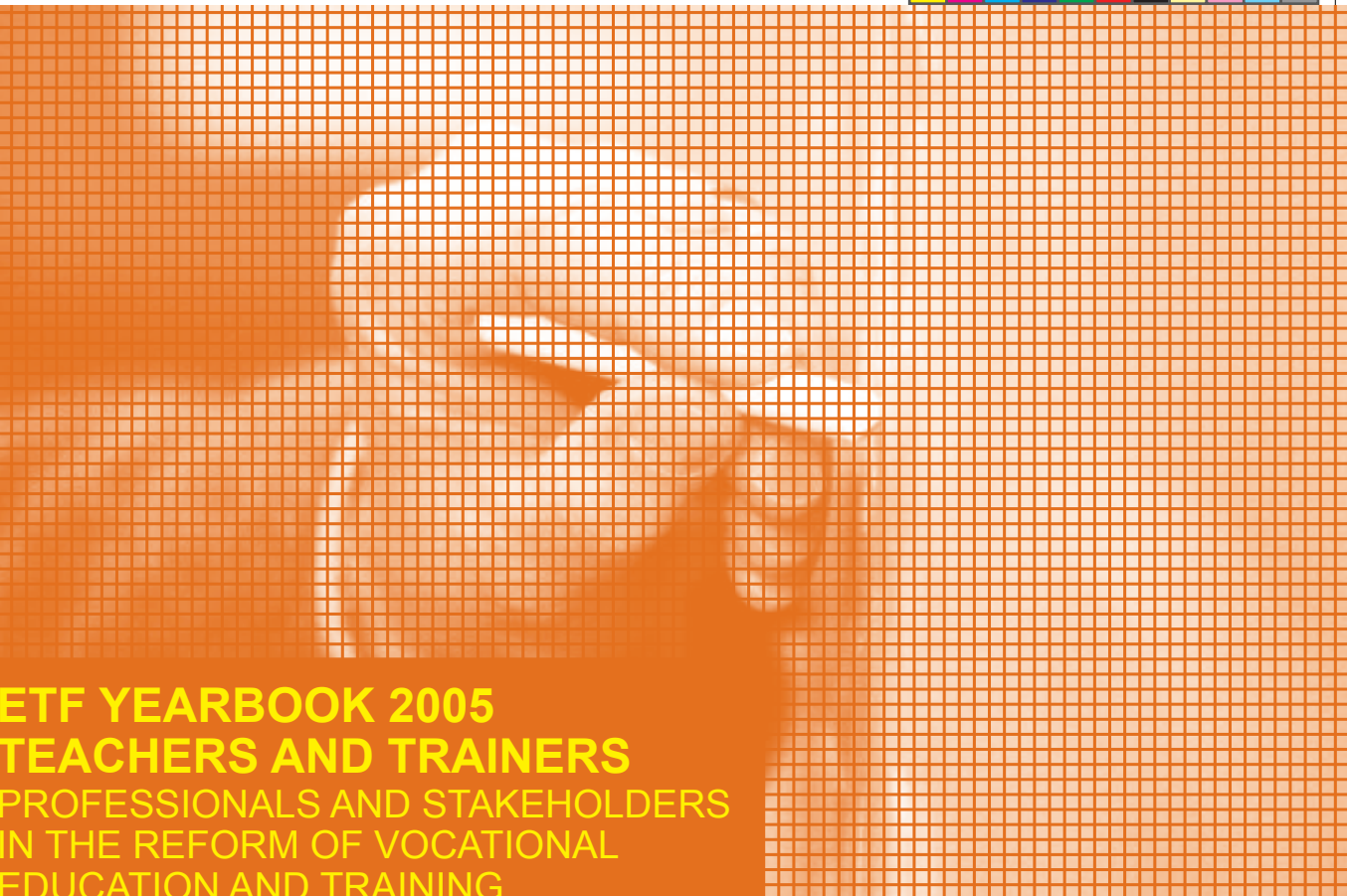


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ETF YEARBOOK 2005
TEACHERS AND TRAINERS
PROFESSIONALS AND STAKEHOLDERS
IN THE REFORM OF VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION AND TRAINING



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REFORM IN THIRD COUNTRIES IN THE CONTEXT
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EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Peter Grootings and Søren Nielsen (Editors)

With contributions from Mircea Badescu, Borhène Chakroun, Marie Corman, Peter de Rooij, Muriel Dunbar, Henrik Faudel, Dragana Gligorijevic, György Ispánki, Deirdre Lennan, Irene Anna Liverani, Xavier Matheu de Cortada and Simona Rinaldi



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FOREWORD

On 28 and 29 June 2004, the European Training Foundation marked its tenth anniversary with an international workshop on teacher and trainer involvement in education reforms. It took place just a few days before I took up my position as the director of the ETF. The workshop was my introduction not only to the organisation, but also to what would become one of the core themes of our work during my first year in Turin.

Our increased focus on teachers and trainers stemmed from the 2003 conference 'Learning Matters'. Participants rightly stressed the need to recognise teachers and trainers as agents of change. They challenged the ETF to find better ways of involving teachers in our partner countries in reforms.

Work on the theme continued throughout 2004 and into 2005. Theory was developed through workshops and our own focus groups. Practical experience was gathered through our regular projects. I am proud to present the first tentative fruits of this work, compiled in this 2005 edition of our Yearbook.

The Yearbook is a collection of experiences of ETF colleagues and former colleagues, including my predecessor Peter de Rooij. Although they approach the issue from very different angles, some key issues return throughout the document. The editors, Peter Grootings and Søren Nielsen, have collected these and their reflections in the first and last chapters.

The different chapters cover specific angles to the theme. The document as a whole represents a strong argument for giving the changing role of teachers and trainers

more priority in our efforts to help partner countries develop their human resources. Winning their support by involving them greatly increases the chances of success of any intervention. Although this has long been recognised, it is not always carried through in practice.

However, teacher involvement in current education reforms is more than a matter of securing their sense of ownership. The ways in which we learn are changing fast. Teachers are no longer just messengers, passing on knowledge and competences from one generation to another. They are co-writers of the message itself. They have to adapt and edit it continually. As such, they are important actors in economic and social development: only if teachers and trainers are up to this professional challenge can modern education and training respond adequately to the needs of our societies.

The key message of this Yearbook is thus that teachers and trainers have a double role to play in reform: their experience and professional expertise must be utilised in policy development, and their competence and motivation must be secured to implement the results of such policy development in their respective learning environments - be they classrooms, the work place, or virtual environments.

I hope that this Yearbook will re-ignite the debate on the role of teachers and trainers in education reforms and that such debate will lead to increased recognition for this role by policy makers and the international donor community.

Muriel Dunbar
Director, European Training Foundation
Turin, July 2005



EDITORIAL

The Yearbook is the only expertise publication published by the ETF on an annual basis. The Yearbook series was introduced in order to provide ETF staff with an opportunity to revisit their project and country experiences, and to reflect on lessons that can be learned from past experience and applied to their work in the future. The publications also allow the ETF to show the outside world what lessons it is learning from its own practice, and that it is capable of communicating such experiences and of contributing to international discussions. For the individual staff who contribute, the Yearbook provides an opportunity to develop further and display their professional competences.

Each Yearbook includes contributions from present and former ETF staff who have actively worked, often with experts from outside the ETF, on issues relating to the topic of the Yearbook. Yearbook topics are discussed and agreed with the ETF Editorial Board. The editors develop an overall concept and invite, encourage and stimulate colleagues to contribute. They make no particular distinction with reference to an individual's position or grade. In terms of the development of expertise and the sharing of knowledge, the Yearbook therefore capitalises on the knowledge that individual staff have developed during their work and makes this available to others, both inside and outside the organisation. Great care is taken to ensure that as many colleagues as possible are able to contribute in some way to the Yearbook series over a period of

three to four years. This is achieved by selecting strategically important themes that emerge from past and current experiences and that will undoubtedly need more attention in the near future.

The first Yearbook focused on the concept of policy learning¹. Briefly, it was argued that systemic reforms of vocational education and training (VET) in transition countries (and indeed any type of major reform in any country) will only be successful and sustainable if policy development, formulation and implementation are firmly based on broad ownership and on integration into existing institutions. The concept of policy learning has been developed through critical discussion of the more traditional approaches of policy transfer and policy copying. It emphasises not simply involvement but active engagement of national stakeholders in developing their own policy solutions. It is based on the understanding that there are no universally valid models but at most a wealth of international experience in dealing with similar policy issues in other contexts. The concept has major implications for foreign assistance, and in particular for the role that individual and institutional policy advisers, such as the ETF and its staff, can and should play in their cooperation with colleagues in partner countries².

This second Yearbook will explore these key issues further by focusing on an important, though surprisingly neglected, group of actors in VET: teachers and

¹ P. Grootings (ed), *ETF Yearbook 2004 – Learning Matters*, ETF, 2004.

² The policy learning approach was formally endorsed by the ETF Advisory Forum plenary meeting in 2003 (for more details see www.etf.eu.int).

trainers, and their role in VET reforms. Obviously this Yearbook will not cover every aspect of the role of teachers and trainers in transition countries. The main constraint is the ETF's so far limited engagement with teachers and trainers in partner countries. However, looking back it can be seen that the ETF has actually carried out a significant amount of work relating to teaching and learning, either directly or indirectly. This Yearbook attempts to collect and present what has been undertaken and what has been learned. The aim is to present the reflections by ETF colleagues on aspects of VET reform relating to teaching and to do so in the context of wider international discussions on learning. These reflections are intended to identify and map out questions, ideas and potential strategies for the future. The main issue around which the various contributions are organised is that of the dual role of teachers and trainers in VET reforms: they are both stakeholders in the reform process and principal professionals within the system. These two roles need to be recognised; more fundamentally, they are mutually dependent.

Clearly the intention is also to make further progress in understanding the implications of all these issues on how the ETF can improve its role as policy learning facilitator. This point must be particularly emphasised, as it can be argued that there are many similarities between the current international discussions on the new professionalisation of teachers and our own view regarding the role of international policy advisers. Educationalists are discussing the need for teachers and trainers to shift from being transmitters of expert knowledge and skills to students who are largely considered to be passive receivers of information, towards becoming facilitators of learning processes for individuals who themselves want to become competent. If systemic policy reform is about national stakeholders having, and being willing, to learn new policies actively rather than being told what to do, then international advisers should take proper notice of these discussions. After all, the new professionalisation of teachers and trainers is firmly based on new insights about how people learn and

about how more experienced 'experts' can help them to become competent. Is this not exactly what any policy adviser should be interested in?

Our thanks go to all the authors for their contributions and the ETF's External Communication Unit for their valuable support in putting this publication together. We are also grateful to the input from the ETF's Editorial Board, which has played a key role in the preparation of this Yearbook.

Peter Grootings

Søren Nielsen

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EDITORIAL

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1. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS: PROFESSIONALS AND STAKEHOLDERS IN THE REFORM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

1

*Peter Grootings
Søren Nielsen*

INTRODUCTION³

The main assumption of this Yearbook is that the role of teachers in the reform of vocational education and training (VET) is a dual one, combining that of stakeholder and professional. It is through teachers' involvement in policy learning aimed at the systemic reform of VET systems that they will best be able to develop a new professional identity. If VET teachers in transition countries are involved as key stakeholders in reform, this might actually contribute to the implementation of the new learning concepts and practices currently at the root of VET reforms in several EU Member States.

A major challenge for transition countries facing systemic VET reforms is to build up and strengthen their own capacities to

formulate and implement national reform policies. Fundamental VET reforms in transition countries (and indeed any type of major reform in any country) will only be successful and sustainable if policy development, formulation and implementation are firmly based on broad ownership and fit within existing institutions. The concept of policy learning reflects this understanding. It has been developed through critical discussion of the more traditional approaches of the international donor community, approaches that relied heavily on policy transfer and policy copying. Policy learning emphasises not simply the involvement but rather the active engagement of national stakeholders in developing their own policy solutions, and is based on the understanding that there are no universally valid models that can simply be transferred or copied from

³ We are grateful to the ETF Editorial Board for comments on an earlier draft of this chapter.

one context to another. At best there is a wealth of international, though context-specific, experience in dealing with similar policy issues that can be shared⁴.

The policy learning approach requires an intensive focus on ways of organising policy learning platforms and environments in the countries so that a critical mass of key actors and stakeholders gradually develop an understanding of, and competence in, VET reform policy. So far, since policy transfer and policy copying approaches have dominated reform debates in most countries, the concept of stakeholders has been very much influenced by the model, and indeed the ideology that was to be transferred or copied. In VET reform, a key issue is the involvement of employers, private industry or (in EU terms) social partners. The view is that in a market-based economy governments cannot continue to be solely responsible for VET. The essence of systemic reform – adaptation of VET to free educational choice, private enterprise and labour markets – requires the involvement of the enterprises in which graduates will be seeking employment. This, of course, seems logical.

The reality of the reform process in many transition countries, however, has created a whole series of interesting contradictions. Whereas private sector or social partner involvement was presented as a *sine-qua-non* for any market-based VET system, in practice governments have faced a great deal of disinterest from the private sector (employers and unions alike) in becoming involved at all. There are many reasons for this. One is the lack of organised representation at national level. Another is the absence of any professional capacity among social partners to deal with VET matters in the context of reform. The result has been, and often still is, that enlightened governments must include the interests of the private sector in their own policy thinking. Furthermore, reform policy

remains dependent on party politics because of the absence of a professional body of civil servants within the ministry apparatus.

Public education authorities therefore remain the driving force behind VET reform, certainly at national level. The involvement of stakeholders from industry is not something that is present from the start; it must be developed as part of the reform process itself. Interestingly enough, if trade unions have been involved at all in national education reform policy debates, these have often been teaching unions. Perhaps understandably, given the state of public budgets and the mounting pressures to decrease public spending on education in many transition countries, these unions have been more concerned with defending the social and material status of their membership than with becoming involved in the contents of education reform. As a result of the behaviour of their unions, teachers in general have come to be regarded as major obstacles to reform. This, in turn, may sometimes have actually led to the development of policies intended to break the power of the teaching community rather than to engage them more positively⁵.

More recently, however, there has been an increasing awareness that teachers and trainers should be included in the critical mass of stakeholders for reform. This is mainly as a result of a better understanding of why so many education reforms across the world have failed in the past. The exclusion of teachers as stakeholders from the reform process has frequently led to a failure of national reform policies to trigger any changes whatsoever within education institutions and classrooms. Teachers and trainers have now come to be recognised as crucial agents for making reforms work in their professional capacity as organisers of learning. It has also been understood that involving teachers is not simply a matter of informing them about what is

⁴ See ETF Yearbook 2004 for a longer discussion of the ETF vision and its role of fostering and supporting policy learning among its partners.

⁵ Such policies include a move from so-called input control (based, among other factors, on teacher qualifications) towards output control mechanisms based, on occupational and educational standards, while neglecting the learning processes that would lead to the achievement of the standards. In such cases the assessment of standard attainment has frequently replaced education and training per se.

1. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS: PROFESSIONALS AND STAKEHOLDERS IN THE REFORM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

expected of them. Nor is it simply a matter of training them to implement the new policies. As professionals, teachers know best what will work in the specific context of their own school and classroom environment, including the particular learning needs of the student population for which they cater. Their expertise is therefore an important resource for translating general policy initiatives into very divergent real-life contexts. Thus, a better understanding of why many education reforms have not succeeded has implications not only for the implementation of reform policies but also for the very process of policy development and formulation.

Education policymakers at national level have a natural ally in the teaching and training community. Teachers and trainers are education professionals and most of them are dedicated to their profession. But relying solely on the teaching and training community also has risks. One particular drawback is the fact that teachers, and increasingly in many transition countries, trainers, have a purely educational or theoretical background, and often lack practical work experience and understanding of the specifics of the work environments where their students will find themselves after leaving school. This can be fatal for the reform project, especially in the context of transition countries, where one of the core objectives is to link VET more effectively to the qualification needs of enterprises. However, this risk can also be turned into an opportunity, particularly in situations where it has proved very difficult to involve enterprises and their representatives at national level. This could be accomplished by enabling or even compelling schools at the local level to open up to enterprises and to let teachers and trainers take the initiative in establishing local education, training and employment partnerships and networks. This, however, would imply a reform strategy that combines vertical decentralisation with horizontal network building at community level. It would also imply the involvement of schools as professional organisations instead of teachers as individual professionals⁶.

Further arguments for a more important role for teachers and trainers (as individuals and as staff members in professional organisations) are provided by the so-called new learning theories, which argue for the active engagement of learners in regulating their own learning progress. These learning theories are based on new insights from a variety of disciplines, including educational science, psychology and brain research, into how people deal with new information and how they develop new knowledge and competence. They argue that in order for it to be retained, new information must be meaningful, and meaningful information is always developed in concrete contexts. The new learning theories have also gained in popularity for very practical reasons. The speed of arrival of new knowledge and changes in the workplace have made it increasingly difficult for individuals to obtain all the knowledge and skills they require at one particular stage of life, and lifelong learning calls for its own key competences, such as the ability to learn and to act in problem-solving situations and in team-based environments. The rapid increase in alternative sources of knowledge as a result of developments in information and communication technologies on the other hand, makes it less important for people to acquire as much information as possible, as long as they are able to find information and select what is relevant in a concrete situation. This does not mean that teachers have become obsolete, but that their roles are changing.

Thus new learning theories not only advocate new ways of helping people to acquire new knowledge, but also argue that people must develop new kinds of competence. Related to these developments are the discussions on the changing professional profiles of teachers, and in particular the need for them to relinquish their traditional role of being transmitters of domain-specific expert knowledge and skills and to become facilitators and coaches of learning processes. The emphasis on meaningful contexts, moreover, leads to a questioning of the school-based classroom as the sole

⁶ See Chapter 2 on the ETF's experience in relation to these issues.

learning environment in VET. Critical questions are also raised regarding the workplace as an effective place to learn, given the fact that work tasks often overshadow learning. Neither classrooms nor workplaces are ideal learning sites, and the idea of involving teachers and trainers in designing appropriate learning environments that contribute to the development of competences has emerged as part of the discussions on their professional role. Thus, teachers are coming to be recognised as stakeholders in education reform, and one key element of the ongoing reforms is precisely their own changing professional roles.

This introductory chapter explores further some aspects of the teaching profession's dual role. It focuses on the challenges for those countries in which the ETF is involved in VET reform, against the background of the current debates on teachers and teacher training in EU countries.

The chapters that follow review concrete experiences from partner countries in more detail. The final chapter explores these experiences in a policy learning context and present some options for linking ongoing VET reforms in partner countries to the current international debates on the role of teachers and training in modern VET systems. Some of the basic characteristics of VET reforms in the EU and transition countries are discussed. In particular, the way in which the exclusive emphasis on standard-based learning outcomes has gradually made way for a greater focus on the quality of learning processes will be highlighted. This has been accompanied by a more holistic view of competence and has put teachers and trainers centre-stage once again as professional educators. The new professionalisation debate can only be understood against the background of the new learning paradigm. It is then argued that the new roles for teachers and trainers are only part of the overall paradigm change in education and training, which also encompasses other aspects, including governance, management and innovation. These other aspects, which are mainly driven by economic concerns, have actually dominated many of the reform

initiatives so far, but now need to be related to our current understanding of competence-based learning. These issues are discussed next. Taken together, these developments have profound implications for what teachers are expected to contribute to learning, and the new teacher competences therefore require teacher training systems and institutions to refocus. Following a discussion of some of these implications, the concluding comments in the final chapter concern the dual role of teachers and trainers in reform.

CHANGING THE FRAMEWORK OR THE ACTORS OF THE VET SYSTEM?

A fundamental issue in continuing discussions on education reform in transition countries is the quest to find the strategic lever for change. One central question is: Should structures be changed or should the actors involved in education and training be empowered? The answer to the question is likely to be both. However, in practice reform strategies have often focused on only one lever and have neglected the other. Moreover, the ways in which reform strategies have been implemented have made it unlikely from the outset that reforms would affect the entire system. The choice for a structural change has usually been accompanied by a centralised top-down approach, while the rare attempts to empower actors have normally been made through a bottom-up approach. While the top-down approach – almost by definition – gave insufficient attention to the involvement and engagement of key actors at the lower levels of the education system, the bottom-up approach usually remained limited to a small number of experimental pilot projects that failed to have system-wide impact (Viertel and Grootings, ETF, 2000 and Parkes et al, 1999). In both cases the result has been that teachers and trainers – the very people who should realise the reform at school and classroom level – have been left out of the reform process as active participants and stakeholders.

This reflects a wider international discussion on how to configure changing VET systems. Two main approaches are

1. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS: PROFESSIONALS AND STAKEHOLDERS IN THE REFORM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

discernable: a skill or competence-based model and a qualification and curriculum-based model. Anglo-Saxon VET systems (such as those in the UK, USA, Ireland and Australia) are examples of the first of these, which is governed through standards and output tests, with educational content (curriculum) and pedagogical processes (teaching and learning) being of minor interest. The focus is on action competences, defined in particular as skills, which can be measured in largely behavioural terms, using 'objectives', 'standards' and 'assessment tests'. Assessment and certification of qualifications by awarding bodies do not involve any approval of curricula or learning arrangements: these, therefore, are left largely to the discretion of the education and training providers. It often seems that assessment has taken the place of education and training proper⁷.

In many continental European VET systems, including most of the ETF partner countries, the emphasis has traditionally been much more on the system's input and process elements. A number of stipulations are made specifying such elements as the curriculum, the educational infrastructure and the teacher qualifications required in VET programmes awarding formally recognised qualifications. Countries previously differed in the extent to which they related these stipulations either to occupations and the labour market (occupational standards), or to access to higher levels of, mostly general, education (educational standards), and in whether certificates, therefore, had a value on the labour market (qualifications) or within the education system (diplomas). Some countries have combined these two approaches.

What is interesting about the current reform debates in a number of EU countries is the attempt to make up for the shortcomings of each of the two approaches that were implemented during the 1980s and early 1990s. For example, in many countries

where the skill-based assessment approach was employed there is now increased attention to the quality of the learning processes that contribute to the development of competent individuals. In contrast, countries that previously prioritised inputs and processes have now become more concerned about the relevance of learning outcomes. The competence-based approaches of today are far less simplistic and behaviouristic than the earlier skill-based ones, and also include so-called metacognitive or core competences such as the ability to learn and to work in teams. They also seek to improve the integration of theoretical knowledge and broader practical skills. Similarly, the traditional curriculum-based approaches have become much more flexible, allowing for local variations and modular approaches, for example. Moreover, they are currently far less concerned than they were previously with specialist theoretical knowledge, and are searching for a better integration of theory and practice through new forms of learning such as projects and problem-based learning. Both approaches also emphasise knowledge and experience gained outside the formal education system. What most of the ongoing VET reform debates have in common is a fundamental concern about *both* the quality and relevance of learning processes for students *and* positive outcomes against the background of more rapidly changing labour markets and increasingly diverse student populations.

Nevertheless, in many EU countries the main emphasis until now has been on changing structures and frameworks rather than empowering actors and stakeholders by innovating the organisation of learning processes. This was the case both for the traditional reforms aimed at curriculum frameworks and for the approaches aimed at implementing skill or competence-based training. The latter, in fact, principally denied any decisive role or contribution for teachers and learning processes.

⁷ It is worth noting, however, that while the earlier Anglo-Saxon skill or competence-based approaches, among others, were promoted as making learning less dependent on the contributions of teachers, the shift from input control to output control has at the same time given the educational establishment a greater degree of autonomy to develop alternative approaches to teaching, and has also forced the teaching profession to review its own professional status and future. This has created a new innovative discourse that now reinforces the renewed attention on the quality of learning processes and the role of teachers in them.

Interestingly, it is also the case that innovating teaching and learning was not an objective of the EU 2002 Copenhagen Declaration⁸. On the other hand, in recent years the EU (and the OECD) is actually giving more attention to improving education for teachers and trainers, and to formulating policies and measures that will equip the teaching profession to cope with the new educational change agenda. So far, however, these international initiatives have only occasionally led to national action in Member States⁹.

The emphasis on the quality of education and the concern with the positioning of teachers to promote that quality has become a higher priority only quite recently. This development reflects first of all a growing concern among education policymakers that the teaching profession has lost too much of its appeal. As a result it is becoming increasingly difficult to recruit and retain teachers. Although pre-service teacher education and training studies remain popular among students, many graduates are in reality not interested in becoming teachers. In many countries the teaching workforce is ageing, severe shortages already exist, and existing vacancies cannot be filled. Some countries have initiated alternative recruitment and training policies that allow adults with some form of work experience to enter the teaching profession while undergoing job-based education and training¹⁰. The traditional path has been, and on the whole still is, to accomplish post-secondary or higher education before entering the profession.

Increasing attention to the role of teachers in the provision of quality education also

reflects another development. A new understanding of learning, of what it contains and of how people actually learn, is emerging. However, this development is less clear and several contradictory trends can still be observed. Traditional approaches still predominate. Both the traditional curriculum-based approach and the early skill-based approaches that have been put forward as its alternative see learning basically in terms of products: learning is understood as adding more, or more complicated, 'bits and chunks' to what is already available in the mind (Hager, 2004). The curriculum approach basically views these additions in terms of propositional knowledge, following cognitive theories of learning. The competence-based approach argues in terms of bundles of separate skills (in the case of the earlier behaviouristic traditions of the 1980s) or portions of applied knowledge (what can people do with their knowledge?) in the case of the more recent initiatives of the early 1990s¹¹.

In some countries there has been a recent shift towards placing more emphasis on learning processes, as a result of new insights regarding the nature of learning and how people learn. These new insights consider learning not so much as a product but as a process, and are based on constructivist learning theories which themselves have developed from a critique of traditional behaviouristic and cognitive theories¹². Constructivist theories have focused their criticism on a number of critical assumptions that are shared – despite their other differences – by traditional learning theories that considered learning as a steady accumulation of discrete entities of knowledge or skills.

⁸ Declaration of the European Ministers of Vocational Education and Training, and the European Commission, convened in Copenhagen on 29 and 30 November 2002, on enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training, 'The Copenhagen Declaration' (see www.europa.eu.int) and OECD (2005).

⁹ See also Chapter 6.

¹⁰ See developments concerning a dual system for pre-service teacher education in the Netherlands and the critical discussions that have developed from concerns regarding the professional levels of 'lateral in-streamers'.

¹¹ This understanding of learning as a product has also greatly confused the discussion on modular approaches and work-based learning. The ILO Modules of Employable Skills (MES) approach is an example of an understanding of learning as the accumulation of portions of (behaviouristic) skills. The same can be said of much of the current interest in work-based learning. It all depends on the learning assumptions that guide the design and use of particular learning methods and environments.

¹² For an overview of learning theories see Driscoll (2000) and Illeris (2000).

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Hager (2004, p. 411) mentions five such assumptions.

- There is one best way of learning.
- Learning is essentially an individual activity.
- Learning that is non-transparent is inferior.
- Learning centres on what is stable and enduring.
- Learning is replicable.

In seeing learning as a continuous process of exchange between individuals and their environment, constructivist approaches argue that people give their own meaning to information, and in so doing construct their own understanding of reality as a basis on which they intervene and act. In contrast to behaviourist and cognitive approaches, they also argue that there are many ways in which people can learn, that learning is foremost a social activity¹³, that there is a great deal of tacit learning taking place, that learning is dynamic, that learning is very much context-bound and that effective learning depends on meaningful learning environments (Kolb, 1984). These new insights regarding learning and how people learn are at the root of education reforms in countries such as Denmark and the Netherlands. The reforms and reform discussions also centre on the concept of competences. However, they do not focus on competences in terms of distinct outcomes of learning and as measured through performance, as was the case in most of the earlier competence-based reform initiatives of the 1990s. They take a more holistic view and give much more attention to what really makes people competent (their capabilities, abilities and skills to handle critical professional situations) and to the education, training and development processes through which individuals become competent performers. Whereas previously a skilled person was seen as someone who knew how to apply the standard knowledge and skills passed on by a teacher or a trainer, now a

competent person is seen as someone who is able to function and act correctly in non-standard and critical work situations. The development of education and training programmes and the assessment of competence are no longer carried out on the basis of detailed sets of separate, often unconnected, standards, but on the basis of critical key tasks of the profession¹⁴.

In the (often donor-driven) designs for VET reform in partner countries the emphasis has also been on changing structures rather than on developing high quality educational processes¹⁵. It is unfortunate to observe that much of the ongoing donor assistance and advice for VET reform in transition countries is still based largely on the prevailing models and approaches of the 1980s and 1990s, which have in the meantime been abandoned in their countries of origin. A system based on detailed occupational standards at first sight may have many advantages for enabling the establishment of a national qualification framework that can support lifelong learning. Such a system is an attractive model for transition countries that have obsolete education and training programmes and a decaying infrastructure for the delivery of VET. However, at the same time serious barriers exist, which have been articulated by educationalists in countries that have invested in 'skill-based' systems; these obstacles are important not least for transition countries that are reforming education systems based on other systemic logics.

A number of risks are highlighted: job profiles become too narrow; measurable skills are too simplistic and expressed in behaviouristic terms that exclude tacit knowledge and skills; continuous efforts to innovate and refine effective learning processes are neglected; and the development of teacher education and the continuous competence development of teachers' work are neglected¹⁶. One of the main reasons that the competence-based

¹³ For a social theory of learning see Wenger (1998).

¹⁴ Equally, standards are no longer set on the basis of functional analysis but through the identification of core tasks of the profession.

¹⁵ See ETF Yearbook 2004.

¹⁶ On the Australian experience see, for example, the articles by Noble, C.V. et al.; Cornford, I.R.; and Jones, A. in *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*, Vol. 51, No 1, 1999.

system has not developed as expected is precisely that a rather narrow approach was taken focusing only on competence performance and its outcomes through assessment. It was assumed that if this aspect of a competence approach was addressed, the other basic aspects mentioned above (the underlying constituents of competence: capabilities, abilities and skills; the education training and development processes through which people become competent) would automatically be taken care of. Obviously this did not happen, mainly because the competence approach was driven by economic rather than educational objectives. The approach was also driven largely by people with an economics background who lacked understanding and experience of educational issues and who were therefore guided by the same common sense assumptions of learning that characterised the traditional approaches to education (Hager, 2004). Similar discussions have taken place in the Netherlands concerning the first generation of the National Qualification Framework, which was heavily based on occupational standards and a common sense view of learning. The current introduction of a second generation qualification framework, which is competence-based, brings together economic and educational expertise and interests. It also gives schools and teachers a far greater role in implementation, which is of course facilitated by the fact that the school network has been reorganised into a relatively small number of large and very large regional education and training centres, each with up to 35,000 students. The policy aims to reduce the 700 existing narrow standards-based qualifications into less than 300 broad competence-based qualifications.

The dominance of economic concerns and the 'black-box' treatment of education and learning processes will be perfectly familiar

to those who have been actively involved in VET reform debates and policymaking in ETF partner countries¹⁷. The main contribution of the new learning theories has been to highlight the simplistic and – given what we now know about how people learn – erroneous nature of the basic assumptions on which many reform approaches have been based. It is not the competence approach as such that should be put aside, but rather the narrow conceptualisation and implementation that has occurred as the result of the dominance of economic over educational concerns and understandings. It would be completely wrong to say that economic concerns have no relevance for education reforms. The point is rather that valid economic concerns in education reforms cannot be satisfactorily dealt with when they are combined with erroneous educational assumptions about learning¹⁸. It is useful, therefore, to give further attention to the new learning paradigm.

THE NEW LEARNING PARADIGM: ACTIVE LEARNING

The increased interest in the new learning paradigm during the late 1990s was the combined result of on the one hand fundamental changes occurring in the labour market, themselves the consequence of changes in how and what enterprises produce for a globalising and increasingly knowledge-based world market, and on the other hand new insights and research results from a whole range of disciplines that deal with the question of how people learn and retain new information¹⁹. These two developments concurred in the importance they attached to specific criteria for learning outcomes, in their focus on alternative ways of achieving similar learning outcomes and on instructional models that teachers and trainers may apply when promoting

¹⁷ See also ETF Yearbook 2004, especially Chapters 2 and 7.

¹⁸ For an early plea to link economics and learning theories, see North (1990).

¹⁹ These include psychology, educational science and brain research (OECD, 2002b). Many of the ideas that are now receiving attention as new learning have obviously been around for decades in the writings of school innovators such as Dewey, Montessori, Steiner, Freinet and others, and have been practised in schools that are based on their approaches. Until recently, approaches that combined different learning outcomes and alternative ways of learning have remained at the margins of mainstream education and training.

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learning outcomes through the organisation of learning processes. The new learning approaches give learners a more active role in managing and shaping their own learning processes, based on the understanding that effective learning cannot be achieved if learners are simply passive receivers of information and instructions²⁰.

In order to ensure employability in a world characterised by rapidly changing job requirements, learning outcomes should not only be more relevant at a particular time, they should also be durable, flexible, functional, meaningful, 'generalisable' and application-oriented. Furthermore, while these criteria refer to more traditional kinds of learning outcomes, such as propositional knowledge and skills, and their transferability in time and context, new kinds of learning outcomes have also become important. They include the ability to learn, think, collaborate and regulate. Individuals should be able to adapt quickly to changing situations, to cope well with continuing uncertainty, and to know where and how to find the information they need to cope with the challenges of their work situation. These learning outcomes have become even more important in view of the sheer volume of new information that is becoming available at ever greater speeds, which makes it more relevant to consider what people can do with information rather than having the information itself available (Simons et al., 2000, pp. 1-2).

From the perspective of the educational sciences, a similar focus on new learning outcomes follows from assumptions about how experience and information is represented in memory and about the types of learning activity that learners apply. Three different types of representation are usually distinguished. Episodic representations are based on personal, situated and affective experiences. Conceptual or semantic representations refer to concepts and principles and their definitions. Action representations refer to what can be done

with episodic and semantic information. People differ in terms of their preferred mode of representation, and because conceptual and semantic forms of representation have traditionally been regarded as being of a higher (intellectual) order, theoretical knowledge has been seen as more important than practical knowledge, and learning with the head as superior to learning with the hands. For modern educationalists, however, effective learning outcomes mean rich and complex memory representations in which there are strong interrelated connections between the different modes of representation. They also argue that these connections can start from any of the three different modes of representation. Some people master theory by starting with practical problems, while others may be more successful when learning the other way around. Moreover, '... conceptual, episodic and action representations with a high degree of connectedness and with strong interrelations produce durable, flexible, functional, meaningful, 'generalisable' and application-oriented learning outcomes' (Simons et al., 2000, p. 3).

As stated above, a reformulation of expected learning outcomes is only part of the story. It is also important to consider how such learning outcomes can be achieved. While the former has been the preferred domain of economists, the latter is the area to which educationalists can contribute. For teachers and trainers, then, the key question is how they can promote new learning outcomes through the organisation of appropriate learning processes and the development of instructional strategies²¹. It has also become clear that learning is not restricted to certain periods in an individual's life, nor to certain formal environments such as schools and training centres. People are always learning, wherever they are and whatever they do. Such learning can either be promoted or hindered, and it can be valued or neglected. For economic reasons it has become increasingly important to

²⁰ For further details on active learning see Bonwell and Eison (1991), Brent (1996) and the various websites on active learning.

²¹ This will be discussed further in the next section of this chapter.

promote and value learning whenever and wherever it takes place²².

Although this has now become shared wisdom, most of the erroneous learning assumptions referred to above still dominate educational thinking in practice in many education and training systems. For this reason most general education is still based on conceptual or semantic representation. As a result learners who are not necessarily less intelligent but who are more inclined towards action representation tend to fail, drop out and end up in vocational education, often without being offered opportunities to connect their preferred action representations with conceptual ones, and hence are doomed to remain at the lower levels of education and in low-skilled jobs. These issues should not be reduced to opposites of theory versus practice learning, since both can be done through different kinds of learning process (Simons et al., 2000, pp. 3-15). The issue here is to find the right balance between the various learning processes, depending on a person's own dominant learning style and the type of learning outcome to be achieved. In terms of the structure of the education system, these insights give strong support to arguments for open pathways and for creating higher vocational educational careers for graduates from lower vocational education streams.

Research findings increasingly indicate that learners are more successful in acquiring, digesting, applying and retrieving new knowledge, skills and attitudes when they have been actively engaged in these processes. Active involvement, cooperation with other learners and realistic contexts also help to increase motivation to learn. Active learning combines these strands to provide strong learning environments and positive learning outcomes. The new learning paradigm obviously has considerable implications for the role of teachers and trainers and for the way in which they are prepared for their new roles.

THE CHANGING ROLE OF TEACHERS – FROM TEACHING TO HELPING TO LEARN

The roles of teacher and student are in a process of change in all European countries as a result of new approaches to active learning. This implies, among other issues, a shift from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred approach. One consequence of this is a greater focus on the teacher as a counsellor rather than a lecturer. With the growing focus on active learning there is a shift of responsibility from the teacher to the learner, with the teacher becoming an organiser and facilitator of the learning processes rather than the transmitter of socialised expert knowledge. Capacities for change and adaptation as well as learning to learn have become important competences in themselves, which learners need to develop. Self-directed learning is apparently a necessity for an increasing section of the population in rapidly changing societies. We are in the middle of a modern pedagogical learning discourse in which learning is the pivotal point for educational planning, replacing the former preoccupation with teaching. However, there are many theories, and the concept of learning is not completely unambiguous, particularly in terms of its practical implications. A further complication is that didactical thinking with regard to the concept of learning is in fact not well developed. The emphasis is on critical and analytical approaches to learning, with little prescriptive methodology being offered to replace existing traditions and methods of instruction.

During the past two decades in Western Europe the pace of change in education has been significant. VET systems are being transformed at an ever-increasing rate. At a time of profound and accelerating societal change the teaching profession has become a key mediating agency for society as it endeavours to cope with social change and upheaval. In 2003 the European Commission's stocktaking report

²² One economic argument for valuing informal learning is that it can greatly reduce the cost of education and training.

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'Education and Training 2010' highlighted the shortage of teachers and the need to attract and retain the most talented teachers and trainers. One tool for achieving the Lisbon goals is stated as follows:

'Each country should by 2005 put in place an action plan on continuing training for educational staff which is set up to these challenges: this training should be substantially consolidated [...], it should also be free, organised during working time (as in many other professions) and have a positive impact on career progression.' (European Commission, 2005a)

In March 2002, the OECD launched a major initiative, 'Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers'. The project was established to assist governments to design and implement policies to improve teaching and learning in schools. It was emphasised that society has an urgent requirement for a highly educated, well trained, committed and effective teaching force. While the demands being made of teachers have been increasing greatly, there are clear indications that in some countries the key factors needed to underpin a qualitative teaching profession are under stress²³.

There is evidence that the key policymakers, at least at international level, are now taking a serious look at the problems with a view to equipping the teaching profession for new roles in relation to the emerging agenda for educational change. These new roles, however, do not only stem from a growing acceptance of new learning theories. Other developments, driven rather by economic concerns, have perhaps been even more important. Indeed one of the main challenges at present is to balance changes driven by economics with those driven by educational concerns.

Major international trends in the evolution of education systems that directly impact on teachers' roles, positions and training are presented below.

The quest for quality and relevance in VET

Most European education systems may have moved on from a uniform and highly standardised culture of 'mass education' towards a client-focused culture of education development. Here the issue of quality quite naturally emerges as a concern, and it is no longer sufficient simply to provide a formal right of access to education and a minimal education service. Entering the 'client' phase also changes the education paradigm from supply-driven teaching to demand-led learning, which has become the dominant feature in recent years. Education supply and demand are becoming increasingly complex. In the relatively stable environment of the past, quality in education and training could be attributed almost entirely to the inherent abilities of the teachers and trainers, but these abilities alone are no longer perceived as a guarantee of quality.

The changed relationship between teacher and student is a major challenge for vocational teacher training. A shift has taken place from criteria based on a national curriculum ('what must be taught?' or 'how must it be taught?') to an approach based on outcomes ('what must they know, understand and be able to do?') and process ('how can we help learners to become competent') (European Commission, 2003c). Student teachers must be trained to be able to cope professionally with these challenging demands; the changing role and professional identity of the teacher are high priority themes in modern vocational teacher education.

Decentralisation of VET governance and the increased autonomy of schools

The VET systems in all EU countries have been decentralised during the past 10–15 years. Governance principles such as management by objectives have been introduced in a number of countries. Decision-making power has been delegated from ministries to vocational

²³ The 2002 edition of OECD's *Education Policy Analysis* includes a chapter entitled 'The Teaching Workforce: Concerns and Policy Challenges'. See also OECD (2005).

schools, which nowadays are often oriented more towards the local and regional stakeholders than towards the ministries. School management has been reinforced. New financing measures and more market-based allocation mechanisms have been introduced. Vocational schools in a number of countries are now delivering services on a commercial basis. In some countries vocational schools have developed into local or regional technology and competence centres, offering consultancy support to companies. In other countries vocational schools are developing into centres promoting the creation of 'learning regions' covering a particular geographical area.

Decentralisation has also redefined the didactical aspect of VET by imposing new requirements and giving new opportunities to teachers for local curricular planning. The main actors have developed almost completely new roles and responsibilities. The ministries define aims, objectives and frameworks, while the planning of education and teaching is undertaken at school level. This change in curriculum philosophy has been introduced to support a dynamic change of curriculum content in line with changes in the labour market, and to prepare the way for increasingly innovative pedagogical planning in schools. Decentralisation requires new vocational teacher and trainer competences. In vocational teacher training programmes the emphasis is on developing the capacity of new teachers to master educational planning functions, to acquire stronger methodological knowledge and skills, and to improve their writing abilities. Student teachers are thus trained to work 'beyond' the classroom in curriculum and organisation development and in cooperation with social partners and companies.

The paradigmatic change: from teaching to learning and taking responsibility for one's own learning

The 'cultural contract', in the form of values and shared frames of reference that used to underpin teaching, hardly exists now in modern western societies (Rasmussen, 2004). Students of today are so diverse that it is often difficult to create a common

understanding in and around traditional teaching processes. The cultural and vocational competences required by VET students in modern society cannot be developed through traditional teaching and the traditional teacher-student roles alone. The students possess more information and data than ever before. The overriding problem is to understand the wealth of information and to sort out the useful pieces. This forms part of the background for the paradigmatic shift from teaching processes to learning processes, in which students take on a more active, reflecting and responsible role in their own learning processes.

During the past two decades the role of the teacher has become increasingly based on instrumental teaching, and on motivating, coaching and developing friendly relationships with the students. It has become increasingly apparent that these methods on the one hand overload the teacher and on the other take the responsibility for learning away from the students. It is vital that the teacher's role be redefined so that more work and responsibility are transferred to the students. The responsible teaching style may be described as an effort to create 'rooms' in which the students are allowed to be 'safely insecure'. The teacher here has a substantial double function as both a consultant and a 'teaser', constantly confronting the students with alternative approaches and interpretations. The key feature of pedagogical approaches based on responsibility can best be summed up in the phrase 'teacher reliability and student responsibility'.

On this platform a new 'contract' can be established on which to (re)build learning processes. Clear roles and responsibilities are required: the teacher has a professional-pedagogical responsibility and must accept and actively take on the ownership of the learning process, while the students for their part have a learning responsibility. The vacuum in traditional teacher-centred instruction that was created by the cultural changes is replaced by cooperation and a shared responsibility. In fact, only when teachers give up the idea that they have a duty to teach so that the students may learn do the students have a

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chance to learn how to learn. In modern vocational teacher training these ideas are now being fleshed out in practical terms. This is not at all an easy process. Teacher educators as well as teacher trainees have many years experience of traditional teaching models from their own schooling²⁴. Reforms of vocational teacher training programmes in EU countries have sought a better balance between theoretical teaching, self-study periods and practical teacher training supervised by trained mentors in schools.

Teacher teams as a bridge between the individual and the school as a learning organisation

The concept of the teacher as the 'process owner' who organises the learning environments for students can clearly not be realised by individual teachers in isolation. In recent years the notion of 'team' has become a key concept in the pedagogic debate in western countries. The organisation of teacher teams is to some extent an adequate response to the new learning concept described above. Team organisation has been developed in many schools. Teamwork has become the organisational answer to a number of pedagogic and cultural challenges facing vocational schools today. Team working presupposes a new form of teacher professionalism. A team of teachers is an interdisciplinary, broadly competent group that can organise learning processes and analyse and assess the continuous learning experiences of students.

The most promising development aspect of team organisation may be the fact that the team structure can respond to and support the creation of vocational schools as learning organisations – organisations that are in a constant process of change and development and that are able to systematise and assess their own learning processes. Achieving this goal requires the existence of organisational forms that stimulate learning processes. The team represents such a form, which is able to collect, process, and assess pedagogical experiences. The teacher team could even

be said to represent a functional bridge between the learning of students and the learning of the school organisation. Concrete tools for use by schools have been developed and the applicability of 'teacher team organisation' is being tested practically in vocational teacher training programmes in some countries. VET teachers must be able to function in teams; this is more or less a necessary component of modern teacher professionalism. It is also necessary for the ideal (and in some countries the statutory) model, which is to plan learning processes so that the different subjects, as well as theory and practice, are integrated. Besides, teams are a necessary condition for participation in school-based pedagogical innovation and development work.

Theory and practice in modern VET teacher training

The general change in the terminology of VET from 'qualification' to 'competence' is more than just a change of words. Much more emphasis is placed on developing the ability to act. Teachers should not experience a reality shock when they start teaching, but should be trained in advance through concrete and practical teaching assignments as an integral part of vocational teacher training programmes. In vocational schools all pedagogical staff tend to be trained as teachers; practical vocational teachers must be able to combine workshop instruction with the corresponding vocational subject theory in an organic way, so that theoretical elements can be taught inductively. Training on cooperation between general subject teachers and vocational subject teachers is also delivered as part of teacher training courses in order to promote the integration of these subjects in teaching, in an effort to make the learning of general subjects relevant to the occupational area concerned.

In order to upgrade the practical teaching skills of student teachers, vocational teacher education is often organised as a 'dual system' in which theoretical lectures

²⁴ See Chapter 7.

alternate with work-based teaching sessions performed under the supervision of experienced teachers in vocational schools. It is acknowledged that vocational teacher education institutions cannot take complete responsibility for the education and training of future teachers. Increasing emphasis is therefore now being placed on new ways of combining theory and practice. Formal partnerships have been set up between teacher-education institutions and schools (European Commission, 2003c). In order to optimise the effects of practical learning and of the tasks undertaken by the practical supervisors in the vocational schools, there is greater emphasis on specific education programmes for training the trainers who are actively involved in vocational teacher training. Regular experience sharing meetings are held, at least in some countries, between teacher educators and practical teaching supervisors/mentors with a view to improving the links between the rule-based, the knowledge-based and the skill-based learning contents. This cooperation is often combined with research and development work in teacher education institutions on how explicit, theoretical knowledge can be combined with implicit, often tacit and intuitive contextual knowledge and skills.

The former distinction between the intelligence of the brain and the intelligence of the hands is very problematic for the combined learning outcomes acquired by vocational students. A new configuration of teaching, learning and practical work exercises is being developed in VET programmes. What is still needed is a new conceptual and practical framework to strengthen the individual capacity of students to move between a theoretical-analytical competence and a more experience-based, intuitive competence that varies with the context. This is a serious challenge for the existing vocational teacher and trainer training structures in all EU countries. One effective way of systematically improving this integrated approach is to encourage vocational schools to become continuing vocational training (CVT) providers. CVT

activities offered to experienced workers from local companies require VET teachers to be able to combine theory with the experience and (often tacit) knowledge of adult course participants.

Guidance and counselling

In a number of countries the debate about new roles of teachers and trainers has already widened to reflect the fact that schools no longer prepare individuals for lifelong employment. Traditional concepts of guidance and counselling, which focused on assisting students to make immediate choices, have come under strain and are being replaced by a focus on the very core competences advocated by the new learning paradigm. Some of these developments are reviewed in detail in terms of their implications for teachers and trainers in chapter 9.

The discussions have also had an impact on the nature of schools, given that the concept of lifelong learning makes it increasingly difficult to link the school exclusively to a particular and early phase of competence development. Teachers and trainers have become responsible for the longer-term careers of their students, and may even see them as students again if they return over the course of their future professional careers. The distinction between youth and adult educators may soon be obsolete, and this development clearly has repercussions for teacher training. Vocational schools are facing the challenge of developing into (lifelong) career centres²⁵.

Research, development and innovation as a foundation for VET teacher training

Pedagogic research, development and experimental work play a very substantial role in VET teacher training, at least in the northern part of Europe. It is important that research and development work is organically integrated into vocational teacher training programmes, not only in the sense that scientific results are part of the curriculum, but more broadly: teacher trainees should be familiar with the

²⁵ Geurts (2004) uses the metaphor 'from training factories to career centres'.

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procedures and requirements of research and development. The dynamics of innovation in VET are now based so closely on local, school-based experimental and development work that it must be a central component of VET teacher training.

Consequently, in order to promote the ability of schools and teachers to innovate and to be capable of undertaking pilot projects, applied pedagogical research must also be undertaken by the institutions responsible for vocational teacher and trainer training. VET teacher training institutions should have their own identity and possess institutional capacity to pursue broader research approaches than merely studying pedagogic and educational themes. Institutions should have a body of teacher educators who are qualified to conduct research, and most of the research needs to be school-based, undertaken with the participation of teachers. Moreover, research-based teacher education and professional development is a continuing challenge throughout the teaching career (European Commission, 2003c).

