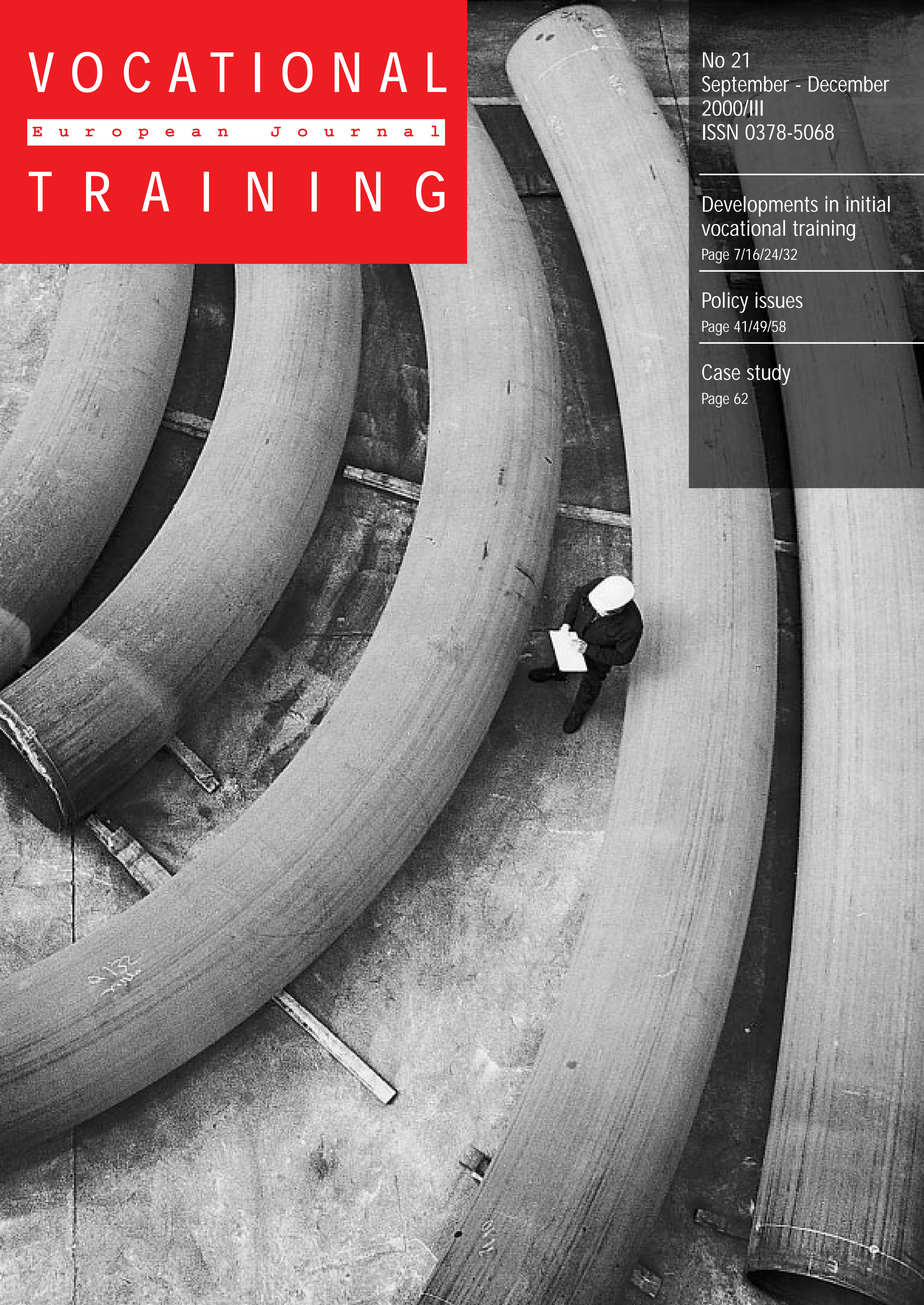

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Developments in initial vocational training
Page 7/16/24/32

Policy issues
Page 41/49/58

Case study
Page 62

Cedefop 1975 to 2000

Cedefop has now been in existence for 25 years. This represents a quarter of a century of research, policy advice, information and documentation in the field of vocational training in Europe. Cedefop has been located in Thessaloniki since 1995, after nearly two decades in Berlin following its establishment in 1975.

During this time Cedefop has helped the European Commission, the EU Member States and the social partners to develop vocational training policy in Europe. It has provided them with technical support and expert advice. And been a useful – if sometimes critical – partner in vocational training policy in Europe.

Over the past 25 years Cedefop has conducted hundreds of studies, and held countless seminars and conferences. Cedefop has published innumerable titles since it was set up. There is scarcely an aspect of European vocational training that it has not tackled. This amounts to a wealth of scientific findings, policy recommendations and assistance that have influenced policy and practice in vocational training in Europe.

Anniversaries always provide an opportunity to look back. Doing so enables us not only to assess our past achievements, but also to judge the present and anticipate the future.

A look back

In 1970, nearly all Western education systems were in a state of crisis, the clearest manifestation of which was the student unrest of the late 1960s. A renewed sense of purpose pervaded the field of education policy in the Federal Republic of Germany, France and other European countries. Education, training, science and research were at the top of the reform agenda. Governments and trade unions in particular started to tackle the problems of initial and further training. They called for a focused and systematic improvement of vocational training through research.

In the Federal Republic of Germany the Federal Institute for Vocational Training Research (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildungsforschung) was founded in 1969. In 1970 in France, the Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications (CEREQ), and in Austria the Österreichisches Institut für Berufsbildungsforschung (ÖIBF) were founded followed in 1973 by the Istituto per lo sviluppo della formazione professionale dei lavoratore (ISFOL), in Rome.

At international level too the reform debate was in full swing. In 1969 UNESCO set up the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, following the OECD's Centre for Vocational Training (CERI) established a year earlier in Paris.

Within the then European Economic Community, the Economic and Social Committee (ESC) set up a study group with the task of drawing up a description and an opinion on education and training systems in the EEC.

The committee's proposal to set up a European Institute for Vocational Training Research and Guidance bore an unmistakably German hallmark. The political impact of the study cannot be overestimated and the rapporteur Maria Weber (the Vice-chair of the Confederation of German Trade Unions) took as her model the Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildungsforschung. The role proposed for the European Institute mirrored at European level that of the Berlin Institute, both in terms of content and organisation. Thus Maria Weber succeeded in preparing the way at European level for a scientific approach to vocational training issues.

The Berlin years

On 10 February 1975 the Council of Ministers decided to establish the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop). West Berlin was chosen to deliver a political message: that West Berlin was part of the European Community.

The founding regulation expressly stipulated that Cedefop was to help develop and coordinate research in the relevant fields. At the time, however, research into vocational training was the domain of state institutions. It was carried on largely in isolation from research by similar institutions in other countries and focused exclusively on the internal needs of the vocational training system.

Against that background the newly established Cedefop quickly became a 'market leader'. While it is true that a scientific approach to vocational training policy issues was also being taken elsewhere, it seldom encompassed a number of countries at the same time, and practically never involved a European comparison.

Besides international cooperation and dissemination of information and documentation, close attention was paid to the development of research. Cedefop commissioned numerous studies and research projects and often broke new scientific ground; either in the themes tackled or by its complementary nature.

There was a rapid increase in the demand for scientifically-validated information on vocational training issues in Europe and for international comparative data and research. In the Member States private and university research institutes were asked to conduct research that had been Cedefop's exclusive domain. Cedefop responded to the new market situation with new offers of research cooperation. From 1985 onwards it held annual research forums for organisations active in the field of vocational training in the Member States. National research institutes were thus given opportunities to exchange experience and encouragement to participate in international cooperation.

New start in Thessaloniki

There has been much speculation about how the Heads of State and Government of the EU decided in October 1993 to move Cedefop from Berlin to Thessaloniki. In any event, it came as a surprise to everyone. But in fact the transfer was not so abrupt. The reunification of Germany nullified the foreign policy argument that had justified the move to Berlin (West) in 1975. The *Land* Government tried to keep Cedefop in Berlin – in the end unsuccessfully. In the context of the decision to locate the European Central Bank in Frankfurt, it was agreed to transfer Cedefop to Thessaloniki, Greece.

The decision created enormous problems for staff and their families. Many were unable to follow Cedefop to Thessaloniki for personal and social reasons, and individual and personal sacrifices were made. But an opportunity also arose to renew Cedefop and make a fresh start. That opportunity was seized and, looking back, Cedefop has benefited from the transfer to Thessaloniki.

Over the past 25 years, Cedefop has become the central point of reference for vocational training in the EU. It has more staff and is 'younger' than ever. Its tasks have become even more varied. Its products and services are geared to a clientele that is growing day by day: European Commission, Member States, social partners, European Parliament, and regional authorities, as well as scientists and vocational training practitioners, both in the Member States of the EU, in the associated countries (Iceland and Norway) and the candidate countries.

Over the last 25 years Cedefop has acquired a great deal of know-how and expertise in its traditional fields of activity:

a) selecting, compiling and evaluating data on vocational training;

b) participating in and coordinating research projects;

c) processing and disseminating information on the subject of initial and continuing vocational training in Europe;

d) and finally supporting and promoting a focused and multi-national approach to solving problems associated with vocational training.

Cedefop has constantly encouraged the VET research and has undoubtedly contributed to the Europeanisation of vocational training.

Cedefop has spacious, modern and well-equipped office facilities. Every year thousands of experts from all over the world

visit Cedefop and take part in seminars and conferences.

Cedefop has adapted to new socio-economic demands.

Cedefop works in partnership with the European Commission. It has improved and intensified the tried and tested forms of cooperation with governments and social partners in the Member States. The focus of its work, however, is not institutions groups or associations, but people; it is people that Cedefop seeks to help.

Cedefop is 25 years old. It is in its prime and is constantly developing. It stands by its mission and is convinced of the value of vocational training in developing and maintaining social ties. The continued support of all of you who share our convictions is highly valued.

Johan van Rens
Director

S. Oliver Lübke
Chairman of the Management Board

www.trainingvillage.gr/etv
www.cedefop.eu.int

Correction

The following acknowledgement was omitted from page 37 of Issue 20 of the European Training Journal:

"Working to learn: an holistic approach to young people's education and training" by Peter Senker, Helen Rainbird, Karen Evans, Phil Hodkinson, Ewart Keep, Malcolm Maguire, David Raffe and Lorna Unwin, appeared as a chapter in 'Apprenticeship: Towards a new paradigm of learning' edited by Patrick Ainley and Helen Rainbird and published by Kogan Page, London.

This article was reproduced with the kind permission of Kogan Page Publishers Ltd.

We apologise for the error.

Table of contents

Developments in initial vocational training

**Qualified Vocational Education beyond 2000 -
a report from a pilot project in Sweden** **7**
Jan Johansson, Torsten Björkman, Marita Olsson, Mats Lindell
The results of the QVE pilot project, introducing a new form of post-secondary vocational education, suggests it has been a success. Its future direction is a decision that belongs to the political process.

**Documented partial competence. A third way to a diploma
in upper-secondary education in Norway** **16**
Karl J. Skårbrevik, Finn Ove Båtevik
Four projects that developed programmes for partial documented competence raised legal and structural obstacles.

Vocational education and training in schools - an Australian initiative: towards the integration of vocational and academic studies in the senior secondary curriculum **24**
John Polesel
Initial findings are that the Vocational Education in Schools initiative has been successful in integrating general and vocational studies at upper-secondary level

**Curriculum development in the dual vocational training system
in Germany** **32**
Klaus Halfpap
A number of pilot projects have been conducted in Germany to test and evaluate action-based learning across subjects.

Policy issues

**The active roles of learning and social dialogue
for organisational change** **41**
Michael Kelleher, Peter Cressey
The social dialogue can be the decisive factor in the process of competence development, reskilling, training and the development of human investment by enterprises.

**Political and legal framework for the development of training policy
in the European Union. Part II - From Maastricht to Amsterdam** **49**
Steve Bainbridge, Julie Murray
The European Union vocational training policy framework has supported the development of lifelong learning, but in contrast with employment policy there is a question as to whether the role of the European Union as a reference point for national policies is being sufficiently acted upon.

The European Court of Justice advancing Student Mobility **58**
Walter Demmelhuber
A comprehensive European education policy concerning the exchange of students during their studies and the rights of free movers has to be introduced as soon as possible.

Case study

***Héraclès*, an association project for the social and occupational integration of disabled workers** 62
Marc Schaeffer
The Heracles project broke away from the institutional way in which sheltered work facilities operated

Reading

Reading selection 70

Qualified Vocational Education beyond 2000 - a report from a pilot project in Sweden

Jan Johansson
University of New South Wales, Australia and Luleå University of Technology, Sweden.

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A new form of qualified vocational education (QVE) was introduced as a pilot project in Sweden. QVE is a new form of post-secondary education, long requested by industry. In QVE, one-third of instructional time is advanced application of theoretical knowledge at a workplace. This article reports on the evaluation of the pilot project and suggests that QVE has been successful. It goes on to discuss four options for continuing QVE in Sweden - but the choice belongs to the political process.

Introduction

A pilot project involving qualified vocational education (QVE) has been carried out in Sweden[2]. The purpose of the QVE pilot project was to compile experience relating to new courses, new educational forms and new course providers. Concurrently with the project, was the opportunity to investigate the extent of interest in this type of vocational education in labour market and the students involved. From those experiences the Swedish Parliament will decide the future development of the QVE in 2000.

This article is based on an evaluation of the QVE pilot project (Björkman et al., 1999).

The Swedish school system

The Swedish state school system comprises compulsory school and various types of voluntary schooling. Voluntary schools comprise upper-secondary school and municipal adult education. Almost all pupils attending compulsory basic school continue directly to upper-secondary school. Most complete their upper-secondary schooling within three years.

Municipalities in Sweden are required by law to offer upper-secondary schooling to all students who have completed their compulsory schooling. Upper secondary schools in Sweden provide basic skills both for working life and life in the community. There are 16 national programmes, all lasting three years. All upper-secondary programmes contain eight core subjects. English, art, physical and health education, mathematics, natural science, civics, Swedish and religious education. Students who plan on attending upper-secondary school opt for one of the 16 programmes. In principle, students have the right to be admitted to the option selected.

Fourteen programmes include vocational subjects and must include at least 15 weeks at a workplace outside the school. The other two programmes, the natural science and the social science programmes, focus more on university preparation.

Adult education in Sweden is extensive and based on a long tradition. It is provided in many different forms, ranging from national or municipal adult education to labour market training, staff training and competence development at work.

Qualified vocational education

Into this schooling system, a new form of qualified vocational education (QVE) was introduced as a pilot project. QVE is a new form of post-secondary education that for a long time had been asked for by industry. In QVE one-third of instructional time is advanced application of theoretical knowledge at a workplace. The aim was that these courses should not be organised as a traditional traineeship period, but rather revolve around active workplace-based learning and problem solving within an overall educational context. Courses were also meant to be based on close co-operation between work-

1) The authors would like to thank Professor Michael Quinlan, University of New South Wales, for his valuable comments on an earlier draft of this article. Thanks are also due to Maria Fredriksson, Rickard Garvare, Bengt Klefsjö, Mats Lindell, Antony Lindgren, and Magnus Svensson for their contributions to the project.

2) The conditions of the pilot project were set up in a Act (SFS 1996:339) and a government Regulation (SFS 1996:372).

"QVE is a new form of post-secondary education that for a long time had been asked for by industry. In QVE one-third of instructional time is advanced application of theoretical knowledge at a workplace. The aim was that these courses should not be organised as a traditional traineeship period, but rather revolve around active workplace-based learning and problem solving within an overall educational context."

"There were two main objections to the new model. First, (...) whether industry would provide enough trainee jobs. Second, (...) whether QVE should be organized as a new educational system or one within universities and colleges."

places and various course providers (upper-secondary school, municipal adult education, colleges and universities, commercial educators). There were no restrictions in terms of occupational categories in which QVE was to be provided. The courses were opened to those coming directly from upper-secondary school and also to those already gainfully employed wishing to develop skills within a defined area. The QVE courses were financed by government but industry met part of the costs for the workplace-based learning.

Even in the formulation stages, the new concept of vocational education did not escape criticism. There were two main objections to the new model. First, there was a question as to whether industry would provide enough trainee jobs. Second, there was a debate over whether QVE should be organized as a new educational system or one within universities and colleges. The second discussion included a debate over whether QVE was actually post-secondary level and if so, whether it should be integrated into the university system. Partly as a result of these debates, the QVE started as a pilot project to compile experiences relating to new courses, new educational forms and new course providers.

Method

The basic part of our model of evaluation was self-evaluation by the various courses. The aim of this self-evaluation was twofold. Primarily, self-evaluation was seen as a rational way of getting part of the information needed for our examination. At the same time, it was also hoped that the self-evaluation process would encourage participants to reflect on their own work and thereby provide an instrument for quality improvements over time. The next step in our process of evaluation was to visit 24 of the courses to clarify and expand on their self-evaluations, and at the same time try to evaluate validity. These visits were organised to make it possible for all parties to be heard.

The self-evaluation and our visits to the different courses described above were supplemented with a series of questionnaire studies directed to each student. The first (9,804 students)[3] was distributed at the beginning of the period of studies and was directed to get facts about the students' social and educational backgrounds. Some questions dealt with course choices and student expectations. The second questionnaire (4,586 students)[4] was distributed during the latter part of the education programmes and focused on the experience of the courses. The third questionnaire (1,293 students)[5] was carried out six months after the education programmes ended to get as many students as possible entering the labour market, 'the moment of truth', when their expectations are confirmed or not. This questionnaire included questions about the experience of the different courses as well as their confrontation with the labour market.

Content and structure of qualified vocational education

The Commission on Qualified Vocational Education, established by the government, administered the pilot project. The commission comprises representatives of a number of political parties, labour market organisations, the municipalities and higher education institutes.

The commission invited various actors to take part in the pilot project. More than 800 applicants expressed an interest. The commission approved 208 programmes during the first three years. The three largest course providers were municipalities i.e. upper-secondary schools and adult education (59 %), private institutes and training companies (19 %) and universities and colleges (15 %).

The education was post-secondary, in the sense that completed upper-secondary education or equivalent knowledge is required for eligibility. Our results show that 48 % of the students had completed the theoretical programmes of upper-secondary schools and 48 % the practical programmes (the remaining 4 % represented special cases including students from abroad).

The length of the courses varied between 40 and 120 points (i.e., they comprised

3) We received 7,908 answers (80,7 %).

4) We received 3,435 answers (74,9 %).

5) We received 1,124 answers (86,9 %).

40 to 120 weeks' full time study), with the most common being 80 points (76 %). Courses could be conducted in terms, or continuously with no division into terms. A course consisting of 80 points or more would culminate in a QVE certificate or diploma.

The knowledge content was taken from upper-secondary, supplementary and advanced courses, higher education, and working life. The teachers were employed on a permanent basis, or as casuals (to teach a particular issue or topic) or on fixed term contracts. The overall aim was that courses should combine a practical orientation with in-depth theoretical knowledge. The interplay between theory and workplace practice was seen as important both for course quality and to meet the needs of the labour market and students. The QVE students were entitled to study support according to current regulations for higher education.

Workplace learning was an important part in QVE. One-third of the course period was spent at the workplace; honing analytical ability, applying comprehensive and system approaches, and assuming responsibility. For this to work properly, advanced supervision was supposed to be available. The workplace had to be organized to make learning feasible, that was an important requirement. Although the aim of education and training at the workplace was to impart familiarity with an occupation or vocational area, it was not meant to be so narrow as conventional forms of in-house company training.

Given the importance of the workplace training part of QVE, active participation of employers in designing the courses was a requirement. Working life representatives were also required to make up a majority in the management group for a course.

Results

As might be expected, an evaluation of such a large pilot project as QVE generated results in many dimensions. Here we concentrate on three types of questions. First, what kind of courses did providers offer? What was the content and nature of the courses and how did they relate to the demands of the market? Secondly, how is workplace learning organised? Thirdly, what is the response from industry? What happens to students after their exams and what is their opinion of the courses in retrospective?

Table 1

Number of courses and students divided into sectors of the labour market.

Sector of labour market	Courses Number	%	Students Number	%
Manufacturing industry	52	25	2,306	22
Information technology	45	22	2,508	24
Business and administration	24	12	1,560	15
Tourism including restaurants	20	10	1,179	11
Construction industry	13	6	607	6
Others	13	6	437	4
Transport sector	10	5	574	5
Health care sector	9	4	284	3
Agriculture, forestry and gardening	8	4	327	3
Forestry industry	5	2	190	2
Environment sector	5	2	305	3
Food industry	4	2	206	2
Total	**208**	**100**	**10,483**	**100**

Courses related to the demands of the market

The guidelines for the pilot project were relatively unrestricted. This meant individual course providers were free to take initiatives and the courses offered can be seen as reflecting both the commission's and the course provider's image of the demands of the market. In qualifying the last point, it should be noted that one restriction imposed by the government was to require the commission to give priority to courses for technicians, information technology[6] and the health care sector[7]. With those restrictions in mind, the kind of courses offered are shown in table 1.

The first thing apparent from table 1 is the strong concentration of courses in four sectors of the labour market, namely manufacturing (22 %), information technology (24 %), business and administration (15 %) and tourism including restaurants (11 %). Together they attract around

6) Government Bill: Regeringens proposition 1997/98:150. *1998 års ekonomiska vårproposition* (The 1998 spring bill proposed by the Minister of Finance). Stockholm: Finansdepartementet.

7) Government Bill: Regeringens proposition 1997/98:113. *Nationell handlingsplan för äldrepolitiken* (National Program for the Elderly Politics). Stockholm: Socialdepartementet.

"The first thing apparent (...) is the strong concentration of courses in four sectors of the labour market, namely manufacturing (22 %), information technology (24 %), business and administration (15 %) and tourism including restaurants (11 %). Together they attract around 72 % of the students even though this in no way reflects the importance of these sectors in terms of overall employment."

"While this pattern of usage may be seen as meeting future labour market demands it is unlikely that changes in labour market demand will be so dramatic as to warrant the mismatch apparent here."

"(...) about 80 % of the courses could be described as focused on a specific vocation. The remainder were of a more general character, for example the courses in information technology (...)"

72 % of the students even though this in no way reflects the importance of these sectors in terms of overall employment. Eight sectors share the remaining 28 % of students.

Another remarkable observation is the degree of under-representation of some sectors. For example, the health care sector accounts for 15 % of total employment, but only secured three per cent of the students from the QVE programme despite priority ranking by the government (see above). On the other hand, the tourism sector represents just three per cent of the labour market but accounted for 11 % of QVE students. Information technology accounted for 24 % of QVE students, although it's difficult to estimate its employment share (a good estimation predicts no more than five per cent). This is one area where government priorities seem to have had an impact (or maybe demand just matched the priorities). While this pattern of usage may be seen as meeting future labour market demands it is unlikely that changes in labour market demand will be so dramatic as to warrant the mismatch apparent here.

It is perhaps easier to understand these imbalances as a response to current labour scarcity in several industries (notably information technology and tourism) rather than an overall matching of student numbers with the labour market. From that point of view we must understand the allocation of students as temporary and under constant reconsideration. That can explain the interest in the tourism sector. Tourism can probably use a thousand more students over the next few years, but it is by no means clear this demand will continue in the long run. The information technology sector is also lacking labour but here we might cast some doubts about the quality of the output from QVE to meet this demand. Many of the courses are not post-secondary level and should rather be integrated into upper-secondary school. We have described them as 'driving licence educations' that in the long run should be integrated in all courses.

Further, reference to labour demand factors alone cannot explain the low number of students from the health care sector. Here we meet another mechanism related to professionalism. Access to the health care sector in Sweden is strongly regulated by professional rules and laws. For example, you are prohibited to work as a doctor or a nurse without a professional qualification. To work as an assistant nurse or a hospital orderly you need an adequate education. In this well-regulated system it is important to define the professional borderlines in a precise way. Our impression is that QVE did not succeed very well in this regard. By way of comparison in the manufacturing sector, where we can find no such professional boundaries, industry and course providers have established a close relationship.

Character of the courses

In analysing the courses, another dimension was their characteristic components, industry focus and labour market responsiveness. Are they focused on specific vocations or are they more generally oriented towards a particular sector of the labour market? Do the courses penetrate new sectors of labour market or are they concentrated to the traditional sectors? Do the courses include elements of entrepreneurship and self-employment?

Our results show that about 80 % of the courses could be described as focused on a specific vocation. The remainder were of a more general character, for example the courses in information technology we previously described as 'driving licence educations'. Courses in the construction sector and in business and administration often were more general than others. Construction courses have conventionally focused on the management tasks of foremen and supervisors and the QVE programmes reflected this. Equally, courses in business usually have been of a general character. A great number of the courses were in fact aimed for promotion to some kind of foreman or supervisor. Those courses are often within mature sectors such as construction and manufacturing. Of course, the boundaries are hard to define. We are dealing with a continuum where some courses are more general than others. The big group of courses aimed for technicians in the manufacturing sector hard to characterise in terms of generality. On the one hand, they are very general, but on the other hand they have a well-defined pro-

fession in focus, namely engineers. It was decided to describe them as focused on a vocation. It remains to be seen if the market will accept them as engineers. We found no courses so general that students risked not gaining entry to the labour market.

Another ambition of QVE was to give preference to new sub-sectors and new vocations. Our results showed that most courses were in established sectors and aimed at established vocations. We did find some innovative courses in the environmental sector, information technology, and in business and administration. In one case there is a clear regulatory impetus to this. Sweden has recently enacted environmental legislation that requires companies and the public sector to address environmental questions in an appropriate way. At present, there is a lack of courses in this area. Information technology is more complex to analyze. In some sense the whole sector is new with new vocations and tasks, but degrees of novelty differ. We can find traditional courses in signal processing or software engineering as well as new ones focused on new vocations in the multi-media sector, such as web director. In the sector of business and administration there are some new courses in selling special products and some courses focused on international trade. The interest for international trade is related to Sweden joining the European Union.

