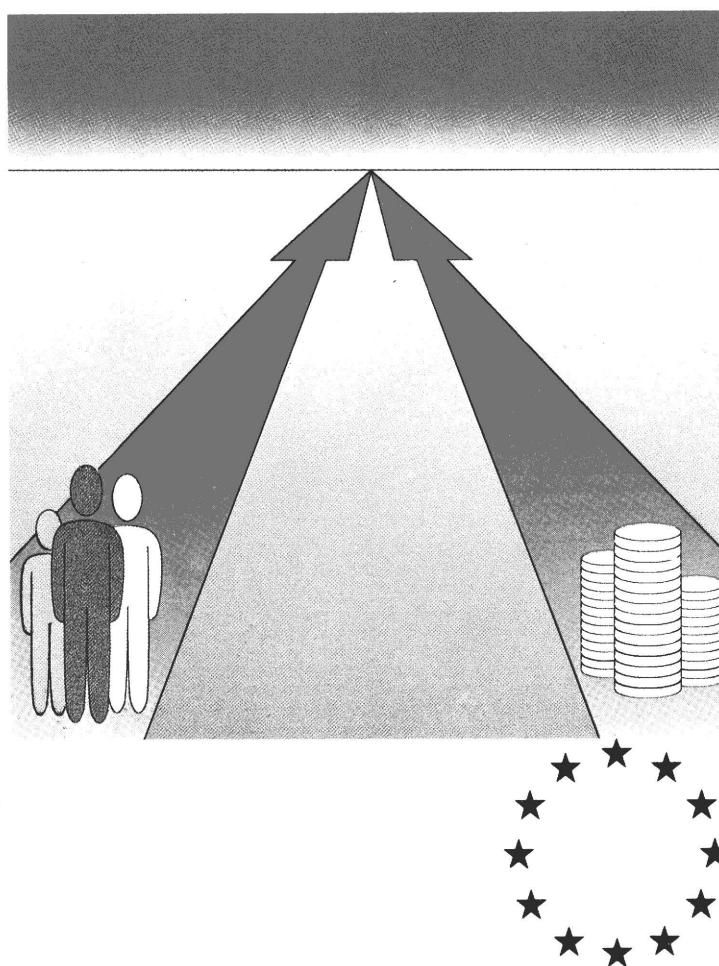


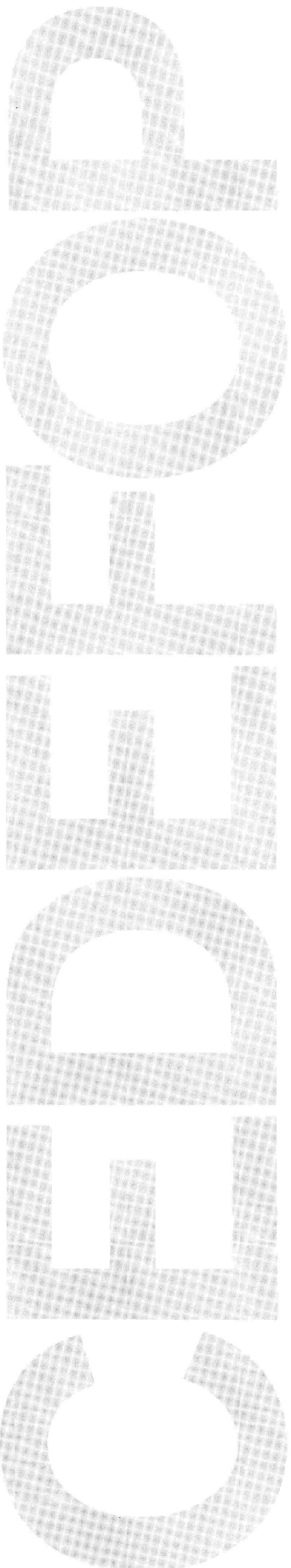
No 3/1988

Selective funding -

**a regulative instrument for initial
and continuing training**



Vocational training



Dear Readers,

The study of the flow of people and funds which pass through initial and continuing training systems is tantamount to a radiography which illustrates how and to what extent political decisions taken at all the different levels (national, regional and sectoral) are put into practice. It is not the aim of the Centre to pass judgement on or to evaluate the organization and results of national systems but rather to improve understanding, to establish common terminology and to increase the transparency of the national systems *vis-à-vis* each other. This ambitious objective assumes its full importance when viewed in connection with the social consequences of the large market which is to be established in 1992. It will necessitate more intensive contacts between those involved in vocational training in the Member States.

The study of continuing training is of major importance at present owing to:

■ the appearance of new structures in work organization, particularly following the introduction of new technologies;

■ the rapid emergence of a new range of products and services on the market which lead to new occupations.

These two factors, among others, provoke a demand for qualifications which is evolving more quickly than ever before. And traditional initial training cannot keep pace with these changes. Thus, we can witness the emergence of a whole series of continuing training activities in non-traditional structures which aim to equip men and women, the unemployed and workers to meet the new requirements on the labour market. Thus, in the European Community it is important to evaluate the efforts which have been or have still to be made in order to upgrade the skills of the labour force but also and above all to assess how our human resources are being enriched by this process. All Member States have (official and other) sources of information on vocational training but in most cases these sources differ from country to country. There is a further problem at Community level: that of comprehension, because frequently the same terms are used for different concepts and

statistics on elements which appear to be the same cannot be compared because the bases for calculation differ.

The study of the flow of people and funds through vocational training is not just a statistical problem: overall understanding of the framework for financing vocational training will only be possible if the quantitative approach is extended to include qualitative studies. This would allow us to analyze what could not be recorded statistically, and to classify and interpret the overall data.

But the main problem posed by this study is a political one: the challenge of transparency and the determination to inform each country on the special aspects peculiar to the systems in the other Member States.



Ernst Piehl
Director of CEDEFOP



Measuring vocational training

A progress report

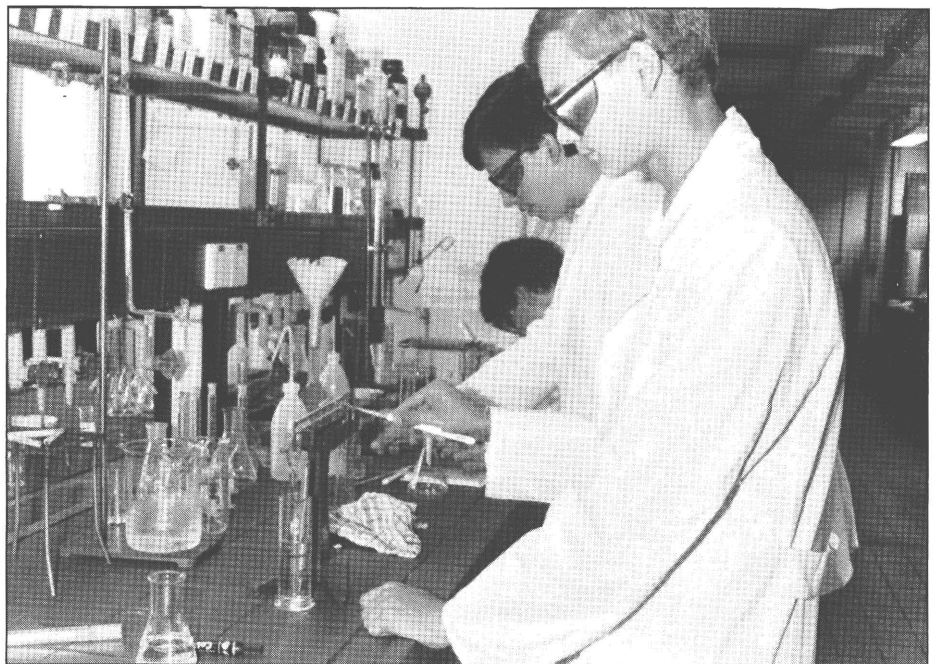
Will there be enough motor mechanics or civil engineers or qualified accountants in the European Community in a few years time? How many are there now? How many are being trained? What opportunities are there for young people leaving school to train for these or any other occupations? Are there enough training places or, in some cases, too many? What do various types and methods of training cost? How much of the cost is borne by the trainees themselves or their households and how much by employers, governments or similar bodies? These are just some of the questions facing planners whose task it is to see that present and future resources available for training are used to the best possible advantage both of the people being trained and of the Community's economy in future years.

Some of the foregoing questions can be answered, with more or less certainty, for some occupations in some Member States of the Community. The responsible authorities in no Member State, however, can honestly claim to be able to answer all the important questions about vocational training in their own country. So why do we attempt to do for the Community what the Member States cannot do for themselves? There are three reasons. In the first place we believe that a well-trained labour force throughout the Community will be one of the keys to its enduring success in the future in competition with other parts of the world. Secondly, we hope that by attempting to measure vocational training at the level of the Community we shall encourage individual Member States to do more of this for themselves and to learn from one

another, which is not easily done with the information currently available. Thirdly, and not least important, there will be the single market from 1992. What we have experienced up to now in the matter of migration from one country to another is only a fraction of what can be expected in the years ahead. For people to be able to take their skills with them there will be a greater need than now exists for those skills to be readily recognized outside the country in which the training has been received. Training therefore has a Community dimension.

but to be usable in a logical manner they have to be supported by nomenclatures and definitions. That is what we mean by 'measuring' vocational training.

The systems of education and training in the 12 Member States are all different, the reasons for which are historical and cultural. In the Middle Ages education was provided mainly by the church and practical training by the system of apprenticeships. In most countries privately funded schools and higher educational institutions grew up later alongside



Berliner Chemieverbände

The Commission and Council of the European Communities have already pursued a number of policies encouraging vocational training and more can be expected between now and 1992 and also thereafter. It is only natural that the Commission wants to know the effectiveness of its policies so that they can be modified if necessary or adapted to the needs of changing circumstances. To a limited extent the effectiveness of policies can be described in words but to be convincing it is necessary more often than not to use figures. Do not be put off, as some people are, if we call these figures 'statistics'; they are really just numbers,

the religious establishments and as large-scale industries developed, firms took on the role of master craftsmen in teaching apprentices. As specialization increased, further training or examining facilities were provided by professional and trade organizations. The rate and extent of all these developments varied between countries, as has the role and intervention of government at various levels, national, regional and local. The result of all the different rates of progress is that it is now very difficult to compare the systems and results of vocational training across the length and breadth of the Community.



Roy Walker

Principal administrator in the Statistical Office of the European Communities (Eurostat)

In setting out to produce a Community system of measuring vocational training by statistics that can be understood in all Member States, we do not seek to influence the nature of the training given and received. That is the prerogative of Member States themselves and the various bodies responsible for their training systems. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on this point, because at the present time there are fears in some quarters that producing figures on a common basis can imply that the latter is somehow more desirable than a national basis, which may be different. What has to be kept firmly in mind is the purpose of the common basis: it is that data on vocational training can be understood and compared in the 12 Member States without the need for reading 12 sets of national definitions in 9 languages and trying to ponder what effects on the figures are caused by differences in the definitions.

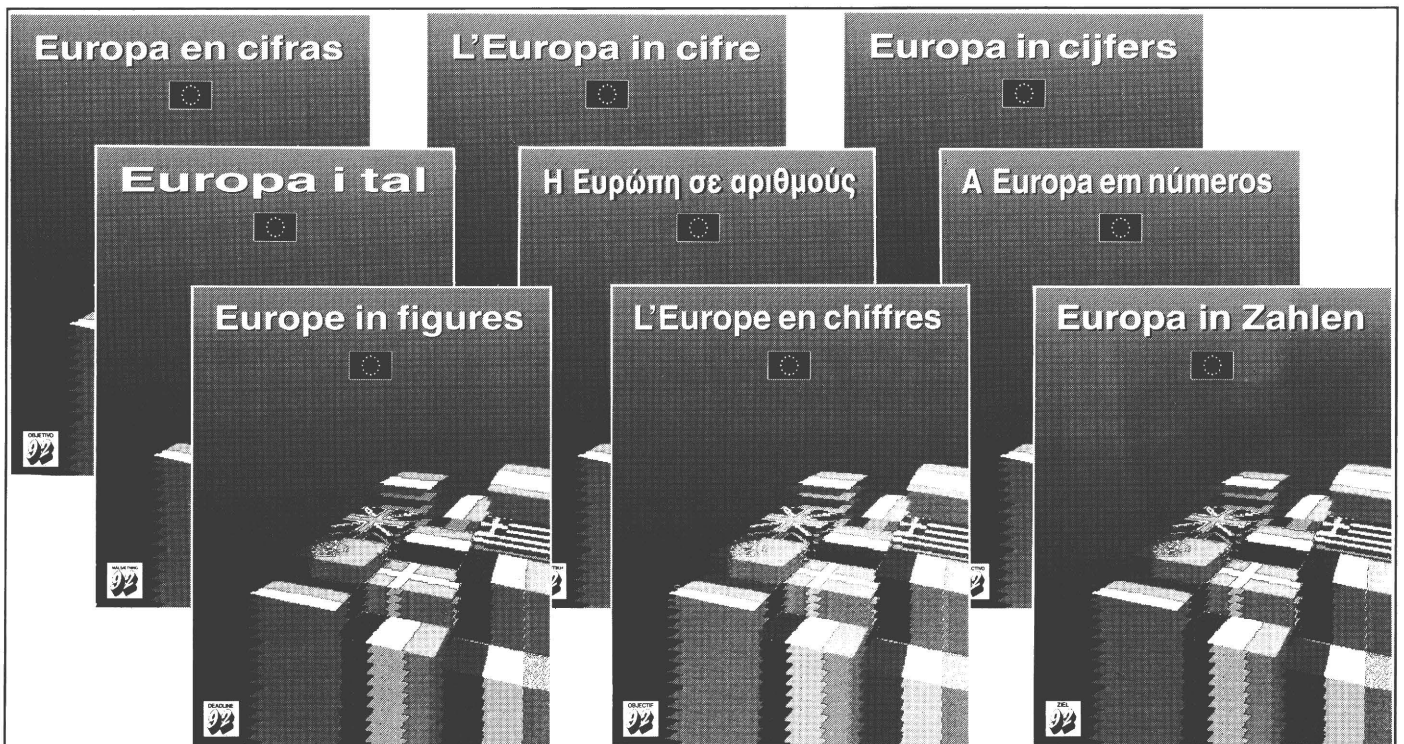
Let us not suppose, however, that our efforts will lead to a perfect degree of comparability between all the figures of the various countries. That would be a state of perfection to which we can hardly aspire. So long as differences in the training systems exist it is likely that raw data produced at national level will require some adjustment or re-classification to fit them into a Community framework and even then some small differences may be

unavoidable. Our aim is to reduce these unavoidable differences as far as the statisticians' art permits, so that explanations of divergences from the standard can be reduced to the minimum. This process is sometimes called 'harmonization' — another word that sometimes leads to apprehension, but be sure that we are only concerned with harmonization of information, not with harmonization of the actual training.

Several years ago the Statistical Office of the European Communities, which is located in Luxembourg and is commonly known as Eurostat, realized that there existed a major lacuna in training statistics. A system of education statistics for the Community had been built up over a number of years covering regular school and higher education, but it did not properly cover vocational training, much of which takes place outside the establishments to which the regular education statistics refer.

The first step towards producing vocational training statistics was taken by Eurostat in the late 1970s. With the agreement of its Education and Training Working Party, which is composed of official statisticians of the Member States, it was decided to collect numbers of trainees and expenditure on training funded by governments outside the regular school and higher education system. Methods of funding differ, of

course, among Member States and so 'government' in this context has to include central, regional and local government according to the case. It was realized at the outset that privately funded training, by employers or others, would be a more difficult field in which to obtain figures, so efforts were concentrated on the public sector in the first place. Definitions and questionnaires were drawn up and an inquiry was launched. Some of the Member States' statisticians had more difficulty in finding the necessary data than they had foreseen. Whilst most countries could compute the total of public finance going into training outside the regular school and higher education system, some had difficulty in tracing exactly what was being spent, especially at local government level. Furthermore, the flows of funds from central to lower levels of government or to quasi-governmental or external bodies, were in some cases not matched by a corresponding flow of information in the opposite direction about the people being trained. Thus when the figures became available the Working Party reluctantly concluded that for numbers of trainees the data were too incomplete to be useful. The expenditure figures were good enough to be published but the difficulties in tracing all elements to make sure that they were comparable proved too great and they had to be abandoned after a run of four years.



There was, however, a fundamental flaw in this first effort to produce training statistics for the Community. It might have been foreseen but, through ignorance, did not become apparent until the first results were analysed and discussed. It is that some forms of training which take place outside the regular school and university system in some Member States are carried out within that system in other Member States; hence statistics comparable between countries could never be achieved. Furthermore, in some countries the same type of training can be found both within and outside the regular school and higher education system. Thus figures for training outside that system can never in isolation be of interest; only when they are combined with those of training within the system can we expect to achieve a reasonable degree of coherence.

Still restricting ourselves to publicly financed training, the next step was to see what data on training could be extracted from the statistics of education in the regular school and higher education system. Reasonably comprehensive and coherent statistics in this field, covering all Member States and most countries outside the Community, exist from about 1970 onwards as a result of collaboration between the Member States of Unesco. The latter organization, as a result of about 10 years' work, produced the International standard classification of education (Isced) which enables statistics to be compiled on a comparable basis for all levels from pre-primary education to post-graduate studies. The question arising is: what part of this vast field called 'education' can be considered to be vocational training?

The first step towards answering this question was to ask two independent consultants experienced in the matter to put forward their proposals. Their opinions were different and when the subject was considered by Eurostat's Working Party there was no consensus. Education and training form a continuum in which any attempt to strike a boundary between one and the other is likely to be arbitrary. In fact, one member of the Working Group went as far as to suggest that we should not attempt to do so.

At this stage closer cooperation between Eurostat and CEDEFOP began. CEDEFOP and its consultants had been studying the financing of vocational training for a considerable time and their studies had led to a set of informative monographs. There were still some problems to be tackled, however, and CEDEFOP's enterprise did not lead directly to the production of regular and comparable data. By uniting CEDEFOP's staff's and consultants' greater knowledge of the subject of vocational training with Eurostat's Working Party's greater familiarity with the problems of compiling statistics, it was and is expected that the difficulties of measuring vocational training will be overcome.

Accordingly, a joint CEDEFOP/Eurostat study group was set up on an *ad hoc* basis. In 1986 this group produced a provisional framework for vocational training statistics which includes a compromise definition of vocational training for statistical purposes. Note specially the object of this definition — to provide a common base for numerical information on vocational training that can be

equally understood throughout the Community. It is not a definition for legal or national purposes, where Member States' freedom of action is unaffected. The framework also includes means of classifying training and qualifications by type (initial training, continued training, etc.), by level and by field. It is drawn up to cover both training within and outside the regular school and higher education system and is intended to provide a basis for the regular compilation of statistics and for special studies and reports to ensure transparency and common understanding.

In 1987 a set of experimental questionnaires was prepared and submitted to the relevant authorities in a few selected Member States as a trial. When they had filled up the questionnaires as best they could, the results were analysed, which pointed to the need for changes both in the framework and in the individual questionnaires. The next step is to try again after making some revisions.

So we have not yet reached the point of being able to measure vocational training so as to say, for example, how much it is being pursued or what are its results or what does it cost — all in a uniform manner that can be understood equally well from Denmark to Portugal or from Ireland to Greece. It will take more time, possibly some years, as well as more effort before that desirable objective can be reached. However, we can claim to have made some progress and with the support of the Community institutions, the Member States' governments and the social partners the efforts will continue.

Vocational training and the single European market of 1992

Over the 25 years following the Second World War, economic development in western countries went hand in hand with a very marked growth in education. Enriching human capital in this way seemed to be an adjunct to increased capital intensity in the production process. Individuals also regarded education as an investment or as a consumer durable since it was moving more in the direction of the services. Society saw the growing trend to pursue studies beyond primary and then secondary education as a way of offsetting the inequality of opportunities for training and thus for employment and income.

The recession which set in round about 1973 disturbed this long-term growth. With hindsight, however, we can see that the impact of this worldwide crisis differed greatly. Japan's exceptional rate of growth prior to the recession ultimately slackened off somewhat. In the USA, as in the newly industrialized countries, the impact of the recession seemed to end in short-term fluctuations of greater amplitude. Western Europe, in contrast, seemed to be in crisis: its growth rate tailed off, its industrial apparatus underwent wholesale destruction and 10% unemployment appeared to be a permanent fixture. The extent to which countries were affected obviously differed, most notably in the four small non-EEC economies (Norway, Sweden, Austria

and Switzerland) where unemployment has not exceeded 3%.

Has this change in the economic fabric of the EC Member States had repercussions for the development of education in all its forms and in particular on vocational training? Has it changed peoples' attitudes towards education and altered State policies? Does it not, in particular, call for change — but what changes? — to step up efforts on education, to move away from the emphasis on general education or vocational training and to improve the ways in which it is funded? These are the questions which we should be trying to answer, hoping that CEDEFOP's research will provide some of the replies.

Productivity constraints

The deceleration of European growth, particularly marked in the manufacturing sector, has gone hand in hand with sustained rates of growth in productivity. This is highlighted by the small, particularly open, economies of the EEC: Belgium and the Netherlands are champions as regards productivity gains (+70% from 1973 to 1985), as well as job losses (—30%). In an economy which is increasingly on a worldwide scale, small or medium-sized developed countries can progress only by becoming hyper-productive, by seeking advanced technologies and by getting onto the market ahead of their powerful American or Japanese rivals.

This far-reaching trend seems to make it necessary to step up the educational ef-

fort; in particular, an increase in the number of young people going on to the most advanced types of training offered by the universities and/or colleges; and, in secondary education, a shift away from the less intensive educational cycles, often called 'vocational', towards the longer and more technical cycles.

The first question which has to be answered is whether European societies have followed these two paths since the recession. There is no clear-cut answer: in some countries, the number of young people following the university route has not increased at its previous rate and an increase in the age at which compulsory schooling ends has simply swelled the numbers of pupils in the weaker streams of secondary education.

A second question is how this diagnosis can be refined. If advanced sectors are to continue to develop, do the firms need young people with highly specialist training, or people with high-level scientific training but a generalist outlook? Our knowledge of the situation in America, where more emphasis has been placed on the first alternative, would tend to swing the balance towards the second alternative which is more representative of Europe. Super-specialization undoubtedly offers local and short-term benefits but it is an obstacle to reconversion which is frequently taking place; multinationals seem to be giving priority to managers who have a number of skills, rather than to super-specialists.

