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VOCATIONAL TRAINING

E U R O P E A N J O U R N A L



The new Member States: Austria, Finland and Sweden





CEDEFOP
European Centre
for the Development
of Vocational Training

Jean Monnet House
Bundesallee 22
D-10717 Berlin
Tel.: 4930+88 41 20
Telex: 184 163 eucen d
Fax: 4930+88 41 22 22

As of 1.9.1995 the seat of
CEDEFOP will be
Thessaloniki (GR)

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- trends in training systems

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Published under the responsibility of:

Johan van Rens, Director

Stavros Stavrou, Deputy Director

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Bernd Möhlmann, Barbara de Souza

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Call for contributions

The Editorial Committee wishes to encourage the spontaneous contribution of articles. Articles submitted will be examined by the Editorial Committee which reserves the right to decide on

publication. It will inform the authors of its decision. Articles (5 to 10 pages, 30 lines per page, 60 characters per line) should be addressed to the editor of the Journal. Manuscripts will not be returned.



Editorial

This volume celebrates the accession to the European Union of three new Member States. Of the Nordic countries, Denmark is a long-standing member, Finland and Sweden have now joined, Norway and Iceland remain outside the Union. Austria has joined but Switzerland remains outside the Union. The statistical section speaks of the material status of the new members - their demographic, employment and educational profiles. The absence of comparative data on training - as opposed to publicly-financed primary, secondary and tertiary education - is revealing. There are national training data for all three new entrants. But the FORCE programme's *Tableau de Bord on Continuing Vocational Training*¹ demonstrated the non-comparability of much of the existing training data in Member States. Where reliably comparable data do not yet exist, attempts to manufacture it are more likely to mislead than to inform. The warmth of the welcome derives from the commitment of Austria, Finland and Sweden to the values of democracy and social solidarity, and the expression of these values in their systems of vocational education and training.

Finland and Sweden share many characteristics with the other Nordic countries. Lundborg reflects on forty years experience of their integrated, five country labour market. This experience suggests that sustained income narrowing across EU Member States will reduce migratory flows - as it did in the eighties between Finland and Sweden. Lundborg also argues that migrations responding to increased labour demand in some better off Member States may require policy changes to ensure that unemployment compensation does not prevent job search. He develops in a fresh direction a concern with the operations of Nordic labour markets which was addressed in an earlier volume (2/94) by Eliasson (inefficient labour market matching can render ineffective the best education and training systems) and by Skedinger (the benefits of Sweden's active labour market policies have probably been exaggerated).

The characteristics and values of political systems influence not only economic performance but also the structure and performance of training systems. At 58 per cent in 1992, Austria's female labour force participation rate is nearly identical to that of West Germany. By contrast, Finland at 71 per cent

and Sweden at 79 per cent march with Denmark (79 per cent in 1991) and Norway (71 per cent) in using training (and public sector employment) to target particular groups. In this case, the enhancement of flexible facilities enables more women to combine family and job. Long periods of political stability in several Nordic countries facilitated an alliance of the social partners and central government to make unusually extensive provision for the remote rural inhabitant as well as the city dweller, for women as well as for men, for the older at-risk worker as well as for the young entrant to the workforce. Austria, like Sweden, has a highly corporatist approach to the setting and implementation of training policy. But Austrian corporatism is of a different variety, combining a strong social democratic flavour with adherence to a social market model of economic management.

Riemer reveals that for Austria accession coincides with an impetus towards realistic and self-critical analysis, openness to new solutions and a vision of integration which goes beyond economic issues to the development of a 'Europe of citizens'. Like Germany and Switzerland, Austria's training system is based on the apprenticeship model: 41 per cent of its young people graduate each year from its dual system. But one of its most pressing concerns is not initial vocational training but the sheer size of the continuing training effort which it faces. Echoing an earlier plea (in 2/94) by Eliasson for institutional reform to stimulate and facilitate increased self-investment by individuals, Riemer favours improved incentives for investment in continuing training both by individuals and by companies.

Finland and Sweden share the Nordic propensity for a very high level of unionization and priority accorded to training in centralized collective bargaining. Of course, economic circumstances differ across Nordic countries. Norway's oil sheltered its economy from the effects of international competition in a way not experienced by Finland. Institutional solutions also vary. Whereas the role of apprenticeship is generally marginal in Nordic countries, Denmark is an exception. It successfully countered the decline of traditional apprenticeship in the seventies by developing the EFG (basic vocational training) and integrating it with the apprenticeship route. By con-

¹ European Commission FORCE (1994), *'Tableau de bord' on continuing vocational training*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities



trast, Finland is experimenting with a bureaucratic devolution of control to municipalities and increased reliance on new multi-sectoral polytechnics, i.e. a redevelopment of the vocational school model (see Kämäräinen).

Nordic authors naturally use other Nordic States as benchmarks. Belonging to a distinctive cultural group is part of being Finland and Sweden. Culture is as important as structure. The founders of the EU knew this. So did the great Danish philosopher, Grundtvig, when he said 'first, I feel; then, I think'. The cultural ties which bind Finland and Sweden to their Nordic neighbours outside the union need not loosen as a result of joining an outward-facing Union, some of whose older members - for instance, France, Spain or the United Kingdom - retain equally strong cultural links to countries outside the Union.

For all three countries, joining the EU is part of their response to intense global pressure to improve competitiveness. By the start of this decade, Sweden, for example, had more or less accepted that simultaneous educational and labour market reform was overdue (see Ottersten). The Swedish model had delivered not only extraordinarily low unemployment, but also a wage premium on learning which was very small by international standards, a swollen non-trading sector, massive wage drift at plant level and growing uncompetitiveness of domestic manufacturing. The on-going reform of this system has to increase labour market flexibility and competitiveness, including greater incentives for individuals and for employers to invest in the competences which Sweden's economy needs. As Ottersten makes clear, this unfinished business will be addressed within a European Union which is by no means free of the very institutional barriers and labour market practices which cause concern in Sweden.

In Finland, one expression of the drive for competitiveness is the attempt to revitalize the apprenticeship route to competence, for adults as well as for young people, with enlarged occupational coverage and competence-based examinations which are independent of the ways in which skills are acquired (see Vartiainen). However, since this accounts for little more than 5 per cent of all vocational education and training, the success of decentralization of budgets to the increasingly market-based vocational schools is much more critical if the respon-

siveness of training to business and industry is to be improved (see Kyrö). Kämäräinen argues that repeated attempts by Nordic countries to bridge the gap between academic and vocational tracks and improve the linkage between school-based provision of vocational education and training and working life have not yet been very successful - partially excepting Denmark.

Both Finland and Sweden are looking afresh at the information and incentive functions of labour markets. Their highly centralized corporatist structuring of training proved to be too insensitive to skill scarcities and to emerging industrial needs. Now they are searching for a new relationship between the visible hand of government and the invisible hand of the market. Systemic failure has provoked system reform (see Ottersten, Kyrö, Kämäräinen and Goetschy).

For forty years, the Nordic countries developed along broadly similar lines, with large public sectors and a strong role for the State in collaboration with the social partners. Training, as a key ingredient of an active labour market policy, was supposed to ensure one of the most critical outcomes, binding everyone together, i.e. full employment. When the pact between unions, employers and government broke down, notably in Sweden, the way was open for a re-orientation of training towards the goal of greater competitiveness, as it were away from redistribution and towards production. But this is not truly an either/or choice. The situation of Austria, Finland and Sweden is no different from that of the other Member States: 'for the level of employment in the Community to improve, firms must achieve global competitiveness on open and competitive markets, both inside and outside Europe'.²

Goetschy shows that integration with the European Union is a challenge which, for Finland and Sweden, is additional to grappling with the on-going crisis of their model of the Welfare State. The internationalization of their economies and crisis in the public finances challenge their institutions but not their democratic and social values. The re-orientation and reconfiguration of their training systems can only be understood as part of the much more wide-ranging process of re-evaluation and reform in the new Member States.

Keith Drake

² *Growth, Competitiveness, Employment* (1993), Brussels: European Commission, p. 57.



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The difficult metamorphosis of the social “models” of the Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway, Finland, Iceland)

With Sweden and Finland now members of the European Union and the treaty on the European Economic Area in effect since 1 January 1994, it seems an opportune moment to undertake a comparative evaluation of the social “models” of the Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway, Finland, Iceland). Although dearest to the hearts of the social democratic governments which established them, these models have survived coalitions in which governments teamed up with parties further right on the political spectrum. Of all the conditions which favoured their establishment, it seems that political and institutional factors outweighed economic factors. Nevertheless, analysis shows the purviews and objectives of the Nordic countries’ social - and particularly industrial relations - systems to be eminently economic in nature. The institutions of the social system in fact created new and original manifestations of synergy between the economic and the social, mainly because they succeeded in reconciling the interests of society as a whole with those of subgroups thereof within the framework of a “negotiated economy”. At the same time these institutions served as a counterweight to the negative social repercussions of the market economy.

