

EUROPEAN CENTRE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING

# Vocational training

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# VOCATIONAL TRAINING

## INFORMATION BULLETIN

of the European Centre  
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### CEDEFOP

#### EDITORIAL

The term vocational training is frequently understood in the narrow sense of initial vocational training undergone towards the end of or just after completion of compulsory schooling.

Apart from the retraining of unemployed adults and retraining in the wake of technological advance, training for adults is often conceived of as having been inherited from a tradition of popular education, certainly an admirable approach if it were not for the fact that current economic conditions have placed priority elsewhere. Above all in the face of the economic crisis, continuing education, if presented as a system, now appears to constitute a veritable horror for financing bodies and a hopeless utopia in the eyes of policy-makers.

Why, then, is CEDEFOP also concerning itself with the training of adults? Perhaps it does not suffice to point out that the Centre has been charged with this task in that continuing education is explicitly mentioned in Regulation No 337/75 of the Council of the European Communities of 10 February 1975 establishing CEDEFOP. Perhaps there are other reasons which justify the fact that a centre created to respond to the needs of the governments and the social partners of the nine Member States of the Community has launched an action programme specifically in this field.

We know that by 1985 there will be from seven to eight million adult workers who will have to be retrained for another occupation, and surely this is already reason enough.

Within the next ten years the structure of firms, in particular large concerns, will undergo considerable change. Small and medium firms are confronted with great difficulties in organizing the training of their productive force, as their managers well know. But many of these firms also place great hopes in the development of new productive activities. In a number of Member States initiatives in the direction of stimulating the establishment of small and medium size firms are now forthcoming.

Attempts to revitalize the socio-economic structure of certain semi-rural regions, measures undertaken by a number of Member States to counteract demographic concentration in conurbations in which prospects of employment are virtually nil and where life is becoming more and more trying, and efforts to decentralize economic investments, all this, combined with that which has been said above, has created needs for training which cannot be met simply by improving basic vocational training, even though it may be adapted and adaptable to the greatest extent possible.

Indeed, quite beyond the simple continued training of workers, two main approaches to the training of adults are taking shape, namely, the prevention of unemployment and the provision of retraining on the one hand and measures aimed at encouraging regional economic development and establishing regional balance on the other hand.

CEDEFOP first undertook to identify development trends in the field of continuing education by gathering data on training offers available at a practical level. This first task will lead to the production this year of a handbook intended to promote the exchange of experiences among the practitioners in this field. This network of practitioners, which will not have the character of a closed club, will be supported by appropriate instruments and will furthermore enable CEDEFOP to remain at all times as close to actual practice as possible.

Parallel to this research work on training offers, CEDEFOP will conduct in 1979, with the assistance of the services of the Commission, an investigation into areas and conditions involved in the development of continuing education.

We shall address particular attention to on-the-job training of adults in the interest of preventing unemployment and reconversion and creating new jobs, new firms, and new productive activities.

We shall also gather data and undertake analyses on conditions governing access to continuing education, specifically the required level of general basic knowledge, educational leave, and training during working hours.

We shall attempt to identify the medium-term needs of continuing education which could result from a reduction of working hours or a lowering of the retirement age.

All these research efforts must be brought to the attention of the various sectors involved in the development of vocational training, so that we shall be able to organize open and frank discussions which we hope will produce concrete results.

Perhaps we have already moved far beyond continuing education as it was envisaged in the sixties. Are we laying the ground simply for a leisure-time civilization or are we preparing adults for a 'new' kind of work and a 'new' type of leisure which will enable them to rediscover their inner selves and find new outlets for their talents and inclinations?

## Continuing education and training

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Before undertaking to determine whether there are situations (and if so what these situations are) in Italy as well as in all the economies and industrial societies of the nine Member States of the EC which call for a new way of conceiving continuous education and vocational training which would enable us to overcome the real or presumed antagonisms which meet the eye, I feel that we must first realize that the work problems which bear directly on vocational training problems must now be seen in an entirely different light. First of all we must study these changes and the trends they are creating and implying in order to identify the implications which they will have for vocational training programmes. This is what I shall try to do in this paper, whereby I shall draw on some considerations, which I believe to be fundamental, contained in an article by Professor Mario Romani (the first President of the Giulio Pastore Foundation) entitled 'Towards a New Work Policy.'

When talking about the changes under way in advanced industrial societies, we should remember that today workers are placing less emphasis on pure and simple material improvements in living and working conditions. This may be mainly attributed to

- the rise in and greater stability of income levels by virtue of a general social security policy and specific policies guaranteeing an income even in cases of long-term unemployment;
- shorter working hours;
- a rise in average educational levels;
- progress in the direction of greater equality.

At the same time there have been important changes in the scientific and technological prerequisites in industrial and non-industrial work and a continuous expansion of the tertiary sector. In connection with these changes

- know-how and creativeness are once again being seen as important attributes (the decline of Taylorism and the beginning of work organization experiments which aim at giving the worker more job responsibility);
- a new type of self-employed activity (a new type of craftsmanship) is rapidly gaining ground;

- there is a quantitative expansion of small cooperatives producing goods and services coupled with improvement in quality;
- increasing importance is being given to social and cultural activities having a variety of aims, including the protection and valorization of cultural heritage;
- occupational and social mobility is increasing;
- the trade unions are stressing the need for workers to participate in management.

Turning to the Italian situation, we must bear in mind that for a variety of historical reasons the changes inherent in industrial societies, which became ongoing here very late and in a very tense social situation, coexist even today with traditional type situations and experiences which are very similar to those of preindustrial societies.

The contrast between North and South is the most striking example of this coexistence between the modern and the traditional. It may be seen in all aspects of work: in the composition and characteristics of the labour force, in the types of business, in industrial relations, in the workers' cultural background and behaviour, and in the types of trade union action.

Finally, we should mention the growing importance of tertiary activity for the labour force, a phenomenon which is widespread also in Italy. By providing insecure and underpaid work for those leaving agriculture rather than producing individual and collective services which are needed by an advanced industrial society, backwardness is often covered up.

This coexistence leads not only to complex work problems but also to complex vocational training problems both within the schools during schooling and in other institutions during working life.

It is in this specific complex Italian set-up that we must evaluate the difficulties of giving adequate answers in terms of training action. On the other hand, it is precisely in these complex situations that there is a need to conceive and organize continuing education and vocational training activities in a new way which takes into account the complexity of the demand.

The problem is that of determining how to provide workers with a general education, even at the basic level, which from both the quantitative and qualitative standpoint would enable them to overcome the dualism between South and North at the time of emigration and also equip them to take over as producers and citizens jobs in which they must carry specific responsibilities in more complex situations.

Even though it is no mean task to achieve this, the only answer is more widely spread, broader knowledge. It is in countries like Italy, where workers are still a long

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<sup>1</sup> Prof. V. Saba, President of ISFOL (Institute for Vocational Training of Employees), Rome.

way from the goal of 'being worth more' and are just barely at the point of 'having more' that we can see the need for education which is not only functional but also leads to a continuously expanding knowledge and high critical capacity which enables workers to face responsibilities such as those connected with civil and political rights and duties which are common to all.

Only by equipping our workers with this knowledge and critical capacity can we, among other things, defend and further develop the democratic institutions of our country.

Unfortunately, however, the Italian situation — on which I do not intend to dwell as it is only too well known — is characterized very evidently by considerable backwardness.

Against this background of backwardness, however, there are some hopeful signs that a revision of the content and meaning of training is possible. First of all the position of the adult worker, which is very different from that of the more educated younger worker, must be corrected. Short- and medium-term measures must be designed which would enable them to close the gaps in their training and thus facilitate retraining, mobility and promotion. There is, in other words, a need for massive crash programmes based on systematic research and experimentation on adult learning processes.

As to the contents of such remedial programmes, some rethinking must be done on the present distinction being drawn between traditional vocational training and general education. There is in fact a clear intrinsic relationship between the two, and more flexible solutions must be found which will satisfy the need for personal development as well as for participation in both continually evolving productive activities and the activities of society at large within its various political, administrative, and union structures and institutions.

However, this type of approach presupposes and implies, not only for the present generation of adults but also for future generations, for Italians and non-Italians alike, that all training processes must be conceived of as lifelong learning processes. Above and beyond basic general education, these processes taking place within both in-school and out-of-school structures will ideally be closely intermeshed in the sense of continuing education.

In addition to schooling, continuing education must comprise training activity in any shape or form via political parties, trade unions, firms, associations and agencies (for specific fields and problems), mass media, etc.

Therefore, one of the immediate tasks to be undertaken in a situation like the Italian one is to foster continuing vocational training schemes run by various organizations and in particular to provide training-

relevant radio and television programmes. Professional advancement, refresher courses at all levels, and remedial education should be the main if not exclusive aim of such schemes, and where possible not only the organizations directly concerned but also schools and teachers should play their part. Special attention should be given to projects which are organized for employees by the trade unions, the firms, and the local authorities, all acting either separately or jointly.

In order to give this entire operation a scientific basis, a specific methodological research programme and an analysis of past experiences of other countries in this field must be launched and specialized staff must be trained. In this way an extremely interesting field of research opens up for the universities and other research centres, one in fact which could encourage the universities to again work towards very useful social goals. The recently created regions and other local authorities should do everything possible to foster and support such programmes, including calling for the cooperation of all those involved locally.

Also to be seen as a relatively favourable starting-point is the insistent demand now being raised by workers to have more say in decisions being taken by their firms, decisions which have impact on their living and working conditions. In fact it is in the firm that changes in scientific and technical-organizational preconditions of work are being most strongly felt, even in Italy where industrialization is fairly recent.

In all firms employing workers there is at present, above and beyond formal relations, a tendency on the part of these workers, in spite of their exasperated call for equality, not to accept the fact that being a member of a firm implies a continuous change of personality. The participation of workers in the management of their firm and the training required for such participation will surely everywhere become in increasing measure one of the main problems of training in the course of training revision.

In Italy the problem of industrial democracy has been countered in recent years by efforts to broaden the scope of collective bargaining at company level by including things which hitherto had been considered the prerogative of the entrepreneur. In fact it has been maintained that collective bargaining would make the task easier, since workers and their representatives have already had considerable experience in this field, experience which has been constantly broadened and consolidated with the passing of time.

Despite this, however, results have been very limited. It is not a problem of deciding which instrument, bargaining or legislation, is more suitable for the purposes of industrial democracy. It is rather a problem of providing the proper educational background and consequently of organizing a type of training which will change mentalities and ways of behaviour.

Another reason for drawing up a new complex global answer to training is the current popularity of cooperatives in Italy. In the cooperative system, in fact, it is absolutely necessary to overcome the distinction drawn between entrepreneurial activity, managerial activity, and operational activity at the various organizational levels of the cooperative. And it is precisely for this reason that what is needed is a type of training which takes into account both occupational and educational aspects in equal measure.

Finally, a specific aspect, one which is certainly no less important from a training point of view, must be considered, namely, the crisis which typifies current work organization systems, starting from mass industrial production which in Italy has found a wide field of application in the development of a worker's personality at the workplace.

What workers are asking for are organizational changes which will increase the independence of groups of workers within the complex operative structures. The evolution of the worker's educational level is at one and the same time the goal and the precondition of the demand.

In order to realize this goal there must obviously be progressive improvement in industrial relations within the firm. The realization of this goal also depends to a considerable extent on measures (which must be implemented concurrently with work organization reforms) undertaken to adapt training especially in terms of increased skill for group work. And in order to acquire real organizational knowledge and skill, workers do not require professional training such as is reserved for élites but rather training which transfers essential 'broad, deep knowledge' already referred to.

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K. Evans <sup>1</sup>

## Trends in university adult education in the United Kingdom

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The growth of provision for continuing education taking place in Western Europe inevitably involves collaboration and interchange between a range of institutions with differing roles. In the United Kingdom higher education institutions in general and universities in particular have traditionally been involved in the

continuing education of adults, albeit in a limited sphere. In the current national and international reappraisal of the functions of higher education, UK universities are experiencing both internal and external pressures to reassess their traditional role.[1] Increasingly, the university sector is seen to have the resources, the potential, and the responsibility to adopt a role more able to meet on the one hand the challenges and demands of an uncertain society [2] and on the other hand the needs of individuals requiring new social, cultural, and occupational competences to enable them to take responsibility for the growth of themselves and of the society of which they are part. There is evidence that the 'vocationalization' of education taking place in the Western world [3] is being reflected in the university sector. This movement has brought universities into new relationships with other major national institutions in industry, the social services, the educational services, and many other groups. In this context universities are becoming increasingly important agents in widening opportunities for continuing education to men and women in all parts of society.

This paper, based on work undertaken in connection with the CEDEFOP project in continuing education, intends to provide an overview of the contribution of the universities to the growth of continuing education in the United Kingdom and to indicate some of the more significant areas of development.

### *Adult education in the United Kingdom* <sup>2</sup>

To understand the contribution of the higher-education sector to the development of continuing education, it is necessary to consider the context of the special characteristics of adult education in the United Kingdom.

The educational system in Britain, including the adult education sector, continues to be strongly influenced by structures and organizational arrangements which were more appropriate to the needs and demands of the past than they are to those generated by changing social circumstances.

The piecemeal development of adult education to respond to specific educational needs arising in different sectors at different times in history has resulted in a pattern of provision which is fragmented and diffuse.

Provision for adult education is

(a) **divided by purpose:**

The wide-ranging needs of adults and of society have produced a considerable diversity in the goals of adult provision, e.g., the acquisition of specific job skills, the development of social competence, the

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<sup>1</sup> University of Surrey.

<sup>2</sup> In this paper the term 'adult education' refers to post-16 education (post-compulsory education).

growth of cultural awareness, the mastery of basic literacy and numeracy skills, the development of aptitudes in relating and communicating with others, the retrieval of past school 'failures', etc. Shared goals have in many cases been used to define types of provision, resulting in divisive categorizations and segmentations of adult provision into 'professional' education, 'cultural' education, 'remedial' education, 'affective' education, 'vocational' education, etc., divided from each other both in concept and in practice.

This division of purpose is most clearly manifested in the dichotomy which has arisen between the goals associated with 'general' education and those associated with 'vocational' education.

(b) divided by **organizational and institutional arrangements:**

Adult education is conducted largely through three types of administrative unit:

- institutions, e.g. professional institutions, colleges of further education, training schools, universities;
- organizations, e.g. workers' educational associations, British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education;
- institutionalized movements, e.g. trade union movement, youth services.

The administrative boundaries separating the considerable range of agencies involved in the education of adults have in many cases grown into rigid divisions which now characterize provision in this sector.

Provision in the past has tended in many spheres to be imitative of the approaches and aims of initial education rather than to provide alternative educational opportunities and methods appropriate to the special needs and capabilities of adult learners. Provision has tended to be formalized, teacher-centred, examination-oriented, and therefore often inflexible in terms of curriculum, course structure, and outcomes.

The social, political, and economic evolution in Western European countries is now being strongly reflected in British education, as in that of other Member States of the Community. New directions are now developing in adult education in response to long-term social change, mediated by shorter term political and economic influences. Recent thinking and planning in adult education is moving away from a segmented to an integrated, comprehensive provision, linking the vocational, cultural, and social development of the individual and his social context through educational opportunities providing for life-long growth, renewal, and reorientation.

This movement is widening both the concept and scope of adult education. On the basis of this new thinking, some developments are emerging in policy and new provision aiming towards:

- de-schooling of adult provision through alternative methods and approaches based on teacher/learner relationships more appropriate to mature people;
- balancing of the inequalities of priority which exist between the initial and continuing stages of education;
- new models of 16–19 provision, giving
  - (i) increased opportunities for education beyond the compulsory stages of schooling to young people of all ability levels and
  - (ii) an orientation towards continuing education later in life;
- substantial expansion of the resources available through the Department of Employment and its associated agencies for post-16 education and training directed towards the development of occupational, cultural and social aptitudes and skills;<sup>1</sup>
- the integration of vocational elements into provision which is traditionally concerned with general academic education, e.g.
  - the extension of university 'sandwich courses' combining industrial experience and training with academic, discipline-based study; and
  - the introduction of vocationally orientated 'link' courses in the final years of initial schooling.

### *University adult education: development and organization*

University adult education is strongly rooted in tradition. New directions in educational thinking challenge many of the established ideas and practices of adult education in this sector. This has resulted in a diversification of provision in the past decade which now ranges from strongly traditional approaches to entirely new and experimental projects.

The majority provision of the university sector remains, for the present at least, the higher education of the 18–25 age group.

Historically, higher education has been seen as an extension of initial education for the more able and/or more privileged section of the population.

The involvement of universities in the education of the wider adult population has taken place mainly through the special provision of part-time university 'extension' courses. This form of provision was intended to extend those forms of educational opportunity normally

<sup>1</sup> Expanded provision in this sector, coinciding with reductions in the resources available in the main educational services, is perhaps one of the most significant indicators of the trend towards vocationalization in education.

preserved for a young intellectual or social élite beyond the walls of the university to adults in the surrounding community. These courses were open to all adults wishing to participate regardless of educational or other qualifications, were of a standard appropriate to a university, and usually did not carry an award on completion of the course.