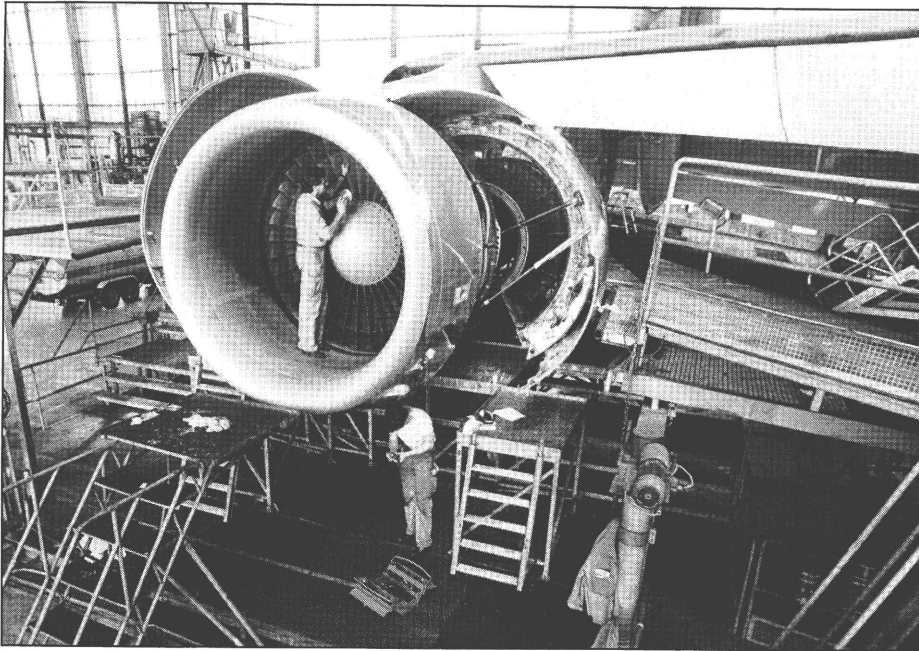
This diagnosis in no way eliminates the need for continuing vocational training. A third question is how to evaluate the

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is a Professor in the Department of Economic Sciences at the Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium, where he directs the Economy and Society Unit. He has also taught in Canada, France and Chile. His research on labour economics has covered in particular unemployment, working women and their wages, the flexibility of wages for young people, the distribution of income and an alternative labour market theory.

In order to pinpoint training needs, three features common to the economies of the EEC are taken as a starting point: productivity and competitiveness constraints, which will be aggravated by the single market in

1992, and the challenge of social exclusion. In different ways, they call for the educational system to move towards continuing and personalized vocational training: a component of the European social area.



extent of the efforts which firms have already made in this area: are they widespread enough? Do SMEs, in particular, have the resources for it?

Competitiveness constraints

Overall, the 12 EC Member States represent a market and an economic potential which are at least equivalent to those of the giants of America or Japan; these States are not, however, a nation and do not have the same political capacity. Each individual State is dependent on world trade to a far greater extent than its two rival trading blocs. Each European country is thus more fragile, particularly when world trade growth is slower and more irregular: output which is technically of very high quality may quickly become unprofitable and it takes less time to close a firm down than to rebuild a new one.

The rapid turnover of jobs which this induces — and this trend is likely to increase even further as we approach the single market of 1992 — is a major challenge for Europe: with employment at the same levels, new types and greater quantities of training are needed.

A high standard of general education among the population — a general ability to learn — is undoubtedly necessary, but is not enough on its own. Workers of all ranks and types will be affected by job instability and will have to be more mobile. In the case of 'dynamic young executives', such mobility will be in terms of job offers: the international scale of their labour market will intensify the demand

for better managers and will push up their salaries. The mobility of all those, however, who are not on the bottom rung of the ladder but are not cut out to be young executives, will to a large extent be involuntary. This will be difficult, at least for the following reasons:

- Although new technologies are increasing the demand for highly skilled personnel, it is not at all certain that they are reducing the proportion of low-skilled jobs (warehouse staff, encoders, etc.) in all areas; it seems, rather, that they are eliminating a large proportion of intermediary jobs.

- These jobs generally require a relatively substantial, although specific, outlay on training: linked to the definition of specific tasks, specific equipment and specific firms and not, therefore, transferable.

- If employment levels remain as low as they are, redundant workers will be hard hit by competition with large numbers of more recently trained and less costly young people.

This diagnosis — hopefully overly pessimistic — underlines the originality of the demand with which the educational systems of the European countries are faced.

(a) It implies that training is to be acquired after general education, whereas the focus over the last 25 years has been on training within the school context.

(b) Training must have marked vocational aims and be specific enough to ensure that trainees can rapidly find jobs.

(c) At the same time, it is difficult to plan: who can forecast what jobs will be lost in a specific firm in a particular sector in a given region as a result of the geographical shift in demand caused by hyper-competitiveness? It may well be that the single market will affect sectors not normally a cause for concern, such as banks, insurance and finance brokers, where job gains had gone some way towards offsetting losses in industry.

(d) This training must also satisfy the demand from adults whose professional and emotional lives have been badly affected: their retraining will call for new educational methods.

Challenging social exclusion

When a country, after decades in which unemployment levels rarely exceeded 3%, enters a phase in which this level increases progressively and permanently to 10%, it undergoes a social change which is not adequately expressed by this figure of 10%. This average figure conceals the fact that the possibility of finding work has fallen by much more than 10% for some population groups. These groups are of two types:

- groups entering the labour market, particularly young people, and finding no way in as a result of the general decline in employment;

- and/or groups at the bottom of the ladder, since unemployment, when it becomes prolonged, has a cascade effect on those groups which are less needed by the firms.

This mechanism of exclusion, including exclusion from the statistics, also raises the problem of the political scene, belying the forecast of public opinion which Keynes made in 1936: 'The world will undoubtedly not support for very long the condition of unemployment which, leaving aside short periods of recovery, is a consequence and, in our opinion, an inevitable consequence of the individualism of the modern capitalist regime'.

The problem is insoluble as long as the rate of underemployment remains. However, if the EC was to implement measures in support of demand, which would increase the number of jobs envisaged by 1992 from a mere 1.8 million to 5 million, the problem could then be resolved only by concomitant efforts in education.

This involves an effort which is as substantial as it is new, since tomorrow's jobs will not be the jobs of today and will have to be performed none the less by men and woman scarred by exclusion.

The traditional school context may not be up to this new challenge: what can a teacher do, faced with a class of pupils who are at school solely because compulsory education forces them to be there? What can pupils do, knowing that attending school will not get them a job? What can the sons and daughters of immigrants do, alienated by language, culture and social environment? At the same time, how should we organize teaching for the less young to get them out of a period of five to 10 years during which they have had no real contact with working life?

Faced with this challenge, the first step is to clearly define the boundaries of this problem which everyone suspects but often prefers to disregard. What is the extent of the needs, particularly in certain regions? How have the authorities dealt with this problem? If private ventures have attempted to plug this gap, how have they been supported?

At a deeper level, to keep the human face of capitalism in Europe, new and innovative vocational and human training must be designed, just as social security was an innovation after the Second

World War. Otherwise, two of the virtues of Europe will become tarnished. European efficiency is incompatible with the permanent exclusion of 10% of its human resources. European fairness pales when equality of opportunity becomes devoid of meaning for a substantial number of the young generation.

A component of the European social area

Three major trends affecting the future of EC Member States have been highlighted:

- the hyper-productivity needed if developed countries are to move forward;
- the hyper-competitiveness into which the 12 Member States are being forced by the worldwide nature of the economy and by their relatively modest and, in some cases, small size;
- a degree of under-employment thought to be a thing of the past, which has been haunting us again for the last 12 years.

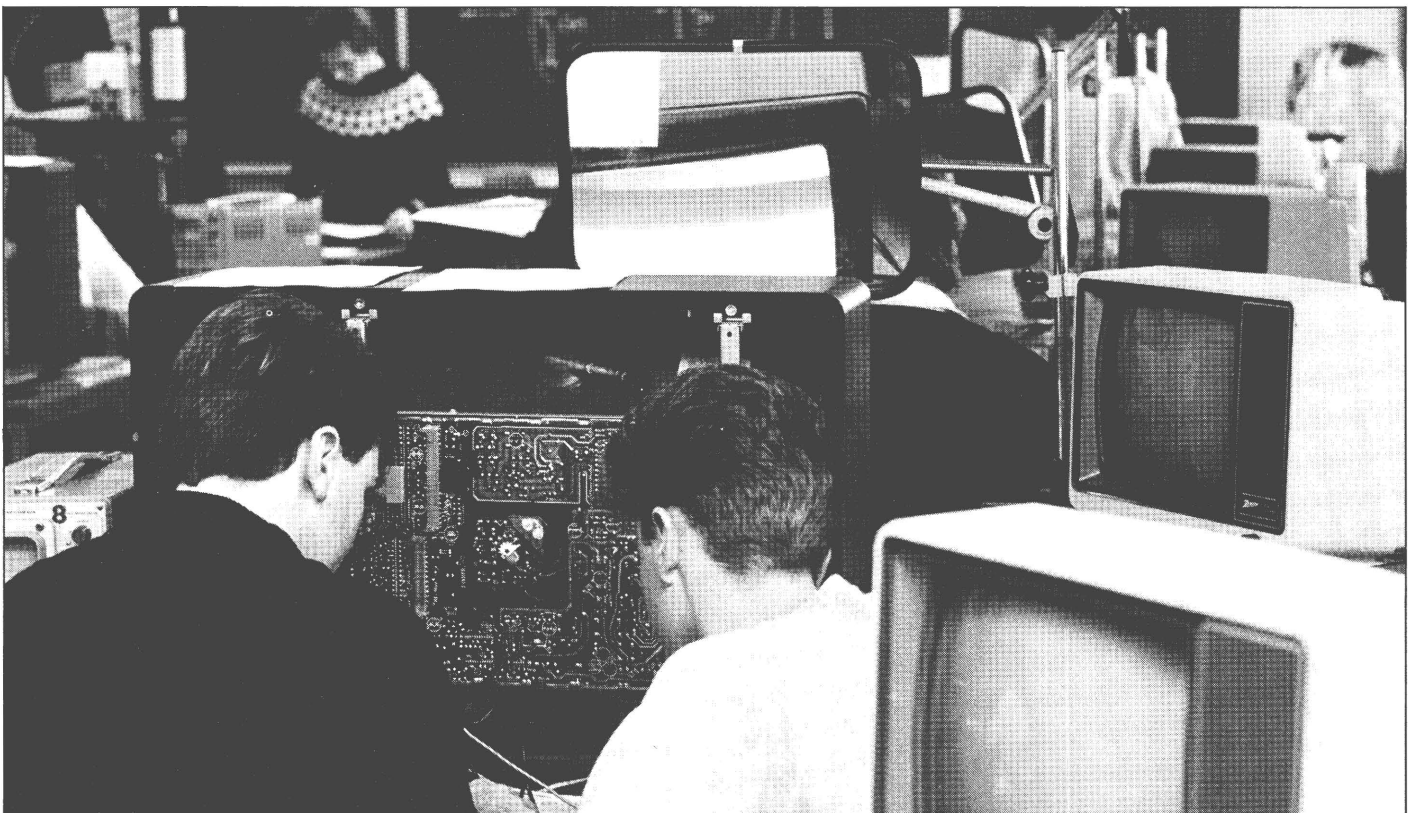
We have looked at three urgent issues in education, not as miraculous remedies, but as conditions necessary for development. These urgent issues are not just an extension of the efforts made over the last 25 years which many fear have been relaxed; they call for a new development

of the educational system: vocational training, over and above basic education, linked to the changing needs of the firms and appropriate for adults being retrained, young people who do not fit in at school and older people affected by exclusion.

This is no more than an initial diagnosis. It needs to be confirmed by gathering information, initially on the numbers of people already engaged in the many new types of training. These numbers must also be seen, however, in terms of finance.

In the first place, because a measurement of finances may correct the arbitrariness of a simple total of training schemes of very variable length and intensity. Then, because it brings the question of finding out who is responsible for organizing and financing these new forms of education into sharp focus: the authorities? the firms? local ventures? people in training? This is the same type of problem which cropped up with health, pensions, unemployment, etc., when social security was introduced as a solution. Finally, an analysis of finances should give some idea of the total cost of this new method of social and economic progress.

The cost may well be high as a result of the number of people involved and the unavoidably specific nature of such training which needs, in the majority of cases, to be made to measure in response to



Jürgen Bindrim/LAIF

needs which are difficult to predict, and also to be of a personalized nature.

An assessment of these costs should, however, differentiate between direct costs and the remaining indirect, often collective, costs. It should be borne in mind that when a firm makes a worker redundant, thereby paying out one less salary, and the worker fails to find a new job, the national accounts are automatically deprived of income, since no social security contribution is paid in, less tax is received and unemployment benefit must be paid out. In most western countries, these three items, whose pro-

portions vary, add up to a very similar total: the loss accounts on average for 65% of the salary saved by the firm. In contrast, the deficit in public funds is reduced by the same amount if a new job is found. If vocational training, even if expensive, makes it possible to accelerate this return to work, its social cost is substantially lower than its direct cost.

At a time and in a system where a growth in productivity which is much higher than the growth in output may lead to a permanent labour surplus, it is not unreasonable to use financial resources to develop an activity which is as labour-

intensive as education. Mobilizing human resources in an educational project may perhaps be one of the most sensible ways of finding new jobs.

If the fate of the European countries increasingly lies with the European Community and if their problems are closely linked to the creation of the single market in 1992, it is logical to expect the EC to concern itself with the social area of Europe. Vocational training is a component of this social area. These new needs must be pinpointed and the paths towards this new social security must be defined.



Development of a 'training culture' in Portugal

The idea of change is inherent to our times. We are so accustomed to continual technological progress that we accept it without question. If we consider the situation 30 years ago and think of the changes which have occurred since then to the articles which form part of our daily lives, we realize that change is something which is natural to us.

I believe that this attitude, which is now generally accepted, and to which the universal availability of the media has contributed so much, has helped to create an individual and therefore a collective awareness. The result is that certain situations which in the past appeared stable and were not subject to discussion, are now being called into question.

If we consider responsibility for training and the attitude of enterprises to this responsibility, developments in Portugal since the 1950s have been as follows:

■ Training was first of all provided by the educational system and young people seeking their first jobs had a basic knowledge of the know-how of an occupation. Enterprises also provided training at this stage but it did not fit into any



structure or form a valid part of a system. Only experience over a period of time and association with trained workers could provide young people with vocational skills.

■ Later, the main feature in the development of the educational system was a reduction in its vocational aspect, resulting in industry playing a more important role in training. During this period there was a great demand for vocational training out of school hours, provided at State centres or in association with the management of enterprise organizations. This was in the 1970s when Portugal was benefiting from the experience of post-war Europe.

The accelerated type of vocational training found in France has been used as a guide for training on successive occasions in Portugal, with both State training centres and centres managed by enterprise and trade-union associations (authorized centres) using this model for their activities.

This is an interesting stage since it led to different ministries playing a major role in training. Training is no longer the responsibility of the Ministry of Education; the Ministry of Employment and

sectoral departments (Agriculture, Fisheries, Trade and Industry) have full responsibility in the same way as enterprise organizations and, in some cases, trade unions.

It should be noted that, as far as finance is concerned, the resources to provide this type of training come from the production sector. The whole system is financed by obligatory contributions from employers and employees.

At this stage, the training provided covers a relatively wide range of vocations including agriculture, industry, trade and services, thus ensuring access to jobs and a reasonable degree of integration.

■ As a result of the technological evolution, the requirements of the production system are increasingly moving away from the stereotyped pattern of vocations in the traditional sense so that it is becoming essential to provide training, not for a profession, but for a specific job.

This largely explains the inadequacy of the system based on accelerated vocational training which was characterized by a rigidity not compatible with the requirements of flexibility.

Luis Alberto Garcia Ferrero Morales

Law Graduate of the University of Lisbon.

Secretary of State for Employment in the 6th, 7th and 8th Governments (January 1980 to June 1982).

In June 1982 appointment as Minister for Employment, a position held until June 1983.

At present Vice-Chairman of the Associação Industrial Portuguesa, Advogado-Consultor de Empresas (Legal Consultant) and Administrador de Empresas (Enterprise Administrator).

Since October 1986 member of the Economic and Social Committee of the European Economic Community.

The enterprise emerges here as the vital factor determining the extent of training and the method to be used; the difficulties encountered in relation to market characteristics contribute to enterprises playing a major role in the training process.

On assuming this role in training, which involves activities and the choice of a method to satisfy the various requirements, enterprises appreciate that, in order to satisfy these requirements, specific costs will have to be met indirectly, e. g. by making contributions to funds for financing training activities, or directly in the form of payment for certain activities.

the enterprises, does not form part of enterprise life — into an element, the responsibility for which has been consciously and voluntarily assumed by the enterprises, and which has become an essential factor of their manpower policy. The firms have assumed responsibility for training itself and for the investment involved.

Since 1979 this development of vocational training has been accompanied by a system of financing which has taken on a more structured form since 1985. As enterprises are the ideal locations for training, it is important that suitable financial and technical resources should be made available to them.

legal status of public corporate bodies, administered and financed independently with their own assets, their management being the responsibility of those who approve their statutes.

Assistance by the IEFP within the framework of cooperation agreements may be provided as follows:

- technical assistance, consisting of advice on promotion and organization, and the preparation and provision of educational literature;
- financial assistance in the form of subsidies, amounting to 45%, 60% or 75% of the cost of training, including trainees' wages, the cost of preparation, training, operation and management, depreciation of premises and equipment and assessment of results;
- financial assistance in the form of loans to meet the cost of investment in premises and equipment for carrying out the training schemes in question.

A more favourable system is the funding of authorized centres to which the IEFP may contribute up to 95% of the total current capital expenses.

In addition to the funding system described, funds have been available from the European Social Fund, access to which is regulated by Order No 54/87 of 25 June 1986; this is a more important source because of the volume of funds available and the number of persons involved.

It should be pointed out that as far as training policy is concerned, these two systems are still not perfectly compatible since the financial resources have not been implemented efficiently or profitably.

We had intended to collect information on the numbers both of people trained, according to occupation, methods, age, etc. and on the funds spent. However, we were prevented from doing so because of a lack of precise information. The following table nevertheless shows the information which we were able to obtain.

In order to have a more accurate idea of the financial outlay involved, about 80% should be added to the Community funding, which represents the national contribution, and the outlay relating to cooperation training can be increased by an average of 55%, representing the contribution from the bodies concerned.

Since our world is in a continuous process of change, we accept that it is not incident-



A. M. RUDMANN

Making enterprises aware of the need for training and the fact that, since they are responsible for changes inevitably associated with technological evolution, they are therefore essential, means that training is a basic factor in any manpower policy. It is interesting to note that this situation is not restricted to large enterprises or groups of companies, but equally to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

This awareness and action by enterprises removes some of the mobility from the training market, the type of training being determined more by a desire to increase the attainment of trainees than to respond to the needs of enterprises — a situation very marked in the 1960s and 1970s.

In view of the situation in Portugal, we maintain that training which developed from a concept of an element — which, although necessary for the operation of

Decree Law No 165/85 of 16 May defines the legal framework for the provision of technical and financial aid by the Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional (IEFP) (Institute of Employment and Vocational Training), for vocational training in cooperation with other bodies. Training may be carried out within a wide range of programmes and methods, by agreement with bodies in the public, cooperative or private sectors in the case of specific activities or, in a more institutional form, by agreement with these bodies when it is provided in response to permanent common requirements in one or more sectors of activity.

In the first instance, training is provided on an annual basis, the IEFP being responsible for guidance and the selection of priorities.

In the second instance, there is scope for the creation of training centres with the

tal that the developments which are enhancing the role played by the enterprises have now been established and universally recognized, the extent of change naturally being dependent on the external response to the requirements of the firms, especially from the education/training system.

However, it should not be forgotten that such situations do not repeat themselves and that the scale of the 1950s and 1960s has now become obsolete.

In joint projects and undertakings there appears to be an increasing relationship between education and economic activity with the result that the education/training system will develop in size and scope. As a consequence, the enterprises themselves will constitute a link in the system, not only as beneficiaries, but as providers of training measures.

The situation today is quite different. We are faced with the fact that we are an enormous area — the European Community — in which great progress is being made towards achieving an enlarged market without frontiers, i. e. without any means of protection or devices to counter or protect our weakness.

The pressure of the challenge, whose deadlines cannot be extended, is that of modernizing our economic structure to make it sufficiently competitive to withstand competition from our Community partners.

New technologies, new forms of organization and the optimum exploitation of our natural resources, factors which shall be gradually introduced and improved in the enterprises throughout Portugal, are of critical importance for the work ahead to make us operational

and employees running at 17.5% and 11.5% of wages respectively. Unfortunately, there are no aggregate figures showing direct investment in training by the enterprises.

However, there is no doubt about the legitimacy or opportunity for investment in training in relation to the collective attitude and social situation. There is a feeling in the country which reflects the general belief of intermediate social bodies that the cost of training is outweighed by the advantages it offers.

In addition, the 'training culture' has without doubt matured, especially in the last decade. This has been an important factor in the two years since Portugal became a member of the European Community during which aid from the European Social Fund has been a fundamental requirement.

The State and the social partners have made a considerable contribution to this development. Both continue to contribute to the management of the IEF, which is still the principal organization for the implementation of employment and training policy and whose work extends throughout the country. In addition, this role of administrator, which only became clearly institutionalized in recent years, is not only justified by the leading role played by the social partners and their organizations in the economic structure, but also by the fact that they are the other party in the joint financing of training activities via the single social contribution which they pay (see above).

Having established and accepted this role, in view of the importance of training in the process of modernization, we believe that the involvement of the social partners in vocational training will increase, since the clear understanding and knowledge of both the social partners and the economic agents will ensure that this process of improvement will continue.

Origin	Finance			Persons trained		
	1986	1987	1988	1986	1987	1988
ESF	31.6	56.3	57.0	155 000	278 000	280 000
Cooperation training	6.0 ¹	6.5 ¹	12.65	-	-	190 000

¹ Excluding the authorized centres.

There are moments and circumstances in the life of each society when challenges with which it is faced are so serious that they become options for survival. Since the establishment of EFTA, Portugal's economy has at least been open to foreign trade. Moreover, Portugal enjoyed certain advantages up to the end of the colonial period — easy access to raw materials and secure markets for many products — a situation which to a certain extent helped to offset the structural deficiencies of our economy.

and effective so that we may compete in a market of 320 million consumers; every day we learn something new in our role as a member of the Community. Our apprenticeship confirms that training today is without doubt a vital factor in entrepreneurial strategy.

The few figures available are a clear indication of investment in training on the basis of distribution of common funds, stemming from the only social contribution, i. e. contributions from employers

Do they do it better abroad?

No one has a monopoly on the best way to train or to decide how much training to do. Perhaps because of this, governments and firms look at the way other people train. One British Secretary of State for Education said 'I keep asking my civil servants "Do they do it better abroad?" I suspect they do ...'. In 1986 the Chairman of Britain's Manpower Services Commission pointed out to his compatriots that, compared with Britain's competitors, 'We emerge as a bunch of thickies'.

Looking abroad: motives and methods

When key decisions about the kind and volume of training are plagued by uncertainty, it makes sense to try to learn from the experience of other countries as well as one's own, the more so as the single European market comes closer to realization. Comparisons serve other purposes as well. They raise awareness among decision-makers — including the man or woman in the street whose power to make training decisions has been so long neglected. Comparison and competition help to create concern. Consensus is more difficult.