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER TRAINING

The role of teachers and trainers in VET is a matter for debate. And everywhere the focus is on the fundamental questions: What are the new roles for teachers and trainers? How should they be trained? Where and under what conditions should teacher qualifying processes be organised?

Paradoxically, little is known about VET teacher training in Europe (or, indeed, globally). The only comparative analyses that exist are relatively old, and little academic research has been undertaken in the field²⁶. This, however, should not prevent attempts to identify and formulate the fundamentals of VET teacher training. VET teacher and trainer qualifications, and the qualifying processes, are increasingly the central focus of the drive to achieve a

social model in Europe that is based on economic growth and high productivity while at the same time ensuring social inclusion.

It is clear that the increased degree of flexibility in learning organisations and the wider opportunities for individual students to plan and regulate their own education and training will lead to a radical clash with the standardised curriculum planning and didactics of the past. Furthermore, there is a gradual shift in the understanding of what teacher education should be. From a model in which theoretical studies in separate domains were regarded as being most important, the teaching profession is now coming to be seen as a practical-based profession. Building teacher competence is a complex process in which practical experience increasingly represents the starting point and context for learning.

Teacher competences and teacher education are the key factors in all processes of VET reform anywhere. In transition countries university-based teacher education has undergone very little change. It is still theory-focused, with too little emphasis on competence (practical skills). Rebuilding the balance between theory and practice in teacher education will be necessary everywhere.

The challenge of training vocational teachers and trainers is approached in different ways in western (and eastern) European countries. It becomes clear when searching for a model or a blueprint that institutions have usually been developed in order to solve the problems of the day, and that major reforms appear to be difficult to implement. This is not surprising. The organisation of VET in the different education systems varies considerably from country to country. There are differences in the length of compulsory education, the point at which young people have to choose between options in the education sector, the options available to them, the length of the course of studies chosen, and so on. The situation of VET

²⁶ A German PhD study comparing VET teacher training in Denmark, Germany and the USA is the first attempt for years to come to grips with this promising research field that embraces so many actors in the forefront of building the knowledge society. See Grollmann, P., 'Professionelle Realität von Berufspädagogen im internationalen Vergleich', Bielefeld, 2005.

teachers and trainers naturally reflects these differences of approach in Europe. Moreover, on the issue of teacher training, there are no blueprints available. Countries will have to rely on policy learning approaches in order to reform their teacher training systems and institutions, but in doing so they can rely on other countries' experiences.

CONCLUSION: DEVELOPING TEACHING PROFESSIONALS BY INVOLVING THEM AS STAKEHOLDERS

The theme of this Yearbook is the role of the teaching profession in VET reform in partner countries. This is an important topic, given that teachers unquestionably play a central role in the success of VET reforms in any country. However, it is also a complicated issue in the context of the discussions and developments referred to above. The point of departure and the conditions for countries differ, but they share one phenomenon: change. VET systems have experienced a turbulent period, with many changes and reforms, reflecting changes in production and competition.

One common trend is that of greater flexibility in VET programmes based on a broad concept of competence and closer links between schools and companies; a sharper focus on quality control and accreditation measures as a result of a much wider variety of educational content; greater autonomy of schools, which must also extend and broaden their scope of work; and the prominence of ICT. These developments have profound implications for teachers and trainers in education and training institutions, but most countries have so far failed to involve them as active participants in change processes. Teachers and trainers need to be integrated in the policy learning that is necessary in order to cope with these complex changes as professionals and as key stakeholders.

The common economic and employment trends have been accompanied by a change in the learning paradigm. The new paradigm calls for a fundamentally different

contribution from teachers and trainers. The practicalities of the paradigmatic change that can help teachers and trainers in their day-to-day work still require further development and integration into a reform of teacher training systems. However, many of the insights from new learning theories coincide well with what is required of teachers and trainers by other economics-driven developments in education systems. As mentioned above, the challenge is to combine these debates and to rebalance economic and educational interests and understanding. This challenge will also return teachers to centre-stage as stakeholders and professionals.

In reality, therefore, two different discussions are intertwined here:

- the changing role of teachers and the shift of paradigm from teaching to learning;
- the role of teachers in VET reform in transition countries.

It is impossible to completely separate one from the other. However, it is not meaningful simply to jump from the international discourse on active learning to the challenges of transition countries without reflecting on and considering how the two relate. The aim, therefore, is to concentrate on the sphere in which these two discussions come together: the concept of policy learning.

By focusing on teachers, teaching and learning processes we also pave the way for a discussion on how policy learning processes should be organised in the framework of VET schools. In many ways 'the professionals' of VET systems are the teaching staff, including school managers. The teaching profession as key stakeholders should develop the capability to help formulate VET policies and establish platforms for discussion of reform initiatives, embedded in schools and fitting into their contexts, and thus foster ownership and sustainability of VET reform.

The focus on teachers is therefore within the overall discussion of how to support policy learning in partner countries. A clear aim is to specify how this policy discussion

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could be organised, and how meaningful learning platforms can be established and sustained in vocational schools. We shall come back to some of these issues in the final chapter.

Chapter 2 presents in some detail the development of thinking on teaching and learning inside the ETF and the results of the various projects that have covered these issues. Chapters 3 to 6 further illustrate key issues and challenges with an analysis of the situation in the four regions where the ETF is involved in assisting VET reforms. The chapters that follow elaborate specific thematic aspects, including the need to invest more in making the profession attractive to young learners (Chapter 7); the question of whether teachers and trainers can play a role in local social and economic development (Chapter 8); the implications of the growing importance of counselling and guidance for teaching roles (Chapter 9); and the contribution made by the EC Tempus programme to introducing innovation and change to existing teacher training in partner countries (Chapter 10). Chapter 11 provides the statistical background for an understanding of the social and material situation of teachers and trainers in partner

countries. It is worth remembering that this situation has worsened dramatically during the transition period and that engagement as stakeholders and development as professionals needs to take place in a radically different context than that of most EU countries. The annexes include a set of statistics on teachers and teaching conditions that are relevant to the current discussion.

The final chapter presents some conclusions that can be drawn from an exploration of current developments and discussions in EU countries and of the situation of teachers and trainers in ETF partner countries. This chapter puts forward suggestions as to how teachers and trainers could be supported in developing their dual role of classroom professionals and reform stakeholders and, indeed, how the ETF can contribute to this twin process of professionalisation and capacity building. In particular it will be argued that ETF staff, as policy learning facilitators, can learn much from the current debates about new professional roles of teachers, with a view to developing the expertise needed to play their own advisory role in VET policy development and implementation.



2. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS: THE (NEGLECTED) HUMAN FACTOR IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING REFORMS²⁷

2

Peter Grootings
Søren Nielsen

A major challenge still faced by partner countries is that of adapting the mainly top-down vocational education and training (VET) reform process and giving stakeholders and the teaching profession an active role. All explorations of the changes and challenges involved indicate that the teaching profession is key to the process of VET reform. Therefore, the ETF faces the challenge of maintaining and further developing expertise and practical experience relating to the role of the teaching profession.

Interventions in the VET reform processes of partner countries are usually aimed at modernising the organisational frameworks of VET systems and bringing them into line with emerging labour markets. However,

regardless of the prevailing critical issues and the level of intervention involved, school development and teacher and trainer training do not usually receive the appropriate amount of attention. Teacher and trainer training is very often sidelined; it is bracketed together with the development of standards and assessment procedures, and used as an instrument for improving the implementation of the standards. Alternatively, if a partner country focuses on curriculum reform, attention is given to developing a curriculum concept and setting up an implementation structure by establishing various committees to develop the profiles, clusters and specialities. The newly designed curriculum will, following ministerial approval, eventually be disseminated to schools,

²⁷ This chapter uses work done by the ETF Focus Group on the teaching profession in VET reform.

where teachers are left on their own to deal with the new requirements. Even if there is a strong interest within a partner country in upgrading vocational teacher and trainer training, the focus is primarily on teacher training institutions, which deliver the technical knowledge and assessment criteria for all professions in the training field. Sometimes groups of teachers are introduced to new teaching methods, though they face huge difficulties in using them in their daily work, since the schools have not developed an appropriate organisational framework to facilitate the reform of the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, headmasters and school directors sometimes receive attention in terms of improving their management skills, but these rarely include the management of change.

The ability of the VET system to play a crucial role in society depends on whether its institutions respond to change: whether they are able to develop a central position in their environment (at the national, regional and local level) as more 'open' organisations serving a wide range of interests and a broad clientele. Crucially, it depends primarily on whether teachers are prepared to incorporate complex reform measures into their daily work. A main challenge in the reform of the VET system is therefore to choose an approach in which the strategic objectives include the development of human resources and abilities to make the reform work. This refers particularly to teachers and trainers. In practice, as indicated in other chapters of this Yearbook, teachers and trainers are rarely the main target of reform policies.

They have almost never been engaged as subjects of reform initiatives.

ISSUES, PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS RELATING TO TEACHERS

It is exceedingly difficult for policy to change practice. Systemic reform often assumes that policy instruments will drive the necessary reform in schools. Nevertheless, this remains conjecture, for there is little evidence of a direct and powerful relationship between systemic policy initiated at national level and actual practice in schools. Moreover, systemic reform seems to assume that teaching is a relatively homogeneous activity that can be driven by a small set of easily accessible policy instruments. Experience, however, indicates the contrary: learning is context bound, and teaching takes place in the school, which is a highly complex institution driven by a context-specific mixture of interrelated rules, values and beliefs. Individual schools are based in local environments that vary widely, even within the same region or town.

What is the current situation in the partner countries?

A number of factors are common to most partner countries, and have a great impact on the current situation of vocational institutions and teacher and trainer training. In general, VET issues have a lack of prestige. The world of academia is traditionally seen as more important than the world of work; and the choice of

Cyprus: Implementation of the new curricula in secondary technical and vocational education

Cyprus introduced new curricula in all occupations in secondary technical and vocational education, to be implemented in the 11 technical schools with effect from the school year 2001/02. However, no supporting teacher training measures were envisaged to ensure that teachers were equipped to deliver student-oriented teaching and learning.

The objective of this ETF project was to show how school-based staff development could be used to assist teachers and trainers to develop their new role. A national coordination unit was created to oversee the creation of change agent teams in each school. The role of these teams was to act as motivators and trainers for their colleagues in the introduction of new teaching and learning methodologies.

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vocational education is often seen as a negative choice for many students. Although there are notable exceptions, VET teachers often feel that they have to face the challenging task of teaching those young people who have nowhere else to go.

Another aggravating factor is the changing mission of vocational institutions. Because of the closure of many workshops and the reduction of facilities within enterprises (especially in Central and Eastern Europe, the Caucasus, Central Asia and the Western Balkans), schools are being forced to take care of the entire vocational education cycle. As a result, vocational education has become more theoretical and the costs are increasing. Moreover, the regional employment structure (which often consists of only one or a few large companies) has collapsed in most of the countries. The schools and teachers, which have depended on these enterprises for many years, are now facing the problem of how to organise their vocational institutions internally and externally. Externally, vocational institutions are forced to serve a much broader clientele with a wide range of interests. Internally, vocational institutions face the problem of how to reorganise themselves so that they are seen as attractive places of learning for both their students and staff. In addition, vocational teachers in all the countries have been trained to teach based on curricula inadequate for providing qualifications appropriate to a modern market economy, and are accustomed to using these methods. The contents of these curricula are specified in detail, the focus being on the knowledge to be acquired, which leads to highly formalised and didactic styles of teaching. Coordination between the general and the vocational components on the one hand, and between the theoretical and the practical aspects of vocational instruction on the other are often lacking.

At the same time the level of professional expertise of VET teachers, especially the master/instructor group, has been strongly criticised in recent years. It has become increasingly difficult to recruit and retain teachers and trainers with practical experience gained through work in the

relevant occupations. Often teachers and trainers enter jobs in schools immediately after finishing their own, often very theoretical, studies. Experienced teachers and trainers are out of touch with the rapid changes that have occurred within enterprises, as a result of both technological innovations and the introduction of market principles. Many countries have reported a 'brain drain' from teaching and training into other jobs, while others have had problems recruiting new teachers for vocational schools. In spite of this, most countries report that VET teachers seem to be motivated, committed and prepared for changes. The problem in most countries is described as being primarily one of insufficient and irrelevant training provision for VET teachers.

The teaching and learning processes in the partner countries remain traditional and teacher oriented. Teaching, based as it is on centrally determined and uniform curricula, often does not differentiate sufficiently between the needs of different learners, this being one of the causes of the relatively high dropout levels. The social, economic and psychological backgrounds of students have changed dramatically during the period of transition – which in some countries has been accompanied by civil conflict and war – and this is especially the case for the increasing number of VET students who come from the lower social strata. In some countries attempts have been made to introduce more student-oriented teaching and learning approaches, particularly within the framework of internationally assisted reform programmes. However in most cases the ongoing teacher training system has been unable to ensure that teachers in the mainstream system are adequately prepared for the new teaching and learning approaches.

In most partner countries the traditional way of teaching divides learning into theoretical and practical subjects. The content of the old curricula was (and mostly still is) systematically broken down into small basic units that can be learned separately. The content and goals of basic technological subjects are described, for the most part, in terms of the basic laws of the natural sciences as they relate to basic

Lithuania: Establishment of a regional training centre (RTC)

Lithuania decided to create regional training centres or consortia as part of the rationalisation of the vocational school network, and to enhance capacity for new responsibilities. The project aimed to define the roles and responsibilities and to provide training for the new RTC management. It also foresaw the extension of training provision from initial vocational education to continuing training and labour market training, and the launch of new partnerships with the regional business community. Furthermore, the training of teachers was seen as an essential part of the project. This is an example of in-service continuing teacher training delivered by expert practitioners rather than by universities or pedagogical institutes.

technology. This is not useful for an understanding of the work process, since teaching methods are not related to learning how to solve practical problems. There is a need to devote more attention to the development of the content of the vocational subject in its own right. Vocationally specific subject theory is underdeveloped in almost all partner countries. The connection between learning and work is often reduced to irrelevant theory or unrelated 'doing'.

Aligning the teaching and learning processes with the needs of the labour market is hampered by the lack of real-life practical experience of teachers and trainers and by outdated teaching and learning material and vocational school workshops. Though it is often envisaged that some practical training could take place in industry, most schools find it difficult to establish agreements with employers in the private sector to provide students with hands-on experience. As a result of an oversupply of labour, undeveloped social dialogue mechanisms and internal problems, enterprises in general show little interest in building partnerships with vocational institutions. However, at regional and local levels, owing to both the initiative of vocational institutions and input provided by international projects, enterprises are gradually becoming more involved.

How can educational change in schools be better understood and achieved?

In spite of powerful forces for change, schools in partner countries appear remarkably untouched, and exhibit many structures and practices from years gone by. One reason might be that change has

usually been something 'done to' teachers as opposed to something 'done with' them. But the overarching reason seems to be that schools are seen only from the perspective of the classroom and are not viewed holistically as human organisations with their own structural and cultural rules. It is not enough to train teachers in new methods and the development of standards; rather, it is essential to widen the strategic view, increase the focus on organisational goals for change, and view increased organisational capacity for change as one of the central outcomes.

ETF SUPPORT FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING REFORM IN PARTNER COUNTRIES

The ETF's work on developing innovative frameworks for new learning processes and environments, with a particular focus on teacher training in the partner countries, has been carried out in the context of plans for broader VET reform. The main approach to reform has been curriculum driven and delivered through a pilot school model. In the mid 1990s, the ETF started work on curriculum development, which led to a sharper focus on the role of teachers. In 2000, a special internal study group on vocational teacher training was set up, which in 2003 was transformed into a group on teaching and learning processes, including teachers and trainers. The rationale is that the role of teachers has become more prominent in project design over the past few years.

Since 1996, the ETF has been working on issues relating to the role of teachers and

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trainers in VET reform, partly in the context of reform plans under EC programmes, and partly as a separate ETF development activity²⁸.

In EU programming the ETF provides significant contributions to teacher and trainer training and the organisation of innovative learning processes. This has been documented in project fiches as well as in 'terms of reference' for project designs prepared by the ETF for various EC programmes in recent years. These include VET reform initiatives in Albania and Armenia; work in Turkey on involving universities, schools and training companies in initial teacher training; pilot schemes in Serbia to promote the simultaneous development of processes, school organisation and teaching qualifications; and an initiative in Croatia on mentor training to build a bridge between university and school²⁹.

The ETF's own work in this area has aimed at making VET institutions and teacher and trainer training support a strategic goal of any VET system reform policy. Over time this perspective has become more operational, and a number of more specific principles have been developed in order to guide and give better focus to the ETF's future work.

At the policy level the ETF, in providing assistance to the European Commission (and the partner countries), should perhaps

pay more attention to ensuring that government policy and institutional practice learn to cooperate and draw on each other's commitment and ownership in the design, implementation and monitoring of EC VET reform programmes. In its own work programme, the ETF could concentrate more on organising policy learning platforms to enable policymakers to understand and deliberately use principals, teachers and trainers as agents of change in the reform process, and so that the teaching profession learns how to contribute to the improvement of practice within and outside the school. Inside the school this may be achieved by contributing to school development activities and capacity-building processes, and outside, through networking, particularly with other VET institutions, and between VET institutions, universities and enterprises. This could be developed and strengthened further by ETF-funded pilot projects, provided there is a strong link to national policy reform.

At the level of institutional practice, the ETF should pay more attention to (1) lifelong learning, (2) entrepreneurship in education, (3) networking/partnerships among the three main actors (university, vocational school and enterprise). Lifelong learning is a new approach to learning that focuses on opportunities for individuals throughout their whole lives and in different situations. The entrepreneurial way of teaching strongly supports this idea³⁰. Teachers

Syria: ETF support for the introduction of pilot apprenticeship modalities

The overall objective of the project is to strengthen the responsiveness of the Syrian VET system with regard to labour market needs by increasing the participation of the industrial and business sector in the definition and implementation of VET provision. The teacher and trainer training component of the project aims to train school teachers and company trainers on the implications of partnership between schools and companies in the delivery of training programmes; these include new approaches to course design, the integration of theory and practice, new roles for teachers and trainers, and new evaluation and certification methods. Teachers, school directors, staff from the Ministry of Education, supervisors and shop-floor staff have all attended courses on curriculum development, teaching methodologies and industrial analysis. The training of trainers has been undertaken on a cascade principle: on the first course the ETF trained 30 people, four of whom went on to become trainers themselves.

²⁸ See work of ETF Focus Group: Buck et al., ETF, 2003a and b, 2004.

²⁹ See ETF, 2002, 2003c, Faudel, ETF, 2003, Olroyd and Nielsen (eds), ETF, 2004.

³⁰ Entrepreneurial teaching is also implied by new constructivist learning theories that emphasise the importance of 'active learning' as opposed to passive knowledge transfer. See Chapter 1.

must learn that the formal education system is not the sole provider of knowledge, skills and competences, and that they will need to develop an 'outward identity' that strengthens their ability to cope with change and innovation within their new working environment. This demands permanent and institutionalised networking between universities, as the main teacher training institutions, vocational schools and enterprises. Universities must cooperate closely with vocational institutions and integrate school placements into their student teacher programme. However, this alone will not be sufficient: Vocational student teachers should also understand the organisation of practical workshops, be familiar with the work environment in real enterprises and be aware of how work is likely to develop. They must also be trained to convert this experience into their teaching concepts. Universities should therefore enter into partnerships with enterprises in order to be able to provide their students with a comprehensive VET-oriented approach.

ETF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN THE INNOVATION OF VET TEACHING AND LEARNING

The new development projects initiated in 1996 aimed to pilot innovation both at the level of practice and at the level of policy based on close cooperation between neighbouring partner countries. The reason that the ETF selected more than one

country for the same project was that countries in transition tend to look towards industrially advanced countries, which are sometimes too advanced, rather than towards their neighbours, which are in a similar situation. The issue is not so much learning from each other but rather learning with each other. As the education profession is very much influenced by cultural factors and, in certain cases, even by bias and cultural stereotypes, the (neighbouring) countries involved will develop different perceptions of, and practices in, teaching and learning; this creates a learning opportunity for the whole project. Cooperation creates a strong learning environment. However, these processes take time especially as many partner countries, despite being neighbours, have no real tradition of cooperating with each other. The projects were therefore designed to run over a number of years specifically to enable cooperating countries to learn about each other. The EU itself is a good illustration of this challenge, showing that even if education takes place in quite different ways in each country because of different political and cultural contexts, common lessons can be learned that relate to perceived issues or problems of neighbouring countries.

Returning to the two-country approach, there was another issue to be faced by the new development projects. The overriding aim of a pilot project is usually to build regional or local capacity for VET innovation. The ETF, however, took up the challenge to use the pilot approach as

The Balkan region: VET teacher training network (VET TTnet)

The Balkan VET teacher training network functions as a regional forum for communication, cooperation and expertise in the professionalisation of vocational teachers and trainers. It is geared towards policy analysis and recommendation, and to innovations in the organisation of learning environments and pedagogical processes as well as the qualifying processes for teachers. It also seeks to meet the real needs emerging from ongoing reforms in the Western Balkans. The network is based on the organisation of common activities (thematic workshops and research and development work) designed to foster the sharing of experiences and knowledge, and the creation of common references for those involved in teacher training across Europe. Three transnational development projects embracing all countries in the region were launched by the ETF in 2003.

The Balkan VET TTnet is being developed into a 'community of practitioners'.

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preparation for a system change in teacher training at national level. In cooperation with policymakers, projects had to develop measures for setting up a national structure on which the experimental results could be generalised. This was not initially successful, and not all partner countries involved in the pilots were able to contribute to this exercise in the same effective way. Nevertheless, the examples give sufficient evidence of the positive impact of incorporating such an element into any ETF project.

Learning through pilots

In 1997 'Integration of Work and Learning' (IWL) was selected by the ETF as the first project of this type. It included cooperation between teams from Hungary and Slovenia, and worked on all three approaches mentioned above: the project groups selected schools that were aiming to overcome the gap between 'theory' and 'practice'; they identified companies that were interested in introducing learning processes in the workplace; and they brought together schools and companies that wanted to make a link between learning at school and work in the company. One lesson in particular has been decisive for the ETF's future development work on the topic. It was felt that centralisation of the education and training system was the main obstacle to improving IWL, especially in Slovenia. More decentralisation would challenge social partners to make better links between work and learning and to support the mobility of teachers between schools and companies. In Hungary, where education and training was decentralised much earlier, there were many ongoing collaborative initiatives between schools and companies, whereas in Slovenia this kind of cooperation had to be initiated by the project.

The most important challenge was, however, related to teachers. As they were mainly accustomed to working with predefined programmes, intensive work-based training would be needed to acquaint them with modern teaching

methods. In addition, the school itself would have to face new challenges with regard to its organisational culture, its management and its ability to define and implement an innovative school programme, for which it would be accountable. Another difference between the two countries was the almost complete absence of collaboration between universities and schools or companies in Slovenia. In contrast to those in Hungary, university staff in Slovenia had little experience of being involved in applied research and practical consultancy or advisory activities. The project and the exchange of experience with Hungarian colleagues has made Slovenian researchers aware of a whole new field of work besides teaching and academic research³¹.

The 'Reshaping the focus and structure of teacher and teacher trainer training' project, which started in 2000 in Latvia and Lithuania and was funded by Finland, Denmark and the ETF, capitalised on the lessons learned in the IWL project. In particular, it recognised the importance of work-based learning for teaching staff and the necessity of developing organisational learning capacity in order to prepare for future socio-economic challenges and demands. Its focus was on teachers (support in new methods and work-based learning) and university educators (mentor training); on vocational schools (changing their organisational culture and management); cooperation between vocational schools and their interaction with teacher education faculties at universities (network building); and on teacher training policy (professional standards and the regulation of initial pedagogical education of VET student teachers). A strategy had to be developed to induce learning at both the individual and the organisational level in such a way that the individual development of teachers and the organisational development of the school could complement each other. For this purpose the project established a 'driving force' that could support this process. The idea of using change agent teams (CATs), in which key people from the pilot vocational

³¹ Proceedings of an ETF workshop on 'Integration of Work and Learning', 1997 in Bled, Slovenia; and Grootings, ETF, 2001.

Latvia and Lithuania: Reshaping the focus of teacher and trainer training

This three-year project (2000–2002) addressed the overall need for a new strategy for both initial and continuing teacher and trainer training in Latvia and Lithuania through the implementation of pilot activities in the following fields:

- school-based initial staff development through mentoring;
- school-based continuing staff development through change agent teams;
- development of pre and in-service teacher and trainer training curriculum guidelines;
- development of student-focused teaching and learning methodologies;
- networking at the national level and between the two countries.

The two countries reviewed their national strategies for both initial and continuing teacher and trainer training.

schools worked together, as the core element of the project has been an innovative solution with strong positive results. As well as helping participants to work more effectively within their home institutions, CATs have lowered the threshold between vocational schools and universities and increased the active interaction between them. New ideas and the inspiration and motivation of CATs have been transmitted further within the pilot schools, and some CATs have organised workshops for teachers of other schools in their region³².

The subsequent discussions reflected on what had been learned in terms of work-based learning and problem-solving competences as key ingredients for developing organisational learning capacity in schools as a condition for developing a lifelong learning perspective among teachers. However, despite the positive results achieved in the projects, there remained a feeling, one which had already been expressed during the IWL project, that if schools and teachers were to play an active role in the VET reform process, they should not simply adapt to changes coming from the outside world, whether from policymakers, companies or the labour market. Of course, this is a valid point. In

order to play a more prominent role in the reform process, schools and teachers must be much more directly involved, as well as more proactive, creative and outward looking.

This discussion coincided with a more systemic one. There were some doubts as to whether existing VET systems in partner countries really fulfilled the demand of societies to increase the employability of individuals, as the systems are still shaped by the image of the full-time employee. However, this stereotype seems to have been yielding ground to a variety of new forms of employment, bringing more diversity to previously understood concepts of employee and employer. Furthermore, in all western European countries there has been an increased interest in the notion of enterprise development and entrepreneurial initiatives. Education systems and institutional frameworks have encouraged more and more activities in this area³³.

Consequently, the ETF became concerned with the challenge of developing a VET system that is in tune with both wage/salary employment and self-employment, so that graduates are capable of responding to the demands of the market, as either an

³² Proceedings of an ETF workshop on 'Teacher and Trainer Training', 1998 in Budapest. See also Nielsen, ETF, 1999.

³³ Under the auspices of the European Union's French Presidency, a European Forum on enterprise training called 'Training for Entrepreneurship' was organised in 2001. It represented a first concrete response to the conclusions of the Lisbon European Council, where the Heads of State and Government emphasised the importance of education and training in the knowledge society.

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employee or an employer. Such a system – relating in this context to schools and teachers – should not simply be equipped to give its students the choice of acquiring and maintaining competences for dependent employment. It should also take account of their lifestyles and personal interests, and empower them to make broader employment choices, which should include setting up and running a business. Modern VET concepts and methods, with such keywords as ‘IWL’, ‘capacity to solve problems’ and ‘project learning’, as well as the use of CATs in modern teacher development in VET schools, could be linked to this new approach.

However, in order to achieve this it was necessary to transform the approach of VET, from its traditional focus on training individuals to follow the instructions of others towards an approach promoting the individual ability to creativity, and to cope with change and innovation involving higher levels of uncertainty and complexity. A focus on memorisation and examinations, which still dominates education and training, will contribute little to the development of an entrepreneurial culture. Can these capabilities be enhanced by a different approach to what schools do? Can they be generalised into a type of education and training that better prepares future graduates for the impacts of the rapid market changes that have been so evident in recent years? Can they produce workers with ‘intrapreneurial’ skills (the ability to seek out and promote innovation within work organisations) as well as self-employed individuals and business people with entrepreneurial

attitudes? How should schools be organised, teachers trained, and initial and continuing training integrated in order to support this new approach?

Trying to find answers to these and other questions has been the aim of the ETF project in Russia and Ukraine, ‘Entrepreneurship in Education and Training’ (EET). At its core the project is a fundamental search for a reorientation of school culture and teacher behaviour within a lifelong learning perspective. Entrepreneurial learning differs from the traditional approach: its primary focus is on personal ability rather than functional competence. The learning approach is more experimental and experiential, and less oriented towards a fixed routine. It is aimed not simply at imparting know-how for solving technical problems, but at assessing the uncertainties of real-life situations and economic developments, finding creative solutions and implementing them. Accordingly, in order to promote a pedagogy of entrepreneurship (or enterprise), significant shifts of mentality are needed from teachers, who are accustomed to the command structures of centrally controlled schools³⁴. Again, these shifts are identical to those advocated in new active learning theories.

Lessons learned

The ETF internal discussion on what comes first and is more important – modernising the policy framework of the VET system in order to enact policy reform, or contributing to the development of new practices for vocational institutions and

Russia and Ukraine: Entrepreneurship in Education and Training

This three-year pilot project started in 2001. Its core issues are:

- developing an innovative culture in schools through a CAT approach;
- introducing entrepreneurship into selected profiles and subjects;
- fostering enterprising behaviour, skills and attributes;
- establishing new learning opportunities for teachers;
- bridging initial and continuing training.

In cooperation with policymakers the project developed measures for setting up a national structure in which the experimental results were disseminated.

³⁴ Proceedings of a workshop on ‘Entrepreneurship in Education and Training’, in Almaty, 2000.

their teachers and trainers – does not appear to move matters forward. The projects and the discussions during related workshops have shown that only a strategy that integrates government policy and the practice of vocational institutions is capable of bringing about sustainable reforms.

What has also been learned is that the question of scale seems not to be the most important issue. Medium-scale pilot projects, in which selected education institutions are involved together in an innovative project, as well as large-scale projects, which try to establish system-wide change, will only succeed if they implement this integrated approach. In addition to this general point, it should be noted that the projects must look at the context and circumstances of the specific partner country with regard to what should be developed. If a new approach to teaching and learning is planned, it would definitely be advisable to test the water and pave the way through a pilot project, in which teachers can discover and experience their own new role in the reform process, before large-scale changes are made. The projects in Latvia/Lithuania and Russia/Ukraine in particular have produced strong evidence that pilots can contribute much to the new behaviour of teachers and directors and to the improvements in schools, especially through the development of an entrepreneurial/enterprising approach. They also help to strengthen political awareness about the important role of the teaching profession in VET reform and to promote the extension of the pilot results to a national level.

The development projects deliver the strong message that there is a clear potential in using teachers as agents of change and not simply as instruments in, or objects of, VET reform. However, this will only happen if the focus and structure of their education and training are reshaped. There is also evidence that the ETF should intensify work on developing permanent and institutionalised cooperation between universities,

vocational schools and enterprises. This can be thought of as a triangle, with the corners representing the three distinct institutions that together have the potential to develop the necessary competence of teachers and trainers. It is the triangle as a whole, and not the individual institutions, which constitutes the teachers' particular field of competence.

The ETF projects demonstrated the importance of intertwining teacher development with school improvement. Moreover, teachers learned that integrating new active learning approaches in schools demands organisational change, both in the school and in the classroom. It is necessary to get rid of highly subject-structured curricula, to overcome the high degree of technical specialisation of teachers by encouraging them to team up with other colleagues, and to discover the implications of project learning for the role of the teacher. Last but not least, it has become obvious that schools must be open to partnerships with employers in order to gain an understanding of the needs of modern work processes.

The project in Latvia/Lithuania emphasised the importance for universities of developing a project-oriented approach to student teacher education, which should not be lecture hall bound, but which should bridge the different worlds. It also stressed the necessity of having sufficient research capacity to support the triangular reform approach. This last finding was also confirmed by the 'Integration of Work and Learning' project in Slovenia/Hungary.

All projects stressed that the working environment should be seen as a learning opportunity and organised accordingly. The development of a learning organisation in schools (but also in universities and companies), so that learning can be integrated into the daily work of staff, was perhaps the most crucial and at the same time the most difficult point to be achieved in the projects.

3. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING REFORM IN THE NEW AND FUTURE MEMBER STATES

3

Henrik Faudel

INTRODUCTION³⁵

Without teachers and trainers committed and prepared to play an active role in vocational education and training reform, system-wide and system-deep change remains illusive. This may seem self-evident. Nevertheless, the failure to involve teachers and trainers as drivers of reform at a systemic level is a major obstacle to reform efforts in many of the new and future Member States.

How do we achieve a much more active role for the teaching profession in VET

reform? How can we ensure that they become shapers and drivers of reform?

In an attempt to find answers to these basic questions, this chapter reflects on the experiences of the new and future Member States and puts forward suggestions as to how to improve the role of the teaching profession in VET reform in other ETF partner countries.

The chapter first examines the situation as it was in 2002, around a decade after VET reform had been initiated in this group of countries. It is described in relation to a number of key issues.

³⁵ In 2002, the ETF organised a conference on the situation of VET teachers and trainers in the then 13 future Member States, in close cooperation with the Danish Presidency and Cedefop. The aim was to establish contact between Cedefop TTnet and VET teacher and trainer environments in the future Member States. In preparation for the conference, the ETF commissioned the network of National Observatories to prepare country reports on the conditions for, and the education and training of teachers and trainers in these countries. Based on these country reports an overview of the situation was put together. The nature of the individual country reports did not allow for statistical comparisons between countries, but the overview provided an indication of the similarities and differences between the countries. It was based on national reports from Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey.

- Who are teachers and trainers, where do they come from and what is the prestige of the teaching profession?
- What is the quality of teaching and learning?
- How has information and communication technology (ICT) been embraced by teachers and trainers?
- What is the training policy and strategy for VET teachers and trainers?
- What resources have been made available?
- What has been done in terms of initial teacher and trainer training and continuing staff development?

The discussion will then focus on the role of teachers and trainers in VET reform in these countries, and finally on the lessons learnt that may be useful for other ETF partner countries.

TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN THE NEW AND FUTURE MEMBER STATES: AN OVERVIEW OF THE SITUATION IN 2002

Teaching and training staff

With regard to VET, most countries distinguish between vocational subject (theory) teachers and practical trainers. The basic requirements to work as a vocational subject teacher or trainer differ from country to country. For vocational subject teachers the typical requirement is a university degree in a relevant field with a complementary pedagogical course (Czech Republic, Poland, Romania and Slovakia). In Slovenia teachers require a university degree followed by a six to ten-month school-based traineeship, while in Bulgaria only a university degree is required, without complementary pedagogical training.

Turkey stands out as the only country that requires vocational teachers to graduate from a four-year university vocational teacher degree programme at a technical and vocational education faculty. Lithuania, on the other hand, requires only that a teacher has undergone a course that is one

level higher than the students to be taught, and has undertaken a pedagogical course.

For practical trainers, most countries, including Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia, require a combination of upper secondary vocational education, two to three years work experience and the completion of a pedagogical course. In Bulgaria, trainers do not need any pedagogical preparation.

Estonia has abolished the distinction between theoretical and practical teachers, and from September 2003 all teachers are required to have higher education, a pedagogical background and at least two years' work experience in industry. In fields where no relevant higher education is available this requirement must be fulfilled through a pedagogical course at bachelor level.

The student/teacher ratio has been falling in most countries over the past decade: in Lithuania the ratio is now 10:1, in Bulgaria 11:1, in Slovenia 12:1 and in Romania 17:1. In Estonia the ratio is 12:1 but it is expected to have risen to 16:1 in 2004 because of an increased intake into vocational education. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia the ratios for technical education are 11:1 and 8:1 respectively, and for vocational education 18:1 and 16:1 respectively³⁶.

The future demand for vocational teachers and trainers is expected to decrease in most countries because of a lack of interest in (especially basic) VET and smaller numbers entering vocational schools. Consequently there is no overall lack of vocational teachers and trainers, apart from certain isolated cases, and in general subjects such as ICT and foreign languages. The opposite is occurring in Romania and Turkey. In Romania a policy to reduce class size and teaching load is expected to lead to an increase in the number of teachers required; in Turkey an expected increase in intake into vocational education will also lead to a need for more teachers.

³⁶ Where a distinction is made between technical and vocational education, the former refers to vocational education leading to the matura and the latter refers to vocational education leading to a skilled workers' qualification only. Where no distinction is made vocational education covers both.

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In almost all countries there has been a decline in the appeal and prestige of the vocational teaching profession, mainly as a result of low salary levels. This has led to a situation in which teaching has become an alternative to unemployment rather than a first choice of career, and this has made it difficult to attract young people to the profession. The situation has been further aggravated by a low number of vacancies due to the falling intake into vocational education in many countries. Turkey is the exception to the rule, but mainly because access to university programmes is highly competitive and vocational teacher education provides one means of obtaining a degree³⁷.

Salary levels are in most cases below average in the economy as a whole. This is the situation in Bulgaria, Estonia, Romania and Slovakia; for 2000 the figures range from 79% of the average salary in Slovakia (falling from 94% in 1991) to 94% in Bulgaria. In Poland the salary level is 85% of the average in the state sector and in Lithuania it is 91%. Teachers' salaries in Slovenia are higher than the overall average salary level, but lower than the average state salary level.

The decline in prestige has also resulted in an ageing teaching population. In Lithuania 73% of teachers have over 10 years work experience, while the average age of teachers in Slovakia is 50. In Estonia 20% of vocational teachers have reached retirement age.

The teaching profession is dominated by women. In Bulgaria 70% of all vocational teachers and trainers are female, in Slovakia the figure is 68% and in both the Czech Republic and Estonia it is 60%. The proportion of female practical trainers is often lower.

Countries have adopted different approaches to the recruitment of new teachers. In Estonia, Lithuania and Slovakia recruitment is fully decentralised to the school level. In Slovenia the school director must consult a register of

redundant teachers before recruiting a new teacher. In contrast, recruitment is organised centrally by the education ministries in both Romania and Turkey³⁸. The country reports show that overall staffing plans often do not exist in schools, and that where they do, they are at best a minor part of a general annual school development plan.

In general, there is no system to encourage people from industry to take up teaching positions in vocational schools, except in Poland, where an employer is obliged to release employees for six hours per week or 24 hours per month to undertake part-time teaching.

THE QUALITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

The teaching and learning processes in the new and future Member States remain traditional and teacher-oriented. Attempts have been made in a number of countries, particularly within the framework of internationally assisted reform programmes, to introduce more student-oriented teaching and learning approaches, including an emphasis on team work, communication skills and critical thinking, and to reform curricula in line with new labour market needs. However, in most cases the continuing teacher training systems have been unable to ensure the adequate preparation of teachers for new teaching and learning approaches.

There has been a trend in most countries to place increased emphasis on new core skills. Lithuania and Romania have introduced compulsory courses in both entrepreneurship and information technology. Romania has also introduced compulsory training in guidance and counselling. In Slovenia information technology is a compulsory course in technical education but is elective in vocational education. In Estonia since 2004 all curricula has focused on new core skills. The extent to which emphasis is placed on

³⁷ Cyprus, which was not covered by the overview, is another exception because of the high esteem in which all civil servants in Cypriot society are held.

³⁸ Recruitment is also centrally organised in Cyprus.

other core skills, as described above, depends to a large extent on the individual capacity and initiative of the teacher or trainer.

Aligning teaching and learning processes with the needs of the labour market is further hampered by the lack of real-life practical experience and by the outdated teaching and learning material and school workshops. Though it is often expected that some practical training can take place in industry, most schools find it difficult to establish agreements with employers to grant students real work experience.

Embracing information and communications technology

As part of national strategies and programmes for the development of the information society, most countries also have strategies for the introduction of information and communications technology (ICT) into education. Initially these strategies focused on the delivery of computers and connecting schools to the Internet. As a consequence, the emphasis in vocational education has been on teaching ICT as a way of ensuring computer literacy, and to some extent on using ICT as a tool (computer-aided design, for example) but hardly ever on integrating ICT into teaching and learning in general.

There is a lack of teachers who can teach ICT, and of computer literate teachers. Teaching is not attractive for ICT specialists, and continuing teacher training in ICT has been insufficient to close the gap. Attention is now moving towards a more integrated approach. In Slovenia the second phase of the computer literacy education programme focuses on three main aspects: (i) the training of teachers and students in ICT; (ii) the integration of ICT into all teaching and learning and the delivery of hardware and software; and (iii) research and development on ICT in education.

Lithuania has developed a standard for computer literacy for teachers and students, based on the European Computer Driving Licence. In 2001 around 10% of teachers participated in a course to

fulfil the requirements of the standard, and another 10% took part in upgrading courses.

The availability of computers and Internet connections differs from country to country. In the Czech Republic in 2001/02 there were 6.5 students per computer in technical education and 13 students per computer in vocational education; 39% and 68% of computers respectively were connected to the Internet. In Estonia there were 15 students per computer, in Lithuania 18 students per computer, and all vocational schools in these countries had Internet connections. In some countries there are no separate data for vocational education. In Slovenia there were 27 students per computer in upper secondary education, and in Romania, 40.

TRAINING POLICY AND STRATEGY FOR VET TEACHERS AND TRAINERS

Some countries, including Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Romania, have made overall policy declarations on the need to enhance the status, to improve and simplify the remuneration systems, and to improve the qualifications of teachers and trainers. In its National Programme for Educational Development, the Czech Republic also stresses the importance of improving cooperation with schools with regard to teaching practice, and of developing human resource management in schools. The creation of bachelor-level pedagogical programmes for masters (Meister) of practical training is also planned. Countries like the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary have focused on the qualification of practical trainers. In contrast, Poland has closed down institutions that provided training for practical trainers, and has not proposed an alternative.

A new concept of vocational teacher education and training has been formulated in Lithuania. The concept proposes that the basic educational requirement (higher education, post-secondary or secondary vocational education) should be complemented by three years' relevant work experience, and by pedagogical

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training undertaken during the first two years of employment as a teacher. Lithuania, Romania and Turkey have stressed the need for a national standard for vocational teachers; however, so far only Lithuania has developed a draft standard. In contrast, countries such as Poland and Slovakia make little mention of the further development of policy and strategy for VET teachers and trainers in their education sector policies and strategies.

In a number of countries (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia and Turkey) participation in continuing teacher and trainer training is optional for teachers and trainers. However, in some cases promotion to a higher qualification category is linked to the completion of upgrading courses. In Lithuania there is an obligation to participate in 15 days continuing training every five years; it is compulsory in Slovenia to participate in five days continuing training every year, or a total of 15 days every three years.

Estonia has taken a different route to most countries. In 1999 it was made compulsory for all vocational teachers to undertake a traineeship in industry for at least two months every three years in order to ensure that teachers keep up to date on the latest developments in their sector. Furthermore, vocational teachers must participate in 160 hours of training every five years.

RESOURCES (FINANCIAL AND HUMAN)

Initial teacher training offered by universities is generally free of charge for students and is funded from the state budget allocation to the universities. In some countries, such as the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia, students must pay a tuition fee if they undertake the supplementary pedagogical course after graduation in their main speciality. In Turkey the increased intake into vocational teacher education programmes has been financed through tuition fees.

The ministries of education have made very limited funding available for continuing

teacher training. Participation in continuing training is often paid by the schools using funds raised through commercial activities, or directly by teachers themselves.

In most countries universities do not specialise in vocational teacher training. In many cases those who teach pedagogical courses for general education also teach vocational teachers, and there is little emphasis on the specific aspects of teaching vocation-related subjects. Moreover, universities in the main do not maintain close contacts with either vocational schools or industry. Turkey is an exception, with technical and vocational education faculties at 14 of its universities. However, these institutions also fail to maintain close contacts with the world of work. In Lithuania a group of expert practitioners has been established with the aim of overcoming the lack of relevance of continuing training. These experts have played an important role in disseminating new teaching and learning methodologies in the vocational education system in the country.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Initial vocational teacher training is offered to vocational subject teachers in the form of a pedagogical course at university. This can be taken either concurrently with the main degree course or following graduation while working as a teacher. The pedagogical courses vary from country to country, but are usually part-time for two to four semesters. In the Czech Republic the courses are 300–400 hours, of which 20–80 hours are teaching practice. In Poland the course lasts 330 hours, plus 150 hours of teaching practice, whilst the complementary pedagogical course for university graduates in Estonia lasts 40 weeks, of which 10 are teaching practice. In a number of countries, including Estonia, Slovakia and Slovenia (the idea was also suggested in Lithuania and Romania), new teachers are supported by a mentor during their first period in service as a teacher.

In Turkey there are 40 different four-year university VET teacher education programmes, made up of general education (15 credits), speciality theory and

practice (100–170 credits) and pedagogy (36 credits).

Initial teacher training is often criticised for being too theoretical and for lacking relevance to the actual teaching situation in vocational schools. Furthermore, universities do not often maintain close relationships with either schools or employers.

The delivery of continuing teacher training varies widely from country to country. In Bulgaria continuing vocational teacher training is only offered in Sofia, whereas Poland has four centrally managed continuing teacher training centres and 63 regional ones. Continuing training is often in the area of pedagogy or in new areas such as ICT. In contrast, in countries such as Lithuania it is often left to the individual teacher to keep up to date with new developments in vocational subjects, both theoretical and practical. In Turkey continuing training in practical skills is frequently included in tender specifications when procuring new equipment. The traineeships introduced in Estonia for vocational teachers in industry have proved difficult to implement.

The predominant model for the analysis of teachers' training needs is a centralised system in which they are defined by subject experts at central level and are often offered to schools and teachers through a catalogue. Continuing training is not based on concrete skill-gap analysis in schools; neither is it focused on the development of teams of teachers, but rather on individuals.

Teachers generally participate in continuing training primarily in order to fulfil the basic requirements for passing from one qualification category to another. Continuing teacher training is criticised for not adequately preparing teachers to adopt new teaching methodologies, for not ensuring that teachers are computer literate and for not being sufficiently related to developments in the labour market.

A survey in Slovakia indicated that 86% of vocational teachers are not interested in

participating in continuing training. Continuing training and school-based staff development through peers are hardly used in any of the countries³⁹.

This overview of the situation in the new and future Member States in 2002 gives no reason for optimism regarding the role that teachers and trainers have been able to assume in VET reform. Career opportunities for teachers and trainers represent a major challenge; furthermore, the lack of progress in adapting teacher and trainer training systems and the lack of explicit political commitment have created a difficult environment. But what have been the general approaches to VET reform within which teachers and trainers have had to act?

THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN VET REFORM

During the 1990s the strategies for VET reform in the new and future Member States focused on the design of new curricula through a number of pilot schools. This approach targeted the teachers and trainers in the pilot schools in particular, though only so far as to introduce them to new teaching and learning methods in line with the philosophy of the new curricula. A second phase of reform initiatives was more policy-driven and became part of the pre-accession preparations (Grootings (ed.), ETF, 2004, p. 39).

The initial stage focused on teachers and trainers as essential players within the pilot schools without whom the new curricula could not be implemented. However, it did not really succeed in moving towards the system level, and therefore in most cases it had limited impact on teacher and trainer training systems and on the definition of the role of teachers and trainers in a modern school and its local environment. The second approach focused on structures and mechanisms, and neglected teachers and trainers altogether.

In addition to these overall approaches, which each had its own limitations regarding the involvement of teachers and

³⁹ Cyprus introduced a system of change agent teams in all vocational schools as an integral part of staff development in new teaching and learning methods.

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trainers, the possibility of teachers taking on an active role as shapers and drivers of reform was hampered by several factors.

Teacher and trainer training systems

Universities and pedagogical institutes in most of the new and future Member States showed little interest in VET related issues, and severe under funding created an almost complete breakdown of continuing staff development. As a result the existing teacher and trainer training systems were not a source of innovation. Furthermore, policy statements such as those on embracing student-oriented approaches and opening up schools to the local environment and the world of work were not taken on board by the teacher and trainer training systems. In fact most of the innovation that took place was organised directly within individual vocational schools, typically within donor-funded pilot projects, and often using 'expert practitioners' who were not linked to the teacher and trainer training systems and who mostly functioned on an ad hoc basis only. Most of the innovation in teaching and learning and in the general role of teachers and trainers was not embedded within the VET system as a whole.

Knowledge and skills for the knowledge society

As in most countries across the world, the initial emphasis was on providing ICT hardware to schools and ensuring the basic ICT literacy of both teachers and students. However, there has been little progress in either the integration of the Internet as a resource into standard classroom situations or even the use of e-learning as a delivery mode in VET. This was undoubtedly linked to the inherent contradiction between a traditional teacher and lecture-oriented approach on the one hand and the flexible student-oriented use of the Internet and other e-learning opportunities enabling the student to be more independent of the teacher on the other.

Teacher career opportunities

The lack of appeal of the VET teacher and trainer profession remains an issue in most countries. Salaries are low, as is the

esteem of VET and of the teaching profession, and there are few incentives to participate in innovation and take on new and more complex roles, other than professional pride and commitment.

In view of the situation of teachers and trainers in the new and future Member States and the limited role they have been able to assume in VET reform, what can other ETF partner countries learn from their experience, and what fundamental questions should be considered in order to improve the chances of implementing VET reform successfully?

LESSONS TO BE LEARNT FOR ETF PARTNER COUNTRIES

The fundamental lessons learned during almost 15 years of discussions on VET reform in Central and Eastern Europe are that the process of changing the behaviour and role of teachers does not happen on its own through policy statements, and that policy intentions have little impact in schools. At the same time the individual teachers and trainers who have been directly engaged in reforms in a (small) number of pilot schools have had only limited opportunity to have a systemic impact. It has proved even more difficult for teachers and trainers outside the pilot schools to play a part in system-wide and system-deep reform.