Overall, many courses appear focused on areas experiencing labour shortages. The major demand is in private industry, notable examples are the lack of PC and other technicians in the information technology sector and foremen in the construction sector. Another large group can be identified in business and administration. What is asked for is a modern secretary who can handle new computerised tools such as Word and Excel as well as different types of accounting systems. These types of competences are especially sought after by workforce providers like Manpower (themselves undergoing significant growth).

About 25 % of courses contain elements of entrepreneurship and self-employment. Small sectors, such as the food and wood industries, have shown a greater interest for those subjects then the larger ones, and you can hardly find any in the big sectors of manufacturing and information technology. The courses in agriculture, forestry and gardening can be described as designed for successors, the heirs and heiresses taking over hereditary estates from their parents.

In summary, our analysis of courses indicates they have taken on forms other than those originally envisaged. Further, with the exception of information technology, the sectors where the courses were most enthusiastically received were not those envisaged in the initial policy debates or subsequent planning and implementation by the government. It was not predicted or planned that so many courses should focus on promotion to foreman nor on entrepreneurship and self-employment. Whether this shift is good or bad remains to be seen.

Workplace based learning

As previously mentioned, workplace learning is an important part of QVE. Since the guidelines for the pilot project were relatively free from restrictions it is interesting to see what came out, how workplace learning was organised and how it has been received and assessed by students and industry. From our material we can identify four types of workplace learning: trainee, project, apprenticeship and adoption.

Most common workplace learning was organized as a traditional trainee period. Students were supposed to put their theoretical knowledge into practice. Usually the students started with single sub-operations and gradually advanced to full time employed work.

Another common way of organizing workplace learning was in form of a workplace-based project. For example, students could develop a market plan or design web pages for a company. In this way, students developed their ability to plan and coordinate their own work, often in cooperation with other students and company staff.

A third form, used only in a few craft or trade courses, was the traditional apprenticeship. Under supervision of an experi-

"(...) most courses were in established sectors and aimed at established vocations."

"About 25 % of courses contain elements of entrepreneurship and self-employment. Small sectors, such as the food and wood industries, have shown a greater interest for those subjects then the larger ones (...)"

"(...) our analysis of courses indicates they have taken on forms other than those originally envisaged."

Table 2

Students occupation six months after their exams (Number and %)

	Number	%
Employed	845	75
University or college	82	7
Self-employed	50	4
Unemployed	153	14

"Overall, students were satisfied with the integration between school and the workplace based learning."

"(...) 84 % of students stated this integrated form of learning suited them best, and 89 % expressed satisfaction with their latest workplace based learning period."

"(...) 75 % of students were employed six months after finishing the courses. In the current labour market climate, this must be seen as a good result. In addition, four % had established their own companies."

enced tutor the students practised the trade and assimilated its traditions. What the students actually learnt depended on the tutor and on what kind of production was available for that period.

Finally, a few courses, focused on entrepreneurship and self-employment, used what we can describe as adoption. Students were adopted by a group of companies and together students, teachers and company representatives planned different types of workplace learning related to the needs of the individual students.

As previously mentioned, the QVE concept for vocational education was criticised for overestimating the interest of industry in this type of education. The main question was: Will industry provide enough workplaces meeting the needs of workplace based learning? This criticism proved to be exaggerated, at least as far as the pilot project was concerned. Most courses had little difficulty obtaining the required number of workplaces. Nonetheless, it is unclear whether workplace access will become a problem as the programme expands. We cannot tell how robust the system is. However, greater recognition and discussion of the QVE system is needed within industry if the system is to succeed in the future.

Overall, students were satisfied with the integration between school and the workplace based learning. Students told us they acquired a better understanding of theory after their workplace periods. They also found that schooling is necessary for working life and have acquired a more positive attitude towards the whole school system after their periods at the workplaces. Many students chose this form of education because all QVE courses involved workplace-based learning (equivalent to a third of the total learning period). Responding to one question, 84 % of students stated this integrated form of learning suited them best, and 89 % expressed satisfaction with their latest workplace based learning period. From our point of view, workplace learning can be seen as an interesting alternative for young people less motivated by theoretical studies.

Students and the labour market

A more definitive judgement of the QVE courses can be made on the basis of what happens to students after their exams and their opinions of the courses in retrospect. We asked students these questions six months after their exams[8].

From table 2 we can see that 75 % of students were employed six months after finishing the courses. In the current labour market climate, this must be seen as a good result. In addition, four % had established their own companies. This gives a total of 79 % in employment. Responding to one question, 84 % of the employed or self-employed stated they had work relevant to their QVE education. At the same time, it is still rather disappointing that, as table 2 indicates, 14 % of students were unemployed six months after finishing their courses. We also noticed a low level of transferability of QVE students to universities and colleges (only seven per cent). This was not unexpected since none of the courses were designed to facilitate such transfers.

One indicator on the quality of courses was student opinion. On the question 'Are you satisfied with your QVE?' 79 % of students answered 'Yes', and 76 % felt QVE was relevant for their present work. In relation to the length of the courses, 75 % thought it just right and 18 % thought it too short.

On the question 'Have the courses contributed to a raise in your salary?' only 56 % answered 'Yes'. That's rather low if we take into consideration that students usually have to finance their studies by loans. Salary increases related to QVE were most frequent in the information technology sector (69 %).

8) We have received answers from 1,124 students. Six of them declare themself both as university students and unemployed.

QVE in the future

In a large pilot project like QVE it is hard to say what is right or wrong and to give recommendations for the final structure for the new education system. There are so many political implications following each decision. Our contribution is to highlight major alternatives and spot their pros and cons. We are going to discuss four different future forms of QVE that we have called; integration, separation, prolongation and liquidation.

Before that discussion we want to state some important values to keep in mind regardless of the option chosen. First, it is important to note that the QVE programme should focus on vocational training and not on more generic education for work. Otherwise it will be difficult to draw the boundary to the general education of universities and colleges. Second, workplace based learning should be an essential part of QVE, especially given that it is a critical element in attracting students to the courses. Third, the positive commitment from employers and entrepreneurs must be encouraged to guarantee a future supply of places needed for workplace based learning. Fourth, the flexibility of QVE in terms of responding to changing labour market demands must be guaranteed. In addition, QVE has a problem in form of low visibility. What is needed is a strong identity that can attract both students and industry in an upscaled reform.

Integration - QVE as a part of universities and colleges

One alternative already discussed and rejected in the preparatory report was to integrate QVE in the regular university and college system. The reason for its rejection was a belief that the culture and traditions of universities would destroy the reform. In contrast, others have argued that universities constituted the best responsible authority and could provide a guarantee of quality.

The pilot project included 19 courses provided by universities and colleges. Our results indicated that these courses were neither better nor worse than those offered by other providers. For example, while it might be expected that universities would be more insistent on using well-educated and competent teachers in practice they 'bought in' teachers (outsourced teaching) in a way that was essentially similar to other providers. This may not seem surprising given our impression that QVE courses were viewed as remote from the core activity of the universities. In a couple of cases the courses were outsourced to commercial training companies.

Our opinion is that universities have potential to handle the four values stated above; focus on vocation, workplace based learning, the positive commitment from industry, and flexibility towards the labour market. Universities have a long tradition of workplace based learning and training in different professions. In particular, universities of technology have developed strong and positive relationships with industry. The university system also has a lot of experience in handling flexibility both in terms of students and economy.

The big problem with universities as course providers, revealed by our own research, is their lack of interest in QVE. We have few findings to substantiate that universities would take QVE to their hearts in the future and we think this is critical since such a commitment represents a core requirement for the programme's success.

Separation - QVE as a new organizational body

By separation we mean creating new local bodies for QVE with their own organisation for planing, prioritizing, evaluation and administration. When the proposal for QVE was discussed in parliament, concerns were voiced that these bodies could become second class universities. We feel there is some substance to this argument. If QVE is not a success with future employers and students we have indeed created a new second class educational system. On the other hand, a success would certainly yield benefits in terms of providing a vocationally focused educational path.

In the long run a new organisational body will promote the identity and visibility

"(...) the QVE programme should focus on vocational training and not on more generic education for work."

"(...) workplace based learning should be an essential part of QVE, (...) the positive commitment from employers and entrepreneurs must be encouraged (...) the flexibility of QVE in terms of responding to changing labour market demands must be guaranteed. In addition, QVE has a problem in form of low visibility. What is needed is a strong identity that can attract both students and industry in an up-scaled reform."

"(...) the overall impression is that that QVE has been successful and ought to be transferred into a permanent form."

needed for QVE. If QVE manages to create an identity the discussion of comparability with universities and colleges is no longer relevant and QVE is free to create its own traditions and roles. For example, you can ask if it is absolutely necessary that all students have an exam from post-secondary school.

If QVE can be geographically identified with a building or a campus area separated from other school forms, we think that will help in fostering a unique QVE-identity. To create the necessary conditions needs a concentration of resources. We recommend not less than five, preferably ten, courses at each organisational unit. Otherwise they will not be able to handle the demands for flexibility from the labour market. The geographical location of the campus seemed to be of no interest. We have found nothing supporting the assumption that young people prefer big cities in relation to small villages. What is important is to find courses that attract young students.

Prolongation - QVE as an administrative web

Prolongation does, in fact, mean accepting the organisation of today. The Commission on Qualified Vocational Education would be transformed into a public authority and provided with extended resources for planning, prioritizing, evaluation and administration. The commission would act in an administrative web and continue to purchase courses from different course providers. One advantage with prolongation is that the commission already has proved its ability to handle QVE in an appropriate way. Another advantage would be the possibility to make priorities on a national level, an advantage not used by the present commission.

One disadvantage with the web system is the low visibility of the QVE concept. Some courses will be related to upper-secondary school, some to municipal adult education and others to higher education or private companies. The identity problem will be obvious. Another disadvantage is the smallness of the different units. It will be hard to handle flexibility otherwise than with time-based employed teachers.

Liquidation - QVE as part of municipal adult education

Liquidation sounds more dramatic than it really is. What it actually means is QVE disappearing as a concept of its own and the courses being integrated into other educational systems, most of them to municipal adult education. There will probably be a few other course providers left, but the advantages of an administrative concentration are still obvious.

This solution would result in a considerable expansion of municipal adult education. In the pilot project these course providers have shown both interest and competence to handle different kinds of courses. Another advantage is that big course providers can handle flexibility. What is problematic with this form of organization is the total loss of visibility for QVE and it is up to the individual courses to make themselves visible to former students and employers.

A political decision

Our evaluation suggests that the QVE pilot project has been successful. Students have been attracted to the courses. Course providers have undertaken their duties in a serious way. Companies have supported the scheme by providing sufficient places for workplace based learning and the vast majority of students have obtained jobs related to this training after their exams. Of course we have found minor problems, mentioned in our main report, but the overall impression is that that QVE has been successful and ought to be transferred into a permanent form.

We have pointed out four possible directions for the future. Each direction has strengths and weaknesses. The choice of direction is a political decision. If the parliament chooses integration or separation QVE will get its identity, in the case of integration by borrowing its identity from the universities. The choice of separation is a little more risky, but if it succeeds the benefits will be substantial. If parliament chooses prolongation or liquidation a positive outcome is guaranteed, but probably on a lower level.

The political choice has implications for many levels in society. Do we want a cen-

tralized or decentralized educational system? Do we wish to create opportunities for private educational companies or is education something that is best handled by the state-owned school system? These questions and many other decisions belong to the political process.

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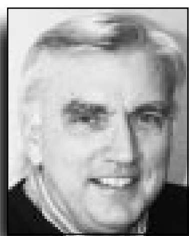

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Documented partial competence
A third way to a diploma in upper-secondary education in Norway

Documented partial competence refers to an alternative diploma for students who are not able, or for some reasons do not want to graduate from upper-secondary schools in Norway with a regular diploma. The article describes four projects initiated by the government that developed programmes for students who aimed at partial documented competence, and presents some of the conclusions from the projects. Legal as well structural problems that represents obstacles to such programmes are identified.

Introduction

Vocational training of disadvantaged young people in Norway can be dated back to the beginning of the fifties. The Special School Act passed by the legislators in 1951 obliged the federal authorities to provide special vocational schools for certain categories of handicapped students. These provisions were integrated in the Act of Secondary Education in 1974, and followed by initiatives from the educational authorities to establish educational programmes for the disadvantaged within the regular educational settings. The last federal financed vocational school for the disadvantaged was closed down in the beginning of the nineties. At the same time about 6% of the students in upper secondary schools received special education. One third of these attended special classes or programmes. The rest received special education or support within regular classes (Skårbrevik, 1996).

Most western countries provide special programmes, classes or schools, or support within regular programmes, for handicapped students or students who have problems with regular programmes in upper secondary education. Such special programmes might be introduction courses that students attend before they enrol in regular programmes. Such courses are found for instance in Denmark and Sweden (Grove, 1998). In the United States the School-to-Work Opportunity Act introduced "career majors" where the students, in a systematic way, can try out different vocations before settling for a career (National Centre for Research in Vocational Education, 1997). These programmes are optional, but are especially used by students who find the more theoretical subjects in high school difficult or uninteresting. Several secondary schools in Norway offer introduction courses. Usually these are school based and offer mainly subjects found in ordinary courses. In addition, we do find separate classes or schools for these students. As mentioned, about one third of the students in need of special education attend special classes in Norway. In Denmark special "production schools" for disadvantaged students have been established (Grove, 1998). These are two-year programmes where two-thirds of the training is given in local industries, farms, business etc. Programmes that combine school-based education and work-based learning in industry, crafts, business, etc. are also found elsewhere in Europe and the United States.

The 1994 reform of upper-secondary education in Norway

The 1994 reform of upper secondary education in Norway had two important aspects. First it was a legal reform which granted

a) all young people aged 16-19 the right to at least three years of upper-secondary education

b) all young people the opportunity to attain formal competence as a skilled worker or qualify for entrance at colleges

or universities, or have whatever competence attained in upper-secondary education documented.

c) students in need of special education or adjustments of the programmes a right to such provisions and a priority to be accepted at the basic (first year) course of their choice.

Secondly it introduced a reconstruction of the syllabus. The first school year the students can chose between 13 different basic courses that represent the "starting point" for several advanced courses in different branches. All courses are organised in subjects. The subjects, taught either in schools or through contract of apprenticeship, are structured in a number of modules that are subdivided into units. To complete a subject all modules have to be passed.

The reform gave the right to have whatever competence attained in upper-secondary schools documented. Students who enter upper-secondary education can graduate with two kinds of regular diplomas. One that qualifies them for entrance at colleges or universities, or one that that certifies them as a skilled worker in certain crafts or branches. In most cases these have not been attainable for disadvantaged students. To solve this problem students were made entitled to a diploma of partial competence if they had attended upper-secondary school for at least three years. The intention was that this diploma should certify the attained competence within in a course or branch of study. A partial competence diploma within the branch of car mechanics would tell a future employer that the student, although not a skilled worker, could carry out certain operations satisfactory. As the modules that were passed were recorded on the diploma, the student might later return to upper-secondary education and complete his education to become a skilled worker.

The concept of partial documented competence was introduced by a white paper in the beginning of the nineties (Kirke-, utdannings-og forskningsdepartementet, 1992). In the white paper it was argued that by structuring the subjects in modules it would be possible to offer more flexible provisions for students with disabilities, or for other students that had difficulties with completing a regular programme. It would also represent an incentive for future learning, as students could take only parts of upper-secondary education, get achieved competence documented, and then return to school later on to complete their education and receive a regular diploma. It would also serve to certify students, who were not able to receive a regular diploma, for a job as a semi-skilled worker in certain branches. The idea of documented partial competence addresses the distinction between formal and informal competence. Formal competence is based upon passed exams and diplomas that certify a certain competence. An objective with the introduction of this concept was to formalise the informal competence attained by students who did not graduate from upper-secondary school with a regular diploma.

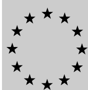
The projects

Based upon the White Paper the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs appointed a committee in 1994 to further elucidate the concept, and come up with recommendations on how programmes that lead to partial documented competence could be implemented. The committee had representatives from the labour union as well the employers association, and focused also upon the need in the labour market for workers with competence below the level of skilled workers. It was concluded that also among unskilled workers, it would be important to increase competences to meet future challenges in the labour market. The committee recommended that the Ministry initiated pilot projects where necessary experience with programmes aimed at partial competence could be gained (Kirke-, utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet, 1994). Following this the Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs initiated projects at four upper-secondary schools in three counties. The responsibility for running the projects lay with the county school administration as well as the local schools. The projects were initially grouped in two categories[1]:

a) projects that should develop alternative school based programmes that could lead to partial documented competence in different trades;

Partial documented competence would make it possible "(...) to offer more flexible provisions for students with disabilities, or for other students that had difficulties with completing a regular programme. It would also represent an incentive for future learning, as students could take only parts of upper-secondary education, get achieved competence documented, and then return to school later on to complete their education and receive a regular diploma. It would also serve to certify students, who were not able to receive a regular diploma, for a job as a semi-skilled worker in certain branches."

1) The project also included a third category of projects that focused upon the possibility for adults to have their working experience validated in relation to the syllabus of upper secondary education. These project are not discussed in this article.



__"A common feature for all projects was an emphasis on work-based training. One project had a fixed schedule where the student attended local firms certain days, one had an eight week period at the end of the school based training where the students were "certified" as able workers. The two other projects had individual schedules for each student with regard to training at school or in industry."__

b) projects that offered similar programmes but within an alternative context for learning.

For both categories of projects it was stressed that the programmes should be developed in close co-operation with local industry. The difference between the two categories of programmes became, after a while, very slight as all projects developed alternative contexts for learning, mainly at local firms. It was expected that the experience from the projects could be transferred to other upper-secondary schools, and that provisions that could lead to partial documented competence should be offered at all upper-secondary schools.

The projects varied with regard to organisation. One project was organised around regular programmes. Students who were referred to the project followed their classes in some subjects, and had their training in enterprises or individual tutelage during the rest of the school day or week. The number of lessons in regular classes could vary from student to student. Another project was originally based upon a special class, however, during the project period changes were made so that it was mainly integrated with regular programmes. The third programme was organised as a separate unit located several miles from the main school site, and the fourth located at a school for disadvantaged students.

A common feature for all projects was an emphasis on work-based training. One project had a fixed schedule where the student attended local firms certain days, one had an eight week period at the end of the school based training where the students were "certified" as able workers. The two other projects had individual schedules for each student with regard to training at school or in industry.

Whether the students have been integrated in an ordinary class or not, the term base might be a key word to describe the organisation of the training. Three forms of bases have been used within the project:

a) base for training in general subjects. In this case the students followed the general subjects in the class 2-3 days a week. The class was the base. The training in the special subjects of the different branches was given as work-based training at different firms;

b) the workshop at school was the base. The students try various working operations under the supervision of a teacher. For academic subjects the students attended regular classes, small groups or received individual tutelage. In this project all students attended basic or advanced courses in mechanics or welding;

c) resource room as base. The base was a classroom where the students can work under the supervision of a teacher when they are not in class, have training in local firms, or receive individual tutelage. This model was developed at the school where the project was attached to regular programmes from the beginning.

The projects started in 1995 and were terminated in 1998.

Evaluation of the projects

Twice a year written reports, based upon open-ended questionnaires, were obtained from the projects. The reports where followed up by interviews of those who had written the reports at each school and in each county. Teachers, pupils and representatives from enterprises were also interviewed. The focus of the questions changed as the projects developed. The main objective was to identify possibilities and obstacles regarding the various programmes. In addition, information about the background and the problems of the students were recorded as well as their progress in the different courses and subjects (Skårbrevik & Båtevik, 1998). To advise the Ministry on the progress of the projects, the Ministry appointed a reference group with representatives from the labour unions, employers' associations, teachers unions and students associations as well as other official agencies.

The evaluation of the projects was primarily formative in the sense that the evaluator provided information and reflections on the progress of the projects in the reports. However, conclusions on what to be done were left to the projects,

the reference group or the Ministry (Shadish, Cook and Leviton, 1991). A first draft of the report was sent to the project schools and counties for review. This way we tried to establish a dialogue with the teachers involved in the projects, and they had opportunity to correct any mistakes or misunderstandings. We assumed that by giving the project workers an opportunity to have influence upon the final reports, we would instigate reflections that would result in the initiatives necessary to meet the objectives set forth. Final reports were then presented to the Ministry and the reference group twice a year. Based on the reports the reference group came up with recommendations to the Ministry on the continuation of the projects.

Table 1

Problems among the participants in the projects as reported by the teachers responsible for the projects at the school level

	Percent
Emotional and/or problems	55
Intellectual learning disabilities	50
Specific problems with reading and writing	26
Speech- or articulation disorders	5
Physical disabilities	3
Hearing impairments	2
Visual impairments	2

Students

The projects in were especially aimed at disadvantaged students who:

a) needed extended time to complete courses, who were able to complete only some modules or units of a course, or needed education and training in subjects or areas not covered by the regular syllabus. Such programmes could be offered for individual students within ordinary classes or special classes for a small number of students;

b) had graduated from elementary schools and had problems with attending school, following regular schedules or needed an approach to learning that starts from "real life situations". Most of these students had bad experience with schooling and needed an alternative approach to learning.

The schools were asked to report on what kind of problems the students had that qualified them for the projects. The results are given in table 1. The sum of the percentages exceeds 100 as more than one problem or disability could be reported for each student.

As can be seen emotional and/or social problems, intellectual learning disabilities and to some extent problems with reading and writing are the dominant difficulties. Very often these are concurrent problems. About 38% had emotional and/or social problems combined with learning disabilities, and 17% had emotional and/ or social problems combined with problems with reading or writing. In most cases it referred to problems that made them eligible for acceptance in the basic course of their choice and for special education or support.

About 370 students participated in the projects during a three year period. Of these 69% were men and 31% women. About 80% had only completed junior high school (9th grade), while the rest had attended upper-secondary school for one or more year. One project also recruited many adults who were out of work because of social or emotional problems.

The recruitment of students to the projects followed two different procedures. Most students applied to the projects after they had completed junior high school. Students and their parents were informed about the projects by the school counsellors and decided on these programmes instead of attending regular ones. Other students started in regular programmes and applied to be transferred to the projects after some time in upper-secondary schools.

The priority of the upper secondary schools as well as the projects is to help students to attain a regular diploma. For those students who were already enrolled in upper-secondary schools, it was especially important to establish procedures in connection with applications to the projects that secured their rights for spe-

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"The priority for enrolment in the first year course of their choice for students in need of special education is not extended for the following years. This makes it difficult for disadvantaged students to complete upper secondary education within regular programmes, as they have to compete with other students (...). These obstacles were in most cases solved within the projects (...)"

cial education within the regular programmes. The projects should not be alternatives to such services. Most of the project schools set up procedures to be followed when a student was not able to follow regular programmes and was considered for the project. These included a set of criteria that should be met like failing in a number of subjects, not motivated for school, absenteeism, problematic behaviour at school etc. Their situation was then discussed in a meeting with all their teachers where the performance in the different subjects was evaluated. The need for special education or other support service within the regular programme was evaluated by the special education team[2]. If it was concluded that such measures were insufficient, a transfer to the project and partial documented competence as the aim for further education and training, was discussed with students and their parents. If accepted by the students and approved by the parents, the students could be transferred to the project. These procedures should prevent that documented partial competence became the line of least resistance both for teachers and students.

Results and conclusions

Completion

The drop-out rate for the students in the projects was lower compared to that in the same population of students attending regular programmes in upper-secondary school. Of the 187 students who started in the project in 1995 or 1996 about two-thirds were attending upper-secondary schools or were apprentices three years later. Another 15% were employed. Of those who were 16 or 17 years of age when they entered the projects in 1995 or 1996, 76% were in some kind of education or training in June 1998. Results from a nationwide study by Myklebust (1998) showed 54% of a similar student population were in their third year after entering upper-secondary education. The average for the whole student population was 87% (Edvardsen m.fl, 1997). The priority for enrolment in the first year course of their choice for students in need of special education is not extended for the following years. This makes it difficult for disadvantaged students to complete upper secondary education within regular programmes, as they have to compete with other students to get accepted in the courses they prefer in the second and third year, and for an apprenticeship. These obstacles were in most cases solved within the projects, and might to some extent, explain the lower drop-out rate than reported by Myklebust (1998). The solution was mainly due to the fact that at the project schools, or at other schools in the county, places were available at the students preferred courses in the second or third year. One county, however, reserved a number of places in the second or third year for this group of students. If drop-out is to be avoided for this population of students, especially within the regular programmes, it must be considered to extend the priority rule to all levels in upper-secondary education.

One important outcome of the work-based training, as evaluated by the local project workers, was that the students acquired new perspectives on the theoretical subjects that was necessary in order to become a skilled worker. As a result of this about 10% of the students were able to sign up for apprenticeship contracts after some time in the projects.

Work-based training

The basic structure of vocational training is two years of theoretical and practical training in school, followed by two years of training and productive work in enterprises, which lead to the diploma as skilled worker. The two years of training in industry is regulated by the Act Concerning Apprenticeship and Vocational Training. According to this law, employers are responsible for providing relevant training situations and instructors, and receive a certain amount of money from the state which covers expenses related to training. This law, however, does no apply to students who do not go for a certificate as a skilled worker. This makes it difficult to obtain relevant work-based training for students who have partial documented competence as a goal for their education and training. The employer might accept the students in their factories, shops etc, but without a contract as an apprentice the employers are not obliged to give them any instructions or provide relevant training situations.

2) Most upper secondary schools have a special education team. Members in these teams are usually an assistant principal, the school counsellor and a teacher responsible for co-ordinating special education services at the school.

Providing relevant training opportunities in local industry for these students was one of the main objectives of the programmes. To secure this, two of the counties, who participated in the projects, developed alternative agreements with employers that secured some training and instruction for the students. The employers were paid an amount of money equivalent to that they would receive for an apprentice. However, the youngsters were still enrolled at the schools and regarded as students, and the school had the formal responsibility for the training as well as the documentation of attained competence. This alternative contract could later be converted to a contract of apprenticeship if a craft certificate appeared to be realistic for the student. At the end of the project period this was obtained for a few of these students.

