

The trainers

Editorial

Trainers tomorrow
G. de Rita

The training of trainers in view of current and future
labour market trends
M. Baethge and M. Schlösser

What else can teachers do?
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Training personnel for 'first and second class'
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The status and training of trainers in:

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*Interview with Nicolas Estgen of the European
Parliament by Duccio Guerra*

Training in the 1980s
Commission of the European Communities

Two thousand trainers a year
*Interview with André Aboughanem of the International
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Vocational training



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Good policy-making demands, amongst other things, detailed and accurate information on the existing situation, a medium to long-term strategy and a careful use of the most valuable resources available. In many ways in the Member States of the Community, one gets the impression that none of these requirements are fulfilled with relation to the development of vocational training, and that in particular, information about, and plans for using, one of the scarcest resources, i.e. skilled trainers, are particularly deficient. Most of the many reports at international, European, national, regional and local level, dealing with education and training reform, and in particular dealing with measures to improve the transition from education to working life, produced during recent years, have made some references to the need for special measures to assist teachers and trainers to adapt to the changed circumstances caused by demographic trends, new technologies, economic recession and increasing unemployment. Yet, it is not easy to find a coherent strategy, at any level, which sets about changing this recognition of a problem into a programme for action, that takes into account the often apparently conflicting interests posed by the needs of the trainees, the professional and career development of the trainers, and the limitations of public resources.

It is not difficult to see why this is so. Firstly, there is the fact that while, on the one hand, the economic and social situation changes relatively quickly, on the other hand, education and training systems, and particularly education systems, are relatively rigid and change slowly. This means that the systems in which educators and trainers are operating are themselves faced with the need to change, but without those responsible knowing in what direction, or how, to change.

Secondly, there are enormous difficulties with definitions and deciding who is a trainer, and what, if any, are the distinctions between 'teachers' and 'trainers'. This produces enough problems in one country

or language; on a multinational or multilingual basis, it is worse; for example, in English, in schools people 'teach', in industry they 'train', but people also 'train' dogs, while in French 'on forme' pupils, students, trainees, but not dogs! . . . This is not a semantic question. There follow questions of professional status, of whether or not similar objectives are being pursued and whether or not the approach to particular target groups is similar. Indeed, as Rhys Gwyn says in his article, the essential problem for vocational training and education is one of esteem. This question of how their pupils/trainees, public opinion, and their colleagues in other branches, regard them, inevitably eventually affects how trainers regard themselves and their work. One gets the impression that for very many involved in vocational training, it is not a career. For many in industry, training is, for a training manager or for a foreman or a skilled craftsman, a part of his general duties, and these may be changed at any moment on criteria which have little to do with his effectiveness as a trainer, or the interests of the trainees. This may have positive effects in terms of mobility and flexibility, but it may also have a negative one, both in regard to the planning of the training, and how those involved see their role as trainers. The status of trainers within training organizations and educational institutions will be basically affected by the status of their organizations.

All this means that when we start talking about training of trainers, we end up talking about the whole of the training system. This may be avoided at a local or company, or particular industry, level, but is more and more difficult as one moves towards the national and international level. The reader of this Bulletin, who is seeking detailed information about some programmes of training of trainers, should probably not read any further, as we have found in preparing this Bulletin, as in the Cedefop project on the training of trainers, discussing these issues results in the danger of talking about everything and nothing.

Information about a detailed training of trainers programme is of limited value, unless the reader knows and understands the institutional setting, the status, career expectations and patterns, and the specific tasks of the trainers concerned. This problem is reflected in a number of articles in the Bulletin, and referred to briefly on page 21 where Cedefop's own work in this field is introduced. It could well be argued, for example, that the article by Friedemann Stooß falls outside the scope of the subject of training of trainers, but it does not. While it addresses itself to the question of what unemployed teachers can do, it in fact raises the question of what teachers are trained to do, and if they are so trained, how can they be effectively used or retrained.

There is an apparent contradiction too in the situation in many Member States, in that due to the demographic trends, it is suggested that there is a surplus of teachers, particularly at the primary and lower secondary levels, while on the other hand, it is clear that many of the new programmes which have been launched to assist the social and vocational integration of young people have major difficulties in finding suitably qualified and motivated personnel. Clearly, this raises the question of whether a number of these teachers threatened with unemployment could, after some re-training, be able and suited to play a part in these new programmes. This underlines the need for much greater mobility possibilities within the overall teacher and training profession. The barriers to such mobility are not just those of qualifications and training, but also the question of status and esteem, referred to above.

Another problem is that of flexibility and the very different locations and structures in which training, no matter how narrowly one defines it, tends to take place. Accordingly, trainers have different employers, different career structures and are required to have different types of qualifications. And this multiplicity of situations is likely to continue and to develop further, because just as

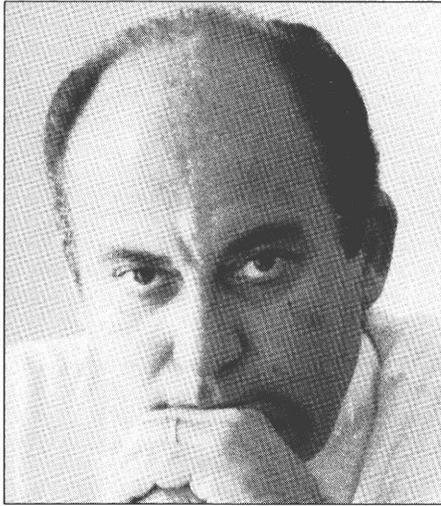
one of the contributions of the 'de-schoolers' has been to lead us to accept that the teacher and school are only one of the educational influences on young people, so we are becoming more and more aware that vocational training, particularly for adults, and above all, for disadvantaged groups, should, and must, take place in structures that are less monolithic and more flexible, in places which vary from on-the-job in-company to the individual's living room, with methods varying from pencil and paper to video packages, and with certification

processes which may lead to traditional examinations, but also a degree of auto-evaluation.

After this rehearsal of problems and difficulties, we must ask 'Are we then condemned to a type of (creative?) anarchy?'

If training is to be varied and multi-faceted, is there any point in trying to develop categories of trainers and detailed information on how they are trained and on their

career patterns, qualifications etc.? This must, to a large extent, remain an open question, but there remains the overriding factor that the interests of all parties concerned, i.e. the trainees, industry (as the users of skilled manpower), the trainers themselves and the public authorities, require that maximum use is made of available resources, and there is a widespread agreement that good trainers are the most precious of these limited resources. This will require possibilities for mobility, re-training, re-employment, etc. JMA



Trainers tomorrow

Giuseppe de Rita

It is for practical reasons that the training of trainers is the most important issue in the general field of vocational training, not so much its position in the scale of priorities. The whole range of problems that arise, from new technology to innovatory teaching methods, is encapsulated in vocational training, and the solutions that are found to these problems will act as spearheads, in other words will point in the direction in which vocational training should be going and make the initial breakthrough. To reflect on the training of trainers is the soundest and most forward-looking way of thinking about vocational training itself.

If we look at what has been happening in the early 1980s in the training of trainers, one point that strikes us is that it is beset with great uncertainty. The same uncertainty probably prevails in vocational training as a whole, but it is easier to grasp when considered in the microcosm of the training of trainers:

- uncertainty as to the cultural foundation for training;
- uncertainty as to level of responsibility;
- uncertainty as to the market for training.

■ Teaching people how to learn

The first area of uncertainty relates to the optimum cultural and educational foundation for the training of trainers. For many years, the basic skills imparted were simple:

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trainers learned about specific tasks for specific trades, certain intermediate or production technologies, individual academic and non-academic subjects and certain organizational terms of reference. Today, however, that certainty has been dispelled. Skills, and the trades in which they will be used, are changing fast and are no longer appropriate as the basis for training in general, still less for the training of trainers. As technology becomes daily more complex and sophisticated, the process of learning and familiarization must take place in the work situation, not before. Academic subjects are finding it hard to hold their own even in universities where research is conducted; what chance do they have in the vocational training sector, where they tend towards inflexible and conventional patterns? The organization of production is now so heterogeneous (especially in countries like Italy where there has been so much decentralization of industry and such rapid growth in small and medium-sized enterprises) that it is impossible to provide a solid grounding in organizational matters, let alone to accumulate a standard corpus of knowledge that can be used as a basis for the training of trainers, which is necessarily a long-term operation.

The old certainties, then, have vanished or at best their significance is being seriously questioned. There have been efforts, at least in recent years, to replace them with new certainties — perhaps even a single certainty, the conviction that the lynchpin for all developments in production and organization over the 20 or 30 years will be data processing, informatics, the interlinking of informatics and advanced technology (especially robotics) the interlinking of informa-

tics and telecommunications (telematics, in other words). This has led to a tendency in vocational training to favour anything that smacks of the computer, its languages and its applications. Computer literacy seems to be the one skill certain to be needed in the training of tomorrow, and almost every centre of training is striving to meet the challenge of that certain need, even though it is aware that such a radical innovation will in the end inevitably overlap and merge with all the existing training subjects, instruments and options.



The next twenty or thirty years will indisputably be affected by the computer, its culture and its language.

DTV

I do not question the validity of this belief, for the next 20 or 30 years will indisputably be affected by the computer, its culture and its language. But I should like to point out that, in absorbing the computer, vocational training as a whole will ultimately be neither fish, fowl nor good red herring. In a good two-thirds of vocational training, long-established, sometimes antiquated, teaching methods, curricula, instruments and reference concepts will persist, whereas in the remaining third the aspiration will be to modernize, all efforts being directed towards that end, without practical reference to what has gone before. In such a situation, the trainers will inevitably align themselves with the old, partly because of past shortcomings in their own training, and will take up an entrenched position to defend themselves against the new. As a result, what is new will be segregated to its own backwater and will virtually be excluded from decision-making for the sector (by both unions and authorities, since they are all so heavily conditioned by those representing the interests – the old interests – of trainers who are part of the establishment).

With such a hotchpotch of guidelines and options, there can be no real basis for long-term evolution in the sector. On the contrary, the tendency will be to cling even more firmly to what already exists. If most of the training of trainers conforms to an existing pattern and only a small section aims at radical innovation by placing the stress, now or in the future, on the computer, it will be impossible to update that training as an integrated whole. What is happening in vocational training and the training of trainers is the same as in all fields to which the computer has been introduced. The system in general (decision-making, careers and authority) retains its traditional compartments while data processing goes through a parallel channel, with its own separate staff, decision-making, authority and job opportunities, a channel that is not an integral part of the overall system. One need look no further, – at least in Italy – than the situation that arises in administrative systems such as banking, insurance or the civil service when computer departments are forcibly introduced.

In the hope perhaps of steering their way between Scylla and Charybdis, neither becoming bogged down in established traditions nor being over-precipitate in the desire to move with the times, over the past few

years the experts in the training of trainers have been concerned less with the content of training – the teaching of specific trades, disciplines, basic or traditional technologies or computer skills – than with the didactic and methodological approach to training. It is becoming increasingly common to talk about the latest developments in learning, in *teaching how to learn*, in lifelong education. In other words, the focus is on the educational process itself, especially learning and the ability first to spark off the desire to learn and then to make it a continuing process in trainers, trainees and workers throughout their working lives and development. I must admit I find this concern basically more innovatory, more of a *spearhead*, than the new information technology I have been discussing. It profoundly alters (or, more realistically, is capable of altering) the approach to vocational training and the training of trainers. What is even more important, it has a uniform effect on the whole conceptual basis of training. If it becomes a general concern, we shall no longer feel we have to pursue each new technology and subject as it appears or try to keep abreast of continually changing demand for new types of training that are destined to be short-lived. We shall anchor the training of trainers to a stable *bedrock*: the aim will be to steadily develop and update the training process, to create an ability to learn.

Nevertheless, there are – as researchers are beginning to agree with growing conviction – three obstacles to be overcome before we can achieve such an objective. The first is that the goal is relatively vague, that it has been arrived at intuitively in response to the needs rather than in the light of practical research and experimentation. There is still a long way to go and much more work to be done to translate ideas from the general to the particular. The second difficulty is that the goal (necessarily long-term) needs exceptionally dedicated commitment. It must be kept constantly in view despite all the pressures that will be exerted over the next few years (crazes and obsessions are notoriously common in this field). The third obstacle is probably the most substantial: if the training of trainers is to be founded on the creation and development of individual learning processes, this profoundly alters the responsibilities of trainers. In their work they will be acting as training mediators rather than, as is traditional, transmitting knowledge and passing on academic subjects and job skills.

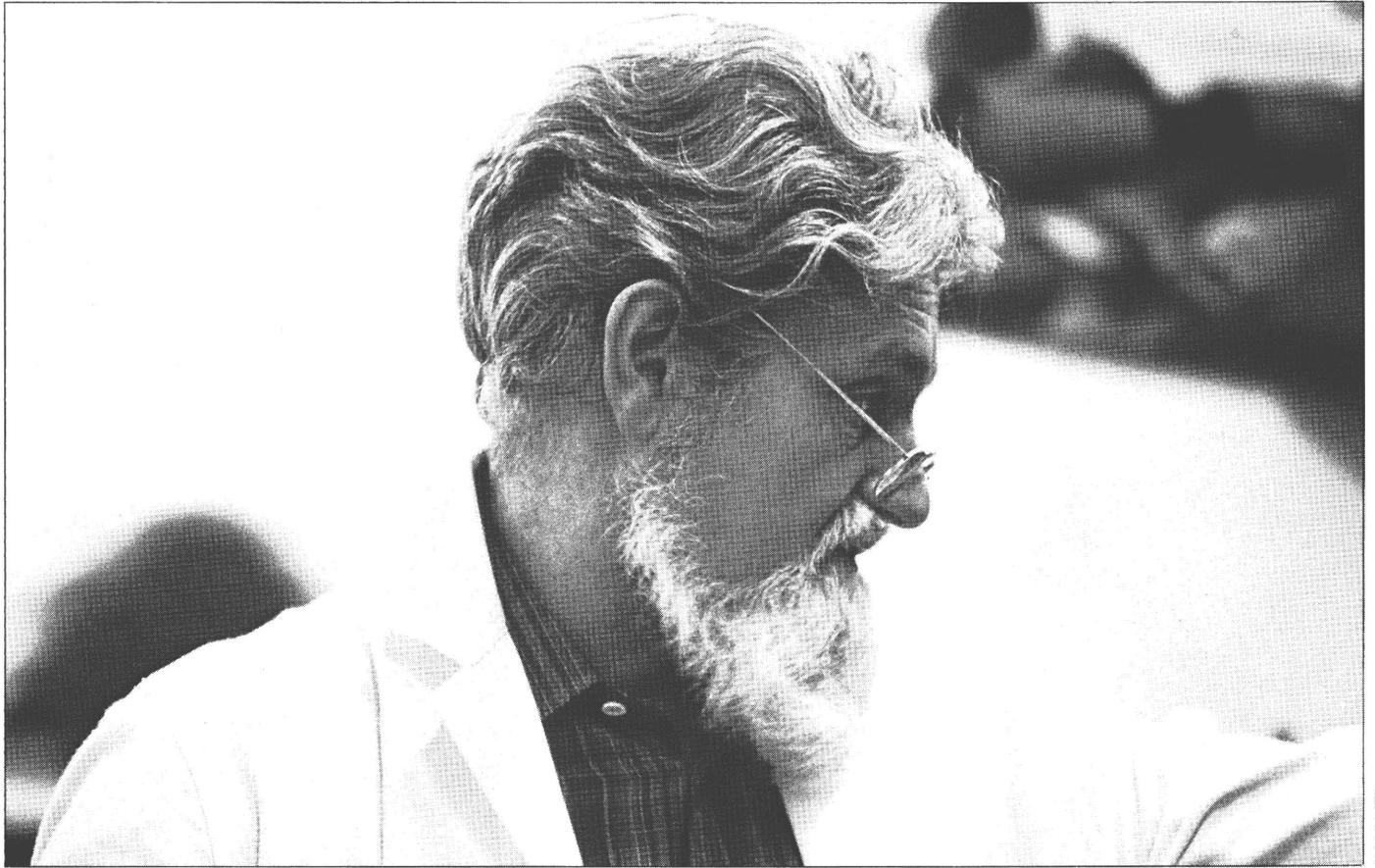
■ The trainer's role and responsibilities

This brings me to the second type of uncertainty which I mentioned earlier on, uncertainty as to the level and type of trainers' responsibilities and therefore the act of training them. As I have pointed out, the general long-term trend is for trainers no longer merely to pass on a consolidated corpus of scientific and vocational information within a clearly defined and consolidated training system, but to become responsible for acting as mediators dealing with training variables and continuously monitoring training and vocational choices.

Here again, old precepts have to be discarded, while new fields of research and experimentation are opening out. Now that his task is to monitor the process of learning (basic learning at first, then life-long education), the trainer has to be able to mediate between the diversity of variables involved in that process:

subjective variables such as motivation, cultural interests or optional propensities; *variables associated with the labour market* and trends on that market, such as the tendency to self-employment or horizontal and vertical mobility; *variables associated with the structure of the economy*: expansion of the service sector, the rise of the small business or the modernization and reorganization of large companies; *scientific and technological variables* such as changes in production processes and services or the continuing process of small and large-scale innovation; *variables connected with the 'technical' evolution of training and learning processes themselves*: the value of oral transmission, the importance of initial training and training on-the-job, new educational technologies, etc.

We all know that individuals, especially in their working lives, are called upon to make judicious choices between all these variables on their own, by rule of thumb (without any background experience and without outside help). We know, then, how necessary it is to create the ability in individual workers and their trainers to make such choices on their own. We are all aware of the extent to which this mediation and monitoring factor is lacking in our system of vocational training and in the trainers' own cultural baggage. We might say that one of the key factors in the training of trainers over the next few years will in fact be the ability to incorpo-



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A new market for the trainer.

rate the ability to mediate among variables and to monitor trainees during the training process.

It will be no easy task but it is the only way of radically changing the job of the trainer and rescuing it from the threat of impoverishment and decline in its existing conceptual and organizational reference framework.

This brings me to the final group of factors which I feel is relevant to any discussion of the future of trainers: their market.

■ A new market for the trainer

One thing we constantly take for granted and see as beyond dispute is our definition of a 'trainer': a member of the teaching staff of a technical or vocational college or a

public or private-sector vocational training centre. This is only right and proper when we think about the large number of trainers who are employed in those institutions, but it is less so when we consider the quality of needs and the prospects for training as a profession. More than for any other type of teacher, the market extends far more broadly than the public-sector institutions. On that market – in companies, in consultancy firms, as part of international projects, etc. – we find that there is ever-expanding scope for people who have the professional skills and the ability to monitor training processes and to mediate among their variables which I have already mentioned as the long-term aim of the whole vocational training system. Merely visiting the more advanced industrial and service companies in Italy one realizes how many people are working there on training and the updating of job skills linked with the companies' own needs, essentially as consultants. It could be

argued that the distinctions between the trainer and the consultant/technical assistant are becoming blurred and a more complex, sophisticated professional is emerging. The training of such professionals obviously creates even more complicated problems than before.

Despite the emerging importance of the company as a market for trainers as mediators and monitors, it is clear that most vocational training takes place in traditional training structures (in Italy mainly in the public sector) which have various problems and are far more traditional. Those problems have been documented in detail in the literature and are well covered by research within Italy and at European level. Our concern here has been merely to try to understand in which direction the 'spearhead' is pointing, what qualitative innovations are being introduced to the training of trainers.

The training of trainers

in view of current and future
labour market trends

*Martin Baethge and
Manfred Schlösser*

An unresolved paradox in vocational training

One of the most disquieting paradoxes of the present situation in vocational training by the dual system as regards the development of young people, we believe, is that, at a time when a crisis-hit labour market and wide-ranging technological change are tending to increase the demands made on the quality of vocational training, the quality of in-company training is generally found to be deteriorating.¹ This is certainly true if vocational training is not seen simply as the teaching of technical skills and knowledge required for the moment but – as the German Education Council did in its time² – as a complex process of occupational socialization involving not only technical skills but also social guidance and the development of the individual's personality. In the following we examine this general paradox from both sides with particular reference to trainers. We begin by trying to establish whether the crisis has increased the demands on the trainer's activities, rejecting the assumption that it is easing his pedagogical task because young people have become more willing to adjust. We then consider how close the training of trainers comes to satisfying these demands and conclude by suggesting a few ways in which such training could be improved.

Before we discuss these points in detail, we should briefly refer to the methods we have used. We are very well aware that there is no such thing as *the* trainer or *the* trainee or *the* training situation and that differing forms, substance and quality play their part. We can therefore do no more than indicate trends and problems due to the training place and labour market crisis. The discussion does not, on the other hand, extend to

an assessment of individual training situations or firms. It goes without saying that examples can probably be produced to demonstrate the opposite of most the statements made, but this is not to dispute their validity since they all concern average trends. Not wishing to encourage misconceptions, we should also emphasize that not all the effects of the crisis can be overcome through the pedagogical activities of trainers: action under the labour market policy and institutional measures will also be needed. Failure to take such action and measures will aggravate the trainer's problems.

How the labour market crisis affects training

The close links between the dual system of vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany and the cyclical and structural development of firms ensures great flexibility in the adaptation of vocational training to technological changes on the one hand and results in considerable dependence on the cyclical development of firms on the other. The coincidence of the labour market crisis and a sharp rise in the demand for training places over the last 10 years due to demographic factors has raised a number of problems. The most important of these problems in the context of our discussion can be summarized as follows:

■ Despite an increase in absolute terms, training places are becoming scarcer. This trend has been accompanied by a qualitative change in the supply of training places in that there has been a relative shift of emphasis from training in more demanding occupations to training in which fewer skills are taught. As a consequence of this trend, it is precisely those categories of young people already at the greatest social disadvantage whose prospects of finding a training place have been reduced. The chances of a young person obtaining vocational training

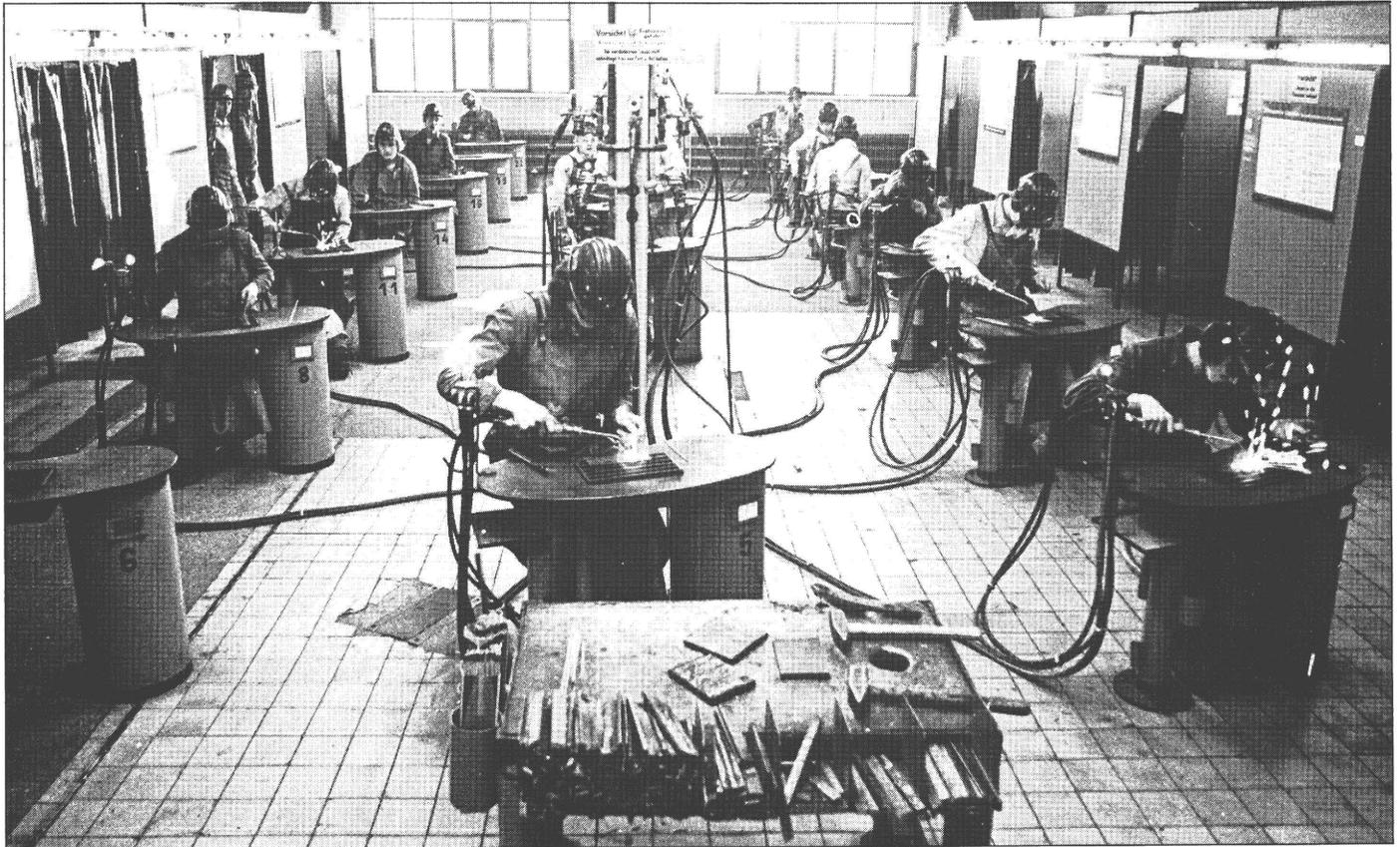
that complies with his interests, inclinations and abilities are generally on the wane, and this is increasing the competition among young people.

■ The qualitative shift in the supply of training places towards occupations in which jobs are far from secure and the range of activities is too limited to ensure mobility also makes it more likely that training will be downgraded on its completion. Even in large industrial and service companies workers are finding that their qualifications are not accepted or that the only work they are offered has no connection with their training.

■ Our investigations show that selection both for initial training and for subsequent employment and further training is becoming more stringent in all large and medium-sized firms. Despite a clear rise in the average level of school education among applicants in the 1970s, the procedures firms apply when selecting suitable candidates for the training they provide have become more extensive and more subtle: greater importance is again being attached to behavioural skills at the time of initial recruitment and of employment on the completion of training. As a result of these selection processes, growing numbers of young people without a secondary school certificate, young foreigners and even holders of secondary school certificates (especially girls) are being left by the wayside without any training, to form 'problem groups' for whom special measures have to be taken.

■ Unemployment among young people is generally on the rise. Even young people who have completed their vocational training are increasingly finding themselves out of work. Although youth unemployment has so far been relatively short-term in many cases, it often represents a break in occupational development and disturbs the view young people take of employment.

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Training places are becoming scarcer.

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There is unlikely to be a fundamental improvement in the future if the crisis factors described here are left to market forces. Although fewer young people will be coming on to the labour market from the mid-1980s onwards, the backlog of demand for training and the continuation of the labour market crisis, which all the relevant institutes predict will become worse, leave little room for hope of change for the better before the early 1990s.³

What challenge do the effects of the labour market crisis outlined here represent for vocational training? In the vast majority of training situations we believe that it lies primarily in the need for trainers to pay greater attention to trainees' motivation and behavioural problems and to strengthening their self-confidence. There can be no doubt that young people need to be very independent and self-confident if they are to cope with the often frustrating experience of looking for a training place and with the uncertainty surrounding their future employment. Furthermore, labour market problems are hardly likely to be solved if the individual is forced to become more compe-

titive in his attitude: what is needed is the willingness to act in a spirit of solidarity in the processes required to re-orient work. Present training – as young people see it – often seems to leave too little scope for the very behavioural skills that are needed in this situation: as a rule, it appears to offer greater rewards for adaptation and a competitive attitude. In conversations during various research projects our attention has frequently been drawn to this problem by trainers who themselves take a sceptical view of the pronounced willingness of young people in training to adjust to the circumstances. What many trainers regard as a welcome relief – the fact that young people are again 'toeing the line' and are willing to follow instructions – causes considerable ambivalence in others as regards the achievement of the object of the training they provide, which is to teach skilled workers or salary-earners to be self-confident, to contribute to thought processes and to act independently in everyday situations in the firm. This view clearly shows that the adjusted, dependent 'yes-man' does not make a suitable employee either for the firm that has a

skilled workforce and is equipped with the latest technology or for the modern service company. But what is to be done if the external conditions to which young people are very much exposed encourage the tendency among them to adjust or resign, and if a lack of solidarity and ruthless competition take hold even during the training process? It will help those who do not want such tendencies to become widespread to take a closer look at the motives behind the attitudes of trainees, to discuss the various behavioural problems both with individuals and possibly with groups, to consciously encourage the weaker trainees, to obtain information on alternative employment for those who have completed their training and to resist the temptation of believing that training has become easier.