Teachers and trainers are the professionals of VET systems. All new curricula and teaching and learning methodologies will need to be 'translated' and then implemented through them. Throughout the development phase of concepts and implementation plans for VET reform therefore, constant consideration should be given to the need for teacher and trainer training and retraining, and its affordability and sustainability. If this does not happen, reform will remain at the level of wishful thinking. Another lesson to be learned from the experience of the new and future Member States is that teachers should play the role not only of 'receivers' of adequate training, but also, and perhaps more importantly, of protagonists in the design formulation and implementation strategy for VET reform as a whole.

Many of the pilot reform initiatives involved the established and mainstream VET teacher and trainer training and retraining institutions at best only marginally. Instead these initiatives relied heavily on individual groups of 'expert practitioners', who were often working without reference to the existing system. This resulted in major sustainability problems across the board. It is therefore crucial to consider how teachers and trainers can be properly equipped to implement and realise reform on a day-to-day basis at the beginning of the process.

Another problem has been the focus on new competences of teachers and trainers and the emphasis on the acquisition of new core skills by students, without providing an environment to help this take place. A typical example is that of VET student assessment, which has continued to focus on rote learning rather than on problem solving and practical competence, and has thus undermined efforts and commitment to modernise teaching processes.

The low esteem in which VET in general, and the VET teaching profession in particular, continues to be held is an issue that countries need to confront, and at an early stage of reform. It is clear that the present economic situation in some countries does not allow salary levels to be increased, even beyond the poverty threshold. Under such circumstances it becomes even more important to consider alternative ways of making the teaching profession more attractive. One important step could be to involve teachers and trainers as serious stakeholders in VET reform.

The key questions that countries need to consider at an early stage of reform are therefore the following.

- How can countries ensure that teachers and trainers have the relevant skills to meet the challenges of a reformed system and to be drivers of the reform?
- How can countries ensure that vocational teachers have a relevant understanding of the labour market and of the reality of the workplace?
- How can a more learner-oriented approach be introduced?
- What are the most suitable and affordable approaches to initial and continuing teacher and trainer training?
- How can countries ensure that the initial and continuing teacher training system is able to prepare teachers and trainers for their new roles in a reformed VET system?
- How can better links be developed between training providers, VET schools and the local environment?
- How can companies become an integral part of the delivery of training?
- How can teaching as a career be made more attractive?
- How can promotions and salaries be linked to competences?
- What should be the response to the ageing teaching population and falling vocational education intake?
- What role should schools play in the recruitment of teachers?
- How can people from industry be encouraged to take up vocational teaching positions?
- How can young people be attracted to the vocational teaching profession? Is a requirement for entrants to have higher education the best way forward?

4. SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE: INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER TRAINING

Søren Nielsen

4

INTRODUCTION

The role of teachers and trainers in vocational education and training is a matter for debate, not only in South Eastern Europe, but also in the rest of the continent and not least in the EU. The focus everywhere is on the fundamental questions: What are the new roles for teachers and trainers? How should they be trained? Where and under what conditions should the qualifying processes for teachers be organised?

Teachers and trainers are the key actors for innovation. The final outcomes of the many modernising reforms and structural changes of VET systems across South Eastern Europe depend to a large extent

on the motivation and competence of the individual teachers and trainers who are organising the learning and teaching processes for groups of students in their own classrooms or workshops. For this reason there must be a greater emphasis on vocational teacher qualifications and all types of teacher training in this region. But the challenge is the same in the EU. As was highlighted in a report from the EU Education Council of Ministers⁴⁰, teacher training is the key strategic factor, and as such it requires attention and investment in EU countries in the coming years.

In the 'risk' society⁴¹, knowledge will become key to the survival of both individuals and society itself. In view of knowledge's crucial role, every individual

⁴⁰ Draft report from the Education Council to the European Council: 'The concrete future objectives of education and training systems', February 2001.

⁴¹ In modern society goal rational actions increasingly lead to unintended consequences. Expansion of knowledge does not increase security but leads to more insecurity. Therefore there is an acute need for reflexivity (contd.)

should be encouraged to continue learning throughout his or her whole life. Teaching will become a profession of great importance in the development of a positive attitude to lifelong learning in children and young people, in encouraging their curiosity, developing their independence and preparing them for the uncertainties of the future.

The challenge of equipping vocational teachers and trainers with appropriate qualifications is approached in different ways in western (and eastern) Europe. When searching for a model or a blueprint it becomes clear that institutions have normally been set up with the intention of solving the problems of the day, and major reforms appear to be difficult to implement. This comes as no surprise. The organisation of VET in education systems varies considerably from country to country. There are differences in the length of compulsory education, the point at which young people have to choose between options in the education sector, the options available to them, the length of the course of studies chosen, and so on. The situation of VET teachers and trainers reflects these differences of approach across Europe.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the role of teachers in VET reform in South Eastern Europe in the context of international debates on the issues. The first part highlights the challenges for teaching, learning and teachers in South Eastern Europe and the need for changing teacher roles. The second part paints a portrait of the current vocational teacher education systems, raises questions about the South Eastern European context, and presents examples of good practice in which teachers as professionals have been involved in VET reform in the region. Finally the chapter presents four open questions that are intended to develop the discussion on vocational teachers in South Eastern Europe.

THE CHALLENGES IN SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE⁴²

An efficient way of observing and understanding the current state of teaching and learning in any country is to consult the end users, in this case the students in vocational schools. As part of an ETF peer review mission to Serbia in October 2002, a visit to the Secondary Medical School in Pozaverac took place. Informal meetings with small groups of students were held, and the students gave surprisingly clear descriptions and assessments of their teaching experience and the ways in which they themselves would improve teaching and learning processes.

Their observations are very succinct.

- Teaching is top-down and heavily based on factual knowledge elements.
- Teachers speak almost all the time, and hence are those who learn most.
- Teachers are anxious that students are not learning enough, and they therefore instruct even more intensively. Teachers are well prepared, qualified in their subjects and knowledgeable about how to teach, but focus almost exclusively on the subject matter without involving the students.
- It is impossible for 15-18 year-old students to sit inactive and listen for six to seven hours every day.
- Student-activating methods are required; these will allow students to demonstrate that they can and will take more responsibility for their own learning.
- Students should talk, work and be deeply involved, while teachers should be less concerned about the consequences, and more willing to step back and allow the students more room.
- There is a need for more practical training, learning through exercises and group/project work.

in the education system. See Beck, U., 'The reinvention of politics: Towards a theory of Reflexive Modernization', in Beck et al. (eds.), *Reflexive Modernization*, Polity Press, Cambridge, 1994.

⁴² South Eastern Europe as a region comprises Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Kosovo, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Serbia and Montenegro. It also encompasses the EU Member State of Slovenia and the region's future Member States of Bulgaria and Romania, but they will not be the main focus here. Croatia is now a future Member State and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has applied for EU membership.

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What the school principals and teachers criticise about the current system of teacher training is that it offers too much theoretical knowledge while neglecting practical pedagogical skills. Furthermore, they feel that the in-service training system is inadequate. In particular, they highlight this lack of good quality in-service training, which they feel could offer a valuable opportunity to improve school practice and the efficiency of education (Zindovic-Vukadinovic, 2003).

In December 2003 key national actors presented a critical 'self-assessment' of

challenges and reform initiatives in VET learning and teaching in the region at the ETF VET teacher training conference in Skopje, in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. One participant from each country was asked to present a highly condensed report on the challenges and initiatives relating to innovation in teaching and learning in their own country or territory. The major VET teacher training reform needs and initiatives already underway are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Challenges and responses in the seven Western Balkan countries/territories – Major VET teacher training reform needs and initiatives already underway⁴³

Albania: Maksim Konini, Secretary General, Ministry of Education	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The reputation of VET is still poor because of the focus on infrastructure rather than human resources. ■ There is no pre-service VET teacher training system: the current system overproduces schoolteachers but not adult trainers. ■ In-service training is very weak due to a lack of finance and infrastructure. There is no national body for implementing a VET teacher training programme, only fragmented pilots. There are no obligatory VET entry requirements. ■ There is an urgent need for systemic changes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A National VET Council (NVC) to discuss main issues has already been established. ■ A working group within the NVC is to develop the concept of pre and in-service training. ■ A National VET Agency to coordinate the activities of ministries is to be created. ■ Networking is to continue outside and within SEE.
Bosnia and Herzegovina: Mevlida Pekmez, Director, Sarajevo Pedagogical Institute	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The economic and social situation is difficult because of delays in political negotiations. ■ There are different ethnic groups in the same school – a common core of subjects in primary schools is required to meet the re-migration needs of the population. ■ The morale of teachers is low, at a time of rapid change and in a difficult social situation, when low salaries are provoking strike action. ■ There is a need to motivate students. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A Ministry of Civil Needs and Communications has been established. ■ The reform document of September 2002 has been adopted in Brussels; some commitments are now being fulfilled, with teacher training a central feature. ■ The Phare programme has trained a critical mass of mentors. The National Pedagogical Bureau has been upgraded. ■ Teachers are aware of the need for lifelong learning. Young, creative teaching staff are now promoting innovation.

⁴³ ETF South Eastern Europe Regional Seminar, Skopje, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, 8–10 December 2003: Summary of proceedings.

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Trajan Gocevski, Dean, Faculty of Philosophy, St. Cyril and St. Methodius University	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The practical elements of VET teacher training programmes are weak because of a lack of technology, methodology and teaching materials. ■ Teacher competence assessment methodology needs immediate improvement. ■ The morale of teachers is low, at a time of rapid change and in a difficult social situation, with low salaries and inadequate school management. ■ There is a need to motivate students. ■ VET schools need to cooperate with companies and invest in each other, as do schools and universities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A VET Council and VET Centre are in the process of being established. ■ The Ministry of Education and Science is to provide VET teacher training resources throughout the system in order to raise quality. ■ New university methodologies have been strengthened by the Tempus programme, the Bologna Process and the European Credit Transfer System; teacher training is a central feature. ■ The Phare programme has trained school managers and school coordinators to cascade reform. ■ Phare pilot schools have established in-school continuing training provision for teachers.

Montenegro: Zora Bogicevic, Education Inspector, Ministry of Education	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Modern teaching and learning should be in place in every classroom. ■ Increased teacher motivation via promotion is necessary. ■ There is a need for continuing VET teacher training. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ A comprehensive VET teacher training programme has been introduced: 100 teachers have been trained this year, with 12 of these selected to become trainers. ■ Regulations have been drafted. ■ Education councils have been established to strengthen social partnership.

Serbia: Jasmina Cekic Markovic, Programme Manager, Ministry of Education	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ There is a need to separate VET and general teacher training reform. ■ Schooling should be made more relevant to real life. ■ Previously only 30% of teachers were prepared for teaching and learning reform; the figure is now 47%, but this is still too small. How can the rest be motivated? ■ There is a need for democratisation, demonopolisation, de-politicisation and diversification through a change in the mentality that relied on orders from the centre. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ All pilot projects have featured teacher training focusing on new methods of instruction and cooperative relationships between teachers and students. ■ New laws and methods of appointing school managers have been implemented. ■ The training of teachers as change agents – change agent teams (CATs) – is being introduced. ■ New legislation encompasses new support institutions and professional development. ■ New councils and centres were established in 2004. ■ Licenses for teachers for a five-year period are now issued, with upgrading required for re-licensing.

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Kosovo: Rame Likaj, Lecturer, University of Pristina	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Kosovo has the highest birth rate in Europe; there are 21,000–25,000 new job seekers each year; the unemployment rate is 57%. ■ Teacher training has a strong academic orientation, with no practical training. ■ There are no dedicated VET teacher training institutions. ■ VET lacks relevance to the labour market; there is a lack of employer and public confidence. ■ How should training and qualifications be delivered? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Significant training has been provided through the CARDS project (1,620 teachers trained in new methods). ■ In-service teacher training is totally donor-driven. ■ The Ministry of Education has coordinated and shaped the many separate projects. ■ The Ministry has developed a five-year strategic plan including teacher training reform.

Croatia: Vesna Hrvoj-Sic, Principal, Secondary VET School	
Most important challenges	Responses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Initial VET teacher training reform is necessary. ■ There are no links between schools and universities; there are too many faculties dealing with teacher training. ■ The VET teacher training curriculum is based on content not on competences; there is a lack of practical training (only 20 hours). ■ Dual learning has not been implemented in initial teacher training. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Partnerships are to be developed between VET schools and faculties for teacher training and research-based innovation. ■ A new, modern VET teacher training curriculum is to be developed. ■ Dual-learning arrangements and a competence-based approach are to be introduced. ■ The use of EU projects (CARDS) will continue, creating a critical mass as a nucleus for change; a 'home-grown' Croatian concept of VET teacher training will be developed.

INSTITUTIONAL APPROACHES TO VET TEACHER TRAINING – CURRENT MODELS AND REFORM NEEDS

There are basically two models in South Eastern Europe: one in Albania, the other shared by the countries and territories of the former Yugoslavia.

Albania

The VET sector in Albania, under the Ministry of Education and Science, consists of 41 secondary VET schools with a total of 16,500 students, representing only 17% of all secondary level students. In 2002 there were approximately 450 VET teaching staff in VET schools, two-thirds of whom were

teaching VET theoretical subjects while the rest were involved in vocational practice instruction. The public adult training sector in Albania, under the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, consists of nine training centres offering short-term VET courses; in 2002 a total of approximately 70 instructors were teaching in these training centres.

Although several initiatives have been launched in recent years, VET has not improved significantly and its reputation remains poor. Research suggests that this is mainly because reform initiatives in VET have focused primarily on the development of infrastructure, curricula and legislation, with less attention having been given to the development of human resources (particularly teachers and instructors)

(Mustafai and Konin, 2002). Several factors influence, directly or indirectly, the status and situation of VET teachers and instructors in Albania. The most significant of these are the following.

- There is no system in place for the pre-service qualification of VET teachers/instructors.
- In-service qualification of VET staff has no national framework and is mainly provided by donor projects in pilot VET schools.
- There is no national body responsible for analysing the situation, developing and implementing a national programme for VET teacher/instructor training and accrediting their achievements.
- There is no clear strategy on the future development of the VET staff training sector.
- No obligatory entry requirements (related to pedagogical criteria) have been formulated for VET teachers and instructors.
- Salaries are low and salary progression does not depend on the level of teacher/instructor qualification.
- VET staff 'migrate' to more profitable professions.

The main developments during the past few years have been in institutional development for VET teacher training, and include:

- the establishment of the National Centre for Education Staff Training;
- the restructuring of Regional Education Directorates and Education Offices in order to provide teacher training at regional level;
- the establishment of the Human Resource Development Commission at the National VET Council (as a tripartite body);
- the establishment of a national team of VET teacher trainers and the design of a modular training programme.

Most initiatives, however, are donor-driven and concentrate on in-service activities. There are currently no initiatives or interventions underway to establish a pre-service VET teacher training system. The

CARDS 2002 project aims at developing VET teacher training mechanisms and conducting training activities, but it does not address issues relating to pre-service teacher training. The many sporadic and fragmented teacher training activities are not being brought together to form a unified system for VET teacher training (one that would be needs-oriented and standards-based, and that would include features such as credit accumulation and a certification-related salary scale).

A fundamental question being discussed by Albanian experts is what approach should be used with teachers in the VET reform process. The typical response is to implement training that leads to more and better knowledge, skills and attitudes. But this is clearly not enough. Trained teachers are simply a precondition for the success of VET reform: they do not guarantee it. The key word is motivation, and experience shows that training does not in itself motivate or raise the social and economic status of teachers and trainers. To be qualified but not committed is a definite threat to reform: 'There are three preconditions to make the VET teacher training system effective and efficient: (1) motivated teachers, (2) motivated teachers, and (3) motivated teachers. Better an unqualified but motivated teacher than a qualified but unmotivated one⁴⁴'

Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Kosovo, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro

VET teacher education has really not changed for many years. There has never been an all-inclusive system linking pre-service and in-service training. Theoretical instruction dominates in teacher education models. Student teachers have few opportunities to practise teaching, and traditional teaching methods are used. Most teachers are civil servants and have low social status. Teacher dropout is widespread. The professional development of teachers is a priority in the reform of education in these countries and territories. In the former Yugoslavia there is no separate VET teacher training system:

⁴⁴ Alqi Mustafai, Institute of Pedagogical Studies in Tirana, at the joint ETF-CARDS project International Conference in Tirana, Albania, 20 January 2005.

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teachers at all school levels are trained under the same system. All initial teacher training is part of a university structure comprising state universities and higher professional institutions. The universities, where most of the teachers are educated, are autonomous.

A critical analysis of VET teacher training carried out in Croatia highlights common problems that occur all over the former Yugoslavia, since the same systemic approach to VET teacher training is in place across the area. In their critical study 'Teachers' and Trainers' Training in Vocational Education and Training', Luburic et al. (2002) define 10 of the main problems in the existing VET teacher training system and practices in Croatia, these being shared by Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Serbia and Montenegro:

- the lack of a lifelong learning perspective in pre and in-service VET teacher training;
- the involvement of a number of different ministries with responsibility for different parts of VET teacher training provision, with little coordination between them;
- the fact that there is no postgraduate or scientific education available for teachers;
- the fact that there are no specialised VET teacher training institutions in any of the countries or territories;
- the lack of development of vocational subject theory and methodology;
- an inadequate in-service upgrading continuing training system for teachers, which is not based on an empirical training needs assessment;
- the unsatisfactory arrangements for the trainee year in school, resulting from a lack of qualified support and supervision by mentors;
- the limited levels of knowledge and skills relating to the market economy and technological development;
- the low rate of participation of VET teachers in the programmes available; and
- the inadequate executive, administrative and pedagogical skills of VET school head teachers.

There are four different categories of teacher, three of which (the vocational subject teachers) follow a training model in which they must undertake additional study in the educational sciences of pedagogy, psychology and general didactics. This pedagogical training is very short and in Croatia is provided by nine universities or teaching colleges that specialise in general pedagogy. No 'critical mass' of VET specialists exists and as a consequence a key element of VET teacher training – the methodology of vocational subjects, or 'Fachdidaktik' – is missing.

Luburic et al. (2002) summarise the critical background conditions as follows.

- There is no common standard for VET teachers that would serve as a platform on which to build curricula.
- The autonomy of universities makes innovation in pre-service teacher training extremely difficult.
- Teacher educators lack expertise in VET.
- The VET laboratory schools (which provide training in teaching practice during academic pre-service teacher training) are not functioning properly.
- The selection and qualification processes for mentors in VET schools are unsatisfactory.

The report presents proposals for substantial changes in the existing institutional structures and organisation of vocational teacher training. Initial training for secondary school teachers for general subjects is provided through four-year university programmes. No separate initial (pre-service) studies are organised for teachers of vocational-theoretical subjects or practical training and skills subjects in secondary VET schools. These teachers are usually recruited from three or four-year professional higher education studies, with several years of work experience. They must have additional training in pedagogy to be qualified to teach vocational theoretical subjects. After one or two years of preliminary teaching, possibly supervised by experienced school teachers, all teacher candidates must pass the Teacher State Examination, which is in three parts: methodological approach to the teaching subject; pedagogy and

psychology; and school legislation. Graduates from any university faculty may work in schools if they pass the Teacher State Examination and if their profile meets the needs of the school. This means that virtually all faculties of the universities educate potential teachers, and not only those that have teacher training departments. Thus, the problem of the lack of professional pedagogical skills is particularly significant in secondary vocational education.

Luburic et al. (2002) present a coherent strategy for the reform of vocational teacher training.

The first licence – at university, pre-service vocational teacher training

Innovation of pedagogic-psychological and didactical-methodical education is necessary, with the emphasis on specialised methodology:

- new content elements (modernised curriculum);
- qualification requirements for teacher educators: they must themselves be experienced lecturers in VET; since the number of methodology teachers in vocational subjects/spheres is low, there is an acute need to start with their training;
- careful selection and preparation of laboratory schools (where future vocational teachers acquire their first practical experience under supervision);
- teachers to be trained specifically for work as supervisors in laboratory schools.

State exam and the second licence

Trainee year:

- innovation of work programme;
- systematic monitoring and coaching of teacher trainees;
- definition of clear roles for personnel in charge in schools;
- training them (the mentors in particular) for the job.

State exam:

- renewal of existing programmes;

- establishment of new programmes for (a) teachers of students with special needs, and (b) adult education teachers.

Continuing teacher and school manager training

- innovation of programmes, forms and conditions in vocational teacher training Continuing Professional Development (CPD); the necessity for realistic, school-based training needs assessment to replace the 'catalogue' formulated centrally by experts;
- development of a system of professional promotion, rather than one based on seniority;
- establishment of a school for (VET) school managers.

Evaluation of work, indicators for success and quality

- determining the criteria against which measurements are made
- training the personnel for evaluation of work performance and success of all actors in the vocational schools.

Institutions

Implementation will require 'institutional homes' equipped with competent and experienced VET staff; links with research environments must be established.

THE SOUTH EASTERN EUROPEAN VOCATIONAL TEACHER TRAINING MODEL – SYSTEMIC REFORM INITIATIVES

Attempts to reform initial vocational teacher training in South Eastern Europe

The prevailing vocational teacher training model in the republics of the former Yugoslavia is interesting, though it requires modernisation. Comparison with existing models in Germany, Denmark and Norway may suggest how this modernisation can best be achieved. The German example is relevant because it

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Table 2: Initial VET teacher training in Germany, Denmark and Norway

	WHERE	WHEN	WHO	HOW	HOW LONG	WHAT
	Institutions	Pre and in-service	Access	Structure	Duration	Curriculum
DE	<i>University</i> (many)	<i>Pre-service</i> (young)	<i>Abitur</i> Work experience	<i>University</i> Practice ('Referendariat')	5 years 1½ years	VET subject General subjects Pedagogy
DK	<i>Semi-academic institution</i> (one)	<i>In-service</i> (mature)	<i>Skilled worker</i> 5 years work experience	<i>Sandwich course</i> Mentoring in schools	14 weeks (660 hours)	Pedagogy Psychology Didactics
NO	<i>Semi-academic institution</i> (10)	<i>Pre-service</i> (young)	<i>Abitur</i> Skilled worker	<i>Study</i> School practice	3 years	VET subject General subjects Pedagogy

has many features similar to those of the Yugoslav model; Denmark is interesting because it illustrates the need to establish pedagogical training for those teachers who had never had any proper didactic or pedagogical training; and Norway is of interest because it has recently changed from a consecutive 'Pädagogikum' model to a three-year full-time programme.

In the German vocational teacher training model the academic theory studies are separate from the teaching practice in schools, as is also the case in the former Yugoslavia. Modern teaching competences require a combination of theory and practice, as well as an integration of subject and didactics. It is therefore necessary not only to modernise the individual components of the system, as proposed by Luburic et al. (2002), but also to remove the barrier between universities and VET schools as learning sites for teachers.

This was attempted in Slovenia under the Phare MOCCA project⁴⁵, which was based on the full integration model that exists in Denmark. The new design respected the existing systems but modernised the theory–practice links. The 'special didactics' module in the university programme (150 hours) was remodelled to alternate between university and VET training school. The purpose was to upgrade the integration of theory and practice and to overcome the fact that university staff are simply not aware of 'how' to actually teach 'what' concerning VET subject didactics. At the same time a programme was developed to enable experienced teachers functioning as practice supervisors for student teachers in VET schools to become mentors, and the training responsibility of VET schools was highlighted⁴⁶.

Attempts at overall systemic vocational teacher training reform

A much more ambitious and highly interesting example is the 'New Concept for

⁴⁵ For a complete overview of outcomes of the Phare programme, including the MOCCA project, see 'Phare ex-post evaluation of country support implemented from 1997–1998 to 2000–2001', Consolidated Background Report, European Commission, DG Enlargement, April 2003.

⁴⁶ The Slovenian innovative model is described in Mursak et al. (2001). The model was never implemented although a similar one was in Lithuania in early 2000.

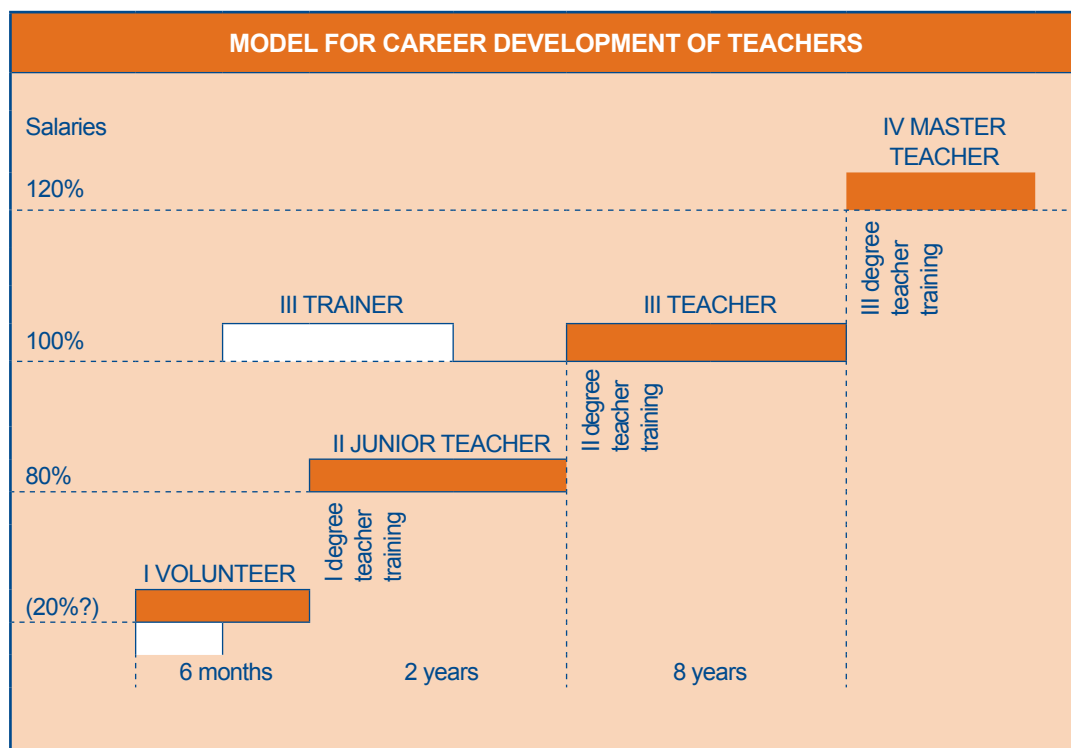
Teacher Training in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia'. This is a Tempus-Phare Joint European Project 1999–2002⁴⁷, coordinated by St. Cyril and St. Methodius University in Skopje; it has three European partners and involves three local VET schools. The roots of the Tempus project are in the Phare VET I project, which began in 1998. The project objectives were:

- the restructuring of a training and retraining system for teachers and trainers in VET;
- the introduction of a new teacher qualification system;

- the creation of a dedicated multimedia training centre in the university;
- the creation of three VET didactic training centres for electrical engineering, health and care, and hotel, catering and tourism services.

The target groups were pre-service and in-service training for VET teachers for (i) general subjects, (ii) theoretical vocational subjects, (iii) practical vocational subjects, and (iv) teacher trainers.

The model for the career development of teachers is based on competence-based modules at three levels:



There are clear advantages of the new concept for vocational teacher training. The concept is practically oriented, and takes as its starting point a definition of the competences that each VET teacher should possess. This strategy of defining a professional profile in order to ensure that teachers acquire the skills necessary to respond to the challenges of their changing role and acquire appropriate competences is one of the first trends identified in almost

all initial teacher-education policy practices studied by the European Commission Working Group on Teacher Training (European Commission, 2003c). Moreover, the emphasis on an outcome-based qualification profile for curriculum development in teacher education indicates that this policy promotes an approach to teacher training in teacher education institutions that is not only scientifically based but also profession-oriented. In

⁴⁷ See also Chapter 10.

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addition, it helps to ensure that school education needs are the drivers for curriculum development in teacher education, and establishes criteria for teacher education programme development, for teacher assessment and for the individual certification of qualified teacher status and the accreditation and external approval of programmes. The new concept for vocational teacher training is based on the European Credit Transfer System⁴⁸ (Bologna Process) and on the national strategy for education in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. It establishes links between university, VET schools, ministerial curriculum and inspecting staff and the labour market. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, it creates a career system for teachers that should ensure greater motivation, better status and increased mobility.

The new model has unfortunately not yet been implemented. It would be interesting to investigate what difficulties exist for implementation of this model, and how barriers can be overcome.

EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE IN SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE FOR INVOLVING TEACHERS AS STAKEHOLDERS AND PROFESSIONALS IN VET REFORM

Teacher training through ‘twinning’ arrangements

An important component of the EU Phare VET reform model is the partner school approach. This typical example is from the Phare VET project in Bosnia and Herzegovina 1997–2000⁴⁹. It relates to the profession of electrician and was operated in three pilot schools. The initial phase concentrated on finding ways to organise the workshops when new equipment became available. The joint Bosnian–Danish development team of teachers in the subject

together developed new curricula that extended practical training in schools. Teachers had to shift their teaching methods towards a more holistic, inductive and project-based approach and to replace the former very frequent theoretical student tests with practical tests. The study visits undertaken by teachers are an important illustration of a school culture based on student-activating methods.

VET teachers in Bosnia and Herzegovina have sound knowledge of the fundamentals of electricity, of the theoretical understanding of academic knowledge and of general pedagogy. They know the modern theories, concepts and jargon, but they are unable to translate this knowledge into active competences related to the specific subject matter in the occupational field. Teachers need upgrading in the vocational subject area, particularly in special didactics (Fachdidaktik) or the specific ‘pedagogical subject matter’ that for VET teachers is often tacit and internalised. They need to learn how to arrange school workshops based on modern principles of work practice. There is also a need for training in the pedagogical use of a wide range of equipment.

Teachers of theoretical and practical subjects related to the occupation must themselves first learn to understand and master the new technology. They must then learn to organise learning processes based on the new knowledge and skills acquired and the new technology in the school workshops.

The project demonstrated that the active collegiate involvement of two Danish teachers was necessary for efficient hands-on training in the use of new and advanced equipment. This type of intensive training by ‘shadowing’ is very time-consuming and expensive, and is often neglected in development projects. There has been too much focus on the purchase of new equipment and on general, context-free teacher training.

⁴⁸ The European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) guarantees academic recognition of studies abroad that allow for the accumulation and transfer of ‘credits’. The Bologna Declaration specifically mentions the establishment of ‘a system of credits – such as in the ECTS system’. See also Chapter 10.

⁴⁹ ‘Final Evaluation of Bosnia and Herzegovina Phare VET Reform’, ETF, 2001.

There is one important and general lesson that is important for reform projects. Pedagogic strategies in teacher and trainer training must start with the specific subject matter ('Fachlichkeit'). The results in this project were positive because the 'twinning' teachers were respected as highly competent colleagues, forming what could be called a 'community of practitioners' with their Bosnian colleagues. The teachers from Bosnia and Herzegovina learned innovative pedagogical methods by shadowing their Danish partners, by identifying with and imitating them, and by having specific time set aside for more formalised action-reflection learning. Didactics should probably never be 'context-free' in VET teacher training, but should accompany teachers wherever they go, in classrooms or in workshops. The principles of mentoring and 'shadowing' as a basis for experiential learning are highly effective in VET teacher training. Courses on new teaching methods per se, such as how to implement student-activating methods, cannot stand in isolation. There is a need for more direct support for teachers in the field who are struggling with transforming new curricula and integrating new pedagogical equipment. 'I can directly apply my existing knowledge and skills and relate it to all the new methodologies' (teacher in the VET school in Tesanj).

The 'twinning' arrangement functions well with vocational theory and practice subject teachers. Teacher training probably functions best when it is integrated with performing the concrete job of teacher; this is also the case for general subjects.

Local school development work

Many foreign-sponsored VET reform projects have longer-term aims and are founded on a top-down approach, even where a pilot school model is used; they are often based on imported models. One lesson from transition countries is that practitioners and stakeholders need to see the reform actually happening and to feel the benefits it brings. An important strategy for engaging the 'grassroots' level in VET reform is to establish a central fund for school development projects that is available for, and actively stimulates, stakeholder involvement in projects. As a

component of VET reform programmes this will support local initiatives and could have a visible impact at school level. The design of the CARDS 2002 VET reform programme in Serbia has as one of its main components a decentralised development and innovation fund for pedagogical renewal.

Development projects are the 'experiments' in which schools and teachers can be creative, try out new things and learn from their mistakes. They are also a place for reflection and they provide strong tools in the school development process. A funding mechanism relating to school development projects should incorporate certain controls, such as objectives and criteria defined by the Ministry of Education, to encourage a focus on areas regarded as being important in the national VET system. In this context a national VET Innovation Fund can be seen as one of the softer control instruments used by the government to guide policy developments; this contrasts, for instance, with the management of major EU action programmes (such as Leonardo da Vinci). There is an important aspect of teacher training involved in undertaking development projects in schools. Many teachers contribute a significant amount of effort when they are involved in pedagogical development work: this enables teachers to fulfil their own ambitions and creativity through changing unsatisfactory conditions and to become involved in the shaping of new learning conditions. This is important from a collective learning perspective. It gives those involved a sense of ownership of the outcomes, a substantial determinant for the eventual implementation of development activities in schools.

Effective development work involves both a school development aspect and a teacher training aspect. The intention, of course, is to implement new didactic processes in everyday practice. It also represents a special, work-based training opportunity (action-learning) for teachers who participate in project groups. They have the opportunity to become familiar with the latest pedagogical discourses and are, in theory, given the time and opportunity to experiment further with their own practice.

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Local development work is an important method for translating external requirements into internal implementation. Once conditions and frameworks are established, the bottom-up approach ensures a dynamic, living development environment in the individual schools – and, more interestingly, in the entire VET system.

VET school development based on the school's own initiative and resources

A school can always do something on its own: it does not necessarily need external support. It is important to identify innovative schools in South Eastern Europe; they do exist, even if they are not well known, and they can act as a useful example. One such school is the Technical School in Slavonski Brod, a city of 80,000 inhabitants around 200 km from Zagreb, Belgrade and Sarajevo; the city is located in Slavonia, a poor county of Croatia whose industry was almost completely destroyed during the recent war (Olroyd and Nielsen, ETF, 2004).

There are 900 students in four grades; a third of the 60 teachers are engineers. There is a need for teachers in the school to learn and improve their skills, and they are eager to learn. They work in teams and help each other with new methods and experiences. In recent years most schools have lost connection with the economy, and with production and industry, mainly because of the war.

After a few internal training sessions relating to 'quality schools', staff in the school were presented with many different ideas on better teaching, which contrasted with traditional methods. New teaching methods have been introduced, and have delivered better results with less effort. The main aim is to relate everything that is taught as far as possible to real life. Students are guided in the use of all available sources of knowledge; they work in teams and explore new ideas. Learning is usually problem-based and students prepare in teams for school tests. Following practice sessions, students present their joint results. Instead of displaying individual answers on the board, students prepare presentations on particular themes using

computers, CD presentations and LCD projectors. When students take individual written tests they are permitted to use books and notebooks. As there is a lack of places for work experience in the city, students are offered placements within the school, working as laboratory assistants, helping the school caretaker, making school CD presentations or helping to service the school's computer equipment. In this way they are encouraged to be creative, independent and innovative. At the beginning of the school year, students receive information about teamwork, evaluation criteria and testing methods. The best way to motivate students to learn and improve their specialist knowledge and life skills is to communicate with them and reach agreements on dates and projects. During their project work students are offered help and support and are shown that teachers believe in them. Hence, their self-confidence develops, they are relaxed and their success is much improved.

Students are encouraged to work on other projects and activities that are taking place in the school. There is a school radio station that broadcasts 24 hours a day, a school newspaper written in Croatian and German, an informatics and Internet group, a sports group and an electro-technical innovators' group. The school generates additional funds by offering courses for adults, with most of the money being used to buy equipment and to modernise the school. 'We do not wait for others to give us everything we need. We work as hard as we can to do as much as possible, but we hope that the system will gradually be improved and reformed. This will happen faster and better if support for additional teacher training and networking can be developed further.' (Maja Jukic, Technical School, Slavonski Brod, Croatia.)

The ETF VET Teacher Training Network for South Eastern Europe

There is a readiness for innovation in teaching and learning in South Eastern Europe. It appears that actively involving teachers in school-based development projects is potentially very beneficial. The examples presented above, along with many others, demonstrate that teachers as professionals are committed to carrying out

innovative work. However, there is a risk that what is learned will stay within the individual school teams. There is a clear need to establish exchange and dissemination strategies, or communities of practice, beyond the school level and in the ongoing transformation phase, and even beyond the level of the national VET system.

In response to these challenges the ETF has set up a regional vocational teacher training network in South Eastern Europe to support innovation in teaching and learning. There is a need to establish a platform for the participating countries and territories in a period of extensive transformation in the region. All are now designing and implementing VET reforms that are driven to some extent by foreign donor contributions; they often undertake the same activities without learning from each other. The European integration and enlargement process is changing the region, with some countries having become full EU Member States and some being future Member States, while most are still in the reconstruction phase. The former countries will be integrated into Cedefop TTnet⁵⁰, but the remaining countries and territories of South Eastern Europe will not. Another factor, and perhaps the most important, is the need to focus on and to learn from the Balkan experience in VET and teacher training before embarking on a total transformation of existing traditions and systems.

Four annual seminars on vocational teacher training have been organised by the ETF for the region, selected EU countries, including Slovenia, and the neighbouring future Member States of Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey. These seminars will ensure that the 'what' issues (EU policies and practices in vocational teacher training) can be combined with the 'how' issues (implementation of reforms) and can be effectively disseminated in South Eastern Europe. The seminars take place in different countries in the region and include a 'national day', on which local VET reform developments and initiatives in

teacher training are presented and discussed. Each seminar focuses on a specific topic.

The ETF invites a small group of relevant actors from each of the countries in the region to participate. Four VET specialists (from the ministries of education, training institutions and schools) from each country and territory are given the opportunity to take part, over three days, in two types of dialogue: (i) intra-country – between policy level (policymakers), support level (providers) and institutional level (practitioners) actors within their own country; and (ii) international – between policymakers, providers and practitioners from the region and experts from EU countries and future Member States.

The dialogue concentrates on the development and dissemination of good practice in VET teacher training, with particular emphasis on the role of teachers in VET reform. The reform of teacher education has lagged behind VET curriculum reform in many countries. The series of seminars attempts to sow seeds that will be germinated through:

- dialogue at each seminar;
- subsequent development projects and continuing dialogue in each country;
- networking between the countries.

The seminars emphasise the importance of the development of teacher and trainer training in VET reforms and projects.

Each participating team takes away from the seminar ideas that they can 'sow' when they return home, as inputs to national policy development and to forthcoming CARDS and other projects.

The VET teacher and trainer training network has an important role as a platform for the dissemination of both EU and local policy developments, reflection on innovative practices in the region and elsewhere, and the stimulation of development of shared projects. The

⁵⁰ In 1998 Cedefop created the training of trainers network (TTnet) as a community forum for communication, cooperation and expertise in the field of training for teachers and trainers of vocational education and training. This forum focuses on innovation and seeks to meet real needs from a 'market' perspective.

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network was set up in 2002 at a time when the CARDS Programme had not yet begun in the region. All participating countries and territories are now involved in VET reforms and members of the network have acquired considerable experience. The ETF network is therefore now developing into a 'community of practitioners'.

Open questions for discussion

Teaching has been subject to constant, varied pressure, both within the world of education and in the broader context of society, and has undergone progressive changes relating to various specific types of teachers. Reforms of the education systems of EU and partner countries during the past decade will place even greater emphasis on the professional autonomy of teachers. The reforms have introduced several elements that will affect the role of teachers and the nature and significance of the competences required to teach. Briefly, these elements are: increased autonomy for schools; an approach to learning that places the student at the heart of the learning process; a competence-based approach to programme design; a range of options of varying duration; and the policy of adapting VET schools to the needs of all students, whether young people or adults.

These challenges also exist in South Eastern Europe, though they are, of course, much more acute here. There are many different policy approaches, and the institutional structures of teacher education take a variety of forms. This is a particularly rich period for discussions concerning innovations in teaching and learning, and it is not possible to identify models of best practice. Rather than final conclusions being drawn, some key issues and trends that are being addressed in most European countries will be left open for future debate and dialogue.

Reforming VET teacher and trainer training programmes

A systematic effort to train teacher educators is a key strategy for tackling the challenges listed above. In order to renew teacher and trainer training programmes it is necessary to offer specific training to the teacher educators who will have to function

as agents of change. Seminars and training packages should encompass such subjects as: new learning processes and changed teacher roles; methods of activating students; observation of teaching and feedback; school-company links in teaching and learning; qualifications and competences; evaluation as a tool; and the development of a school culture. In programmes for upgrading the skills of experienced teacher educators, the pedagogic methods used and the learning environments established must upgrade action-reflection processes and employ student-motivating methods. As initial teacher education is largely provided by higher education institutions, the Bologna Process is of particular relevance in this work. The training of teacher educators cannot stand alone, but this is a cost-effective first step, and it is of paramount importance that teacher educators take ownership of pedagogic reforms the moment they are launched in a country. One fundamental weakness of foreign donor support has been the lack of emphasis on systemic VET teacher training reform. Most projects have focused on pilot approaches, while the involvement of teacher education institutions (universities and pedagogical institutes) has been neglected.

What would be the objectives, structure and methods of such a systematic development and retraining programme for experienced teacher educators, and could the example from the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia become a regional development project?

Bringing continuing teacher training closer to vocational teachers

The dominant model for continuing teacher and trainer training in South Eastern Europe is still almost totally supply-based: universities, faculties and methodological support centres offer training courses to vocational schools, either free of charge or on market terms. Existing provision procedures are only partially successful. Continuing vocational teacher training in particular is still focused on individuals rather than groups, and does not incorporate institutional and organisational

development. It risks creating individuals who, metaphorically speaking, return from their cultural island to a resistant mainland. Continuing teacher training is normally centrally determined and offered through a 'catalogue' from a national provider. More emphasis should be placed on demand-led training provision, either close to or within schools. Training needs assessments are still not carried out in most partner countries. Action-learning principles and on-the-job learning supported by external consultancy and the training of teachers and trainers in groups should be introduced. It is likely that genuine partnerships between training providers and vocational schools would emerge as a result. Feedback mechanisms would allow these experiences to be channelled back as important inputs to ordinary teacher and trainer training programmes.

What is the best way of initiating and supporting pilot projects in which, on an experimental basis, selected continuing training institutions start the training process by defining training needs in collaboration with teachers and heads of VET schools?

'Grassroots' innovative development work as a vehicle for developing new teacher roles

A characteristic feature of the tradition in the Nordic countries is that educational innovation to a large extent starts with school improvement projects in local schools. This contrasts with the situation in other European countries, where the focus is on scientific approaches and VET support institutions. However, the successful EC action programme Leonardo da Vinci is based on the Nordic model in its pilot project strand. This design has also been successfully tested in Slovenia with the 'Fund model', under the previously mentioned Phare MOCCA programme. Local development projects as an element in a strategy for pedagogical renewal are crucially important. The idea that content-related and pedagogical development must be based, in the main, on giving schools and teachers as free a hand as possible and supporting them with state funds without rigid control has great innovative potential. It would also be worthwhile trying out this strategy in the

partner countries: the CARDS VET reform experience demonstrates that schools and teachers are very well motivated to participate in school-based pilot projects. One advantage of local projects is that the pedagogical development of content and methods goes hand-in-hand with organisational development and the renewal of teacher qualifications. Pedagogical innovation that is organised as experimental project work must, of course, be an integral part of the vocational teacher and trainer training curriculum. But it is also a powerful instrument for developing individual VET schools.

Can nationally organised 'innovation funds' be piloted in South Eastern Europe to stimulate local school development work? Is this best financed from national state resources or as a component of an EU-funded CARDS project (as in Serbia)? What is the experience of grassroots initiatives?

Strategic school development

As radical decentralisation continues and a modern curriculum system is introduced, VET schools everywhere will change in the coming years. The roles, responsibilities and performance requirements of school head teachers will change as they move from following rules and regulations to acting with considerable freedom within a governance system that is close to the principle of 'management by objectives'. The new functions of a school 'leader' are crucial for the establishment of a school culture that nurtures innovation. The role of the school principal will in many ways resemble that of the director of a private company. However, this role will still be based on the ability to lead a pedagogical institution. This leadership role is by no means easy, and will need to be developed: teachers are professionals, and in some ways 'prima donnas', hence the need to develop abilities comparable to those of a conductor (teachers need to be orchestrated) rather than those of a traditional manager of a private company. New teacher and trainer roles cannot be separated from the development of the school organisation; the competence development of school principals appears to be a necessary first step.



4. SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE: INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES AND NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER TRAINING

How can strategic VET school development best be carried out in the South Eastern Europe region? What training initiatives exist for school principals as part of the reform process, and how can these be upgraded? As well as traditional management

development, do VET school principals have access to professionally developed support in relation to human resource development and change management for pedagogical processes and innovative school work? What more could be done?





5. IN-COMPANY TUTOR TRAINING ISSUES: THE MEDITERRANEAN PARTNER PERSPECTIVE

Borhène Chakroun

5

INTRODUCTION

In the context of the global economy, the dissemination of new technology and above all the arrival of the information society, education and training acquired in the formal education system, on the job or more informally are increasingly seen as major vehicles for improving competitiveness, boosting jobs and fostering self-fulfilment.

In Europe the concepts of a learning society, lifelong learning and work-based learning have emerged as key ideas in a number of important policy documents from the mid 1990s onwards. The European Commission White Paper on Education and Training, published in 1995, announced that 'the society of the future will therefore be a learning society' (European Commission, 1995, p. 2). More recently, within the framework of the Lisbon Process, the Council of the European Union and the European Commission

highlighted three priority areas for immediate further action in their joint interim report to the European Council adopted in February 2004: (i) focus reform and investment on the key areas for a knowledge-based society; (ii) establish a European area of education and training; and (iii) make lifelong learning a reality.

As well as an increased focus on lifelong learning, there has been an acknowledgment that the workplace is an important source of learning, and governments throughout the world are now introducing reforms to support the use of the workplace as a source of lifelong learning (Ashton and Sung, 2002).

The White Paper established the bringing together of schools and the business sector as a priority, and called for a change in the role of companies, from 'recruiter of trained individuals' to a 'major generator of knowledge and new know-how' (European Commission, 1995, p. 21). The White

Paper was a major factor in stimulating action, debate and research across Europe on the need to bring schools and the business sector closer together.

From the late 1990s, in the Mediterranean region as well as in many other ETF partner countries, the need to reform VET systems to align them more closely with the needs of the economy emerged as a major topic of government policy. Greater emphasis was also placed on new methodologies in which enterprises played a more important role, such as work-based learning and training. In the light of this it is evident that actors involved in the work-based learning process – primarily trainers and tutors – have a central role to play.

This chapter builds on discussions within the ETF focus group on VET teacher training, and particularly on the conclusions of the ETF project 'Innovative practices in teacher and trainer training in the Mediterranean region'. It examines key aspects of policies and practices in tutor training, with a particular focus on the experiences of countries covered by the MEDA Programme. The decision to focus primarily on tutors is linked to the growing role given to enterprises in the current national reform strategies in almost all partner countries. There is also an increasing awareness that improving enterprise-based training is linked, among other issues such as curricula design and monitoring of the learning process, to the quality of tutors. Finally, tutors are gradually gaining recognition as a subgroup of the teaching and training community (Cedefop, 2004).

This chapter will focus on the issues relating to enterprise-based training (dual and apprenticeship schemes) and on existing policies and practices for the training of tutors (as defined above) in the Mediterranean partners. It looks first at the context in which tutor training initiatives are embedded. Then it examines the issue of tutors' job descriptions, the institutions involved and the content of tutor training. It considers the factors that either help or hinder the development of tutor training. The last section examines the potential direction and developments of tutor training in a wider context.

VET REFORMS AND DEMANDS ON TUTOR TRAINING

The vocational education and training (VET) systems of the ETF's Mediterranean partner countries are in the process of change – they are 'in transition'. VET systems are being restructured in such a way that their initial objective is no longer to train young people rejected by the education system, but to provide the skills required by the economy and the individual in a lifelong learning context. Dialogue is being established with the production sector, and in some cases institutional arrangements are promoting a more active role for enterprises and their representatives in the design and steering of VET strategies. The reform agendas are giving enterprises and their representatives an increasing role in the delivery and assessment of VET services, particularly through the introduction and further expansion of workplace learning processes such as block-release training (alternance or dual systems) and continuing training schemes. This has led to problems regarding the quality of the training of trainees and apprentices in companies.

Tutors occupy a key position in the development of enterprises' ability to perform well in enterprise-based training. Hence, several Mediterranean partners are now paying particular attention to the role of tutors in the implementation and quality assurance of the training delivered in the workplace.

Who are the tutors?

There are often problems defining and delimiting the VET profession (Cedefop, 2004). This is the result of diversity in the organisation of the VET system. A distinction must be made between instructors, in-company trainers and tutors.

In most Mediterranean partner countries instructors usually work in VET institutions and enter the VET profession after graduating from higher education (Chakroun, ETF, 2003). In most cases they lack previous professional experience in the relevant sector. They provide theoretical and practical training in workshops.

5. IN-COMPANY TUTOR TRAINING ISSUES: THE MEDITERRANEAN PARTNER PERSPECTIVE

The in-company trainer is defined as the person providing training in companies. In large companies, and sometimes in medium-sized ones, the trainer is either an employee who is given the exclusive task of organising and implementing training in the training department or a part-time trainer selected for their expertise in the relevant field (Chakroun, ETF, 2002).

The tutor is an employee in a production department. In addition to professional activities as a worker, the tutor also guides apprentices and trainees during their fixed training period (as agreed with VET institutions).