Documentation of attained competence

An arrangement where the students who went for documented partial competence had an opportunity to adjust their ambitions and settle for a craft certificate later in life, was one of the leading ideas of the project. The documentation of the training related to the syllabus that could be built upon later, has been an important objective of the projects. This documentation should at least be on the module level of the syllabus. The module is the smallest part of the syllabus that can be transferred to another school or built upon if the student goes to school later on.

The projects have shown that this documentation is working for many students in the school setting. The training logs used in school proved to be useful for this purpose, and about 60% or the students had their attained competence evaluated at the module level of the syllabus in the subjects taught at school. It was more difficult to apply these logs in the work-based training situations, and only about 40% of the students had received evaluation at the module level in the work-based subjects. The responsibility for the completion of the logs lay with the students and the schools, and necessitated a close supervision from the schools. In addition, the employers did not always provide the relevant training situations. An amendment to the Act Concerning Apprenticeship and Vocational Training that grants these students the same opportunity for training and documentation will be necessary before these students can fully benefit from an education aimed at partial documented competence in a work-based educational setting.

Another problem with regard to documentation was that many students were not able to pass all the units in a module and get a mark based upon this level of competence. About 20% of the students had only completed single units within different modules. The modules are not structured in ascending order of difficulty, but cover different areas of a subject. Therefore the students might manage the easiest units in several modules, but not all units in any of them. For these students the units documented in a partial competence diploma cannot be transferred to other schools or used when they return for further education or training. A diploma that only contains documentation at the unit level, and to some extent also at the module level, makes it a very complex document that can be very difficult for future employers to understand. In most instances the students, in addition to the diploma, received a written testimonial that described what they had learned or been trained in during their school years.

The problem with documentation is related to the main controversy concerning partial documented competence. Already in the proposal from the appointed committee to the Ministry preceding the projects, it was concluded that partial documented competence should not result in formal categories of workers below the level of skilled workers in different branches. A position strongly advocated by the labour union. This implied that a person who had completed an education at upper secondary school, and received a partial competence diploma, could not be entitled to a title or a diploma that certified him or her for certain jobs. For instance as an assistant car mechanic or an assistant in other branches that they were trained for at school. It has been argued that this might result in a devaluation of persons with partial competence diploma as this diploma does not communicate what they are qualified for,

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"The projects also put a focus on the paradox that, in Norway, persons can attend courses arranged by for instance an oil company, and get a diploma that certify them as gas station attendants, but can not get such a diploma from an upper-secondary school, even though they have been taught and has passed the same subjects."

but only that they are not fully qualified persons (Markussen, 1995). The committee that preceded the projects argued that this could be solved through a close cooperation with local industry and work-based training that introduced the students to local employers. Documented partial competence was seen as an education for the local labour market, and it was recommended that the schools conducted surveys on the local need for persons with semi-skilled competence. The projects developed close ties with local firms, and a follow-up study in one of the projects, that had provided similar provisions for the students for some years, showed that almost 100 % were working after leaving upper secondary school (Akershus fylkeskommune, 1998).

Discussion

The objective of the projects was to develop educational programmes for disadvantaged students that qualified them as semiskilled workers, and develop procedures for how this semi-skilled competence could be documented in a way that related it to the regular syllabus of upper secondary education. The projects showed that the training logs developed for use in the vocational training courses were very beneficial for this documentation. But they also revealed that the structure of the syllabus in modules, as the smallest units for formal documentation, were of little benefit for students who were able to complete only some units of different modules. The projects also put a focus on the paradox that, in Norway, persons can attend courses arranged by for instance an oil company, and get a diploma that certify them as gas station attendants, but can not get such a diploma from an upper-secondary school, even though they have been taught and has passed the same subjects. This paradox can be ascribed to the position taken by the labour union that the school system should not certify for any formal competence below the competence of a skilled worker. A reminiscence of the old guild associations. A stand that makes it difficult to communicate the competence attained by these students to future employers.

The projects identified a couple of legal problems that had to be attended to. And that to some extent already has been attended to by the Ministry in a new proposition on the regulations following the Act on Education (Kirke-, utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet, 2000). The proposition introduces an extension of the right to priority of enrolment for students in need for special education to the second and third year at upper secondary schools. This does not seem to apply to contracts of apprenticeship. The propositions legalise, however, the alternative contracts with employers initiated in the projects, and seems to give the same opportunities and legal status in work based training for students who go for a certificate as skilled worker as those who go for partial documented competence. This might improve the opportunities for providing relevant training at the enterprises, as well as the procedures related to the documentation of the competence attained in work based training situations.

One of the main goals of upper-secondary education and training in Norway is to provide programmes and services to the students within the framework of regular programs and classes. However, only one of the projects, attended by a relatively small number of students, had this as its basis for the project[3]. A main purpose with projects should be to challenge existing structures, procedures and attitudes at the schools and find solutions that comply with these general goals of educational policy. Such challenges were almost absent in the project, and when problems arose solutions were most often found within existing procedures and structures. As mentioned above the projects identified a couple of legal problems associated with partial documented competence. However, to a limited extent they challenged existing structures and procedures in the regular programmes in upper-secondary education.

3) This was remarked by the evaluators early in the project and initiatives was taken by the Ministry to extend the projects with a couple of schools that offered integrated programs. This came into effect the last year of the project period and had only minor contributions to the results.

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Vocational education and training in schools - an Australian initiative:

towards the integration of vocational and academic studies in the senior secondary curriculum

The Victoria Department of Education in Australia has taken an initiative breaking with the traditional duality of vocational and academic curicula. By allowing the inclusion of vocational subjects in the senior secondary leaving certificate, an attempt has been made to remove the rigid barrier between vocational and general education. Initial findings are that this initiative has been successful.

Introduction

This article examines the introduction of the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programme, an initiative to integrate vocational education and training into the senior secondary curriculum in the Australian state of Victoria. It also reports on research into the destinations of 1997 graduates from the programme. This structured school programme of vocational education and training (the Vocational Education and Training in Schools initiative) has been watched with some interest by other Australian states as a potential model. The aim of this article is to describe the programme and present some initial findings which indicate that the initiative has been successful in its aim of integrating generalist and vocational studies at the upper-secondary (post-compulsory) level.

The role of vocational education and training in the senior secondary curricula has aroused considerable debate (see, for example, Blunden 1996 and Psacharopoulos 1997). Criticisms of traditional approaches to the delivery of vocational education have been focussed in two areas. Firstly, vocational education delivered within a narrow framework which neglects to foster generic skills and a broader general education is neither satisfying society's need for the well-rounded citizen who is prepared to function effectively in a modern democracy, nor is it satisfying the needs of employers for whom an employee with generic skills is as important as one with specific vocational skills (Labaree 1997 and Blunden op. cit.). Secondly, a tendency to regard vocational education as inferior to the academic curriculum has led to a difficulty in allocating parity of status to these two traditionally distinct "tracks" in the secondary curriculum (see, for example, Edwards et al. 1992).

These two issues - the narrowness of vocational studies and parity of esteem - have fuelled most of the critiques of recent initiatives in vocational education and training in secondary schools. In particular, many British writers, who have been critical of the New Right agenda which has informed policy-making in the area (Hickox 1995, Halpin 1992 and Edwards et al. 1992).

Much of the debate has assumed (and with good cause) traditional models of delivery of vocational education in schools, and in particular the fragmentation of the secondary curriculum into general and vocational segments, as is the case for post-16 year olds in Britain. These commentaries are deeply critical of a delivery structure which divides the symbolic space of the senior secondary curriculum into the general (academic, intel-

lectual, theoretical) and the vocational (manual, practical), and which in practice sees young people sorted into two tracks, each one sealed and opposed to the other, often from a very early age (Baudelot and Establet 1971).

Models of delivery which "track" secondary level students, sometimes from as young as the age of 12 or 13, abound in the European context. Germany, Italy, England, Scotland, Ireland and France all provide highly differentiated structures of delivery, with vocational and general education clearly distinguished (and separate) in the senior secondary years.

Alternative structures, however, are both possible and have been attempted. The history of the secondary curriculum in most national systems is full of stories of enterprising teachers and policy-makers who have tried to offer something more to the new population groups now completing secondary school than an irredeemable choice between university-oriented studies on the one hand and a narrow vocational track on the other. In Italy, for example, the potential for vocational school courses to be used for accessing university if students fulfill certain requirements has been exploited with some success. A detailed treatment of such initiatives, however, is beyond the scope of this article to document and describe.

In federal Australia, where educational policy is a matter for individual states, the Victorian Department of Education has taken an initiative in the field which deserves analysis, not only because it has broken with the traditional duality of vocational and academic curricula but because this approach has been taken up as a full-scale mainstream programme, rather than as a marginal "experiment". By allowing the inclusion of vocational subjects in the senior secondary leaving certificate (Victorian Certificate of Education), policy-makers have attempted to remove the rigid barrier which has always existed between general and vocational education. The data on the post-schooling destinations of 1997 vocational education and training in Schools graduates give cause to believe that this programme, still in the early stages of implementation, may go some way towards achieving this aim.

Background

Systems of schooling in Australia are regulated by the individual states and, for this reason, it is difficult to make generalisations about "Australian schools" (Board of Studies (1999), NBEET (1994) and NBEET (1993)). Nevertheless, some basic points can be made. Firstly, secondary schooling generally follows a model of comprehensive provision with its single exit point at the end of Year 12, although early school leaving is both possible and a reality for 25% to 30% of the cohort. Following this, school leavers may enter university education, vocational training (at a Technical and Further Education Institute - TAFE) or enter the labour market. University and TAFE education are the responsibility of the federal government, and, by and large, vocational education and training has been regarded as not belonging within the schools sphere, although we shall see that this is changing.

Within this broad framework of provision, there is some freedom for the states to implement change and reform at the school level. In the contested field of post-compulsory education (post-15), such changes have invariably involved the structure of the senior secondary curriculum and its relationship to the vocational education and training needs of the labour market and of young people themselves.

In most systems, some movement away from this unified model of provision has begun, with the provision in many schools of nationally-accredited vocational education and training subjects at the senior secondary level. However, in most cases, these vocational education and training subjects have functioned principally as a parallel menu of offerings, complementing those of the school leaving certificate. In some cases, attainment in vocational education and training subjects is not even recorded on the leaving certificate.

In Victoria, the introduction of vocational education and training to schools has taken a somewhat more radical approach, with accredited vocational education and training content embedded in subjects which form part of the school leaving

"The introduction of the new leaving credential, the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE), in 1991-92 sought to impose a coherent structure on the range of studies which had proliferated at this level and to improve the status of some of the more non-traditional and vocational studies on offer. In reality, much of the flexibility inherent in the diverse but chaotic system which it replaced, was sacrificed in the name of consistency and standardisation of credentials. Studies intended to articulate with the world of work were among the early casualties."

"Initial attempts to improve the status of vocational studies in Victorian schools involved dual accreditation and credit transfer arrangements, by which means certain VCE (leaving certificate) subjects would count towards vocational training certificates or which allowed students to take a combination of vocational training and VCE subjects. The limitation of these arrangements was that the vocational component of studies undertaken was not recognised for the purposes of university entry (...)"

"The Vocational Education and Training in Schools initiative is designed to ensure that accredited vocational education and training content and accompanying credentials are located within the leaving certificate and not as "add-on" programmes."

"Schools can implement the vocational education and training in Schools programmes in one of two ways. (...) as private providers with the State Training Board, (...) enter into partnership with a TAFE (Technical and Further Education) institute, both delivering the necessary components to make up a full programme. Thus, schools without the resources or the staff required to implement a vocational education and training in Schools programme can offer their students access to vocational education (...)"

certificate (Victorian Certificate of Education). Some historical background helps to place the thinking behind this approach in context.

In the mid-1960s, the post-war expansion of Australia's secondary education system, planned in the belief that universal provision of secondary schools would equate with universal participation, was reaching its culmination. Yet, at the time, fewer than one in five students in Victoria completed secondary school. As recently as 1982 in this state, fewer than one-third of students finished secondary schooling. A strong system of technical schools prepared those students who were so inclined for an apprenticeship in the trades while, for the students who dropped out altogether, a labour market, willing and able to employ unskilled and inexperienced school leavers, awaited.

During the 1980s, this situation changed, as in much of the western world. Youth labour markets weakened dramatically and demand for apprentices fell. In response, school completion rates began to push towards 80%, assisted by two painful recessions, one in the early 1980s and one in the early 1990s. In Victorian schools, the growing diversity of students staying on at school, including populations who only a few years earlier would have been seeking apprenticeships or entry to the full-time labour market, was reflected in the growing diversity of post-compulsory studies on offer.

The introduction of the new leaving credential, the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE), in 1991-92 sought to impose a coherent structure on the range of studies which had proliferated at this level and to improve the status of some of the more non-traditional and vocational studies on offer. In reality, much of the flexibility inherent in the diverse but chaotic system which it replaced, was sacrificed in the name of consistency and standardisation of credentials. Studies intended to articulate with the world of work were among the early casualties.

In addition to these losses, an increasing tendency on the part of students to seek clearly defined and articulated vocational options at school and a growing realisation among educators that Australia was lagging behind many other countries, especially some in Europe, in providing vocational education and training to its teenage population prompted the development of school-level training options. The high level of unmet demand for tertiary education also prompted many policy-makers to ask why a culture had flourished in which the status of technical and vocational training was so low.

Initial attempts to improve the status of vocational studies in Victorian schools involved dual accreditation and credit transfer arrangements, by which means certain VCE (leaving certificate) subjects would count towards vocational training certificates or which allowed students to take a combination of vocational training and VCE subjects. The limitation of these arrangements was that the vocational component of studies undertaken was not recognised for the purposes of university entry, should students wish to keep this option open. The low esteem in which vocational education was held, compared with many European nations, meant that students, even if they were not certain of their intention to apply for university, would simply refuse to undertake vocational studies which were seen as closing the door to higher education. Given these perceived limitations, the arrangements achieved limited success.

The appearance of the Vocational Education and Training in Schools initiative, set up in Victorian schools in 1994, sought to address these limitations. The new approach was regarded as offering both flexibility and accessibility in curriculum choices for the increasing number of post-compulsory secondary students staying on at school, as well as responding to the training needs being more clearly articulated by industry.

Schools themselves responded enthusiastically to the new approach, with courses being established across all sectors of the secondary education system, in both metropolitan and rural areas. In 1994, a total of 461 students in the final two years of secondary schooling were enrolled in Vocational Education and Training in Schools subjects. By 1999, this had risen to 14,859 (approximately 11.5% of the total cohort). It is difficult to compare this rate of activity with that in other systems,

nationally or internationally, because of structural and curriculum organisation differences. However, it should be noted that this activity has been built up from a traditionally very low level of demand for vocational education and training in schools.

The Vocational Education and Training in Schools initiative is designed to ensure that accredited vocational education and training content and accompanying credentials are located within the leaving certificate and not as "add-on" programmes. Successful completion of a two-year vocational education and training in Schools programme provides the student with two credentials, the leaving certificate and the relevant vocational education and training certificate – the latter a nationally accredited entry-level qualification (usually Certificate I or Certificate II) within the Australian Qualification Framework. The insertion of Vocational Education and Training in Schools subjects within the senior secondary curriculum is a deliberate policy to help remove the "somewhat artificial distinction between the general education offered by schools and the training offered by industry" (Commonwealth of Australia 1994). Vocational Education and Training in Schools units[1] are regarded as equivalent to leaving units, making up one or more of the necessary sixteen units required for the successful completion of the VCE, although contributing only partially towards university entrance. Universities have assisted in this process, reaching a decision early in 1994 to recognise Vocational Education and Training in Schools subjects "'within the Tertiary Entrance Rank by awarding an increment of 10% of the average global score generated in the student's 'primary four' VCE studies" (Victorian Tertiary Admissions Committee 1994). Further movement towards full recognition for the purposes of university entrance is expected (Board of Studies op.cit.).

Three industry areas, electronics, business/commercial studies and hospitality provided the basis for the development of the initial Vocational Education and Training in Schools studies established in 1994. In 1995, two additional areas had been endorsed - automotive studies and engineering. By 1998, the range of Vocational Education and Training in Schools qualifications on offer reflected broad and comprehensive coverage of the industry areas (table 1).

Table 1

Vocational education and training enrolments by certificate (excluding adult sector), 1998**

Certificate	Enrolments
Basic Certificate in Engineering	194
Certificate 1 in Engineering	305
Certificate II in Agriculture (Farming)	219
Certificate II in Horse Studies	146
Certificate II in Sport and Recreation	473
Certificate II in Arts (Interactive Multimedia)	243
Certificate II in Music Industry Skills	375
Certificate II in Office Administration	1,637
Certificate II in Business (Organisational Practices)	73
Certificate II in Small Business Practice	498
Certificate II in Automotive	959
Certificate II in Printing	5
Certificate II in Electronics	351
Certificate II in Information Technology	208
vocational education and training in Schools Retail Operations	179
Certificate II in Hospitality	2,626
Certificate II in Food Retail (McDonald's)	96
Certificate II in Clothing Design and Production	66
Certificate III in Information Technology	2,495
Certificate IV in Food Technology	7
Basic Certificate in Electronics	253
Certificate in Desktop Publishing	110
Advanced Certificate in Horticulture	97
Certificate II in General Construction	107
Certificate in Retail Operations (Sales)	122
Certificate of Clerical & Administrative Skills	162
Certificate III in Laboratory Skills	50
TOTAL*	**12,056**

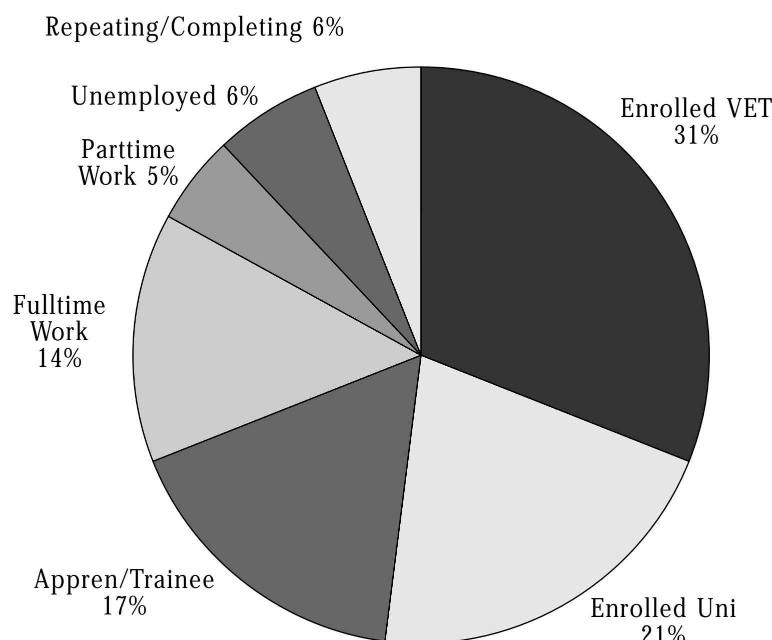
*Some double counting occurs due to enrolment in more than one certificate
**Preliminary data only

Schools can implement the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programmes in one of two ways. One is to register as private providers with the State Training Board, so long as they can demonstrate their ability to deliver the training credential. The second option is for the school to enter into partnership with a TAFE (Technical and Further Education) institute, both delivering the necessary components to make up a full programme. Thus, schools without the resources or the staff required to implement a vocational education and training in Schools programme can offer their students access to

1) Semester-length studies

Table 2

Destinations of 1997 VET in schools students



"In all, three years of destinations data have now been collected and analysed. (...) these data consistently show that over half of the leaving year vocational education and training in Schools cohort have been going on to further study at either a university or a TAFE institute (offering technical and vocational programmes at sub-degree level), the majority of these students choosing to continue their schooling at a TAFE. Most of the remainder have found full-time work or indentured training of some kind in the labour market."

vocational education within the framework of the VCE, with the help of a TAFE Institute.

Since the programme's inception, it has been the task of a University of Melbourne research team, of which the author is a member, to collect data annually on the post-schooling destinations of Vocational Education and Training in Schools graduates. The 1997 Year 12 (leaving year) cohort was made up of 2,323 students. Using a combination of electronic tracking through the use of Board of Studies databases and tertiary admission files and telephone survey work, it was possible to ascertain destinations for a total of 1881 students (a response rate of 81%).

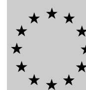
In all, three years of destinations data have now been collected and analysed. A considered response to the question of whether the programme has proved a success, at least in terms of post-schooling outcomes, is now possible. Over the three years, these data consistently show that over half of the leaving year vocational education and training in Schools cohort have been going on to further study at either a university or a TAFE institute (offering technical and vocational programmes at sub-degree level), the majority of these students choosing to continue their schooling at a TAFE. Most of the remainder have found full-time work or indentured training of some kind in the labour market.

The consistently high levels of transfer to tertiary level vocational education and training (on average over three in ten of the leaving cohort) affirm one of the important underlying aims of the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programmes, which is to increase the exposure of senior secondary students to non-university training, - an important objective defined in the Finn Report (Australian Education Council 1991).

Moreover, an analysis of leaving certificate results shows that the vocational education and training group's mean English scores are approximately 10% lower than for the general leaving certificate population. In this context of greater vulnerability to academic selection and school failure and greater dependence on work and further training, successful transitions into the labour market and into tertiary vocational education and training are crucial.

Data available for the most recent Year 12 cohort - 1997 - indicate that the transition from school has been the most positive to date, with 31% of the group entering vocational education and training (mostly in TAFE institutes), 21% entering a university, 6% still at school, 17% taking up indentured training through an apprenticeship or traineeship, 14% in full-time work, 5% in part-time work and 6% unemployed (table 2). These data are reported fully in a report prepared for the Victorian Department of Education (Polesel et al. 1998).

In part, these results reflect strong growth in the Australian economy in the 1990s, although they have also occurred in the context of vastly reduced opportunities in the labour market for young people –



a context which has seen the number of full-time jobs for teenage boys reduced to half the level they were in the 1970s and, for girls, to one-third the level (Teese 1999).

Few comparisons with this set of data can be made because the initiative is relatively recent, the difficulty in comparing systems which are structurally different and the general paucity of comparable quantitative tracking studies in Australia. Sweet (1995), writing in the national Australian context, has estimated that some 30% of school leavers do not go on to further education or enter full-time work. Even allowing for the fact that his estimates include students leaving school before the final year, the figures for our cohort are markedly lower (11.9%, combining part-time workers and the unemployed). On this basis, it may be suggested that the difficulties faced by a group of school leavers more vulnerable to academic selection are attenuated by the successful completion of the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programme.

If we use Sweet's broad criteria of successful post-schooling outcomes being entry to full-time work or further study of some kind, then it should be noted that positive outcomes, in one form or another, were secured by over 88% of the 1997 Year 12 vocational education and training in Schools group, with the majority of these entering tertiary-level vocational education and training or university.

Further comparisons will be possible following current research being carried out at the University of Melbourne. This makes use of a methodology allowing destinations of vocational education and training and non-vocational education and training students from within the same cohort to be compared, and will also allow comparisons with national Australian Bureau of Statistics school to work transition data.

Students' destinations upon exiting this structured programme of vocational education and training studies provide a tentative indication that this programme may be capable of fulfilling its aims of providing curriculum breadth and alternatives and increasing exposure to tertiary-level vocational education and training. They also indicate that the successful integration of vocational and general studies in the school curriculum is both possible and desirable.

This does not mean that the place of vocational education and training in the secondary curriculum has been universally accepted. Changing the culture of senior secondary schooling from one which reflects the traditional role of university-preparatory education to one which can encompass vocational training and education will take time. Entrenched views and expectations of the dual curriculum, with the traditional "tracks" of general and vocational education clearly differentiated, will also take time to change. A number of issues will continue to exercise the minds of policy-makers and analysts and further research is needed into cultural aspects of vocational education and training, both in schools and the broader community.

The general feedback from schools and TAFE institutes offering Vocational Education and Training in Schools programmes has been one of welcome for this initiative. Teachers and administrators working in the area have referred to the way in which Vocational Education and Training in Schools programmes provide a genuine alternative for students who seek a broader, more vocationally oriented range of studies than those offered in the traditional leaving certificate. Many have remarked on the fact that the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programmes fill a large gap in the curriculum, providing students with a choice that is both practical and theoretical, not merely academic.

There is reason to believe, however, that the professional orientation of teachers may make them hostile to the location of the vocational education and training project within the academic sphere of secondary schooling. Some teachers involved in the vocational education and training initiative have expressed concern at school students having to attend classes in non-school locations. Some have noted that students' leaving certificate studies might suffer because of their vocational education and training commitments, while others have pointed to the extra costs for students of enrolling in voca-

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(...) there were also problems with establishing a school as an accredited provider of training in the vocational education and training in Schools programme. The major difficulties were in finding staff experienced in teaching vocational education and who were prepared to become involved in a two-year programme, and providing the necessary resources."

tional education and training units and purchasing the necessary materials.

Differences in attendance requirements, assessment procedures, and administration and funding concerns were also noted to have caused difficulties, but staff recognised that these type of problems could be expected in the establishment of an initiative of this complexity, especially where it involved a partnership between secondary schools and vocational education and training providers.

In some cases, there were also problems with establishing a school as an accredited provider of training in the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programme. The major difficulties were in finding staff experienced in teaching vocational education and who were prepared to become involved in a two-year programme, and providing the necessary resources. This explains why a majority of schools began their involvement in vocational education and training with the Certificate of Office and Secretarial Studies, a programme more likely not to need specialist resources and staff. Many did not have the necessary staff or resources to establish programmes like electronics or hospitality.

It is recognised that vocational education and training cannot provide all the answers to the challenges of schooling in the modern era. Tensions between the role of school in providing skilled labour and its role in the formation of the good citizen are not easily resolved. Nor should they be, since continuing and informed public debate is necessary for schools to be able to adapt and reform themselves in a process of continuous improvement. Initiatives like the Vocational Education and Training in Schools programme can help in a limited way by offering programme breadth and alternatives. The particular strength of this alternative is that it moves some way towards integrating vocational and general studies, and allows students more time in which to make the longer-term choice between vocational and academic studies.

