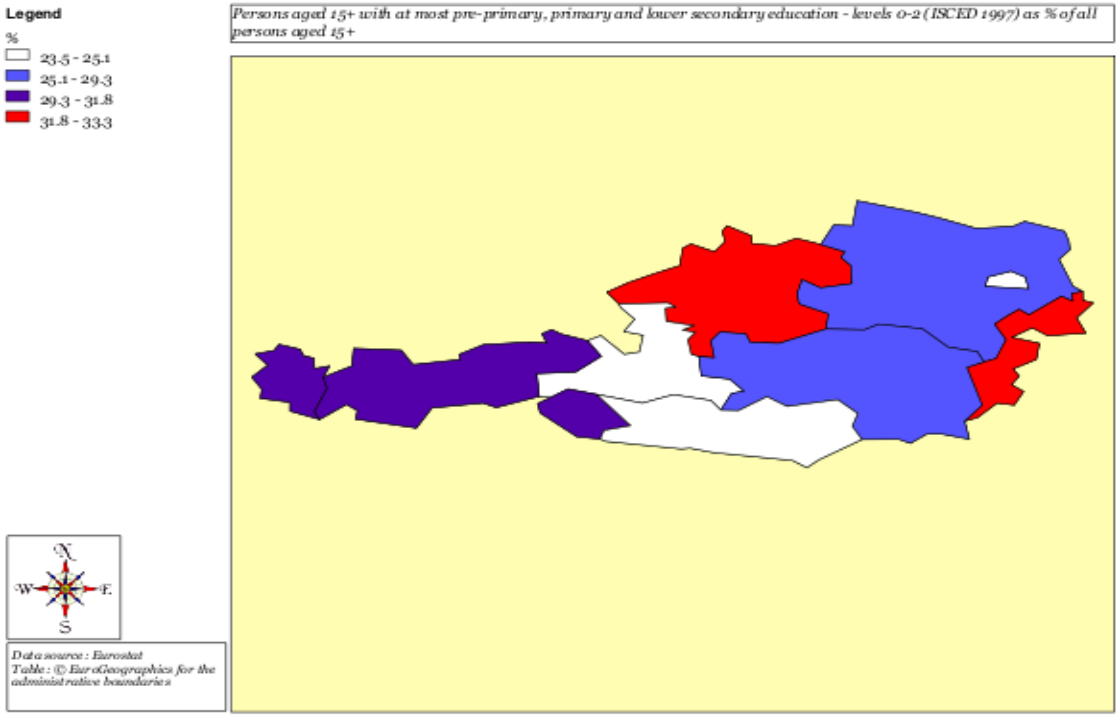


Figure 4.5. Persons 15+ with tertiary education qualifications, Austrian regions

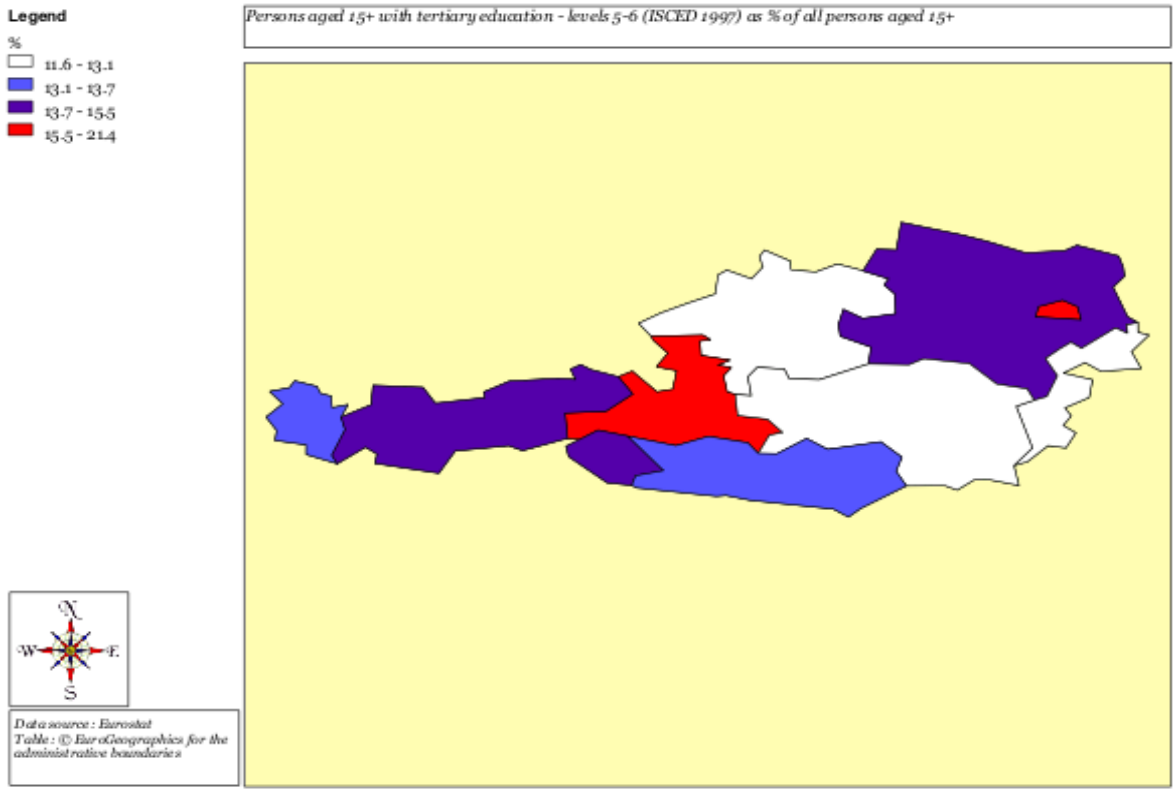


Table 4.2: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Austrian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Burgenland (A)	AT11	11.2	59.0	**33.3**	**55.0**	**11.7**	139
Niederösterreich	AT12	10	62.6	27.2	58.9	13.9	148
Wien	AT13	15.9	**52.0**	**23.5**	55.0	**21.4**	**31**
Kärnten	AT21	**8.3**	**67.8**	24.3	**62.0**	13.7	109
Steiermark	AT22	10	62.4	28.5	58.5	13.0	85
Oberösterreich	AT31	13.8	58.1	31.9	55.0	13.0	64
Salzburg	AT32	10.3	65.2	24.5	59.5	16.0	140
Tirol	AT33	14.9	58.5	30.2	55.9	13.8	127
Vorarlberg	AT34	**18**	60.0	31.4	55.2	13.4	**212**
	Range:	***9.7***	***15.8***	***9.7***	***7.1***	***9.8***	***181***

4.2. Regional inequalities in Belgium

Table 4.3 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Belgian regions. The "accessibility to universities" indicator is excellent across all regions, as virtually all population lives within 60 minutes from a university. The greater Brussels region (Région de Bruxelles-Capitale) has the highest rates of pupils and students in all levels of education (also see Figure 4.6) and the highest adult participation in lifelong learning. It also has the highest rate of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as a percentage of the population aged 20-24 years together with Prov. Brabant Wallon (100% in both regions). In contrast, region Prov. Luxembourg (B) has the lowest rate of tertiary education students (23.4%). Figure 4.7 depicts the spatial distribution of this indicator across Belgian regions.

Table 4.3: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Belgian regions

Region	NUTS code	All pupils and students	In lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest	BE10	**35.9**	**5.3**	No data	78.4	**120.7**	0
Prov. Antwerpen	BE21	24.7	3.6	9.1	74.7	49.8	0
Prov. Limburg (B)	BE22	26.1	4.5	9.2	85.2	35.5	0
Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	BE23	26.9	4.3	9.1	83.9	80.8	0
Prov. Vlaams-Brabant	BE24	**23.2**	4.9	**8.1**	72.3	69.0	0
Prov. West-Vlaanderen	BE25	24.7	3.7	8.9	**88.1**	28.4	0
Prov. Brabant Wallon	BE31	27.7	3.6	10.4	51.7	100.0	0
Prov. Hainaut	BE32	26.4	**1.7**	11.5	62.5	43.9	0
Prov. Liège	BE33	26.1	3.1	10.8	**59.7**	64.6	0
Prov. Luxembourg (B)	BE34	28.5	2.5	**13.3**	66.0	**23.4**	0
	Range:	***12.69***	**3.6**	***5.2***	***36.4***	***97.3***	***0***

Figure 4.6: Distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6), Belgian regions (% of the total population in a region)

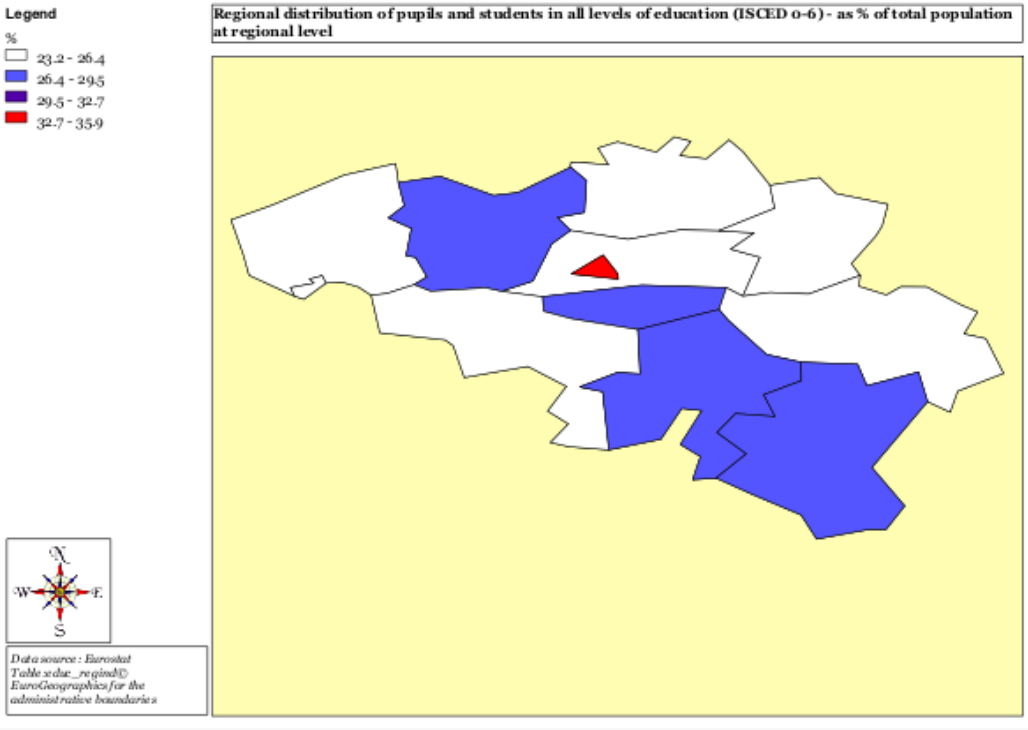


Figure 4.7: Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6), % of the total population 20-24 in a region, Belgian regions

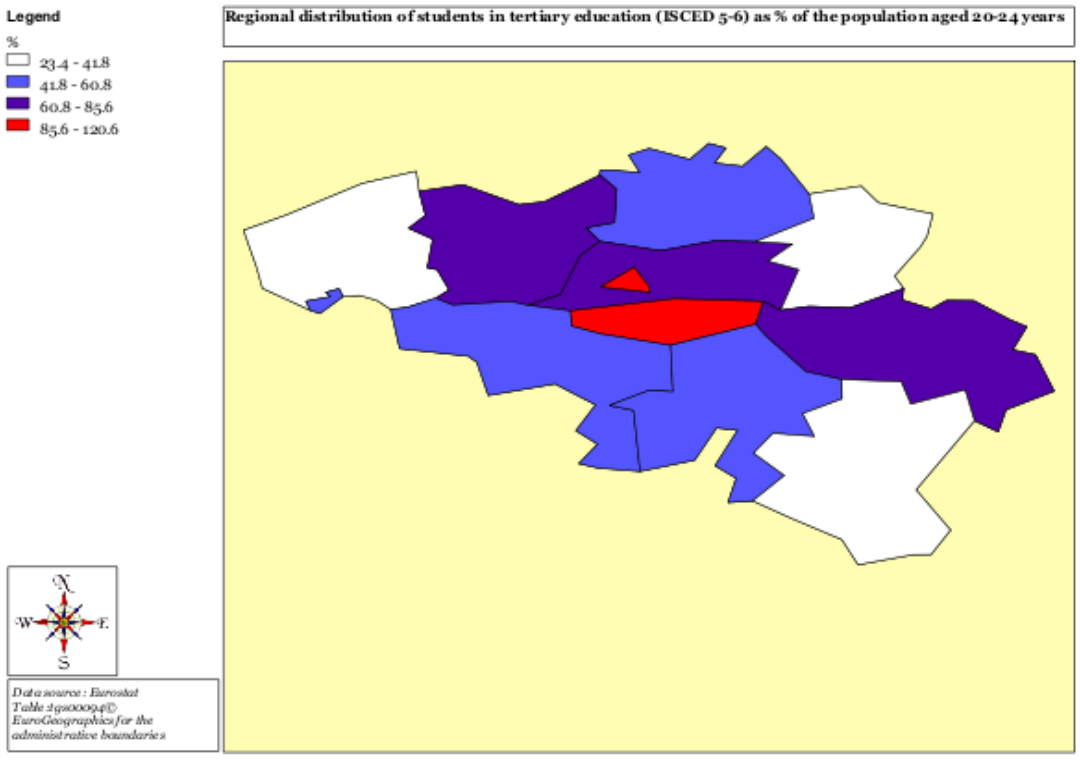


Table 4.4 presents regional data for Belgium on the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. Prov. Hainaut has the highest value (45.4%) of individuals with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary educational qualifications (as a percentage of all population aged over 15), followed closely by Prov. West-Vlaanderen, Prov. Liège, and Prov. Luxembourg. In contrast, Prov. Brabant Wallon has the lowest value. Figure 4.8 shows the spatial distribution of this indicator.

Table 4.4: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Belgian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Région deBruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest*	BE10	30.5	**25.7**	38.7	**27.4**	33.9	**17***
Prov. Antwerpen	BE21	27.8	**39.5**	37.4	**38.0**	24.6	43
Prov. Limburg (B)	BE22	30.1	38.0	39.4	37.8	22.7	73
Prov. Oost-Vlaanderen	BE23	28.8	37.9	38.4	34.9	26.6	40
Prov. Vlaams-Brabant*	BE24	21.9	32.4	32.9	33.0	34.1	**17***
Prov. West-Vlaanderen	BE25	29.8	37.9	42.9	34.8	22.2	68
Prov. Brabant Wallon *	BE31	**20.5**	31.0	**29.9**	32.0	**38.1**	**17***
Prov. Hainaut	BE32	**36.6**	37.0	**45.4**	35.8	**18.7**	118
Prov. Liège	BE33	34.0	33.1	42.8	33.2	23.9	78
Prov. Luxembourg (B)	BE34	32.7	33.4	41.6	33.0	25.4	**146**
	Range:	16.1	13.8	15.6	10.6	19.4	129

* Merged into one region for the purposes of the RCI project; see Annoni and Kozovska (2010) for more details

Prov. Brabant Wallon has the highest percentage of individuals with tertiary education qualifications (as a percentage of total population over 15), whereas Prov. Hainaut has the lowest (18.7%) and there is considerable variation across regions (see Figure 4.9).

Figure 4.8: Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Belgian regions

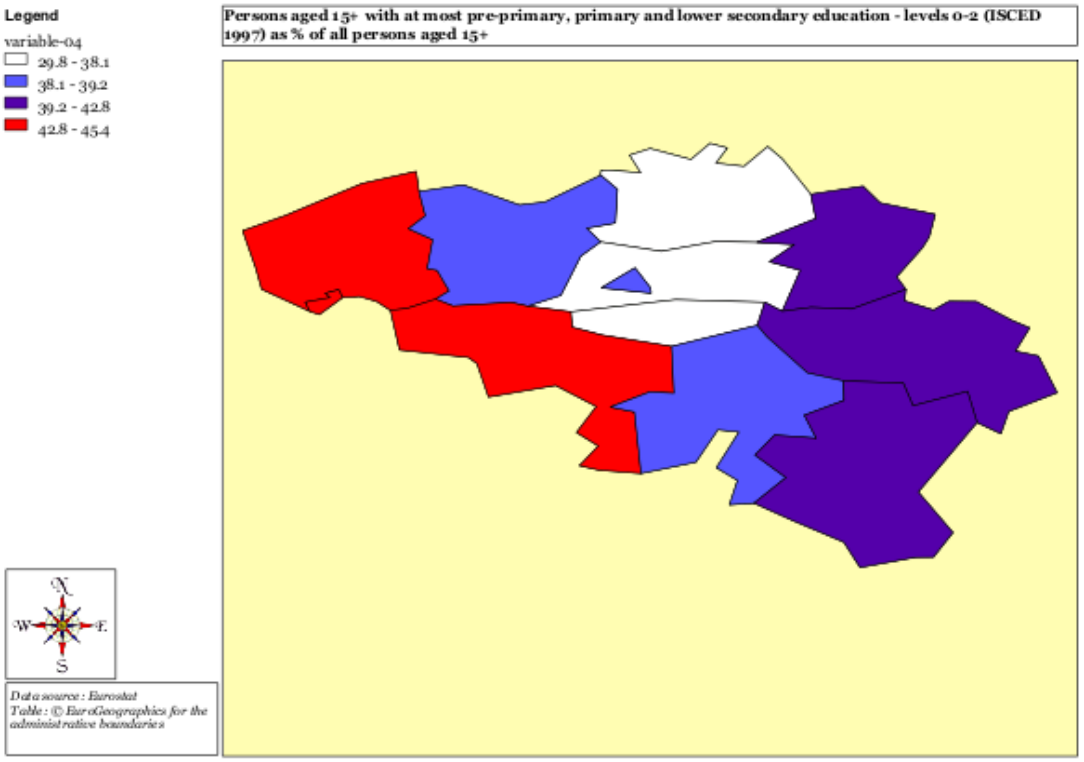
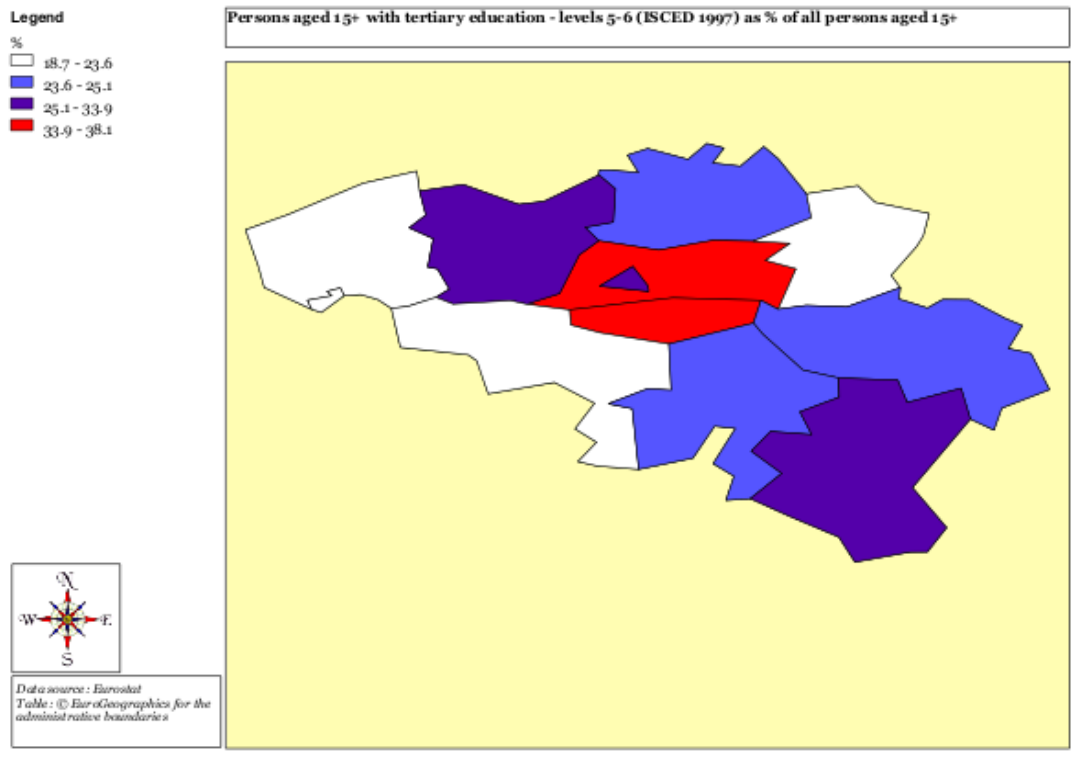


Figure 4.9: With tertiary education (%), Belgian regions



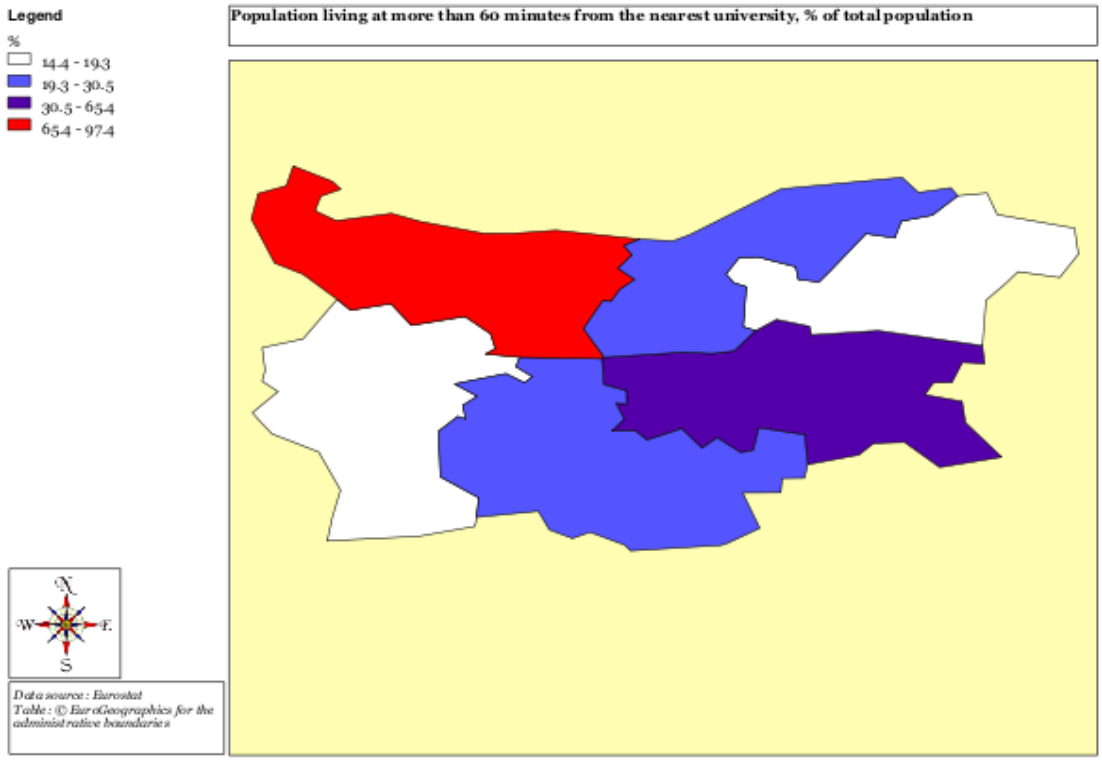
4.3. Regional inequalities in Bulgaria

Table 4.5 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for the six Bulgarian NUTS2 regions. Severozapaden in the north west of the country has the lowest rates of adults aged 25-64 participating in lifelong learning (not just in Bulgaria but the lowest in the EU) and the worst "university accessibility" indicator. Figure 4.10 shows the spatial distribution of this indicator across all regions in Bulgaria. The region with the best university accessibility is Yugozapaden in the south west, where the country's capital and largest city, Sofia, is also located.

Table 4.5: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Bulgarian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	All pupils and students	In lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED 3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Severozapaden	BG31	**14.4**	**0.3**	**7.1**	**36.8**	**4.3**	**97.4**
Severen tsentralen	BG32	18.2	0.5	6.5	**33.4**	63.7	22
Severoiztochen	BG33	**19.4**	0.5	7.5	33.7	63.1	16.7
Yugoiztochen	BG34	16.2	0.5	7.3	34.2	24.3	33.4
Yugozapaden	BG41	**19.4**	**1.6**	6.3	37	**74.5**	**14.4**
Yuzhen tsentralen	BG42	16.9	0.5	**7.1**	34	38	30.5
	Range:	***5***	**1.3**	***1.2***	***3.6***	***70.2***	***83***

Figure 4.10: University "geographical accessibility" by region in Bulgaria



The region of Severoiztochen (where Varna, Bulgaria's third largest city is located) also has relatively high university accessibility (with only 16.7% of the total population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university). In contrast, the region of Severozapaden has the lowest university accessibility rate with 97.4% of its population living at more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university.

Table 4.6 and Figure 4.11 (next page) show the spatial distribution of these variables across the six Bulgarian NUTS2 regions.

Table 4.6: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Bulgarian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Severozap	BG31	20.6	**60.2**	35.3	**51.4**	**13.2**	**257**
Severen	BG32	23.8	49.7	37.4	47.0	15.6	223
Severoizt	BG33	**28.4**	**44.9**	38.6	**44.4**	17.0	220
Yugoiztoc	BG34	27.5	51.2	**41.3**	45.9	12.8	244
Yugozapa	BG41	**13**	49.9	**23.7**	49.2	**27.0**	**87**
Yuzhen	BG42	26.9	49	40.1	45.9	13.9	233
	Range:	*15.4*	*15.3*	*17.6*	*7.0*	*14.3*	*170*

Figure 4.11: Persons aged 15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Bulgarian regions

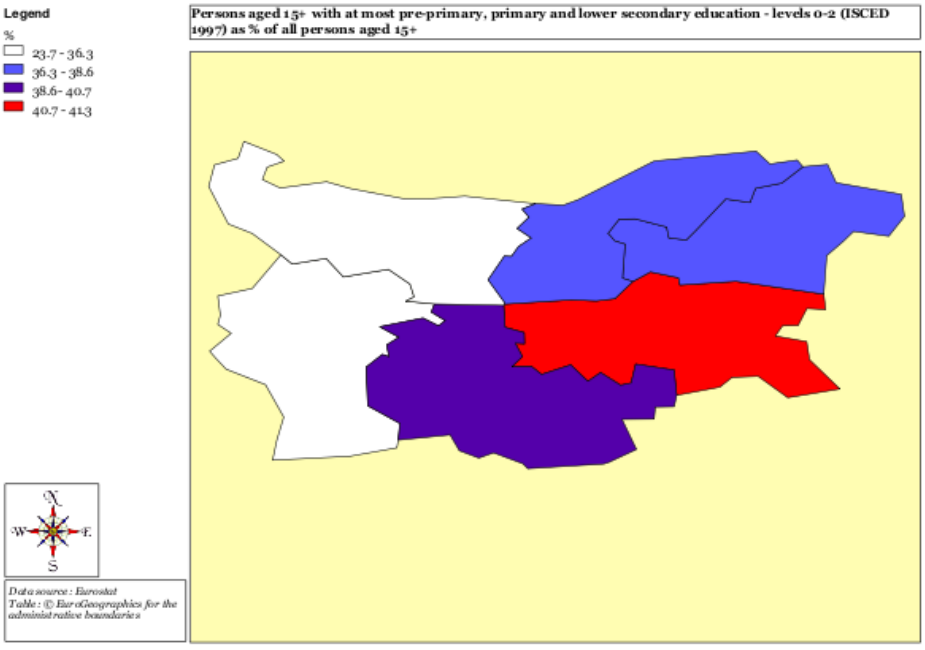
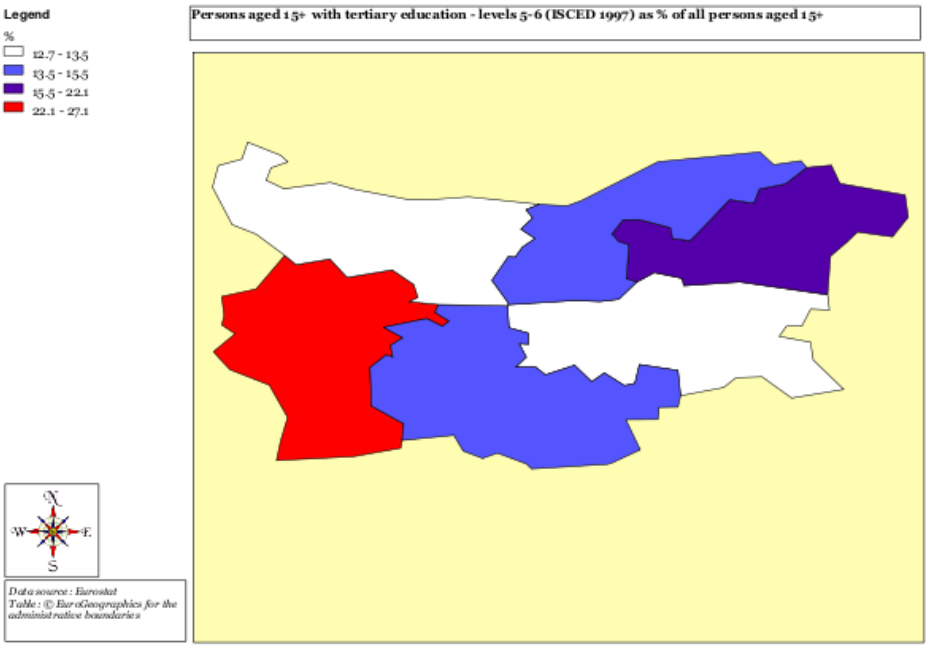


Figure 4.12: Persons aged 15+ with tertiary education, Bulgarian regions



4.4. Regional inequalities in the Czech Republic

Table 4.7 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for the eight regions of the Czech Republic. The region with the highest rate of pupils and students in all levels of education as a percentage of total population is greater Prague (Praha), whereas the lowest value is observed in Střední Čechy (also see Figure 4.13). Figure 4.14 shows the regional distribution of University Accessibility.

Table 4.7: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Czech Republic regions

Region	NUTS CODE	All pupils and students	In lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Praha	CZ01	**28.7**	**7.5**	**7.2**	**61.1**	**100**	**0**
Střední Čechy	CZ02	**14.7**	4.3	8	**30.1**	**5.6**	**0**
Jihozápad	CZ03	19.6	4.4	8.6	40.4	44.2	0.3
Severozápad	CZ04	18.5	4.2	8.9	40.0	20.4	**0**
Severovýchod	CZ05	19.3	4.1	8.9	40.0	32.3	**0**
Jihovýchod	CZ06	22.6	4.3	8.8	44.7	72.9	4
Střední Morava	CZ07	20.1	4.7	8.9	42.4	37.2	**3.6**
Moravskoslezsko	CZ08	21.5	**3.0**	**9.3**	41.2	52.5	0.6
	Range:	***14.0***	***4.5***	***2.1***	***31.0***	***94.4***	***4.0***

Figure 4.13: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, Czech Republic regions

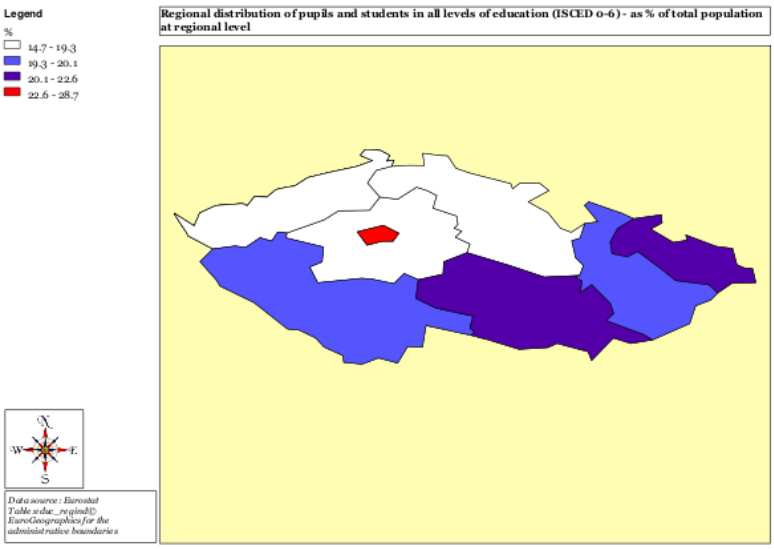


Figure 4.14: "University accessibility" by region, Czech Republic

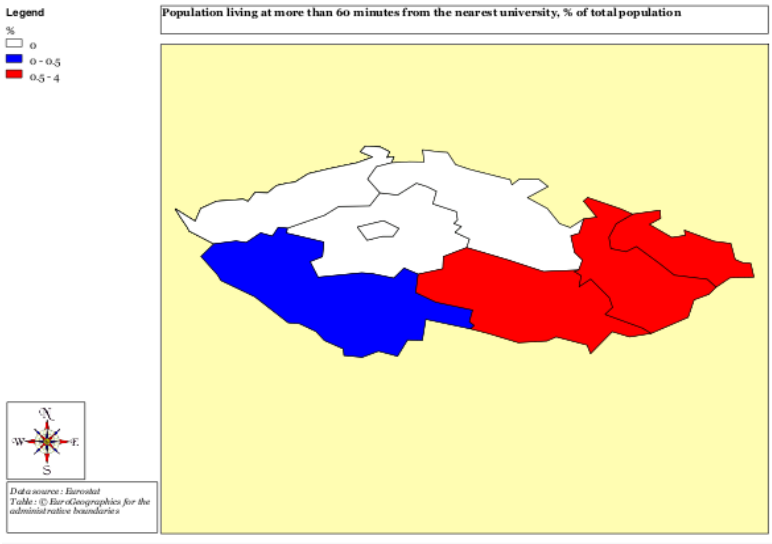


Table 4.8 presents the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. Severozápad has the highest rate of individuals with low qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary attainment), whereas Praha has the lowest (also see Figure 4.15). Praha also has the highest rate of individuals with tertiary education qualifications and has the top rank in the country in the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and is 13th in the EU out of 265). In contrast, the region of Severozápad is ranked bottom and also has the lowest rate of individuals with tertiary education qualifications (also see Figure 4.16).

Table 4.8: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Czech Republic regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Praha	CZ01	**3.2**	**65.4**	**10.7**	**63.5**	**25.8**	**13**
Střední Čechy	CZ02	5	75.8	16.6	**72.5**	10.9	190
Jihozápad	CZ03	5.9	75.5	17.3	71.1	11.5	117
Severozápad	CZ04	**11.9**	73.3	**23.8**	69.2	**7.0**	**195**
Severovýchod	CZ05	5.7	75.2	17.4	72.1	10.6	110
Jihovýchod	CZ06	4.3	74.5	16.9	69.4	13.7	113
Střední Morava	CZ07	4.8	**77.1**	18.6	71.0	10.3	145
Moravskoslezsko	CZ08	5.9	71.8	20.0	68.6	11.4	144
	Range:	***8.7***	***11.7***	***13.1***	***8.9***	***18.7***	***182***

Figure 4.15: Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Czech Republic regions

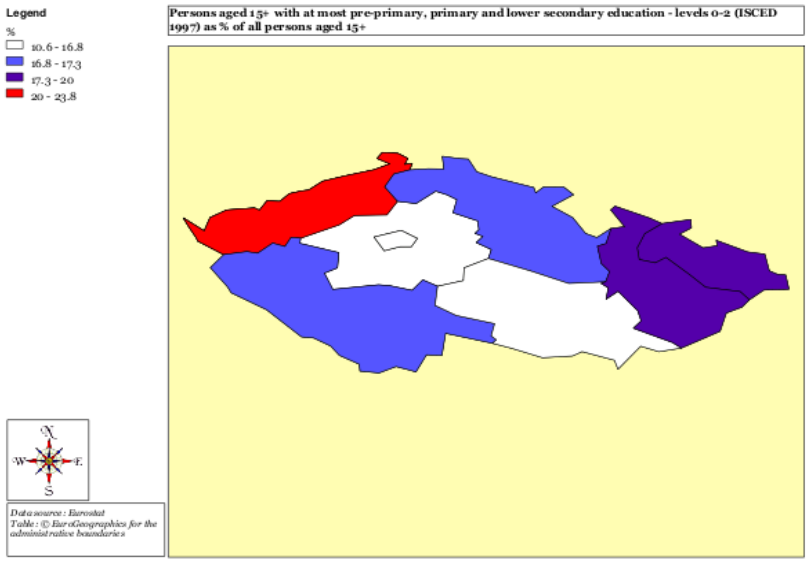
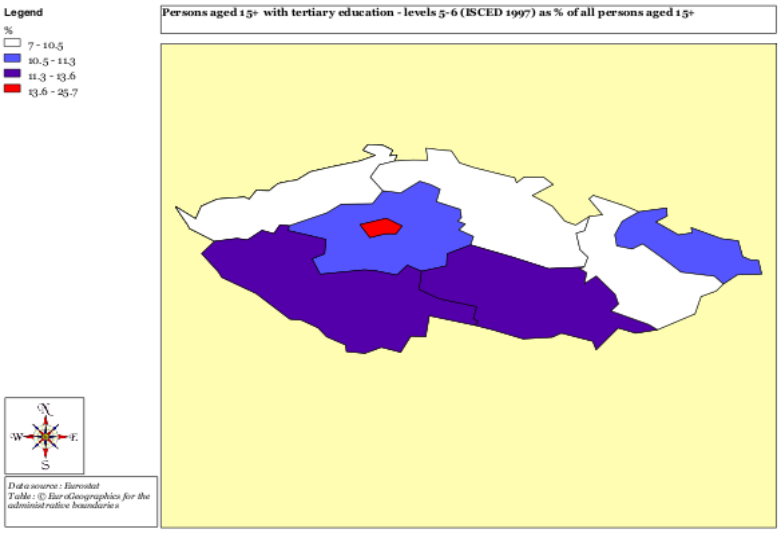


Figure 4.16: With tertiary education, Czech Republic regions



4.5. Regional inequalities in Germany

Table 4.9 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for German regions (at NUTS1 level). As can be seen, Bremen is top of the list in relation to pupils and students in all levels of education, in terms of pupils in upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary education and also in terms of students in tertiary education. On the other hand, Sachsen-Anhalt has the lowest rate of pupils and students in all levels of education, Bayern has the lowest rate of pupils in upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary education and Brandenburg the lowest rate of students in tertiary education.

Figure 4.17 (next page) shows the spatial distribution of "pupils and students in all levels of education" across German regions. Also, Figure 4.19 shows the spatial distribution of university accessibility across NUTS2 regions. Figure 4.18 shows the spatial distribution of participation rates of adults aged 25-64 in education and training. The region with the highest rate is Berlin (5.9%) closely followed by Hamburg (5.45%) and Bremen (5.18%). On the other side of the distribution, the region with the lowest adult participation in lifelong learning rate is Niederbayern (3%).

Table 4.9: "target group"/"opportunity" indicators in German regions (NUTS1)

Region name	Region code	Pupils and students in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6)*	Pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education**	Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years
Baden-Württemberg	DE1	21.72	37.48	47.04
Bayern	DE2	20.08	**32.20**	41.52
Berlin	DE3	19.22	34.18	64.83
Brandenburg	DE4	16.74	36.17	**31.76**
Bremen	DE5	**22.06**	**43.23**	**73.83**
Hamburg	DE6	20.30	38.72	70.05
Hessen	DE7	20.46	36.51	52.23
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	DE8	17.27	34.89	31.92
Niedersachsen	DE9	20.80	37.72	38.86
Nordrhein-Westfalen	DEA	21.76	37.84	54.31
Rheinland-Pfalz	DEB	20.98	33.34	50.95
Saarland	DEC	19.42	39.40	44.39
Sachsen	DED	16.92	35.63	42.41
Sachsen-Anhalt	DEE	**16.39**	34.06	35.29
Schleswig-Holstein	DEF	20.01	36.37	39.21
Thüringen	DEG	16.75	33.85	36.24
	Range:	***5.67***	***11.03***	***42.07***

* as % of total population ** (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old

Figure 4.17: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, German NUTS1 regions

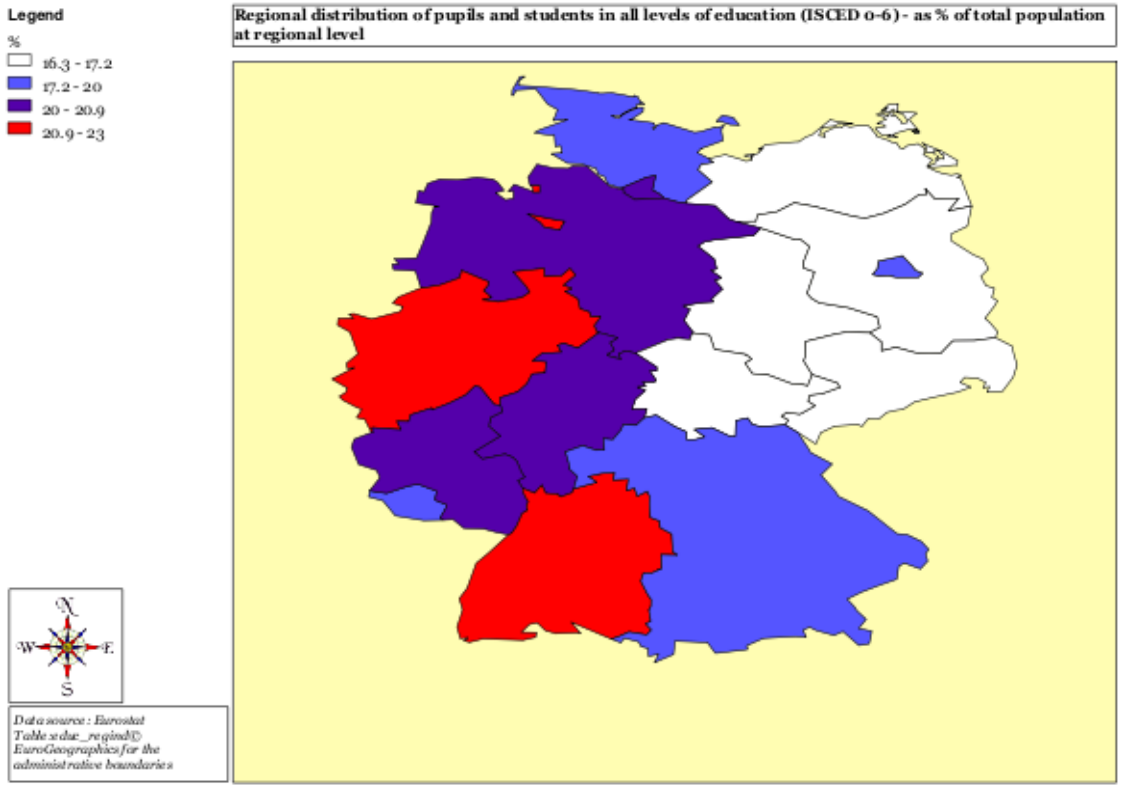


Figure 4.18: Lifelong learning participation, German NUTS2 regions.