The Tunisian Institute for Education Technology and Trainer Training (Centre National de Formation de Formateurs et d'Ingénierie de Formation) sets out five main duties for tutors: (i) welcoming apprentices and facilitating their integration; (ii) organising the training programme; (iii) passing on skills; (iv) assessing the skills and progress of apprentices; and (v) participating in the management of placements (Chakroun, ETF, 2002).

Within the framework of the pilot apprenticeship scheme developed by the ETF in Syria the tutor in an enterprise is defined as 'a technician with a university

degree or an experienced technician who is qualified in one of the specialisations of students' training within that enterprise' (Articles 32 and 42 of the Handbook of Procedures). The tutor is appointed by the firm and works with the supervisor at the VET institution to coordinate the delivery of the enterprise-based training. The duties of the tutor are to coordinate the setting up and evaluation of the apprentices' training plan; to implement the suggestions of the VET institution's management on the development of training to meet the needs of a changing labour market; and to act as the point of reference for apprentices in the company. In addition, the tutor must collaborate with the supervisor from the relevant VET institution on the formulation of executive measures for implementing the practical training plan. The variety of roles assigned to tutors suggests different levels of responsibility within companies.

The Moroccan Unit for the management of the expansion of the 'alternance' scheme (Unité de Gestion de l'Elargissement de la Formation Professionnelle Alternée) proposes three tutoring functions or levels (see Box 1). This approach considers tutoring to be a cross-departmental function involving different actors and different hierarchical levels.

Box 1: Tutor functions in Morocco		
Levels/Functions	Occupations	Responsibilities
Hierarchical Tutor	Top manager, Head of HR department, employer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Recruitment of apprentices/trainees ■ Overall organisation of training ■ Coordination of actors within a company ■ Relations with external actors (VET institutions, chambers or federations, and others)
Intermediate Tutor	Head of section, Head of unit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Organisation of training within the production department ■ Appointment of operational tutors ■ Facilitation of access to the workplace for apprentices/trainees, and introducing them to the staff
Operational Tutor	Worker, foreperson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Organisation of training at operational level ■ Training and supervision in the workplace ■ Assessment of the skills of the apprentices/trainees skills

In most Mediterranean partner countries the tutorial function is largely informal; the tutoring profession is unregulated in enterprises and is barely mentioned in VET regulations. In general it could be argued that the level of formalisation of enterprise-based training (apprenticeship and alternance) in each country determines to a large extent the degree of regulation of the tutoring profession and its responsibilities. Some Maghreb countries (Morocco and Tunisia) have developed comprehensive regulations on apprenticeship and alternance models that specify the roles and duties of the tutor within the scheme. In some Mashrek countries (Egypt and Syria) recent agreements between ministries in charge of VET and chambers or employers' organisations aim to develop and encourage the expansion of enterprise-based training, and at the same time to develop the role of tutors in the scheme. In the case of Syria, basic provisions have been defined in the handbook of procedures agreed by the Ministry of Education and the Chamber of Industry. This handbook also regulates the roles and responsibilities of the various actors in the scheme, including tutors.

Tutor training initiatives: What are they for? Who provides them, and how? What works, and why?

Many strategies and initiatives have either been planned or already undertaken for tutor training in different countries. However, despite their number, these have not been the result of a genuine strategic analysis of the problem of developing human resources. Tutor and trainer training is in fact only a small part of the strategy for developing vocational training, and particularly enterprise-based training. Initiatives mainly follow top-down approaches that are donor-driven, limited in scope and organised on ad hoc basis. Furthermore, there is still only limited involvement of and communication with the target groups on the planned reforms (such as the expansion of apprenticeship schemes and the development of continuing training and competence-based approaches) and their role within them.

Different types of institution are involved in tutor training; these range from fully

dedicated institutions in Morocco and Egypt to partnerships between teacher and trainer training institutions and VET centres in Tunisia. Tutor training in Syria is organised through ETF support to the Ministry of Education and the Chamber of Industry. The tutor trainers are often young and highly qualified academically, but in general have no experience of adult learning or workplace learning, and in some cases have no professional background within enterprises.

Tutor training courses are generally short, lasting two to five days. The content of the training covers three main fields: an introduction to VET systems and VET issues; communication and interpersonal relationships; and the tutor's role in apprenticeship schemes (see box 2). Thus tutor training lies not in the technical field, but in the area of social skills, learning techniques and organisational issues.

Although arrangements differ from country to country, the main model of tutor training mirrors to a large extent the teacher and trainer training model, with a major emphasis on pedagogical topics. According to ETF reports on teacher and trainer training in the Mediterranean partner countries, there is some doubt as to whether conventional teacher and trainer training formats are appropriate for meeting the challenges to be faced by national VET systems (Pair, 2003; Jameson, ETF, 2002; Chakroun, ETF, 2003). This raises the question of coherence and synergy between tutor training and teacher training. Furthermore, a radical review of teacher, trainer and tutor training and of professional development in general appears to be necessary for the Mediterranean partner countries.

Nevertheless, there are some rare examples of good practice to be mentioned and analysed. The Tunisian (see Box 3) and Moroccan experiences demonstrate that tutor training courses have more chance of success if social partners are involved in running them (Pair, 2003). In Egypt, within the framework of the Mubarek-Kohl project, the establishment of training institutions under the supervision of employers' federations in different industrial

5. IN-COMPANY TUTOR TRAINING ISSUES: THE MEDITERRANEAN PARTNER PERSPECTIVE

Box 2: Tutor training course content in Tunisia		
Modules	Objectives	Content
Module 1: Introduction to the VET system and apprenticeship scheme	To familiarise participants with the legal basis of the alternance and apprenticeship schemes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The national VET system ■ The legal basis for alternance and apprenticeship schemes
Module 2: Communication and interpersonal relationships in the tutor function	To enable participants to identify the actors involved in training, their roles, and the nature of the relationships between them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Identification of the actors involved in training ■ Role and duties of each actor ■ Tutor skills ■ Tutor profile
Module 3: Training responsibilities of tutors	To enable participants to use work situations as training situations and to assess students' learning outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Definition of competence ■ Process of acquiring a competence ■ Pedagogical approach to the acquisition of competence ■ Assessing the competences of trainees before, during and after training

zones has assisted in the development of the dual system and the involvement of enterprises and their staff.

What are the issues in tutor training?

The stocktaking exercise for teacher and trainer training in the Mediterranean region (ETF, 2003) indicates that tutor training initiatives are constrained by the following issues.

a) In most of the Mediterranean partners it has been difficult to assimilate the new requirements arising from the necessarily

increasing role of enterprises in the governance and delivery of VET. Training of tutors is not based on needs assessment but on supply-driven courses. Skills necessary for ensuring that enterprise-based training achieves a high level of quality are rare among tutors; these skills are not included in the tutors' short training course, if in fact they have undergone such training. It is no longer sufficient for tutors to possess professional skills: they also need educational, organisational and training management skills. These are necessary for the introduction of new

Box 3: Tutor training in Tunisia
The training of tutors in a partnership context
<p>The National Federation of the Hotel Industry has concluded a framework agreement with the National Centre for Trainer Training and Educational Science to train employees in the sector who are involved in supporting and training apprentices and in-service trainees. This was a need identified and expressed by the Federation in connection with its policy of developing the sector's human resources.</p> <p>This initiative has made it possible to involve both central (l'Agence Tunisienne de Formation Professionnelle (ATFP) and Centre National de Formation de Formateur et de l'Ingénierie de la Formation (CENAFFIF)) and regional departments (general directorate of vocational training and employment, directorates of the training centres in the hotel industry sector).</p> <p>The initiative is implemented in three stages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ preparation of the initiative and identification of requirements ■ delivery of training sessions ■ assessment of the training provided. <p>Eight seminars have been organised for 154 tutors, covering several training fields: cookery, pastry-making, restaurant management, room service and reception.</p>

programmes; the management, design and organisation of continuing training; and the evaluation and recognition of skills acquired within the working environment.

b) The role of enterprises in tutor training is still limited, and in most cases the training of tutors is not linked to the training agenda of enterprises. The role of companies and their representatives in the development of tutor training cannot be separated from their overall role in the steering, management and delivery of VET (initial and continuing). In all of the Mediterranean partner countries the active participation of enterprises and their representatives is currently constrained by several factors. First of all, organisations representing enterprises have relatively weak structures. Secondly, most enterprises (particularly SMEs) have no human resource development specialist, particularly in training. They have limited experience and understanding of human resource management, especially from the perspective of skills development. Third, until recently there was little or no exchange of experience between enterprises and the public vocational training system. Each system worked independently, within its own context, and the two did not interact (ETF, 2002, 2003).

c) The absence of professional and social recognition for tutors has resulted in them having only limited impact, and in the low quality of enterprise-based training. It also raises doubts about the capacity of enterprises to support VET reforms, particularly the planned expansion of work-based training. No amount of tutor training will make enterprise-based training more effective unless tutors are party to the process.

Employers and policymakers must offer genuine incentives to increase the motivation and well-being of tutors. The strategy for improving their capacity should take into account the key issue of attracting and retaining qualified workers. This issue must be addressed through mechanisms designed to improve both incentives and professional development opportunities for tutors. These topics are at the heart of the current international debate (Cedefop, 2004).

HOW SHOULD THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TUTORS BE ADDRESSED?

Previous sections have focused on the professional development of tutors through formal training within a specific region – that covered by the MEDA Programme. It is necessary to examine the professional development of tutors in a wider context, and in the light of research into learning in workplaces, particularly by teachers.

The OECD defines professional development for teachers as ‘any activity that develops an individual’s skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher. These include personal study and reflection as well as formal courses’ (OECD, 1998b, p. 18). However, while formal training courses are an important component of continuing professional development, they may represent only the tip of the iceberg in terms of lifelong learning and development (Ashton and Sung, 2002).

Such issues are at the heart of much of the current debate on teacher professionalism. As an example, research in France (Grangeat and Chakroun, 2005) revealed that the most effective factor in the improvement of teachers’ competences was the involvement of teachers in an interactive network dealing with professional problems. A study carried out in the United States by the National Center for Restructuring Education, Schools, and Teaching concluded that networking among teachers provided a new perspective on their professional development (OECD, 1998b).

Furthermore, literature on professional learning and development indicates that learning in the workplace is largely social in nature (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Jarvis, 1987). It focuses on the dynamic relationship between an individual learner and his or her participation in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). Thus the immersion of the tutor in a community of practice with peers and with school teachers (i.e. those in charge of enterprise-based schemes) could be an important

5. IN-COMPANY TUTOR TRAINING ISSUES: THE MEDITERRANEAN PARTNER PERSPECTIVE

instrument for mutual development and for the reshaping of learning arrangements.

The concept of communities of practice can offer new perspectives for the professional development of both tutors and teachers. It emphasises the necessity of establishing bridges between 'islands' of tutoring. It can also initiate a process through which learning arrangements organised in accordance with an 'educational logic' are linked, and to a certain extent benchmarked, with those following a 'production logic'.

Finally, it is important that tutors should be given the means to have their experience, skills and capabilities recognised. Developments in Europe in the validation of non-formal and informal learning could support this.

CONCLUSIONS

The previous section dealt in brief with the debate on tutor development in the context of lifelong learning and the increasing role of workplace learning. It was argued that conventional training approaches do not adequately equip tutors with the required skills. It was also stressed that tutor development should be used as an all-embracing term, to cover not only activities in which tutors are being 'taught', but those in which they are with their peers, teachers and others, developing new skills and knowledge.

The view was expressed that promoting the professional development of tutors is part of a wider drive to make the workplace a source of learning and knowledge development, and that its success depends on an effective partnership in which school teachers as well as tutors together learn to change the way they work.

The concept of a community of practice has been promoted above; this final section will explore the possible role that the ETF could play in fostering this approach within and between partner countries. The focus will be on networking, which has been widely discussed, and which appears to be of critical importance in facilitating participation in communities of practice.

During the past decade the ETF has supported the development of important networks such as the National Observatories and the Advisory Forum.

In developing its 2005 Work Programme, the ETF stressed the importance of networks in sharing expertise. The Work Programme states that 'international networks of stakeholders from different partner countries, EU Member States and other multilateral organisation give the opportunity to share expertise within and between countries and regions' (ETF, 2004c, p. 14). The ETF sees networks as a means to an end, rather than an end in themselves. Thus, networks focus on sharing experience and knowledge, and are organised in policy learning partnerships.

The ETF has fostered relationships between candidate countries in the field of teacher and trainer training through the Cedefop Training of Trainers Network (TTnet). In southern and eastern Europe the ETF is establishing a teacher and trainer network for the exchange of experiences on strategies and tools for new pedagogies in vocational teacher training.

Within the EC funded programme 'Education and Training for Employment' (ETE), the ETF will establish a regional teacher and trainer training network (TTT MEDNET) to support innovation in teaching and learning in the Mediterranean partner countries. TTT MEDNET has two complementary objectives: to create a platform for knowledge sharing and policy learning on teacher and trainer training; and to link actors and institutions in the Mediterranean region with European teacher and trainer training communities.

Finally, the networking approach should not be seen as the only way of addressing professional development issues in partner countries. Networks clearly have limitations, some related to the difficulty in establishing them, and others to their sustainability, and particularly the ability of partner countries to implement such approaches at national level. The ETE programme will offer greater insight into the challenges of establishing teacher and trainer training networks in the Mediterranean region.



6. THE NEW ROLE OF TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN EASTERN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA: PROFESSIONALS OR STAKEHOLDERS?

Xavier Matheu de Cortada

6

INTRODUCTION

This chapter analyses the role of teachers and trainers in the countries of the former Soviet Union. Education and training were greatly valued in Soviet times and were seen as important assets of the socialist system. Secondary level education developed into mass education, the greatest expansion by far being in vocational education, which served the needs of the planned economy by providing the numbers and types of specialists and skilled workers required by enterprises, based on their own – often inflated – needs for manpower. Graduates from schools were guaranteed a job, though not always of their own choosing. The education system also offered work to large numbers of teachers; teacher education institutions in fact formed the largest portion of the higher education system, and for the vast majority of

students, entering higher education meant becoming a teacher.

After 15 years of transition the education and training systems have undergone a complex process in which the relationship between industry and education institutions has changed completely. This has occurred in a context in which public expenditure has been significantly constrained, leading to cuts in the public budget, including education, and in which vocational education and training has not been a priority in the transition agenda in most of the countries concerned. The relatively privileged position of vocational education in the Soviet system was quickly taken over by the university system and by secondary general schools preparing students for access to universities.

As a consequence, the roles and status of teachers and trainers have radically

changed. Teachers and trainers are required to adapt to new situations and to develop their professionalism in a very different way to that which was expected before transition began. This new professionalism must take place in a changing environment characterised by the need for systemic reform of the VET system (with different stages, depending on the specific country situation). In countries where reform was characterised by bottom-up (pilot project) approaches, teachers and trainers have in many cases become real 'change agents' and to some extent, therefore, also stakeholders in the reform process. In countries that adopted top-down approaches, however, the role and involvement of teachers and trainers as stakeholders has often been neglected. Nevertheless, it is obvious that whatever the shape of the reform, sooner or later it must reach school level – the workshop, the laboratory or the classroom. There, together with students and trainees, teachers and trainers are the main protagonists. The active involvement of teachers and trainers as change agents might not be sufficient to ensure the success of VET reform, but it is certain that without such involvement, the success of any reform would be very unlikely, if not impossible.

This chapter will describe some examples of the changing roles of teachers and trainers in the countries of Eastern Europe and Central Asia against the background of changes in education. It will focus on Russia and Ukraine but will also include illustrations from other countries in the region.

A brief description of the teaching and training profession under the previous system is given, since it was common to all countries in the region. The chapter then identifies some of the changes that have taken place during the 15 years of transition, describes the main challenges and suggests how the role of teachers and trainers might develop to enable them to become system stakeholders. The final section presents some conclusions.

Teachers were well-respected and well-organised professionals

During the Soviet period teaching was a well-regarded profession. In the Soviet Union there were two types of teacher in vocational schools: teachers of general subjects and teachers of technical and vocational subjects. Teachers of general subjects were educated in universities or higher education institutes (VUZs). After graduation they could work in either general or vocational schools, as the general curricula in both types of school were practically identical. These teachers of general subjects often lacked the necessary practical knowledge and skills in relation to technical or vocational fields. The teachers of technical and vocational subjects were trained in technical and agricultural VUZs and followed a 4–5 year programme in one subject. Around 80% of student teachers studied to become vocational teachers and some of them, after completing their technical studies, graduated with a course-based pedagogical certificate from university. The high proportion of students studying to become VET teachers can be explained by the fact that the majority of secondary schools and students were vocational or technical, with the latter combining a professional qualification with a full secondary school certificate giving access to university entrance examinations.

The practical element of vocational education was provided by groups of 'masters', i.e. supervisors of practical training in workshops or within companies. While these trainers had skilled worker qualifications, and some had a few years of practical work experience, they had no pedagogical training whatsoever.

All teachers were formally required to undertake an in-service training course provided by a network of Teacher Qualification Retraining Institutes, at least once every five years. The training was related to the grading of teachers, which also occurred every five years: moving to the next grade was conditional on obtaining a certificate. These institutes were established in all republics and in every oblast of the Russian Federation, with the central institute located in Moscow.

6. THE NEW ROLE OF TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN EASTERN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA: PROFESSIONALS OR STAKEHOLDERS?

Furthermore, teachers attended regular seminars on pedagogical/didactic or technical subjects. There was also a well-developed system of Russian language journals and professional publications, which was used by teachers across the Soviet Union.

At the end of the 1990s the system of VET teacher training had remained almost unchanged in most of the region. In Russia, for example, there were three main groups of staff involved in specialised vocational subjects (Svärd-Ylilehto and Vassina, 1999).

- Teachers of special subjects taught the 'theory' of disciplines (for subjects such as special technology, electrical engineering, electronics and technological subjects in various branches of industry). Based on educational standards, these subjects consisted of theoretical lessons, practical lessons and laboratory work.
- Instructors ('masters') trained students in 'practice', either in school workshops or in enterprises. Practice in workshops consisted of a theoretical and a practical element. The theoretical element was a lesson delivered in a workshop, in which the instructor explained the theoretical background of concrete tasks, and such matters as relevant safety and protection rules. For the practical element the instructor assigned practical tasks to students, observed them and assessed the results. In enterprises the instructor was responsible for the organisation of the training, giving assistance to students and ensuring their attendance. Teachers and instructors in the same subject area were organised in methodological teams within schools. In enterprises instructors worked closely with other staff.
- In the majority of secondary vocational schools, and in some initial vocational schools, there were so-called 'methodologists', who were responsible for quality management in the study process, the development and design of teaching materials and teaching programmes, the implementation of new teaching technologies, and upgrading the qualifications of the teaching staff. If

a school had no methodologist, either a vice-principal or the head of the school's educational department was responsible for these activities. There were also methodological centres at regional or national level. Some countries in Central Asia shared one regional methodological centre.

The basic teaching qualification could be acquired in various ways. The minimum requirement was either secondary pedagogical or special vocational education in the relevant vocational area. For instructors this usually meant training in initial and secondary vocational schools, although some trained at technical schools or colleges, and some even completed higher education. Only a very small number of VET teachers of special subjects had also undertaken pedagogical training.

Further training for pedagogical qualifications was provided by both basic vocational education and further education institutions. Teachers of special subjects had difficulty obtaining pedagogical qualifications. These difficulties may be explained by the absence of any formal requirements for teachers, instructors and even methodologists to have such qualifications. As a result, further training is still the weakest element of staff training in vocational education.

Upgrading of qualifications was provided mainly by further education institutions and by centres or departments established for this purpose in institutions providing basic pedagogical or vocational education. Logically, it is only possible to upgrade an existing qualification. However, since there was often no opportunity for individuals to attain, for example, pedagogical competence, upgrading served as a replacement for this.

Teachers in VET improved their qualifications in two directions.

- As most VET staff were qualified in a particular vocational area, the upgrading of these qualifications was usually organised either through basic vocational institutions or within the industry.

- As most VET staff did not hold pedagogical qualifications, further training in these areas usually consisted of courses for improving pedagogical skills, though these did not lead to any pedagogical qualification.

Within the upgrading system the improvement of pedagogical qualifications existed separately from the improvement of vocational qualifications. As a result, there was an absence of training in practical teaching methods corresponding to specific vocational areas. Most further education institutions did not have contacts with industry; neither were they themselves able to provide training related to any vocational sector.

The types of teachers and trainers, the nature of initial and in-service training programmes and the range of providers of this training must be taken into account when analysing the present (and future) of the training and teaching professions. The actors and the institutional framework still remain almost the same, despite the projects and small-scale initiatives that some countries have implemented during the past few years.

Some recent changes in the status and roles of teachers and trainers

The declining status, material position and quality of teachers and trainers

At a conference of educational employees in Kazakhstan in February 2001, priorities for improving the situation of teachers and trainers were highlighted. These included the need to enhance both the social status and the role of the teacher in society, to reduce the teaching load and to improve salary conditions (ETF, 2002c).

As a range of OECD reports on education in Eastern European countries testify, the problem of low teacher salaries is at crisis point in the region, as a result of changed economic circumstances (Coolahan, 2002). Across the whole region there has been a steady trend towards an ageing workforce in teaching, a loss of better-qualified and promising teachers because of low salary levels, the low social standing of teaching as a profession, and only weak social

support for educational workers. The lack of attractiveness of VET, for both trainers and trainees, is a serious problem. The agenda for education reform is very extensive, but it is being seriously affected by the dispiriting conditions in which many teachers have to live and work.

Poor conditions and low salaries have created a negative image of the teaching profession. This has had a negative effect on motivation, and forced many teachers out of the profession. Teachers of English, mathematics and economics in particular, are attracted by positions outside the school system. Some VET institutions employ professionals, such as engineers, technologists and technicians, as teachers, despite their lack of professional and didactic skills. Teaching salaries are so low that it is very difficult to recruit new, well-trained teachers. This has led to a preponderance of older teachers, a latent problem for the longer term. Teachers who are still in the job face many problems, such as a lack of modern textbooks or textbooks in their own language, and out-of-date technical equipment.

The need for technical teachers who have narrow specialisations is reducing rapidly, but at the same time there is a shortage of teachers and trainers in new subjects such as marketing, computer science and technology. Often teachers have rather limited industrial experience, and therefore have difficulties adapting the content of a subject to new conditions. In general, teachers are unprepared for dealing with curriculum reform, and often demonstrate passive attitudes because of this. Combined with the lack of experience in building a democratic school management system, this hinders the introduction of new subjects and of up-to-date educational approaches and technologies into the education process. In most countries there are no financial resources or institutional capacities for changing this situation.

The pressure on teachers and trainers to cope with all the changes in society and to undergo intense professional development does not always sufficiently take into account their real situation (materially and socially). On many occasions, however, the commitment to and motivation for change and development among teachers and

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trainers, even in the face of poor conditions, has been noted by foreign observers (National Board of Education, 2003).

From delivering traditional teaching inputs to securing new learning outputs

Following the disintegration of the Soviet Union in the 1990s there was considerable uncertainty about which skills and competences should be produced by the VET system. Neither industry representatives nor the new entrepreneurs were able to identify and communicate their training needs; this information could have informed the ministries and schools of the knowledge and skills required by the labour market.

Nevertheless, the list of specialisations has been reduced in most of the countries in order to group existing narrowly defined professions into broader-based clusters. Most countries are developing a new 'classifier', the official register of professions for which recognised vocational education programmes exist. The number of entries on this list is much smaller than in previous classifiers. Employers have been involved to a limited extent in the definition of standards, though their role must be defined more precisely to reflect their general interests, in order to ensure that their engagement in VET becomes a long-term commitment.

Helping teachers and trainers to face the future challenges created by changes in both the labour market and the employment system thus remains the key issue. Moreover, the changing socio-economic context puts pressure on teachers to adapt to a different concept of education, and to become promoters of change themselves. Instead of being implementers and controllers of knowledge acquisition they must become facilitators of a student-centred learning process. Teachers must develop new patterns of communication and become familiar with new ideas, methodologies and ways of organising learning processes.

Teachers have become involved as stakeholders in curriculum development activities in the course of a number of pilot

schemes, often supported by donors. This approach has important advantages for the creation of a sense of ownership in the definition of new learning outputs for schools, as well as for the development of more user-friendly (for students and employers) learning and teaching methods. However, these efforts are in many cases neither coherently disseminated nor well integrated into the national system. Often they do not even reach down to the school level. Top-down approaches to curriculum development, engineered in methodological centres by educationalists, have not usually given teachers in schools a role in the identification of required learning outcomes, nor do they usually give teachers any autonomy in deciding how these learning outcomes are to be achieved.

The traditional view of learning outcomes in education has been to stress subject skills and knowledge. Today there are other issues to be taken into account, such as attitudes to work and fellow workers, methods of gaining insight from experience, the ability to learn, and the ability to make use of other peoples' skills and insights through cooperation and teamwork. The question is how can students acquire skills in cooperation and teamwork if the schools are organised on traditional hierarchical lines, with individual work and abilities alone being rewarded? The traditional way of organising education at most levels can be summarised in the following way: one room; one class; one lesson; one teacher; and one subject. If teachers have cooperated at all, the focus has seldom been across subjects, but rather on matters outside subject areas, such as social activities.

The organisation of learning processes has become decisive for what and how much students learn. In order to stimulate learning the focus must be on how the school is organised and how it is structured, in terms of its architecture, its teachers and classes, and its information technology.

Some examples of new ways of working in the classroom

Teachers and instructors in a number of schools in Ukraine (ETF, 2003b) are

working together in small subject teams to plan and implement the teaching of technical subjects. This is a highly commendable initiative, as the need for individuals to develop key occupational competences requires a better integration of general subjects and vocational theory and practice, and, hence, close cooperation between all vocational school teachers. This presents a radical departure from most of the current school practice: the teacher becomes part of a collective planning body and feels responsible, together with other teaching colleagues, for the (subject-independent) occupational competence development of an individual student. To achieve this goal, a great deal of school-based training for teachers and trainers is required. The school manager will be the central actor in this field, providing direction and leadership based on consensus, and 'orchestrating' the efforts of the teacher teams.

In the Russian Federation, teachers and instructors working in the same subject areas in a number of schools have formed methodological associations within education institutions, often in cooperation with the methodological specialists, who are responsible for managing the quality of the education process, developing course materials and syllabi, introducing new teaching technologies, and the professional development of teaching staff.

As a result of the reduction in the number of students in vocational schools, teachers in most of the region are obliged to double as trainers, teaching both theory and industrial practice. The paradox is that this adaptation to a shortfall in numbers has promoted an integration of both sides of teaching, introducing improvements in learning, in line with the new learning paradigm discussed in the introductory chapter⁵¹. The ministries, the education administration and VET teacher training institutions now consider tuition that separates theory and practice to have a negative effect on the quality of VET. During the North West Russia VET Reform project a new VET Teacher–Instructor Qualification was developed that focused

on the student as the most important stakeholder, since the student is the beneficiary of education (National Board of Education, 2003).

The Entrepreneurship in Education and Training (EET) project⁵² implemented in Russia and Ukraine is another example of an initiative that has proved very relevant to the needs of teachers. According to both teachers and students it has made teachers more responsive to individual student needs and has made the student the centre of attention; it has contributed to an improved atmosphere in the classroom through the use of creativity and problem solving, and has broken through the traditional barriers of reserve that previously separated students from teachers; it has increased the self-confidence and self-esteem of both students and teachers; and, it has provided teachers with new methodological tools that they can use in their work.

Working beyond the classroom

Schools must increasingly function as open learning environments in which teachers no longer work only with their immediate colleagues but also collaborate with the wider community, families, higher education institutions, social partners and colleagues from other schools at home and abroad. Such an open approach also relies on understanding the learning process, using interaction with others as a resource to provide information and knowledge that will contribute to students' learning. Visits to, or work placements in, factories where technologies studied in the school are used, opportunities to talk to experienced workers in the relevant trade or profession, and exchanges with other schools in the region or abroad can all be used as complementary (and motivating) tools to reinforce classroom teaching and learning. This also applies to strengthened relationships with parents.

Through these activities students develop the basic techniques of gathering, processing, using and sharing information;

⁵¹ See Chapter 1.

⁵² See Chapter 2.

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these techniques offer access to knowledge and the development of competences, both of which are elements of working life today. Students also develop skills and attitudes that will subsequently help them to find and keep a job. Information and communication technologies (ICTs) can provide valuable help in developing this approach, though the approach can also be organised without the aid of these technologies. It is a matter of rethinking how young people learn rather than a question of resources. While additional resources might help, understanding learning in a different way is a necessary condition.

All this has clear implications for the way teachers and trainers work and for their role in the learning process of students. When preparing lessons they must think in terms of creating learning experiences, including the best way of motivating students and facilitating the development of competences. It is no longer a question of lecturing in a particular subject but one of creating the conditions in which students can acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes.

There is increasing awareness across the whole region of the need for schools to establish links and networks with the local community, including parents, local business and industry, other public services and non-governmental organisations. In some countries there are examples of schools that have created these new links. Initiatives have been introduced in several countries that may assist schools to open up to their environment. However, it is not yet clear what the outcomes will be, nor whether these will support the objectives described previously.

In Ukraine, the Education–Ukraine XXI Programme (the Doctrine⁵³) sets out the overall guidelines for reform of the VET system, and states that the entire VET system should meet the needs of the labour market; that VET schools should engage in continuing vocational training; that VET schools can engage in income-generating activities; and that social partnerships should be developed.

Since 1991 school leaders in Moldova have been required to raise their own funds in order to finance their activities (ETF, 2004a). They must cooperate with local businesses through their own efforts; find training placements for their pupils; obtain suitable training equipment; find jobs for school leavers; be innovative in finding new unemployed clients through the employment service; identify individuals and companies interested in retraining; and adapt training and teaching methods for these groups of adults, who have different requirements from young people. Not all school leaders are equipped for this, and there is no national strategy for helping them to adjust. Despite their generally unfavourable environment, a number of schools have adjusted very well to the difficult conditions of transition. Through their own efforts they have radically changed their profiles and established links with employers, thus offering their students much-needed practical training and a strong possibility of employment following graduation. Cooperation with the employment service has begun in some regions, and the schools are addressing the needs of adults by offering them short retraining and skills upgrading courses. VET schools, employment agencies, relevant ministries and social partners are giving a great deal of attention to the reform of the VET system, and it has thus become more relevant and is providing opportunities for the existing labour force. Moves to modernise the relevant legislation have also begun in Moldova.

The Entrepreneurship in Education and Training (EET) project implemented in Russia and Ukraine has targeted the skills and competences required by school administrators. It has emphasised the need for cultural and organisational change in order to develop the school as a business in a market economy rather than through a command-economy management style. This calls for consultative decision-making, the ability to analyse the financial or business impact of decisions, and the necessity of working with diverse ‘customer’ and stakeholder groups. Furthermore, it has become clear that administrators as individuals must become

⁵³ National Doctrine for Development of Education in Ukraine in the XXIst Century. The Doctrine was approved by Presidential Decree No 347/2002 on 17 April 2002.

more aware of the needs of students and employers in order to adapt their curricula, services and provision. Evidence from the project shows that administrators themselves have been able to adapt. For instance, many have become more sensitive to the demands of students, which might previously have been seen as having a low priority compared to the need to comply with educational standards. This is illustrated by the interest shown by school administrators in promoting school competitions, as well as in promoting their schools to wider audiences.

However, the opening up of schools is not merely a management issue (involving only the principal and the overall relationship of the school with the local community, in order to adapt the training provision to employers' needs). It goes far beyond this, and also affects what is taught and learned in the school, and the methods used.

The same applies to the organisation of the school. Strategic school development requires a new division of work between managers and teaching staff. In order to facilitate these developments, the teacher and trainer role can no longer be limited to the classroom; instead, the role also includes collective responsibility for curriculum and school organisation.

ICT in learning situations and professional practice

In addition to the challenges already described, Eastern Europe and Central Asia also face the threat that the digital divide will become yet another dividing line separating their present situation from that of other transition countries.

ICT is an increasingly powerful tool for facilitating participation in global markets; promoting political accountability; improving the delivery of basic services; and enhancing local development opportunities (World Bank, 2002). Without innovative ICT policies many people in developing and transition countries, especially poor people, will be left behind. However, the ability of any society to absorb ICT depends not only on the actual introduction of the technology and the computer and Internet literacy of

individuals. The educational attainment of the majority of the population seems to play a far more significant role in determining the impact and potentiality of these technologies in the development of the knowledge society. Thus, the key issue is not simply knowing how to use computers, but knowing how to use ICT for exploiting and developing knowledge as a multiplying economic factor, increasing productivity and added value in the production of goods and services.

The relatively high levels of education achieved in the region during Soviet times (in comparison with other countries with similar GDP per capita) have in principle created a good starting position. However, the neglect suffered by VET systems across most of the region during the 1990s could have limited this potential.

Introducing the use of ICT into training activities requires incentives, training and support to teachers and trainers (Bates, 2000). Training must cover the development of competences for on-line training, innovation, team leadership and networking. It is crucial that trainers are made aware of the importance of these new roles and that they are engaged as change agents in the processes that result from the introduction of ICT. Support systems must be established to give advice, both before and during the training process, on where activities should be concentrated, and to help to identify those tasks for which the introduction of ICT can bring higher added value in terms of learning.

The drive to reform teaching and the organisation of the teaching and learning process in schools is aided by ICT, which often stimulates additional reform and innovations. Although ICT on its own rarely acts as a catalyst for change, it can be a powerful tool for achieving planned educational innovations (Carnoy, 2004). Which changes in the work process in schools are most facilitated by ICT? One of the most important ways that ICT changes the work of students and teachers in schools is by creating new networking possibilities, both directly with other schools and indirectly to databases on the world wide web.

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ICT can change the work of students and teachers in terms of both teaching and learning. Given ready access to computers, and teachers who are trained in their use, students can carry out much of their schoolwork using web resources, preparing written work on their computers, and consulting special databases and learning software. Teachers can also use databases to obtain lesson plans, interact with other teachers to share teaching ideas, and help students to become more self-sufficient and creative in their schoolwork.

An OECD study described many schools in which substantial changes in the practice of teaching were facilitated using ICT, though the changes were the result of conscious reforms rather than the result of introducing ICT per se (Venezky and Cassandra, 2002). The main advantage of using computers and other media is that they allow different subjects to be presented in a variety of ways, and thereby motivate students to be active in the learning process, through process-oriented learning, problem-based learning and project-based learning (Johannessen, 2002).

In partner countries it is often the case that donor intervention in the field of ICT and training simply consists of providing schools with computers. There is seldom a coherent strategy for optimising their potential as a tool for teaching, learning and working in a very different way or for building a learning organisation. Even when the most modern computers are supplied (which it is not always the case in partner countries), many schools and training centres fail to meet the challenge of reinventing themselves through the new instructional technologies (OECD, 2004e).

Another explanation for the lack of impact of computers in schools is that new ICTs have not always fundamentally altered the structural components of core teaching activities because these are considered to be unchangeable. Thus, ICT remains at the periphery of classrooms, isolated in special laboratories and hence 'easily assimilated' because its adoption does not provoke fundamental structural changes.

PROFESSIONALISATION STRATEGIES: EXAMPLES FROM EASTERN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA

The European Commission stated recently that the success of the reforms undertaken in EU countries hinges directly on the quality of the training and the motivation of education and training staff (European Commission, 2003a). In order to maintain staffing levels in teaching in the years ahead and to cope with a shortage of recruits, steps must be taken to attract the most talented individuals to the teacher and trainer professions, and to keep them there.

The current situation in Eastern Europe and Central Asia looks rather bleak. In the Ukraine⁵⁴, for example, the teacher appraisal and career progression system does not provide sufficient incentives for teachers to be innovative or to upgrade their skills continuously (ETF, 2003b). One reason for this could be that there are only minor differences between the salaries of junior teachers and those of more experienced teachers. Moreover, in many cases newly acquired skills cannot be immediately applied in practice because of the poor conditions in schools and the limited resources for new textbooks and other teaching aids.

Many professionals, especially those with practical skills, leave the teaching profession for better-paid jobs in industry. Furthermore, over the past five to eight years it has been difficult to recruit new teachers and instructors into the system and, as a consequence, there has been a shortage of teaching staff in the VET system. The Ministry of Education and Science estimates that vacancy levels in VET schools are 15% for instructors and 9% for teachers (both general and technical subject teachers). The teaching force that remains is ageing, finds it increasingly difficult to cope with the prevailing conditions, and shows signs of 'reform fatigue'. Increasing criminality and alcohol and drug abuse among the students add to the difficulty of working as

⁵⁴ Ukraine is presented as an example here because the VET teacher training system is so well documented.

a teacher. In such an environment, where teaching and learning are not enjoyable and where social problems overshadow the teacher's primary task, it is very difficult to motivate teachers and introduce new, modern forms of learning. Again, however, initiatives to improve the situation are underway.

Pre-service training of VET teachers and trainers

The principal problem with training for VET teachers and instructors in Ukraine is that the various disciplines, including psychology, (vocational) pedagogy, and engineering and technical disciplines, are seen as separate rather than integrated fields. A holistic VET teacher training system cannot be said to exist, as students read such subjects in parallel rather than applying psychological or pedagogical concepts directly to the teaching of technical disciplines. Thus, an important element is missing from VET teacher training: the didactics and methodologies of specific vocational subjects. Furthermore, there is no common standard for VET teachers on which training curricula could be based; teacher educators themselves lack the necessary expertise in VET; and there is an absence of adequate, well-structured and supervised teaching practice in real-life contexts during both the academic pre-service training of VET teachers and subsequently when they enter the profession. Hence, teachers are ill prepared for working with their students to develop the necessary competences to operate in different, highly challenging and ever-changing work situations.

In an effort to modernise the learning process, postgraduate pedagogical studies for VET teachers and the pedagogical training of instructors⁵⁵ have recently been given attention.

VET teachers see psychological and pedagogical competences as particularly important in the mastery of their profession. Although the programmes offered by the various pedagogical academies, colleges and university faculties involved in teacher training vary considerably in terms of types

of subjects and number of lessons, they all include subjects dealing with teaching or learning methods specifically related to VET. However, it is not clear by which methods these subjects are taught (it is assumed that this is done in the traditional way practised in higher education in general, i.e. through ex-cathedra lectures rather than applying active methods of learning). Nor is it clear to what extent these subjects lend themselves to the development of sound technical and methodological competence in VET teachers. Future projects to upgrade pre-service VET teacher training programmes could certainly include these subjects.

Existing VET teacher training curricula do not prepare teachers sufficiently for innovative practice. Nor do they develop young teachers' confidence in their own abilities by helping them to become active and independent, while solving pedagogical problems and mastering their VET specialisation. However, both the Pedagogical College in Kiev and Podillya Technical University offer a course entitled 'Elements of pedagogical creative work', an interesting initiative that other teacher training institutions could copy.

Despite the practical training they involve, pre-service (VET) teacher training programmes overall appear to be rather 'science-driven' and aimed at developing (theoretical) knowledge rather than (practical) competence. They rarely apply active types of learning, and hence the student teachers themselves do not develop sufficient proficiency in such learning methods. The study suggests the need for a more intensive use of interactive methods, including project-based assignments. It presents a long list of competences that a VET teacher should master, divided into psychological and pedagogical areas; the latter includes carrying out research and designing textbooks and teaching aids, as well as skills relating to both strategic management of VET institutions and labour market research.

Many teachers at vocational schools in Moldova are graduates of technical higher

⁵⁵ National Observatory of Ukraine (2002).

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education institutions who have undertaken only short-term pedagogical training before teaching. Some have come directly from industry, while others are university graduates who teach general cultural subjects at polyvalent or trade schools.

In Belarus, a new tertiary-level college is currently being established. This will be a non-university education institution running a four-year course that will offer trade specialists a new qualification. The intention is to facilitate the shift from an information imparting teaching model to a teaching process based on evolving training that is centred on the individual.

Georgia's teacher training curriculum requires updating in line with the widening of the role of teachers in the new economic environment, since they must now teach not only professional skills but also professional culture. They must work in closer cooperation with their students, develop their entrepreneurial skills and evaluate their professional knowledge. Teachers must also teach their students to access information independently, analyse information, solve problems and thereby show initiative.

In-service training for VET teachers and trainers

Currently the dominant in-service teacher training model is supply-based: training institutes establish the list and contents of the courses on offer, usually without conducting adequate (individualised) teacher training needs analyses. Training provision follows a subject-based approach and is mostly of short duration. It is focused on individuals rather than groups, and does not incorporate institutional and organisational development of the schools in question.

There is a danger that this approach will create individuals who, metaphorically speaking, return from their cultural island to a resistant mainland where it is almost impossible to implement what has been learned.

In Ukraine, despite the fact that all teachers are legally obliged to attend regular training

events at specialist institutes, this is no longer common practice, mainly for reasons of cost. Moreover, it is not possible to spend much time on training activities because of current staffing levels in VET and the fact that the existing teaching workforce must cover extra lessons (ETF, 2003b).

A similar conclusion was expressed at the teacher training conference in Tashkent (11 June 2002), at which it was noted that upgrading courses offered by universities have no impact on the daily activities of teachers, since university teachers lack enterprise-based experience and are unfamiliar with the daily life of vocational schools. It was also suggested that training funds should be allocated to vocational schools rather than to universities, allowing them to choose appropriate training providers. Programmes relating to the training of teachers assume the involvement of other specialists in teaching, but variable fees and the absence of other incentives have hindered such involvement⁵⁶.

The limitations of providing in-service training at universities are also demonstrated by cases such as the Teacher Training, Curriculum Development and Secondary Department at the Technical University of Moldova, which was created under the Tacis project for reform of the Moldovan VET system. It has had only limited effectiveness as a result of poor financial resources, a lack of human resources and an unclear legal status. As a consequence many teachers still have skills that are obsolete, management at VET schools is sometimes inadequate, and the teaching methods used cannot guarantee that the pupils gain the required skills. These factors combine to make school leavers ill equipped for the labour market (ETF, 2004a).

Similar conclusions can be drawn from cases in Belarus and Georgia, where central and regional branches of specialist institutes were unable to meet the continuing training needs of teachers and

⁵⁶ ETF Stocktaking report on Uzbekistan, ETF, 2002.

trainers. In-service teacher training is now funded mainly from local budgets or by teachers themselves⁵⁷.

The need for in-service training greatly exceeds the available resources of existing institutions. On the other hand it is clear that teachers cannot adjust to new teaching challenges if learning opportunities are not provided. The Ukrainian Ministry of Education and Science began to address this problem by launching, with the help of international donors, a series of small-scale pilot projects. Vocational schools with the necessary expertise and resources within one or more occupational fields were selected to become 'model schools' and to provide in-service training for other schools. The aim was to supplement existing in-service teacher training schemes with a system that was (i) school-based and, hence, responsive to the needs of teachers (and local employers), and (ii) more sustainable from a financial point of view. Local capabilities and an understanding of approaches to curriculum development are available within the VET system, albeit spread over a number of VET schools and institutions. These experiences should be utilised in order to develop a national curriculum approach (ETF, 2003b).

A good example of an initiative aimed at developing the curriculum for teachers and trainers is that of the North West Russia VET Reform project (National Board of Education, 2003). The main activities were the development of new job profiles based on the results of labour market assessment; curriculum development for the new job profiles; the development of teaching and learning materials; teacher training; and management training. These activities were undertaken at the sectoral level and disseminated through joint workshops between sectors as well as to new schools in the regions, to new regions

and also to other New Independent States. This was accomplished by training a group of disseminators for each of the six themes of the project (labour market assessment, curriculum development, VET regional development, continuing training, teacher training and school management training) and by further developing the themes within the new schools and regions.

CONCLUSIONS

Following the transition process experienced by Eastern Europe and Central Asia over the past 15 years, the role and practice of teaching and learning need to be adapted to the new situation. During the 1990s, the education system, and particularly the VET element, suffered from very serious financial constraints, a worsening of teachers' working conditions, and a decline in the attractiveness of schools and the teaching profession in the eyes of their potential users and customers (students, employers and society as a whole). These conditions help to explain the gap between the changes actually introduced in teaching and learning in the region and those in place in countries of the European Education Area.

The new roles and competences identified by the Education and Training 2010 Working Group on 'improving the education of teachers and trainers' are all relevant for the systemic reform of VET in Eastern Europe and Central Asia⁵⁸. They refer to changes in the teaching and learning profession in relation to developments and trends towards globalisation and the knowledge society. They require teachers and trainers to act as professionals, both in terms of the quality and efficiency of their contribution to the achievement of learning outcomes and as responsible professionals committed to their own career development within a lifelong learning context. Sooner or

⁵⁷ ETF Stocktaking report on Belarus, ETF, 2001; ETF Stocktaking report on Georgia, ETF, 2002.

⁵⁸ Promoting new learning outcomes; working in restructured ways in the classroom; working 'beyond the classroom'; integrating ICT into formal learning situations and into all professional practice, and acting as professionals.

See: 'Draft joint interim report on the implementation of the detailed work programme on the follow-up of the objectives of education and training systems in Europe. "Education & Training 2010" The success of the Lisbon strategy hinges on urgent reforms', Brussels, 11.11.2003 COM(2003) 685 final, European Commission, 2003.

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later, depending on the situation in each country, teachers and trainers must develop such professionalism. In implementing such an agenda each country needs to be aware of the developments in neighbouring countries, since most of them aspire to increased integration with the EU and since the EU aspires to become a world authority on education and training.

However, reform in the region has its own wider agenda. This includes several elements that were implemented some years ago in the EU: improving the governance, management and administration of the system; developing quality assurance mechanisms and ensuring equal access to education and training; developing curricula and promoting innovation in learning and teaching methods; developing policies and structures in order to establish the principle of lifelong learning and to organise the resulting qualifications according to the needs of individuals and employers; and involving the various stakeholders, including social partners and community organisations, in the planning, management, delivery and evaluation functions of the education and training system.

Examples such as the North West Russia VET Reform project and the pilot project aimed at introducing entrepreneurship into pilot schools immersed in reform processes show the synergy that can be gained by adding (new) innovation goals to an

environment already experiencing significant change. Despite the deteriorating working conditions of teachers and trainers in all the countries, the level of involvement and motivation of the teachers participating in pilot projects has been very high. Involving teachers as change agents in schools has been successful in several cases. Increasing the role of teachers as stakeholders in education and training reform, particularly in bottom-up pilot projects, is an effective way of increasing the sense of ownership of the reform outcomes among teachers, and an incentive to improve the teaching and learning processes in schools.

But the risk of making too many demands on schools, and particularly teachers and trainers, must be seriously born in mind. The complexity and constraints faced by reform initiatives in most of the countries make it necessary to think in time periods of between five and ten years, and perhaps longer. In this context the change agent approach among teachers can be successful within the short timescale of a pilot project, but becomes insufficient and unsustainable in processes requiring longer periods of time. Such an approach must then be reinforced through top-down initiatives that favour change and innovation.

Whatever the direction, speed and intensity of the changes, teacher and trainer training, both initial and in-service, clearly needs to be reinforced as a major instrument in the success of the reforms.



7. TEACHERS AND TRAINERS IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING: A NEED FOR REPROFESSIONALISATION

Peter de Rooij

7

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is based on the curious lack of attention given to teachers and trainers as a key group for achieving the ambitious goals set out for our modern knowledge society. It is not only in the reform of education in transition countries that we may have neglected the crucial role of teachers and trainers, the human resource base for any innovation. Why is this the case, and what can we learn about upgrading the role of the teaching profession?

The change from an agriculture and industry based society to a service and knowledge based one goes hand in hand with the introduction of new technologies, in particular in the fields of communication and information. Strong social and economic dynamism has been accompanied by increased international competition and a growing division of labour at a global level. This applies to

developed countries all over the world, as well as in Eastern and South Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. Changes in work have created new competence and qualification needs. There is now greater emphasis on flexibility and on core competences such as the ability and motivation to learn. This also means an increased emphasis on learning rather than teaching. The former communist countries had to face additional fundamental changes in moving from centrally planned to market economies.

In order to keep up with this pace of change, citizens need a broad variety of knowledge and competences that should be adapted and updated continuously over time: lifelong learning has become a prerequisite for the functioning of a knowledge-based society characterised by continuous innovation. The EU adopted the so-called Lisbon process and an accompanying lifelong learning policy at the highest level in spring 2000, but

underestimated the difficulties in implementing the fundamental changes that these would require at the level of institutions in the EU Member States⁵⁹.

Rapid changes in society and the economy, and in the requirements of citizens and skilled workers who have to function in this ever-changing environment, inevitably have an impact on the content and structure of education and training. They necessarily influence the role and functioning of schools, the development of new types of education and training providers, and last but not least, the role and functioning of teachers and other staff within education and training institutions, as well as the way they must be trained for their profession.

This chapter starts with a general discussion, first describing the changed social status of teachers over time, and going on to discuss the relatively complicated nature of a revision of the system of vocational teacher training. In order to illustrate the current challenges faced in terms of policies and concrete strategies for teacher training reforms, two national examples, from the Netherlands and Finland, are presented in more detail. Two international examples, from the OECD and the EU, are also discussed. Based on findings from earlier analysis and development work carried out by the ETF, the chapter concludes with a proposed reform strategy for VET teacher training in countries in transition, and argues that a concentrated and more inclusive effort is required in this field if the Lisbon strategy is to succeed.