During the 1980s, however, the Nordic countries’ social systems found themselves mercilessly being put to the test, challenged mainly by the fact that their economies were increasingly becoming part of the international economy, by an upsurge of liberalism, by changes taking place within the social democratic movement, by more pronounced diversification within the trade union movements and by the increase in unemployment. More recently, the prospect of European integration has loomed as an additional challenge.

Given this new situation, one must try to answer the following two questions. What are the essential characteristics of the Nordic social systems and the internal dynamics which have earned them the title “social models of northern Europe”? And what are the changes which, over the past 15 years, have supposedly precipitated these social systems into a crisis.¹

I. Origins and characteristics of the Nordic models

1. Historically, the Nordic models with their national variants and corresponding industrial relations systems were essentially based on a concept of *class compromise* between employers and trade unions which was institutionalized in basic agreements signed in **Sweden, Norway** and **Iceland** in the 1930s and in **Finland** after World War II. The compromises reached were usually negotiated in critical situations and put an end to embittered industrial conflicts involving strikes and lock-outs. They institutionalized for good a recognition that employers could exercise their prerogatives and, in consideration thereof, that trade unions could exercise certain rights and engage in collective bargaining.

2. These historical class compromises between capital and labour were made possible and sustainable by *favourable political conditions*, namely the existence in the Nordic countries of political coalitions in which, for a lengthy period from the 1930s on, the *social democrats* occupied a strong position. In both **Sweden** and **Norway**, the social democrats had a hegemonic hold on political power. The political situation was somewhat differ-



Janine Goetschy

Research
Coordinator at the
Centre National de
la Recherche
Scientifique (CNRS)

Labour and Mobility Division
University of Nanterre
France

The social systems of the Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway, Finland, Iceland), or more specifically the institutions of the welfare state and industrial relations in those countries, have entered a period of change and a crucial phase in their history. This article takes a comparative look at the essential characteristics of these countries’ social models and the new challenges which these have had to face over the past 15 years or so. In a strategy designed to guarantee full employment while at the same time modernize the economy, key importance has traditionally been attached to active employment policies (particularly the training element thereof) and macroeconomic policies (expansion of the public sector and successive devaluations). The European Union is to some extent questioning the continued validity of these traditional economic mechanisms, and the welfare state is now proving difficult to manage. But in the author’s opinion the Nordic models are under pressure first and foremost from a financial crisis in their welfare systems and only to a much lesser extent from a crisis of values or institutions (cf. social partners who are representative, powerful and disciplined facing governments which are concerned to secure national compromises), values and institutions which remain, both now and in the future, essential assets in the process of integration into the European Union.



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“One must add (...) that political interests were (also) traditionally divided (...) between rural regions, coastal fishing regions and remote, isolated regions and the built-up, urban regions. This dichotomy of interests setting apart the urban from the rural is again re-emerging quite forcefully in the current debate on the internationalization and Europeanization of the Nordic countries’ economies.”

1) This article is based mainly on the conclusions of a more extensive comparative study on the Nordic countries which was funded by the Commission of the European Communities. *Les modèles nordiques à l'épreuve de l'Europe*, La Documentation Française, Paris 1994, 147 p.

ent in **Finland** and **Iceland** where divisions within the political left caused the social democratic presence to be less massive but for all that no less persistent.

One must add, however, that political interests were traditionally divided not only between the political left and the political right but also between rural regions, coastal fishing regions and remote, isolated regions and the built-up, urban regions. This dichotomy of interests setting apart the urban from the rural is again re-emerging quite forcefully in the current debate on the internationalization and Europeanization of the Nordic countries’ economies.

The advent of a *sustainable social democratic hegemony* in the first half of this century was itself the outcome of an overlapping of four concurrent political factors. First, the *traditional absence of a strong and united political right as an alternative* from which the current of capitalism could have drawn support. In **Norway**, if one disregards the shipowners there was not even a national capitalist class to speak of, the economy having been dominated since the beginning of the century by foreign investment, notably in the primary sector. In **Sweden**, although the industrialization era saw an impressive number of Swedish employers taking the helm of industries exporting manufactures, these opted for setting up a powerful, centralized and autonomous confederation of industry rather than for direct political contacts. The situation in **Finland** was different again: until World War II, management in Finland had been intimately linked with the parties of the political right - in an economy dominated until 1950 by the forestry industry, it had been the employers in the wood pulp sector whose voice was strongest and who, in the 1930s, teamed up with governments of the political right to repress the trade unions.

Second, in order to strengthen their positions into and through the 20th century, the social democratic movement in all these four Nordic countries had sought and secured valuable *alliances* with the so-called agrarian parties representing the interests of the farming and fishing communities and forestry workers.

Third, the existence of a *trade union movement* which was *united* from its early days and enjoyed *close relations* with the social democratic party was a major contributory factor in establishing the powerbase of the social democratic movement, at least in **Sweden** and **Norway**. In **Finland** and **Iceland**, however, relations between the trade unions and the social democratic movement had suffered from a history of political schisms in their respective trade union confederations. But from the 1970s on, both countries saw a reunification of their trade union movements and stronger cooperation with political forces, evidence thus of stronger *convergence* bringing these countries into closer alignment in this respect with Norway and Sweden.

Fourth, the essential strength of the social democratic movement in the Nordic countries resided in its advocacy of and capacity for *reform* which gave genuine substance to the Scandinavian model in its national variants. *In exchange for acquiescing to technological development, the rationalization of industry, mobility on the labour market and wage moderation* with a view to contributing towards active economic growth and price stability, *the reformist programme of the social democratic movement*, the fruit of a social compromise between trade unions, employers and the state, *was proposing full employment, income solidarity and the benefits of a welfare state*.

3. Apart from these political considerations, the origins of the Nordic models and the social contract underlying them can also be traced back to the existence, since the beginning of the 20th century, of *centralized and powerful organizations of management and labour*. The first *trade union* confederation appeared in Sweden in 1898 (LO), in Norway in 1899 (LO), in Finland in 1907 (SAK) and in Iceland in 1916 (FTI). The menace of strong trade union movements induced *employers* to organize themselves at an early stage and on a centralized basis similar to that of the blue-collar unions set up in Sweden (SAF established in 1902), Norway (NAF established in 1900), Finland (STK established in 1907) and Iceland (FEI established in 1934). In Finland though, employers organizations did not become truly centralized until the 1950s.



□ The trade union and employers confederations' option for centralization allowed them to exercise a relatively high level of *internal discipline* over their members. This was an organizational condition necessary for the smooth functioning of the famous Nordic model which they wanted to see develop. A centralized organization did not, however, in any way signify an absence of internal democracy. On the contrary, one of the characteristic features often forgotten in analyses of the Nordic trade union movements has been their relative success in associating structural centralization with decentralization in internal decision-making. The *internal democracy* within the trade union structures is exercised differently from one country to another. If one were to classify the trade union movements by their degree of centralization, for example by examining the procedures for obtaining internal endorsement of collective bargaining activities, **Sweden** would hold the leading position followed by **Norway, Finland** and **Iceland**. Some authors have maintained that the more democratic internal functioning of the trade unions in Norway, Finland and Iceland which has allowed a multitude of viewpoints to be expressed also explains the more frequent need in these countries for the state to intervene in collective bargaining activities to arrive at compromise on central issues and reconcile divergent interests by means of mediation or indeed obligatory arbitration.

In a general way, trade union centralization has remained very pronounced, as is evidenced by the renegotiation of the so-called basic agreements which lay down the rules of the social game on a large number of issues, and also by the power exerted both on government in the field of economic policy and legislation and within public or semi-public bodies with a tripartite or bipartite composition.

□ The Nordic trade union confederations are powerful by virtue of their very high and constantly increasing membership rates. Their *high levels of unionization* are unique worldwide: currently over 85% in Iceland, 85% in Finland, 81% in Sweden, and 57% in Norway. In contrast to elsewhere in Europe, there has been no real crisis in Scandinavian trade union membership over the past 15 years. The most important factors explaining the high rate

of unionization are: high membership rates among the female workforce, the fact that at a time when industry is undergoing a relative decline to the benefit of the services sector, the latter has become massively unionized, and finally the quality of the results obtained by trade union action at both corporate and societal level.

4. With centrally organized industrial relations on the one hand and a social democratic political programme calling for dynamic, interactive regulation mechanisms between macroeconomic policies and social policies on the other, *collective bargaining* in the Nordic system has been framed with *more centralized structures* than elsewhere. If success was to be achieved in sustaining overall economic equilibrium and in policies of wage solidarity, negotiation had to be centralized.