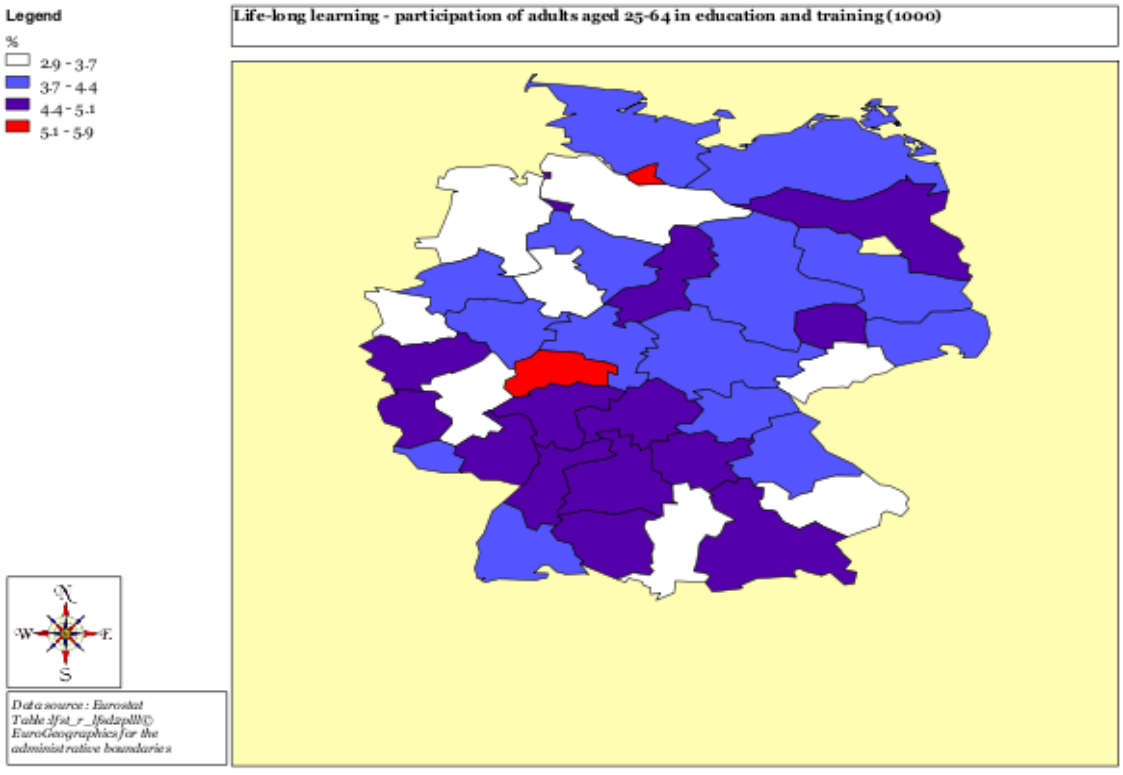


Figure 4.19: University "accessibility" by NUTS2 region in Germany

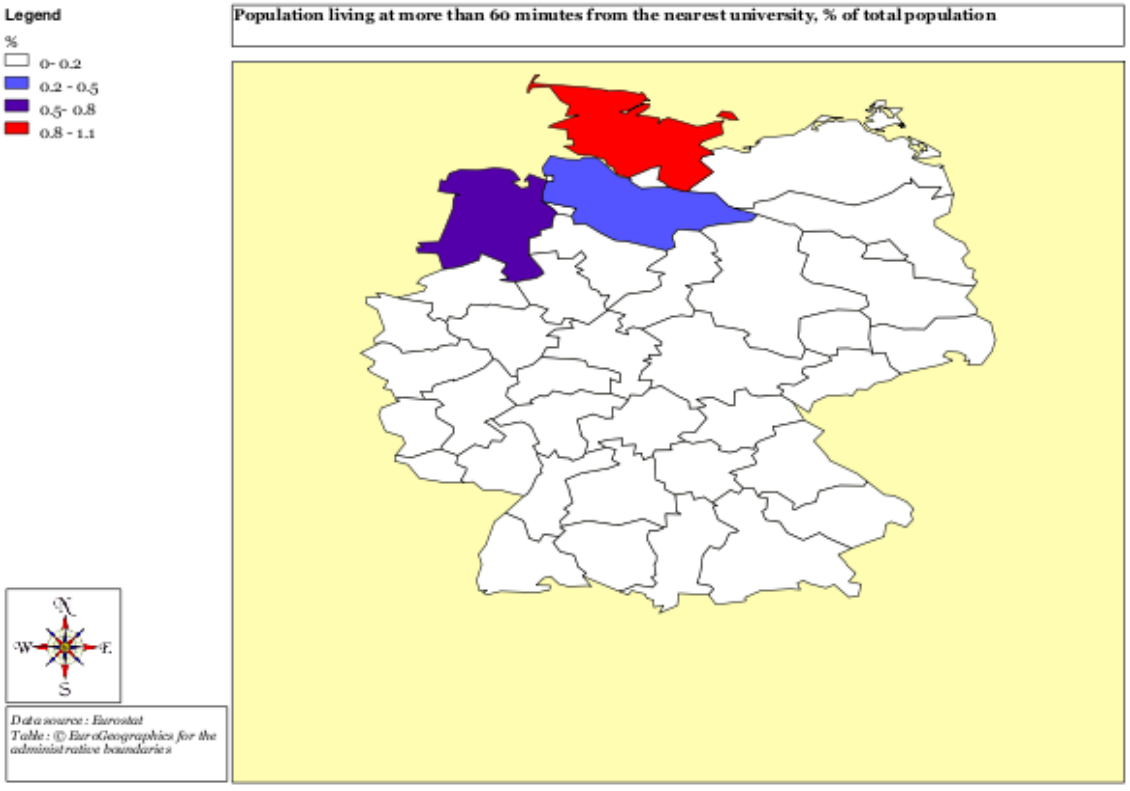


Figure 4.20: With tertiary education, as % of the total population 20-24 in a region, German NUTS1 regions

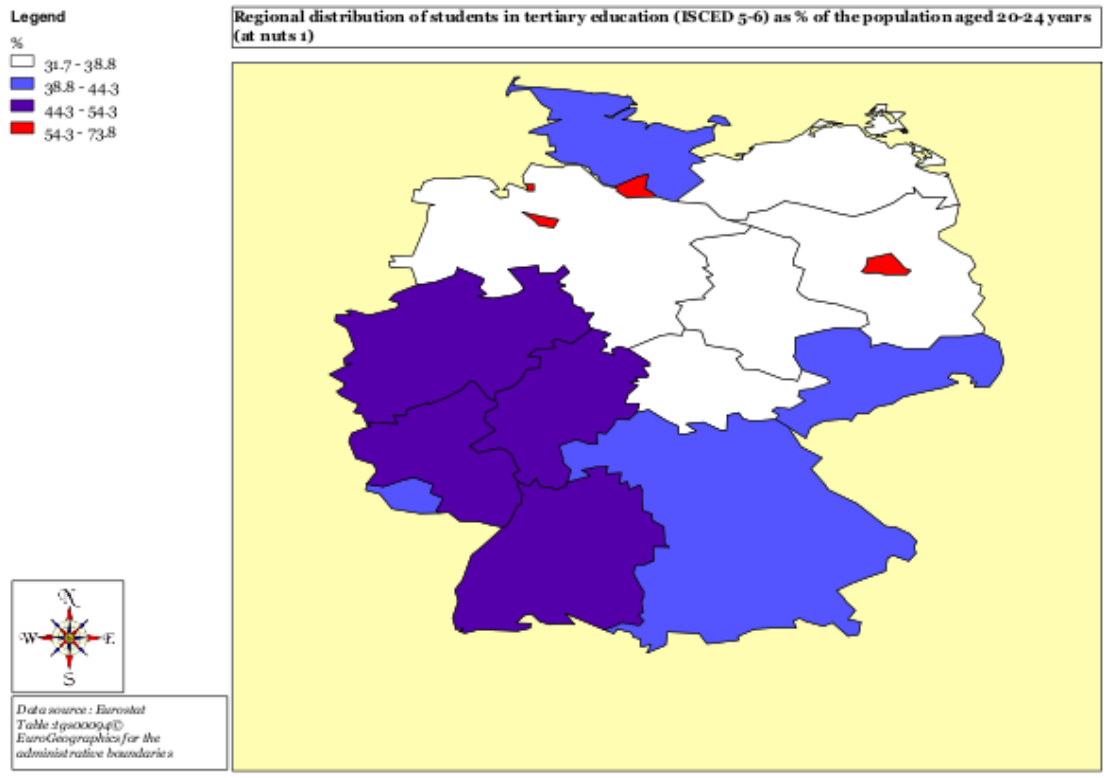


Table 4.10 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators in German regions at NUTS2 level. Bremen has the highest rate of individuals with low educational qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary) and Chemnitz has the lowest rate. Dresden has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates whereas Koblenz has the lowest (also see Figure 4.20).

Table 4.10: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in German regions (NUTS2)

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Stuttgart	DE11	12.5	56	27.0	49.2	23.7	84
Karlsruhe	DE12	12.2	57.5	26.0	50.9	23.0	90
Freiburg	DE13	11.4	60.6	27.3	51.8	20.8	104
Tübingen	DE14	11.1	56.9	26.9	50.2	22.7	103
Oberbayern	DE21	8.8	57	21.0	51.8	26.7	59
Niederbayern	DE22	10.3	62.8	29.1	54.0	16.4	157
Oberpfalz	DE23	8.6	63.5	26.9	56.4	16.4	158
Oberfranken	DE24	11.2	58.9	28.0	51.9	19.7	166
Mittelfranken	DE25	11.1	58.5	25.7	52.7	21.1	136
Unterfranken	DE26	11.3	60.3	27.0	52.6	19.8	119
Schwaben	DE27	10.5	63.4	25.3	55.6	18.7	147
Berlin	DE30	14.7	**46.9**	21.4	**48.8**	29.7	**56**
Brand. Nordost	DE41	6.9	61.5	16.2	58.5	25.1	142
Brandenburg – Südwest	DE42	5.1	60.2	14.0	58.0	27.8	97
Bremen	DE50	**20.6**	52	**30.6**	50.8	18.4	161
Hamburg	DE60	15.9	54.5	24.0	52.4	23.0	106
Darmstadt	DE71	12.8	56.4	24.1	52.6	23.0	95
Gießen	DE72	10.3	61.1	26.7	53.7	19.3	120
Kassel	DE73	10.2	65.4	25.5	56.5	17.9	151
Mecklenb.-Vorp.	DE80	6.9	65.2	16.3	59.4	23.9	128
Braunschweig	DE91	14.5	62.2	28.1	55.2	16.6	143
Hannover	DE92	13.1	60.9	26.4	54.3	19.2	153
Lüneburg	DE93	11.7	**67.8**	27.1	56.7	16.0	194
Weser-Ems	DE94	11.6	64.1	28.1	55.5	16.4	171
Düsseldorf	DEA1	16.5	59.3	27.6	53.7	18.3	131
Köln	DEA2	15.9	56.1	27.4	50.4	21.8	96
Münster	DEA3	13.7	63.1	27.8	55.0	16.9	125
Detmold	DEA4	15.3	63.9	28.2	56.0	15.6	163
Arnsberg	DEA5	17.6	60.7	29.6	54.5	15.6	149
Koblenz	DEB1	14.6	64.1	30.4	54.2	**15.2**	172
Trier	DEB2	**4.1**	60	27.6	53.6	18.8	162
Rheinhes.-Pf.	DEB3	13.4	58.8	28.5	51.4	20.0	138
Saarland	DEC0	13.2	65.4	27.1	57.1	15.4	**205**
Chemnitz	DED1	13.8	62.6	**11.9**	**62.5**	25.6	88
Dresden	DED2	5	58.3	13.0	58.0	**28.9**	63
Leipzig	DED3	5	56.2	13.4	56.7	29.8	74
Sachs.-Anh.	DEE0	6.3	66.2	16.0	62.0	21.7	124
Schleswig.Hols.	DEF0	12	64.7	23.8	57.8	18.3	167
Thüringen	DEG0	4.8	64.6	13.1	**62.5**	24.3	81
	Range:	***16.5***	***20.9***	***18.8***	***13.7***	***14.6***	***149***

4.6. Regional inequalities in Denmark

Table 4.11 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Danish regions. The region of Midtjylland has the highest rate of "pupils and students in all levels of education", 2.7% higher than Sjælland which is the region with the lowest rate. The capital region of Hovedstaden has the highest participation rates of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (19.2%), whereas Nordjylland has the lowest (14.2%). It is also noteworthy that all 20-24 year olds in Hovedstaden attend higher education, whereas just over half (51.1%) of this age group attend tertiary education in Sjælland. Figure 4.21 and Figure 4.22 show the spatial distribution of these variables across the five Danish regions, whereas Figure 4.23 depicts the regional distribution of the university accessibility indicator.

Table 4.11: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Danish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Hovedstaden	DK01	25.9	**19.2**	**10.6**	**36.9**	**100**	**2**
Sjælland	DK02	**24.1**	14.9	12.5	**46.1**	**51.1**	14.1
Syddanmark	DK03	25.4	15.0	**12.7**	44.8	56.8	19.5
Midtjylland	DK04	**26.8**	15.8	12.6	41.6	70	**27.5**
Nordjylland	DK05	24.9	**14.2**	12.3	41	59.2	13
	RANGE:	**2.7**	**5.0**	**2.1**	**9.2**	**48.9**	**25.5**

Figure 4.21: Pupils and students in all levels of education (% of the total population in a region), Danish regions

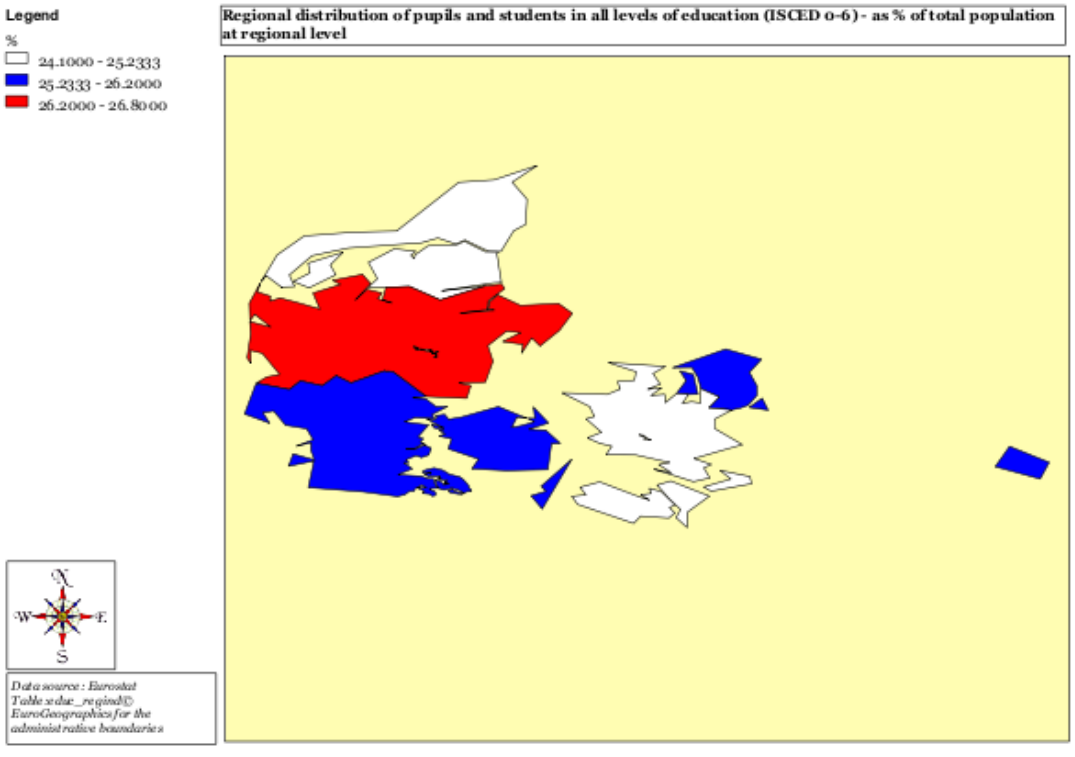


Figure 4.22: Students in tertiary education (% of the population aged 20-24 in a region), Danish regions

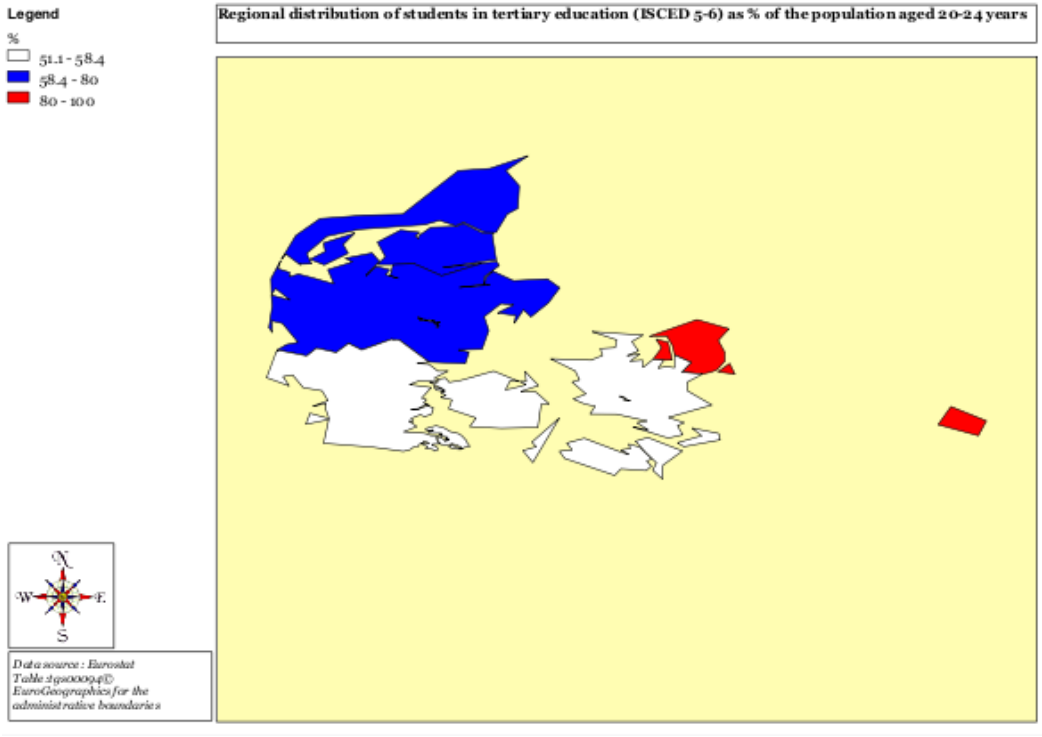


Figure 4.23: University "accessibility" by region in Denmark (population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university as a % of the total population in a region)

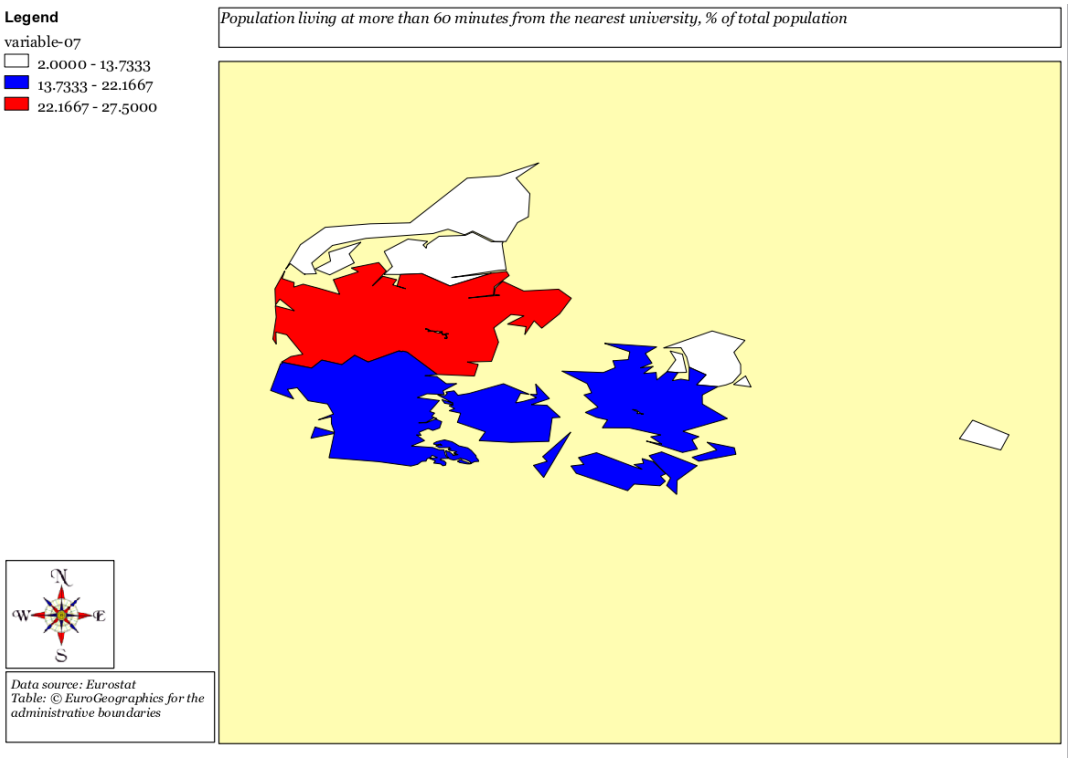


Figure 4.24: Individuals with tertiary education qualifications (% of the population aged 20-24 in a region), Denmark

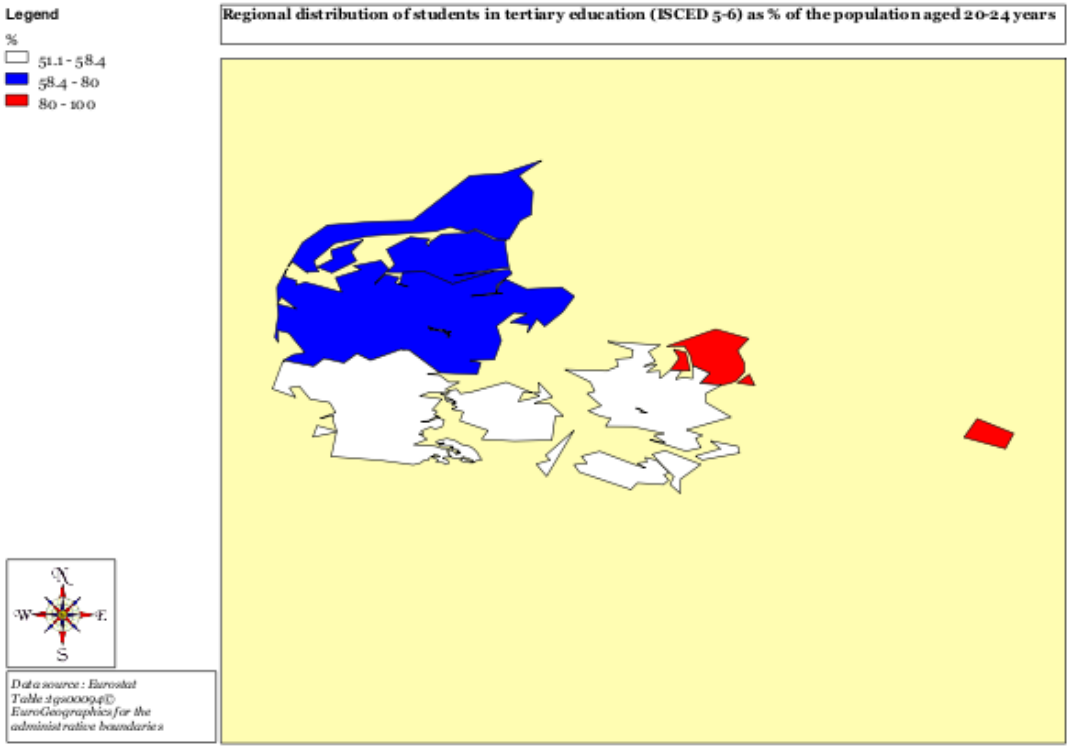


Table 4.12 shows the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators by region. Hovedstaden has the highest rates of individuals with tertiary education qualifications (also see Figure 4.24) and the highest RCI Education Pillars Rank (and also ranked 2nd in the EU out of 265). On the other hand, Syddanmark has the highest rate (37.7%) of individuals with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education qualifications.

Table 4.12: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Danish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Hovedstade	DK01	**18.6**	**33.6**	**26.77**	**36.64**	**32.25**	**2**
Sjælland	DK02	**25.9**	38.3	37.13	38.52	21.46	**28**
Syddanmark	DK03	24.6	**39.2**	**37.69**	38.00	**20.42**	23
Midtjylland	DK04	22	38.8	33.70	**38.73**	23.97	18
Nordjylland	DK05	22.6	37.7	36.85	37.46	22.42	19
	Range:	***7.3***	***5.6***	***10.92***	***2.10***	***11.83***	***26***

4.7. Regional inequalities in Spain

Table 4.13 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for regions in Spain. The region with the highest rate of "pupils and students in all levels of education" as a percentage of the total population is Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla, whereas the region with the lowest rate is Principado de Asturias (also see Figure 4.25). These two regions also have the highest and lowest rates respectively of students in tertiary education as a percentage of population aged 20-24 (also see Figure 4.26).

Table 4.13: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Spanish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Galicia	ES11	17.1	6.4	8.40	24.90	58.80	23.8
Principado de Asturias	ES12	**15.4**	5.8	**7.40**	24.80	62.20	8.8
Cantabria	ES13	17.0	**4.7**	8.60	24.60	45.60	3.1
País Vasco	ES21	19.8	**8.0**	9.60	26.30	69.80	**0**
Comunidad Foral de Navarra	ES22	19.9	7.3	9.90	24.40	64.70	0.5
La Rioja	ES23	17.8	5.5	9.50	24.00	47.30	0.6
Aragón	ES24	18.6	6.3	9.40	22.70	58.40	15.6
Comunidad de Madrid	ES30	21.2	6.9	No data	20.61	**76.67**	**0**
Castilla y León	ES41	18.6	6.2	8.90	**28.00**	72.40	15.9
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	19.8	5.2	11.90	21.20	32.30	42
Extremadura	ES43	20.7	5.9	12.10	23.20	40.70	55.6
Cataluña	ES51	19.8	5.1	10.10	20.60	56.60	1.8
Comunidad Valenciana	ES52	19.5	6.5	10.20	19.60	59.80	2.4
Illes Balears	ES53	17.2	5.2	10.10	**17.10**	26.70	21.8
Andalucía	ES61	22.1	5.4	12.30	20.80	52.20	13
Región de Murcia	ES62	22.0	5.7	11.90	20.40	48.90	1.1
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	ES63	25.5	6.8	15.10	24.60	34.30	**99.7**
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	**26.7**	5.6	**16.00**	25.20	**25.00**	94.2
	Range:	***11.30***	**3.3**	***8.60***	***10.90***	***51.67***	***99.7***

Figure 4.25: Pupils and students in all levels of education (as % of the total population in a region), Spain.

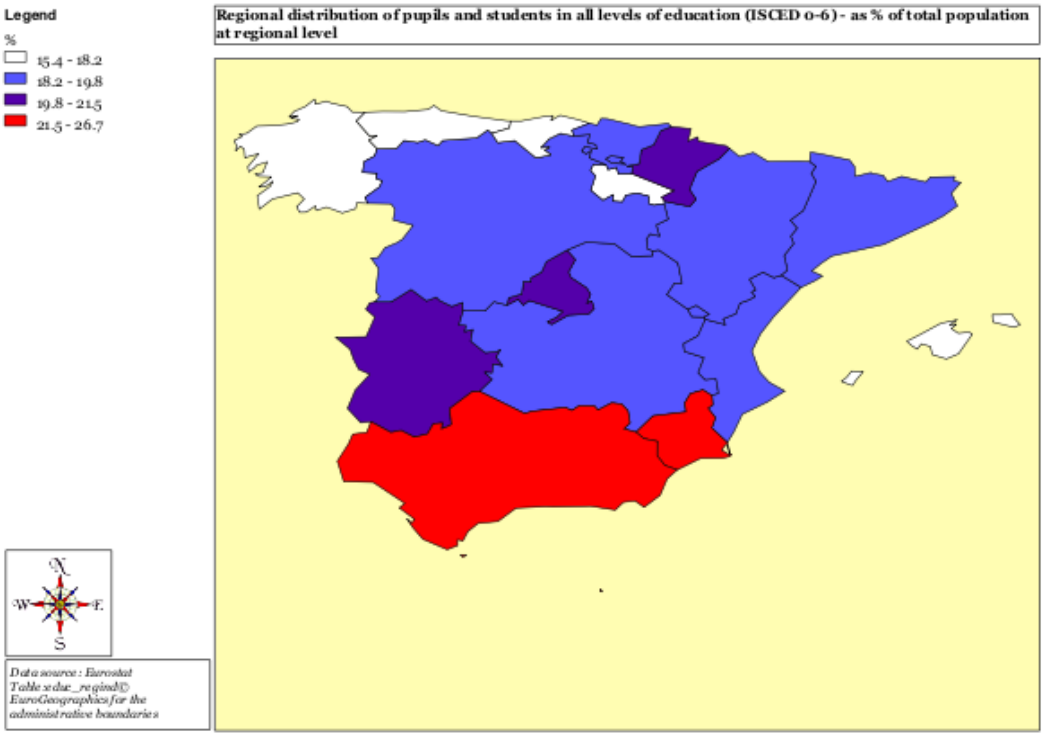


Figure 4.26: Students in tertiary education (% of the population aged 20-24 in a region), Spain

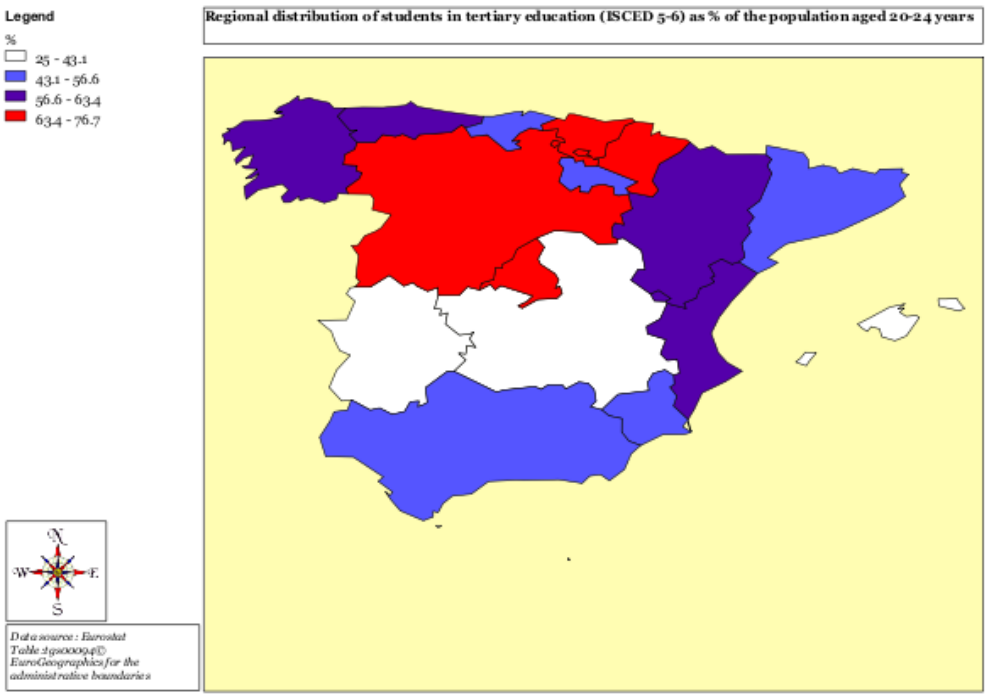


Table 4.14 presents regional data pertaining to the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. Extremadura has the highest rate of individuals with low educational qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, 67.4%), whereas Comunidad de Madrid has the lowest rate. The region with the highest rate of university graduates is País Vasco, which is also ranked top of the Spanish regions in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 36th in the EU out of 265). In contrast, Extremadura has the lowest rate of tertiary education graduates and Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta is at the bottom of the list of Spanish regions in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 264th in the EU out of 265).

Figures 4.27 and 4.28 will show the spatial distribution of these indicators across all Spanish NUTS2 regions.

Table 4.14: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Spanish regions

Region	NUTS Code	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Galicia	ES11	52.8	17.10	61.35	15.82	21.91	192
Principado de Asturias	ES12	46.2	21.20	55.64	18.73	24.88	201
Cantabria	ES13	47.2	21.70	54.37	18.54	26.05	206
País Vasco	ES21	34.4	20.20	45.85	18.99	**34.30**	**36**
Comunidad Foral de Navarra	ES22	42.6	23.40	49.30	21.06	28.73	92
La Rioja	ES23	44.2	21.60	53.03	19.05	26.77	207
Aragón	ES24	42	26.00	52.91	22.17	24.00	189
Comunidad de Madrid	ES30	**34.7**	25.80	**44.22**	23.88	30.78	44
Castilla y León	ES41	50.8	20.30	58.49	17.58	23.02	175
Castilla-La Mancha	ES42	59	18.30	64.76	16.35	17.73	238
Extremadura	ES43	**62.9**	**15.60**	**67.42**	14.43	**16.74**	239
Cataluña	ES51	49.3	22.90	55.12	20.46	23.24	132
Communidad Valenciana	ES52	51.5	23.20	57.20	20.56	21.13	159
Illes Baleares	ES53	54.3	26.60	57.95	**23.39**	17.54	247
Andalucía	ES61	57	18.60	61.93	17.34	19.38	198
Región de Murcia	ES62	55.2	20.40	60.95	18.99	18.77	202
Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	ES63	55.1	19.60	61.27	19.62	17.90	**264**
Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	ES64	63.5	**48.80**	64.95	**13.39**	19.45	263
	Range:	***29.1***	***33.2***	***23.20***	***10.48***	***17.56***	***228***

Figure 4.27: Regional distribution of persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Spain

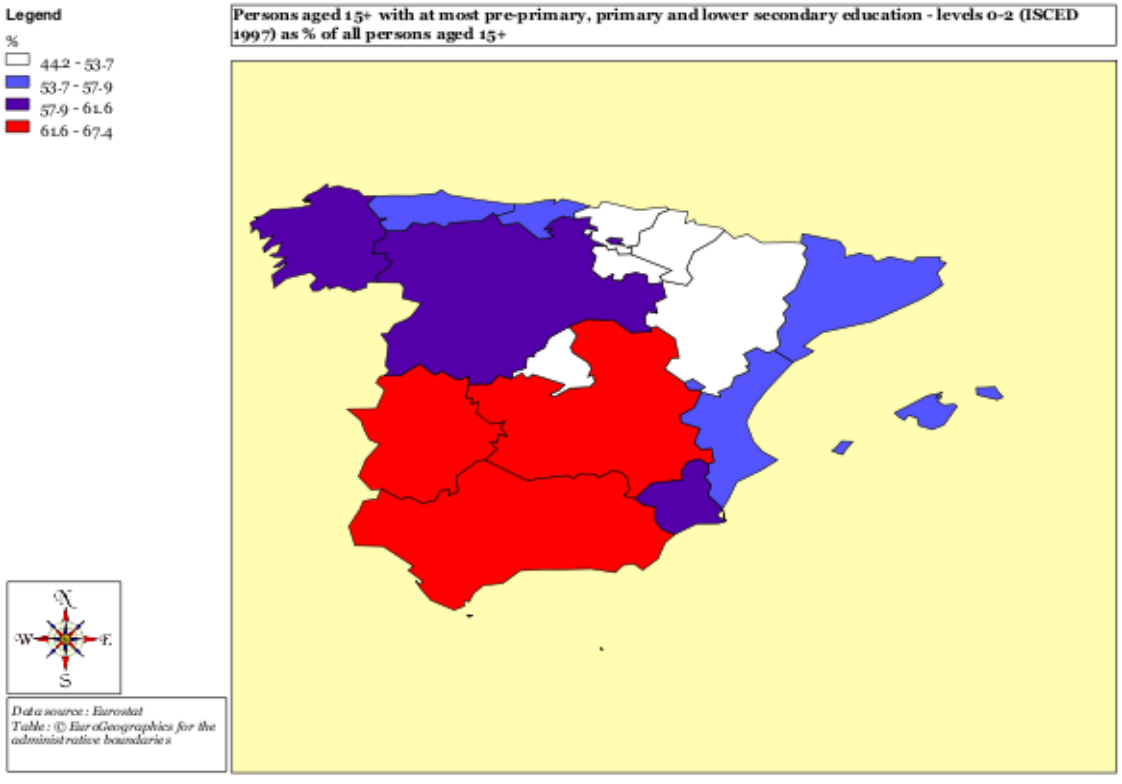
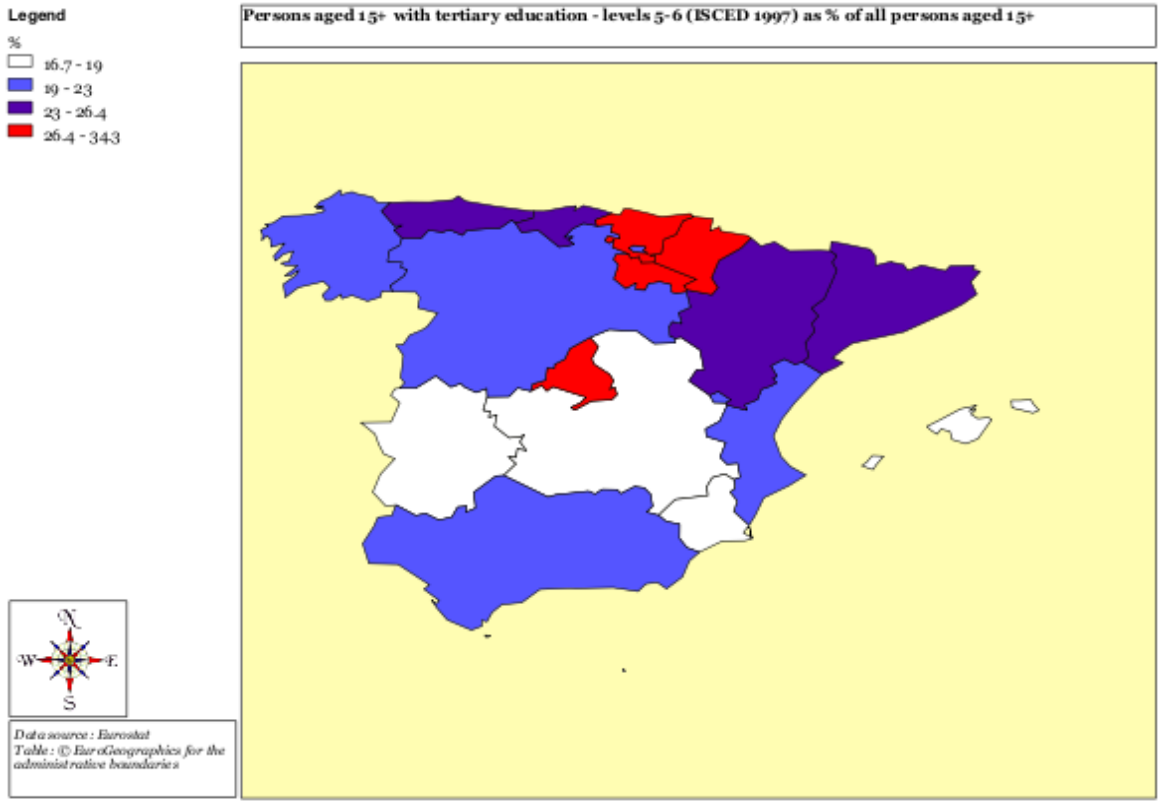


Figure 4.28: Regional distribution of individuals with tertiary education qualifications in Spain



4.8. Regional inequalities in Finland

Table 4.15 presents data on the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Finnish regions. It is noteworthy that all regions have relatively high rates of students in tertiary education, except for the Åland islands region. It is also worth noting that all regions have relatively high rates of participation in lifelong learning. There is however considerable variation in the university accessibility indicator. Etelä-Suomi enjoys the best accessibility (only 1.2% of the population live in a location more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university), whereas on the other hand the Åland region has the worst accessibility with 88.5% of the population living at more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university (also see Figure 4.29).