REPROFESSIONALISING THE TEACHING PROFESSION

While the demands on teachers are increasing, the teaching profession itself is facing a crisis. The average age of teachers is relatively high in most countries of the European continent. Outflow during the coming decades will not be matched by the entrance of sufficient numbers of young graduates, because of demography and

the decrease in interest in the profession from young people. Poor image and status, the perceived heavy workload, comparatively low salaries and the existence of more attractive opportunities elsewhere could combine to create serious teacher shortages.

As a group of salaried professionals, teachers should hold or re-establish a level of what Blau and Scott called 'self-determination by the colleague group as a crucial characteristic of profession' (Blau and Scott, 1963, p. 63). The level of professional autonomy differs from profession to profession and depends on the value ascribed by society to tasks fulfilled by the group of professionals in a certain period. The process of the 'deprofessionalisation' of many traditional professions over the past 50 years in European society has also had a significant impact on teachers. This process in the teaching profession is related to the increasing levels of educational attainment in society, the growing percentage of an age cohort with post-secondary or higher education diplomas, and the ease of access to all kinds of information and knowledge other than through school or formal education in general. On top of this, and as a consequence, the teaching profession has lost its important role as a mechanism for upward social mobility that it had during the first 70 years of the 20th century. This was part of the attraction of the profession for young students from working and middle class family backgrounds. Moreover, while the teaching profession previously promised a secure civil service job in the public sector, recent changes in government spending, cuts in public sector expenditure and frequent changes in education policies have placed additional external strain on it⁶⁰.

In order to create the necessary dynamics for innovation in the teaching profession, teachers themselves must collectively regain control over the content of their roles and tasks in the new context of lifelong learning and competence-based learning approaches. Such a collective strategy

⁵⁹ Council of European Union Educ. 27, 6365/02.

⁶⁰ See also Chapters 1 and 4.

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could be directed towards re-establishing a modernised profession that facilitates learning as its main service to society, which would increase its legitimacy. Acceptance in and by society – explicitly confirmed by governments at national and international level – of the great importance of this role and of the value of the specific skills and knowledge of the modern teacher to support active learning processes, may be a prerequisite for enabling individual citizens to be qualified to function in a knowledge-based society. But in order to serve the needs of citizens in the 21st century, the transformed teaching profession should focus on other roles than the transfer of encyclopaedic knowledge and skills.

Collective action by teachers as a body in an ongoing process of change is needed in order to establish this new paradigm for their functioning. Such a change has a direct consequence for the training of teachers and trainers. Teachers will need to be equipped with a new basic body of abstract knowledge, a variety of new skills and a new service-oriented approach with a focus on facilitating the learning process of individual learners. All this could and should re-establish the image, status and attractiveness of the profession. Teachers would once again be crucial for the development of the workforce in a knowledge-based economy, as well as for the preparation of active citizens in an inclusive society.

This applies to teachers in general, but in particular to VET teachers. An additional set of measures that would improve the situation for VET is to recruit individuals, on either a part-time or full-time basis, directly from industry or from other sectors linked to particular fields of study, to be involved in the more practical aspects of learning in VET. A further differentiation of the several roles of teachers and support staff could also make the profession more interesting: assistants, IT experts, tutors, counsellors, mentors and experts supporting practical work could be distinguished from the more direct design and facilitation of the learning process. The latter could become the core activity of the most experienced and qualified teachers. The design of learning arrangements and the facilitation of

learning processes should become even more interesting if new didactic approaches, linked to competence-based learning, are introduced and their effects evaluated systematically.

VET is characterised by more and closer links with its environment than those in general (post-) secondary education or education at universities, and by a greater variety of learning mechanisms. This could make jobs in VET schools more attractive and create opportunities for internal mobility and career development, opportunities that do not currently exist. These positive features could influence young people when they select their field of study, and this in turn could also have a positive impact on the quality of the students recruited to teacher training institutions. Finally, an active lifelong learning policy for teachers could directly contribute to an increase in the quality and attractiveness of the profession. The relevance of the learning process within VET programmes would also benefit from this. A close and intensive relationship between VET schools and their local and regional environment should facilitate this process and create a win-win situation.

The greater complexity and variety of functions and the existence of different types of staff supporting the teaching and learning processes will create the need for a change in coordination, planning and management. VET schools need to develop a more modern approach to the organisation of labour, and must become part of a network of professionals. This could make the role of school managers more attractive, though there is also a price to be paid in the shape of a heavier coordination workload that inevitably accompanies greater differentiation within an organisation. However, the image of the profession will improve considerably, as will the position and impact of the functioning of teachers.

INNOVATING THE TEACHER TRAINING SYSTEM

The training of teachers and trainers needs to be reformed as a consequence of the

new learning paradigm that focuses on active learning. The Dutch researcher P.J. Teune describes the complex process of change that is necessary for the implementation of new theories and approaches in competence-based learning in the practicalities of teacher training (Teune, 2004). He stresses in particular the importance of learning within the reality of (post-) secondary (VET) schools and the new position of these schools in teacher training. In this way, future teachers could better prepare themselves for working with more diverse groups of students and for curricula that are in a process of continuous change and adaptation to new requirements from enterprises and society as a whole.

Teacher training was in the past based on the transfer of knowledge in a primarily theoretical situation, sometimes supplemented with practical simulations. Competence-based learning creates a close link between theoretical concepts and practical experiences within the reality of the classroom (Teune, 2004, p. 40). A problem-oriented structure in curricula activates the learning process and is a more effective preparation for working life, since it bridges the gap between theory and practice. Teune stresses that this also has an impact on the content and function of traditional 'practical work': this is no longer the place where one simply applies what has been learned previously at school, but a self-contained learning situation with specific processes, in a realistic working environment with real problems that mirror the situation in a future job (Teune, 2004, p. 63). Indeed, this should be seen as a fundamental and complex change, with a more active role for learners, shaping their own learning process in a realistic context. However, such a context must be clearly structured for the learner, who could otherwise easily get lost⁶¹.

Governments should play a key role in stimulating innovation in teacher training and in establishing its main direction and

strategy for change. But it is important to realise that for professionals such as those who educate teachers and trainers 'the less teachers are involved in the decision-making process, the lower their acceptance of and support for the innovation and the lower their morale regarding the adoption of innovation'⁶². Governments should therefore stimulate the active involvement of teachers as a professional group and support the institutionalisation of the 'modern teacher' role as a crucial tool for the functioning of the knowledge-based society. This should clearly be kept in mind for all development of new policies at national and international level.

TEACHER EDUCATION AT NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL LEVEL

The content and structure of teacher training in general, and also for VET, have traditionally been determined by national governments. Problems with teachers and the quality of the profession, the ageing profile, and the shortage of teachers as a result of demography and poor image are nowadays the subject of analysis and policy documents at national level in many countries. The following examples describe the national experiences of the Netherlands and Finland; descriptions of discussions within the EU and the OECD are included as international examples.

The Netherlands

A total of 17 policy documents on teacher training in general were published at national level in the Netherlands between 1999 and the end of 2003; this is an indication of the attention that has been given to the topic (Teune, 2004, p. 85). Nevertheless, Teune is not very positive about the results of Dutch national policy (Teune, 2004, pp. 97-98). In the change from supply to demand-driven curricula, for example, no clear role for schools in the education of teachers has yet been

⁶¹ Teune quotes Ellsworth (2000), p. 2, on problems with innovation in the environment of education and training organisations: 'Success depends on a coordinated "bundle" of innovations – generally affecting several groups of stakeholders – that result in a coherent system after implementation.'

⁶² Quoted by Teune from Kao, Wedman and Placier (1995), p. 208.

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identified or realised. However, this would have been a logical consequence of choosing curricula centred on competence-based learning.

While some changes have taken place at the level of teacher training institutions, these have had little impact on the way that educators in these institutes function in practice. Furthermore, the institutes have had no involvement whatsoever in the decision-making process relating to the 17 policy documents (Teune, 2004, p. 129). The Dutch–Flemish Accreditation Organisation is reported to hold negative opinions (February 2005) about the quality of 18 out of 39 institutes for the training of primary teachers in the Netherlands. This has recently created a new interest in the topic, including discussions of the pros and cons of specialist teachers for specific groups of pupils and students. The difficulties for students who have to find their way in a competence-based learning environment and the role that teachers should or could play in that process have been discussed in the press. The topic of ‘teachers’ seems to be a matter of public debate once again, although strong political support for ‘reprofessionalisation’ is still absent.

Young students enter teacher training institutions with rather traditional conceptions of and opinions on education and training. These are based upon their own experiences at primary and secondary schools (Teune, 2004, p. 162). A change in attitude in favour of competence-based learning would only be possible, therefore, if students can themselves function and learn in a competence-based learning environment, right from the beginning of their studies (Teune, 2004, p. 129).

It is essential to break this vicious circle urgently. The lesson learned from this example, in a country that scores highly in international education system rankings, is the importance of good links between bottom-up and top-down approaches and of the strong involvement of all key players in the process of fundamental change both in teacher training and in education and training in general.

OECD

The OECD has been the *auctor intellectualis* of the PISA⁶³ approach since 1997 and focuses attention on teachers and teacher training in several of its activities. The recent PISA 2003 study indicates that the behaviour of teachers and their interest in pupils has a significant impact on results: ‘schools can benefit from emphasising not just instructional techniques but the ways in which teachers relate to students’ (OECD, 2004c, p. 257 and 266). Committed teachers who create an orderly climate in schools are important factors in the educational success of pupils.

In March 2004 education ministers from OECD countries met in Dublin to debate ways in which they could improve the quality and equality of their education systems. An important theme for discussion and resolution was ‘Improving Teacher Supply and Effectiveness’ (OECD, 2004d). Ministers noted that placing emphasis on strategies and approaches for teaching diverse groups of learners through highly individualised learning processes would have profound consequences for the entire education system, including the learning environment and organisation of schools, interactions between schools and the wider community and initial and professional development of teachers. It would also require a shift away from the assessment of learning towards an assessment for learning, requiring advanced feedback mechanisms and the inclusion of teachers in the process of development and school improvement (OECD, 2004d). The teaching career, therefore, needs to be seen within a lifelong learning framework in which initial teaching education, induction and ongoing professional development are integrated and in which teachers are given incentives and support for continuous improvement.

While awareness raising is a powerful tool, the OECD has no opportunity to influence the implementation of these excellent proposals in its member countries. It therefore remains uncertain whether these statements will be followed up by political action.

⁶³ Programme for International Student Assessment.

Finland

Finland's education system has become the prime example of good practice in the world following its successes in the Pisa 2000 and 2003 studies of the OECD. These results are partly explained by the quality of teachers. The Finns themselves have been taken by surprise at the success, and have reflected on it.

- The teaching profession is regarded as one of the most important professions in Finnish society, and a great deal of resources have consequently been invested in teacher education.
- Finnish teachers have been entrusted with considerable pedagogical independence in the classroom, and schools have likewise enjoyed substantial autonomy within the limits of the national core curriculum.
- The teaching profession is valued greatly and is a popular choice among Finnish post-secondary students. Only 10% of all applicants are admitted, which implies that those accepted are highly motivated and multi-talented with excellent academic skills.
- Educating class teachers at universities and the scope and depth of their study programme seem to be the factors that make Finnish teacher education stand out, when compared with other countries.
- Strong theoretical thinking, reflection on and evaluation of one's own actions and development, and guidance towards good teaching practices are very important aspects of the studies. The objective is for students to develop their own work and working community (Väljärvi et al, 2002, pp. 42-44 and Appendix 2).

With regard to VET, a new statute of vocational teacher education was adopted in 1996. Teacher education requires a master's degree or the highest level of education offered in the vocational field and at least three years' work experience in the

same vocational field. This education is offered in five teacher education colleges across the country.

The Finnish population is very homogeneous and as such is not typical in Europe. Finland is a remarkable and inspiring example of best practice for teacher training. It still gives high status to the teaching profession; there is great interest in the profession from young students, a well-developed counselling and guidance system, student-centred curricula and a low dropout rate; and there have been relatively few changes in the system as a whole over the past 30 years.

The European Union

The Member States of the EU and the European Commission have given a high political priority to education and training since the Lisbon EU Council in March 2000. The EU ministers of vocational education and training and the European Commission adopted a declaration in Copenhagen (November 2002), which focused on EU cooperation on VET⁶⁴. The progress of the work following the Copenhagen Declaration was the theme of a ministers' conference under the Dutch EU presidency in Maastricht (December 2004), at which a communiqué was adopted (Maastricht Communiqué 2004).

In contrast to the high priority given to teachers and teacher training in certain individual EU Member States (as illustrated by the examples of the Netherlands and Finland), the communiqué places little emphasis on this theme at EU level. The conclusion for actions at national level ends with: 'continuing competence development of teachers and trainers in VET, reflecting their specific learning needs and changing role as a consequence of the development of VET'. In relation to the EU level, the communiqué concludes that priority should be given to 'the examination of the specific learning needs and changing role of vocational teachers'. These positive, though general, intentions are not supported by concrete measures for

⁶⁴ Declaration of the European Ministers of Vocational Education and Training and the European Commission, agreed in Copenhagen on 29 and 30 November 2002 on enhanced European cooperation in vocational education and training – 'The Copenhagen Declaration'.

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implementation and follow-up at the end of the communiqué⁶⁵.

Is the principle of subsidiarity at stake? Would it not have been better to use the ministers' conference in Maastricht to create a strong basis for the very necessary concrete action required for renewing the VET teaching profession in Europe together? This may have been a missed opportunity, particularly as the preparatory documents for the Maastricht conference were very clear in this respect⁶⁶. They state: 'Up till now, there have been few attempts at the European level to tackle the specific challenges of the education and training of vocational teachers and trainers [...] overcoming the current fragmentation of VET professionals should be high on the political agenda. Strong cooperation among European higher education institutes involved in teacher training may help to raise standards' (QCA, 2002). Another document, a synthesis of the Maastricht Study, was prepared by Cedefop and distributed widely (Cedefop, 2004). It states: 'VET teachers and trainers are pivotal in promoting the Lisbon and Copenhagen goals. The quality of VET depends primarily on the quality of its teachers and trainers [...] The role of VET professionals is shifting from pure instruction to encompass learning facilitation and innovation' (Cedefop, 2004, p. 8). Although a great deal of lip service is paid to the issue at EU level, the description of VET teachers reads: 'A coherent teacher policy reflecting the Lisbon and Copenhagen challenges is not yet visible. Teachers and trainers should receive far more support to fulfil their role as innovators and facilitators [...] A balance is needed between further professionalisation of teachers and more flexibility in teacher and trainer recruitment policies and practices' (Cedefop, 2004, p. 52).

Conclusion

Governments and international organisations are giving increasing attention to quantitative aspects (linked to demographic developments and the poor image of the profession) and qualitative aspects of the teaching profession (based on new approaches to teaching and learning), but not in a holistic and integrated way. The picture is one of fragmentation and reinventing the wheel in different countries. At the political level in the EU there seems to be no real awareness (nor willingness to accept) that the success or failure of the (reformulated) Lisbon goals is directly dependent on a substantial improvement of the role, position and quality of teachers. The Kok Report does not even mention teachers⁶⁷.

AN ADDITIONAL ROLE FOR TEACHERS AND TEACHER TRAINING IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION

Education and training as the engine of the knowledge-based economy require the best teachers at all levels. Secondary, post-secondary and higher education will be able to provide the skilled workers for the future needs of countries and regions only if the learning processes at these levels are designed and supported by motivated, well-trained and educated professionals of various kinds.

An earlier analysis carried out by the ETF gave a clear picture of the very diverse situations of VET teachers and trainers in the ten newest EU Member States, then future Member States, and ETF partner countries⁶⁸. Many parallels with the 15 older Member States are described, including the fact that initial teacher training is too theoretical and not linked to VET

⁶⁵ The Copenhagen Declaration in 2002 identified giving attention to the learning needs of teachers and trainers within all forms of VET as a measure that would promote quality assurance; there is and has been no concrete action to follow this up.

⁶⁶ The Maastricht Study was prepared by an international consortium, coordinated by the UK Qualification and Curriculum Authority (QCA).

⁶⁷ EU High Level Group on the Lisbon strategy for growth and employment, chaired by former Dutch Prime Minister Wim Kok, November 2004.

⁶⁸ See Faudel, ETF (2002) and Chapter 3.

school practice, or the needs of enterprises. Interestingly, the delivery of continuing teacher training varies even more among the ten new Member States. Descriptions of the situation in other partner countries paint a similar picture⁶⁹.

Increasing awareness of the important role of teachers and the challenges that are ahead of them should help to shape policies that could stimulate the positive selection of the profession as a career choice among young people. In many partner countries, large numbers of young people still choose to enter teacher training institutions. These have always been the most accessible tertiary education paths for young people who are unwilling or unable to enter more academic higher education streams. However, few graduates go on to start work as teachers. Tackling this situation should be the primary aim of policy at all levels, since it would create a break with the past. On its own, however, it would not be enough.

As argued above, schools and colleges, as well as teacher training institutions, will have to provide their students with an idea of future requirements for graduates and create a climate of change and entrepreneurship in the structure and content of the learning process. This requires new professionals within schools, who are themselves change agents and entrepreneurs. It is possible that this would be easier to arrange in VET schools than in institutes for general education. As well as a clear differentiation of functions within schools, a systematic design and maintenance of networks of stakeholders and potential clients is necessary as a basis for a continuous analysis of learning needs. The structure of practical learning experiences outside schools as a strong characteristic of VET would utilise and strengthen this synergetic link. Teachers and students should play a role at the interface of VET school and the environment and find effective ways to combine the world of learning with the world of work. A change agent in the relations between these two worlds could

strengthen and stimulate the role of teachers as facilitators of the learning process of future workers and citizens.

This would be useful for the quality and relevance of learning and for the enhancement of innovation and implementation of new knowledge and insights within enterprises. This could be further stimulated through networks of teachers and schools that share and exchange good practice. In linking schools to their environment, graduates could find better jobs more easily, and enterprises would benefit from new knowledge that could be implemented more rapidly (innovation). Teachers who are prepared, skilled and motivated would play a crucial role, one that is more externally oriented and very different from their traditional ways of functioning.

This external orientation, linked to a demand-driven provision of learning by schools, must be accompanied by and based on a strong(er) internal process of investing in teachers and trainers through a lifelong learning approach by teachers themselves. The VET school should become a capacity building and learning organisation for the professionals who work there. Countries in transition should integrate and create synergy between these two processes of change: changing the role of teachers as such and developing the role of teachers (in VET) as a linchpin and change agent between the worlds of learning and work. Countries in transition do not have the time to undertake these processes one after the other, and an integrated approach is therefore the best solution. But how is this to be achieved?

The ETF has piloted possible ways of improving the links between individual teachers as change agents, their regional environment and national institutions, based on similar experiences in other countries (Buck, ETF, 2004)⁷⁰. One of these is the introduction of change agent teams (CAT), a major characteristic of which in a school is its contribution to the

⁶⁹ For a review of ETF projects in the field of teacher and trainer training see Chapter 4.

⁷⁰ For an overview of various related ETF activities see Chapter 3.

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development of a school's potential, through a continuously supportive process that stimulates and empowers it to acquire an internalised knowledge of the new curriculum, based on the reflections, experiences, values and understanding it has gained during the implementation period. A CAT thus emphasises the self-development of its school. Another more specific role of the CAT is that of mentoring team. The focus is on the interaction between the individual (or a small group of) teacher(s) and instructors and the job itself. Competences have to be developed that are actually used by the teachers or instructors in performing their jobs. Thus, competence-in-use might be seen as the dynamic factor mediating between the potential capacity of teachers and the requirements of their jobs.

An 'Innovative Group' (IG) at the regional level monitors the CATs, and gives information and advice. It also maintains close links with companies and universities in order to provide back-up support for the CATs. What the CAT is for each professional college, the Innovative Group is for each CAT: the links between the CATs are a question not only of interaction but of learning together. The IG must also observe the cooperation between the colleges and the companies and support the establishment of regional partnerships between them.

What the Innovative Group is for each CAT, the VET Development Institute at national level is for each IG. The main focus should be on the development of IGs as regional driving forces.

Thus, a network-based practice dedicated to improving and providing good teaching and learning does exist. This approach is fully in line with Harris: 'It would seem that the effectiveness of any school improvement initiative is dependent on the extent to which it creates the conditions for changes in teachers' practice to occur and the way in which it develops the capacity for mutual learning. One of the most salient conditions is the opportunity for individuals to work with and learn from each other, generating "communities of

practice" dedicated to the improvement of teaching and learning' (Harris, 2003, p. 370).

This approach combines three elements in an operational way: (i) the ideas behind lifelong learning; (ii) the integration of the worlds of learning and work; and (iii) the enhancement of innovation in enterprises through networking with schools and teachers. The strength of the approach is that it empowers the teaching profession to be the key to the successful reform of economies and the enhancement of employability of skilled workers; it also ensures a primary role for teachers as experts in facilitating the learning process of citizens.

Such a broad and flexible approach should and could easily be adapted to the specific needs and existing structures in individual countries. Great diversity exists among partner countries, as it does among EU Member States, where many variations on approaches to innovating teaching and learning are practised within the Lisbon framework⁷¹.

CONCLUSION

After decades of study, experiment and analysis on the need for change in the functioning of teachers and the way in which they are trained for their roles, there is now an urgent need for concrete action in most EU Member States and countries in transition. The perspective is clear: the role of teachers in a knowledge-based society should no longer be implemented in isolation in classrooms, but fully integrated into networks, both inside and outside education institutions. Teachers should facilitate the learning process of their students and bring them into contact with the environment outside the education and training institutions, the world in which they will have to function and develop throughout their lives, using the set of basic skills acquired during their initial schooling.

Governments should systematically raise awareness of the new content of the

⁷¹ These also benefit from the support of various EC education programmes.

teaching profession; improve its image and position in society; restructure the teacher and trainer training institutions; stimulate a differentiation of functions inside schools that will modernise their organisational structure; and empower the teaching profession to play a very active role in this process of renewal.

Inspired by examples of good practice from Member States, a well-orchestrated move forward at EU level would be possible if the political will and courage could be combined into a massive synergetic collective investment. This would require not only the involvement of all (future) Member States of the EU, but also the strong involvement of teachers and teacher and trainer training experts as an institutionalised body of professionals; this latter element would add value and avoid the 'not invented here' syndrome. Such investment is a prerequisite for taking Europe forward in terms of the Lisbon perspective.

Networking and close links with their regional environment is a characteristic of VET schools and institutes. Teachers and trainers are already practising networking and are more externally oriented than is usual in general education. There exists a 'natural inclination' that should be used to

facilitate progress with the changes that are required. VET schools and institutes at all levels could become examples of good practice and the first successful sector in the renewal of teacher and trainer training for education as a whole.

There is every reason to stimulate the renewal of VET teacher and trainer training within the framework of the Copenhagen process inside the EU, and to monitor the progress of change carefully from an international comparative perspective. But more will be required. Action will also be needed within countries and within institutes, where the real difference must be made together with and by teachers and managers. However, better cooperation is also needed with and between the many international organisations of VET providers and teaching professionals.

All available forces and expertise must be activated and utilised, well coordinated and with a clear goal: a renewed European teaching profession that will contribute effectively to the creation of a European learning environment and provide better and more effective VET to produce an employable, skilled labour force and active citizens in an inclusive society.

8. IS LOCAL DEVELOPMENT TEACHERS' BUSINESS?

Marie Corman

8

INTRODUCTION

Local development is the process by which local people and organisations work together to achieve economic growth, good jobs for all and social inclusion, bringing sustainable economic and social benefits and quality of life improvements for everyone in a local area. Expected benefits at local level include more effective national policies and programmes, the stimulation of entrepreneurship and innovation, the reconciliation of economic growth with social inclusion, longer lasting results and improved governance and democracy. The process calls for the cooperation of local players across organisations and sectors of activity. It typically involves the following steps: generating momentum among local

players, undertaking an analysis of the area, developing a joint local development strategy, and implementing and evaluating this strategy.

In the literature on local development, local authorities, enterprises, non-governmental organisations and social partners are commonly identified as drivers of the process. Individual teachers⁷² are rarely mentioned as key players. The contribution of teachers to comprehensive local development approaches is little documented, despite the repeated emphasis on capacity building and human capital as key elements in local development⁷³. The literature on education, on the other hand, recognises the need for school principals and teachers to cooperate with parents to improve student

⁷² In this article, a teacher is a person whose function is to develop the competence of learners irrespective of their age or working situation.

⁷³ See for example COM(2000) 196 final; COM(2001) 629 final; ADM, *Integrated Local Development Handbook*, Dublin, 1995; LEADER European Observatory, *Organising local partnerships*, Brussels, 1997; European Commission, *Territorial Employment Pacts – examples of good practice*, Brussels, 1997, LEDA-Partenariat, *Managing Local Partnerships for Employment*, London, 1998.

performance and with businesses to develop competences⁷⁴ that are required in the labour market. Cooperation with other public agencies and associations is cited as a way of filling gaps in the delivery of education and training and of helping disadvantaged learners. Networking and cooperation involving teachers at grass-roots level is thus mainly seen as a way of improving the satisfaction of end users: pupils/students, parents and enterprises. Some EU policy papers⁷⁵ recognise that schools⁷⁶ and training centres can help to build the capacity of all actors involved in local development and that they can work as learning centres open to all people at local level. They also acknowledge the role of universities in boosting research and fostering innovation, 'along with their other contributions to economic competitiveness and social cohesion, e.g. their role in the life of the community and in regional development' (COM(2003) 58 final). However, the role of individual teachers and trainers is barely discussed.

This chapter examines the role of teachers in local development, the benefits and challenges of this and the support that is needed to encourage teachers to take part in the process. The first section presents the rationale behind the participation of teachers in local development; the second outlines the main challenges and presents a number of issues for further consideration⁷⁷.

TEACHERS AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT: EXPECTATIONS AND STAKES

There is a growing awareness that teachers may have a role to play in the development of the area in which they teach. This is a result of a wide range of factors, which are discussed briefly⁷⁸.

Higher expectations are placed on teachers

The globalisation of the economy has sharpened competitiveness between local areas. Competent human resources can give an area a competitive edge over others. Research shows that teachers do make a difference in human resource development (Coolahan, 2002, p. 14). Teachers are therefore expected to help their area to be competitive.

Changes have also occurred in the way people interact within the family, at work and in society. Negotiation has become more prevalent than orders and commands. In order to participate in work and society, individuals need to be capable of designing their own solutions to complex problems influenced by local conditions, using all information and learning resources available to them, both inside and outside schools. In this context, teachers are no longer asked to prepare young people to be disciplined and able to live and act following predefined, stable patterns. Teachers still play a crucial role in developing the necessary competences but they are expected to facilitate learning rather than transmit predefined information, knowledge and values.

Furthermore, as social exclusion persists or worsens and as families fragment, teachers are expected to provide some of the emotional support that is vital for learners and that they may not have in the more private spheres of their lives.

Decision-making is becoming more decentralised

In many countries the education and training systems have been marked by a move towards the decentralisation of management, curricula, finance and accountability to regional or municipal authorities, or even to individual schools⁷⁹.

⁷⁴ Competence is the capacity to use experience, knowledge and qualifications effectively; COM(2001) 678 final.

⁷⁵ See COM(2000) 196 final, COM(2001) 629 final and COM(2001) 678 final.

⁷⁶ In this article a school is an organisation whose main objective is to develop competences.

⁷⁷ The chapter presents reflections that were developed during preparatory work for future projects relating to training for local development. It is not based on a review of practical experiences.

⁷⁸ See also Chapter 1.

⁷⁹ See Lowe And Holt, 1998, p. 95 and UNESCO, 1998, p. 67.

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This trend may stem from the assumption that deregulating and downsizing public institutions will enhance competitiveness and make services more cost effective. At the same time it is recognised that the practical problems of complex modern societies can rarely be solved for the local institutions by central regulation. Decentralisation is thus fuelled by a willingness to empower players at local level to design and implement specific solutions to their specific problems and to harness the necessary resources to do so. Emphasis is placed on output rather than input control, and on results rather than processes. In this context teachers are likely to gain autonomy in designing and implementing learning activities.

The local environment matters to teachers

The environment moulds the needs of learners and the ways in which these needs can be met. Therefore a teacher who is well informed about the local situation is able to prepare learners to avail themselves of local opportunities, including the jobs on offer on the local labour market.

The situation in the local area affects learners' attitudes towards teachers and learning. According to Robert Putnam, there is strong evidence that the social context of education (both inside and outside the school) matters at least as much as computers, textbooks and teacher certification (Putnam, 2004, p. 5). If the friends and relatives of learners look down on education, teachers may face greater difficulties in motivating the learners themselves. Improving the reputation of education in the local area therefore becomes a way for teachers to assist in their learners' progress. This can be achieved, for instance, through involving parents from disadvantaged families in relevant activities and seeking and valuing their opinions on school matters. Teachers who develop positive relationships with the local population help to develop widespread positive attitudes towards schools and learning. They encourage not only their learners but all citizens to be more active. A proactive school also encourages local players to take initiatives. A collaborative school inspires other local

players to collaborate. Teachers can certainly make the areas in which they teach more dynamic and democratic.

Furthermore, as closer links develop between the school and its environment, teachers can gain more feedback on the quality of their work. This helps to boost their morale and enhance their status, and may even improve their living conditions in the local area, for instance regarding safety and housing, an issue that can be quite sensitive in rural areas.

New opportunities to improve the quality of education and training

Teachers can enrich curricula, teaching contents and materials using local knowledge, local values and issues faced by the local area. This makes it easier for learners to add new knowledge and skills to competences they already possess. If learning is linked to their experiences, learners understand better how they can use it to improve their lives. Such individual improvements lead to benefits for the local area as a whole.

In order to extend learning resources, teachers may welcome input from local players and may collaborate with external partners to design and implement measures such as school-to-work and apprenticeship programmes. Learning resources are particularly limited in low-income countries. Therefore, optimum use of all resources available both inside and outside the school is of major significance.

In addition, educational problems that need to be solved at local level are so complex that it may be outside the ability of individual teachers and even schools to tackle them on a stand-alone basis. Collaboration with external players then becomes indispensable.

Furthermore, the joint design of learning programmes in cooperation with enterprises and other local organisations is a learning opportunity for teachers and strengthens the local social capital, which is made up of trust, shared values and networks. Teachers who cooperate with other local players develop their own competences, the competences of

learners, and social capital. This creates a virtuous circle. Indeed, research shows that social capital is beneficial to human capital: individuals develop their skills better in a socially rich environment (de la Fuente and Ciccone, 2003). Robert Putnam, who developed the concept of social capital, argues that 'there is reasonably good evidence that social capital fosters the acquisition of human capital and that in turn education fosters the accumulation of social capital' (Putnam, 2004, pp. 3-4). Developing social capital is therefore another (indirect) way in which teachers can facilitate learners' progress. Putnam further distinguishes between social capital 'inside the walls', that is, social networks within schools, and social capital 'outside the walls', that is, social networks linking schools to the broader community.

'A distinctive feature of high performing schools is a climate of cooperation within the school community. Evidence suggests that test scores and dropout rates are better predicted by measures of community-based social capital than by measures of teacher quality or class size or spending per pupil' (de la Fuente and Ciccone, 2003).

Heneveld and Craig (1996) identify parent and community support as one of the key factors determining school effectiveness in sub-Saharan Africa. They list five categories of parent and community support that are relevant to the region: '(1) children come to school encouraged and physically ready to learn; (2) the community provides financial and material support to the school; (3) communication between the school, parents and the community is frequent; (4) the community has a meaningful role in school governance; and (5) community members and parents assist with instruction' (Uemura, 1999).

Lifelong learning necessitates filling gaps and building bridges

Competences rapidly become obsolete. People therefore need to be ready to continue learning and to retrain throughout life from preschool to post-retirement age. Teachers play a crucial role at all stages, starting with learners when they are

children: a good start at school enhances the prospects for successful lifelong learning.

The provision of education remains fragmented. There are schools for children, for teenagers and for adults, general education schools, vocational schools, private schools and public schools. Education service providers falling into one category have few links with service providers falling into other categories. Furthermore, learning does not only take place in schools. At all stages in learners' lives, teachers can build on learners' experience of life and work and on the informal learning that takes place with their families and socially. Teachers can become coalition builders between all education and training service providers at local level. In this way they can help to overcome the fragmentation of the education sector and ensure that learners are offered a comprehensive and quality range of education and training services, including the necessary information, guidance and counselling that lifelong learning requires. At different points in life, learners can then move easily from one learning system to another. Coolahan recognises that 'lifelong learning requires linkages and bridge-building so that citizens may benefit from smooth transitions in and out of the education and training systems, at all stages of their life-span' (Coolahan, 2002, p. 31).

More cooperation at local level promotes social inclusion

Through cooperating with other players at local level, teachers may find solutions to problems that impede an individual learner's progress (such as housing, health, child care or transport problems). This is of particular importance for learners from disadvantaged groups: socially excluded people, women, disabled people and those from ethnic minorities. As socio-economic disadvantages are often multifaceted, teachers can better address them if they cooperate with various partners. Through making education and other services such as health, employment and social services work better together, they can help people who are economically disadvantaged and all those who suffer from varying forms of discrimination and

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segregation. They can make them more capable of 'choosing a way of life that they can enjoy' (Sen, 1997).

Through cooperating and developing social capital, teachers not only improve the capacity for learning; they can also improve social inclusion. Indeed, research conducted by de la Fuente and Ciccone (2003) and Putnam (2004)⁸⁰ points to positive correlations between social capital and social inclusion.

According to de la Fuente and Ciccone,

social capital is also beneficial to active citizenship and improved governance, two crucial factors in combating poverty. Amartya Sen, the 1998 Nobel prize winner, demonstrated clearly in his books that democracy is necessary in order to eradicate poverty. Research also shows that schools can be effective in disadvantaged areas, provided they are well embedded in their environment and succeed in harnessing local support. Teachers can contribute to rallying such support (Mulford, 2003, p. 19).

What can teachers do in concrete terms to help their local area?

- They can make their lessons interesting, meaningful, relevant and accessible to learners, bearing in mind where and how learners live.
- They can use active, investigative, problem-solving, teamwork methods.
- They can make learners feel proud of what they have done for the local area and praise such achievements.
- They can urge learners to investigate their local area, suggest ideas on how to improve the quality of life and channel these ideas to the decision-makers and stakeholders likely to take the suggestions on board.
- They can teach learners to be active citizens by providing factual information, inculcating values such as tolerance and skills like public speaking, and encouraging them to engage in extracurricular activities.
- They can encourage learners to use a broad spectrum of learning resources including those outside schools.
- They can involve parents and local citizens in the setting up of homework clubs.
- They can involve local organisations in the design and delivery of learning activities, e.g. lessons delivered by drama groups, visits to local organisations, and coaching by local experts.
- Together with local associations and agencies, they can create learning opportunities through the delivery of services to the local population.
- In order to turn schools into local meeting and learning centres, they can help to set up study circles⁸¹, reading workshops, and business, sport, drama and internet clubs.
- They can keep themselves up to date on opportunities for employment development in the local area.
- They can consult local employers on the knowledge and skills that are needed in the local labour market.
- Together with local employers, they can create work-related learning opportunities.
- They can teach staff in local businesses and organisations, and in return can receive, or be allowed to use, sophisticated, up-to-date equipment.
- They can network with local stakeholders, help to open up their school to cooperation, and participate in the design and implementation of a strategy to develop the local area.

⁸⁰ Robert Putnam argues that 'social capital could help governments and societies advance toward the broader objective of social cohesion'.

⁸¹ 'A study circle is a group of 8–12 people from different backgrounds and viewpoints who agree to meet several times to talk about an issue in a friendly and democratic way. In a study circle, people try to understand each other's views. They do not have to agree with each other. The learning comes from group discussion about the topic. A facilitator helps the group focus on different views and makes sure the discussion goes well'. Study Circles Resource Centre, USA, <http://www.studycircles.org>; National Adult Literacy Database, Canada, <http://www.nald.ca>.

Local development requires capacity building⁸²

Local organisations need people who are capable of planning, managing and monitoring public initiatives and of designing and implementing the improvements to infrastructure, public service delivery, production activities and commerce to promote their area. The competences of local actors are also decisive for the coordination of the sector-specific elements of local development (such as economic development, social protection, research, promotion of health, active employment measures, environmental protection, education and training, housing and transport) within the framework of an overall local strategy and in cooperation with other decision-making levels.

The competences required for strategic, holistic local development approaches are technical, social and adaptive. Technical skills relate in particular to the analysis of the territory and to project management. Social competences relate in particular to motivation, negotiation, mediation and conflict resolution. Adaptive skills are those that require fundamental changes in people's attitudes, perceptions, values and behaviour, to enable them to forge and sustain social relationships between multiple stakeholders and engage in problem-solving tasks. Adaptive, problem solving skills should be seen as something required of all those involved, not just the leaders.

It should be noted that a territory can call upon its own resources for the enhancement of competences. It can use its own teaching and training professionals and its own schools, universities, and training and research centres. Teachers can help to turn their areas into learning areas and they can act as agents of change in a local development context. They can transform local schools into local knowledge hubs, places for local development gatherings and for local project design and coordination. In return

they will be better integrated into the local fabric, which will help them to adjust curricula and activities to local needs.

CHALLENGES AND AREAS FOR FURTHER REFLECTION

Local versus global?

Teachers need to strike a balance between local and global-oriented learning activities. It is useful for teachers to refer to the local area when designing their lessons in order to make them more meaningful to learners. At the same time it is also important for teachers to open up their horizons and give learners opportunities to discover the wider world. This is particularly important for disadvantaged learners for whom the school is often the only gateway to the world outside their local area.

In spite of all its benefits, local social capital can also be problematic. For instance it can be oppressive for women, particularly in rural areas, where it can impose strict social control and consequently strengthen conservative roles, values and norms. It can have adverse effects, such as hindering women's access to education and stifling innovation.

Tailoring local education and training services to local needs is fine, but tying them too narrowly to the local area could reduce the potential of learners to move out from the area and access better opportunities elsewhere. Pupils must be equipped for the global labour market.

In a time of economic globalisation, the development of individuals should not simply be addressed within the narrow framework of the local area where they learn. Concern for local development and social cohesion across regions should be weighed against their capacity and willingness for mobility and the need to reduce shortages of labour in tight labour markets.

⁸² 'Capacity building refers to processes of developing individual and organisational potential for active decision-making and development in the context of multiple, different and often conflicting interests.' (Billett and Seddon, 2004).

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It is not possible to make all decisions at local level. Issues around quality and equality may best be addressed centrally. A certain degree of national framework remains necessary for many reasons, including the protection of end users' interests.

There are two sides to the coin of cooperation

Are teachers ready and willing to be agents of change? Through liaising with local partners, teachers can improve their status, but they can also expose themselves to additional strain.

Teachers may feel threatened by the involvement of local players in their practice and as a result they may be inclined to resist what they could consider as interference. Jacobsen and Thorslund (2003, p. 71) argue that 'Requirements for openness can be perceived as a stress factor, particularly if it is directed at the individual and not at the team'.

Although there are obvious advantages to involving parents, there is also a risk of diluting responsibilities as parents expect teachers to take on too many duties.

Teachers may resent parental involvement: it could be taken as an indication of a lack of confidence in their professionalism, and it could give learners contradictory instructions and expectations. Here again a balance must be struck, and communication helps.

Are teachers trained to cooperate?

The building of social capital requires teamwork skills. It is therefore necessary to provide adequate training for teachers and to accustom them to teamwork so that they have the necessary knowledge, attitudes and skills to work with local players. Yet few pre-service, induction and in-service training programmes for teachers prepare them for handling relations with parents and the local community (UNESCO, 1998, p. 41).

Pre-service teacher training could be used to raise teachers' awareness of local development benefits and risks and to make them aware of the key principles of

local development approaches. Induction schemes and in-service training could be used to help teachers to tailor their activities to local needs and to be partners of change in the local area. If teacher training is organised in partnership with players outside schools, it is more likely to combine theoretical inputs and practical teaching experience. Staff exchange schemes should be promoted. The question remains as to how much should be invested in pre-service training as opposed to induction schemes and on-the-job training.

In EU policies and programmes much emphasis is placed on transferring good practice as a way of promoting mutual learning and avoiding reinventing the wheel. In the case of teachers working more closely with their local environment, the resulting products, such as locally adopted curriculum refinements, cannot be transferred easily. However, it may be worth exchanging information on the processes that have generated such local adjustments.

Society thinks highly of education, but does it think equally highly of teachers?

The salary, working conditions and social standing of teachers are indicators of their status.

Salary allowances and salary increases throughout the teaching career may be topped up with additional bonuses such as the provision of teaching materials, subsidised housing, food and transport. Some questions remain regarding teachers' pay. For instance, should teachers' pay be based on their individual performance or on fixed salary scales? There is some evidence that financial incentives to reward individual performances may have adverse effects, as they may deter teachers from cooperating with peers who are primarily perceived as competitors. Another question relates to the recruitment of teachers: should it be left to individual schools? Richer schools and areas can offer better conditions and attract the best teachers, although it could be argued that there is a greater need for the best teachers in disadvantaged schools and areas. Leaving

the task of recruitment to individual schools and areas may thus have adverse effects on social cohesion. Finally, recent trends towards reducing public spending have made it difficult to fulfil teachers' pay increases. It is particularly difficult to reconcile the seemingly incompatible aims of controlling public spending and improving the economic status of teachers.

Non-financial incentives relate to working conditions and social recognition, and include further training, appreciation of performance, social standing, level of autonomy, involvement in school management, consultation on education policies, class sizes, student/teacher ratio, and workload.

According to the UNESCO report, 'In most regions of the world, few (if any) informed observers believe that the status of teachers has improved in recent years; the majority believe it has declined' (UNESCO, 1998, p.18). The report recognises that 'in most countries, a majority of teachers work in the public sector where they are not normally highly paid ... and long tenure in the job usually does not bring very large increases in salary. Also, a majority of teachers at the lower levels of education often are women, which has probably helped to keep salaries low in the past' (UNESCO, 1998, p. 22). According to the same report it is difficult to find a trend towards an improvement in teachers' economic status in any region in the world. The current lack of incentives encourages teachers to take on additional jobs. The Arab Human Development Report 2003 mentions that 'there are some factors in many Arab countries that adversely affect teachers' capabilities, such as low salaries, which force educators to take on other jobs that consume their energy and cut into the time they can devote to caring for their students' (UNDP, 2003).

Recruitment and retention can be achieved by creating positive and interesting workplaces with opportunities for development, by showing good leadership and by appreciating the individual employee. Attracting high achievers to the profession and retaining them in the

service, restoring a better male/female balance in an increasingly female-dominated profession, and recruiting teachers from minority groups and ethnic cultures are not easy tasks, and these are signs of a profession losing its appeal⁸³.

According to the UNESCO report many teachers in the world work under difficult conditions, and there are still many countries in which teachers do not have well-established collective bargaining rights (UNESCO, 1998, p. 73).

In general, few incentives are offered to teachers in terms of career progression. The career structure is rather flat and the usual career ladder is limited to two rungs: teacher and principal. Yet it would be possible to build career paths that offer opportunities for progression, through taking on additional responsibilities such as running the school library, acting as a career adviser, providing remedial education, developing the curriculum, and specialising in areas such as special education, early childhood education or adult education. Instead of assuming additional duties a teacher could be offered the chance to cooperate with specialists in related areas, for instance school psychologists, social advisers and other social workers. This cooperation would then need to be considered as part of the teacher's duties and adequately planned, assessed and rewarded.

The improved performance of students is the best reward for teachers. The teacher must feel that their efforts to liaise with local players do make a difference. Examples are school-to-work programmes or apprenticeship schemes, run jointly with employers, which increase rates of integration on the labour market. In order to reward teachers who devote time and energy to building links with the community it is necessary to inform them about improvements in results; this implies a need for monitoring and evaluation so that such positive outcomes can be identified. A further way of encouraging teachers to cooperate more closely with their environment is through recognising such activities in their evaluation. Methods for

⁸³ See chapter 7.

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assessing teachers' performance should be designed with this in mind.

Involving teachers in school management is another way of enhancing their status. Management practices should aim at enabling staff to enjoy work rather than to feel oppressed by it; encouraging them to question decisions, rules and methods of work; defining the school's role and values with them; and involving them in the running of the school.

Reality, however, is often quite different. The top-down leadership model still dominates in many schools. Furthermore, decentralisation does not automatically result in more autonomy for teachers. The school governing board or manager, or the local education authority, may constrain teachers more than a national ministry. 'Research on decision-making in Australian primary and secondary schools ... shows that while decentralisation may have occurred from the system to school level it had not necessarily occurred within schools and where it had, it tended to be about administrative rather than education matters' (Mulford, 2003, p. 18).

Enhanced mobility is another possible incentive for teachers. This could involve opportunities to move from one specialised field to another, from one type of education and training establishment to another, from one type of education and training system to another, or from one age group of learners to another. It may even involve teachers moving in and out of the teaching profession, for instance to gain experience

in commercial firms or organisations, or state bodies; this would enrich teaching activities and sustain the motivation of teachers. Teachers should be given the opportunity to access work experience outside teaching and outside the school walls. The teaching profession should be less compartmentalised and more open to interaction with other sectors of the education and training system and sectors outside the system. Offering opportunities for leaves of absence would be another way in which the teaching profession could be made more flexible. But such schemes are difficult to find. The research conducted in 2004 on the contribution of vocational education and training to sustainable growth, more and better jobs and improved social cohesion in Europe (Lisbon goal) found no examples of schemes intended to foster the mobility of teachers in the countries covered by the study: the 25 EU Member States, Norway, Iceland, Lichtenstein, Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey.

Even in a country such as Denmark, where job rotation schemes are part of normal employment practices, rotations and job swaps are seldom established as regular schemes for teachers in local and municipal areas. In some municipalities rotation visits to companies are used as a way of qualifying teachers to become student counsellors (UNESCO, 1998, p. 73).

The role of the school principal

Schools should support individual teachers who develop links with their external environment. Here the role of the principal

Teachers can help their local area provided:

- they agree to cooperate with parents, families, local businesses, agencies, authorities and associations;
- the principal facilitates their contribution;
- they receive support from education authorities;
- education policies and programmes and collective agreements enhance their status;
- they receive incentives in terms of pay, working conditions and appreciation;
- they receive adequate pre and in-service training;
- mobility, promotion opportunities and flexibility are built into their career structure;
- local organisations agree to involve them in local development approaches.

is crucial. The duties of principals include human resource development. It is essential that principals integrate human resource development into their development strategies for schools. Principals are responsible for making teachers aware of how much their work can help the local area. School management should also ensure that teachers develop sophisticated problem-solving skills through working with each other and with partners outside the school. If teachers are asked to develop the problem solving competences of their pupils, it implies that they themselves should be trusted to develop their own solutions in the workplace, and have the necessary autonomy to do so. At the same time they should remain accountable to the end users and the population at large, since education and training are services for the common good that are funded mainly from the public purse.

Principals should act as agents of change inside and outside the school. They should develop cooperation both within the school and between the school and the outside world, and encourage teachers to work with local players. Finally, principals should protect teachers from the unending, excessive and sometimes contradictory requirements of central authorities. According to recent research in the United Kingdom, such conditions are not common in schools (Mulford, 2003). A study in the United States and Canada revealed that the boldest, best and brightest teachers are often the targets of workplace abuse.

Teachers need support from the central level

Policy and decision-makers at the central level and the general public should properly recognise the central role of teachers in creating a knowledge-based society requiring lifelong learning. Efforts should be made to enhance the public image of the teaching profession.

In the past, teachers were constrained by centralised control and by dependent relationships. In order to adjust to growing decentralisation, teachers need to be given support and made aware of both the advantages and the risks of greater

autonomy. Central players should empower local players and teachers. Consultation and dialogue with teacher representatives should be intensified.

In reality teachers are often left alone to reconcile somewhat contradictory expectations. For instance, teachers have to meet quality standards that are defined and imposed centrally and at the same time focus their teaching on the specific needs of the individual learners and the local area. Centrally defined standards are often so detailed that they impair teachers' autonomy and their capacity to adjust to the needs of learners. Methods and indicators used to judge teachers' results can be so constraining that they may become resentful, resistant or atrophic.

The legislative framework, policies, programmes, rules and procedures at the central level should leave teachers and schools with room to manoeuvre so that they can be lifelong learners themselves and can network and cooperate at local level.

There is a need to distribute responsibilities as clearly as possible between the tiers of government and the levels of the administrative structure. Good coordination between various levels of decision-making and administrative structures should be sought.

Teachers need support from the local level

Turning schools into resource centres for the local area is not a responsibility that lies exclusively with teachers. It should be shared with other local stakeholders.

Local players need to be aware of the advantages, constraints and risks of involving teachers in local development processes. Local awareness campaigns may be necessary in order to increase the understanding of the benefits of enhanced collaboration.

The trend in many countries towards the decentralisation of school governance has brought local communities into direct contact with the issues of school performance and teacher assessment.

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Local communities should be offered more support to help them with this new task.

One area that needs to be explored further is that of cooperation between teachers in their classrooms and researchers in local universities. For instance, local universities could be asked to contribute more to pre and in-service teacher training in a local development context.

Allow time

Local development, the reinforcement of cultural shifts, cooperation processes and the involvement of teachers and schools are long-term processes that require patience and tenacity.

CONCLUSIONS

Teachers can help their schools to act as learning organisations able to turn their localities into inclusive, competitive learning areas. They can be a great resource for their local areas but they should not be left isolated and alone in either the local or the wider arena.