What were the specifically Nordic objectives of the *policy of wage solidarity*? Four types of reason motivated this policy: a) first, to develop a wage structure based not on the economic performance of individual sectors or companies but on the *nature and demands of the work performed* with a view to narrowing wage differentials between high-profit and low-profit industries, between highly profitable and less profitable companies, between skilled and unskilled jobs (this latter objective was added somewhat later in connection with policies to support low-wage groups); b) by calling for the fixing of mean standards, the policy of solidarity was to be a factor of *wage moderation* helping to "contain" wage demands in the dynamic, profitable, export-oriented sectors which were exposed to the vicissitudes of international competition, sectors which in some cases accounted for an important part of the national economy; c) the mean standard fixed at inter-industry level was to contribute towards *eliminating inefficient companies* which were unable to withstand the associated financial burden and thereby to encourage companies to rationalize production and management at an early point in time; d) the policy was also to facilitate *workforce mobility*: with a wage system allowing for only slight wage differentials between industries and companies, the advantages lost by a change of job would be minimal; it should be noted that geographical and sectoral mo-

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bility was regarded as one of the cornerstones of full employment.

It would be inappropriate, however, to portray collective bargaining in the Nordic countries in unduly simplistic terms. Collective bargaining in fact takes place at four levels: company level, industry level, inter-industry level by sector (for example private sector, public sector), and inter-industry level nationwide. The specificity of the Nordic models resides in a desire to check, to restrain any wage negotiation which might take place at lower levels by providing for centralized, inter-industry negotiation which firmly establishes an overall framework for wage increases.

Although this centralized system of collective bargaining functioned relatively well in the 1960s and 1970s, the subsequent two decades brought numerous system modifications in response to a range of different pressures for decentralization.

5. Paradoxically, industrial relations in the Nordic countries are characterized simultaneously by *extensive social partner autonomy and very strong state intervention*.

Conventionally, social partners arrange for autonomy specifically to avoid state interference. However, state interference in the system of wage negotiation has proved to be relatively pronounced in the four Nordic countries, its aim generally being to make wage austerity policies acceptable within the framework of a broader political trade-off over which the state alone has control (in exchange for social transfers, a modified fiscal policy, a better housing policy, a guarantee of controlled prices, policies to promote employment, etc.). The political and economic foundation of these austerity policies was the twofold concern to safeguard both full employment and the competitiveness of the national economy.

It follows that state intervention has been more frequent in the countries with less unitarian trade union movements, for example **Norway**, where the white-collar trade unions are more fragmented and unionization rates lower, or indeed **Finland**, where the trade union movement is more divided along political lines. In Norway, moreover, another factor explaining

the traditionally more interventionist role of the state in economic, industrial and social affairs was the scale and importance of foreign investment during the industrialization era, particularly in the export sectors (shipping, forestry, semi-manufactures, chemicals). It is Norway and Finland that have most often and repeatedly adopted genuinely proactive income policies. In **Sweden**, where the social partners' autonomy in regulating economic affairs has proved to be greater, government interference was strongest in the 1980s when the interests of the workforce fragmented and efforts were made to counteract increasing pressure from employers to decentralize the negotiation process. Swedish employers believed that the legalistic wave of the 1970s, a result of the exorbitant power exercised by the trade unions over the social democratic government, would bring about the downfall of the convention of social partner autonomy and justified a change of strategy on its part.

6. What was the role played by *economic factors* in the establishment of the Nordic models? One must note that the economic conditions of the time and the pace of industrial development differed very much from country to country. Whereas **Sweden** had an open economy very early on, an economy aiming for export business which, in order to remain competitive, had a vision of a model based on wage moderation, workforce mobility and acceptance of technological progress, the context was different in the other three Nordic countries. In **Norway, Finland and Iceland** it was predominantly the protected sectors of the economy which paved the way for arriving at national compromises.

7. A glance at the history of the establishment and functioning of the industrial relations system of each of the four Nordic countries up to the 1970s would suggest that Sweden and Norway can be seen as similar but that Finland and Iceland are somewhat different cases. But over the years the four systems have shown an increasing degree of *convergence*.

Finland is a specific case because it was late to industrialize, its class struggle persisted into the post-war period, its political situation was more complex, its social democratic party was disunited, its



employers were tardy in becoming organized and it lagged behind in establishing collective bargaining practices. It was essentially the factors associated with the class struggle and the political situation which explain why Finland was a specific case. Nonetheless, since the post-war period Finland's system has progressively *moved closer into line* with the Swedish and Norwegian systems because of a change in employer attitudes in favour of a centralized negotiation system, the reunification of the trade union movement since 1969 and a relaxation of tensions within the political left.

Turning to **Iceland**, its system of industrial relations likewise initially reflected a weak social democratic movement and a less developed welfare state but the main factor of influence here was the existence of rather informal industrial relations owing to the small size of Finnish companies. But Iceland, too, has *moved closer into line* with the other Nordic countries; the finishing line in this alignment process was reached in 1989 and 1990 with the signing of the famous national social agreements which, for the first time, succeeded in stabilizing an economy which is inherently unstable because of the unstable nature of the fishing industry.

The increasing convergence evident in the industrial relations systems of the Nordic countries undoubtedly owes much to these countries' relatively homogeneous institutional, cultural, and political situations and labour market characteristics, to the close cooperation between governments and political and social protagonists, but also to the mimicry effects associated with the experience of Nordic cooperation which has been institutionalized within the framework of the Nordic Council since 1952.

II. Crisis-stricken models?

1. The impact of internationalizing economies

Compared with the other OECD states, the characteristics common to the economies of the Nordic states were found to be the following. First, a strong *contrast* between the situation of the competitive exporting sectors which are exposed to international

competition on the one hand and a sizeable public sector and *protected* sectors on the other (agriculture, housing, transportation, private services and certain industries), the latter traditionally enjoying social advantages and much-publicized salaries. The Nordic countries can in fact be characterized as having open, export-oriented economies in which raw materials (oil, gas in Norway), the forestry sector (Finland) and fishing (Iceland) continue to play a crucial role; Sweden is a contrast in this respect because of the greater importance of its manufacturing industry for finished goods. In Finland, the expiry in 1990 of the clearing agreements with the former USSR dealt a severe blow to its traditional export industries, metalworking and textiles. Norway, Finland and Iceland are thus particularly *vulnerable to changes in commodity prices or the vicissitudes of the fishing sector*. Moreover, since the mid-1960s the public sector has continued to expand, especially in Sweden and Norway but also, at a slower pace, in Finland and Iceland.

At the end of the 1980s and beginning of the 1990s, each of the four Nordic countries underwent a *period of severe recession*. The most alarming factor in this new phase in the internationalization of the Nordic economies is the unprecedented increase in their *unemployment rates*: 19.9% in Finland, 10.4% in Sweden, 5.6% in Norway (1994, statistics of the Nordic Council). In Iceland the unemployment rate is only 3.1% but the trend is an upward one and it should be borne in mind that employment drops very severely there in winter in two key sectors, the fishing and construction industries. Because of their climatic conditions, the size of their territories and their geographical isolation, the Nordic countries are troubled by very wide *regional disparities* in unemployment, with record rates being reached in the peripheral regions.

The response to this situation was the adoption of unprecedented austerity programmes which centred on income policies and were based on spectacular national compromises. These compromises drew with renewed strength on the spirit of national solidarity already activated in the past. At the same time, a range of emergency measures were adopted by governments to promote employment, in

"A glance at the history of the establishment and functioning of the industrial relations system of each of the four Nordic countries up to the 1970s would suggest that Sweden and Norway can be seen as similar but that Finland and Iceland are somewhat different cases. But over the years the four systems have shown an increasing degree of convergence."

"This convergence (...) undoubtedly owes much to these countries' relatively homogeneous institutional, cultural, and political situations and labour market characteristics, to the close cooperation between governments and political and social protagonists, but also to the mimicry effects associated with the experience of Nordic cooperation (...) institutionalized within the framework of the Nordic Council since 1952."

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“In all four Nordic states the cost of the welfare state has been under close surveillance (...) (since the early 1990s) and numerous measures have been introduced” (to reduce its cost).

“The once dominant position held by the social democrats in the political systems of Sweden and Norway in particular but also to a lesser extent in Finland and Iceland was severely eroded during the 1980s and 1990s.”

“During the 1980s and 1990s, collective negotiation was characterized by increasing state intervention.”

particular among the long-term unemployed and young people.

To some extent during the 1980s but mainly at the beginning of the 1990s the four Nordic countries introduced policies to *liberalize their markets and financial institutions* and, with the exception of Iceland, all *aligned their national currencies with the Ecu*. Their financial autonomy was thereby diminished and the practice of successive devaluations, the safety valves to which governments of the Nordic countries had traditionally had recourse, became a thing of the past. Nevertheless, the financial crises which broke at the end of 1992 caused three of the Nordic countries, Norway, Finland and Sweden, to devalue or float their currencies. In a general way, their governments, certainly the conservative governments but also social democratic governments, have adopted *economic policies with a clearly more liberal profile* over the past ten years with a view to reactivating the market forces and speeding up their national economies' integration into the global - and particularly the European - economy.