The division of purpose mentioned above can be very clearly seen in the development of university adult education. The extension provision of universities has traditionally been directed towards the cultural enrichment and enlightenment of adults in the community. It has tended to cater in practice, though not in original intention, largely for an already aware and privileged section of the community.

This tradition began with the work of the Cambridge Extra-Mural Department, established in 1873, which had the aim of 'improving' working-class people and other educationally disadvantaged groups such as women and young people who, on leaving school, had little opportunity for constructive, worthwhile activity in their leisure time. [4] The provision established at this time was centred on subject-based lecture courses in the main bodies of knowledge, e.g. science, philosophy, etc., and was taken out of the university to surrounding areas by university extension provision which was subsequently adopted by other university departments.

In 1919 the Adult Education Report, [5] commissioned by the Ministry of Reconstruction, formalized the adult education work of universities, giving it structure and direction. While universal lifelong learning was seen as an ultimate goal, the structure proposed in this report proved decisive and was probably largely responsible for the fragmentation discussed above. A particular feature of the report was that 'liberal' education was seen as central to the university's role. This emphasis is responsible, at least in part, for the widespread rejection of vocational or vocationally-oriented study in university adult education which occurred in the fifty years which followed and which still continues in some departments today.

Extra-mural departments based in structures recommended by the 1919 report were slowly established throughout the country: Nottingham, Aberystwyth, Manchester (1920); Exeter (1922); Hull, Leicester, Southampton (1928); Durham (1929).

The Grant Regulations of 1924 designated university or equivalent extra-mural departments as 'Responsible Bodies' recognized as providing liberal adult education in their area and eligible to receive grant aid in support of this.

This funding system continues today, with 75% of the costs of recognized liberal education programmes of recognized universities being supported by the Department of Education and Science (England, Wales

and Northern Ireland).<sup>1</sup> Alternative funding is obtained for other activities by departments wishing to extend their provision beyond the traditional liberal model.

The changes of the postwar years have produced a situation of reappraisal of this model of provision and a considerable diversity of approach and opinion concerning the underlying purposes and functions of adult education.

Universities with a long tradition of extra-mural work of the type described have, on the whole, found it less easy to adapt and respond to change than newer universities which have been able in many cases to base their provision on contemporary needs, relatively unrestrained by elaborate structures and networks.

In particular, some of the technological universities established in the last two decades, with traditions of vocational and community education, have been able to develop quite different approaches to adult education (e.g.) Surrey, Loughborough, Brunel universities.

In many cases provision funded from other sources than the Department of Education and Science (DES) has been established, allowing the growth of non-traditional areas of work. For example, resources made available from industry, professional bodies, and other government departments and agencies have made possible the development of alternative provision, reflecting and to some extent stimulating the contemporary trends in educational thinking described earlier.

In addition to non-traditional sources of funding, administrative alternatives to the model of the 'extra-mural department' as the focal point of a university's adult education work are being established. The organization of adult education provision at university level is now based on one of four main patterns.

Provision is developed through

- (1) a traditional extra-mural department, with a dual role in the organization and teaching of university extension courses in a selection of the disciplines normally available in universities. In most cases this type of department is not integrated into the university's academic structure, but exists as a separate unit;
- (2) a department of adult education, integrated into the universities' academic structure, with a dual role

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<sup>1</sup> Local provision of adult education in Scotland is not grant-aided by central government. It is conducted largely by agreement between the local educational authorities and individual universities, finance being provided by the Local Education Authorities.

- (a) in teaching and research in the principles and practice of education, with particular reference to the education of adults;
  - (b) as an agent for the university, responsible for coordinating and extending the university's involvement in the continuing education of adults, locally and nationally;
- (3) a central administrative department, e.g. registry, with the role of organizing provision for adults on behalf of the university's internal departments;
- (4) no specific focal point for adult education, each faculty or department of the university developing adult provision in its own group of disciplines.

These administrative differences in funding and organization themselves contribute substantially to the growing diversity of university involvement in continuing education. [6]

### *The modern role of universities in adult education*

Despite widely differing views and little agreement about the aims and purposes of university adult education in contemporary society, it is nevertheless clear that the concept of university adult education has expanded considerably in the last ten years and that this expansion is now manifesting itself widely in new forms of provision, some of which were proposed in the Russell Report on Adult Education, 1972. [7]

Broadly speaking, there are two main areas of responsibility associated with the universities' role in adult education:

- (1) a national and international responsibility in the extension, investigation, and development of adult education, by virtue of the national standing of universities as centres of excellence with a research role;
- (2) a local responsibility for the continuing education of the university's surrounding community (arising from traditional models of extension provision).

In terms of local responsibility, some universities serve large regions, while others have little or no officially recognized territory.

Some newly established universities, such as Kent, Keele and Surrey, have gradually adopted regions from the traditional providers. This trend accentuates the growing diversity of provision since newer universities

are in a better position to redirect provision in recently adopted areas within DES guidelines. The administrative restrictions, however, on types and forms of courses recognized and supported remain great in this type of work.

Interpretation of this role within the expanded concept of university adult education is producing some marked trends which are indicated in the diagram on page 8).

### *Special developments in expanding areas*

#### **Part-time degrees and diplomas**

There is evidence of a movement towards openness and equality of opportunity for adult students in university education. The first major development within this field was the establishment of the Open University in 1969. The conventional universities are now re-examining their student intake in view of the impending decline in the 18–21 age range. The possibilities of providing expanded and easier re-entry for adults to courses of a more appropriate nature are being seriously considered [8] in recognition of the educational capacities and needs of the older adult in contemporary society.

In particular, the issues of

- (1) greater flexibility, in terms of entrance qualifications and patterns of study;
- (2) credit transfer between comparable institutions; and
- (3) provision of systems of award bearing courses on a collaborative regional basis

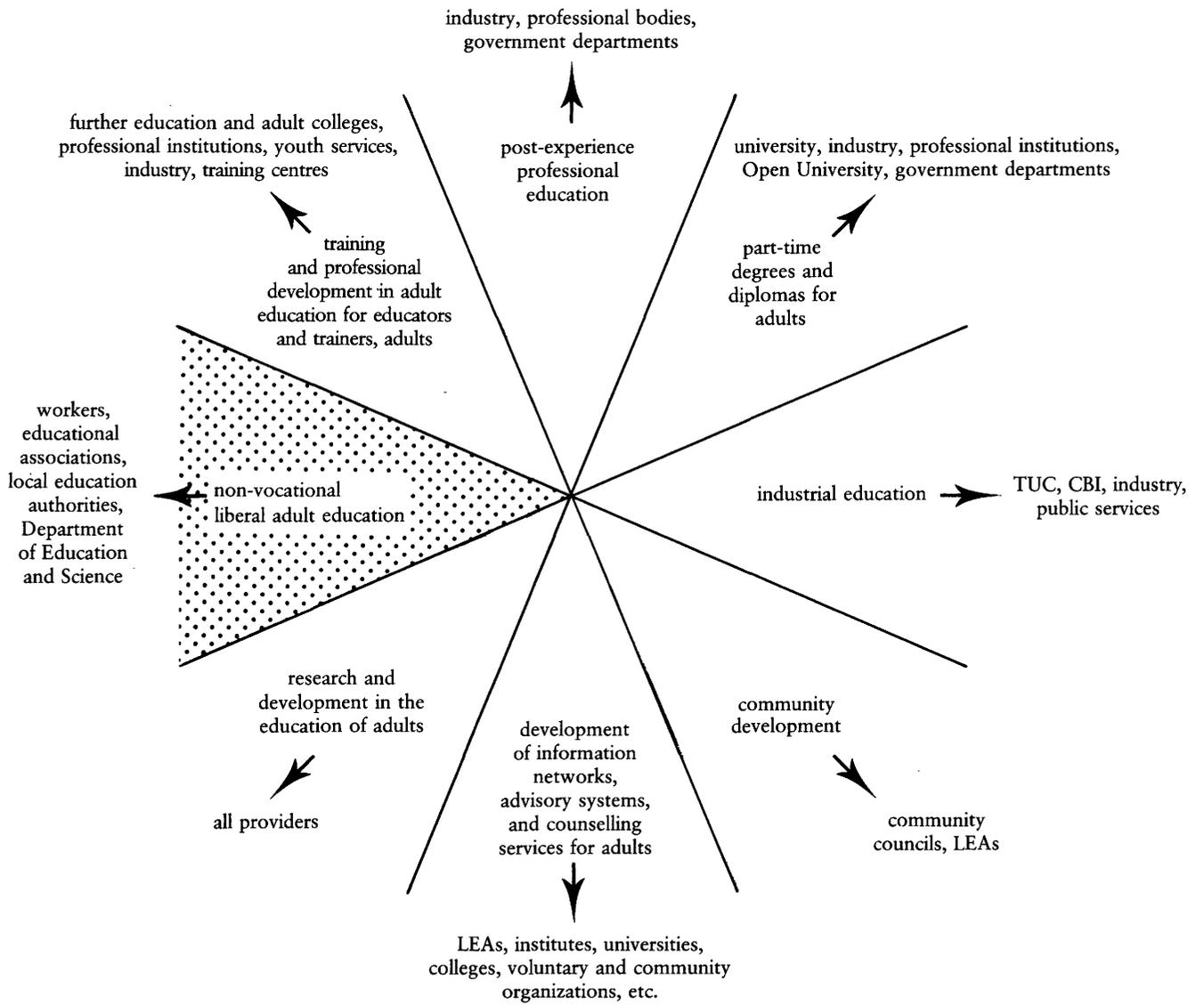
are being carefully examined.

Study through part-time degrees and diplomas might serve the main purpose of helping students to develop their professional competence in a wider academic context or of developing themselves personally through systematic study of an area of their interests. The University of Kent, in particular, is providing an expanding programme in this field.

#### **Education of adult educators**

Research and teaching is advancing in support of the professional and personal development of teachers and adults and young adults.

## Growing role of university adult education



KEY: : traditional role

: linking with, for example . . .

This ranges from the training of tutors in traditional non-vocational adult education to the in-service education of professional educators in a variety of contexts as well as the support of voluntary leaders, animators, and facilitators involved in aspects of community development, e.g. youth leaders, volunteers.

Universities particularly involved in this field are Southampton, Surrey and Nottingham. In particular, 'affective' approaches to the process of education focusing on the development of confidence, motivation, and skills of communicating and relating in educational situations are being investigated in Surrey. The education and training of social work teachers and supervisors is currently being examined as an area of national importance by a working party of the Universities Council for Adult Education.

### **Post-experience education: short course provision**

The provision of enrichment education through short courses for those working in industry and the professions is now a growth area in many university departments.

The purposes of these types of courses range from bringing specialist knowledge up to date to developing new and more flexible styles of thinking and approaching problems appropriate to those working in rapidly advancing fields.

In several universities, post-experience courses are seen as a source of badly needed income, since this type of course can often command high fees.

In particular, the universities of Kent and Glasgow have developed strong programmes in this field.

### **Industrial education**

There has been a considerable growth of demand in this field. The educational needs which accompany the national movement towards worker participation in all aspects of industrial life; advances in industrial relations; the changing roles and responsibilities of shop stewards, educators, trainers and managers in the industrial and public service sectors, and the influence of technological, economic, and social developments have produced an array of problems which require the type of research and educational innovation which universities are well equipped to provide.

A national DES-sponsored research project into provision for and effectiveness of paid educational leave is being conducted by Middlesex Polytechnic in partnership with a number of universities and other agencies.

Industrial relations programmes are being developed in conjunction with the National Health Service at the University of Keele. Manchester University has developed a programme of full-time reorientation courses for unemployed managers and others and is undertaking a range of courses for shop-stewards.

Surrey has recently established a development in industrial studies, and Durham is conducting research into aspects of trade union history and industrial democracy relevant to adult education.

Substantial advances are also being made in a number of universities in the investigation of methods designed to improve the effectiveness of vocational education and training. These developments have particular applications in the industrial sector.

### **Development of advisory systems and networks**

The principles underlying development of educational, advisory, and counselling services for adults and the problems of their implementation are being studied by a number of university providers.

The establishment of efficient regional and national advisory systems for existing and potential adult students is widely recognized as a priority in continuing education in the United Kingdom. The emergence of considerable interest in the possibilities of advisory systems has arisen from concern over:

- (1) the difficulty of access of many adult students to relevant courses as a result of the segregation and therefore in poor communication between providers;
- (2) overlaps and gaps in provision, which are at present difficult to identify;
- (3) the lack of continuity experienced by many students in their education and training, due to inadequate referral between institutions and lack of knowledge concerning further opportunities.

In particular the Open University, following the Venables Committee Report on the Open University's role in adult education, and the University of Sheffield are establishing experimental schemes as a basis for future development.

### **Research and development in the education of adults**

Research in adult education has in the past been little in evidence in comparison with the level of university research conducted in the traditional academic disciplines.

The Russell Report (1973) emphasized the important role which universities can play in this respect, and the amount of research being undertaken in the principles and practice of adult education is steadily increasing. Projects studying and reporting on new developments and schemes and action research projects in the development of new educational methods and approaches as well as more formal types of research are being widely undertaken.

Current research in adult and continuing education being undertaken in the universities of the United Kingdom can be found in the relevant research registers.

### Community development

Explorations of the role that universities can play within their local communities have produced alternatives to the traditional 'course provision' model of community education. Approaches based on the principle of raising the level of consciousness of whole communities and enabling them through self-help, self-organization, and self-education to tackle some of their common problems have been attempted by some universities. Southampton University has undertaken a substantial project in community education on a large urban housing estate. Community needs identified through the project have stimulated a range of educational developments involving a variety of agencies.

The University of Nottingham, adopting another approach to community education, has established a research project in the development of adult education provision to meet local needs in a small town. Part of the project is devoted to the study of a multi-use community complex in the town.

The University of Surrey has a development in community studies focusing on the development of professionals and volunteers dealing with community problems. A unique university-based programme of activity involving young adults (16–20+) in the community is also in operation in Surrey. The University's whole contribution to education of the community in the County of Surrey is at present being investigated in view of extended responsibility for this area having been recently granted under DES regulations referred to above.

The problems and possibilities of community development present considerable scope for further developmental work involving partnerships between the universities and other community providers.

### Traditional liberal education

The initiation of the non-specialist into a wide range of subjects and interests of educational value remains an important part of university adult education provision, and much of this work remains non-award-bearing. The extension of traditional liberal courses to educationally disadvantaged groups such as women, communities in deprived areas and the unemployed is seen in many universities as a priority.

### Conclusion

By virtue of its resources, its tradition, its links, and its influence, the university sector clearly has a significant part to play in the development of a learning society'. Constraints on the development of this role, together with the independence of individual universities, have produced the diversity of provision described, which is far from meeting the needs which exist. It would seem that the universities, in partnership with both regional and national providers, have a potential contribution to make to the future growth of continuing education which extends far beyond that already established.

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T. Schuller <sup>1</sup>

## Education through life<sup>2</sup>

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### *Areas for action*

Progress towards continuing education will be evolutionary. It will take place on a number of fronts and will not take the form of an imposed blueprint for an entirely recast educational system. In this paper a number of areas are identified where more or less specific changes can be made which would result in a better educational distribution. The discussion will draw on examples from abroad, whilst it is not suggested that foreign initiatives can necessarily be directly copied, there are nevertheless useful lessons to be learned. The paper is divided into three main sections: demand and access, content and teaching methods, and paid educational leave.

### **Demand and access**

The traditional posture of the education and training authorities has been one of willingness to respond to demand. This has, let it be said, often resulted in a rich and diversified provision of opportunities, but it assumes that people are always in a position to express their needs. This in turn assumes that they are fully aware of what already exists in the way of educational provision and that everyone is equally capable of formulating demands for new courses. But one of the great merits of the adult literacy campaign has been the way in which it has revealed an enormous latent demand for education, a concept hitherto largely excluded from the vocabulary of educational planners. By actively seeking out potential students, instead of waiting for them to present themselves, the campaign has shown that for many people a return to education is a real option if and only if they are actively informed of its availability.

There are many people who in the course of their daily work are well placed to disseminate information without an elaborate new structure being needed. Social workers and others concerned with community life could, as a matter of course, be trained in the diagnostic skills which would enable them to suggest to their clients where further education might be of help.

Immigrant communities often contain networks of communication through which information could be channelled. The workplace is potentially one of the most fertile grounds for 'recruitment' and Sweden has developed a system of 'study organizers' who are official union representatives with responsibility for informing and advising workmates of their opportunities and for feeding their reactions back to the education authorities. Like shop stewards, they have rights to time off to discharge this responsibility. The aim is to have some 30 000 such organizers for white collar workers and 15 000 for blue collar ones, for a working population of some 4 million. Of course some dissemination of this type already occurs in the UK but on nothing like such a scale or with the same degree of organization.