The increasingly selective procedures adopted when training places are to be filled are resulting in the marginalization of large categories of young people. This is giving rise to a special pedagogical problem for these young people, many of whom are educationally subnormal and/or socially underprivileged. It is a problem that has



Attention has been drawn to this problem by trainers who themselves take a sceptical view of the pronounced willingness of young people in training to adjust to the circumstances.

also been referred to with growing frequency in the debate on vocational training policy in recent years and is reflected in government efforts to initiate and encourage pilot projects for such young people.⁴ Given the size of this category, which is growing as the crisis continues (and also includes many young foreigners) we see a need for a particular effort that extends beyond mere special training courses to include general in-company training and is thus a task for all training personnel.

Compared with these two challenges to trainers, which have been aggravated by the labour market crisis, we feel that less importance should be attached to the problems connected with adjustment to technological developments and the pedagogical guidance of categories of young people whose school education has become more heterogeneous in recent years. From our own experience we know that the large firms concerned make very sure their trainers acquire the necessary skills when new technologies are to be introduced, if only through private study after work. Although our interviews with trainers indicate that the formation of groups of people at different skill levels may in certain cases give rise to conflict, serious difficulties have not yet been encountered. How far this assessment reflects the external image of a relatively trouble-free training process rather than the problems which

young people have when too much or too little is expected of them and which various anxieties may even prevent them from discussing is, of course, another matter.

The implications for the initial and further training of trainers

The description of the effects the labour market crisis may be having on training has shown that the greater demands made on trainers do not primarily concern the theoretical and practical spheres but those dimensions of the teaching of occupational skills and work processes whose general absence from the preparation of trainers for their work was for a long time one of the major criticisms levelled at in-company training by academics and politicians.

Although a first step towards remedying this deficiency, and making the right to work as a trainer legally conditional on evidence of the ability to teach skills and work processes, was taken with the 1969 Vocational Training Act and the 1972 regulation on the suitability of trainers, not only researchers but even those directly involved in training doubt whether the training schemes for in-company training personnel which were introduced, particularly after the adoption of the regulation on the suitability of trainers, have served their

purpose and improved training in firms. The criticism is that not only does the legislation not govern everyone concerned with training, since the regulation on the suitability of trainers, for example, does not apply to many part-time trainers and also exempts full-time trainers from the need to prove their ability to teach skills and work processes in certain circumstances, but that

- 'an instrumental view is taken of pedagogics' and too little attention is paid to enabling trainers to 'reflect their own position and occupational role and their occupational experience';⁵

- courses are too closely geared to the acquisition of knowledge and to examinations, and teaching methods used during courses are not suited to the trainees;⁶

- the content of courses is too closely geared to the interests of the private sector.⁷

Contrary to what was really needed, criticism of the practical training of trainers has been brushed aside during the crisis and government arrangements have been watered down. As with the debate on the protection of young people at work, legislation designed to improve the training of trainers is often discussed solely in terms of the 'obstacles to training' it would allegedly create.

Thus it was primarily labour market policy considerations that led to the repeated amendment of the regulation on the suitability of trainers in 1982, resulting in an increase in the number of trainers exempted from the requirement to produce evidence of their ability to teach skills and work processes. This approach is short-sighted where training policy is concerned and questionable as regards the achievement of the complex goals of occupational socialization defined above.

If our analysis of the situation is correct in claiming that for many young people the crisis means greater uncertainty about the future, doubts about the point of training, indifference to the content of training in an occupation that many do not want, a more competitive attitude, efforts to adjust and the avoidance of conflict, the opportunities a trainer has for bringing about mental stability, intervening to correct attitudes and giving occupational and – possibly – personal guidance generally gain in importance in his dealings with young people. Furthermore, although the opposite may appear to be the case, the trainer's position

is also becoming more difficult: his credibility is bound to be questioned if he fails to do what young people – openly or secretly – expect of him.

If a trainer is to understand the links between the crisis, the attitudes young people have towards training and his own position and to develop strategies for pedagogical intervention to suit the circumstances, we believe that three aspects of the initial and further training of trainers require improvement:

■ It is important not only that instruction on teaching methods should be improved but also that more extensive initial and further training should be provided both in developmental psychology and the theory of socialization (especially the theory of the behaviour of young people) and in matters relating to labour market and occupational trends.

■ We believe there is a greater need than ever to step up the systematic exchange of

views on acute work and occupational problems encountered by trainers which does take place in certain large companies and is also arranged from time to time by various chambers of commerce, industry, etc.

■ In view of the growth of the 'problem groups', a special supplementary course in socio-pedagogy seems appropriate.

These initial and further training requirements apply in particular to trainers who have so far had the least to do with problems in the areas of occupational pedagogy, sociology and psychology. They include skilled workers who are not trainers but look after young people at the workplace⁸ and the training personnel of small and medium-sized firms.⁹

¹ For the trend in the quality of vocational training over the last 10 years, see the report drawn up by a group of independent researchers for the Metalworkers Union and entitled *Gutachten zur Finanzierung eines quantitativ und qualitativ ausreichenden und auswahlfähigen Ausbildungsplatzangebotes für alle Jugendlichen in den achtziger Jahren*: Frankfurt, 1983 (Schriftenreihe der IG Metall 98).

² See *Deutscher Bildungsrat, Zur Verbesserung der Lehrlingsausbildung, Empfehlungen der Bildungskommission*: Bonn, 1979.

³ See: M. BAETHGE: 'Zu Strukturproblemen der Berufsbildung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland in den 70er Jahren und zur Angebot-Nachfrage-Entwicklung bis 1990', in IG Metall (ed.), *Finanzierung der beruflichen Bildung*: Frankfurt, 1983.

⁴ See *Berufsbildungsberichte der Bundesregierung von 1983*, (p. 78 et seq.) and 1982 (p. 100 et seq.).

⁵ R. ARNOLD: 'Aus- und Weiterbildung des betrieblichen Bildungspersonals', in R. Arnold; Hülshoff (ed.), *Rekrutierung und Qualifikation des betrieblichen Bildungspersonals*: Heidelberg, 1981, p. 138.

⁶ See: K. KUTT: 'Aus- und Weiterbildung der Ausbilder: Bilanz und Perspektiven', in: *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik*. Vol. 26, 1980, No 6, p. 831.

⁷ See: A. LIPSMAYER: 'AdA: Ausrichtung der Ausbilder?', in *Gewerkschaftliche Berufsbildungspolitik*. 1974, No 1, p. 10 et seq.

⁸ The Federal Government's 1983 vocational training report (p. 79) rightly refers to the absence of further training specifically for these workers.

⁹ See: K. KUTT, H. TILCH: 'Weiterbildung der Ausbilder – Ergebnisse einer empirischen Untersuchung', in *Berufsbildung in Wissenschaft und Praxis*. 1978, No 4, p. 25 et seq.



What else can teachers do?

Friedemann Stooß

Introduction

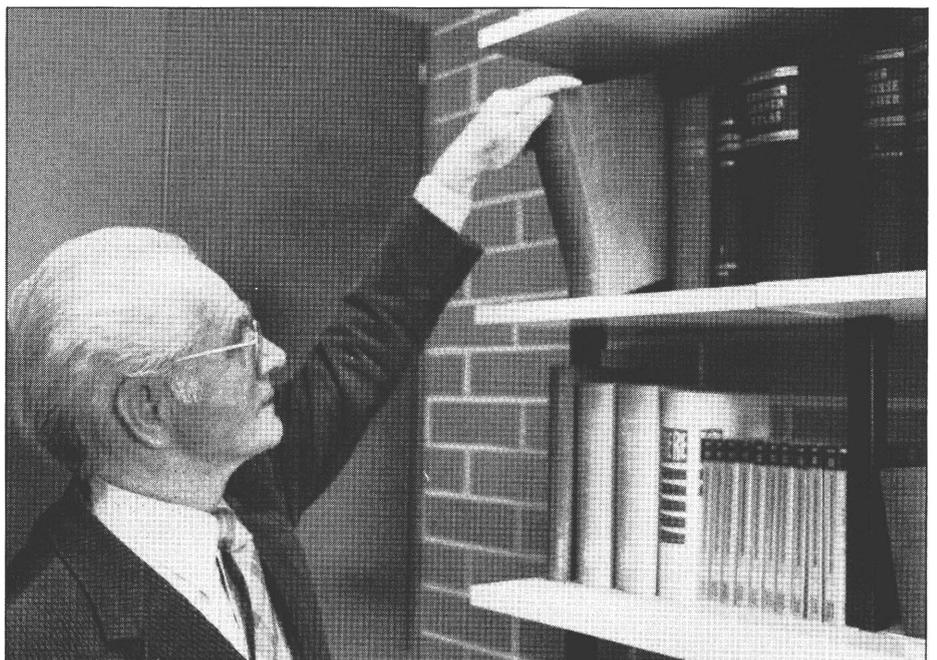
The popular view is that a teacher is a public servant who works in a school teaching children and young people what curricula laid down by the authorities require them to learn. He has prepared himself for his profession by studying at a university and has proved his aptitude during a second period of training *on the job*, i.e. in a school. A teacher's professional qualifications and his work are thus closely related. Anyone wanting to be a teacher must make up his mind at an early stage, usually when he enters university. A subsequent change from, say, studying chemistry or physics to teacher training or vice versa is a difficult and circuitous process and wastes time.

This being the case, it may seem unusual to ask whether teachers could do anything else. At least, it is not a question that has been raised in the past when teacher training curricula and rules governing access to the teaching profession have been drawn up. The debate on the subject did not begin until it became increasingly difficult to find teaching posts for all the graduates wanting them. In September 1982, for example, 19 400 qualified teachers were registered as unemployed with the employment services,

5 100 more than the previous year. Some do not even bother to register, or they are appointed to teach for fewer than the normal number of hours per week. And it is generally expected that the crisis will become even worse. The Kiel Institute for International Economic Affairs forecasts that 150 000 teachers will be out of work in the 1990s.

Everyone in the Federal Republic of Germany, from Education Ministries to teachers'

associations and trade unions, is looking for alternatives to the teaching profession. Various aspects of the current debate are briefly outlined below, beginning with a description of certain nebulous features of the 'teachers' labour market'. The discussion then turns to the obstacles a teacher encounters when changing to a non-teaching activity. The article ends with a summary of the findings of past analyses and conclusions to be drawn for future action.



FRIEDEMANN STOOß: Head of the Occupation and Qualification Research Department of the Institute for Labour Market and Occupational Research (IAB) of the Federal Employment Institution, Nuremberg

This being the case, it may seem unusual to ask whether teachers could do anything else.

The 'teachers' labour market' – a torso

Those who seek alternatives to teaching will ask where there is demand for teaching qualifications, who has vacancies and how many. A comparison with other occupations – that of the engineer, for example – shows that the teachers' labour market is far from perfect. There is no authority in the Federal Republic of Germany today capable of saying precisely where – other than in teaching – and how many posts might be filled by teacher training graduates.

If the teachers' labour market is likened to commodity markets and their structures (for a discussion of 'market structures' see *Handbuch der Wirtschaftswissenschaften*, Vol. 5, p. 107 et seq.), it can be said to consist of monopolistic market segments, each isolated from the others. The Education Ministries of the *Länder*, having a monopoly of supply, stipulate how many teachers are appointed and on what terms. Even private schools obey these rules, not wanting to forgo government grants or to find that the certificates they award are no longer recognized.

The influence which the Federal Employment Institution in Nuremberg, by law the country's supreme labour market authority, is able to exert on the teachers' labour market is limited to the vocational guidance it is required to provide: the information and advice careers guidance officers give to holders of university entrance certificates help to determine which university courses are avoided because they are considered too risky and which are regarded as offering good future prospects.

What the various authorities could do to alleviate the problems teachers face in the labour market is evident from the following figures:

■ Taking the 1980 figure of 560 000 full-time teaching posts as a basis, if the Education Ministers of the *Länder* increased teaching posts by 1%, jobs could be found for 5 600 young teachers.

■ If the Federal Employment Institution found non-teaching jobs for 5% of the teacher training graduates unemployed in 1982, only 970 teachers would be out of work.

The labour market will not therefore improve for teachers unless all concerned join in seeking solutions. They should tackle the problem before would-be teachers complete their studies. It is not enough to

wait until they have completed their education and then to look for jobs in which they might use their professional qualifications.

Possible approaches in the search for 'alternatives'

Let us put ourselves in the position of a teacher who, on the completion of his training, is told that there is no post for him and that he should look for a job outside the profession for which he has been studying. He will rightly ask whether the generally recommended methods of choosing an occupation should not be dropped. After all, he has abided by the rules and precepts of society and developed the skills that will enable him to qualify for a certain occupation, that of teacher. He has geared himself to 'teaching in schools as a civil servant' and his whole outlook to a lifetime of this activity. And given the link between training and work referred to above, he will be inclined to blame others rather than himself.

If we start at the beginning, it can be said that:

■ a professional qualification usually reflects the job content of the occupation concerned. The two profiles – the qualification profile and the occupation profile – correspond. This is the basic requirement in the choice of any occupation: the coming generation is offered occupational patterns on which to shape its abilities. This interrelationship cannot be abandoned without grave consequences for the individual and for society;

■ training for an occupation means two things: first, becoming competent in a given field, i.e. learning to use tools (teaching aids) in a certain working environment (classroom) in such a way that a prescribed task (the goal of teaching: imparting knowledge to pupils) is accomplished. In other words, competence consists in the application of the specialized knowledge acquired and mastery of the relevant working methods. Second, a qualification includes social competence, meaning attitudes, values and views, which correspond to the scope for action in the job. They are determined by status (civil servant), level of education (university) and working environment (classroom).

Training for an occupation is thus closely interlinked with the social context. It concerns more than the specific area of study. Social competence and the related development of occupational identity are just as much a part of it.

What else teachers can do is not, then, a question that can be answered solely by reference to competence in the specialized field in which they have received their training. The preservation and protection of personal and occupational identity are decisive factors if the transition from training to an occupation is to be accomplished without difficulty. As long as his occupational identity is preserved, the individual will be fairly safe when looking for work in areas that are unfamiliar and make uncustomed demands on him. The specific barriers faced by unemployed teachers,



What else teachers can do is not, then, a question that can be answered solely by reference to competence in the specialized field in which they have received their training.

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however, consist in the apparent threat not only to their competence in their chosen field but also to their social competence and so to their personal and occupational identity.

If unemployed teachers do not react with enthusiasm to offers of employment outside teaching made by the employment services, it is because of this twofold threat to the qualification they have acquired. Lengthy processes of reorientation must first be set in motion. Only if progress is made, will teachers accept non-teaching jobs in which their professional competence will be useful. Finding non-teaching jobs for unemployed teachers therefore presupposes that an attempt is made with them to redefine their occupational identity. Permanent integration into non-teaching activities is otherwise unlikely.

Findings of past analyses

As the above reflections show, our question cannot be answered simply by saying where there are jobs which are similar in content to teaching and in which the teacher's competence can be used to advantage: the problems connected with the preservation and protection of occupational identity must first be resolved and the gaps that still exist in research must be closed.

Past analyses have at least revealed a number of important indicators. Their findings are summarized in Tables 1 and 2, which are taken from the abridged report published by the Nuremberg Institute for Labour Market and Occupational Research on 24 March 1982. These conclusions were reached in two ways:

■ by investigating past 'natural wastage of teacher training graduates': routes – so the theory goes – which individuals took yesterday might today and tomorrow lead a growing number of young teachers unable to find teaching posts into other, suitable activities. It is argued that the teacher could use his professional competence in the jobs referred to in the first column of Table 1 (see also Table 2) and that the first task is, therefore, to persuade firms and authorities to offer unemployed teachers suitable jobs to which 'non-teachers' have hitherto been assigned;

■ at a theoretical level, by comparing the teacher's occupational profile with others: alternatives, according to this approach, would be activities which have much in common with teaching. Such activities are listed in the fourth column of Table 1. The

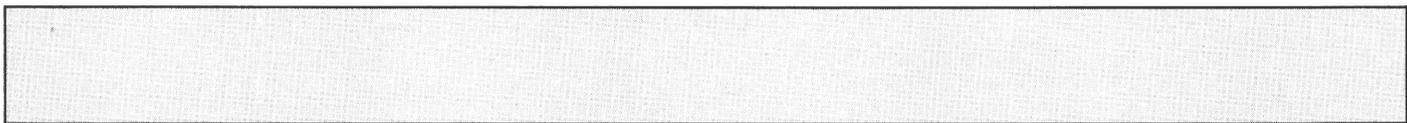
Table 1: Alternative employment for teacher training graduates (compiled with the aid of selected studies)

1. Changes of occupation in 1970 (occupational census) (teacher training graduates not occupying teaching posts Source: K. Parmentier, MittAB 4/1978, p. 241)	2. Non-teaching activities for arts graduates (languages and literature) (Source: interviews with graduates and employers conducted by Forschungsgruppe Kammerer, Munich 1980, pp. 19, 27, 39)		3. Non-teaching activities for arts graduates** (Source: Holtkamp/Teichler: Gutachten für die zentrale Studienreformkommission in Bonn, Kassel 1980, p. 70)	4. Potential activities for teacher training graduates derived from a comparison of occupations (Source: F. Stooß, Nuremberg, December 1979, unpublished manuscript)
	Institutions*	Duties/functions		
Businessmen, traders, executives/civil servants 42 %	Cultural institutions 24 %	Initial and continuing training, teaching 26 %	Focal areas: Communication/continuing training	Teaching/training: Basic vocational training
Manufacturing occupations 16 %	Universities, academic institutions 23 %	Special departments (excl. education and culture) 18 %	Industry/trade and public administration	In-company training
Scientists (in research) 13 %	Government agencies, incl. social insurance 20 %	Science, research 17 %	Specific activities: General/special editing, media/theatre	Guidance on educational, occupational and social questions
Social/health-care occupations (social workers, social pedagogues, occupational therapists) 11 %	Associations, clubs (e. g. travel couriers) 19 %	Guidance, counselling 13 %	PR work, advertising, marketing, public opinion research, consultancy	Further training, rehabilitation
Domestic, catering occupations, etc. 6 %	Press/publishing, libraries, archives 9 %	PR work, editing 12 %	Leisure activities/tourism	Leisure/social pedagogics, adult education
Engineers 5 %	Other posts 5 %	Education and culture departments 5 %	Social, church and overseas development services	Indirect utilization of pedagogical and didactic skills: Archives, documentation, library work
Communication occupations (librarians, journalists, etc.) 4 %	Total 100 %	Documentation, library, archives 5 %	Diplomatic service, translation	Editing in press, radio, TV
Legal advisers 3 %	(N = 1 489 teacher training graduates)	Management, administration 2 %	Public administration, education planning	Activities in specific areas: In special departments as employee/civil servant
Total: 100 %		Other activities 2 %	Universities/private schools, in-company initial and further training, adult education	Customer-oriented activities of all kinds: Distribution, marketing, customer service
(N = 28 900 graduates giving the first State examination as their final qualification)		Total 100 %	Education and culture departments	Advertising, PR work
		(N = 1 506 teacher training graduates)	Library, documentation, archives	EDP-oriented activities: (the application of information systems)
			International organizations, associations, chambers of commerce, etc.	

* Selected from: A. Oeckl (ed.), *Handbuch des öffentlichen Lebens*, (1978 edition) and supplementary interviews.

** The entries under this heading reflect the findings of various studies. The original list has been modified for the purposes of the table (the activities have been regrouped).

Source: N. Havers, K. Parmentier, F. Stooß: *Alternative Einsatzfelder für Lehrer?* BeitrAB 73, Nuremberg, p. 121.



lower an activity appears in this column, the less similarity it has with teaching. The result is a list of activities which have more or less in common with teaching but resemble each other in that they pursue the goal of 'relaying facts in such a way that they are understood by others'.

Both courses – the investigation of 'natural wastage' and the 'congruence model' – lead to identical areas of activity, although the figures vary substantially. One reason for the discrepancy is that it is impossible to conduct representative surveys of qualified teachers in non-teaching jobs. The only alternative, therefore, is to consider examples of non-teaching jobs suitable for qualified teachers. The conclusion that must in any case be drawn is that the work of qualified teachers who have found jobs outside teaching is similar to that done by teachers.

The link between the two types of activity is the 'teacher's pedagogical and didactic competence'. It has yet to be established what changes the individual had to make to obtain the post he now occupies. It must also be asked whether routes taken by isolated individuals yesterday can be offered tomorrow to thousands of graduates as safe forms of transition. Those who have sought non-teaching posts in the past have usually done so because they felt their original choice was wrong. The situation today is that those who do not find teaching posts have no choice but to seek alternative employment. The fact that many only take this course of action in the hope that one day they will be able to teach is a further major difference from the situation in the past.

Conclusions drawn from past analyses

It must first be emphasized that the end of a two-stage period of training is a very unfavourable time to point graduates towards employment outside the occupation for which they have been studying. If this situation is to change, however, teacher training courses will have to be restructured. The sooner they begin to cover areas outside teaching in which pedagogical and didactic skills can be used, the sooner the mobility of graduates will be increased. The researcher is unable to decide, however, what approaches might be adopted in this respect. He can but call on the institutions

Table 2: Recruitment criteria and opportunities for the utilization of knowledge in alternative forms of employment for teacher training graduates

(a) Recruitment criteria applicable to teacher training graduates, by organizations with and without experience in the employment of teacher graduates, in %

Recruitment criteria referred to by employers/firms*	Organizations/ companies with experience in the employment of teacher training graduates	Organizations/ companies without experience in the employment of teacher training graduates	Total
Specialized knowledge (of subject studied)	26	39	35
Pedagogical abilities	21	18	18
Other specialized knowledge	13	20	18
Personal characteristics	16	13	14
Work experience	12	6	7
Additional formal qualifications	6	3	4
Other recruitment criteria	6	2	3
Total (= 100 %) Sample size	275	748	1 023

* The individual figures provided by institutions/companies have been taken to equal 100%. They have been derived from the random sample described in: Oeckl (ed.), *Handbuch des öffentlichen Lebens* (1978 edition), and from an additional survey of major daily newspapers offering posts.

Source: Forschungsgruppe Kammerer, Munich 1980, p. 72 (study on 'Beschäftigungsmöglichkeiten und -bedingungen von Lehramtsabsolventen geisteswissenschaftlicher Fächer außerhalb des Schuldienstes'; commissioned by the Lower Saxon Minister for Science and Art, Hanover).

(b) The extent to which skills that teacher training students are encouraged to develop outside their chosen subject area can be used in non-teaching activities

Nature of the skill outside the chosen subject area	The skill concerned		
	was developed during teacher training	can be used in non-teaching activities	Difference in %
Making oneself familiar with a subject area through private study	87	77	- 10
Summarizing texts, discussions, conversations, etc. orally or in writing	65	60	- 5
Assessing the logic and meaning of arguments	57	52	- 7
Speaking before a fairly large audience without notes	53	52	- 1
Planning, organizing and checking work processes independently	47	63	+ 16
Reducing complex subject matter to simple terms	39	55	+ 16
Working with others/cooperation	35	40	+ 5
Looking after others (e. g. as tutor)	20	28	+ 8
Greater independence and the ability to tolerate increased mental stress	4	5	+ 1
Development of socially critical awareness	4	4	± 0
Total (multiple responses)	411	436	

Source: Forschungsgruppe Kammerer, Munich, op. cit., p. 148 (obtained from N. Havers, K. Parmentier, F. Stooß: *Alternative Einsatzfelder für Lehrer?* BeitrAB 73, Nuremberg 1983, p. 122).

concerned to play their part in overcoming the difficulties.

What strategies could be pursued to reveal alternative activities for teachers is also

largely a matter of speculation. Past studies allow of two opposing hypotheses, which the above-mentioned report of the Nuremberg Institute for Labour Market and Occupational Research describes as follows:

■ *Hypothesis 1* regards the teacher primarily as an 'expert in pedagogical and didactic questions'. His strength lies in his ability to put across the substance of his subject in such a way that it follows directly on from the pupil's/student's previous knowledge and a process of efficient learning is set in motion. Consequently, activities similar to teaching are those in which subject matter has to be prepared or discovered for readers, listeners, viewers, users, customers, etc. This presupposes that the individual concerned has completed both stages of his training and does not begin to look for alternative employment until that time, i.e. after taking the second State examination, which qualifies him to teach.

Advanced vocational training or retraining courses should also follow on from the second stage of teacher training.

■ *Hypothesis 2* assumes that the would-be teacher has demonstrated his competence in his chosen subject by passing the first State examination. This opens the door to employment in related areas. The second stage of training merely hampers the transition to non-teaching activities, the danger being that the individual will then identify more closely with the teaching profession, thus making the change to a different occupation even more difficult.

A comparison of the two hypotheses with the findings of past studies tends to confirm the first rather than the second. Strategies for reducing teachers' employment problems which are based on the second hypothesis soon come up against the limits to the absorptive capacity of the relevant labour market segments. This is particularly true of courses in the humanities, but also of

alternatives now being offered by universities in the form of MA courses.

The researcher believes that students should be able to complete both stages of teacher training. Both should pay greater attention to the development of pedagogical and didactic skills which can be suitably used in areas other than teaching. This would benefit both aspects, teaching and non-teaching activities.

What changes in courses of study this shift in emphasis will entail is an interdisciplinary question: it must be tackled jointly by universities and school authorities. The same applies to supplementary courses designed to provide occupational guidance or to guide teacher training undergraduates into other occupations. They should look more closely at the problem of occupational identity and its protection in non-teaching activities.

NB: This article summarizes essential aspects of a study carried out by the Institute for Labour Market and Occupational Research (IAB), Nuremberg: Norbert Havers, Klaus Parmentier, Friedemann Stooß, 'Alternative Einsatzfelder für Lehrer? Eine Bestandsaufnahme zur aktuellen Diskussion', in *Beiträge zur Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung (BeitrAB)*. Vol. 73, Nuremberg, 1983 (with relevant bibliographical references).

Training personnel for 'first and second class' systems

Rhys Gwyn

Introduction

My brief, in the preparation of this article, has been to analyse some of the problems facing the training of vocational trainers in Europe, in the light of the traditional bifurcation of the 'dual system'* or systems of general and vocational schooling. If it is true, as I believe it to be, that the wide disparities and deficiencies in the training available to vocational trainers is a cause for concern at Community level, then it is necessary to see this bifurcation as a key element in the problem faced. We have to recognize that the dilemma which it creates is not a technical one alone, which might be solved by added course provision here, or a strengthening of resources there. There exists, in fact, a philosophical and cultural problem, the historical roots of which reach very deeply and tenaciously into certain assumptions which are basic to the self-image which Western Europe holds of itself. Unless governments are prepared to recognize and tackle the problem at this level – an eventuality which one has to regard as highly unlikely – then no amount of tinkering with the existing systems will have any effective impact on the situation. If there is hope at all that effective action might be taken, then that hope can only reside in the pressure which is increasingly being generated on the dual system by the rising tide of youth unemployment and by the long-term impact of the new technologies; both are topics of interest, to which I shall return.

* 'Dual system' is used throughout this article as referring to the dual systems of general education on the one hand, and vocational education and training on the other. It does not refer to the dual system of off-and-on-the-job training practised in some Member States, particularly the Federal Republic of Germany.