Comparisons are made in very different styles. Sometimes they are best described as comparative morphology, depicting national training systems as historic contoured landscapes, in the excellent tradition of CEDEFOP's country monographs and the one-volume CEDEFOP guide. A radically different approach interprets each training system in terms of a grand paradigm after the fashion of Bourdieu (the theory of cultural reproduction) or Gary Becker (human capital theory). A third comparative approach favours detailed anthropological study of the parts, of matched firms, industries, occupations or even whole economies.

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All three styles have their strengths and weaknesses. All approaches tend to rely on facts which are the by-product of some other process, such as public administration or corporate management accounting. For example, there are large supplies of data on the flows of people through training systems gathered from cross-section, census-type data collection. The Danish National Bureau of Statistics long ago suspected the picture this produced and set about computerized tracking of age cohorts year after year, which soon revealed discrepancies between the two methods. The Germans have similarly exploited some of their excellent individualized data to track the tortuous paths through education, employment and training taken by young Germans. The dynamic qualities of the route system then become much clearer, for example showing an increasing percentage of 'abiturienten' each year doubling back to do an apprenticeship before cashing in their 'abitur' at a university. As more data of this sort become available it will become easier to compare national experiences of the dynamics of people-driven training systems.

All except the most microscopic comparisons suffer from the problem of holding the meaning of the very word 'training' constant: very often its meaning cannot be consistently separated out from education on the one side and from learning by experience on the other. Company training tends to be what companies call training, which is not at all the same thing from company to company even within one country. Training is a slippery activity which cannot be relied upon to stay approximately unchanged from a year in which it is measured even into the following year. There are many possible substitutes for training available to one of the largest of all providers, the employer. The employer can often

substitute a non-training option for training by changing the product, contracting production out, changing the task — perhaps by substituting capital for labour — or reorganizing the content of jobs.

That 'training' is protean as concept and as reality is partly due to the fact that its intended and actual outcomes are so various. From September 1988 the British Government's new employment training programme will train up to 600 000 unemployed people a year and cost almost UKL 1 500 million — far more than any previous programme. It will remove people from the register of unemployment. But it will help to provide the unskilled with skills in an economy where there are currently 700 000 unfilled vacancies and a great need to reskill the workforce. Is all this to be counted as training expenditure even where it is massaging a problem of unemployment?

The crux of the definitional problem is that, for comparisons within one country, or between countries, training is lumped together whether it is used (i) to increase productivity and competitiveness; (ii) partly or entirely to assist the process of selection and promotion of employees; (iii) to reward or compensate employees regardless of the economic outcomes from the training; or (iv) to massage a country's unemployment statistics by providing an ageing vat for youngsters or a parking space for unemployed adults.

Where large systems are studied and there is a high degree of abstraction and aggregation it becomes very difficult to establish a connection between training, however defined and measured, and any of the outcomes which are to be influenced, whether employment and economic growth or productivity and competitiveness. The particularity of the

Because each country is a unique combination of education system, labour markets and training arrangements, within a unique cultural and socio-economic context, crude transfer of programmes or institutional arrangements from one country to

another is not feasible. But the recent and concerted effort among Member States to understand each other's training is producing a Community-wide pool of experience which can be used to challenge and to inform policy-making.

case-study approach, which yields far more convincing conclusions on connections between effort and outcome, applies only to that cross-section of a training system under investigation. It has to ignore the interconnections which help to make a whole training system different from the sum of its parts. Fortunately, most researchers are well aware of the dangers of interpreting phenomena out of the national context — for example studying Germany's dual system without reference to the behaviour of German firms.

Certain problems occur in all styles of comparison. Apparent consequences easily mislead since they are usually the consequences of other architectural features of a system as well as, for example, financing procedures. Countries such as Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, France and Belgium make heavy use of dedicated training taxes. By contrast, Japan, Germany, Italy and the United States entirely or almost entirely avoid dedicated taxes. Financing strategies might be classified into three broad groups, which are really bands along a continuum:

■ **Market-reliant:** where the decisions of employers and of households are relatively unconstrained by public action.

■ **Market-supplementing:** where government intervenes in demand for training and supply of training by others, for example through law and regulation in the labour market or biasing the decisions of employers and of households towards training expenditure, through subsidized loans and tax reliefs.

■ **Market-displacing:** where central or local government provides training which is free or at sub-market prices, effectively taking to itself many decisions about the volume and nature of training.

The great modern-sector Japanese firms tend to use an internal labour market version of reliance on the market; while the United States and Germany can be used to illustrate two rather different forms of reliance on the external labour market. There is no simple relationship between use of any of these financing strategies and outcomes.

On-the-job training is a form of market-provided training: it is available only to employees and its nature, volume and incidence depend on business decisions. Add it to off-the-job training provided or purchased by the employer and the total is a very large proportion of all training in

most Member States. Japan and the United States are usually thought of as classic examples of the market-reliant strategy. Their governments still have to finance and even provide training for those disadvantaged in the labour market, but over three quarters of their post-school vocational education and training is financed by employers or households voluntarily, i.e. without public resort to law, regulation, tax and subsidy or levy and grant. Household spending on fees and student support is a far less noticed feature of Japanese training than the role of the large firm. But it is a major feature of a market-reliant system, as it is in the United States with its varied loan schemes and training-friendly personal tax regime. In both countries the roles of the household and of the powerful motivation of individuals to seek training are somewhat neglected areas of study, just as they are in the European Community.

In most Member States greater public intervention pushes training provision fur-

ther along the continuum into the market-supplementing and market-displacing bands. In Germany the dual system has been managed in a way which has largely countered the business cycle and coped with the peak load of young people entering the labour market, and in France elaborate obligations on enterprises and the 'taxe d'apprentissage' have reduced the sensitivity of training provision to the business cycle. Yet in both countries market forces have remained a more important determinant of both the volume, nature and incidence of training than is often recognized. The demand for training from firms and individuals is still heavily influenced by market conditions and the supply of training responds quite sensitively to market shortages.

Looking abroad: outcomes

With all these difficulties, why does systematic consideration of each other's experience continue to increase? One rea-



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son is that the challenge of comparison is often an agent of change.

Look abroad selectively. There are ancient practices and innovations up and running, whose introduction would change existing financing arrangements, for example subsidized training loans which enhance the power of individuals to switch the use of resources from private consumption to long-term investment in the ownership of modern skills.

Look abroad at practices which would challenge vested interests such as dinosaur university establishments still grazing on lush tax subsidies. Apart from exceptions like Kyoto, Japanese universities are not renowned for efficiency or creativity. Italian universities can outdo French universities in student wastage rates. Low wastage, super-selective British universities still hug knowledge to themselves. In the words of one favourite son, 'We can't have heaven crammed'.

Look abroad at countries which have prevented occupational groups — professions or craft unions — from restricting access to training in order to reduce labour competition. The guardians and beneficiaries of the status quo do not always welcome a documentation of better ways to do things, but what Member State can opt out of the changing world?

Another outcome from comparison is provocative insight, sometimes into what needs to be changed, but sometimes — with the aid of lateral thinking — into ways in which change might be effected. A good example is to be found in the CEDEFOP overview by Karin Wagner: *The relation between education, employment and productivity and their impact on education and labour market policies: a British-German comparison*, Berlin, 1986. Just three of the challenging conclusions which jump out from the study will illustrate the potential of a comparative style which may be frank and unflattering, but is not negative or envious:

■ Comparison of matched pairs of British and German manufacturing plants shows a relationship between superior output per employee and different skill mixes and higher average technical qualifications in the German plants which is too gross to admit of uncertainty.

■ The tendency of British employers to be less willing than their German counterparts to offer training places, and their tendency to seek reductions in train-



Patrick Aventurier/GAMMA

ing costs by restricting training in transferable skills, are clearly related to the necessity for them, in general, to pay young trainees more than German employers do. The Youth Training Scheme has done something to redress the great imbalance in post-school training opportunities between the countries. But it remains voluntary and not closely linked to examinations. Despite the persistent efforts of the Manpower Services Commission to promote terminal competence testing it has not made great headway. So the chances of a young British school-leaver acquiring qualified worker status are still very much lower than for a German counterpart.

■ The more qualified and more productive German labour force, trained for a workplace far less constrained by restrictive practices, is also more flexible and mobile. A large proportion of skills acquired in the dual system turn out to be transferable between skilled occupations, in contrast to the continuing British preoccupation with narrowly specific skill training.

The valuable outcome from comparisons is the generation of questions and then revision of agendas. Answers in panacea form are rarely available. They still have to be worked out country by country, because of the high degree of particularity uncovered by researches into the training systems of Member States. The contrast between national approaches to training can provoke the most serious questioning, even where those approaches are radically difficult. For instance, Swedish national training policy operates on different assumptions from British policy. It begins from the position that unemployment above perhaps 3% is not tolerable, and the taxpayer must spend whatever it takes to prevent it. As a consequence, relative to gross national product, Sweden spends four times as much as Britain on adult training and employment services. Richard O'Brien, one-time Chairman of Britain's Manpower Services Commission, points out that the Swedes spend UKL 13 000 per adult trainee place per year, whereas Britain will spend UKL 5 000 per place per year on its new training for employment

programme. As he puts it, 'By spending money they save it'. People avoid the desperate demoralization of mass long-term unemployment, live productive lives, and contribute their taxes instead of incurring a huge national deadweight expenditure on unemployment benefits. Sweden's inflation and economic growth have matched Britain's over the last decade, and its expensive training for re-employment policy has proved to be much cheaper than Britain's financing of large-scale unemployment.

Productive comparisons are generally those which provoke thought rather than direct borrowing. Moreover, the thought can be extremely lateral when it comes to associations between actual behaviour in one country and potential behaviour in another. In menu terms the consequences should not be a training system like some kind of 'cuisine communautaire', for starters *Technical and vocational education initiatives variés*, with a main course of *duale Berufsausbildung* followed by liberal helpings of *Formation continue*. Good training solutions are so particular that the greatest degree of resemblance to be expected from cross-fertilization of experience would be equivalent to a dessert which sometimes appears on American menus. It is called *Slightly reminiscent*.

Raising questions and revising agendas

Three examples will serve to illustrate the way in which comparisons raise questions for national policy-makers. A look over the policy debates, the practices and the training experiments of other countries introduces new items onto the agenda or helps to move other items up or down the priority ordering.

The need to influence the demand for training

Looking abroad, is there reason to think that there is now scope for operating more on the demand for training rather than subsidizing its supply? The tradition in public finance is to subsidize the supplier to meeting training needs defined by government or by the training providers. But the centralized manpower forecasting approach on which this practice has often been based now has very little credibility, even in a capitalist country as addicted to institutionalized central economic planning as France. Jean-Jacques Paul has shown that, as the French refined the methods and tools of manpower forecasting, the forecasters them-

selves became so disillusioned with the outcomes of their process that they stopped using forecasts of manpower needs and availability to guide the evolution of the training system. Such is the unpredictable flux in the relationship between technologies and employment structures that the forecasters are driven to the conclusion that the most sensible guidance to policy-makers is broad-profile initial training combined with specialized and *ad hoc* post-initial training based on short-term decisions mediated through the price mechanism.

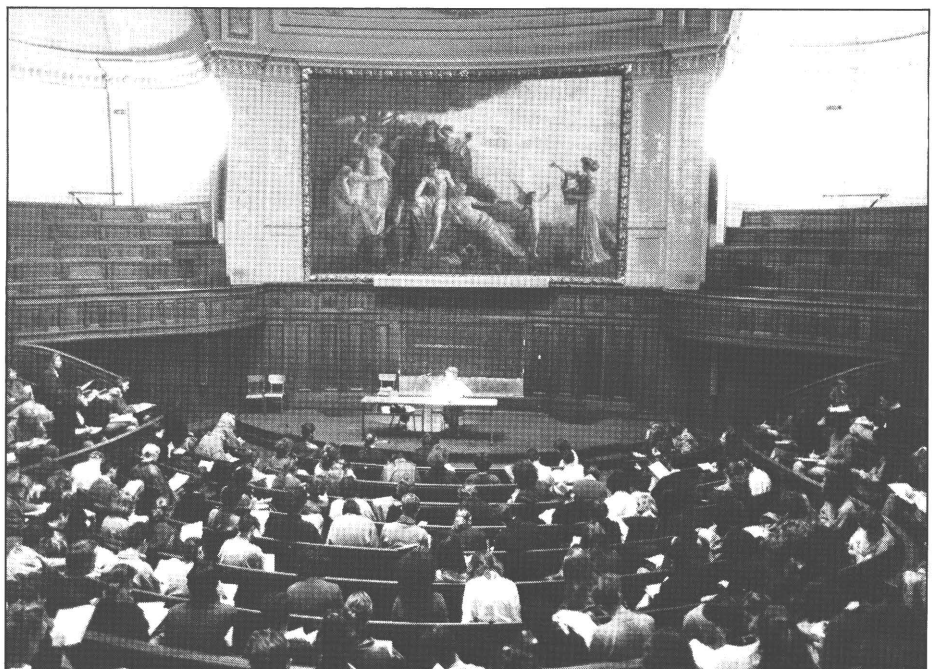
Of course, the use of the centralized manpower forecasting approach has never found similar favour in Germany, the opposition centering on its neglect of the importance of substitutions — the adjustments and flexibilities of real life — the priority accorded to economic goals and its incompatibility with individual freedom to pursue occupational choices. German experience of detailed long-term labour market forecasting has been as disillusioning as that of the French. The record shows that even medium-term projections are subject to major error. Then how can countries steer their training systems if they pursue either a market-supplementing or a market-displacing strategy?

Part of the answer from both French and German experience appears to be a long-term insurance policy of commitment to a wide foundation of broad-profile initial training. Manfred Tessaring has remarked that 'the dangers of over-qualification, in the sense of provisional training, are less important (and cheaper for the social system) in the long run than

omission in educational and training policy now'. But another part of the answer may be found elsewhere.

The French legislation of the 1970s was generally prescriptive about minimum levels of continuing training, at least for enterprises above a certain size, but far less so about the nature of that training or by how much it exceeded the minimum. As José Rose put it, 'the funds channelled by the 1971 laws may be seen as public as a result of their compulsory fiscal nature, or private in terms of their methods of allocation'. Moreover, although French employers grumble about the legislation, of their own free choice they spend almost as much again as they are required by law to spend on training. Perhaps there is more scope than was recently thought for enabling and encouraging the demand side of training markets to play a more effective role in determining provision — probably with some counter-cyclical stabilizers for safety.

Even the British may soon be ready to consider improving the tax treatment of personal expenditure on training, as they come to accept that this is less favourable in Britain than it is in many competitor countries. Market-displacing strategies are extremely expensive of public money, at a time when governments are looking for ways of reducing public budgets. Market-supplementing strategies are usually cheaper, but need to find the most economical gearing between public and private spending on an object of public policy. In Germany in the 1970s and early 1980s the largest burden of the increase in the financial costs of occupational training fell upon employers. Ex-



cluding the Federal Law on the promotion of vocational training, Uwe Grünewald estimated that in 1980-81 not much more than 10% of all training costs fell upon the Federal Government and *Länder* in return for 53% on the firms, 35% on trainees and 2% on the Federal Institute of Labour (from employer and employee cash flow).

For this purpose the tax relief which is only available to those who spend their own money on the desired object has its attractions. The problem is substitution. It can be very difficult to avoid a substitution of whatever earns tax relief for whatever does not, just as the British found it very difficult to prevent their original levy-grant system of the 1960s from degenerating into an exercise for smart corporate bookkeepers instead of a stimulus to additional training. More radical measures to democratize training provision and combat the powerful skews in the incidence of training which reflect gender, ethnicity and social class are scarcely on the agenda.

Interest in paid educational leave and the sort of distributional mechanisms put in place in France in the 1970s has generally waned. The issue of means-tested vouchers to all citizens is discussed in relation to regular education provision, but less in terms of continuing education and training. Even the consequences for the least advantaged of educational benefits from the Member States' social security schemes remain curiously under-investigated in a comparative mode.

In pursuing their market-supplementing strategies, most Member States have concentrated very heavily on the use of law, regulation and some tax funds to operate on employer demand for training. The effect of this has been to promote a degree of decentralization in decision-making which is understandable in view of the record of centralized manpower forecasting. As a concomitant of this, there has been a tendency to look closely at training systems with built-in financial cost flexibility because of their responsiveness to market conditions.

In the 1980s one of the most interesting phenomena in the Member States has been the success of Germany's dual system in weathering the economic downturn of the early 1980s and coping with the floodtide of young people at the same time. One of the most important factors making for success seems to have been the financial cost flexibility built into the system. Trainee remuneration re-



Günter Schneider/ULLSTEIN

mains an important element in total cost, which as a proportion of all costs has been flexible downwards. Since increases in the cost of trainee remuneration have generally been less than the rise in total and net training costs, there was a clear shift in the structure of training costs in many of the heavily frequented occupations away from trainee remuneration — and towards costs of employing training staff. In the dual system trainee remuneration varies by line and by region, i.e. it is sensitive to conditions in both occupational and local labour markets. In another Member State, the United Kingdom, the Youth Training Scheme introduced in 1983 pays trainees a minimum allowance but permits the employer to top this up to very different totals — effectively according to line and region. The demand for training is for training at a price. In both cases the distribution of the cost burden between trainee, employer and government is permitted to vary significantly in response to market conditions.

The influence of labour markets on training

Almost 10 years ago there began to be published a group of studies, principally carried out by ISF Munich and LEST in Aix-en-Provence, which showed how the structure of internal and external labour markets and the way in which German and French firms organized work help to explain the entirely different relations between firms and the education and training system of each country. The mass initial training in Germany's dual

system was seen to produce a homogeneity of qualifications and stability of occupational relations among most entrants to the labour force which contrasted sharply with the structure in France and also, incidentally, with other low apprenticeship countries in the Community. The weakness of links between French firms and the French training system (as weak as those in Britain) fitted a picture of an unstable and Balkanized labour market, where workers' decisions for or against training were taken within an 'organizational space' (the powerful company hierarchy) instead of the German 'qualification space' (the national standards of the external labour market which even powerful firms must respect).

From these studies of contrasting national training structures and cultures it was difficult to avoid the conclusion that the fundamental relations between the corporate sector, the education and training system and labour markets are in the long run far more powerful than many *ad hoc* public interventions on the basis of new laws. It was clear that the universal recognition accorded to the two main occupational certificates in Germany, the 'facharbeiterbrief' and the 'meisterbrief', was due to more than the nature of the training being credentialled. It was also due to the fact that the State-standardized currency governs movement between skill levels, whereas in France (as in Britain) this depends more on management fiat and seniority, less on qualification.

These influential studies provoked much thought in France and elsewhere. Two

recent developments can be set against that background:

First, the 1980s have witnessed a major French effort to qualify its labour force. The researchers of Britain's National Institute of Economic and Social Research estimate that France now produces about one third fewer qualified craftsmen a year than Germany. This represents a large increase and three times the output per head of the workforce which is being achieved in Britain. The 60% of the German workforce who have specialized vocational qualifications is double the proportion in Britain, and in industrial occupations Germany produces around seven times as many qualified foremen as Britain does.

Second, the national currency of the 'facharbeiterbrief' and 'meisterbrief' represents a training that has always been broad at first and specialized in its later phases. Despite the modernization of some apprenticeships, much British craft and technician training reflects the old tradition of training narrowness. The explanation of such a divergence goes straight back to the respective national labour markets and the hiring and promotion habits of employers. German firms have hired 'facharbeiter' for their general, transferable skills quite as much as for occupation-specific skills. British firms — where they pay any serious attention to certificated skills in recruitment — often look for anything but transferable skills.

From such comparisons it is clear that the personnel practices of many French and British firms do not set up in young people the same powerful motivation to train as do German company practices. What has tended to be missing in low apprenticeship countries of the Community is not only mass motivation to achieve something comparable to a 'facharbeiterbrief' but also the built-in transferability of much of that training. The French push towards a more qualification-driven employment system, and the British determination to build a coherent competence-based national vocational qualification framework illustrate concern to find effective national solutions. Chris Hayes and other training experts outside Germany have found increasingly receptive audiences for their message that it is urgent and essential to devise methods of on-the-job and off-the-job training which promote the inter-occupa-

tional and inter-sectoral mobility of trained workers. These should apply to emergency programmes for young people, like Britain's Youth Training Scheme, but also to training for the adult employed and unemployed. Chris Hayes has argued that the key to mobility is supra-technical qualities like analytical and planning skills; facility in translating between concrete and abstract thinking; logical thinking; creativity; aptitude for teamwork; persistence and concentration; accuracy and conscientiousness. All these underpin the overarching competence which he describes as transferability, the ability to transfer skills to a new environment and to build new skills onto old ones.

The knowledge worker in the learning company

As an increasing proportion of the workforce become knowledge workers major changes are under way in the conception of training. Training will still be used to pass on traditional skills and knowledge, to socialize to particular work values, to enhance supra-technical qualities and to achieve non-training objectives of employers or of governments. But the inexorable evolution of the international economy into an economy driven by new knowledge puts a premium on a kind of training which teaches us to use our wits and to innovate. Already a handful of Japanese, German and American firms are running together their research and development and their training functions. British researchers in the programme of policy research in engineering, science and technology at Manchester University are experimenting with transferring lessons learned in the evaluation of research and development to the evaluation of training. They do not assume away difficulties in attributing the benefits of training, assessing their timing and durability and identifying their incidence. The form of cost-benefit analysis which has haunted training analysis since the advent of human capital theory in the 1960s is put to flight. Where the purpose of training is innovation, building an analysis on the fact of human cupidity does not help.

The way is cleared to evaluate training for its effect on the creativity of a firm. This means assessing its role in making the firm into a more effective learning organization which can repeatedly

review and adapt its technology and its products to changing competitive environments. Arie de Geus of Royal Dutch/Shell has shown how the long-term survival of companies depends on learning. Indeed, he defines institutional learning as 'the process whereby management teams change their shared mental models of their company, their markets, and their competitors'. The capacity to change mental models needs to be developed far more widely than in the 20 000 managers of a big multinational. For more and more firms, right down to tiny service organizations, maintaining an appropriate knowledge base is a matter of competitive life or death and training is an essential means of enhancing this knowledge base. As competitive pressure rises, training becomes the crucial link between the knowledge acquired through research and development and inward transfer of technology, the way work is done, corporate strategy and the competitiveness of the firm. There is a certain irony to this twist of history. As work fragments, firms slim down payrolls and contract out whole functions, more and more jobs have to be skilled up instead of emptied of skills, as used to be feared. Task execution needs to be fused into task planning by the same person, not separated from it. Competitiveness depends on reversing Frederick Taylor's prescription for the well-run factory, 'a radical separation of thinking from doing'. It is the supra-technical skill of creativity which is needed by more and more people.

Learning about our differences

The researches of the last decade or two show the degree to which national characteristics, such as the nature of a country's education system and its labour market practices, shape both the training system and its effectiveness. It seems to follow from this that different national policies are needed to improve the effectiveness of training. As CEDEFOP puts it, 'there is little likelihood of achieving the same objectives through standard common policies'. The object of comparative study is the need to inform national policy-making, not to produce some panacea policy common to all Member States. It is a good beginning if we do not reject a different way of doing things simply because it was 'not invented here'.

International comparisons — Problems, possibility and limits

In all the Community countries vocational training is regarded as a favoured instrument of employment policies. Substantial budgets are therefore set aside, at both national and Community level, for the implementation of a training policy that claims to be cohesive and consistent.