### *Admission policies*

Of course, not all demand can be met. But once it exists, what are the obstacles which block access and how can they be surmounted? The first barrier which confronts many people is the existing admission procedure for a given course. Adults have often not had the chance to acquire the formal qualifications demanded. Yet school examinations are acknowledged to be poor predictors of performance in further education and are often used more as a convenient filter than an accurate or equitable selection mechanism. Most people admit that experience often more than compensates for formal qualifications, yet this truism is not reflected in current admission policies.

To take universities, the number of mature students (over 25 years old) grew from 8 909 (out of a total of 178 948) in 1968 to 13 447 (out of 209 078) in 1974 but there are enormous variations between universities, ranging from 19.7% at Essex to 2.2% at St Andrews (in 1975-76). And in any case unqualified adults form only a minute proportion even of the mature student population: in 1971, London University admitted only two 'backdoor entrants' and the Joint Matriculation Board (which covers the universities of Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Birmingham) enrolled 45 unqualified applicants. In both these cases, formal machinery exists for dispensing with orthodox qualifications, but the fact that there were only 75 applicants to the JMB demonstrates how reluctant universities have been to encourage people to use that machinery. The non-university sector may be better, but only 4% of students currently joining Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) courses are without formal entrance requirements.

A two-pronged reform of admission procedures would allow a higher percentage both of mature students in general and of those who compensate for their lack of specific formal qualifications by outside experience. Other countries (Holland and Sweden, for instance) grant automatic access to higher education (though not, of course, to any faculty) to those without formal

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<sup>2</sup> Extract from a Young Fabian Group pamphlet (No. 47). Reproduced by permission of the Young Fabian Group, London.  
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qualifications, provided they are over 25 and have a certain number of years' working experience.

The United Kingdom does not have the continental practice of guaranteeing higher education to all those who successfully complete secondary education, but why should there not be quotas for both mature and unqualified people at all institutions of higher education? As the TUC has suggested, 'universities might be asked to agree that a progressively rising proportion of their undergraduate places might be allocated to mature people'; it should be added that specific account should be taken of unqualified adults, and a target of perhaps 10% should be set, with half of the places reserved for those who are the formally unqualified. It should also apply to polytechnics and other institutions of higher education.

But the case for mature students should not be made on the grounds of equity alone. Results so far, especially from Australia where success rates have been extensively monitored, show that even according to conventional criteria mature entrants achieve significantly higher pass rates—not to mention the potential spin-off for younger students of participating in mixed age groupings. There is absolutely no need to be apologetic or defensive when arguing for the admission of a higher proportion of mature and formally unqualified students into orthodox post-compulsory education. In short the Robbins Report (Her Majesty's Stationery Office 1963) reference to a pool of talent gains enormously in power if it is applied to adults and not restricted to school-leavers.

It is not only admission procedures to degree courses that should be revised. Shorter and lower level courses also commonly fail to recognize the value of work experience. Wholesale reliance on formal qualifications should be replaced by an efficient counselling and orientation service which assesses the students' needs and capabilities and matches them to available provision. This again points up the need for some rationalization of the bewildering variety of courses.

One can go still further on the question of access. New Zealand, for example, has taken positive measures to encourage adults to return to secondary schools. In 1976, more than half of all secondary schools admitted adults with some schools having over 100 on their roll, and despite initial hesitations—especially on the part of teachers—the results have so far been very favourable. A particular advantage is that the presence of adults in schools does something to eradicate the impression, which for many adolescents takes early root, that education is only for children. Of course there are already examples in this country, such as the Rowlinson campus in Sheffield. The point is to reach a level where adults in schools are no longer regarded as something of a curiosity. This would be an excellent area for innovation by LEA's, particularly where there are sixth-form colleges.

There is, as so often, a counterpart on the employment side to changes in educational admission policies. Age limits are set for entry into many jobs, which either discourage older people from retraining for them or result in frustration if they were not aware of the restrictions before they undertook the required courses. The public sector could take an initiative in reviewing its own employment requirements, which are often the least flexible—for instance, is it really necessary to insist on 28 as a maximum age for entry into the civil service executive grade?

And not only age limits. There is no room here to go into the whole argument over 'credentialism' or the inflationary spiral which pushes people into acquiring more and more formal qualifications (see I. Berg, *The Great Training Robbery*; and also Fred Hirsch's *The Social Limits to Growth* for an account of educational qualifications as a 'positional good', whose value depends on other people not having it). But there must be greater pressure on employers, public and private, to review qualification requirements, which often bear little or no relation to the job to be performed.

### Content and teaching methods

However easy access is, take-up of educational opportunities will depend largely on the nature of what is offered. The Open University has done a remarkable job in showing how many people are capable of profiting from a university education, and the fact that working-class participation is relatively low is only a partial reproach, since its principal objective was to expand access in general rather than specifically to achieve a balanced student population. The point is that a degree course, lasting for several years, is simply not what many people want, nor in practical terms can it be envisaged for more than a minority. The need is for a whole gamut of courses of various lengths, some of which may require a longer term commitment, but which should be essentially characterized by their ready availability and freedom from physical and temporal constraints. On the one hand, therefore, the Open University (OU) principle could be extended to sub-degree level, and the idea of an Open College for 16 plus students has already received some attention. But whether or not this comes off, which is doubtful even in the medium term given probable resource constraints, institutions should review the courses they are already offering—at whatever level—to see how they can be made more genuinely available to adult learners.

### Course structures

Introductory or bridging courses should be regarded as an integral feature of continuing education provision. Many adults return to education full of apprehension

about their own capacity to learn and need help in adjusting to studying again. Evaluation of the Training Services Division (TSD) Short Industrial Courses revealed that an initial course of deliberate assessment enabled concentrated technical instruction to be given more effectively in a particular area, with lasting effects on motivation. More generally, introductory courses can aim initially at instilling in participants sufficient confidence for them to be able to respond positively to suitable educational and employment opportunities. Diagnostic and bridging courses are especially useful for those with literacy problems or ethnic minorities with language difficulties. Particularly worth mentioning is the right of every immigrant worker in Sweden to 240 hours paid leave for language training, a right established for reasons of industrial peace and efficiency as well as social justice.

Stressing the importance of bridging courses helps counter the idea that the education service is only responsible for what happens when the student walks through the door; a comprehensive service should be concerned with how students enter the courses, and with the use they can make of their education afterwards.

One thoroughly familiar idea is the further development of modern courses which enable students to complete a course in several stages instead of being obliged to finish it in one go. The principle of the Diploma of Higher Education (DipHE) represents a step in the right direction but it also illustrates some of the dangers, such as the discouraging attitude of universities demonstrated by the difficulty diploma holders have had in getting their qualifications recognized for the purposes of further higher level study. (The OU is an exception, having recently reached an agreement with the CNAA which enables DipHE students, and others on CNAA validated first-degree courses, to complete their studies on a part-time basis at the OU.)

On the one hand, the DipHE could open up new avenues for adults, especially for the unqualified if the two GCE A-level requirement is modified or abandoned; on the other hand, it could simply become a second-rate qualification, representing a convenient path into lower status courses. A dilemma confronts such innovations: the more they cater for unmet needs by providing new types of courses, the more they distinguish themselves from conventional institutions and hence tend to suffer because the latter's values dominate the comparison. Nevertheless, the introduction of the DipHE has at least served to stimulate thinking about the possibility of further modular courses at higher level.

Modules increase availability. They can also cause fragmentation and a bewildering variety of options with no internal coherence, but there is no reason why existing validating bodies along the lines of the CNAA should not be able to control this. It does, however,

raise an issue which requires at least some consideration. The award of qualifications in Britain has so far been based on the principle that they are the same the country over, regardless of the institution which grants them, even if in practice—for example in terms of employment currency—this is patently not altogether the case. The question is whether the growth of modular courses would threaten this principle or whether, for example, it would be preserved in some cases and allowed to go by the board in others. Thus all university degrees might still be held to be equivalent, but some lower level certificates could be freed from the requirement of universal currency, being essentially determined by local needs. This should not, of course, entail any diminution of control over their intrinsic quality.

The argument so far should not be taken as implying that continuing education is concerned only with formal and certificated courses. Far from it, especially since there are many examples of informal activity whose effectiveness adds a great deal of muscle to the case for a redeployment of resources. But the discussion here has been concerned with orthodox public provision and the way it should change.

### *Curricula and teachers*

Our knowledge of adult learning processes is scanty, but there are nevertheless some key principles to be borne in mind, particularly if the needs of those for whom education is basically an unfamiliar process are to be met. The first is that it is more important for adults than for young students that they should be able to perceive the relevance of what they are learning, which implies a problem-centred approach. It is not that suitable curricula are non-existent, but that a whole-hearted commitment to serving adult needs would require determined efforts on the part of teachers to transcend their own disciplines.

A corollary of this is that adults should be allowed as far as possible to determine their own programmes. This does not mean an abdication of teacher responsibility, nor is it to suggest that student participation in course decisions does not already happen in 'best practice' situations. But it does seem that the question of power crops up again here: a sense of powerlessness both as regards the content of the education and its outcome is shown to hobble many people's educational aspirations, and whilst the actual effect of education is dependent on a vast range of factors, the way in which the content is determined is something which is much more readily amenable to democratic control. A 1976 Norwegian Bill on adult education has given formal recognition to the principle of joint planning (long upheld by the Workers' Educational Association) by making financial aid conditional in many cases on the participation of students in the design and management of their own courses.

Much of this question—including other aspects such as the reduction of rote learning to a minimum—boils down to teacher training and here some more concrete observations can be made. For those whose learning takes place at the workplace, there may be less difficulty in focusing on relevant problems. But much of the training is carried out in firms by technically proficient but pedagogically unskilled teachers, and therefore there is a strong case for encouraging them to acquire the necessary teaching skills, especially if the education offered is to progress beyond the narrowest of vocational training.

On the other hand, teachers from outside the world of work may be fully acquainted with teaching theory but be handicapped by their lack of work experience. A more active recruiting of teachers from those with industrial or other experience (for example through preferential admission to training colleges) and the encouragement to those already teaching to spend time at a different occupation would pay dividends.

The value of such work experience for teachers has been recognized in a recent (1977) Department of Industry paper on *Industry, Education and Management*, and a pilot scheme to allow sixty teachers to work for a term in a company has just been announced. These are small steps and are aimed at school-teachers, but alternation between teaching and other occupations is just as valuable for those teaching adults.

In any case there is a huge disparity between the efforts and resources devoted to training school-teachers and those devoted to training adult educators. We need to know much more about adult learning processes and how they can be supported. An indication of serious governmental interest in continuing education would therefore be the use of in-service training to encourage teachers, both experienced and aspirant, to turn to adult education. Falling school enrolments make the present an ideal time.

A final reservation, however, on the subject of the training of adult educators: granted the need for teaching skills, it would nevertheless be disastrous if we trudged off down the path towards a fully blown profession of adult educators, formally trained over years, exclusive, certified, corporatized. As Shaw said, 'all professions are a conspiracy against the laity', and the demystifying power of education will be suborned if those involved are encouraged to constitute themselves into a separate occupational group.

### **Paid educational leave**

The ILO Convention 140 on paid educational leave, passed in 1974, is potentially of enormous significance, not so much because of the direct commitment entered into by its signatories as because it marks a point of

reference around which future discussions and negotiations can centre. Several countries—France, Belgium, Sweden and some German *Länder*—have already introduced legislation, albeit of widely differing characters. In others, such as Italy, collective bargaining has made major strides in establishing the right, if only for a limited number of workers, to paid educational leave.

The best way of getting educational leave into perspective is to reflect on the introduction of paid holidays, now accepted as an unquestionable (if often inadequate) feature of any job. An interesting study of the reaction in Switzerland to the ILO proposal for educational leave drew a parallel with the origins of ordinary paid holidays: their introduction was hotly contested by employers' organizations, initially depended on individual agreements rather than general legislation and was largely restricted to privileged groups such as teachers or those employed in highly organized sectors. We may expect to see these tendencies develop in this country too, as educational leave emerges from its present nascent condition. (Catherine Goyder, *Sabbaticals For All*, NCLC Publishing Society, 1977).

The ILO Convention refers to three types of educational leave: general, vocational and union education. The classification is useful as a working basis, but too much weight cannot be put on it, especially as far as the distinction between the first two types is concerned. In the United Kingdom at present, there is no general right to educational leave, except for some 300 000 union representatives under the Employment Protection Act. It exists, of course, but in piecemeal form and tends to be very much employer-oriented and tightly job-related. The immediate question, therefore, sends us back to the subject of power: if educational leave develops, who is to control its content and organization?

### *Legislation and negotiation*

A first point is that to make the granting of paid educational leave dependent on the education being job-related is highly regressive. For it means that the narrower and more repetitive one's job, the less chance one will have of being granted leave which could allow one to develop professionally or individually, whilst those whose jobs are varied and interesting will have access to a whole range of courses. Under strictly job-related criteria, an assembly-line worker, for example, has a very limited number of options, whilst a manager could justify studying such subjects as psychology, sociology, economics and so on. In other words, the divergent tendency referred to above will be reinforced.

Let us look briefly at two countries in which educational leave has developed substantially but in significantly different ways. France has attracted much

attention, principally because she was first in the field with national legislation (in 1971). Credit is due for this, but the actual working of the law shows it to be less than ideal in its implementation of the paid leave concept. In the first place, it represents basically a system of vocational training, as the right to leave is only accompanied by financial support if it is for an approved course, and these at present tightly job-related; the approval is given by the bipartite *comités d'entreprise* but so far the unions have, for largely political reasons, been reluctant to fight hard to expand its scope. Secondly, the distribution has been regressive (though recently slightly less so): disproportionately more white-collar and managerial employees benefit than blue-collar workers, more men than women, and more employees of big organizations than small (see table). There is, moreover, a certain cynicism about the quality of some of the training offered, much of which is provided by private institutions which sprang up in response to the obligation placed upon firms to spend a certain proportion (1% of their payroll) on training (if they fail to reach this level, they must pay the difference to the state).

In Italy there is no national legislation. In 1973, the metal workers union reached a collective agreement with the employers, the formula for which has been adopted with various modifications by other unions. The agreement is for a total number of hours' paid educational leave to be available over a three-year period, calculated on the basis of the number of employees multiplied by 30. It is normally referred to as the '150 hours' since that was the limit in the original contract for any single worker over three years, though in the case of the metal workers that has now been increased to 250 hours. A condition is that the worker devotes an equal amount of his own time to study.

Interestingly, therefore, it is a collective rather than an individual right, as the leave is available to the workers as a body and the unions have taken responsibility for its organization (the courses themselves taking place in regular schools; which raises many other issues). It is also significant that the leave is generally devoted to the completion of basic education, which helps to explain why nearly 92% of the students are unskilled or semi-skilled workers. Not so impressive from the equity point of view is the balance between the sexes, with only 15.3% of all participants being women. One example from Italy will suffice to illustrate the way in which the general/vocational distinction is itself a matter for discussion. The hospital workers in Milan follow a curriculum which includes health issues and could therefore be construed as job-related—but their discussions on this topic centre round the concept of health and the fundamental causes of illness in a capitalist society, as well as trying to relate this to their work. This is not the type of education which an employer will readily accept as vocational.

#### Participation in 1976 under the 1971 French law on educational leave

Category	% of active labour force	Distribution of educational leave
Managerial/professional	7	15
Technical workers	15	22
Skilled workers	47	46
Unskilled and semi-skilled workers	31	17
all	100	100

Size of firm (number of employees)	% of payroll spent on educational leave
10–19	0.71
20–49	0.87
50–499	1.17
500–1 999	1.50
2 000 +	2.47

Source:

*La Formation Professionnelle Continue*, Secretariat d'État auprès du Ministre du Travail, 1977.

It is not a question of choosing between two alternative sets of objectives for educational leave—general or vocational—but of seeing that if and when educational leave is introduced on a substantial scale, the way in which it is organized and distributed reflects a fair balance between social, economic and individual requirements. This is above all an area where unions need to take an active part in pursuing negotiations both to win the right to educational provision for their members and to establish appropriate machinery for supervising its implementation. In the United States, for example, 344 major collective bargaining agreements covering 2.4 million workers contained education and training clauses in 1969; moreover, there is in some cases specific provision for financial aid to workers on external courses unrelated to their job (in 60 out of 1 550 agreements in 1974). In an era of restraint for money wages, the introduction of paid leave is very much the type of improvement for working conditions which can be actively promoted.

Trade unions, of course, are most directly concerned in the third ILO category—that of union education. The need for education for union representatives and officials at all levels is already substantial, and the accretion of further responsibilities, often in complex areas, means it will assume still greater importance. In Britain apart from the 100 000 safety representatives needed under the Health and Safety at Work regulations, there are some 300 000 workplace representatives, 120 000 branch officials and about 5 000 full-time officials. For everyone to have a basic training, some 80 000 places are required each year (turnover being about 20%), whereas the TUC estimate of current provision puts it at 40 000 (24 000 by the

TUC itself, 16 000 by the unions)—about the same as that provided in Norway (35 000) with a population far smaller than the United Kingdom. With wage negotiations becoming even more technical on the one hand and the scope of bargaining issues broadening on the other, more and more competencies are demanded of these representatives and, whilst such skills may come as much from solid, practical acquaintance with the memberships and their problems as from formal training, the latter is undoubtedly a critical factor. Looking to the early 1980s, the TUC estimates a total need for 180 000 training places (*General Council's Report*, TUC, 1977).