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Study on teacher training for the Commission

My reflections are based on a study, carried out during 1981/82, for Directorate-General V of the Commission of the European Communities.¹ The object of the study was the preparation, in standardized manner, of information concerning all identifiable qualifications currently 'on offer' to intending teachers in the 10 Member States – in all, a total of twenty-three autonomous educational systems.² Some 225 qualifications were recorded, covering both general and vocational education.

Work on the report immediately highlighted certain characteristics of the provision of training for vocational trainers in the Ten. As an area, it is considerably more complex than either of the other two fields covered, namely the training of primary and of secondary teachers.

Primary teacher training

The simplest area to cover is that of the primary teaching qualification – itself, of course, a vocational qualification in one sense, though not the technical one used here. Broadly speaking, there will be one, or at most two, qualifications for this sector in each system (Denmark is atypical in its definition of 'primary').

Lower secondary teacher training

Lower secondary teaching qualifications are slightly more complicated in some systems, though not all. Typically, the increased complexity is only as the level of there being, for example, three qualifications available as in many of the German *Länder*, though it is important to point out



No-one would deny that the preparation of some pupils for a university career is an important function.

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For 'dual system', read 'first and second class'.

that this introduces the notion of hierarchy (Gymnasium – Realschule – Hauptschule) found also in the Netherlands. The Dutch system, in fact, introduces an added complexity, since in this country vocational training commences for some pupils at the lower-secondary level, and this is reflected in the teaching qualifications available.

Upper secondary teacher training

But it is at the upper-secondary level (corresponding roughly with the end of compulsory schooling, but, surprisingly, not necessarily so) that the complexity really emerges, since we are here dealing with both the continuation of general education and the proliferation of vocational training.

So far as the former is concerned, it is possible to say that, with due allowance made for the national differences which are essential to the fabric which we call Europe, certain broad similarities of teacher prepara-

tion do exist; qualifications, while by no means identical, are recognizable (in both senses of the word) from one Member State to another. But such comparability is far more difficult to identify when we look at the qualifications of vocational trainers, whether the criterion be the actual range of qualifications on offer, or the length and content of training – or indeed, whether training of the trainers is required at all. And I am here referring only to State-recognized qualifications; behind which lurk, of course, the problems of identifying the provision made in the private sector.

The general picture is of an *ad-hoc* provision. The boundaries between the two sides of the dual system are themselves blurred, and the institutions offering training to vocational trainers may or may not fit the pattern for the training of general educators. Some qualifications have to be taken prior to appointment; some may be taken later. The emphasis in the recruitment of vocational trainers is upon their professional skill and expertise, so that entrants are often 'mature'. It is not necessarily realistic

to require them to undergo lengthy didactic and pedagogical (more accurately, andragogical) study (at what level? for how long? at whose expense?). The picture which emerges is, as I have said, *ad hoc* and untidy, and one is left with the inescapable conclusion that, so far as State provision is concerned, the training of vocational trainers has benefited far less than has that of general educators from rational planning. All is relative, of course, and a great many professionals in the field of general teacher training would be highly sceptical of the claim that it is a sector which has been the subject of 'rational' planning, but the impression remains that vocational training generally is seen as a lower order of priority.³

The basic issue – One of esteem

And this, in a very broad sense indeed, is what I wish to put forward as the root of the



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philosophical problem which I identified earlier. I offer it as an hypothesis, namely that the basic issue is one of *esteem*, at the levels both of policy making and – very importantly – of public opinion, and that it is the lack of this esteem which is the besetting weakness of vocational training. The wider problem of esteem permeates, in fact, the dual system in its entirety.

There is, I submit, a traditional hierarchy of esteem affecting the teaching profession which rests on the recognition of four different functions. The ‘lowest’ of these functions, let us accept for the sake of argument, is that of providing vocational training: we may caricaturize a little and say that vocational training is seen as being concerned only with manual skills – the image is demonstrably false, and absurdly so, but it persists. Moreover, in most systems vocational training falls outside the period of compulsory full-time schooling with which all parents are necessarily concerned, and for that reason also is of less compelling interest than is general educa-

tion. At the other end of the hierarchical spectrum we find what I shall call the ‘pre-university’ teacher, he or she of the finely tuned academic mind, whose mission it is to lead others towards a sharing of the enlightenment; there is no question of the high status of this class of teacher at least where public opinion is concerned. In between these two categories come both those secondary-level teachers who teach the ‘rest’, that is the majority of pupils, who will not go on to higher education (and whose teachers, consequently, need be nothing much academically) and primary teachers, who deal only with little children and who also have a very undemanding professional role.

Now, such a caricature is grossly over-simplified. But it is not to be dismissed on these grounds alone, for it embodies a very important truth about our educational systems. True, the pre-university teacher is almost a vanishing species, given the spread of comprehensivization, but they remain a very entrenched group, both in their new

redoubts at upper-secondary level and in the privileges of their legal status in some Member States; these privileges include any or all of higher salary, fewer hours, specialization in one subject rather than having to deal with two or more, and work with the more committed pupils – in short, a professional existence which is on a recognizable continuum from that of the university professor.

No-one would deny that the preparation of some pupils for a university career is an important function of the general education side of the dual system. What needs to be re-examined, however, is the extent to which this function has dominated and distorted the collective image of what education should be and do, with any other function – such as that of training people to do valuable and productive work with their hands – seen as a necessary, but clearly inferior, activity. It is an image which reaches back to the cultural values of Renaissance humanism and of the Enlightenment, as enshrined in the phrase ‘a liberal

education', and is essentially elitist. (The French Revolution, for example, did not destroy this concept; it merely made access to the elite open – if in theory only – to all.)

True, population growth made necessary the extension of the third (primary) rank in the hierarchy, best identified with the German concept of the Volksschule, the people's school, which has come to be institutionalized in the form of universal primary education. True, also, that the growing demands of industry and commerce for skilled labour did foster the growth of vocational schooling. True, finally, that the social climate of the 1960s and 1970s prescribed prolongation of 'people's schooling', creating the second of our four hierarchical categories. All of these developments have helped shape the dual systems as we know them today, but they have not amounted to rational, cohesive planning, nor have they made inroads into the hold which the liberal education ideal has over the collective imagination. Until we face this problem, we cannot begin to reshape our education and training systems into a set of priorities which will fit them for the demands of a post-industrial society.

Adverse impact of the ideals of liberal education

The ideals of liberal education are fine in themselves, and to attack them is to risk apparent philistinism. None the less, their total impact on our thinking about the education of the totality of pupils, and on the status of vocational training specifically, is demonstrably adverse on at least three grounds:

- the ideals of liberal education are often pedagogically unsound in that they mimic the university mode of teaching with all its emphasis on knowledge of the subject at the expense of analysis of pupils' learning needs;

- because they have firm class and culture origins, their content is often demonstrably inappropriate to the situation of a great many adolescents;⁴

- their existence as the pre-eminent norm – as I have said – implicitly denigrates all other forms of education and training as inferior. They even arrogate to themselves the function of 'protecting' pupils against the 'harsh realities' of the world of work.

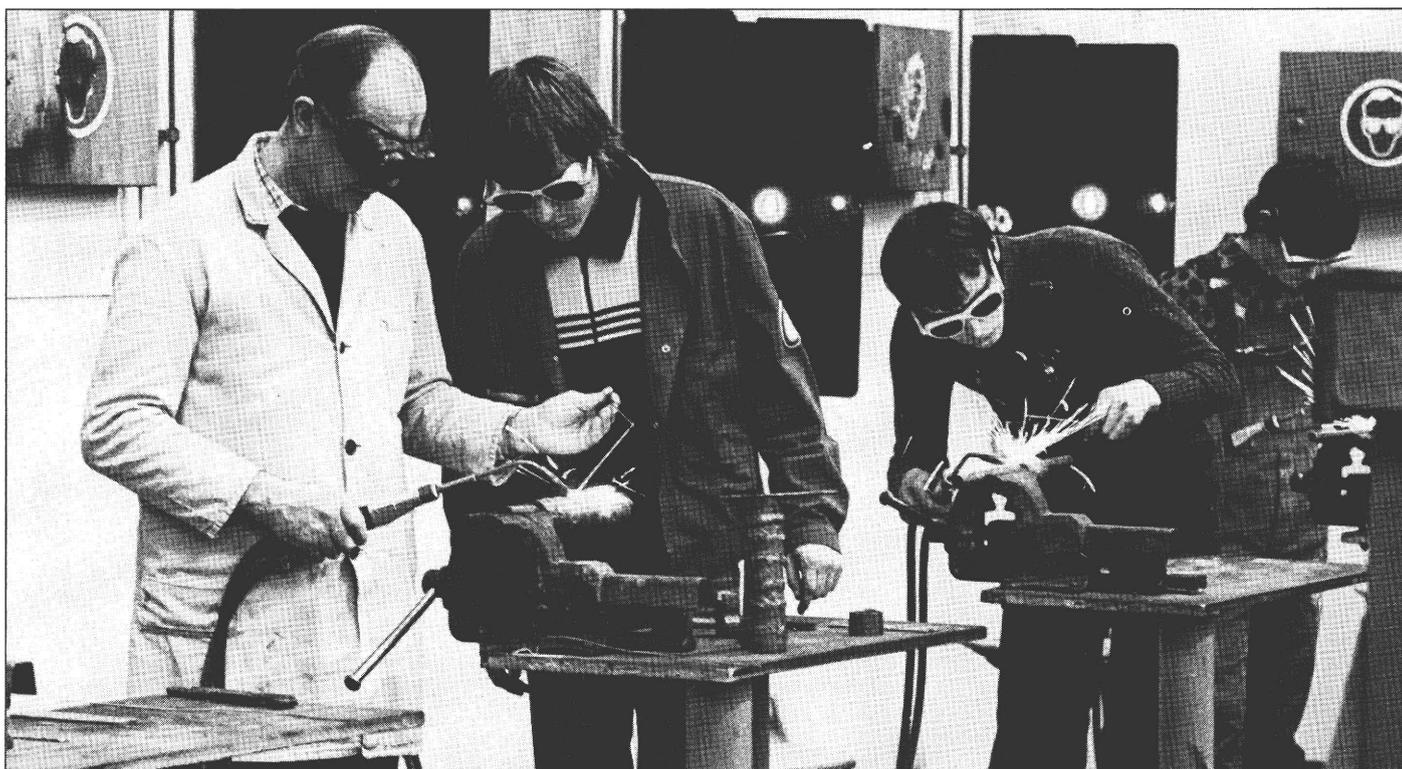
To say this is not to cry for the abolition of liberal education; it is merely to see it for what it is: a form of education appropriate to a relatively limited number of pupils, and one which should not be allowed to distort the provision made for all pupils.

Can the barriers be broken down?

What are the ways ahead? Is there an ideal solution? Are there any prospects for the breaking down of the hierarchical barriers in the dual system and for a creative interpenetration of the different sectors and their teacher training?

An integrated secondary education system

It is possible to construct an idealistic blueprint for an integrated secondary education of the future, in which, incidentally, a great deal would be learned from the



What would follow, again naturally and logically, from such a concept would be a far greater integration of the training of vocational trainers with that of general education teachers.

pedagogy which has long been a growing strength of primary training. By an integrated secondary education I envisage an education (and I here include the word 'training') as one founded upon the criterion of appropriateness; appropriateness of what is taught to the learning needs of the child, to the culture in which the child lives, and also to the society in which he or she will live and work. To this criterion we should need to add the double perspective which underlies all educational activity, i.e. a perspective centred upon the child as a child and upon the child as a future adult.

It is possible to identify the broad components of such an education. It would contain, for all pupils:

- an inculcation of the intellectual skills required to provide a base of knowledge and to facilitate further learning;
- an introduction to the cultural values of Western society;
- the development of an understanding of how society is structured and works;
- laying the basis for the personal and inter-personal life-skills required by all individuals;

■ provision of an understanding and preliminary experience of the world of work.

What would need to underpin such an education would be the two concepts of flexibility and continuity. Since entry to the world of work comes earlier to some pupils than to others, it is necessary to be flexible in the balance of the five functions I have identified as they are offered to different groups of pupils, but to achieve this without educational (and therefore social) divisiveness. And once the basic principle is accepted that secondary education should provide an appropriate entry to adult life in all its aspects, then there no longer exists an argument for maintaining the complete separateness of the dual system; vocational training should grow out of a re-interpreted general education in a natural and logical manner.

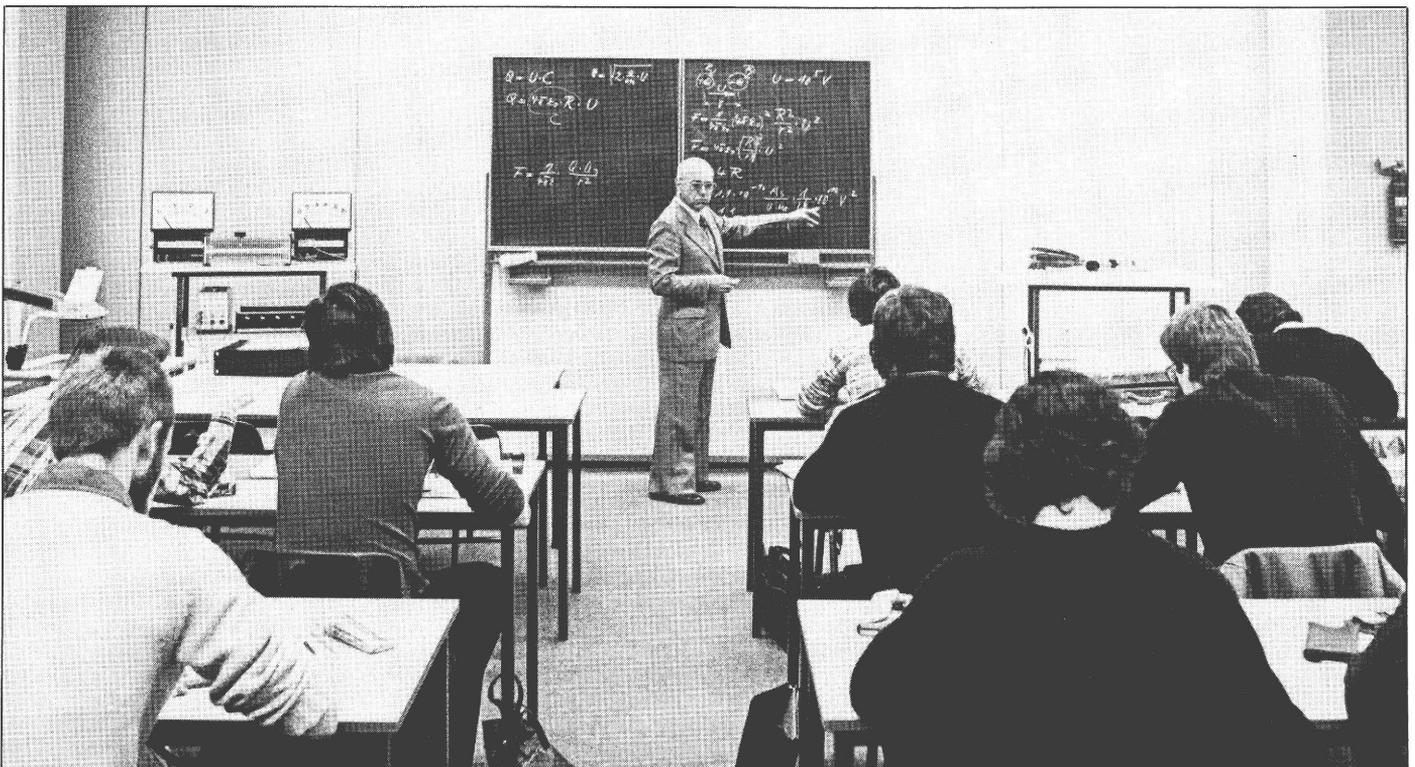
Integration of the training of teachers and vocational trainers

What would follow, again naturally and logically, from such a concept would be a

far greater integration of the training of vocational trainers with that of general education teachers – to, may I suggest, the mutual benefit of both. The advantage to trainer training would be that of closer contact with the pedagogical and other resources of Primary and Secondary training; the advantage to general education sector training would be that of contact with a real world of work and employment, an aim which has already been identified in more than one country. The advantage to both sectors would be that of cohesiveness and integration.

However, there remains a caveat. The mere removal of barriers between trainer training and general teacher training will not of itself improve the status of the trainers and of vocational training. I return to the question of esteem.

Public opinion is slow to change. But a determined effort at government level could achieve a great deal. In addition to the greater integration of the two areas of teacher training, it would be necessary also to take action on conditions of service and, critically, on salary levels. Only by giving the vocational trainer parity of esteem with-



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in the system in every sense can governments begin to raise the quality and provision generally of vocational training. The resource implications are considerable.

Signs of change

Are there any signs of a movement in the directions sketched here? Certainly, there seems to be a recognition that some rethinking of attitudes is called for. In the face of the ever-growing number of young unemployed, whose existence no emergency training schemes can disguise, there is a widespread realization that something fairly drastic needs to be done about the secondary education of those pupils whose records suggest that they are not likely to proceed to university or other forms of higher education. The social alienation of this group is already high, and it seems inevitable that the rethink required will need to take carefully into account the provision not only of post-compulsory vocational

training but also a more solid foundation within the secondary cycle.

And the impact of the new technologies has still to be seen fully. Whatever this may finally be, to those of us working in the area, certain changes seem inevitable. They include making all pupils aware of some of the ways in which information technologies (IT) will affect the earning of a living at both personal and national levels. All pupils will need, in different measure perhaps, the skills required to co-exist with, and make use of, the new technologies, not only at work but also in daily personal life. Finally though the topic is far too large to be summarized in three sentences – our educational systems may have to adjust to a new role: one of preparing children, not for a life in which employment is the norm and unemployment a temporary aberration, but in which the amount of time which the individual spends at work is in fact relatively limited either at any one time or over a lifetime.

If only some of the predictions made about IT are true then – given also that the new

technologies are in fact a means of providing education as well – our education systems must submit to fundamental re-examination. In such a re-examination, given the nature of the IT phenomenon, it is to be hoped that the absurdity of our present system of treating preparation for working life as something separate from what we call 'education' will be seen as the nonsense it is, and that the status of what we now call vocational training, and with it the training and status of the trainers, will be vastly improved.

References

- ¹ GWYN, R.: 'Initial training qualifications of teachers in Member States of the European Community', October 1982. Permission of DG V to refer to the report in this article is gratefully acknowledged.
- ² Two in Belgium, three in the UK, eleven in the Federal Republic of Germany and Berlin, one in each of the other Member States.
- ³ I am very aware of the risks of generalization and am familiar with some of the excellent provision made. I do not regard this, however, as typical.
- ⁴ See, for example, articles by LOUIS LEGRAND and ANTOINE PROST in: *European journal of teacher education*, Vol. 6, No 3 (forthcoming, November 1983).

Training of trainers

J. Michael Adams

Many of the projects undertaken by Cedefop have illustrated the need to focus attention on the question of the training of trainers. An earlier edition of *Vocational training* (4/1979) was devoted to the issue.

The objective of the study launched during 1981 was to identify hypotheses and initiatives to be implemented at Community level, and in each Member State, in order to develop the initial and continuing training of vocational trainers, and enable them to face technological, economic and social challenges.

The problems of definitions and scope, raised above in the editorial immediately had to be faced. It was realized, from the outset, that it was not possible to deal with the question of the initial and in-service training of trainers without considering questions of where they worked, by whom they were employed, what their terms of employment were, which particular groups they trained, etc. It was also found necessary, in order to limit the scope of the task, to concentrate on the training of those whose primary function was the training of young people, i.e. those who were primarily concerned with the training of people over 25 years of age, were not considered. Three main groups of trainers were distinguished, i.e. those who train in enterprises, those who train in training organizations (particularly public ones), and those who train (or teach) in organizations within an educational framework (vocational schools, further education colleges, *enseignement technique*, *Berufsschule*, etc.).

On the basis of guidelines agreed at meetings in Berlin, national reports were prepared in eight of the Member States of the European Community between December 1981 and November 1982. These reports were, in draft form, the subject of a discussion with interested parties at national level.

The national reports are being published by Cedefop in their original language, and in English and French.

It will be seen that in the contributions which follow from the Member States, many of the authors are also the authors of the national reports.

From the beginning of work on the project, the need for a synthesis report was seen, and indeed the author of the synthesis was involved in preparing the guidelines for the structure and scope of the national reports. The task of general reporter was entrusted to Mr Benoît Théry of Quatenaire Education in Paris. His report which draws not only on the national reports, but also on discussion between the authors at meetings in Berlin, has been published by Cedefop in French, and will eventually also be available in English, German and Italian. In the brief article which follows, Mr Théry presents in an abbreviated form some of the conclusions which he arrived at.

Parallel to this work on the general question of the training and occupational situation of trainers, Cedefop launched a specific and more limited study concentrating on the situation of the training of trainers in alternance training. The methods used were similar. In this case, national reports from three Member States have been prepared.

The authors of the national reports on training of trainers for alternance training are:

France:
Mr C. Bapst, Mr P. Barrault, Ms E. Beauvallet-Caillet, Mr A. Dupeyron, Mr G. Sarazin – ADEP.

Netherlands:
Mr B. Koegler – Pedagogisch Centrum Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven.

United Kingdom:

Mr R. Johnson, Mr E. Singer – Ron Johnson Associates Ltd.

These reports will also be published in their original languages, in addition to English and French. In this case, the synthesis is being prepared by Mr Paul Maisonneuve of Quatenaire Education in Paris. It will also eventually be published. Cedefop's intention is to present the results of both these projects to a conference to be held, probably in 1984, at which policy-makers in governments, representatives of the social partners, and researchers will participate. Cedefop hopes that with the participation of the Commission of the European Communities in the conference, some indications for future action by the Commission and Cedefop at Community level, and by the relevant national authorities, may emerge.

The authors of these national reports on the training of trainers are:

Belgium:

Mr E. Carlier.

Denmark:

Ms E. Koefoed – SEL.

Germany:

Ms B. Kraus, Ms M. Krebstakies.

France:

Mr A. Cooblin, Ms A. Quincy – Onisep.

Ireland:

Ms S. L. Doyle, Ms B. McGennis – Research & Planning Division – AnCO – The Industrial Training Authority.

Italy:

Mr N. Delai, Mr A. Ferrari – Censis

The Netherlands:

Mr H. C. Schellekens – Pedagogisch Centrum Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven.

United Kingdom:

Mr M. J. Kelly – Manchester Polytechnic.

Towards a training of trainers appropriate to its economic and social context

Benoît Thery

In the environment for young people's vocational training in European countries today, a real challenge is often created by such factors as: headlong technological progress spurred on by international competitors such as Japan; the changing pattern of the European economy resulting from the redistribution of work and production in the world (in which semi-industrialized nations are taking a growing share); rising unemployment figures or at best the stabilization of unemployment at a high level, youth unemployment in particular; and sociological changes occurring within Europe.

On occasions, vocational training is being expected to provide more now than it has ever been accustomed to offer. It may be called upon to play a role as a medium and long-term investment or as a means of regulating society, and these new functions may make fresh demands on the trainers.

What are the implications of the changes to the people who train young people for jobs?

Trainer qualifications: changing demands

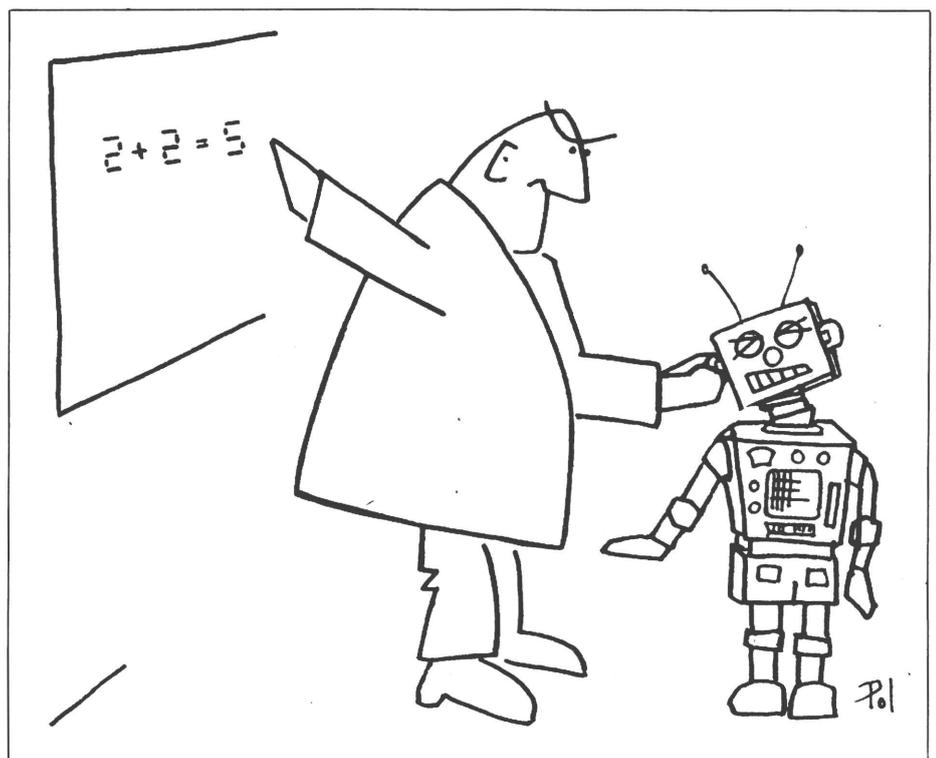
The primary demand on trainers generated by technological and economic change is that they should expand and update their own technical skills. People whose own training dates back to the past have the task today of training young people in the technologies of tomorrow. Unless they make regular, systematic efforts to update their technical knowledge, the information

they pass on to young people may be irrelevant and out of date. 'Updating' implies more than keeping abreast of what is going on in the workplace; they must look even further ahead.

Trainers are frequently expected to have a fairly broad scientific background so that they can assimilate new technological subjects. They will find that broad scientific background particularly useful if they have to master completely new technical skills, as may be the case if the crafts they teach are due to disappear or if there are radical changes by comparison with the technologies traditionally used in a trade. When

assessing the desirable qualifications for a trainer, these demands polarize in what might be called the need for *technological expertise*.

The climate of uncertainty that prevails when considering how the economy may change in the medium and long-term means that trainers must have other types of qualification as well. They must be capable of adapting their method of teaching young people in order to develop a sense of initiative, mobility and adaptability. To do this, however, they must first possess those qualities themselves. They must also be expert in various approaches to teaching:



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learning through discovery, to encourage young people to find things out for themselves; *project learning*, to stimulate creativity, initiative and the ability to work with others; and the organization of training into *cumulative modules*, so that youngsters can progress at their own rate and learn about *self-orientation* in the situations they may encounter in their jobs.

The atmosphere of uncertainty we have described is aggravated by the high level of unemployment, a social challenge for which vocational training is has no direct response. One recent approach to the problem is based, as far as training is concerned, on the concept of 'transferable key skills'. This approach* is designed to teach young people basic skills that are useful in and applicable to widely differing jobs, enabling them to transfer those skills from one employment sector to another and even from one trade to another. The assumption is that the trainers are themselves trained in defining and transmitting such transferable key skills.

These requirements point to the second of the qualifications desirable for trainers, a pole which might be defined as *teaching ability*.

Because the youngsters are being trained in a context of unemployment, trainers must give them the best possible chance of gaining a foothold in the working world. The prerequisite is that the trainers themselves are entirely familiar with how a company works – its goals, production processes and the organization of its production, its social organization, working methods and conditions, etc. Young people should also be offered practical information about how to run a business, since they may well set up on their own (farming, doing a craft, running a shop or providing a service) to create jobs for themselves.

In practical terms, this means that trainers must have personal experience of business enterprise, something that also helps them to acquire first-hand experience of techniques actually used on the shop floor – the '*business experience*' that polarizes part of the qualifications expected of them.

Finally, in today's social context (underemployment and sociological change), trainers must be acutely aware of the difficulties facing the more disadvantaged youngsters

* An approach that has been considered, for example, by the Manpower Services Commission in the United Kingdom for the Youth Training Scheme.