The Vocational Education and Training in School initiative gives an indication of the scope which schools have to continue to improve their responses to the new and changing clienteles now using the senior secondary curriculum. Mass education has brought a diversity of school users into the senior secondary years which the policy-makers responsible for the expansion of schooling 30 years ago would never have imagined. It has also brought creative and effective responses to the challenges posed by diversity. This article suggests that responses such as Vocational Education and Training in Schools, while by no means the complete answer, provide an addition to the curriculum armoury now available to schools as we begin the new millennium.

Acknowledgement
The author wishes to thank his University of Melbourne colleagues, particularly Associate Professor Richard Teese (Director of the Educational Outcomes Research Unit) and Ms Kate O'Brien (Research Assistant) whose guidance, insights and detailed knowledge of the vocational education and training in Schools programme have informed this article. The author also acknowledges the support and commitment of Mr Howard Kelly and Mr Graeme Luck of the Victorian Department of Education which funded the research on which this article is based.

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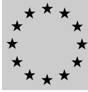

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Curriculum development in the dual vocational training system in Germany

Examples of empirically established achievements of holistic learning show that the educational concept underlying new national syllabuses in Germany for the development of the overall ability to act is of significance for the future if applied consistently .

Legal framework

In the *Länder* of the Federal Republic of Germany, education is compulsory for nine or ten years. Young people may either continue attending a school providing general education to obtain a higher education matriculation certificate (*Abitur*) after a total of 13 years, or begin vocational training at a vocational school.

The majority of young people seeking vocational training look for a training place with a company to become, for example, bank clerks, motor mechanics, or information or communications system engineers and clerical staff. This training generally lasts 3 to 3½ years. This system of vocational training embraces concurrent training at a second location: a vocational school (*Berufsschule*). The dual system thus has twin pillars: the workplace and a vocational school (Zedler, 1996). It calls for close cooperation between the places of training at all levels of vocational education (Pätzold, Walden, 1995).

Young people may enter dual vocational training not only after completion of compulsory education but also, increasingly, after obtaining a higher education matriculation certificate. In 1998, the overall proportion of trainees with this qualification had reached 16.5%, and as much as 69% in the banks (Deutscher Instituts-Verlag 1999).

Vocational education is also provided in schools, alongside the dual system. This lasts from one to three years and provides vocational preparation, basic vocational education training or vocational training in accordance with *Land* regulations or, more recently, a vocational qualification equivalent to dual vocational training.

Vocational training under the dual system is based on the Vocational Training Law (*Berufsbildungsgesetz*). Training in around 350 occupations recognised by the state is governed by training regulations (*Ausbildungsordnungen*). These are issued by the relevant Federal Ministry in collaboration with the *Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung* (Federal Institute for Vocational Training Affairs) and within the agreement of the Federal Ministry of Education and Science. For learning in the workplace, the training regulations lay down the duration, aims and content of training, the subjects and timetable, and the examination requirements.

The *Länder* have autonomous competence for education in the Federal Republic of Germany. They are responsible for the arrangements for teaching in vocational schools. To fit together with training in the workplace, which is regulated at national level, the principles of education at vocational schools must be standardised. Hence, the Conference of Ministers of Education of the 16 *Länder* publishes framework syllabuses for vocational courses in vocational schools. Subjects which are not specific to a particular occupation (such as German/communication, politics or a foreign language) are regulated by the *Länder*.

Training regulations and framework syllabuses are important regulatory tools of the dual vocational training in Germany.

In 1996, the Conference of Ministers of Education agreed guidelines for drawing up syllabuses for vocational subjects in vocational schools and reconciling these

with the training regulations (*Sekretariat,* 1996). They contain provisions governing the work of the syllabus committees. Framework syllabuses are devised by educationalists appointed by the Ministers of Education of the *Länder*, one *Land* takes the chair. The work is monitored by the secretariat of the Conference of Ministers of Education.

These framework syllabuses are the curricula for vocational subjects in vocational schools. The curriculum development of the subject matter contained in them will now be examined.

Didactical framework

As long ago as 1970, the Education Committee of the then German Education Council (*Deutscher Bildungsrat*) laid down roughly what syllabuses were intended to do. The curriculum 'refers to the learning processes: what knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and behaviour is the learner to acquire? With what subjects and contents is he to be confronted? In what stages, in what way and using what materials is he to learn? How is it to be established that the learning objectives have been attained? Curriculum means the programme of subject-matter and teaching required for learning.'

Hence, the curriculum must above all specify the:

❑ aim of the education (in this case vocational training), i.e. the educational mission of the vocational school;

❑ didactic principles for the planning of teaching; and

❑ content and structure of the 'teaching programme'.

The abovementioned guidelines set out principles for these aspects of a curriculum. They are explained below, illustrated by two examples. Additional requirements for a curriculum which are important are not dealt with at national level. These include (Halfpap, 1998):

❑ training course design as an element in the structuring of course-related learning;

❑ organisational aspects of working and learning (e.g. course conferences, planning of specialist accommodation and timetabling);

❑ principles of assessing learners' performance;

❑ guidance on planning the teaching year.

In their implementation of the framework syllabuses, the *Länder* do, however, lay down principles governing these aspects, e.g. in North Rhine-Westphalia (*Ministerium für Schule und Weiterbildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen,* 1997).

The educational mission of vocational schools

Vocational schools and approved training companies fulfil a joint educational role. In training regulations, the aim of vocational competency is usually summed up as the independent planning, implementation and assessment of work tasks.

For vocational schools, the Conference of Ministers of Education (Sekretariat, 1991) has set out the aims of vocational training in greater detail:

❑ to impart vocational competency combining specialist skill with general abilities of a liberal and social nature;

❑ to develop occupational flexibility to cope with the changing demands in the world of work and society, bearing in mind European integration;

❑ awakening of a desire for further training and continuing education;

❑ promotion of the ability and willingness to act responsibly in private and public life.

The Conference of Ministers of Education agreement of 1996 (Sekretariat, 1996) sums up this educational mission of vocational schools by stating that they shall 'enable [learners] to carry out occupational tasks and play a part in shaping the world of work and society with social and ecological responsibility'.

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"(...) the contents and aims of teaching are structured by learning areas, and no longer by subjects. 'Learning areas are areas of action that are didactically based and adapted for teaching' (...)"

To achieve this, vocational schools must:

❑ 'provide teaching which is specific to its task, with the emphasis on action';

❑ foster occupational and general skills;

❑ ensure that educational provision is varied and flexible;

❑ provide comprehensive support and encouragement for the disabled and disadvantaged;

❑ carry out environmental education.

These aims are geared to developing active skills, embracing specialist skills, human skills (personal skills) and social skills, out of which methodological and learning skills grow. In table 1 'Goals of work-based learning', 'overall ability to act' as the aim of vocational training is broken down into essential skill areas (Ott, 1997) and skills that will be important in future. The world of commerce makes a similar demand: 'The modern world of work calls for a unified system of theoretical and practical knowledge, skills and abilities, social skills and action orientation' (Schlaffke, 1996).

Principles of teaching

The teaching guidelines drawn up by the Conference of Ministers of Education for the planning of framework syllabuses (Sekretariat, 1996) are of such great importance for action-based theory that they should be applied generally to the development of curricula for vocational schools:

❑ learning takes place for the purpose of, and through, action. Teaching is based on situations;

❑ action should wherever possible be planned, carried out and assessed independently by learners;

❑ action should encourage a perception of reality as a whole;

❑ learning must incorporate learners' experience. The social consequences of actions are to be taken into account;

❑ learning must involve social processes (e.g. declaration of interests and conflict resolution).

There needs to be a systemic link between specialist knowledge and action. Learners should be in control of their own learning rather than – as is traditionally the case – being the object of tuition.

Content and structure of syllabuses

The framework syllabuses consist of three sections. Section 1 states the general educational purpose of vocational schools and the governing principles of the teaching. Section 2 sets out the legal framework specific to the particular occupation for which training is to be provided, as well as its aims and principles. Section 3 is what is strikingly new: the contents and aims of teaching are structured by learning areas, and no longer by subjects. Learning areas are areas of action that are didactically based and adapted for teaching' (Bader, 1998). A syllabus generally contains between 10 and 20 learning areas.

The learning areas consist of

❑ training content;

❑ aims expressed as active occupational skills; and

❑ suggested time allocations.

The content is based on 'actual occupational tasks and procedures'. The list of contents contradicts the previously stated principle of a situation-based approach: according to action-based theory, action situations (Halfpap, 1996) or learning situations (Bader/Schäfer, 1996) should logically be used. The aims relate to outcomes to be achieved by learners in a learning area.

A suggested time allocation is given in teaching hours (of 45 minutes each) per training year for the teaching of every learning area. This enables each learning area to be given a quantitative value as part of the whole course. Vocational teaching usually accounts for 8 teaching

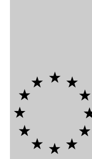


Table 1

Goals of work-based learning

Skills

Specialist

General
(Key skills)

Knowledge skills

Problem-solving skills

Interaction skills

Responsibility skills

Customs – Attitudes – Values – Norms

Specialist skills

Methodological skills

Individual skills

Social skills

Overall ability to act

hours per week, that is, 320 teaching hours over 40 weeks. Total teaching time at vocational schools amounts to a minimum of 12 teaching hours per week (480 teaching hours a year), so that the content of at least four teaching hours per week is determined by the *Länder* and used for general and optional subjects.

When the recommended teaching time is set, it is assumed that at most 80% of the possible teaching hours will be used for dealing with the learning areas. This avoids an overloading of syllabuses. 'Traditional comprehensive coverage of specialist knowledge is abandoned, while a systematic overview, which is the prerequisite for thinking in different contexts, is retained.'

The arrangement of the framework syllabus in learning areas is intended to encourage holistic learning and to support holistic action-oriented examinations. The examination for the new information and telecommunications occupations therefore consists of dealing with practical cases and a workplace project with its documentation and presentation.

The first example in table 2 from the framework syllabus for banking training (as at December 1997, see figure) not only illustrates the overall plan, but also shows, for instance, that attention has to be given to the matter of advising customers on 'accounts'.

The second example in table 3 from the framework syllabus for training in hearing aid acoustics (as at February 1997, only given in part, see figure) shows that learning areas are covered over several different training years. This means working by means of a spiral curriculum, building and expanding on what has gone before, which requires long-term planning of teaching. In North Rhine-Westphalia, for example, all the teachers working on a particular course are required to draw up their annual teaching plans at a course conference.

The debate on education policy in Germany

The new arrangement of framework syllabuses in learning areas instead of subjects has generated lively discussion in Germany among teachers of vocational and commercial subjects. Goldbach (1998) summarises this debate in relation to commerce and administration. While the Association of Teachers in Commercial Colleges (*Verband der Lehrer an Wirtschaftsschulen*, 1996) argues for the retention of subjects, Goldbach calls for teaching by learning areas in vocational schools and explains how this notion is applied in Lower Saxony (Goldbach, 1999). According to Goldbach (1998), learning areas reflect the increased networking between information and communications which results from globalisation and ignores traditional boundaries between subjects, and provide both curriculum and teaching with 'three key benefits…: situational/practical relevance, personal relevance, and commercial relevance'.

North Rhine-Westphalia has retained the concept of teaching subjects, the prescribed learning areas being divided between various subjects. This runs counter to the educational notion of holistic learning and is arbitrary in effect (Teichmann, 1998). The prescribed phases of learning which are intended to link subjects together through action-based situations represent an attempt to implement the educational concept laid down by the Conference of Ministers of Education but are, in my view, inadequate. Berlin also retains the principle of subjects for training in banking (cf. Noll 1998). Parczynski (1998) recommends combining learning areas in accordance with examination subjects.

The notion of learning areas appears to present fewer problems in craft trade courses. According to Bader/Schäfer (1998), this notion is more likely to lead to action-oriented teaching despite the limitations imposed in their view by inadequate school facilities. These can be changed, where there is the will.

It would go beyond the bounds of this article to give an overview of how the *Länder* of the Federal Republic of Germany variously apply the concept of learning areas in their syllabuses. The examples given demonstrate the attempt either to retain the tradition of subjects and to apportion learning areas to them, or to adopt learning areas as the new

Table 2

Learning Area 2: Managing accounts

Training year 1
Suggested time allocation: 80 teaching hours

Aims

Students should be able to discuss ways of using bank accounts. They should distinguish between different types of account and be able to advise customers on the choice of an account and on its operation. They should be able to analyse problems in the management of accounts and devise suggested solutions. They should perceive account management as a customer-oriented service, bearing in mind customers' rights as consumers. They should be able to advise customers on the choice of payment methods.

Contents

- Overview of types of account
- Opening of accounts by private and business customers: account contract, proof of identity, legal capacity and business authorisation, general terms and conditions
- Operation of accounts by account holders, legal representatives, authorised agents and trustees
- Overview of payment by credit transfer, cheque, direct debit and cards
- Overview of means of paying when travelling
- Measures to prevent money laundering
- Credit and debit statements for private current accounts
- Management of an account on the death of the account holder
- Bank secrecy and banking information, data protection

Table 3

Learning Area 12: Capturing hearing aid key data and servicing and repairing hearing aids

Training years 1 / 2 / 3
Suggested time allocation: 50 / 40 / 40 teaching hours

Aims

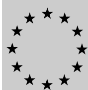
Students should be able to identify and adequately describe faults in the casing, energy supply, operational parts, converters and acoustic signal channels of hearing systems, and to assess these for possible repair. They should also be able to check the functioning of a hearing system systematically. They should be able to make well-founded decisions as to whether a repair is worthwhile and whether they can carry this out using their own means….

Contents

Basic operation of electronic hearing systems and their component parts, identification and description of faults

- Visual checking of hearing systems for mechanical faults
- Electrical circuit, voltage, current, resistance, use of multiple gauges
- Electrical energy and output
- …
- Electronic acoustic converters, acoustic signal channels

……



"A number of pilot projects have been conducted in Germany to test and evaluate action-based learning across subjects. Four examples will be mentioned. These show that the 'stony path' to action-oriented teaching in vocational schools can be made smoother by the use of pilots, and that little has changed in relation to cooperation with learning at the workplace."

structural components of teaching in vocational schools. In the latter case, either subjects are dispensed with entirely in vocational teaching, for example in Brandenburg, or learning areas are split into subject-specific sections, for example in Thuringia.[1]

The practice of holistic learning

New guidelines and syllabuses for teaching in vocational schools have been devised and tried out in the schools since 1997. There is as yet no overall evaluation of the outcomes of school-based learning. In July 1999, however, the Federal Institute for Vocational Training Affairs published the final reports of the 'Evaluation for Office Occupations' relating to workplace learning (*Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung,* 1999). From these it is evident that the newly defined office occupations have gained widespread acceptance among employers and trainees. Numbers training as office communications staff in industry, commerce and craft trades have risen particularly strongly. There is general agreement that there is a lack of cooperation with the vocational schools in all fields, even though all concerned agree that these play a significant part in ensuring the quality of vocational training under the dual system. General skills are also deliberately fostered at the workplace in accordance with the principles of action orientation. In vocational schools, on the other hand, frontal tuition still predominates, although newer methodological approaches are increasingly being used, for example projects, group work and cross-subject tuition.[2]

A number of pilot projects have been conducted in Germany to test and evaluate action-based learning across subjects. Four examples will be mentioned. These show that the 'stony path' to action-oriented teaching in vocational schools can be made smoother by the use of pilots, and that little has changed in relation to cooperation with learning at the workplace.

In the 'WOKI' pilot,[3] the principle of holistic learning ran through the learning arrangements that were tested, and prospects for the further development of vocational training were assessed. A learning arrangement is a relatively complex and structured situation of limited content and duration which fosters a wide range of skills and stresses 'learners' own activity in the form of learning through action' (Diephold et al., 1991). The curriculum must therefore go beyond the usual list of subject-matter and adopt a comprehensive and integrative approach, with the recommendation that the school curriculum become more flexible and modular.

In the case of the 'BUBILE' pilot,[4] holistic learning approaches to environmental education were developed in cooperation between the workplace and the vocational school, and tested at seven vocational schools in various Federal *Länder* (Drees, Pätzold, 1997). This pilot clarified numerous problem areas in innovative approaches to vocational training. For instance, teachers felt it to be an additional burden to have to learn not only about the content of environmental education but also about the entirely new concepts of learning, and their application, which derived from the educational concept of action orientation. Learners, on the other hand, were very interested in the major topic of 'the environment' and were highly motivated by new forms of learning, especially project work. Many learners had difficulty, however, in coming to terms with demanding forms of learning that were unfamiliar to them. There was a lack of interest in cooperation between the places of learning.

In the 'Learning office' pilot, teachers were given training in model enterprises in the *Land* of Brandenburg in the designing of commercial courses across subjects. This training was also the basis for teaching in the newly defined office occupations (Halfpap, Oppenberg, Richter, 1996). The pilot confirmed that action-oriented teaching, especially in the form of learning through work in a 'learning office' (combining theory and practice) leads to enhanced specialist, methodological and social skills.

The 'Workshop Laboratory' pilot project in the *Land* of Schleswig-Holstein has provided the most thorough trial and

1) See the guidelines and syllabuses issued by the *Länder*.

2) This has been observed at least in the case of the training of office communications sales engineers (in industry/commerce and craft trades). Local government authorities report, however, that in the training of 'skilled office communications clerks', group teaching and other forms of transmitting knowledge are seldom used in place of frontal tuition.

3) Wolfsburger Kooperationsmodell für den Ausbildungsberuf Industriekaufmann/-frau unter besonderer Berücksichtigung neuer Technologien (Wolfsburg model of cooperation in the training of industrial clerical staff with particular emphasis on new technologies).

4) Entwicklung und Erprobung ganzheitlicher Lernansätze in der Umweltbildung in Kooperation zwischen Betrieb und Berufsschule (Development and testing of holistic learning approaches in environmental education in cooperation between workplace and vocational school).

evaluation yet of holistic, self-directed learning in vocational school non-subject based courses (Halfpap, Marwede, 1994). Four groups of trainee grinding machine operators were obliged largely to organise their own learning by dealing with a complex task, with the support of two or three teachers. The emphasis was on the fostering of key skills through relevant ways of organising learning such as individual, group and plenary work, under the overall maxim of autonomous planning, conduct and assessment of the task to be done. This demonstrated that learners must first of all start behaving as 'active designers of their own learning' rather than as 'consumers of knowledge', and that teachers must start 'facilitating learning' rather than 'teaching'. This was a lengthy process. All the trainees passed their final examinations, which were still largely based on factual knowledge (and in some cases they did better than comparable groups with traditional subject teaching). Learners also realised for themselves that they had made astonishing progress in learning so-called key skills they:

❑ were able to cooperate in training themselves;

❑ were more motivated to learn than in traditional, subject-based teaching;

❑ realised the sense and purpose of their learning;

❑ were able to gain and make use of relevant experience in dealing with actual action learning situations (Halfpap, 1996);

❑ realised that they were also effectively acquiring social behaviour through considered action;

❑ had to learn to use their freedom to take decisions, and to deal with information material.

These examples of the empirically established achievements of holistic learning show that the educational concept underlying the new national syllabuses for the development of the overall ability to act is of significance for the future if it is applied consistently in the *Länder*.

"(...) learners must first of all start behaving as 'active designers of their own learning' rather than as 'consumers of knowledge', and that teachers must start 'facilitating learning' rather than 'teaching'."

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The active roles of learning and social dialogue for organisational change

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This research indicates that, notwithstanding institutionalised frameworks, social dialogue can be seen to be emerging around key issues and involving processes of an operational and strategic nature. It is here that institutional forms of social dialogue may give way to more innovative and creative formats hardly mentioned within current thinking and this stands as a challenge to policy makers for the future. The central challenge for policy makers is how to provide enabling measures to support such socially innovative enterprise practices whilst balancing the need for wider protective and positive rights under the social action programme.

Introduction

Prosperity and employment growth in modern economies are increasingly dependent upon the creation and sustaining of a highly skilled and adaptable workforce. The European approach on the whole has tended to regard high skills, training, good communications and a consensual organisational regime as part of the competitive advantage of firms. In the current context, however, this is being challenged by contradictory strategies that emphasise deregulatory, hire and fire, low-skill and low-wage strategies that do not see the central importance of enterprise human investment and mechanisms for social dialogue. Currently one can see free market ideas, unitarist impositions of change and downsizing policies competing alongside other models of organisational change that demand considerable skill enhancement and high levels of social dialogue. The arguments about the importance of human capital and how it might best be developed inside organisations are at a crossroads.

In EU terms 'social dialogue' means the formal institutional relationship between the social partners defined as the trade unions and the employers bodies, at European, national and sectoral level. The assumptions underlying the official concept are of formal, institutionalised and top-down sets of relationships which, it is accepted, misses out a host of enterprise-based relationships that are actively participative, partnership-led and constitute real changes to human resources and workplace outcomes.

Underlying the research upon which this article is based is the hypothesis that [the] social dialogue can be the decisive factor in the process of competence development, reskilling, training and the development of human investment by enterprises. What has been obscured is the way companies involve the workforce and their representatives, what joint forums are created, and how the necessary cultural transformation is portrayed and achieved. Central here is a wider sense of change, going beyond the implementation of a set of techniques to improve skills, training packages and development strategies. This change enters the area of enhanced commitment, cultural renewal and new forms of agreement between the parties. This idea of increased mutuality, with a necessary role for active social dialogue or, what we prefer to call social partnership, is crucial.

Managerial staff admit to unease about mutuality, as traditionally management, as a practice, has been about control, exercising specific expertise and maintaining clear lines of responsibility. In this particularly Taylorist perspective, contact and compromise through consultation and joint fora are recipes for misdirected muddle. Alternatively, the culture of inclusive involvement is not extensive across Europe. Trade union and employee representatives are not routinely allowed or empowered to give of their expertise or enabled to make significant inputs into key organisational policies (Cressey, *et al*, 1988, Frolich, *et al*. 1993, IDE group, 1993). However, where it is practised the results in terms of improved industrial relations atmosphere, improved morale,

"[the] social dialogue can be the decisive factor in the process of competence development, reskilling, training and the development of human investment by enterprises. What has been obscured is the way companies involve the workforce and their representatives, what joint forums are created, and how the necessary cultural transformation is portrayed and achieved."

"Our stated aim in the research project was to establish a multi-dimensional approach (...)"

"The international research team subsequently undertook primary research in twelve corporate sites across four countries: Germany, Sweden, Italy and the UK; and three sectors: automotive assembly, banking and telecommunications."

acceptance of change and employee commitment have been clearly identified by the social partners (Frohlich *et al*, op. cit.; EPOC Research Group, 1997).

The current period with its turbulent markets, production regime changes, deregulation, networking and introduction of new technologies has increasingly made a Taylorist imperative both redundant and potentially harmful. Management actors might have the knowledge of necessary changes, the ability to specify objectives and see the promise that these could bring, but lack the processes to bring them into being. It is in this area that the Partnership and Investment in Europe (PIE) research project sought to outline the potential for social dialogue in the urgent task of human capital renewal and development (Cressey & Kelleher, 1999). The project came up with four significant findings. Firstly, there has been a marked shift from formal training to non-formal learning with an associated emphasis on more generic skills. Secondly, this transformation embraces at least three domains - individual, group and organisational learning, which we describe later. Thirdly, the centrality of learning is coupled with more developed systems of social partnership and attempts to create active and meaningful dialogue. Finally, in all of the cases there is a movement towards human resource development strategies that fuse together learning and social dialogue

The research

Our stated aim in the research project was to establish a multi-dimensional approach to the examination of human resource development and organisational change. To this end, a multi-disciplinary research team drew on secondary literature on organisational behaviour, organisational development, human resource management, training and development and industrial relations. The international research team subsequently undertook primary research in twelve corporate sites across four countries: Germany, Sweden, Italy and the UK; and three sectors: automotive assembly, banking and telecommunications. These countries have been chosen as they represent the major systems of industrial relations (Due, *et al*, 1991), represent the major models of European human resource management practice (Brewster & Hegewisch, 1994), and have differing traditions of social dialogue (Cressey and Williams, 1991). The sectors were chosen to represent those industrial sectors undergoing profound economic restructuring, technological, human resource, and competence related changes in policies and practices.

This focus on individual enterprises allowed for detailed and systematic evidence to be established of the driving forces and responses to contemporary global influences. Such an approach is distinct in that it supplements more nationally and supra-nationally oriented debates that are well established around the vocational education and training domains.

The research allowed current developments and trends surrounding corporate experiences in competence developments to be incorporated. In addition, the project took as its aim the linking of these developments with another EU stated policy priority - the development of social dialogue. The hitherto compartmentalisation of these two issues as separate domains for both research and organisational level practice, is increasingly seen by the actors as a hindrance to both corporate performance and human competency development. The mutual influence and reinforcement of the two issues has been drawn out in the corporate case studies.

Each of the companies studied experienced corporate cultural transformation programmes that located these two issues as both subjects for change and catalysts for further and wider changes, that then set strategies for competitive advantage.

The twelve cases are an important resource but cannot claim to be representative of the overall European scene. The companies do however give a good indication of how the industries are handling human resource development to deal better with turbulent environments. Through cross-sectoral and transnational analysis a picture of the extent to which traditional industrial relations are giving way to participatory and partnership relations across Europe can be displayed. The cases are shown in table 1:

All participating companies are large, well-respected with a history of promoting both partnership and advanced training methods.

From training to learning

The most significant shift taking place amongst the case studies indicates that from training to learning. This is a shift of content and a re-orientation towards both more generic skills and context specific expertise and away from fixed occupational skills. Respondents in the companies reported on the changing needs of new employees in terms of skill and competence compared to those needed on joining the organisation much earlier. Much of the language describing this change reflects the transformations alluded to earlier - higher quality demands, adaptability, customer service skills, more responsibility, greater time pressure, etc. When pressed, both management and employee representatives recognised the need to burst out of the concern for narrow qualifications and the matching of them to specific jobs. This was for the simple reason that there is no guarantee that those jobs would actually be there in the future. In the telecommunications industry, one human resource director estimated that 80% of the current jobs would be obsolete in five years time. This trend is different in other sectors, but still has resonance for them. The banks, particularly, are shedding old style branch staff, replacing or re-training them for customer service jobs, call centre employment, or sales and marketing. To train people for a narrow range of tasks or fit people into restricted job definitions makes little sense in such a context. The move towards wider job classifications systems is an illustration of this precise point - in a number of cases job family modelling is replacing older occupational and clerical classifications. This allowed wider movements of staff without elaborate re-classification exercises.