In all four Nordic states the cost of the *welfare state* has been under close surveillance over the same period and numerous measures have been introduced to “denationalize” some of the social services, to raise the competitiveness of the public sector (at central and municipal level), to cut back the number of civil servants and to scale down the level of social benefits and advantages (for example: reduction in sickness benefits, in the number of days of paid leave, in unemployment benefits, raising of retirement age, etc.). Reforms operating in the same direction were applied to the employment services agencies of both Sweden and Finland. Major budget cutbacks have been in operation since the beginning of the 1990s, particularly in the latter two countries.

In addition to the loss of monetary autonomy and the need to be more competitive, the internationalization of the Nordic economies has raised a third problem: increasingly wider-ranging international investments by major Swedish - but also Norwegian and Finnish - corporations are proving to be a threat to the cohesion of national production systems as these investments operate to their detriment. To

take the case of Sweden, for example: Swedish corporations produce more abroad than the same corporations export abroad.

2. The end of social democratic hegemony, political alternance and variable-geometry political coalitions

The once dominant position held by the social democrats in the political systems of Sweden and Norway in particular but also to a lesser extent in Finland and Iceland was severely eroded during the 1980s and 1990s. Parties of the political right and centre surfaced in all these countries and a succession of coalition governments of variable-geometry ensued. At present, Norway and Sweden have minority social democratic governments which took office at the end of 1990 and 1994 respectively. Since 1991, Iceland has been governed by a coalition of social democrats and the political right, and Finland by a centre-right coalition. The social democratic parties have themselves changed under the pressure of currents of liberal thought within their ranks. To this can be added the fact that new political tendencies have emerged (particularly the greens) to dilute the traditional left-right dichotomy: the political landscape is today more varied and more fragmented.

3. The survival chances of centralized negotiation?

During the 1980s and 1990s, collective negotiation was characterized by *increasing state intervention*. State intervention commenced even prior to the collective bargaining process in Finland and Norway. But the end of social partner autonomy and the increase in state intervention was felt particularly acutely in Sweden.

What *reasons common to all these countries* brought about this expansion of government intervention in wage affairs? Stronger competition between white-collar, public-sector and blue-collar trade unions, uneasy tension between industries exposed to fierce economic competition and those less exposed to such competition led to a proliferation of wage increases, fragmentation of the centralized system of wage negotiation, wage differ-



entiation and an increase in conflict potential. By urging for more decentralization, employers largely encouraged this fragmentation. Given the constraints of increasing internationalization and seeking to transfer more wage resources into profit-making and to maintain economic equilibrium, governments undertook to put a stop to the dismembering of centralized negotiation by introducing various forms of income policies, notably policies of “negotiated income”, and of frequent intervention by mediators or arbitrators.

Caught in the grip of centralizing forces on the one hand and decentralizing forces on the other, *what is to become of the centralized negotiation so typical of the four Nordic countries?* Social agreements on emergency action and national protection (such as those introduced at the end of the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s) to face up to the increasingly acute economic crisis only work if they remain exceptional measures, and past experience illustrates well that one cannot invoke the seriousness of a crisis time and again. At the same time, to the extent that the state becomes ever less capable of offering social counterparts to austerity, that employers no longer concede the advantages of centralized negotiation (mainly because of the impossibility of avoiding increasing wage differentials and their desire for more diversity and flexibility in wage policies), that the interests of the workforce are becoming increasingly fragmented - all these considerations seem to suggest that the survival of national compromises under the guidance of the state is in jeopardy. The governments have been aware of these difficulties and in Finland and Sweden one can detect a desire on their part *increasingly to dissociate the field of industrial relations and, by extension, collective bargaining, from the management of the welfare state.* In Sweden, where the risk of the Nordic model breaking down is most acute, the social democrats continue to defend a centralized system of negotiation but one which would give greater leeway to market forces and would lessen the impact of some of the shortcomings of wage solidarity.

The remodelling of the negotiation system aims to strike a new balance between the degree of coordination desirable be-

tween industry-wide agreements on the one hand and the correspondence between industry-wide agreements and company agreements for each of the sectors concerned on the other (how much tolerance in the field of wage differentials?). Within this scheme, a key strategic role will be played by trends and tendencies towards *cartelization* (whereby numerous federations of different trade unions merge to form negotiation cartels to conduct the wage bargaining for a given sector, the public sector for example), trends and tendencies which sometimes signify the joining of forces of numerous protagonists and thus centralization but can equally signify the fragmentation of negotiation because of a proliferation of the number of cartels.

Collective bargaining in the Nordic countries is today facing the following dilemma. On the one hand, the respective importance of the various levels of negotiation will depend more and more on the way in which the protagonists of management and labour reorganize themselves and form the new negotiation units (cartels) which they consider most appropriate and in their best interests. On the other hand, these readjustments which are intended specifically to correct some of the anomalies of the Nordic model (breakdown of the wage hierarchy with inadequate reward for skills, remuneration levels for skilled work which are relatively low in comparison to those for unskilled work, etc.), and which herald more decentralization, will have to be implemented in a way which does not endanger overall economic equilibrium.

4. Trade unions and employer organizations: changing structures, programmes and strategies

The 1980s and 1990s have been times of *internal restructuring*, as much for the trade unions as for employer organizations. On the **trade union side**, this restructuring was a must because of the need to modify the collective negotiation system and of the increasing tension between the traditional blue-collar confederations and the white-collar confederations. It should be recalled that trade union topography is relatively smooth and largely similar in all the Nordic countries. Generally, there are three types of pro-

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“Employer associations with a more social calling and those with a stronger emphasis on economic competence (have) joined forces (…) in some sectors. The aim of these mergers is to make operations to defend their members’ interests more efficient and less costly and to mount a joint defensive front which is to be particularly prominent at European level.”

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tagonist: a confederation with blue-collar origins, a confederation of white-collar and middle-management engineering staff, and a confederation of higher qualified employees with an academic or equivalent higher education background. As a general rule, each of these confederations caters for both the public sector and the private sector.

Because of their membership growth over the past 20 years, the white-collar confederations (catering for middle and senior management) have increasingly contested the former predominance of the traditional blue-collar confederations and thereby diminished the importance of the latter. Moreover, within the blue-collar confederations the role of the public sector has become influential or even predominant, a development which has occasioned numerous internal schisms. It was the Norwegian LO, a blue-collar confederation, which advanced the furthest-reaching restructuring proposals in preparation for its 1993 congress. The proposals concerned making a choice between the levels to which the reformed structure should give prominence: the industry, the occupation or the sector (public/private). But the year 1988 had already seen the merger of five private-sector industrial federations with a view to counterbalancing the weight of the public-sector and services federations. Merger proposals were also suggested on the occasion of the Swedish LO congress in 1991.

Despite these tensions, the LO (blue-collar) and TCO in Sweden have set an example for the other Nordic countries by intensifying dialogue and forging alliances within the framework of a “conflictual cooperation” venture.

On the **management side**, *internal restructuring measures* were also introduced in the 1980s and 1990s, primarily in the private sector. Employer associations with a more social calling and those with a stronger emphasis on economic competence joined forces at national level in **Finland** and **Sweden** and in some sectors at sectoral level in **Norway**. The aim of these mergers is to make operations to defend their members’ interests more efficient and less costly and to mount a joint defensive front which is to be particularly prominent at European level. Following

the lead given by the trade unions, numerous small employer federations are also currently seeking opportunities to merge. The large federations such as those representing the metalworking industries are also redefining their internal role allocations in order to respond effectively to the progressive decentralization of collective bargaining: for their memberships the federations will increasingly function as consultants rather than as direct negotiators.

In all four countries, the *strained relations between management and labour* in the 1980s and early 1990s originated mainly in the *well-publicized turnarounds in employer strategies which called for more decentralized negotiation, more flexible industrial relations, in particular concerning wages, salaries and work organization, and less rigid social legislation and which partially questioned the merits of the welfare state*. **Sweden** witnessed the most spectacular and also most political employer offensive for more liberalism. Launched more than ten years previously, this offensive reached its apogee with the withdrawal of the SAF from the tripartite consultation mechanisms in 1992.

Some characteristic features of the conflicts waged in the four Nordic countries over the past decade: the generalization of centralized negotiation to apply to all trade union confederations resulted in comparisons being made between the negotiating groups and cartels which in turn resulted in a proliferation of individual conflicts; the strike propensity and militarism of public-sector employees, in particular female employees, increased; the motives for strikes have mainly been wage and salary issues; there have been an increasing number of brief disputes at company level, mainly as a result of re-organization schemes.