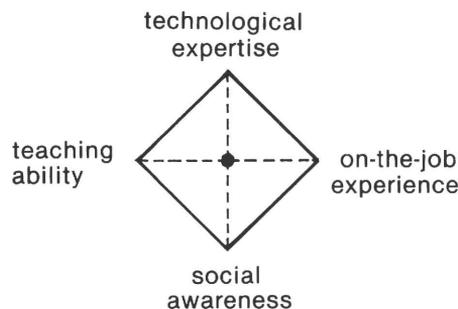


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These requirements point to the second of the qualifications desirable for trainers, a pole which might be defined as 'teaching ability'.

and be receptive to changes in patterns of social behaviour. This awareness and receptiveness polarize the fourth demand of trainers' qualifications, '*social concern*'.

The four areas of skill as defined could be illustrated in the form of a diamond-shaped diagram:



The central point is the position of a trainer who has struck a happy medium of all the skill areas in his profession without undue emphasis on any one of the four.

It would be a mistake to believe – nor is it even desirable – that all trainers, whatever their category, should cover all four skill areas and achieve complete equilibrium. Their aims in terms of qualifications and training should be modulated to allow for any distinctions in the job profiles for trainers in Europe and their own terms of reference. Trainers may occupy different points in the 'qualifications diamond', depending on their profile and mission.

The training needs of different categories of trainer

In the light of observation of the professional status of trainers, a distinction may be made between three categories, to be found in most European countries. Each category can often be seen as having its own training needs, as follows.

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■ Trainers who provide a theoretical grounding in a trade, such as the teachers of theory in vocational subjects in the Berufsschule in West Germany or the LEP* in France. These teachers have come to the profession through the channel of higher education and they now need a long period on the shop floor or in the company and an acquaintance with social issues (for example in vocational guidance, job placement or ergonomic advisory agencies).

■ Trainers who demonstrate the practical side of a job, such as the workshop instructor in the Berufsschule, the teacher of practical subjects in the LEP and the trainer in the MSC** Skill Centre in the United Kingdom. These trainers have learned their skills on the job and their basic technical training has been at average level (skilled workers or technicians).

These practical instructors or monitors need further training in technology*** to make it easier for them to update their technical expertise or switch from one field of skill to another. It may often be necessary to give them extra instruction in the art of teaching, as in many cases they have received no guidance except an introduction to teaching when they first started work as trainers.

■ People within a company training young people to do a job. These trainers are particularly common in countries with a 'dual system' (Denmark and the Federal Republic of Germany), but they are also to be found in the other European countries, in all of which apprenticeship systems are more or less widespread and more or less formal.

The foremost need of in-company trainers is to learn now to teach in relation to the job (not the theory of teaching), as well as training in technology*** in some cases. It is not desirable to turn these in-company trainers into 'professional educators', as they might then be distanced from production work and become white-collar workers; their prime value lies in their ability to pass on the benefit of their own practical experience of the job to the rising generation, and this might be lost.

There will obviously be slight variations in each national situation and each country will have differing requirements and expecta-

tations of the qualifications for the individual categories of training. The eight national reports on the status and training of these trainers, commissioned by Cedefop in 1982, explain these variations in detail and will fill in the details of what has been described in all too sketchy an outline here.

In conclusion, one point could be made: any recommendations that are formulated on the training of trainers may be less effective if the training systems and institutions fail to set up permanent opportunities for trainers to update their knowledge.

Apart from measures relating to the training of trainers proper (for example, defining rights and obligations in continuing training), plans should be made for changes in the way training institutions are run and the status of the teaching staff in those institutions.

For example, can a technical instructor be recruited solely on the basis of theoretical

knowledge alone? Does he have the statutory right to continue teaching a subject that has fallen into disuse? How can he preach the virtues of adaptability, job mobility and teamwork to young people if he has no opportunity to practise these virtues himself? Can he take part in an alternance training scheme without having experienced such a scheme as part of his own training or without organizing exchanges with trainers in the institution that is a partner in the scheme? How can he work as an in-company trainer if he is subject to the same production goals and constraints as his colleagues? Can he ask young people to produce a job-related project if the institution for which he works suggests no project for himself or for the educational team of which he is a member?

These are some of the questions which may be put to the training institutions and systems. Do they themselves provide formative experience for their trainers through the way they are run and their statutes?



These trainers have learned their skills on the job and their basic technical training has been at average level (skilled workers or technicians).

* Lycée d'Enseignement Professionnel.

** Manpower Services Commission.

*** Technology in this case implies a grounding in technical subjects based on scientific abstraction.



The situation and training of trainers . . .

In Belgium

Ernest Carlier

The training of trainers: a changing pattern of problems

'Young blood doth not obey an old decree', to quote from Shakespeare's *Love's Labours Lost* (IV, 3). Since the 1930s the inability of the educational system to move with the times has been a feature of our countries – and Belgium is no exception. There have been several factors, however, that have broadened the gap between theory and habit on the one hand and, on the other, actual requirements. More and more, 'decrees are becoming older'.

Factor one: the collapse of whole sectors of industry. Belgian trainers who used to work in Borinage, the Charleroi area, Liège, Limbourg or Antwerp had been specifically trained – and were working – in fields such as coal-mining, the iron and steel industry and shipbuilding. Instructors worked and were *needed* in coal-mining until 1960 and in steel and shipbuilding until 1970. Since they had been recruited on a massive scale after 1945, they all tended to be in roughly the same age group, particularly the trainers in the steel and heavy engineering industries.

Factor two: the sudden boom and no less sudden fall in secondary education (virtually an obligatory path to more advanced vocational training). From 1955 (when Collard was the Education Minister) to 1972 (the Dubois Ministry), everything combined to bring about growth: a mini-boom in the

birth rate, the voluntary prolonging of education (with more than 80% of young people continuing in some form of secondary education up to the age of 18) and the access of girls *en masse* to all forms of university education and most types of technical training.

Furthermore, the introduction of a new type of comprehensive secondary education – known as 'type I' – combined various fields of learning better and created a far more multi-faceted start to secondary education, one practical result being to reduce the pupil/teacher ratio. This led to an influx of very young teachers, the average age of those teaching 13 to 18-year-olds plunging to about 32. But then, for the (all too familiar) financial reasons in particular, but also, in certain respects, for ideological reasons, there was a sudden reversal in the trend. No new teaching posts are being created and hundreds of jobs are being lost in secondary education every year. When these administrative factors are combined with the sharp fall in the birth rate today, the obvious conclusion is that Belgian teachers are members of an ageing profession, their average age soaring in every sector of education. Are we approaching an era of 'gaga-gurus' and 'Senior Citizen Canes'?

Factor three is one on which few words need be wasted, since it is common to every European region with a long-established tradition of industry: the structural crisis (companies going out of business, endemic unemployment in which young people are the hardest hit, inadequacy of skills, etc.).

The aim of education in Belgium is of course to meet these three challenges, but it is readily apparent that any response will of

necessity be complex. Belgium, for example, has two Ministers for Education (one for French and the other for Flemish-language schooling); and circumstances have fanned the embers of a long-standing rivalry between its different systems of education and training – not only those for which the two Education Ministries are responsible but also those coming under the Ministries for Small Firms and Traders, Labour, Agriculture, Health, etc.

This is not all: the terms of reference for the powers decentralized to the executive authority in each Belgian Community (Flemish, Walloon and the Brussels area) differ. In one case the executive may be responsible for training in the computer field and 'new technology', while in another it may have responsibility for training teachers in their subjects and in teaching methods, etc.

It will readily be appreciated that the overall picture of training is highly complex, but the position with regard to trainers is even more complicated. A teacher's career will be determined at different times and in different respects by one ministry rather than another or by one of several 'organizing bodies' such as the central government, the provincial or local authority or a private employer, etc.

The final factor is an important one: in the aftermath of recent legislation, the central government has decided that, starting in September 1983, the minimum school-leaving age is to be gradually raised from 14 to 18. This is affecting the 'residue' of 43 000 young people who, for various reasons such as geography or their family situation, but mainly because they do not fit into the existing educational and training systems, have not joined the immense horde of

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youngsters who have continued in secondary education of their own free will.

This poses a fresh challenge for the trainers and also for the various teacher training systems.

The problem has been widely aired in the literature, and we shall merely mention the research published by CPEONS (official subsidized education) and the Secretariat for Catholic Education, together with the studies that have been carried out by the University of Louvain on the subjects of 'education and social change' and the 'crisis in education, crisis in employment'. The journals, for their part, are increasingly concerned with the extra-scholastic aspects of youth unemployment: lack of initiative, inability to adapt, difficulties in finding a first job, etc.

It must be admitted that, with a few notable exceptions, the various training systems

have as yet failed to tackle these newly revealed factors.

Adapting and reacting

There are signs, nonetheless, of a salutary reaction. For example, the universities attach growing importance to what it known in Belgium as the 'agrégation', a diploma testifying to the holder's teaching proficiency. 'Certificats d'aptitude pédagogique' (CAP) are also growing rapidly in popularity. These credentials can be obtained by 'professionals' from many walks of life (ranging from bricklayers to doctors) who are tempted by – or inveigled into – the teaching world and show that they are capable of instructing others in their subject.

New paths towards education and training have come into being and are gaining in importance:

■ correspondence courses, organized by the State or by the private sector, one of the advantages being their value as refresher training;

■ radio and television broadcasting through which the Education Ministries, Office National de l'Emploi (national employment board), Ministry for Small Firms and Traders, etc. can provide 'further training' in a number of fields;

■ Open University, workshops on the teaching of science, etc.;

■ courses with clear-cut goals like those arranged by the Ministry for Foreign Trade or the Ministry for Development Cooperation (the latter a manifestation of Belgium's traditional export-mindedness);

■ a series of schemes set up by the Office National de l'Emploi to improve the training, especially in the area of psychology, and selection of trainers in many sectors, as well as encouraging flexibility so that they



In view of recent technical breakthroughs, should trainers become narrow subject specialists as quickly as possible?

can adapt to diverging situations in individual regions.

Old decrees and innovatory laws

In Belgium as in other countries, it is an uphill task to overhaul obsolete laws. To take one example, 'homologation' – recognition of certain certificates awarded by various educational networks – was originally justified by the multiplicity of organizing authorities and a need for a measure of standardization, even homogenization, of training channels; but 'homologation' by a central authority soon degenerated into a complete stereotyping of curricula, studies and streams of education, with a disastrously stultifying effect on innovation in general.

Even recent legislation has been diverted away from its original intention. The law of April 1973, for instance, on 'credited hours' is not applicable to trainers, depriving them of an opportunity to adapt to changing needs. In the same way, the 'modular system', which enabled the social advancement education system to set up short courses to help trainers (and trainees) to adapt for refresh their knowledge, could not be implemented as was intended by the law-makers. The Court of Auditors (Cour des Comptes) refused to authorize payment for work done by teachers outside the hallowed framework of the 'school year'.

On the other hand, the original aim of the 'Blocking Law' of 8 July 1966, updated by the law of 11 July 1973, to economize by allowing the creation of a new section only if another section is eliminated, has been altogether diverted – in a more satisfactory direction. It now takes less time to prune obsolete or out-of-date courses and to set up instead a type of training more in line with changing needs, although those needs must of course be correctly assessed.

Jack of all trades or master of one?

In view of recent technical breakthroughs, should trainers become narrow subject specialists as quickly as possible? Or, on the contrary, should they have a broad-based training, bearing in mind that 'advanced' technologies often become common currency within the space of a few years?

Each of these options has its supporters and detractors. An industrialist who is, quite properly, concerned about profitability will look more favourably on a training system if it is matched up to actual requirements, existing equipment and so on. A sociologist or the head of a major future-oriented industrial concern will opt for the constant ability to adapt acquired through a wide-ranging basic training. There are arguments in favour of both solutions, but the alternatives differ radically in their implications.

Belgium seems to be gradually equipping itself to offer a valid twofold response to these contradictory needs. For example, the budget allocated to the Direction Générale de l'Organisation des Études (the Directorate for Educational Administration), the department responsible for instructors' retraining and refresher training, is 50 times larger than it was 10 years ago, thus ensuring that existing training staff can keep abreast of change.

At the same time, there is evident progress in the initial training of trainers. Curricula are evolving, more suitable teaching materials are being used and practical work is based on a more thorough grounding in theory.

Changes in real needs must still be closely monitored to avoid sending trainers off on a wild-goose chase. Let us quote one instance. Although the National Bureau for the Plan had predicted an increase of 6 200 jobs in banking between 1981 and 1985, employment in this field in fact declined. A rapid switch-over was called for: what was needed was to train fewer people for certain banking jobs and more people to use the computer systems that were to take over the banking work. In the past few months, however, a new trend has been emerging: some sectors of computing have themselves reached saturation point.

As demonstrated by this see-saw fluctuation, it is no easy matter to train the trainers to satisfy actual market requirements.

Taking the overall view, it could be said that the main tendency in the training of trainers in Belgium is to pay more heed to the demand for polyvalence than to relatively 'incidental' needs for a high level of specialization.

Even so, in a few cases highly specialized trainers are being produced as the result of cooperation between employers and social advancement centres for the Ministry of Labour. The Office National de l'Emploi

has arranged for a glassworks to train engravers, the instructor in this case having been trained on the spot. A forward-looking cable factory is to send some of its staff to a social advancement centre to train skilled personnel there, even though this will raise a few problems linked with statutory regulations.

The Belgian system is ambivalent in that it responds to social needs in two different ways. Simplifying somewhat, it could be said that the training of trainers is 80% generic – in other words, designed to satisfy continuing needs – and 20% specialist and evolving.

There is a growing need for such trainers to continue their training but no sign as yet that the Education Ministry, which turns out most of the trainers, is equipped with the necessary facilities to react to the needs, still less to anticipate them.

Consensus Belgian-style

Despite the reticence of the authorities and employers' associations, there is broad consensus regarding the need to make basic training and not one but many continuous training schemes more flexible and complementary. The people who set up the training and those at the receiving end, the unions and the trainers themselves are in general agreement about 'going down the same path'.

Greater flexibility: 'regulations should be revamped to ensure that paper qualifications are not so specific as to exclude people from training' (to quote the Directorate for Educational Administration); '... need for a sharp change of direction to allow the mastery of new techniques' (a regional development company); 'teachers must move with the times and be prepared to be self-critical ...' (a union newspaper). Many more observations along these lines could be quoted.

Improved continuing education after initial broad-based training

'Specific vocational training needs would be more readily met if teachers' training were to be multi-disciplinary' (Directorate of Educational Administration). 'However excellent the model of training, it should not constrict the teachers' (a union journal). '... We are prepared to contribute

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towards the setting up of retraining in educational psychology and practical work for trainers' (Belgian Employers' Federation). 'We must provide more facilities for lifelong training' (Institute for the Lifelong Education of Small Businessmen and Traders).

All this is indisputable evidence of a growth in common awareness. In practical terms, it could lead to a series of institutional measures and regulations, coordination among the various bodies responsible (which does not mean that healthy, invigorating competition cannot co-exist) and certain changes in the ways that basic and continuing training complement each other.

Of the dozens of proposals advanced, three will serve to illustrate the directions that must be taken. Certain factors are common to all: no suggestion challenges any fundamental tenet, no legislation is needed to implement any of them and all are within the immediate scope of decision-makers.

Example 1: job skill workshops should be available to those teaching practical work in colleges of education;

Example 2: information should be exchanged (why are the excellent 'bulletins' produced by some of the Institute for Lifelong Education centres not circulated to the Education Ministry?);

Example 3: contact should be established between the vocational guidance centres, the National Employment Board's job agencies and the schools: the faster news about changing needs travels, the sooner can training be updated.

A new outlook

All this clearly points to certain new elements:

■ a trainer's career is no longer a 'linear progression'; it must always start with broad-based foundation training;

■ because of the scholastic education of the young people with whom the trainer will be dealing, they will have to go through an initial period of training which will of course be technical but which will make them more aware of social dynamics and sociology;

■ the stranglehold of rules and regulations should be loosened – if only the rules as to the paper credentials required in teaching;

■ there must be a substantial reallocation of funds from basic to continuing training.

The overall verdict might be that the system of training of trainers in Belgium is:

very satisfactory in the initial stage (technical field);

satisfactory in terms of consciousness-raising for teachers (especially over the past few years);

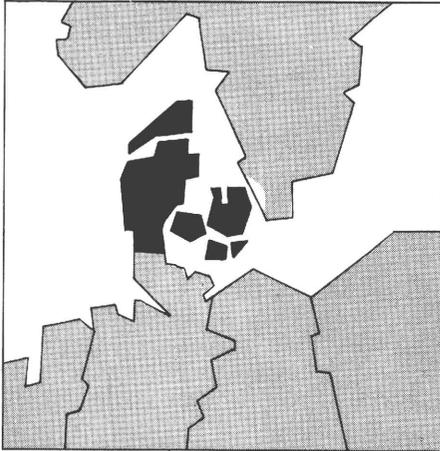
only fair in terms of periodical updating of teaching skills during the course of trainers' careers;

deplorable in terms of the stranglehold of red tape (however socially justifiable the rules and regulations may have been in former times).

We feel no complaisance in sketching this outline picture of the training of trainers in Belgium, although we are almost certain that the consensus already achieved and Belgian practical common sense will help us to move with the times before long.

In Denmark

Else Koefoed



The situation of vocational teachers in the 1980s

A combination of several factors within the community has left its mark upon the working situation of Danish vocational teachers in the last few years:

- a change of government;
- economic recession;
- the demographic trend;
- technological progress.

In order to make this description of the teachers' situation comprehensible to readers in the other European countries, it is necessary to describe, quite briefly, the special characteristics of the Danish vocational training system. The main features of its structure can be seen from Figures 1 and 2, for the technical training courses and the courses within the field of commerce and office work, respectively.

Vocational training — two parallel systems

The majority, by far, of vocational teachers work within basic vocational training, which follows on directly after the nine years of compulsory general education ('folkeskolen').

Basic vocational training comprises two parallel systems, apprentice-training proper ('mesterlaere' — master-craftsman course) and 'basic vocational training within a trade' (bvtt), introduced as an experiment around the year 1970 and made permanent

by law in 1977. Both systems come under the Ministry of Education and are controlled through a number of councils and committees, with considerable influence from the social partners, employers and employees. The source of finance is mainly public funds, but vocational schools have the same status as private institutions.

Basic vocational training is alternance training under both systems, with alternation between attendance at school and in firms, the main difference being that apprentice training begins with the conclusion of a contract for the apprenticeship and has alternation between practical work and school throughout the course of training, whereas bvtt starts with a broader basic training, normally of one year's duration, during which the range of instruction gradually becomes narrower, and only then does practical work in the firm take place, alternating with shorter attendances at school.

In addition to the vocationally-oriented subjects, the 'directed subjects', the basic training has a substantial content (up to about 40%) of general subjects, called 'common subjects'.

There is no well-established tradition in Denmark for any actual vocational high school. A kind of vocational school of commerce exists, leading to the higher examination in commerce and a corresponding technical high school, leading to the higher examination in technology, was started in a few places in the country in the autumn of 1982.

The whole of vocational training — not merely the practical part — is administered by private business in only quite a small number of large firms and within certain

special sectors. This applies to the courses in the firm ØK (East-Asia Company) and the training given in banks and insurance companies.

Vocational training courses for adults ('labour-market courses' — arbejdsmarkedsuddannelser), as they are called — are financed mainly from public funds and are controlled via the Ministry of Labour through a system of committees of representatives of the social partners. These courses embrace the following:

- courses for semi-skilled workers (including both people in work and unemployed persons);
- further training of skilled workers;
- induction courses for youths and for chronically unemployed persons.

Background for vocational teachers

A general requirement for the teachers is occupational experience, and occupational training at a higher level is not — as in some other countries — counted as equivalent to this actual experience in a job. Many vocational teachers within the technical and industrial fields have had only the seven years' schooling which up to 1972 was the compulsory number of years in Denmark, followed by apprentice training which was very specifically trade-oriented and directed towards practical work. They can have problems today, supervising students who have nine years of general education behind them.

For engagement on the permanent staff of a vocational school, it is necessary to have

ELSE KOEFOED, assistant lecturer at the National Vocational Teacher Training College, SEL.

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had basic teacher training organized by the National Vocational Teacher Training College (SEL) an institution which comes under the Ministry of Education. The conditions for teachers at technical schools and those for teachers at schools of commerce are rather different.

Teachers at technical schools

... must have had occupational training at the same level as that at which they teach, at least, and in addition a minimum of five years' experience within the occupation concerned. They are engaged on probation and in order to be taken on the permanent staff they must have undergone the basic teacher training, given in accordance with a course-model as outlined in Figure 3, within the first two years. The main idea behind this model is to provide a course which – like the basic vocational training itself – is founded upon the principle of alternance training, with the four theoretical modules of each of the three-week whole-day courses alternating with periods of instruction at the school employing them, where an experienced teacher instructs the candidate in giving practical instruction in the trade concerned. Teachers at the technical schools have favourable conditions for teacher training, since the school at which they are employed pays them the full salary and provides a supply teacher for the periods in which they are training.

Since 1982, the requirements for the theoretical part of the course have been more stringent. Previously, it had only been necessary to attend during the time of the course; now an oral examination is taken at the end, based upon a written paper on a subject of vocational teaching. This subject can either be set centrally, or be formulated by the individual candidate or group of candidates. Experience so far – during the short time in which the scheme has been in operation – shows that most of the candidates prefer to work from topics which they have chosen themselves.

As will be seen from the course model, it is necessary to carry out the theoretical part of the training in order to proceed to the practical test at the end of the course, which consists in preparing and giving a lesson at the technical school where practical instruction has taken place. The test is assessed by the instructor and an examiner appointed by the ministry.

Teachers at schools of commerce

... can have vocational training which is largely based upon private study and which ends with the examination for subject-teachers in commerce (*handelsfaglaereksamen*), the level of which is that of a university subsidiary-subject examination. SEL is responsible for organizing and

implementing this examination system, and also arranges supporting courses in a number of subjects, which back up private study. However, there are many teachers at schools of commerce today whose background is examinations at university and places of higher education.

Their teacher training takes place under conditions which are less favourable than those for teachers at technical schools, since they do not receive any pay during the time which they spend on training. Apart from this, the practical part is similar to that taken by teachers at the technical schools, namely, 80 hours of instruction with an experienced teacher, ending with a test-lesson. The theoretical part is largely based upon private study, but includes a compulsory course in theory of education, of about 100 hours' duration. Where necessary, private study in theoretical pedagogics and psychology can be supplemented by supporting courses arranged by SEL, in the form of study groups or distance education (student-centred studies). Written examinations are held at the end.

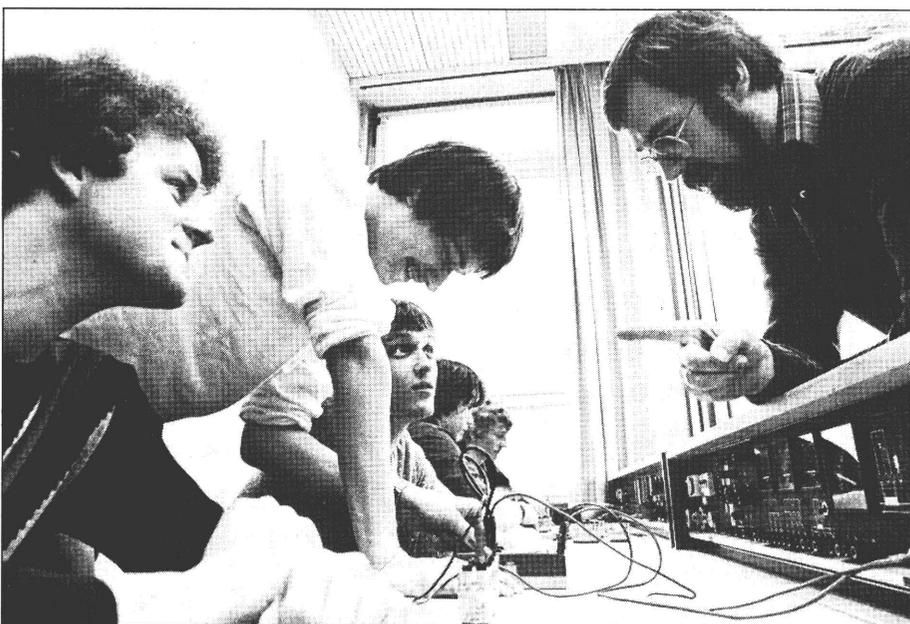
Teachers for 'labour-market courses'

... have, for the courses for semi-skilled and skilled workers, occupational training and occupational experience similar to that required for teachers at technical schools. Although the labour-market courses come under the Ministry of Labour, these teachers, too, do their pedagogic training with SEL.

For the measures concerning unemployed youths and the chronically unemployed, the teachers have a more varied background of training and practical experience. Until very recently, these measures were regarded as a transitional phenomenon and therefore did not, it was thought, necessitate pedagogic training for these categories of teachers. Now, it is recognized that the measures are of a more permanent nature and the requirements are therefore the same as for the other teachers.

Instructors in firms

... bear considerable responsibility for the development – both vocational and social – of the young persons on courses which follow the principle of alternance training, like the Danish courses. Firms which accept apprentices and student trainees must satisfy requirements of competence in the staff



Teachers at technical schools.

with regard to their background of vocational training; but no requirements are imposed with regard to pedagogic training. This causes surprise whenever foreigners are being informed about the vocational-training situation in Denmark. It is a problem that has been debated in Danish circles also, of course, and models have been formulated for instructor-training with a view to work with youths under basic vocational training; but they have never been applied in practice. However, it must be added that courses exist to provide instruction in work for the staff of firm in trade and industry; but such courses do not deal with the special problems of a pedagogic and psychological nature which are involved in the work with quite young trainees.

The work situation — a general view

A vocational teacher's pay was for many years lower than what the teacher could earn in business. Since then, however, the pay and working conditions have improved and, in addition, owing to the economic recession a number of occupationally-trained persons have sought the more secure occupation of teacher in preference to being employed in — or being the proprietor of — a business under threat of closure.

A vocational teacher on the permanent staff has conditions similar to those of a salaried civil servant; but there are also a number of teachers who are employed on a hourly-paid basis.

As is the case for the corresponding areas in business, the distribution between the sexes among vocational teachers shows a considerable preponderance of males: less than 10% of the teachers at the technical schools are women, and at the schools of commerce, about 25% are women. The female teachers teach in what are traditionally women's subjects, such as on courses relating to food and in hairdressing in the technical fields, and languages, subjects relating to shops and typewriting, within the commercial field.

Change of government

Danish policy on education has for a number of years been characterized by socialistic ideas on equality and on equal right to education.

One of the results of the application of these ideas, among others, was the stipulation of a background equivalent to nine years' school attendance, with no school-leaving examination, as the sole requirement for admission to basic vocational training. Because of this, the great variety of trainees on basic vocational training makes great demands upon the vocational teacher. In a basic-training class there can be students who, owing to physical or mental handicaps, received special instruction even in primary school, and also students who have passed the examination qualifying them for university entrance and who wish to have basic vocational training, either because of a special interest, or because they have not been able to start a course of further education owing to restriction of admission.

The Social Democrats have also endeavoured, through a long series of special measures within education and the world of work, to protect the portion of 16 to 19-year-olds who are unemployed. These special measures have usually been of a kind which do not confer qualification.

The change-over to a non-socialistic government in the autumn of 1982 gave rise to other tendencies in policy on education. More effort is now being made to integrate youths in the normal educational system and this is being done under the slogan 'there is always room for one more', i.e. expansion of the capacity of the educational system — not by means of increased grants for equipment and teaching staff, but by increasing the size of classes. This policy is being applied both for the basic vocational-training courses and for the further-training courses. At the same time, the new educational policy is characterized by marked restraint with regard to trial and experiment within the educational system.

The change of government has also meant a change in attitude towards the problems relating to the parallel training systems, basic vocational training and the apprenticeship course. The Social Democrats originally aimed to achieve a complete changeover to *bvtt*, and in some industries this has taken place by agreement between the social partners. In other sectors, efforts have been made to devise a unified form of training, developed on the basis of experience of the two systems. A basic course in ferrous metallurgy has thus been introduced on an experimental basis within the main occupational field ferrous/non-ferrous metals. The present government has, how-

ever, held up the establishment of the apprenticeship course.