At a time when so many expectations are placed on teachers it may be unfair to

expect them to make a major contribution to local development. The networking and cooperation required by the local development process places extra demands on teachers, and teachers' associations and unions may object to their involvement. If specific incentives in terms of working conditions, remuneration, promotion opportunities and appreciation are not offered to them it may be unrealistic to expect them to extend networking and cooperation activities beyond those conducted with their immediate partners: parents and parents' associations in the case of primary and secondary education, and local businesses for technical and vocational schools and training centres.

The high demands placed on teachers need to be weighed against incentives and rewards offered to them. Overburdening teachers with too many expectations may distract them from teaching and learning. Adding new responsibilities without removing old ones increases the workload and the pressure. Tasks need to be prioritised, training provided and adequate rewards offered. Priorities should be set among the many demands and pressures, and sufficient time should be allowed for teachers to adjust and take on new or different duties.



9. A ROLE FOR TEACHERS IN LIFELONG GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING?⁸⁴

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9

INTRODUCTION

Well-planned and well-organised career guidance and counselling services are becoming increasingly important because of the ongoing rapid changes in education, training and employment.

It has always been widely acknowledged that guidance and counselling can help individuals to make effective career decisions whenever they have to make

education choices, enter the labour market for the first time or want (or have) to move to another job or occupation. More generally, guidance and counselling help people to be aware of the learning, work, civic and leisure opportunities that are at their disposal. By contributing to the reduction of dropout and failure rates, career guidance is seen as an effective tool for improving the efficiency of the education system. It also now plays an important role in national strategies for improving opportunities for lifelong learning⁸⁵. More

⁸⁴ A lot of the information in this chapter is based on background reports on Counselling and Guidance in South Eastern Europe. The reports are part of an ETF project on this topic in the region coordinated by Helmut Zelloth. The first phase of the project consisted of a questionnaire on Career Information, Guidance and Counselling designed by the OECD in the framework of a larger project. The reports contain the responses of national teams and are subject to an official consultation process with Ministries of Labour and Education in the countries. The outcomes of the project are to be published in 2005 on the ETF website. The reports were compiled by the following teams: Serbia: Jadranka Dimov and Dragana Gligorijevic; Montenegro: Sandra Sipka; Kosovo: Lumnie Mehmetaj, Sokol Elshani, and Chris Evans; FYROM: Golubina Gorgievska, Stefanka Zlatanovska and Veljka Juran; Albania: Edmond Hoxha, Maksim Konini, Alqi Mustafa, and Stavri Lako; Bosnia ad Herzegovina: Haris Huskic, Suada Numic, and Djuradj Puhalic; Croatia: Mirjana Zevirevic.

⁸⁵ See, among others, OECD (2004a), pp. 22–23 and Sultana (2004), pp. 35–36.

recently, increased attention has been given to the contribution that guidance and counselling can make to promoting the internationalisation of education by providing information and advice on international study opportunities⁸⁶.

As well as its role in education, guidance can help to address a whole range of labour market issues. By securing a better match between individual talents, aspirations and qualifications and the skills and qualifications demanded by employers, it can prevent and reduce certain types of unemployment, and improve labour mobility and labour market efficiency. By bridging demand and supply, it can also help to deal with the effects of an ageing society or reduce premature retirement⁸⁷. Finally, guidance can help governments to achieve social equality and inclusion by contributing to the reintegration of marginalised and at-risk groups into education, training and work. Moreover, it is clear that guidance and counselling for the labour market no longer stops at national borders.

In every country in the world, employment systems are currently undergoing fast-paced change because of the growing importance (and rapid obsolescence) of knowledge and technology, as well as stronger international competition. Jobs are changing, with some disappearing and others emerging. It is understood that people will have to change their jobs and occupations more often. Guidance services are called upon to assist in promoting new training and retraining options for all workers, so that they can respond to the new qualification requirements and develop appropriate knowledge, skills and competences for jobs to which they aspire. In response to the changes in the labour market, education programmes have become more diversified and complex, and vocational education and training (VET) no longer prepares individuals on a one-to-one basis for clearly defined jobs. Guidance is increasingly needed to enable people to

find their way among the many education and training programmes on offer. Lifelong learning and non-lifelong employment call for access to lifelong counselling and guidance.

However, the mere availability of and access to information is no longer sufficient. Not only is such information changing rapidly itself but so too are the number and nature of the sources that contain information. Instead, therefore, it is now recognised that it is equally important for people to develop the capacity to make informed choices, and to know how and where to find and select the information that they need in order to be able to make such choices. People will have to learn how to organise and manage their own learning and working careers, and must learn to do this while they are still at school, before entering the world of work.

This chapter will review some of the new challenges faced by guidance and counselling. It will assess the situation in the countries of South Eastern Europe in some detail and put forward ideas that could help to improve the contribution of guidance and counselling to the ability of individuals to make informed career choices. This chapter focuses in particular on the possible role of schools and teachers in this process.

NEW CHALLENGES FOR CAREER GUIDANCE

Career guidance refers to a set of interrelated activities intended to assist people of any age and at any point in their lives to make education, training and occupational choices and manage their careers. It helps people to reflect on their ambitions, interests, qualifications and abilities and in doing so, it plays an important role in helping them to increase personal satisfaction, improve career decision-making and increase personal development⁸⁸. Nowadays career guidance

⁸⁶ See OECD (2004a), pp. 19–22; Sultana (2004), p. 36.

⁸⁷ See OECD (2004a), p. 31; Sultana (2004), pp. 39–40.

⁸⁸ For definitions of career guidance see, among others, OECD (2004a), p. 19; Sultana (2004), p. 25; OECD (2004b), p. 10; Watts and Fretwell (2004), p. 2.

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is expected not only to make information about the labour market and educational opportunities more accessible, but also to help people to understand their interests and abilities, develop an occupational identity (Meijers, 1998 and Law, Meijers and Wijers, 2002) and develop the competences to search for, understand and evaluate information about job opportunities as part of their overall career (Chen, 2001).

In most countries it is primarily the public employment service that provides this kind of guidance, and the focus is usually on helping unemployed people with immediate job decisions. The second main setting for career guidance is in schools, where it focuses on helping young students who are at the point of leaving school to choose an occupation, course or follow-up study. In both cases, guidance is provided mostly through personal interviews, but it can involve a wide range of other methods, such as group discussions, dissemination of printed and on-line information, telephone advice and on-line help⁸⁹. Usually, however, information provision and assistance with immediate decisions predominate over the development of career management skills.

In order to respond to the rapid changes in the labour market, many countries are implementing lifelong learning strategies and policies to help their citizens to become aware of the large number of choices that can be made and to improve access to learning opportunities that are available both in formal and non-formal education. Lifelong learning policies also address the recognition of informal learning outcomes for access to education and employment. The implementation of lifelong learning policies requires different ways of organising and providing career guidance services (OECD, 2004a, pp. 22-25). As a result of all these developments, career guidance faces the challenge of shifting away from an approach that still largely focuses on providing information to help selected groups at particular points in life to take immediate educational or occupational decisions, towards a broader approach that also tries to develop career self-management skills. The traditional

ways of providing guidance (mainly face to face interviews) are unable to meet this challenge, as they necessarily imply high public expenditure and the use of many human resources. Career guidance needs to be made available with more flexibility using a wider range of methods, and this in turn requires a revision of the traditional guidance and counselling concept, its approach and the actors involved.

A ROLE FOR SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS

There are a number of ways in which guidance and counselling can be delivered more effectively and efficiently. There obviously remains a basic need to provide easily accessible information and advice on education and employment options. This can be done through the reorganisation (or establishment) of education career centres, which clients can use on a self-service basis, with minimal help. Computer-based technologies, either CD-ROM or Internet based, could be better exploited in order to allow access to information on education and training career opportunities and job vacancies. Even telephone-based information systems could be expanded through the setting up of help lines, which are still under exploited in many countries (OECD, 2004a, pp. 73-81). Another way of increasing the effectiveness of the information aspect of guidance services is to involve other actors who are not career professionals, such as employers and parents, and to make use of their expertise and knowledge (Sweet, 2001). However, improving the availability of and access to information brings a greater need for people to know how to handle information and its various sources. More attention will need to be given, therefore, to the improvement of individuals' career management skills. In this respect, schools and teachers must play a major role, not only by providing students with information relating to choices and decisions, but also by helping them to learn how and where to find available information, and how to use it appropriately in order to make sound decisions about their future lives and careers.

⁸⁹ See, among others, OECD (2004a), p. 19.

Currently, during compulsory education in schools, career guidance usually takes place through personal interviews at points when the education system branches off into different tracks. However, this approach is no longer appropriate: it is too expensive and it is becoming increasingly difficult to guarantee student entitlement to such personal services, given the staff resources available (Sultana, 2004, pp. 44-46). It also risks being too remote from the labour market when delivered by staff who are not career guidance specialists (especially when the services are wholly school based). It therefore needs to be replaced or at least supplemented by a developmental approach that is better embedded in the curriculum.

The emerging model for career guidance is one in which personal interviews are only one element in a programmed approach to career development and decision-making. New models tend to include other approaches, such as group guidance organised around specific themes and issues, a career education curriculum, ICT-based assistance, and experiential learning in workplaces. Attempts are also being made to reinforce the school-based guidance provision by making extensive use of external partners such as parents, employers and trade union representatives, members of non-governmental organisations and alumni (Sultana, 2004, pp. 46 and 51-52) who can speak about their own occupational experiences or other specific topics of which they have particular knowledge. In some countries school students have been encouraged to keep track of their main career-related learning using portfolios, so that they develop the ability to manage their own learning and to see its possible relationships with their career plans⁹⁰. In

many countries programmes on career education are now included in the curricula⁹¹. These vary in content, but usually focus on the understanding of the world of work and its requirements, while also giving attention to the development of self-awareness and decision-making skills (OECD, 2004a, p. 44), as well as skills in writing a curriculum vitae and self-presentation for selection interviews (Sultana, 2004, p. 46). In a number of countries the curriculum includes work experience, work shadowing, work visits and work simulation.

In general terms if individuals are to realise their full lifelong learning potential, it is necessary for them to master a whole range of choices in the 'continuum' of initial education, work and continuous and recurrent learning throughout life. The skills required to manage a 'life career' include a strong 'meta-cognitive' dimension, i.e. the ability to learn how to learn. Career self-management competences⁹² and decision-making competences that enable individuals to identify and manage their own learning should therefore become learning outcomes in every education institution. For this to happen, the ways in which guidance services are usually provided within schools need to be reviewed. Indeed, a review of the overall curriculum in terms of both learning outcomes and the organisation of learning processes (moving from passive knowledge transfer to active knowledge development and from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred education approach) will be needed⁹³. New ways of teaching and learning through the active involvement of the learner, who must take a greater level of responsibility in the learning process (i.e. self-responsible learning) are necessary. As a result, control of the learning process

⁹⁰ See, among others, OECD (2004b), p. 16; Sultana (2004), p. 48. For a detailed description of possible features of the portfolio method and its possible outcomes, see for example Kristensen et al. (2003).

⁹¹ For an overview on the different models of curriculum-based career education, see Sultana (2004), p. 47.

⁹² A recently published OECD report on human capital (OECD, 2002) suggests that career management skills may play an important role in economic growth. It points out that less than half of the earnings variation between OECD countries can be accounted for by educational qualifications and readily measurable skills. It argues that a significant part of the remainder may be explained by people's ability to build and manage their skills. Included in this are career planning, job-search and other career management skills. There is a close harmony between this wider view of human capital and concepts of employability. Seen from this perspective, it seems that career guidance has the potential to contribute significantly to national policies for the development of human capital. On this topic see also Watts and Sultana (2004), pp. 105-122.

⁹³ On this topic see Meijers and Wesselingh (1999).

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will gradually shift from the teacher to the student, so that at a certain stage the teacher can step back and allow the student to take an active role in the learning process (Meijers and Wesselingh, 1999). This new approach to learning and the changing role of teachers in the learning process are key features of ongoing education reform debates and policies in several EU countries⁹⁴.

Clearly the teachers themselves must also be prepared to change their activities in order to develop students' career self-management and career decision-making skills. This implies a change in teachers' competences as well as in the organisation of their work in the school. The roles of specialist counselling teachers and other teachers in schools must therefore also be revised. It is often the case in schools that those who provide career education and guidance are not career guidance specialists, and they often combine career guidance with other roles, such as carrying out teaching appointments, and providing counselling for personal problems and difficulties at school. Furthermore, the number of people engaged in counselling activities in schools is often insufficient to meet the students' needs, and in many cases they lack even the most basic resources, such as a dedicated office space in which to meet students, and updated career information sources (OECD, 2004b, p. 13).

Overall the current focus on more active and self-regulated approaches to learning and the discussion about the resultant new professional roles of teachers and trainers should create very favourable conditions for the new approach to counselling and guidance advocated above. The focus in the curriculum on metacognitive competences, such as learning to learn, has a direct relevance for the discussion about the need to develop career self-management competences. If such metacognitive competences become key elements of the learning process in

schools, they will also result in students learning how to handle career information and decisions. When teachers become facilitators of learning processes rather than transmitters of expert knowledge, they develop an approach that is very close to the one that is increasingly expected from professional guidance and counselling experts. This does not necessarily imply that teachers will take over the role of these experts. There will undoubtedly still be a need for professional counsellors for collecting, preparing and providing easy access to career information. However, the existing walls between these experts and teachers and trainers in schools will be broken down and there will be space for the development of new forms of cooperation between professional teachers and counsellors as well as between education institutions and guidance and counselling organisations. Nevertheless, such new relationships still need to be developed.

A REVIEW OF THE SITUATION IN SOUTH EASTERN EUROPE⁹⁵

General trends and developments

Most countries in South Eastern Europe have only recently embarked on the transition from a centrally planned to a democratic market economy. They still have to deal with 'radical changes in the role of the state, the individual and the economy' that have 'an immense effect on the starting point, nature, and investment in career development' (Fretwell and Plant, 2001). Labour supply and demand were previously an outcome of (tightly regulated) state planning, where citizens had little leverage to exercise choice and where 'whole-life-jobs' were the reality. Growing flexibility of labour markets in the past few years and rapid changes in the economy have resulted in insecure employment periods and the need to change jobs and occupations.

⁹⁴ See Chapter 1 for a discussion of new learning theories that argue for such an approach.

⁹⁵ In drawing up this chapter we have used information from draft national reports from an ETF review of career guidance policies and practices in South Eastern European countries. This review was conducted during the period 2004 – 2005, covered Albania, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro, and will be published shortly.

South Eastern European countries, like other transition countries, are now having to face up to the 'career quake' that occurred earlier in economically advanced countries, where old notions were 'shaken and in many cases destroyed', replaced by 'a new concept of career [...], redefined as the individual's lifelong progression in learning and in work'⁹⁶.

As education and employment options have not simply increased but have also become less secure and transparent, people need more support to find their way around the education system and the labour market. It is therefore clear that there is an intensification of interest in career guidance in most South Eastern European countries.

In addition, the challenge of implementing lifelong approaches to learning and active approaches to labour market policy, which the countries are also facing, requires an improvement in the ways in which career guidance activities are currently organised in the region. Although there are great differences across the region, some characteristics are common to all South Eastern European countries. These characteristics illustrate a rather weak provision of guidance and counselling services.

- There is no policy (strategy) for career guidance at the national level; better cooperation between the ministries of education and the ministries of labour is needed in order to improve the situation.
- Career guidance is not yet seen as a responsibility of education institutions. Little or no systematic career education takes place in schools.
- There are no clear competence standards for staff who provide information, guidance and counselling. There are no dedicated programmes or courses provided at universities for people who want to specialise in the field.
- There are very few non-public guidance and counselling services.
- Methodologies for clients' needs analysis and evaluation of career

guidance activities have not been developed.

- Social partnerships are underdeveloped and employers and trade unions play no role in guidance and counselling.
- Finally, in most countries guidance staff are still expected merely to help people to make immediate choices in relation to further study, training and work, rather than to promote the skills and attitudes that are required for continued learning later in life.

Different histories, traditions, ideologies and policy regimes have an impact on shaping the education systems in different countries. This explains a number of similarities in career guidance between the countries that were part of Yugoslavia. However, despite some similarities, guidance services also reflect the economic, political, social, cultural, educational and labour market context, as well as the professional and organisational structures in which they operate and there are currently real differences that have developed across the region (Watts, 1996).

Career guidance has a long-established tradition in some of the countries. In Croatia and Serbia it has existed for more than 70 years (since 1931). In other countries, however, these services started only recently (in Albania in the 1990s, in Kosovo in 2002), with little tradition on which to build, particularly as far as education institutions were concerned. In most countries, including the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, and Bosnia and Herzegovina, vocational guidance has traditionally had a predominantly psychological orientation. In these countries the people most actively engaged in career information, guidance and counselling in schools are school psychologists, who receive help in their work from school pedagogues. In schools where no psychologists are employed, school pedagogues are the main providers of counselling and guidance. Their work should normally imply some kind of coordination with other school agents involved in career information and

⁹⁶ See 'Guidance and counselling: theory and practice for the 21st century', conference report, Budapest, Hungary, 29–30 March 2002, ETF, Turin, 2002.

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guidance (primary school teachers, subject teachers, class teachers and the school doctor). However, in reality this occurs only rarely. Among the reasons for this situation are the following:

- Teachers are obliged to follow an already overloaded curriculum, which does not include a special subject devoted to career information and guidance.
- There are no guidelines for treating curriculum subjects in such a way that the students are introduced to work and occupational fields. The extensive school curriculum does not leave enough time for teachers to explore and relate subject matter to career guidance issues.
- Teachers, school psychologists and pedagogues are not well prepared for career information, guidance and counselling. There are no special institutions providing training for this kind of support to students.
- School staff are not very well motivated to organise career guidance as an extra-curricular activity, as this is normally unpaid work and salaries are already low. There are no other incentives available to encourage teachers to invest time and energy in these kinds of activity.
- School psychologists and pedagogues are burdened with numerous other duties (such as the personal and social problems of students, problems of adjustment, problems with discipline and failure at school, and administrative tasks) and in practice have very little time for networking or cooperating with other colleagues either inside or outside school.

The implementation of career guidance varies considerably from one school to another; there is no overall standard for services in schools in the region. The degree of dedication to these activities depends on many factors, with the human factor most often prevailing over the financial one. Differences are evident in the level of importance given to delivering timely information and developing the skills required for career decision-making. Thus, there are primary schools in which parents and children are regularly informed (as

groups and individuals) about educational opportunities. Parents are invited by teachers to present information on their occupations to the students in their classes. As well as carrying out psychological testing and individual counselling, psychologists and pedagogues sometimes organise workshops with groups of students interested in similar areas of work, followed up by visits to secondary schools and companies, or visits by employers to the school. There are also examples of students returning to their former schools to present information on the schools and faculties they are currently attending, usually to pupils in the final grades. These activities are most often the result of initiatives by individual schoolteachers. Unfortunately the number of schools where this kind of career information and counselling occurs is rather small, and where it does exist, it is usually only organised in the final year of primary school. In most primary schools, career guidance is reduced to psychometric group testing (the examination of capabilities, interests and motivation) and individual counselling of interested students, with a small number of lectures on education and occupation choices by the class teacher or by counsellors from the vocational guidance department of the public employment services. These activities are usually organised in schools at the instigation of the employment service.

Individual pupils are sometimes referred to a psychologist in the vocational guidance department of the employment service in order to receive additional information and counselling services. In particular this concerns pupils who, due to their psychological or physical condition, have limited options for occupational choice. This is the case for example in Croatia and Serbia. One of the priority groups for the provision of information, guidance and counselling services is pupils who have reduced options because of health problems.

In most countries, however, the counsellors in the employment service have become gradually overloaded with such services to school pupils, since demands for counselling and guidance to core clients, namely unemployed people, job seekers

and employers, are increasing. It is becoming obvious that the employment service alone is unable to meet all existing needs in the field of career guidance. The service has neither the staff nor the budgets to do so. Opportunities for counsellors to work with pupils in the traditional way (individual face-to-face interviews) are therefore decreasing rapidly. Some employment services are responding to this situation by attempting to improve access to career-related information and adopting developmental models of delivery that include stronger self-service elements, using measures such as the following.

- Brochures and leaflets are being published, with titles such as 'Handbook of occupational choice' and 'Guide for future students'. Hard-copy material is still an important medium for disseminating information in the region⁹⁷.
- Websites are being developed (in Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina), aimed at different client groups. The language and style are sometimes adjusted to the target audience in order to motivate them to take an active approach to their own professional development. These websites give basic information about the world of work and refer to different sources of information. Some websites have interactive facilities.
- Different forms of group work are being developed, including approaches designed to help individuals to develop their career management skills.

In some countries, such as Serbia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, schools are organising and visiting so-called 'fairs' relating to professions, occupations and career development opportunities. During these fairs the schools present information on their curriculum, criteria for enrolment, educational profiles and fields of work. The majority of secondary schools in Croatia, Serbia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia have 'open school days' on which they present themselves to potential

students. In Croatia, within the framework of the annual crafts fair, craft schools exhibit the occupations for which they are preparing, especially those in which there is insufficient interest.

Career education in schools⁹⁸

The provision of formal career education is non-existent at all levels of education, with the exception of those institutions in which an interested lecturer or teacher has put limited arrangements in place. For the vast majority of young people in Kosovo, for example, 'career choices are made with little knowledge of the labour market, little assessment of their own attainments and aspirations and with limited support from their teachers'. In some countries career education in schools is a so-called 'cross-subject issue', a topic that should also be taught during other lessons (integrated into other subjects). In Croatia the greatest opportunities for introducing career development are in the teaching of foreign languages, nature and ethics/religion, and in regular class meetings with class teachers. Career education does not generally exist as an organised activity in the school curriculum. There is a commonly held opinion across the whole region that the provision of career education depends on the will of individual teachers and on their competence to integrate career education into the subject that they are teaching.

Primary and secondary school students do not play any active role in creating or organising activities concerning career guidance; they are in most cases users of services provided by others. However, this situation is not a characteristic of career guidance activities only. Throughout the whole education process in schools, students in all countries in the region are mainly receivers of knowledge passed on to them through lecturing by teachers. The difference is simply that teachers are not experts in career guidance issues, as they are in the specific subjects they are teaching. Their own education has not given them sufficient knowledge and practical skills to feel confident about engaging in career guidance and counselling.

⁹⁷ Access to the Internet in countries of South Eastern Europe is not yet as widespread as in the EU.

⁹⁸ Examples are taken from the above mentioned relevant national reports on the topic.

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There is even less support from teachers in vocational schools, since the prevailing opinion is that students in these schools have already chosen their occupations. The irony is that young people finishing vocational school and looking for a job do not know how and where to search for information, or how to present themselves to potential employers (either in their curriculum vitae or at a job interview). It is only after they have registered with the employment service that they are entitled to attend courses on active job seeking. In fact, it is only after people have left the (secure) educational environment, when they are facing acute problems in the labour market, that the need for active involvement, and taking responsibility for their own life-plan, becomes an issue. School leavers not only face a situation in which the knowledge that they have acquired appears obsolete because of outdated curricula and teaching materials in school; they also lack the necessary transition skills, and sometimes even the 'soft' skills (communication skills, team work, creativity) that are increasingly required by employers, but are still not promoted at school. Again, it is the employment service that has to fill this gap.

Similarly, universities in the region have no specialist career guidance services. Students receive no help from their faculties during the course of their studies, or even after they graduate. In a few cases, faculties have organised student exchanges or forum discussions that bring together external experts. They rarely organise visits to potential employers and only occasionally take part in so-called personnel-potential fairs. Career days are organised only in Albania, Croatia and Serbia. The universities have student offices, but these deal with administrative issues, not guidance. There are, however, some instances in which student organisations are very active in collecting career information on undergraduate and postgraduate studies within the country and abroad, or in finding out about scholarship opportunities. Organisations such as Infostud in Serbia, Independent Youth of Kutina and SIC (Student Information Centre) in Croatia are examples of such initiatives.

From this review it is clear that schools at all levels of the education system generally fail to satisfy students' needs for guidance. The education system as a whole pays little attention to guiding students through their future educational and occupational career. If we want to understand the reasons for this situation, we have to place guidance and counselling within a broader context of education reform.

Education systems in the region are still characterised by a high degree of centralisation and extreme rigidity. The systems are inflexible, unresponsive to the needs of individual learners and not adjusted to labour market needs. Social partners – employers, chambers, trade unions, the local community, other ministries, parents and students – have hardly any influence. Education is still largely determined by the ministries of education alone, and academic in nature. Reforms of education systems have started only very recently. The process is long, difficult and slow, since there are a large number of problems to be addressed. Some of these issues are particularly relevant to career guidance in schools.

- In vocational education, practical training plays the most important role in linking the world of education and the world of work. However, in many vocational schools there are huge problems in organising proper practical training. The observation made in one of the national reports (Montenegro) is typical for all countries: 'The workshops in vocational schools are very poorly equipped; most non-transformed enterprises are not operating, which means that there are no conditions for providing the students with efficient training at employers' premises. Restructured enterprises and the private sector do not always show enough interest in students' training.'
- There are also serious problems in the theoretical part of general and vocational education: the contents are still described in detail, with a focus on the knowledge to be acquired, which leads to highly formalised and didactic styles of teaching. However, making a choice about further education or employment means actually having to

deal with an issue that could have different outcomes. What is lacking in current teaching methods based on the transfer of knowledge is learning how to solve practical problems.

- There is still too much emphasis on regular, formal education, while the education of adults and the role of non-formal education and informal learning are severely neglected. Students should learn that the formal education system is not the sole provider of knowledge and skills. However, in practice the formal education system has a quasi-monopoly, and teachers do not provide bridges to the world outside the school. This indicates the need for a review of pre and in-service teacher training to ensure that teachers are equipped to play their new roles, both in the classroom and in cooperation with others outside the school.

Labour markets in South Eastern Europe are currently undergoing radical changes, which indirectly affect the area of vocational guidance. Employment rates have fallen dramatically; the number of redundant workers has increased; there is a high rate of long-term and structural

unemployment, a low number of new jobs, and a mismatch between the workforce supply and the demand for labour; salaries are low; and participation in the grey or informal economy is high.

A recent World Bank review argued that middle-income countries tend in general to have less well-developed career guidance systems than high-income countries, and in particular, more limited career information to support such systems (Watts and Fretwell, 2004). It is suggested that this may be partly because of low levels of public resources, partly because the range of choices for many individuals is more restricted, and partly because more people are preoccupied with economic survival rather than with development and growth. While in South Eastern Europe there may be some evidence for all these factors, it is increasingly clear that the ability to cope with problems and uncertainty caused by constant changes in the environment is not dependent on the availability of a guidance system alone. This is also something that should be part of the learning process in school. Some recent initiatives in the countries of the region show that there is an increasing awareness of these issues⁹⁹.

Albania

The discussion about a school-based guidance system will be initiated with the introduction of an 'orientation year' or 'ninth grade', as an integral part of compulsory schooling. The objective of the orientation year is to assist school leavers to identify career options and to help them with career decisions. A key principle of the ninth grade is to allow pupils to experience the world of work in professions of their choice and to let them evaluate their own abilities and preferences.

A career development project funded by the Soros Foundation has developed useful career development resources, including the adaptation of interest tests, Holland's Self-Directed Search¹⁰⁰, and exercises to improve decision-making skills. The project has several attractive aspects, including the view that career development should continue throughout life; the attempt to link the education sector with the labour market; and the use of foreign (Lithuanian) experts to train staff from both schools and employment services.

⁹⁹ The examples are all taken from the draft national reports on guidance and counselling in South Eastern Europe.

¹⁰⁰ John L. Holland developed the Self-Directed Search as a tool to help people to identify their true occupational interests. Based on agreement with a set of statements, the test indicates a preference for six areas of occupational interest: social, enterprising, realistic, conventional, artistic and investigative. This test has been used as a basis for more complex tests by many public and private guidance agencies to account for the fact that in reality many occupations involve combinations of these six areas of interest. The original test can be accessed at the following address <http://www.self-directed-search.com>.

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Bosnia and Herzegovina

ProMENTE, a non-governmental organisation concerned with psychological research and practice, has developed a new Internet-based model of career guidance for primary and secondary school students, through which students can access information on occupations and qualifications relating to their interests.

A special feature of the model is that it includes information on all secondary, further and higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina, based on Holland's theory of occupational interests. The Internet version of the model always presents occupational information in relation to the qualifications that are required, together with links to education institutions at which these qualifications can be obtained. The second aim of the project (of the current phase) is the actual delivery of career advice in two elementary and two secondary schools in Sarajevo and in Banja Luka, as well as in two advice centres in the same towns.

Croatia

For the past two years the Croatian Chamber of Crafts and Trades has organised an exhibition of vocational occupations, entitled 'I want to be a master'. Similar events have been organised at regional level. The chamber also works closely with vocational schools and has organised several visits to Germany to enable teachers to see how vocational education in the dual system is organised.

The Croatian Employment Service has published a 'Guide to occupations' on its websites, including an interactive questionnaire through which users can obtain advice on fields of work and occupations that match their interests. They can also gain information from descriptions of occupations and the psychological or physical working conditions that characterise them.

The employment service has also started the process of adapting the British CASCAiD programme of vocational guidance in electronic form, which is based on the self-evaluation of interests¹⁰¹. The programme will be used by the regional offices of the employment service, and by education institutions. Work on the programme is undertaken in cooperation with the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports and the Agency for Vocational Education.

Over the past few years the regional employment offices have opened information centres that quickly and efficiently provide clients with the data necessary for the successful planning of professional development. All centre services are based on the principle of self-help, and provide information on a wide range of education and employment issues.

Kosovo

The EU KOSVET project has trained over 100 staff from a variety of agencies and schools. A range of career education materials for the classroom, covering self-analysis, labour and learning market analysis, decision-making and transition skills, have been developed and disseminated. Teachers and other staff have been trained to use these materials. The KOSVET project has made a number of recommendations for the future development of career guidance services in Kosovo.

The project has also established a small local networking pilot between primary (elementary) schools and employment offices. The work initially involved only

¹⁰¹ See <http://www.cascaid.co.uk/website/index.jsp> for details.

vocational schools, which are the main targets for the project as a whole. It became apparent, however, that the career guidance component also needed to target general education schools and teachers of grades seven to nine in particular. It is at the end of these grades that young people begin to make crucial choices affecting the direction of their future education and training path, and career orientation.

Career education as such is not established in Kosovo, but may be developed as part of the emerging national curriculum. A number of teachers, counsellors and others have undertaken some basic training in lesson design. It is likely to develop as part of citizenship education or other related subjects, such as personal and social education. Furthermore, work experience does not currently exist, but it is included in the preparation phase of the new curriculum.

The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

With the implementation of the 1998 Phare programme, reforms in secondary vocational education in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia began, and in 2000 a project on 'Career guidance and consulting for young students' was launched.

At the end of June 2000, centres for career guidance and counselling were established in 16 vocational schools, and training was carried out for two professional advisers in each school (one pedagogue and one psychologist). At the same time one professional adviser (either a pedagogue or a psychologist) for career guidance activities was trained in each of 52 primary schools. Ten more vocational schools were included in 2001. Students were trained to produce a curriculum vitae, and their achievements recorded using a portfolio.

In 2004 the 'Secondary Education Activity' project was introduced, which has as one of its components the career development of students. Within the context of this project, 50 secondary school career centres have already been established. In total around 40% of all vocational schools in the country are involved in the project.

Montenegro

The employment agency prints and publishes guides for pupils in the final year of primary school and in secondary school. There is also an electronic version of the guide on the Internet for secondary school students. It contains labour market information for students who do not plan to continue their education. For students who wish to continue their studies there is information on education opportunities.

These guides are complemented by appropriate material in the media. The employment agency also organises a competition for the best painting and best essay with a career guidance topic.

Serbia

The Belgrade Open School (BOS, a non-governmental education organisation) started the career guidance and counselling programme within Serbia's VET system in four regional adult education centres that were involved in the VET reform programme. The target groups are the pupils of 11 pilot classes from 10 vocational secondary schools. They are the first to finish their secondary education under the reform programme, and in a number of years will be the first to take the graduation exam.

The establishment of the Centre for Career Development was aimed at developing a new model for career and vocational guidance in technical secondary schools. In this

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centre students are trained for job seeking, and various activities are organised to bring them in contact with employers, colleges and universities. Teachers in the three partner schools underwent training for organising career days in their own schools.

The Vocational Guidance Department of the public employment service, in cooperation with education institutions in the regions, organises vocational guidance fairs at which vocational schools and gymnasiums can exhibit their programmes to pupils who are finishing primary education. The public employment service has also recently published a 'Handbook of occupational choice – Where to enrol after primary school'. It is intended for future secondary school students, as a way of encouraging self-service in the field of vocational guidance. It helps pupils to choose an occupation according to their vocational interests and aptitudes (the categories of vocational interests are based on John Holland's Self-Directed Test). Pupils can access a great deal of information on different occupational fields and on which schools provide the relevant education.

Although the provision of career guidance services is organised in a richer variety of ways than in the past, most countries have still not moved away from the traditional model of guidance service provision. Countries that had a tradition of delivering services to clients¹⁰², where the emphasis was on counselling by psychologists who preferred face-to-face approaches that were often curative and remedial in nature, have succeeded to a certain extent in diversifying their methods and sources of provision. ICT-based assistance has increased in some countries; group guidance sessions are occasionally organised around specific themes; and there are attempts to use community members (including employers, parents, trade union organisations and alumni) and improve networking between different stakeholders. Yet special attention must still be given to improving the services offered to certain groups of users who under the current system have minimal opportunities to participate in the counselling process (such as individuals not included in the formal education system, unemployed people not on the employment services register, and individuals who are employed).

In view of the increasing need for these kinds of service, it may be necessary to establish a network of information and career counselling centres at regional and national levels, so that professional

information is available to the widest possible range of groups. It may also be necessary to give more attention to group work with students in schools, which would make more resources (human, time and financial) available for working with those groups which need intensive, individual assistance.

However, the improvement that is most urgently needed relates to the move away from interventions at distinct key moments in the lives of clients, young and adult, and towards supporting a lifelong process of vocational development. This implies that, as well as ensuring the provision of and access to lifelong counselling and guidance services, there is a need to improve the capability of people themselves to make informed career choices. Here teachers in the region do not yet have a recognised role, and their contribution could be strengthened.

CONCLUSIONS: A FUTURE ROLE FOR TEACHERS?

The challenges for vocational guidance and counselling in the countries of South Eastern Europe are tremendous. As with so many education, training and employment institutions, guidance and counselling has to cope with the consequences of transition while at the same time establishing a system that can cope with the challenges

¹⁰² Such as Serbia and Montenegro, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

of the near future. Moreover, it cannot do so in isolation from other institutions that have a role in education and employment. The greatest challenge is to develop capabilities to provide lifelong counselling and guidance by simultaneously securing easy access to relevant information and developing the competences to find and properly use such information. Old concepts of guidance and counselling already need to be radically revised before they have really had the chance to be implemented. This situation creates both risks and opportunities. In most countries the basic infrastructure for the collection and provision of information on education, training and work still needs to be developed; this includes the training and employment of professional guidance and counselling staff. The present lack of such infrastructure clearly is a significant risk. However, the absence of an institutional heritage of guidance and counselling may also provide opportunities. If the political will is present and resources are available, it is often easier to build up something new than to change existing institutions. This is especially the case if the development of these services can be integrated into the ongoing reforms of education and training, reforms that themselves focus on giving greater responsibility to learners and transforming the role of teachers from being transmitters of expert knowledge to becoming facilitators of learning processes.

Overall, it appears that action will be required at different levels in order to make real progress in the development of a modern vocational counselling and guidance system in the countries of the region. It is clear that a separate counselling and guidance system that is not integrated into the learning process in schools will not be able to face the challenges of providing lifelong career development support. Teachers and trainers will have to play a role, but they need a positive enabling environment to be able to do so. To that end, much still needs to be done in order to convince principal stakeholders of the importance of having a system of counselling and guidance in place. Furthermore, the current reform of the system must take better account of the relevance of guidance, both as a cross-subject element that can make curriculum

contents more practice-oriented and applied, and as a feature of new kinds of meta-cognitive skills, such as learning to learn and problem-solving competences. The latter also requires changes in the organisation of learning processes and in the roles played by teachers and trainers. Teachers themselves therefore need to learn to become competent to perform their new roles. These are complicated processes in which various initiatives have to be implemented simultaneously. This should nevertheless be possible, as long as the overall perspective is clear and is jointly shared by those involved. By way of conclusion, some suggestions will be presented for making these ideas more concrete.

Raising awareness among stakeholders

Efforts should be intensified to enable all stakeholders – policymakers, teachers, employers, and others – to have access to information on international policy debates and developments. They can then familiarise themselves with experiences from other countries in which lifelong guidance and counselling is seen as:

- a contribution to the development of a country's human resources;
- a means to improving the efficiency and equality of education and training systems;
- a tool to help improve the fit between education and the labour market;
- a support for the internationalisation of education and employment;
- a way to improve labour mobility and to help the labour market to adjust to change.

Reforming the curricula and including a greater focus on career guidance

There is a need to introduce career education into or across the curriculum, so that the personal interviews by school psychologists or pedagogues that still dominate the counselling and guidance scene can be supplemented by other instruments and approaches.

In order to define the most appropriate model for the introduction of career education (including awareness of the

9. A ROLE FOR TEACHERS IN LIFELONG GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING?

world of work and development of career managements skills), a study should be conducted in every country in the region into the curriculum of primary schools, general secondary schools and vocational secondary schools. In the case of the latter, the programmes might relate to opportunities within occupations linked to the educational profile, to the transferability of knowledge and skills to other occupations, the exploration of broader opportunities, and active job-search skills. Possible models include:

- incorporating career education elements into the curriculum for all subjects;
- increasing the time spent with the classroom teacher each week, and incorporating career education into the curriculum for these periods;
- appointing a new teacher to provide career education as a separate subject, or embedding career education into a more broadly based subject, such as social studies or personal and social education;
- developing programmes outside the curriculum;
- adapting the organisation of learning processes to a more active role for learners and the development of metacognitive competences¹⁰³.

This last model does not really present a separate model of curriculum-based guidance and counselling, but rather refers to a complete change of the overall curriculum approach, in which competences that are also useful for career management and decision-making are developed. The models should therefore be seen as enabling more attention and focus to be given to guidance and counselling issues; this will depend on the practicalities within each school. The models are not mutually exclusive but complementary in nature.

In developing and implementing any of these models in schools, attention should be paid to evidence of the efficacy of the models used in other countries. This should include an exploration of possibilities for

adapting methods and resources to the specific contexts of schools in countries and regions, and the identification of necessary requirements for staff training, inspection and monitoring.

Helping teachers to develop their competence in the field of counselling and guidance

Another urgent requirement is the inclusion of issues of counselling and guidance in pre-service teacher training in universities and in in-service training for teachers who are already working. A review of pre and in-service teacher training with a view to equipping teachers to play their new roles is badly needed. Some of the changes in modern (VET) teacher education are moving in the direction of sandwich-type courses with periods at university alternating with periods at vocational schools throughout the period of study¹⁰⁴. This approach is based on mentoring in schools, which is linked to the professionalisation of the counselling role of mentors. Guidance as learner support requires an expert knowledge of the principles of learning and teaching (educational psychology) and the application of this knowledge to educational and vocational decision-making and transitions (vocational psychology) (McCarthy, 2004, pp. 159-178).

For teaching staff already employed in schools, in-service or continuing training should be organised for work in career guidance. This should involve all teachers as well as the school pedagogues and psychologists. The roles of these specialists should be reviewed in the light of the overall policies for counselling and guidance. Counselling and guidance roles could become part of new teacher career structures in schools. In order to capitalise on the established infrastructure and experience of the public employment services in most of the countries in the region, close cooperation between career guidance staff working in education institutions and vocational guidance

¹⁰³ The implications of this change for VET teacher education has been recently analysed by Tron Inglar (see Inglar, 2002).

¹⁰⁴ See also Chapter 4 and 7.



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counsellors from the employment service should be developed.

For the establishment of competence profiles for guidance counsellors, the

standards accepted by the main international forum for guidance practitioners and trainers – the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG) – should be applied¹⁰⁵.

¹⁰⁵ The core competences include: ethical behaviour and professional conduct; advocacy and leadership; intercultural awareness; the ability to apply theory and research to practice; the ability to communicate effectively; designing, implementing and evaluating guidance programmes; awareness of one's professional limitations; the ability to use computers; the ability to cooperate in a team of professionals; and knowledge of the lifelong career development process. The ten specialisms are: assessment; educational guidance, career development, counselling, information management, consultation and coordination, research and evaluation, programme and services management, community capacity building and placement.



10. THE ROLE OF TEACHER MOBILITY AND TEACHERS IN TEMPUS

*Deirdre Lennan*¹⁰⁶

10

INTRODUCTION

The other chapters of this Yearbook give a detailed overview of the role of teachers and teacher training in the development of education and provide suggestions for new challenges, based on experiences from EU Member States and the ETF's partner countries. This chapter looks at the EU's contribution to teacher training, the individual development of teachers, and the creation of a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) through the Tempus

programme¹⁰⁷, the EU's main higher education development instrument for the partner countries. It will highlight the ways in which Tempus projects have already stimulated and are now encouraging and reinforcing trends towards innovation in the field of teacher training, and in this way, are contributing to the emerging culture of change.

These highlights are based on statistical data, policy documents, statements in individual project reports, report assessment findings¹⁰⁸ and in one case an

¹⁰⁶ With contributions from György Ispánki and Simona Rinaldi.

¹⁰⁷ For more information on Tempus, see http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/programmes/tempus/index_en.html

¹⁰⁸ Reports from the following Joint European Projects were used: S_JEP-12045-1997, Application-Oriented Retraining and Quality Assessment (AQUA); S_JEP-12086-1997, Telematics and Multimedia within the Information Society (TEMIS); S_JEP-12144-1997, Ingénierie Educative pour le Premier Degré; S_JEP-12224-1997, Science Teacher Education Programme (STEP); S_JEP-12267-1997, Science-Mathematics Teacher for a New Century; S_JEP-12290-1997, Continuing Education System for Academic Staff in Trnava; S_JEP-12327-1997, Implementation of Telematics in Education; S_JEP-12329-1997, Upgrading of Continuing Teacher Education in the Czech Republic; S_JEP-12339-1997, Multimedia and Distance Learning for Teachers; S_JEP-12391-1997, Teilintegrierte Naturwissenschaft in der Leherbildung; S_JEP-12508-1997, Development of Modern Learning and Teaching Strategies; S_JEP-12517-1997, Development of a Regional Centre for the Continuing Education of Social Sciences Teachers; S_JEP-12534-1997, Open and Distance

interview with a stakeholder. Whilst the references used provide a fairly solid basis for elaborating findings and drawing conclusions, it has not been possible to use all sources of investigation. Other sources could eventually complement or perhaps even contradict these findings.

WHAT IS TEMPUS?

Tempus is one of a number of European Community programmes designed to help the process of social and economic reform and development in the New Independent States and Mongolia and in the non-associated countries of South Eastern Europe and the Mediterranean region.

The Tempus programme focuses on the development of the higher education systems in these countries through cooperation with institutions from the EU Member States. The programme is based on the understanding that higher education institutions are of particular importance for the social and economic transition process as well as cultural development; they are also pools of expertise and of human resources and provide for the training of new generations of leaders.

The first Tempus programme lasted from 1990 to 1994. The programme was consolidated and renewed for the periods 1994 to 1998 and 1998 to 2000, and again for the period 2000 to 2006. It has become customary to refer to these periods of the programme as 'Tempus I', 'Tempus II', 'Tempus II bis' and 'Tempus III' respectively. The new Member States, and Bulgaria and Romania were the first countries targeted by the programme, and participated in it until 2000.

THE BOLOGNA PROCESS AND TEMPUS

Although the idea of promoting educational exchange activities across the EU Member States dates back to the early 1970s, organised cooperation among higher education institutions has only existed since the mid 1980s, when Erasmus¹⁰⁹ and Comett¹¹⁰, two of the main EC cooperation programmes, were launched, facilitating considerable educational, cultural and linguistic exchange.

It has become increasingly evident that the rapidly emerging and globalising economy requires employees to be well prepared for the latest technologies, and to have a comparative international perspective and a good knowledge of one or more foreign

Learning System for Permanent Education; S_JEP-12552-1997, New Informational Technology in Continuing Education; S_JEP-12561-1997, TRUST - TRaining Unit for Secondary Teachers; T_JEP-10329-1997, 'DIVIGENIE' / FUSEDU-HM; AC_JEP-13101-1998, Innovation of Teacher Teaching in Physics and Maths; AC_JEP-13394-1998, Information Society Starts from School - IS3; AC_JEP-13411-1998, Modern Education of Teachers (METEA); AC_JEP-13425-1998, Reform of Mathematics Teacher Training in Slovakia; AC_JEP-13575-1998, The European Teacher Training Project for the Republic of Macedonia; T_JEP-10470-1998, Reforming the Education of Teachers in Uzbekistan Using IT (RETUIT); AC_JEP-14040-1999, TTT&R-VET: Teachers' and Trainers' Training and Retraining for Reformed VET; AC_JEP-14136-1999, Specialist Studies for Professors of Secondary Vocational Education in Mechanics; AC_JEP-14149-1999, Multicultural Education: Teaching Tools, Teacher Training; AC_JEP-14327-1999, Model für Fort-und Weiterbildung der Lehrer der naturwissenschaftlicher Fächer; T_JEP-10830-1999, Developing health education through Teacher Training; CD_JEP-15057-2000, Partnership in curriculum development for teacher training in democracy; CD_JEP-16012-2001, 'IN FOCUS'; IB_JEP-16081-2001, Improvement of Teaching Quality in South East Europe; NP_JEP-22265-2001, DIERUU; CD_JEP-17076-2002, Quality Development of Higher Education; CD_JEP-18049-2003, Langue étrangère en primaire: formation d'enseignants; IB_JEP-24166-2003, Outreach: Professional Development for Rural Teachers.

¹⁰⁹ Erasmus is the higher education element of the EC Socrates programme. Its main objective is to enhance the quality and reinforce the European dimension of higher education, by encouraging transnational cooperation between universities, boosting European mobility and improving the transparency and full academic recognition of studies and qualifications throughout the Union (http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/programmes/socrates/erasmus/erasmus_en.html).

¹¹⁰ Comett, COMmunity programme for Education Teaching and Training, was designed to encourage cooperation between universities and industry in the development and provision of training in fields involving advanced technology (<http://europa.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11015b.htm>).

languages. In order to strengthen the human resources of the European single market, both the European universities and the European Community have paid greater attention to the internationalisation of higher education.

The Bologna Magna Charta of European universities signed on 18 September 1988¹¹¹ expressed the importance of the advancement of learning as a steady attainment of knowledge to be reached by encouraging mobility among teachers and students. For its part the EC emphasised the importance of expanding cooperation in higher education to the new democracies of the former Eastern bloc through the introduction of the Tempus programme. As well as encouraging educational cooperation between the Member States, the Maastricht Treaty¹¹² focused on the academic recognition of diplomas and on developing student exchange programmes and the role of educational instructors.

However, the main breakthrough came with the Bologna Declaration, which set out a clear and complex strategy for European higher education until 2010 through the establishment of the EHEA. The Bologna Declaration was signed by 29 countries in 1999. To date, the number of signatory countries has increased to 40, and with recent applications, this could rise to 45 in the near future. This increase indicates considerable interest in the Bologna Process. In the Tempus partner countries the Bologna aims have increasingly been included in the national Tempus priorities.

Follow-up reports on the Bologna Process indicate that many countries have made considerable progress towards achieving its objectives, but much still remains to be done. In the national reports¹¹³ of 2003, the

Tempus contribution was mentioned only in terms of the development of quality assurance. However, all but one of the 2005 reports demonstrate a much broader Tempus contribution that also covers the development of legislative reforms; promoting student, teacher and staff mobility; contributing to the European dimension of higher education; promoting the benefits of the EHEA; and developing the structures overseeing the implementation of the Bologna Process¹¹⁴. It will be important to ensure that these opportunities are fully exploited.

HOW CAN TEMPUS SUPPORT AND ENCOURAGE ACADEMIC COOPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT?

The Tempus programme works in three distinct but interlinked ways: by cofinancing, through grants, projects and activities; by encouraging cooperation between institutions and between countries; and by encouraging exchanges of individuals and know-how, between Member States and partner countries, and between the partner countries themselves.

Three types of grant are awarded.

- **Joint European Projects (JEPs)** are structured projects aimed at achieving clearly defined objectives over two or three-year periods, and for which grants are awarded primarily to groups of cooperating institutions (universities) ('consortia'). These represent the main activity of the Tempus programme.
- **Structural and Complementary Measures** are shorter-term activities supporting national reform and targeting specific needs, with grants awarded

¹¹¹ www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/880918_Magna_Charta_Universitatum.pdf

¹¹² www.eurotreaties.com/maastrichttext.html

¹¹³ The Bologna countries must submit biennial national reports. (These can be found at www.bologna-bergen2005.no/EN/national_impl/03NAT_REP.HTM and www.bologna-bergen2005.no/EN/national_impl/05NAT_REP.HTM).

¹¹⁴ Although not specifically mentioned in the 2005 national report, Tempus has also made a considerable contribution to the development of higher education in Russia by financing the mobility of more than 7,200 Russian teachers and other staff to EU countries; more than 30% of these relate specifically to university management, European studies, modern languages, and education and teacher training. Tempus is considered the main instrument for Bologna in the Russian Federation's higher education development priorities of 2004.

through a relatively simple selection and award procedure. These activities can last from several weeks to a year.