The *programmes* adopted by the trade unions in the Nordic countries in the 1980s showed no particular innovation or originality over what had existed in the 1970s. It should be recalled that it was trade union proposals which, in the 1970s, had paved the way for spectacular advances in social legislation, mainly in the following four fields: industrial safety and working conditions, job protection, industrial



democracy, and equality of opportunity and non-discrimination between the sexes. During the following decade the advances made in legislation (or in the basic agreements) were much more reticent.

Compared with other trade union movements, the most striking feature of the Nordic trade unions' programmes today is the increasing importance attached to societal issues such as environmental policy, consumer protection or indeed concrete proposals for reforming the welfare state. The international dimension has also become more important: following the fears expressed with regard to the consequences of European integration came an affirmation in favour of the respective trade union movements becoming increasingly European and international. Nordic cooperation at confederation level has seen increasing interest in the issue of workforce information and consultation, an interest which has led to the establishment of the so-called *Scandinavian group committees*.

Another aspect worthy of highlighting is the Nordic trade unions' constant concern to support economic policies which aspire to full employment. With unemployment rates disturbingly high since the early 1990s, the question of *employment* has again reached the top of trade union agendas. Although it is clear that trade unions acknowledge the need for greater flexibility in worktime organization, they are far from convinced that reducing worktime (or indeed job-sharing) offers a solution to the unemployment problem. Shorter worktime, they concede, is legitimate insofar as it represents an improvement in the quality of life both at the workplace and elsewhere but, unlike most of the other trade unions in the European Union, the Nordic unions by no means regard it as a panacea for employment problems. Moreover, although conceding that an active labour market policy contributes towards maintaining the quality of the workforce, they believe that it is above all economic policy which should guarantee a high level of employment.

In this respect, *training* has been a fundamental demand in union negotiation policy since the origins of the movement. The famous Swedish model set up in the

1950s, one of the main elements of which was to promote the restructuring of the production system, was based on an active policy to cushion the negative impacts of rationalization on employment: the setting up of a broad-based system of training/retraining measures intended mainly for the unemployed but also for employees whose jobs were in jeopardy. The objective was to enhance the strategic role of training/retraining, with its superior benefit to both the economy as a whole and the individual concerned, with a view to scaling down the role of passive dependence (unemployment benefit, etc.) or compensatory dependence (community service work). This training policy is the result of close cooperation between trade unions and the social democratic party. The trade unions which devised and developed it also assume major responsibilities in implementing and administering it, mainly through the national, regional and local agencies of the Labour Market Office.

5. Less close relations between political parties and trade unions

How have *relations between trade unions and social democratic parties* developed over the past few years? They have become somewhat more strained in the sense that each side has sought to become increasingly autonomous. Firstly, the social democratic parties have generally sought to delineate more clearly their positions vis-à-vis their trade union counterparts (LO in Sweden and Norway, SAK in Finland, FTI in Iceland), this for various reasons: firstly, to gain greater leeway for developing alliances with the parties of the political centre and with trade union organizations other than LO; and secondly, under pressure from a current of liberal thought within its ranks, the social democratic movement sought to espouse policies which gave a new priority to the market forces; from that time on it had to represent interests far broader than those of the membership of its traditional trade union partner.

On the trade union side, numerous polls have shown that an increasingly large percentage of the LO and SAK membership (Sweden, Norway, Finland) have voted for non-socialist parties and moreover that the membership wanted the

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“(...) whereas active employment policies had traditionally been able to occupy 80% of the otherwise unemployed, in 1992 their coverage was at its lowest figure since 1950: 50% (Sweden and Norway).”

“(...) until the end of the 1980s the macroeconomic policies implemented by the Nordic countries had a greater capacity (...) for absorbing unemployment. (The) traditional economic mechanisms are today being questioned by both governments and employers who no longer consider them appropriate in the new scenario of internationalization and integration into the European Union.”

trade union to distance itself more from its natural ally. This distancing of relations has been symbolized by the official abandonment in Sweden and the decline in Norway of the principle of “collective affiliation” (of the trade union to the party). At the same time, trade union interest in close relations diminished where, once in power, a social democratic party was less able to deliver in the fields of economic, fiscal and social policy. Finally, faced with increasing unemployment and more liberal and international economic policies which reduced government scope for manoeuvre, the trade unions themselves stood to gain from re-establishing a greater measure of autonomy.

6. The end of full employment policies?

Although unemployment is still, except in Finland, lower in the Nordic countries than the European Union average (11% in 1994), its rapid increase is regarded as alarming, especially since training, retraining and job creation schemes, referred to as “hidden employment”, are currently occupying between 3% and 4% of the workforce.

The *low level of unemployment characteristic of the Nordic systems up until the late 1980s was associated with a multitude of different factors*. Centralized collective bargaining made it possible to coordinate wage increases, to avoid - in favour of a global vision - agreeing to increases which would have overstretched the economy, and to avert an inflation spiral with all the associated detrimental effects for employment. Moreover, unlike in other European countries, an “active employment policy” which was well

thought out and effectively implemented - whether in the form of training or, particularly, retraining or community service schemes - contributed towards preventing unemployment or ensuring a rapid transition from unemployment to re-employment. The aim of the Nordic governments was to allocate more financial resources to active retraining measures than to passive measures to compensate for unemployment. Nevertheless, whereas active employment policies had traditionally been able to occupy 80% of the otherwise unemployed, in 1992 their coverage was at its lowest figure since 1950: 50% (Sweden and Norway).

Finally and most importantly, until the end of the 1980s the macroeconomic policies implemented by the Nordic countries had a greater capacity than their counterparts elsewhere for absorbing unemployment, partly through an expansion of the public sector which compensated for some of the jobs lost as a result of industrial restructuring and partly through successive currency devaluations which improved corporate terms of trade. The merits of these traditional economic mechanisms are today being questioned by both governments and employers who no longer consider them appropriate in the new scenario of internationalization and integration into the European Union. In Sweden, for example, LO and TCO in 1992 accused the government of deliberately using unemployment to strangle price increases and demanded a national job creation programme. *It is basically only in a scenario where full employment is no longer the main objective of economic and social policies that one is justified in enquiring as to the survival of the “Nordic models”.*

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The Swedish training system

Future expectations of integration

"A solid education is its own reward" (US Department of Labour 1991).

The problem of raising the "skills" of the labour force is common to most mature industrial economies, and paradoxically the problem has appeared at the same time as an increasing share of young individuals stay longer at school in most of the world. Education even outruns the increase in job content in a number of jobs.

The human capital problem, however, goes beyond the raising of the educational level and skills. The new labour market situation in Sweden forces change on the entire training system. Individuals have to learn at school to be able to learn on-the-job (Kazamaki Ottersten 1994). Thus secondary training becomes increasingly important. Individuals also need to adapt to frequent changes at the workplace. Hence, learning, training, and retraining will be a lifetime investment and experience, that spans over a complete work career. Such continued investment needs strong incentives to be effectively conducted. A significantly wider spread of wages in favour of the well educated is a first requirement. Also firms have become much more selective than before in recruiting in order to identify individuals able to learn and to constantly retool intellectually at the work place. In the search for the "ability to learn" a higher level of education will be a first quality signal in the labour market.

Will Sweden be able to cope with such changes on top of the problems associated with the integration in the European Union? Sweden is known for its many labour market institutions and in the new European situation such institutions may both facilitate and hinder the needed adjustments of the training and educational system in the labour market. Integration

in the European Union will put further pressure on the Swedish training system. The question is - is the Swedish training system equipped with the right tools and is it flexible enough to allow for the changes called upon? This article addresses the Swedish training system, its integration with those of the European Union, as well as future expectations.

Some background

The Swedish school system includes 9 obligatory years and additional voluntary grammar school or high school years, where both traditional general education and vocational training is provided for. Most industrialized countries have a minimum formal education requirement, commonly 9 years. Some European countries have longer required education, for example, 10 years in Belgium, Finland, France and Germany, 11 years in Holland, and 12 years for some studies in Belgium and Germany. An international tendency is for children to begin school earlier and that more individuals go on studying for more years than before.

About 90 percent of all age groups that finish elementary school in Sweden go on to grammar school. Since the 1980s the number of individuals that choose university-oriented fields at the grammar school in comparison with those which choose the skill-oriented fields has diminished. This development corresponds with the findings in many other countries, with the exception of US and Japan. In addition, there is training at the firm level, through labour market policies as well as through public and private institutions.



**Eugenia
Kazamaki
Ottersten**

*Research Fellow, at
IUI (the Industrial
Institute for Economic
and Social Research),
Stockholm*

For a long time, and by many other European countries Sweden has been seen as the example concerning labour market systems, a competent labour force and vocational training. The consistently low unemployment rate has been interpreted as a success of Swedish labour market policy. Recently, however, the Swedish economy has experienced problems similar to those in other European countries, such as high open unemployment, and a deterioration of the competence base of the labour force. To be more specific the skills provided through the educational system as well as through vocational training programs have not been sufficient to satisfy employer's requirements. This has partly to do with the fact that industrial production and the labour market have been changing during the past decade, but the educational system has not adapted. This causes human capital problems in the technological transition of Swedish industry. Unless qualified labour is available the technological transition will be slow and hard on labour. Employability in the future will require education and training will become a lifetime experience.