About £16 million a year of government money goes into management education; £500 000 a year is the offer for union education. Individual unions and the TUC collectively spent some £1.2 million on training in 1974, compared with some £7 million spent by German unions out of subscriptions alone. Some individual unions (for example NALGO<sup>1</sup>, GMWU<sup>1</sup>) provide examples of good practice in terms of training effort, which the TUC could encourage others to emulate. But the most fruitful approach, especially in a time of severe economic constraint, may well be to use collective bargaining machinery to press for a general expansion of opportunities for educational leave which would allow the maximum use of existing plant and resources, rather than requiring the creation of costly new facilities.

It is not possible to give a detailed empirical picture of the state of play on educational leave, both for reasons of space and because in many cases the information is simply not available in systematic form. The study now being jointly carried out by the National Institute for Adult Education (NIAE) and SIT should provide us with a much clearer picture and also more ideas on lines for future development. But there are two further points which should be made.

The first is that experience from abroad shows that the formal educational sector has on the whole responded very sluggishly to the emergence of paid educational leave. Institutions have continued to provide courses which are too long or inflexible and take insufficient

account of the particular motivation and abilities of those entitled to the leave. This explains the growth in France and Germany, for instance, of private agencies some of which are perfectly respectable, others of which, by contrast, are simply making profits by filling the vacuum created by the inertia of the public sector. In most countries, at present, these institutions feed off the trend to professionalization, but the field will spread as educational rights are extended to people who do not aspire to professional status. One could as a consequence speculate that the extemporized and short-sighted shufflings which followed the failure to anticipate student unrest in the 1960s may be paralleled—albeit in less dramatic fashion—by a similar failure to anticipate the needs of a growing worker/student population. Of course many of our institutions have already shown themselves capable of a responsive and flexible approach; it is a question of whether the sector as a whole—universities, polytechnics, colleges and schools—is capable of planning purposively for a new clientele.

The second point is that the growth of educational leave must be seen in the context of educational opportunity in general. In the first place, if it is seen mainly as a benefit to be gained by strong unions for their members alone, there is a risk that it will accentuate inequalities, with workers in the secondary sector of the labour market being excluded. A broad approach is therefore required, which may be spear-headed by the negotiation by individual unions of educational leave as a fringe benefit, but which includes the eventual extension of the right to the working population as a whole. 'Through negotiation to legislation' could be the most effective approach to adopt.

But the issue of equality must be taken further. As in other areas, those outside the labour market altogether are in no position to profit from benefits negotiated on behalf of the employed, and this applies particularly to women. In the interests of equity, therefore, the promotion of educational leave for those in employment should be complemented by the development of a system of educational entitlements for all. Only in this way can a more even distribution be achieved, both cross-sectionally and over time.

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<sup>(1)</sup> National Association of Local Government Officers; General and Municipal Workers Union

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# Information

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## Continuing education in Belgium

Continuing education in Belgium can be broadly divided into three categories:

- education for social advancement,
- correspondence courses,
- university education.

The characteristics of continuing education are that fewer study hours are involved than the minimum for full-time education and that study takes place in the evenings or at weekends.

The courses in the first category can be either at secondary or higher education level, and the course contents and entry requirements are comparable with those for admission to full-time courses. In March 1977, 200 000 people (of whom 76 % were under 25) were following courses in this category. The courses can be of two types, namely, extended courses for students who wish to gain a diploma in order to find employment at a higher level—vertical advancement—and short courses (started in 1970) for students seeking to improve the skills they already practise or to specialize without actually gaining a higher diploma—horizontal advancement.

At higher education level there are various courses which allow students to gain the same diplomas as they would in full-time education. At secondary level students can limit their studies to particular subjects, where they can be awarded a subject certificate for those completed successfully. Certificates in relevant subjects can then be collected until eventually there are enough for a full diploma. Furthermore, in recent years new training courses have been organized in, for example, information science and marketing at the request of firms.

However, it is recognized that this form of education does not cover all needs and that a review and updating process should be considered with regard to structure, content, and methods in order to allow more flexibility and to meet the need of industry and the workers more fully. A number of proposals have been put forward to meet these aims:

- There should be more variation in the timing of instruction (it should not be restricted to evenings and weekends);
- The courses should be made up of short periods of full-time day education interspersed with periods of day and block release;
- There should be study weekends and seminars, possibly of a modular nature;
- Training programmes should be set up to fulfil particular training needs in consultation with the interested parties;
- Better use should be made of training techniques and the media, including a combination of different media (programmed instruction, correspondence courses, audiovisual techniques), together with oral teaching and seminars;
- There should be a decentralization of the governing bodies and greater regional autonomy.

For more than 15 years the Ministry of National Education (Ministerie van Nationale Opvoeding) has been organizing correspondence courses. These are aimed at adults, for whom they are free. In recent years these courses have been strongly influenced by a growing need for continuing training (in particular for teachers), the development of training techniques, and the growing use of other forms of teaching such as seminars and work groups, which latter have contributed to giving this sort of training a more social aspect.

The correspondence courses offered by the state can be divided into three groups:

(1) *Preparation for secondary school examinations*

With these courses an effort is being made to help adult students to organize their studies rationally according to the time available to them and to enable them to educate and evaluate themselves better.

(2) *Preparation for administration examinations*

This is organized by the Permanent office for Recruitment (Vast-Wervingssecretariaat/Secrétariat permanent de recrutement)

(3) *Continuing training for teachers*

These courses have grown enormously in importance in the past few years. Again multi-media techniques are used, and the courses are aimed at teaching course members new subjects or techniques, expanding their knowledge in their own field, or retraining them in line with the rapid changes in knowledge, techniques, and attitudes in their subject.

Correspondence courses are offered in three types of subject:

- (a) vocational training subjects, i.e. in practical skills in both the technical and commercial sectors;
- (b) general education subjects such as spelling or foreign languages which help the students in their work;
- (c) subjects of general education which do not lead to improved performance or opportunities at work, for example, drawing and photography.

The third general category in the continuing education system is education at university level. A number of universities and institutes of higher education offer courses leading to diplomas for adults who have some full-time occupation. These courses cover subjects in the commercial and financial sectors, psychology, teaching theory, economics and the information and environmental sciences. The courses usually run from three and six years and involve 10 to 20 hours of study per week. As can be appreciated, the courses are very demanding on the participants and the entry requirements are very strict.

On 10 April 1973 the government passed a law which gave workers under 40 years of age the right to educational leave without loss of salary. This was known as the credit-hour system and the purpose was to encourage the personal advancement of employees (see Bulletin No 3-4, 1974). The scheme was originally funded partly by the government and partly by employers contributing 0.20% of their total payroll. However, full use was not made of the scheme by employees (in 1974-75 only 14 939 people took advantage of it), and by the end of 1975 there was a surplus of funds. It was then decided to suspend the employers' contribution, and the government also withheld its subsidy. Despite this it is hoped that the scheme will gain new impetus in the future.

On 28 December 1973 the government passed a Royal Decree which allows workers under 40 years of age grants for the purpose of undertaking studies to promote their intellectual, moral, and social development.

Under a Royal Decree passed on 30 October 1975 the government pays a retraining allowance to unemployed workers, who receive compensation and attend training courses. The Decree applies to dismissed workers who attend courses in vocational training centres set up by the National Employment Office. The allowance, which is equal to the worker's gross monthly wage in his/her last job, is paid for periods of attendance at one of these courses for a maximum of one year.

In Belgium there are no immediate plans for an open university along the lines of the British model. In 1974 the Committee for Educational Broadcasting (Kommissie Instructieve Omroep) and the Subcommittee for Postsecondary Education (Subkommissie Post-Secondaire Vorming) published a report in which they stated that there was no need for such a system. The report also made proposals about what was necessary to improve adult education referring specifically to training by means of television and radio and other audio-visual aids. The Belgian broadcasting network broadcasts several series of programmes under the title 'Open School' which are aimed at improving the general education of adults.

In January 1978 the National Institute for Preparation for Retirement (Nationaal Instituut Voorbereiding op Pensioen (NIVOP)) was set up in

Belgium and at its instigation 12 courses were begun at training institutes in September 1978 for workers approaching retirement. The courses take place during working hours (the worker continues to receive his pay) and can also be followed by the worker's spouse. The firm pays for the course at a cost of BFR 8 000 per person. The courses cover three areas:

- the present situation of the worker and how this will be changed on retirement;
- information on finance, health, housing, and safety;
- Familiarization with various institutions, services, and provisions of a social, cultural, educational, or recreational nature.

Sources:

Social and Labour Bulletin 1/76.

International Labour Organization, Geneva, 1976

Education permanente des Adultes au Travail, Centre d'Action Laïque, Université libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, March 1977.

De Standaard, 20 October 1976, 9 and 11 January and 24 April 1978.

## Continuing vocational training in Denmark

The Danish continuing vocational training system, for which the Ministry of Labour (Arbejdsministerium) is responsible, may be divided into two types of programmes, namely, permanent programmes and special programmes.

### Permanent programmes

The permanent programmes cover the continuing vocational training of semi-skilled workers and skilled workers.

(1) The courses for semi-skilled workers were first introduced in 1960 and are central to the vocational training system as a whole. This is the only scheme in the system which has its own network of teaching centres, or schools, with five state schools and 17 self-governing schools. The scheme is controlled by a board comprising a chairman, eight representatives each from the

employers and the trade unions, and representatives from various government departments. The courses are day courses varying in length from one to ten weeks, although three weeks is the average. Each course is approved for a five-year period, after which it is updated. The system allows trainees either to take courses separately or to combine the courses so as to have from two to six months of training in all.

Self-governing schools are run by a council comprising representatives from local employers' organizations, trade unions, employment offices, and local authorities. This council is responsible for the planning of courses and for budgeting. The government pays 85% of the costs of running these schools, with the remainder being met by the social partners and the local authorities. The costs of running the state schools are fully met by the government. It is in these schools that the more advanced training is carried out, especially training which requires the use of heavy machinery and large outdoor areas.

A number of large firms have their own training facilities under this scheme, and these facilities are supported by the government, who pay up to 85% of the costs. Approximately 15% of the training under this scheme is carried out within firms.

In 1977-78 the total number of trainees participating in the scheme was 46 600. Over this period some 4 800 courses were held, costing about DKR 324 million. The minimum amount paid to trainees is equivalent to the amount of unemployment benefit to which they would otherwise be entitled. If, however, their average daily earnings over the four weeks prior to enrolment on the training course exceed this, they are paid correspondingly, subject to a maximum 125% of the unemployment benefit.

(2) The scheme which provides training for skilled workers has been operating since 1965 in answer to the need evident among the skilled work force to update skills learned during their initial training or to train in more specialized subjects or for a different occupation.

As with the courses for semi-skilled workers, the scheme is made up of a series of short courses lasting anywhere from two to ten weeks. These are also day courses. This scheme, however, does not have its own schools; it is carried out in educational establishments within other fields of education. For example, about half the courses take place in technical and commercial colleges, which are also used for apprentice training.

Employers and unions again play a large part in running the scheme. They jointly examine training needs and are responsible for the content of the training programmes. In addition, they actively cooperate in the implementation of the programmes. However, the influence of the social partners at local level is not as strong as with the scheme for semi-skilled workers.

The government again pays 85% of the costs of the scheme and the rest is met by the social partners.

Since its inception the scheme has shown a large increase in the number of participants. In 1977-78 approximately 25 000 trainees benefited from the scheme, and most skilled occupational groups are now catered for.

### Special programmes

Of the special programmes currently running in Denmark, we are concerned here with three: *special provisions for retraining, courses for long-term unemployed persons and courses for long-term unemployed women.*

- (1) Special provisions for retraining, unlike the schemes for semi-skilled and skilled workers, are aimed directly at particular offers of work or employment opportunities. Before autumn 1977, when the regulations related to retraining provisions were altered, grants for retraining manpower were available only to firms in regional development areas. This condition has now been rescinded, and grants are available to firms all over the country. However, in order to qualify for a grant, firms must show that they are just establishing themselves, expanding substantially, or altering their production.

A further condition is that the trainees must be in need of vocational readjustment, i. e. they must be unemployed, likely to be made redundant, or likely to have to discontinue their trade or business. The length of the period of training is decided on the basis of individual merit.

Course expenses are paid in full by the state. If the course involves the trainee in productive work, he/she may receive financial support in addition to the wage or salary paid by the employer. The number of people undergoing retraining varies from year to year. In 1977-78 33 courses with approximately 350 participants were approved at a cost of about DKR 8 million.

- (2) Courses for long-term unemployed persons were implemented under the government's employment plan covering the period from 1977 to 1980 in response to the employment crisis and the danger that these persons might lose contact with the labour market and their confidence in future employment.

The main aim of the courses is not so much to improve skills for jobs that have been lost but to provide a broad introduction to different trades in order to make the workers more flexible and more interested in looking for employment in new areas of activity.

Trainees must be at least 18 years old and must have been registered as unemployed for at least 200 days during the 12 months prior to enrolment. Courses last from 6 to 8 weeks and are run as day courses.

Trainees do not receive an allowance but continue to receive unemployment benefit if they were previously entitled to it. Thus the costs of the course are totally covered by the state.

Between 1 January and 1 April 1978 about 600 people participated in the course, although demand has far exceeded this. The courses are administered on a local level.

- (3) Courses for long-term unemployed women are very much the same as the courses for unemployed men but have been organized separately in view of the fact that a large proportion of long-term unemployed

persons are women. The courses last from five to eight weeks. For the last quarter of the financial year 1977-78 approximately DKR 2.6 million was spent on running these courses (DKR 3.1 million on those for men).

Source:

S. Grove and G. H. Jessen, Directorate for Adult Vocational Training, Copenhagen, July 1978.

### French law on paid leave for training

The agreement of 9 July 1976, which modified the national intervocational agreement of 9 July 1970 on basic vocational training and further training, significantly improved a worker's right to training leave. Based largely on the 1976 agreement, the law of 17 July 1978, which was formulated after wide consultation with the social partners, provides for significant improvements.

Although the total number of people benefiting from continuing vocational training programmes is still increasing (it rose from 1 800 000 in 1972 to 2 700 000 in 1976), the number of requests for training leave from persons in paid employment has continually decreased. In 1976 only 58 000 persons took training leave, i.e. less than 3% of the total number of persons undergoing training.

One of the main reasons for the lack of interest shown by workers was the system of payment previously adopted. The law of 17 July 1978 takes up and elaborates the relevant subject matter of the agreement of 9 July 1976, thus modifying this system to the extent that it is now expected that the incidence of paid leave for training will be twenty times greater than before.

A further major innovation of the new law, which will obviously contribute to an expansion in the volume of training leave, is that more people are now entitled. Henceforth all workers are entitled to leave, not just those receiving a wage or salary, as was previously the case. This training leave may be taken either wholly or in part during working hours.

It is the recognized right of every worker to request and be granted educational leave without such leave being in any way prejudicial to his/her employment

contract. The worker is also granted a free choice with regard to the training he/she undertakes. Thus the training may result in higher qualifications, a change of job or profession, or access to a wider social and cultural life. These rights are absolutely fundamental to the concept of educational leave, and it is these which distinguish it from the training programmes run by individual firms. The law of 17 July introduces the possibility of an extension to the length of leave which may be taken.

Previously, educational leave could be for one year in the case of a continuous full-time course or 1 200 hours in the case of a programme of shorter courses or part-time leave. These periods may now be extended in certain circumstances.

In order to qualify for educational leave workers must have been employed in their particular sector of employment for a total of at least two years (but not necessarily without a break), of which at least six months must have been with their present employer. However, this does not apply to workers who have been made redundant and changed jobs without receiving any training between their redundancy and their re-employment. These new conditions of qualification are expected to help seasonal and temporary workers.

Changes have also been made in the numbers of workers who may be absent on training leave at any one time. In firms of 200 or more employees no more than 2.2% of the total number of employees may be simultaneously absent. In firms of less than 200 employees the number of hours of training leave requested may not be more than 2% of the total number of hours worked in that firm in one year. In the latter case employees may carry over to the following year any hours of training leave due to them. Training leave may be accumulated over a maximum of four years.

Arrangements concerning the payment of trainees have been substantially revised, since the former system had become extremely complex. The amount paid to trainees varies according to the length of the training course:

(1) courses of less than three months (or 500 hours part time): the employer continues to pay the wage for the first four weeks or 160 hours of training and thereafter the State takes over payment;

(2) courses of between three months and one year (or 500 to 1 200 hours part-time): the employer pays the wage for the first 13 weeks or 500 hours (16 weeks or 600 hours for management staff) and thereafter the state takes over;

(3) courses of more than one year or 1200 hours as in (2). However, this monthly payment is calculated on the basis of the guaranteed minimum wage and is paid only on condition that the trainee has been on the payroll for at least three years.