Table 4.15: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Finnish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED 3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Itä-Suomi	FI13	24.9	**10.2**	**10.2**	**60.2**	87	13.5
Etelä-Suomi	FI18	26.4	**13.8**	10.4	57.5	**97.5**	**1.2**
Länsi-Suomi	FI19	26.3	11.4	10.5	**57.0**	97	3.7
Pohjois-Suomi	FI1A	**28.4**	11.8	**11.8**	59.4	87.4	18.4
Åland	FI20	**21.2**	13.6	No data	44.46	**30.8**	**88.5**
	Range:	***7.17***	**3.6**	***1.6***	***15.7***	***66.7***	***87.3***

Figure 4.29: University "accessibility" by region in Finland

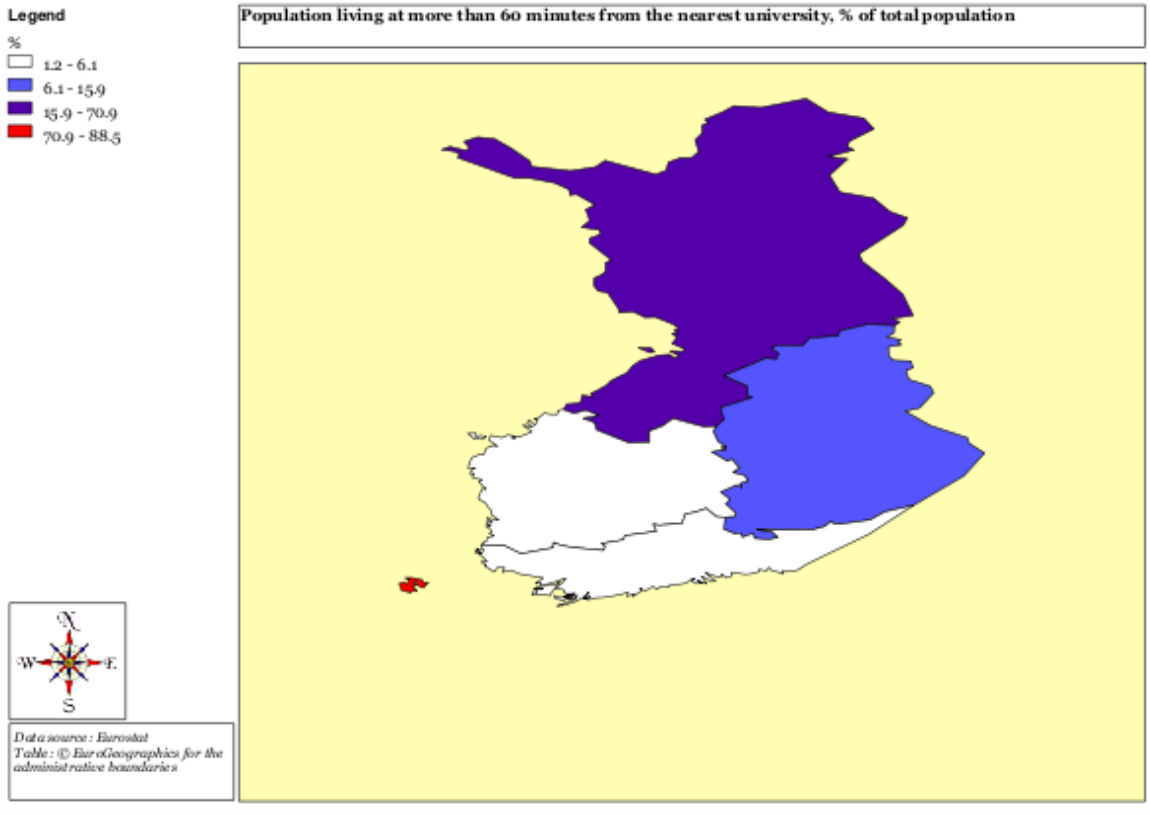


Table 4.16 (next page) provides the "outcome" and "performance" indicators for Finnish regions. It is interesting to note that Etelä-Suomi is ranked top on the list at the EU in terms of the RCI Education Pillars rank. This region also has the highest rate of tertiary education in Finland, whereas Åland has the lowest rate of tertiary education graduates and the highest rate of individuals with low educational qualifications (with at most pre-primary and lower secondary education).

Table 4.16: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Finnish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Itä-Suomi	FI13	23.1	44.9	35.2	41.8	23.0	42
Etelä-Suomi	FI18	19.1	**38.3**	**30.1**	38.2	**31.6**	**1**
Länsi-Suomi	FI19	21.8	42.9	33.9	40.3	25.9	8
Pohjois-Suomi	FI1A	**20.5**	**46.3**	32.6	**43.1**	24.4	32
Åland	FI20	**31.1**	45.5	**39.9**	**38.0**	**22.1**	**200**
	Range:	***12***	***8***	***9.8***	***5.1***	***9.5***	***199***

Figures 4.30 and 4.31 show the spatial distribution of these indicators across the five Finnish NUTS2 regions.

Figure 4.30: Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (as % of the total population 15+ in a region), Finland

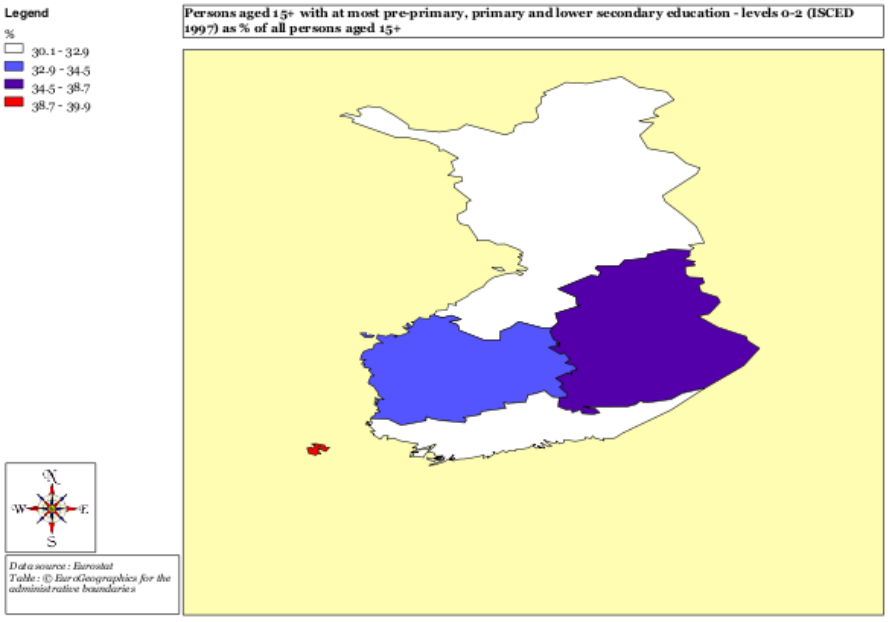
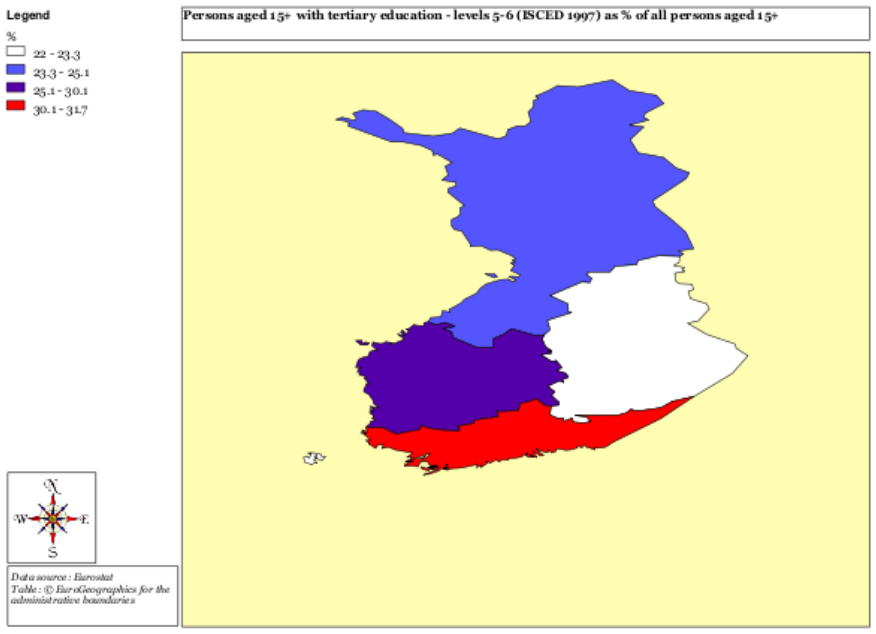


Figure 4.31: Individuals with tertiary education qualifications in Finland (as % of the total population 15+ in a region)



4.9. Regional inequalities in France

Table 4.17 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for regions in France. Nord-Pas-de-Calais has the highest rate of pupils and students (as a percentage of the total population in a region) whereas Corse has the lowest. Figure 4.32 (next page) presents the spatial distribution of this variable across all French regions. There is a relatively big regional disparity in adult participation in lifelong learning. Alsace has the highest rate (5.5%) and Corse the lowest (1.2%). Similarly, there are big disparities in the rates of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 years old (Figure 4.33), in the numbers of tertiary education students (ISCED 5-6) as a percentage of the population aged 20-24 years (see Figure 4.34) and in terms of university accessibility (see Figure 4.35).

Table 4.17: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in French regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels of education	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Île de France	FR10	25.0	3.9	No data	**30.96**	**68.97**	**0.00**
Champagne-Ardenne	FR21	22.5	3.8	11.3	33.70	44.80	1.20
Picardie	FR22	22.8	3.5	**12.1**	33.80	33.80	**0.00**
Haute-Normandie	FR23	23.4	3.5	**12.1**	34.80	42.90	0.50
Centre	FR24	21.2	3.4	11.1	34.40	39.20	14.80
Basse-Normandie	FR25	22.3	3.3	11.5	36.00	41.40	18.10
Bourgogne	FR26	20.9	3.8	10.7	35.30	43.90	29.60
Nord - Pas-de-Calais	FR30	**25.8**	3.6	No data	33.08	49.78	**0.00**
Lorraine	FR41	22.4	3.5	11	33.70	47.50	0.10
Alsace	FR42	22.6	**5.5**	11.2	32.00	54.60	0.00
Franche-Comté	FR43	22.6	3.6	11.5	34.90	45.20	1.50
Pays de la Loire	FR51	23.5	4.2	11.8	34.50	48.80	1.30
Bretagne	FR52	23.2	4.5	11.3	**36.10**	55.50	0.40
Poitou-Charentes	FR53	20.6	3.0	10.5	34.10	45.00	13.10
Aquitaine	FR61	21.1	3.5	10.6	33.50	54.00	15.70
Midi-Pyrénées	FR62	21.9	3.9	10.6	32.20	62.10	13.80
Limousin	FR63	19.1	4.4	9.3	34.80	50.20	17.60
Rhône-Alpes	FR71	24.0	3.8	11.8	33.00	58.30	3.30
Auvergne	FR72	20.7	4.4	10.2	34.20	53.60	18.20
Languedoc-Roussillon	FR81	22.1	2.9	11.1	33.50	55.30	4.90
Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur	FR82	22.0	3.1	11.2	34.10	51.60	4.60
Corse	FR83	**17.5**	**1.2**	**9.4**	31.40	**27.80**	**54.90**
	Range:	***8.35***	***4.2***	***2.8***	***5.14***	***41.17***	***54.9***

Figure 4.32: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, France

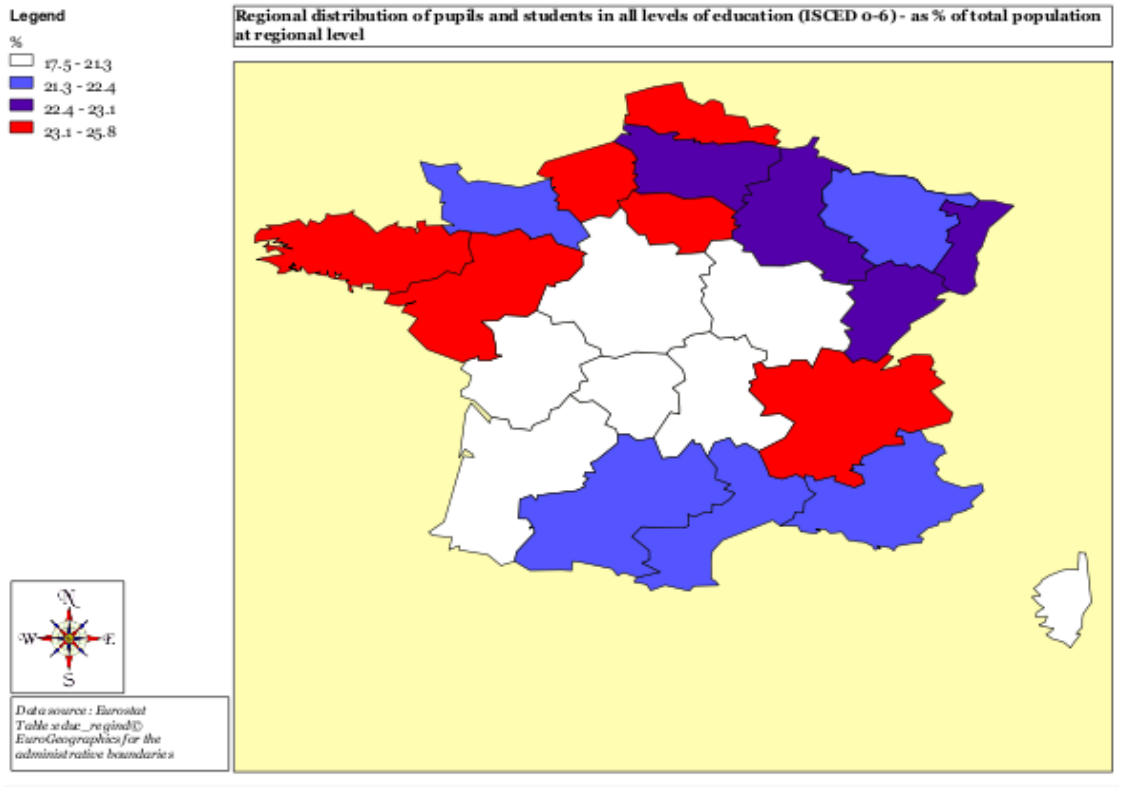


Figure 4.33: Regional distribution of pupils and students in ISCED 3-4, France

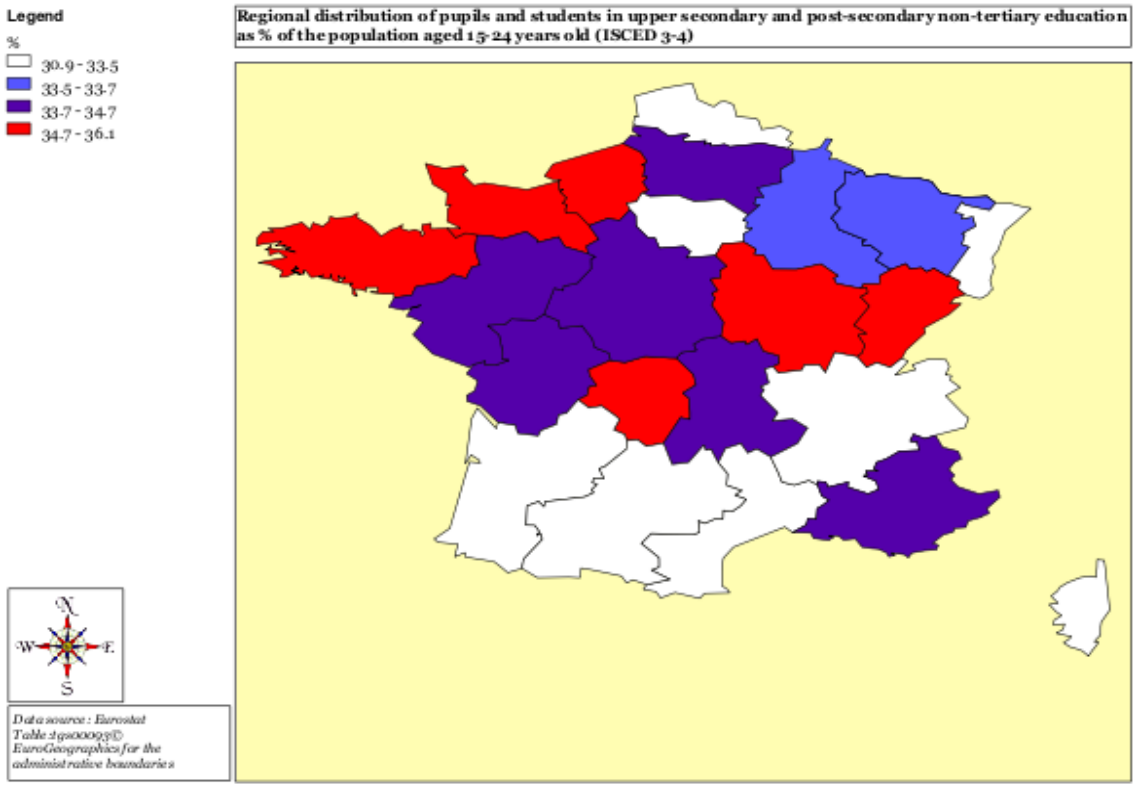


Figure 4.34: Regional distribution of students in tertiary education, France.

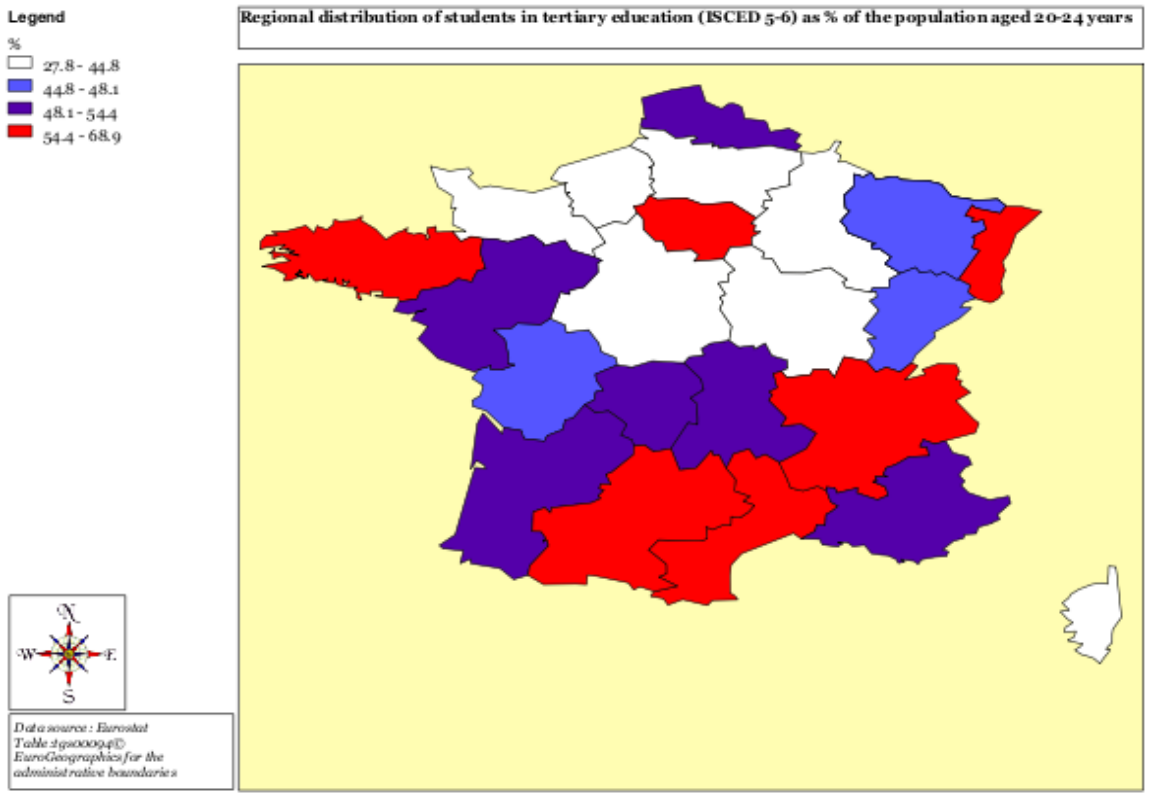


Figure 4.35: University "accessibility" by region in France.

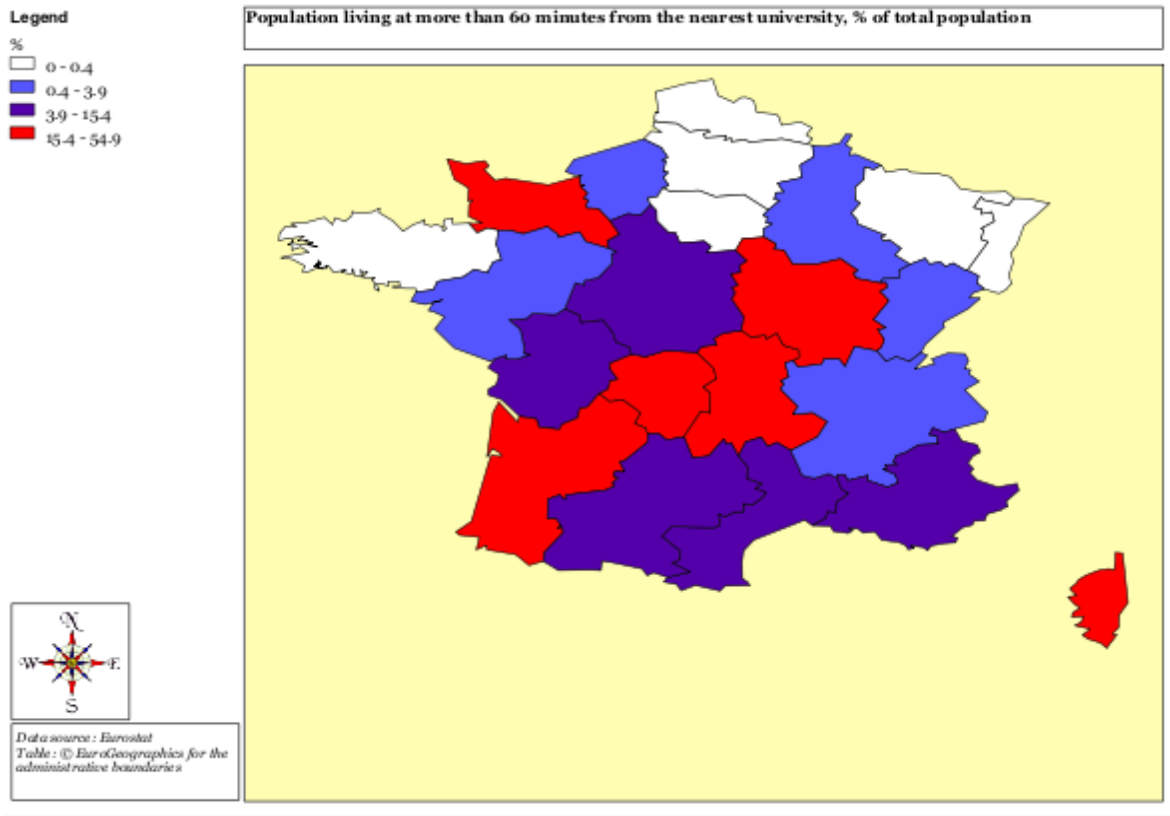


Table 4.18 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators, whereas Figures 4.36 and 4.37 (next page) present the spatial distribution of the rates of people with low qualifications (with at most lower secondary qualifications) and the rates of tertiary education graduates. It is noteworthy that the region of Corse is at the bottom or top of all lists, having the higher rates of individuals with at most lower secondary qualifications and the lowest rates of tertiary education graduates. It is also at the bottom of the list in terms of the RCI Education Pillars (and 255th in the EU out of 265). In contrast, the capital region of Île de France is ranked highest in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 24th in the EU out of 265) and also has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates in France.

Table 4.18: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in French regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Île de France	FR10	26.8	32.1	34.6	32.4	**33.0**	**24**
Champagne-Ardenne	FR21	34.2	39	45.1	39.6	15.3	154
Picardie	FR22	36	38.5	45.4	37.7	16.9	185
Haute-Normandie	FR23	35.7	39.5	45.1	39.6	15.4	160
Centre	FR24	28	41.2	40.5	40.9	18.5	210
Basse-Normandie	FR25	28.5	42.2	41.9	39.8	18.3	191
Bourgogne	FR26	28.9	40	42.6	38.7	18.8	226
Nord - Pas-de-Calais	FR30	32.3	38	42.9	37.3	19.8	111
Lorraine	FR41	27.6	43	41.2	42.0	16.8	107
Alsace	FR42	24.4	**44.3**	**32.9**	**43.7**	23.4	98
Franche-Comté	FR43	32.3	41.3	42.5	39.1	18.5	181
Pays de la Loire	FR51	26.6	42.4	38.6	40.7	20.7	126
Bretagne	FR52	21.5	43	36.3	41.6	22.2	38
Poitou-Charentes	FR53	31.2	43.2	42.9	40.6	16.5	208
Aquitaine	FR61	27.9	43	38.5	39.8	21.7	169
Midi-Pyrénées	FR62	**20.3**	39.3	35.6	37.9	26.6	116
Limousin	FR63	25.1	40.5	39.6	40.3	20.1	222
Rhône-Alpes	FR71	28.6	40.9	38.6	38.9	22.4	99
Auvergne	FR72	25.1	40.9	37.9	39.9	22.3	179
Languedoc-Roussillon	FR81	35.5	37.2	45.4	34.5	20.1	176
Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur	FR82	31.9	37.6	42.0	36.8	21.2	155
Corse	FR83	**50**	**28.1**	**60.1**	**28.2**	**11.7**	**255**
	Range:	***29.7***	***16.2***	***27.2***	***15.5***	***21.3***	***231***

Figure 4.36: With at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, French regions

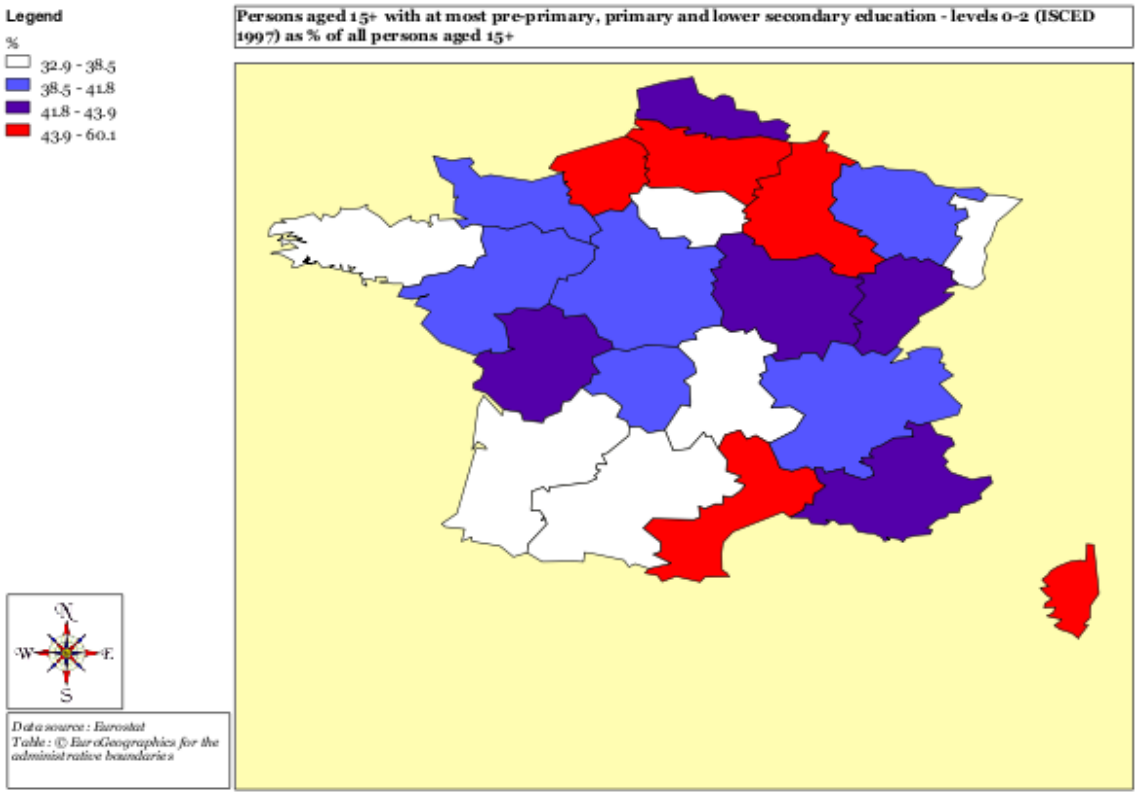
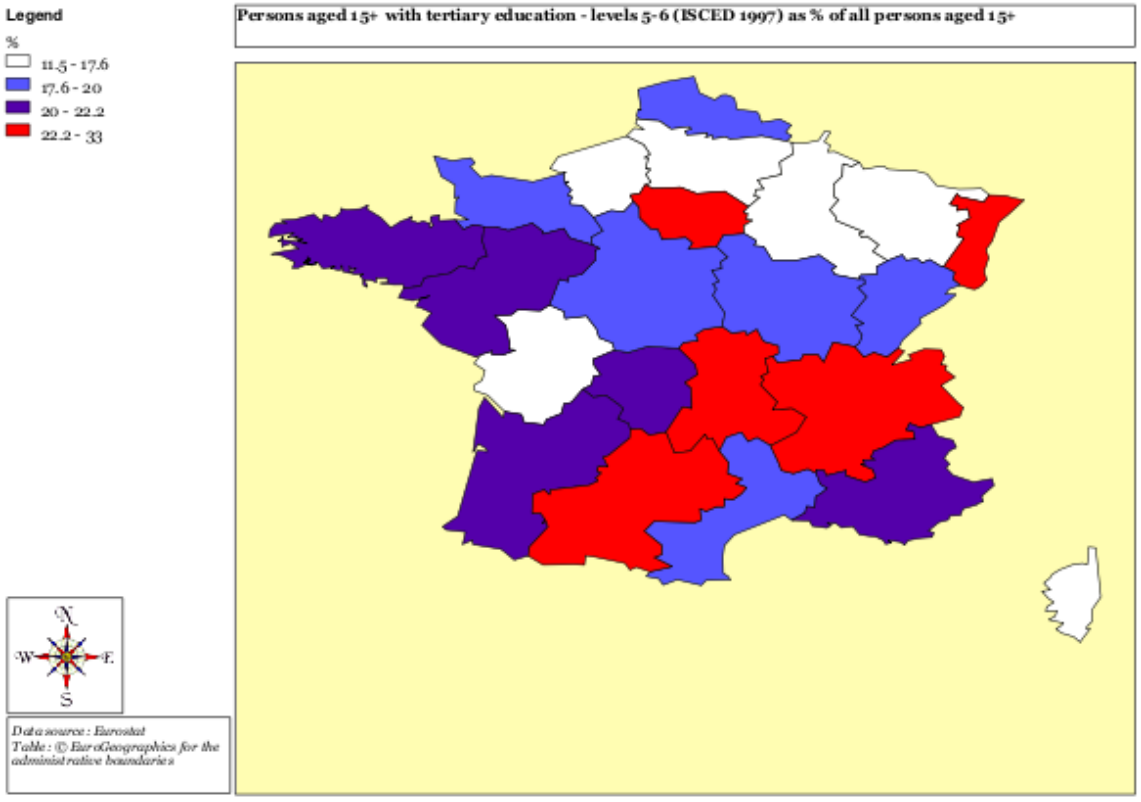


Figure 4.37: Tertiary education graduates, French regions



4.10. Regional inequalities in Greece

Table 4.19 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for the regions of Greece. Also, Figure 36 shows the spatial distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education across all 13 Greek regions. As can be seen, the highest rates of pupils and students in all levels of education are observed in Ditiki Makedonia, Ditiki Ellada, Ipiros and Kriti, whereas the region of Peloponnisos has the lowest rate. The distribution of "pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4)" seems to be relatively evenly distributed across regions. This is not the case for tertiary education students: the highest rates of students in tertiary education (as a percentage of all population aged 20-24) are observed in Kentriki Makedonia, Ditiki Makedonia, Ditiki Ellada and in Attiki, whereas the lowest rate is in Notio Egeo (also see Figure 4.39). There are also considerable regional disparities in university accessibility (see Figure 4.40).

Table 4.19: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Greek regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	GR11	19.44	1.7	9.30	26.60	80.80	20.00
Kentriki Makedonia	GR12	21.54	**2.1**	9.20	29.00	**100.00**	19.60
Ditiki Makedonia	GR13	**24.60**	1.2	9.20	29.30	**100.00**	**100.00**
Thessalia	GR14	19.07	1.0	8.90	27.70	63.20	53.20
Ipiros	GR21	22.65	1.3	**7.90**	27.30	100.00	46.90
Ionia Nisia	GR22	16.23	0.5	8.90	25.80	41.80	88.50
Ditiki Ellada	GR23	24.23	1.4	8.70	**25.20**	100.00	50.60
Sterea Ellada	GR24	17.79	0.5	8.30	26.30	57.40	87.80
Peloponnisos	GR25	**15.41**	0.7	8.30	26.20	26.60	85.90
Attiki	GR30	18.81	**2.1**	No data	**29.48**	99.36	**1.20**
Vorio Egeo	GR41	19.15	0.6	9.00	27.70	62.40	53.80
Notio Egeo	GR42	17.03	**0.4**	**10.80**	28.30	**16.10**	90.00
Kriti	GR43	21.84	1.1	10.60	28.70	92.50	62.60
	Range:	***9.19***	**1.72**	***2.90***	***4.28***	***83.90***	***98.80***

Figure 4.38: Pupils and students in all levels of education, Greek regions (as a % of the total population in a region)

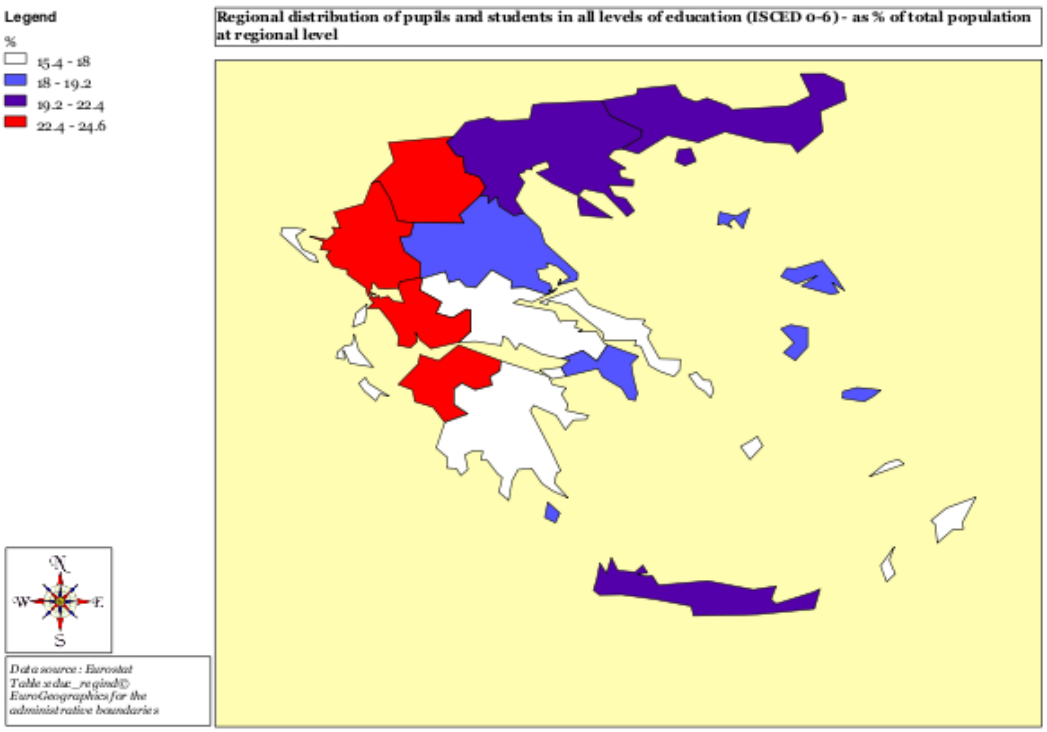


Figure 4.39: Students in tertiary education (as % of the population aged 20-24), Greek regions

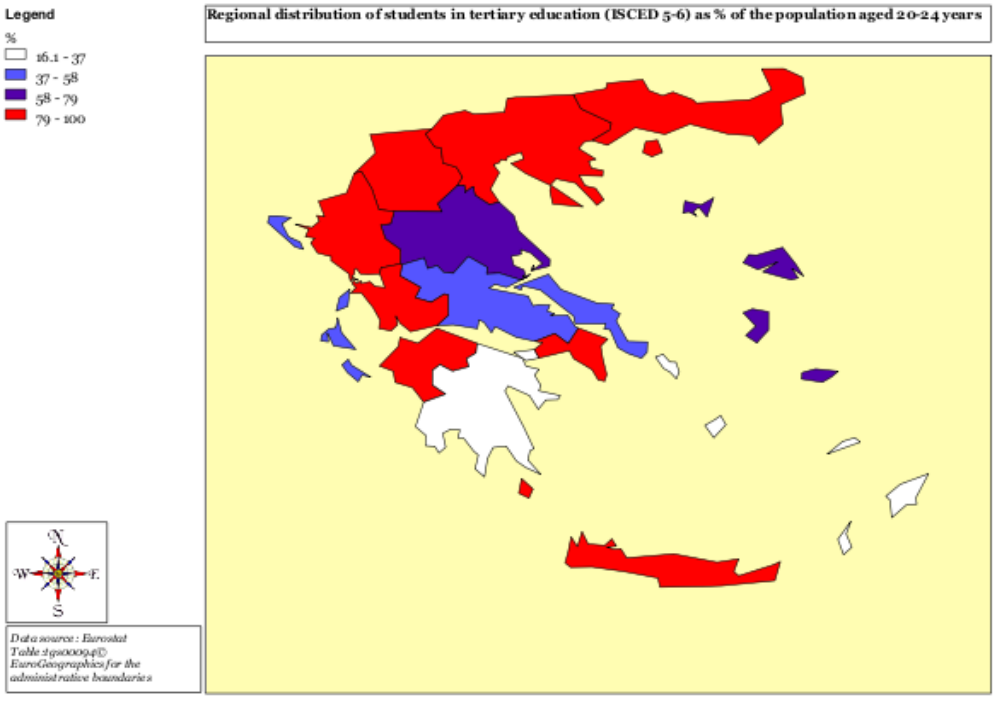


Figure 4.40: University "accessibility" in Greek regions

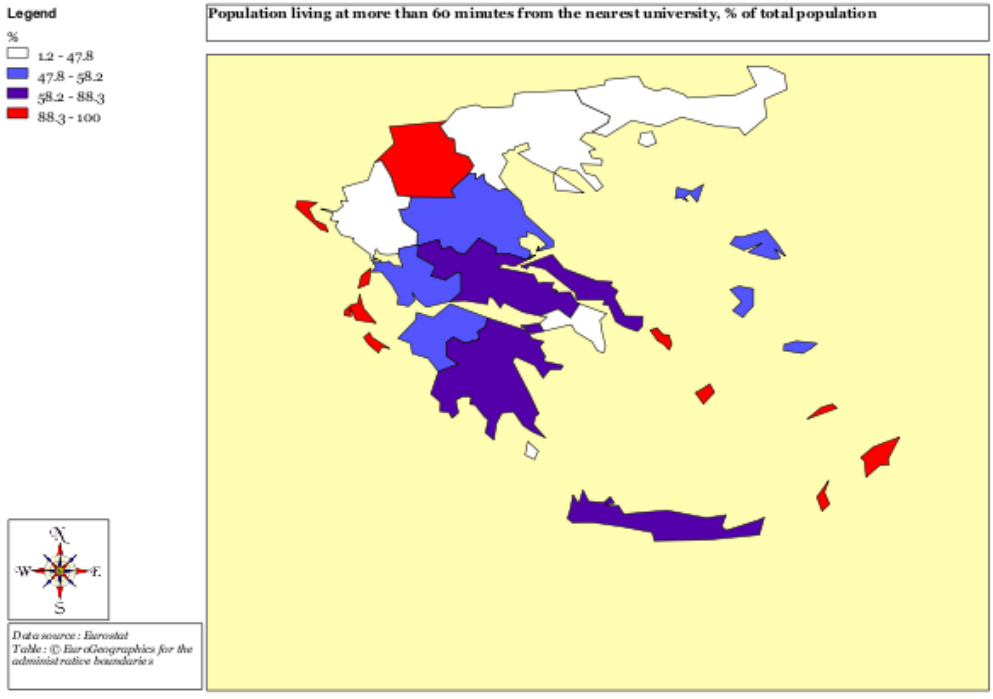


Table 4.20 (next page) presents the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. There is considerable regional disparity with regards to the RCI Education Pillars rank: Attiki is on the top of the list (and ranked 60th in the EU), whereas Notio Egeo is at the bottom of the list (ranked 256th in the EU out of 265). It is also worth noting that Attiki has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates and Notio Egeo the lowest (also see Figure 4.41). Ionia Nisia is the region with the highest rate of people with low educational qualifications (with at most primary and lower secondary education) and Attiki is the region with the lowest rate for this indicator (also see Figure 4.42).