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“Studies (...) show that during the 1980s Sweden had a quite expensive public elementary schooling system.”

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“(...)advanced manufacturing firms search for factory workers with at least a grammar school diploma (...)”

In an international comparison Sweden on average devotes more resources to education than the OECD-average when it comes to public expenditure (OECD, 1992). It spends more than France, Germany and the United Kingdom but less than Denmark, Norway and Finland. Most formal education is publicly financed. On-the-job training is of course private, but many firms receive large amounts of state financed grants to help initiate and support on-the-job training and competence improving measures. The Working Life Fund has provided firms with generous support to undertake training and an on-going evaluation will tell whether this support has been successful (Lindh, Mellander, Kazamaki Ottersten 1994).

Studies furthermore show that during the 1980s Sweden had a quite expensive public elementary schooling system. In an international comparison the total cost per student was between 23 to 28 percent above the same costs of our Nordic neighbours.

Does this also guarantee good quality? Since Swedish schools are more “teacher intensive”, with more teachers “per class-size” than in other countries one would expect higher performance. There is no consistent research to show whether more teachers per class-size give higher student performance. International comparisons show Swedish students have good ability in reading and in foreign languages but less than satisfactory skills in writing and a little ability in mathematics (Fägerlind, 1993). Swedish students do not exhibit elite performance. This is not an ideal situation for an economy on the threshold of a significant technological transformation. Meanwhile we note that the younger generation is better educated than the older generation, which is the case for the whole European Community. The Nordic countries, Germany, Austria, England, and Switzerland have a very high proportion of individuals with grammar school competence (diploma) in the labour force.

Training as a lifetime experience

The former “Taylorist” production organization is gradually being replaced with high performance work organizations. New firms and industries lead this development. Changing labour market performance and a changing job environment thus

“mean that educational and labour market performance will have to be attended to in one context” (Eliasson 1994). Furthermore, schools have to prepare people for the labour market, a task that comes before other tasks (Eliasson 1992).

Additional training on-the-job is becoming typical of modern workplaces, and only workers with a satisfactory educational background are considered for jobs requiring such training. Firms are becoming increasingly selective at recruiting and new tougher practices are slowly getting established. Some empirical results based on interviews with a number of firms show that advanced manufacturing firms search for factory workers with at least a grammar school diploma (Kazamaki Ottersten 1994). Furthermore, communicative skills in Swedish, other languages, and mathematics are often minimum requirements. Employees with “learning abilities” with a broad problem-solving capacity, able to work in teams (social ability) are placed high on employer’s priority lists. This development also means that to be considered for a job even at the shop-floor at least grammar school level is required. “Employability” in the future will require education.

In brief, training is becoming a lifetime experience. Training and retraining takes place at different stages and places during a lifetime. European integration (in this respect) adds a new dimension to training at school by demanding more in the form of language knowledge and the ability to cooperate in culturally mixed work teams in the firm, as well as by widening the views and prospects of both individuals and the educational system. Workers from countries with a high educational and skill standard of the labour force will be more in demand than others. Hence, competition will force an increase in the educational standard of all countries. Competence, however, (Eliasson 1994), is something the labour market has difficulties with. Highly competent workers are normally underpaid compared to the value of their contribution to the employer, and vice versa for unskilled workers (Eliasson 1992). This has effects on the incentives to learn at school and at work. Since competence development is cumulative and since school provides the platform for individuals to con-



tinue to learn at the workplace expectations of a low long-run pay off at the work place can cause a bad early start in life for the individual. In an integrated Europe this will also affect the individual negatively when it comes to his or her capacity to work in and flexibility to adjust to an international environment.

Is education worth it?

Conventional wisdom tells that there should be a premium for learning (Kazamaki Ottersten, Mellander, Meyerson, Nilsson 1994). In Sweden, however, the premium for learning has been low by international standards.

Ever since the seminal work of Becker (1962), Mincer (1958, 1962, 1974), and Schultz (1960, 1961) earnings functions and human capital estimates have been discussed intensively. Wage equations are by now "classic" in economics and have frequently been addressed empirically. Lots of work has also been done to assess the shortcomings of the original wage equations (Kazamaki Ottersten, Mellander, Meyersson and Nilsson 1994).

The wage premium in Sweden measured as the relative wage increase that follows from an additional year of schooling is about 3-4 percent. The premium for education has been rather constant at this level during the 1984 to 1991 period. The premium should be compared to the OECD-average which is about 10-12 percent. We should add, however, that despite the relatively low level in an international comparison, some workers, for example engineers, have benefited from increases in wage premia. However, those increases mean that this group finally is reaching the Swedish average premium level (Mellander 1994)!

The low wage premium raises the question of eventual brain-drain, or competence reallocation, in the wider market context of an integrated Europe. Most likely, part of this "brain-drain" has already taken place. Individuals with a high educational level will of course move first and even small numbers can give rise to considerable negative effects on the competitiveness of the Swedish economy

(Braunerhjelm and Eliasson, 1994). With advanced labour markets developing there will be a higher demand for highly educated people to migrate. In order to address the issue of brain-drain, however, one has to know how sensitive education and migration is to income variation (Lundborg 1991). In this case there could also be country specific differences. Will the sensitivity change in the future partly be due to integration? Which factors do have an impact on the migration of individuals with higher education? These questions need to be thoroughly investigated.

Institutional barriers

Labour market flexibility depends critically on the educational level of individuals and labour market institutions. Many of these institutions, notably those associated with union cartelization of markets have reduced labour market flexibility. Labour market laws and union practices in Sweden can, furthermore, slow the labour market allocation processes. Interviews with firms in fact show that the average age of the labour force within Swedish manufacturing firms is very high. Swedish labour market laws may in part be responsible for this development. Meanwhile we know that education is higher among the younger generation, although the older generation has an advantage in the form of longer experience in the labour market.

The Employment Act, with its first-in last-out principle for firing people will affect the long run productivity of the old firms negatively, notably firms in declining markets that do not grow (Kazamaki Ottersten 1993). Since the incentives for employees to learn by moving both within firms and between firms is also reduced, this negative productivity effect is further increased. As a consequence the firm may invest less in human capital because it has an older work force with a lower pay off to retraining. Although the younger generation is better informed and better educated in new skills, young people will, nevertheless, find it difficult to enter the labour market. Again, this negative indirect effect on youth employment is further reinforced if too high introductory

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“Although the younger generation is better informed and better educated in new skills, young people will, nevertheless, find it difficult to enter the labour market.”

“(...) there are problems with institutional barriers and labour market practices in the European Community today.”

“(...) Mathematics as a subject is becoming increasingly important at all levels, not least on the shop floor. However, less students than before are studying mathematics and natural sciences at high school.”

“(...) multilateral agreements are not always easy to implement in practice, in particular, if the agreements are set at a too high level.”

wages are set in the contracts negotiated with unions.

In an integrated world many of these institutional barriers will have to be removed. Some may disappear because of a more efficient labour market arbitrage. To some extent, a better and more deregulated labour market (see Eliasson 1994) can develop in an integrated Europe. If this is the case better secondary education, and better incentives to “learn” may be a consequence. However, there are problems with institutional barriers and labour market practices in the European Community today. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the future will hold a deregulation drive of European labour markets as a whole to make Europe competitive against new challenges from the West and from the East.

The Swedish training system in a European perspective

How should training be organized? Who should pay? These are questions that need to be considered in an European Training System. What will be allowed and which will be the barriers? How will a good education system be guaranteed? Who will take the responsibility? How much education is needed? Do we all need a highschool diploma just to be considered for a job? Will there be a split labour market as well as a split Europe of people with very low education and very high education, participating in independent labour markets?

Rapid changes in industrial technology are challenging both the educational systems and the labour markets of Europe (Eliasson and Kazamaki Ottersten 1994). Swedish integration has already begun. Most likely this is the market where Swedish integration already is making progress through the ERASMUS programme as well as through interaction of higher education and research. There is potential for the Swedish training system to be successful in European integration since there is great interest from Swedish students to study abroad. Integration widens the views and opens new training environments.

A few problems should, however, be mentioned:

□ firms appear to place extra value on communicative skills, verbal and mathematical in particular. Mathematics as a subject is becoming increasingly important at all levels, not least on the shop floor. However, less students than before are studying mathematics and natural sciences at high school. Even though this is an international tendency among the mature industrial countries, it spells serious problems for the future. New recruitment practices will also force the educational system to reorganize in order to meet these standards if students are to get well paid jobs in the future.

□ a question which also needs thorough examination and already has attracted some attention is whether integration will lead to a brain-drain in some countries while other countries will be provided with human capital. Countries with strong equalitarian policy will witness policy revision. This question is in part addressed in an article by Per Lundborg in this issue.