Young people are also catered for under the new law. It stipulates that employees under 20 years of age are entitled to follow training courses during the first two years of employment on condition that they do not possess vocational qualifications and that they are not bound by an employment contract under which they receive vocational training. This form of educational leave, which qualifies for payment, has been extended from 100 to 200 hours.

A further type of educational leave covered by the law allows an employee to train as an instructor. The leave applied for may be for a maximum of one year. To qualify, employees must have been with the same firm for at least two years. The subject chosen must be of a technological nature and relevant to the employee's specialized field. Instruction must be given in either a public or government-contracted private educational establishment or be connected with a state-recognized course. It may be either full-time or part-time

Unemployed persons following training courses will receive payment based either on their previous wage or on the guaranteed minimum wage, i.e., it will amount to approximately the same as unemployment benefit. This is to avoid the situation whereby the course might be considered a means of obtaining a larger sum of money in benefits.

With regard to self-employed persons the amount paid will be based on the guaranteed minimum wage. Decisions in respect of payments will be made on a regional basis, thus completing the decentralization of vocational training.

The law of 17 July introduces a number of other points:

— Employees requiring time to attend any meetings in connection with training may do so without incurring any loss of or reduction in pay;

— *Comités d'entreprise* (works councils), which advise on the training of a firm's employees, must be provided with sufficient relevant information at least three weeks in advance of their meetings in order that they may fulfil their role adequately;

— The structure, function, and control of *fonds d'assurance formation* (special training funds) are more clearly defined.

Sources:

National Correspondent.  
INFFO Flash No 54. 25 August 1978. *Formation Professionnelle* — Bulletin de Liaison du Secrétariat Général de la Formation Professionnelle No 78/4, August 1978.

## Continuing education in the Federal Republic of Germany

### The development of the continuing education system in the Federal Republic of Germany

#### *The concept and organization of continuing education*

In the Federal Republic of Germany continuing education is conceived as a continuation of or return to formal learning upon completion of initial education and entry to employment.

It is the declared aim of German educational policy to promote and develop a system of continuing education with the intention of establishing it as a major sector of the overall education system. Educational initiatives and educational measures are organized not only by State and local authorities but also by other bodies such as political parties, employers' and employees' organizations, trade unions, professional associations, the Church, and radio and television, to name the most important.

It is the duty of the Government at federal, state, and local level to provide adequate opportunities for continuing education. Private organizations which provide opportunities for continuing education of a comparable standard should be eligible for support from public funds on equal terms with public organizations. At the same time it should be ensured that cooperation between the institutions concerned involve only that minimum of administrative structure required to guarantee that information on the widely varied programmes of continuing education which these diverse organizations offer is readily accessible,

that the qualifications they confer are comparable, that they are mutually coordinated, and that regional or group-specific discrepancies are eliminated. Cooperation and coordination are structural elements serving to ensure that the overall programme of continuing education is both consistent with needs and comprehensive.

### *The scale of continuing education*

Comprehensive, statutory statistics on continuing education are not available in the Federal Republic of Germany. The incomplete data that is available does not allow comparison and provides no conclusive information. It is, however, known that most continuing vocational training is organized by the firms themselves. Of those persons undergoing continuing vocational training, 34.2% cited their employer as the organizer and a further 23.5% named state or local authorities. According to its own statistics, industry sets aside DM 3 000 million each year for continuing training. In 1977 the chambers of industry and commerce examined about 30 000 candidates who had undergone continuing vocational training mostly for commercial occupations. In the craft sector 33 163 candidates sat for the Master Craftsman's Examination (Meisterprüfung) and 134 000 employees participated in continuing vocational training measures in 1976. In the agricultural sector about 3 000 skilled workers pass the Master Craftsman's Examination each year. Trade unions also have an extensive network of local continuing education schemes, and central educational institutes accept over 100 000 students each year. Approximately 4 000 adult education schools also run courses. These courses were attended by about four million students in 1976. In 1975 about 12 000 people studying at adult education schools sat for examinations leading to a school-leaving certificate.

### *Responsibilities and legal bases of continuing vocational training*

In accordance with the division of legislative competence between the Federation and the federal states as laid down in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany, the Federation is responsible for continuing vocational training in so far as it takes place outside schools whereas the federal states are responsible for continuing vocational training provided in schools and also for continuing general education.

### **Federal regulations**

At federal level the main legislative basis for continuing education in the Federal Republic of Germany is the Vocational Training Act (Berufsbildungsgesetz) and the Work Promotion Act (Arbeitsförderungsgesetz), both of which came into force in 1969.

The Vocational Training Act lays down, albeit only in a rudimentary way, the substantive law for continuing vocational training. Most importantly, it authorizes the Federal Minister of Education and Science (Bundesminister für Bildung und Wissenschaft) to issue regulations establishing relevant certificates and standardizing relevant courses and examinations, thus ensuring uniformity throughout the country. A number of continuing vocational training regulations have been passed over the past few years on this basis, particularly those governing master craftsman qualifications. Even before the Vocational Training Act came into force, the legal basis for continuing vocational training was already established in the articles of association of institutions such as the chambers of industry and commerce and the craft chambers, which the law specifies as authorized bodies. These organizations conduct examinations for a series of occupations which call for continuing training particularly for the qualification 'master craftsman' and 'master industrial worker' as well as qualifications in the commercial field (commercial clerk, bookkeeper, etc.) and have drawn up examination regulations.

The Work Promotion Act regulates the provision of financial support for continuing vocational training. Promotion is largely determined by labour market policy and only secondarily by educational policy. Subject to certain conditions being fulfilled (personal qualifications, official recognition of the course, labour market requirements), this Act establishes a legal right to financial aid, which right can be enforced by the courts. Generally, only supra-firm training measures qualify for support. In-firm training measures qualify only if a specific labour market interest exists. Those qualifying for assistance receive a maintenance allowance which is currently the equivalent of 58% or 80% of the applicant's previous net income; 80% is paid for in the case of 'essential measures' (target groups: the unemployed, workers threatened by unemployment, people who want a

second chance to become vocationally qualified) and 58% is paid in the case of 'appropriate educational measures'. In addition to the maintenance grant expenses related to the course are reimbursed up to certain fixed limits. As is the case with unemployment benefits, these measures are funded from equal contributions paid by employers and employees. The rate is 1.5% of the monthly pay.

### **Federal state regulations**

Besides the Vocational Training Act and the Work Promotion Act, which are federal laws, laws relating to adult education and to continuing education have been enacted by eight federal states in accordance with their sphere of competence. These are mainly financial laws. However, five states have also passed laws on paid education leave. A legal right to paid educational leave has existed in Bremen, Hamburg, Lower Saxony and Hesse since 1974 and in Berlin (West) since 1970. The maximum entitlement to paid educational leave is five working days per calendar year, except in the case of Berlin, where it is ten working days. In Berlin and Hesse this entitlement applies only to workers under 25. Only a small proportion of those entitled to paid educational leave have actually taken advantage of this opportunity. State reports show that between 0.5 and 5% of those entitled to leave actually take it. Besides the statutory entitlement to paid educational leave, whereby mention should be made of federal laws which provide for paid educational leave for certain groups of people (e.g. civil servants), there are more than two hundred collective agreements containing arrangements covering paid educational leave.

### **The role of the trade unions**

The trade unions not only finance their own educational measures (e.g. the Continuing Vocational Training Centre of the German Trade Union Federation (Berufsbildungswerk des Deutschen Gewerkschaftsbundes) and the Continuing Vocational Training Centre of the German Employees Union (Bildungswerk der Deutschen Angestelltengewerkschaft) but also play an active role in many ways in the conduct of vocational training via participation in tripartite bodies alongside government representatives and representatives of employers.

This participation takes the form of membership in vocational training committees set up by the 400 or so authorized bodies designated in the Vocational Training Act, in particular the chambers of industry and commerce and the craft chambers and also the state committee on vocational training (Landesausschüsse für Berufsbildung) which have been set up in each of the federal states and the Federal Institute for Vocational Training (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung), which is located in Berlin (West). Even the autonomous bodies of the Federal Labour Office (Bundesanstalt für Arbeit) which supervise the implementation of the Work Promotion Act are set up on a tripartite basis. From the point of view of educational policy the cooperation of the trade unions in the development of legal regulations relating to continuing education is extremely important. Many of the initiatives for issuing regulations under the Vocational Training Act originated with the trade unions.

### **Important decisions since 1 January 1977**

#### *Extension of the General Education Plan (Bildungsgesamtplan)*

On 6 June 1977 the Joint Federation-Federal/State Committee on Educational Planning and the Promotion of Research (Bund-Länder-Kommission für Bildungsplanung, und Forschungsförderung), a committee on which the Federation and the federal states cooperate in educational planning, agreed to extend the General Educational Plan to the beginning of 1979. This plan constitutes a long-term framework for the development of the whole education system, including agreement of the education budget. The work should be completed early in 1979. Continuing education will be accorded considerable importance within this framework.

#### *Improved basis of information*

Despite there being no statutory data requirements, the Federation is trying to establish a better information basis for continuing education. A research project financed by the Federal Ministry of Education and Science is aimed at achieving this objective. In collaboration with bodies organizing continuing education measures, coordinated main and supplementary programmes serving to collate information on activities in the field of continuing education are to be

developed. Furthermore, a pilot survey on continuing education is to be conducted in Lower Saxony along the lines of a similar survey carried out in Baden-Württemberg some years ago. The survey in Lower Saxony is to be jointly financed by the Federal Ministry of Education and Science and the Lower Saxony Ministry of Education.

#### *The administration of continuing vocational training*

Since 1 January 1977 the Federal Minister of Education and Science has passed four new regulations concerning continuing vocational training in accordance with the Vocational Training Act. These regulations are in addition to those for secretaries and for swimming instructors, which were passed earlier. The new regulations apply to the occupations of business assistant (industry), construction vehicle driver, master industrial worker (metal), and pharmacy assistant. A series of other important regulations are in preparation. Use was first made in 1977 of the competence to issue retaining regulations under the Vocational Training Act, at which time a retraining regulation for aircraft servicing personnel was drawn up. In the craft sector regulations establishing master craftsman examinations for two further craft occupations were added to the existing 36. This means that about one-third of all craft occupations are now covered by regulations, thus ensuring uniformity throughout the Federal Republic of Germany. Judging by the numbers of examination candidates, most of the training leading to a master craftsman's certificate is thus covered by regulations.

#### *Continuing vocational training participants*

There was a sharp drop in the number of persons undergoing continuing vocational training in 1976 and 1977 as compared with earlier years (see table 1). This can be traced back to the effects of cuts in spending which have been successively introduced since 1975. Furthermore, there have been a number of changes in the Work Promotion Act. Grants were reduced from 90% to 58%, to 80% for specific target groups (see above). Qualifying for such grants has now become conditional upon completing specified periods of employment following initial training or between two courses qualifying for financial aid. However, whenever the

employment situation is unfavourable, these arrangements may be overridden for one year by legal authorization of the Federal Minister of Labour and Social Affairs (Bundesminister für Arbeit und Sozialordnung). This procedure has been applied three times (1976, 1977 and 1978). However, the drop in the number of persons undergoing continuing vocational training cannot be entirely explained by the less favourable terms of financial assistance. On the one hand most of the backlog of persons interested in undergoing continuing vocational training had obviously been cleared by 1975 and on the other hand the economic recession has had an adverse effect on the readiness of workers to take part in training courses. Concern about losing their job, particularly when the course runs for a considerable length of time, has been a decided deterrent. Consequently, there has been a change in the sociodemographic structure of the participants. Since 1975 the proportion of unemployed persons under continuing training has increased markedly for retraining measures and marginally for further training measures. Since 1977 the total participant number for both retraining and further training measures under the Work Promotion Act has been rising again, despite there having been no far-reaching changes in the terms and conditions governing financial assistance. In October 1977 the Federal Diet (Bundestag) asked the Federal Government to investigate to what extent, if at all, a modification of the provisions of the Work Promotion Act relating to financial aid for vocational training could contribute towards facilitating vocational mobility among workers, removing barriers, and achieving more rapidly a state of labour market equilibrium. An amendment to the Work Promotion Act which is intended, among other things, to improve financial assistance for those following further training and retraining measures, is currently in preparation.

#### **The role of continuing education in a modern industrial society**

The Federal Minister of Education and Science recently stressed the importance of continuing education and emphasized his commitment to a policy of increased expansion of this sector of the educational system.

The main points emphasized are as follows:

— There is broad, international consensus that there should be an

expansion of the role of continuing education within the education system and that the structure of continuing education should be improved.

— Continuing education is life-long learning and there is an unquestioned need for this in the modern industrial society.

— Continuing education, as a life-long learning process, must not lead to inhumane exploitation of the individual. In other words, continuing education should not be regarded as an instrument to help people adapt to every type and tempo of technical change.

— This highlights a conflict which is present in every basic concept of a policy for continuing education namely, the conflict between the function of adapting people to change and the task of protecting them by means of continuing education from uncritical adaptation to change.

— In the long term the division of labour constitutes one of the most important problems facing continuing education. Many people hold jobs which afford little scope for continuing education, and only a few hold jobs where the scope for continuing education is broad. This division approximately follows the distribution of incomes. Many workers who have low incomes also have fewer holidays and jobs offering few training prospects. Society must succeed in gradually correcting this situation, one which is unfavourable both to education in general and to continuing education. In the Federal Republic of Germany a step has been taken in this direction with the introduction of paid educational leave for several groups of employees.

— Continuing education must be accorded equal recognition as a sector within the education system. It must not become a chance product or a social gratification to be distributed at random. Young people who opt for vocational training should be able to look upon continuing education as a concrete prospect.

— Continuing education is also a public responsibility, and the government should not remain indifferent to it. However, continuing education opportunities financed by private bodies have a significant role to play

in the expansion of continuing education to a major sector of the educational system, because training measures which such bodies organize, particularly in the private sector of industry, can be optimally practice-oriented and flexible.

— The disadvantages of plurality and flexibility are that there may be insufficient information available on all the many opportunities and that the qualifications acquired may not be comparable or officially recognized. This is where the

government is called upon to take action by drawing up guidelines to ensure that there is a sensible division of functions relevant to practical needs and that there is fruitful cooperation among government authorities, bodies concerned with continuing education, and above all representatives of the employers and the employees.

Source:  
National Correspondent.

**Table 1 — Trainees participating in continuing vocational measures under the Work Promotion Act (1970–77)**

Year	Continuing training	Retraining	Total
1970	117 164	23 420	140 584
1971	224 879	34 099	258 978
1972	212 783	31 901	244 684
1973	185 199	31 430	216 629
1974	185 873	36 560	222 433
1975	216 407	36 575	252 982
1976	117 351	19 061	136 412
1977	100 509	20 048	120 557
Total	1 360 165	233 094	1 593 259

**Table 2 — Cost of promoting persons undergoing continuing vocational training under the Work Promotion Act (1970–77)**

(in DM 000's)

Year	Continuing training	Retraining	Maintenance allowances continuing training	Total
1970	124 614	76 879	370 887	572 380
1971	342 372	103 665	769 227	1 215 264
1972	298 126	81 021	1 110 360	1 489 507
1973	233 454	67 298	1 233 176	1 533 923
1974	265 328	86 992	1 494 161	1 846 481
1975	373 897	158 814	1 991 378	2 524 089
1976	287 828	160 000	1 426 716	1 874 544
1977	217 110	168 770	770 967	1 156 847
Total	2 142 729	903 439	9 166 072	12 213 040

Source:  
Amtliche Nachrichten der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit, Nuremberg.

## Continuing education in the Netherlands

The Government of the Netherlands is very aware of the need to provide an adequate system of continuing education in order to offer a second chance to those

who have dropped out of formal education at an early stage and to provide a second educational route for those who are not suited to the more traditional methods of schooling. One of the pivots of the previous government's memorandum *Contours of a Future Education System* (Contouren van een

toekomstig onderwijsbestel) (see Bulletin No 1 and 2, 1977) was that an individual had a right to education throughout life. The memorandum stated under its three basic points for an education strategy that 'the period of compulsory and usually uninterrupted full-time day education is followed by a period of life-long continued learning. In principle the phase of uninterrupted day education at the beginning of this period should be kept as short as possible. An essential feature of this entire period is that working and learning should be systematically alternated and that central importance should be attached to fostering self-reliance and a sense of personal responsibility among those participating in part-time education.' The memorandum outlined the various opportunities for continuing education which should be available to students who have completed their compulsory education and probably also a course of higher education. These opportunities would include:

- firstly, facilities for supplementary vocational training. This would mean that supplementary training or retraining would be available to those who might need it throughout working life. In this context supplementary training includes not only updating and refresher courses but also courses to satisfy the need for further specialization observed from experience in working practice;
- secondly, programmes of education and development geared not to the acquisition of diplomas but to increasing individual self-fulfilment;
- thirdly, a system of second-chance education which would offer adults a chance which they would not usually have of obtaining diplomas of the normal secondary and higher education systems. Courses offered within this second-chance system would be pursued simultaneously with full or part-time employment.