An evaluation of investments in vocational training requires the construction of an analytical model that is able to cope with the variables involved — flows of funds, movements of people, training objectives — as well as the interrelationship between these variables. However, complex through the construction of this analytical model at national level may be, the difficulties increase when it comes to analysing what is happening at Community level and drawing international comparisons.

In a debate on the description and analysis of measures implemented under vocational training policies, the danger of incorrect interpretation grows dramatically as soon as we leave the specific national context. The observer who crosses the frontiers of a national training system always runs the risk of removing the phenomena he observes from their specific national context and of interpreting isolated elements without taking account of the general structure of which they form a part. None the less, despite the difficulties, the transparency of the funding and operation of the systems is still a goal to be pursued with a view to obtaining a set of real indicators that may contribute to a better understanding of training policies.

The theoretical work in preparation for the Centre's activities (Drake and Rasmussen)¹ stresses the importance of analysing the movements of people within the many branches of general education and vocational training. The ease with which specific groups of people, benefiting from measures to provide suitable employment or to reduce the risks inherent to employment (redundan-

cy, downgrading), make the transition is the best yardstick to gauge the success of initial and continuing vocational training schemes.

Similarly, recording the flow of people and changes in these flows due to new funding procedures is essential for purposes of cost-benefit analysis.

The flow of people and the problem of drawing international comparisons

Studying the trend in the flow of people is a potential instrument for a comparative analysis that enables the effects of specific national measures to be described in the context of a given country, since the basic objectives of the various vocational training policies are comparable. In all the Community countries the aim is to give young people the opportunity, through the system of general education and vocational training, to obtain qualifications which will enable them to take on jobs that are not simply short-term. At the same time, initial and continuing vocational training measures need to be implemented to encourage active adjustment to the processes of change in technical organization and economic structures which the employment system is undergoing.

Despite the fact, for example, that the link between initial training and continuing training assumes different forms across the Community and although the distinction between vocational training and general education varies from one Member State to another, the flow of people towards integration into the employment system and the opportunities for qualified transition offered by admission to certain types of training are no less open to analysis, regardless of the differences in definitions.

¹ 'Final report on a feasibility study' by Keith Drake and Werner Rasmussen, Manchester and Copenhagen, September 1981.

The aims of those responsible for vocational training systems and the flow of people

In all the Community countries training schemes are proposed or financed by government agencies (at national and regional level), the private sector and public bodies. The aim of introducing new training schemes is either to ensure appropriate integration into the world of work or to reduce the friction that occurs as certain categories make the transition to the employment system. In each case, those responsible for the schemes count on a given target group entering into a new channel of training. When this group completes the new course, it is compared with the group which, under otherwise identical conditions, has not taken part, the object being to determine whether it is easier for the participants in the scheme in question to find jobs with the qualifications they have obtained or whether more of them take part in another type of training to which access would otherwise have been impossible or much more difficult. An examination of the itineraries of specific groups through the various types of training in comparison to the objectives of those responsible for the training schemes permits an assessment of the success of these schemes in the specific national context.

Comparisons of age cohorts as the basis for an analysis of the change in training careers

The most common method of conducting a quantitative analysis of the use made of certain types of training is to compare situations at specific points in time, i.e. at the commencement or end of training. While this method is an adequate basis for the calculation of pupil/teacher ratios or annual costs per person in the form of an annual balance sheet, it is nevertheless unsuitable as a means of predicting

trends in the flow of people through certain channels of education or training. This is established by following the itineraries of a cohort following compulsory education over an extended period (up to the age of approximately 25 years). On the basis of this method, a change in preference for certain types of training in response to bottlenecks or *impasses* in the training or employment system can be identified at an early stage, and not only when these channels have become overloaded or when the numbers excluded from them have reached high levels.

Comparison of the itineraries of cohorts as a basis for an analysis of the structure of training systems

Analyses of the flow of people based on age groups also provide an opportunity to describe the role played by a country's specific types of training within its overall training system. This in turn offers additional information on these systems, especially via an international comparison, when the various analyses refer to the 'levels' of vocational training generally recognized in the Community. On the basis of these 'levels', it can be determined whether a type of training enables people to reach a given 'level', whether it offers easier access to a scheme leading to a higher 'level' or whether a scheme simply prevents young people from becoming unemployed (i.e. no more than a delaying effect).

Problems connected with the description of the flow of people

Analysing the flow of people poses problems, however, especially when these people are to be described in function of age groups:

- Even when the statistics include data on participation in training schemes in a reliable and integral form, they are frequently not broken down according to age. The figures available must therefore be supplemented by periodic estimates or sampling. This task is facilitated when the data on certain subgroups are at least broken down according to age at the beginning or end of a training scheme.

- There are no data at all on participation in the various training schemes. In this case, specific surveys, calculations or estimates must be implemented, even for conventional analyses of the situation at a given moment in time.



Jürgen Bindrim/LAIF

In any case, any attempt to describe the flow of people is facilitated by the fact that in all the Community countries the total number of lower secondary school leavers is shown in the statistics. Descriptions of the flow of people can be confirmed when the statistics or specific surveys provide information on people in employment with an indication of their age and the types of training they have undergone.

This problem prompted the Centre to organize a discussion meeting, attended by the following participants:

Mr Uwe Grünwald (BIBB — the Federal Institute for Vocational Training, Berlin),

Mrs Annie Ornon (member of the Délégation à la Formation Professionnelle, Paris) and Mrs Hilary Steedman (National Institute of Economic and Social Research, London).

Mr Stavros Stavrou of the University of Thessaloniki also attended as an observer.

The Centre:

Reference is frequently made to the difficulty of obtaining reliable data on vocational training. As training takes place in a less structured framework than education, what data there are tend to be spread over various sources and are often incompatible.

Some Member States are currently investing considerable sums in improving their understanding of the actual situation by carrying out quantitative and qualitative studies on the subject.

What kinds of problems do you encounter in obtaining an accurate idea of the flow of people and funds to support the vocational training systems?

This assessment is largely based on a comparison of the data produced by the services of the Ministry of National Education (Spresé) and the findings of the employment survey carried out by Insee, complemented by the results of the survey on first jobs, conducted by the Cereq,² and the statistics of the Délégation à la formation professionnelle.

efforts to train young people and the unemployed.

At the moment we are observing all those undergoing training — young people and adults — with a view to taking stock of the vocational training of the employed from an economic point of view. The BIPE³ is in charge of this exercise, the aim of which is to determine the real economic importance of training compared to the country's other activities by taking account of both these statistical findings and expenditure by households and individuals which is neither systematic nor compulsory.

This stock-taking process naturally entails the delicate operation of defining common categories to be used by all the participating bodies.

Uwe Grünewald:

The basic situation as regards statistics in the Federal Republic of Germany is generally very good. The statistics on the flow of people in the various types of in-school training, including the dual system, are largely complete, permitting a general assessment on an annual basis.

There are however difficulties with data on transition at the end of a given type of training. In this case, our data are very often based on empirical studies, used as a basis for the calculation of transition rates, which have then been inserted into the model. The situation as regards the cost of training schemes is also rather complicated because the costs in the school sector are financed at different levels, by both the local authorities and the *Länder*. In in-company vocational training we have a mixed financing system.

Here again, the calculations are based on empirical surveys and an attempt is then made to transfer these data to other sectors not covered by the surveys.

Secondly, to make a more general assessment, I believe that if it is to be possible to go on working with the overall method of describing the flow of people in training on the basis of a comparison of cohorts, an attempt should be made — as far as this is possible — to supplement



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From left to right: Michael Adams, Uwe Grünewald, Hilary Steedman, Georges Dupont, Fernanda Reis, Stavros Stavrou, Annie Ornon

Annie Ornon:

The problem is not so much whether or not statistics exist, it is more a question of their compatibility when they come from different sources, as is often the case.

As far as vocational training is concerned, for example, we have various sources of official statistics in France: the Ministry of Education acts on behalf of young people who are its responsibility, even after compulsory education, i.e. mainly in the institutions of higher education. These statistics include data broken down according to sex, type of education, level of qualification, certificates obtained and, of course, costs, and this both within the system and in terms of what people do after completing their training.

The need to compare this information on the 'output' of initial training with external sources became apparent approximately 20 years ago, particularly as far as employment was concerned.

Following several attempts, a common method emerged, with the Insee¹ acting as coordinator, which led to the 'assessment of training and employment' in 1983.

All this concerns young people from 16 to 25 years.

We also have statistics on the vocational training of adults. The stipulation in the 1971 Act that employers should spend at least 1.1% of total wages and salaries on the training of their employees requires them to submit an annual statement, which is processed by the statistical services of the Délégation à la formation professionnelle. This produces a wealth of qualitative and quantitative data: number and sex of the people trained, average period of training, training levels of the trainees and, of course, training costs, etc.

These statistics are also very useful as a guide for the government's incentive policy with which it will be trying to change certain natural tendencies. For example, when it is observed that the larger the enterprise the more it spends on the training of its personnel, it needs to be realized that such training should be encouraged in the SMEs, too many of which do not have the funds to tackle this question properly.

Similarly, these statistics enable us to analyse the results of the government's

1 Insee: Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques.
 2 Cereq: Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications.
 3 BIPE: Bureau d'information et de prévisions économiques.

statistical data — which are not, of course, collected for a specific purpose and are therefore always fragmentary — with calculations. I also think it is important for individual countries wanting to work with the model to go ahead and make bold estimates, because I hope that if estimates in the model or in the description of a country are relevant to its training policy, other bodies in this country will attempt to replace these estimates with calculations or perhaps even statistics. In other words, the desire for data, justified by the need for educational policy-makers to obtain information on types of training, may also have a stimulating effect on the kind of data the educational statisticians or statisticians in general provide for educational planners and also researchers — and there are in fact signs of this in the discussions at Eurostat. I believe this would be very fruitful.

Hilary Steedman:

In the United Kingdom we have quite a lot of information about what recent cohorts of young people are doing. We can tell what percentage of a cohort are in youth training or apprenticeship or are in full-time education.¹ We also have the data of examination results for vocational training and we can see each year how many individuals obtain vocational training qualifications. In between those two sets of data we have an important gap because, firstly, we cannot see which types of training lead to which types of qualification. We cannot see exactly at present what types of City and Guilds qualifications are the results of young people following the YTS,² or the result of older people doing a course of further training at their own expense or at the expense of the firm. So it would be useful to know something about the origins of people who obtain vocational qualifications in the UK, and what route they take to get those qualifications. Secondly, the area where we are very short of information is continuing education, particularly in companies, and we need to be a lot more precise about the way in which we ask questions on this issue. It is really only a start when we ask how many people received some sort of training; it would be useful to know to what extent training in the firm leads to recognized and important vocational and professional qualifications, e.g. an unknown number of young people are sent straight from employment by the company they work for into university in the UK and they obtain a university degree, basically, while

they are in employment. But we have no way of knowing how many young people do this and it would really be very useful to know. Similarly it would be useful to know how many older people improve their qualifications and their education level through their own effort, that is, how much individuals themselves contribute to the continuing training effort.

I think up to now the usual method of trying to measure the vocational training effort in our country and in many other countries has been to look at initial enrol-



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ment in various types of vocational training courses and programmes. This is only useful up to a point because these programmes have a high drop-out rate and the numbers actually taking them right through to a qualification are unknown in many cases. So we should not look just at enrolments on various types of programmes, but also at outcomes in terms of useful and recognized vocational qualifications and this ought to become another method of evaluation. At present we do not have sufficient data to allow us to do this. The Manpower Services Commission (now renamed the Training Commission) is currently carrying out a large-scale survey of the financing of vocational education and training, and when those results are available we should have much better information on this subject.

¹ The Youth Cohort Study published by the Manpower Services Commission, April 1988.

² Youth Training Scheme.

The Centre:

Our first round of discussion has revealed that there are statistical data on the flow of both people and funds in initial vocational training. There are more problems when it comes to analysing the flow through continuing training, not only with respect to the number of people and the costs involved, but also the type of continuing training involved.

In fact, it is not only a question of a shortage of data: there is also the difficulty of bringing the information held by various ministries, the social partners and the regions under one roof at national level. Moreover, it is not only a question of pooling these data, but also of making them compatible.

There are greater problems when it comes to drawing international comparisons: the statistics we have do not provide sufficient qualitative information for us to know exactly how comparable they are.

Let us now turn, for example, to the diagram showing data on the German system. What kinds of problems do you encounter when you have to compare your data with data from another country? (Mr Grünewald, would you present these diagrams?)

Uwe Grünewald:

In an analysis of the funding of vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany, a distinction first needs to be made between vocational training in the framework of the dual system, on the one hand, and full-time in-school training courses on the other. While the federal structure of the country means that full-time in-school training courses are financed by the *Länder*, the funding of training by the dual system is a mixed system.

For an assessment of the costs in the context of vocational training, it is important to describe the 'quantitative structure' of the individual types of training, i.e. to know how young people are distributed among the various types of training which are financed in different ways and give rise to different costs. To avoid a static picture of the funding of the vocational training system, the following description is based on the distribution of a training cohort after leaving lower secondary education among the various types of general education and voca-

tional training. This form of presentation also enables 'detours' in a given type of education to be depicted in the form of the flow of people.

In 1979, 1 048 000 young people left general secondary education in the Federal Republic of Germany. Diagram I shows how they entered higher secondary education. Less than half (approximately 44%) succeeded in *immediately* finding a training place in the dual system leading to a vocational training certificate at level 2.



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As a basis for statements on the origin and distribution of the funds used in vocational training and the areas affected, Diagram III summarizes all the main movements of people in one year of higher secondary education.

Hilary Steedman:

Policy-makers in the United Kingdom have been very aware of the strengths of the German system of apprentice training and have to some extent modelled recent training provision on the German system. It is quite useful, therefore, in evaluating our own system and when looking at the destination of the 16-year-olds in the United Kingdom, to try to fit it into the German structure. I think you have to wonder what percentage of the British 16-year-olds you could take as being in something equivalent to the 'Berufsabschluß im dualen System', because you could be very pedantic about

this and say: only those who are in a proper three-year apprenticeship in the UK can really be said to be in an equivalent to the dual system in the Federal Republic. That gives you a rather small percentage of 16-year-olds, but you can also take a much wider definition which is the one we have used here and you can add to those who are in apprenticeships all those who are in the YTS, even though it is only a two-year training programme and it does not yet have the same outcome in terms of qualifications as the dual system. So perhaps I could have an opinion about that from our colleagues.

Annie Ornon:

The graphical presentation of the situation in the Federal Republic of Germany is interesting because it shows both the three main routes after compulsory education (further education, employment and training by the dual system) and the means of moving from one to the other.

But I have the same difficulty as Hilary Steedman: what is known as the 'dual system' in Germany is not the same as what we call *apprentissage* in France. For us this is a form of training for 220 000 young people in the craft sector — not industry.

What should not be overlooked, on the other hand, are a number of schemes designed to ensure the transition from school to work, some of which are more specifically designed to give young people a vocational qualification. Altogether, some 600 000 young people (in addition to the apprentices) are currently involved in these schemes.

Thirdly, we must know what we mean by compulsory education. If I have understood correctly, students cannot repeat a year in the United Kingdom. Therefore, when young people leave school at 16, they have all reached the same level of schooling. The situation is different in France. Students do not move up to the next class unless they are considered to have acquired the knowledge taught in that specific year; if it is considered that they have not done so, they stay down. And as this can happen several times, a pupil may find that although he has had six years of secondary education he is still in the 5th or 4th class (equivalent to two or three years of secondary education) when he leaves school. As we see it, there is clearly no connection between the age of a pupil and the level of education he has reached.

Uwe Grünewald:

I should like to comment on what Hilary Steedman has said. It has become clear to me that the means of observing the flow of people as a flexible instrument for a comparison between countries are not yet entirely clear-cut. As our UK colleague has stressed, it is difficult to extrapolate the British situation to the German structure.

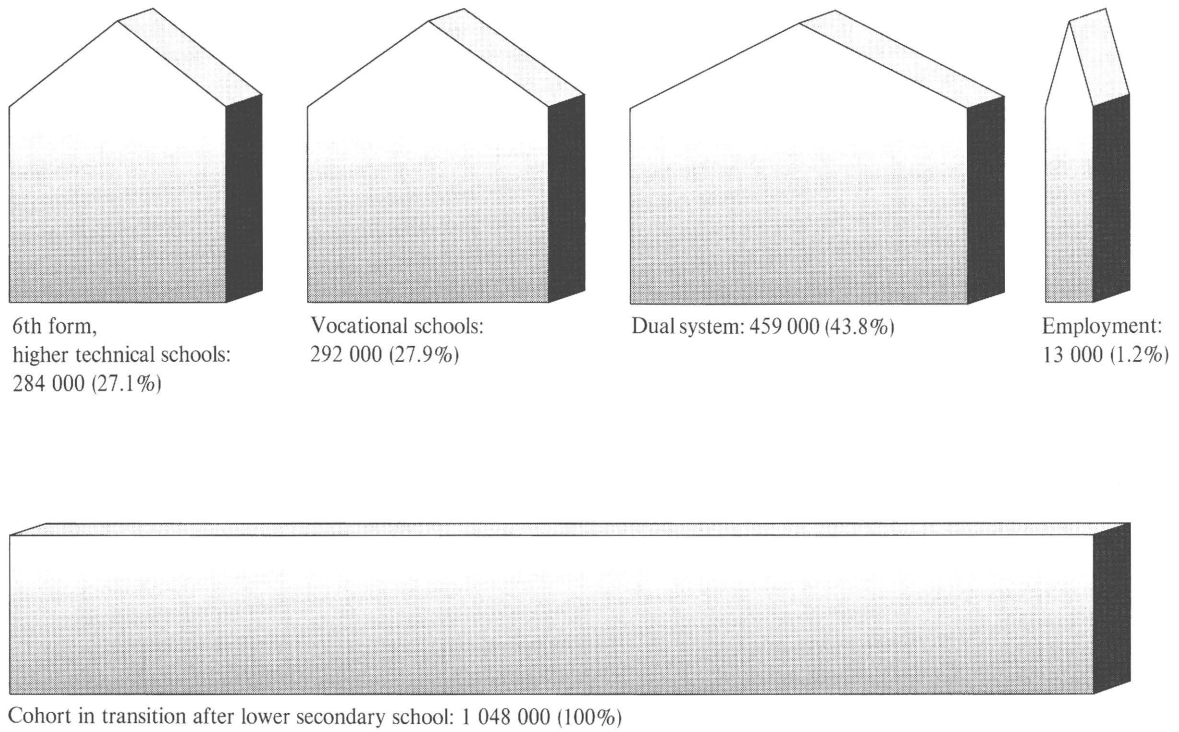
The aim of the procedure when analysing the flow of people should in fact be to have specific points in time that are clearly applicable to all countries. One of these specific or fixed points in time is the starting point of a cohort as it makes the transition from compulsory education with the number of young people in this cohort waiting for further educational measures. It is also important to know the structure of the qualifications of those who have reached the age of 25. Between these two poles the various national training channels (including special in-school or in-company schemes) should be listed for orientation purposes. Which channels these are will depend on the specific national context. But in so doing we should bear in mind a fundamental objective of all general education and vocational training measures aimed at young people, whether they are defined as initial training or continuing education, namely, that young people should enter employment by the age of 25 at the latest. A further requirement is that the young people concerned should not just take on any employment, but rather a job which is appropriate in form or content to their qualifications.

These, then, would be the only fixed points in time. The question now is whether our colleagues from the United Kingdom and France are able to look beyond the specific German structure and extrapolate training channels and the certificates to which they lead to the national context in the description of the flow of people.

Hilary Steedman:

In a sense what you said solves my problem. It means that we do not look at what happens to these young people after they leave school but take another snapshot of them at a later point, maybe five or six years later. That, however, means that at that point, we must establish some comparable measures to be able to make our comparisons so that when we look at

Diagram I



**Diagram II:
Origin of graduates from the dual system
Total number of lower secondary school leavers in 1979: 1 048 000 (= 100%)**