□ we do have to keep in mind that multilateral agreements are not always easy to implement in practice, in particular, if the agreements are set at a too high level. Adding more bureaucracy to the Swedish economy is not ideal. Flexibility in the practical implementation as well as in the way multilateral agreements are made is needed with respect to smooth integration. Placing part of the decisions on a lower decision level would be preferable.

With these problems in mind - what should be expected from integration? In an ideal situation,

1) We should expect a quicker pace of adaptation in the educational market to common requirements and goals in education as well as a wider variety of choices. In addition, we should expect a prospering research environment.

2) With more labour market interaction and competition at the European level we should expect the educational status to rise. A higher educational status should contribute to an increase in the standards of education both at school and at work. This effect will be shared by all of Europe. Premia for higher education will probably increase.



3) More competition would also put pressure on costs and force a rise in quality - this could be specifically important in the Swedish case with relatively high educational costs.

The overall effects on the Swedish training system should be positive given the above drawbacks.

Conclusions

European integration will make the educational system more exciting, allowing for more co-research and interesting de-

velopment areas. For successful integration the national labour and training market need to be working and to be flexible. Integration always starts at the national level. And the problem of a successful labour market and educational market is not exclusive to Sweden. It is believed, however, that close integration with Europe will have many positive effects on the Swedish educational level, for example, by raising its status as well as the pay off to education. It should be noted though that there may be some drawbacks as well, for example, problems with multilateral agreements at a high level may be exacerbated by integration.

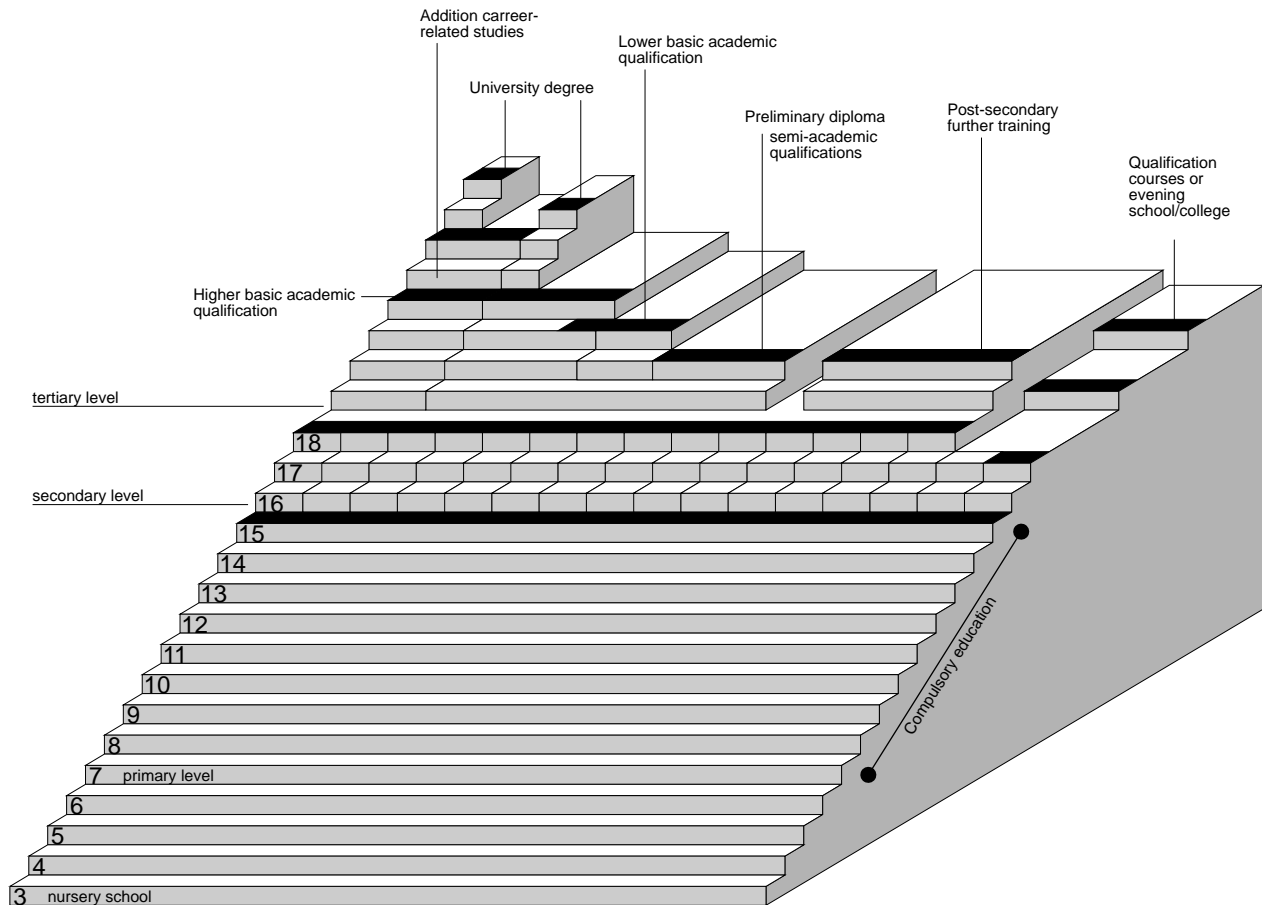
“For successful integration the national labour and training market need to be working and to be flexible. Integration always starts at the national level.”

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The vocational training system in Sweden



- ❑ In pre-school education there are several institutions catering for the 0 to 6/7 year age range; day care centres, part-time groups and open pre-school.
- ❑ Since 1991 children have a right to start school at the age of six years, if their parents so desire, and if the municipality has the capacity to provide this opportunity. The option should be available in all municipalities by the school year 1997/98.
- ❑ The compulsory school is attended by children aged 6/7-16 years. It is a comprehensive, co-educational school designed to accommodate all members of the rising generation. Since the introduction of the 9-year compulsory school in 1962 the compulsory school has been divided into 3-year levels: lower, intermediate and upper level. As from the school year 1995/96 a new curriculum, with nationwide validity, will be implemented in school years 1-7, in 1996/97 for year 8 and in 1997/98 year 9.
- ❑ In the new, comprehensive, upper secondary school system that was introduced in 1992, to be fully implemented in the beginning of the academic year 1995/96, all education is organized in study programmes of three years' duration. There are 16 nationally determined programmes, 14 of which are primarily vocationally-oriented and two preparing primarily for university studies. All the programmes, however, have the same eight core subjects i.e. Swedish, English, civics, religious studies, mathematics, nature studies, sports and health studies, and aesthetic activities. In addition students take subjects which are specific to their programme.
- ❑ The professional degrees rewarded at universities and university colleges are obtained upon completion of programmes of varying length (2-2,5 years). The programmes lead to specific profession e.g. University Diploma in Medicine or in Educational for Upper Secondary School.

Graphics: Rudolf J. Schmitt; Technical production: Axel Hunstock, Berlin; Consultation commissioned by CEDEFOP: Pekka Kämäräinen



Features of vocational education in Finland

Short history of vocational education

In Finland initial vocational education has been developed under public control and chiefly provided in publicly owned institutions. In other words, it is mainly financed by public means, and it is up to the authorities to make sure that the general aims of vocational education are realized all over the country. In the Finnish school-based system the practical training has chiefly been confined to schools.

The objective is to guarantee equal educational opportunities for all, regardless of domicile, economic status or language. In accordance with Nordic principles of democracy, guaranteeing equal educational opportunities for all was adopted as the primary objective in the late 1960s already. Education is seen as the key to international competitiveness and national prosperity.

The centralized national planning of the late 70s and 80s guaranteed an increase in study places in initial vocational education. The number of study places doubled in 1970-1994. At the same time, the age-group of 16-18 year-olds decreased from 85 000 to 65 000. In Finland the differences between age-groups are quite considerable depending on their formal examinations. Of the 25-29 year-olds, about 80% have passed a vocational examination or obtained university degree, whereas the percentage among the 45-49 year-olds is under 50%.

Internationally speaking, the division between general and vocational education on the upper secondary level is average, very much like the division in France.

At the end of the 1980s, there was a great deal of discussion on the need for a reassessment of the objectives of education. Great emphasis was put on the need for individuality and optionality as a means of ensuring success in a situation of fierce

economic competition. They were made priority concerns alongside the key objectives of the previous decade, i.e. equality, a comprehensive general education, and assimilation of humanist ideals.

The main objective of this vision is to establish a common-to-all comprehensive school for the young, where youngsters may combine general and vocational studies, or choose just one or the other. The level of post-secondary vocational education will be raised by means of a scheme of institutions of vocational higher education of the German "Fachhochschule" type, where an integral part of the work consists of scientific research into the work itself. The youngsters will qualify for university either through general education or an institution of higher vocational education. This projected educational structure is in a constant state of flux. Any experiments that the vision may inspire will be based on the present curriculum.