Table 4.20: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Greek regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank
Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	GR11	**50.3**	**29.5**	61.33	25.30	13.37	237
Kentriki Makedonia	GR12	41.7	36.3	50.39	32.16	17.45	174
Ditiki Makedonia	GR13	48.6	33.6	58.30	30.15	11.55	227
Thessalia	GR14	41.2	36	53.48	29.94	16.58	232
Ipiros	GR21	49.5	32.7	58.40	28.10	13.50	228
Ionia Nisia	GR22	57.8	36	**64.12**	26.73	9.15	258
Ditiki Ellada	GR23	49.3	36	55.82	31.29	12.88	213
Sterea Ellada	GR24	48.6	34.9	60.57	**28.64**	10.81	252
Peloponnisos	GR25	47.2	37.6	59.36	29.91	10.71	253
Attiki	GR30	**30.3**	46	**37.04**	**40.63**	**22.33**	**60**
Vorio Egeo	GR41	38.7	**48.5**	52.99	34.30	12.70	254
Notio Egeo	GR42	49.9	38.3	58.36	32.60	9.05	**256**
Kriti	GR43	46.4	38.6	53.43	31.96	14.59	234
	Range:	**27.5**	**19**	**27.09**	**15.33**	**13.29**	**198**

Figure 4.41: Tertiary education graduates, Greek regions (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

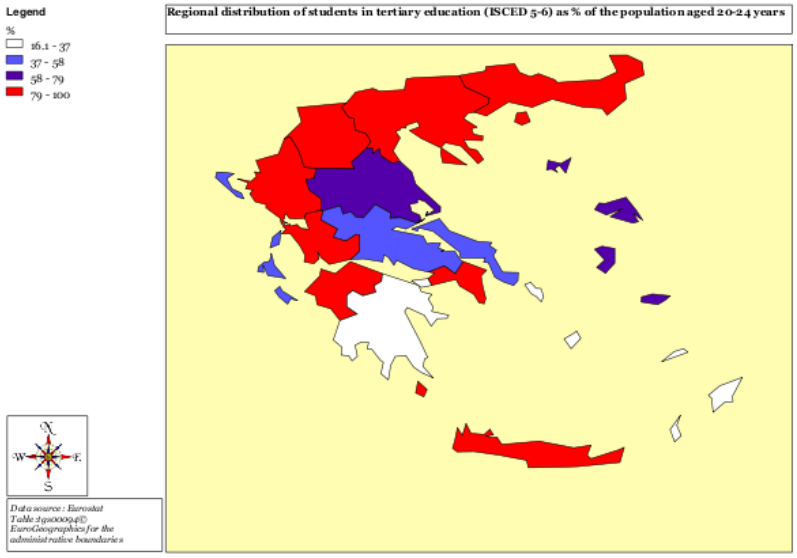
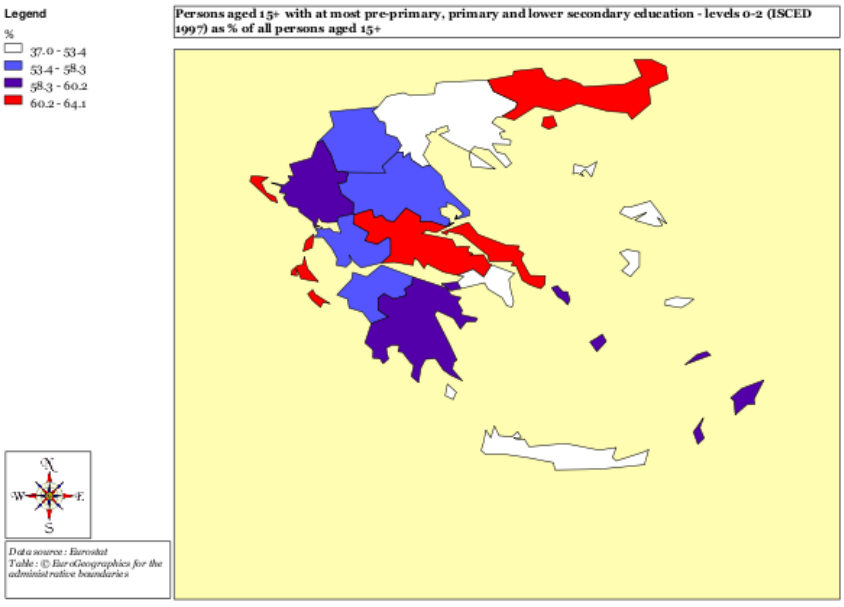


Figure 4.42: Persons 15+ with at most lower secondary education, Greece



4.11. Regional inequalities in Hungary

Table 4.21 gives the data on the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Hungarian regions. As can be seen, there are relatively small regional disparities in the rates of "pupils and students in all levels of education". However, there is a very large difference in the rates of students in tertiary education (all students as a percentage of the population aged 20-24 years old), with the capital region of Közép-Magyarország having the highest rates, whereas Közép-Dunántúl has the lowest rate.

Table 4.21: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Hungarian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Közép-Magyarország	HU10	23.2	**2.5**	No data	**50.9**	**105.83**	2.4
Közép-Dunántúl	HU21	20	1.4	8.3	45.8	**38.7**	**0**
Nyugat-Dunántúl	HU22	**19.8**	**1.1**	**7.9**	47.9	45.8	**0**
Dél-Dunántúl	HU23	22	1.4	8.6	49.1	61.7	1.4
Észak-Magyarország	HU31	22	1.3	9.2	**45.8**	48.4	0.2
Észak-Alföld	HU32	**23.3**	1.7	**9.8**	47.0	47.4	1.8
Dél-Alföld	HU33	21.4	1.5	8.3	50.6	51.1	**6.2**
	Range:	***3.5***	1.4	***1.9***	***5.13***	***67.13***	***6.2***

Figure 4.43 shows the spatial distribution of students in tertiary education across all regions. There are also relatively small disparities with regards to the University accessibility index.

Figure 4.43: Regional distribution of students in tertiary education in Hungary

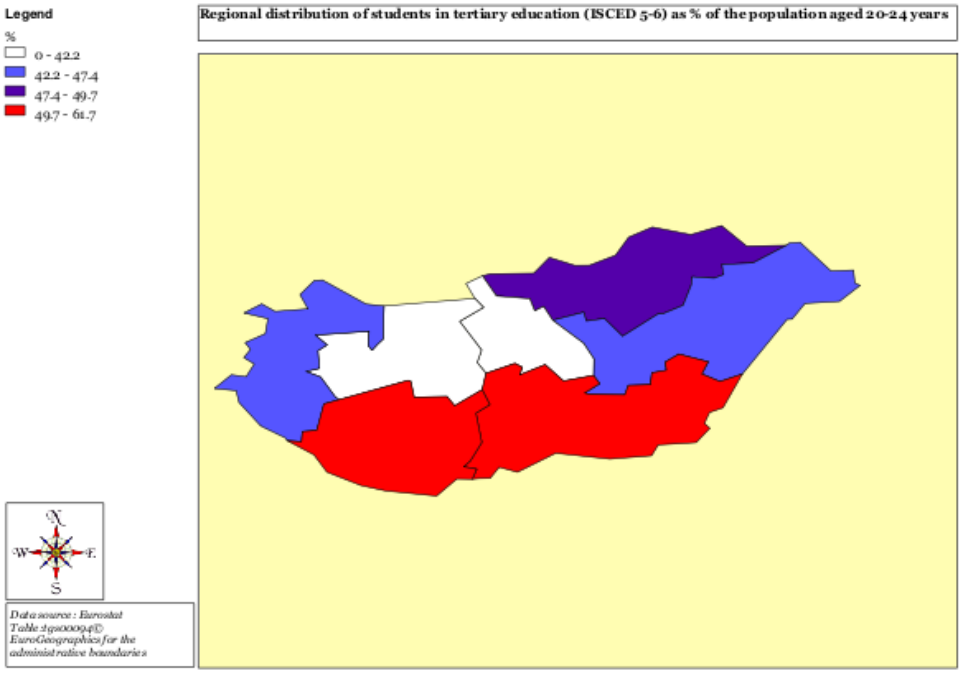


Table 4.22 presents the "outcome" and "performance" indicators for Hungarian regions. The capital region of Közép-Magyarország is ranked at the top in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 70th in the EU). In contrast, Észak-Alföld is ranked bottom (and 183rd in the EU out of 265). It is also interesting to note that Közép-Magyarország has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates, whereas the region of Közép-Dunántúl has the lowest (also see Figure 4.44). Észak-Alföld has the highest rate of people with low qualifications (with at most lower secondary education qualification) and Közép-Magyarország has the lowest rate for this indicator (also see Figure 4.45).

Table 4.22: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Hungarian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Közép-Magyarország	HU10	**11.2**	**53.5**	**20.2**	48.7	**22.4**	**70**
Közép-Dunántúl	HU21	17.6	58.3	29.7	51.3	**11.3**	165
Nyugat-Dunántúl	HU22	15.1	**59.9**	25.8	**53.1**	12.6	156
Dél-Dunántúl	HU23	19.7	55.3	31.0	49.2	11.4	197
Észak-Magyarország	HU31	16.8	55.7	29.7	50.4	11.4	182
Észak-Alföld	HU32	**21.6**	54	**32.4**	**48.4**	11.4	**183**
Dél-Alföld	HU33	17.7	55.1	28.8	49.5	12.9	178
	Range:	10.4	6.4	12.1	4.7	11.1	127

Figure 4.44: Regional distribution of tertiary education graduates, Hungary

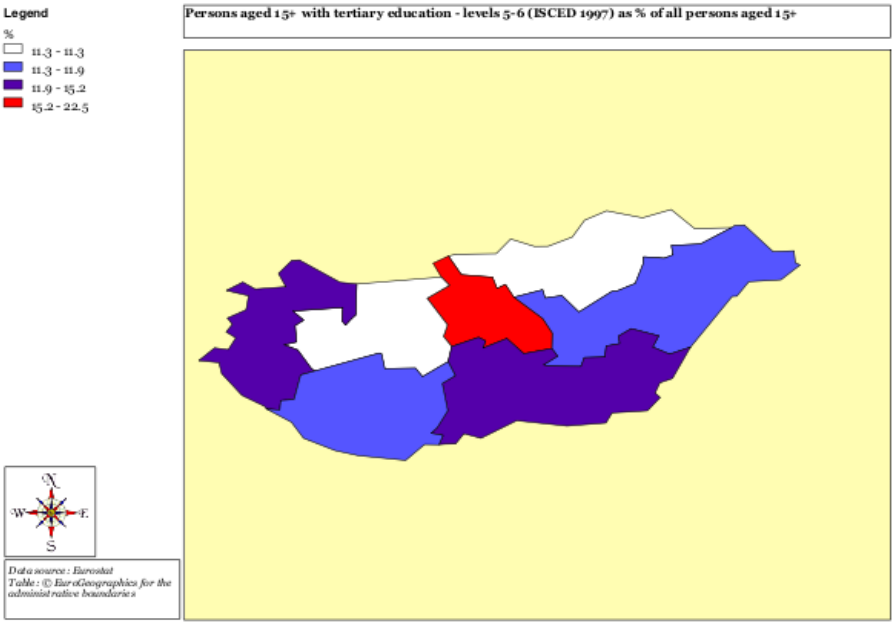
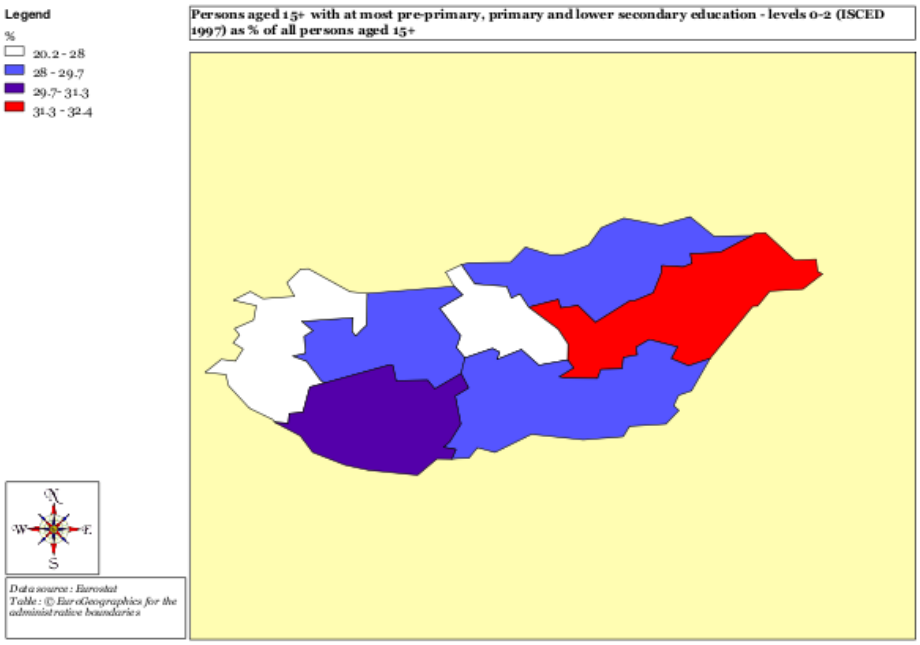


Figure 4.45: Regional distribution (%) of persons 15+ with at most lower secondary education, Hungary



4.12. Regional inequalities in the Republic of Ireland

There are only two NUTS2 regions in the republic of Ireland and data on the target group and opportunity indicators as well as outcome and performance indicators on both regions are shown in Tables 4.23 and 4.24.

Table 4.23: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Irish regions

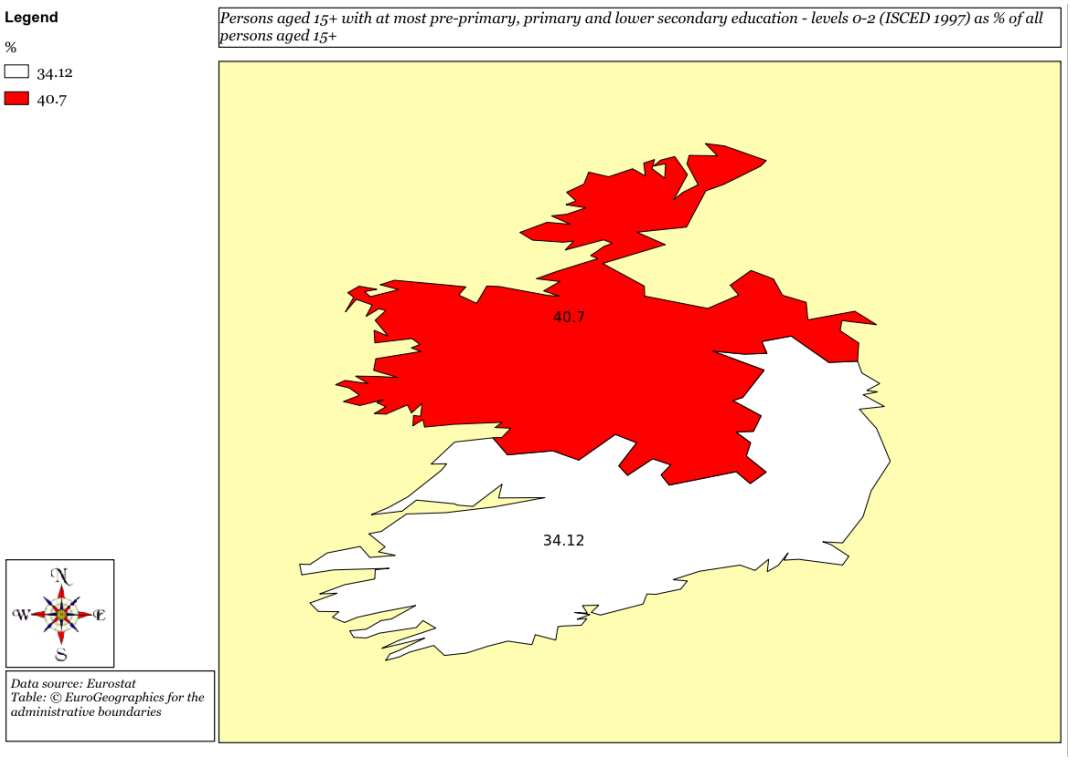
Region	NUTS CODE	All pupils and students	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Border, Midland and Western	IE01	24.4	3.2	15.8	38.3	41.7	1
Southern and Eastern	IE02	24.3	4.3	14.7	33.2	56.6	0.5

Table 4.24: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Irish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Border, Midland and Western	IE01	38.8	37.4	40.7	32.4	23.9	91
Southern and Eastern	IE02	29.1	35.5	34.1	33.7	29.4	26

The Southern and Eastern region tends to have better indicators (e.g. proportionally more tertiary education graduates as well as more tertiary education students and a smaller proportion of the population with at most pre-primary, primary and lower education qualifications; also see Figure 4.46).

Figure 4.46: **Persons aged 15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education as % of all persons aged 15+, Republic of Ireland**



4.13. Regional inequalities in Italy

Table 4.25 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Italian regions. The region of Campania has the highest rate for "pupils and students in all levels of education" (23.1% of total population), whereas Valle d'Aosta has the lowest (14.7%). Figure 4.47 shows the spatial distribution of this indicator across Italy.

Liguria has the highest rates of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 years old, whereas Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen has the lowest (also see Figure 4.48). Lazio is the region with the highest rate of students in tertiary education (as a percentage of all population aged 20-24), whereas Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen has the lowest rate (also see Figure 4.49 which depicts the geographical distribution of this indicator across Italian regions).

It is also interesting to note that Umbria, Molise, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Liguria and Lazio have very good university accessibility (1% or less of the population live in areas that are located more than 60 minutes from the nearest university). In contrast, Valle d'Aosta has by far the worst value for "university accessibility". Figure 4.50 shows the spatial distribution of this indicator across all regions.

Table 4.25: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Italian regions

Region	NUTS Code	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED 3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Piemonte	ITC1	16.1	2.9	7.1	47.1	55.1	5.5
Valle d'Aosta	ITC2	**14.7**	**2.8**	7.1	46.0	18.5	**74.1**
Liguria	ITC3	15.8	3.8	**6.3**	**61.6**	61.8	1.0
Lombardia	ITC4	17.1	3.4	7.4	45.4	61.6	2.3
Provincia Autonoma Bolzano/Bozen	ITD1	17.7	3.9	9.1	**44.8**	**10.7**	43.1
Provincia Autonoma Trento	ITD2	19.5	**5.0**	8.3	49.5	64.6	6.4
Veneto	ITD3	17.4	3.7	7.6	49.2	50.8	4.2
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	ITD4	17.0	4.1	6.6	55.2	79.8	0.6
Emilia-Romagna	ITD5	17.4	3.7	6.9	50.9	91.3	1.2
Toscana	ITE1	17.2	3.8	6.7	48.1	88.8	2.7
Umbria	ITE2	18.4	4.2	6.8	49.8	90.0	**0.3**
Marche	ITE3	18.2	3.0	7.2	48.7	76.8	2.7
Lazio	ITE4	20.2	4.6	7.6	48.6	**100.0**	1.0
Abruzzo	ITF1	20.0	3.8	7.2	48.1	91.6	0.5
Molise	ITF2	18.5	3.9	7.3	47.9	58.8	0.7
Campania	ITF3	**23.1**	**2.8**	**9.7**	46.8	57.5	2.7
Puglia	ITF4	20.9	3.1	8.7	50.3	47.7	9.1
Basilicata	ITF5	18.4	3.7	7.9	50.9	27.0	25.8
Calabria	ITF6	20.2	3.4	8.2	46.0	46.7	29.2
Sicilia	ITG1	21.4	**2.8**	9.0	46.5	55.8	31.4
Sardegna	ITG2	17.8	4.4	7.1	47.1	56.2	19.5
	Range:	***8.4***	**2.2**	***3.4***	***16.8***	***89.30***	***73.80***

Figure 4.47: Regional distribution of "pupils and students in all levels of education", Italy (as % of the total population in a region)

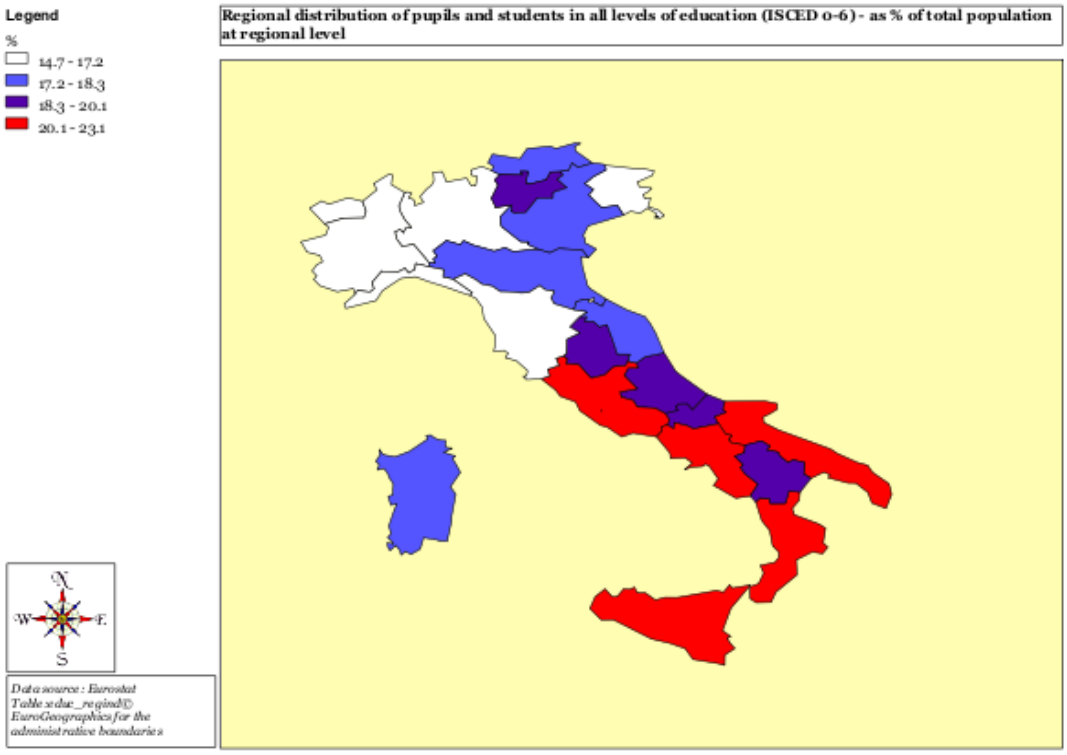


Figure 4.48: Regional distribution of pupils and students in ISCED 3-4, Italy (as % of the population aged 15-24 in a region)

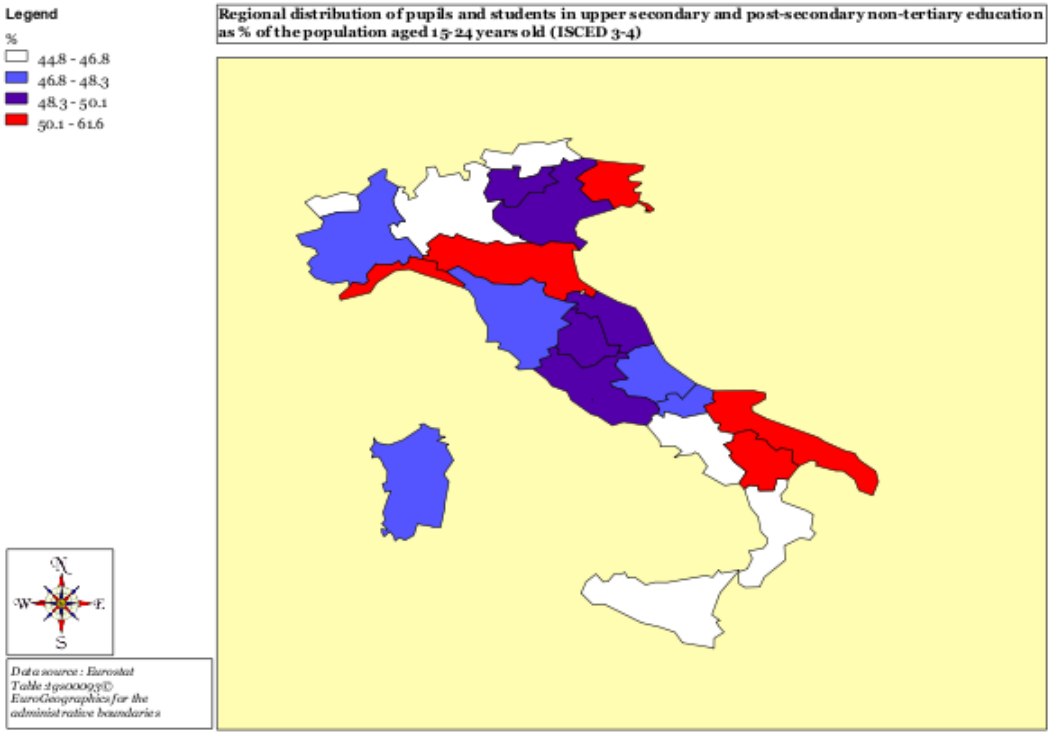


Figure 4.49: Regional distribution of tertiary education students, Italy (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

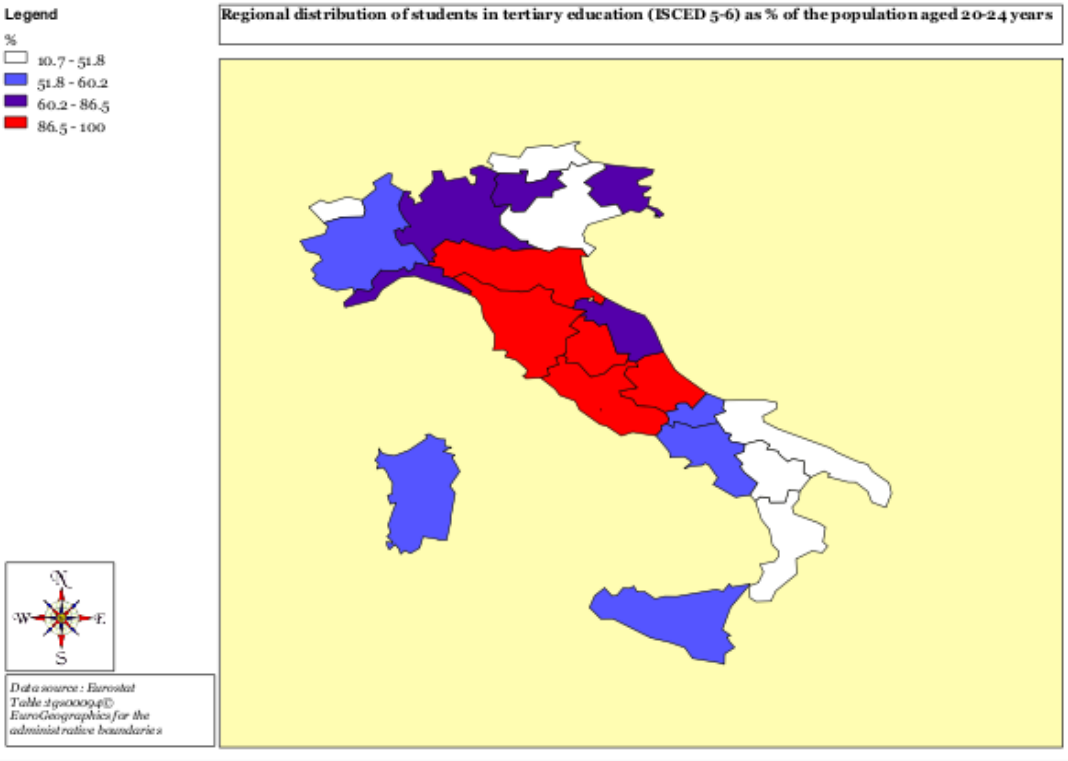


Figure 4.50: University "accessibility" by region, Italy

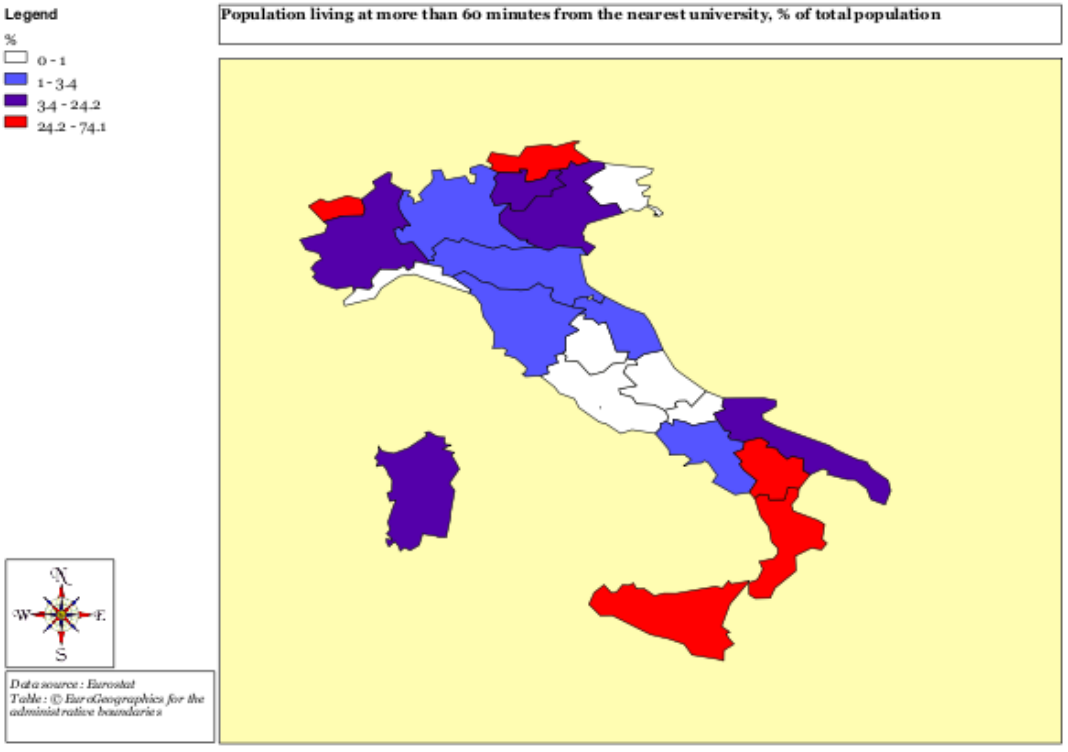


Table 4.26 (next page) presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators in Italian regions. It is interesting to note that the region with the highest rates of tertiary education graduates is Lazio, closely followed by Liguria. On the other hand, Valle d'Aosta has the lowest rate. Figure 4.51 shows the spatial distribution of the rates for this variable across all Italian regions.

The region with the highest rate of low-qualified people (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary qualifications) is Puglia, closely followed by Sardegna, Campania and Sicilia. On the other hand, Lazio has the lowest rate. Figure 4.52 depicts the spatial distribution of this variable across Italian regions. It is also interesting that Lazio has the best rank in Italy in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and is ranked 108th in the EU out of 265), whereas Valle d'Aosta is ranked bottom and is also bottom in the EU.

Table 4.26: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Italian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Piemonte	ITC1	46.4	42.1	56.0	33.8	10.2	221
Valle d'Aosta	ITC2	54.2	40.6	59.8	31.8	**8.3**	**265**
Liguria	ITC3	37.2	45.3	49.3	37.0	13.7	209
Lombardia	ITC4	44.7	41.6	53.0	35.2	11.8	186
Provincia Autonoma Bolzano	ITD1	48.4	45.1	55.3	36.2	8.4	260
Provincia Autonoma Trento	ITD2	36.8	**50.5**	47.1	**41.3**	11.6	217
Veneto	ITD3	42.9	40.4	54.7	35.5	9.8	203
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	ITD4	41.2	42.0	53.2	37.0	9.8	204
Emilia-Romagna	ITD5	42.7	42.7	52.8	35.1	12.1	177
Toscana	ITE1	48.4	40.1	57.1	32.1	10.9	196
Umbria	ITE2	37.8	43.6	51.0	37.5	11.5	187
Marche	ITE3	43.8	40.5	54.7	34.3	11.0	216
Lazio	ITE4	**35.2**	45.3	**45.6**	39.6	**14.8**	**108**
Abruzzo	ITF1	43.7	38.7	55.0	33.6	11.4	188
Molise	ITF2	46.8	37.6	57.7	31.9	10.4	225
Campania	ITF3	54.1	31.3	61.3	29.3	9.4	219
Puglia	ITF4	56.3	**30.8**	**63.4**	**28.1**	8.4	235
Basilicata	ITF5	46.9	40.2	57.1	34.3	8.6	249
Calabria	ITF6	49.1	35.1	58.0	31.8	10.3	240
Sicilia	ITG1	54.9	32.9	61.8	28.9	9.3	241
Sardegna	ITG2	**58.5**	32.6	62.0	29.2	8.8	245
	Range:	**23.3**	**19.7**	**17.8**	**13.2**	**6.5**	**157**

Figure 4.51: Regional distribution of tertiary education graduates, Italy (% of all population aged 15+ in a region)

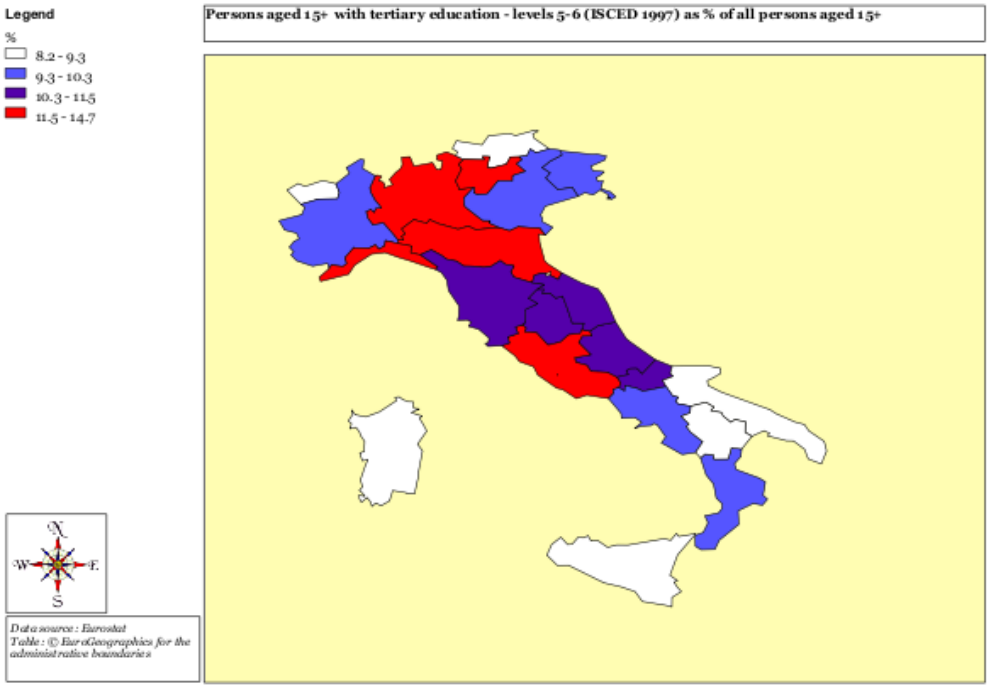
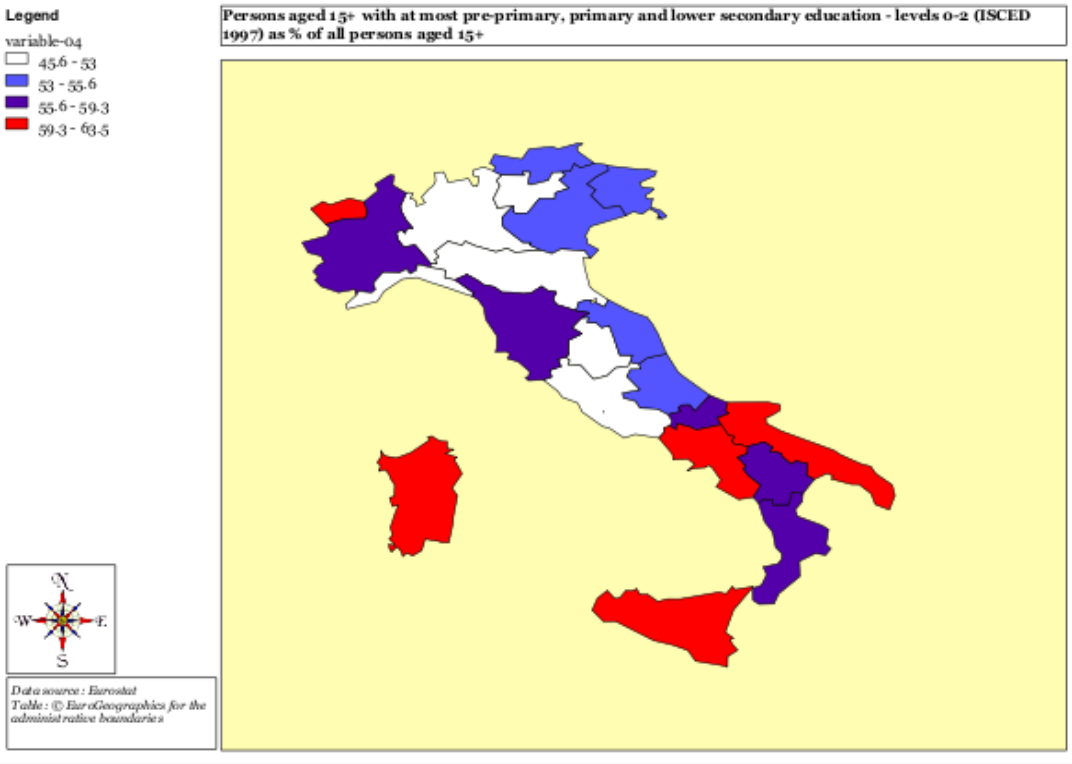


Figure 4.52: Regional distribution (%) of persons aged 15+ with at most lower secondary education, Italy



4.14. Regional inequalities in the Netherlands

Table 4.27 presents the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for the regions of the Netherlands. There are relatively small regional differences in the rates of pupils in primary and lower secondary education, but relatively big disparities in the rates of tertiary education students. In particular, in the region of Groningen 85.1% of 20-24 year olds are in tertiary education. The respective rate is 73.4% for Utrecht and 65% for the capital region of Noord-Holland. In contrast, the region with the lowest rate is Zeeland (35%).

Figure 4.53 shows the spatial distribution of the rates across all Dutch regions. It is also interesting to note that all Dutch regions have very good accessibility to universities, with no region having more than 1.7% of the population living at a distance more than 60 minutes from the nearest university.

Table 4.27: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Dutch regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Groningen	NL11	25	9.7	11.4	31.8	**85.1**	0
Friesland (NL)	NL12	23.2	8.3	12.7	40.9	53	1.7
Drenthe	NL13	21.6	8.3	12.5	**45**	41	0
Overijssel	NL21	23.9	8.6	13	39	57	0
Gelderland	NL22	23.2	8.4	12.8	38	57.6	0
Flevoland	NL23	**25.9**	10.0	**14.9**	39.5	43.6	0
Utrecht	NL31	23.8	**10.5**	12.2	**31.6**	73.4	0
Noord-Holland	NL32	21.7	**10.5**	11.6	34.7	65	0.5
Zuid-Holland	NL33	22.7	9.7	12.1	35.0	61.1	0
Zeeland	NL34	20.8	**8.1**	12.2	42.3	**35**	0.1
Noord-Brabant	NL41	22.4	8.9	12.4	36.8	58.1	0
Limburg (NL)	NL42	**20.6**	8.4	**11.2**	38.3	55.1	0
	Range:	***5.3***	**2.3**	***3.7***	***13.4***	***50.1***	***1.7***

Figure 4.53: Regional distribution of tertiary education students in the Netherlands (% of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

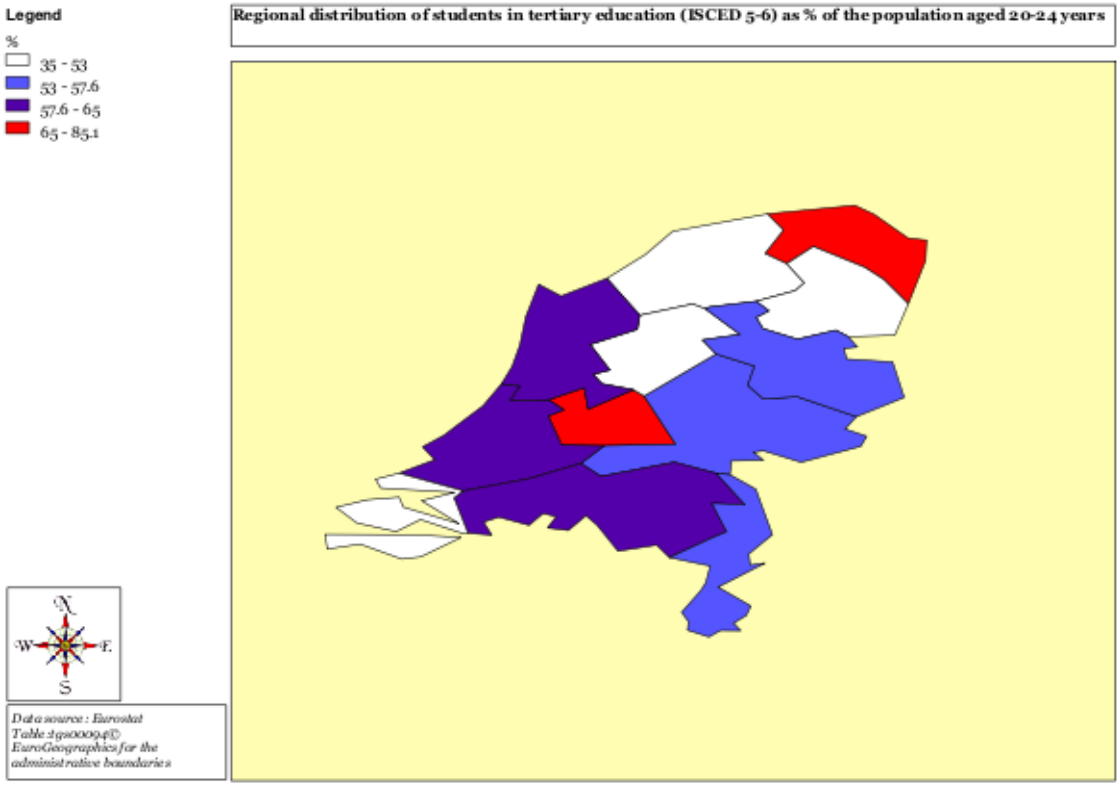


Table 4.28 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators for the Dutch regions. It is noteworthy that nine out of the twelve Dutch regions are within the top 100 in the EU in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator. The region of Utrecht is on top of the list (and ranked 6th in the EU), whereas the region of Drenthe is on the bottom of the list (and ranked 129th in the EU out of 265).

The region of Utrecht has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates and the lowest rate of low-qualified individuals (with at most pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education qualifications). In contrast, Zeeland has the lowest rate of tertiary education graduates and the highest (jointly with Limburg) rate of low-qualified individuals.

Table 4.28: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Dutch regions

Region	NUTS Code	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Groningen	NL11	25.1	40.9	34.6	39.8	24.9	20
Friesland (NL)	NL12	29.1	**46.6**	38.2	41.5	19.4	82
Drenthe	NL13	26.7	44.2	38.5	38.4	22.5	129
Overijssel	NL21	26.2	43.8	36.3	40.6	22.4	34
Gelderland	NL22	24.6	42.4	35.4	38.2	25.8	35
Flevoland	NL23	24.1	45.1	33.6	**43.4**	22.5	123
Utrecht	NL31	**19.5**	35.4	**29.3**	35.8	**34.1**	6
Noord-Holland	NL32	21.0	**38.2**	30.2	36.3	32.8	16
Zuid-Holland	NL33	25.6	39.1	35.4	37.1	26.9	14
Zeeland	NL34	26.9	42.4	**40.7**	39.5	**19.3**	114
Noord-Brabant	NL41	25.5	41.0	36.9	38.2	24.0	30
Limburg (NL)	NL42	**29.5**	41.0	**40.7**	36.5	21.9	54
	RANGE:	**10**	**11.20**	**11.42**	**7.56**	**14.79**	**123**

Figure 4.54 and Figure 4.55 depict the spatial distribution of these rates across all Dutch regions.