### The Open School and University

A number of initiatives have already been taken in the Netherlands to increase the scope of continuing education. These include steps to set up an Open School and University, broadening the capacity and scope of present adult education, apprenticeship reform, the reform of education for young people 16 to 18 years of age, paid educational leave, and training courses in practical skills. One of the main features of the Dutch continuing education system is the

proposed Open School and University, which would form the second-chance/second route system mentioned above as the third category. The Open School, which is still in the experimental stage, is an autonomous organization set up in order to offer, in collaboration with other organizations, prospective students facilities for supplementary education, training and development after completion of their normal compulsory schooling and alongside full-time or part-time employment. The emphasis under this scheme will be on the integration of private study, tutorial groups, and mass-media education. Pilot projects for the Open School, which will cover the lower end of the academic scale, began in 14 areas on 1 September 1977. The projects were primarily directed at educationally deprived groups, namely, working adults, married women, and young workers (in the 17 to 30 age group). On 30 August 1978 the Minister for Education and Science (Minister van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen) decided to extend the Open School pilot projects until 1 August 1980.

An Open University is also planned which will link with the Open School and provide education at a higher academic level, thus forming an extensive and comprehensive alternative system of education. In order to investigate the possibilities and form of these two institutions, two committees were set up, namely, the Open School Committee (Commissie Open School—COS) in 1973 and the Committee for the Preparation of an Open University (Commissie Voorbereiding Open Universiteit—CVOU) on 17 March 1977. On 16 May 1978 the latter committee presented its interim report to the Minister of Education and Science. The Committee envisages that the Open University will be directed primarily at men and women over 21 who wish to undergo a course of higher education. In this group the Committee identifies three main categories of applicants:

- those who do not have the necessary diplomas to join a course of higher education in the normal way but who believe themselves capable of undertaking such a course. (From the point of view of creating equal educational opportunities for all, this is the most important category.)
- those who do have the necessary training but for one reason or another did not go on to higher education at the end of their secondary school career;

- those who have already followed a course of higher education, either in part or in full, and who either want to follow a different course or to continue their education where they left off.

It is expected that in the initial years of the Open University education will be provided primarily for the first two categories. It is hoped that the Open University, as an alternative form of education, will be able to offer more integration between theory and practice and that in deciding the form of education offered an effort will be made, where possible, to take into account the previous experience of the student. This can partly be achieved by an individualization of the curriculum and by allowing the students greater freedom in compiling the course they want to follow. It is also hoped that the Open University will help to relieve unemployment by allowing people to postpone their choice of career and by offering more chances for retraining.

As regards entrance requirements to the Open University, the Committee proposes that none be made for applicants of 21 and over, and that those under 21 should be in possession of a diploma of a sufficient standard, to allow them admission to higher vocational training. It will be left to the students themselves to decide whether they are able to follow the course, but it is the task of the Open University to make clear to them what the demands of the course are before they start and also to advise them during the course. In order to ensure that this is possible, study advisers will be appointed. It is fundamental to the idea of an Open University that the students, as far as possible, should be able to design their own study plan and determine how many hours a year they can study and at what times. In order to achieve this, courses will be made up of course units consisting of 100 hours of study (with one or two possible exceptions). In order that students may study at their own tempo it is envisaged that the main method of teaching will be via written material. This will be supplemented by technical aids such as video-cassettes and records and to a certain extent by radio and television broadcasts. It is also hoped that a network of study centres will be set up to provide guidance and support for the students.

Two forms of assessment will be used to gauge the students' progress, firstly tasks set during the course and secondly

written (possibly also oral) examinations, which the student will be able to sit three times a year. The Open University will issue a diploma when a course has been finished to its satisfaction. The level will be set, in part, by comparison with existing courses. However, in view of the fact that the examinations will diverge from those at present existing in institutions of higher education, the Committee suggests that they should be administered separately by the Ministry of Education and Science on the advice of a committee set up for this purpose. The Committee also envisages that because of the Open University's attitude to entrance requirements, examinations, diplomas, management, etc., it will have to be governed by a separate law. It is important that the diplomas issued by the Open University have the same social significance as those of other institutions of higher education. In order to keep the costs of the Open University down, courses will be offered only in subjects which are likely to attract a high number of students. It has also been suggested that Flemish-speaking areas of Belgium could be included in the scheme. One other important aspect of the Open University is that it will do away with the old distinction between higher vocational and university education.

No firm starting date has yet been fixed, but it is hoped to get the Open University under way, at least in an experimental stage, as soon as possible.

### Lower secondary education

In addition to the Open University, other forms of adult education have received support from the government. Recent years have seen a remarkable increase in interest and demand for adult education, both in the evening and more particularly during the day. In 1975 in Middenmeer day courses were started for parents of children taking their m.a.v.o. certificate (lower secondary school certificate), so that these parents could help their children with their homework. Demand was so great that more and more of these courses were started, and they were increasingly attended by adults (95% women) who wanted a second chance of gaining the qualification themselves. In January 1977 the Dutch government increased its subsidy to these schools, and by September 1977 there were approximately 80 schools catering for almost 15 000 students. In addition to the large number of m.a.v.o. schools, there were also a few schools offering

courses leading to the higher secondary school diploma. The present academic year, 1978-79, saw the start of the first evening course in higher economic and administrative education. Only those who do not have the opportunity of following the day course will be admitted to this evening course.

In order to give adults more opportunity to gain a qualification from their evening studies, the government has introduced a new scheme whereby, since 1 August 1978, it is possible in the sphere of adult education to study for the lower and higher secondary school diplomas subject by subject. This means that a student can study one or more subjects of his or her choice at a time at adult day or evening classes without having to study the other subjects normally involved in the diploma. On satisfactory completion of the course the student will be awarded a subject certificate. These certificates will be a qualification in themselves, and in addition to this, if a student gains six certificates in relevant subjects at the same level, he/she can exchange these for the appropriate full diploma. In this way, it is left to the students themselves to determine their own pace and extent of study. The study of single subjects is not limited to examination subjects only; courses can be followed in social science, music, art and craft.

### Retraining

The Minister for Social Affairs, (Minister van Sociale Zaken) is considering introducing compulsory retraining for people unable to find employment in their old trade or profession. It is hoped that this will ease the pressure on the labour market. At present adults can be retrained in centres for the vocational training of adults, but these centres offer training only in skills in the building and metal industries and are heavily over-subscribed (in some centres there is a six-month waiting list). In 1975 the number of people attending these centres was 2 443, which is much the same as the figure for 1978 although the capacity for training people in the building industry has been expanded by 40%. In 1971 the government passed the company school measure which allowed employers a subsidy towards meeting the cost of the wages of employees undergoing training. The government now also gives support to companies who train groups of unemployed and employees. About 250 companies are involved in the above scheme, training approximately 5 900 persons. One way in

which the government is considering promoting continuing education is by means of paid educational leave. This would enable workers to take time off work to follow a course of training without loss in wages and enable the self-employed to receive expenses for the cost of a replacement during training and undertake training without loss of benefits. A special committee, the Socioeconomic Council Committee on Paid Educational Leave (Sociaal Economische Raad Commissie Betaald Educatief Verlof), was set up to investigate the possibilities of such a scheme and has recently brought out a draft interim report which is at present under discussion.

### Training for retirement

In July 1978 the Open School Committee (Commissie Open School) brought out a report on training provision for retirement. This would involve paid educational leave primarily for persons 60 to 65 years old to prepare them for the dramatic change in their life-style on reaching retirement. The provision would deal with such problems as how to spend the newly acquired leisure time, social relations inside and outside the family circle, and old age. These problems would be tackled by means of group guidance and counselling, correspondence courses, and radio and television programmes, and work at a local and regional level would play an important part. The Open School Committee proposes the establishment of a nation-wide development project entitled 'Preparation for Retirement' and suggests that in order to preserve unity in the field of adult education, it should be linked with the future Open School. It is estimated that the proposed development project would have direct costs of approximately Fl. 1 500 000 per year, to be met by the Ministry for Social Affairs, the Ministry of Education and Science, and the Ministry of Culture, Recreation and Social Work. Depending on the outcome of tripartite discussions, the cost of participation in the courses could be met either in part or wholly by the employer.

### New provisions for young people

At the other end of the age scale there is the problem of young people who have completed compulsory full-time education but for whom there is no appropriate post-compulsory full-time course and probably no work.

In the Netherlands at present young people who leave school immediately after the 10-year period of compulsory education must attend an education course for one or two days a week. This course may be either specialized, as within the framework of an apprenticeship, or of a general, sociocultural nature. On 11 July 1978 the Secretary of State for Education and Science and the Minister for Social Affairs (Staatssecretaris van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen and the Minister van Sociale Zaken) presented a discussion paper to Parliament calling for new provision for the education of persons 16 to 18 years of age. They want educationists to plan a series of pilot projects which will provide training in practical skills for over 100 000 persons in the age group for whom there is no appropriate provision after leaving full-time education. The government wants the projects to be operational by 1 August 1979. In the discussion paper two types of training programmes have been put forward, namely, a two-year vocational training course and an orientation programme. The two-year vocational training course will be aimed at young people who have undergone lower vocational education or intermediate general secondary education, whether or not they have gained their diploma, and for those who have dropped out of higher general secondary or intermediate vocational education. As well as training in practical skills the courses will provide instruction in general and social education subjects. The level of the course will be comparable with primary training within the apprenticeship framework and will put the students in an advantageous position for either finding work or entering a full apprenticeship.

The orientation programmes, on the other hand, are aimed at young people who have not yet made a choice of career in order to provide them with vocational guidance in making this choice. No new schools will be set up to run these courses. They will take place within the curriculum of lower and intermediate technical schools and training centres for young workers.

#### Sources:

Uitleg — Issues 539, 552 and 554, dated 15 February, 31 May, and 14 June 1978, respectively.  
Times Educational Supplement, 4 August 1978.  
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## Continuing education and training in the United Kingdom

### Organization

There is no single ministry or institution responsible for promoting continuing education and training. A distinctive feature of the British education service, including further education, is that it operates on the basis of the distribution of responsibility between central government, the local education authorities, and the teaching profession. The day-to-day running of the education service is left to the local education authorities, whose duty it is to provide and run the schools and colleges in their areas.

Responsibility for the national training services is in the hands of the Manpower Services Commission (Training Services Division) (MSC (TSD)), which is separate from the government but accountable to the Secretary of State for Employment (and in respect of its operations in Scotland and Wales, to the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Wales). The Commission's Chairman and members are appointed after consultation with employers and local government, and educational interests. The principal partners of MSC (TSD) in the work of helping the national training system and helping individuals to have opportunities for training throughout their working lives are the 23 industrial training boards, which cover a large part of private industry. The boards include representatives of employers and workers as well as educational interests. They have power to raise levies from firms and to make grants, and are able to influence the quantity, quality and content of training, including such provisions as paid educational leave.

In spite of the delegation of authority, there are effective links at all levels—national, regional, and local—between the education and training services, and efforts are constantly being made to improve these.

### Training opportunities for adults

The Training Services Division helps the cause of continuing education and training through a country-wide system of training opportunities for adults. It meets the needs of individuals who wish to enhance their skills or acquire new skills, who made the wrong choice of

career or received no early training, or who, like some married women, need training before returning to the labour market. Training through this scheme, which is known as the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS), is given in TSD's own skillcentres or in other institutions such as colleges of further education. Training is free and allowances are paid to trainees (see Bulletin No 4, 1976: Bulletin No 3-4, 1977). The Training Services Division also provides direct services to firms in industry and commerce by training their employees at the request of the managers. The special training may be given during working hours at the workplace by mobile instructors or at skillcentres.

### Paid educational leave

Colleges of further education provide a wide range of courses, usually at craft level or above, on a day-release basis, that is, by release from the workplace without loss of pay to attend college one day a week. Most of these courses lead to vocationally relevant qualifications, though some employers are prepared to give release for general education. Participation is voluntary for both employers and employees, though in the case of apprentices, day-release for further education complementary to the course of training is a recognized obligation on both apprentice and employer. The United Kingdom has ratified the ILO Convention No 140 on Paid Educational Leave. However, it relies for its implementation very largely on agreements between the two sides of industry. Apart from young people serving apprenticeships and those undergoing vocational preparation, the numbers benefiting from paid educational leave are probably not yet large. The Department of Education and Science (DES) and MSC are conducting a survey to find out more about the numbers, and the results are expected in 1979.

### Government grants to trade unions

The provision for continuing education and training is almost entirely voluntary. The only legislative arrangement is in Section 57 of the Employment Protection Act 1975. This provides for leave with pay for certain trade union duties and for education and training in support of those duties. A code of practice containing practical guidance on the time off to be permitted

by an employer has been issued by the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service. Section 57 and the code both took effect from 1 April 1978. The government provides grants from public funds in support of expenditure by the Trades Union Congress (TUC) and independent trade unions on trade union education and training. This support is given in recognition of the growing demands made by recent and prospective legislation on individual trade unions in the discharge of their proper function in a modern society. The grants are provided towards approved costs of course fees paid to local education authorities and to other responsible bodies providing the courses, towards the cost of courses provided at the TUC Training College and by individual unions, and towards the cost of course development and research. The courses provided by the local education authorities are open to inspection by Her Majesty's Inspectorate (Department of Education and Science) in the normal way, and the courses provided elsewhere are open to review by the Inspectorate by arrangement with TUC.

## Recent decisions and developments

### *Youth Opportunities Programme*

The Manpower Services Commission has recently launched an important programme with government support to help youngsters in their transition from school to work. Known as the Youth Opportunities Programme, it aims to prepare young people for work and to give those who have made a poor start a second chance. (See Bulletin No 2-3 1978). This programme has been in operation since April 1978, though some of the schemes which form an integral part of it had already been running for a time on a smaller scale. It provides two main categories of opportunity, namely work experience and work preparation courses. Further education is an important component of work experience and is mainly provided by day-release to local colleges of further education.

The provision made at the colleges includes life and social skills in addition to vocational education; its exact nature is decided locally. Work preparation courses are provided in a variety of institutions, a large number being run in further education colleges. Allowances are paid to the young people. At least 230 000 youngsters are expected to benefit from the scheme in the first full

year. About £160 million a year has been allocated to the programme for five years.

Besides the support given to the Youth Opportunities Programme, additional resources are being made available to local education authorities in England and Wales for 9 000 additional full-time further education places over and above any expansion already planned. These additional places are intended mainly for those young people who would otherwise face the risk of unemployment. The Department of Education and Science has suggested to local education authorities that more vocationally-oriented courses would be a particularly appropriate development under this initiative.

### *Training for Skills*

Another programme for action launched by the Manpower Services Commission is Training for Skills. The aims are to maximize the training opportunities open to the individual and to ensure that the future needs of the economy for skilled workers, are carefully forecast and met. MSC will work with industry and commerce in cooperation with the industrial training boards and the training organizations in sectors not covered by the boards, mainly the public sector. When the key training objectives of industry cannot be met without additional financial support, the MSC will be able to contribute. The MSC will seek improvements in the volume and quality of skill training. A probable outcome is a move towards broader based and multi-skill training in order to equip people for the changing patterns of industrial activity and greater emphasis on properly planned courses of further education as well as continuing training. More training off the job is also likely.

### *Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education*

The United Kingdom endorsed at the European Education Ministers' Conference in Stockholm in 1975 the concept that adults should be able to return to education and training as necessary throughout life noting that there were already strands of continuing education in the UK system which could act as foundations to build on. These included the existing system of general adult education, the Open University, provision for mature students, professional and vocational courses, and

the Training Opportunities Scheme which had then just been initiated. In October 1977 the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education was set up, and this Council is expected to contribute to the development of a coherent system of continuing education in the coming decade. Its interest is not confined to general adult education but extends to the area of vocational education and training.

### *Education in literacy*

An important component of many vocationally oriented training courses for young people and adults is an element of basic education in literacy, numeracy, and communication skills. The Adult Literacy Resources Agency (ALRA), which operated for three years with an annual grant of £1 million from central government (and which has now been succeeded by the Adult Literacy Unit within the National Institute for Adult Education) extended its work into the area of vocational training and has worked closely with MSC in giving advice and monitoring developments. A joint ALRA/MSc working party produced a valuable report on this area of provision which is to be published shortly.

### *Some new schemes*

An experiment now running in Great Britain is the government-sponsored programme of pilot schemes of Unified Vocational Preparation (UVP) (see Bulletin No 2—3, 1978). This programme was launched in July 1976 for an initial period of three years in response to concern about the difficulties in making the transition from school to work experienced by those young people who go into jobs where they receive no further education and little or no systematic training. The recurrent costs of the programme are borne by the education departments and MSC. The main objective of the programme is to develop and test forms of vocational preparation for young people in employment which will prove attractive to them and will gain the support of their employers. Schemes in the programme are designed by industrial training boards, colleges of further education, and other agencies in consultation with employers to meet the needs of a wide range of industries and are thus very varied in content, teaching methods, and organization but all have in common the close integration of elements of

education and training and relevance to experience at work. The industries catered for by the schemes currently in operation include rubber and plastics, retail distribution, office work, food and drink processing, and engineering. Local steering committees are responsible for individual schemes under the general guidance of an interdepartmental group of officials which is responsible for the control and coordination of the programmes.