- **Individual Mobility Grants** are awarded to individuals – professors, lecturers, and members of staff or ministry officials – to support their travel to other countries for work related to a particular reform process. These grants can vary in duration from one to eight weeks.

The Tempus programme has always paid special attention to academic visits; hence, mobility has remained an integral part of all types of Tempus grant, not only as a form of cooperation, but also as a tool for the implementation of department or institution level development. There is a view that joint educational development is unimaginable without staff mobility, or, as was stated in the Berlin Communiqué¹¹⁵, ‘mobility of students and academic and administrative staff is the basis for establishing a European Higher Education Area’.

Since it began, Tempus, amongst other activities, has supported a high level of teacher mobility through the Phare, CARDS and Tacis Programmes, mainly through Joint European Projects and Individual Mobility Grants. With the expansion of the programme to the Mediterranean region, the dissemination and exchange of experience currently covers 28 countries and three continents. According to the most recent data available¹¹⁶, since 1990 Tempus has financed more than 98,700 higher education staff study visits from the beneficiary countries to the EU, of an average duration of 2.5 weeks¹¹⁷.

The impact of mobility

The purpose of the mobility can vary from project to project, and is aimed principally at training, retraining and placements, but also at developing new curricula, carrying out teaching assignments or undertaking activities linked to university management.

These staff mobility visits produce a professional benefit for the grant holder. Through such visits, new ideas, information, contacts, profiles, methods and attitudes can be integrated into the activities and operations of the beneficiary institutions. Consequently, Tempus projects potentially contribute to the individual development of the academic and administrative university staff associated with the relevant project profiles and subject areas.

The results of the visits certainly vary depending on the type of activity, the duration of the study period, the destination, the professional contribution of the host institution, and many other factors. In general, the mobility activities produced the following benefits at individual and institutional levels.

- While participation in target group-oriented and freshly elaborated intensive courses and retraining activities has had a direct effect on the participating teachers’ individual development, practical placements can also be considered an effective tool for practice-oriented teacher training. These experiences extend to other staff and students in the home institution.
- Teaching assignments can also be regarded as an indirect individual development exercise; namely, they give teachers the opportunity to lecture on courses in a different educational environment, in either other target countries or EU Member States. During these assignments teachers acquire new methodologies and teaching techniques, and a deeper knowledge of foreign languages. Questions and feedback from a different academic milieu could lead to new approaches, and reveal new problems and solutions.
- Finally we should not forget the indirect effects of the visits. These mainly relate to project management and curriculum, strategic and institutional development issues. The visits have made a considerable contribution to the

¹¹⁵ Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education in Berlin on 19 September 2003.

¹¹⁶ Database of the European Training Foundation.

¹¹⁷ Detailed figures for MEDA are not yet available.

improvement of personal abilities such as networking, cooperation, project management, university management and joint curriculum development.

TEMPUS AND TEACHER TRAINING

As a higher education development programme, Tempus obviously also concentrates on specific teacher training issues relating to undergraduate teacher training and aspects of in-service training. In these projects the focus is on the teaching profession, didactics, methodology and the introduction of new tools and equipment, with a constant increase in the number of multimedia and distance learning features. In order to illustrate the variety of project experiences, it is worth summarising the overall developments and typical outcomes of the Tempus JEPs that focus directly on teacher training.

Teacher training is covered in Tempus both as a field of study and as an activity for retraining teaching staff. The activity component is present in practically every funded project, and teacher training as a field of study has been one of the areas targeted more or less continuously by the Tempus programme since 1990, though to a more limited extent in terms of numbers (106 of a total of 2,484 JEPs funded¹¹⁸).

The outcomes of projects in the field of teacher training in the Phare¹¹⁹ countries were generally country-specific, reflecting the national priorities for teacher training, and in some cases even university-specific. Overall, given the limited number of projects, the contribution of Tempus to the reform of teacher training has been rather

selective, and can be seen mainly in terms of establishing model programmes or courses and, at least in the four countries studied over the period 1994 – 2001¹²⁰, introducing information technology into teacher education. In addition, by introducing two-cycle programmes in some countries and Master's programmes in others, Tempus has contributed to the new degree structures set up by higher education legislation or promoted in reform strategies; this coincides with the objectives of the Bologna Process, although the Declaration was in fact signed later.

The needs analyses for most teacher training projects in almost all Tempus III countries¹²¹ stated that the teaching process and curricula were not student oriented, but were teacher and subject oriented. The quality of methodology and subject didactics was questioned and new ideas and fresh impetus were felt to be required. There was, and still is (since many of these projects are still running) a strong need for more self-responsibility, personal autonomy and independence of teachers and future teachers, this being one of the professional groups most affected by social and economic change and its consequences.

Over the years there has been a great variety of project outcomes, both in the new Member States and in the countries targeted by the current Tempus programme, CARDS and Tacis in particular. While the effects of the projects and their contribution to broader changes can be difficult to identify, the projects have encouraged and reinforced trends towards innovation, including the role of the teaching profession in society, and they continue to do so. In this way they are

¹¹⁸ Tempus I (1990 – 1994): 38 projects; Tempus II (1994 – 1996): 25 projects; Tempus II bis (1997 – 99): 30 projects; Tempus III (2000 – 2006): 13 projects.

¹¹⁹ Phare countries in Tempus: Until 2000, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, former Yugoslavia Republic of Macedonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Poland, Slovak Republic, Slovenia.

¹²⁰ Kolanowska, E., 'From Association Towards Accession in the Tempus programme, Inventory and Review of Project Outcomes in Hungary, Poland, Bulgaria and Romania 1994 – 2001', ETF for the European Commission Directorate-General for Education and Culture, April 2003. See also Ewa Kolanowska's chapter in the ETF Yearbook 2004, 'Learning Matters' (ETF, 2004).

¹²¹ Mainly CARDS and Tacis, and to a lesser extent MEDA, with only Algeria specifically mentioning teacher training in its priorities.

contributing to the emerging culture of change.

'The most important achievement of the project has been the shift in the attitudes of future teachers to their studies. Most of them understood the objectives of the project quickly; they also understood the new objectives of education and the new role of the teacher in education. The new role consists of preparing young people to work in a team, communicating, developing pupils' abilities to search for, find and interpret new information, and through the Internet, communicating and cooperating at both local and international level' – Tempus JEP-13101-98 Innovation of Teacher Training in Physics and Mathematics, Slovak Republic

Some of these innovations are outlined below.

Teacher mobility and the application of new pedagogical methodologies and materials

Within the Tempus teacher training projects, teacher mobility has been the main instrument for fostering knowledge sharing between teachers from different countries, and has strengthened institutional links. Participants have had the opportunity to update their professional skills and to share experience of pedagogical methods. This exchange has encouraged institutions to broaden and enrich the range of courses they offer, so that they can provide new and more modern training for those students who do not have direct access to mobility schemes.

Project reports make it clear that teacher mobility does not merely result in individual benefits: the benefits extend to other staff and students both at the host and home institutions.

Teachers from the partner countries now apply new methods in their lectures, promoting more active interaction with students to stimulate open discussion. This is often achieved through the analysis of case studies, so that analytical and problem solving skills are developed, both for the teachers themselves and for the students.

Students have also benefited from the expertise of academic staff from the EU who have carried out teaching assignments within the framework of the projects. Brainstorming sessions and class discussions are organised to encourage full and equal participation, and videotapes are used as an entertaining way of teaching and raising issues. Students are then able to apply these new methods in pre-service training.

'If the contents are not interesting for children then at least the manner of presentation can be...' – Tempus-JEP-17076-2002 Quality Development in Higher Education, Croatia

Projects tend (and are encouraged) to focus in particular on younger university staff in the partner countries. Tempus is the first opportunity for staff to develop new skills, and they are expected to contribute directly to updating methods in their home institution upon their return from retraining.

While the introduction of new training and pedagogical methodologies is common to all teacher training projects, many have also created new or updated existing training programmes, curricula and syllabi, as a direct result of the application of new pedagogical methodologies.

One of the particular features of Tempus is its bottom-up approach to development activities. Individual Mobility Grants are often the means by which cooperation to support individual initiatives is begun; this can then lead to developments within institutions. The following case from Croatia is a concrete example¹²².

¹²² IMG-2004-HRV-3016: based on an e-mail interview.

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Prof. Dijana Vican has been teaching for 17 years at the University of Zadar in Croatia. Along with two colleagues, she lectures in pedagogy, didactics, psychology and methodology to student teachers at the Faculty of Philosophy, where future primary and secondary school teachers for general subjects such as Croatian, history, sociology, philosophy, geography, and foreign languages are trained.

The faculty also teaches adults who have graduated from other Croatian faculties (such as economists, biologists, chemists, food technology engineers and engineers in informatics) who have decided to enter the teaching profession and follow a 'Programme of supplementary education or pedagogical, didactical, psychological and methodological education'. This programme currently lasts for several months each year and upon successful completion, its graduates become teachers and can then teach their own professional subjects.

Prof. Vican was dissatisfied with the system of vocational teacher training and had been looking for good examples of such training in other countries, especially the Scandinavian countries, which had a good track record in this respect, particularly Finland.

When Croatia signed up to the Bologna Process, this raised further questions: why it was necessary to become compatible; what was important in this reform; how a particularly complicated system could be changed; and where to begin the reform of teacher education and vocational teacher education. During a meeting in Zagreb in 2003, Prof. Vican enquired about the possibility of visiting Scandinavia. She felt that it was absolutely essential to go further than simply reading about the essence and nature of their teacher training system and actually learn about it in reality. Taking into account practical matters such as her lack of English, the cost of travelling and staying abroad, and what she could provide in return, a Tempus Individual Mobility Grant seemed to offer the best solution. She received information from her International Relations Office on how to apply, informed her Rector of her intentions, and began to look for a host institution. Through her recently established contacts, Prof. Leena Kaikkonen from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä Polytechnic¹²³ in Finland was recommended to her. After just three e-mails she was able to submit the online application to Tempus.

Prof. Vican had many doubts about whether her application would be accepted. However, after a formal assessment of her application and 600 others, she was awarded a grant.

What has she learnt from her stay in Finland? She has understood that the main issue in curriculum creation is the purpose of the curriculum (clear goals and clear expectations); that this must be the shared goal of all staff involved in developing and implementing curricula; that compatibility means considering the real and particular educational needs of one's own context, which can then be enriched at any moment through dialogue with others; and that the new Croatian programmes for teacher education and vocational teacher training courses are not very different from the previous ones, though the context and the working conditions are. In Finland people work in teams, with each team dealing with one part of the common syllabus. In Croatia, however, people are all working on several activities, though not necessarily as a team, and probably without a common purpose.

Prof. Vican is now disseminating her experience to other pedagogues in Croatia. She will be one of the main speakers at the 2005 meeting of Croatian pedagogues, and will describe her comparative analysis of the two vocational teacher training systems. She will follow this up through dialogue in informal and group meetings. She has written an article for the university's journal and is preparing an article for the school newspaper. She has also been invited by the principals and pedagogues of the vocational schools in the Zadar region to inform them about the application of the Bologna Process and its implications for teachers, vocational teachers, pedagogues and school principals. With the support of Prof. Kaikkonen, her Finnish partner, Prof. Vican is now planning to create a postgraduate study programme for vocational teachers in Croatia and a research project with other European colleagues. Prof. Kaikkonen has also been invited to Zadar to teach.

¹²³ *Handbook 2003 – 2004*, Vocational Teacher Education College, Jyväskylä Polytechnic, 2003 (www.vte.fi).

Liaison and cooperation between universities and schools

In many cases developments in teacher training in the partner countries also address new strategies for existing structures for liaison and cooperation between the university, regional authorities and the schools, in particular with respect to pre-service, continuing and in-service training for school teachers.

Activities focusing on these strategies have been undertaken primarily in the former Phare countries (now the new Member States, Bulgaria and Romania), particularly in 1997 and 1998; and centres of continuing education, training centres and open distance learning centres have been created with the clear objective of establishing a link between the higher education system and the general and vocational education systems. Although funds for such units were reserved until the end of the projects, it will be interesting to see how tight university budgets coped with such additional expenditure over a period of several years.

This trend is less evident in the Tempus III programme, at least in terms of creating new structures within the university to address these strategies. In the majority of teacher training projects the main focus is on the reform of teaching methods, didactics and university staff training.

One example is a teacher training institution building project¹²⁴ targeting all five South Eastern European countries¹²⁵ and involving a total of 16 universities and the ministries of education from the region. The project aims to address the limited amount of psychology, pedagogy, general didactics and subject didactics in the curricula for maths and sciences, as well as the lack of student-oriented teaching. An intensive retraining programme lasting for three years has targeted assistants, teachers and professors in maths and

sciences, general didactics teachers, and methodology teachers at universities who will take on the role of multipliers in selected schools. Inspectors for schools, as well as advisers, counsellors and mentors, are also being trained. There has been extensive participation in this project, and the intention now is to address curriculum standards. The final results of this project will be known shortly.

An earlier project in Uzbekistan¹²⁶ developed a concept for offering a unified, multilevel approach to teacher education and training. The project innovated teaching methodologies, developed a student-centred approach with the emphasis on team and project work for students, and developed four new modules for pilot schools. According to local information, these are still in great demand, and continue to contribute to bridging the gap between the staff development and teacher training systems two years after the completion of the project.

There are other notable examples of projects that have aimed to develop strategies leading to enhanced cooperation between the university and schools.

One of these projects¹²⁷, completed in 2002, aimed to restructure the training and retraining system for VET teachers and trainers in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. It was designed to introduce a new system of teaching qualifications, create a modular training structure for the theoretical and practical training of VET teachers, and establish a multimedia training centre in the university and three vocational didactic centres. This was an important project for the country, and following a thorough independent academic and technical assessment, was funded in 1999. The whole programme of pre-service training for VET teachers was revised and a system of alternating study and experience spread over a period of ten years was established. This system

¹²⁴ IB_JEP-16081-2001.

¹²⁵ Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro, and Kosovo (also known as the CARDS countries).

¹²⁶ T_JEP-10470-98 (finished on 30 March 2003).

¹²⁷ AC_JEP-14040-99 (finished on 31 December 2001). See also Chapter 4.

introduced the challenges of lifelong learning to VET teachers and offered opportunities for educational specialisation in vocational subjects. This latter element includes the periodic updating of knowledge and skills through in-house training. Student teachers and teachers in schools now have access to the multimedia centre for training and retraining, and the schools are able to use the equipment for demonstration and training purposes. The didactic centres are used by pre-service students during initial training for vocational didactics and by in-service teachers for retraining. Another result of the project has been the strengthened cooperation between staff members of the university, didactic advisers of the Bureau for the Development of Education, and coordinators in the pilot schools. Many other activities are being undertaken as a consequence. These results have had a wide impact among the main stakeholders and actors in the country, but now need to be supported at institutional level. The gradual system of qualifications for lifelong learning has been validated by the Ministry of Education, but has yet to be approved.

A more recent project in Croatia¹²⁸, funded in 2002, aims to introduce a new structure and curriculum for teacher training students in educational sciences faculties in their final (fourth) year of study. It organises both postgraduate studies in educational sciences for young teachers in primary and secondary schools, and in-service training in educational sciences for assistant professors and professors at teacher training and other faculties. This project fully supports the national priorities that encourage the establishment of new postgraduate programmes. In this case these are two-year postgraduate courses for the in-service training of newly appointed teachers in primary and secondary schools and the provision of third-level in-service training for assistant lecturers and university professors at teacher training and non-teacher training faculties.

NEEDS AND CHALLENGES FOR REFORMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

What emerges from the needs analyses section of most project applications is the continuing absence of efficient and permanent systems for the continuing training and retraining of teachers (at all levels) and trainers. This is also reflected at policy level.

For example, one of the objectives of the new Law on Higher Education adopted in Georgia in December 2004 is 'to address the need to provide higher education as well as training and retraining that correspond to the interests of an individual'. According to local reports, vocational training in other countries has already undergone basic reforms in response to external pressures, including a consolidation of teaching programmes, a concentration of training into shorter time periods, and a major reduction in public financing through a shift to financing by beneficiaries. This shift in financing is a trend that is becoming more and more evident across all partner countries, including those covered by the MEDA Programme, where, according to reports from monitoring visits to projects in the partner countries, resources for training provided by the universities come principally from fees.

Tempus priorities in 2004 are also targeting continuing training and lifelong learning in many countries. Training of vocational (and in some cases also secondary and technical) teachers is planned for Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. Egypt plans to establish a National Qualifications Framework. Montenegro and Algeria intend to work on teacher training curricula to support reforms at pre-university level. Tempus has recently financed a project in Algeria aimed at training public administration staff in the field of education as a support to the decentralisation of higher education.

¹²⁸ CD_JEP-17076-2002 (now in its second year).

All these reforms are fundamental for improving teaching qualifications and for a new concept of education at national level based on strong interaction between higher education and school education. Another important requirement is the adoption by schools of in-service training and partnership models as examples of mentoring systems. The target group of projects with similar objectives must be seen in a broader educational context, involving primary and secondary school teachers, student teachers, head teachers, advisers and those working in public administration.

A further challenge for higher education systems in partner countries is to enhance the use of information and communication technologies and distance learning in the delivery of training, further training and continuing training. This objective is particularly important for ensuring access to education and training in large countries (such as the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan) and in countries where demographic growth is increasing rapidly so that universities no longer have sufficient resources for traditional teaching methods (countries covered by MEDA and some Central Asian countries).

CONCLUSION

In view of the increasing demands for more and better teachers, it is now vitally important that policymakers make teaching a more attractive profession and promote the role of teachers in the overall reform process.

By supporting efforts to develop transparent and comparable degree structures based on undergraduate and graduate cycles for teacher training, Tempus is contributing to the objectives of the Bologna Process and EHEA across a range of partner countries. Moreover, lifelong learning strategies are being addressed through those projects that are developing systems for the training and retraining of teachers and trainers.

There has been substantial investment in making teaching more student oriented, including new methodologies, the introduction of new tools and equipment, the increased use of IT, multimedia and distance learning, and in addressing the continuing training of teachers at all levels. The effects of these innovations can be easily assessed in the universities, and are generally positive, but it would now be interesting to evaluate the multiplier effect in the schools. Indicators in pilot schools are also positive; however, this is not conclusive proof that Tempus has had a wide and sustainable impact across countries, especially since teacher training, and in particular continuing training for schoolteachers, is still widely identified as a priority by countries.

Reforms in all the areas discussed above have been and can be further supported through the Tempus programme. However, finding sustainable solutions for these reforms is a challenge that cannot be addressed by individual projects alone. Rather, it must be seen within the context of a national framework for educational reform.

11. STATISTICS ON TEACHERS AND TEACHING CONDITIONS IN ETF PARTNER COUNTRIES

11

Mircea Badescu

INTRODUCTION

This chapter briefly describes some of the main commonly used indicators and statistics on teachers and teaching conditions the the ETF's partner countries. In addition, it attempts to provide some short guidelines for their interpretation.

TEACHERS

Teachers are people whose professional activity involves the transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills to students who are enrolled in an educational programme. This definition does not depend on the qualifications held by the teacher, nor on the delivery mechanism. It is important to note that the definition includes only those who have active teaching or lecturing duties AND whose profession it is to teach AND whose responsibility it is to deliver an educational programme to students. The following categories of staff are excluded:

head teachers or principals who have no active teaching duties; those who teach on a voluntary or occasional basis; and supervisors, organisers and assistants who do not provide formal instruction to students.

The profile of teachers is not totally consistent across different countries, and there are problems associated with using head counts, since these vary according to the prevalence of part-time employment among the teaching force. Teachers who are employed to work for fewer than the statutory full-time working hours are usually regarded as part-time workers. One possible solution used by the ETF is to compare the number of full-time equivalent (FTE) teachers. In this way, teachers are counted by expressing the working hours of part-time teachers as a proportion of the hours of full-time teachers. For example, a part-timer who works half the statutory hours of a full-time teacher is equivalent to half a full-time teacher, or 0.5 FTE.

Main definitions used

Full-time teachers are teachers who normally work over an academic year at least as many hours as full-time teachers are contracted to do, even if they do not have such a contract. For example, a teacher who teaches in several schools may not have a full-time contract at any one school but may still work as many hours over an academic year as someone who teaches full-time in one school. **Part-time teachers** are teachers who normally work fewer hours over an academic year than the contracted hours of a full-time teacher.

Full-time equivalent numbers of teachers = number of full-timers + (number of part-timers/FTE conversion factor).

The **FTE conversion factor** for teachers is the number of part-time teachers that equate to one full-time teacher.

Interpretation

In ETF partner countries such as Croatia and Serbia it is a common to find a sizeable proportion of the part-time teachers in upper secondary education (vocational programmes). The proportion of part-time teachers should be seen in a broader context: it may reflect delays in matching the teaching force to changing student populations, or it may be related to the characteristics of the teaching process for particular programmes in specific countries (see Table 3).

TEACHING CONDITIONS

Teachers' workload is an important factor to be taken into account when comparing teaching conditions. Teaching can be made more attractive by allowing different working hours that permit overtime gains or other benefits. In some countries high salaries are counterbalanced by comparatively high numbers of teaching hours, while in others the teaching load is rather low, sometimes far too low.

Main definitions used

The **scheduled working time** of teachers refers to the number of hours that a full-time

teacher is expected to work, excluding overtime, non-specified preparation time, and days when the school is closed for holidays, according to the formal policy of the country. In order to account for non-specified working time in countries where teachers are also subject to other labour regulations (such as regulations for public employees), the working time of the relevant part of the labour force is also measured (statutory working time of public employees). Teachers' working time can be divided into teaching time and non-teaching time.

Directed-study hours include classroom lessons, lectures, seminars, tutorials and other similar sessions delivered by a teacher or lecturer (usually in person) to groups of pupils or students.

Teaching conditions for teachers in secondary education differ widely between ETF partner countries. An Albanian teacher in vocational education spends only 524 hours a year teaching, whereas the net contact time that a Bosnian teacher has with VET students is almost 900 hours a year. Teaching time is also higher in countries such as Serbia and Croatia. In some countries such as Russian Federation and Egypt the teaching time in secondary education is particularly high (one reference point could be OECD countries, for which the average is 674 hours a year).

The student/teacher ratio represents another useful tool for assessing teaching conditions. It can also highlight the different policy choices made by countries between the various elements of the teaching force. The lowering of student/teacher ratios is always considered a positive move, though it must be weighed against other policy goals such as investment in school infrastructure, equipment and supplies, and competitive salaries for teachers.

Student/teacher ratio is obtained by dividing the number of FTE students at a given level of education by the number of FTE teachers at the same level or for that same type of institution. When FTE are used, a more in-depth indication of the teaching conditions can be obtained (see Table 4).

11. STATISTICS ON TEACHERS AND TEACHING CONDITIONS
IN ETF PARTNER COUNTRIES

**Table 3: Teachers' statutory working time at ISCED level 3,
vocational programmes (2002)**

Region		Total	Teaching hours**
New EU Member States		NMS	
Cyprus	CY	m	580
Czech Republic	CZ	1648	586
Estonia	EE	1400	573
Hungary	H	m	610
Latvia	LV	m	640
Lithuania	LT	890	691
Malta	MT	m	m
Poland	PL	m	m
Slovak Republic	SK	1736	605
Slovenia	SI	m	m
Candidate countries		CC	
Bulgaria	BG	1440	648
Croatia	HR	1925	692
Romania	RO	1440	644
Turkey	TK	1306	567 [2, g]
South Eastern Europe		SEE	
Albania	AL	1066	524
Bosnia and Herzegovina*	BA	1750	875
FYR of Macedonia	MK	m	m
Serbia and Montenegro	SCG	m	m
Serbia	SR	1760	740
Montenegro	CG	m	m
Kosovo	KS	1220	660
Eastern Europe and Mediterranean		WEI	
Russian Federation	RUS	m	774 [2, g]
Tunisia	TUN	m	548 [2, g]
Egypt	EGY	m	748 [2, g]
Israel	ISR	m	m
Jordan	JOR	m	688 [1]

Source: UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat joint data collection (UOE), ETF Key Indicators database
OECD/UIS World Education Indicators

m = data missing or unavailable

[1] 2000/01

[2] 2001/02

[*] Data refers only to Federation of Bosnia

[g] Data refers to general programmes

[**] Total number of hours that a full-time teacher at ISCED level 3 vocational is expected to teach, according to the formal policy of the country

Table 4: Student/teacher ratio (based on FTE) at ISCED level 3 (2002/03)

Region		All programmes		Vocational programmes	Part-time VET teachers (as % of total)
New EU Member States		NMS			
Cyprus	CY	11.7		8.8	1.9
Czech Republic	CZ	12.5	▾	10.5	m
Estonia	EE	10.3	[2]	m	m
Hungary	H	13.1	▾	3.7	20.6
Latvia	LV	12.7		m	m
Lithuania	LT	8.3	▾	8.1	36.6
Malta	MT	10.1		m	m
Poland	PL	13.7	▾	14.6	m
Slovak Republic	SK	13.3	▾	11.8	19
Slovenia	SI	13.7	▾	13.3	23.3
Candidate countries		CC			
Bulgaria	BG	11.7	▾	10.9	4.9
Croatia	HR	11.7	▾	11.2	31.5
Romania	RO	14.4	▾	15.7	11
Turkey	TK	17.7	▾	13.7	m
South Eastern Europe		SEE			
Albania	AL	18.1	[2]	10.2	m
Bosnia and Herzegovina*	BA	15.1	[h]	m	m
FYR of Macedonia	MK	18.5		18.5	22
Serbia and Montenegro	SCG	m		m	m
Serbia	SR	12.2	[h]	m	25.6
Montenegro	CG	m		m	m
Kosovo	KS	9.8	[h]	m	m
Eastern Europe and Mediterranean		WEI			
Russian Federation	RUS	11.3		m	m
Tunisia	TUN	21.7	[l]	m	m
Egypt	EGY	13.2	[1]	m	m
Israel	ISR	14.0		m	m
Jordan	JOR	16.0		m	m

Source: UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat joint data collection (UOE), ETF Key Indicators database
OECD/UIS World Education Indicators

m = data missing or unavailable

[1] 2000/01

[2] 2001/02

[*] Data refers only to Federation of Bosnia

[h] Student ration based on headcounts

[l] Data refers to all secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3)

Interpretation

The student/teacher ratio is one of the most commonly used but often misinterpreted indicators. It is often seen as a broad indication of the resources devoted by countries to education, and is used to assess the teaching conditions, which often influence broader policies on the financing of education. Student/teacher ratios based on head counts can often be interpreted in a misleading way.

Moreover the student/teacher ratio does not accurately reflect class size, the variable that is of greatest interest in relation to teaching conditions. The disadvantages associated with increasing class size must be weighed against other policy goals, such as reducing teachers' salary costs per student, increasing access to education, competitive salaries for teachers, investment in school infrastructure, and equipment and supplies (OECD/UIS, 2001).

ETF data show that for VET the ratio of students to teaching staff (based on FTE) differs widely. The ratios are particularly high in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (18:1) and Romania (16:1). However the data presented here should be interpreted with caution, as in many countries it is difficult to obtain an exact figure for this indicator because some teachers are registered as working in integrated school units, which includes both general and vocational secondary education programmes (ETF, 2004b). Looking at the student/teacher ratios for all secondary education programmes, these are very high in Tunisia (22:1) and Albania (18:1). There is no recommended 'optimal' value for this indicator; for a typical OECD country the ratio in secondary education would be 13.6:1. Differences in student/teacher ratios between levels of education and between educational pathways indicate differences in the priority given to particular levels of education, though they may also reflect delays in matching the teaching force to changing student populations.

TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS

Main definitions used

Minimum level of training required to teach at a given ISCED level refers to the typical duration and type of training required to enter the profession. It does not include eventual further requirements to become a licensed teacher in the public school system, such as probationary years.

Maximum qualification refers to the highest level of teaching qualification recognised from the point of view of salaries or compensation.

TEACHERS' SALARIES

Teachers' compensation is the largest single factor in the cost of providing education, accounting for at least two-thirds of public expenditure on education in most countries. While it is difficult to assess the efficiency of national models, the international comparative analyses remain the best resource for informing the debate. The level of teachers' compensation can affect the number of new teachers entering the profession, the retention of current teachers and the motivation of teachers in their work. Thus, the issues of comparability associated with teachers' compensation and the teaching environment influence international comparisons of teacher salaries.

Main definitions used

The **annual gross statutory salary** of teachers is the total wages according to current salary scales, including bonuses that constitute a regular part of the annual base salary, such as a thirteenth month or holiday bonus. It is gross salary from the employee's point of view, since it includes the portion of the social security and pension scheme contributions that are paid by the employee (even if deducted by the employer). However, the employer's premium for social security and pension is excluded. **Additional bonuses** (to teachers' salaries) refer to additional payments that teachers may acquire in addition to the amount received on the

basis of educational qualification and experience (salary scale). These bonuses may be awarded for teaching in remote areas, for participating in school improvement projects or special activities, or for excellence in teaching performance.

Interpretation

The structure of compensation packages differs from one country to another. Gross salaries are the major element of the total remuneration received by teachers, but the additional benefits include a wide variety of monetary allowances. For example in some countries teachers may receive bonuses on top of their gross salaries, monetary incentives for working in difficult circumstances or salary increments on the basis of their family status. 'Statutory' indicates that salary data are reported in accordance with formal policies for public institutions. In some countries the salaries reported are defined as gross salaries (the total sum of money that is paid by the employer for the labour supplied) minus the employer's contribution to social security and pension, according to the salary scale used in each country. Salaries are usually reported before deductions for income tax. Salary comparisons are also affected by differences in the salary scales used by governments to pay the teachers they employ.

One option when comparing salaries is to look at the power to attract individuals to a particular job, expressed as the ratio of statutory salaries to GDP per capita. In the absence of comparable information on salaries for different employees, data on salaries relative to GDP per capita are often used to create a proxy for their financial standing. Comparing statutory salaries relative to GDP per capita can be

seen as an indication of each country's investment in the teaching profession.

ETF data use details of salaries based on educational qualifications and years of experience. The starting salary refers to the average scheduled gross annual salary for a full-time teacher with the minimum training necessary for certification at the beginning of their teaching career. A mid-career salary or a salary after 15 years' experience refers to the average scheduled gross annual salary for a full-time teacher with the minimum training necessary for certification and with 15 years' experience. A salary at the top of the scale refers to the scheduled maximum annual salary of a full-time classroom teacher holding the minimum training for certification for the job. Among the ETF partner countries for which data exists the statutory salary/GDP per capita ratio for a starting teacher varies from 0.6 in Bulgaria to 3.3 in Serbia. In the case of a mid-career teacher (with 15 years' experience), the ratio ranges from 0.9 in Bulgaria to 3.5 in Serbia. Relatively higher ratios are also recorded for Tunisia, Jordan and Turkey.

An alternative to measuring compensation packages is to look at the power of salaries to purchase goods and services by converting salaries to a currency, using the Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) or Purchasing Power Standard (PPS). Although PPP and PPS eliminate the differences in price levels, countries in which the employees receive the same salaries may not in fact be receiving the same services in return or be providing the employees with the same employment opportunities. Thus, a higher salary in PPP/PPS does not necessarily mean an investment in employees, but could indicate higher labour prices in that economy.

12. FACILITATING THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS BY ENGAGING THEM IN VET REFORM

*Peter Grootings
Søren Nielsen*

12

INTRODUCTION

This Yearbook is based on the premise that the role of teachers in the reform of vocational education and training (VET) is a dual one, combining stakeholder and professional. However, it becomes clear from reading the various chapters that the distinction between these two aspects is somewhat artificial and does not accurately represent the reality of teachers' work. In modern VET systems teachers are at one and the same time professional educators and key change agents. Continuing innovation and development has become a core task of modern professional teachers. The professional expertise of teachers who are committed to change and modernisation is also an important source of knowledge for those whose primary responsibility is the development and implementation of national policies. This raises the following key question: How can

teachers and trainers be actively involved in VET reform so that ownership will be better translated into quality learning in the classroom and so that professional expertise from teaching and learning processes can guide system reform?

There is now a growing understanding, which is further illustrated by the analyses in this Yearbook, that successful reform can only happen with the engagement and commitment of teachers, if only because ultimately they will be the ones who must make it happen in their daily work with students and others. However, this is no longer simply a matter of establishing broad ownership and acceptance. If that were the case, more traditional (centralised, authoritarian, political and administrative) methods of securing compliance with new policies could be applied. There are plenty of examples of such approaches from the past, and, again, not only in partner countries.

What makes the situation different today is that the new professional profile of teachers and trainers includes innovation and development as key competences. Teachers and trainers are no longer simply the executors of education programmes decided in detail by others: instead, they have to adapt learning processes and outcomes to the specific – and changing – needs of their students and local labour market situations. In other words, in their capacity as education professionals teachers are stakeholders. This in turn reflects the fact that the current reforms in VET are very complex development processes that have little in common with the traditional reform concepts, which had clear stages of preparation, formulation, implementation and evaluation. This is especially true for reforms in transition countries that seek to combine systemic reforms with structural changes and modernisation of contents and approaches. Such reforms are not one-off events designed by external experts but ongoing change processes set within a broadly agreed reform agenda, which can be quite radical but require further operational detailing based on local innovation processes. It is because of this that teachers who are actively engaged in local innovation and experimentation are an important source of expertise for national policymakers, and that reform strategies must build on engaging teachers and trainers working inside their school organisations. Such an understanding of reform puts policy learning, capacity building and policy advice at both national and school levels in a new perspective, and at the same time implies considerably more urgency than previously¹²⁹. Traditional top-down or bottom-up strategies have become too simplistic and are insufficient for making reforms work. Policy learning as a process requires a continuous interaction and dialogue between national and local partners. There are therefore, strong pressures to include teachers among the principal stakeholders in reform. As well as those already mentioned, two other developments have put teachers back in the spotlight.

The first is the growing risk that there will be insufficient teachers in the near future, even in countries with declining birth rates. The second is the understanding that traditional teaching approaches and teacher roles need to be reconsidered in terms of both what needs to be learned and how this can best be achieved. The current attempts to make the teaching profession attractive again are undoubtedly a (belated) response to past developments, during which time the profession has gradually lost much of its former appeal. The debates about the new professionalism of teachers are part of such attempts, but they are also the result of a renewed appreciation of the importance of the quality of learning processes for achieving desired learning outcomes. It is also by involving teachers as stakeholders in policy learning that they will be best able to develop the new professional identity that is required of them in a modern VET system.

It is clear that in order for a strategy based on the engagement of teachers and trainers as stakeholders and professionals to succeed, a good understanding must be developed concerning the institutional and organisational environment that could enable teachers and trainers to play these roles. Against this background there are a number of questions to be asked in terms of how the ETF can contribute.

- How can teacher and trainer training be brought closer to schools and enterprises in order to develop competency in action?
- How can schools be assisted to become learning organisations and mediators of VET policy learning?
- How should school-based and teacher-initiated innovation and modernisation activities be stimulated and utilised for national policy and systems?

More generally, a new focus on teachers as actors in the reform process would imply a radically different approach on the part of the ETF, from one in which knowledge and

¹²⁹ Experience from countries such as the Netherlands also highlights the need to have additional coordinating and support institutions at the sectoral, regional or school-type level. Such is the role played by associations of secondary and higher vocational schools and sector-based expertise centres. These in turn are supported by specialist local, regional and national research and development institutions. In other words, reform, innovation or development infrastructures require more than national stakeholders and teachers in schools.

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solutions are disseminated and transferred to the partners (the controlling taskmaster) to a broker/learning facilitator role (an enabling helper). This raises the question of how this new function can be developed.

In this concluding chapter the ETF's previous work relating to teachers is reviewed briefly and some lessons are formulated against the background of the stakeholder and new professionalism discussion are put forward. Some of the limitations of the approaches involving pilot schools and change agent team have been highlighted, particularly in terms of their sustainability. The need to shift to a school-based reform approach as opposed to a teacher-based one is emphasised. It is further argued that the introduction of the concept of the school as a learning organisation coupled with the establishment of teacher teams inside schools may create the necessary enabling environment for schools to become and remain innovative, and for teachers to engage in continuing expertise development. This would give practical meaning to the concept of policy learning at school level.

The issue of teacher training in partner countries is then re-examined, and the chapter concludes with a set of more practical action points that could be considered by the ETF for its future work in facilitating policy learning in partner countries. The point to be emphasised is that the new learning theories will not lead to the disappearance of teachers and trainers but will actually bring them back onto the learning scene, albeit in roles that differ considerably from the traditional understanding of what teachers and trainers do. Teacher and trainer training institutions in partner countries have not caught up with this new professional profile, and individual teachers have been left very much on their own to cope with the changes in their social and professional environment.

LESSONS LEARNED FROM PREVIOUS ETF WORK

EC assistance programmes – the pilot-school model

EC assistance programmes have usually, albeit indirectly, supported teacher training within traditional pilot-school, consultant-driven curriculum projects. EC VET reform programmes have typically had five interdependent components:

- curriculum development,
- partnerships with EU vocational institutions,
- teacher training,
- the upgrading of teaching equipment,
- the development of education policy and the dissemination of results.

This combined approach has been an effective strategy. There is no doubt that the integrated innovative development of products ('what you teach'), of learning and teaching methods ('how you teach') and of school organisation is, in many ways, an optimal way to renew the existing provision of VET programmes by providing a framework for meaningful learning processes for the many actors involved. A cross-country analysis of the efforts undertaken in curriculum development under the Phare vocational education and training programme indicates that this strategy has had positive results (Parkes et al., 1998).

As effective as this strategy has been, it cannot stand alone. In all types of pedagogical pilot projects there is a risk of 'encapsulation'. Projects start by selecting a number of the best institutions and, in order to give them favourable development conditions, they protect them from the difficulties and red tape that are normally found in the system. At the point at which the pilot results are transferred and implemented more widely, all the real-life problems and barriers may suddenly resurface. The effect of barriers in the ordinary VET structure is always a serious factor to be reckoned with in the transition from the 'VET reform project' to the 'national VET reform strategy'.

Another problem relates to the 'model school' approach. A number of elite schools are allocated all the equipment, coaching, travel opportunities, and development support, while schools that were already struggling are left several years behind. There is no easy way out of this dilemma. What we do know is that the availability of a 'critical mass' of well-qualified teachers is a decisive factor for the success of a nationwide reform process. Development theories suggest that in reform programmes that rely on a pilot school approach, friction quite frequently occurs between the 'elite' schools and other schools if pre and in-service vocational teacher training is not provided in a structured, systematic way.

To complement the pilot school approach, a massive upgrading of teachers' and trainers' skills will be needed in order to implement reforms on a wider scale and to disseminate results from the pilot schools to the systemic level. Cascading training efforts and building up the infrastructure necessary to 'institutionalise' in-service teacher training should be at the top of the reform agenda. The vocational teacher training institutions should not only be fully integrated into the reform process, they should also be strengthened through special development programmes to build up their institutional capacities.

These comments are general reflections on the challenges involved in the education reform process in any European country. However, the challenges are much greater in the partner countries, where often too much is expected in too short a time, with too few funds available. In most of the partner countries there are a number of vocational teacher training institutions. These are usually faculties of autonomous universities and provide only general teacher training. More often than not they are on the sidelines of the Phare/CARDS/MEDA/Tacis VET reform programmes. Furthermore, no additional government money appears to have been allocated to support the widespread VET teacher training that is required in order for the full benefits of the pilot-school projects to be reaped.

ETF development projects

One of the core conceptual understandings developed and tested in the ETF's own development projects in partner countries (in the New Member States and Eastern Europe and Central Asia) is the concept of change agent teams (CATs). This approach is reinforced by similar experiences in VET teacher training in EU Member States such as the UK, Denmark and Finland. The results have been quite successful in pilot-school projects. However, once again limitations exist because of the very fact that these are pilot designs. Selected teachers work under the careful coaching of international technical experts in their own schools. There is a problem of sustainability when the pilot project ends.

The challenge of achieving real change in VET reforms appears to necessitate another strategy, one that is based on genuine competence development of teacher working teams and that goes beyond the CAT methodology.

A fundamental though often neglected criterion for the successful implementation of the pedagogical aims of VET reforms is to ensure that all those actors directly involved in the change processes have influence on and feel ownership of processes and results. Teachers and trainers must be involved and engaged in a concrete, productive and meaningful way. The focus must be on changing and developing practice.

More attention must be given to ways in which individual schools can be inspired and supported in their efforts to develop the competences of teachers and middle management in school organisations. All such competence-enhancing activities must take as their starting point the current situation of schools, teachers and managers. Experience shows that it is vital for both management and teachers to play an active role and to feel a genuine ownership for the development of the necessary didactical competences.

The central message here is that CATs cannot work in isolation from the formal organisational structure of the school, even if appointed by the school principal. The

12. FACILITATING THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS BY ENGAGING THEM IN VET REFORM

organisation of reform-driven change processes in schools must be anchored in the existing management structure and must target the day-to-day links between teacher teams and their heads of department. The risks are that the change process becomes 'encapsulated', that the situation becomes one of pilot project versus ordinary work, and that there is a lack of commitment from middle management.

Rather than the focus being on selected teachers, it should be the school itself that is seen as the central development unit for developing and implementing VET reform. VET reform driven competence development projects in schools are probably better organised as a collaborative project involving school principals, heads of department, teacher trade union representatives, members of the school board, internal reform change agents and external consultants. These projects must also be guided by the needs of the local or regional labour market, and some involvement from representatives of industry will be crucial. Members of the teacher team are heavily involved as key actors, though always in cooperation with school management. This is also an efficient way 'to bring teachers back in' (Hargreaves and Evans, 1997).

The objective is the development of a strategic competence plan, offering development for all managers and teachers with a view to ensuring organisational learning in the school. Since such a major competence development exercise will often run over several years, it may be necessary to embed the work in a special school competence group.

The workload will be substantial, and strategic school competence development may be best organised by defining clear phases. The fundamental component of a reform-led school competence development project is the targeted local school improvement project. A school improvement project could include a specific task that:

- relates to the realisation of the VET reform's pedagogical aims;
- always has the middle manager(s) and teachers directly involved; and

- has an internal reform competence developer (such as a middle manager) who performs the dual function of anchor and process consultant for the project.

The importance of always involving middle management and of embedding reform activities in the ordinary school management and organisation structure must never be forgotten. The CAT strategy is not enough. Real and sustainable change depends on the involvement of managers at different levels in schools. This is now the clear message from a number of countries.

Policy learning

Perhaps the most significant lesson learned from the ETF's experience in preparing partner countries for EU membership is the importance of strengthening their capacity to formulate national reform agendas. Transition countries should develop capabilities to formulate their own policies on shaping reform initiatives that fit particular contexts and that therefore establish conditions that will foster the ownership and sustainability of VET reform. This requires a more intensive focus on ways of organising policy learning environments and policy learning platforms in these countries so that a critical mass of key actors and stakeholders gradually develop VET policy understanding and competence. EU membership or cooperation will by no means reduce the need for policy learning. On the contrary, it will present additional challenges of policy interpretation, since broad EU objectives will need to be translated into national policies adapted to and embedded in national institutions.

How then can teachers as stakeholders and professionals be involved in a concrete way in policy learning, and how can school organisations be developed into policy learning platforms?

During the past few years the concept of the 'team' has become a key aspect of the pedagogical debate in western Europe. VET schools have witnessed the development of a new pedagogical scenario: there has been a shift from a

focus on teaching and instruction, with the teacher in the central and performing role, to a focus on students' learning processes and on forms of organisation that support these in an optimal way. The implications of team work are that:

- longer course sequences are established; and
- the focus is on both the work with the students' subject-related and personal learning processes and the teachers' own culture of cooperation and mutual relations.

Effective team work focuses not only on the students' learning environment but also on the teachers' own learning. Teachers therefore face the same demands and challenges with regard to cooperation, responsibility, self-reflection and evaluation as do the students. In practice this means that the teachers work with their own meeting culture, mutual communication and mutual relations. This is demanding both mentally and in terms of time, but it gives the teachers a greater insight into their own roles and functions. It is this duality, in which both students and teachers find themselves participating in a learning process that makes team work a very exciting and dynamic way of organising teaching.

The genuine development aspect of the team is that the structure can support a development that is currently taking place in a number of VET schools at a broad organisational level. The 'learning organisation' has been placed on the agenda of many school development projects in recent years. The concept seems to encompass the characteristics that will be required in the future: an organisation that is subject to a continuous process of transformation and development, and that is able to systematise and evaluate its experience so that learning is an ongoing process in the widest sense of the word. If the learning organisation is to become a reality, forms of

organisation must be established that promote learning processes. This can be achieved in several ways, but in the team-based organisation there is a direct connection between the 'learning team' and the 'learning organisation'. The team represents a form of organisation that is able to compile, elaborate on and assess pedagogical experience in a far more subtle and complex way than would be possible for the individual teacher.

The teacher team has the dynamics and public identity that make it possible to place pedagogical development activities and experiments in a common context that can subsequently be translated into an institutional context: the need of the organisation to learn from the experience of individuals and even more, of course, from those individuals involved. In this sense, the team can be said to be a link between the learning of the students and the learning of the organisation. By virtue of its organisation, the team is ready to be a dissemination forum between the learning processes at student level and the learning of the organisation as a whole. Such a task can hardly be performed by individual teachers on their own.

In order to interconnect student learning, team learning and the learning of the organisation, the organisation itself must recognise the value of the team as a concept. A VET school that is focused on the future will benefit if it develops teachers who function as team workers and process owners; this is the case in both EU and partner countries. In partner countries there is a great willingness to develop the teacher role and to create a new pedagogical practice¹³⁰. Moreover, there is a high level of loyalty in the teaching profession. Many resources are required to support this development. These resources are probably not readily available in most partner countries at the moment. Foreign donors should give priority to this task in the coming years.

¹³⁰ Some work involving the testing of ideas concerning schools as learning organisations has been started, for example in Croatia. At the ETF VET TTnet conference in Tirana, Albania, on 20–22 January 2005, Maja Jukic, a teacher at the VET School in Slavonski Brod, Croatia, organised an excellent workshop for participants from 14 EU and future Member States and Western Balkan countries on how to proceed when developing schools as learning organisations.

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ASSESSMENT: TEACHER AND TRAINER COMPETENCES IN PARTNER COUNTRIES

Teachers

The de-ideologisation of teacher and trainer training in most eastern European countries, including the closure of vocational support institutions in the wake of the post-1989 transformation, has been necessary, though it has also had negative effects on teacher identity. This has been compounded by the relatively low social prestige and salary levels of teachers. Vocational teachers today have too many jobs, are overworked and have lost their former social position. More needs to be done to build up a new concept of teacher professionalism so that teaching can be made more attractive once more. A greater emphasis on 'teaching as a profession' is an important theme that should be further developed in teacher and trainer training institutions. In order to ensure that their priorities are correct, partner countries must urgently begin to address this challenge. Teachers are not only transmitters of technical or commercial skills, they also have a central role in the socialisation of young people.

The fact that training for pedagogical qualifications is delivered either by university-trained teachers of theory or by 'masters'/trainers/instructors who often have no pedagogical training at all¹³¹ is a problem. While the level of education of vocational teachers is high in almost all partner countries, their pedagogical training is apparently too academic and traditional, and is not linked to the world of work.

In its reform designs the ETF should focus more on the integration of work and learning, both in company-based 'tutor' learning arrangements and in formal VET alternance programmes. As a consequence of the desired development of competences and of the new learning concept, the role of the teacher will expand

to encompass the tutor function, supporting students as they select and complete a particular course. One of the aims of the tutor function is to develop the meta-learning that takes place in students in a constructive way so that students become increasingly able to assume responsibility for their own learning. If students are to escape from being the 'objects' of traditional teaching and assume a more active and responsible role, they must be considered 'didactic co-players' in relation to their own course and learning process.

One major issue raised by the changing roles of teachers and trainers is the fact that the relations between teachers and students have been turned upside down: teachers must transform themselves from individuals into collective team members, while students must change from being classroom participants to becoming individuals, requiring individual learning services. This is a significant challenge in all EU countries, and an even greater challenge in partner countries. The development towards more individualised education has been conceptualised in work by the OECD in which education and training are characterised in terms of a topographical metaphor as 'a learning landscape' (OECD, 1998a). This suggests a landscape of learning possibilities in which the learner has options and in which it is therefore possible to establish an individual 'pathway' in the form of a personal education plan, including a combination of school and workplace learning¹³². This represents a radical change from the previous idea that education courses consist of a few standard programmes that are the same for everyone, in which students divided into classes follow each other at the same pace. VET school organisation in partner countries is still based on traditional industrial society principles, and the 'pathway through the learning landscape' thinking has yet to be introduced.

¹³¹ Practice trainers increasingly lack practical work experience, as they tend to be recruited from schools rather than from enterprises.

¹³² The Danish VET Reform 2000 is very much inspired by this idea. See *New Structure of the Danish Vocational Education and Training System*, Danish Ministry of Education, 1999.

Trainers/tutors

In the chapter on in-company tutors (in the Mediterranean region)¹³³ a broader issue is raised that is relevant for all European countries: the paradoxically growing importance of a 'pre-modern' apprenticeship system in a 'post-modern' society (Ainly and Rainbird, 1999). The trend in many EU countries is towards a greater focus on the integration of work and learning. Economic and social change in contemporary society leads to a demand for more learning, lifelong learning and flexible learning, demands that can barely be met in a centralised school system. This situation leads to an increased role for learning in local working communities¹³⁴.