Instead, a mixture of qualification and generic skills training is called for to produce a workforce capable of learning to meet the demands of their new contexts. Hence, there is much emphasis in the case studies on problem solving capacity, social interaction skills, team working, logical reasoning, adaptability and flexibility of response. It is the ability to know, solve or respond that becomes uppermost, not definitive or repetitive skills. In looking at the learning structures and their content across the case studies, this aspect does stand out strongly. In these circumstances, traditional notions of training for occupational jobs and associated levels of competence has given way to more generic concepts of learning, often non-formal and outside of the normal range of vocational education and training provision (Cressey & Kelleher, 1999, op. cit.).

Table 1:
PIE case studies

	Automotive	Banking	Telecom
Sweden	Volvo	Svenska Handelsbank	Telia
Italy	FIAT	Banco Ambrosiano Veneto	Telecom Italia Mobile (TIM)
Germany	Mercedes	Deutsche Bank	Deutsche Telekom
United Kingdom	Rover Body Pressings	NatWest Bank	British Telecom

Three domains of learning

The issue and centrality of learning has increased and become a routine element within corporate strategy discussions. To aid explanation it is useful to explore the three domains of individual, group and organisational learning, with the caveat that there are significant relationships - one to the other - which should not be forgotten.

Each country and set of case studies showed how the need for individual staff to be more flexible necessitated a change in approach. Rather than offer a menu of classroom courses companies were now thinking more deeply about how they get people on to the first rung of active learning. For example, in Deutsche Bank there is a move from an entitlement to training to self-responsibility for their lifelong learning (Kuhn & Reimann 1998a). The

"The twelve cases are an important resource but cannot claim to be representative of the overall European scene. The companies do however give a good indication of how the industries are handling human resource development to deal better with turbulent environments. Through cross-sectoral and transnational analysis a picture of the extent to which traditional industrial relations are giving way to participatory and partnership relations across Europe can be displayed."

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"Organisations in the study appear to have accepted that in both the social dialogue and HRD, what might have been previously considered rights / entitlements - to training and to consultation - are now firmly regarded as active parts of firms' business strategies. (...) It also requires mechanisms for establishing consensus and commitment that shape shared mental models. In this landscape, an emphasis on learning development as the sole vehicle for competitive advantage will be insufficient."

Rover Employees Assisted Learning (REAL) scheme gave each employee an annual sum of money to spend on any learning area they wanted. This did not need to have a direct connection to the job they did or to the occupational area. Instead Rover wanted to get its employees into the habit of learning irrespective of content (Cressey, 1997). In the Svenska Handelsbank, a competence programme accompanied the shift from product to customer orientation where employees chose their own pathways (Docherty & Ullstad, 1998a). In NatWest, the company began seriously to value non-standard skills (namely those not previously related to bank tasks). It recognised that within their organisation they already had people who were active in charities, artistically creative, administratively adept in outside groupings and in possession of skills that the new context demanded (Cressey, 1998a). In addition to this sea change in approach, we can also document a host of supportive policies to enable individuals to learn. Common among them were individual development plans, personal appraisal techniques and learning centres.

Team and group learning is not as extensive as individual learning. However there was evidence of a number of innovative and novel approaches to this issue. Team work, as a format seemed to exist *sui generis*. It is not confined to manufacturing and is growing in various areas of banking and telecommunications groups. The problem, if there is one here, lies in the designation of what is a team or cohesive group. Teamwork in Rover appeared to lie at the centre of all of major issues and themes developed over the last ten years. In the view of the senior engineering union convenor the major change was the move from command to commitment via the use of self-managed teams. In Volvo, the introduction of QDE-teams (quality, development precision, economy) that are multi-skilled with broad business responsibilities in relation to customers in a radically upgraded technical environment is interesting. The QDE teams constitute a new strategic platform for competence and business development. They are based on shared value premises between the unions and management on the need for and relevance of social responsibility in the company and the critical importance for the company of both providing rewarding work and achieving world class performance (Docherty & Ullstad, 1998b).

Organisational learning structures were particularly well represented in the studies. The creation of feedback loops and mechanisms for shared information and problem solving is fundamental to a learning organisation. In the telecom area, unsurprisingly, there is very sophisticated use of information technology to provide staff with information, documents on-line, diagnostic tools and problem-solving forums. Telia had set up an 'Interactive Academy' providing expertise on-line; it had an open access policy for all staff in relation to document retrieval and an advanced Intranet system (Docherty & Ullstad, 1998c). In Fiat's new Melfi plant the problem of organisational learning was dealt with through the creation of an organisational 'toolkit' constituted by a diversity of stakeholders throughout the organisation (Erlicher & D'Amato, 1997). The same can be said of BT, which again had the full gamut of sophisticated telecommunications equipment and facilities. It too had an Intranet this time with levels of accessibility depending on need and function. Trade union officials were displeased that they were not allowed access to the Intranet and felt this was a failure in the partnership approach of the company (Cressey, 1998b). Deutsche Telecom also had an Intranet and had invested heavily in the use of IT as a learning channel, creating a Televersity and the Funline series of CD-ROM's for use throughout the organisation (Kuhn & Reimann, 1998b). Intranets and IT learning structures were not just the province of the telecommunication companies, Rover and NatWest had them in a more limited sense - limited because not everyone had access to computer work stations. One of the most developed of these kind of structures was found in Deutsche Bank which had a very large project called 'Columbus' dedicated to corporate learning. This was a part of the new Corporate University that combines both learning structures and a central information system. Columbus is a decentralised, useable and universal tool of control, which integrates all educational offers and services for the vocational and further training of staff.

Alignment of social dialogue and learning strategies

Organisations in the study appear to have accepted that in both the social dialogue and HRD, what might have been previously considered rights / entitlements - to training and to consultation - are now firmly regarded as active parts of firms' business strategies. This change is important because the growing turbulence in business environments now requires a workforce that is adaptive, flexible and responsive. It also requires mechanisms for establishing consensus and commitment that shape shared mental models. In this landscape, an emphasis on learning development as the sole vehicle for competitive advantage will be insufficient.

The 12 case studies show that many of the external driving forces have been the same and are pushing converging enterprise agendas across Europe. This means that whilst there are variations in Europe, for example between different legal and industrial relations models, they do not necessarily hinder the development of a common European pattern emerging. Only in the German case do we see some rigidities imposed by the strong national statutory framework. Yet even here we see the rise of direct dialogue structures, group formats and learning loop mechanisms as found elsewhere. Whilst industrial relations systems in Europe vary tremendously has not been found to be a key causal factor in the development of training and learning strategies in these companies. Differences exist both within systems and across them making neat distinctions difficult to uphold as we find good examples in supposedly non-inclusionary systems (Della Rocca, 1998; Cressey & Kelleher 1999, op. cit.). Part of the explanation may be that the movement in human resources and industrial relations has been decentralised over the past two decades and there has been, at the same time, a rise in direct forms of participation. Both of these movements possibly reduce the importance of structural models and their impact on corporate practice.

This means that corporate practice and their industrial relations cultures are becoming more differentiated, whilst the issues and processes they are concerned with are increasingly similar. All of this highlights that new partnerships and new forms of dialogue are supplementing, or even in some cases beginning to replace, past institutional practices.

All of the enterprises studied are leading examples of good practice in their sectors. In relation to innovatory practices and formats a number of studies could be highlighted. Volvo, for instance, had expanded the realm of social dialogue beyond the enterprise. Training and learning initiatives were now no longer focused on the narrow concerns of the company but located in a broader concern for local and regional employability policies and practices. Rover stands as a fine example of company agreements over representation, participation and training matters that allow a deepening of partnership principles to enable joint training, union-benchmarking and a learning culture to become embedded. The telecommunications sector, as a whole, proved to be cases where partnerships and learning were occurring despite massive changes to employment, sector and organisational structures. Here, the parties appeared to be seeking more innovative approaches to strategic consultation. It was in this sector that the trade unions had to make the most wide-ranging changes to their own mental models, attitudes and preparedness for change.

In comparison, the banking sector can appear, from the outside, to be conservative. Our case studies suggest that technological innovation is being met by significant organisational and cultural change. BAV (Marcuccio & Acuti, 1998), Svenska Handelsbank, NatWest and Deutsche Bank are handling their transition to increased customer focus and more flexible and open structures, by programmes designed to equip staff for their new roles and tasks.

Participation is now extensive rather than restricted and tied more and more to issues of change within the workplace and enterprise. Rather than just having a formal and set committee discussing issues and transmitting the latest market update, the nature of the involvement is often of a problem-solving character - improving

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"The emphasis in the case studies on an acceptance of the changed competitive environment and the need for strategies of dialogue based on added-value rather than power redistribution. This means a refashioning of the formal social dialogue relationship. For many, this translates into seeking dialogue that is not institutional or committee based."

"All of the sectors (...) indicate that a retreat by the unions into rights-based discussions whether over pay, gradings or skills is no longer possible. The dialogue is increasingly inside the strategies of management, involved in elaborating future needs, helping the transmission of greater awareness of corporate developments and actively assisting the implementation of change. (...) unions have not flinched from involvement providing there is a quid pro quo. This has usually meant a call for real partnership - being involved before the issue at hand is cut and dried, being involved in the elaboration process, implementation and evaluation - not as outsiders but in tandem."

quality, aiding process improvements, smoothing through processes of technical or organisational change. The issues of enterprise change and competences to match new work organisation structures are increasingly dominating the agenda for partnership.

The emphasis in the case studies is on an acceptance of the changed competitive environment and the need for strategies of dialogue based on added-value rather than power redistribution. This means a refashioning of the formal social dialogue relationship. For many, this translates into seeking dialogue that is not institutional or committee based. In one telecommunications company, the senior trade unionists actively opposed rigid mechanisms that depend upon formal meetings and rota attendance. They sought 'strategic dialogue' with the employers before decisions were made and at a point where they could have maximum impact. It was accepted that such dialogue is not easy, nor does it wipe away conflicts of interest that arise from time to time, but it was seen as the path forward by both parties in that case and in a number of the others.

To some extent the form of participation that was sufficient and effective in a period of stable markets, stable job classifications and, by extension, stable skills needs, is no longer sufficient and effective. The move from Taylorist/Fordist practices in industry, from staple bureaucratic procedures in the public utilities and services means a corresponding change in the formal and institutional framework that serviced them and gained agreement/ consensus. A point made forcibly by some of the trade union representatives in the studies is that in the face of production system changes and the reorientation of basic functions, new social mechanisms for agreement and feedback have to be inaugurated. The existence of a committee, a works council or a formally organised joint consultation structure does not signal the existence of trade union influence or real and vital participation anymore.

As the intellectual content of jobs grows, as the demands for greater social skills increase and as the importance of active problem-solving develops, it multiplies the need for active rather than passive involvement, particularly in human resource issues. A thread running through most of the case studies is the active and self-responsible involvement strategies on behalf of the trade unions and employees. All of the sectors, but in particular the telecommunication cases, indicate that a retreat by the unions into rights-based discussions whether over pay, gradings or skills is no longer possible. The dialogue is increasingly inside the strategies of management, involved in elaborating future needs, helping the transmission of greater awareness of corporate developments and actively assisting the implementation of change. This last element can be painful for unions when it involves job reductions and restructuring, but here, as the case studies show, unions have not flinched from involvement providing there is a *quid pro quo*. This has usually meant a call for real partnership - being involved before the issue at hand is cut and dried, being involved in the elaboration process, implementation and evaluation - not as outsiders but in tandem.

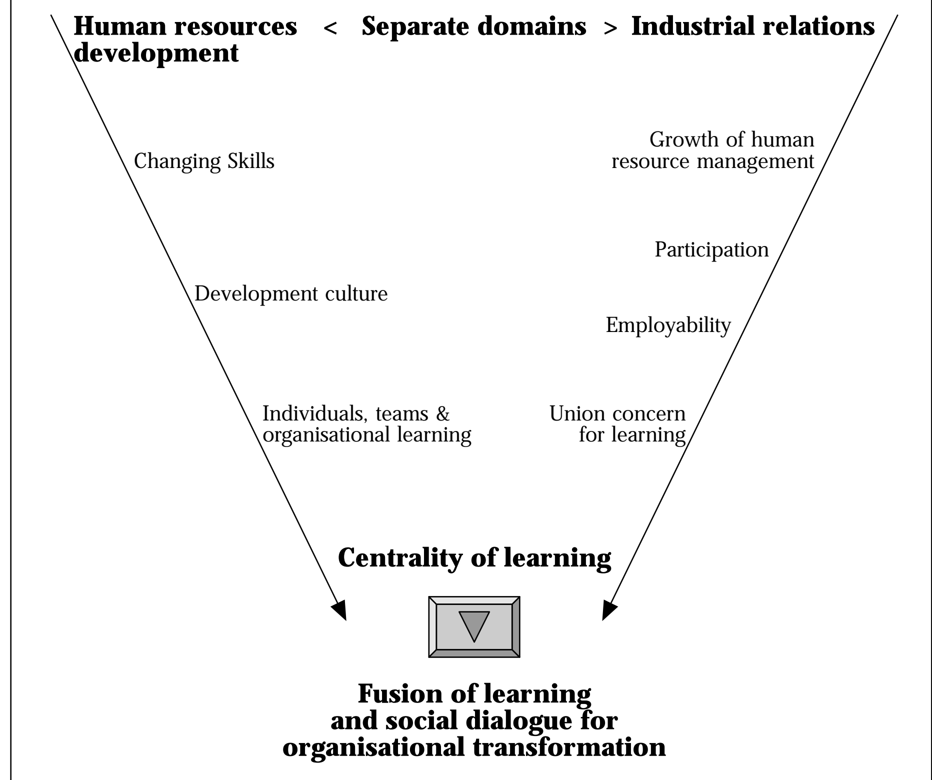
The movements detected in the 12 case studies indicate that trade unions can no longer regard training and learning as subject to management prerogative (Cressey & Kelleher 1999 op. cit.). The changes in work roles and markets can potentially affect unions' capacities for representation, recruitment and retention of membership. This means that their growing activity in this field can be seen as both defensive and proactive. It is defensive in its attempts to stabilise membership losses and unions' existing institutional presence and influence. It is proactive in seeking to extend representation into the new and vital enterprise issues of contemporary concern. It is because of this latter development that unions have become concerned with value-added strategies in Table 2 illustrates a trend detected in the case studies and is, we believe, indicative of an increasing recognition that the two issues of social dialogue and human resource development need to be fused if organisational transformation is to be successful.

The project's original proposal asked explicitly, whether there was a role for the social partners in the development of learning organisations. Our four-nation

study establishes that, not only can a role be identified, but gives examples of employers and trade unions establishing new forms of relationships to underpin journeys of organisational transformation. Firms and the social actors within them, are not seeking social dialogue structures and new learning mechanisms for their own sake. They must be seen in the broader context of industrial responses to global market environments. Competitive advantage now comes from regimes able to abandon the worst aspects of Taylorist practice with its standardised performances within stable market structures, and acquire self-motivated, self-acting and self-renewing strategies appropriate to the external environment. In this context actors at all levels within the enterprise are experiencing role dissonance and facing hard choices. We have pointed out above how senior and middle management are dealing with this. We have also shown that trade unions and their individual members are undergoing significant reappraisals of their own roles and identities.

Table 2

Changing relationship between industrial relations and human resource development



Conclusions

Whilst the corporate experiences in the case studies may not be representative of all European experience, they do point forward to issues and practices that other companies will have to face or are already having to emulate. The case studies represent large and profitable multi-nationals that are generally further along the road in developing their training and learning and social partnership ideas. They are also important because of their fusion of the two domains that are the focus of this study. Hence, to understand the lessons we can learn from their experience and unpack what they might mean for a wider corporate, trade union and academic audience, is of the greatest significance.

The focus on the enterprise has undoubtedly been the right one. Its production of detail regarding the changed roles, practices and strategies of the parties needs following up in a more systematic and extended way. This focus has added significantly to documenting learning environments of all the actors within and attached to the particular enterprises. The impact of these environments necessitates a more detailed understanding of the skills, competences and behavioural attributes of all the corporate actors. This project establishes the platform for a more focused analysis of the learning needs of those companies that see in the fusion of learning and dialogue the path to future competitiveness.

The need to examine the diffusion of the pressures and responses found here on smaller firms, firms in other sectors and countries is also important and potentially productive.

The centrality of social dialogue to enterprise transformation is evident from the case studies. Whilst this may not be of the same level and character as its more formal counterpart, it is nevertheless making a substantial contribution to changing practice on the ground. Policy developments in this area must take note of the fact that there has been a shift from institutionalised arrangements for social

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dialogue. In institutional formats, social actor influence is assumed due to the existence of a committee or other formal process. This research indicates that, notwithstanding institutionalised frameworks, social dialogue can be seen to be emerging around key issues and involving processes of an operational and strategic nature. It is here that institutional forms of social dialogue may give way to more innovative and creative formats hardly mentioned within current thinking and this stands as a challenge to policy makers for the future. The central challenge for policy makers is how to provide enabling measures to support such socially innovative enterprise practices whilst balancing the need for wider protective and positive rights under the social action programme.

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Political and legal framework for the development of training policy in the European Union
Part II - From Maastricht to Amsterdam

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This article looks at developments under the Community vocational training policy since the Maastricht Treaty. It shows how the policy framework established by the European acquis has supported the emergence of polices of lifelong learning and encouraged the examination and reform of vocational training systems. Despite this, the article argues that the fundamental role of the European Union as a reference point for the development of national training policies is not as strong as it was at a time when it is needed more than ever given the aim of making lifelong learning a reality.

Introduction

This is the second of two articles looking at the development and implementation of vocational training policy at European level since the founding of the European Economic Community under the Treaty of Rome in 1957 to the Treaty on European Union signed at Amsterdam which came into force in May 1999.

The first article, which appeared in issue number 20 of the European Journal, looked at the period of the common vocational training policy established under the Treaty of Rome until it was replaced by the Community vocational training policy introduced by the Treaty on European Union agreed at Maastricht in 1992.

This article looks at developments under the Community vocational training policy since the Maastricht Treaty under the European *acquis communautaire* (the body of community law which places obligations on Member States or individuals). In this article the *acquis* is interpreted in a broad sense to include:

a) European Community legal instruments – regulations, directives, decisions and recommendations;

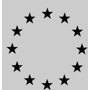
b) judgements of the European Court of Justice;

c) non-binding policy statements – conclusions and resolutions of the Council of Ministers – communications and white and green papers from the European Commission and joint opinions of the social partners.

The article shows how the policy framework established by the European *acquis* has supported the emergence of polices of lifelong learning and encouraged the examination and reform of vocational training systems, as well as facilitating co-operation between different parties throughout Europe in seeking to improve vocational training. Despite this, the article argues that the fundamental role of the European Union as a reference point for the development of national training policies is not as strong as it was at a time when it is needed more than ever given the aim of making lifelong learning a reality.

From Rome to Maastricht

Before examining developments since the Maastricht Treaty, it might be helpful to review briefly the events that preceded



To a community "(...) it is important to understand that the changes made by the Member States [from a common vocational training policy in the Maastricht Treaty in 1992] sought to preserve the nature of the policy that had been pursued up until that point and maintain the delicate balance between their national interests and those of the Community. They were introduced to rule out the possibility of intervention at the European level in Member States' vocational training systems, while continuing the various forms of practical cooperation."

it. These events are treated in more depth in the first article.

The framework for the common vocational training policy introduced by the Treaty of Rome was established by the ten principles of the Council Decision of 2 April 1963[1], laying down the principles for its implementation. Over the years, in particular during the mid 1970s to the mid 1980s, the policy framework was adapted and redefined through various non-legally binding, but strongly supported, political statements, such as resolutions from the Council of Ministers and communications from the European Commission.

The Council resolutions and Commission communications, although non-legally binding introduced new forms of cooperation including experimentation through pilot projects, joint undertaking of research, the establishment of networks and exchanges of information and experience. Furthermore, the social partners contributed to the development of the policy framework, through a series of non-legally binding joint opinions which encouraged the emergence of vocational training as an important tool of employment and active labour market policy. Vocational training was seen as playing an important role in improving employment prospects, facilitating adaptation to change, supporting the integration of young people and other groups into the labour market, and promoting equal opportunities.

In addition, from a European perspective, the common vocational training policy encouraged debate among Member States enabling national issues to be discussed more widely and areas of common interest to be identified. In this way, the European level acted as an important reference point for the development of national vocational training policies.

However, the development and implementation of the common vocational training policy through non-legally binding resolutions, backed up by commitments at a senior political level, changed in the mid-1980s, following an agreement between the European Communities' institutions that European Community (the predecessor of the European Union) funding should be sanctioned by a legal instrument based on the Treaty.

As a result, the common vocational training policy was implemented through legally binding decisions which introduced a series of action programmes. Each programme was concerned with a specific aspect of the common vocational training policy, developing the role of vocational training in adapting to change (Comett I[2] & II[3] and, 1986 and 1989, and Eurotecnet[4], 1990), supporting young people (Petra I[5] and II[6], 1987 and 1991), improving continuing training (Force[7], 1990) promoting cooperation in higher education (Erasmus[8], 1987), language learning (Lingua[9], 1990) and support for people with disabilities (Helios I[10] and II[11], 1988 and 1993). The action programmes supported and developed the same types of cooperation begun under the previous council resolutions.

However, the 1980s also saw a number of judgements[12] by the European Court of Justice (ECJ) which, in the view of Member States, extended European Community competence in the area of education and vocational training. This combined with the need to use legally binding instruments to implement the common vocational training policy led to Member States becoming concerned over the prospect of Community-wide legally binding regulation of their vocational training systems.

Consequently, during the inter-governmental conference (IGC) in 1991, which paved the way for economic and monetary union, the Member States took the opportunity to revise the vocational training provisions in the Treaty. The common vocational training policy was replaced by a Community vocational training policy to support and supplement actions in the Member States in the new Maastricht Treaty (see table 1). Harmonisation of vocational training systems was ruled out and Member States' responsibility for their content and organisation reaffirmed.

However, it is important to understand that the changes made by the Member States sought to preserve the nature of the policy that had been pursued up until that point and maintain the delicate balance between their national interests and those of the Community. They were introduced to rule out the possibility of intervention at the European level in

Member States' vocational training systems, while continuing the various forms of practical cooperation.

The Community vocational training policy: towards lifelong learning

As with its predecessor, the new Community vocational training policy framework was developed through non-legally binding instruments. In line with tradition, the Council agreed a resolution in June 1993[13] which reemphasised the importance of the role of vocational training in the key policy areas of adapting to change, supporting young people, combating unemployment and social exclusion, stimulating cooperation between education and training organisations and firms, and promoting mobility. But the resolution also pointed to the need to strengthen links between the general education and vocational training systems to provide broad based vocational training for young people, and to strengthen links between initial and continuing training. Issues that were to become elements in an evolving policy of lifelong learning.

Table 1

Treaty on European Union, Maastricht 1992 Article 127

1. The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organisation of vocational training.

2. Community action shall aim to:

   (a) facilitate adaptation to industrial changes, in particular, through vocational training and retraining;
   (b) improve initial and continuing training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labour market;
   (c) facilitate access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people;
   (d) stimulate cooperation on training between educational and training establishments and firms;
   (e) develop exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the training systems of the Member States.

3. The Community and the Member States shall foster cooperation with third countries and the competent international organisations in the sphere of vocational training.

4. The Council, acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189c and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, shall adopt measures to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, excluding any harmonisation of the laws and regulations of the Member States.

The European Commission contributed to the Community vocational training policy framework, and the development of lifelong learning, through its 1993 White Paper, Growth, competitiveness, employment – the challenges and ways forward into the 21st Century[14] .

The white paper set out a strategy to achieve more employment-intensive growth in the EU, arguing vocational training had a role to play both in combating unemployment and in boosting competitiveness. But to play this role, education and vocational training systems had to adapt to meet new demands. A number of major weaknesses in the systems were identified, namely:

a) a deficiency of skills in science and technology;

b) a relatively high number of young people in Europe leaving school without basic training (which in turn contributed to social exclusion);

c) inadequate development of systems of continuing training and access to it;

d) a lack of a genuine European skills market in both skills and qualifications; and

e) a lack of opportunities for open and distance learning.

To address these weaknesses, the white paper put forward proposals aimed essentially at developing lifelong learning and making continuing training more systematic and suggested a European Year of Lifelong Learning, which took place in 1996[15].

The development of the policy framework continued with another Commission White Paper specifically on education and vocational training, Teaching and learn-

"The European Commission (...) 1993 White Paper, Growth, competitiveness, employment – the challenges and ways forward into the 21st Century (...) put forward proposals aimed essentially at developing lifelong learning and making continuing training more systematic and suggested a European Year of Lifelong Learning, which took place in 1996."

"A significant aspect of the debate on lifelong learning was its focus on the need to adapt existing systems of education and vocational training. [It] encouraged an appraisal of systems and the process of learning. (...) the structure of systems, the different interests involved and how to encourage cooperation between them, as well as how the systems themselves were influenced by the changes taking place."

Table 2

A strategy for lifelong learning

The Council conclusions on a strategy for lifelong learning in 1996 identified the following as a framework of areas for further development:

(a) challenges for the school system;
(b) economic and social considerations;
(c) continuing education and training;
(d) pathways and links between general and vocational education;
(e) access, certification and accreditation;
(f) teachers and adult educators.

ing – towards the learning society, published in 1995[16]. It suggested education and vocational training policies should be aimed at broadening the knowledge base and improving employability. The White Paper's proposals continued the process of analysing the systems and ways they could be improved.