In the first year (1976—77) it was hoped to establish 20 schemes in England and Wales and four in Scotland, each admitting about 15 young people. Progress was, however, much slower than expected, mainly because the time required to assemble local steering committees and to prepare detailed proposals was underestimated and because employers were reluctant to release young people to participate in untried schemes. In the event, only 11 schemes in England and Wales and three in Scotland were established by Easter 1977. However, during the current academic year the total number of schemes started has grown to about 50. The government recently announced the extension of the programme by two years until July 1981. This will allow time for more schemes to be developed, thus broadening the scope of the experiment.

### *New Enterprise Programme*

A new scheme of training for self-employment was started by MSC in May 1977 under the title New Enterprise Programme (NEP). As a first stage two pilot courses were run at Manchester Business School (Manchester University). Their success has led to a third course at Manchester and one at Durham University Business School. The courses are for redundant managers who wish to set up and manage new businesses. During the programmes participants are helped to identify and think through viable business ventures, consolidate and develop these ventures and find suitable sponsorship. Long-term funding is not available from MSC; the businesses have to be financed by means of investments made by the participants themselves, together with loans from clearing banks, finance houses, etc.

The initial results from this scheme seem quite encouraging and MSC has agreed to extend this work. Several small

enterprises have been started as a result of the courses and it is envisaged that these will provide a number of employment opportunities. A further programme for people wishing to start up in the hotel, catering, and tourism industry is to be run at Sundridge Park Management Centre.

### *Management action learning groups*

Continuing training for managers has also received help. The Manpower Services Commission has supported the Institute of Works Managers in running a series of part-time management action learning groups throughout the country. These groups, each comprising four to six managers, meet on a part-time basis over a period of six months under the guidance of experienced counsellors. Participant managers learn with and from each other by investigating, planning, and then taking action on real-life problems that confront them. Each group acts as a forum for mutual self-help, enabling each member of the group to work at his/her individual problem with the other members to find the best possible solution for action, rather than tackling the problem single-handedly. In this way each manager not only develops a greater ability for objective problem-solving but also widens his horizons and becomes a better manager. Such groups have been found to be of particular relevance to small firms whose managers are least able to spare the time to attend full-time courses. Manpower Services Commission sponsorship, which was instrumental in getting these groups going, finished in March 1978, and the Institute of Works Managers is now continuing with the sponsorship of these groups from its own resources.

### **Possible fields for European research**

The training of entrepreneurs and training for self-employment seem suitable subjects for research on a European basis. Another possible topic is distance learning, particularly methods of catering for smaller numbers of students than is economically viable through the Open University approach. Some work in this field has already been done by the Council for Educational Technology and work by MSC on computer assisted learning is relevant.

Source:  
National correspondent.

## **Continuing education in Ireland**

As in many other countries, the subject of continuing education has attracted much attention during the past decade. The first major published work on the subject was a report entitled 'Adult Education in Ireland' (The Murphy Report), which was prepared by a committee nominated by the Minister for Education and published in 1973. This report emphasized that the greatest single need of adult education in Ireland was a definite system of organization within which it could develop to satisfy needs. As a practical measure towards this end the report recommended that the newly-established National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA) be appointed as the official accrediting body for certain types of adult education courses. A working party of NCEA was established in late 1975 to suggest an awards system based on the accumulation of credits which would meet the needs of continuing education. Following an interim report, NCEA issued a Discussion Document on an NCEA Award Structure for Recurrent Education in May 1978. Pending acceptance of the policy recommendations contained in the report there is at present no formal coordination of the various aspects of continuing (recurrent) education.

An empirical study entitled 'Recurrent Education in Ireland' carried out by Carey in 1974 summarized the situation at that time as follows:

'Recurrent education, as a formalized, institutionalized and comprehensive strategy of life-long education, does not exist in Ireland. But this does not mean there are not many educational developments, innovations, achievements, and processes, which constitute elements in an emerging Irish pattern of recurrent education.'

Two of the elements highlighted in the report are:

- the pivotal position in recurrent education occupied by voluntary groups, agencies, and associations, many of which are organic community-based institutions;
- the ever-growing cooperation and effective partnership which exists between the statutory providers of educational activities and these voluntary, vocational, familial, religious, and community-interested groups.

The report points out that 'there may not be a sufficient awareness that education is not the same as schooling and that all institutions in the social system share the responsibility of helping people to educate themselves; for example, 'employers and trade unionists should give greater recognition than they do to the potential of the workplace as a prime situation for both the vocational, general, and personal development of the workers through planned, experiential learning activities.'

Since those lines were written there have been two very significant influences on the provision of continuing education opportunities in Ireland. The first has to do with the increased availability of vocational education and training, aided to a considerable degree by the European Social Fund monies which have been available to Ireland since accession to the Community in 1973. The second has to do with the International Labour Office's Convention on Paid Educational Leave, which was adopted at the annual conference of the ILO in June 1974.

The report prepared by ILO on the Convention noted that paid educational leave is intended 'to provide opportunities of education for growing numbers of persons already in employment in order that they may be better equipped to meet the demands of technological change, to improve their chances of promotion and social advancement, and to participate in the economic and social life of their workplace and the community at large.' As such, it can be taken to be potentially one of the most significant components of continuing education policy for the adult worker. The Minister for Labour has stated that the Irish government 'accepts the principle of paid educational leave and is in agreement with the view expressed in the Preamble to the Convention that paid educational leave should be regarded as one means of meeting the needs of individual workers in a modern society and that it should be conceived in terms of a policy of continuing education and training, to be implemented progressively and in an effective manner.'

### Current provision

The current provision of continuing education opportunities may be loosely grouped into three areas:

- government-sponsored training and education courses,

- courses organized by employers and trade unions,

- learning opportunities provided by voluntary groups.

The major government-sponsored programme is that of AnCO—The Industrial Training Authority. AnCO is a tripartite body which is governed by a Council representative of employer, trade union, and educational interests. Its funding comes in roughly equal parts from the Irish government and the European Social Fund. Courses in seventy different specialities are available to adults on a full-time basis in seventeen centres dispersed throughout the country.

Individuals may attend these courses on their own initiative or be sponsored by their employer. In addition, AnCO organizes courses outside their own training centres in conjunction with local education authorities or other training bodies such as the Irish Management Institute and the Institute of Public Administration. In the case of these externally provided courses, attendance is normally during working hours.

The government also supports the continuing education programmes of employer and trade union organizations both by the provision of cash grants and in its role as employer, releasing workers on full pay to attend courses. In the public sector courses are organized by the Civil Service Training Centre and the Institute of Public Administration, while in the private sector courses are organized both by the Irish Management Institute and by a variety of private training/consultancy firms. These training opportunities are usually available both during working and leisure hours. It is quite common in collective bargaining practice to have the employer pay the full cost of work-related education, while in general only a proportion (usually 50%) of the costs of education which is not specifically work-related is met by the employer.

As regards courses for trade union members organized by the Education and Advisory Services of The Irish Congress of Trade Unions, recent collective bargaining agreements have included provision for the release, with pay, of workers to attend, subject to some overall limitations on the numbers involved. Further advances in the general area of paid educational leave for workers will probably await the results of a proposed study involving

government, employer, and worker interests which will establish the broad lines on which the provisions of the ILO Convention could be implemented.

In view of the substantial employment in agriculture in Ireland—about 25 % of the workforce—the voluntary provision of continuing education opportunities is of particular importance to the farming community. In addition to a government-funded advisory and education service, organizations which have both an educational and a social role are the Irish Farmers Association, the Irish Countrywomen's Association, and for young adults on the farms Macra na Feirme (Young Farmers Clubs), while Macra na Tuaithe (Young Countrypeople's Club) provides a meeting place for those in their teens.

### Future developments

As far as future developments of an institutional nature are concerned, the recommendations of the NCEA working party represent the most likely avenue of advance. The main points are as follows:

1. A new award level should be introduced, to be called the Foundation Certificate. The attainment of the Foundation Certificate would suffice for entry to courses leading to the National Certificate.
2. Entry requirements for the Foundation Certificate course should be open and students will normally be expected to be 15 years of age or over; mature students should be admitted to the course at the discretion of the awarding body.
3. The Foundation Certificate should be awarded on the accumulation of 500 work units.
4. To cater for the varying nature of students' abilities and past experience, it is of special importance in continuing education that a wide range of teaching methods be employed.
5. The difference in students' past experience also calls for a flexible system of assessment. A method is proposed whereby work experience may be quantified and related to other educational achievements in the accumulation of credits.
6. The existing traditional part-time and single-subject courses should be integrated with a comprehensive Irish

awards system, providing adequate opportunities for continuing education.

7. The major existing educational organizations and facilities in the country and their staffs should become the focal points for course provision.
8. Training schemes are required for the provision of teachers, counsellors, and coordinators of continuing education.

The document containing these recommendations has been circulated for discussion, and the debate on the topic should continue far into 1979.

One of the more interesting recent experiments in continuing education is the establishment of training courses for would-be entrepreneurs. These courses have been run on a small scale over the past three years and have had modest success in that about one-third of those taking the courses have succeeded in establishing their own businesses. Another development, at present being partially funded by the EC Directorate-General for Social Affairs, is a pilot project on the training needs and employment-generating potential of cooperative enterprises of low capital intensity.

*Source:*

National correspondent.

## French law to help young people and women

Following the success of the interim measures to help unemployed young people, introduced under legislation of 5 July 1977 and known as the National Employment Programme (*pacte national pour l'emploi*) (see Bulletin No 2—3, 1978), the French government decided early in 1978 to continue and expand these measures in 1978 and 1979.

According to the Secretary of State for Vocational Training (*Secrétaire d'Etat chargé de la formation professionnelle*), 550 000 young people benefited from measures under the first programme. These measures included offering incentives to employers to take on unemployed people and/or apprentices and to offer young people training. In order to maintain the momentum

initiated by these measures and to continue to combat rising unemployment, a new law was passed on 6 July 1978.

In essence the new law, now popularly called the Second National Employment Programme, is similar to the first. However, there are a number of points of difference.

### New elements

One of the major new elements is that the measures are aimed not only at unemployed young people but also at certain categories of women of all ages. The categories covered include widows, divorcees, women who are legally separated, single women caring for at least one child, recipients of the single parent allowance, and women who, after having given birth or adopted children, wish to return to work after a minimum of two years' or a maximum of five years' absence. This move reflects the government's deep concern over those women who are particularly affected by unemployment. A working group on women's employment problems has emphasized the difficulties facing women who have to support a family. The more children they have had the longer they are likely to be unemployed. Furthermore, such women tend to lack skills and qualifications either because they have not received any form of basic training or because they have been off the labour market for so long that their skills need updating or adapting. The needs of the abovementioned categories of women were deemed to be similar to those of young people, and thus the government considered it appropriate that the new law should include measures aimed to alleviate the problems of both.

A second difference between the 1977 law and the 1978 law is that under the former the measures were of a more short-term nature. None of the measures introduced under the 1977 law were applicable after 31 December 1977. Under the new law, however, certain measures, particularly those related to training, will continue throughout 1979. Under the First National Employment Programme, only young people between 16 and 25 were eligible for consideration under the measures. The second National Employment Programme extends the upper age limit for young people to 26.

The arrangements for the financing of the new measures have also been revised,

with the result that firms will now take on a greater share of the costs.

The measures themselves may be divided into two categories: (1) those relating to direct employment and (2) those relating to training.

### *Direct employment*

Firms are encouraged to take on extra staff for at least one year during the period 1 July 1978 to 31 December 1979. In return employers will be exempted from payment of 50% of their social security contributions (this was 100% under the 1977 law). Only firms with less than 500 employees and a turnover of less than FF 100 million may participate. In this way the measure is trying in particular to encourage small and medium-sized firms to recruit more staff. Those people eligible for consideration are young people aged 18 to 26 who have completed a training course or national service less than 12 months previously; young people aged 16 to 18 who have completed a course in technical studies; and certain categories of women, regardless of age or qualifications.

In addition to the above, firms are also encouraged to take on young apprentices for a period of one year on condition that they are registered before 31 December 1979. In return firms will be exempted from 100% of their social security contributions. Under the 1977 law apprenticeship contracts could be of a maximum length of two years.

### *Training measures*

As under the first law, there are three types of training measure under the new law: practical in-firm training (*stages pratiques*) vocational preparation (*stages de formation*), and employment-training contracts.

#### — Practical in-firm training:

The period of training is four months, and this opportunity is open to young people aged 18 to 26 and certain categories of women. Trainees are paid 90% of the guaranteed minimum wage, of which 70% is paid by the state. Firms must provide the trainee with 120 hours of formal training, and courses must begin between 1 October 1978 and 31 December 1979. There are several differences here between the law of 1977 and that of 1978. The 1978

law specifies, for example, that the training given must be in a manual skill, since the government feels that the acquisition of such skills is likely to enhance the possibilities of employment. The age limits for young people have been altered from 16 to 25 years to 18 to 26 years, and the duration of the programmes has been reduced from 6 to 8 months to four months.

— Vocational preparation:

In direct contrast to the in-firm training courses, the greater part of vocational preparation courses is spent under formal instruction while a smaller part is spent within a firm. The courses are open to young unemployed people aged 16 to 26 and certain categories of women. The length of these courses is six months (constituting 800 hours of training). Young people aged 16 to 18 are paid 25% of the guaranteed minimum wage, those aged 18 to 26 are paid 75%, and women over 26 are paid 90%. All payments are made by the State. Once again, there are differences between these arrangements and those under the 1977 law: the length of the courses has been reduced from six to eight months to six months, the calculation of payments has been brought into line with other measures affecting young people, and the system of financing the measures has been simplified.

— Employment-training contracts:

These contracts are not strictly a product of either the law of 5 July 1977 or the law of 6 July 1978, since they were first established in 1975. However, they have been integrated into the series of measures introduced under the two laws. They are open to young unemployed people aged 17 to 26 and to certain categories of women. It is particularly hoped that women wishing to return to work after giving birth or adopting children will take advantage of employment-training contracts. The length of the employment contract is either six months (with the employer providing between 120 and 500 hours of training) or one year (during which 500 to 1 200 hours of training should be given). Training costs are shared by the state and the employer.

In summing up the measures, the Secretary of State for Vocational Training said that the purpose of the Second National Employment

Programme was to offer a job and training to all those leaving the education system. The Minister of Labour (Ministère du Travail) has announced that it is hoped that some 400 000 young people will be able to take advantage of the measures. However, they constitute only part of the overall strategy to combat youth unemployment, and further measures are expected to be announced before the end of 1978.

*Sources:*

Actualité de la Formation Permanente No 35, July/August, 1978. Paris, Centre Inffo.

Formation Professionnelle — Bulletin de Liaison du Secrétariat Général de la Formation Professionnelle, No 78/4, August 1978.

Le Monde. Paris, 24 and 25 September 1978.

## Training firms in the Federal Republic of Germany

### The training firm

The training firm (Übungsfirma) is a firm which is operated exclusively for the purpose of providing practice-oriented initial and continuing vocational training in commercial occupations.

Similarly to the apprentice shop or the laboratory in the technical field, the training firm has the task in the commercial field of transmitting, deepening, and upgrading practical knowledge and skills.

The training firm differs essentially from the training shop (Übungskontor) of vocational schools, the fictitious firm (Scheinfirma), etc., at which practical commercial work is simply simulated (for example, fictitious business transactions are conducted, fictitious cases are handled). In the training firm the practical commercial work is by contrast not fictitious in nature. In other words, the workplaces, work instruments, and job tasks actually exist and therefore need not be simulated. This is possible mainly for two reasons:

- The training firm does not operate in isolation. On the contrary, it is joined together with a large number of other training firms, all of which do business with one another;
- The training firm is organized in accordance with business management criteria which are adhered to in the actual business world.

Characteristic for a training firm as compared with an actual firm is the fact that, in line with its given role, it is considerably smaller in magnitude with regard to both the number of workplaces and the duration of work. The training firm usually has from fifteen to thirty workplaces which together cover all the functions of the firm. Working hours in most of the training firms range between six and forty hours a week.

The office equipment is identical with that which is customarily in use in actual firms. A complete set of printed business forms and the utilization of modern work techniques ensure that the commercial work carried out accurately corresponds to that in actual business practice.

A training firm often works together with a sponsor firm which supplies it with important data. The sponsor firm also makes part or all of its products available on the training firm market.

Every training firm is obliged to observe at both internal and external level all commercial, fiscal, and other relevant regulations of a legal nature. Exemptions from this legal obligation are in principle permissible only for reasons which relate to pedagogy.

### Federation of Training Firms

Taken individually, no training firm is in a position to provide practice-oriented initial and continuing vocational training. However, this does become possible when the firm is linked with other training firms with which it does business. It was in order to achieve this linkage that the Federation of Training Firms was established. An institution under public law, the Federation has its headquarters in Heidelberg and is responsible to the Stiftung Rehabilitation.