For the vocational teacher, this unclarified situation is of significance in the day-to-day teaching situation, in that there are some of the smaller subject-areas where, in the last part of the course, the teacher has to take classes with a mixture of students from the two training systems, who therefore have different requirements for their instruction.

Economic recession

The economic recession of the last years is leaving its mark upon the work situation of vocational teachers — even if there have as yet been no threats of redundancy in this field; on the contrary, an expansion of vocational training has taken place in recent years; but the recession has been a contributory factor to the great difficulty experienced in achieving an adequate number of trainee posts on practical work in firms for youths after they have completed the year of *bvtt*. In theory, this is the youths' own problem; but many vocational teachers try to help the young people by establishing contact with the firms in trade and industry. From the vocational teacher's standpoint, there is another aspect to these problems, namely that it is very difficult to motivate a basic-year student to make an effort in his studies if the student concerned has already lost faith in the possibility of obtaining a practical training post with a firm. More or less the same applies to the motivation of students on the second part of the course, within trades where there is considerable unemployment among the trained workers.

The demographic trend

The number of youths aged 16 — i.e. at the end of their compulsory schooling and therefore on the threshold of their basic vocational training — will reach a peak in 1984 and thereafter decline continuously in the years to come. This will result in a falling demand for vocational teachers within *bvtt* and apprenticeship training, which are the primary field of work for vocational teachers.

This trend is one of the arguments behind the present government's policy of larger classes; in this way, the need for physical extensions and for larger teaching staffs —

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which would no longer be required in a few years' time – is avoided.

The future threat of unemployment, implicit in the falling trend of the youth age-groups, has prompted many vocational teachers to widen their range of qualification through further training. Special-subject teachers in bvtt have further training in, for example, common subjects such as sociology and mathematics – which, incidentally, improves their chances of entering, with qualifications, inter-disciplinary teaching, which is gaining more and more ground in bvtt.

Technological progress

Technological progress makes its demands upon the vocational teacher in three fundamental areas:

- edp, as an aid within both technological and commercial occupational areas (CNC-machines, word processing, etc.);
- computer-aided teaching;
- technological appraisal.

Only a few vocational teachers have had any contact at all with these fields in their own basic training and an enormous effort of further training is therefore necessary, if they are to be equal to the technological development of the 1980s.

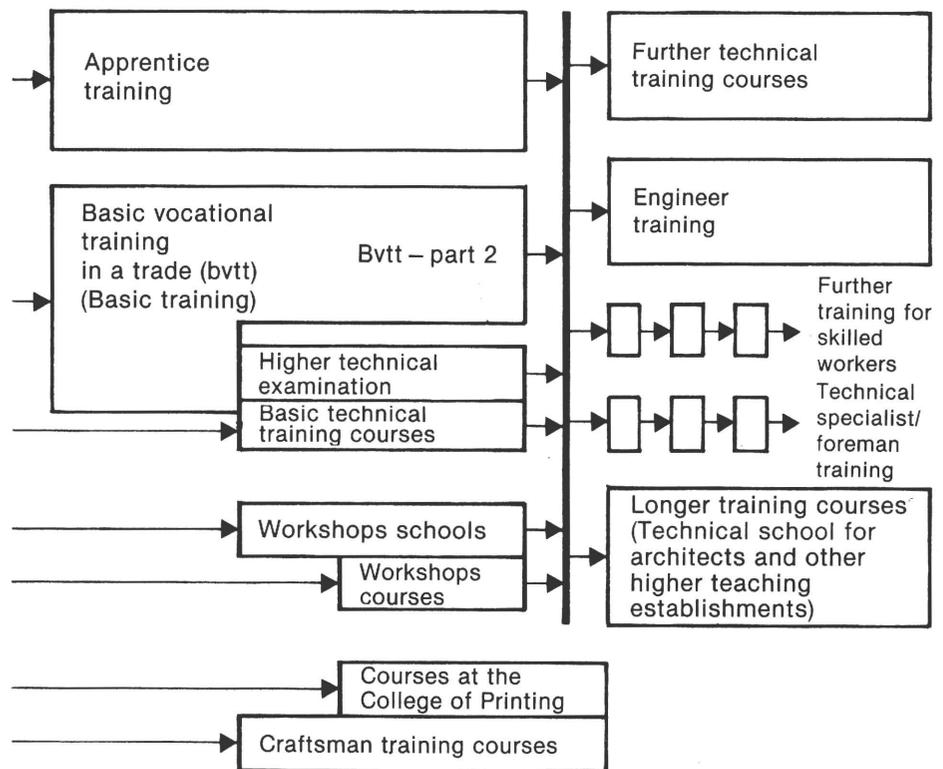


Fig. 1: One part of the field of work for vocational teachers. Training courses within the technical field.



The number of youths aged 16 i.e. at the end of their compulsory schooling and therefore on the threshold of their basic vocational training.

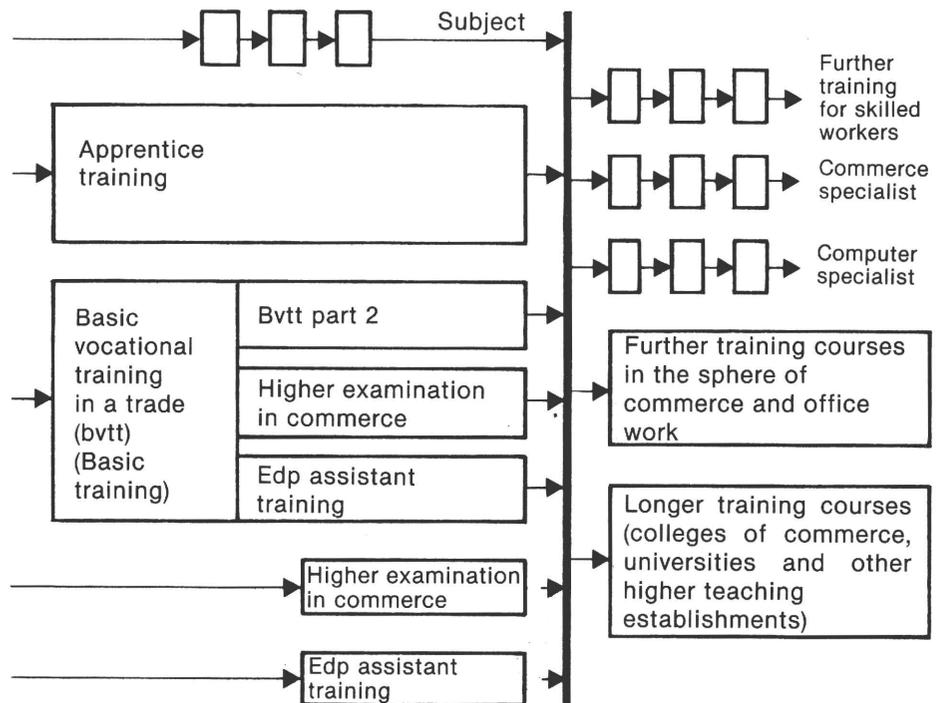


Fig. 2: The second part of the field of work for vocational teachers. Training courses within the field of commerce and office work.

The facilities offered by SEL within this field will be greatly increased from 1984 onwards and the aim is to satisfy the many different kinds of training needs which arise among vocational teachers, with a complex training structure on a modular basis.

New tasks

Finally, a field of work for vocational teachers will be mentioned which seems to be in course of development especially at this time, namely participation in training activities for developing countries. Until now, the national vocational-training system in Denmark has undertaken such tasks only to a very limited extent. Now, both the Vocational Training Directorate in the Ministry of Education and a group of vocational schools have begun work on exporting Danish vocational training courses. There is a challenge for vocational teachers here and hence also new further-training requirements.

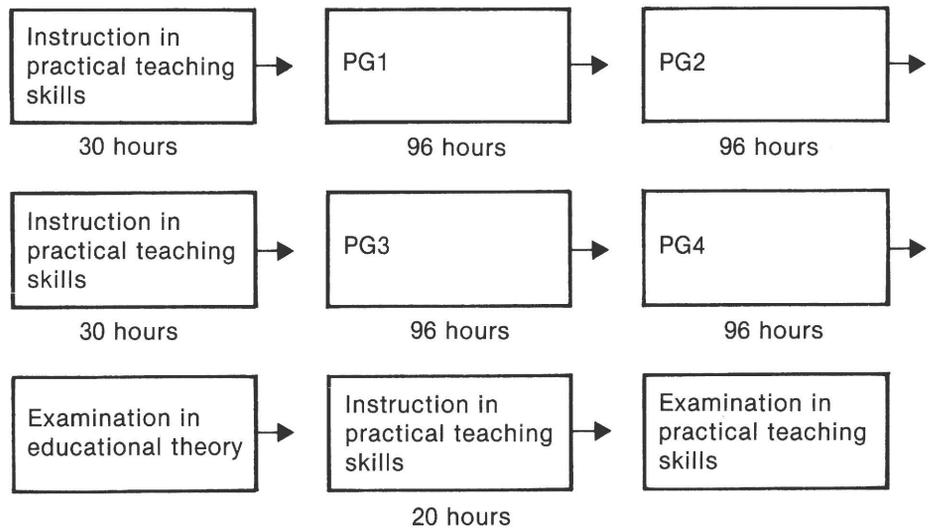
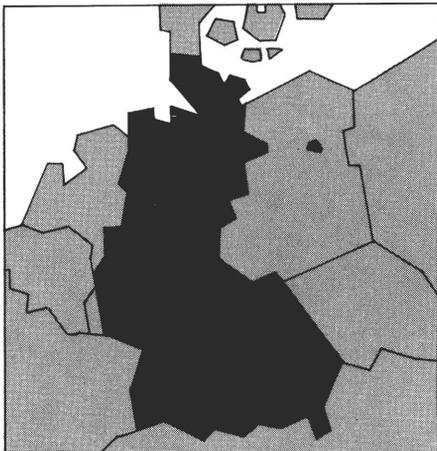


Fig. 3: Flow chart of the basic training of teachers at technical schools. The theoretical part of the training is divided into modules, labelled PG1, PG2, PG3, PG4.



In the Federal Republic of Germany

Burkart Sellin

Trainers and teachers in vocational training*

From the title that has been chosen for this article it will already be clear that a basic distinction can be made in the Federal Republic of Germany between two types of instructor in the vocational training system: on the one hand, the trainer, who is either the owner of a firm or an employee of a fairly large company and has the task of organizing, carrying out and monitoring training and learning through practical experience, and on the other, the teacher at a State or private vocational school, who gives instruction in the theory and practice of given occupations as a complement to practical, on-the-job training and experience, the school being attended on a full- or part-time basis.

Both categories have many variations, each with its own set of tasks and quantitative significance.

Trainers in the firm

It is difficult to give a clear-cut definition of the category of people who act as trainers in firms. Those who are given the task of training others differ considerably as to the powers allotted to them, the training they themselves have had, their functions and their position in the firm's hierarchy, and this both within a given firm and in comparison with other firms. This variety is also

evident from the many titles commonly used for in-firm training personnel: training workshop manager, chief instructor, training officer, training engineer, instructor, training manager, trainer, apprentices' foreman, training assistant and so on.² The legal basis for deciding who is a trainer is provided by the 1969 Vocational Training Act, the Crafts Code and the regulations on the suitability of trainers³ or, in the case of the crafts, the regulations governing the requirements to be satisfied in master craftsman examinations. In practice, the chambers of commerce, industry, etc. are also guided by the recommendations of the Federal Vocational Training Committee, which are in no way legally binding, and in this instance by the 1972 Recommendation on the suitability of places of training. The Vocational Training Act makes an initial distinction between:

- owners of firms who themselves do the training;
- full-time trainers;
- part-time trainers.

Where the owner of the firm does not himself train young people, he must instruct others to perform this specific task: full-time or part-time trainers (section 6(1), No 2, of the Vocational Training Act). Section 33(2), No 2, of the Act requires such persons to be registered with the appropriate body (chamber of industry and commerce, chamber of crafts, etc.). It is not, however, clear whether all the persons performing training functions at a place of learning must be registered. In fact, it is generally assumed that the number of people actually performing training functions is

far larger than the number registered with the chambers.

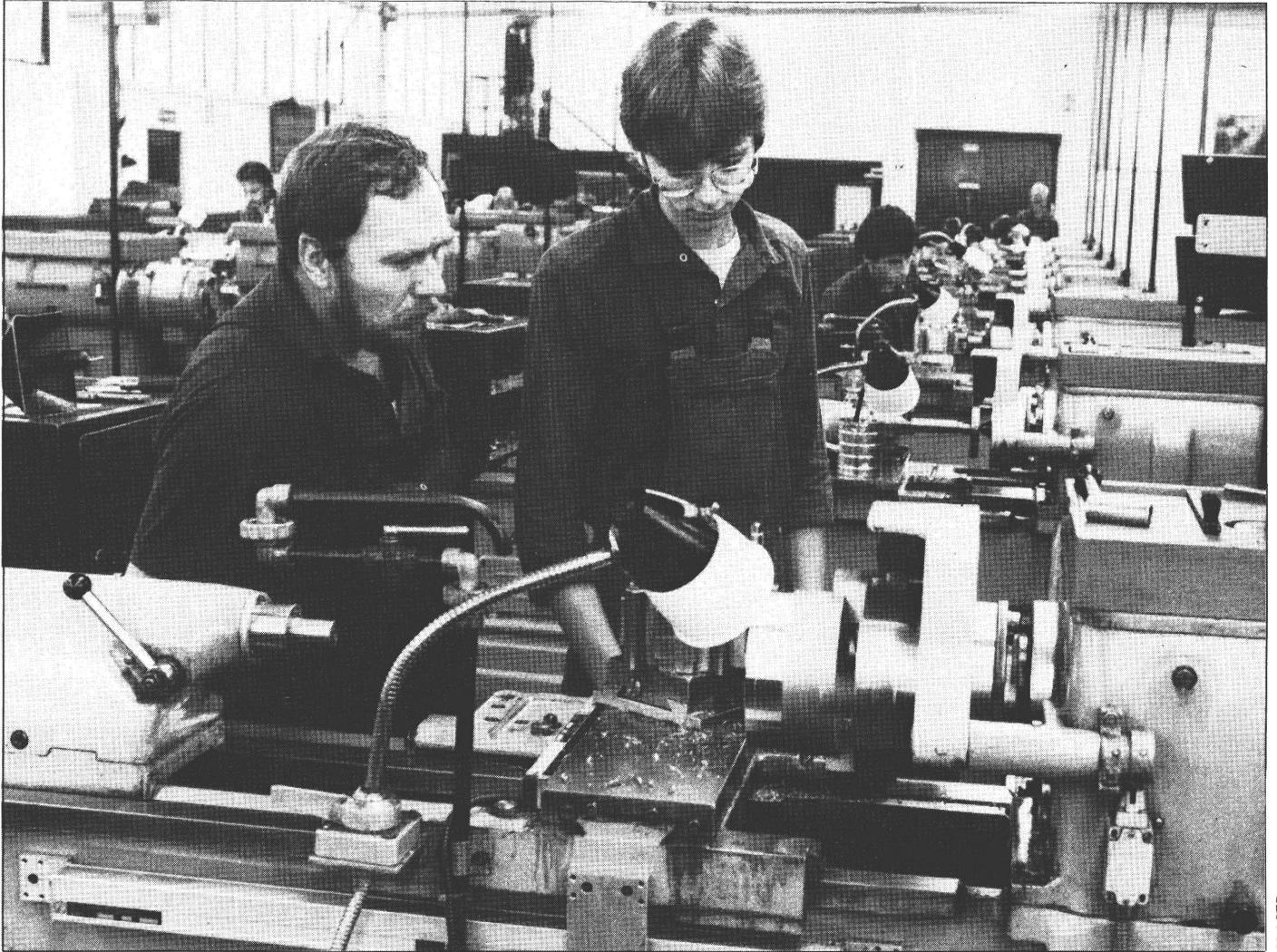
In many small firms the owner himself does the training. Full-time trainers are essentially confined to firms with over 500 employees and very largely to industry. In trade full-time trainers are the exception (2%).⁴

The legislation does not specify the professional and pedagogical qualifications an employee needs to become a trainer. However, the Vocational Training Act, which applies to all sectors of the economy except the civil and public service, and the Crafts Code at least set out the vocational training certificates required and what is regarded as an 'adequate period' of practical experience in the occupation concerned. Three to four years of practical experience is usually considered sufficient. In the crafts a master craftsman's certificate is proof of suitability. This possibility also exists in agriculture and domestic science.

A more detailed definition of the meaning of 'professional and pedagogical suitability' is provided by the 1972 regulation on the suitability of trainers, which requires trainers, i.e. those engaged full-time in or responsible for training, to show that they have the knowledge specified in the regulation, usually by taking an examination. This professional and pedagogical knowledge can be broken down into the following four areas:

- basic vocational training questions;
- planning and conduct of training;
- young people in training;
- legal bases.

* This article by B. Sellin is based on the study by Beate Kraus and Marlies Krestakies (see 1).



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Trainers in the firm.

From the outset, however, certain in-firm trainers were exempted from this regulation. It has also been repeatedly amended (see also the article by Baethge and Schlösser in this issue).

In 1979 there were, according to the 1981 Vocational Training Report, 381 127 places of training in the sectors covered by the chambers of crafts and industry and commerce, i.e. excluding lawyers' and doctors' practices and other establishments in the 'liberal professions' which train young people. Some 60% of these places of training are craft firms. On average each craft firm offering training has 2.9 apprentices and each place of training in industry and commerce 5.0 apprentices. There are about 600 000 trainers registered with the appro-

priate authorities,⁵ the word 'trainer' being used here in its widest sense, i.e. owners of firms who themselves train young people and full and part-time trainers. This is an estimated figure and should be treated with caution. At a rough estimate, there is one trainer per place of training in the case of craft firms and in the 'liberal professions', since anyone who satisfies the requirements to head a firm in the liberal professions or crafts is usually considered to satisfy the requirements regarding suitability to act as a trainer.

Trainers in small firms have far wider decision-making powers than their counterparts in large firms, the division into staff and line functions in training being generally less pronounced in smaller firms. Most

decisions on questions connected with the establishment of the firm's training plan and trainee promotion plans and the selection of training places are taken by the trainers or training managers in large firms.⁶ These tasks are directly related to training, and the training staff enjoy relative freedom in this respect. Trainers and training foremen are, however, less frequently called upon to perform such organizational and planning functions and are therefore less independent.

A division of labour consisting in certain trainers being involved only in practical training in the training workshop or the firm, while others give only theoretical instruction, is similarly not very pronounced. This is also confirmed by the

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study made by Pätzold in 1977,⁷ according to which most trainers teach both theory and practice.

An examination of the tasks of trainers and training foremen on the one hand and training managers on the other reveals a clear difference in the focus of their activities. While trainers and training foremen are mostly involved with practical instruction, training managers are more concerned with the teaching of theoretical skills.

The 'typical' trainer

As the statistical information on trainers is far from adequate, the attempt is made, using the various data and impressions gained from empirical studies, fragmentary statistics and statements by experts, to describe the 'typical' full-time trainer. This produces the following approximate picture:

The 'typical' trainer is employed by an industrial firm with a workforce of more than 1 000. He works in the training work-

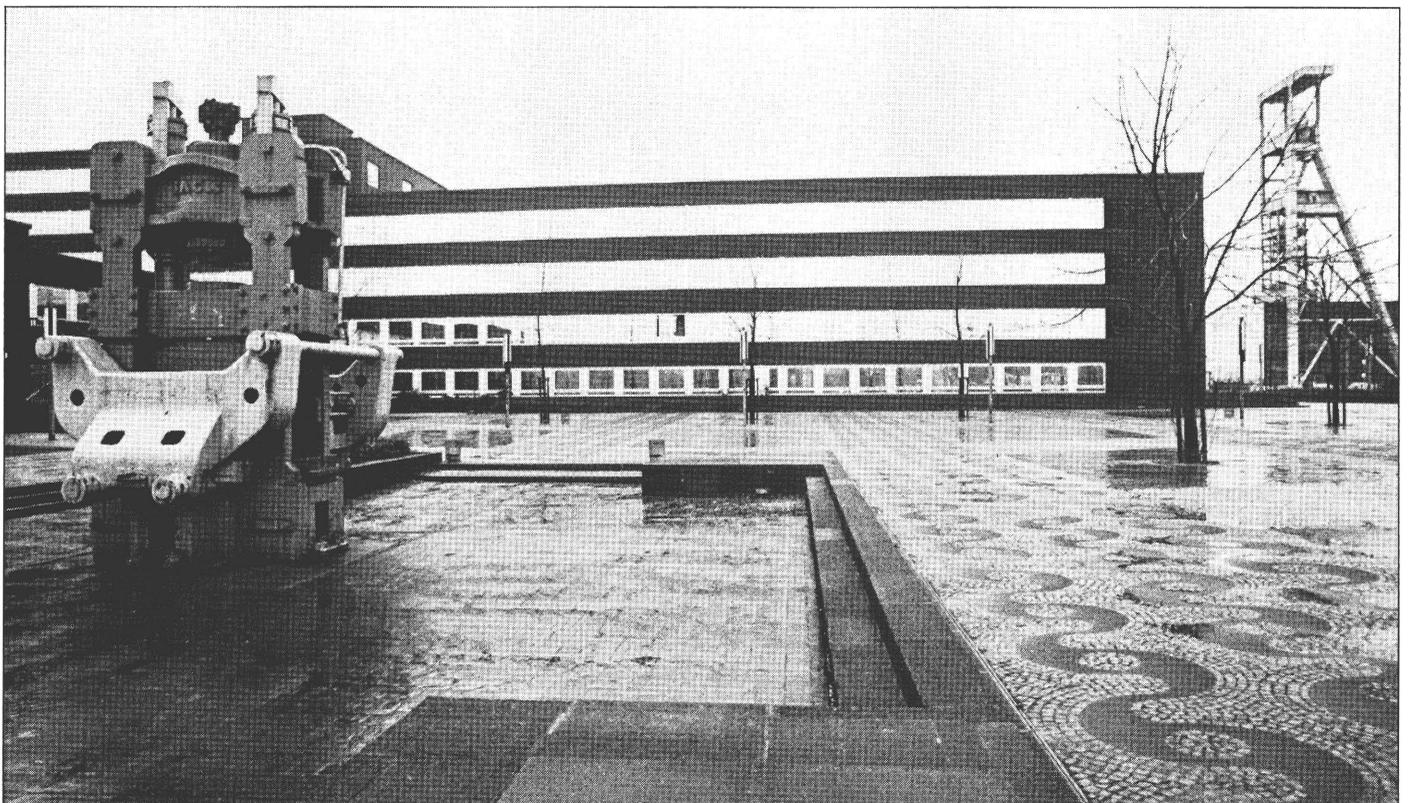
shop. He trains young people in an industrial/technical occupation and is a salary-earning technician or a master craftsman. His regular monthly income is around DM 3 500. He went to a secondary school, then became an apprentice and worked as a skilled worker for a time. Before becoming a trainer, he attended an engineering school or took his master craftsman's examination, but despite this he is still relatively young, between 35 and 40. He has not therefore long been a trainer, perhaps four or five years. And our 'typical' trainer is, of course, a man.

Vocational school teachers

Many vocational school teachers are only part-time. When the number of hours per week taught by full-time and part-time teachers is considered, however, it becomes clear that full-time staff are responsible for by far the greater part of the teaching workload at all the types of school of interest here. Compared with schools pro-

viding a general education, where less than 5% of the lessons each week are given by part-time teachers,⁸ part-time staff at vocational or specialized vocational schools play quite an important part in the in-school training of young people, accounting for 15 to 18% of all instruction given.

Whereas teachers at State schools providing a general education are almost all civil servants, the staff at vocational schools include some teachers with employee status. The staff of vocational schools in any case include a far wider range of teachers than schools providing a general education. A count made by the Conference of Education Ministers in 1971 revealed at least 34 different official titles and at least 80 different careers, the distinction in the latter case depending not only on official titles but also on the area of activity, training and remuneration.⁹ Since then some standardization has been achieved¹⁰ although the *Länder* continue to use different titles for the same types of teacher in some cases. There are today three basic types of teacher at vocational schools: the technical teacher, the commercial teacher and the practical teach-



The 'typical' trainer is employed by an industrial firm with a workforce of more than 1 000.

er, who is also known by other names depending on the *Land*.

The *technical teacher* teaches industrial/technical subjects at vocational and specialized vocational schools and in the basic vocational training year, e.g. at schools which focus on metal-working, electrical engineering, building, textiles and clothing, chemical engineering, etc. He receives his training at a university, where he studies for at least eight semesters, and during post-graduate pre-service training at a school. He is a civil servant and begins his career as a *Studienrat* (secondary school teacher), thus having the same professional status as a grammar school teacher.

The *commercial teacher* teaches commercial subjects at vocational and specialized vocational schools and in the basic vocational training year. He is therefore involved with young people who want to be salesmen, office clerks, administrative specialists, book-sellers, forwarding clerks, assistants to economic advisers and accountants, and so on. Like the technical teacher, he has studied at a university for at least eight semesters and has then as a rule spent 18 months in post-graduate pre-service training at a school, after which he begins his career as a *Studienrat*.

Where the *practical teacher* is concerned, matters are more complicated. Not all the *Länder* of the Federal Republic have practical teachers (Berlin does not, for example), and those which do, have different rules on access to this occupation and different conditions governing the employment of this type of teacher. The practical teacher works primarily in full-time schools, i.e. schools where young people can take the basic vocational training year, specialized vocational schools and in-school schemes which prepare young people for an occupation. Practical teachers play a subsidiary role at part-time vocational schools, where they are to some extent involved in preparing and carrying out experiments and exercises as part of or in addition to the theoretical instruction given. Under the outline regulation adopted by the Conference of Education Ministers practical teachers should have the following education:

- a certificate of education at intermediate level;

- a certificate as evidence of the successful completion of at least three semesters at a technical college (technician's examination) or a master craftsman's certificate;

- at least two years of employment to complete his vocational training;

- 18 months of training as a practical teacher in a form similar to the post-graduate pre-service training of the *Studienrat*.

The systems adopted by the *Länder* depart from these recommendations. For instance, not all insist on the certificate of general education at intermediate level or on the 18 months of training.

For a very long time vocational schools suffered an acute shortage of teachers, and the situation has only begin to improve in recent years. Even so, the target pupil-teacher ratios have not yet been achieved: while the General Education Plan called for a ratio of 44:1 at vocational schools by 1980, it was still 55:1 at part-time vocational schools in 1979. On the other hand, the ratio of 15 pupils to one teacher in specialized vocational schools set as the target for 1979 was achieved. It should be noted, however, that the figures for the various regions differ substantially from the national average: in 1979 Hamburg had the lowest ratio for part-time vocational schools at 38:1, Lower Saxony the highest at 69:1.¹¹ At present a national average of

Table: Vocational training schools, 1980

Type of school	State schools	Private schools	Pupils	Teachers	
				Full-time	Part-time
Vocational schools					
Full-time*	1 077	48	108 623	5 333	2 796
Part-time	1 351	51	1 848 447	32 560	18 996
For the disabled	62	109	12 584	558	808
Specialized vocational schools	2 271	530	352 029	21 544	16 411
Public health schools	846	852	96 660	2 515	27 889

* This heading covers vocational schools at which young people take the basic vocational training year or a vocational preparation year.

In 1980 there were some 62 510 full-time and 66 900 part-time teachers at vocational schools in the Federal Republic of Germany. The above table shows the various types of school providing initial vocational training, the number of full-time and part-time teachers and the number of pupils in 1980. As with trainers, the only figures available on teachers are very general. Even a national breakdown of the total into the general categories of technical teacher, commercial teacher and practical teacher or by subjects taught by teachers is impossible. Furthermore, the table again reveals the significance of training by the dual system: by far the most young people beginning a course of vocational training in 1980 attended a part-time vocational school, i.e. they were obtaining their training by the dual system (excluding those who were unemployed or young wage-earners or young salary-earners).

some 10 % of planned instruction still has to be cancelled for lack of teachers.