In recognition of the importance of qualifications to finding a job, the White Paper advocated developing lifelong learning by more flexible approaches, which accredited learning acquired outside traditional education and vocational training systems. It also advocated integrating into apprenticeships a period of learning or work experience abroad as a means of acquiring many of the key social skills needed to improve employability. To combat social exclusion, it proposed second-chance schools to help young people leaving education without qualifications. Although the proposal met with some criticism, it again focused on ways of making systems more adaptable. Finally, the White Paper encouraged analysis of the way that policies in other areas, particularly tax legislation, might act as a disincentive or incentive to investment in vocational training.

The focus on lifelong learning, encouraged by the two Commission white papers and the European year, was continued by the Council, which, at the end of the European year, outlined a strategy in this regard. The Council's conclusions stated lifelong learning – which it saw as an evolving concept – was essential to meet the challenges posed by social, economic and technological change and this, in turn, had implications for existing attitudes towards education and vocational training and their organisation. It listed a number of principles on which a strategy for lifelong learning should be based and put forward a framework of areas for further development (see table 2). The Council invited subsequent presidencies to consider the issues in the framework at their own discretion and in the light of their priorities and, where appropriate, to present further draft conclusions to the Council.

"(...) the lifelong learning debate raised the profile of issues surrounding the learning process and the systems designed to deliver learning. It also emphasised issues concerning vocational training policy in its own right, rather than its role in other policy areas."

A significant aspect of the debate on lifelong learning was its focus on the need to adapt existing systems of education and vocational training. Previous debates and cooperation at European level had focused largely on the role of vocational training in contributing to the success of other polices – adaptation to change, improving employment prospects, particularly for certain groups, equal opportunities and the free movement of workers. The lifelong learning debate encouraged an appraisal of systems and the process of learning. The framework of areas for further development included the structure of systems, the different interests involved and how to encourage cooperation between them, as well as how the systems themselves were influenced by the changes taking place. They also included the science of learning, such as different pathways to learning and the combination of formal and non-formal learning.

It was not that the learning process had been overlooked. Cooperation had long since been encouraged in the develop-

ment of curricular and training material. However, the lifelong learning debate raised the profile of issues surrounding the learning process and the systems designed to deliver learning. It also emphasised issues concerning vocational training policy in its own right, rather than its role in other policy areas.

Implementing the Community vocational training policy: the Leonardo da Vinci programmes

Although the framework of the Community vocational training policy continued to be set by non-binding instruments, the measures to implement and fund it still needed to be agreed through a legal instrument. The action programmes had been established for fixed periods and, as they came to an end, it was decided to rationalise and replace them with a single programme – the Leonardo da Vinci programme, introduced on 1 January 1995[17].

The Leonardo da Vinci programme

The aim was for the new programme to build on the strengths of its predecessors while taking account of the growing interest in the development of lifelong learning. Bringing the measures together in a single programme was intended to break down some of the distinction between initial and continuing vocational training and between the education and vocational training sectors, distinctions reinforced by having separate programmes. However, the Leonardo da Vinci programme – later a subject of much controversy – was hampered from the outset as negotiations produced a structure that was extremely complex, with 19 objectives, four strands and 22 measures. This complexity undermined its ability to realise its overall aim.

Despite the aim of rationalising measures and promoting lifelong learning, the distinction between initial and continuing vocational training the programme sought to break down was effectively preserved, as measures for each were kept separate. The allocation of resources to particular measures was very prescriptive, guaranteeing a minimum level of expenditure for different types – initial vocational training, continuing vocational training, university-enterprise cooperation, pilot projects and placements – essentially following the structure of previous programmes and leaving little margin for manoeuvre. The selection procedures also differed for different measures, with the decision resting with Member States in some cases and with the European Commission in others, reflecting the different application procedures under the earlier programmes. Moreover, the structure for the implementation of the programme was complex. For example, at national level, some 44 different 'bodies' were responsible for support services for delivering the programme as 'national coordination units'.

The vexed question of the balance of responsibility for vocational training between the European level and Member States, which had led to the Treaty change in 1992 again featured in the debate on the Leonardo da Vinci programme. The Commission proposed a common framework of objectives to act as a reference point for the development of national vocational training systems and policies. However, while Member States were prepared to accept political, non-legally binding objectives agreed at European level, they were not willing to accept a wider policy framework in a legally-binding instrument. Some Member States were of the view that such an approach was aimed at fostering harmonisation, ruled out by the Maastricht Treaty. In the end, it was agreed that the common framework of objectives would apply only to measures in the programme.

This reluctance to move away from the structures created under previous programmes revealed an unwillingness on behalf of Member States to take forward the policy in a way that really took account of the debate on the development of lifelong learning.

Leonardo da Vinci II

Since 1 January 2000, the Community vocational training policy has been implemented by the Leonardo da Vinci II programme[18]. This again attempts to rationalise European action in respect of vocational training. The scope of Leonardo da

"(...) the Leonardo da Vinci programme (...) was hampered from the outset as negotiations produced a structure that was extremely complex, with 19 objectives, four strands and 22 measures. (...) Despite the aim of rationalising measures and promoting lifelong learning, the distinction between initial and continuing vocational training the programme sought to break down was effectively preserved, as measures for each were kept separate."

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"Leonardo da Vinci II is much simpler than its predecessor, (...) The new programme should, therefore, be sufficiently flexible to allow for individual interpretation by participating countries and to be complementary to national vocational training systems."

"(...) not referring to any wider policy framework creates the impression that Leonardo da Vinci II is not so much an instrument to implement policy, but has, in effect, become the policy. Furthermore, this detracts from the important and constructive role the European level has played as a reference point for the development of national vocational training policies."

Vinci I has been retained, insofar as the new programme supports mobility and pilot actions, covering innovative products, services and methodologies, as well as language development. In addition, it continues to facilitate cooperation in the key policy of lifelong learning, support for young people, combating social exclusion and promoting equal opportunities.

Leonardo da Vinci II is much simpler than its predecessor, having three objectives and five measures, which can be combined in projects. The new programme should, therefore, be sufficiently flexible to allow for individual interpretation by participating countries and to be complementary to national vocational training systems. At the same time, it should be sufficiently focused to provide a coherent operating context which should help its effect to be assessed, aggregated and disseminated.

But unlike its predecessors the preamble of the programme decision – where the rationale for the programme is outlined – makes no reference to the wider Community vocational training policy framework as defined, for example, in Council conclusions and resolutions or in joint opinions of the social partners. Reference is made to one of the objectives in the teaching and learning white paper concerning mobility and the previous Leonardo da Vinci programme, but no reference is made to any other.

Consequently, although Leonardo da Vinci II contributes towards a general policy aim, it can be argued that it is not part of a coherent policy framework which coordinates various activities working towards specific aims. Given the problems that arose under Leonardo da Vinci I, it is understandable that the European Commission has made no attempt to establish any wider policy framework through a legally-binding decision. However, not referring to any wider policy framework creates the impression that Leonardo da Vinci II is not so much an instrument to implement policy, but has, in effect, become the policy. Furthermore, this detracts from the important and constructive role the European level has played as a reference point for the development of national vocational training policies.

Vocational training and the European employment strategy

The debate on lifelong learning was complemented by the continued importance of vocational training as an active labour market measure to improve employment prospects. High levels of unemployment, reaching a peak of just over 11% in 1994, and the convergence of macroeconomic policy in preparation for monetary union encouraged Member States to coordinate their approaches to employment policy and subsequently develop the European employment strategy.

The roots of this strategy lie in the conclusions of the Essen European Council in December 1994. Drawing from the Growth, competitiveness, employment White Paper, the European Council included vocational training as one of five areas in which action was to be taken to tackle unemployment and also established an annual reporting procedure on the progress made.

This process led to an extraordinary European Council on employment in Luxembourg in November 1997. The Council put into immediate effect the new employment provisions in the Treaty of Amsterdam – which had not yet come into force – formally to coordinate Member States employment policies from 1998. This involved establishing European wide employment guidelines, with progress monitored by a reporting procedure in which each Member State was to submit an annual report – its national action plan (NAP) for employment – outlining developments in respect of the guidelines. The Council was to examine the reports and agree changes to the guidelines as appropriate.

In the European employment strategy, vocational training is an important labour market policy measure, and its role, as in the past, is one of helping workers to adapt to change, improving employment prospects – especially for young people and those at a disadvantage in the labour market – and promoting equal opportunities. But it is important to see it as an integral part of a comprehensive package of measures, with vocational training pro-

grammes operating in combination with initiatives concerning, for example, employment services, tax and benefits systems, local and regional activities and action by the social partners.

Transparency of vocational qualifications

'Transparency' of qualifications, namely the process of making them more visible and comprehensible is a high priority for the EU in the context of promoting the free movement of workers. In December 1992, the Council considered the need for individuals to provide information on their vocational and training, skills, competences and experience[19] and suggested this information might usefully be presented in a common format. An individual portfolio, presenting information on qualifications enabling employers in other Member States to determine suitability for a particular job, was piloted between November 1993 and December 1995. It was decided not to continue with the portfolio approach which was deemed too complicated. However, reciprocal exchanges of information on qualifications between Member States were encouraged. The experience suggested a preference for a bottom-up approach to the convergence of qualifications, leaving those directly concerned, particularly at sectoral level, to take the initiative.

A second resolution on transparency was agreed in 1996[20]. It emphasised the importance of having vocational training qualifications and certificates that make achievements clear to enhance their usefulness for both employers and workers elsewhere in Europe. This principal is being applied in Europass Training from 1 January 2000[21], which uses a common certificate attesting to vocational training undergone in another Member State.

Member States are pursuing various approaches to achieving transparency in vocational qualifications consistent with the 1992 and 1996 resolutions. These range from developing a transparent system within a country and formulating bilateral agreements to implementing new initiatives explicitly oriented towards one of the resolutions. Each approach represents a step in the evolution towards transparency. However, so far implementation of the two resolutions has been patchy and, in general, little progress has been made.

An effort to revive the process has been made by the European Commission and Cedefop with the setting up of a European forum on transparency of vocational training qualifications in 1999. Comprising representatives of Member States and the social partners, the forum has developed an action plan for transparency of vocational qualifications. This plan builds on the recommendations of the two resolutions and integrates the lessons learned from the Leonardo da Vinci programme and various national initiatives. The plan proposes a certificate supplement and a network of national reference centres on vocational qualifications. The forum was established to coordinate action at European level, without conflicting with the right of each Member State to decide their own approach.

The developments in transparency represent a shift way from a centralised, legislative approach towards a more user-oriented one to promoting mobility. This approach, moreover, is one which takes account of national diversity.

But, despite the efforts to promote mobility, obstacles to mobility for people in vocational training continue to exist, as indicated by the European Commission green paper of 1996[22] and a report by a high level panel on the free movement of persons[23] (European Commission, 1998). In November 1997, the Commission prepared an action plan for free movement of workers to encourage the emergence of a true European labour market and subsequently gave a detailed review of the follow-up to the panel's recommendations. The action plan will be considered by the Council in 2000.

The Treaty of Amsterdam and concluding remarks

The Maastricht Treaty was revised and replaced by the new Treaty on European Union agreed at Amsterdam and which came into force in May 1999. The text con-

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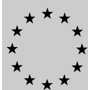

cerning the Community vocational training policy was transferred unchanged to become Article 150 of the Amsterdam Treaty.

This suggests that the debate on the development of vocational training since the Maastricht Treaty has been marked by the growing interest in lifelong learning. It is important to emphasise that the nature of this debate has posed challenges for the structure of vocational training systems which, it is argued, also need to adapt to the forces of change that are affecting the learning process. Both the policy framework and its implementation have sought to adapt to this development.

The various action programmes dealing with different aspects of vocational training policy were rationalised into one – the Leonardo da Vinci programme. This rationalisation – along with a simplification of its predecessor's complex structure – has been continued in Leonardo da Vinci II. However, despite being placed firmly in a policy context, notably the European employment strategy, the new programme makes no reference to any wider policy framework.

This raises the question as to whether the fundamental role of the Community as a reference point (albeit a non-legally binding one) for the development of national vocational training policies, is being sufficiently recognised and acted upon at such a critical juncture, as vocational training policy seeks to accommodate lifelong learning. This contrasts with employment where the Community has set in place a clear set of policy guidelines, in which vocational training plays a major role in the package of measures aimed at stimulating employment growth.

It might be argued that the framework set for the employment strategy is sufficient as a reference point for the development of vocational training. However, it is important to distinguish between the employment framework to which training contributes and a policy framework for the development of vocational training systems themselves. Such a framework is important for ensuring that systems accommodate the new learning processes and flexible structures that lifelong learning demands.

Each Member State, moreover, has a common interest in the success of vocational training systems in other parts of the EU because they are an important determinant of the prosperity of the Union economy as a whole. The role that the Community can play as a reference point in the key area of the development of the systems themselves should not be overlooked.

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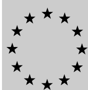

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The European Court of Justice advancing Student Mobility

A comprehensive European education policy concerning the exchange of students during their studies and the rights of free movers has to be introduced as soon as possible. Otherwise spillovers from related legislation might be used to justify claims brought before the ECJ which where either not intended or do not serve the public good. This can only be solved through the Council of Ministers and the Commission taking into consideration that this issue has been neglected way too long and needs immediate attention.

Introduction

European Student Mobility has become an ever more important issue in the European Union (EU). Not only is the possibility of learning languages in foreign countries seen as an effective method for obtaining rapid results but it also enhances greatly the student's academic, professional and personal horizon.

The introduction of Erasmus in 1987, its incorporation into and expansion through Socrates in 1995 and the introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) in 1988, extended in 1996, increased greatly short and medium-term study periods in other EU Member States up to 12 months. A voluntary network of student exchanges at university level is supported and financial subsidies for students to cover additional expenses incurred abroad are provided. Unfortunately, for budgetary reasons grants have had to be reduced and the overall demand of students for participation outnumbers the places available greatly with about 100,000 students currently going abroad each year at the moment via Erasmus[1].

On the other hand statistics provided by the OECD and UN show quite clearly that the majority of European students (also called 'free movers') studying in other Member States are pursuing under- or postgraduate courses which are not covered by any national or European exchange programme.

Also increasing, although still from a low base, are studies offered by universities in some countries in which after four years of study the student obtains academic certificates from up to four different countries using the ECTS – starting usually for 2 semesters in the university of origin, which will then confer the final diploma.

Such students move in a grey area regarding their legal status in the host country and the financial support they can expect. Students pursuing the whole or part of their academic career in other Member States are confronted with a multitude of obstacles that hinder or might even prevent students from going abroad.

The European Commission highlighted some of these problems in 1996 in its green paper on obstacles to transnational mobility and suggested that the Council of Ministers push for the introduction of measures to facilitate student mobility.

What it ignored is that student mobility, especially from free movers, has a long history. Since there appeared to be no support in the Council of Ministers to regulate the obligations and privileges of free movers between the 1960s up to the 1990s, it was effectively left to the European Court of Justice (ECJ) to define their legal rights.

Legal rights of students

Up until the 1980s, rights of full-time students[2] from the European Union wishing to take up studies in other Member States depended solely on national legislation in the host country. Such EU Students could be charged (higher) study fees and did not have general access to state grant systems for maintenance support. Furthermore, EU students did not have any right

1) Decision 576/98/EC (7)

2) Excluding children of migrant workers wishing to take up studies in their host country

of residence regulated at the European level, and hence could be treated like any other nationalities under national law with limited rights[3].

With a landmark decision in 1985[4] and following cases it was decided by the ECJ that access to university was indeed covered under European primary legislation and any discrimination based on nationality would be against European law. As a result EU Students can only be charged the same (if any) study fees as national students. Access to maintenance grants in the host country was disputed in 1988 in the Sylvie Lair case[5] arguing that it to be part of having access to university education. The ECJ nevertheless came to the conclusion that maintenance grants are not closely enough related to university education (more to social policy) and hence EU Students could not derive any supplementary rights to claim such grants under European legislation. Only migrant workers could request such benefits in the case of involuntary unemployment.

The automatic right to residence of EU Students was discussed in several cases[6] because some Member States intended to use it as an excuse to charge EU students additional study fees. The ECJ came to the conclusion that access to higher education in the EU is a basic right covered under EU primary legislation covered by the same principles as those for 'migrant workers'[7]. A residence permit for an EU Student is only a written expression of their rights and it cannot be left to the Member States to come up with its own definition of the status of an EU Student.

Student finance

The issue of student finance of free movers still remains unsolved. National financial support for students is not regulated at European level and the issue of accessibility to grants for EU Students is quite complicated. The European Commission proposed in its green paper that maintenance grants available in the students' home country should be transferable for complete courses in other Member States. This would avoid contradictions where students from, for example Germany go onto full undergraduate courses in the UK and do not receive any state support, although maintenance grants and loans for national students exist both in Germany and the UK.

Instead of setting up a legal framework for European student support through the Council of Ministers and the European Commission, it is left to the ECJ to interpret shortcomings and sort out legal positions of EU Students. But such decisions taken by the ECJ might lead to undesirable effects since, for obvious reasons, the ECJ does not follow a policy strategy concerning political policy. Consequently, outcomes might produce further dilemmas or legal problems as discussed in the following example.

The argument of the ECJ, that only migrant workers can claim maintenance grants for university education, might lead to an interesting paradox. The decision in D.M. Levin[8] can be used to argue that EU Students who pursue some part-time work in the host country at the same time might be able to claim maintenance grants in the host country. It can also be reasonably argued that EU Students need some additional income through work since they cannot claim benefits either in the host or their home country (with exceptions). If EU Students take up work in the host country they automatically receive the status of 'migrant worker' with all its possible rights to social advantages in the host country as defined in 'Sylvie Lair'. Additionally EU Students will not lose the status of 'migrant worker' because of their studies, since employment continues during the stay at university.

In D.M. Levin the ECJ stated that part-time work presents an effective source of income for a large group of people although the actual salary might be below the national minimum for subsistence. The ECJ concluded that for the status of 'migrant worker' part-time employment with an income even below the national minimum for subsistence is enough, as long as it is not perceived as being on such a small scale as to be purely marginal and ancillary.

Additionally, it is stated that the reasons for entering the host country cannot be taken into account as long as a real employment situation exists.

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3) Interesting in this context is the balance of power between student's rights and national governments. After Françoise Gravier refused to pay higher study fees as an EU Student believing that it was against European legislation the Belgium university denied her the registration as a student. As a consequence she lost her residence permit and then, because of French capital control regulations (no money transfer possible to somebody without a residence permit), her parents were not allowed to transfer money to her account. Only the interference by a Belgium court broke this spiral by ordering the university to authorise a temporary registration until the case was solved.

4) Françoise Gravier – Case 293/83

5) Sylvie Lair – Case 39/86

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7) Slg. Royer - Case 48/75

8) D.M. Levin – Case 53/81

"It should not be left to the ECJ to define a European educational policy via case law, because its interpretation will not take the complexity of the issue into account."

"The preamble of the Treaty of Amsterdam refers to comprehensive access to education. Precious little has been done since then to provide EU Students with the legal base and security to allow for an effective student flow within the EU."

Students and workers

National legislation in many Member States says the status of 'worker' is incompatible with that of 'student' to prevent students claiming unemployment, housing or other benefits. On the other hand, student incomes from employment are taken into account and maintenance grants are accordingly reduced. The ECJ concluded that the status of 'migrant worker' is defined by European rather than nation legislation to avoid individual national interpretation of the status.

For this reason an EU Student can base a claim for a maintenance grant in the host country as a 'migrant worker' obtained by working part-time in some profession.

It should be recalled that, by definition in 'D.M. Levin', the reasons for actually moving to the host country and an income even below the national minimum for subsistence do not nullify the status as a 'migrant worker' and its accompanying rights.

Hence we face the paradox that an EU Student has to pursue some kind of (part-time) employment while studying to acquire the status of a 'migrant worker' and thus to be able to claim maintenance grants in the host country. At the same time it is most likely that the maintenance grant will be offset against the income from employment and accordingly reduced, as would happen to nationals from the host country. The only possibility for Member States to avoid such claims would be to stop national and EU Students working while receiving grants, an unlikely situation since most state grants and loans in Member States hardly cover the full cost of living.

Only recently other major issues have been worked out by the Council of Ministers concerning the legal right to residency as a full-time student in other Member States and social protection concerning mainly full medical coverage as a student while abroad instead of only emergency coverage. Moreover with the regulation EC 307/1999, EU Students gained additional social rights formerly limited to migrant workers and the self-employed.

However, this caused another problem over entitlement to state pensions in the host country. Some Member States include time spent in education after finishing compulsory schooling in the overall time necessary to accumulate increasing rights to the state pension scheme (i.e. in Germany up to a maximum of 3 years). Neither the German Ministry in charge nor the European Commission seem able to comment nor deny this issue at the moment. Most likely an interpretation will be necessary to clarify the situation.

A European educational policy

It should not be left to the ECJ to define a European educational policy via case law, because its interpretation will not take the complexity of the issue into account. On the other hand, academic autonomy of universities should not automatically include issues such as financial support, administrative procedures or even academic recognition of diplomas. Reclusive behaviour by academic institutions in this context might only create an additional obstruction of access to foreign academic education. For effective mobility of labour, barriers in education have to be dismantled and to permit an easily accessible and truly functioning higher education system in Europe. National self-interest, similar to the reasoning in the economic sector, will only protect systems that are out of date and do not cover the needs of modern society.

In the 1980s the ECJ stated repeatedly that access to higher education falls into European primary law but accompanying (social) policies do not fall into its jurisdiction. But since then primary law has changed in favour of student mobility without actually having any perceivable effects. Article 126 of the old Maastricht Treaty referred to the promotion of student mobility and the encouragement of the mutual recognition of diplomas. This cannot only be meant to apply to organised student exchanges but to free movers as well[9]. The preamble of the Treaty of Amsterdam refers to comprehensive access to education. Precious little has been done since then to provide EU Students with the legal base and security to

9) A parallel scenario would be a situation where only organised labour mobility would be allowed in Europe and 'migrant workers' moving on their own are not covered by EU legislation regarding their social protection

allow for an effective student flow within the EU. The Council of Ministers and the Commission should see themselves obliged to push this forward in the European field of higher education; if this is not going to happen soon complaints of students to the ECJ might have unexpected effects on European legislation.

What is needed in the field of short and medium term stays of students in other Member States is a large expansion of the system under Erasmus. It cannot be that the exchange programme is limited financially both in size to about 100,000 per year and limited to 12 months abroad. A first step could be made by increasing the capacity of the Erasmus programme. Although it seems not to be feasible to increase Erasmus scholarships to the amount where they would cover demand, students should be able to use the Erasmus network for a period of time and to go to several countries. Some Member States already provide additional national grants for their students who participate in exchange programmes to increase the possibility of access to foreign studies.

The rights of free movers have to increase and be supported by an efficient market of higher education. Additionally the range of problems concerning study fees, state maintenance grants, and related obstacles need to be solved by putting them on a firm legal base.

Students having access to state maintenance grants in their home country should not be limited in their choice to national higher education. A greater choice for students should create additional interest among universities to compete for students. On the other hand, the EU should compensate Member States that experience a high influx of EU Students. A theoretical model supported by empirical evidence[10] suggests there might be a trend in Member States introducing study fees to compensate for the additional financial strain through EU Students. Formerly, in the UK, it was possible to charge foreign students the real cost of taking up studies in the country. The case of 'Gravier' brought this down to equal charging as for nationals. The only way to compensate for the loss of study fees (or additional cost) from EU Students is to charge every student a certain amount of fees, as introduced in the UK in 1998. EU Students will be the only reason for introducing fees, but it may be a potent one.

Conclusion

A comprehensive European education policy concerning the exchange of students during their studies and the rights of free movers has to be introduced as soon as possible. Otherwise spillovers from related legislation might be used to justify claims brought before the ECJ which where either not intended or do not serve the public good. This can only be solved through the Council of Ministers and the Commission taking into consideration that this issue has been neglected way too long and needs immediate attention.

European students are entitled to make the most of European higher education and should be able to prepare themselves for the challenges of an ever more European labour market.

"What is needed in the field of short and medium term stays of students in other Member States is a large expansion of the system under Erasmus."

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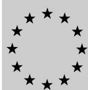

Marc Schaeffer
Press and public relations officer

Héraclès, an association project for the social and occupational integration of disabled workers

From 1993 to 1996 Operation *Heracles* aimed to promote more dynamic options for disabled workers in sheltered workshops and occupational therapy centres. It sought to reconcile economic and human issues to promote social and occupational advancement for the 450 workers in sheltered work facilities.

Introduction

From 1993 to 1996 the Adapei (Departmental Association of Parents, Mentally Disabled People and their Friends - *Association départementale de parents, de personnes handicapées mentales et de leurs amis*) of the Lower Rhine Area (Bas-Rhin) ran “Operation *Héraclès* (Hercules)”, whose main aim was to provide more dynamic options for disabled workers in the sheltered workshop and three occupational therapy centres run by the association in Sélestat, Duttlenheim and Haguenau.

The operation sought to reconcile economic and human issues with an aim to promote the social and occupational advancement of the 450 workers in its sheltered work facilities. The starting points were:

❑ the core values of the Adapei, i.e. ensuring that the various forms of accommodation for disabled people help to promote their personal and occupational development and their development as citizens;

❑ the association’s intention to “return the occupational therapy centres to their original vocation”.

This project broke away from the institutional way in which sheltered work facilities operated; it could even be described as a “cultural revolution”. To return sheltered workshops and occupational therapy centres to their original vocation it was necessary to break away from a policy which saw sheltered work as the sole and permanent solution for the majority of disabled workers. And yet support for disabled people should eventually allow them, whenever possible, to join the business world. *Héraclès* also goes some way towards solving the permanent lack of places in occupational therapy centres by helping disabled workers find places in the ordinary working environment.