At the time of the Federation's establishment at the beginning of 1978 membership consisted of 160 training firms. By the end of 1978 the number had risen to more than 200.

Training firms are financed and operated by a number of organizations:

— *Training firms of the occupational promotion centres*

The occupational promotion centres (Berufsförderungswerke) are concerned with occupational rehabilitation. Handicapped adults

who have been employed but who for health reasons have had to give up their job are retrained here for work in another occupation. This second training takes the form of commercial training leading to a certificate issued by a Chamber of Industry and Commerce, a technical school diploma, or a technical college diploma. The training firms transmit the practical skills involved in this commercial training.

— *Training firms of large economic enterprises*

In addition to their training activities within the dual system, many large economic enterprises operate their own training firms in order to broaden their training offer. The trainees are thus enabled to gain an insight into all the concern's operations and better understand its inner workings. Furthermore, the training firm provides the trainees with an opportunity to become familiarized with and apply working methods and techniques other than those they are learning in the concern.

— *Training firms of the training institutions run by the trade unions*

The training institutions run by the trade unions have set up training firms primarily for the purpose of offering continuing training to businessmen. Theoretically qualified businessmen and young businessmen with limited experience are given the opportunity of putting their acquired knowledge to actual practice and gaining more professional experience in the field of commerce. Businessmen with many years of business practice behind them are enabled to broaden their professional knowledge and become familiarized with new techniques of organization and work.

— *Training firms of the schools*

The training firms of the state-run vocational schools and commercial schools undertake to transmit practice-oriented knowledge and skills in the commercial field in the interest of effectively supplementing theory-oriented school instruction.

The training firms of the Federation of Training Firms constitute in their totality an economic circuit which collaborates closely with comparable economic circuits in Austria, Sweden, and Switzerland. All important economic

branches and authorities to be found in the actual economy are represented in this economic circuit.

By virtue of the business relations which they maintain with one another and which call for constant reciprocal review and control, the training firms have not only the opportunity but also the obligation to operate on a basis which is as close to actual business practice as is possible, and if a training firm is to remain competitive, it must eliminate as rapidly as possible any managerial or organizational weakness which may thus become apparent.

### Central office of the training firms

The Central Office of the Training Firms (Zentralstelle der Übungsfirmen) is the administrative organ of the Federation of Training Firms. It conducts the business of the Federation and represents the Federation's interests at external level. At internal level the Central Office of the Training Firms discharges a number of functions, the most important of which are as follows:

— *Provision of information to the training firms*

The training firms are provided with information material on matters relating to organization and management and on pedagogic, economic, and administrative matters;

— *Coordination of organs*

The meetings of the organs of the Federation of Training Firms, namely, the General Meeting and the Advisory Committee, are coordinated and prepared;

— *Organization of the Training Firms Trade Fair*

The Training Firms Trade Fair, which takes place each year in a different city, is prepared in detail and organized at the place of venue;

— *Handling of the correspondence of the training firms*

Correspondence in connection with the operation and management of the training firms is received, sorted, and mailed out to the respective addresses;

— *Invitation to bid for public contracts*

For investments of the Economic Circuit Federation of Training Firms (Volkswirtschaft Übungsfirmen) and for economic action programmes the

Central Office extends, as the need arises, invitations to bid for public contracts;

— *Operation of the revenue office*

The Central Office's revenue office assigns tax numbers to the training firms and processes main taxes such as turnover tax, wage tax, income tax, church tax, property tax, corporation tax, and trade tax, whereby it places the same demands on the training firms as the real revenue office places on real firms. Furthermore, the revenue office prepares and distributes to the training firms printed instructions on how to fill in the tax returns, prepares and issues tax assessments, analyses the annual statements of the training firms, etc;

— *Operation of the labour office*

The Central Office's labour office functions as the office which assigns firm identification numbers (Betriebsnummernstelle) and provides funds in the form of part-time employment allowances, subsidies to promote building construction during the winter months, work induction allowances, integration allowances, etc.;

— *Operation of the customs office*

The Central Office's customs office carries out all customs operations normally encountered in actual practice in connection with import and export transactions. Above all beer taxes, import turnover taxes, and mineral oil taxes are levied;

— *Management of the health insurance schemes*

The health insurance schemes of the Central Office, both the official scheme and the supplementary private schemes, discharge concrete functions in the fields of notification of sickness procedure, legal regulations governing health insurance membership and insurance payments, payment of sickness benefits and maternity allowances, and reimbursements to employers under the Continued Wage Payment Act. These functions are supported by a constant flow of information to the training firms, whereby here, too, printed forms are used which are identical with those used in actual business practice.

Source:

Stiftung Rehabilitation Heidelberg.

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## SHORT NEWS

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### EC—Dublin Foundation Inauguration

The formal inauguration of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions took place in Dublin on 3 October 1978 in the presence of Dr P. J. Hillery, President of Ireland, and an audience representing social affairs interests at national and European Community levels.

Among those taking part in the opening ceremony were Mr H. Vredeling, Vice-President of the Commission, Dr H. Ehrenberg, Minister for Labour and Social Affairs of the Federal Republic of Germany, Mr J. Degimbe, the Commission's Director-General for Social Affairs, Mr Liam Kavanagh, a member of the European Parliament, and Mr W. De Jong, Director of the Foundation.

The Foundation was established by a decision taken by the Council of Ministers on 26 May 1975 (Regulation (EEC) No 1365/75) as a result of joint deliberations among the social partners, Member States, and Community institutions on ways and means of solving the increasingly complex problems of improving living and working conditions.

The main tasks of the Foundation are to develop thinking in regard to the improvement of the living environment and working conditions in the medium and long term and to disseminate the kind of information which would help this evolution. This involves the exchange of information and ideas among the Member States, the promotion of research, and the collection and processing of data which would help in devising common policies.

The Foundation has a Management Board representing government, employer, employee, and Commission interests. Liaison between the Foundation and the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training on matters of common interest is well established. The Centre in Berlin and the Foundation in Dublin were both created to implement some of the recommendations in the Community's Social Action Programme.

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### EC—Franco-Dutch colloquium

A Franco-Dutch *colloquium on training for teachers of technical subjects* was held near Paris from 9 to 11 May 1978. This follows the Franco-Dutch conference on vocational training which took place in October 1976 in Zandvoort. (See Short News, Bulletin No 4, 1976). At the colloquium the systems of teacher-training in the two countries were described and discussed, from which it appeared that they varied greatly. Delegates considered the problems of integrating more and/or longer periods of practical training into theoretical training, what effects modern teaching methods and techniques would have on teacher-training, and continuing training and updating for teachers. It was agreed that there should be more exchange study visits, and a third colloquium is planned to continue discussions in the Netherlands in 1980. A report of the colloquium can be obtained from the Dutch Ministry of Education and Science.

#### Sources:

European Communities—Commission Background Report ISEC/B68/78, EC Information Office, London, 1 November 1978.

De Standaard, Brussels, 9 June 1978.

Uitleg 561, The Hague, 30 August 1978.

### Denmark

A law to help long-term unemployed persons came into force on 1 October 1978. Under the law, which has been sponsored by the government and the Employers' Federation (Arbejdsgiverforening), the government will help finance the employment by both public and private sector employers of persons who have worked a total of less than 26 weeks over the last four years. The period of employment will be nine months, and it is hoped that employers will offer training during this time. Since this training will be effected at minimal cost to the employers, it is further hoped

that they may be induced to retain their newly recruited personnel. All firms of ten or more employees will be approached under the scheme, and job offers will be coordinated on a local level. Denmark has approximately 11 000 people who could benefit from this new law, 50% of whom are women.

An *experiment in continuing education using correspondence course techniques* is currently being carried out in three different parts of the country. Under the scheme people without qualifications of any kind can study at home for single subjects which count towards certificates at O and A level respectively (folkeskolens afgangsprøver or studentereksamen). Students are sent video and audio cassettes which they can play at any convenient time, and local centres have been set up for those students who do not have their own playback facilities at home. The experiment, which was suggested by the Minister of Education (Undervisningsminister), is being carried out in vastly differing areas of the country, namely, Bornholm, a small island; Århus, the second largest city in Denmark; and southern Jutland, where previous distance learning projects have been carried out. It is hoped, however, that the new scheme will be extended to cover the whole country by 1980. In the meantime the experiment is being carried out in two phases. The first took the form of an advertising campaign on television and radio and the showing of programmes on study techniques. Students involved in the initial stages of the scheme have been sent material from further education programmes produced in former years for television transmission. The second phase starts in 1979 and will see the use of new tapes specially produced for the scheme. Students participating in the experiment receive all their materials free of charge.

#### Source:

Berlingske Tidende, Copenhagen, 14 July and 12 August 1978.

### Federal Republic of Germany

The conditions under which *partial exemption from initial vocational training* must be granted to a young person who has completed a basic vocational training year (Berufsgrundbildungsjahr (BGJ)) at a school have been redefined in the New BGJ Credit Regulation (Neue-BGJ-Anrechnungs-

Verordnung). The new regulation specifies for each vocational field the amount of time to be spent on theory and on practical work during basic training, and in some cases vocational fields have been subdivided so that individual jobs can be more appropriately allocated to them. Young people completing a BGJ course after 1 August qualify only for a credit of half a year towards training for certain jobs within the traditional dual vocational training system. This ruling applies to jobs requiring only two years' training, namely, jobs as motor mechanics, auto electricians, radio or television technicians and jobs requiring specialization in a subject area not covered sufficiently in the BGJ course.

The diagram illustrates how the importance of the basic vocational training year has grown over the past few years. By 1977/78 there were 39 000 young people taking BGJ courses either in schools or in the 'cooperative' form, i.e. following basic training courses within the dual system. 65 500 places on full-time courses are planned for 1979. It is hoped that the new credit regulation will make it easier for young people who have followed these courses to find opportunities to gain a full professional qualification within the traditional dual system.

— A massive increase in the financial provision for social integration measures

for children of migrant workers is planned in the 1979 Federal Budget. The Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs (Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung) is to provide DM 16.5 million for this purpose, an increase of DM 10 million over the allocation for 1978. Measures to improve the social and vocational integration of young people of foreign parentage who have not attained a school-leaving certificate represent the mainstay of federal policy on integration. One hundred and fifty courses of this nature were running when the draft 1979 budget was announced, and this provision will be expanded in 1979. The extra funds will also allow more children to receive the help in coping with their homework and their leisure time (at present about 13 000 receive assistance), and there will be further improvement in language course provision.

— Eleven local *continuing education counselling centres* have been set up to counsel unemployed persons in areas where there is a high incidence of structural unemployment. These centres have been established under a project which the German Institute for Urban Studies (Deutscher Institut für Urbanistik) initiated in 1975, and the interim report has recently been published. Funds for the project amounted to DM 6 million (DM 4.5 million was provided by the central government and DM 1.5 million by the

local authorities). The project is mainly concerned with finding ways to approach, motivate, and present information on continuing education to unemployed persons, assisting course organizers by suggesting possible new measures, and promoting social and personal development, particularly among unemployed persons with few vocational skills and little education. The centres offer a variety of information and are able to help with a wide range of problems, but inquiries have so far most frequently concerned job-related continuing education (24%), reintegration into working life (18%), general education (13.5%), and assistance in dealing with the local employment office (10%). The Institute's work has revealed that many unemployed persons would welcome morning courses, and several educational bodies have been persuaded to meet the need for short courses to explain second-chance education and discuss the causes and effects of unemployment. The project is now entering its optimization phase, which runs to September 1979. During this period the project management will discuss with the local authorities whether and in what form the information centres are to continue.

#### Sources:

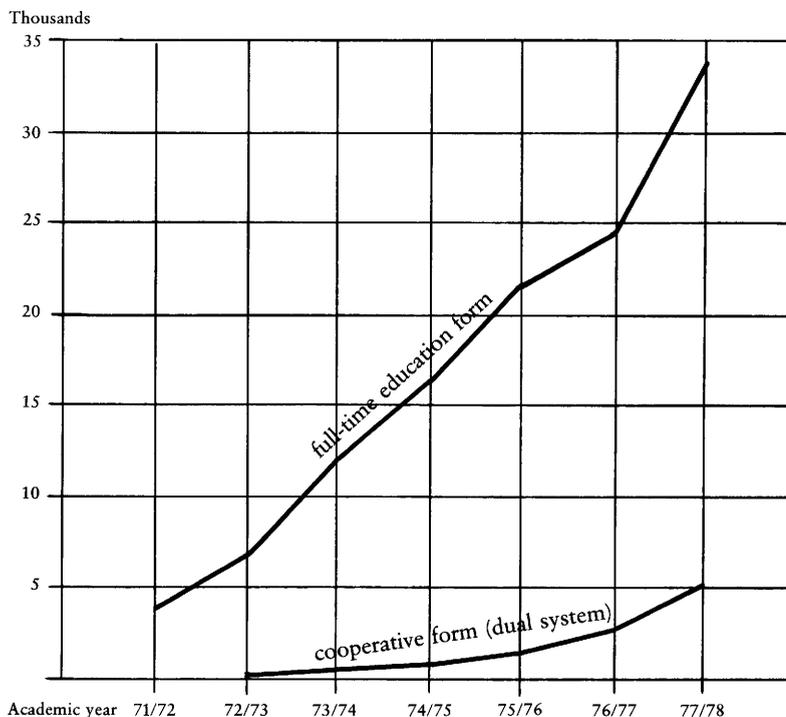
Informationen für die Beratungs- und Vermittlungsdienste, Nos 34 and 39, Nuremberg, 23 August and 27 September 1978.

Informationen—Bildung und Wissenschaft 9/78, Bonn, September 1978.

Sozialpolitische Informationen. Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Sozialordnung, Vol. XII/18, Bonn, 11 October 1978.

#### France

In presenting the *vocational training budget* for 1979 in September, the Secretary of State for Vocational Training (Secrétaire d'Etat chargé de la formation professionnelle) announced that there would be a large increase over the provision for 1978. Although the final amounts still have to be accepted by Parliament, FF 6 737 million have been allocated to training, compared with FF 4 988 million in 1978, an increase of some 36%. The area allocated the greatest increase is payments to trainees. Funds for this purpose are being increased from FF 1 770 million in 1978 to FF 2 799 million in 1979. This includes payments made under the Second National Employment Programme (Pacte national pour l'emploi).



Berufsgrundbildungsjahr (basic vocational training year) Growth in participant numbers 1971/72—1977/78

— The *contribution of employers to the financing of their employees' training has been raised* from 1% to 1.1% of each firm's payroll for 1978. In addition, those employers obliged to contribute to the financing of continuing vocational training measures were required to partly fulfil this obligation by paying to the treasury 0.2% of the equivalent of last year's total payroll 9 plus 8% by 15 September 1978.

*Sources:*

Le Monde, Paris, 24 and 25 September 1978.

Inffo Flash., Centre Inffo., Paris, 5 July 1978.

## Republic of Ireland

This summer over 3 500 trainees took part in the career training programmes organized by AnCO—The Industrial Training Authority for young people who left full-time education some time ago and who have found difficulty in securing full-time employment. The programmes lasted six weeks and were conducted in 158 colleges and vocational schools throughout the country. Their aim was to give the trainees experience of practical work and to help them develop a job-seeking strategy. During the course the trainees spent three days each week with employers and two days in college. They were encouraged to look for jobs beyond industry in retail

shops, hospitals, government, and semi-government bodies. Some colleges were able to organize special project work. For example, trainees on a programme in Dublin designed a new road/rail inner city traffic plan to cope with traffic congestion in Dublin.

*Source:*

AnCO News No 51, Dublin, July/August, 1978.

## United Kingdom

*Training of Trainers* is the first report of the Training of Trainers Committee, which was set up in 1976 by the Manpower Services Commission (MSC). The Committee was asked to consider the roles, relationships, training needs, and current training of staff with training responsibilities and to make recommendations to the MSC's Director of Training on the pattern, provision, and evaluation of such training. This first report is applicable to those who organize, manage, or advise on training. One of its main recommendations is that introductory training officer courses, originally patterned from the Central Training Council's 1966 report, should be phased out in favour of a range of core-competency programmes. In view of the many differences in the backgrounds, roles, career paths, and working

environments of training staff, a need was felt for the flexibility offered by core-competency training which would allow training programmes to be designed to meet specific needs. The report recommends that MSC set up a voluntary registration scheme for organizations running core-competency programmes which comply with the code of practice laid down in an appendix to the report and that these training organizations be enabled to derive certain benefits from registration. MSC is to collaborate closely with the Institute for Personnel Management and the Institution of Training Officers in an effort to determine the relationships between these core-competency programmes and professional qualifications. However, the idea of establishing a nationally recognized qualification for trainers has been rejected for the time being. A further proposal concerns setting up a National Advisory Group to oversee and coordinate the continuing development of training for training personnel, and to review progress. The Committee hopes to submit its second report, which will concern the training of direct 'face-to-face' trainers, to MSC in mid-1979.

*Source:*

Training of Trainers. MSC, Training Services Division, London, October 1978.

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