The past 10–20 years have seen an increased interest in such issues as work-based learning, learning as a social practice, tacit knowledge and apprenticeships. There has been a critical reassessment of research into learning processes, which has tended to neglect the links between the content of learning and the social setting in which learning takes place. In organisational psychology and management theory, concepts such as the learning organisation and human resource management have focused on how to develop an understanding of the workplace as a collective that learns. In philosophy and sociology there has been a break with earlier 'structure–actor' dualisms and a move towards, among other things, a wish to conceptualise human actions as a concrete praxis that is at the same time structurally determined and created by the actors themselves. Part of this theoretical perspective has focused on reality as a social construct. In these analyses learning is closely tied in with the performance of a social practice. A fundamental inspiration here has been the theories of situated learning in communities of practice formulated by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger (1991). The development of learning theory in VET and adult learning

has recently placed particular emphasis on practice learning with concepts such as 'the reflective practitioner' (Schön, 1983).

Trainers' lack of up-to-date vocational and pedagogical qualifications is a serious problem. In the transition phase, where the old links between schools and companies have broken down, trainers are important role models for young people who opt for manual trades when they leave compulsory school. The 'Meister-lernen Paedagogik' (apprenticeship) is built on two core phenomena, identification and imitation, both of which have content-related and methodical implications. Apprentices identify with the 'master', and having this role model is part of the apprentices' training.

The narrow vocational learning process typically takes place as an imitation of the actions of the experienced master until the specific work function is 'mastered' by the apprentice. Whether work functions are performed in the workplace or in school workshops, such activities are usually holistic and offer opportunities to learn, for instance, how to plan problem solving and how to anticipate results. This means that active problem solving and feedback are a central and integral element of the learning process. However, in practice this form of work-based learning can also be very conservative, especially when it is not connected to more reflective forms of learning that go beyond concrete work activities and situations.

Given the lack of adequate involvement of companies, the lack of integration of theory, and the increasing dropout rates of vocational students, more will need to be done to equip the trainers for a central pedagogical role in VET. A category of 'practical occupational teachers' could be created in order to bridge the sharp division between vocational theory teachers and vocational practice trainers.

¹³³ See Chapter 4.

¹³⁴ In an analysis of historical trends, Winter and Taylor (1996) thus point out a number of shared features between pre or proto-industrial and post-industrial forms of production. In contrast to the large, modern, centralised organisations, Winter and Taylor highlight flat hierarchies, flexible and dynamic networks and partnerships, flexible specialisation and decentralisation as common in pre-industrial craft production and knowledge and computer-based post-industrial production.

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New learning theories – from teaching to learning

In popular understanding, teaching and learning are regarded as simply two sides of the same coin, but this is much too simplistic. It is important to distinguish between two separate and distinct processes when discussing teaching and learning. Teaching relates to social processes concentrating on communication, whereas learning relates to psychological processes inside the individual learner. This insight can be used to highlight the problems inherent in two popular slogans from the current pedagogical debate (discussed in earlier chapters). One is 'the paradigmatic change from teaching to learning', in which the teacher should stop teaching and create room for the students' own learning, and for which the students should even take responsibility themselves. The other is 'to put the student at the centre' in student-directed learning arrangements. It can be argued that the student is always at the centre, not in terms of the teaching but with regard to his or her learning processes. In teaching processes, the student can be said to be part of the environment in which the communication is taking place.

It can therefore be argued that teaching (and teachers) should be central to VET schools. Certain conditions must be present in the teaching communication process.

- There must at least be two parties involved in the communication, adults taking part as teachers and young people (or adult learners) as students.
- There must be content, a subject matter.

The teaching communication process is an excellent way of introducing complex and difficult portions of learning content in a planned and well-sequenced manner and of making the subject matter less difficult and less complex. This reasoning departs from certain views in experiential pedagogy, which start from students' experiences and needs. The challenge is that students must learn, but in order to learn an individual must already possess knowledge. It is therefore unwise to

recommend that teachers withdraw and undertake a more subdued role as a support facilitator, resource person, consultant, tutor, coach, or whatever is the appropriate term in contemporary pedagogy. These are roles that the teacher should of course play whenever it is appropriate to do so, for instance in project work assignments. However, the teacher should definitely be present and active as a communication partner in teaching, precisely in order to introduce complex content and to contribute to reducing this complexity.

It is a misconception to see teaching only in terms of the activity of the teacher and the passivity of the students. Students are not passive participants in teaching when their attention is held by the teaching communication process. Students are constantly carrying out very active cognitive processes, deliberating how and to what extent what is communicated can be understood and how it relates to what they already know. The formalisation of the teaching process should therefore be perceived not as a limitation, but as a dedicated framework for carrying out the specialised form of communication that aims to stimulate learning by stimulating the consciousness of students and 'teasing out' new thoughts, ideas or emotions. Therefore it is recommended that work in partner countries should start from the teacher, systematically qualify teachers and trainers for new roles and equip them with tools to establish innovative learning arrangements, and continue to regard teachers as the key to successful learning.

WHAT COULD BE THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ETF IN THE FUTURE?

The partner countries of the ETF, like their western European counterparts, are currently experiencing the effects of fundamental changes in the global economy, with capital becoming increasingly mobile on a global scale, shortened production cycles and the introduction of modern production concepts. The innovative potential of information technology-based production systems cannot be realised

unless the labour force is flexible, motivated and competent. VET must be modernised, and there is a clear need to focus specifically on the training of teachers and trainers in order for this to happen. This, however, will require the investment of substantial resources.

On the other hand it is important to recall that the partner countries are not starting from scratch in their education and training reform efforts. General education systems in some of these countries have sometimes managed to attain better literacy and numeracy levels than their more prosperous EU neighbours, at least in the recent past. Thus, VET reforms have a solid educational base on which to build. Furthermore, in the countries concerned there is an understanding that the successful overhaul and reform of vocational training depends to a great extent on vocational teachers and trainers. Which areas could the ETF, in close partnerships with countries, develop in order to upgrade the quality and relevance of VET? Three concrete areas of concern should be mentioned: a better integration of the various EU assistance instruments; increased attention on various aspects of the national teacher training systems in the context of VET reform; and finally, a strengthening of the policy discourse mediating role with stakeholders in partner countries.

Better integration of the various assistance and cooperation instruments

The ETF could strengthen the professionalisation of teachers and trainers by better integrating the opportunities offered by the various assistance and cooperation instruments to address the different aspects of teacher training. The following discussion is structured around the basic 'building blocks' of VET teacher training.

(i) Pre-service VET teacher training

In most countries pre-service VET teacher training takes place at universities or other higher education establishments. It is well regulated in state programmes lasting one to five years, is provided in the form of parallel or consecutive courses in

differentiated programmes for general subject teachers and vocational subject teachers and trainers, and will sometimes have a combination of theoretical subjects taught at universities and practical training under supervision ('mentoring') in schools. It should be emphasised that there are many variations on this in EU countries, each of which has strengths and weaknesses. Furthermore, there is no best model. In most countries it is recognised that pre-service training can only represent foundation training, which must be supplemented by continuing training that should in principle be lifelong.

In transition countries pre-service VET teacher training needs to be modernised, with a sharpened focus on new ways of organising learning processes, introducing student-activating methods and relating content and didactics more closely to practice.

Since the teacher's role and skills are so central to the learning environment, the initial training of VET teachers and the continuing training offered to practising teachers are crucial. The existing teacher and trainer training curriculum will need to be changed if appropriate learning environments are to be created. Updating these programmes would have a positive, multiplier effect on the entire VET system. Teacher training methods need to focus more on the outcomes for learners in the form of a demonstrated competence. Such a competence is more likely to emerge if experimental learning methods are used. If learning is more active and project-based, learners are more likely to develop the deep understanding of vocational concepts and skills that is required in a rapidly changing economy.

Experiments with some form of dual system of vocational teacher training could be undertaken, with periods of theoretical pedagogical studies alternating with periods of practical teaching of real classes in vocational schools, under the supervision of an experienced teacher. However, this will require these teachers to professionalise their advisory role. Programmes might therefore be set up for prospective teaching practice supervisors in order to renew and reinforce the theory–

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practice relationship in teacher training. This strategy would simultaneously address at least three issues: it would force vocational teacher training educators to establish close contacts with teaching practice supervisors at the schools and to concentrate their minds on the practical relevance of what they teach; it would make vocational schools co-responsible for the training of their teaching staff; and it would contribute to an increased awareness of vocational pedagogy in the VET system as a whole.

This will all require an initial systematic effort to develop the competences of teacher educators in universities. The ETF has had some experience of working with universities in this field in partner countries. The impact, however, has not been very significant¹³⁵. It is difficult to combine the autonomy of universities with external consultancy support. In order to achieve sustainability of VET reforms at the systemic level the ETF will need to develop new approaches. It appears that universities are well motivated towards change when collaborating with other universities. There is a clear need to broaden the ETF approach, to integrate and ensure communication between different projects, and to implement different initiatives. The example of VET teacher training reform in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia¹³⁶ demonstrates that there are excellent opportunities available when different education and training programmes are combined. Another element of which the ETF could make better and more integrated use is the mobility facility under Tempus, which enables teacher educators to go abroad and learn from colleagues¹³⁷. The ETF's own development projects could also be used in a more strategic way to support the design, implementation and monitoring of EU programmes.

(ii) Continuing professional development of teachers and trainers

In almost all countries continuing training is (sharply) separated from the pre-service

training that is delivered by universities. Training is typically provided by pedagogical institutes and is either state-financed or, in some cases, demand-driven through payments from users (schools or teachers). Courses on offer vary from technological-vocational to pedagogic-didactic courses; they are short, usually delivered at external training centres or occasionally in-house, and teacher educators are typically recruited from universities or technological institutes. In a number of countries continuing teacher training is seen as an important, centrally managed strategic tool for innovating the VET system or the labour market training system; in other countries it is left to VET schools to define their own staffing policies and find the best training provider in the market. In all countries, however, there is a lack of resources for continuing training. Traditional courses, which involved one or two selected teachers being sent to a training centre for a week to gain new knowledge or skills, are clearly being overtaken in EU countries by other types of qualifying measures. They are seen as inefficient, expensive and providing encapsulated learning. The emphasis is shifting markedly both towards the professional development of the teaching staff, linked more closely to the actual job functions, and towards organisational learning.

In transition countries the dominant model for the continuing professional development of teachers and trainers is still supply-based. Institutions such as universities, faculties and methodological support centres offer training courses to vocational schools. The existing provisions are only partially successful. Continuing professional development is focused on individuals rather than on groups, and does not incorporate institutional and organisational development. There is a need to help develop demand-led training provision based on training needs assessments, either close to or actually within schools. Genuine partnerships between training providers and VET

¹³⁵ See Chapter 4.

¹³⁶ See Chapters 4 and 10.

¹³⁷ See Chapter 10.

schools would then be likely to develop. Mechanisms would be in place to allow these experiences to be fed back as important inputs to ordinary teacher and trainer training programmes.

As part of its programming role in partner countries, the ETF could stimulate projects that on an experimental basis support selected training institutions in modernising continuing teacher training. A partnership between universities, pedagogical institutes and school representatives would be the first step. Under this new approach the training process would begin with the partnership working with teachers and headmasters in VET schools to define the actual training needs. Organisation of training delivery will also have to change. On-the-job learning, supported by external consultancy based on action-learning principles, and group training of teachers and trainers could be introduced. The qualifying process would employ a range of development activities besides traditional courses, and activities would preferably take place inside schools.

(iii) Further (higher) VET teacher training education

The VET field certainly requires academic further education programmes for teachers. Attempts have been made to build up a European-level VET Master's programme for experienced teachers, combining theoretical conceptual frameworks with examples of best practice from several EU countries. These attempts have so far been unsuccessful, not least because VET teacher qualification structures in Europe are so varied. In addition, VET teaching unions have been very defensive and have not been committed to the establishment of professional career structures, while national authorities and the European Commission appear to have been rather ambivalent.

There are too few specialised research-based VET teacher training institutions in the transition countries. Vocational teacher education tends either to be part of general teacher education or to be a sub-speciality

of other university programmes. At the same time, in most of the countries there are (too) many institutions delivering vocational teacher training, often under different ministries. This has a negative effect on the potential for accumulating VET expertise, on VET-specific research and innovation, and on the development of didactical thinking on VET subjects. An institutional reorganisation to concentrate provision and expertise would therefore be advisable.

The ETF could promote a focus on teacher education and training in EU-funded and national higher education programmes. As has been illustrated in several chapters of the Yearbook, VET (pilot) schools are often very advanced, and universities can learn a great deal by taking part in school-based innovation through 'accompanying research'. It is also clear that the continuous enhancement of teacher professionalism cannot be based on educational development work alone. The links between academic research, technological development and training innovation need to be strengthened to cope with the challenges of the knowledge economy. Sustainable and systemic reform would profit from teachers being offered further education and training in long-term programmes. With regard to the 'mainstreaming' of experience gained in schools, it is crucial to give teachers upgrading opportunities that enable them to carry out major planning and development tasks in schools or for the benefit of the education system as a whole.

(iv) Innovative practices in VET teacher and trainer competence development

Conventional teacher training courses in a number of EU countries are now being replaced by demand-driven, school-based activities. 'Bringing learning closer to home' is a prevailing trend rather than simply a fashionable catch-phrase. In addition there has been a rapid increase in opportunities for teachers to train through school participation in research and development projects (such as FoU¹³⁸ projects in Scandinavian countries and

¹³⁸ Forsøgs- og Udviklingsprogram (innovation and development projects).

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Modellversuche mit Begleitforschung in Germany). Participation in school-based development work is considered an important and strategic tool for developing not only education, training and schools but also teacher resources and skills. Strategic human resource development based on a combination of action learning and organisational learning principles in VET schools has emerged as the most effective approach in recent years. Pedagogical development, organisational development and the enhancement of teacher competences are coming together to an increasing extent. It is worth noting that this cross-fertilisation strategy has also been applied in the pilot schools participating in EU-funded VET reform programmes, but has not unfortunately been institutionalised and taken forward to the systemic level in any of the partner countries.

The ETF could have a future role in helping to balance the bottom-up approach of local development work and transferring pilot results to the systemic level. There is an acute need in almost all countries for project results to be 'mainstreamed' and 'multiplied', not least because donor programmes and projects usually have a very short lifecycle and because national authorities often find it difficult to cope with the pressures of change. Three levels are of interest:

- local organisational 'anchoring' of project results;
- horizontal dissemination to other organisations, including VET schools;
- vertical dissemination to impact on the political/administrative level.

However, disseminating experience from development projects is a far more complex process than it initially appears. It neither takes place automatically nor does it proceed in a straight line, but is rather indirect. Two main models can be adopted in order to try to understand how the process takes place: a mediation model and a learning model. The mediation model assumes that there is a message that is given out centrally and tested through controlled experiments and finished models, with the results being implemented

after the experimental period. The problems here are that this form of experimentation does not provide particularly good opportunities for local adaptation, and that reform processes of this kind take a relatively long time. Furthermore, opposition is often encountered from the participants.

The learning model is based on the fact that the primary aim of development projects is to acquire experience of new solutions and new forms of work. There must obviously be agreement on the need for change, but there is openness towards different solutions within an overall framework. The learning will often be concerned more with the procedure followed than with the practical solution, and it will often be selective. Contact networks between the experiments and other potentially interested parties must be established as a learning platform, and must include scope for the exchange of experience between the local and central level. However, what is most important is the direct contact between local parties at grassroots level.

It is a characteristic of the development requirements of VET innovation that problems often arise to which no one really has clear answers. The dissemination of ready-made standard solutions is not the best response to this type of problem because the process takes time and the solutions often become outdated. A strategy based on a learning model is likely to be the most effective way of ensuring continuous development of new, locally adapted solutions to problems for which few answers are currently known.

Facilitating policy learning among the teaching community

The EU has recently recognised that teaching and training are at the heart of the knowledge society. In 2001, Ministers of Education adopted a report on the future objectives of education and training systems¹³⁹, agreeing for the first time the shared objectives to be achieved by 2010. The Commission initially set up a number of expert groups to offer advice on the

¹³⁹ <http://register.consilium.eu.int/pdf/en/01/st05/05980en1.pdf>

steps necessary to ensure the attainment of these objectives. Since 2002 Expert Group A¹⁴⁰ has considered policy practices aimed at improving education and the performance of teachers and trainers in the context of their changing role in society. This group has focused on three key issues:

- identifying the competences required by teachers;
- assisting teachers to respond to the needs of the knowledge society;
- producing a set of common European principles for teachers' competences and qualifications.

However, the Copenhagen priority on VET was not adequately covered by the group, which focused primarily on teachers in primary and secondary education. A sub-group was therefore set up to look at the specific needs of trainers.

The Maastricht Communiqué¹⁴¹ envisages another framework to support an improvement in the quality of vocational teaching and training. The peer-learning 'clusters'¹⁴² mark a new phase of the European Commission's work to support the Lisbon objectives. The aim of peer learning is to develop activities that are tailored to the policy needs of the Member States in order to support national efforts towards the Lisbon goals in a more practical way. The teacher and trainer peer-learning cluster, one of seven clusters, will work on supporting teachers at the start of their careers (induction), strengthening links between initial teacher education and continuing professional development, and training teachers and trainers in VET.

Peer learning is a process of cooperation at European level in which 'reform agents' from one country learn, through direct contact and practical cooperation, from the experiences of their counterparts

elsewhere in Europe about implementing reforms in areas of shared interest and concern. It is a bottom-up activity that has a clear focus on making a difference to policymaking and system development in participating countries; the aim is to provide a context for the deepening of knowledge of the factors inherent in policy development in areas of special interest for participating countries (EU Members only). Unlike the work of the expert group, the peer learning process will serve as a source of inspiration for the development of national education and training policies. The activities will bring together policy experts to examine and reflect on concrete examples in order to identify what could contribute to policymaking in a different context.

This change of emphasis, based on the principles of the open method of coordination, is of great interest in terms of the ETF's approach to policy learning in the partner countries. The teacher and trainer cluster will have an ETF member, though partner countries will not be able to participate. However, given the ETF's experience of organising peer reviews in South Eastern Europe between 2002 and 2005 it is an obvious step to build bridges between VET teacher training activities in partner countries and peer learning in this field in the EU.

Since 2002 the ETF has also facilitated discourse between EU and partner countries through its close cooperation with the TTnet for EU Member States set up by Cedefop. TTnet is a Community forum for communication, cooperation and expertise in the training of VET teachers and trainers. It is geared to innovation and seeks to meet real needs from a 'market angle'. The ETF supports the participation of future Member States in network meetings, and together with Cedefop it coordinated the entry of 10 new Member States during the

¹⁴⁰ Reports and documents of the work of the Expert Group available at: http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/objectives_en.html

¹⁴¹ Maastricht Communiqué on the Future Priorities of Enhanced European Cooperation in Vocational Education and Training, 14 December 2004.

¹⁴² The word cluster is used to mean the regrouping of interested countries around a specific theme, corresponding to their national policy priorities, and on which they have expressed a desire to learn from other interested countries, or to share with others their successful policy experiences in the area.

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period 2002 to 2004. The establishment of similar policy learning platforms could be expanded to other regions.

In 2002, the ETF established a regional VET Teacher Training Network for South Eastern Europe¹⁴³. Supporting the development of teachers and trainers and the innovation of learning processes is seen as a strategic move in relation to preparing the teaching profession for VET reform in South Eastern Europe. It is a forum for continuing discussions on European, regional and national issues in a regional context, at which all the countries from the region are represented. The network has been an efficient learning platform for participating countries in a period of major transformation. All are now designing and implementing VET reforms, to some extent driven by foreign donor contributions, often undertaking the same activities but without learning from each other. The European integration and enlargement process is changing the region, with some countries being full Member States while others are still in a phase of reconstruction. The network has gone through different phases and the ETF will now seek to develop it further into a 'community of practitioners', in the sense that after four years the network constitutes a group that shares a specific practice, that is interested in learning from each other, and that has an ambition to share ideas, models and research.

CONCLUSIONS

The basic assumption underlying the concept of policy learning is not so much that policies can be learned but that the policies themselves are learned policies. This reflects current discussions in learning theory in which the traditional cognitive and behaviourist concept of learning is being replaced by constructivist approaches that stress the active role of learners in making sense of their environment and 'constructing' their own knowledge and skills as the basis for action. Learning is not simply the transfer of expert knowledge or behaviour from one person to another but

rather the acquisition of understanding and skill through participation in processes.

The constructivist perspective of learning has led to various different approaches, each emphasising a single aspect of learning processes. The most comprehensive and relevant for our purposes seems to be the one developed by Lave and Wenger, who argue that learning is situated learning, and more particularly legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice, i.e. novice learners learn best when they are engaged in a community of more expert learners; during the learning process they become more competent themselves and move from the margin to the centre (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

The point that was stressed in the first chapter of this Yearbook is that these debates about learning are also of fundamental importance to an understanding of how policymakers in partner countries develop new policies in education and training. Indeed, it can be argued that policy development is policy learning (Grootings (ed.), ETF, 2004). This is not learning in the sense of external experts transferring their expert knowledge to policymakers and telling them what they should do. Rather – following a more constructivist approach – it is learning in the sense of policymakers being active learners who are trying to make sense of their (changing) policy environment and developing an understanding of what they should do as policymakers. Policymakers are not only policy learners; they also have to act, and acting on the political scene, especially in environments that are undergoing radical change, such as those in transition countries, does not always leave much space or time for careful and gradual learning. On the other hand, policymakers engaged in systemic radical reforms, especially in transition countries, require new learning that very often contradicts established knowledge and routines. They have to engage in daily political decision making, and depending on their position in the system, active engagement may often take priority. For

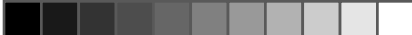
¹⁴³ See also Chapter 4.

policymakers, therefore, perhaps even more than for other learners, learning is more than merely a cognitive process: learning is practice. Their learning, following Lave and Wenger, is situated learning as it is an integral and inseparable aspect of their social practice. This understanding of the 'situatedness' of learning complements what has been discussed earlier concerning the 'context-boundness' of policies. However, what is said here about national policymakers can equally be said of teachers in schools.

Thinking in terms of participating in communities of practice may help us to shed light on aspects of VET itself, including specific ways of organising education and training in order to achieve certain learning outcomes, and the role of teachers and trainers as professionals in such learning processes. Furthermore, it may help us to reflect on the role of teachers and trainers as stakeholders in education reforms. This aspect will then also inform us more generally about how stakeholders learn policies. That in turn may help us to think differently about how the policy learning processes in which stakeholders in VET reforms are engaged

can be facilitated. Thus it can be argued that there is considerable congruence between, on the one hand, the professional roles of teachers in education and training and, on the other, the roles of policy advisers in facilitating policy learning processes.

School-based learning is not intrinsically bad, nor is work-based learning intrinsically good: classrooms and workplaces are nothing more than learning sites, and the very concept of 'good' depends on what is expected to be the outcome. Learning outcomes will depend on how learning process are organised. In the same way it can also be argued that different EC instruments for assistance and cooperation can be used within a variety of conceptions and approaches. They are after all instruments and not an end in themselves (though from time to time they are in fact treated as such). It therefore all depends on the expected learning outcomes and the way these instruments are used in practice to achieve these outcomes. It is about a better use of existing instruments within a policy learning context that more reflection will be needed, rather than about developing new ones.



ANNEX: STATISTICS



Basic demographic data on ETF partner countries

ETF Region	Total population (millions)			Average annual population change (%)		Dependency ratio (dependents as % of population aged 15-64)		Net migration (per 1000 persons)		
	Source: World Bank			Source: World Bank		Source: World Bank		Source: Eurostat		
	1992	2002	2015 [f]	1980 to 2002	2002 to 2015 [f]	Aged 0-14 (2002)	Aged 64+ (2002)	2000	2002	
Candidate countries	94.47	104.34	114.3							
Bulgaria	8.54	7.96	7.3	-0.5	-0.7	0.2	0.2	0.0		0.0
Croatia	4.78	4.46	4.3	-0.1	-0.3	0.2	0.2	5.1	[ne]	1.9
Romania	22.78	22.30	21.4	0.0	-0.3	0.2	0.2	-0.2		-0.1
Turkey	58.37	69.62	81.3	2.0	1.2	0.4	0.1	-1.3	[ne]	1.5 [ne]
South Eastern Europe	19.78	17.45	20.6							
Albania	3.29	3.15	3.5	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.1	-3.8	[1]	m
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4.12	4.11	4.2	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	m		m
FYR Macedonia	1.92	2.03	2.2	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.2	-1.2		-12.2
Serbia and Montenegro [*]	10.45	8.16	10.7	0.4 [2]	2.1	0.3	0.2	0.0	[ne]	0.0 [ne]
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	283.63	279.54	273.5							
Belarus	10.21	9.92	9.3	0.1	-0.5	0.3	0.2	1.2		0.6
Moldova	4.35	4.25	4.1	0.3	-0.2	0.3	0.2	-24.9		-0.9
Russian Federation	148.68	144.07	134.5	0.2	-0.5	0.2	0.2	1.5		13.5 [ne]
Ukraine	52.15	48.71	44.7	-0.1	-0.7	0.2	0.2	-0.9		-0.7
Armenia	3.49	3.06	3.0	0.0	-0.1	0.3	0.1	-3.6		-2.9
Azerbaijan	7.38	8.17	9.0	1.3	0.7	0.4	0.1	-0.7		-0.4
Georgia	5.43	5.17	4.7	0.1	-0.8	0.3	0.2	-30.7		m
Kazakhstan	16.51	14.87	15.5	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.1	m		m
Kyrgyzstan	4.54	5.00	5.8	1.5	1.1	0.5	0.1	m		m
Tajikistan	5.57	6.26	7.2	2.1	1.0	0.6	0.1	m		m
Turkmenistan	3.88	4.79	5.7	2.3	1.3	0.6	0.1	m		m
Uzbekistan	21.44	25.27	30.0	2.1	1.3	0.6	0.1	m		m

ETF Region	Total population (millions)			Average annual population change (%)		Dependency ratio (dependents as % of population aged 15-64)		Net migration (per 1000 persons)	
	Source: World Bank			Source: World Bank		Source: World Bank		Source: Eurostat	
	1992	2002	2015 [f]	1980 to 2002	2002 to 2015 [f]	Aged 0-14 (2002)	Aged 64+ (2002)	2000	2002
Mediterranean	142.22	173.49	212.9						
Algeria	26.27	31.32	38.3	2.4	1.5	0.6	0.1	m	m
Morocco	24.99	29.64	35.4	1.9	1.4	0.5	0.1	m	m
Tunisia	8.49	9.78	11.5	1.9	1.3	0.4	0.1	m	m
Egypt	54.78	66.37	80.9	2.2	1.5	0.6	0.1	m	m
Israel	5.12	6.56	7.9	2.4	1.4	0.4	0.2	m	m
Jordan	3.73	5.17	6.8	3.9	2.2	0.6	0.1	m	m
Lebanon	3.78	4.44	5.2	1.8	1.2	0.5	0.1	m	m
West Bank and Gaza Strip	2.13	3.23	4.9	m	3.2	0.9	0.1	m	m
Syria	12.93	16.98	22.0	3.0	2.0	0.7	0.1	m	m

m = data missing or not available

ne = national estimate

f = forecasted data

* does not include Kosovo, 2002 data is national estimate

Source: World Development Indicators 2004 CD-Rom (World Bank)

Source: Statistics in Focus (17/2002, 13/2004) Demographic Results (Eurostat)

[1] 1999

[2] Data refer to 1980-2001

Basic economic data on ETF partner countries

ETF Region	GDP per capita at PPP (1995 US\$)		GDP change (%) (annual average)			Consumer Price Index (1995=100)		Annual contribution of sectors to GDP in 1995 and 2002 (%)						
	<i>Source: World Bank</i>					<i>Source: World Bank</i>		<i>Source: World Bank</i>						
	1995	2002	1995 to 2001	latest year		1996	2002	1995	2002	1995	2002	1995	2002	
								Agriculture		Industry & Manufacturing		Services		
Candidate countries	<i>Source: Eurostat</i>													
Bulgaria	5836	6318	0.5	4.3	[2]	222	3916	15	13	35	28	50	59	
Croatia	6618	9066	3.6	[3]	4.3	[2]	104	135	11	8	34	30	55	62
Romania	5608	5806	1.0		4.9	[2]	139	1969	21	13	43	38	36	49
Turkey	5138	5658	2.9		5.8	[2]	180	3536	16	13	30	27	54	60
South Eastern Europe	<i>Source: World Bank</i>													
Albania	2554	4278	8.4		4.7	[1]	113	202	56	25	22	19	22	56
Bosnia and Herzegovina	m	m	25.5		3.9	[1]	m	m	25	18	27	37	48	45
FYR Macedonia	5346	5735	1.3		0.7	[1]	103	103	13	12	32	30	55	58
Serbia and Montenegro	m	m	1.2	[3]	4.0	[1]	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	<i>Source: World Bank</i>													
Belarus	3189	4887	3.7		4.7	[1]	153	10512	17	11	37	37	46	52
Moldova	1411	1300	-1.1		7.2	[1]	121	308	33	24	32	25	35	51
Russian Federation	5933	7289	1.4		4.3	[1]	148	683	7	6	37	34	56	60
Ukraine	3950	4315	-1.8		4.8	[1]	180	410	15	15	43	38	42	47
Armenia	1665	2761	6.0		12.9	[1]	119	153	42	26	32	37	26	37
Azerbaijan	1667	2845	4.8		10.6	[1]	120	120	27	16	34	52	39	32

ETF Region	GDP per capita at PPP (1995 US\$)		GDP change (%) (annual average)			Consumer Price Index (1995=100)		Annual contribution of sectors to GDP in 1995 and 2002 (%)					
	Source: World Bank					Source: World Bank		Source: World Bank					
	1995	2002	1995 to 2001	latest year		1996	2002	1995	2002	1995	2002	1995	2002
								Agriculture	Industry & Manufacturing		Services		
Georgia	1389	2002	5.3	5.6	[1]	139	212	52	21	16	23	32	56
Kazakhstan	3305	5203	2.6	9.8	[1]	139	246	13	9	32	38	55	53
Kyrgyzstan	1122	1436	4.0	-0.5	[1]	132	317	44	39	20	26	36	35
Tajikistan	777	866	0.0	9.1	[1]	m	m	38	24	39	24	23	52
Turkmenistan	2847	m	5.3	14.9	[1]	m	m	17	m	63	m	20	m
Uzbekistan	1228	1476	3.2	4.2	[1]	m	m	32	35	28	21	40	44
Mediterranean	Source: World Bank												
Algeria	4621	5101	3.2	4.1	[1]	119	143	11	10	50	53	39	37
Morocco	2959	3374	2.6	3.2	[1]	103	113	15	16	33	30	52	54
Tunisia	4679	5990	5.0	1.7	[1]	104	123	11	10	29	29	60	61
Egypt	2784	3371	4.9	3.0	[1]	108	129	17	17	32	33	51	50
Israel	17043	17300	4.0	-0.8	[1]	111	145	m	m	m	m	m	m
Jordan	3734	3736	3.7	4.9	[1]	107	119	4	2	29	26	67	72
Lebanon	3776	3863	2.8	1.0	[1]	m	m	13	12	27	21	60	67
West Bank and Gaza Strip	m	m	0.0	-19.1	[1]	m	m	14	6	27	13	59	81
Syria	2911	3205	3.6	2.7	[1]	108	105	28	23	18	28	54	49

m = data missing or not available

Source: World Development Indicators 2004 (World Bank)

Source: Structural Indicators Webpage January 2005 (Eurostat)

[1] 2002

[2] 2003

[3] Data refers to 1996-2001

Basic labour market data on ETF partner countries

ETF Region	Labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-64)			Unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15 and over)			Youth unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15-24)				
	1995	latest year		1995	latest year		1995	latest year			
Candidate countries	<i>Source: Eurostat, ILO, ETF</i>			<i>Source: Eurostat, ILO</i>			<i>Source: Eurostat, ILO</i>				
Bulgaria	62.1	60.9	[1]	15.7	13.6	[1]	m	26.8	[1]		
Croatia	57.9	64.2	[1]	14.5	[*,r]	15.8	[3]	m	37.3	[3]	
Romania	67.2	62.2	[1]	8.0	[*]	6.6	[1]	20.9	18.7	[1]	
Turkey	58.5	51.3	[2]	6.5	[*]	9.0	[1]	15.6	[*]	19.9	[3]
South Eastern Europe	<i>Source: ILO, ETF</i>			<i>Source: ILO, ETF</i>			<i>Source: ILO, ETF</i>				
Albania	71.0	69.5	[3]	12.4	[8,*]	22.7	[3]	m	35.5	[3]	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	58.8	m		m		m		m	m		
FYR Macedonia	60.6	62.0	[1]	35.6	[r]	36.7	[1]	m	58.4	[2]	
Serbia and Montenegro	m	m		m		22.3	[3,* ,r]	m	m		
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	<i>Source: ILO</i>			<i>Source: ILO</i>			<i>Source: ILO</i>				
Belarus	65.8	58.7	[5]	2.9	[*,r]	2.3	[3,* ,r]	m	m		
Moldova	66.4	m		1.0	[*,r]	7.3	[3]	m	m		
Russian Federation	59.8	58.8	[5]	9.5	[*,r]	13.4	[5,* ,r]	20.4	24.7	[5]	
Ukraine	68.7	56.9	[4]	5.6	[*,r]	11.1	[3,* ,r]	14.3	24.0	[4]	
Armenia	67.4	m		6.7	[*,r]	9.4	[6,* ,r]	m	m		
Azerbaijan	63.2	m		0.8	[*,r]	1.3	[3,* ,r]	m	m		
Georgia	63.8	66.2	[3]	m		11.0	[3]	m	20.1	[3]	
Kazakhstan	67.8	m		11.0	[*,r]	13.7	[6,* ,r]	m	m		
Kyrgyzstan	66.3	m		5.7		8.6		m	m		
Tajikistan	64.1	m		1.2	[*,r]	2.7	[7,* ,r]	m	m		
Turkmenistan	68.9	m		m		m	[3,* ,r]	m	m		
Uzbekistan	67.4	m		0.4	[*,r]	m		m	m		

ETF Region	Labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-64)			Unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15 and over)			Youth unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15-24)			
	1995	latest year		1995	latest year		1995	latest year		
Mediterranean	<i>Source: ILO</i>			<i>Source: Eurostat-MEDSTAT</i>			<i>Source: Eurostat-MEDSTAT</i>			
Algeria	50.4	44.9	[8]	28.1	[q]	27.3	[3]	m	46.2	[3,*]
Morocco	52.0	54.4	[5]	16.0	[q]	11.6	[2]	m	17.6	[2,*]
Tunisia	57.3	48.6	[7]	m		14.9	[2]	m	30.7	[2,*]
Egypt	47.9	47.5	[5]	11.1	[*]	9.1	[2]	m	28.2	[4,*]
Israel	m	54.4	[3]	6.9		10.3	[2]	m	20.8	[2,*]
Jordan	49.9	38.0	[4]	14.2		15.3	[2]	m	31.0	[2,*]
Lebanon	50.4	46.8	[7]	m		9.9	[4]	m	24.0	[4,*]
West Bank and Gaza Strip	38.7	39.2	[5]	18.2		25.5	[3]	m	35.6	[3,*]
Syria	52.3	53.0	[3]	7.0	[*]	11.7	[3]	m	m	[2,*]

m = data missing or not available

q = data from different quarters or yearly rates

r = registered at employment offices (monthly data, various months)

* = age group is different

Source: *Key Indicators of the Labour Market Third Edition (ILO)*

Source: *World Development Indicators 2004 CD-Rom (World Bank)*

Source: *Employment in Europe 2004 (DG Employment, Eurostat)*

Source: *Statistics in Focus (Theme 1 - 8/2003) Euro-Mediterranean Statistics (Eurostat-MEDSTAT)*

Source: *Key Indicators database (ETF)*

[1] 2003

[2] 2002

[3] 2001

[4] 2000

[5] 1999

[6] 1998

[7] 1997

[8] 1996

Basic data on participation in education in ETF partner countries

ETF Region	Expected years of schooling			Years of compulsory education	Participation in secondary education*			Enrolment** in TVET (%)	Participation in tertiary education***				
	UIS, ETF			UIS, Eurostat	UOE, UIS			ETF, UOE, UIS	UOE, UIS				
	1988/99	latest year		2000/01	1998/99	latest year		latest year	1998/99	latest year			
Candidate countries					UOE, UIS			ETF, UOE	UOE, UIS				
Bulgaria	13	15	[1]	9	89.4	94.3	[2]	55.8	[3]	43.5	37.7	[2]	
Croatia	12	14	[1]	8	89.8	88.4	[2]	38.5	[2]	31.9	36.4	[2]	
Romania	12	15	[2]	9	78.9	84.2	[2]	63.9	[3]	21.3	30.4	[2]	
Turkey	m	11	[2]	9	m	76.0	[2,e]	39.7	[3]	m	24.8	[2]	
South Eastern Europe					UOE, UIS			ETF, UOE	UOE, UIS				
Albania	m	11	[3]	8	75.8	[ne]	78.4	[3,e]	14.8	[3]	m	15.1	[3]
Bosnia and Herzegovina	m	m	[2]	m	m	m		m		m	m	[2]	
FYR Macedonia	12	12	[2]	8	82.3	84.0	[2]	63.0	[3]	22.0	27.1	[2]	
Serbia and Montenegro	13	13	[3,e]	8	92.3	88.7	[2,e]	m		34.0	36.0	[3]	
Eastern Europe and Central Asia					UIS			UIS	UIS				
Belarus	13	14	[2]	9	85.2	84.1	[2]	n	[2]	48.4	62.1	[2]	
Moldova	10	10	[2]	11	72.7	72.4	[2]	5.5	[2]	30.0	28.7	[2]	
Russian Federation	m	13	[2,e]	10	m	92.0	[2]	9.4	[2]	m	36.0	[3]	
Ukraine	m	13	[2,e]	9	m	96.8	[2]	6.7	[2]	43.2	58.0	[2]	
Armenia	m	11	[2]	11	m	86.5	[2]	1.3	[2]	m	26.7	[2]	
Azerbaijan	10	10	[2]	11	76.9	79.7	[2]	2.1	[2]	21.9	[e] 24.0	[2]	
Georgia	11	11	[2,e]	9	74.2	78.6	[2]	4.3	[2]	32.2	36.5	[2]	
Kazakhstan	11	13	[2]	11	87.4	88.8	[2]	4.3	[2]	23.7	38.4	[2]	
Kyrgyzstan	12	13	[2]	10	85.4	86.5	[2]	3.7	[2]	30.4	45.2	[2]	

ETF Region	Expected years of schooling			Years of compulsory education	Participation in secondary education*			Enrolment** in TVET (%)	Participation in tertiary education***				
	UIS, ETF			UIS, Eurostat	UOE, UIS			ETF, UOE, UIS	UOE, UIS				
	1988/99	latest year		2000/01	1998/99	latest year		latest year	1998/99	latest year			
Tajikistan	10	11	[2,e]	9	76.1	82.0	[2]	2.7	[2]	14.1	14.8	[2]	
Turkmenistan	m	m	[2]	m	m	m		m					
Uzbekistan	m	11	[2,e]	m	m	98.6	[2,e]	8.8	[2,e]	m	9.4	[e]	
Mediterranean					UIS, UOE			UIS	UOE, UIS				
Algeria	11	m		9	65.8	71.6	[2]	2.7	[2]	15.1	[e]	m	
Morocco	8	m	[3,e]	9	37.7	40.9	[3,e]	6.5	[3,e]	9.4		10.3	[2,e]
Tunisia	13	13	[2,e]	11	72.9	79.1	[2]	5.4	[2]	17.3	[e]	23.2	[2,e]
Egypt	12	m		8	80.8	[e]	88.1	[2,e]	29.3	[2,e]	38.3	[e]	m
Israel	15	16	[2]	m	90.8	94.4	[2]	20.7	[2]	49.1		57.6	[2]
Jordan	m	13	[2,e]	10	86.9	86.3	[2]	6.9	[2]	m		31.0	[2]
Lebanon	13	13	[2,e]	10	77.5	77.4	[2]	12.2	[2]	35.5		44.7	[2]
West Bank and Gaza Strip	12	13	[2]	10	78.8	84.9	[2]	n	[2]	24.8		30.6	[2]
Syria	9	m		6	40.6	44.6	[2]	9.9	[2]	m		m	

e = estimated data

m = data missing or not available

n = nil or negligible

ne = national estimate

r = reclassification of programmes in ISCED mapping

* = gross enrolment ratio in lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3)

** = total enrolment in technical and vocational education as a % of total enrolment in lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3)

*** = gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education (ISCED levels 5 and 6)

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Source: UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat joint data collection (UOE)

Source: Key Indicators database (ETF)

Source: Key Data on Education in Europe 2002 (Eurydice/Eurostat)

[1] 2002/03

[2] 2001/02

[3] 2000/01

[4] 1999/00

Basic data on teachers and teaching time in ETF partner countries

ETF Region	Total teachers (full-time) in secondary education ('000)				Student-teacher ratio in upper secondary education*				Teaching time** in VET (hours per year)		Ratio of teachers' salaries to GDP per capita*** (latest year)			
	1988/99		latest year		1998/99		latest year		latest year		starting salary		mid-career	
	<i>UOE, UIS</i>				<i>ETF, OECD/UIS</i>				<i>ETF, OECD, UIS</i>					
Candidate countries	<i>UOE</i>				<i>UOE, UIS</i>				<i>ETF, OECD/UIS</i>		<i>ETF</i>			
Bulgaria	56.0	57.4	[1]	11.3		11.7	[1]	792	[1]	0.6	[1,q]	0.9	[1,q]	
Croatia	34.5	37.7	[1]	12.0	[l]	11.0	[2,l]	692	[1]	1.1	[1,q]	1.4	[1,q]	
Romania	173.9	176.2	[1]	14.1		14.4	[1]	637	[1]	1.1	[2,q]	1.3	[2,q]	
Turkey	m	m		14.0	[3]	17.7	[2,h]	960	[2]	2.5	[1,q]	2.7	[1,q]	
South Eastern Europe	<i>UIS, UOE</i>				<i>UOE, UIS</i>				<i>ETF</i>		<i>ETF</i>			
Albania	22.2	[e]	22.3	[3]	15.8	[3]	18.1	[2,l]	541	[1]	1.4	[1,q]	1.6	[1,q]
Bosnia and Herzegovina	m		m		m		m	875	[1]	2.1	[1,q]	2.2	[1,q]	
FYR Macedonia	13.4		13.6	[1]	18.0	[4]	18.5	[1]	m		m		m	
Serbia and Montenegro	54.3	[e]	56.4	[3]	15.0	[e,l]	14.0	[3]	740	[1]	3.3	[1,q]	3.5	[1,q]
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	<i>UIS</i>				<i>UIS, OECD/UIS</i>				<i>OECD/UIS</i>		<i>OECD/UIS</i>			
Belarus	m		m		m		9	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Moldova	31.8	[e]	31.3	[2]	13	[e,l]	9	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Russian Federation	m		874.0	[2,e]	m		11.3	[2,h]	774	[2,g]	m		m	
Ukraine	m		369.8	[2,e]	m		14	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Armenia	m		46.9	[2,e]	m		8	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Azerbaijan	118.5	[e]	121.9	[2,e]	8	[e,l]	9	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Georgia	59.7	[e]	49.4	[2,e]	8	[e,l]	9	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Kazakhstan	m		170.3	[2,e]	m		12	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
Kyrgyzstan	48.0	[e]	51.4	[2]	13	[e,l]	13	[2,l]	m		m		m	
Tajikistan	40.8	[e]	50.3	[2]	19	[e,l]	18	[2,l]	m		m		m	

ETF Region	Total teachers (full-time) in secondary education ('000)			Student-teacher ratio in upper secondary education*				Teaching time** in VET (hours per year)		Ratio of teachers' salaries to GDP per capita*** (latest year)				
				UOE, UIS				ETF, OECD/UIS		ETF, OECD, UIS				
	1988/99	latest year		1998/99	latest year			latest year			starting salary		mid-career	
Turkmenistan	m	m		m	m			m			m		m	
Uzbekistan	m	m		m	m			m			m		m	
Mediterranean				UIS, OECD/UIS				OECD/UIS		OECD/UIS				
Algeria	154.6	161.6	[2]	18.0	20.0	[2,l]		m			m		m	
Morocco	87.9	[4,e]	90.8	17.0	[e,l]	17.0	[4,e,l]	m			m		m	
Tunisia	56.5	[e]	58.3	[2,e]	21.3	[h]	21.7	[2,h,l]	548	[2,g]	2.0	[5,r]	3.1	[2,r]
Egypt	454.0	[e]	497.0	[2,e]	12.6	[h]	13.2	[3,h]	748	[2,g]	m		m	
Israel	m	m		m	14.0			[2,h]	m		m		m	
Jordan	m	33.8	[2,e]	17.3	[h]	16.0	[2,h]	688	[3]	2.2	[3,r]	2.7	[2,r]	
Lebanon	42.1	[e]	46.8	[2,e]	9.0	[e,l]	7.0	[2,e,l]	m		m		m	
West Bank and Gaza Strip	m	16.7	[3,e]	m	30.0			[3,e,l]	m		m		m	
Syria	70.2	[e]	62.8	[3,e]	15.0	[e,l]	18.0	[3,e,l]	m		m		m	

e = estimated data

h = based on FTE

m = data missing or not available

q = in national currency

* = student-teacher ratio in upper secondary education (ISCED level 3, all programmes) based on headcounts

** = total number of hours that a full-time teacher at ISCED level 3 vocational is expected to teach, according to the formal policy of the country

*** = ratio of annual statutory salaries (including bonuses) of teachers in upper secondary education (public institutions) to GDP per capita

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Source: UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat joint data collection (UOE)

Source: World Education Indicators (OECD/UIS)

Source: Key Indicators database (ETF)

[1] 2002/03

[2] 2001/02

[3] 2000/01

[4] 1999/00

[5] 1998/99

Basic data on expenditure on education and training in ETF partner countries

ETF Region	Public expenditure on education as a % of GDP			Expenditure on TVET as a % of GDP		Public expenditure on education as a % of total public expenditure			Expenditure on TVET as a % of total public expenditure	
	<i>UOE, ETF, UIS</i>			<i>ETF, ILO</i>		<i>ETF, UIS</i>			<i>ETF, ILO</i>	
	1999	latest year		latest year		1999	latest year		latest year	
Candidate countries	<i>ETF, UOE</i>					<i>ETF</i>				
Bulgaria	3.66	3.57	[2,p]	0.6	[2]	8.9	9.6	[1]	1.4	[2]
Croatia	4.20	4.20	[3,p]	0.8	[2]	15.1	15.6	[3]	2.8	[2]
Romania	3.37	3.53	[2,p]	m		10.9	11.0	[3]	m	
Turkey	3.08	3.56	[2,p]	m		m	12.4	[3]	m	
South Eastern Europe	<i>ETF</i>					<i>ETF</i>				
Albania	m	2.72	[2]	0.1	[2]	m	8.4	[2]	0.5	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	m	m		m		m	m		m	
FYR Macedonia	4.12	3.69	[2]	m		m	m		m	
Serbia and Montenegro	m	m		m		m	m		m	
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	<i>ETF,UIS</i>					<i>UIS</i>				
Belarus	6.00	m		1.4	[5]	m	m		m	
Moldova	4.70	4.00	[4]	0.3	[5]	m	15.0	[4]	m	
Russian Federation	4.40	3.07	[4]	m	[5]	m	11.5	[3]	m	
Ukraine	3.70	4.23	[4]	0.2	[5]	15.7	[6]	15.0	[4]	m
Armenia	1.90	3.18	[3]	0.2	[5]	m	m		m	
Azerbaijan	m	3.49	[3]	m	[5]	m	23.1	[3]	m	
Georgia	2.13	2.48	[3]	m	[5]	11.3	[6]	13.1	[3]	m
Kyrgyzstan	3.40	3.09	[3]	0.3	[5]	m	18.6	[3]	m	
Tajikistan	m	2.42	[3]	m	[5]	m	m	[3]	m	

ETF Region	Public expenditure on education as a % of GDP			Expenditure on TVET as a % of GDP		Public expenditure on education as a % of total public expenditure			Expenditure on TVET as a % of total public expenditure	
	UOE, ETF, UIS			ETF, ILO		ETF, UIS			ETF, ILO	
	1999	latest year		latest year		1999	latest year		latest year	
Turkmenistan	4.30	[6]	m	0.6	[5]	m	m	[3]	m	
Uzbekistan	4.80		m	1.7	[5]	m	m	[3]	m	
Mediterranean	UIS					UIS				
Algeria	m	m	[3]	m		m	m		m	
Morocco	5.02	5.02	[4]	m		m	m		m	
Tunisia	7.48	6.84	[4]	m		m	17.4	[4,e]	m	
Egypt	m	m		m		m	m		m	
Israel	7.46	7.33	[4]	m		m	m		m	
Jordan	4.95	4.60	[3]	m		m	20.6	[4]	m	
Lebanon	2.02	2.92	[3]	m		10.4	[6]	11.1	[4]	m
West Bank and Gaza Strip	m	m		m		m	m	[3]	m	
Syria	3.40	4.13	[3]	m		12.2	[6,e]	11.1	[4]	m

e = estimated data

m = data missing or not available

p = provisional data

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Source: Key Indicators database (ETF)

Source: Preliminary database on investment in VET (ILO, IFP/SKILLS)

[1] 2003

[2] 2002

[3] 2001

[4] 2000

[5] 1999

[6] 1998



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