Figure 4.54: Regional distribution of tertiary education graduates in the Netherlands

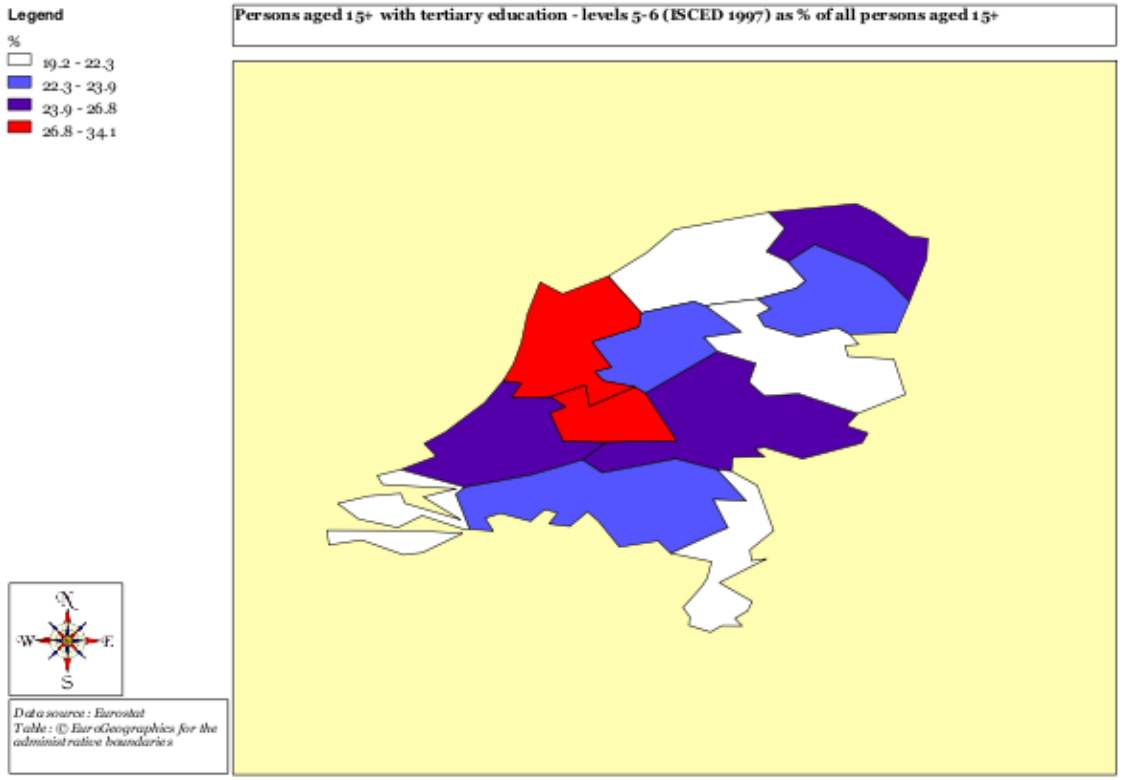
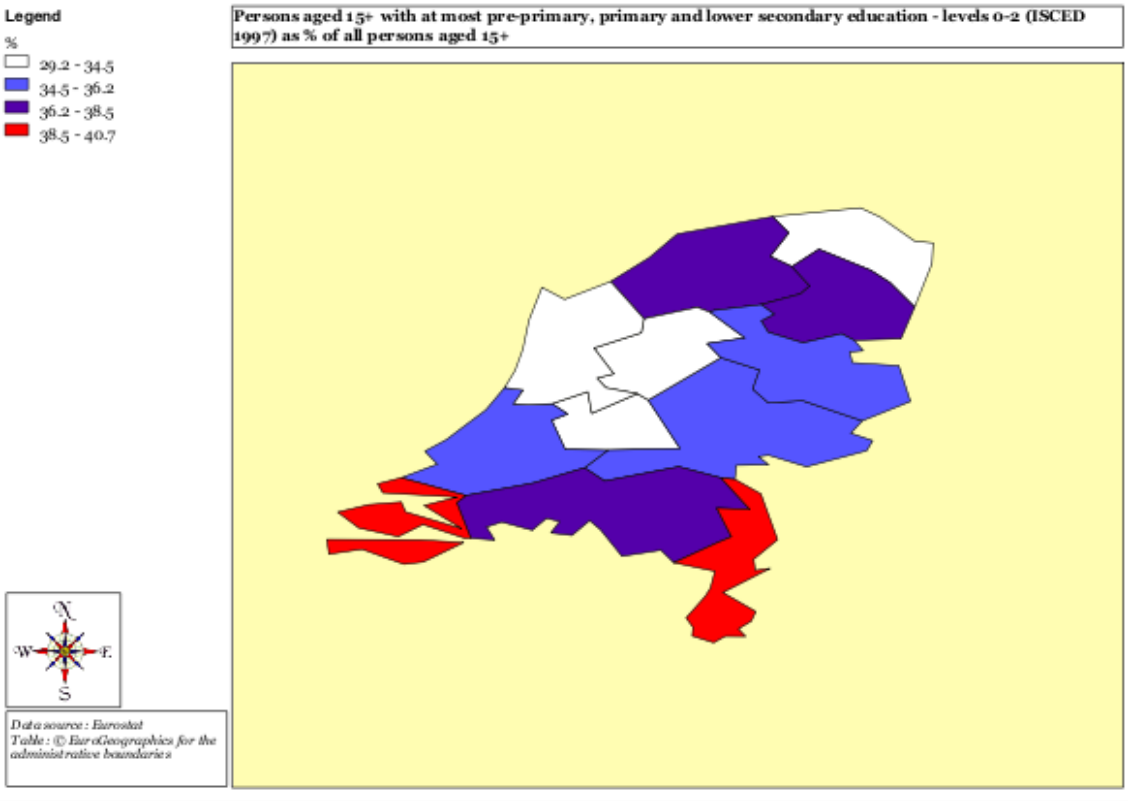


Figure 4.55: Regional distribution of persons with at most lower secondary education, The Netherlands



4.15. Regional inequalities in Poland

Table 4.29 shows the scores for the "target groups" and "opportunity" indicators for Polish regions. The region with the highest rates for "pupils and students in all levels of education" (as a percentage of the total population in the region) is Masovian (Mazowieckie) where the capital Warsaw is also located. This region also has the highest percentage of tertiary education students. In contrast, the region with the lowest rate of "pupils and students in all levels of education" is Opolskie, whereas Lubuskie has the lowest rate of students in tertiary education.

Figures 4.56 and 4.57 (next page) show the spatial distribution of these rates across all Polish regions. It is also worth noting that the capital region of Mazowieckie has the highest rate of adult participation in lifelong learning (4.2%), whereas Podkarpackie has the lowest (1.5%).

Table 4.29: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Polish regions

Region	NUTS Code	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Łódzkie	PL11	23	2.1	9.4	38.1	77.5	8.7
Mazowieckie	PL12	**26**	**4.2**	9.7	35.9	**100**	2.8
Małopolskie	PL21	25.8	2.2	10.6	36.8	81.7	7.4
Śląskie	PL22	21.5	2.4	9.2	36.9	54.3	**0.1**
Lubelskie	PL31	23.9	2.8	10.6	35.5	60.9	6.3
Podkarpackie	PL32	23.1	**1.5**	**11.2**	35.2	42.1	6.1
Świętokrzyskie	PL33	22.9	2.3	10.2	37.8	58.1	2.7
Podlaskie	PL34	23.6	2.4	10.5	37	55	21
Wielkopolskie	PL41	25.3	2.0	10.7	**38.4**	68.8	28.3
Zachodniopomorskie	PL42	22.8	2.7	10.1	34.5	60.9	14.8
Lubuskie	PL43	21.5	2.3	10.3	35.1	**35.6**	21.5
Dolnośląskie	PL51	23.1	2.8	**9.2**	35	78.1	4.3
Opolskie	PL52	**21.1**	2.6	9.3	**33.8**	47.4	4.9
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	PL61	23.1	2.2	10.6	37.9	51.2	7
Warmińsko-	PL62	23.6	2.4	11.1	35.5	46.7	**40**
Pomorskie	PL63	23.7	2.1	10.6	37.3	58.3	12.9
	Range:	***4.9***	**2.7**	***2***	***4.6***	***64.4***	***39.9***

Figure 4.56: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, Poland (as % of the total population in a region)

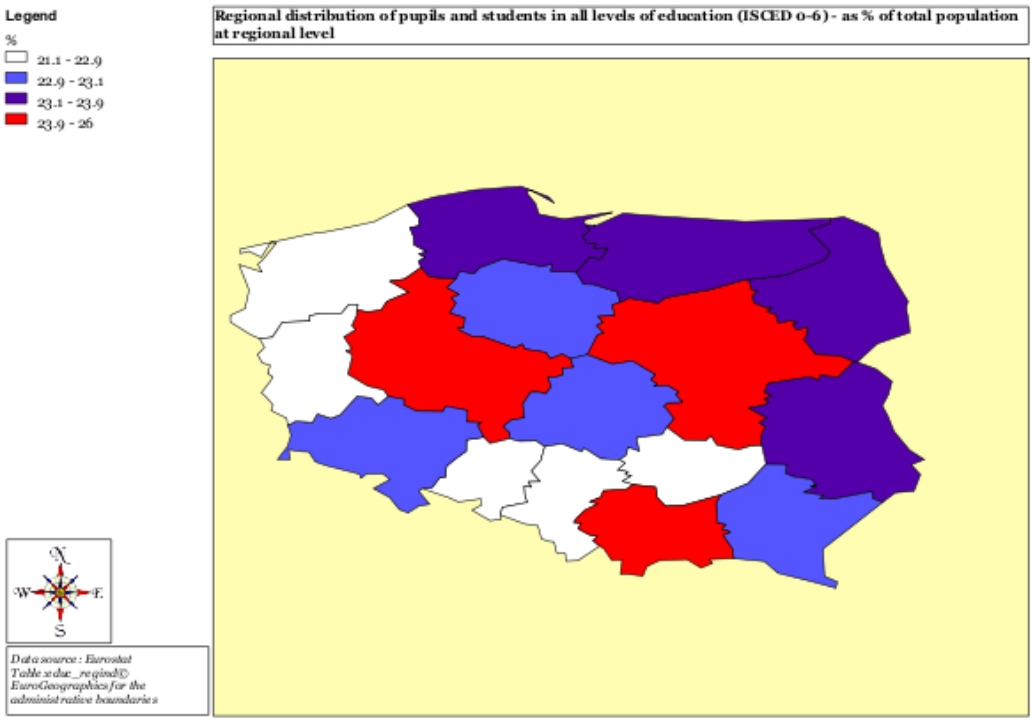


Figure 4.57: Regional distribution of tertiary education students in Poland (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

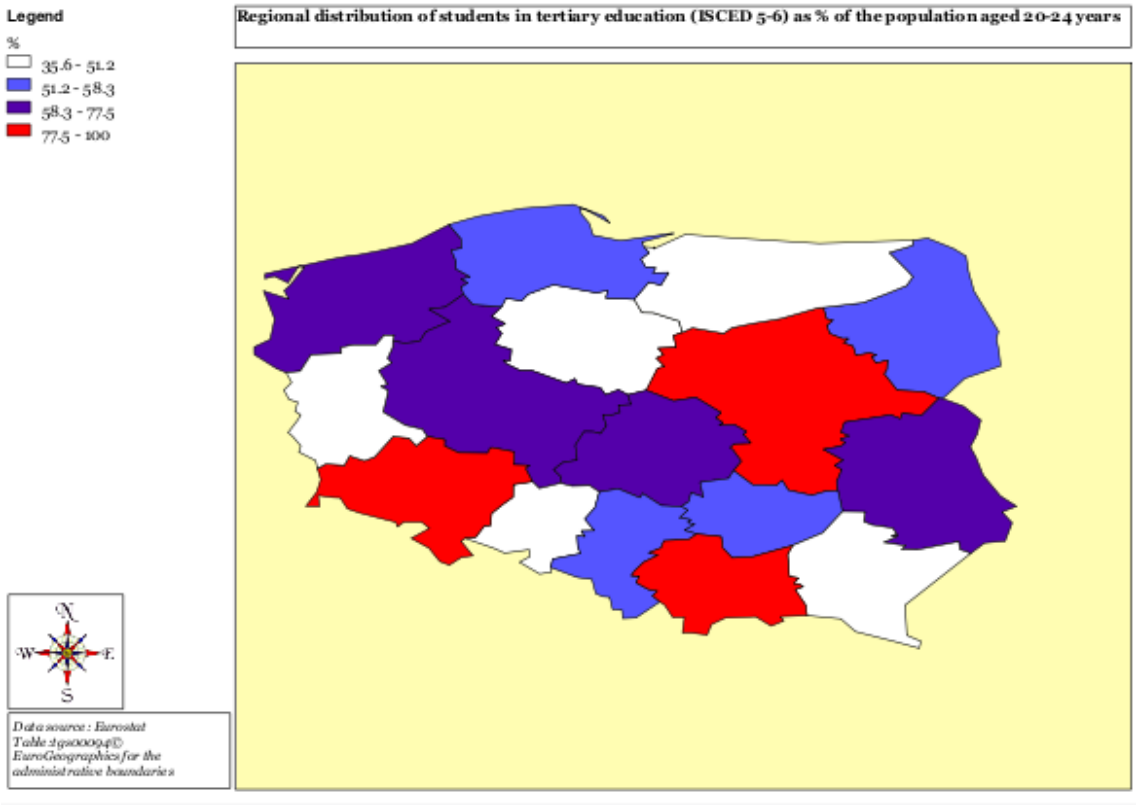


Table 4.30 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. It is interesting to note that there are considerable regional disparities in the RCI Education Pillars indicator. The capital region of Mazowieckie is ranked top (and 33rd in the EU) whereas Warmińsko-Mazurskie is ranked bottom (and 218th in the EU out of 265). The capital region of Mazowieckie also has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates. In contrast, Opolskie and Kujawsko-Pomorskie have the lowest rates for this indicator.

Table 4.30: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Polish regions

Region	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Łódzkie	15.3	61.8	26.7	57.5	15.8	134
Mazowieckie	10.7	**56.5**	21.5	54.8	**23.7**	**33**
Małopolskie	10.0	64.6	24.2	59.6	16.3	65
Śląskie	**6.0**	67.8	**19.5**	**64.3**	16.2	57
Lubelskie	13.2	63.4	27.5	56.4	16.1	112
Podkarpackie	11.9	63.6	26.3	57.7	16.1	115
Świętokrzyskie	12.5	61.7	27.1	57.0	15.9	135
Podlaskie	**19.0**	57.7	**31.8**	**52.0**	16.2	168
Wielkopolskie	10.3	65.3	23.4	63.1	13.4	130
Zachodniopomorskie	12.2	60.3	25.7	57.9	16.3	184
Lubuskie	12.0	67.1	24.7	62.2	13.1	215
Dolnośląskie	10.2	66.4	22.7	61.5	15.8	101
Opolskie	9.9	**69.0**	25.4	61.6	**13.0**	170
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	14.8	65.8	26.3	60.8	**13.0**	180
Warmińsko-Mazurskie	18.5	60.1	29.5	55.0	15.5	**218**
Pomorskie	13.0	62.6	24.2	59.2	16.6	164
Range:	**13**	**12.5**	**12.35**	**12.33**	**10.73**	**185**

Figures 4.58 and 4.59 show the spatial distribution across Polish regions. Podlaskie has the highest rate of people with low qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education attainment), whereas Śląskie has the lowest rate.

Figure 4.58: Regional distribution of tertiary education graduates, Poland (as % of the population aged 15+ in a region)

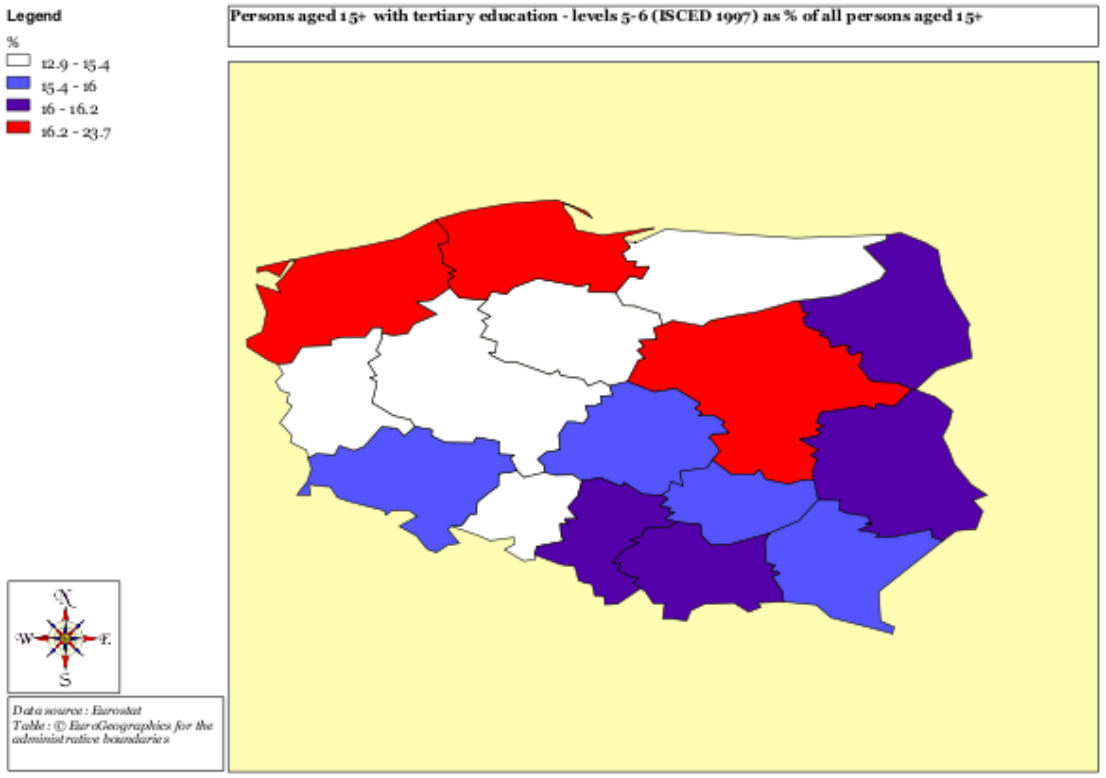
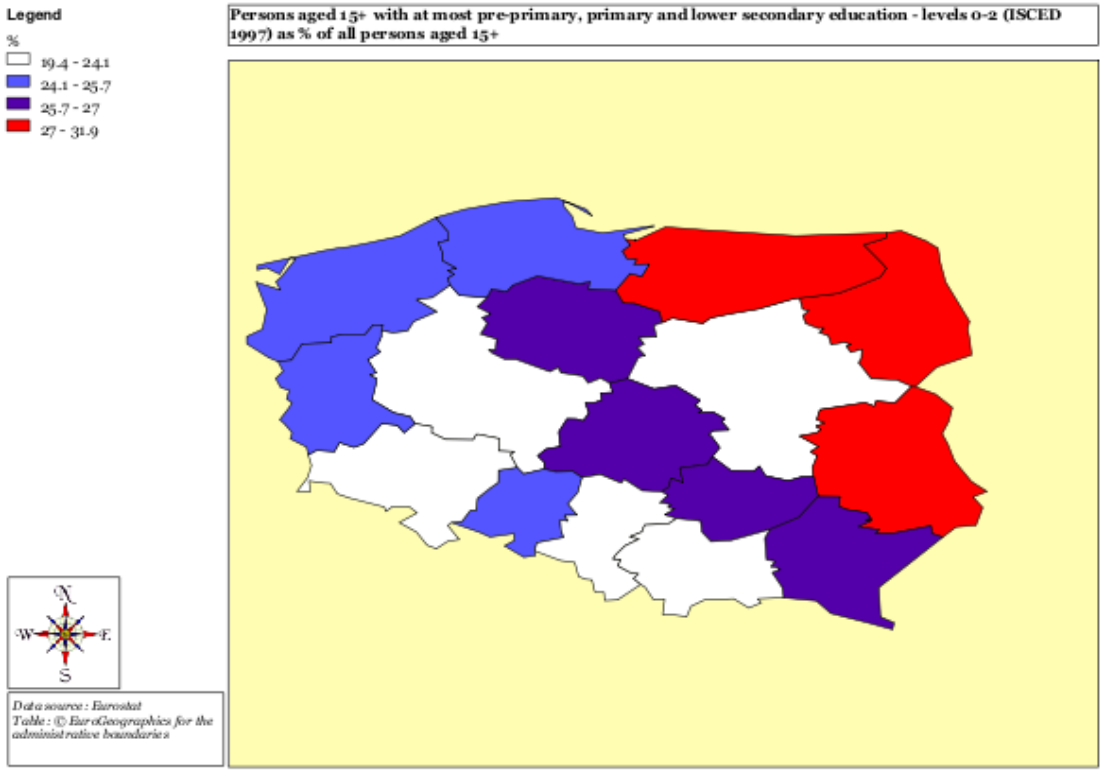


Figure 4.59: Regional distribution of persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Poland



4.16. Regional inequalities in Portugal

Table 4.31 gives the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for Portuguese regions. The biggest regional disparity that is worth noting pertains to tertiary education provision and accessibility. In particular, the capital region of Lisboa has the highest rate of students in tertiary education (92.4%) and this is far higher than the region with the second highest rate (Centro, 56.4%) and the rest of the regions (also see Figure 4.60). Lisboa and Centro also have the best university accessibility (have a low number of people living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university), whereas Algarve has the worst.

Table 4.31: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Portuguese regions

Region	NUTS Code	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Norte	PT11	22.8	2.7	13	**32.7**	47.6	1.2
Algarve	PT15	21.4	**2.3**	**12.4**	37.0	44.2	**14.4**
Centro (P)	PT16	21.7	**3.0**	**11.4**	36.9	56.4	0.6
Lisboa	PT17	**22.9**	2.9	11.7	37.0	**92.4**	**0.3**
Alentejo	PT18	**21**	2.4	11.9	**38.9**	**40.6**	7.5
	Range:	***1.9***	**0.7**	***1.6***	***6.2***	***51.8***	***14.1***

Figure 4.60: Regional distribution of students in tertiary education, Portugal (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

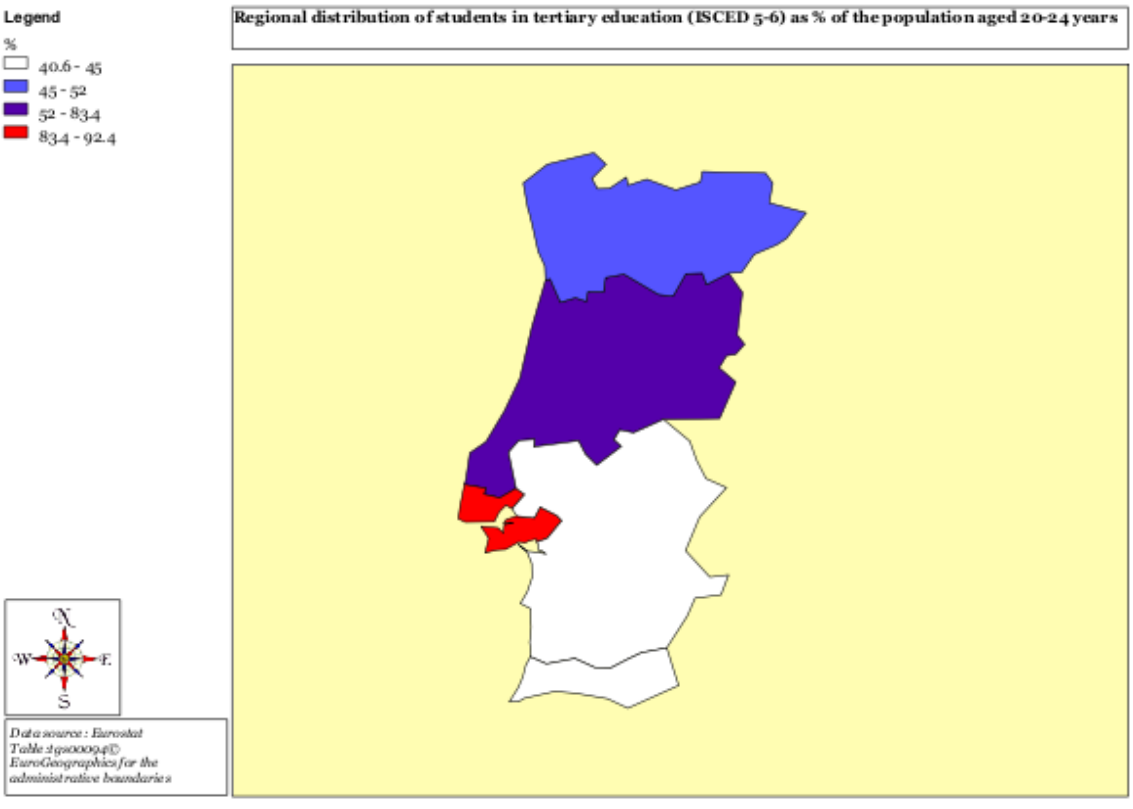


Figure 4.61: Tertiary education graduates, Portuguese regions (as % of the population aged 15+ in a region)

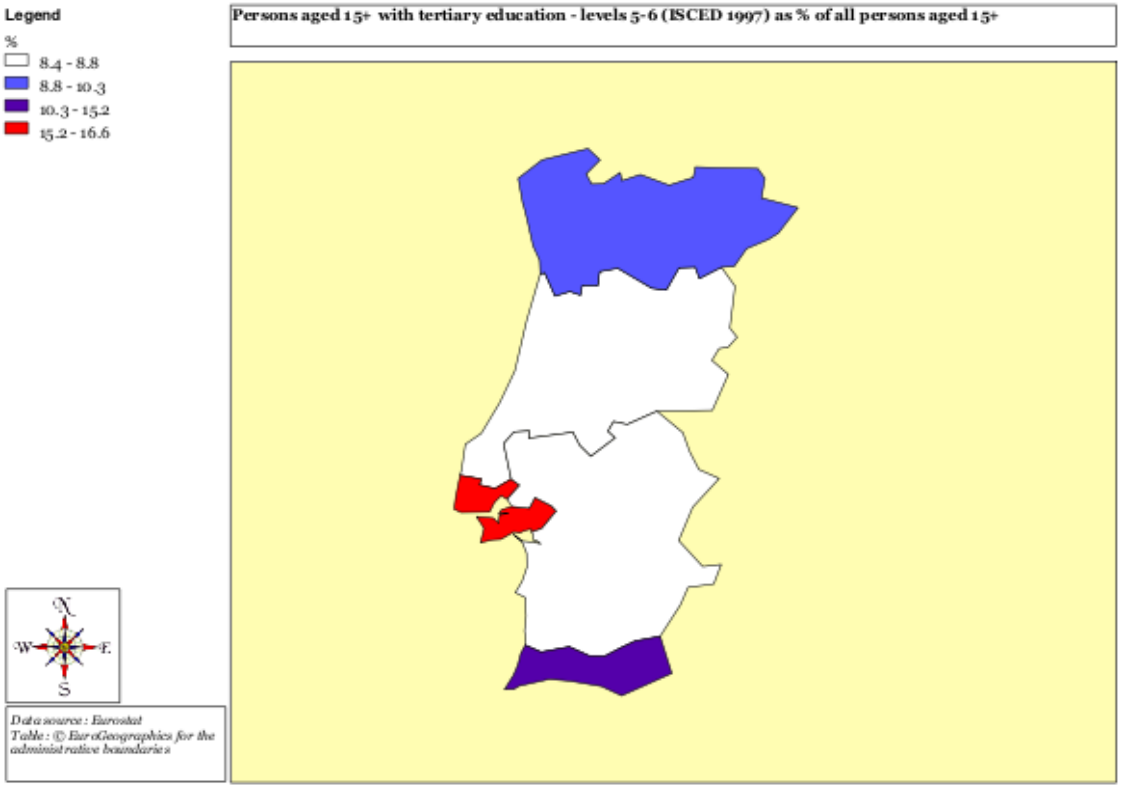


Table 4.32 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. The rate of tertiary education graduates in capital region of Lisboa (16.7%) is double that of the region with the lowest rate (Alentejo, 8.4%; also see Figure 4.61). Alentejo has the highest rate of people with low formal qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary attainment). The capital region of Lisboa is ranked at the top in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 150th in the EU out of 265), whereas Algarve is ranked bottom (and 251st in the EU out of 265).

Table 4.32: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Portuguese regions

Region	NUTS Code	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank
Norte	PT11	77.3	**11.4**	77.6	**12.6**	9.7	214
Algarve	PT15	70.2	20.3	71.7	17.3	11.0	**251**
Centro (P)	PT16	**77.9**	13.4	78.2	13.3	8.5	199
Lisboa	PT17	**59.8**	**20.5**	**64.5**	**18.8**	**16.7**	**150**
Alentejo	PT18	77.8	16.3	**78.3**	13.2	**8.4**	243
	Range	***18.1***	***9.1***	***13.9***	***6.2***	***8.3***	***101***

4.17. Regional inequalities in Romania

Table 4.33 provides the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for Romanian regions. There is considerable regional variation in all variables.

Figure 4.62 shows the spatial distribution of rates of "pupils and students in all levels of education" across all Romanian regions. The capital region of Bucureşti–Ilfov has the highest rate, whereas Sud–Muntenia the lowest. The biggest regional variation is observed in the distribution of tertiary education students and in university accessibility (see Figure 4.64). Bucureşti–Ilfov has the highest rate of tertiary students (all 20-24 year olds are tertiary education students) whereas Sud–Muntenia is at the bottom of the list (19.7% of 20-24 year olds attend tertiary education). Also, as can be seen in Table 4.33 and Figure 4.64, Bucureşti–Ilfov has the best university accessibility rate, whereas the Sud-Est region has the worst.

Table 4.33: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Romanian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Nord-Vest	RO11	21.4	0.7	8.4	34.2	55.3	40.8
Centru	RO12	20.8	0.8	8.1	33.4	55.5	18.3
Nord-Est	RO21	20.6	0.9	9.6	**31.0**	34.2	35.8
Sud-Est	RO22	18.3	0.7	8.2	32.4	32.7	**46.1**
Sud – Muntenia	RO31	**17.1**	0.7	8.4	32.5	**19.7**	26.1
Bucureşti – Ilfov	RO32	**33.3**	**1.0**	**6.2**	36.2	**100.0**	**0.0**
Sud-Vest Oltenia	RO41	19.5	0.7	**8.5**	**36.7**	36.4	37.7
Vest	RO42	21.2	0.8	8.0	35.1	66.3	20.3
	Range:	**16.2**	**0.3**	**3.4**	**5.7**	**80.3**	**46.1**

Figure 4.62: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, Romania

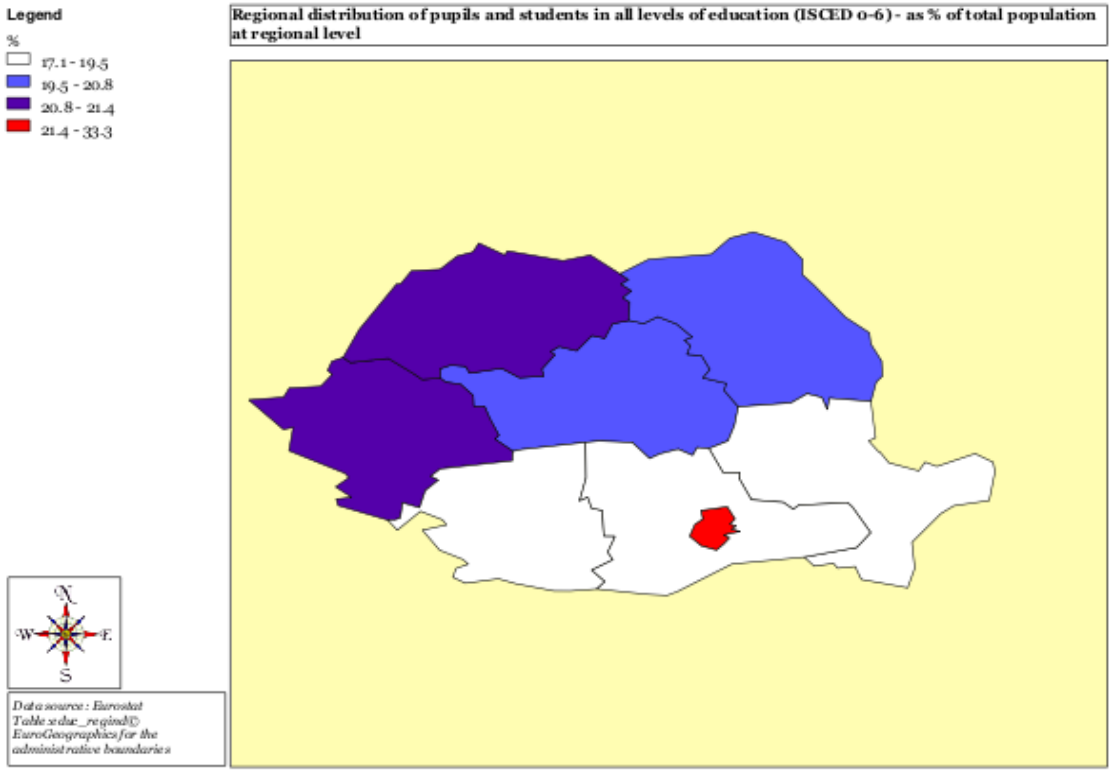


Figure 4.63: Regional distribution of students in tertiary education, Romania (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

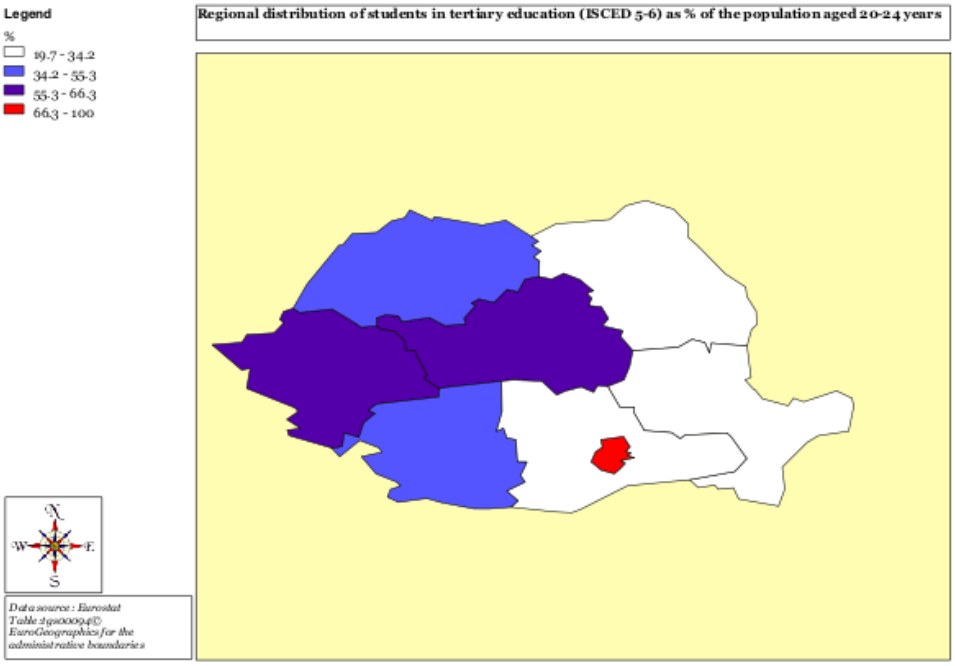


Figure 4.64: University "accessibility" by region, Romania

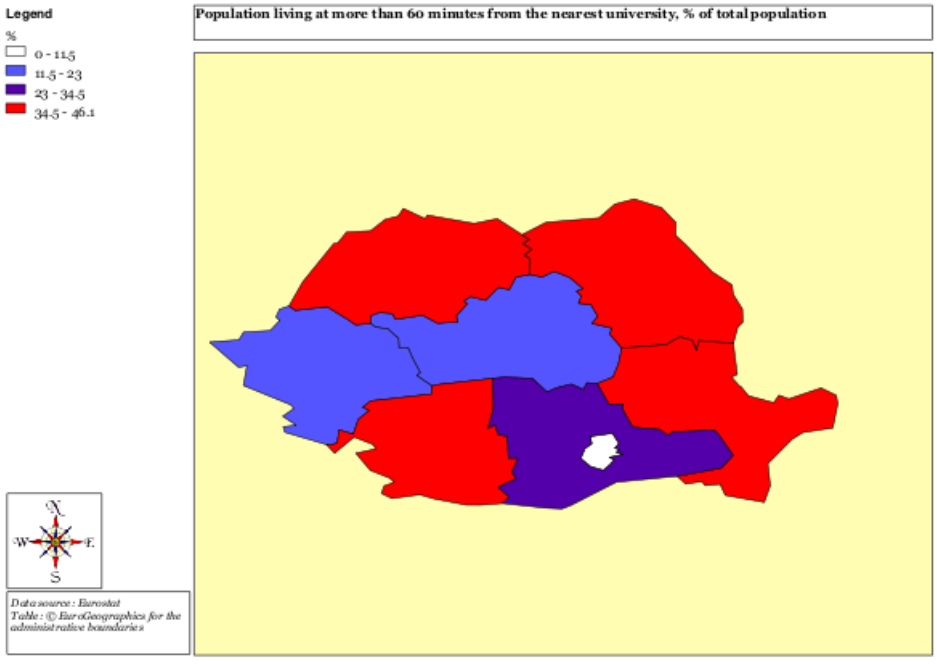


Table 4.34 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators in Romanian regions. Apart from the capital region of Bucureşti–Ilfov which is ranked 77th in the EU in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator, the rest of the regions are all ranked in the bottom 50 regions of the EU. The region Sud-Est is at the bottom of the Romanian list and is also ranked 250th in the EU (out of 265). Bucureşti –Ilfov has by far the highest rate of tertiary education graduates (22.5%), three times that of Sud–Muntenia which has the lowest rate (also see Figure 4.65 which shows the distribution of this indicator across all Romanian regions). It is also interesting to note that Nord-Est is the region with the highest rate of individuals with low formal qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary qualifications, 42.8%, which is nearly double the rate of Bucureşti–Ilfov). Figure 4.66 shows the spatial distribution of this variable across all Romanian regions.

Table 4.34: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Romanian regions

Region	NUTS Code	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Nord-Vest	RO11	21.7	57.8	38.6	52.2	9.2	236
Centru	RO12	19.5	**62.8**	35.1	**55.8**	9.1	230
Nord-Est	RO21	**26.5**	54.8	**42.8**	49.0	8.2	242
Sud-Est	RO22	23.2	**54.4**	41.9	50.6	7.5	**250**
Sud-Muntenia	RO31	22.7	55.7	42.7	50.2	**7.1**	248
Bucureşti - Ilfov	RO32	**11.1**	58.1	**21.9**	55.6	**22.5**	**77**
Sud-Vest Oltenia	RO41	20.3	55.4	40.2	**50.1**	9.7	246
Vest	RO42	17.4	58.5	35.0	54.4	10.6	231
	Range:	***15.4***	***8.4***	***20.9***	***6.8***	***15.4***	***173***

Figure 4.65: Tertiary education graduates in Romanian regions (as % of the population aged 15+ in a region)

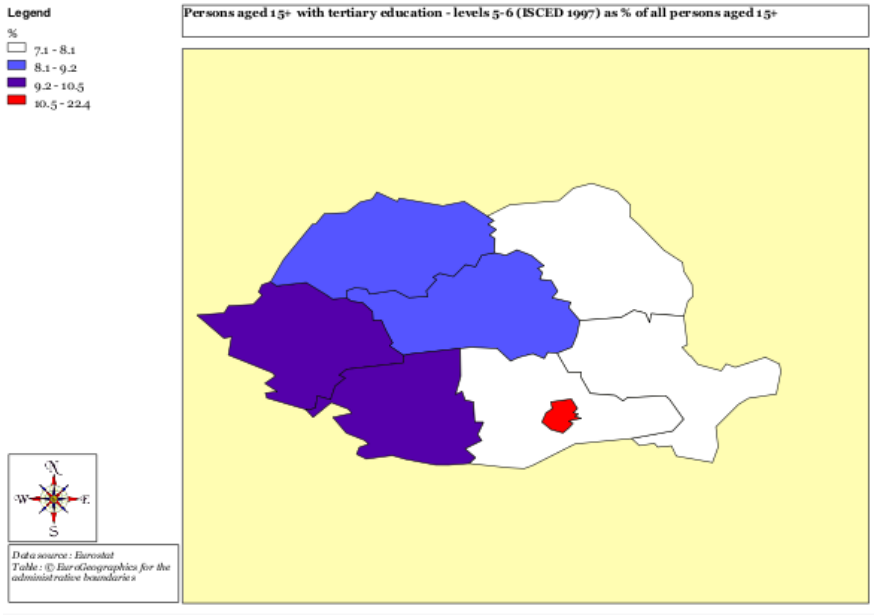
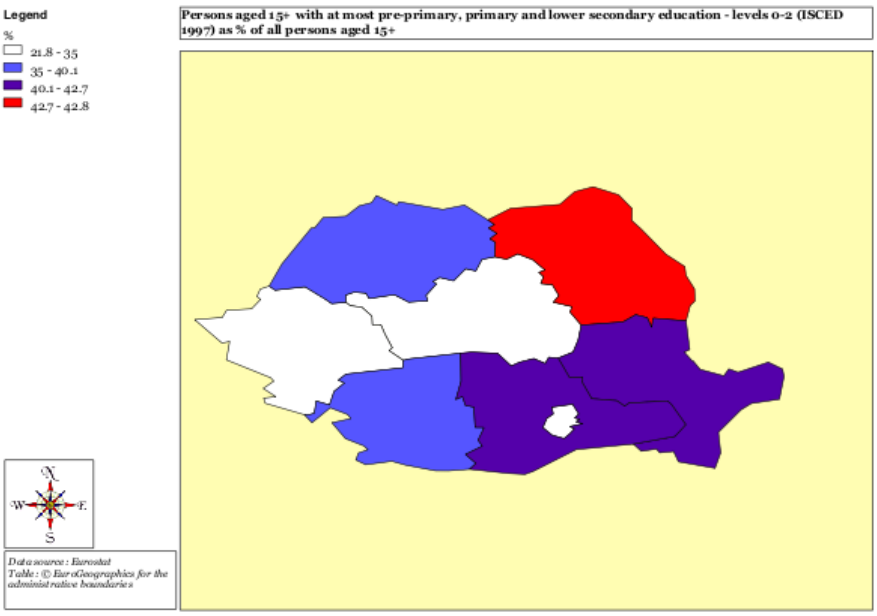


Figure 4.66: Regional distribution of persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Romania (as %of the population aged 15+ in a region)



4.18. Regional inequalities in Sweden

Table 4.35 gives the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for Swedish regions. There is a relatively even distribution of all pupils in primary and lower secondary education ISCED1-2 and in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4). However, there is considerable variation in the distribution of students in tertiary education as well as in terms of "university accessibility". The region of Övre Norrland (Upper Norrland) in the north of the country, where the city of Umea with two large universities is located has the highest rate of students in tertiary education (91% of all 20-24 year olds in this region attend tertiary education). Figure 4.67 depicts the spatial distribution of tertiary education student rates across Swedish regions.