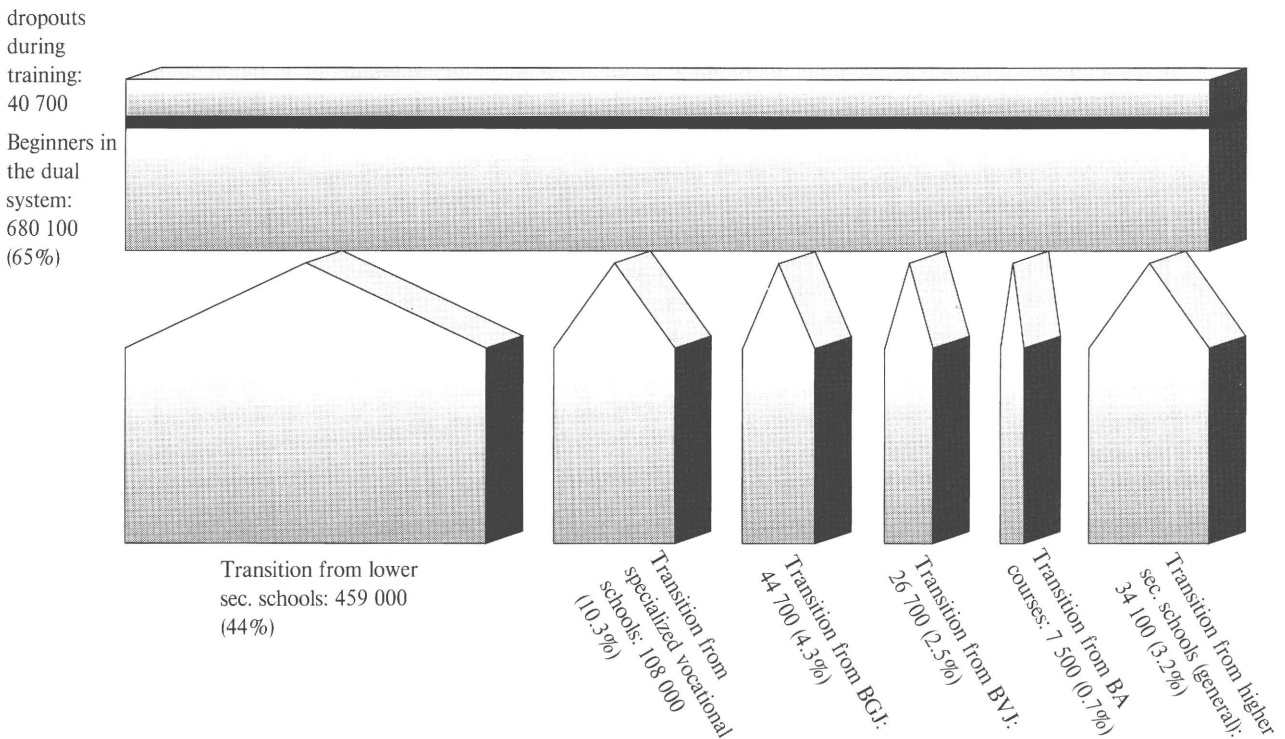
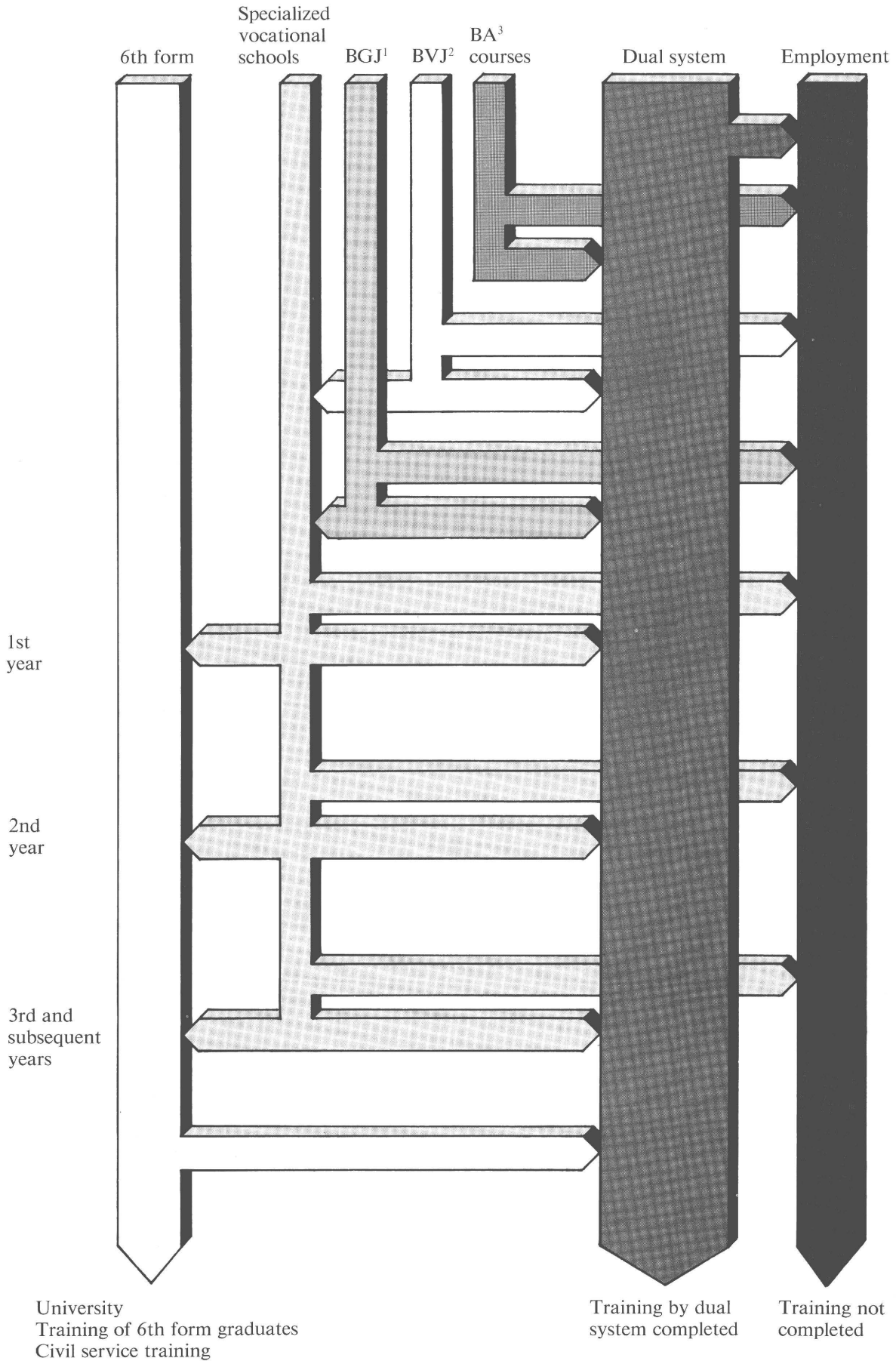


Diagram III



the qualifications that have been obtained, or the vocational career that has been followed by the young people, we can say these qualifications are similar or dissimilar. This is necessary particularly for those countries, like the UK, which is making great efforts to improve standards of vocational training in areas where traditionally we did not train. We need to compare our practice with that of our competitors to make sure that the standards we are aiming for do not diverge too much from those of neighbouring countries. Otherwise our industry and our young people will be disadvantaged on the wider European market.

Annie Ornon:

But what exactly are we supposed to be doing? Are we considering the funding of the system, which is the aim of our work, or how it operates?

The nature of the schemes in which young people participate cannot be understood unless it is at least known how and by whom these schemes are devised and financed. I would therefore propose that it be made clear how the action taken by various funding sources (the State and companies) enables a system to be established and then, as a second stage, how people 'profit' from existing systems and proceed along the various channels.

If, on the other hand, we consider both the question of funding — and therefore the types of training that can be installed with the funds — and the question of qualification levels at this stage, I am afraid we shall not arrive at any definite conclusions at all, given the well-known difficulty of comparing qualification levels in different countries.

The first comments on the German diagram, on which we have been asked to agree, and especially on the dual system part of it, show that it is necessary to understand the overall logic of a country's training system.

In France, for example, a distinction could be made between three types of training during an individual's lifetime. In chronological order, there is a first phase — initial training — which goes well beyond compulsory education for some young people.

At the other end of the scale there is what I would call a third phase which concerns adults who are or should be in employ-

ment. In France this is called continuing vocational training organized in accordance with the principles laid down in the 1971 Act.

Between these two extremes, we have a second phase which concerns young people from 16 to 25 years. It is here that the greatest variety of schemes has been introduced in recent years under the dual pressure of the results produced by the education system and the opportunities (both qualitative and quantitative) pro-



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vided by the employment market. This is the period of transition from school to employment, which itself includes two tendencies that may follow each other in one course: one seeking to complement — or resume — education received at school, the other more concerned with access to employment.

If these three phases are considered in terms of their funding, it will be observed that each has its own specific and identifiable sources. However, as far as France is concerned, the situation in the second phase is certainly the most complex because of the ways in which different partners are involved.

Uwe Grünwald:

I feel that Annie Ornon's arguments have perhaps unintentionally made it clear how necessary it is to complement cross-section analyses with observations of the flow of people. If one makes a cross-section comparison of two countries, one is faced with differences of pace, firstly, in the distribution between initial training and continuing training and, secondly, in the distribution between general education and vocational training. In a cross-

section comparison, one will always be inclined to misinterpret the situation when certain countries temporarily shift the emphasis. So there is a great deal to be said for refraining from cross-section analyses or 'snapshots' of the education system, as Hilary Steedman put it. A way must be found of compiling a complete record of a flow of people — which is a dynamic process, of course — from a large number of snapshots.

As far as methods are concerned, the problems are clear: we do not have enough statistical information, and we often have to make do with interpolating what happens between two snapshots along the time axis. Another problem is that the times at which cross-section analyses are made in the various countries vary widely. On the whole, the data are not complete in any country. I should therefore like to make a distinction between two things. Firstly, I should like to dissociate myself from the attempt to draw comparisons. As a first step it should be possible to describe the structure of the national types of training channels in quantitative terms, leaving aside divergences in definitions. All that is important is the national context. It is only at the second stage that diverging definitions should be defined to determine exactly how they differ.

There is a further problem, to which Annie Ornon has already referred. It is difficult to move from cross-section analyses to an analysis of the flow of people, at the same time thinking about the financing of training schemes. But I feel the goal — to be able to examine the flow of funds and to determine how effectively financial resources are used — makes it necessary to analyse the flow of people, because costs are after all determined by the time certain people spend in certain training channels. There is no way one can tell from a cross-section what costs are actually incurred. Even with the benefit of hindsight, one has to know what types of training specific groups of individuals have undergone and in what chronological order. Only then can one estimate in a national context whether certain training schemes were effective, appropriate in relation to the goal they pursued and what their results were. This has to be examined before one can even think of starting to analyse how efficiently financial resources have been used in different countries. But even in a national context, it is absolutely essential not only to make a cross-section analysis — to see, in other words, how many people are in a training institution at a given time — but also to know how long the

scheme lasted and what costs were incurred. When I say costs, I am referring not only to the those incurred by the participants, but also to the cost of trainers and teachers — which are the most important items — and all the other costs.

The Centre:

I think we must emphasize two points at this juncture: the need to understand the definitions used by others and the difficulty of making the definitions compatible. Defining vocational training alone will certainly pose problems when it comes to distinguishing it from education. If comparisons are to be drawn, it is therefore absolutely essential to first of all conduct a preliminary analysis of the definitions.

We can also observe that there are different opinions as to how this question should be tackled:

(a) Should we begin by analysing the flow of people by age-bracket and training objectives to see how the funding comes in-play, or

(b) should we begin with the various sources of funding to see how people move through the systems which these sources have created?

Since these two approaches will inevitably produce different results, this methodological problem will therefore have to be solved before any comparisons can be drawn.

Having said this, I should still like to know what your reaction is to the diagrams illustrating the German system which show the routes people follow after compulsory education.

Hilary Steedman:

When we look at 16-year-olds in the UK who have left compulsory school we can say that just under half of them continue with full-time education, with 30% of that number in school and a further 15% in further education, making a total of 45% of the age group who continue in school. Then if we look at the recent years, 1984, 1985 and 1986, we can see that a further 31% of the age group will be undertaking further training in the Youth Training Scheme, that is, they will be placed with an employer for up to the maximum of one year (now two years, but until 1986 one year) and be entitled to 13 weeks on-the-job training. Still taking the same age group we find that around 10% in a recent year would be unemployed and a further 19% would be in employment, and of those who are in employment a rather small percentage would be receiving some further training. So that, for example, if we want to take quite a significant figure which is quite easily comparable between one system and another, just look at those young people who do not get any training or education after they leave compulsory schooling. In the UK we can do this by adding the unemployed to those who are in work but with no further part-time educational training and for 1986 that

comes to about 24%, nearly one quarter of the whole age group. If I tried to make a graphic representation, I think it would appear as follows (see Diagram IV).

Annie Ornon:

So, in comparing the situation in our various countries, our point of departure is the age of 16, which marks the end of compulsory schooling in all our countries. And as we are only talking about young people today, I will consider the situation of young people from 16 to 25 years as shown by the assessment of employment and training I mentioned at the beginning of the meeting, which permits a comparison of different statistical sources.

If we take the latest data available, the situation for 16- and 17-year-olds, e.g. in March 1984, was as follows: 75% were at school, and the other 25% were distributed, in descending order, as follows: 10.6% were apprentices (in the French meaning of the term), 5% were unemployed, 3.6% were in transition schemes and 2.6% had a 'normal' job.

I should like to add a few comments on these figures:

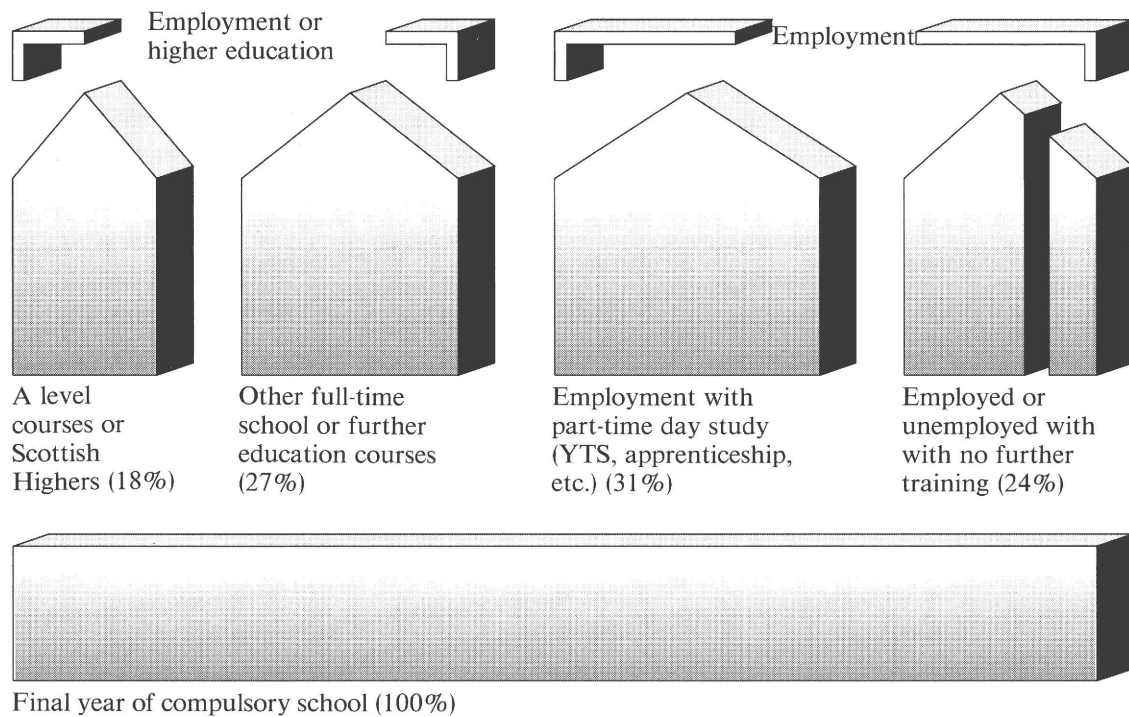
(i) These data on 16- and 17-year-olds are also available for the 18-21, the 22-25 and, of course, the 16-25 age-brackets. Overall, these various sets of figures show that the various situations change very quickly from one age-bracket to the next. For example, the percentages of 18- to 21-year-olds in education and in normal employment are approximately equivalent, about 30% in each case. Detailed breakdowns of these figures — and of many other data — can be found in the documents published by Insee, which can be made available to you if you would like them.

(ii) These figures are for 1984. Since then the situation has changed from a number of points of view as a result of the measures implemented to modernize the apprenticeship system and also the new provisions for alternance training which I have included in the 'transition period' and which, as I have just said, account for 600 000 young people aged from 16 to 25 years, in addition to the 220 000 apprentices.

You may also have noticed that many young people are still at school at 17 years. The same is true of 18- and 19-year-olds, where there has been a con-



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Diagram IV: Destinations of all 16-year-olds: UK 1987 (%)

Sources: Department of Employment *Employment gazette*: 'Training in Britain — Key statistics' March 1988, Table 10, Department of Education and Science. Statistical bulletin 2/87, Table 2.

siderable increase in the numbers still in education over the last five years. This reflects not only a greater need for qualifications — undoubtedly accompanied by a definite pedagogical effort on the part of the education system — but also difficulties encountered in making the transition to employment.

An attempt to make a graphic representation of the 16-17 age-bracket is shown in Diagram V.

Hilary Steedman:

It is useful to supplement the information just given with an idea of recent developments, and I would like to draw attention to the fact that in the UK very big changes have taken place in the number of 16-year-olds in work. Of all 16-year-olds in 1975, 60% went into full-time employment straight from school. Ten years later (1985), one quarter were in the YTS, the new training scheme, only 18% were employed and 13% were unemployed, an increase in unemployment from 3% in 1975 to 13% in 1985. Those are the changes that have taken place: the expansion of the YTS; far more young people receiving training now in the UK than 10 years ago. What has

hardly changed at all is the number of young people continuing with full-time education in the UK. In 1975 this was 37% and in 1986 45% of the 16-year-olds, only a slight increase. Our French colleague drew our attention to the fact that in France there has recently been a considerable increase of 18-year-olds staying in full-time education. In that field in the UK we can hardly see improvement there at all because the initial level is so low. In 1975 we had 12% of all 18-year-olds in education and in 1986 or 1985 we had 17%. So the contrast is very great between the UK and France in this respect.

The question remains as to how France and other countries have managed to persuade young people to stay on in full-time education. Clearly we have not succeeded in persuading enough young people up to now.

Uwe Grünewald:

What has been said in the last 10 minutes about the comparison of the vocational training systems in France, the United Kingdom and the Federal Republic leads me to believe that we need to include a further aspect which has not yet been

considered. We presumably now agree on the importance of analyses of the flow of people as a complement to cross-section analyses.

However, it is important that we analyse the dynamic development of the national training systems rather than a snapshot. In the last five to 10 years the labour market has had a major influence on the structure of the various types of training in all our countries. It is now interesting to see how young people have coped with these changed structures and what types of training they have chosen.

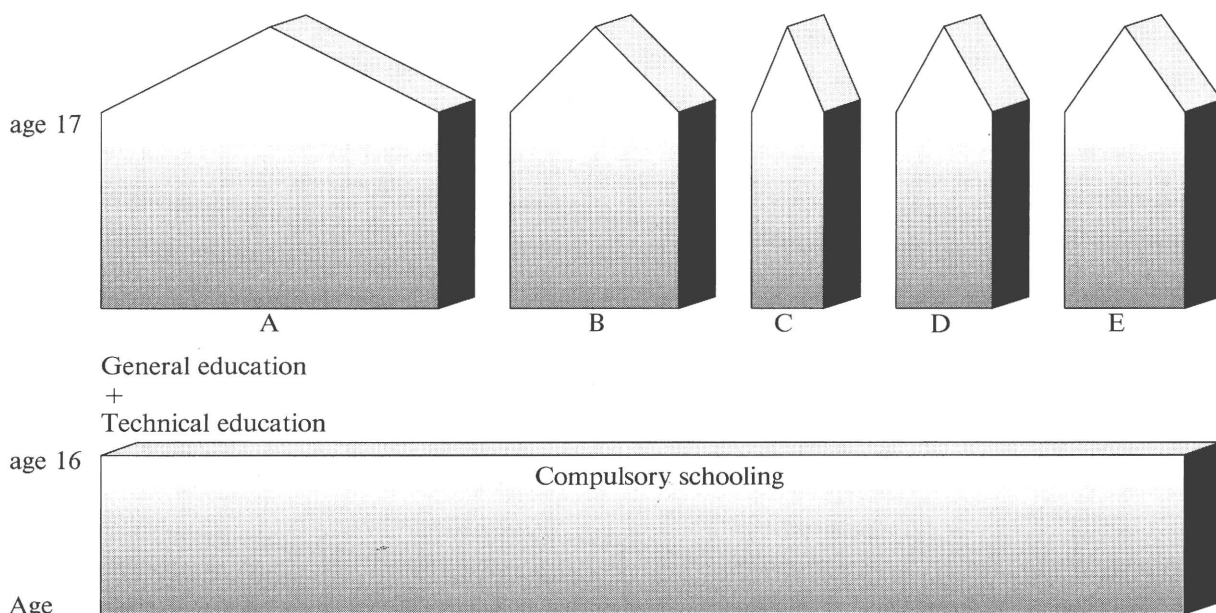
The Centre:

So we have just been given a picture of the 16-17 age-bracket in three Community countries. Moreover, various developments have been identified to a certain degree providing us with a 'film' of the recent trend in the flow of these young people.

What types of forecasts do you think it possible to make today regarding the trend in the routes followed by this age group?

Diagram V: FRANCE: Situation of young people aged 16-17 years in March 1984

(Source: Bilan Emploi Formation 1984)



- A - at school,¹ 1 281 000 (77%)
 B - Apprenticeships, 181 000 (11%)
 C - 'Transition programmes', 65 000 (4%)
 D - 'Normal' employment, 50 000 (3%)
 E - Unemployed, 84 000 (5%)

¹ The annual statistics produced by the Ministry of National Education do not cover young people by age in the various types of education provided by the school system. The figures need to be rearranged, but this has not yet been done.

Uwe Grünewald:

The 'dual system' of in-company initial training is the keystone of the German vocational training system. A number of significant changes have occurred within this system. There have also been changes in other areas of the training system as a consequence of the problems within the dual system. Obviously, education/training policy must react when, e.g. the baby boom years cause bottlenecks in a training channel which soaks up over 60% of a cohort.

The general trend is towards a higher level of general education before in-company initial training begins. It cannot be assumed that this trend is merely the result of the employment system's demand for higher qualifications. The explanation is a more subtle one. On the one hand, there is growing willingness, not only in the Federal Republic of Germany but also in other Community Member States, to attain higher qualifications in general education. On the other hand, young people are also staying on at school longer because of the problems they face in finding a suitable training place in a firm. Thirdly, for a number of training occupations, it is true to say that requirements have increased as a result of

technical and organizational change. This also extends to the more general skills, such as the ability to cooperate, analytical and abstractive capacity, etc. The explanations for the changes in the education and training system are therefore complex.

As the proportion of young people with university entrance certificates wanting training places rather than university places has almost doubled in five years, other young people with poorer educational qualifications have been left by the wayside. Catering for this group has led to the creation of new types of training within the German system, both fully fledged opportunities in the schools and other training schemes, many lasting one year, designed to improve the chances of these young people of finding a place in the dual system in their second attempt.

All these changes in the German vocational training system can be excellently analysed on the basis of time comparisons of the training itineraries of individual cohorts of school-leavers.

An article published in the press a few days ago referred to another advantage of analysing the flow of people. It pointed out that for the first time in several years

the number of training places available in 1987 exceeded the number of registered applicants. It should be added that the training place market had been characterized by sectoral differences for two or three years. While demand still far exceeded supply in some sectors, firms in other sectors (in the construction industry and certain branches of the craft sector) had difficulty filling their training places. Clear signs, both of the relaxation of tension in the training place market and of changes in the demand from some groups of young people, could have influenced decisions on education policy far earlier if the age-related analyses had been applied consistently.

Even at the beginning of the 'student boom' in the early 1970s, an analysis of vocational training policy reveals the inability of those responsible to pursue a forward-looking education policy. In almost every instance there was a reaction to existing problems, instead of political action being geared to the problems forecast for the next 10 to 15 years. In 1974, for example, the debate on education policy changed tack within a period of two years, as attention switched from the question of the quality of in-company initial training to the solution of quantitative problems. It is only

recently that the debate has begun to revert to essential qualitative issues. New instruments of statistical analysis, such as the one we are discussing today, might have extended the horizons of the educational policy-makers.

Hilary Steedman:

Yes, I think it is well known that the UK shares the same problem as Germany, or will share the same problem in the coming years, of a drop in the number of 16-year-olds coming out of compulsory education. Within a few years we shall have 25% fewer 16-year-olds than we have at present. Many groups in the UK are worried about this. I will give you one concrete example. For a long time, we have not really been able to produce enough young people from the school system with middle-level qualifications, such as O levels. We have not been able to produce enough to meet the requirements of both the labour market and the higher education system. And these young people are very much in demand, even now. When we have the demographic fall we anticipate that it will not be easy to actually raise the proportion of young people in an age group who get these qualifications, so that just as the demand from employers for these qualified young people is growing, we shall have a very large fall in the numbers available for employment. This will be made worse by the government's ambition to encourage more of this qualified group to go on to higher education. A concrete example here is that the nursing profession relied very heavily on young recruits, and on young girl recruits, and traditionally they always asked for a number of O-level qualifications. In a few years' time, in order to recruit the same number of nurses as we now recruit, we should need to recruit nearly all the girls who get O levels. This is quite unrealistic because from that group we have at least one quarter who go on to higher education or to take up other jobs, etc. There is also fear that this drop in size of the age group will put a brake on the development of the YTS. We have just achieved the 2-year YTS, which offers a very sound training possibility to young people, but there are trends even now, which can be noticed in the south of England, for young people to choose at the age of 16 not to go into the YTS but to go into employment, or they leave the YTS to take a job before they have finished their training. This is because you have the conjunction of an upturn in the labour

market and of the demographic fall in the age group which is leading to a shortage of young people available for employment at the age of 16 and this is still a group that employers in the UK are keen to employ. So there is also a threat from the fall in the age group to the viability of the scheme. These are the problems which I think are going to preoccupy policy-makers very much.