Before looking at the *Héraclès* operation in detail, two developments provided a starting point:

The first took place in Duttlenheim throughout the 1980s, and involved the separation of the workplace from the living area, i.e., the relocation of residences within the ordinary environment. Residents working in the occupational therapy centre were thus able to take part in community life, find out about the world and gain much more freedom of expression. As residences and occupational therapy centres started to operate in different ways, workers began to complain. Why did they not have a chance to express themselves at work, offer opinions and participate fully? Why could their successful social integration not be extended to their working life?

Building on the experience gained from in-company work, the Adapei also set up a “open” sheltered workshop. The association obtained funding from the National Employment Fund to formulate training for disabled people and prepare them for in-company placements. This funding

made it possible to set up training schemes which, however, proved a partial failure. Although workers were very eager to learn, it soon became clear that nothing was known of their skills, which had been disregarded or forgotten, or of their training needs. There was no record of the skills they had acquired over the years, of changes of job or workshop, of education, or of outside experience.

This led to the idea of skill reviews – the starting point for *Héraclès*. The aim was to draw up a picture of disabled people and introduce a different kind of teaching into the occupational therapy centres. Initial research at skill review centres rapidly showed that there were no appropriate tools for mentally disabled people. They had to be invented.

The result went considerably beyond initial ambitions since it led to a far-reaching transformation of the association and workshops. As we were particularly interested in innovation, *Héraclès* ultimately led to a new kind of organisation, making it possible to ensure that the progress made could be placed on a permanent footing. Gradually, stage by stage, disabled people were regarded in a new way. This has now become a shared cultural foundation on which many new projects are being based.

Preparing disabled workers for work in an ordinary environment

Preparation of disabled workers for work in an ordinary environment was based on a number of action principles:

a) occupational mobility is a concern for all workers whether they are in occupational therapy centres or moving into ordinary employment;
b) everything should aim at putting people genuinely in charge of their own development;
c) productive work supports training and skills development and makes use of previous experience.

In addition a number of objectives were set:

a) locating skills;
b) constructing development paths;
c) retraining and preparing for employment;
d) providing placement and follow-up for workers recruited into the ordinary environment.

Skill reviews

Skill reviews constituted the first stage of the project. The aim was both to empower everyone involved and find out about their skills. These reviews provided an opportunity to encourage aspirations, stimulate questions and, more broadly, help all workers to:

a) locate themselves at a moment of their life;
b) discover what know-how they possessed;
c) formulate their training needs;
d) think about their occupational prospects;
e) draw up, following the review, an occupational plan as part of a development process.

To carry out and co-ordinate these reviews, which went beyond in-house expertise, the Adapei called on Savoir et Compétence (Knowledge and Skills), a consultancy experienced in placing disabled people in jobs and helping keep them employed.

The skill review took the form of a series of individual interviews and placing people in evaluation, training and working situations, in both sheltered and ordinary environments. Individual interviews with disabled workers were conducted by a psychologist. The supervisor ensured follow-up to the evaluation and continuity of action.

Evaluation exercises in three different workshops made it possible to:

a) measure reading, writing and mathematics skills using interactive multimedia tools: workshop led by the training agency FOCAL;
b) allow workers to assess themselves and plan for their future using drawing and colours: workshop planned in co-operation with AFPA (Adult Vocational Training Association - *Association pour la formation pour adultes*)'s "disabled section";

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c) allow for expression by evaluating aspects such as communication, initiative and spatial movement: through a theatre improvisation workshop.

The various stages of the review made it possible to:

a) formulate a curriculum vitae, summarising their occupational and social capabilities, including annexes on health and independence. Nothing was included that could not be understood by the worker involved;
b) draw up an occupational plan: the disabled workers themselves were in charge of this, not the management or their families (even in the case of people with severe disabilities).

For many of the disabled workers, the reviews led to statutory measures such as in-depth guidance modules (*modules d'orientation approfondie* - MOA), integration and training measures (*actions d'insertion - formation* - AIF) or employment and training schemes (*stages de formation à l'emploi* - SIFE). An in-house and/or external path was drawn up for each worker. The project also provided for periodic interviews making it possible to assess the previous period, validate experience and draw up an action plan for the next period.

Retraining and preparation for employment

To meet individual training or technical evaluation needs, the Adapei called on various departmental organisations (GRETA, FOCAL, ILAF, LLERENA, etc.), preferring to use and adapt existing schemes rather than address itself to institutions specialising in disability.

Placements in ordinary working situations of varying lengths (from one day to six weeks or more) made it possible to assess and validate choices of occupation, workers' technical and social abilities and whether abilities were in keeping with the job in question. These were then supplemented by a whole range of occupational options: in-company placement of a team from the occupational therapy centre, placements of individual workers, work experience periods and fixed-term and permanent contracts.

Options in sheltered work facilities made use of the potential offered by production workshops for the purposes of assessment, training and recognition of occupational choices and development.

Joining companies and follow-up

Preparing for entry into companies means ensuring the best possible conditions. Much substantial work was done with the companies themselves to adapt work stations, inform and prepare future colleagues and find and train tutors. Exchanges of information, advice and support pave the way for relations of trust which are then underpinned by effective presence and immediate availability when called upon by the company.

In parallel, workers prepared for the transition. They needed to consider how they were going to travel to work, in some cases very early in the morning or late in the evening; or whether to bring work closer to home, either by moving or by finding independent housing, etc. Different questions were raised by each situation and different solutions needed to be found and applied.

Helping people make a transition into the ordinary working environment may be an objective, but is not an end in itself, nor does it ensure permanent occupational integration. From initial recruitment onwards, considerable importance was attached to follow-up.

Regular meetings with people at or outside their workplaces as well as assessment meetings with companies, followed by the appropriate adjustments, all helped ensure successful integration. Ultimately, despite the fact that the association had guaranteed that all workers could take up their place again, none of the 50 people making the transition into the ordinary environment returned to the occupational therapy centre.

Impact on the disabled workers and their families

Whether people had opted for work in a sheltered environment or in the ordinary environment not everything was plain sailing. Ultimately, though, the outcome was positive, as the workers and their families confirm.

The disabled workers

Almost all the workers experienced a range of occupational situations: various workshops in the occupational therapy centre, individual or group placements in companies, SIFE traineeships, training and finding or looking for a job. The workers stressed the valuable experience that they gained from their placements in the ordinary environment: obtaining a fork-lift truck licence, progress at work (productivity, responsibility), communication with, and recognition by, other employees and other disabled people encountered at group meetings, etc. Their working life was no longer linear and inescapably attached to a single workshop or activity. They made headway within the occupational therapy centre or the sheltered workshop or in the company.

The workers had conflicting feelings about the ordinary work environment. Their experience was of a demanding and in some cases harsh environment. Unemployment was also a fear, as some workers experienced fixed-term contracts or spent some time out of work. However they stressed the fact that their responsibilities were greater, their work more satisfying and their time better occupied.

What they shared was a desire to work. Occupying a job at the occupational therapy centre or in a company was an important factor in their life plan. They felt they wanted to look outside the occupational therapy centre, to do different kind of jobs and make room for those waiting for places at the centre. Some stressed that the expectations and occasional pressures were high, but that ultimately it was a good thing to be stimulated and avoid taking the easy way out.

The families

At the outset the families were much more cautious than the disabled workers themselves about the Adapei project. They often perceived the ordinary working environment as a source of risks for their child: the risks of being exploited, of not being accepted by other employees, of being unable to do the job. They agreed, however, that their children should have this experience, provided that Adapei workers offer genuine follow-up. In addition to employment, they felt that the independence and mobility provided by the work experience and the reviews (which all took place in Strasbourg) were major benefits.

They supported the aims of the association's project: to empower disabled workers to achieve their aspirations (even when parents or supervisors felt them to be unrealistic), to give them the right to gain experience and be surprised. "Here, they said, people are perceived as adults and as individuals with a right to speak. There is no focus on the negative – people stress what progress has been and what remains to be achieved".

Impact on the organisation of work

Management reorganisation

Héraclès paved the way for team work by the directors and supervisors of the workshops of the three occupational therapy centres who all started to think in terms of skills.

Transferable skills
The idea which gradually took shape was to provide transferable skills. Three units were created: "customer relations", "production" and "human resources". The skills of these units are passed on in a practical way to all the association's centres.

Management teams:
Each management team consisted of a director or deputy director, a technical instructor or workshop head and a project manager. The project manager was responsible for all stages of the development and implementation of occupational plans which became known as "development paths". Among other things, the project manager was responsible for designing training plans and a human resource management policy for the workers.

Teams of supervisors
Teams of two or three workshop supervisors were also set up, moving away from the "one supervisor/one workshop" situation to teams which supervised sectors of activity. The new two- or three-per-

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son teams improved support for workers in production, on-the-job training, evaluation and skill development. It also helped workshop supervisors work on the dual dimension of training and integration, with production itself providing the support for this training.

Restructuring the occupational therapy centres

As the workplace provided not only a framework, but also a support for any action, it seemed necessary to:

a) create forums in which workers could be heard: the workshop councils. These councils provide a framework in which workers express their opinions, make proposals, are informed of projects and take part in decisions. There is still much work to be done to develop their participation;
b) formulate workshop projects with quality and outcome criteria to make the most of the technological, economic and social aspects of each production sector;
c) reorganise and redevelop premises to allow for clear identification of workshops, administrative and paramedical areas, group areas and passageways;
d) introduce a wider range of work involving techniques for acquiring a wider range of skills;
e) look for markets with a higher added value;
f) formally organise each centre in the same way; for this purpose, tasks were redefined and joint meetings organised.

The effects of *Héraclès*

Opening up the sheltered work facilities

The links between facilities, especially thanks to the joint meetings, improved the association's training schemes and the work of general and line managers. The occupational therapy centres, which until then had tended to be completely self-sufficient, opened up to their association and local environments.

Economic changes to the facilities

The *Héraclès* project did not upset the economic balance of the centres, even though several risks were anticipated, such as the reduction of the workshops' production capacity. On the contrary, commercial results improved, proving that change contributes to individual and group progress as well as to the overall improvement of organisations.

This was made possible by the fact that the Adapei launched, at the same time as the personal promotion project, a major effort to develop new markets and reorganise production. The focus was not on more output but on better output, making it possible to release time for human considerations.

Social changes to the facilities

Placing the new functions on a formal footing, redefining former jobs and the ongoing dynamic of internal and external paths for disabled workers set in motion by *Héraclès* all had a considerable impact on the way in which the centres now carry out their original tasks of personal, occupational and social promotion of disabled people. The occupational therapy centres have again become places of support and transition.

New teaching methods were introduced, developed with professional co-operation. Operating methods, which allow for the description of the actions to be carried out for each product and for the evaluation of the skills acquired, are just one example.

Analysis of the experience

Placing 50 disabled workers in the ordinary work environment

The objective of placing 50 disabled workers in the ordinary work environment had been set prior to the launch of the operation by its financing agencies. To achieve this objective all managers and employees of the association devoted all their time to the project, as did external consultants *Savoir et Compétence*.

The effect of setting this objective was to transform the initial project into a challenge and make people feel they had to succeed. Ultimately, achieving the objective itself was less important than the far-reaching changes it engendered. In fact,

to achieve the placement objective, the structure of the organisation and the management of human resources had to be radically transformed.

More broadly still, the process of change which the institution experienced affected not only the organisation but also its men and women, its employees, the families and the disabled workers themselves.

50 people were recruited in the ordinary work environment under the *Héraclès* project.

10 more people in 1996 and 20 in 1997 bring the total of disabled workers integrated into the ordinary work environment from the Adapei centres alone to 80.

Factors of success

The success of *Héraclès* was shaped by the combination of a number of factors:

a) the association's strong commitment;
b) the fighting spirit of the association and its general management;
c) the exceptional nature of the operation;
d) the high level of resource mobilisation;
e) the fact that workers could always take up their places again at the occupational therapy centre or sheltered workshop in case of difficulties;
f) the use of a wide range of partnerships;
g) communication about the operation and the practical nature of the approach;
h) leadership by an external consultant ensuring that action was targeted and commitments respected.

The commitment of the association

From its beginnings to its completion, *Héraclès* was designed, supported and promoted by the association. This is one of the factors that contributed to its success. The fact that some managers and the general management worked hard, in some cases fought to overcome resistance, and were able to push things forward meant that practitioners, workers and their families gradually took up the approach and made it their own.

Follow-up and monitoring

The operation was monitored and followed up throughout by the DDASS (Departmental Directorate for Health and Social Affairs - *Direction Départementale des Affaires Sanitaires et Sociales*), the DDTEFP (Departmental Directorate for Labour, Employment and Vocational Training - *Direction Départementale du Travail, de l'Emploi et de la Formation Professionnelle*), the AGEFIPH (Fund for the Occupational Integration of Disabled Persons - *Fonds pour l'insertion professionnelle des personnes handicapées*) and the AFPA (Adult Vocational Training Association - *Association pour la formation pour adultes*). As a result of an exemplary partnership with these institutions and with the COTOREP (Technical Commission for Occupational Guidance and Redeployment - *Commission technique d'orientation et de reclassement professionnel*), all integration measures (including training) benefited from a degree of administrative flexibility that simplified matters.

To allow the formulation of development paths, the external consultant "Savoir et Compétence" developed a network of partners. Company awareness was improved and their needs identified with the support of a group of entrepreneurs, including IBM, French Railways, TIXIT Haguenau and Zimmer BTP.

Ongoing evaluation

The steering committee, composed of institutional partners, entrepreneurs and managers, followed up the overall operation which was also audited on several occasions by the AFPA, the CERIS (Social Action Research Centre - *Centre d'Etudes et de Recherche sur l'Intervention Sociale*), Quaternaire and an expert. These evaluations made it possible to recognise the project's progress and to make any interim adjustments.

The outcome of *Héraclès* after 1995

The creation of the DISP

The DISP (Department of Social and Occupational Integration - *Département d'Intégration Sociale et Professionnelle*) has three divisions:

a) the sheltered workshop;
b) the social integration support service;

"The results have encouraged a consolidation of strategic and organisational approaches. In concrete terms, sheltered work facilities near the living environment have become areas for mentoring and training. Here, all tools used are aimed primarily at encouraging and strengthening every worker's occupational and social potential. In this way, they can achieve a personal plan and waiting lists can be reduced as people leave the sheltered environment."

c) the *Etapes* service.

While the first two existed before *Héraclès*, *Etapes* was set up as a direct extension of the operation to ensure that it was placed on a permanent footing. *Etapes* has three main tasks to:

a) provide support for the evolution of each occupational therapy centre; undertake support schemes among workers; carry out skill reviews and the interviews which take place at various points of the development paths;
b) prepare for transition to the ordinary environment with the worker, company, family and occupational therapy centre. This includes adjustment and mediation tasks between the disabled worker and the host company and ensuring, by personal follow-up, that the foundations for the permanent integration of workers leaving the sheltered environment are laid in the ordinary environment;
c) design, organise and implement training schemes open to other institutions in the Department. *Etapes* has formulated a Regional Priority Scheme on behalf of PROMOFAF (Mutual Training Fund - *Mutualisation des fonds de formation*) targeted at disabled workers in the Alsace Region and every year hosts trainees on SIFE (On-the-Job Integration and Training Scheme - *Stage d'Insertion et de Formation à l'Emploi*) schemes (40 in 1997, 22 in 1998), half of whom come from outside the Adapei.

The Adapei project it shows it is not enough to provide institutions with a department for integration. However legitimate and efficient such services may be, they have an impact only if the institutions and their management associations commit themselves to a genuine process of internal change.

Placing *Héraclès* on a permanent footing

This entails a twofold challenge:

a) ensuring the continuation and structural integration of the operation within the Adapei establishments; and
b) sharing the experience with other national and European network structures.

The Adapei now asks each occupational therapy centre and the sheltered workshop to commit themselves to an annual "flow table" that details possible external and internal paths for each worker. The association is also committed to reaching an annual target of 20 placements in the ordinary environment. In addition to these commitments, work also takes place among people on the waiting list, for whom skill reviews are conducted.

Further issues are also under consideration. These include:

a) study of the pay of disabled workers;
b) study of part-time working and its consequences;
c) study for the computerisation of the association;
d) participation in the European programme ACCESS;
e) organisation, in partnership, of the seminar "From disability to ability".

Continued thought and action on the teaching methods used, production organisation, working conditions, relations with companies, etc.

Other activities also underway are the

a) creation of a sheltered workshop facility at Benfeld, accommodating occupational therapy centre workers and providing support for skill reviews carried out for people recruited to the sheltered workshop and in temporary unemployment and the creation of a resource centre with other associations in the Bas-Rhin area, enabling exchanges of experience and practice;
b) implementation of the *Etapes* Futé project on the development of mobility;
c) improvement of in-company follow-up, job continuity and professional development in order to ensure mobility and socio-occupational advancement in the ordinary environment;
d) introduction of a quality strategy for the service provided for individuals and for production methods.

Conclusions

The association's strong commitment and the experience gained from the *Héraclès* project led to disabled people being

looked at in a new light. As their development was measured over time, a new spirit of work was established in a genuine climate of trust. The in-depth work that had to be carried out internally and which is not yet complete, should not be underestimated.

The results have encouraged a consolidation of strategic and organisational approaches. In concrete terms, sheltered work facilities near the living environment have become areas for mentoring and training. Here, all tools used are aimed primarily at encouraging and strengthening every worker's occupational and social potential. In this way, they can achieve a personal plan and waiting lists can be reduced as people leave the sheltered environment.

The activities on offer in the sheltered working environment are an excellent tool for the integration of disabled people as long as we can provide some kind of internal or external transition for everyone. To achieve this the organisation needs to develop sound and balanced management of social and economic factors in a context that encompasses all of our partners. In other words, willingness to promote disabled people is not enough; we need to be able to rely on a wider social environment – one that shares our convictions.

This section has been prepared by
Anne Waniart,
and the Documentation Service with the help of members of the national documentation network

This section lists the most important and recent publications on developments in training and qualifications at an international and European level. Giving preference to comparative works, it also lists national studies carried out as part of international and European programmes, analyses of the impact of Community action on the Member States and national studies seen from an external perspective.

Europe International

Information, comparative studies

From initial education to working life: making transitions work.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD
Paris: OECD, 2000, 203 p.
(Education and skills)
ISBN 92-64-17631-4 (en)
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

How did the transition from compulsory education to work change during the 1990s and which types of transition policies worked best? The experiences of 14 OECD countries are examined in this volume to address these two key questions, for as requirements for knowledge and qualifications and skills rise and populations age, few countries can afford to have their young people enter the labour force unequipped for longer term participation in changing career patterns. Taking a broader view of transition outcomes than many previous comparative studies, this study reveals the complex and many-faceted national institutional arrangements that can result in successful transitions to working life. It argues not for single solutions or models, such as the adoption of apprenticeship, but for coherent national policy packages that draw from a limited number of key success ingredients: a healthy economy and labour market, well organised pathways from initial education to work and further study, opportunities to combine study and workplace experience, safety nets for those at risk, effective information and guidance systems, and policy processes involving both governments and other stakeholders. It also looks at the ways that countries are trying to lay solid foundations for lifelong learning during the transition phase through changes to educational pathways and institutions and through adopting more learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning

Investing in education: analysis of the 1999 world education indicators.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD
Geneva: OECD, 2000, 189 p.
ISBN 92-64-17183-5
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

The 1990s have witnessed growing demand for learning throughout the world. Compelling incentives for individuals, economies and societies to raise education levels have driven increased participation in a widening range of learning activities by people of all ages, from the earliest years through later adulthood. Educational progress has, however, been uneven both across and within countries. This volume sheds light on the comparative performance of education systems, with an analysis that extends to the financial and human resources invested in education, how education and learning systems operate and evolve, and to the returns to educational investment. The data presented allow countries to see themselves in the light of other countries' performance and to assess whether variations in educational experiences are unique or if they mirror differences observed elsewhere. Countries covered: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Malaysia, Paraguay, the Philippines, Uruguay, the Russian Federation, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Zimbabwe and OECD countries.

Knowledge management in the learning society.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD
Paris: OECD, 2000, 260 p.
ISBN 92-64-17182-7 (en)

OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

To function and prosper in the learning society, the management of knowledge is becoming a new and crucial challenge for both private companies and public organisations. It is increasingly important for companies and organisations to produce, share and use knowledge on a national and global scale. However, there is an urgent need for analysis of the knowledge economy both at the micro- and macro economic level in order to understand its characteristics and dynamics, and to identify the most appropriate routes for policy development. Little is known on how sectors and organisations could use knowledge more efficiently and how to benchmark organisations as learning organisations. This book is an ambitious attempt to address these issues through a better understanding of knowledge and learning processes at a sectorial level. It analyses and compares concretely the processes of knowledge production, dissemination and use in the engineering, the information and communication technology, the health and the education sectors. Governments urgently need better knowledge bases for determining educational policy and practice in an increasingly interconnected world. The rate, quality and success in knowledge creation, mediation and application are relatively low in the education sector compared with other sectors. Unlike sectors such as medicine and engineering, education has not yet seen continuous and clear improvements due to technical and organisational advances. The book makes a strong plea for strengthening the knowledge management at every level of the education system.

Schooling for tomorrow: learning to bridge the digital divide.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation - CERI; National Centre on Adult Literacy
Paris: OECD, 2000, 137 p.
(Education and skills)
ISBN 92-64-18288-8
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

Across the OECD, attention is focusing increasingly on what has been dubbed the “digital divide” - a term that refers to the gaps in access to information and communication technology (ICT). The stakes are high, as ICT is now integral to the social fabric and is the catalyst for “new economies” to emerge. Exclusion threatens the ICT “have-nots”, whether individuals, groups or entire countries. Political awareness of the stakes at issue grows sharply, as indicated by the prominence of the digital divide in G-8 discussions. Education and learning lie at the heart of these issues and their solutions. They are the lifeblood of our 21st century knowledge societies, and ICT is critical to them. The gaps that define the “learning digital divide” are thus as important as the more obvious gaps in access to the technology itself. Learning is central in the still more fundamental sense that the machines and equipment are useless without the competence to exploit them. Nurturing this competence is in part the job of schools and colleges, in part dependent on the learning that takes place throughout life in homes, communities, and workplaces. This volume meets an important need in the contemporary international literature on education policy, lifelong learning, and economic and social development. It presents analysis of the “learning digital divide” in different countries - developed and developing - and the policies and specific innovations designed to bridge it. The evidence shows that ICT can be the solution to inequalities rather than their cause - digital diversity and opportunity rather than digital divide.

Literacy in the information age: final report of the International Adult Literacy Survey.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD; Human Resources Development Canada
Paris: OECD, 2000, 185 p.
ISBN 92-64-17654-3 (en)

OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

Literacy in the Information Age, the final report from the International Adult Literacy Survey, presents evidence on the nature and magnitude of the literacy gaps faced by OECD countries. It offers new insights into the factors that influence the development of adult skills in various settings - at home, at work and across the 20 countries for which comparable household assessment results are included. Findings point to large differences in the average level and population distribution of literacy skills both within and between countries. Low literacy skills are evident among all adult groups in significant - albeit varying - proportions. Literacy proficiency varies considerably according to home background factors and educational attainment in most of the countries surveyed. However, the relationship between literacy skills and educational attainment is complex. Many adults have managed to attain high levels of literacy proficiency despite a low level of education; conversely, some have low literacy skills despite a high level of education. These differences matter both economically and socially: literacy affects, inter alia, labour quality and flexibility, employment, training opportunities, income from work and wider participation in civic society. Improving the literacy skills of the population remains a large challenge for policy makers. The results suggest that high-quality foundation learning in schools is important but insufficient as a sole means to that end. Policies directed at the workplace and family settings are also needed. The employers' role in promoting and rewarding literacy skills is particularly important for skills development.

Policies towards full employment.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD; Government of Finland; European Commission
Policies towards full employment. Helsinki. 2000
Paris: OECD, 2000, 219 p.
ISBN 92-64-17661-6
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

As we embark on a new century, some 33 million people are out of work in the OECD area. Policies to increase employment have topped most countries' domestic political agendas in the past decade. And employment and unemployment are likely to remain major economic and social challenges for many countries in the years to come. This book presents the proceedings of a conference on labour markets which was organised by the Ministries of Labour and Finance of Finland, with the support of the OECD and the European Commission. It advances thinking on new policy measures, such as active labour market policies and measures to "make work pay" and focuses on specific experiences in a few individual countries, namely the United States, Japan, Finland and Denmark. It includes papers from politicians, high level officials from the European Commission and the OECD Secretariat, social partners and prominent representatives from the academic community. Proceedings of the Helsinki Conference, January 2000.

Special needs education: statistics and indicators.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD
Paris: OECD, 2000
(Education and skills)
ISBN 92-64-17689-6 (en)
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

This book provides a full account of a totally new approach to making international comparisons in the field of special needs education. It makes comparisons of students with disabilities, learning or behaviour difficulties and disadvantages on the basis of the additional resources made available to them to access the curriculum, which in some countries covers

some 35% of school-age students. To improve the quality of the comparisons made countries re-classified their own classification schemes and data into a new tri-partite cross-national classification system. Category A covers those students whose disabilities have clear biological causes. Category B covers those students who are experiencing learning and behaviour difficulties for no particular reason. Category C covers those students who have difficulties arising from disadvantages. Among the many analyses provided, the book highlights the numbers of students involved, where they are educated (special schools, special classes and regular schools), and a breakdown by gender. Data has been provided by 23 countries: Austria, Belgium (Flemish Community), Canada (New Brunswick), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Korea, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States.

What works in innovation in education: motivating students for lifelong learning.
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development - OECD
Paris: OECD, 2000, 198 p.
ISBN 92-64-17193-2 (en)
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

How to engage and maintain teenagers' interest in school "work"? Young children rarely lack curiosity, but as they enter the teenage years their appetite for learning often appears to shrink. Many eventually drop out before the end of compulsory schooling. Others continue to turn up for school but make the minimum effort. They are present in body, but not in mind. Such problems are generally associated with Western countries but even Japan and Korea, two of the most academically successful Pacific Rim nations, are not immune. These figures take on new significance in an era when one of the essential survival tools for individuals — and nations — is a willingness to learn and relearn. What can governments and education systems do to inculcate the "zest for learning" that young people will need if they are to thrive in 21st-century post-industrial societies? This is one of the key questions which is addressed in this review of eight countries offering innovative schemes that appear to be developing the skills and attitudes necessary for lifelong learning.