Technical and commercial teachers are today civil servants in the *Studienrat* career bracket and so have the same status as grammar school teachers. This equality with the highest-graded category of teachers, achieved by standardizing the admission requirements and raising training to university level is the outcome of a process of professionalization that was only completed in the 1970s.¹² The problems raised by the relationship between technical and commercial teachers and practical teachers and indeed by the very need to have practical teachers and to increase their number are an indication, however, that professionalization of the occupation of technical teacher in particular has been achieved at the cost of creating a hierarchy among vocational school teachers.

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Notes

¹ Extracts from the report with the same title by Beate Kraus and Marlies Krebstakies, recently published by Cedefop.

² See W. SCHÜLZ, H. TILCH: 'Betriebliche Ausbilder und Lehrer für Fachpraxis – Wege und Abstimmungsprobleme der Qualifizierung', in: *Berufsbildung in Wissenschaft und Praxis*, 4 (1975), No 1, p. 23.

³ The first such regulation, and the most important because it pointed the way, is the Regulation of 20 April 1972 on the pedagogical suitability of persons for vocational training in trade and industry. This was followed by:

(i) the Regulation of 5 April 1976 on the suitability of trainers in agriculture;

(ii) the Regulation of 16 July 1976 on the suitability of trainers in the public service;

(iii) the Regulation of 29 June 1978 on the suitability of trainers in domestic science.

⁴ For further details on this and the figures quoted above see *Berufsbildungsbericht*, 1981, p. 89 *et seq.*

⁵ For further information on these figures see *Berufsbildungsbericht*, 1981, pp. 11/89.

⁶ See K. Kutt *et al.*; *Ausbilder im Betrieb*, Berlin (West), 1980.

⁷ G. PÄTZOLD: 'Der betriebliche Ausbilder im „dualen System“ der Berufsausbildung', in: *Die Deutsche Berufs- und Fachschule* 73 (1977), No 4, pp. 264-277.

⁸ See: *Statistisches Bundesamt, Fachserie 11, Reihe 1: Allgemeines Schulwesen* 1980, pp. 39/45.

⁹ See W. MATZKE: 'Fragen einer Harmonisierung der Lehrerbildung im Bereich beruflicher Schulen', in: *Die Deutsche Berufs- und Fachschule*, 1972, pp. 422-434.

¹⁰ See the outline agreements of the Conference of Education Ministers of 6 July 1973.

¹¹ See: Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister, Dokumentation Nr. 67: *Schüler-Klassen-Lehrer, 1977 bis 1979*.

¹² See W. LEMPert: *Der Gewerbelehrer*, Stuttgart, Enke 1962, and W.-D. GREINERT, H.A. HESSE; 'Zur Professionalisierung des Gewerbelehrerberufs', in: *Die berufsbildende Schule*, 26 (1974), pp. 621-625 and 684-695.

In France

André Coqblin



In France there are two channels through which vocational training can be acquired: basic training and continuing education.

The *basic training* system is graded, each step corresponding to a grade of skill (skilled production and clerical workers, technicians, highly-skilled technicians). General academic subjects, science and technology are combined with vocational subjects at each level. Nearly all this training is provided by Ministry of Education establishments.

The second channel is *continuing education*, designed for adults who have already embarked on their working lives. It takes the form of further training, retraining, refresher training, etc. In some cases the courses lead to the same national diplomas as basic training courses and they are then treated as equivalent in value. With the economic crisis and rising unemployment, it has become apparent that many young people are leaving the educational system without having acquired any job-related skills, forming the group hardest hit by unemployment under today's economic conditions. There has been an evident need to create a training system that takes account of their social and cultural position, and instructors from the two systems – basic and adult training – have been brought in to develop such a system. We are only beginning to gauge the extent of the changes that this new venture is making to the working status and teaching practice of both types of trainer as well as the inevitable repercussions on their own training.

ANDRÉ COQBLIN: General Inspectorate Mission Head, Director of Onisep (Office National d'Information sur les Enseignements et les Professions).

The current situation

Teachers have traditionally been trained in colleges of education (*écoles normales*) of two types. The first is the *École Normale Supérieure de l'Enseignement Technique* (ENSET), training those who will go on to teach 'long cycles' in the secondary education. Entrants are recruited from those who have taught at a high level of theoretical education and include teachers of practical and technical subjects. The second is the group of *écoles normales d'apprentissage* (ENNA), which trains people for a teaching career in *lycées d'enseignement professionnel* (LEPs – secondary schools providing short-cycle vocational education). Their entrants are teachers of general academic subjects or the theoretical or practical side of vocational subjects. (If a teacher of practical subjects has a few years' experience of employment in industry, he may not need to be qualified at the highest level of theoretical studies.)

LEPs provide training in over 90 specialist subjects. Not all the teaching staff there have gone through the ENNA system. To cope with the growing number of pupils, the government has had to recruit a substantial number of auxiliaries with a university education but no training in technology or teaching. In many cases, graduates go straight from university to take up teaching work in a *lycée*.

There are several important features of the training imparted in *ENNA teacher training colleges*. A single establishment caters for future teachers of all types of subject – general, technical and vocational. The syllabus covers both the school and the working environment, with trainee teachers

going to work in outside companies for long periods. Great stress is laid on teaching methods for the transmission of knowledge; trainees can 'apply' their theoretical knowledge in a LEP associated with the college, and they also spend periods in other LEPs.

ENSET, the higher college of technical education, trains the teachers who will be responsible for scientific and technological subjects in the 'long cycles' of secondary education (i.e., courses leading to the baccalaureate or technician's diploma) and in the 'short cycle' in higher education (highly-skilled technician sections). At ENSET, trainee teachers work for their *licence* and *maîtrise* (bachelor's and master's degree) and then for the competitive examinations for teaching careers in their special field. Not all teachers go through ENSET: courses leading to the same qualifications are also offered by the universities.

In the technical and practical disciplines forming part of the long cycle of technical education, there are many (70) specialist subjects, but the level of staffing is sometimes low. Those who will be teaching these subjects train at *centres de formation de professeurs techniques* (CFPT). The standard of academic education on admission and graduation is fairly close to that of ENSET sections. Entrants are not expected to have prior experience of outside employment.

Teachers who have trained at an ENNA, ENSET, CFPT or university account for more than two-thirds of vocational training teachers. The other third consists of:

- technical subject teachers in private education and teachers of agricultural subjects,

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most of whom are recruited in the same way as teachers in State schools in general;

■ teachers in (private) establishments in the health sector, recruited solely on the basis of their professional diplomas;

■ teachers in *Instituts Universitaires de Technologie* – IUT, or university institutes of technology – most of whom were previously teachers in secondary education and are not expected to have experience in industry (in the IUTs, a third of the timetable is in theory taught by people who have their own outside careers);

■ trainers from the *Association pour la Formation Professionnelle des Adultes* – AFPA or the association for adult vocational training – mainly engaged in the basic

and other training of the under-25s. They must have had five years' working experience of their special subject. Those whose special subject is electricity or data processing have a higher standard of academic education than those training youngsters for office work, trade, emergency repairs and building.

It should also be borne in mind that a substantial proportion of skilled blue and white-collar workers (almost 30%) learn their craft under apprenticeship schemes that link training within a company with training in a special centre. The person in charge of apprentice training in a company (known as the *maître d'apprentissage*) must have a diploma: a *brevet professionnel* or *brevet de maîtrise*, certificates testifying that

they have attained a given standard of vocational skill. In the *centres de formation d'apprentis* (CFA – apprentice training centres), teachers responsible for technical and practical subjects must have taken a diploma that has entailed job experience and is at a higher level than the diploma for which their students are working.

A final group consists of the 'non-establishment' trainers: the skilled workers within companies who show youngsters how to acquire a skill in a more or less informal manner as part of their job, the 'tutors'. Unlike most other trainers, up to now they have received no instruction in how to teach, however short; this year, such 'tutors' have benefited from a 70-hour training course for the first time.



It has been a constant concern to strike a happier medium between teachers from mainstream education who know little about life in the working world and instructors in practical subjects who are less concerned with theory and the abstract.

Present trends

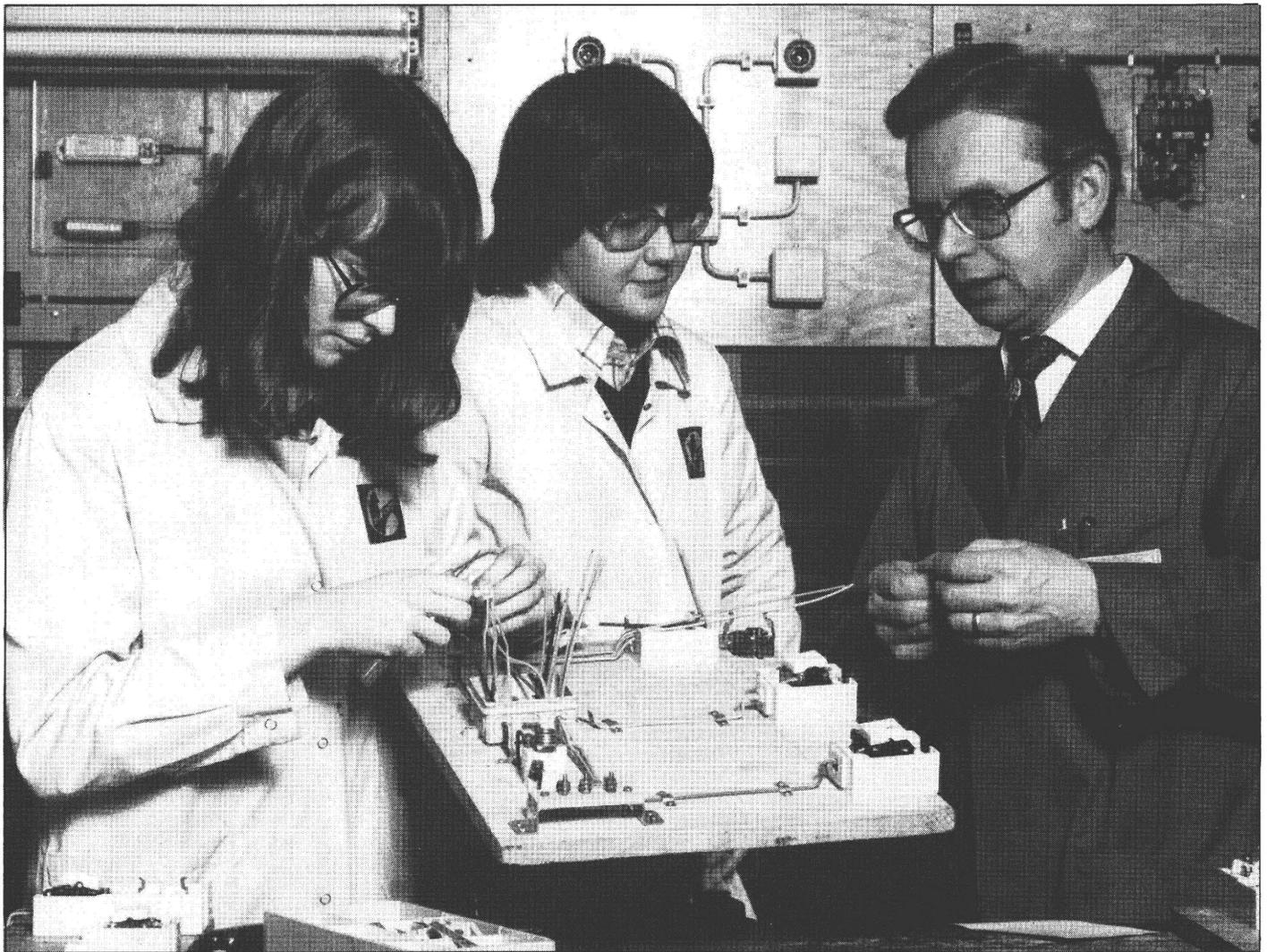
It has been a constant concern to strike a happier medium between teachers from mainstream education who know little about life in the working world and instructors in practical subjects who are less concerned with theory and the abstract. A general rise in the standard of recruitment to the profession over a number of years has brought us closer to the ideal of *rapprochement*, which has been reflected in the statutes by the creation of a single body of LEP teachers and has given official sanction to the training methods characteristic of ENNA. Not all of the teachers working today, however, have had the advantage of ENNA training, and it was vital – and still

is – that they should receive further training, especially as technological change is accelerating whereas the influx of new teachers is about to slow down. The reason for this fall is the youthfulness of the teaching body following massive recruitment over the past 15 years; and, in view of population trends, it is likely that the size of that body will remain about the same.

Continuing training for all teaching staff has now been established and should help to ensure that the trainers (and therefore their students) meet the demands of technical and economic change by having a more multi-disciplinary training, by being better prepared for job mobility and by enjoying greater autonomy in the process of teaching and learning. Technological and vocational

knowledge in particular will be updated in the light of changing techniques and trades through the schools and the working world (with further training and retraining for trainers).

The more radical challenge to trainers, however, is to change their overall attitude. Retraining in technical skills is undoubtedly important, as is the maintaining of close contact with the working world, but there is also a growing need to cater for the target audience of youngsters to be trained and respond to their aspirations. The goal can no longer be restricted to following a syllabus and teaching the tricks of a trade; it must also be to help them achieve those aspirations and gain a foothold in the world – not just the working world but society in



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general – however hard they may find it to express themselves and however anarchic their manifestation of their needs. For many trainers, retraining means unlearning how to be the ‘professional teachers’ that they have been all their lives and learning a new approach to the art of teaching.

It is something of a paradox and, when all is said and done, a comforting observation that even in this highly technological civilization, faced with the growing refusal of young people to be governed by the dictates of production, a new generation of trainers is emerging: they are more in tune with the evolution of technology and life in the working world while at the same time they

are as much teachers as technicians, as much pastors and guides as teachers. They are well equipped to help their students do more than acquire the expertise needed in order to enter the working world; they can also foster the personal development of those youngsters and encourage them to take their place in society.

One important experiment along these lines is now being conducted under the name of ‘opération jeunes’. This ‘operation youth’ is aimed at 16 to 18-year-olds (although the age range is soon to be increased to 16 – 25) who have left school without qualifications and have not found jobs. The scheme consists of closely coordinated periods: six

weeks’ ‘in-depth guidance’, in which the young people are tried out in several jobs; ‘social and vocational integration’ periods for young people who are segregated from society; and ‘skill-acquisition’ periods. Those participating in the operation side by side with the Education Ministry are other ministries, semi-public organizations and agencies of several kinds, many of them members of trade and professional associations, and of course the employers. The intercommunication, pooling of information and mutual influence resulting from the scheme will undoubtedly speed up change and enrich the spirit, methods and effectiveness of vocational training as a whole.



In Ireland

Aodh O'Canainn

Training of trainers

*'Training as is provided in most firms is in general characterized by obvious signs of wear and tear. This institutional breakdown cannot be repaired simply by changing trainers, training methods and training content'.**

Training in Irish firms is not, to the best of my knowledge, in imminent danger of 'institutional breakdown' but there is, at present, a feeling of unease about the role and the future of the training function in Irish industry. In this article I shall consider trainers in many areas, not only those in industry, but my contention is that, if the training function within industry is not effective, much of the preparatory work by vocational teachers and other agencies will be in vain.

Irish people have always had a great respect for education. However, the emphasis in secondary education was and still is academic. The reluctance of Irish middle-class youth, educated in these secondary schools, to enter industrial employment is well documented.

The first small advance was the establishment of vocational schools at the beginning of our first industrialization push in the 1930s. They were very limited in scope which was, in a way, useful because, otherwise, the powerful church-run secondary

school system might not have been so benign about the establishment of State-run schools. We had to wait over 30 years for the next movement. The doldrums of the 1950s and the haemorrhage of emigration, was followed by a period of pragmatism and the steady industrialization of the late 1960s and 1970s. It was a time of change, of optimism and of self-confidence. It spawned AnCO (the Industrial Training Authority), the regional technical colleges, the National Institute of Higher Education and new forms of secondary education which went some way to redress the imbalance between vocational and academic subjects.

So much for history. Who are the trainers in Ireland today and where are they?

Trainers in industry

The biggest grouping is within industry, where there are over 2 000 training managers and almost 2 500 instructors. One might wonder at the high ratio of training managers to instructors but, in effect, only about 25% of those described as training managers devote the major part of their time to training. It may be assumed that many of the other 75% of training managers, for whom training is a secondary job, were appointed in response to the economic terms of the Levy/Grant Scheme administered by AnCO. This scheme is under review and the possibility of its being changed or eliminated is a cause of some consternation among training managers.

Trainers in vocational schools

The second largest group is that of teachers in vocational schools. There are over 2 000 of them and it is expected that there will be an annual recruitment of 200 per year throughout the 1980s. There are almost 60 000 students in the schools and education runs for the full six years leading to the Leaving Certificate whereas previously they only handled a limited number of vocational subjects on a two-year course.

AnCO

The third largest grouping is in AnCO which operates 16 direct-training centres. They employ over 600 instructors, more than half of them in apprentice training. The other instructors are involved in direct-training of unemployed youths (where the placement rate is about 70%), in community youth projects in rural areas and in community workshops in disadvantaged city-centre areas.

In AnCO's Training Advisory Service there are over 200 training advisers who liaise with training departments in the firm. Assignment units carry out training, notably supervisory training, for smaller firms who for financial or other reasons are unable to avail of the services offered by independent training organizations. (AnCO's charter does not allow it to duplicate training schemes already in existence).

* François Viallet in *Vocational training*, No 9.

AODH O'CANAINN, Senior Management Specialist with the Irish Management Institute and Chairman of the Irish Institute of Training and Development

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ACOT

The fourth largest in ACOT, the Council for Development in Agriculture, which organizes both full-time and part-time courses. Over 1 300 students attend full-time courses in agricultural, horticultural and home-economics colleges. The main part-time course, for young entrants to farming is the Farm School which runs 30 courses with a total annual participation of over 600. There is also a Farm Apprenticeship Scheme. There are over 100 full-time teachers. They are required to have a relevant qualification and experience in teaching and/or advisory work in agriculture.

Irish Management Institute

Next in terms of trainers is the Irish Management Institute (IMI) which is an independent member-owned management centre, among the biggest of its kind in Europe. There are 18 full-time management trainers, 6 on well-nigh full-time contract and 15 associates who lead and take full responsibility for their own programmes. It has probably the highest penetration of its national market among European management centres with over 5 000 managers per year taking part in programmes which range from one-day conferences to two-year master programmes.

It is involved in management development and training of trainers in other countries and is an innovator in training methodology. It runs the AnCO/IMI basic programme for industrial training managers.

Other organizations with trainers

Next in line come the Army apprentice school with 27 instructors (22 of whom are civilians on secondment from vocational education), the Electricity Supply Board where 20 instructors look after 600 apprentices, the Hotel and Catering Training Authority, CERT, which has 14 training advisers and performs interesting work in the development of trainee managers, and the national transport company CIE which has 10 instructors in its apprentice school.

The banks and hospitals have considerable training sections. Training is also carried out by and for voluntary organizations. The latter category includes the National Social Service Board and APSO which prepares volunteers for work in the developing countries.

Northern Ireland

While this article is largely concerned with the situation in the Republic of Ireland, it is worth mentioning that the situation in Northern Ireland is different from either the Republic of Ireland or Great Britain. Unlike Great Britain, all but one of the Training Boards remain in existence. They operate in the following industrial sectors: engineering, construction, road transport, clothing and footwear, textiles, distribution, catering, food and drink. Unlike the monolithic structure of AnCO, training is handled independently by each training board. This arrangement raises the problem of scale of operation since Northern Ireland is a small economy and, with notable exceptions, industries are of small or medium size.

In many ways the role of the industrial trainer in Northern Ireland mirrors that of his southern colleague, but there is a higher percentage of full-time training managers in the Republic or Ireland.

Selection and training of trainers

That is an approximate picture of the training establishment in Ireland. How are trainers selected and trained? In most cases they are selected for technical rather than training experience. The training period involved is in many cases quite short.

There is, however, one bright spot and I shall start there. It concerns the training of vocational teachers. Previously most of them had a craft background supplemented by a Department of Education diploma but since 1979, Thomond College has run a four-year degree programme which includes:

Main-area studies in one of the four specialized areas of wood and building technology, metalwork technology, general and rural science and physical education.

Education studies in the history, philosophy, sociology and psychology of education.

Complementary studies in sciences related to the main area of study.

Teaching practice in second-level schools.

It is intended that graduate teachers will be able to plan and implement curriculum change. They are expected to have a professional awareness of developments within technology and educational studies.

Painting one wall of a room shows up the unpainted walls and makes them look scruffy. Thomond College highlights the imperfections in the training of trainers elsewhere.

The present situation is that while most organizations require new trainers to have a technical qualification (and even that is sometimes waived), prior experience of training is generally not a prerequisite for employment as a trainer. Organizations provide short courses in training skills following recruitment. In-service improvement courses are also provided but tend to be limited in scope and in the resources allowed, although organizations such as AnCO, ACOT, and the IMI provide further development for their trainers through overseas courses and study-trips.

Training training-managers

The principal programme for newly appointed training managers is the AnCO/IMI 'Introduction to the training management function', which is run by the IMI. The programme consists of three modules of 4½ days each with a considerable amount of project work between modules. Subjects include adult learning, systematic training, identification of training needs, data collection, presentation skills, report writing and influence skills, management and supervisory development, operator training, programme design, implementation of training, evaluation, costing and budgeting of training. As one can imagine with such a wide range of topics, the programme is intended only as an introduction. Unfortunately, only a minority of participants take part in follow-up programmes. It would appear that, while training managers can help in the development of others, senior managers either do not recognize their own development needs or,

if they do, do not regard them as important.

The Irish Institute of Training and Development, which represents the training practitioner in industry, runs a three-year part-time course leading to a diploma in training management in association with a college of commerce. It tends to attract entrants to the field rather than practitioners and is not well supported by industry. This may be a reflection on the lack of status of the training manager and on his lack of professional standing.

There is a growing feeling that, unless the training manager breaks out of his subsidiary role within the personnel function, and becomes involved in the mainstream of organizational processes, the function will go into decline. That concern was expressed at the 1983 conference of the Irish Institute

of Training and Development. While some would blame the weakness of the training function in industry on senior management, one must ask what the training managers themselves have done to expand their role? Most of them are happy with a subsidiary role; research shows that 65% see advancement in terms of personnel management, only 10% in terms of general management.

The training manager whose work is a changeless routine limited to repetitive operator-training finds himself in a very small corner. If he is to gain credibility, and prove the relevance of this work to output, he must expand his role in the direction of organizational development.

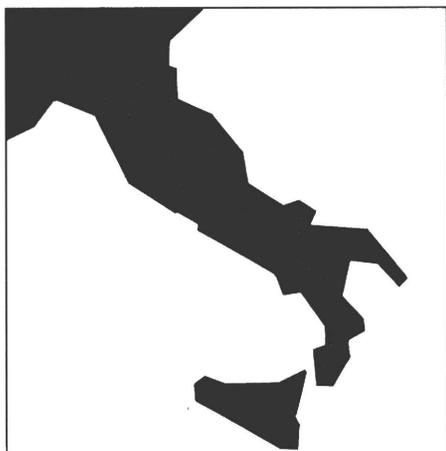
The case of the training manager in industry illustrates the general need for a systematic approach to professional development of

trainers in Ireland. The Research and Planning Division of AnCO, in the course of a study,* identified four main factors which would improve trainer motivation:

- A more positive climate within organizations towards training, evidenced by senior management support and sufficient resources.
- An adequate career structure.
- Encouragement for further professional development of trainers.
- Regular updating of trainer skills and of knowledge of training technology.

The above is a guide for action. It spells out the need for professionalism among all trainers in Ireland.

* *The vocational trainer of young people in Ireland*, a report for Cedefop by Sue Leigh Doyle and Brenda McGennis, August 1982.



In Italy

Arnaldo Ferrari

The group of trainers working in the field of vocational training in Italy is both numerous and highly structured. The marked differentiation within that group is partly due to the institutional structure of vocational training activities.

Vocational training in Italy

Very roughly, vocational training activities may be broken down as follows:

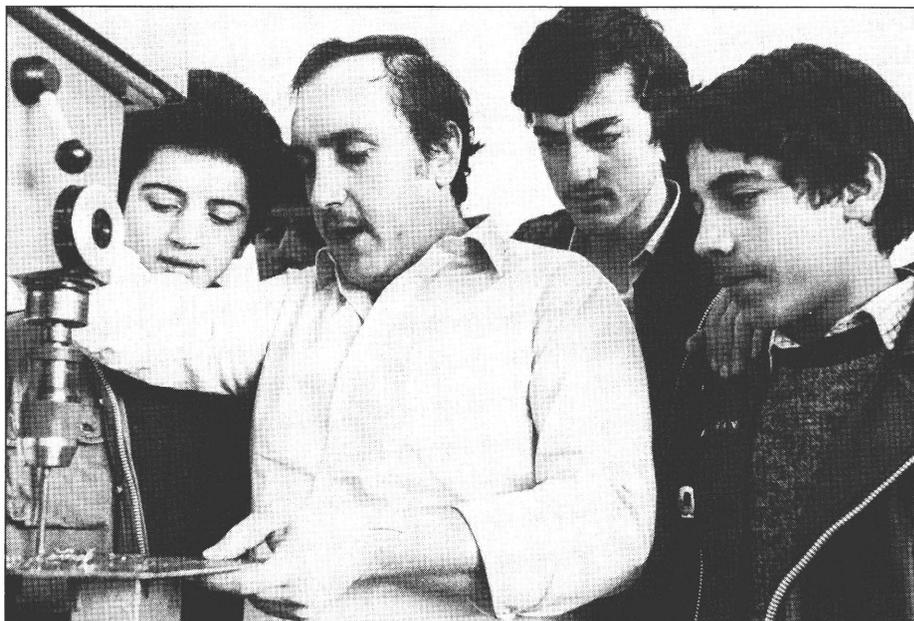
□ *Vocational training within the State school system.* At the post-compulsory level of school education, such training is provided by:

■ *Istituti Professionali (IP).* Each 'vocational institute' specializes in one of many fields such as agriculture, industry/crafts or trade. On completing the course, which usually lasts three years, trainees have a qualification enabling them to seek skilled employment, although they may also decide to continue their education.

■ *Istituti Tecnici (IT).* There are agricultural, industrial, commercial and many other types of 'technical institute', each of which in turn offers training in a variety of specialist fields. For example, an industrial technical institute will have courses for those intending to work in the mechanical engineering, chemical, electronic and other industries. During their training, usually for five years, trainees work for a diploma leading to employment as technicians or office workers, although they may go on to study at university level.

□ *Vocational training within the training system for which the Regional authorities are responsible.* This consists mainly of basic training courses, directed towards industry, trade and other service sector activities. The courses, which follow the period of compulsory education, are held at *Centri di Formazione Professionale (CFP)*. After attending these vocational training centres for what is usually a period of two years, the youngsters are qualified to apply for employment as skilled workers. They may continue their studies only if they pass an examination entitling them to return to the school education system.

□ *Apprenticeship,* under a special contract of employment that places an obligation on the employer 'within his own undertaking, to impart instruction, or arrange for that instruction to be imparted, to the apprentice taken into his employ so that the latter may acquire the technical ability he needs to become a skilled worker, the employer making use of the apprentice's labour in the undertaking itself' (Law 25 of 1955, Article 2). The apprentice is trained by means of practical training in the workplace and theoretical and supplementary instruction through attendance of courses arranged either by one or more companies authorized



Apprenticeship, under a special contract of employment.

ARNALDO FERRARI: Researcher at Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali (Censis), Rome.

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to do so by the regional authority, or by the regional authority itself, since the region also has responsibility for the training aspects of apprenticeship. The period of apprenticeship varies, and is usually specified in the contracts of employment for individual trades. The training courses proper consist of at least 200 hours a year, i.e. 8 hours a week. On completion of their apprenticeship, provided that they pass an aptitude test trainees receive a certificate and can either continue with the same employer or seek skilled employment elsewhere.