Annie Ornon:

The demographic problem as such will not affect France so seriously in the coming years, and numbers will not therefore fall significantly.

However, the effort made by the education system, particularly since 1985, will reinforce the phenomena to which I have already referred, especially the tendency for young people to stay on at school beyond compulsory education.

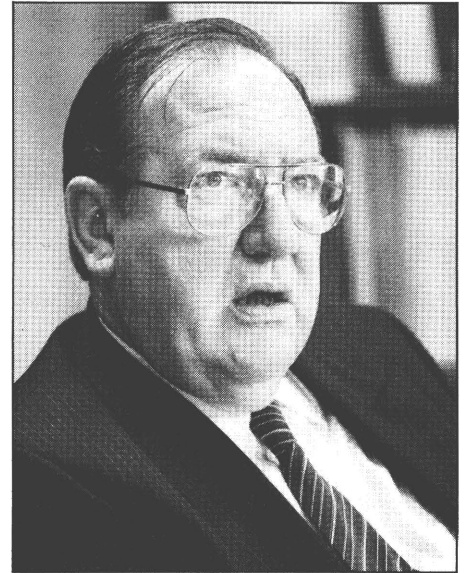
The goal for the year 2000, for instance, is to increase the proportion of a cohort reaching *baccalauréat* level (theoretically at the age of 17) from 40 to 80%. Given the delays due to classes being repeated, this will keep an increasing number of young people at school until they are 18 or 19.

This goal is acceptable if we consider the improvements in technical education and the creation of new types of *baccalauréats* (vocational *baccalauréat*), which will permit the establishment of new bridges to higher education.

In the meantime a great deal still needs to be done, and the transition programmes (non-school and non-apprenticeship) should not be phased out in the coming years: even though the level of education of the 800 000 young people leaving school each year is improving, some 10% of them do not have a qualification. We also know that the employment situation is particularly hard for the under-25s.

The Centre:

Mr Stavrou, having listened to this discussion, what comments does it prompt you to make as far as the Greek context is concerned?



Stephan SCHRAPS

Stavros Stavrou:

As a Greek I attach a high degree of importance to this problem, but I am afraid we still have hardly any suitable data or mechanisms to enable us to put all these questions in appropriate terms and then to answer them. Continuing training works in Greece. In fact, it is undergoing a real boom, probably for the simple reason that it tends to be geared to the complementary role of ironing out the deficiencies of initial training and of updating basic knowledge acquired in the past. In other words, its main function is to fill the gaps left by initial training. What I would now find interesting as a Greek is whether there is any connection to the basic decision young people have to take at the age of 15 after completing their compulsory education — i.e. whether to stay in general education — as 75% do — or to opt for technical training, as the other 25% do. Is there a connection between this basic decision and attitudes towards later continuing training schemes? Who needs continuing training more — the general secondary school-leaver or the technical secondary school-leaver — and who takes greater advantage of what is available? That is the first aspect that should be examined. The second is the relationship between the sum of qualifications obtained in initial and continuing training and access to employment. Is it easier for people who undergo continuing training to find employment than it is for others? Do they, in other words, derive any benefit from continuing training? Is that why they go in for it, or do they do it just to kill time, as a form of unemployment therapy, as it were? I should also like to know to what extent continuing training is provided formally or takes place infor-

mally, and who finances what. In Greece I have the impression, although no research at all has been done on this, that formal continuing training tends to be financed by government agencies and the Commission of the European Communities, while informal continuing training tends to be financed by the private sector. These are just a few questions I can think of at the moment, without wishing to assume that they cover the entire problem area.

All in all, I would say that it is essential to carry out a long-term analysis of the attitudes of young Greeks. An analysis of this kind could reveal whether the discrepancy between general education and vocational training can perhaps to a certain extent be alleviated with continuing training. After all, the system in Greece is fairly conservative. We are now fighting for the recognition of vocational training certificates. Technical secondary school-leavers and technical college graduates do not as yet have any proof of their vocational competence. On the one hand, then, it is a question of formalizing certificates. On the other, there is *de facto* recognition of informal continuing training certificates in the grey labour market. This mixture is completely incomprehensible at the moment, which makes it difficult for the government to take any rational action. I would really like to see these projects in the three large Community countries prompting Greece to give some thought to the matter at last and to observe the fate of a random sample of certain groups of young people so as to find out more about their attitudes.

The Centre:

Has the discussion provided you with any arguments for proposing a project of this kind in your country?

Stavros Stavrou:

Very much so. I also find Uwe Grünewald's diagram extremely interesting for us. If the certificates were translated to correspond to Greek circumstances, the model could be adopted. But people would have to be found in the bureaucracy who are willing and able to implement it. The approach is very good.

The Centre:

And not only for studying the flow of people but also the flow of funds. Thank you.

Conclusions

This exchange of views has confirmed the risk inherent in a simplistic interpretation of aggregate figures. Only when a qualitative approach is adopted is it possible to understand and compare the figures.

The analytical model we mentioned at the beginning of this article can in no circumstances be confined to a statistical exercise (and the solution of the problems this exercise entails). It must embrace more of the systematic qualitative studies which are capable of covering the flow of funds and people, training objectives and training systems.

Only if these two levels are combined can the overall situation eventually be understood.

On the basis of this conclusion, the Centre proposes a more profound study of the flow of people and funds and training objectives, in particular an analysis of the following problem:

In most Community countries, the number of young people of training age is falling rapidly and the number of workers reaching retirement age will also decline since they are the product of the low birth rates of the inter-war years. Some forecasts indicate that about 75% of today's workers will still be employed in the year 2000.

As movements in and out of the labour force are at a low level and as significant technological changes are likely to accompany the new ways in which work is to be organized in the years to come,

training efforts will be largely focused on the workers. Training must in any case promote flexibility and mobility. But what impact will the demographic changes actually have on the way in which training is provided in the next five years in all the Community countries?

What types of measures and instruments can help establish a training policy that encourages workers to be flexible and mobile at both national and Community level (including groups traditionally unaffected by training)? There has been a spectacular increase in the number of those involved in full-time education in the Member States in the last 10 years. Several types of training exist side by side, and the channels opted for by young people are increasingly diversified. However, what is the profile of people leaving compulsory schooling and how does their integration into working life take place? (Is the integration problem the same now as it was 10 years ago?)

What is the relationship between the development of the various types of training (and their interrelationship) and the requirements of the labour market?

What impact have the measures taken for young people had in the last 10 years, both on the young people themselves and on the employment system as a whole?

By making the present situation more transparent and advancing a number of forecasts, we hope that these studies will provide some indication of the need for a training policy adjusted to the situation(s) in which it is required to intervene. This has, moreover, always been the primary objective of the studies already conducted by CEDEFOP on this subject in the past.



Stephan SCHRAPS



By:

CEDEFOP

European Communities
International organization
Martina Ní Cheallaigh
Librarian
CEDEFOP

CEDEFOP's documentary information network was asked to provide material illustrating the theme of the Bulletin, and in par-

ticular to provide bibliographical references. The following includes contributions from Belgium, Denmark, the Federal

Republic of Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, The Netherlands, Portugal, and the United Kingdom.

Drake, K., Rasmussen, W. and others:

The cost and financing of vocational training in the European Community

— A series of documents prepared as part of a CEDEFOP project and presented at the meeting of national delegates and experts, Berlin, 5 and 6 February 1985, they include national and interim reports.

CEDEFOP (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training).

Berlin, unpublished, 1984-85.

Languages: DA, DE, EN, FR, IT, GR

Cost of training. Financing of training. Vocational training. Public finance. Financial aid. Government policy. Forecasting. Conference reports. Reports. Comparative analysis. EEC countries. European Communities.

This collection of documents is part of one of CEDEFOP's on-going projects on the financing of vocational training. The research focuses on four particular aspects, i.e. the environment of training, financial instruments, the flow of people and the flow of public funds.

As part of the project, national reports have been produced by the

Member States. They give an account of the links between political, social and economic factors which influence training policies, sources of funds — public and private — and the various devices and mechanisms such as training levies or collective funds used to raise, allocate and spend training funds; allocation of funds including the training policy objectives which determine which people receive training and what sort of training it is; and finally the financial costs of training, especially the capital and recurrent costs.

Dossier: l'éducation en période d'austérité (1): planification et financement.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco).

Perspectives, Paris, XVI(2) 58, 1986, pp. 215-275.

Languages: FR, EN, ES
ISSN 0304-3045 (FR)

Educational financing. Educational planning. Economic crisis. Educational reform. Private Finance. Evaluation.

A series of five articles discussing various aspects of the planning and economics of education during periods of economic austerity. Apart from giving some perspectives on the crisis in education caused by

economic crises, ideas are expressed on educational reform and financing periods of recession and the question of possible positive effects resulting from limited educational spending is raised. There is also an article dealing with the financing of education through private and other non-government resources when public spending is curtailed.

Drake, K.:

Financing of adult education and training.

Department of Higher Education, University of Manchester.

Manchester, 1983, 135 pp., bibl. (Manchester Monographs 21).

ISBN 0-903717-31-X

Financing. Adult education. Training. Financing of training.

Government. Enterprises. Voluntary organizations. Educational opportunities. Western Europe. USA.

This study uses experience in Western Europe and North America to explore some of the ways in which financial arrangements govern the availability of learning opportunities to adults. With the help of concepts and techniques from economics, it

outlines an analytical framework within which to examine financing issues. The activities of the principal financiers of adult education — governments, enterprises, voluntary organizations and households — are considered separately and in relation to market financing and bureaucratic financing. (extract)

McMahon, W. J.:
The economics of vocational and technical education: do the benefits outweigh the costs?

Unesco Institute for Education.
 International review of education 34(2) 1988, Hamburg pp. 173-194, bibl. refs.
 Languages: EN, DE, FR
 ISSN 0020-8566 (EN)

Economics of training. Cost-benefit analysis. Training systems. Vocational schools. On-the-job training. Secondary schools. Higher education. Theory.

This is an economic analysis of education that is specific to a particular profession or vocation, but not to a particular firm. It is therefore new in relation to Becker's analysis, which distinguishes only between firm-specific training and general training without addressing this in-between case. The basic issue is the optimum degree of vocationalization of the curriculum. The evidence is that a proper

balance between vocational and general curricula is efficient. But there are growth-related criteria for different rates of expansion for each. Criteria for the most efficient mixture of vocational schooling and on-the-job training are considered, as are the implications for policy and equity of over-expanding separately tracked schools. (author)

Søjberg Holst, K., Køfœd, E.:
Le financement de la formation professionnelle au Danemark — bibliographie commentée
 50 pp.
 ISBN 92-825-5971-8

Barry, M., Dooney, R.:
State funding of vocational education and training in Ireland — a documentary dossier and annotated bibliography.
 98 pp.
 ISBN 92-825-5978-5

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP).
 Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the EC, 1986.

Financing of training. Government policy. State aid. Private finance. Public expenditure. Training levy. Subsidies. Initial training. Con-

Gravalas, B., Meissner, V.:
Financing of vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany — annotated bibliography.
 186 pp.
 Languages: DE, EN
 ISBN 92-825-5975-0 (EN)

Liguori, O.:
Financing of vocational training and education in Italy — an annotated bibliography.
 46 pp.
 Languages: EN, IT
 ISBN 92-825-5976-9 (EN)

tinuing vocational training. Target groups. Bibliographies.
 This series of dossiers was produced for CEDEFOP by members of its documentation network. The bibliographical sections contain references to policy documents, legislation, reviews, reports and surveys, which comment on: the type of financing available; sources of fun-

Aranz O., Mazurier F.:
Le financement de la formation professionnelle continue en France — bibliographie commentée.
 78 pp.
 ISBN 92-825-5972-6

ding; support for special groups such as youth, job seekers, unemployed adults; developments and evaluation of spending, financing mechanisms; schemes sponsored by governments and the European Social Fund, etc. The documentary sections describe the funding agencies and include selected extracts from some of the documents.

Bas, D.:
Cost-effectiveness of training in developing countries
 International Labour Office (ILO).
 International Labour Review (Geneva) 127(3), pp. 355-369.
 Languages: EN, FR
 ISSN: 0020-7780 (EN)
Cost of training. Cost-benefit analysis. Training centres. Secondary schools. In-plant training. Training policy. Developing countries.

Training involves such major outlays that a cost-effectiveness analysis is essential if the proper decisions are to be made concerning the allocation of scarce resources. The author begins by defining such concepts as the output and effectiveness of training and its monetary and psychological costs, before discussing in turn the cost-benefit implications of institution-based training, enterprise-based training, traditional apprenticeships,

self-instruction and new educational technologies. A thorough examination of these implications, he argues, is indispensable for identifying problem areas and clarifying policy options. (author)

B

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Introduction

In Belgium it is currently very difficult to draw up general accounts for expenditure on vocational training. As in the case of education, adult vocational training is administered separately by the Dutch-, French- and German-speaking Communities which each draw up their own budgets under different headings. The few reliable data available are to be found in the annual reports of the

larger training agencies, e.g. the vocational training reports issued by ONEM (National Employment Office) or the Ministry of Small Traders. Although national data can still be found for technical and vocational education which are about to be delegated to the Communities, figures are given for the number of pupils trained, but not for training costs. Statistics, constantly being

restructured by the National Statistics Institute, provide continuous series only up to 1979, after which the changes mentioned above came into effect.

Financing costs can finally be substantially modified by legislation which may differ substantially between the Communities or may introduce radical changes to budget allocations.

Selected bibliography

Kredietbank (KB)
'Financiering van het universitair onderwijs'

In: *Weekberichten* 9, 1986, pp. 1-6.
ISSN 0772-3318.

Financing of training. Universities. Financial resources. Educational expenditures. Investments. Subsidies. Expenditure cuts. Number of students. Educational needs. Educational planning. Student allowances. Educational loans. Access to education. Belgium.

Following a brief analysis of the Belgian universities' student population over the past 25 years, an examination is made of the costs of university education. In the study of the funding of this form of education, a distinction is made between current and capital spending.

The funding mechanism for both types of spending are described and discussed. Overinvestment, flat-rate costs per student and operational grants per university institution are illustrated statistically. The article

favours savings in the universities in the framework of governmental financial reforms. Various options and means to this end are discussed and compared, among them greater autonomy for the universities in the spending of reduced Community grants, a more rational organization of university teaching, educational planning as a function of the direct link between education and employment and an increase in tuition fees.

<p><i>Moniteur belge</i> Royal Decree No 495 instituting a system associating employment and training for young people aged 18-25 years and temporarily reducing the social security contributions which employers pay for these young people.</p>	<p>In: <i>Moniteur belge</i>, 23 January 1987, pp. 966-970, rue de Louvain 42, B-1000 Brussels. <i>Training-employment contract. Legal aspects. Young people: 18-25 years old. Belgium.</i> This Royal Decree sets out new conditions for reducing employers' social</p>	<p>security contributions when an employer enters into a training-employment contract, not exceeding 500 hours per annum, with a young person.</p>
<p><i>Moniteur belge</i> Granting paid educational leave in connection with workers' continuing training.</p> <p>In: <i>Moniteur belge</i>, 24 January 1985, pp. 739-751, rue de Louvain 42, B-1000 Brussels. <i>Training. Legislation. Educational</i></p>	<p><i>leave. Legal aspects. Belgium.</i> This Royal Decree, which follows on from the Law on economic recovery of 22 January 1985, sets out the new arrangements of the new Law on educational leave which repeals the Law of 10 April 1973 on paid day-release. All vocational training schemes recognized by this law are</p>	<p>systematically defined: State schemes and schemes offered by unions or young people's or adults' organizations, approved by a special commission. The law also explains the funding to be borne by employers and sets out legal remedies and penalties in the event of disputes between workers and employers.</p>
<p>Rijksdienst voor de Arbeidsvoorziening (RVA) Subregionale Tewerkstellingscomités (STCs) 'Hulp aan ondernemingen bij oprichting, uitbreiding of overschakeling'</p> <p>In: <i>STC Info 5</i>, 1986, pp. 1-3, RVA-STCs, Keizerslaan 7, B-1000 Brussels.</p>	<p><i>Financial aid. Continuing vocational training. Enterprises. Economic development. Belgium.</i> This article explains the financial aid available from the National Manpower Service (RVA) in connection with training provided within firms which are in the process of being established, expanded or reorien-</p>	<p>tated. Such aid may relate to the cost of training for employees and the costs for instructors. Following an outline of the philosophy and conditions for the aid, statistical information is provided, among other things on expansion projects in the Flemish Region from 1978 to 1985 in each industry, the number of workers involved and the amount of aid provided.</p>
<p>Winters, S. and Cossey, H. 'Methoden van studiefinanciering — Deel I en II.' <i>Internationale vergelijking en evaluatie</i>, 1987, 271 pp. Hoger Instituut voor de Arbeid, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (HIVA-KUL), E. van Evenstraat 2e, B-3000 Leuven. <i>Cost of education. Cost of training. Financing of training. Educational loans. Training allowances. United Kingdom. Netherlands. Sweden. Denmark. Federal Republic of Germany. USA. Belgium.</i> At the request of the Flemish Community Minister for Education and</p>	<p>Training, the Higher Institute of Labour of Leuven Catholic University (HIVA-KUL) drew up a descriptive study (Part I) and evaluation (Part II) of different systems of educational funding. The authors begin by discussing public spending on education, the funding of educational institutions and households' contributions towards the cost of secondary and higher education in Belgium (Flanders and Wallonia), the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. Educational costs and funding methods are compared. Where poss-</p>	<p>ible, the systems in the different countries are compared. There then follows a brief outline of educational finance in Sweden, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United States. The information in the descriptive study leads on to an evaluation of the different options: educational loans and grants are compared and other systems, among others an education tax, student wages and reductions in the study and maintenance contributions from parents while their children are in education, are included in the debate.</p>

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Introduction

Danish vocational training is characterized by a high degree of financing from public funds and corresponding extremely limited private financing, above all for youth training. The provisions concerning vocational training schemes, including labour market training schemes and continuing vocational training, can be found in a number of laws, of which the Law on labour market training schemes and the Law on continuing training, both dating from 1985, can be mentioned, as well as the 1983 Law on a labour market training fund. The statutory basis for basic vocational training schemes is the Law of 1964 on apprentices and the 1977 Law on initial vocational training

schemes. However, the whole of this extensive field is at present under review as the Minister for Education tabled two draft parliamentary bills in March 1988, one dealing with the structure of vocational training and the other with matters relating to vocational schools. The bills concerning vocational training were drawn up on the basis of the report submitted in June 1987 by the committee responsible for the review of basic vocational training, the Nordskov Nielsen committee. A large amount of statistical material has been gathered and distributed in connection with this report, describing student trends and the student population, enrolment and drop-out rates,

recruitment and placement on the labour market, regional aspects in the distribution of training, etc. Vocational training schemes are generally financed from public funds and the financial situation relating to the training schemes can therefore be seen from the annual budgets. One special support scheme is the reimbursement scheme (AER), whereby the wages paid by employers to students and apprentices during their schooling are refunded. The statutory basis of this scheme is the 1977 Law on employer reimbursement for students, with subsequent amendments.

Legislation

Law No 237 of 6 June 1985 on labour market training schemes

Adult education. Vocational training. Continuing vocational training. Vocational rehabilitation. Pre-vocational training. Educational administration. Financing of training. Acts. Denmark.

The purpose of labour market training schemes is to give semi-skilled,

skilled workers, etc. a vocational training which maintains, extends and improves their occupational qualifications in accordance with technological progress and the needs of the labour market, or to solve problems of readjustment and adaptation on the labour market by means of training measures based on labour market policy. The element of market

control contained in the law has recently been reinforced by the introduction of the special courses adapted to the firm, where the individual firm exerts direct influence upon the content and timing of the course in return for partial provision of its funding.

Law No 614 of 21 December 1983 on a labour market training fund

Adult learning. Skilled workers. Semi-skilled workers. Pre-vocational training.

ing. Vocational rehabilitation. Financing of training. Acts. Denmark.

The purpose of this law is to finance the running expenses of labour market training schemes by means of

contributions from employees and employers. The amount of the contribution is graduated according to the amount of employment involved.

Law No 271 of 6 June 1985 on continuing training (vocational courses, etc.)

Continuing education. Continuing vocational training. Financing of training. Acts. Denmark.

The purpose of the law is that the government shall provide grants for

development projects at all levels and for courses, as well as adult training grants. Participants in the course must normally have attained their 25th birthday. The target group for grant-aided courses are non-academic white-collar workers, technicians, etc., employed primarily in the

private sector or unemployed. The main idea behind the law is to ensure that the qualifications of adult personnel working in trade and industry are on a par with those of newly-trained young people and to provide adult vocational training to meet this aim.