It is however interesting to note that this region also has the worst "university accessibility" indicator, as 36.9% of the population live more than 60 minutes away from the nearest university. In contrast, the regions of Sydsverige and Stockholm have the best "university accessibility" rates (also Figure 4.68).

Table 4.35: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Swedish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6 (tertiary)	University accessibility
Stockholm	SE11	26.4	12.1	**12.0**	45.2	74.3	**0.6**
Östra Mellansverige	SE12	**26.8**	11.9	11.7	44.7	78.5	2.1
Småland med öarna	SE21	26.2	10.7	11.6	46.0	72.0	9.1
Sydsverige	SE22	26.0	12.0	11.6	**43.5**	74.7	**0.0**
Västsverige	SE23	25.9	**12.8**	11.7	46.0	66.3	1.5
Norra Mellansverige	SE31	24.5	**8.9**	11.1	47.8	**65.7**	21.3
Mellersta Norrland	SE32	**24.0**	10.9	**10.8**	**49.6**	**57.7**	27.2
Övre Norrland	SE33	26.7	11.1	10.9	**43.5**	**91.0**	**36.9**
	Range:	**2.8**	**3.8**	**1.2**	**6.1**	**33.3**	**36.9**

Figure 4.67: Regional distribution of tertiary education students, Sweden (as % of the population aged 20-24 in a region)

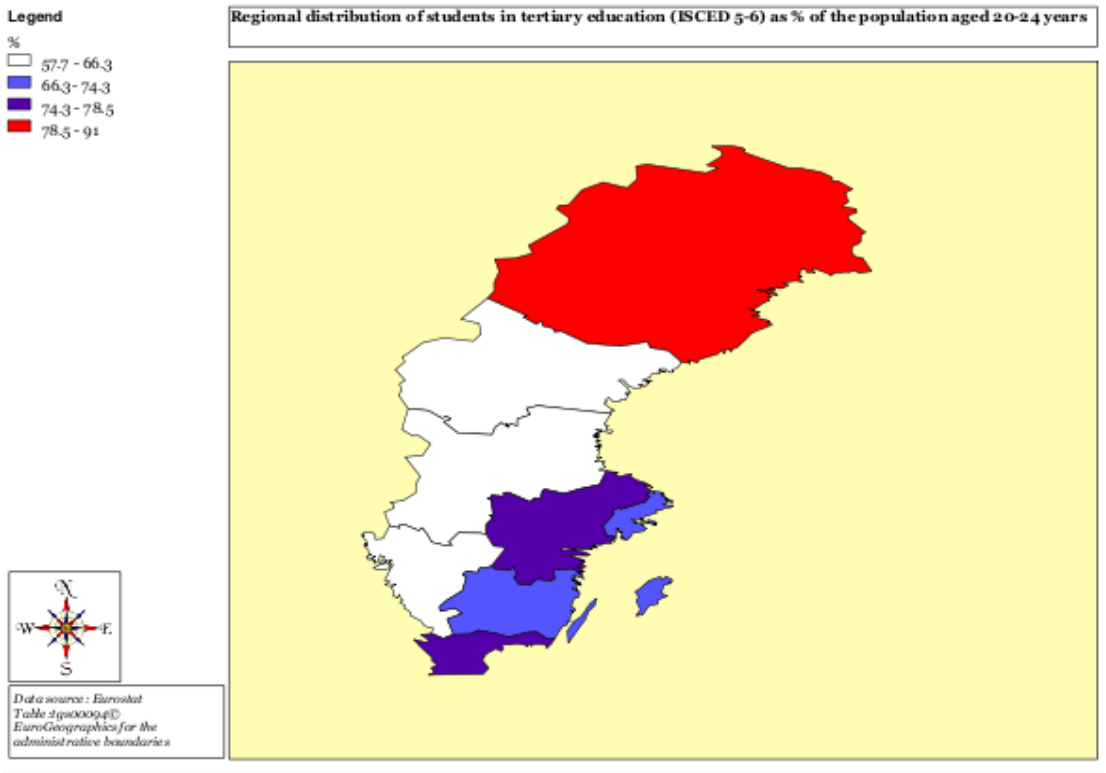


Figure 4.68: University "accessibility" by region, Sweden

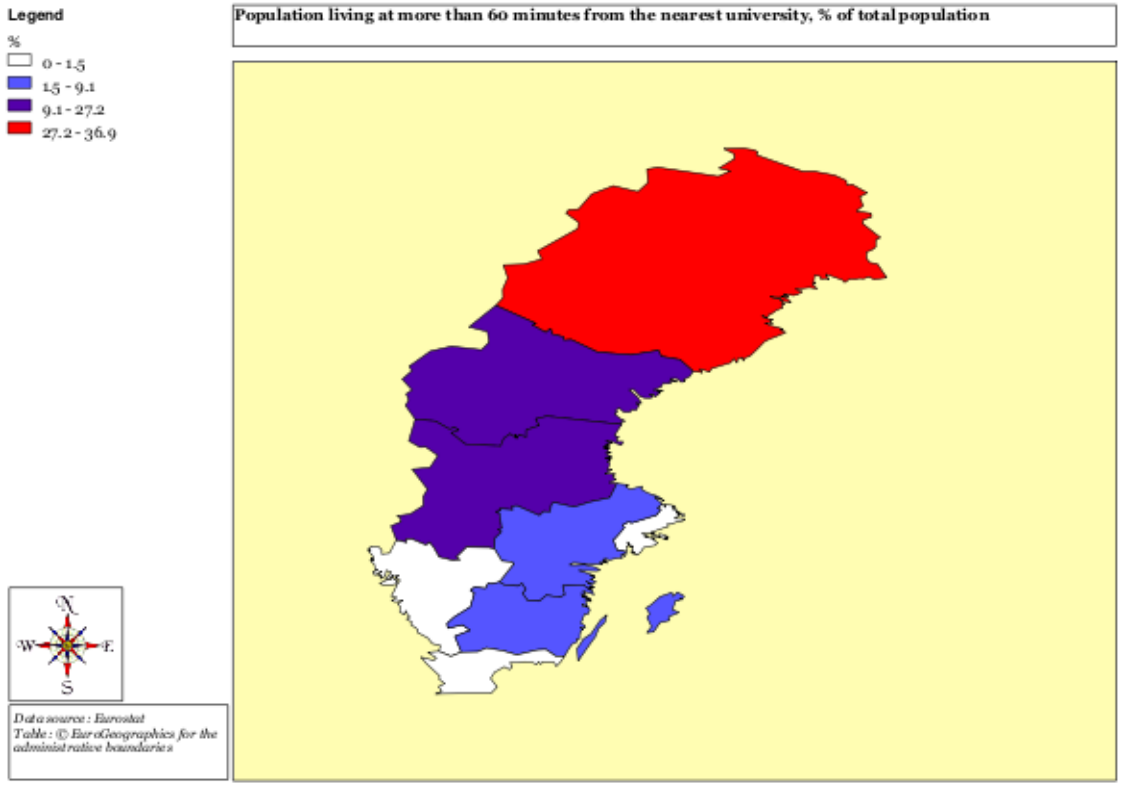


Table 4.36 shows the "outcome" and "performance" indicators in Swedish regions. It is noteworthy that all regions have relatively high rates of tertiary education graduates. The capital region of Stockholm has the highest rate, whereas the region of Norra Mellansverige has the lowest. Figure 4.68 maps the spatial distribution of this indicator across Swedish regions.

It is also worth noting that the region of Stockholm has the best RCI Education Pillars indicator (and is also ranked 10th in the EU out of 265). The region with the worst RCI Education Pillars indicator in Sweden is Mellersta Norrland (137th in the EU out of 265).

The region of Småland med öarna has the highest rate of individuals with low qualifications (at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary), whereas Stockholm has the lowest rate. Figure 4.70 (next page) shows the spatial distribution of this indicator across all regions.

Table 4.36: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Swedish regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Stockholm	SE11	**14.4**	**38.3**	**20.8**	**41.6**	**34.5**	**10**
Östra Mellansverige	SE12	20.2	43.1	27.7	**45.9**	24.1	27
Småland med öarna	SE21	**23.6**	**46.5**	**31.3**	45.7	20.7	79
Sydsverige	SE22	20.1	40.8	26.9	42.5	27.6	11
Västsverige	SE23	21.3	43.4	27.5	44.2	25.3	21
Norra Mellansverige	SE31	21	46.1	29.6	47.6	**20.2**	121
Mellersta Norrland	SE32	19.4	44.7	27.1	47.1	23.1	**137**
Övre Norrland	SE33	16.4	46.5	25.2	49.6	23.1	76
	Range:	***9.2***	***8.2***	***10.4***	***8.1***	***14.3***	***127***

Figure 4.69: Tertiary education graduates, Swedish regions (as % of the population 15+ in a region)

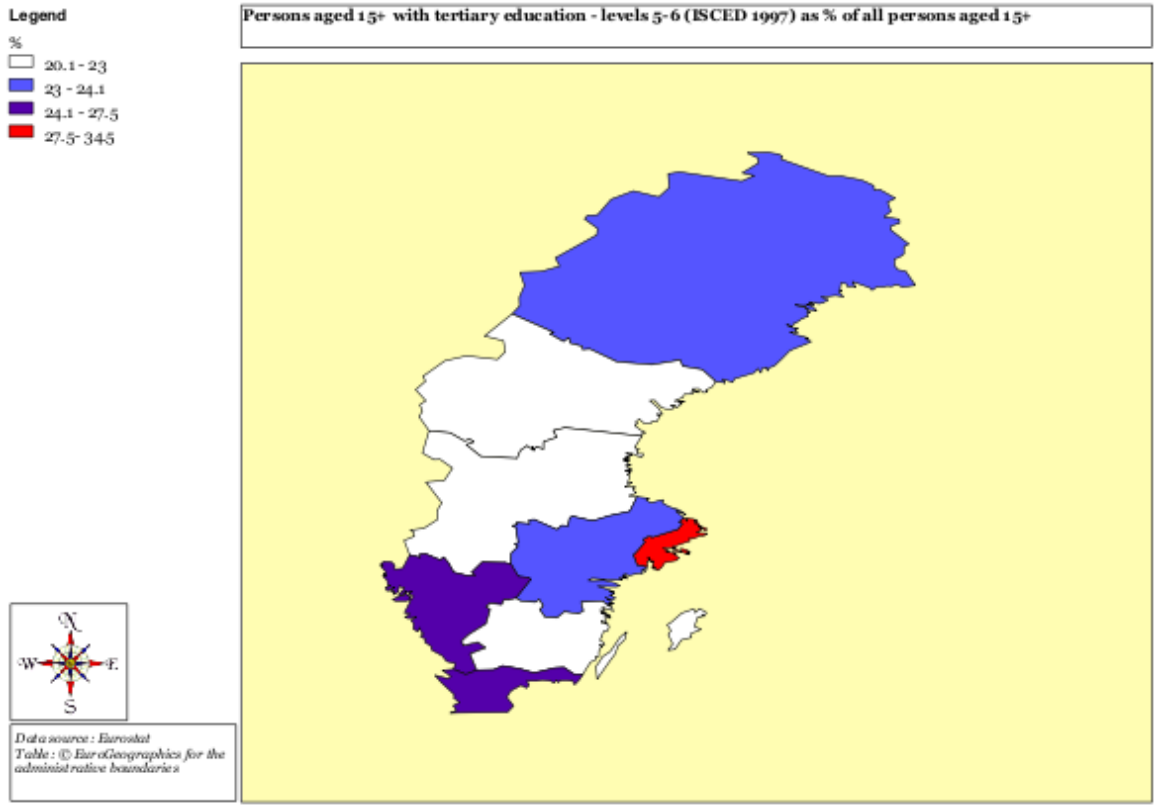
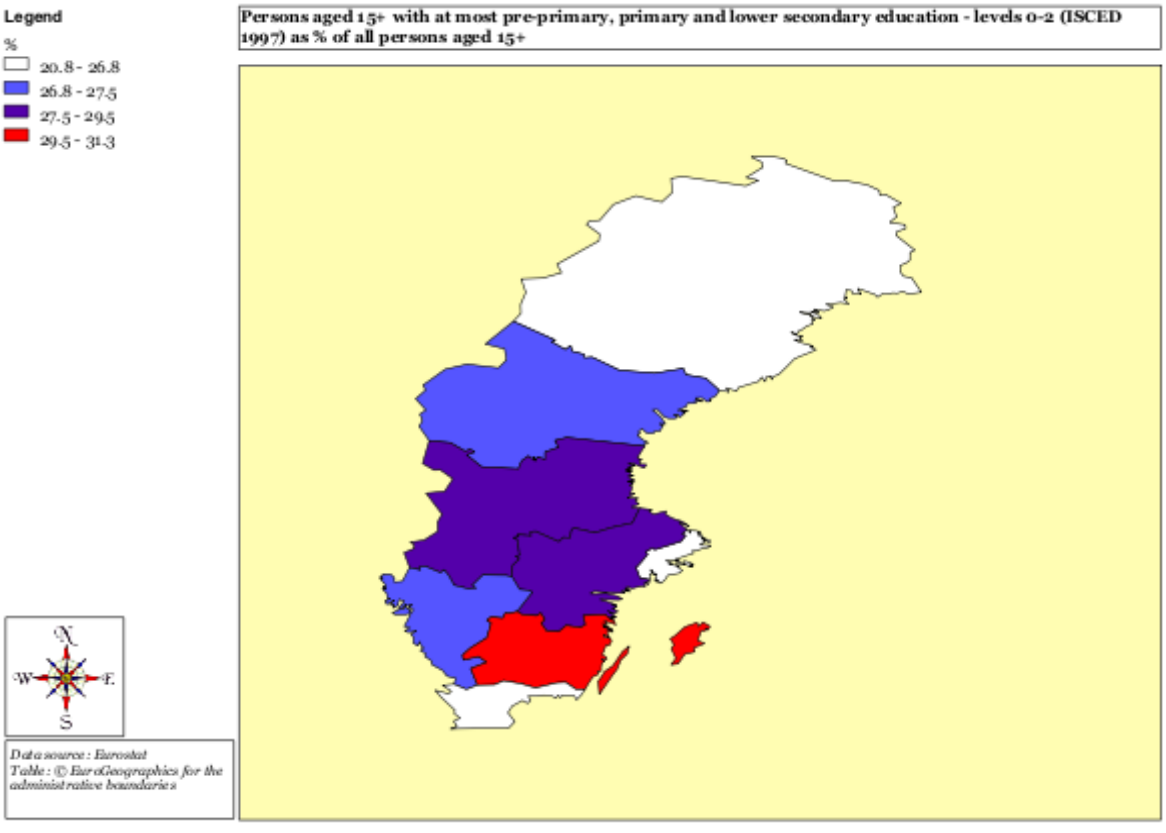


Figure 4.70: **Regional distribution of persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Sweden (% of all persons aged 15+)**



4.19. Regional inequalities in Slovenia

There are only two NUTS2 regions in Slovenia and data on the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators as well as outcome and performance indicators on both regions are shown in Table 4.37 and 4.38.

Table 4.37: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Slovenian regions

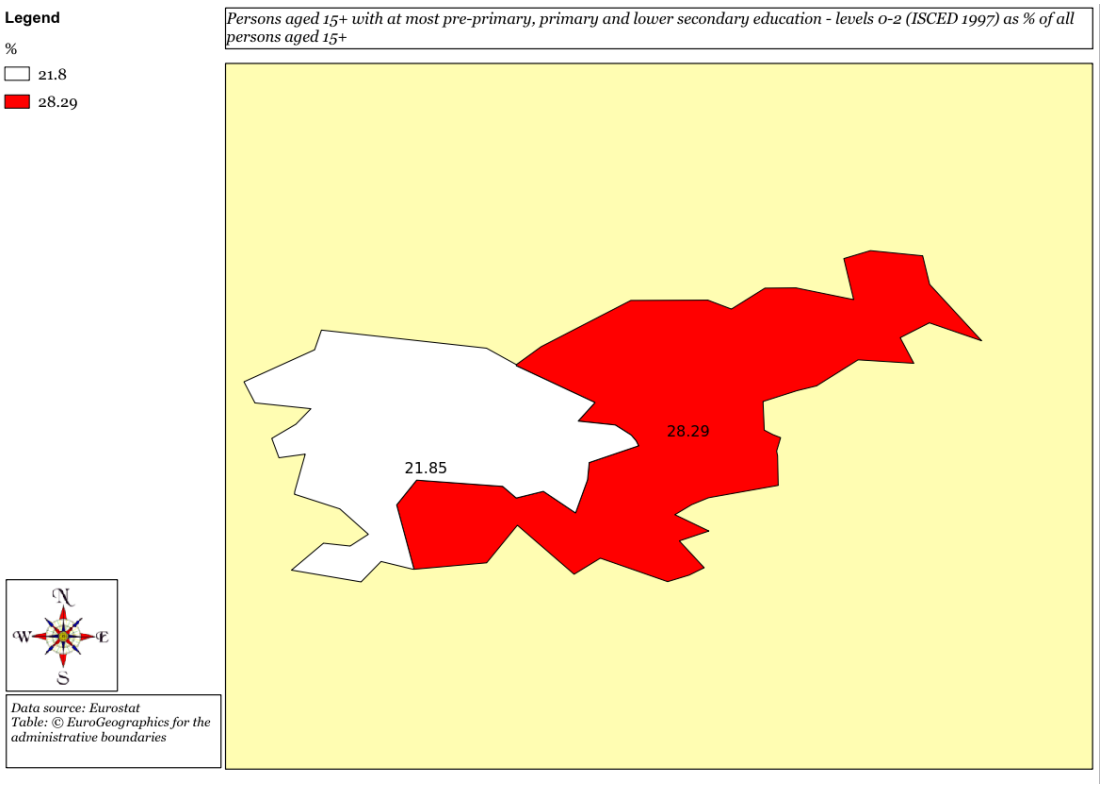
Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Vzhodna Slovenija	SI01	18.3	7.3	8.3	40.5	46.6	0.4
Zahodna Slovenija	SI02	25.2	9.0	8.2	46.1	100	1.2

Table 4.38: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Slovenian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Vzhodna Slovenija	SI01	17	55.3	28.3	56.9	14.8	7
Zahodna Slovenija	SI02	12.1	51.2	21.9	56.1	22.0	9

As can be seen the largest regional disparities are in the distribution of tertiary education students with Zahodna Slovenija (where also the capital of the country Ljubljana is located) having very large numbers of students. Also, it is noteworthy that the Zahodna Slovenija region also has a relatively lower proportion of the population with low qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary qualifications, also see Figure 4.71).

Figure 4.71. Persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (as % of all persons aged 15+ in a region), Slovenia



4.20. Regional inequalities in Slovakia

Table 4.39 shows the scores for the "target group" and "opportunity" indicators in the five NUTS2 regions of Slovakia. The capital region of Bratislavský kraj has the highest rates of "pupils and students in all levels of education" and for adult participation in lifelong learning. All 20-24 year olds in this region are tertiary education students. In contrast, Východné Slovensko in the east of the country has the lowest rate and also the worst rate for university accessibility. Figure 4.72 shows the spatial distribution of "pupils and students in all levels of education".

Table 4.39: "Target group" and "opportunity" indicators in Slovakian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Pupils and students in all levels	Lifelong learning participation	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED3-4	Students in ISCED 5-6	University accessibility
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	**29.2**	**6.2**	**7.9**	**44.5**	**100.0**	**0.0**
Západné Slovensko	SK02	**20.0**	1.3	9.1	34.7	40.9	**0.0**
Stredné Slovensko	SK03	21.9	1.8	10.2	35.7	43.6	3.8
Východné Slovensko	SK04	22.6	**1.0**	**11.4**	**33.8**	**33.7**	**12.2**
	Range:	***9.2***	***5.2***	***3.5***	***10.7***	***66.3***	***12.2***

Figure 4.72: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, Slovakia (as % of the total population in a region)

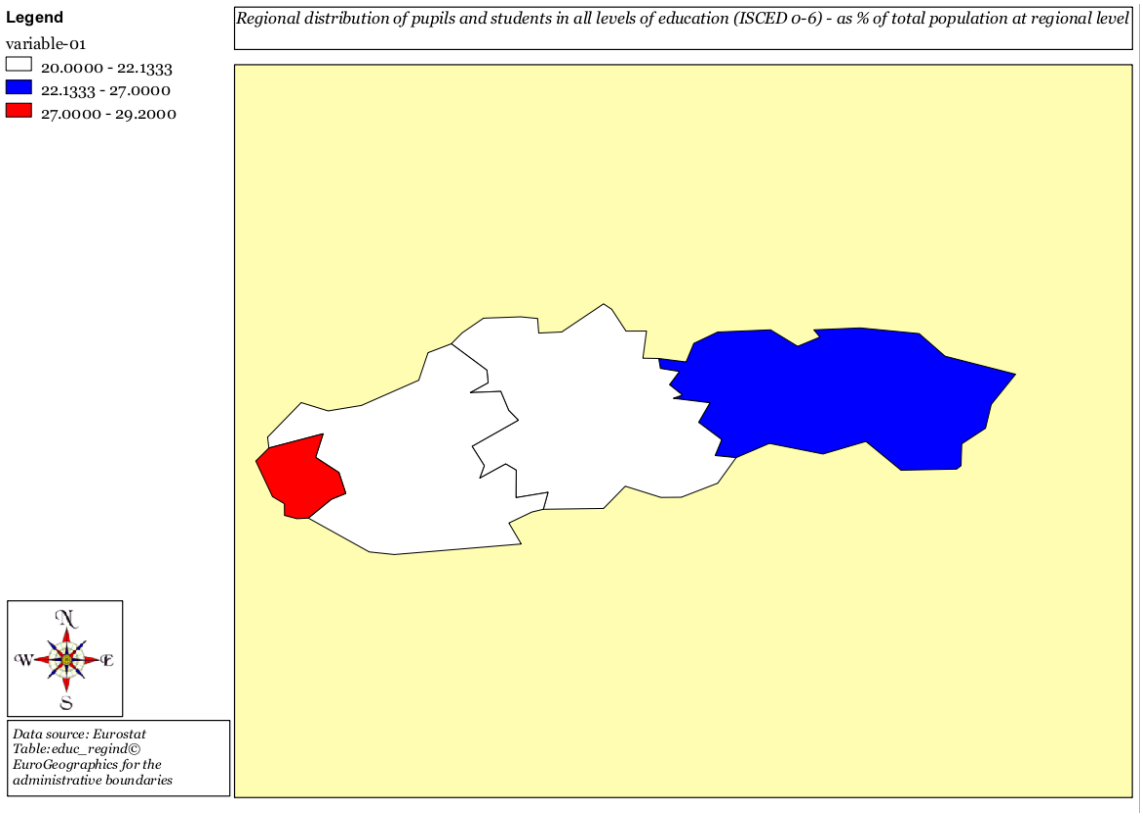


Table 4.40 presents the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. The capital region of Bratislavský kraj has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates (also see Figure 4.73) and the lowest rate of individuals with low qualifications (at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary). It is also ranked top in terms of the RCI Education Pillars indicator (and 15th in the EU out of 265). In contrast, the region of Východné Slovensko in the east has the lowest rate of tertiary education graduates and the highest rate of individuals with low formal qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment, also see Figure 4.74). It is also ranked bottom in terms of the RCI Education Pillars (and 211th in the EU out of 265).

Table 4.40: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators in Slovakian regions

Region	NUTS CODE	25-64 with lower secondary	25-64 with upper secondary	15+ with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary	15+ with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary	15+ with tertiary education	RCI Education Pillars rank (out of 265)
Bratislavský kraj	SK01	**4.3**	**59.3**	**14.1**	**58.7**	**27.2**	**15**
Západné Slovensko	SK02	6.5	75.0	21.5	**68.3**	10.2	75
Stredné Slovensko	SK03	**7.7**	70.7	22.3	65.4	12.2	152
Východné Slovensko	SK04	7.3	**75.3**	**22.6**	67.3	**10.1**	**211**
	Range:	**3.4**	**16.0**	**8.5**	**9.6**	**17.1**	**196**

Figure 4.73: Tertiary education graduates, Slovakia (as % of all aged 15+ in a region)

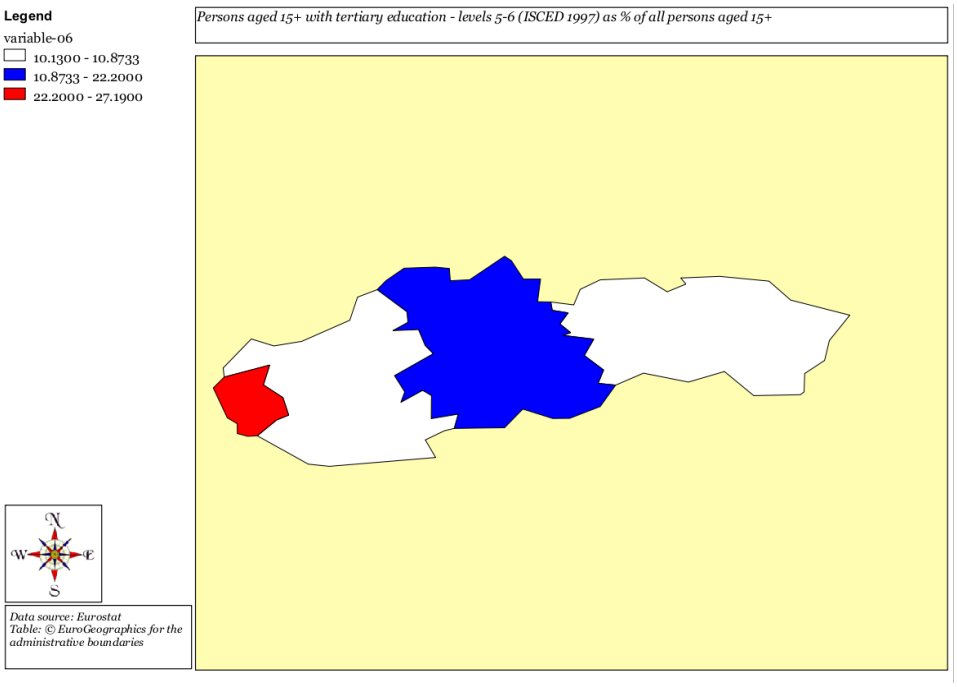
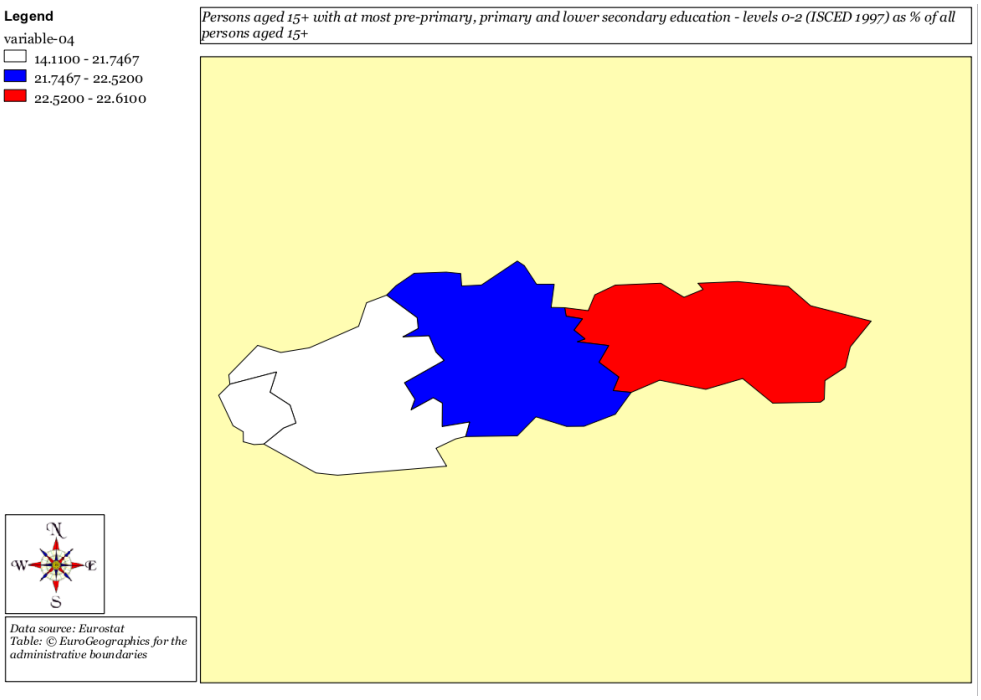


Figure 4.74: With at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, Slovakia (as % of all aged 15+ in a region)



4.21. Regional inequalities in the United Kingdom

Table 4.41 gives information on the "target group" indicators for the NUTS1 regions of the United Kingdom. Northern Ireland has the highest rate of "pupils and students in all levels of education as a percentage of the total population" (25.3%), whereas South West England has the lowest rate (20.16%). Figure 4.75 shows the spatial distribution of this variable across all UK NUTS1 regions. It is also interesting to note that London has the highest rate of 20-24 year olds in tertiary education (57.76%), whereas Yorkshire and the Humber the lowest (37.58%).

Table 4.41: "Target group" indicators, UK NUTS1 regions

Region name	Region code	Pupils and students (%) in all levels of education (ISCED 0-6) *	Pupils (%) and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education**	Students (%) in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years
North East (England)	UKC	22.01	42.51	45.01
North West (England)	UKD	22.54	44.48	48.16
Yorkshire and The Humber	UKE	21.50	**40.44**	**37.58**
East Midlands (England)	UKF	21.06	41.81	42.38
West Midlands (England)	UKG	22.70	**46.64**	45.65
Eastern	UKH	**20.91**	44.46	48.83
London	UKI	23.22	46.06	**57.76**
South East	UKJ	21.17	44.71	53.35
South West (England)	UKK	20.16	44.10	49.40
Wales	UKL	22.83	44.93	53.75
Scotland	UKM	20.22	No data	No data
Northern Ireland	UKN	**25.30**	No data	No data
Range:		***5.14***	***6.2***	***20.18***

* as % of total population

** (ISCED 3-4) as % of the population aged 15-24 years old

Figure 4.75: Regional distribution of pupils and students in all levels of education, UK NUTS1 regions

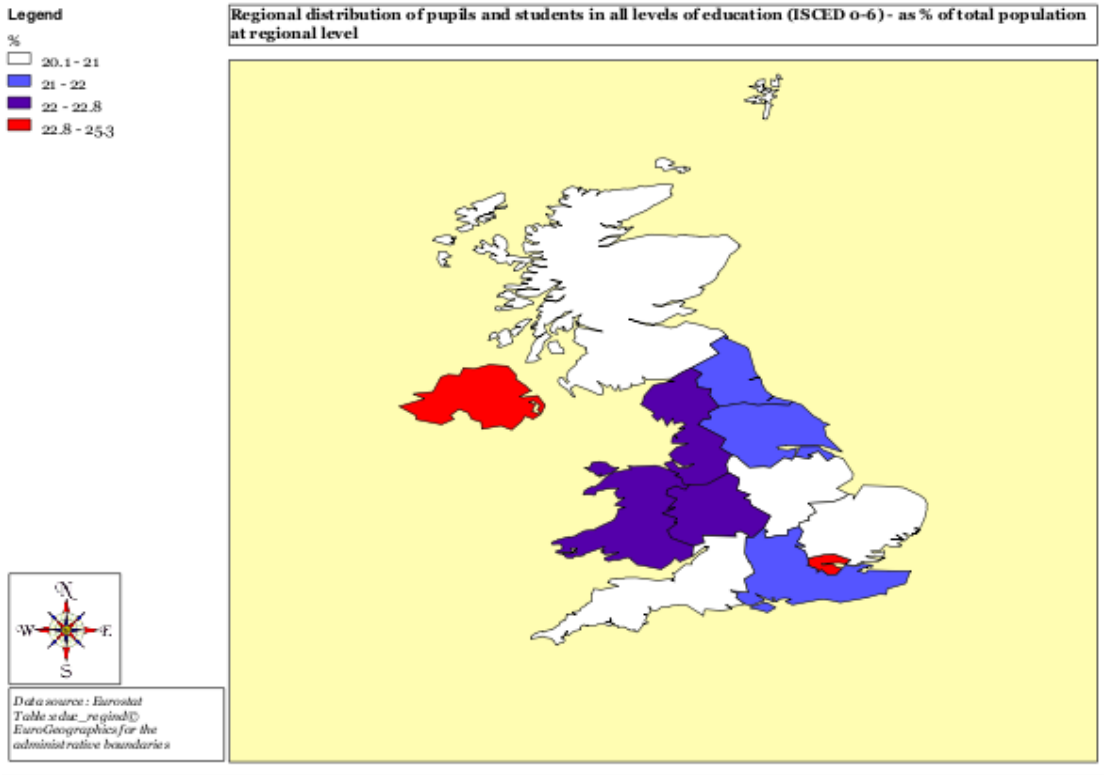


Figure 4.76: University accessibility, UK regions (% of the population in a region living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university)

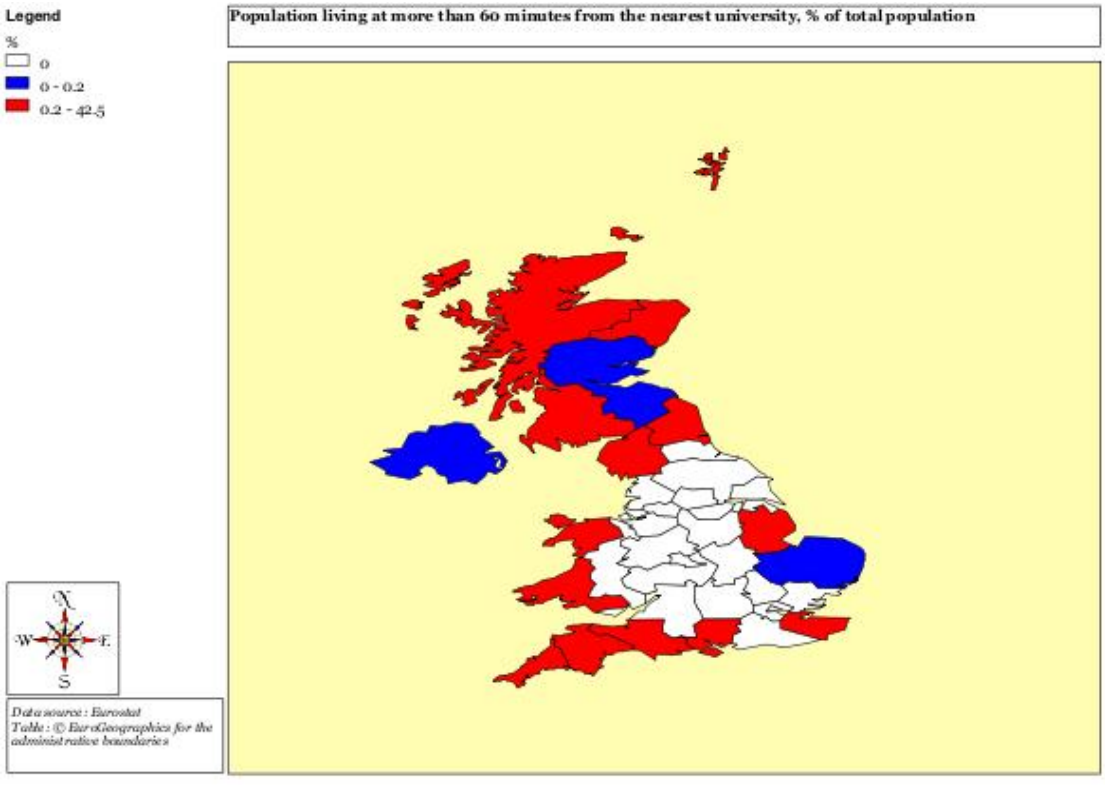


Table 4.42 provides more information on "target group" and "opportunity" indicators for the smaller NUTS2 regions. It is interesting to note that Inner London has the highest lifelong learning rate (16.1%, participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training), whereas Northern Ireland has the lowest (5.7%). It is also worth noting that most regions have very good university accessibility, except for Cumbria, Cornwall and Isles of Scilly and Highlands and Islands where more than 40% of the population live in an area located more than 60 minutes from the nearest university (also see Figure 4.76).

Table 4.42: "Target group" indicators, UK NUTS2 regions

Region	NUTS CODE	Lifelong learning - participation of adults aged 25-64 in education and training (1000s)	Population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university, (% of total population)
Tees Valley and Durham	UKC1	9.1	0
Northumb. / Tyne & Wear	UKC2	10.3	0.5
Cumbria	UKD1	8.9	**42.5**
Cheshire	UKD2	9.5	0
Greater Manchester	UKD3	9.4	0
Lancashire	UKD4	9.3	0
Merseyside	UKD5	9.6	0
E Yorkshire and N Linc.	UKE1	9.2	0
North Yorkshire	UKE2	10.4	0
South Yorkshire	UKE3	9.1	0
West Yorkshire	UKE4	8.9	0
Derbyshire & Nott.	UKF1	10.0	0
Leicestershire, Rutland and Northamptonshire	UKF2	10.8	0
Lincolnshire	UKF3	9.3	0.7
Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire	UKG1	10.7	0
Shropshire and Staffordshire	UKG2	9.2	0
West Midlands	UKG3	9.5	0
East Anglia	UKH1	10.8	0.2

Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire	UKH2	10.0	0
Essex	UKH3	10.2	0
Inner London	UKI1	**16.1**	0
Outer London	UKI2	11.4	0
Berk., Bucki. and Oxford.	UKJ1	12.2	0
Surrey, E & W Sussex	UKJ2	11.8	0
Hampshire and Isle of Wight	UKJ3	10.8	2.3
Kent	UKJ4	9.7	0.3
Glouc., Wilt. and Bristol.	UKK1	11.6	0
Dorset and Somerset	UKK2	10.9	0.4
Cornwall and Isles of Scilly	UKK3	9.6	41.2
Devon	UKK4	10.6	0.3
West Wales and The Valleys	UKL1	9.0	0.4
East Wales	UKL2	11.2	0
Eastern Scotland	UKM2	11.3	0.2
South Western Scotland	UKM3	10.0	4.2
North Eastern Scotland	UKM5	11.8	0.5
Highlands and Islands	UKM6	15.2	40.1
Northern Ireland	UKN0	**5.7**	0.1
	Range:	***10.4***	***42.5***

Table 4.43 (next page) and Table 4.44 present the scores for the "outcome" and "performance" indicators. The region of Inner London has the highest rate of tertiary education graduates in both the UK and the EU, whereas Tees Valley and Durham has the lowest in the UK (see Figure 4.77).

Inner London also has the lowest rate of individuals with low formal qualifications (with at most pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education attainment) in the UK whereas Northern Ireland has the highest (also see Figure 4.78).

It is therefore not surprising that Inner London is (jointly with Outer London) at the top of the RCI Education Pillars list in the UK (and ranked 5th in the EU). In contrast, Cumbria is at the bottom of that list (and 193rd in the EU out of 265).