Where are the resources for lifelong learning ?
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. - OECD
Paris: OECD, 2000, 140 p.
(Education and skills)
ISBN 92-64-17677-2 (en)
OECD Publications,
2 rue André-Pascal,
F-75775 Paris Cedex 16,
Tel.: (33-1) 45248200,
Fax: (33-1) 49104276,
E-mail: sales@oecd.org,
URL: http://www.oecd.org/publications/

There is broad political support for lifelong learning because it is so vital to sustained economic progress and social cohesion in the "new economy". But its implementation is potentially costly and depends on making the learning process more cost-effective and on securing financial and in-kind resources from the private sector. What can be done to keep lifelong learning from becoming prohibitively expensive, and to ensure that there are strong and transparent incentives to invest in it? This book looks at recent experience of selected OECD countries as they have articulated their goals and strategies for lifelong learning. It examines policies and practices that influence the rates of return to lifelong learning, and mechanisms that are being put in place to channel financial resources to lifelong learning. It identifies resource issues that need to be addressed if lifelong learning is to be an affordable and workable guide to public policy.

The annotated bibliography of organisational learning.
Dierkes, Meinolf
Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin für Sozialforschung - WZB

Berlin: Edition Sigma, 1999, 310 p. + CD-ROM
ISBN 3-89404-192-7

Organisational learning has become an important field of research and a topic of concern not only in major business corporations, but also in many organisations of different types and sizes. It is gaining recognition as a key competence in organisations seeking to equip themselves to deal effectively with significant changes in their economic, political, social and technological environments. Academic interest has grown rapidly over the past thirty years, attracting researchers from an expanding range of disciplines. The first contributions were made in the early 1960s (e.g., Burns and Stalker, 1961; Cyert and March, 1963). Concepts of organisational learning were developed in fields of management and organisation in the 1970s and 1980s with such speed and diversity that the need for review articles emerged (e.g., Fiol and Lyles, 1985; Huber, 1991; Levitt and March, 1988). Contributions by sociologists further enriched the field in recent years (a review by Gherardi and Nicolini is forthcoming) and the possibilities for cross-fertilisation with anthropological perspectives have begun to be explored (Czarniawska, forthcoming). This annotated bibliography adopts a broad definition of 'learning', including knowledge creation, development, and management. Both recent and older references are included, and each section aims to reflect the wide range of approaches in the area.

Compatibility of vocational qualification systems: strategies for a future demand-oriented development cooperation in vocational education and training.
Kohn, Gerhard
Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit - GTZ; Darmstadt Universität für Technologie;
Berlin: Overall Verlag, 2000, 245 p.
(Background material and dialogue concerning international cooperation on vocational education and training, 16)
ISBN 3-925961-29-1

Contents: vocational qualification systems; vocational training cooperation in times of internationalisation and individualisation; the concept of occupation in vocational training cooperation; a modular, outcome-based qualifications system - the Scottish experience; roots and nature of reforms in VET; the South African skills development strategy; combining the modular concept and the occupation concept in Germany; a call for increased realisation of future- and needs-oriented training cooperation with women in third worlds countries.

Good practice in the accreditation of prior learning.
Nyatanga, Lovemore; Forman, Dawn; Fox, Jane
London: Cassell, 1998, 144 p.
ISBN 0-304-34651-9

This book treats both theoretical and practical aspects of Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL), the acknowledgement of skills and knowledge obtained through formal training, work experience and/or life experience. The authors draw heavily on British experience, but this doesn't harm the overall validity of their recommendations. The theoretical part starts with a chapter on the origins of the concept. Chapter 2 discusses the "nature of evidence", discussing mainly in what non-traditional forms (not based upon exam or the completion of course) a student can show he has learned what he wants to be accredited. Chapter 3 discusses theories on how this evidence should be assessed and accredited. Chapter 4 treats quality assurance in APL, including a tiny section on resources needed and cost-effectiveness. However, recommendations on the relation between the resources devoted to assessment and the learning assessed are missing. Chapter 5 looks at the influences of APL on the accreditation institutions. Chapter 6 puts APL in the context of accumulation and transfer schemes within the UK and the European Union and the modularisation of learning programs. All of these theoretical chapters end with a concise "good practice summary", some actually giving "malpractices to be avoided". These make great checklists for anybody developing an APL system, and are a good starting point for reading selectively. The remaining two chapters give two examples of how APL actually was conducted.

Lifelong learning policy and research: proceedings of an international symposium.
Tuijnman, A.; Schuller, T.
London: Portland Press, 1999, 260 p.
(Wenner-Gren international series, 75)
ISBN 1-85578-134-4

This book represents an attempt to sketch out the outlines of a research agenda for lifelong learning. In setting out an array of diverse ideas, themes and questions, it aims to provide reference points for researchers which will help to foster dialogue on the 'contested territory' of lifelong learning. A broad perspective is offered, ranging from issues in school education to vocational education, higher education and adult learning. Lifelong learning covers a lot of ground; the questions posed to educational and social research are plentiful. This volume offers a basis for scholarly debate on both the questions and the priorities. The book contains the report on a research agenda for lifelong learning prepared by the Task Force on Lifelong Learning set up by the International Academy of Education. It also contains papers read at an international symposium sponsored by the Wenner-Gren Foundations, and organised in cooperation with the Swedish Royal Academy of Sciences. The book is addressed principally to teachers, students and researchers in education and the social sciences. Research planners and foundations are another audience.

Lifelong learning trends: a profile of continuing higher education.
University Continuing Education Association - UCEA
Washington, DC: UCEA, 2000, 112 p.

The sixth edition of Lifelong Learning Trends, just published by UCEA, has earned a reputation as the national reference source on continuing higher education trends. This latest edition provides 112 pages of data. No other publication offers more data in one place of immediate relevance to continuing higher education planning. Continuing Higher Education trends are grouped in the following areas include: lifelong learning demographics, education and training needs in a knowledge-based economy, financial resources, technology in higher education, internationalisation of the higher education market, continuing education, civil society, and the arts.

European Union: policies, programmes, participants

The globalisation of education and training: recommendations for a coherent response of the European Union / study commissioned by the Directorate-General for Education and Culture, European Commission
Reichert, Sybille; Wächter, Bernd
European Commission - Directorate General for Education and Culture; Academic Cooperation Association - ACA
Luxembourg: EUR-OP, 2000, 138 p.
European Commission - Directorate-General for Education and Culture,
Rue de la Loi 200/Wetstraat 200,
B-1049 Bruxelles/Brussel
(32-2) 2991111,
http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/dgs/education_culture/index_en.htm

This study was carried out by the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA) in the period between February and May 2000, for the Directorate General Education and Culture of the European Commission. The terms of reference (TOR) required the contractor to provide the European Commission with recommendations concerning a coherent future European Union cooperation policy with non-Union countries ("third countries") in the field of education and training, which would contribute to enhance the quality of education and training inside the Union. In order to develop the recommendations, a three-step-methodology was proposed to and agreed with the European Commission. The three steps in question, which also guide the structure of this report, are: Component 1: this initial part of the study is empirical and analytical in nature and consists of an inventory of the Union's third country cooperation programmes. Only programmes with non-European target regions and countries have been included in this overview. Component 2: this part of the report depicts the state-of-the-art in international cooperation. Unlike component I, it focuses on higher education only. Its findings are based on a review of the most

recent literature on internationalisation and international cooperation. Component 3: this chapter contains the actual recommendations for a future European Union cooperation policy with non-member countries outside of Europe.

Online ed.: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/global.pdf

Lifelong learning: thematic bibliography.
Information Network on Education in Europe - EURYDICE
Luxembourg: EUR-OP, 2000, 50 p.
(Thematic bibliography)
ISBN 2-87116-300-6 (en)
EURYDICE European Unit,
Rue d'Arlon 15,
B-1040 Brussels,
Tel.: (32-2) 2383011,
Fax: (32-2) 2306562,
E-mail: eurydice.uee@euronet.be,
URL: http://www.eurydice.org/

This bibliography offers a selection of publications on the topic of "Lifelong Learning". The National Units in the Eurydice network have contributed more particularly to the chapter on official documents (Chapter F). The bibliography lists publications or international reports that have appeared since 1994. However, some earlier items of published literature which are of special historical interest in relation to the development of the concept of lifelong learning or are regarded as significant reference sources, have also been included. The documents, articles and Internet websites indicated for reference purposes have been classified in different categories: European Union, Council of Europe, OECD, UNESO, official documents published by national authorities.

Online ed.: http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/Bibliographie/Lll/en/FrameSet.htm
Online ed.: http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/Bibliographie/Lll/fr/FrameSet.htm

Knowledge and learning: towards a learning Europe.
Gavigan, James P.; Ottitsch, Mathias; Mahroum, Sami
Institute for Prospective Technological Studies
Luxembourg: EUR-OP, 1999, 71 p.
(Future report series, 14)
European Commission, Joint Research Centre Institute for Prospective Technological Studies,
World Trade Centre Building,
Isla de la Cartuja, s/n,
E-41092 Sevilla,
Tel.: (34-95) 4488489,
Fax: (34-95) 4488326,
E-mail: infoFutures@jrc.es,
URL: http://futures.jrc.es

This report has been produced in the context of the IPTS Futures Project, the aim of which is to explore the extent and impact on EU policy of technological, structural, social and political changes in Europe over the next ten years. One of the cross-cutting themes (along with EU enlargement and social protection) is education, training and skills). Here, the looming challenge is to maintain an up-to-date stock of knowledge and competencies in a world where the time-constants of change have made it next to impossible for society's traditional ways and means. In this report, we develop this theme in a much broader, and, to our knowledge, largely unexplored setting in which knowledge and learning are considered in a single treatise at individual, organisational and community or system levels.

Online ed.: http://futures.jrc.es/reports/Futures-Exec8.pdf

European report on the quality of school education: sixteen quality indicators.
European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture; Working Committee on quality indicators
Brussels: European Commission - Directorate General for Education and Culture, 2000, 71 p.
European Commission - Directorate-General for Education and Culture,
Rue de la Loi 200/Wetstraat 200,
B-1049 Bruxelles/Brussel
(32-2) 2991111,
http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/dgs/education_culture/index_en.htm

In drafting the report, the Commission drew on the support of a group of ex-

perts representing the 26 countries concerned. This initial report still has some deficiencies: the data are not always available for all the Member States and the indicators still have to be refined. The Commission therefore plans to regularly update the report. It contains many examples of innovative initiatives for each indicator. Several of the countries, which have applied for EU membership, have been very active in modernising their education systems. The 16 indicators selected for evaluating the quality of European schools are: - Attainment - assessed using tests or other methods - of European pupils aged 13 or 14 in the following subjects: mathematics, reading, science, information and communication technologies, foreign languages, "learning to learn" and civics.

Strategies for reforming initial vocational education and training in Europe.

Stenström, Marja-Leena; Lasonen, Johanna
Jyväskylä: Institute for Educational Research, 1999, 341 p.
ISBN 951-39-0743-0

This book is the final report of the Leonardo da Vinci project SPES-NET (Sharpening Post-16 Education Strategies by Horizontal and Vertical Networking), the multiplier-effect project of the earlier Post-16 Strategies project. SPES-NET was carried out in collaboration between fourteen partners representing researchers, policymakers, administrators and teacher educators from thirteen countries (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Norway, Scotland and Spain). The project focussed on European reform strategies adopted with the aim of improving the quality of vocational education and training as regards links between VET and working life, access to higher education, curriculum reform and teacher education. The project was a response to the challenge of identifying a European dimension of parity of esteem between academic/general education and vocational education and training. The SPES-NET project has been carried out with the financial support of the Commission of the European Communities under the Leonardo da Vinci Programme, of the Finnish Ministry of Education, the Institute for Educational Research and the Partners. The project has been managed by Dr Marja-Leena Stenström and coordinated by the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Jyväskylä.

From the Member States

B

La formation en alternance: Une dynamique interactive pour l'emploi et le développement des compétences.
(Alternance training: A dynamic interactive method for the use and development of skills)
Charleroi: FOREM, 2000, 27 p.
FOREM,
Unité de Pédagogie de la Formation,
rue du Viaduc 133,
B-1050 Bruxelles,
Tel.: (32-02) 6433170,
Fax: (32-02) 6406458,
E-mail: claudine.tilkin@forem.be,
URL: http://www.hotjob.be

The three objectives of this seminar are to provide information on existing practices and group alternance training schemes by putting them in a European context, to mobilise the different players in the alternance training field (enterprises, training bodies, social partners) and to prepare the ground for collaboration in the implementation of projects. The contents of the 5 workshops deal with the training dimension in the enterprise such as development engineering (elements of analyse, the concept of tutors, the learning components in the enterprise, the pedagogical choice, the commitment of the training body, the different levels, the alternance of integration, contracts and their interfaces), a presentation of the apprenticeship system in Finland, alternance training as the beginning of the training route, the training of tutors in the enterprise with a presentation of an innovative methodology and finally, a description of "Enterprise-School" relations in the German dual system.

D

Aus- und Weiterbildung nach Mass: das Konzept des Handwerks.
[Customised vocational training and continuing vocational training: the concept of the craft trades]
Zentralverband des Deutschen Handwerks
Berlin: Zentralverband des Deutschen Handwerks, 2000, 15 p.
Zentralverband des Deutschen Handwerks,
Tel.: (49-228) 5450,
Fax: (49-228) 545205,
E-mail: info@zdh.zdh.de,
URL: http://www.zdh.de/

The position paper presents the concept for vocational training and continuing vocational training favoured by the Association of German Crafts Organisations (ZDH). Basic principles include retaining the German concept of the regulated occupation, vocational competence as the goal of training and the enterprise as the primary focus of training. For the future, the ZDH calls for more specialisation in training programmes in order to better meet the needs of enterprises and the differing talents of trainees. The association proposes the equation: "core skills plus elective modules equals vocational competence".

Die duale Ausbildung: Ambivalenzen veränderter Übergangsbiographien.
[Dual vocational training: uncertainties regarding changes in the transition from school to work]
Solga, Heike; Trappe, Heike
Stuttgart: Steiner Verlag, 2000
In: Zeitschrift für Berufs- und Wirtschaftspädagogik, 2, p. 244-260
ISSN 0172-2875

In current debates on the dual system of vocational training, critics have complained that the transitions to training and employment can no longer proceed as linearly as they have in the past and that the flexibility of the dual system must be improved. As compared to these criticisms in Germany, the view of the dual system abroad is largely positive. Internationally, the dual system is typically seen as an ideal model that has continued to provide a functioning framework for the system of vocational training as a whole. These discussions have been dominated by the aspect of skills. In-plant training is seldom grasped as a three-dimensional process consisting of learning, work and life phases. The authors discuss the impact of the discontinuous training phases

of young people on the processes aimed at in the learning, work and life phases of dual system training.

Globalisierung und internationale Berufskompetenz: die IW-Umfrage zu Ausbildung und Beschäftigung 2000 [Globalisation and occupational skills survey on training and employment 2000]
Lenske, Werner; Werner, Dirk
Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft - IW;
Cologne: Deutscher Instituts-Verlag, 2000, 60 p.
(Beiträge zur Gesellschafts- und Bildungspolitik, 245)
ISBN 3-602-24997-2

This publication presents the results of a survey conducted by IW [Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft]. Almost 4,000 enterprises were asked to fill in a questionnaire covering the subject of training and employment within their companies.

Go global:
Fremdsprachen als Standortvorteil. [Go global: foreign languages as a favourable business location factor]
Schöpper-Grabe, Sigrid
Institut der Deutschen Wirtschaft - IW
Cologne: Dt. Inst.-Verl., 2000, 56 p.
(Beiträge zur Gesellschafts- und Bildungspolitik, 239)
ISBN 3-602-24990-5

Foreign language skills and intercultural competence are the basis for success when the issue is the opportunities opened up by globalisation. They are core skills, which - along with IT skills - are essential for success in the 21st Century. The author considers the effectiveness of foreign language instruction at general education schools in Germany as compared to other European countries. She also examines the foreign language instruction offered at vocational schools and the approaches used by businesses and industry in promoting foreign languages in vocational training and continuing vocational training programmes. The report concludes with recommendations for improving foreign language learning in the context of general education schools, vocational schools, universities, continuing training and society at large.

DK

Learning lab.
Undervisningsministeriet – UVM
Copenhagen: UVM, 2000, 64 p.
(Uddannelse, 8)
ISSN 0503-0102
Undervisningsministeriets forlag,
Strandgade 100 D,
DK-1401 København K,
Tel.: (45-33) 925220,
Fax: (45-33) 925219,
E-mail: uvm@uvm.dk,
URL: http://www.uvm.dk/

The capacity of learning is essential for the future welfare in the knowledge society. Learning to learn is a key competence in the future global society. Stressing this approach the Danish Ministries of Education and Research launched Learning Lab Denmark in June 2000, as a dynamic organisation, based on research and experimental activities. The perspectives of this new platform in the Danish educational and vocational landscape are examined by Danish and international experts. This month's issue of "Uddannelse" can be seen as a kick off for the official conference on the potentials and perspectives of Learning Lab, launched in Copenhagen on November 6th and 7th, 2000. One of the key note speakers will be Mitchel Resnick, writing an article in this issue on learning at the Media Lab, Media at the Learning Lab, p. 9, including headlines as Transforming what people learn - and - Transforming how people learn.

Tal der taler: uddannelsesnøgletal [Facts and figures: education indicators Denmark 2000]
Undervisningsministeriet - UVM
Copenhagen: UVM, 2000, 115 p.
ISBN 87-603-1734-5
Undervisningsministeriets forlag,
Strandgade 100 D,
DK-1401 København K,
Tel.: (45-33) 925220,
Fax: (45-33) 925219,
E-mail: uvm@uvm.dk,
URL: http://www.uvm.dk/

This publication presents general key figures that can be seen as indications for movements and expected developments within the Danish education system. The key figures are grouped in three areas:

Resources, i.e. expenses, number of teachers, schools etc. Student movements, i.e. number of students, intake, passing, and transfer of students from one educational level to the other. Results from training efforts, i.e. final education profile for a youth cohort and relations between education and unemployment. A warning is given against comparing with earlier published key-figures because of so-called retrospective corrections continuously being made e.g. by Statistics Denmark

The Danish perspective.
Søgaard, Jørn
The Danish Centre for International Training Programmes – ACIU
Copenhagen: ACIU, 2000, 55 p.
(Internationalising vocational education and training)
ISBN 87-90021-60-6
ACIU, Hesseløgade 16,
DK-2100 Copenhagen Ø,
Tel.: (45-39) 271922,
Fax: (45-39) 272217,
E-mail: aciu@aciu.dk,
URL: http://www.aciu.dk

The main issues raised and described in this report are: the conceptual framework, stakeholders and policy issues, internationalisation at college level, examples of good practice, a vision for the internationalised vocational college and recommendations for further initiatives divided into actions to be taken at national level, college level and teacher level. The report is based on existing material supplemented by qualitative interviews with key players in the field combined with 3 conferences on internationalising VET in Denmark. It is strongly recommended to create a vision or 2-3 scenarios on the future international VET college. This should be combined with sharing of information materials, conduction of cost/ benefit analysis of international activities and strategic initiatives towards the institutionalisation of internationalisation combined with adaptation of methodologies qualifying product cycles from the business sector

F

Evaluation des politiques régionales de formation professionnelle 1996-1999: portraits statistiques régionaux sur la formation et l'insertion professionnelles des jeunes (1993-1997).
(Evaluation of regional vocational training policies 1996-1999: regional statistical portraits of the training and job integration of young people, 1993-1997)
Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications - CEREQ; Comité de coordination des programmes régionaux d'apprentissage et de formation professionnelle continue;
Marseille: CEREQ, 1999, 457 p.
CEREQ,
10 place de la Joliette,
BP 21321,
F-13567 Marseille cedex 02,
Tel.: (33-4) 91132828,
Fax: (33-4) 9113288,
E-mail: cereq@cereq.fr,
URL: http://www.cereq.fr/

This document is a part of the evaluation of regional vocational training policies conducted by the Coordination Committee for Regional Vocational Training and Apprenticeship Programmes (CCPR). It deals with the quantitative side of this evaluation and completes the work on the qualitative aspects undertaken in the 26 regions. The statistical portraits were prepared by the Statistical Evaluation Group (GSE) in CEREQ. The GSE is made up of representatives of the National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE), the Directorate for the Promotion of Research Studies and Statistical Research (DARES), the Directorate for Programming and Development (DPD), CEREQ, the CCPR and regional experts (Bourgogne, Centre, Languedoc-Roussillon and Pays-de-la-Loire). The work throws some comparative light on regional vocational training policies, the conditions for the occupational integration of young people and the socio-economic context in which this takes place, for the period 1996-1997. It consists of two parts: statistical typologies which enable a comparison of the regions and a presentation of 26 detailed portraits.

Internet, nouveaux horizons pour la formation: expériences en Espagne, France, Pays-Bas et Royaume-Uni: rapport de synthèse.
(Internet, new horizons for training – experiences in Spain, France, the

Netherlands and the United Kingdom – synthesis report)
Debret, Dominique; Hellouin, Valérie; Maillot, Jérôme
Centre pour le développement de l'information sur la formation permanente - Centre INFFO
Paris-la-Défense: Centre INFFO, 1999, 243 p.
ISBN 2-911577-53-1
Centre INFFO,
Tour Europe,
33 place des Corolles,
F-92049 Paris-la-Défense Cedex,
Tel.: (33-1) 41252222,
Fax: (33-1) 47737420,
E-mail: cinffo1@centre-inffo.fr,
URL: http://www.centre-inffo.fr/

For several years, in France and in Europe, there has been an exponential increase of training actions via Internet or intranet. Within the framework of a project ADAPT bis and with the collaboration of Spanish partners (IBEREMA group and INEM), the Centre INFFO conducted an international study of these innovations in four European countries (Spain, France, Netherlands, United Kingdom). This report presents, for each country, the vocational training schemes for employees in various sectors of activity. Numerous teaching arrangements and different types of tools used in Internet or Intranet are included in this collection of experiences. Trainees and trainers also give their views on the measures in which they participated.
Document available on the Centre INFFO Web site in PDF format (10317Kb) and in the ".zip" compressed format (8411 Kb). The document is divided into several modules for downloading.
Online ed.: http://www.centre-inffo.fr/rapport_internet_adapt.html

Les acteurs de la formation professionnelle: pour une nouvelle donne: rapport au Premier Ministre.
(The players in vocational training: a new deal: report to the Prime Minister)
LINDEPERG G
Paris: Assemblée Nationale, 1999, 350 p.

This report, which is an extension of the White Paper issued by the State Secretariat for Vocational Education and Training, pinpoints the weaknesses of the vocational training system with respect to the role of the State, the social partners and regional councils, the partnerships between the State and the Regions, between the public authorities and the social partners, and the role and structure of the concertation bodies. Thirty-six proposals relating to three lines of action have been formulated: clarification of the competence of the different actors, re-structuring of the coordination bodies, the establishment of a local support service for enterprises (reinforcement of the local support services of the Approved Joint Collection Agencies - OPCA) and for individuals (reception, information, vocational guidance).
Online ed.: http://www.centre-inffo.fr/rapportlindeperg.html

FIN **The single market for education and national educational policy: europeanisation of Finnish education policy discourses 1987-1997.**
Ollikainen, Aaro
Turku: University of Turku, 1999, 310 p.
ISBN 951-29-1519-7
Turun yliopisto,
Koulutussosiologian tutkimuskeskus,
FIN-20014 Turku

Education has traditionally been perceived as a marginal area of action for the European Union. EU education policy is based on limited mechanisms of funding and regulation. However, education and training are regarded as key vehicles for the future economic, social and cultural development of the Community. This study concerns the Europeanisation of Finnish education policy argumentation. In this process, concepts, objectives and argumentation patterns devised on the European level tacitly become incorporated into national policy texts. The European Union changes the operating environment in which national policies are shaped and executed.

UK **Creating learning cultures: next steps in achieving the learning age: the second report of the National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning / Chair professor**

R.H. Fryer.
National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning - NAGCELL; Department for Education and Development - DfEE
Nottinghamshire: DfEE, 1999, 37 p.
DfEE Publications,
P.O. Box 5050,
Sherwood Park, Annesley,
UK-Nottinghamshire NG15 0DJ,
Tel.: (44-845) 6022260,
Fax: (44-845) 6033360,
E-mail: dfee@prologistics.co.uk,
URL: http://www.dfee.gov.uk/

This publication is the second report of the National Advisory Group for Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning. It comprises advice to the Secretary of State for Education and Employment. The report takes the following form. After the introduction, section two begins with a brief review of progress with the government's lifelong learning agenda. There is a description of different ways in which initiatives and achievements to date can be signalled more clearly and consolidated. This is followed, in section three, by a brief consideration of the main dimensions of contemporary social and cultural change, indicating how the development of cultures of learning need to relate to such changes. Section four centres on the demand for lifelong learning and how it might best be both increased and widened, a continuing and central challenge for the whole of the government's strategy. The next part of the report, section five, looks at some of the implications of the current operation of the benefits system for the development of lifelong learning. Section six is concerned with family learning and section seven deals with citizenship and capacity building. In section eight, ways in which effective partnerships can support the expansion of livelong learning are explored and in section nine suggestions are made for further work.
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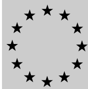

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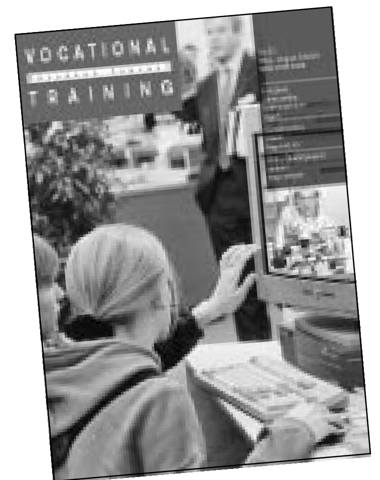

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