<p>Bill No L 228 for the Law on vocational training schemes, tabled on 2 March 1988 by the Minister for Education and Research <i>Vocational training. Technical training. Apprenticeship. Educational reform. Educational administration. Acts. Denmark.</i></p>	<p>The draft parliamentary bill is aimed at the creation of a single-stream vocational training system with fewer individual courses and room for both old and new specializations. The courses are to be such that they can be rapidly adapted and updated, and the students are to be given training</p>	<p>which provides them with both occupational qualifications and personal development. The bill envisages unrestricted admission to the school part of the training.</p>
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<p>Bill No L 229 for the Law on vocational schools, tabled on 2 March 1988 by the Minister for Education and Research <i>Vocational schools. Financing of training. Acts. Denmark.</i> According to the bill, the vocational</p>	<p>schools shall receive a block grant consisting of a fixed annual contribution towards the school's overhead expenses (administration, rent, etc.) and a grant, based on the number of the school's students, to cover expenses directly related to the training</p>	<p>offered. The schools can then have free disposal over the total amount, within certain limits. This reform provides the schools with new, extended powers; they have greater scope in working towards the aims of the law on vocational training.</p>
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Publications

<p>AER. Beretning og regnskab 1986 Hillerød, 1987, 26 pp. ATPhuset, Kongens Vaenge 8, DK-3400 Hillerød <i>Trainees. Apprentices. Financing of training wages. Employers. Subsidies. Annual reports. Denmark.</i></p>	<p>AER stands for 'Arbejdsgivernes Elevrefusion' (Employer reimbursement for students). The scheme was set up in 1977 for the purpose of giving private employers full or partial reimbursement of the wages paid out to students and apprentices during their schooling training. The annual report describes the various schemes.</p>	<p>In addition to refund of wages, they cover allowances for travelling expenses and grants for apprentice and on-the-job training posts. The scheme is financed through private employers who are covered by the Law on the Labour Market Supplementary Pension (ATP) and are obliged to pay contributions to the AER.</p>
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<p>Erhvervsuddannelserne: uddannelsessystemet og samfundet i øvrigt; A statistical description of vocational training for the use of the Nordskov Nielsen committee Undervisningsministeriet. Økonomisk-statistisk kontor. Copenhagen, 1987, 220 pp. + appendix <i>Educational systems. Vocational training. Student mobility. Number of students. Enrolment. Labour supply. Regional planning. Educational statistics. Denmark.</i> In connection with the report which the committee responsible for the review of basic vocational training schemes — the Nordskov Nielsen committee — submitted in June</p>	<p>1987, a large amount of statistical material has been compiled, describing student trends, population, enrolment and drop-out rates, recruitment, placing on the labour market, regional aspects in the distribution of training, etc. In the compilation of this report, importance was attached to the inclusion of as many aspects as possible relating to the behaviour of those seeking training, but these were presented within contexts making the individual sectors consistent and in a way such that the figures are mutually comparable. As a result in areas where this is possible, there has been a general overall tendency not to use more up-to-date figures if they were not comparable with the other calculations. Among the most impor-</p>	<p>tant conclusions, it can be mentioned that the figures on enrolment to the formal training system show that it is a training system for young people. The system is used by 'adults' only to a modest degree. Concerning the duration of training, boys and girls nowadays receive training of the same duration, but girls choose general training courses and boys the vocational courses. Finally, a marked rise in the standard of education among the population can be observed. In the light of the present standards of education among young people in Denmark, this is a trend which shall continue.</p>
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Addresses

<p>AER (Arbejdsgivernes Elevrefusion) ATPhuset Kongens Vaenge 8 DK-3400 Hillerød</p>	<p>AMU-direktoratet Hejrevej 43 DK-2400 Copenhagen NV.</p>	<p>Direktoratet for erhvervsuddannelserne Højbro Plads 4 DK-1200 Copenhagen K</p>
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D

By: **bi
bb**

BUNDESINSTITUT

FÜR BERUFSBILDUNG

Fehrbelliner Platz 3

D-1000 Berlin 31

Telefon (030) 86 83-1

Hegelheimer, Armin: **Finanzierung der beruflichen Bildung**

Mannheim: ZGB, 1986, 84 pp., ISBN 3-92 4441-05-7

Cost of training. Educational financing. Vocational training. Further training. Educational policy. Federal Republic of Germany.

The aspects considered in the study include:

- the structure and trend in vocational training costs in the Federal Republic of Germany in the 1970s;
- collective interplant systems for the financing of vocational training;

■ systems for the mixed financing of vocational training;

■ prospects for the financing of initial vocational training in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Falk, Ruediger; Gaertner, Ernst-August; Malcher, Wilfried:

Streitsache: Finanzierung der Berufsausbildung

Cologne: Deutscher Instituts-Verlag, 1986, 126 pp., ISBN 3-602-14115-2

Training policy. Cost of training. Social partners. Employers. Regional planning. Legislation. Federal Republic of Germany.

The aspects considered in this study include:

■ the political importance of the type of financing;

■ Federal and *Land* programmes for the promotion of in-plant training;

■ the costs of in-plant training.

Backes, Ursula; Bodenhöfer, Hans-Joachim: **'Probleme der Bildungsfinanzierung'**

Berlin: Duncker & Humblot, 1985, 437 pp (*Schriften des Vereins für Sozialpolitik*, Vol. 146) ISBN 3-428-05840-2.

Economics of education. Educational financing. State participation. Educational policy. Financing of training. Federal Republic of Germany.

The employment crisis that has persisted in the Federal Republic of Germany since 1974 has led to a crisis in public finances. This in turn has focused attention on proposals — long since voiced in academic circles — that services hitherto provided free of charge by the State should be left to the market to control. Education and training, largely provided by the State in the Federal Republic of Germany

and financed from general tax revenues (apart from the in-company part of the dual training system), have always been a favoured object of such proposals. This study also seeks to contribute to this debate, without, however, being confined to it entirely. It contains papers presented in the Committee for the Economics of Education of the Association for Social Policy in 1983 and 1984.

<p>Zur Finanzierung der Berufsausbildung. Grundposition der Wirtschaft. Published by: Kuratorium der Deutschen Wirtschaft für Berufsbildung, Buschstraße 83, 5300 Bonn 1.</p>	<p>Bonn: Kuratorium der Deutschen Wirtschaft, 1985, 16 pp. (Schriften zur Berufsbildung). <i>Cost of training. Vocational training. Planning of training. Training assistance. Employers. Federal Republic</i></p>	<p><i>of Germany.</i> In this pamphlet, the central associations which cooperate in the Kuratorium der Deutschen Wirtschaft state their views on the debate on financing that is again flaring up.</p>
<p>Entwurf eines Gesetzes zur Finanzierung von Ausbildungsplätzen in der Berufsausbildung (Ausbildungsplatzfinanzierungsgesetz). Drucksache 10/5143, 4 March 1986, Sachgebiet 2171, Ger-</p>	<p>man <i>Bundestag</i>, 10th term. Bill presented by the SPD group in the <i>Bundestag</i>. <i>Cost of training. Training legislation. Educational planning. Bills. Federal Republic of Germany.</i></p>	<p>As many young people failed to find training places in 1985, the SPD group in the <i>Bundestag</i> saw the need for a bill requiring employers who provided little or no training to pay a levy so that many more training places might be created.</p>
<p>Schaustein, Elisabeth: Finanzierung der betrieblichen Berufsausbildung. Analyse, Finanzierungsmodelle, rechtliche und politische Rahmenbedingungen. Cologne: Pahl-Rugenstein, 1986, 164 pp. (Probleme der gesellschaftlichen Arbeit, Vol. 217) ISBN 3-7609-5217-8.</p>	<p><i>Cost of training. Financing of training. In-plant training. Legal aspects. Educational policy. Federal Republic of Germany.</i> This book takes a critical look at the proposals for the reorganization of funding and the financing models under discussion and describes the</p>	<p>ideas of pressure groups, political parties and the Federal Government between 1969 and 1983. It also considers whether and how the financing system can be changed under the present economic and political conditions.</p>
<h2>Addresses:</h2>		
<p>Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs Rochusstraße 1 5300 Bonn 1</p> <p>Federation of German Trade Unions Hans-Böckler-Straße 39 4000 Düsseldorf 30</p> <p>German Industrial and Trade Association Adenauerallee 148 5300 Bonn 1</p> <p>Kuratorium der deutschen Wirtschaft für Berufsbildung Buschstraße 83 5300 Bonn 1</p> <p>Central Association of the German Craft Industry Johanniterstraße 1 5300 Bonn</p>		

GR

By:

ΕΛΛΗΝΙΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ
ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ ΕΘΝΙΚΗΣ
ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ & ΘΡΗΣΚΕΥΜΑΤΩΝ**ΠΑΙΔΑΓΩΓΙΚΟ
ΙΝΣΤΙΤΟΥΤΟ**Institut pédagogique,
ministère de l'Éducation nationale
et des cultes396 Messogion Street
GR - Athènes 15341**Greece: the five-year economic and social development plan 1983-87: summary.**

The Centre of Planning and Economic Research (KEPE), Athens, nd, 74 pp.

*Economic planning. Government policy. Public sector. Regional deve-**lopment. Economic conditions. Investments. Employment. Unemployment. Private sector. Greece.*

The five-year plan (1983-87) is a synthesis of local and national priorities emerging from an active dialogue among social partners. It provides a framework for action and for the

undertaking of initiatives by both the private and public sectors at the local or national level. It also defines the major directions of macroeconomic policy in a manner that leaves room for periodic adjustment of short-run targets in the light of changing economic conditions.

Pesmazoglou, S.: *Ekpaidefsi kai anaptyxi stin Ellada 1948-85: to asymptoto mias schesis*

(Education and development in Greece 1948-85: the asymptote of a relationship).

Athens, Themelio, 1987, 617 pp., tables, diagrams, indices.

Education. Educational policy. Development, State economy. Employment. Manpower. Productivity. EEC. Cost of education. Statistical analysis. Greece.

This is a book based on a research project conducted during the period 1979-85 by the Research Directorate of the Bank of Greece. It traces the educational policy in Greece since the post-Second World War period and through this it attempts to identify the role of the State which makes use of education in order to fulfil development aims. It consists of six parts: the first deals with related terminology and methodologies; the second presents statistical data on educational expenditure; the third identifies a

number of confusions, overlaps and antitheses of the educational flows and the occupational structures; the fourth determines the links between the educational system and the economy; the fifth attempts to decode the components of the EEC educational policy and, finally, the sixth part presents a criticism of various educational models which have been occasionally proposed and/or applied in Greece with the advice of experts and international organizations.

<p>Karmas, K., Dragona, Th., Kostaki, A.: Prosdokies kai theseis ton spoudaston tou Technologikou-Ekpaideftikou Idrymatos Athinon</p>	<p>Ministry of National Education and Religion/Technological Educational Institute of Athens. Athens, Organismos Ekdoseos Didaktikon Vivlion (OEDV), 1986, 125 pp., bibl.</p>	<p><i>old. Students. Student records. Questionnaires. Greece.</i> Presents the development of the Technological Educational Institute of Athens since 1950 with an emphasis on the students' profiles and the students' attitudes towards the Institute in relation to their professional aspirations.</p>
<p>Psacharopoulos, G., Kazamias, A.: Paideia kai anaptyxi stin Ellada: koinoniki kai oikonomiki meletis tritovathmias ekpaidefsis (Education and development in Greece: social and economic study of tertiary education).</p>	<p>Ethniko Kentro Koinonikon Erevnon (EKKE) Athens, EKKE, 1985, 340 pp., tables, list of contributors. <i>Education. Development. Post-secondary education. Educational levels. Economy. Social environment. Planning. Investments. Greece.</i></p>	<p>This study was carried out by a team of researchers appointed by the Ministry of Education. It has been based on statistical data and provides an overview of the pedagogical framework of post-secondary education, its social dimension and the influence of the economy on education and planning.</p>
<p>Amallos, T.: Synthesi energou plithysmou kai provlimata apascholis (The structure of the active population and employment problems). Athens, OAED, 1987, 20 pp., 9 tables.</p>	<p><i>Manpower. Employment creation. Unemployment. EEC. Economy. Statistical analysis. Financing. Labour market. Vocational training. Vocational guidance. Greece.</i> This study links the available data, which define the structure of the active population in Greece, with the</p>	<p>short- and medium-term policy followed by OAED on job creation and on vocational training. The context of the presentation is the existing manpower employment problems and the need to increase production and productivity.</p>

Addresses

Ministry of National Education and Religion — Directorate of Planning

Mitropoleos 15
GR-101 85 Athens

Ministry of National Education and Religion — Directorate of Technical-Vocational Education

Mitropoleos 15
GR-101 85 Athens

OAED

(Organismos Apascholiseos Ergatikou Dynamikou)

(Manpower Employment Organization)

Thrakis 8
PO Box 70017
GR-166 10 Glyfada

ELKEPA

(Elliniko Kentro Paragogikotitas)

(Hellenic Centre of Productivity)
Kapodistriou 28
GR-106 82 Athens

EOMMEX

(Greek Organization for Small and Medium-sized Enterprises and Handicrafts)

Xenias 15
GR-115 27 Athens

ESYE

(Ethniki Statistiki Ypiresis Ellados)

(National Statistical Service of Greece)

Lykourgou 14-16
GR-101 66 Athens

Ministry of National Economy

Syntagma Square
101 80 Athens

KEPE

(Centre of Planning and Economic Research)

Ippokratous 22
GR-106 80 Athens

ITE

(Institouto Technologikis Ekpaidefsis)

(Institute of Technological Education)

Syngrou 56
GR-117 42 Athens

E

By:

INEM

**Instituto Nacional de Empleo
Condesa de Venadito, 9
E-28027 Madrid
Tél.: 408 24 27**

Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social. **Presupuestos INEM — 1988** Madrid, Instituto Nacional de Empleo (INEM), 1988, 271 pp.

Budget. Financing of training. Vocational guidance. Employment policy. Employment services. Unemployment insurance. Spain.

This report sets out the 1988 revenue and expenditure budgets of the Na-

tional Institute of Employment. Among the items included are the estimates for the National Training and Employment Programme (Plan-FIP), which has been considerably expanded in response to the heavy demand for job-related training resulting from developments in the labour market, chiefly technological innovation and changes in occupational structures.

Included for the first time is the funding of employment and skills promotion offices, whose job is the integrated and coordinated management of all the types of aid and other measures connected with job-related training and the promotion of employment.

Instituto Nacional de Empleo (INEM). **Estadística de Formación Ocupacional**, marzo-diciembre 1988 Madrid, Instituto Nacional de Empleo, 1988.

Training statistics. Vocational training. Statistics. Training policy. Employment policy. Socially handicapped persons. Retraining. Training of trainers. Entry into working life. Training supply. Number of trainees. Long-term unemployment. Agricultural training. Alternance training. Migrant training. Cur-

riculum subjects. Trainees. Sectoral training. Youth unemployment. ESF. Spain.

When Spain joined the European Community, the legislation governing the National Training and Employment Programme (PlanFIP) was amended to include new schemes of job-related training for young people and the long-term unemployed, first-time employment for young job-seekers, basic education, retraining in rural areas and in industries undergoing restructuring, and schemes aimed

at the disabled, emigrants and other groups.

These statistics, which include the new schemes, show the national figures for the activities undertaken in this connection in March-December 1986. The breakdown is by course and stage of implementation, grouped by Autonomous Community, the number of trainees classified by occupational workforce, location of training, duration, etc. The volume completes and develops the accumulation for the year.

Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, Oficina de Planificación, Servicio de Estudios Estadísticos.

Formación Profesional, Cursos 1984-85 y 1985-86, Análisis de los datos nacionales Madrid, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, 1987, 246 pp.

Training statistics. Number of trainees. Sectoral training. Curriculum

subjects. Training centres. Trainer-trainee ratio. Spain.

This statistical survey sets out the national totals and summaries for vocational education and training within the education system in the academic years 1984-5 and 1985-6. The data shown include numbers of institutions, educational posts, teaching staff, students, student/teacher ratios,

etc. Each statistical table is preceded by a general information section.

The section on the Autonomous Communities includes both absolute and relative figures, together with comparative indices of inter-Community differences in such areas as student/teacher ratios, numbers of students per 1 000 population and the distribution of students among institutions of different status.

'Orden de 23 de enero de 1988 por la que se desarrollan las normas básicas de cotización a la Seguridad Social, Desempleo, Fondo de Garantía Salarial y Formación Profesional contenidas en el Real Decreto 1683/1987 de 30 de diciembre.'

In: **Boletín Oficial del Estado** No 26, pp. 3309-3317, Madrid. ISSN 0212-033X

Labour legislation. Training levy. Social security. Financing of training. Unemployment insurance. Spain.

This Ministry of Labour legislative order sets the level of contributions for the purposes of social security, unemployment insurance, income guarantee fund and vocational training for the 1988 budgetary year. The details include the percentages paid

by the employee and the employer of the monthly vocational-training contributions utilized, along with other revenues, to fund the various vocational training programmes.

Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social

Memoria de Actividades del Insero 1986

Madrid, Instituto Nacional de Servicios Sociales (Insero), 1987, 162 pp. ISBN 84-505-7021-2.

The disabled. Vocational training. Retraining. Entry into working life. Social security. Disabled workers. Statistics. Social services. Spain.

This report details the activities of the

National Institute of Social Services (Insero) in 1986. They include employment programmes for the disabled, comprising rehabilitation and vocational training.

Saez Fernández, F.: 'La relación educación-empleo: aspectos económicos'

In: **Información Económica Española** No 175, Madrid, 1987, pp. 21-26. ISSN 0019-977X.

Training-employment relationship. School-work relationship. Labour market. Curriculum. Underemployment. Financing of training. Youth unemployment. In-firm training. Economic development. Techno-

logical change. EC countries. Spain.

This analysis of the relationships between education, economic growth and the generation of employment starts out from the question of the existence or otherwise of a causal link in the short, medium or long term, raising the problem of 'overeducation', i.e. the surplus qualifications at higher levels compared to the number of jobs requiring such qualifications. It also deals with the possible impact of cur-

riculum content on employment. The author then focuses on the problem of the segmentation of the labour market (involving discrimination affecting the youngest) and on existing and possible approaches to a solution, seeking to determine the most effective: vocational training within the education system; training linked to firms, responding to the needs of their internal labour market; public subsidies towards training costs.

Organizations with information on human and financial aspects of the vocational training system

Instituto Nacional de Empleo (INEM)

National Institute of Employment
c/. Condesa de Venadito, 9
28027 Madrid

Dirección General de Empleo

Directorate-General of Employment
c/. Pio Baroja, 6
28006 Madrid

Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia

Ministry of Education and Science
c/. Alcalá, 34
28014 Madrid

Dirección General del Instituto Español de Emigración

Directorate-General of the Spanish Institute of Emigration
Paseo del Pintor Rosales, 44-46
28080 Madrid

Dirección General de Estadística, Subdirección General de Estadística

Ministerio de Trabajo y Seguridad Social
Ministry of Labour and Social Security
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Paseo de la Castellana, 183
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The flow of people and funds in the French continuing vocational training system

Bibliography

Aventur, François; Berton, Fabienne; Dubille, Pierre-Henri; *et al*: **La formation professionnelle en chiffres**

Paris la Défense: Centre INFFO, 1987, 24 pp.

(Centre INFFO, Tour Europe, 92080 Paris la Défense)

Cost of training. Number of trainees. State. Regional Government. Enterprises. Training levy. Apprenticeship. Alternating training. Young people: 16-25 years old. Training statistics. France.

This brochure gathers together a number of significant figures on continuing training and apprenticeship in France. It examines the following

aspects: the overall situation, State schemes, schemes run by regional councils, schemes run by firms and apprenticeship and alternating training and work experience schemes for young people aged under 26 years. The data relate mainly to 1986 and include an examination of major development trends over previous years.

Projet de loi de finances pour 1988: document annexe formation professionnelle

Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1987, 99 pp.

(Imprimerie Nationale, 27 rue de la Convention, 75732 Paris cédex 15).

Cost of training. Number of trainees. State. Regional government. Enterprises. Training levy. Apprenticeship. Alternating training. Young people: 16-25 years old. Continuing vocational training. Training statistics. France.

This draft law, published yearly, provides an overall picture of State and

regional subsidies and employers' contributions, initially in aggregate form and then separately. The figures given focus on 1986. It also contains the results of apprenticeship schemes, an assessment of specific measures to aid young people aged 16-25 years and the overall plan for vocational training for the year in question.

Jansolin, Paul: **Statistique de la formation professionnelle continue financée par les entreprises**: traitement des déclarations d'employeurs No 2483, années 1985-1986. Paris: la Documentation française, 1987, 127 pp. ISBN 2-11-001923-9
Training levy. Number of trainees. Large enterprises. Small and medium

enterprises. Training statistics. Continuing vocational training. France. This document, prepared by Cereq (Qualification research and study centre), sets out the findings of the statistical processing of statements made by employers obliged to take part in the financing of continuing vocational training in the years 1985-86.

Training organized by the different categories of enterprise is analysed from three complementary points of view: national, regional and by sectors of activity.

Aventur, François; Bernard, Martine: **La formation professionnelle continue dans les régions en 1985** Noisy le Grand: ADEP, 1987, 206 pp. ISBN 2-903054-36-3

government. Enterprises. Training levy. Alternating training. Young people: 16-25 years old. Training statistics. France.

the financial and physical databases for each programme implemented by the regions, the State and enterprises. These data are accompanied by indicators and charts measuring and displaying the impact of training programmes on the unemployed and on workers.

Regional planning. Cost of training. Number of trainees. State. Regional

This provides a statistical picture of continuing vocational training in the regions in 1985. It brings together all

Resource agencies

CEREQ

Centre d'études et de recherches sur les qualifications

9, rue Sextius Michel
 75015 Paris
 Tel: 45 75 62 63.

Délégation

à la formation professionnelle
 50-56, rue de la Procession
 75015 Paris
 Tel: 48 56 48 56.

} Attention!
 } New address!

IRL

By:



Carrisbrook House
Pernbroke Road
Dublin 4
Telephone: (01) 60 37 22

Organizations

FÁS-The Training and Employment Authority

PO Box 456
27-33 Upper Baggot Street
Dublin 4

This authority has national responsibility for the provision and promotion of employment and training services in Ireland. FÁS was established in 1988 and replaced the Youth Employment Agency, AnCO (the Industrial Training Authority) and the National Manpower Service.

Department of Labour

Davitt House
Mespil Road
Dublin 4

The Department of Labour is responsible for manpower policy, industrial relations and various matters relating to employment.

Department of Education

Marlborough Street
Dublin 1

This department is responsible for administration of public education, primary, post-primary and special education. State subsidies for universities and colleges are channelled through the department.

Bibliography

Department of Labour annual report, 1987.

Dublin, The Stationery Office, 1988.
Annual reports. Ministries. Employment and training. Manpower. Ireland.

This annual report accounts for all expenditure and activities sponsored and undertaken by the Department of Labour. Information on the levels and costs of activities carried out by the manpower agencies are included in the report.

White Paper on manpower policy, 1986,

Dublin, IRL 2.95.
Employment policy. Manpower policy. Ireland.

This White Paper outlines government policies in the areas of training and employment. The paper includes the proposal to amalgamate the manpower agencies.

Programme for action in education 1984-87

Department of Education, 1984.
Education. Vocational training. Secondary education. Disadvantaged youth. Ireland.

This report outlines the importance of vocational education and training. It proposes that there should be a future expansion of pre-employment courses within the educational system and seeks to achieve a closer relationship between education, modern society and the world of work.

Annual report, Youth Employment Agency, fifth report and accounts to 31 December 1986

Youth Employment Agency, 1987.
The Youth Employment Agency presents its fifth and last annual report and accounts. The report includes a full review of activities supported and their impact in 1986.

NL

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Funding for vocational training in the Netherlands

The subject of funding for vocational training in the Netherlands broadly divides into three areas, the bibliographical contributions reflecting this division.

Initial training is largely the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Science, with the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries also playing a part. In addition, various ministries operate their own training

schemes (e.g. the Ministry of Justice provides police training, the Ministry of Welfare, Health and Cultural affairs organizes in-service training and the Ministry of Defence trains members of the armed forces). The Ministry of the Interior provides training for entrepreneurs.

Training measures for the unemployed have been implemented by the Ministry of Labour and Social

Security. These include both the direct provision of courses and the granting of subsidies to employers for training purposes.

Finally, for those currently in employment, there are training facilities within the firms, fully or partially funded by the companies themselves. Employees may of course also make use of facilities provided elsewhere.

'Beroepsonderwijs volwassenen: noodzakelijke investering'

In: Uitleg 11, Vol. 4, 1988, pp. 2-4. ISSN 0169 7538.

Vocational training. Adult education. Financing of training. Educa-

tional budget. Ministries. Private finance. Netherlands.

At least three ministries share responsibility for adult vocational education and training, with the private sector also playing a major role.

The article provides an overview of the educational market, with details on the bodies which provide and fund the various types of education and training.

Leune J. M. G. and Ritzen J. M. M.: Ch. 2 'Onderwijs in cijfers'

In: *Onderwijs, Bestel en Beleid I, Onderwijs in hoofdlijnen*, pp. 109-161.