In 1982, about two and a half million young people were receiving vocational training, as follows:

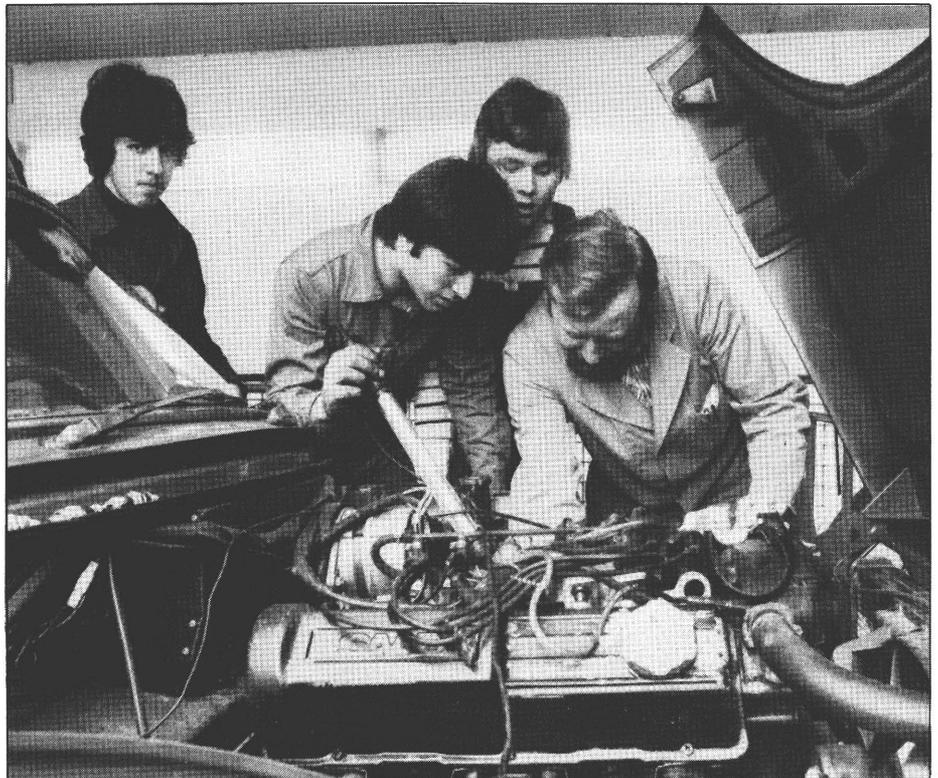
- more than 1¹/₂ million in vocational institutes (458 000) and technical institutes (1 800 000) out of a total of 2 434 000 in upper secondary education;
- about 250 000 in vocational training centres, out of almost 300 000 young people taking vocational training for which the regions are responsible;
- almost 700 000 apprentices, out of a total of slightly more than one million under-20s in employment.

Italy has just over 4 600 000 young people in the 15 – 19 age group, in other words the population from which almost all basic vocational training users are drawn. It could be stated, then, that more than half of the young people in this age bracket are in vocational training. This is, however, only a theoretical figure, because of the apprenticeship situation. The breakdown of training under apprenticeship schemes in the period before responsibility was decentralized to the regions, combined with pressure for the abolition of apprenticeship (although this has now ceased) has led to a loss of commitment to this form of skill acquisition, with the result that apprentices have been receiving no training other than their practical instruction in the workplace.

The trainers

Trainers in the various fields of vocational training fall into the following categories:

- the teaching staff of vocational and technical institutes, both State and private (a total of about 150 000);
- instructors at the vocational training centres set up by the regional authorities or by subsidized associations and agencies (totalling over 20 000);



De-facto trainers in the smaller companies.

- the staff of in-company training centres in the larger private and public-sector companies (a total of a few thousand).

In addition there are the *de facto* trainers in the smaller companies who are responsible for introducing young people to work and training apprentices on the job. There can be no hard-and-fast job profile for a trainer of this type, as he may be the head of the firm himself in one case and, in another, an older employee with a good deal of experience. In the same way, it is difficult to arrive at a precise figure for the numbers involved; on the basis of an apprentice population of almost 700 000, the number of unofficial trainers might be estimated at a few hundred thousand.

Even if we disregard the *de facto* trainers because of the lack of reliable facts and figures, we find marked differences in the sociological composition of the various categories of trainers.

A breakdown by sex shows that most trainers are men. Even so, there is a sizeable percentage of women on the teaching staff of vocational institutes, and they are even better represented in the technical institutes (two out of five are women and a very high proportion of women teach general subjects).

A breakdown of trainers by educational qualifications shows that most of those working in vocational and technical institutes have a university degree, except for the technical/practical instructors working in the laboratories and workshops. The largest group on the teaching staff at vocational training centres, which employ far more practical instructors, is of trainers having a secondary school diploma. No figures are available on in-company trainers.

The composition of vocational training staff in Italy, then, is complex and segmented.

The profession is complex because it embraces a wide diversity of trainers, differing not just in their job profiles but also in social status and level of education.

The profession is segmented in that there is a great variety of working relationships and job profiles within each category.

Occupational status of trainers

There are also institutional differences between individual categories of trainer, for example in training, recruitment and refresher training. The first points to be borne in mind are that:

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■ most of the teaching staff at vocational and technical institutes are public sector employees (except for the staff of private schools);

■ some of the teaching staff at vocational training centres are public sector employees, although here their employers are the regional authorities or other local bodies; the others are employed by various types of associations and agencies, although they essentially come under the heading of private sector employees;

■ most in-company trainers are employed by the companies in which they work; even those who are on loan from independent training centres are covered by the nation-wide or company-level collective labour agreements for the industry in which they work.

□ The careers of *trainers working in vocational institutes and technical institutes*, on a par with those of other members of the teaching profession, are regulated by Presidential Decree 417, issued in 1974, setting out the *regulations governing the legal status of teaching, managerial and inspection staff of . . . State schools*. Insofar as experimental work, research and refresher training are concerned, their status is regulated by Presidential Decree 419 (1974) on *educational experimentation and research, cultural and vocational refresher training and the establishment of institutions therefor*.

Recruitment to the permanent teaching staff is competitive, based on examinations and paper qualifications. One of the requirements of applicants competing for teaching posts is that they should have completed their university education, except in the case of those who will be teaching vocational or technical (and arts) subjects calling for special skills. An applicant who is successful in the competitive examination and whose name is published in the final list of successful candidates, which is graded and gives assessments, will be assigned to a teaching establishment. After a trial period of one academic year there, his status in the teaching career will become permanent.

The official teaching hours for secondary school teachers are 18 hours a week, plus 3 hours a week in the case of teachers of technical/practical subjects to give them time to set up their lessons. In addition, all teachers work for 20 hours a month on non-teaching activities associated with the running of their school.

Further training is defined as both a right and a duty for the teaching staff. Its aims are seen as:

■ keeping teachers abreast of scientific developments in their own disciplines and in the links between disciplines;

■ furthering their knowledge of teaching methods;

■ taking part in research and innovation in the didactic/pedagogic field.

There is to be annual planning of these updating activities within individual school establishments, which will call on the services of outside experts and teachers. Research, experimentation and educational refresher courses are organized by *ad hoc* institutes (IRRSAS), under the overall supervision of the Ministry of Education.

These are the regulations, but they are as yet only the backdrop to what is actually happening. Over the past few years, recruitment has boiled down to little more than arranging for the status of teachers who have already been working on a temporary basis to be converted to that of permanent staff. Very few young graduates have been recruited to the profession, and efforts to update the knowledge and improve the qualifications of existing trainers have been spasmodic rather than systematic and planned.

□ The work of *instructors in vocational training centres* is governed by the 'Outline law on vocational training' (Law 845 (1978)). Most of the measures relate to teachers in public-sector vocational training centres, who will be on the permanent teaching staff employed by the regional authorities. Insofar as their pay and general conditions of work are concerned, reference is made to labour contracts signed by the regional authorities, the government and

the unions and also to the legislation to be enacted by individual regions.

The only legal provision governing teaching staff employed by the training agencies operating in the sector is that their financial status should be comparable to that of personnel employed by the region.

Today, four and a half years after the outline law has come into force, not all the regions have brought in their own legislation on vocational training and only 10 or so have passed specific measures relating to teaching staff. In the meanwhile, the three-year national collective labour contract for vocational trainers employed by private-sector subsidized agencies was extended in June 1981 by the schoolteachers' unions which are members of the union federations and representatives of the leading private agencies, in the presence of representatives from the regions.

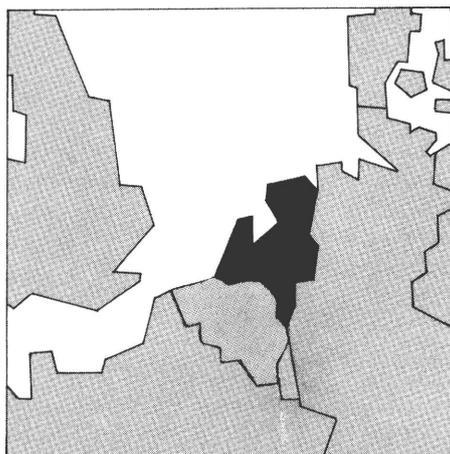
There are two contrasting trends in the status of both public and private-sector teachers as regards recruitment, earnings and conditions of work and qualifications:

■ the first is positive, in that their status is more clearly defined and made more formal than in the former era of 'wildcat' administration;

■ the second is negative, in that the status of vocational trainers is being too closely modelled on that of teaching staff in the State school system, which is not altogether appropriate to the duties and tasks of the former.

Finally, attempts to introduce further training are being hampered by the difficulty of coordinating ventures and activities because responsibility is fragmented between the Regions and private agencies and because the background and standards of training of the staff themselves are so varied.

□ Lastly, there are extreme differences in the status and work of in-company trainers from one company to another. It is hard to define a single model for the job of the trainer, and trainers' roles and duties may be very diverse.



In the Netherlands

H. Schellekens and B. Koegler

Two groups of teaching staff can be distinguished in Dutch vocational education, namely (i) the teachers *employed* in vocational schools and colleges (of lower, intermediate, shorter intermediate and higher vocational education and apprentice training) and (ii) the *practical instructors* employed in industry. Despite similarities in their functions there exist between the two groups great differences as regards identity, position and organization.

Teachers in vocational education

The identity of the teacher can be defined by reference to three factors:

- the *subject* that he or she teaches;
- the level or grade of the *qualification* which he or she possesses; and
- the *appointment and position* which he or she holds. With regard to each of these three factors it is the case that the identity of the teacher in vocational education is subject to statutory definition and regulation.

□ *The subject taught*

Some 52 000 teachers are employed in the Dutch vocational training system, of whom 37 000 are men and 15 000 women. Generally they teach one subject or a combination of subjects within the same group (e. g. mathematics and physics in the 'exact subjects' group). Five groups of subjects can

be distinguished in vocational schools, namely:

- Languages (Dutch, English, German, French, etc.);
- Exact subjects (mathematics, physics, chemistry, etc.);
- Social and cultural studies (geography, history, sociology, religious studies, etc.);
- Creative and expressive studies (music, physical exercise, etc.)
- Subjects of direct or indirect relevance to the type of occupation with which the particular school or college is concerned.

The numbers of periods which staff members teach every week in the subjects for which they have been appointed vary from case to case.

Unlike the vocational subjects, which are specific to particular categories of school, the general subjects (languages, creative studies, etc.) are taught in all vocational schools, with the result that teachers of general subjects have a wider range of *job opportunities* open to them than do teachers of vocational subjects. This fact makes it more attractive for the prospective teacher to opt for a training course in a general rather than a vocational subject, and as we shall see in the next section the numbers of trainee teachers studying general subjects exceeds the number who have opted for vocational subjects.

□ *The level of qualification*

The Secondary Education Act distinguishes three levels or grades of qualification which teachers may possess, the first grade being the highest and the third the lowest (so that a teacher with a first-grade certificate is also

qualified to teach at the second or third grade). There are also teachers in vocational schools who are in possession of a ministerial declaration or exemption certificate or who hold no formal qualification.

Table A shows the numbers and proportions of teachers with each level of qualification in 1979-80. Half of all teachers were 'third-graders'.

Table A: Numbers and percentages of teachers with each level of qualification

Qualification	Number	%
First grade	11 276	22
Second grade	9 336	18
Third grade	26 038	51
Declaration/exemption	2 233	4
No formal qualification	2 716	5
Total	51 599	100

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

In recent years there has been a sharp increase in the number of teachers with second-grade qualifications working in technical schools: in 1977-78 such teachers numbered 2 328, in 1978-79 3 060 and in 1979-80 3 952, an increase of more than 1 600 in only two years. This shift is in large part due to the availability of second-grade conversion courses, of which many technical-subjects teachers with third-grade qualifications have taken advantage.

□ *The appointment and position held*

There are no rules in Dutch labour law governing the establishment of employment contracts; such rules are, however, laid

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down in educational legislation. In this connection a distinction is made between public secondary schools (run by the State) and private secondary schools (run by private or voluntary bodies, sometimes of a religious nature, but with financial support from the State).

The rules governing the establishment of employment contracts for teachers in public secondary schools are set out in Title II of the Legal Status Decree issued under the Secondary Education Act. The Decree's provisions include the requirement that the school authority must provide each teacher with a memorandum of appointment showing among other things:

- whether the appointment is to a temporary or permanent position;
- the nature and if possible the level of the post and the workload involved;
- the relevant salary arrangements and guarantee provisions.

The rules relating to memoranda of appointment in the case of private secondary schools (Catholic, Protestant or non-denominational/non-religious) are set out in Section 51 of the Secondary Education Act; they coincide substantially with the parallel provisions of the Legal Status Decree.

Teacher training

Training options

Prospective teachers have several training avenues open to them: both full and part-time courses exist, leading to qualifications at the first, second and third grades, in a range of subjects.

■ New teacher-training

The New Teacher-Training courses (NLOs), which have been in operation since 1980, embody the modern conception of the teaching function. Students are trained in two subjects up to the level of second and third-grade qualifications. This approach is entirely new, since formerly a qualification could be obtained in one subject only. There are now 10 institutions providing the new courses, one of which concentrates solely on technical subjects.

■ Secondary teacher training institutions

Another way of training as a teacher is to follow a course leading to a secondary teaching certificate (*MO-akte*). Such certificates are awarded at two levels, the *A-akte* being equivalent to a second-grade qualification and the *B-akte* to a first-grade qualification. Most MO courses are part-time.

■ Other institutions

As well as the NLO and MO courses there exist a number of other routes to a teaching qualification, including correspondence courses, part-time courses for technical-studies teachers and courses for teachers of art. Table B summarizes the various options, showing the number of students of each sex on each type of course.

Table B: Numbers of students on teacher training courses

	Total	Male	Female
New Teacher Training (NLO)	16 705	8 684	8 021
Secondary certificate (MO)	24 188	12 267	11 921
Correspondence courses	9 046	4 683	4 363
Other	22 788	12 879	9 909
Total	72 727	38 513	34 214

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

(NB: Table B does not include university courses leading to a first-grade qualification in a particular subject area.)

The government plans to concentrate all secondary teacher training in a small number of institutions. In future all second and third-grade courses are to be provided by the NLO institutions, while the first-grade courses – both full and part-time – will be run by the universities.

Subject choices

Table C shows the numbers of students taking each subject or group of subjects. The large proportion taking languages, social and cultural subjects and expressive and creative subjects is striking.

Table C: Numbers of students on teacher-training courses, grouped by subject area (based on CBS publications)

	NLOs	MO courses	Other	Total
1. Languages	9 346	11 306	—	20 652
2. Exact subjects	5 687	1 909	—	7 596
3. Social and cultural studies	6 054	8 143	—	14 197
4. Creative studies	7 150	2 774	8 113	18 037
5. Technical subjects	270	—	4 809	5 079
6. Domestic science	1 679	—	32	1 711
7. Health and hygiene	1 854	—	748	2 602
8. Commercial studies	1 265	708	—	1 973
9. Other	7	348	18 132	18 487
Total (no double counting)	16 705	24 188	31 834	72 727

Source: Vocational Education Statistics 1980/81

(NB: The table includes some double counting as a result of the two-subject NLO courses.)

Practical instructors

□ *Introduction:* *A varied group*

In comparison with school-based teaching staff the practical instructors employed in industry are more difficult to classify into groups or types, and in the Netherlands there exists no general definition of their function.

Any firm may distinguish training tasks within its own structure and link them with other (equivalent or subordinate) functions, and a measure of creativity in the differentiation and combination of such tasks cannot be denied to firms. Instructors thus form a very varied and somewhat ill-defined group – ill-defined because the title given to a trainer by no means always

indicates the training activities with which he or she is concerned, and because in many firms training is provided without this fact being reflected in job titles or descriptions.

Instructors in industry clearly do not fit into a single category or even a small number of categories. This may not in itself be a cause for concern, until it is proposed to institute national measures to ensure that all instructors function as effectively as possible: it then proves difficult, for a whole range of reasons, to gear the proposed measures to the very varied situations in which instructors of different types have to carry out their training function. If national measures are to be introduced successfully, it will be necessary to divide up the multifarious class of practical instructors, distinguishing 'theoretical' types to which such measures can be directed and geared.

□ *Factors relevant to the instructors' situation*

In the Netherlands as elsewhere a number of factors affect the functioning and classification of practical instructors. For the sake of brevity we shall mention only a few:

the fact that for firms training is always a means to an end and never an end in itself;

the type of training given;

the size of the firm and the industry;

the aspect of the training function concerned.

Existing training activities in industry can be divided into three main groups:

■ training to meet the needs of the individual firm, job training, instruction days and refresher training;

■ training to meet an industry's needs (such courses are geared more to a type of occupation rather than to a specific job with the firm concerned);

■ work experience for students on school or college courses (here the firm is simply providing facilities for obtaining certain learning experiences).

Our attention focuses on instructors involved in industry-oriented courses and work-experience schemes forming part of school and college courses. In general firms are more likely to be willing to contribute to such training work (and thus to meet needs which extend beyond their own) if the ratio of costs and benefits is not too unfavourable from their point of view.

There are major differences depending on whether the training activities are carried out in a large or a small firm. In small and medium-sized enterprises, in particular, training is given in the normal course of work and there is little need for specific remuneration for trainers or for links between training activities and particular positions in the firm. Such activities simply form part of the production process, with a limited number of trainees generally receiving all their training from one 'all-round' instructor. Larger firms, characterized by extensive specialization and division of labour, isolate a large proportion of their training activities in special centres with full or part-time training officers who may be involved in the training of one or more groups of trainees.

Four aspects of the training function may be distinguished, largely corresponding with the divisions which can be observed in larger enterprises. They are:



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Practical instructors.

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*the coordination of training activities;
tuition, up to the level of the relevant
vocational qualification, given at the various
training locations (which may be special
centres or the workplace itself);
trainee supervision;
development.*

□ *Types of instructor*

In firms the same categories of instructor are found to be responsible for both firm-oriented and industry-oriented training activities. In large firms the various categories are associated with the following aspects of the training function:

Coordination	— Director of Training or Head of Training Centre.
Tuition	— Training centre instructors; Workplace instructors involved in the production process.
Supervision	— Master (<i>leermeester</i>).
Development	— Full or part-time development officers.

In smaller firms all these functions are generally carried out by a single instructor for the benefit of one or a small number of trainees.

In the case of industry-oriented training there exists in the Netherlands a category of instructors who are not attached to particular firms. Some 500 consultants, divided between 32 national training bodies (training institutions organized by and working for the industry concerned), help and support around 20 000 firms in the provision of

vocational training. Originally their task was to supervise and counsel trainees, but in the course of time this has shifted to one of advising and stimulating the trainers. They are the principal element in the national structure for coordination and cooperation in vocational training.

In the case of work-experience schemes for school and college students separate supervisors (department heads) are usually sought by a work-experience tutor ('stage-mentor'), who maintains contact on the firm's behalf with one or more work-experience coordinators attached to schools in the region.

Back-up services

□ *General*

In the Netherlands a number of instruments have been developed — mainly by the 32 national training bodies, in the framework of the apprenticeship system — to help practical instructors working in industry to function effectively. This has involved:

- the development of national training programmes;
- the establishment of national qualifications and the maintenance of standards (through examinations);
- the advisory and quality-control services of consultants;
- the provision of teaching aids on a national scale;
- the organization of regional training activities;
- the organization of regional consultations among instructors;

■ the organization of refresher training courses covering both course content and teaching methods.

□ *Training the trainers*

In addition to private training facilities there has grown up in the Netherlands a fragmented system of government-funded training schemes. The following national schemes are currently being operated independently of one another:

1. two-year part-time courses for practical instructors;
2. seven-day refresher courses for practical instructors;
3. in a number of industries, training schemes lasting several days;
4. in-service training for consultants.

Certain courses are geared to the capacities and requirements of particular categories of instructor.

Coordinating training activities

The division of responsibilities between and coordination of training in industry on the one hand and training in schools and colleges on the other are organized by various means in the Netherlands. In the case of industry-oriented vocational training this includes:

1. the establishment and formulation of national programmes;
2. the structure and operation of central examining boards;
3. the national support system provided by consultants in each industry.

In the United Kingdom



Mike Kelly

Pressures for change: employment availability

The situation of trainer training is under strong pressure to change. There are two major sets of issues underlying this pressure, the first involving employment availability. As EC Commissioner Ivor Richard says in Cedefop News No 5 (1983):

'... credibility of training, particularly in the eyes of young people, will depend upon the availability of employment thereafter. Job availability following training and/or retraining has a major effect upon the training of trainers involved in the activity and applies a strong "market" pressure upon the content and methods of training arrangements.'

Pressures for change: motivating the training

Why training is undertaken, or provided, affects how the trainers are trained. Three factors are important in this respect:

■ Firstly, the explosion in unemployment, particularly youth unemployment, has produced a response which has been called the 'social rescue programme', comprising massive new training and re-training initiatives, such as the youth training scheme (from September 1983), the Manpower Services Commission's open tech programme

for updating and retraining, particularly of technicians, the professional, industrial and commercial updating schemes (PICKUP), developed by the Department of Education and Science, and the MSC's technical and vocational education initiative for 14 to 18 year-olds.

■ Secondly, major pressure for change has come from the changing patterns of employment in the UK stemming from the substantial decline in manufacturing industry (down from nearly 40% of the workforce to 26% over the past 20 years), plus a 'vertical' shift out of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, and the effects of the new technologies coming on-stream over the last decade.

■ Thirdly, substantial manpower policy reviews with serious economic purposes by training and employment specialists is questioning many of the foundations upon which the UK's employment and training policies were constructed: the efficiency and effectiveness of off-the-job-training, its responsiveness to industrial and commercial needs, public versus private provision of such training, the proper source of its funding and the responsibility for the design of the curriculum of an effective training process – all these, as well as increased interest in the adaptability and development of on-the-job-training arrangements, are multiplying the pressures for changed programmes of training provision.

The current situation

Until comparatively recently, trainer-training provision in the UK was relatively straightforward to describe. Those

trainers whose situation I described in the UK monograph on the situation of trainers (Cedefop, 1983) some 60 000 of whom are recognized in their job title as 'trainers', with a further undefinable number, probably over 100 000, whose job includes some element of on-the-job-training in enterprises (both the public and private sectors), have two major sources of legitimation as 'trainers':

- extensive and comprehensive experience in a range of occupationally-based skills;
- proven expertise in such skills, often backed by professional qualifications.

However, the levels of pedagogical training and expertise, in both public and private sector trainers, on and off the job, are much more variably distributed. Not more than 50% of trainers in public, semi-public, or private sectors have pedagogical training or qualifications; in some training establishments, the proportion would appear to be considerably lower than this. The financial resources devoted in the UK to this pedagogical aspect of the training of trainers, excluding capital building and salary costs of trainers themselves, has been estimated, for the purposes of the UK monograph referred to above, to be around 3 to 5% of the overall education and training expenditure of some UKL 12 000 million.

Trainer formation and updating for the future

The key components in the training and updating of trainers are currently in the process of being defined, and, to some extent, implemented. Such implementa-

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tion, particularly that which takes account of the major changes in the needs and demands of the trainer for the 1980s, is tending to occur according to market forces, rather than in the more leisurely and traditional ways, based in the public sector educational institutions. Much trainer-training occurs on the job, and as specific needs arise. Both the Manpower Services Commission and the statutory education and training providers (nationally the Departments of Education and Employment, and regionally and locally, bodies such as the nine Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education, the 30 Polytechnics, and the Local Education Authorities), are in the process of identifying changing

needs of trainers resulting from the changes in employment and training arrangements, and developing, updating and retraining short courses, on and off the job.

In addition, companies and private training centres are doing the same. Though this tends to meet particular needs, it can be short-term, and uneconomic within the UK as a whole, and efforts are being made to rationalize the provision where possible. Further, such a 'market forces' model does not always solve the problem of the training required where the skills involved are at the 'sharp edge' of the new technologies, where the personnel involved in new technology production cannot be spared from the pro-

ductive process to train other workers in their operation. This problem is likely to grow.

Changes in the trainer-training situation

Three main changes in the trainer-training situation are emerging:

■ The trainee target population in the UK will become increasingly different over the next 10 years. Due to the changes in employment availability, skill needs in the labour force, and training philosophy and scope, the target population for training and retraining will be covered more comprehensively. The youth training scheme (YTS) operating from September 1983 is aimed at every school leaver, i.e. every 16 year-old who is not going on to full-time education. At first, 460 000 places primarily for those unable to gain employment will be provided, but this will aim to be extended as soon as possible to 'form a permanent bridge between school and work' (Youth task group report, MSC, April 1982), for unemployed and employed young people. Further, it aims to include 17 year-olds too, as resources are available. This target population includes those who are unmotivated by training provision, the less able youngsters, and the disabled. Such a major change in population will call for considerable changes in the trainer staff, particularly in their personal and professional skills and attitudes.

■ This change in the trainee population, allied to changing philosophies of teaching and learning approaches, will call for different pedagogical skills in the trainers. Curricula are being designed to allow for roll-on/roll-off access to off-the-job-training, individualized learning packages, more flexible modes of learning, specific training packages tailored to specific job and occupational needs delivered by a wide variety of providers, for use on and off the job, and, increasingly, computer and video-based training. The use of traditional classroom-centred training in many public-sector vocational institutions will occur less often, and with more discrimination. Performance criteria, rather than paper qualifications, and standards – based competence, rather than a time-served approach, will become the markers of effective training. The trainers' pedagogical skills are having to change significantly to accommodate these new ways of working, and, as



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A number of investigators have identified as vital in the trainer population the attributes of flexibility and adaptability.

noted earlier, they are having to change on the job, and at a faster pace than is normal in trainer training.

■ Thirdly, trainers are themselves in need, in some cases, of considerable technical retraining. The technical knowledge and skills repertoire of many of them, more particularly in the off-the-job training sector, are often the very skills for which demand is in decline in the UK economy at large, and major updating and retraining needs are coming to the surface as industrial and commercial training needs concern skills areas which are inadequately covered by the trainer population.

These three areas, combined with other more general changes in values and philosophy related to the workforce as participants in flexible teams rather than as individuals in a hierarchy, demand significant re-orientation in the training of trainers.

Favoured trainer profiles

The trainer profile most appropriate to meeting the needs of trainees in the light of the changes in recruitment and employment systems in the UK may be used to point to the necessary changes in trainer – training:

■ A primary characteristic of trainers remains that of sound technical knowledge and expertise. As already indicated, this cannot in many cases any longer depend upon experience and qualifications gained much more than 10 years ago, because of the major changes in production and delivery systems in the modern economy. Therefore, updating and retraining has become an essential for many trainers in their technical knowledge and expertise (*Helping young people to learn*, Singer and Johnson, IPM/MSC, 1983).

■ Allied to this technical soundness, Singer and Johnson see as essential in trainers a ‘liking for young people and an ability to relate to them’, particularly in initial training, as well as a sound organizational base for training structures, recognized and supported within the institutes and enterprises.