Figure 4.77: Tertiary education graduates, UK regions (% of all aged 15+ in a region)

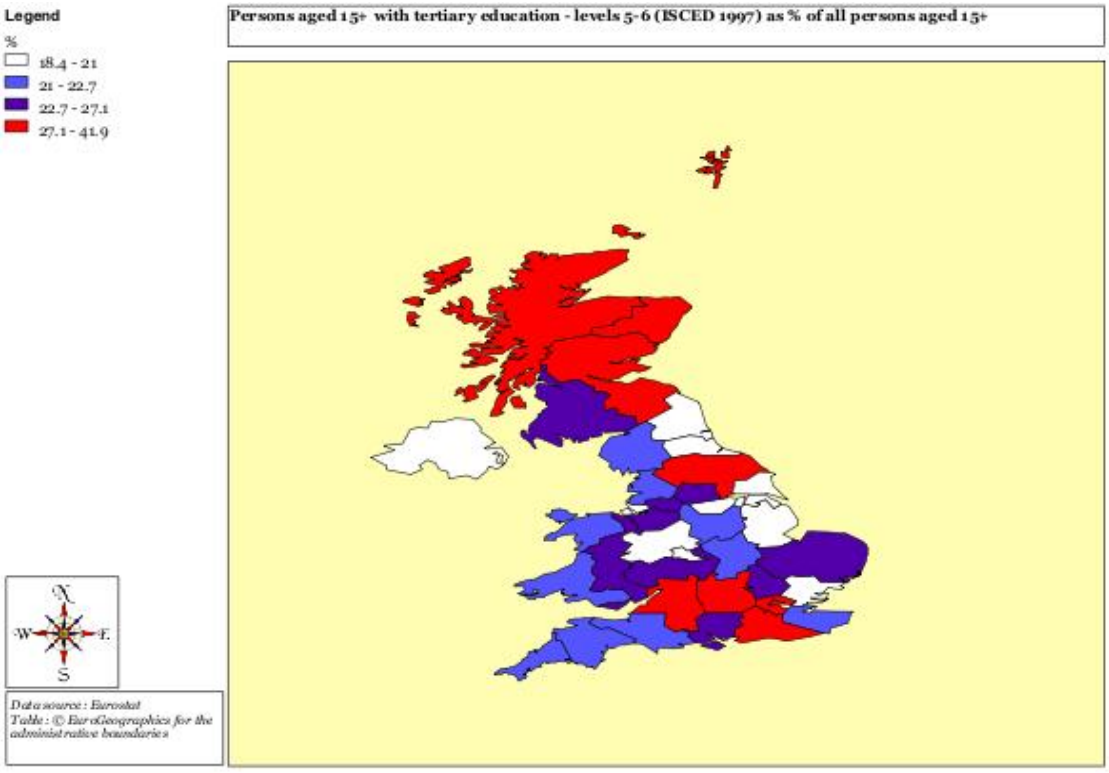


Figure 4.78: With at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, UK regions (% of all aged 15+ in a region)

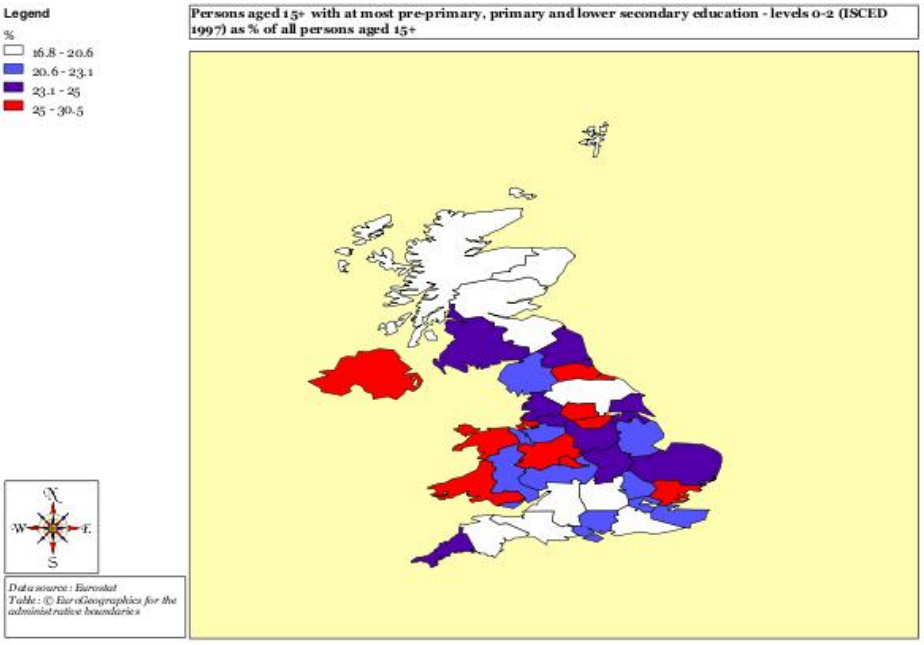


Table 4.43: "Outcome" and "performance" indicators, UK NUTS2 regions

Region	NUTS CODE	All persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment	All persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment
Tees Valley and Durham	UKC1	26.4	38.5
Northumberland and Tyne and Wear	UKC2	25.6	40.5
Cumbria	UKD1	22.7	42.2
Cheshire	UKD2	22.5	39.7
Greater Manchester	UKD3	23	37.7
Lancashire	UKD4	21.9	39.2
Merseyside	UKD5	27.2	38.6
East Yorkshire and Northern Lincolnshire	UKE1	23.9	40.7
North Yorkshire	UKE2	18.7	35.6
South Yorkshire	UKE3	25.1	39.2
West Yorkshire	UKE4	24.4	37.3
Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire	UKF1	23.8	37.6
Leicestershire, Rutland and Northamptonshire	UKF2	24.6	40.6
Lincolnshire	UKF3	21.6	42.7
Herefordshire, Worcestershire and	UKG1	22.9	40.8
Shropshire and Staffordshire	UKG2	25.2	38.5
West Midlands	UKG3	30.1	37.8
East Anglia	UKH1	22.4	38.9
Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire	UKH2	18.7	38.9
Essex	UKH3	27.5	41.6
Inner London	UKI1	15.3	30.9
Outer London	UKI2	20.4	37.5
Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire	UKJ1	15.9	36.6
Surrey, East and West Sussex	UKJ2	16.5	38.2
Hampshire and Isle of Wight	UKJ3	21	38.5
Kent	UKJ4	23	40.6
Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and Bristol/Bath	UKK1	19.5	38.6
Dorset and Somerset	UKK2	23.8	42.8
Cornwall and Isles of Scilly	UKK3	23.4	39.9
Devon	UKK4	19.9	44.1
West Wales and The Valleys	UKL1	26.4	35.6
East Wales	UKL2	23	38.1
Eastern Scotland	UKM2	18.4	35.6
South Western Scotland	UKM3	23.6	32.6
North Eastern Scotland	UKM5	15.3	34.6
Highlands and Islands	UKM6	16.9	36.8
Northern Ireland	UKN0	32.6	32.7
	RANGE:	**17.3**	**13.2**

Table 4.44:"Outcome" and "performance" indicators, UK NUTS2 regions

Region	NUTS code	With at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (%)	With at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (%)	With tertiary education (%)	RCI Education pillars rank (out of 265)
Tees Valley and Durham	UKC1	26.92	38.35	**18.42**	94
Northumberland and Tyne and Wear	UKC2	24.88	38.91	20.55	67
Cumbria	UKD1	22.42	36.65	21.60	**193**
Cheshire	UKD2	21.92	37.59	25.50	61
Greater Manchester	UKD3	24.99	37.87	22.96	46
Lancashire	UKD4	23.18	38.34	22.57	55
Merseyside	UKD5	25.56	36.83	21.03	72
East Yorkshire and Northern Lincolnshire	UKE1	24.87	39.04	20.11	122
North Yorkshire	UKE2	18.70	35.44	28.22	48
South Yorkshire	UKE3	25.34	38.72	19.55	105
West Yorkshire	UKE4	25.24	37.57	23.16	52
Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire	UKF1	24.68	37.44	21.78	58
Leicestershire, Rutland and Northamptonshire	UKF2	24.43	**39.20**	22.46	49
Lincolnshire	UKF3	23.02	39.03	18.80	141
Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warwickshire	UKG1	23.01	35.69	23.99	37
Shropshire and Staffordshire	UKG2	25.05	38.81	20.99	71
West Midlands	UKG3	29.10	35.84	19.41	50
East Anglia	UKH1	23.18	36.89	23.07	51
Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire	UKH2	21.13	38.08	26.06	39
Essex	UKH3	25.64	38.88	18.61	86
Inner London*	UKI1	**16.84**	**32.24**	**41.82**	**5***
Outer London*	UKI2	21.04	36.47	29.57	**5***
Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire	UKJ1	18.49	36.51	31.30	22
Surrey, East and West Sussex	UKJ2	17.82	36.21	28.81	12
Hampshire and Isle of Wight	UKJ3	21.80	37.88	23.57	47
Kent	UKJ4	22.93	38.69	21.10	69
Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and Bristol/Bath area	UKK1	20.29	37.26	27.31	25
Dorset and Somerset	UKK2	20.48	37.28	21.71	62
Cornwall and Isles of Scilly	UKK3	23.99	38.08	21.34	173
Devon	UKK4	19.01	38.97	22.06	45
West Wales and The Valleys	UKL1	25.48	35.64	21.24	83
East Wales	UKL2	21.87	35.94	26.53	41
Eastern Scotland	UKM2	19.09	36.92	28.90	4
South Western Scotland	UKM3	23.96	35.85	25.22	29
North Eastern Scotland	UKM5	17.98	37.99	30.18	3
Highlands and Islands	UKM6	17.59	36.51	28.25	53
Northern Ireland	UKN0	**30.55**	34.17	20.82	80
	RANGE:	**13.70**	**6.95**	**23.39**	**190**

* Merged into one region for the purposes of the RCI project; see Annoni and Kozovska (2010) for more details

4.22. Summary – How EU Member States compare in terms of regional inequalities in education

Tables 4.45 and 4.46 present the *ranges* of the "existing level of educational activity and inequality within the region", and "potential climate for educational development within the region" for all EU member states that have more than one region. The **range** is a useful measure of spread that is easy to determine and understand. It provides one indication of the scale of inter-regional differences in educational inequality and opportunity in the EU. However, it is based on only two observations (the maximum and minimum) and it may be sensitive to the sample size (the higher the number of observations the more likely it may be for the range to be larger). Therefore, caution is needed when comparing member states with considerable differences in the number of regions (and in the magnitude of the variable itself). Nevertheless, it is still a useful measure of spread that can be used to gain an insight into the degree of regional inequalities for each member state.

For instance, as can be seen in Table 4.46, Romania has the highest regional disparity with regard to the value of "all pupils and students" (as a percentage of the total population), closely followed by the Czech Republic, Belgium and Spain. On the other hand, the Republic of Ireland has the smallest value (but note that it only has two regions). Denmark, Sweden, Bulgaria and Poland also seem to show relative regional homogeneity, with relatively small differences between the regional maximum and minimum value for all pupils and students.

Looking at the "lifelong learning" indicator, it is interesting to note that the United Kingdom has by far the biggest regional disparity, with the difference between the region with the highest value (Inner London, 16.1%) and the region with the lowest value (Northern Ireland, 5.7%) at 10.4%. Slovakia and Denmark also have relatively large regional disparities with regards to this variable.

The United Kingdom also has the largest range for the indicator "pupils in ISCED 1-2" (13.2%). Also, Belgium has the highest difference between the top and bottom region in terms of the rate of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 3-4) as a percentage of the population aged 15-24 years old.

It is also interesting to observe the very high range of values for the indicator "students (%) in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) as % of the population aged 20-24 years" in some EU member states. In particular, Belgium has the widest gap between numbers of students in a region, closely followed by the Czech Republic and Austria. In addition, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy and Romania all have range values of over 80%. However, it is important to note that in most of these cases this is the result of the dominance of the capital region in terms of tertiary education opportunities. This is also reflected to a certain extent in the university accessibility range values. It is noteworthy that Spain has the highest range in relation to this value, very closely followed by Greece.

Tables 4.45 and 4.46 (page next and after next) present the ranges of the two sets of indicators (differences between maximum and minimum regional values) for all EU member states that have more than one region. It is noteworthy that **eight EU member states have regional difference of more than 15% between the top and bottom regions with tertiary education graduates**. In particular, the country with the biggest gap is the United Kingdom (23.4%), followed by France (21.3%), Belgium (19.4%), the Czech Republic (18.7%), Spain (17.5%), Slovakia (17%) and Romania (15.4%). On the other hand Ireland, Italy, Slovenia, Portugal, Finland and Austria have relatively smaller ranges for this variable (all below 10%).

Table 4.45: The gap between the top and bottom region in each Member State in terms of "Potential climate for educational development within the region" indicators (EU Member States with more than one region)

Country	Pupils and students in all levels of education	Adult participation in lifelong learning	Pupils in ISCED 1-2	Pupils and students in ISCED 3-4	Students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6)	University accessibility
AT	8.3	3.4	2.2	9.0	92.7	18.0
BE	12.7	3.6	5.2	**36.4**	**97.3**	0.0
BG	5.0	1.3	1.2	3.6	70.2	83.0
CZ	14.0	4.5	2.1	31.0	94.4	4.0
DE	5.7	2.9	no data	11.0	42.1	1.1
DK	2.7	5.0	2.1	9.2	48.9	25.5
ES	11.3	3.3	8.6	10.9	51.7	**99.7**
FI	7.2	3.6	1.6	15.7	66.7	87.3
FR	8.4	4.3	2.8	5.1	41.2	54.9
GR	9.2	1.7	2.9	4.3	83.9	98.8
HU	3.5	1.4	1.9	5.1	67.1	6.2
IE	0.1	1.1	1.1	5.1	14.9	0.5
IT	8.4	2.2	3.4	16.8	89.3	73.8
NL	5.3	2.3	3.7	13.4	50.1	1.7
PL	4.9	2.7	2.0	4.6	64.4	39.9
PT	1.9	0.7	1.6	6.2	51.8	14.1
RO	**16.2**	0.3	3.4	5.7	80.3	46.1
SE	2.8	3.8	1.2	6.1	33.3	36.9
SI	6.9	1.7	0.0	5.6	53.4	0.8
SK	9.2	5.2	3.5	10.7	66.3	12.2
UK	5.1	**10.4**	**13.2**	6.2	20.2	42.5

Looking at the outcome indicator "at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary qualifications" (rates of people with low qualifications), it is interesting to note that France has the highest disparity between the regions with the top and bottom value (range of 27.1%), followed by Greece, Spain, Romania and Germany. In contrast, the countries with the lowest disparities for this variable are Slovenia, Ireland, Slovakia, Austria and Finland.

It is also interesting to discuss the regional disparities by member state in relation to the "RCI Education Pillars" indicator. The last column of Table 4.46 (next page) gives the differences between the rank of the top and bottom region in each member state. The biggest difference is observed in France, where the capital region of Île de France is ranked top (and 24th in the EU out of 265), 231 places above Corse which is ranked bottom (and 255th in the EU out of 265). Similarly, Spain has a very high range: the capital region of Comunidad de Madrid is ranked 44th in the EU, 228 places above Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta. Also, in Finland, the capital region of Etelä-Suomi is ranked 1st in the EU, 199 places above Åland islands (but the difference with the other Finnish regions is relatively small). In Greece, the capital region of Attiki is ranked 60th in the EU, 198 places above the region of Ionia Nisia which is ranked bottom (and 258th in the EU out of 265). In Slovakia, the capital region of Bratislavský kraj is ranked 15th in the EU, 196 places above the region of Východné Slovensko which is ranked bottom.

Table 4.46: The gap between the top and bottom region in each Member State (EU Member States with more than one region)

Country	Lower secondary 25-64	Upper secondary 25-64	At most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary 15+	At most upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary 15+	Tertiary education 15+	RCI Education Pillars Rank (0-265)
AT	9.7	15.8	9.8	7.1	9.8	181
BE	16.1	13.8	15.6	10.6	19.4	129
BG	15.4	15.3	17.6	7.0	14.3	170
CZ	8.7	11.7	13.1	8.9	18.7	182
DE	16.5	20.9	18.8	13.7	14.6	149
DK	7.3	5.6	10.9	2.1	11.8	26
ES	29.1	**33.2**	23.2	10.5	17.6	228
FI	12.0	8.0	9.8	5.1	9.5	199
FR	**29.7**	16.2	**27.2**	**15.5**	21.3	**231**
GR	27.5	19.0	27.1	15.3	13.3	198
HU	10.4	6.4	12.2	4.7	11.1	127
IE	9.7	1.9	6.6	1.3	5.5	65
IT	23.3	19.7	17.8	13.2	6.5	157
NL	10.0	11.2	11.4	7.6	14.8	123
PL	13.0	12.5	12.3	12.3	10.7	185
PT	18.1	9.1	13.9	6.2	8.3	101
RO	15.4	8.4	20.9	6.8	15.4	173
SE	9.2	8.2	10.4	8.1	14.3	127
SI	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.3	2
SK	3.4	16.0	8.5	9.6	17.1	196
UK	17.3	13.2	13.7	7.0	**23.4**	190

Chapter 5. Mapping "local" educational inequalities, opportunities and outcomes

So far in this report, we have had to rely on EU wide data, the great majority of which is, as we explained in the Introduction, available only at NUTS 2 level. Nevertheless, it should be noted that there is a wealth of data at smaller area levels collected across the EU which unfortunately are not made readily available in the public domain via EUROSTAT. In some cases it is possible to obtain these data from Local Authorities and other regional and sub-regional agencies, but **there is a need for a review of such potential data sources and for better co-ordination both in terms of documenting what is available and highlighting best practices as well as in terms of dissemination of the data**. For instance, the Pupil Level Annual School Census (PLASC) in the UK, collecting a wide range of data on schools, pupils and teaching staff, is a good example that could be followed at EU level. In this chapter we discuss in more detail two case studies that utilised sub-regional data in the UK and Greece respectively. In particular, the first study used small area data to examine social and spatial inequalities in educational attainment in the city of Sheffield in the UK. The second study was based on a wealth of sub-regional, NUTS3 level data collected and analysed by researchers in Greece to classify Greek prefectures on the basis of secondary education outcomes.

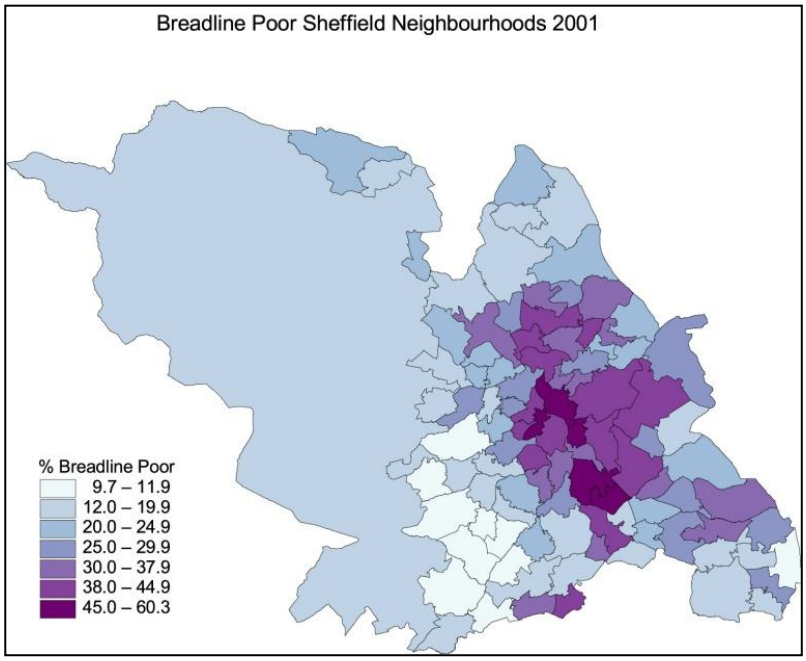


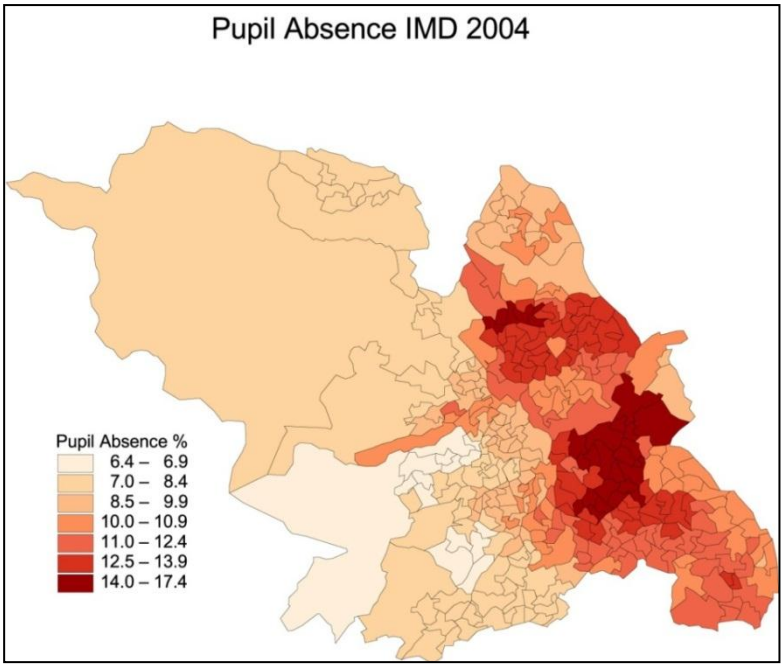
Figure 6.1: Breadline poverty in Sheffield Neighbourhoods in 2001 (after Thomas et al., 2009).

The Sheffield example

A study of social and spatial inequalities in the UK city of Sheffield by Thomas et al. (2009) is a very good example of work that illustrates in much greater detail the links between the geography of poverty and deprivation and poor educational attainment and life chances. Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2, taken from this study, show the spatial distribution (at neighbourhood level), of estimates of poverty ("breadline poor" households[339]) and pupil absence[340]. As can be seen the geographical pattern in both figures is very similar.

[339] For more details on the definition of 'breadline poor' and the estimation method see Dorling et al., 2007.
[340] For more details on this index see Noble et al., 2004.

Figure 6.2: Pupil absence 2007 (after Thomas et al., 2009)



In addition, Figure 6.3 and Figure 6.4 depict the geographical distribution of a number of variables pertaining to educational attainment and life chances. In particular, Figure 6.3 shows the geographical pattern of young persons who in 2005 (i e, some time before recession hit Britain) were in full-time education after 16. As can be seen the lowest rates are in neighbourhoods located mostly on the east of the city, which as seen in Figure 6.1 are also areas with the highest concentration of "breadline poor" households. Figure 6.4 can be seen as the mirror image of Figure 6.3, showing the spatial distribution of post-16 year olds in employment without training. As can be seen, the highest rates are in the east of the city and the lowest in the west and north-west.

Figure 6.3. Post 16 Activity –Full Time Education, 2005 (after Thomas et al.,2009)

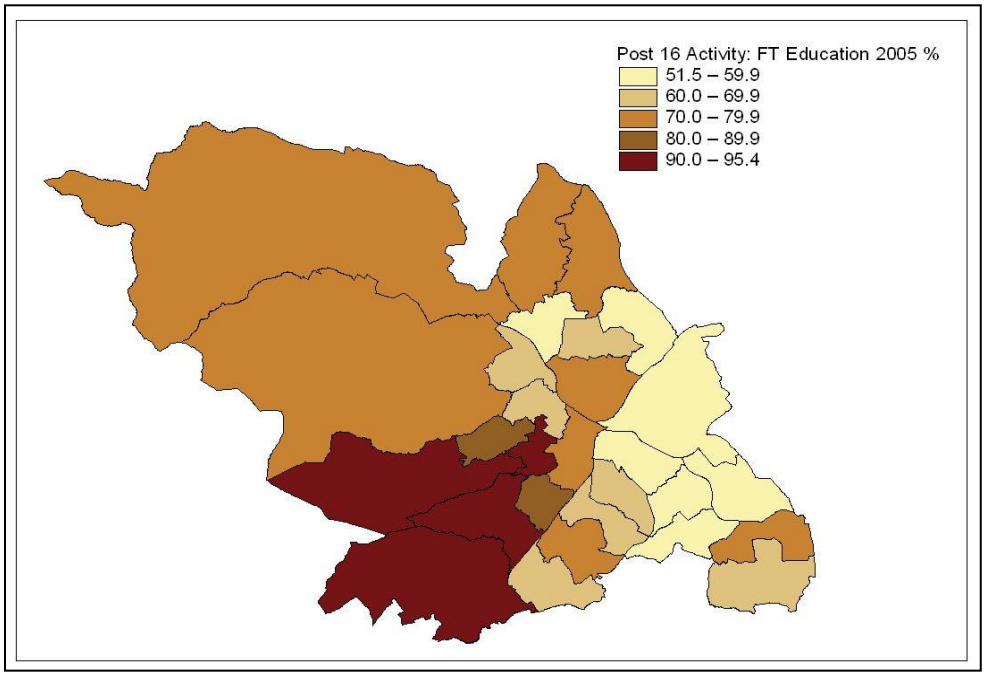
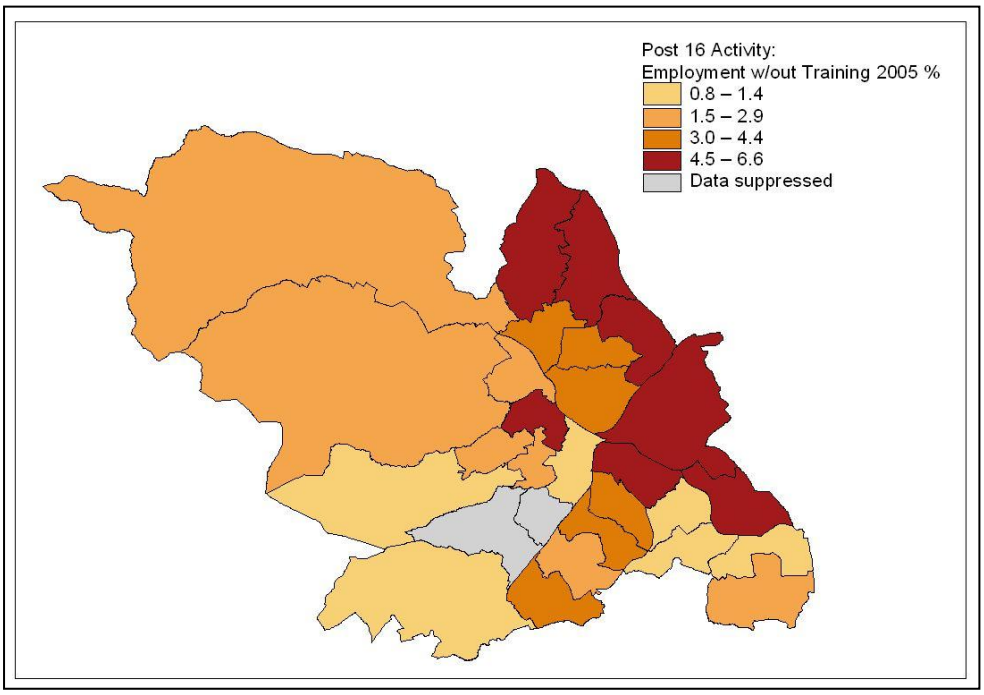


Figure 6.4: Post 16 Activity - Employment without training, 2005 (after Thomas et al., 2009).



Figures 6.5 and 6.6 (next page) show the spatial distribution of the activities related to education that have greatest significance for the next stage in a person's life and their possibilities educational of attainment: what are 18-21 year olds likely to be doing? On average the more affluent areas in south-west have generally higher rates of 18-21 year olds likely to be attending university. In contrast, in the south-east of the city further education and apprenticeship are the most likely activities, whereas in the north-east quadrant of the area the most common destination is unemployment (Thomas et al., 2009).

Figure 6.5: What are 18–21 year olds are most likely to be doing (2005) (after Thomas et al., 2009).

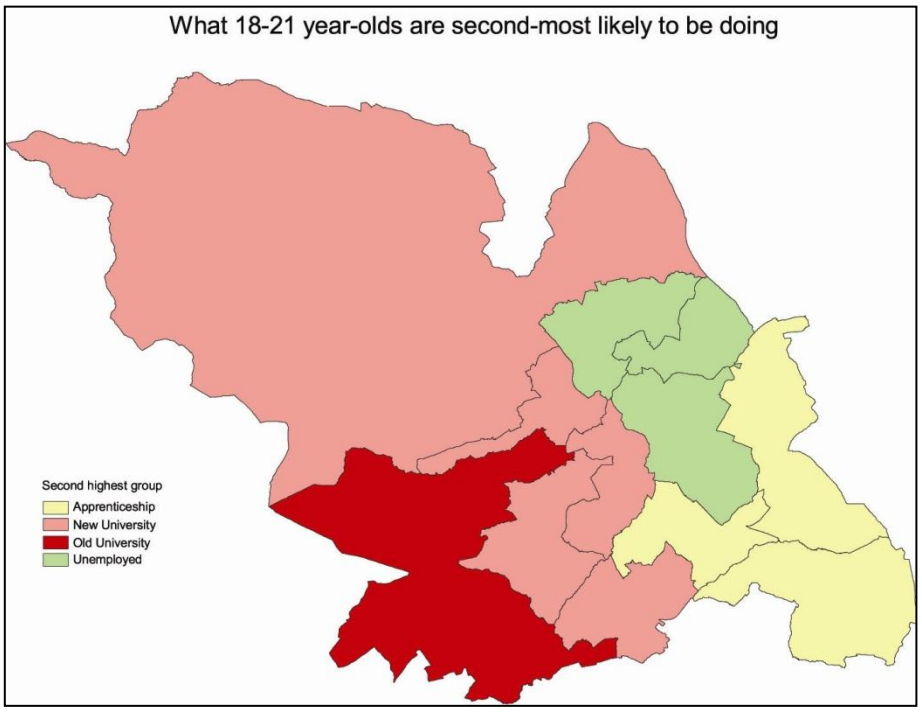
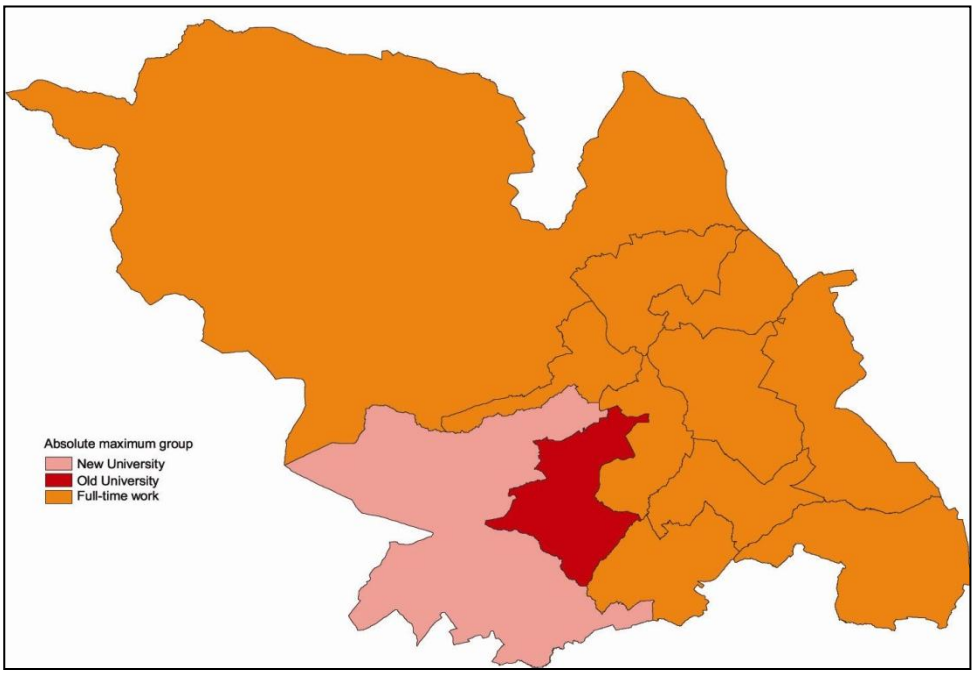
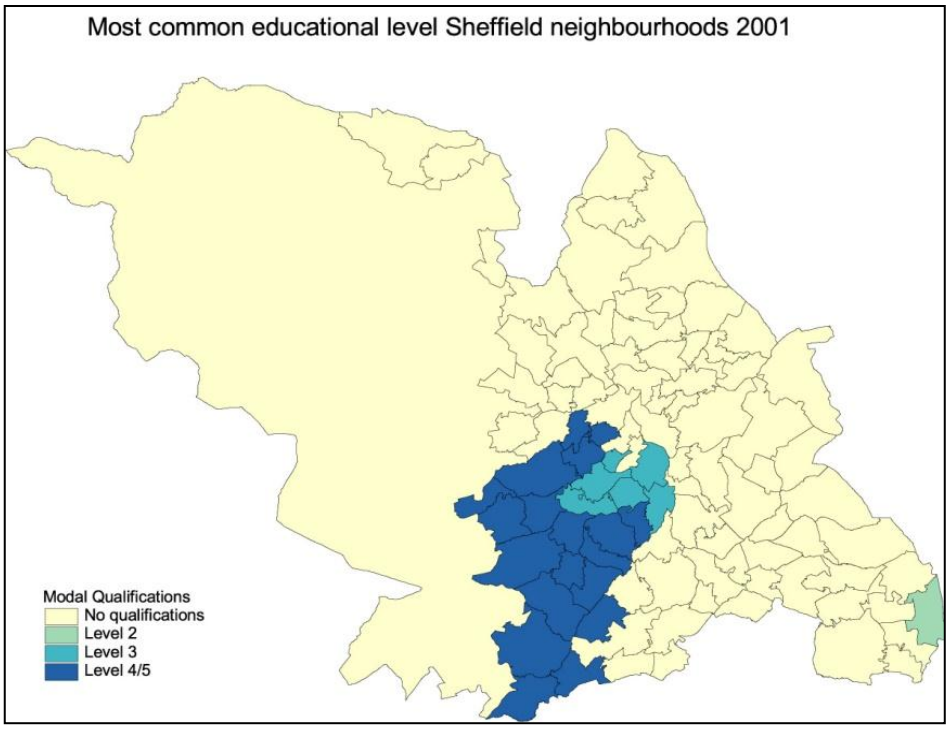


Figure 6.6: What 18–21 year olds are second most likely to be doing (after Thomas et al., 2009).



Finally, Figure 6.7 shows the spatial distribution of higher educational attainment in the city according to 2001 census data. Again, the spatial division of education is very clear. In the majority of neighbourhoods the largest groups of residents by school outcome were those who did not possess a single education qualification. The second largest groups were those where the majority had a university degree or higher qualification.

Figure 6.7: Most common educational level, 2001 (after Thomas et al., 2009).



The above figures show **a clear pattern of social and spatial division matched by patterns of inequality in educational attainment and life chances** which can be seen as the geographical manifestation of deeper social and spatial inequalities and divisions in relation to a wider range of indicators, including employment and income, crime, quality of housing and health and life expectancy. Thomas et al. (2009) provide more visualisations and maps as well as a detailed discussion of how localised forms of inequality with regards to these indicators play out and inter-relate, resulting effectively into a "tale of two cities" within Sheffield (which is also the title of the study).

The KANEP/GSEE example

Another example of work exploring the geographic dimension of educational inequalities is the work of the Centre for Education Policy Development of the General Confederation of Greek Workers (KANEP/GSEE, 2008, 2009 and 2011) on educational disparities in Greece. Monitoring the evolution of a large number of input and outcome indicators[341] at three administrative levels (national, regional and local –counties and prefectures equivalent to NUTS 3), this work reveals that there are big disparities between different parts of the country.

A comparison of education figures with other socioeconomic indicators ('prosperity and development', risk of poverty, educational attainment level, and degree of urbanisation) for each county is also revealing.

In addition, the use of the "Total Educational Indicator" composite indicator reveals geographic inequalities, shows the strengths and weaknesses of each prefecture and helps identify disadvantaged areas where priority intervention is necessary.

This work shows that the state of educational provision and the educational outcomes in each area (prefecture) are directly associated with the socio-economic conditions of the area. Schools in rural and remote areas with low growth indicators lag behind when compared to schools of cities and areas with better quality infrastructure and human resources. Areas with low levels of economic growth and high numbers of population at risk of poverty tend to have lower educational outcomes, including higher numbers of pupils with considerably lower academic performance, higher numbers of early school leavers and poor participation in tertiary education.

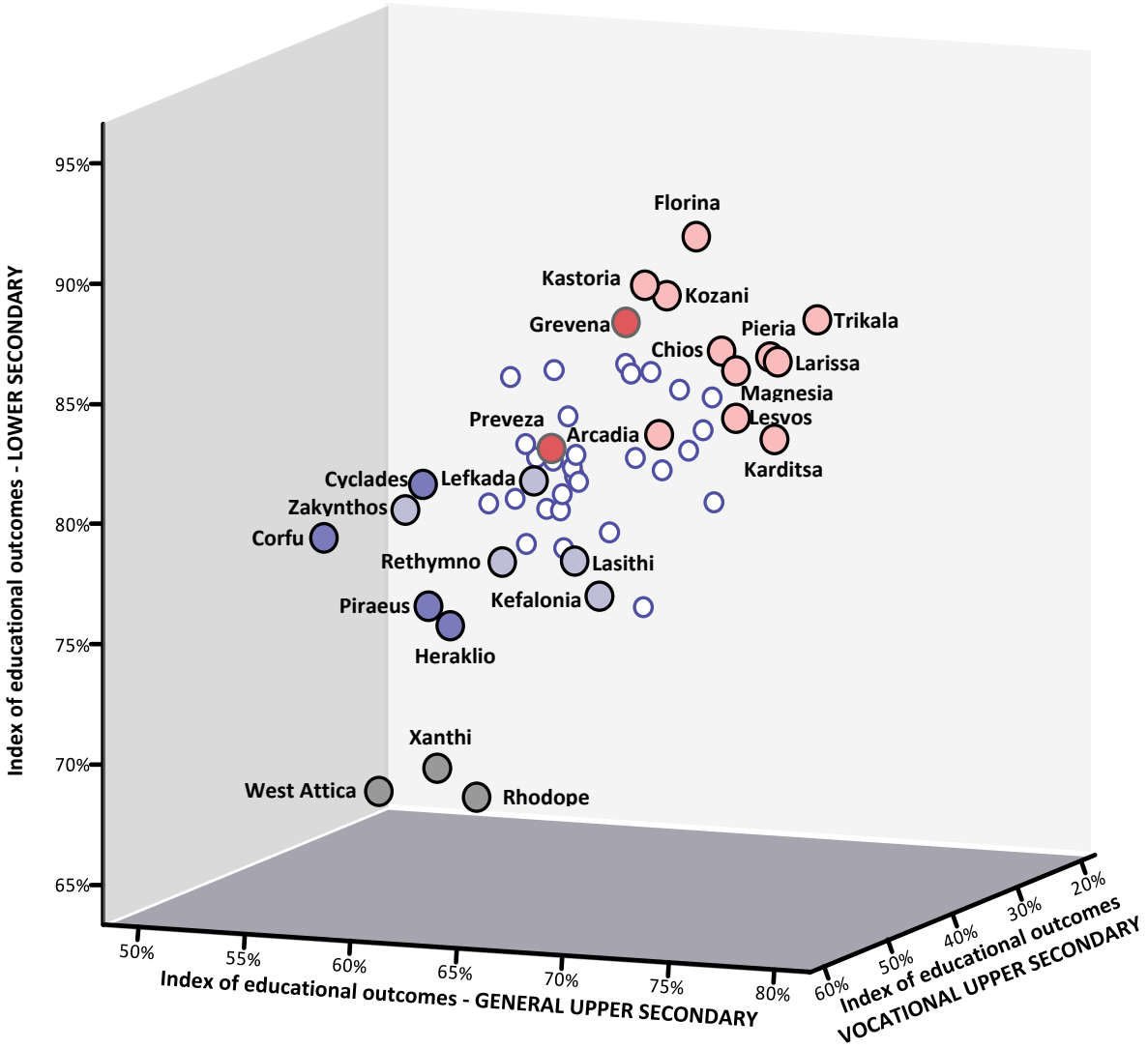
Figure 6.8 and Figure 6.9 (next page) illustrate the geographical distribution of disparities in secondary education outcomes and attainment across the 54 Greek prefectures.

Figure 6.10 (next page) shows disparities in the number of school VET pupils who drop out before the end of the school year across the 54 Greek municipalities.

[341] "Input" variables in this context include indicators related to the quality and adequacy of education infrastructures, characteristics of the student population, the adequacy of human resources such as teachers and teaching assistants and funding for education;

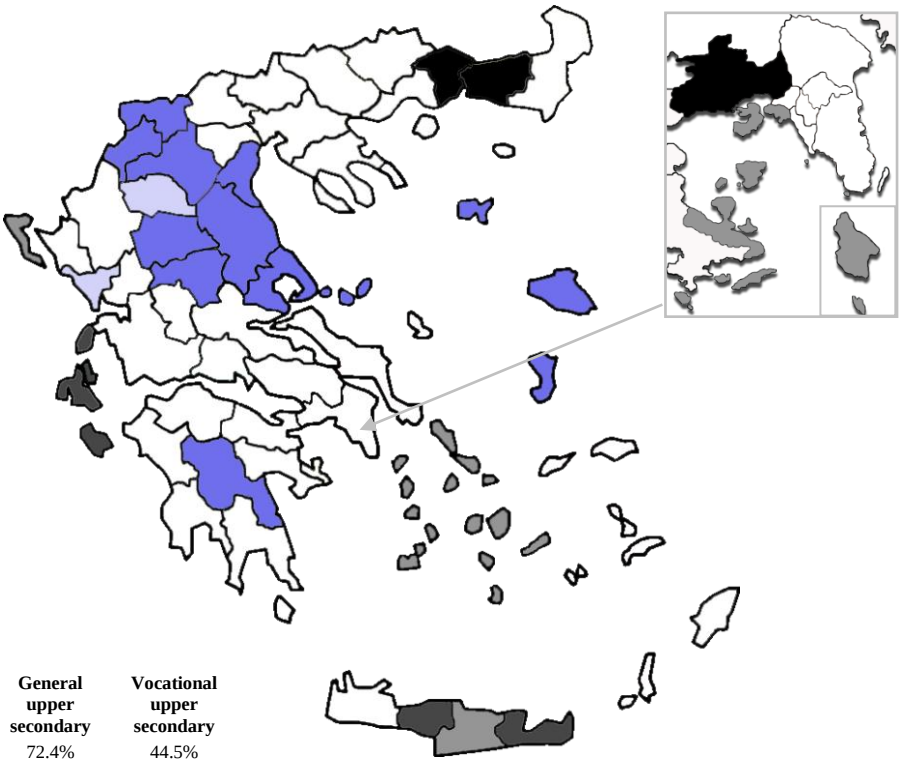
"Output" variables include an index of student retainment in secondary VET (i.e. not dropping out before the end of the school year) and indexes of academic performance.