Financing of training. Educational financing. Educational statistics. Educational systems. Teaching personnel. Labour supply. Netherlands. This chapter begins by giving figures for educational institutions in the Netherlands, classified by type, and goes

on to consider the students within each type of education: numbers of students attending the different types of institution, transfers within and between different types and the destinations of school- and college-leavers. The third section covers the teaching force, once again broken down according to types of institution; information is also given on teachers' qualifications and the nature of their jobs. Section Four is

concerned with educational spending, including spending trends, the distribution of expenditure among the different types of institution, the categories of expenditure and the cost of education per student. The final section is devoted to education and the working population, covering questions such as the supply of and demand for qualified workers and the composition of the workforce according to qualifications and job level.

Overzicht scholings-, loonkosten- en andere (subsidie) regelingen

The Hague, Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid, Directoraat-Generaal voor de Arbeidsvoorziening, 1987, 4 pp.

Regulation. Ministries. Financing of training. Subsidies. Unemployed workers. Unemployed youth. Employment policy. Netherlands.

This overview of the various schemes relating to training and wage costs gives brief outlines of their aim, target

group and content, implementation etc. There are 13 such schemes in all, funded either entirely or in part by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security; their aim is to improve the job prospects of the unemployed through training or subsidies to employers.

Stichting van de Arbeid

Samen voor werk 2

The Hague, 1987. 150 pp. ISBN 90 6587 303 1

Youth employment. Long-term unemployment. Labour market. Educational facilities. Social partners. Government policy. Unemployment. Statistical analysis. Netherlands.

These reports by the Joint Labour Council (Stichting van de Arbeid) are

concerned with:

- training
 - (a) for employees, at sectoral level,
 - (b) in the framework of the apprenticeship system,
 - (c) for job-seekers;
- the availability of the education infrastructure and contracted education;
- young people and entry into the labour market;
- long-term unemployment;
- unemployment statistics.

These reports outline possible solutions to the various problems. The detailed formulation and implementation of such solutions must take place at the level of individual sectors and firms. What is involved is not just recommendations to employers and unions: by accepting the reports, the government has also undertaken additional commitments.

Susan N., Tops M. W., Wijers G. J.: **Bedrijfopleidingen in de lift**

The Hague, Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid, 1986, 104 pp. ISBN 90 363 9572 0.

Enterprises. In-plant training. Financing of training. Sectoral training. Research reports. Netherlands.

On average, at least 35% of workers receive some form of training from their employers every year, at a total cost to firms of some 3.5 billion guilders. Around a quarter of all firms

tend to ignore older workers in this connection.

Employers provide training to improve their response to technological and commercial developments and because mainstream education fails to meet their needs; in terms of content, the main gaps are thus in the areas of information technology, other technical subjects and commercial and management training. Most firms show little interest in training at sectoral level (advocated by the central employers' and trade union

organizations) and see little if any link between their training plans and the government's labour market and technology policies. Recommendations relate *inter alia* to the planning and implementation of training courses (notably in the computer field), training for older workers, the role of the district employment offices, linkages between technology policy and training and the role of collective agreements in relation to employer-based training.

Meer en Beter scholing: handreiking intensivering van scholing op bedrijfsniveau

Rapporteurs: Reiche H.M.J.K.J., Groothuis G. J., van de Fen F. G. M. *et al.*

The Hague, Commissie Ontwikkeling Bedrijven (COB)/Sociaal-Economische Raad (SER), 1987, 92 pp. ISBN 90 6587 296 5.

In-plant training. Research reports. Sectoral training. Enterprises. Employees. Netherlands.

The central employers' and union organizations represented on the

Joint Labour Council (Stichting van de Arbeid) have recommended that agreements on the intensification of training efforts be reached in the context of collective bargaining at sectoral level. The arguments advanced concerned:

- the need to keep the working population abreast of technological developments;
- the importance of training as competition is internationalized;
- requirements from the viewpoint of developments in social organization.

The training efforts to be intensified in this way are directed towards the existing labour force at all levels within employing organizations; they are thus not concerned with the apprenticeship system or mainstream day-time education.

This guide aims to offer a practical approach which will enable a balanced and effective intensification of training efforts at sectoral level. Various consequences and forms of organization are conceivable in this connection. The guide also provides a basis for the development of policy within the firms.

<p>Warmerdam J. and van den Berg J.: Opleidingsactiviteiten in arbeidsorganisaties: een onderzoek naar inhoud en achtergrond van opleiding in bedrijven The Hague, Instituut voor toegepaste sociale wetenschappen, 1987, 213 pp. ISBN 90 363 9611 5 <i>In-plant training. Comparative analysis. Research reports. Enterprises. Financing of training. Technological change. Netherlands.</i></p>	<p>This report on research, commissioned by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, is concerned with training activities relating to technological change within the firms. Case studies were carried out in six employing organizations. Part I briefly discusses the purpose and design of the research and summarizes its results. The extent of employee participation in training is outlined, with inter-firm similarities and differences and explanatory factors being identified using com-</p>	<p>parative analysis. The firms examined are all characterized by a high level of participation in training. The proportion of such training not directly related to the employees' work is very small. Only a small proportion of the training is provided by publicly funded institutions. Inter-firm differences relate mainly to the nature of the work-related training and to the extent to which the courses followed are concerned with technological developments. Part II sets out the research and its results in full.</p>
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<p>Hoofdpunten van het regeringsbeleid 1988 The Hague, Staatsuitgeverij, 1987, 90 pp. ISBN 90 120 5480 X. <i>Government policy. National budget. Financial policy. Economic policy. Netherlands.</i></p>	<p>This publication — 'Main points of governmental policy in 1988' — is a concise summary of the annual statement on the budget and the various budgetary chapters. The subjects covered are financial and economic</p>	<p>trends, the 1988 budget, people and industry, likely output figures for 1987, central government finance over the next few years, the controllability of public spending and the chapters of the budget.</p>
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<p>Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek Statistisch Zakboek 1987 The Hague, Staatsuitgeverij, 1987, 415 pp. ISSN 0168 3705, ISBN 90 357 0838 5.</p>	<p>Also: EN. <i>Statistical analysis. Yearbooks. Netherlands.</i> This statistical handbook includes many tables. Important chapters</p>	<p>include: B. Population (pp. 57-80) F. Education (pp. 118-137) R. Public sector finance (pp.296-312).</p>
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<p>Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek Statistiek van het Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs 1986/87 — scholen en leerlingen The Hague, Staatsuitgeverij, 1988, 58 pp. ISSN 0169 0957, ISBN 90 357 0968 3. Also: NL/EN.</p>	<p><i>Statistical analysis. Educational statistics. Training statistics. Secondary schools. Vocational schools. Netherlands.</i> This publication provides statistical information on intermediate vocational education (provided by the</p>	<p>Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries) in the academic year 1986-87. In addition to data on student populations and movements in the various sectors, figures are also given on one or more previous years and on the situation in the regions.</p>
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<p>Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen Ministry of Education and Science Postbus 25000 2700 LZ Zoetermeer Tel. 079-531911</p>	<p>Stichting van de Arbeid Joint Labour Council Bezuidenhoutseweg 60 2594 AW The Hague Tel. 070-814341</p>	<p>Instituut voor Toegepast Sociologisch Onderzoek Institute of Applied Sociological Research Postbus 9048 6500 KJ Nijmegen Tel. 080-780111</p>

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Brief introductory note:

Vocational training in Portugal has been provided at company level, in employers' and trade union association centres on behalf of the State by the Institute of Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP), at the level of various ministries, e.g. Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, Tourism, Health, Education, and in training departments set up on the initiative of the ESF.

In 1987, the IEFP, as the organizer of employment and vocational training activities, trained 18 994 trainees at courses in direct training centres and 16 647 at centres under shared management (an increase of 176% compared to 1986).

■ In 1987, 570 students were trained at the Institute's National Centre for the Training of Trainers, compared with only 169 in 1986. This increase was the result of cooperation with African countries whose official language is Portuguese.

The Institute's training budget for 1987 ran at ESC 10 billion 200 million, distributed as follows: ESC 4 billion 800 million for direct management centres and ESC 5 billion 400 million for shared management centres. Courses organized by the IEFP vary in length and include different sectors of activity, ranging from fishing to services.

■ The IEFP also cooperates in the Community Programme for the Exchange of Young Workers, which involves 12 Member States and was set up with the dual role of enabling young people to complete and improve vocational training and to make contact with young people in other countries. This programme is an example of the flow of people and funds in the framework of vocational training (the Community pays for board and lodging and 75% of travelling expenses).

There are currently 28 agricultural training centres with boarding facilities in Portugal. These centres, for which the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food is responsible, train technicians and farmers. In the course of 1987, 8 407 trainee farmers attended some 628 courses. In 1987, approximately ESC 411 876 000 were spent on the training of technicians and farmers throughout the country.

■ The Ministry of Industry and Energy, through the National Laboratory for Engineering and Industrial Technology (LNETI), provides scholarships for training in industrial enterprises — the Young Technicians for Industry Project. The project is funded from the LNETI budget, with

participating enterprises making a contribution. In addition, the ESF provides financial assistance amounting to 55% of the expenses, following deduction of the aid from the participating enterprises mentioned.

It is still not possible to give any precise information about the remaining ministries mentioned here or the Armed Forces and other organizations.

About 500 cases, representing more than 1 500 enterprise/university cooperation projects, were submitted under the Comett Programme with subsidies granted in 1987 amounting to ECU 5.8 million (= approximately ESC 940 million).

Joint contributions from the ESF and the State to be used for training in 1989 are estimated at ESC 102 billion from the ESF and 80 billion from Portugal.

No statistics have been published in Portugal on vocational training either in relation to the flow of people or the flow of funds.

Since it has not been possible to obtain overall figures, information on the flow of funds mainly constitutes estimates obtained from sectors which have invested in vocational training (the aforementioned governmental departments).

Bibliography:

Gonçalves J.A.B.: **O financiamento do sistema de aprendizagem:** papel do IEFP e das empresas e a problemática do financiamento. Lisbon, Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional, Comissão Nacional de Aprendizagem, 1987, 6 pp.

Apprenticeship. Financing training. Training systems. Technology. Portugal.

A document presented at the first National Apprenticeship Meeting held in Lisbon on 19 and 20 March 1987. The object of this document, in which the IEFP and ESF are referred to as

the financing bodies of the training system and the principles and methods currently used to steer this funding are indicated, is to provoke discussion in an attempt to find better principles and methods than those presently used.

Raposo, R.: **O financiamento da F.P. como condição de seu êxito** Lisbon, Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional, Comissão Nacional de Aprendizagem, 1987, 7 pp. *Apprenticeship. Alternating training. Practical training. Technical training. Transition from school to working life. Financial aid. Youth. Portugal.*

A document presented at the First National Apprenticeship Meeting

held in Lisbon on 19 and 20 March 1987. It deals with the problem of the relatively low rate of success of the plans in the apprenticeship programme and considers that financial aid for this purpose is justified. Reference is made to the Law on apprenticeship (Decree-Law No 102/84, 29th March) and to enterprises as special agents for training. In relation to Order No 13 of the MTSS of 1987, it also refers to aid to be granted to ap-

prenticeship schemes already initiated or to be initiated in 1987. A brief comment is made on the vocational training programme carried out in 1986 within the ESF, based on its experience in Partex (Companhia Portuguesa de Serviços), pointing out its positive aspects and highlighting the influence of the participation scheme adopted for training.

Fundo Social Europeu: **Portugal tem prioridade até 1990.** Semanário (Lisbon) 1987. pp. VII-VIII *Training courses. Training centres. Youth. FSE. Financing training. Portugal.*

This refers to the general lines of action of the ESF for the period 1988-90 and priorities to be considered before financing training activities. Reference is made to new regulations providing guidelines for candidates for financial aid from the Fund.

Coelho, J. P.: **Concentrar os apoios do FSE.**

Revista progresso social e democracia (Lisboa) IV (1) 1986, pp. 21-27 *FSE. Vocational training. Employment. Youth. Financing training.*

This article deals with the role of the ESF and gives guidance for the use of FSE funds available for vocational

training activities in Portugal in 1987. Reference is made to the role of the DAFSE (Department for European Social Fund Affairs) in Portugal and the various departments of the different ministries and regional and municipal departments in the implementation of vocational training programmes.

Trigo, M. M.: **O Fundo Social Europeu e as mudanças do futuro.**

Futuro (Lisboa) I (2) 1987, pp. 59-60. *ESF. Investments. Human resources. Training systems. Training courses. Training programmes. Portugal.*

This article, after briefly referring to

the stagnation in Portuguese industrial technology and giving reasons for this situation, concentrates on the need to invest in training human resources, a strategy which must be adapted to future developments and change. Reference is made to vocational training ac-

tivities carried out since Portugal became a member of the EEC, especially those in which the AIP-COPRAI is involved, pointing out the importance of the role of the ESF in financing such activities.

Trigo, M. M.: **A contribuição do Fundo Social Europeu no desenvolvimento industrial português.** AIP Informação (Lisbon) XIII (2) 1987, pp. 19-20.
Small and medium-sized enterprises. Training requirements. Youth. Management. Training trainers. Financial aid. FSE. Portugal.

A document submitted at the seminar 'Sectoral implications of Portuguese membership of the EEC', held in Lisbon from 16 to 18 December 1986. Reference is made to vocational training and its contribution to the development of technology and to the training activities of the SMEs, young people, entrepreneurs, managers, of-

fice staff and technicians and trainers, organized by AIP-COPRAI (Associação Industrial Portuguesa — Departamento de Produtividade, Desenvolvimento Tecnológico e Formação Profissional), financed by the ESF.

Organizations:

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 Tel: 726 25 36

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and Industrial Education

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The flows of funds and people in the vocational training systems

Funds for vocational education and training in the UK are provided by the central government departments and agencies (notably the Manpower Services Commission which is tax-funded but not a government department), local authorities, the European Community, employers, from both the public and private sectors and individuals. These funds are distributed either directly or via various intermediate bodies, such as the Industry Training Board, Non-statutory Training Organization, and the University Grants Committee, etc. Underlying trends and related issues which affect funding in the UK include:

- The move towards encouraging employers to take more responsibility for the funding of training, both to meet their own needs and
- the wider needs of their industry, as well as any nationally defined needs. Although UK firms apparently send less than other EEC countries, this trend is still resisted by some employers.
- An increasing emphasis on the voluntary, rather than the statutory approach to encouraging employers and individuals to take training more seriously (and pay for more of it themselves).
- The move towards raising the standards of competence resulting in the need to define standards and establish criteria by which to measure them.
- More carefully targeted and marketed support for training initiatives.
- Emphasis on improving the quality of public sector provision of
- education and training, particularly for adults, and making it more closely related to employees' needs (e.g. DES Pickup, local collaborative projects, where colleges and employers get together to assess the employers' training needs).
- The shifting of government department responsibilities to improve collaboration and shared objectives in the VET field (e.g. the Department of Trade and Industry's recent involvement in the development of industry/education links, the MSC's involvement in the funding of non-advanced further education).
- 'Pump-priming' becoming the norm for funding open-ended commitments.

<p>Bentley, T.: Your investment in training — getting the most from it. Training Officer 23(1), January 1987, pp. 6-9 ISSN 0041-090X</p>	<p><i>Cost of training. Investments. In-plant training. Managers. Trainers. United Kingdom.</i> Looks at why not much is invested in training by companies. Seeks ways of</p>	<p>appraising the investment and ensuring that both managers and trainers are aware of the benefits to the company of good training.</p>
<p>Dalglish, C.: Applying to the European Social Fund. Education 170 (16), Oct 1987, p. 321. <i>Cost of training. European Communities. ESF. Financial aid.</i> Over the past few years, many auth-</p>	<p>orities throughout the United Kingdom have successfully applied for large sums of European Social Fund finance to support training provision. The application process is not easy and chances of success can be greatly</p>	<p>increased by understanding the way the fund is operated. This article explains how to apply for grants and boost training opportunities.</p>
<p>Drake, K.: The cost effectiveness of vocational training: a survey of British studies. Economics of Education Review, 2 (2), 1982, pp. 103-124. <i>Cost-benefit analysis. Cost of train-</i></p>	<p><i>ing. Training effectiveness. Financing of training.</i> Surveys analysis of the cost effectiveness of training in the UK, written between 1965 and 1980.</p>	
<p>The funding of vocational education and training: a consultation document. Manpower Services Commission (MSC), Sheffield, 1987, 34 pages. <i>Educational financing. Cost of training. Financing of training. Recommendations.</i></p>	<p>The MSC is undertaking a study of the funding of vocational education and training (VET), arising from its concerns that existing funding arrangements may lead to outcomes which can be inefficient and inequitable. The overall objective of the funding study is to make recommen-</p>	<p>dations on ways in which the financing of VET could be improved to achieve a system which provides resources for the new training initiatives, meets labour requirements, is effective and efficient in the use of resources, and is responsive to changing needs.</p>
<p>Jackson, T.: The role of evaluation in training. Training and Development 6 (6), October 1987, p. 43. <i>Cost of training. Training evaluation.</i></p>	<p>Looks at the role of evaluation in training. Gives practical advice on setting up an evaluation system and describes methods for evaluating the training effort in cash terms.</p>	
<p>Jones, I. S.: Apprentice training costs in British manufacturing establishments. Some new evidence. British Journal of Industrial Relations, XXIV (3), November 1986, pp. 334-355.</p>	<p>ISSN 0007-1080 <i>Cost of education. Apprenticeship. Engineering. Technical education. Training research. Financing of training.</i> This paper presents the findings of a small sample enquiry into the net</p>	<p>costs to the firm of apprentice training in British manufacturing establishments in 1984.</p>
<p>McCreadie, J., Manson-Smith, D.: Paying for training 1987/88: a comprehensive guide to sources of finance for adult training (revised edition).</p>	<p>Department of Education and Science (DES Pickup), London: HMSO, 1987, 165 pp. <i>Adult training. Manuals. Financial aid.</i></p>	<p>The guide is intended as a principle reference point for people seeking essential details of the assistance available to finance or otherwise subsidize adult training.</p>

<p>Survey of training costs. Industrial Society (IS), London, 1985, 40 pp. <i>Cost of training. In-plant training. Training schemes. Training statistics. Surveys.</i></p>	<p>A small survey of over 100 companies, analysing training expenditure in relation to turnover, and different categories of employees.</p>	
<p>Tebbs, J.W., Jarvis, J.F.: The management of training and training support. Royal Air Force Education Bulletin No 24, Autumn 1986, pp. 78-87.</p>	<p><i>Cost of training. Training management. Military personnel.</i> 16% of the RAF's manpower is directly involved in training and 10% of its spending is attributable to direct</p>	<p>training costs. The management of this training is a responsibility of some magnitude. An outline of the management programme is provided.</p>
<p>Value for money in further education. Further Education Staff College (FESC), Coombe Lodge Report 18 (1), 1985, 55 pp. ISSN 0305-8441</p>	<p><i>Further education. Educational financing. Cost-effectiveness. Cost of training. Training effectiveness.</i> Report of a conference which looked at the cost-effectiveness of further education and training in the UK, including papers on local authority</p>	<p>allocation of resources to further education, the cost and cost-effectiveness within a college of further education and the management of training resources within an industrial company.</p>

Addresses of organizations offering funds

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Sheffield,
S1 4PQ

Teaching Company scheme:

Teaching Company Directorate
SERC
Polaris House
North Star Avenue
Swindon SN2 1ET
(0793) 26222 ext. 2123

Fellowship of Engineering:

Dr Fiona Steele
The Fellowship of Engineering
2 Little Smith Street
London SW1P 3DL
(01) 222 2688

Career development loans:

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Caxton House
Tothill Street
London SW1H 9NK
(01) 213 3471/3497

Pickup (funding):

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Room 7/18
Department of Education
and Science
York Road
London SE1 7PH
(01) 934 0613/9670/9671

Book reviews

The members of the CEDEFOP documentary information network were also invited to furnish bibliographical references on recent publications in their countries. A contribution from France follows.

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École de la deuxième chance, deuxième chance de l'école: former des professionnels pour le 21^e siècle

Vol. 1 — working party report: the future of vocational training for young people.

Paris: Commissariat général au Plan, 1987, 179 pp. (Commissariat général au Plan, 18, rue de Martignac, 75007 Paris — Tel: 45 56 51 00).

Training provisions. Technical education. Youth. Educational policy. Certificates. Forecasting.

France.

The Commissariat au Plan has published its report on the future of vocational training for young people. This report looks at the dysfunctions in technical and vocational education as well as forecasted data on school numbers and types of jobs.

A number of objectives are developed:

- to adapt primary school to individuals, making it more in tune with life;
- to ensure every chance of success

for young people in secondary education;

- to formalize the possibilities for training after school in the form of a 'training chequebook';

- to restore level V to its position as the first qualification rung;

- to create a single *baccalauréat*, with a common core and multiple options.

The implementation of these reforms, with increased participation by professional organizations and firms, is discussed by way of conclusion.

Jallade, Jean-Pierre; École de la deuxième chance, deuxième chance de l'école: former des professionnels pour le 21^e siècle

Vol. 2 — vocational training abroad: lessons for France.

France: Commissariat général au Plan, 1987, 137 pp.

Training provisions. In-plant training. Alternating training. Technical education. Forecasting. Youth. Comparative analysis. Federal Republic of Germany. United Kingdom. Sweden.

USA. Italy. Japan. Netherlands. France.

Vol. 2 of the Commissariat au Plan's study reports on vocational training experiences abroad for young people. The study focuses in particular on the vocational training streams approved by the French level V and VI certificates, whether such training is given at school, as alternance training or within the firms. The comparative study looks at seven countries: USA,

Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Federal Republic of Germany, United Kingdom and Sweden, and is structured around the following key areas:

- training structures;
- trainee numbers;
- guidance and selection;
- training content;
- vocational training and employment; and
- lessons for France from experience abroad.

Lange, Claudine; Gros, Michel: Les PME-PMI et le conseil en gestion des ressources humaines et formation: analyse qualitative — 2 vols.

Paris: Ministère des Affaires sociales et Ministère de l'industrie, 1987, mult. pag. (Ministère de l'industrie, 32, rue

Guersant, 75017 Paris — Tel: 45 72 83 98).

Management counselling. Small and medium-sized enterprises. Business management. Surveys. France.

Following on from a survey of 12 firms and some 15 agencies offering counselling and training, a theoretical and qualitative analysis permits the

identification of practices within SMEs undergoing modernization. Expectations of external counselling are discussed and proposals put forward to adapt the supply of training counselling.

The theoretical study is backed up by an annexed compilation of the 12 examples of firms.

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Young people in transition —

the local investment

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at a local level

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Essential data

The new CEDEFOP manual is concerned with the social and vocational integration of young people. The experience and opinions of competent practitioners and the examples provided by selected local projects and initiatives are a source of ideas and advice for organizational planning for all those

- who are searching for new forms of general and vocational training provision;
- who wish to adapt this provision to local and individual needs.

Write to us if you would like to receive this study.

Young people in transition — the local investment

A handbook concerning the social and vocational integration of young people:
local and regional initiatives
Jeremy Harrison and Henry McLeish

1987, 182 pp.
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