■ A number of investigators (including Hayes, Singer and Johnson, Kelly and Bagenal, Wellens) have identified as vital in the trainer population the attributes of flexibility and adaptability. In an uncertain situation, with the advent of new technolog-

ies, an accelerated rate of change, and difficult employment scenarios, trainers will increasingly need to be flexible and adaptable, developing an entrepreneurial approach to meeting market needs: for this, there will need to be, in the short to medium term at least, increased resource support to enable staff to adapt to changing demands and needs.

■ Such support may well be particularly necessary in the development of pedagogical skills where a changing trainee population, and an expansion of the concepts and philosophy of the design and implementation of training curricula, are likely to place extra strain upon the professional expertise of trainers. Essential areas for development here include such things as:

the pedagogy of training design;
the pedagogy of presentation, including computer-assisted learning, independent and distance learning;
the psychology of experience-based learning;
skills of counselling and guidance, personal and vocational;
skills in the assessment of trainees, and the evaluation of programmes and schemes, on-the-job and off-the-job;
the understanding of, and expertise in skills ownership and transfer, enabling trainees to truly gain ownership of the skills learned, so as to be capable of transferring their use to unfamiliar contexts.

■ Finally, trainers need to have, at least, an awareness of the range of values at work, in society at large, and personal to trainees – values which may well be considerably different from their own. This points to a minimum capability in the area of human relations, interpersonal and team development skills for which training can be developed and promoted amongst trainers.

Issues and action for the future

In conclusion, six issues for priority action may be highlighted in the development of the training of trainers in the UK. The first two relate to the vocational training system and its interface with general education and the employment market:

□ **Priority 1:** Traditional apprenticeship is in substantial decline, but the concept and practice of traineeship can become an effective substitute, appropriate to the changed and upgraded needs of the enterprises,

public and private, of the 1980s and beyond. Already in the UK, the construction, engineering, hotel, catering and allied services, and agriculture industries are in the process of developing training which, to a greater or lesser degree, incorporate the first YTS year as the initial stage of formal training requirements, including, where they still occur, formal apprenticeship training. Trainers need to become more conscious of this approach and more sensitive to its implications for all levels of training, and for ‘progression’ through all levels of training, with its consequent need for relevant and appropriate certification and accreditation of experientially-based learning.

□ **Priority 2:** The pressure is now intense, and probably rightly so, for trainers to produce a credible and employable training product, i.e. trainees who have relevant and marketable skills, developed through adequate understanding, and ‘hands-on’ practice, in a variety of contexts. Trainers need support in their own training to enable them to effectively guarantee skills ownership and transferability within at least occupationally related skills, and perhaps between one or two related occupations, so as to produce flexible and adaptable trainees who are aware of the ‘continuing’ need for development over a whole lifetime.

The next two issues for priority action in trainer training relate to the personal and professional needs of the trainers themselves.

□ **Priority 3:** Opportunities have to be found for trainers, both off-the-job and on-the-job trainers, to update their own technical knowledge and expertise. Short courses and secondments across the off-job/on-job divide can be effective in such technical updating.

□ **Priority 4:** In addition to the trainers gaining technical up-dating, there is a need for pedagogical training, as has been indicated earlier in this article, to allow staff to consider and to practice a variety of training approaches. Such training will frequently be enriched if trainers from both off-the-job and on-the-job situations come together for such activity.

The last two areas for priority action concern 2 particular areas of up-dating and retraining for trainers which are comparatively new, and potentially both demanding and rewarding areas of development.

□ **Priority 5:** New training initiatives, for young people, and for adults, make new

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demands on trainers in the area of interpersonal and guidance skills. Provision for human relations training, and counselling and guidance skills development are increasingly becoming necessary for trainers.

□ **Priority 6:** The influx of the new technologies do not only affect production and services in the economy at large. They are also becoming more and more a part of the training process itself. Computer-based

training, and the use of video, make different demands on trainers, particularly where he or she is involved in the production of appropriate software.

Conclusion

The situation of the training of trainers in the UK is perhaps the next major item on the

nation's agenda, following the introduction of the youth training scheme, and its consequent effects on the whole of vocational training provision. In spite of the constraints, there appears to be considerable energy and imagination for trainer – training to be adapted and adjusted appropriately enough and quickly enough for the trainees to benefit and to make an effective contribution to the UK manpower needs of the next 10 years.

Bibliography

Les tuteurs en entreprise

Francine Vincent

Publications de la Sorbonne (in the series entitled *Travaux et publications du Centre d'éducation permanente de l'Université de Paris I'*)

Paris 1983, pp. 169 (in French)

In France, in the aftermath of the law enacted on 12 July 1980 and the Schwartz Report issued in September 1981 (see *Vocational Training* 11/83, p. 37), debate is continuing on the issues of alternance training, apprenticeship for the 16-18 year olds and their integration into society. The ordinance of 26 March 1982 and ministerial circulars on the implementation of alternance training (8 February and 4 April 1982) have helped to define more clearly the role of companies accepting young people for training and the function of the 'tuteur', whose task it is to work with other in-company trainers to make sure that the young apprentice does not find his first contact with the working world too traumatic.

This is the theme of the recent report by Francine Vincent, a well known expert and consultant at the Centre d'Études Générales et d'Organisation Scientifique (CEGOS), attached to its 'Culture and Vocations' section.

In Part I, the author reviews the function of the 'in-company tutor' in everyday life in the light of interviews with tutors operating in various sectors of the economy (craft firms and industry) and public bodies (providing work experience in pursuance of the *Pacte National de l'Emploi*, universities, etc.). These interviews, compiled into short monographs covering each sector, make it clear that the primary considerations to be borne in mind by the tutor are manpower, selection and recruitment needs rather than the needs of trainees.

The second part of the report compares the data compiled with the findings of other theoretical research on the subject (for example, by B. Schwartz, the Association pour le Développement de l'Éducation Permanente (ADEP), *Information sur la Formation Permanente* (INFFO and Cedefop).

In so doing, the author brings into sharper focus the basic function of the tutor, the nature of alternance training and the (re)organization of apprenticeship in companies, which are increasingly being seen as 'loci of training and education'.

The final part (Enclosures) starts with the inevitable reference to apprenticeship in the West German dual system, and then reproduces official documents, ministerial circulars and laws. This is followed by a useful 'essential bibliography', arranged by subject.

The report is an invaluable guide to all those – in both the public and the private sector – concerned with the training of young people in the workplace.

Rekrutierung und Qualifikation des betrieblichen Bildungs-Personal

Ed. Rolf Arnold und Theo Hülshoff
Esprint-Verlag, Heidelberg 1981, pp. 215 (in German)

The second volume in the series *Betriebliche Aus- und Weiterbildung* (Esprint, Heidelberg), this is a miscellany of reviews and research reports relating to the 'company pedagogy' pilot scheme (*Modellversuch Betriebspädagogik*), financed by the Rhineland-Palatinate region and the Federal Ministry for Education and Science.

The title describes the theme of the book, the recruitment and qualification of in-company training personnel, its contributors being experts and well known specialists on the subject. The subject has been discussed at length from the scientific viewpoint, but what is now (or, more appropriately, still) needed is an essentially political solution in the form of clear-cut legal measures to ensure that implementation is delayed no further. We feel this must have been the editors' motivation in collecting the essays and articles between the covers of a single book, some of which have already appeared in specialist journals or as research reports. Most contributions offer a

detailed picture of vocational training in companies in the Federal Republic of Germany today, concentrating on the 'professionalization' of trainers.

The first part of the book discusses the problem of 'recruiting' in-company trainers (with articles by Arnold/Weis, Kutt and Wollschläger). Part II tackles the subject of their 'qualification' (Paschen/Boerger, Sebastian, Arnold, Döring, Schulz, Kutt, Tilch and Stiehl). The publication ends with an article by the two editors, calling for the step-by-step creation of an integrated system of normative and methodological studies for trainers and those in charge of in-company training in the Federal Republic of Germany.

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Via G. Marcora 18/20, 00153 Rome
(in Italian)

This bi-monthly journal published by *Ente Nazionale dell'Associazione Cattolica Lavoratori Italiani per l'Istruzione Professionale*, ENAIIP, aims at a specific readership of the people in charge of vocational training in Italy and others who are concerned with the problems it raises. Each issue consists of several sections on individual themes. Section 1 is entitled *Prospettiva*, 'prospects'. It sets out ENAIIP policy guidelines and reports on the laws affecting vocational training and the trainers. Section 2, *Formazione professionale*, is in turn made up of sub-sections on individual aspects of vocational training: agriculture, industry, the service sector, retraining, educational advancement and vocational training abroad. Section 3, *Esperienze regionali*, reviews experience and experiments at regional and local level, whereas Section 4, *Diario dei Mesi*, is a 'diary' giving news and views on vocational training. The final section, *Documentazione*, quotes the text of regional legislation and describes proposals and documents generated by the social forces in the working world.

Dossier

Actualité de la formation permanente

Jean Nacache, Director

Bi-monthly review of INFFO Centre (Centre pour le développement de l'information sur la formation permanente), Tour Europe Cedex 07, 92080 Paris La Défense (in French)

Published by INFFO (members of whose board represent the leading French economic and social undertakings and the unions), the journal consists of sections entitled *Pris sur le vif*, *Dossier*, *Etudes* and *Documents*. The first section reports news from various professional sectors and provides information on the activities of French, European Community and world agencies responsible for training and the problems of adult education. The theme of the second section, the 'Dossier', changes with each issue. For example, issue 63 (March-April 1983) contains articles on the status of trainers (Jacquet), their qualifications and continuing education (Malglaive) and training programmes for trainers of 16-18 years olds (Bapst and Beauvallet-Caillet). The third section is devoted to theoretical and scientific research, while the fourth cites official reports, regulations and bills associated with vocational and continuing training.

European journal of teacher education

Journal of the Association for Teachers in Europe (ATEE)

Editor: Rhys Gwyn. Administration and publishers: Carfax Publishing Company

(PO Box 25), Abingdon, Oxfordshire OX14 1RW, England (EN)

Following a year of transition (1982, Vol. 5), this journal (1983, Vol. 6) continues the series originated by its predecessor, *Revue ATEE Journal* (1978-1981, volumes 1-4). The three issues a year (March, June and October) are concerned with policies for the basic and continuing training of teachers, especially in the European context. Every article is in English or French (very occasionally in German), preceded by a 100-150 word abstract in two languages, one of which is English.

Each issue contains reviews of books and journals in its field, followed by a list of the new publications received. Apart from bibliographical references, descriptors are given in English, French and German, based on the European Documentation and Information System on Education, Eudised.

Censis – Quindicinale di note e commenti

Editor: Fabio Taiti
Piazza di Novella 2, 00199 Rome

Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali (Censis) is one of Italy's leading social research institutions. Its excellent socio-economic analyses of the Italian situation are guidelines that contribute towards an understanding of Italy's society and economy and the dynamic pressures by which they are being changed.

These 'fortnightly notes and comments' provide a medium for the wide dissemination of the findings accumulated as a result of the

Centre's investigations and research. The publication tackles a whole range of vital and topical social issues, but it reserves specific space to education and vocational training.

The 'fortnightly' is aimed at an influential readership – senior management in industry, civil servants, union leaders and journalists – seeking in-depth information about what is happening in Italian society today.

Two other Censis publications of special interest are its series entitled 'Ricerche' and 'Contributi'.

Formazione domani

Monthly review of the Istituto Addestramento Lavoratori (IAL).

Editor: Cataldo Di Napoli
Via Tagliamento 39, 00198 Rome

IAL, an institute concerned with manpower training, is linked with one of Italy's three leading trade union confederations, Confederazione Italiana Sindacati Lavoratori (CISL). The institute is intensely involved in vocational training under regional training programmes and, to back up these training activities, it conducts and promotes scholarly research on the subject. The journal brought out by IAL has a three-fold goal: to generate and inform political debate, to stimulate cultural commitment and to report on vocational training programmes and experience. It is of undoubted interest to European observers wishing to keep abreast of political changes and developments in training in Italy as seen through trade union eyes.

The future: an end to the trainer's diploma?

*Interview with Nicolas Estgen
by Duccio Guerra*

In periods of crisis and far-reaching change, the vocational training variable is no longer as closely linked with employment as it used to be in boom periods, or at least the 'training/employment ratio' tends to become negative in that lack of training – or lack of sound training – adds to the risk of unemployment.

With the breakdown of old-established economic structures in the 1960s, there has been a search for surrogate solutions and the momentum of change has been gathering. Vocational training is expected to function in support of change. Its primary role is seen not just as the transmission of technical knowledge and job skills to individuals but as the ability to make that knowledge and those skills highly flexible so that they can be adapted to meet the challenge of change.

All this induces us to reflect on the traditional role of trainers in vocational training and on their own training.

On the world scene, Europe will probably continue to set the pace in certain sectors of production and services, provided that it first of all raises and maintains the educational and training standards of its labour force and trainers.

The Community's social and economic policies will inevitably be reflected in its policies on education and vocational training, a subject we discussed with Mr Nicolas Estgen, Vice-President of European Parliament. With his experience at directorate level in the Luxembourg Education Ministry, he is particularly conscious of the difficulties associated with schools and vocational training.

NICOLAS ESTGEN: Vice-President, European Parliament, Former member of Cedefop Management Board, Former Director of Technical and Vocational Education at the Luxembourg Ministry of Education.

Faced by such sweeping changes as those now taking place in the society and economy of the European Community's Member States, what changes would you like to see in the role of trainers in the field of vocational training?

First of all, may I express my pleasure and satisfaction at being with you here in this European Centre in Berlin where I worked with you for quite a time as the representative of the Luxembourg Government.

I was here when the Centre first saw the light of day and in a sense I, with my friend the Deputy Director, Mario Alberigo, was one of the midwives at the birth of Cedefop's information policy. I must congratulate you, you are doing sterling work. Speaking for myself, I should like to see your field of action extended even more widely.

To go back to your question, I would say that, in the current economic and social context, the role now assigned to vocational training is innovatory in two ways.



HOFMANN

Firstly, people like to think of it as the miracle cure for unemployment, especially youth unemployment. The second demand made of vocational education is that it should enable Community countries to meet the challenge of Japan and Japanese technology.

The implication is that trainers should know all about the labour market and be familiar with every movement and shift occurring on that market and economic developments and trends in their own region, in other words within a radius of 60 to 120 miles, as well as technological changes and trends in their own field.

In other words, the basic technical and practical training and the professional expertise they have acquired will no longer suffice.

In the future, there will be no such thing as a trainer's diploma testifying that a person has the requisite qualifications, but rather an attestation of the professional dynamism and intellectual agility expected of a good trainer. If trainers are to teach others, they must constantly train themselves.

Under the generic heading of 'trainers' comes a very wide variety of professionals: practical instructors, teachers of theory, technicians, teachers employed by public or private-sector establishments, etc. Even though they may all be lumped together under this one name, do you not feel it is vital to create new forms of dialogue and cooperation between the school and the working world, between teachers working in the State system and trainers and technicians working in industry?

Even in less troubled times, I always felt there should be the closest collaboration between the school and the working world on the subject of vocational training. Today, such collaboration is even more vital.

Europe



I think that the Community, for example through Cedefop, would do well to encourage and fund pioneering ventures (starting perhaps with one pilot scheme in each Member State) involving a school, a vocational training centre and an employer, under the auspices of an official from the Government concerned and in conjunction with the appropriate trade associations. The aim should be to create periods during which the 'people in the thick of things' and those responsible for training can think and talk about what they are doing and pool their individual experience.

The reason why I name Cedefop in this context is because I have such a high opinion of what it is doing and great confidence in the experts who work here. Cedefop could be the 'sunrise-point' both for a new look in professional ethics and for a new method of teaching vocational skills.

It could act as the Community corner-stone; it could coordinate the strategy we hope to see. At the same time it would be the focal point for the compilation and interpretation of information on the schemes, so that others may benefit by the experience acquired.

Keeping abreast of rapid changes in knowledge is a primary need for trainers hoping to maintain their professional standards. Do you think we should be content with the tried and tested arrangements, periodical refresher courses, or should we be thinking about a fresh approach and new developments in the training of vocational trainers?

You can probably guess what my reply will be from what I have said up to now. Yes, we should undoubtedly be looking for a new approach. In my view, the basic feature should be joint action by the school and the employer.

As you say, the tried and tested formula of regular courses is no longer enough.

Trainers should not just go off every now and then to take a peep at what is new in the working world. We should be creating a system of regular joint seminars where the boffins who know about new technologies can meet the practitioners working in industry and the people who work in our schools, teaching both theory and practice.

Furthermore, attendance of such basic and refresher training seminars should not be left to the goodwill of trainers; alternance (the linking of the phase in which trainees learn and the phase in which they adapt their newly acquired knowledge) should become a far more integral part of the normal, official and remunerated duties of their trainers.

In its political debates, how much attention does European Parliament pay to the train-

ing of trainers? Is there any move towards tackling this problem in the Community context?

As yet there has been no political debate on the specific subject of the training of vocational trainers, nor has any report been produced on it. One reason may be that European Parliament prefers to respect the autonomy of individual Member States in matters of education and training. Even so, I believe the time has now come to generate a debate on such an important issue. There would certainly be no opposition to any such initiative, since Parliament has already raised the problem of vocational training on several occasions, seeing it as an essential part of efforts to boost the European economy.

Do you not think that the birth of a new technological culture could provide an opportunity for introducing common training elements into the training of 'European' vocational trainers? Have any political proposals been put forward along these lines?

Yes, I do think this; but no, no political proposals along these lines have been made. This is I believe a case in which teachers and technicians should point the way and politicians should follow.

Here again, in my view Cedefop could be the initiator and promoter.

Political and scientific proposals have been made in European Parliament with a view to a coordinated European policy on research, technological development and industrial advancement. Our teachers, our trainers, should be missionaries and the transmitters of new ideas. They should be associated with this process of focusing our efforts in the technical and economic field. Such an operation could help to distill common elements to be introduced into the training of European trainers.

Training in the 1980s

Commission of the European Communities

On 21 October 1982, the Commission submitted a draft resolution to the Council concerning vocational training policies in the 1980s, together with a communication¹ setting out Community policy guidelines and defining spheres of action. There are, the Commission says, four main subjects of concern:

- training policy for young people;
- training and equality of opportunity;
- conception and organization of training at local and regional levels;
- exchange of information and experience.

The question of the training of trainers is more specifically raised in connection with young people's training. A major investment is needed in the training of those who will have the responsibility for the design and content of new programmes of social and vocational preparation. Greater cooperation is required between teachers concerned with different stages of training – the final period of compulsory schooling, training for young people after the school-leaving age and adult vocational training – so as to build more bridges between those stages and improve the element of continuity in training provisions. Since constant renewal of the content of training is essential, as is a broad spread of options that will attract young people, there is a need for special encouragement for the training of trainers and other key supporting personnel.

Moreover, to encourage a variety of imaginative responses to the design of programmes on offer to young people, the Commission proposes the extension of its demonstration projects on linked work and training so as to create a systematic, Community-wide capacity to learn from each other's experience over the next five-year period. These pilot projects would be designed to focus on the following priorities of common interest:

- the extension of guidance and support systems to provide continuity of contact with the young people involved and to stimulate the coordinated and active provision of information and advice on job and further training opportunities, especially at local level;
- inter-professional cooperation among teachers, guidance specialists and other agencies, both public and private, concerned with youth questions at local/regional level, to extend the range of options available to young people;
- the training of trainers involved in re-designing the programmes on offer and in equipping teachers and other specialist personnel for these new tasks;
- the design of assessment systems for these programmes, based on training modules which may be linked with the overall systems of certification and thereby recognized as a basis for entry into employment and further training.

To assist in the development of training/production workshops, the Commission proposes the establishment of a second group of projects, which should serve as points of reference within each Member State and for comparative evaluation at Community level. Special attention should be paid to the training and management skills and expertise required of the staff involved in such projects, with the aim of producing a practical guide or manual for training instructors.

On the subject of the conception and organization of training at local and regional levels, the Commission communication stresses the need to link training policies with wider social and economic strategy designed to regenerate disadvantaged regions. The Commission notes the growing importance of various counsellors whose role it is to act as agents for development by animating, coordinating and supporting local initiatives designed to promote small-scale job creation.

The activities of such development agents fall between the traditional areas of respon-

sibility of the training authorities and the employment authorities. Their role is likely to grow in importance in future and to impinge increasingly on the responsibilities, for instance, of vocational guidance advisors and officials of local employment agencies. The training requirements of all such officials will have to be reviewed in order to ensure that they have certain elements in common and are able to work as a team at the service of both those in need and those involved in initiating job creation schemes. An emphasis on inter-professional training may also help to avoid the creation of overlapping, wasteful or even conflicting advisory facilities and encourage a degree of mobility and interchange between education, training and employment services without detracting from the promotion and career prospects of the specialists involved. It will be equally important for Member States to ensure that the trainers are equipped to take account of these new developments and be fully aware of the range of job creation initiatives and changing qualification requirements, as well as having some direct experience of inter-professional developments affecting the specialized personnel involved in their training programmes.

Under the heading of 'exchange of information and experience', the Commission proposes a modest programme of short study visits for vocational training lace of that human relationship.

On 11 July 1983, the Council of Ministers adopted a Resolution* setting out these proposals, including those concerning trainers. Taking into account the role and responsibilities of both sides of industry, Member States should increase their efforts to improve the quality and scope of the training of instructors and vocational guidance counsellors, paying particular attention to the training needs of those responsible for providing technical advice to stimulate economic activities at local level (development agents).

¹ Doc. COM(82) 637.

* OJ C 193, 20. 7. 1983.

Two thousand trainers a year

Interview

with Mr André Aboughanem

by Florence Gérard

Turin, 1965. The year in which the International Centre for Technical and Vocational Training opened its doors. The concrete embodiment of 20 years' work in the field of vocational training by the International Labour Organization, the Turin Centre came into being as a result of growing awareness of the role that training could and should play in the process of development in countries that had recently gained their independence. Help with training had become a key element of the development aid furnished by the international organizations and under bilateral programmes in the form of technical assistance.

Geneva, 1983. Mr Aboughanem, Director of the Turin Centre and special adviser to the Director-General of the International Labour Office, replies to questions from Cedefop about his approach to the training of trainers and developments in the Centre's activities in this field over the past 20 years.

Mr Aboughanem, could you first describe the importance of the training of trainers in the Centre's overall work?

I should like to point out that the training of trainers forms a vital part of the Centre's activities, although we are not speaking here of trainers for vocational training in the strict sense of the term. Even if we take the broadest possible definition of vocational training, it accounts for about half our workload. We have a number of other programmes relating to the training of managers, cooperative staff and union members, etc. In general, the training of trainers accounts for 50% to 60% of our activities.

The very name of the Turin Centre stresses the concept of technical and vocational

training. Is this concept still valid? How has the Centre adapted to the changes that have been taking place over the past 20 years?

When it was launched, the Centre's institutional terms of reference were seen essentially as the further training of vocational training staff or even skilled workers and craftsmen from countries which had not yet acquired their own vocational training agencies. During the early years of its existence, then, the Centre provided advanced technical training and it was equipped with sizeable workshops. Although part of the Centre's role was to teach people how to teach, this stage tended to complement its primarily technical programmes. Things changed considerably over the years as the newly independent countries gradually set up their own training colleges, with the benefit moreover of international aid. By about 1975 it became apparent that the stress previously laid on advanced technical training did not reflect the needs as closely as in the past, since the nature of those needs had changed. There was a review of the Centre's aims and activities in 1977-78, leading to a change of course in the programmes. For the past five or six years, the Centre has been essentially concerned with the training of trainers and, more specifically, with the development of training methods.

Another factor has led us to reconsider the work we do. There is now a colossal mass of trainers to be trained – something I believe has become a vital concern of companies and training colleges in most countries. Everybody is now looking for ways of training instructors in large numbers. In the past, a few individuals used to receive advanced training and were then found jobs in training institutions, which were relatively selective in the training they provided. This is no longer the case today. Countries which not so long ago were looking for a few dozen trainers for the next few years training and we have to go back to basics and rethink our methods.

One point I should like to make relates to our computerized technical documentation unit, which gives trainees and the national experts who pass through the Centre access to the wealth of experience and thought that has been accumulated on training systems and methods throughout the world. This documentation is supported by a network in which Cedefop is a vital link as far as Western Europe is concerned.

On the subject of training methods, what do you feel about the aid that the Turin Centre can give to trainers working in totally different contexts, usually with limited resources?

May I say first of all that we do not see trainers as being merely teachers of technical subjects or instructors at vocational training centres. We include under this heading anyone who acts as a training agent, whatever his or her status. For example, executives with responsibility for training policies and facilities come under this heading, as do the staff of organizations who do not devote themselves to training full time but have to do some training in the course of their work. We have become aware that any training methods we might recommend to these various categories of staff will in the final analysis differ very widely and be greatly influenced by their respective goals, the socio-economic setting for the training and to a great extent the cultural, academic or scholastic background of the people being trained. This is why the development of educational technologies plays such an important role in our search for solutions. In essence, what we are doing is to see how the training agent or trainer can be taught to use the teaching aids best suited to his needs. What we call educational technologies are all the teaching aids and all the training aids ranging from the simplest – in other words, pencil and paper – to the most sophisticated such as audiovisuals and now the micro as well. In this field, our priority is to look for the most suitable methods of training

and above all to show trainers how to make their own choice of the methods available. What we are not trying to do in Europe is to develop 'all-purpose' materials which must be accepted lock, stock and barrel. My main concern, on the contrary, is to teach trainers to select, devise and implement the training methods and facilities they will be needing. May I quote a practical example: at one point it was thought that modular material could be developed, with the idea that it could easily be introduced into different countries by combining individual modules to perform specific functions, like bits of meccano. In fact, however, we realized it was not so simple, as the materials themselves were not necessarily suitable for the groups for which they were being used. Cultural problems play a very important part in people's ability to 'absorb' such materials and the underlying teaching message. It was the same with certain experiments in self-training, which did not always come up to our expectations. It clearly shows that it is the trainer who has an absolutely central role to play.

How can you in fact be sure that your methods and materials match up to the specific needs of each of your groups of trainees?

In each programme, we try to get the students – the trainers – to react to the different types of material we place at their disposal, so that they can adapt the material themselves. We have learned a very sound lesson from our activities: it is that trainers are reluctant to accept a prepackaged formula. Basically I believe it is a peculiarity – and perhaps a desirable peculiarity – of anyone who teaches to be wary of materials designed by other people. When it comes

down to it, you can teach something well only if it has been well planned, and this applies equally to vocational training. Unless trainers learn how to use the material by being associated with its design and development, there will be little chance of achieving good results. Here again, this is an important aspect of programmes for the training of trainers. They should be shown what to do, how they can use the materials and the benefits they can expect of them, but above all they must be shown that the materials, or the technologies, are highly flexible and that trainers should be able to adapt them to fit in with their own methods of training. This is the essential approach whenever we are dealing with trainers who will be working in rural areas or in the 'unofficial' sector, in urban populations where it would be hard to use prepackaged materials.

To meet these needs, the Centre has developed extremely varied solutions based on simplicity of presentation and the use of teaching facilities with which the population in question is already familiar.

We apply the same logic when we use sophisticated technologies. For example, we have recently been trying to teach certain trainees about micro-computing so that they can select and adapt the teaching software programs that are available and try to integrate them into their own work as trainers.

But do you have a way of measuring the impact of your efforts in the field when your training basically takes place within the country concerned?

First of all I should like to point out that a growing proportion of our work is being

done within the applicant countries (more than 15% in 1983, compared with 3% or 4% a few years ago). Furthermore, many of our programmes are integrated into longer-term projects that come before and after the external training, under technical cooperation programmes set up by ILO and other international or regional organizations, in which the European Community plays a considerable part. We are also trying to maintain contact with our former trainees and the institutions and companies for which they are now working. Whenever we can, we arrange follow-up workshops several months after the end of the training period in Turin. It is not easy, but we are making progress.

Operational groups in the Turin Centre

- Cooperatives
- Rural development
- Educational technology
- Working conditions and environment
- Labour relations
- Management training
- Energy resources
- Industrial training
- Union training

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