Figure 6.8: **Distribution of secondary pupils' educational outcomes and attainment across Greek municipalities in 2008. Source: KANEP/GSEE, 2011.**



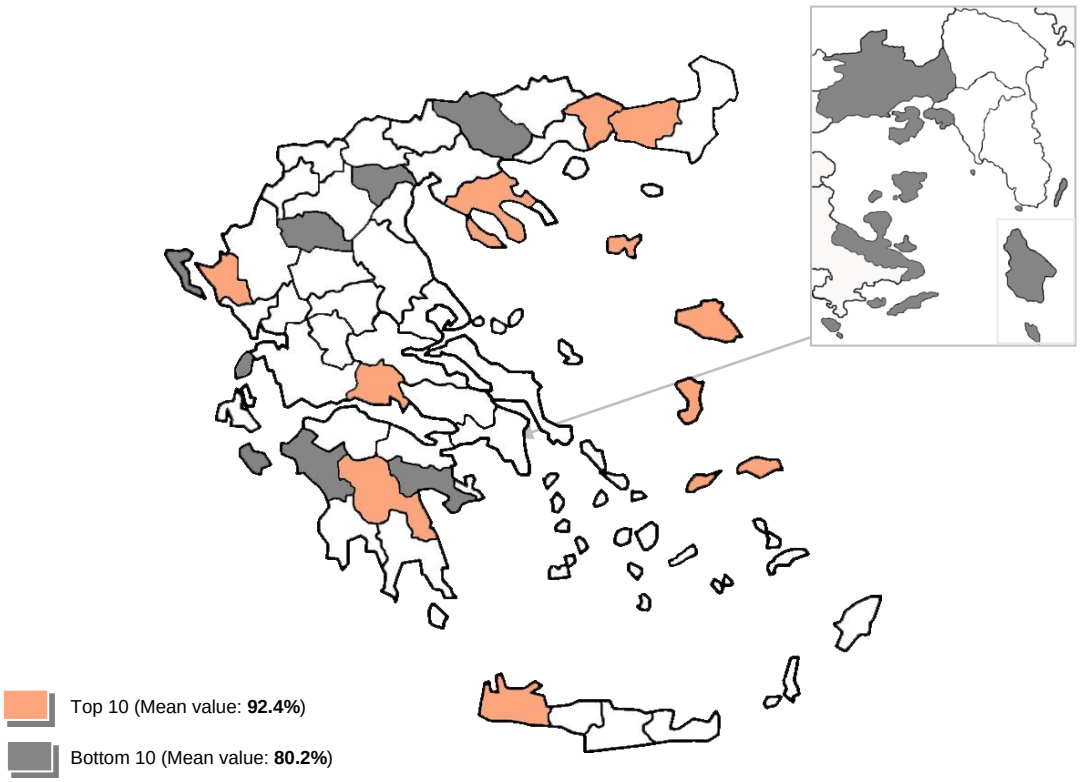
Cluster's mean value	Lower secondary	General upper secondary	Vocational upper secondary
cluster 1	86.7%	72.4%	44.5%
cluster 2	86.1%	68.8%	54.0%
cluster 3	80.6%	63.5%	35.5%
cluster 4	76.3%	55.7%	39.3%
cluster 5	75.7%	57.1%	25.6%
cluster 6	66.1%	54.5%	31.4%
TOTAL	**80.5%**	**63.8%**	**37.2%**

Figure 6.9: Disparities in secondary education outcomes and attainment in Greece, 2008. Source: KANEP/GSEE, 2011.



Cluster's mean value	Lower secondary	General upper secondary	Vocational upper secondary
Cluster 1	86.7%	72.4%	44.5%
Cluster 2	86.1%	68.8%	54.0%
Cluster 3	80.6%	63.5%	35.5%
Cluster 4	76.3%	55.7%	39.3%
Cluster 5	75.7%	57.1%	25.6%
Cluster 6	66.1%	54.5%	31.4%
TOTAL	**80.5%**	**63.8%**	**37.2%**

Figure 6.10: **School VET –Retainment vs drop out during the school year in Greece – top 10 and bottom 10 prefectures, 2006-2007. Source: KANEP/GSEE, 2009.**



In consistency with other studies reviewed in this report, KANEP/GSEE (2011) confirms that educational outcomes are directly related to the socio-economic situation of an area. It also confirms that, in the Greek context too, socio-geographic disparities in educational outcomes at one level of education (e.g. participation in tertiary education) depends largely on the outcomes achieved in previous levels of education as success at one stage governs access to another.

The KANEP/GSEE studies show that in the Greek context education inequalities have a strong spatial/geographic/regional aspect. They suggest that education policy in Greece has so far underestimated the effects of geographic and social inequalities on people's educational experiences and outcomes by offering exactly the same educational provision to all. They suggest that a different approach to education policy is necessary that would recognise these disparities and would include the aim of tackling them in its strategic planning and action.

Conclusion

Both the Sheffield study and the study of Greece described above are examples of how educational opportunities and attainment can be mapped out at local and county levels and analysed in relation to a wider range of other characteristics of neighbourhoods and localities. The two examples demonstrate the value, for policy makers in particular, of the kind of fine grained analysis made possible by comparative data at **NUTS 3 level and for smaller more "local" areas**. The Sheffield study is particularly informative in respect of a key question this report is trying to address: *what is the specific nature of "localised" forms of inequality and exclusion across cities and regions in the EU?* The data provide overwhelming evidence for one of the key arguments of this report - that spatial divisions and inequalities in educational opportunities and attainment reflect, and compound, wider socio-economic inequalities.

Chapter 6. Conclusions and policy recommendations

Drawing largely on geographic understandings and tools, this report has presented a unique analysis of regional inequalities in education in the European Union. The following are key conclusions:

- Where you live in Europe can strongly influence your educational opportunities and prospects in life.
- Despite the commitment of EU Member States to promote equity in education and training, major geographic disparities in educational opportunities and results persist across and **within** EU countries and regions. EU countries need to work harder to reduce these inequalities.
- There appears to be a North-South divide in educational attainment, with the highest rates of low-qualified people (with "at most pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education") found mostly in southern Europe and especially in Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece. In contrast, the regions with the lowest rates of low-qualified people are mostly found in the UK, Belgium, the Netherlands and Sweden.
- The regions with the highest proportion of individuals with **tertiary education qualifications** are mostly found in the UK, the Netherlands, northern Spain and Cyprus. The regions with the lowest rates of tertiary education graduates are in Italy, Portugal, and in central and eastern Member States such as Romania and the Czech Republic.
- There are large regional disparities in terms of **adult participation in lifelong learning** in the EU. There seems to be an "East/West" divide with regard to this variable. This has serious consequences for regional development and economic performance.
- There are significant differences in **geographical accessibility to tertiary education** across EU regions – that is the percentage of people living more than 60 minutes from the nearest university. Although just under 200 EU regions have excellent geographical accessibility to tertiary education with less than 10% of the population living more than 60 minutes from the nearest university, there are over 100 regions with relatively low access to universities and most of these are in the south-east Europe, northern Sweden and Finland, the Baltic states, Spain, Denmark and France.
- 20 of the regions with low geographical accessibility to tertiary education have GDP which is lower than 75% of the EU average. A potential cost effective and efficient way of addressing these regional disparities in geographical accessibility to tertiary education is the enhancement of distance and e-learning programmes. Also, enhancing transport infrastructure in these regions to reduce the travel time to the nearest university could be an additional policy response. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the measure of accessibility used in this report is very basic and does not take into account socio-economic and other barriers to participation in tertiary education (but still the best indicator that we had at our disposal for European level regional analysis).

Regional disparities within Member States

- The scale of regional disparities in educational opportunities and attainment within Member States varies significantly.
- Spain has the biggest gap between its best and worst performing regions in terms of **geographical accessibility to tertiary education** – that is the percentage of people living more than 60 minutes from the nearest university (best: Madrid and País Vasco, 0%; worst: Ceuta, 99.7%). It is followed closely by Greece (best: Attiki, 1.2%; worst: Ditiki Makedonia, 100%), with Finland third (best: Etelä-Suomi, 1.2%; worst: Åland, 88.5%) and Bulgaria fourth (best: Yugozapaden, 14.4%; worst: Severozapaden, 97.4%).

- The widest disparities regarding **students in tertiary education** as a proportion of the population aged 20-24 in each region are in Belgium (best: Brussels Capital, 120.7%[342]; worst: Province of Luxembourg, 23.4%) followed closely by the Czech Republic (best: Prague, 100%, worst: Střední Čechy, 5.6%) and Austria (best: Vienna, 100%, worst: Voralberg, 7.3%).
- In 8 Member States, there is a difference of more than 15 percentage points between their top and worst performing regions regarding the ratio of **tertiary education graduates among the population aged 15 or over**. The UK is the country with the biggest gap (23.4 percentage points, best: Inner London, 41.8%; worst: Tees Valley and Durham, 18.4%), followed by France (21.3 percentage points, best: Île de France, 33%; worst: Corsica, 11.7%), the Czech Republic (18.8 percentage points, best: Praha, 25.8%; worst: Severozápad, 7%), Spain (17.6 percentage points, best: País Vasco, 34.3%; worst: Extremadura, 16.7%), Slovakia (17.1 percentage points, best: Bratislavský kraj, 27.2%; worst: Východné Slovensko, 10.1%) and Romania (15.4 percentage points, best: Bucureşti–Ilfov, 22.5%; worst: Sud-Muntenia, 7.1%).
- France has the highest disparity between its top and bottom regions in terms of **low educational qualifications** (best: Alsace, 32.9%; worst: Corsica, 60.1%), followed by Greece (best: Attiki, 37%; worst: Ionia Nisia, 64.1%), Spain (best: Madrid, 44.2%; worst: Extremadura, 67.4%), Romania (best: Bucuresti-Ilfov, 21.9%; worst: Nord-Est, 42.8%) and Germany (best: Chemnitz, 11.9%; worst: Bremen, 30.6%).
- The UK has by far the biggest regional disparity in terms of **adult participation in lifelong learning**. The best performing region is Inner London, with 16.1% of the population aged 25-64 in lifelong learning; the worst is Northern Ireland, with 5.7%.
- These disparities reflect wider social and spatial divides between regions and cities within each Member State in terms of factors including employment, wealth, crime, quality of housing and health and life expectancy.
- Regional and local inequalities in educational attainment are best ameliorated through policies that tackle deeper socio-economic and spatial inequalities. For example, the Educational Maintenance Allowance in the UK (which has however now been discontinued for new applicants in England[343]) could be seen as a good example of a measure addressing such inequalities, enabling young people to stay on in further education after completing compulsory education.
- Given the overwhelming evidence about the importance of human capital and knowledge for regional development and economic performance, there should be renewed emphasis on efforts to expand and widen participation in tertiary education across the EU. A policy response in this context would be to aim for a minimal or zero level of tuition fees, at least for undergraduate courses across the EU.
- There is a need for smaller area data (lower than the administrative NUTS 3 level). The data that Thomas et al. (2009) and KANEP/GSEE (2009, 2010, 2011) had at their disposal (see Chapter 5) would be ideal. A lot of these data is being collected across the EU, but there is a need for better co-ordination and for data to be made available in the public domain. Another example of an excellent data resource that could be seen as an example for best practice across the EU is the Pupil Level Annual School Census (PLASC) in the UK which collects a wide range of data on schools, pupils and teaching staff. The data currently available by EUROSTAT is very useful and there are efforts to improve this every year, but there is a need for more information to be made available at regional and local levels –for data at the level of individual schools and classrooms.

[342] This figure is above 100% because of the high concentration of students in the Belgian capital and of the high number of mature students in tertiary education –which is typical of capital cities.

[343] For details see: http://www.direct.gov.uk/en/EducationAndLearning/14To19/MoneyToLearn/16to19bursary/DG_067575

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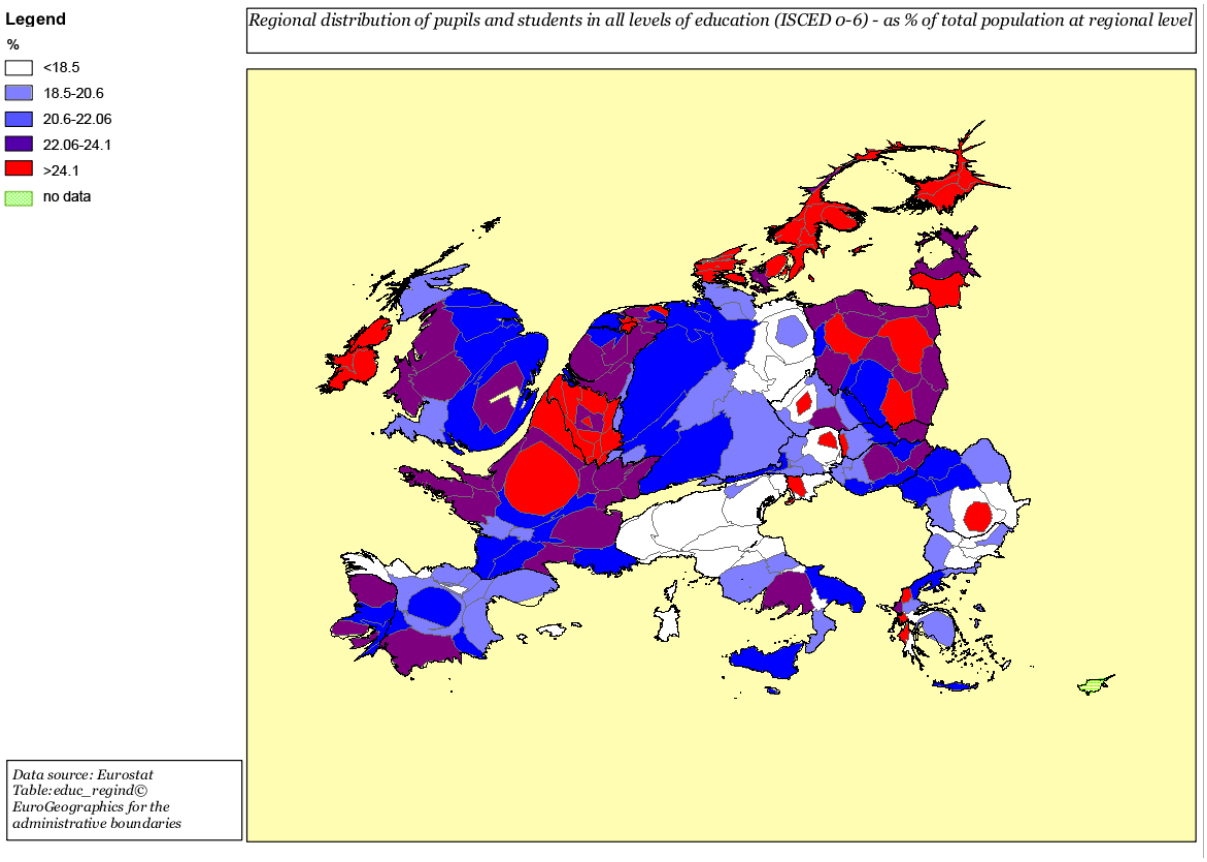
ANNEX. An alternative way of visualising regional data on educational inequalities in the EU: population cartograms

Mapping the distribution of human population on a conventional map (such as those used in Chapter 3) means that urban areas with large populations but small area size (e.g. such as the capital regions of Madrid, Paris, London, or Athens) are virtually invisible to the viewer. Conversely, the large rural areas with small populations (such as large rural areas in the Scandinavian countries) dominate a conventional map. In contrast, **population cartograms,** where countries and regions are resized according to where people live, are much more useful tools in our effort to grasp regional socio-economic realities and to understand societal challenges such as educational inequalities between EU regions. Such human cartograms have been effectively and successfully used so far to provide human-scaled visualisations of the world that the BBC has described as "people-powered" maps[344].

Figures 01 and 02 at the beginning of this report (pp.3-4) show a conventional map and a population cartogram of the European Union in comparison.

This annex presents the human population cartogram versions (population-density-scaled visualisations) of the conventional maps presented in Chapter 3 to help us more accurately visualise the regional distribution of education-related variables in the EU.

Figure A1: Human population cartogram of pupils and students (%) in all levels of education



[344] see http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/magazine/8280657.stm

Figure A2: Human population cartogram of lifelong learning

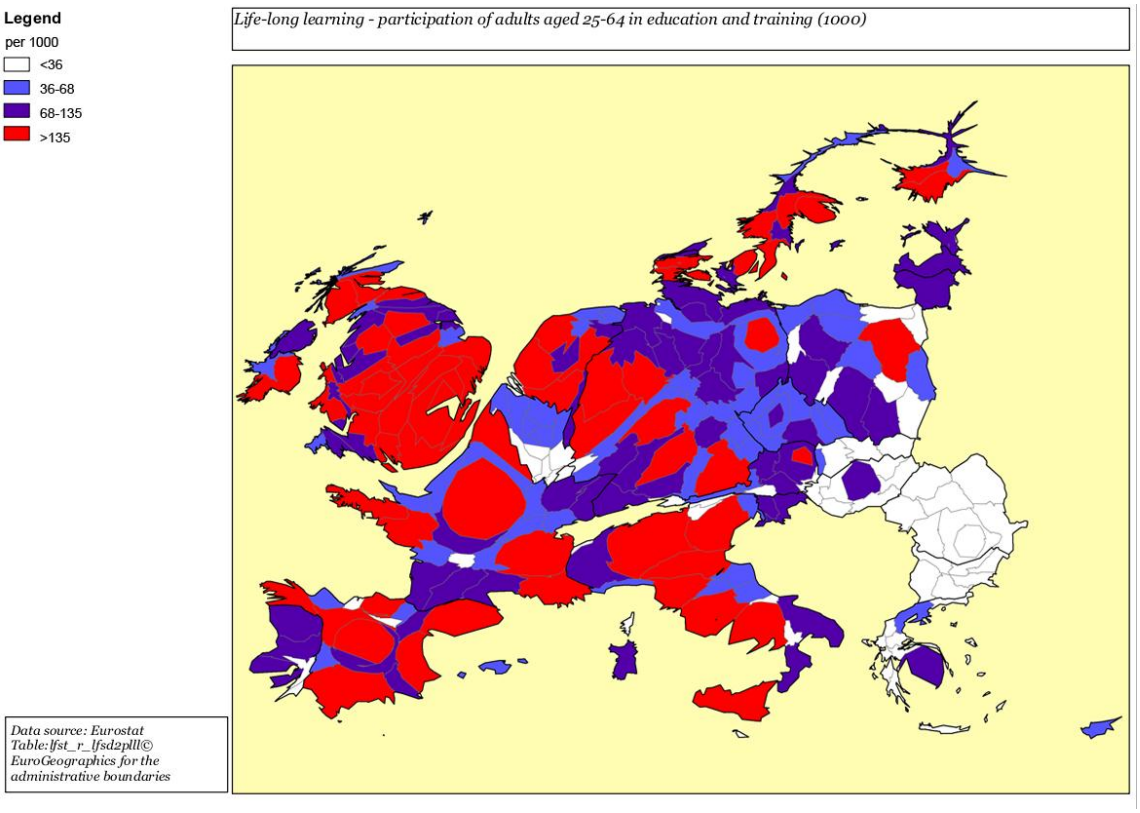


Figure A3: Human population cartogram of pupils (%) in primary and lower secondary education

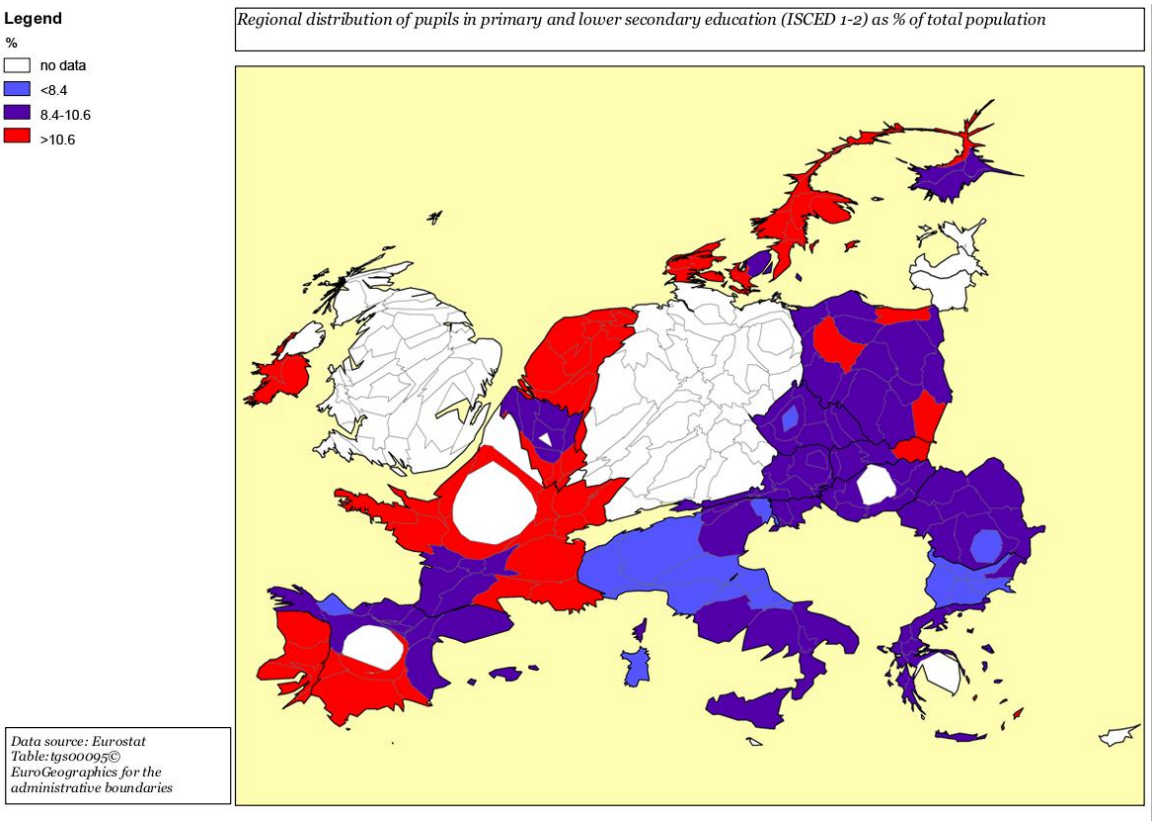


Figure A4: Population cartogram of pupils and students in upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education

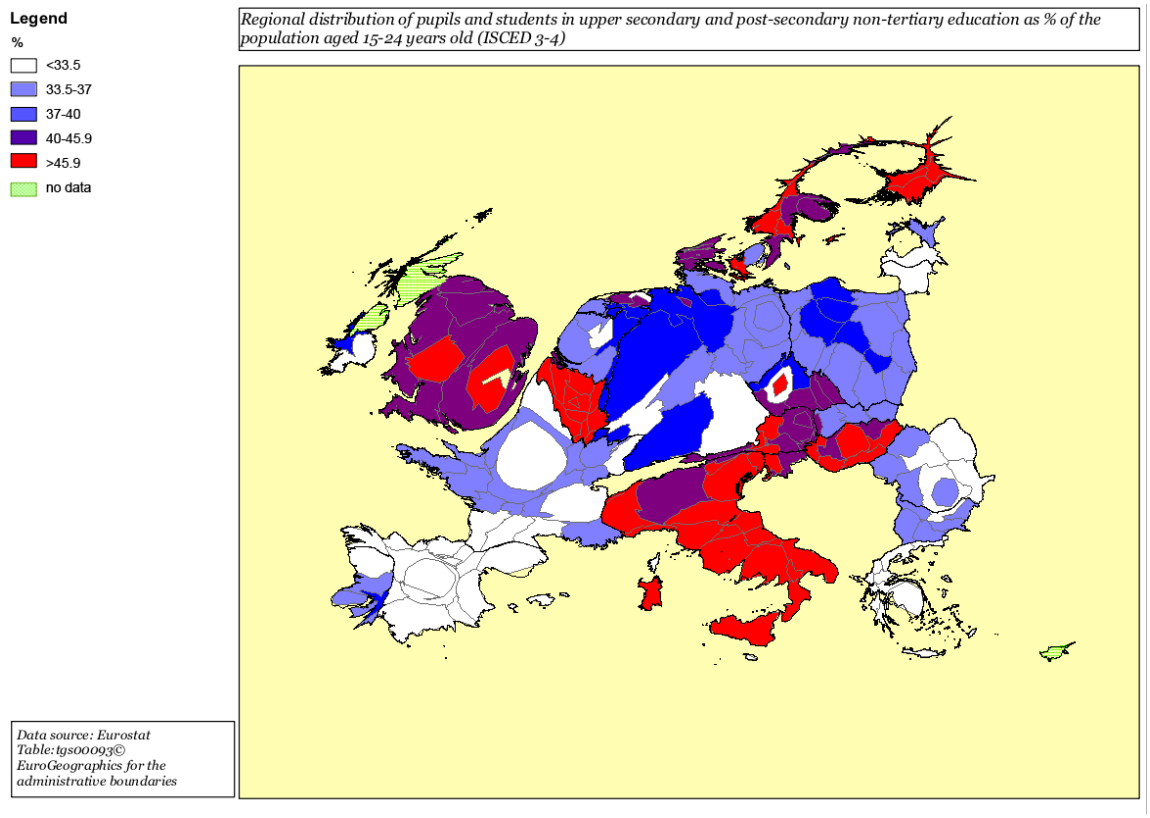


Figure A5: Population cartogram of students in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6)

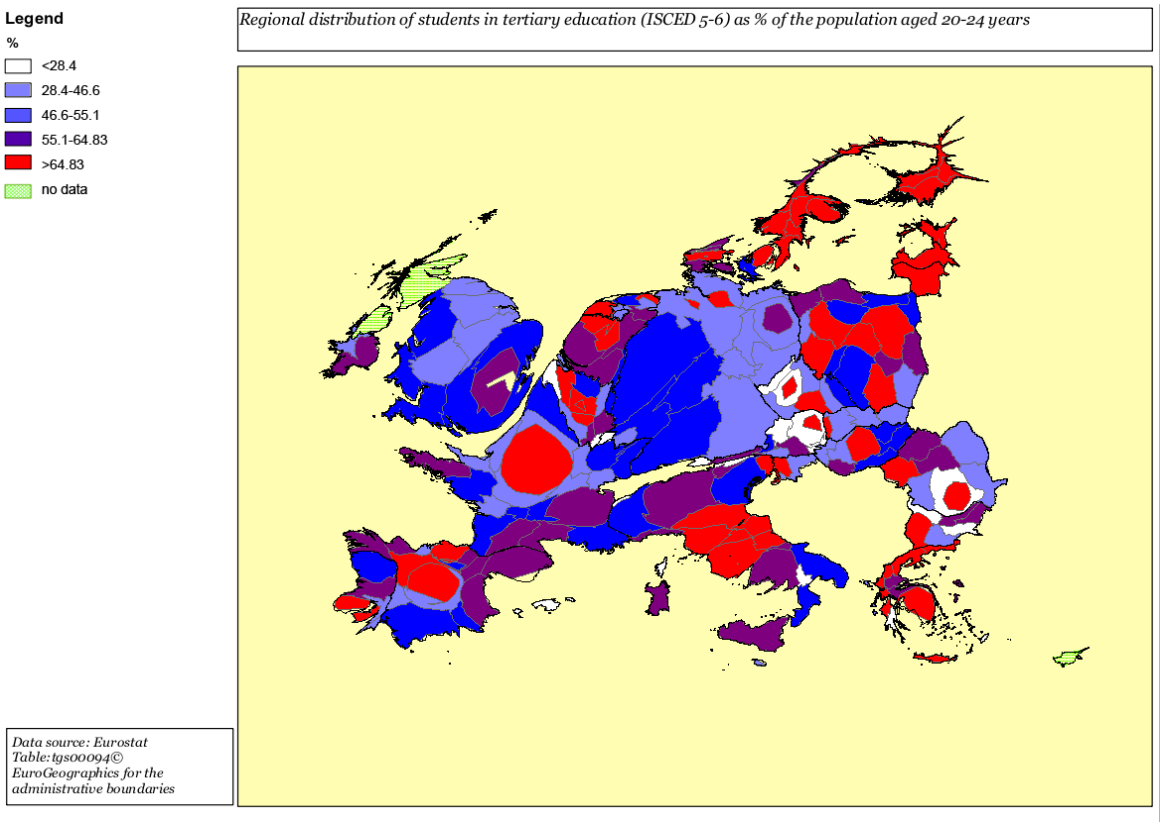


Figure A6: Population cartogram of population living at more than 60 minutes from the nearest university

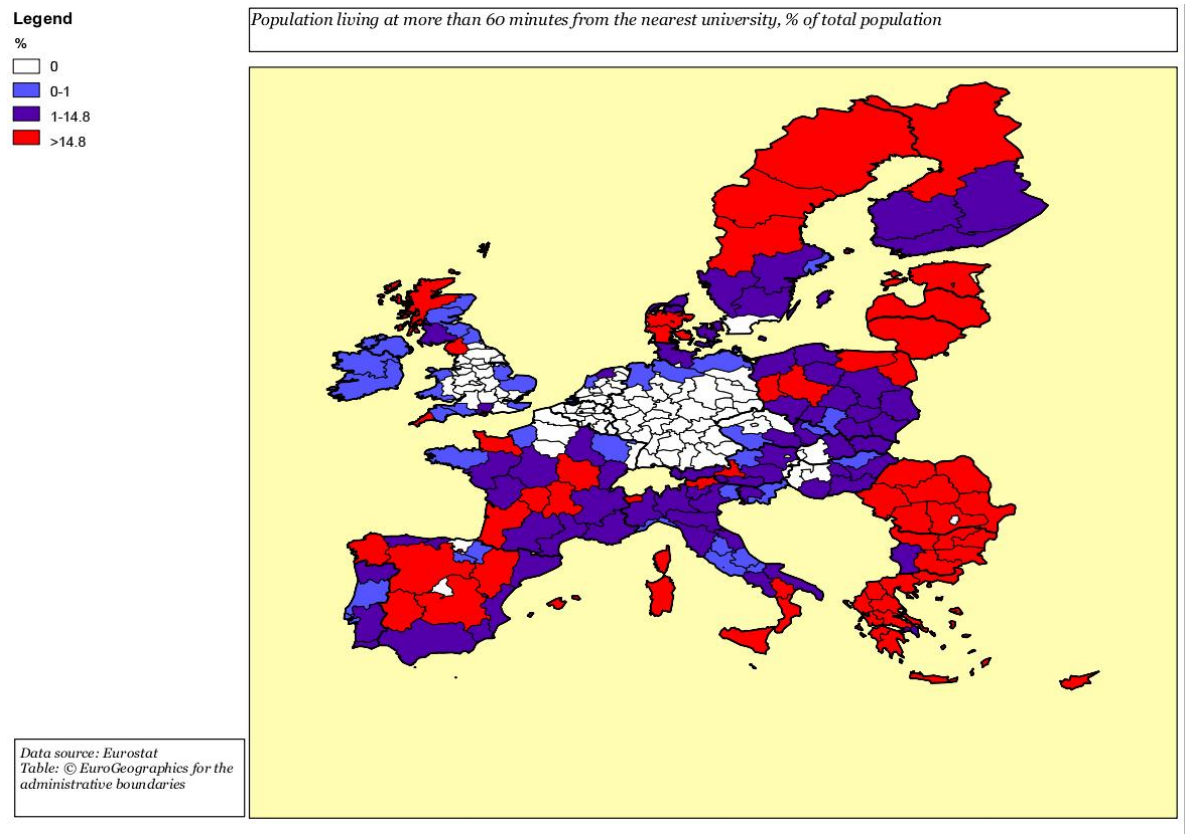


Figure A7: Population cartogram of all persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment

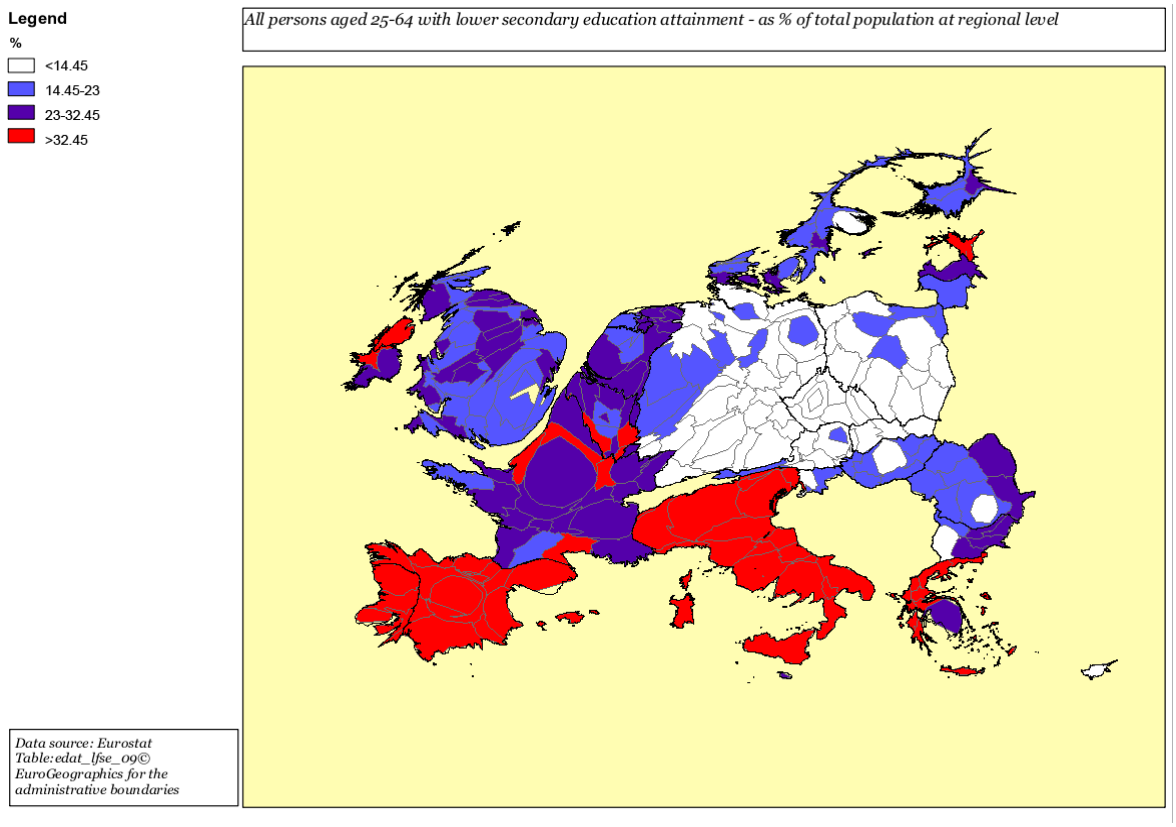


Figure A8: Population cartogram of all persons aged 25-64 with upper secondary education attainment

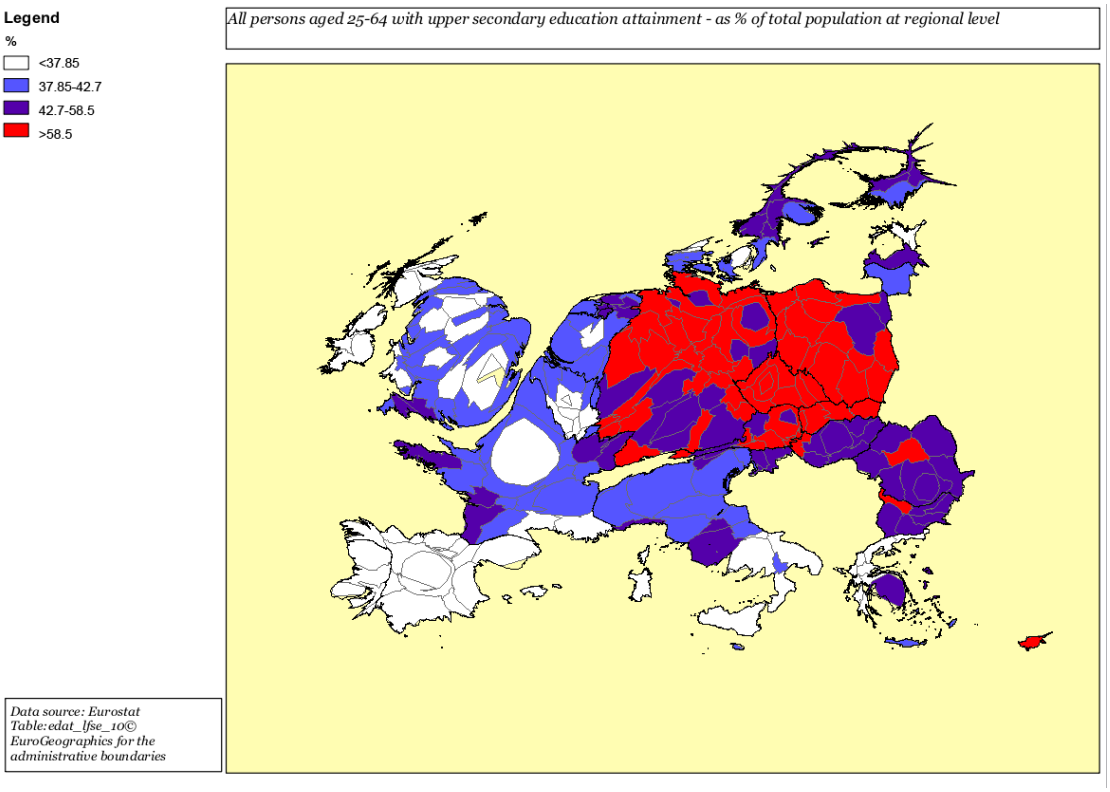


Figure A9: Human population cartogram of persons with at most pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education

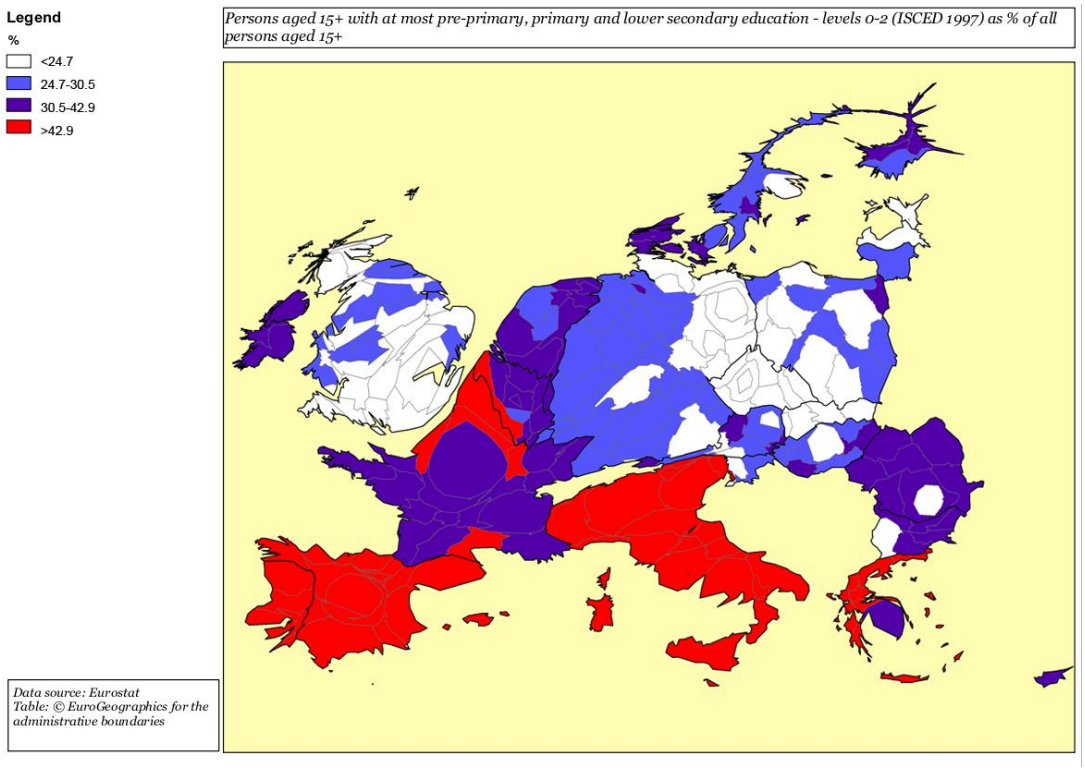


Figure A10: Population cartogram of persons with at most upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education

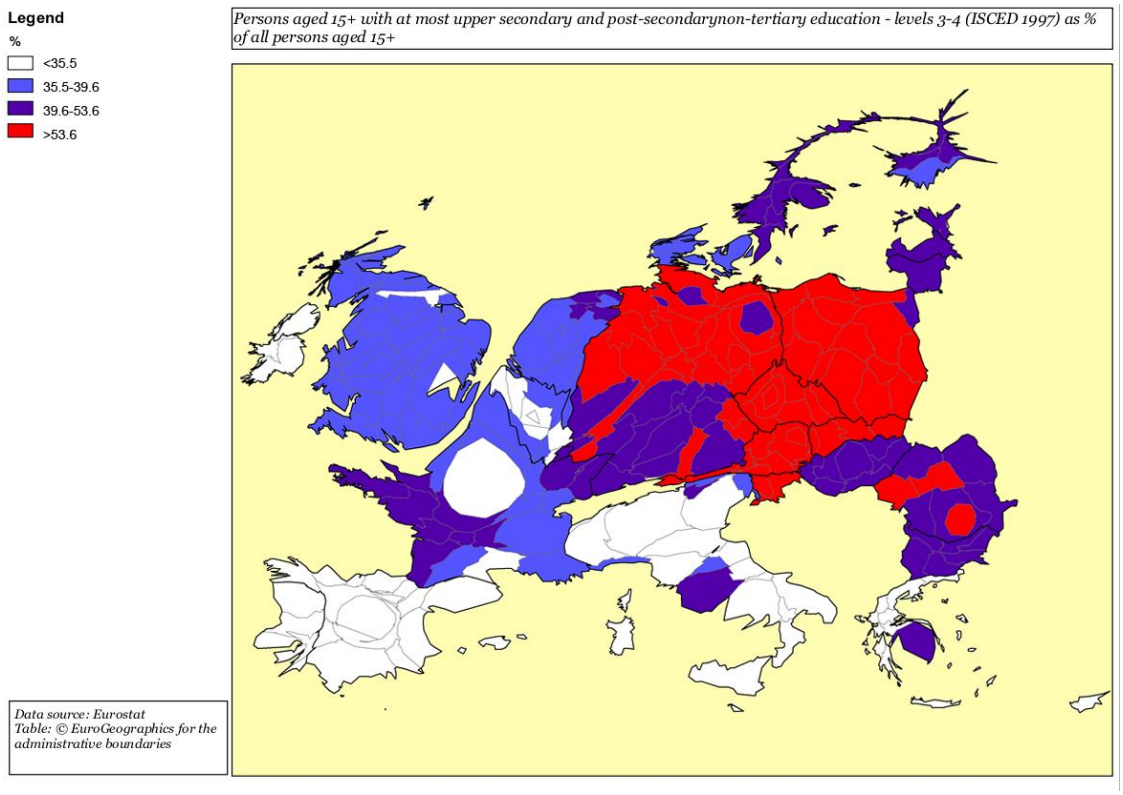


Figure A11: Population cartogram of persons with tertiary education - levels 5-6