Recent changes

In the changing Europe of the late 1980s, Finland came under strong competitive pressure from outside. In education, the raising of the general educational level of the whole nation became more relevant than ever. This was due above all to the process of European integration and the changes in the economy, the rapid technological development and demographic factors. In this context, the principles of continuing education and a restructuring of the educational system around this principle were debated with great intensity.

In Finland, basic vocational education is designed for young people. Vocational education for adults other than labour market training or personnel training began to expand only towards the end of the 1980s. As far as education for young people is concerned, the assumption is



Matti Kyrö

is the head of the unit responsible for information and coordination of research and quantitative data on education, at the National Board of Education (central agency for the development and evaluation of education), Finland.

"Finland now finds herself in a situation in which general education and vocational education and training are being developed separately according to the principles of the "edifying school" and the labour market school, respectively, but one of the underlying principles is a market-based, service-oriented school. The provision of labour market training for adults is already built exclusively on demand and marketing (...).

There have been two alternative tendencies in recent years, the expansion of apprenticeship training and the introduction of competence-based vocational examinations like NVQ's in the UK."

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that all youngsters start from more or less the same level. On account of this, it has been possible to arrange education along study lines, where individual differences are attended to only when difficulties of learning appear. Options as regards subjects within each line scarcely exist.

The supply of labour is expected to decrease further. Manpower appears to exit from the labour markets to education and early retirement. The present slump has stimulated educational demand; in education of the 16-19 year-olds some fields which previously had recruitment difficulties have begun to attract more students.

At the end of the eighties the age groups entering post-compulsory education were at their smallest. The present moderate growth will take a downward turn in the mid-nineties. At that time we will probably again face shortages of trained labour in some central manufacturing and services industries. The fluctuations in the young age groups influence planning essentially, because authorities have a statu-

tory duty to offer a study place for all school leavers.

Contemporary objectives

The objectives of Finnish educational policy are twofold: on the one hand the aim is to solve present problems in the economy and in the world of work and on the other to build an education system which will produce a qualified and competent workforce not only now but also at the end of the decade.

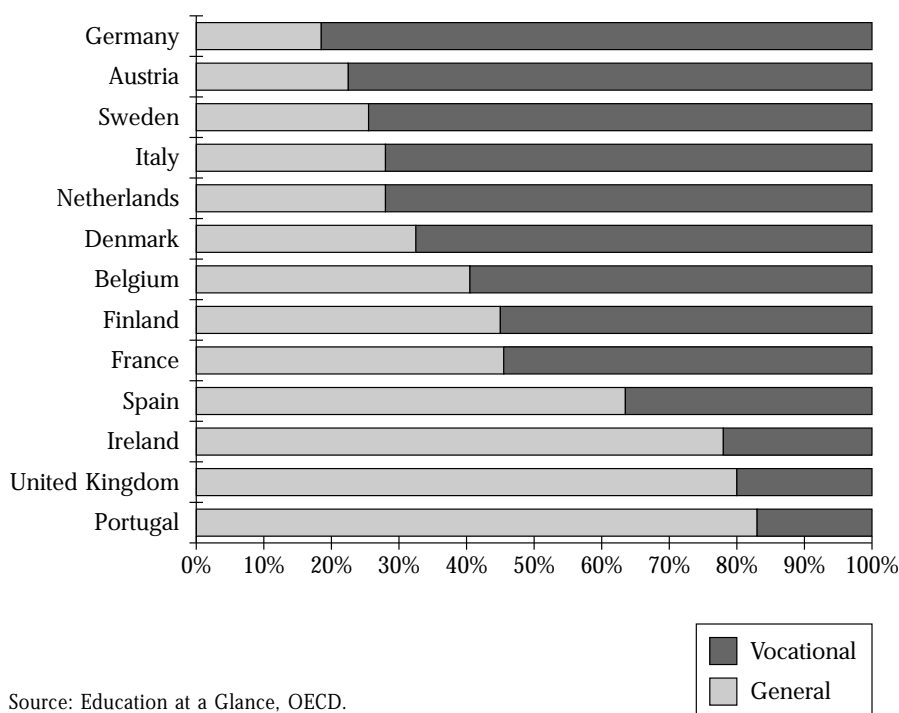
The situation in educational policy is further complicated by the fact that the values prevailing in society are varied and to some extent unspecified. The target values set in Finnish educational legislation were defined in the seventies when priority was given to equality and above all to a desire to help the weakest. Since then attention has increasingly shifted to individuals, especially talented individuals. It is essential to create a debate about these values in view of the curricula to be drawn for primary and secondary education.

The school reform carried out in the seventies was a result of compromises, and vocational and general education were still developed separately. The allocation and quantification of vocational education were based on an estimated need of trained workforce.

As a result of the parallel school forms, the number of young people opting for the general upper secondary school clearly exceeded intakes in institutions of higher education. These people had to be placed in secondary vocational education. This generated pressures for bringing vocational and general education closer to each other in the educational structure.

As a country with relatively few natural resources, Finland has always had to emphasize its human resources. The level of formal education has always been, and still is, a central criterion in recruitments and wage decisions. It can be seen in an international comparison of the mean earnings by level of educational attainment. Earnings in Finland are relatively high compared with other EU countries.

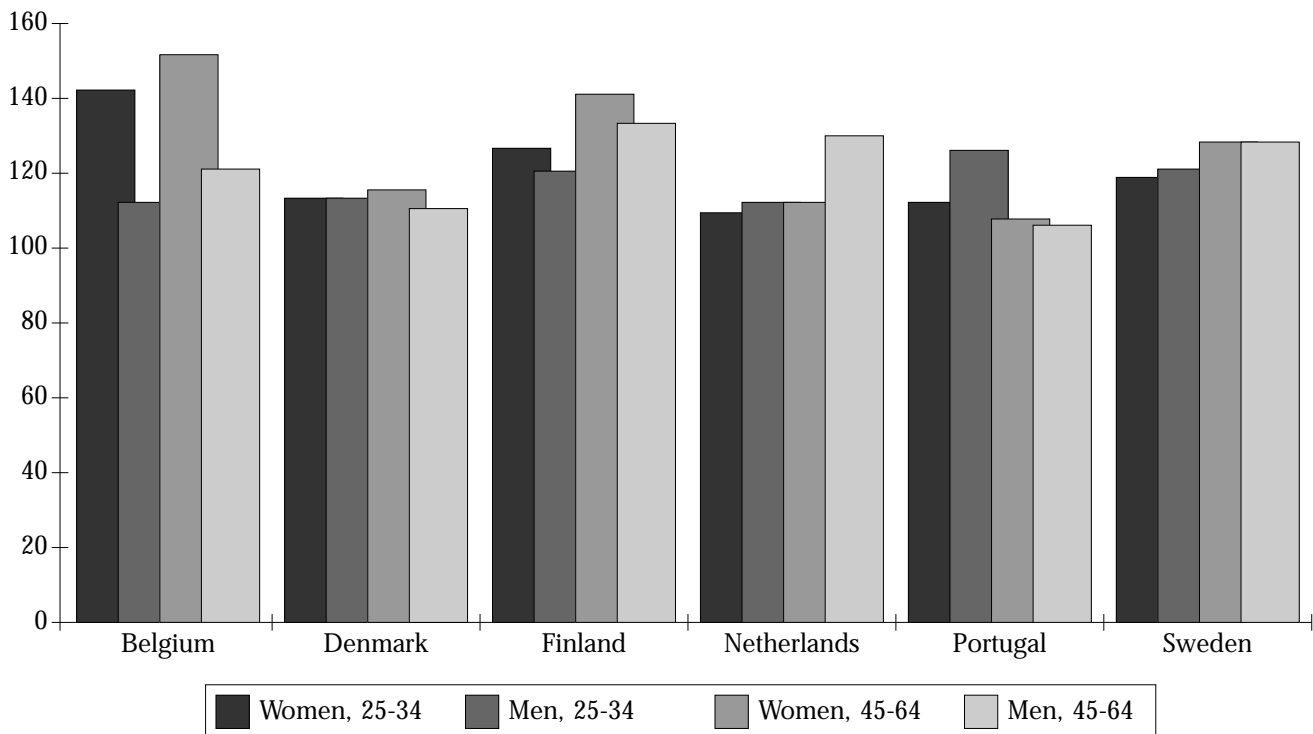
Figure 1. Percentage of upper secondary students enrolled in general and vocational education in EU countries (no data on Greece and Luxembourg) in 1991.



Source: Education at a Glance, OECD.



Figure 2. Ratio of mean annual earnings by level of educational attainment at non-university tertiary education (times 100) by age and sex in some EU countries.



Source: Education at a Glance, OECD

Nevertheless the difference is smaller in younger age-groups, due to the clear increase in the general level of education.

In the seventies it was agreed to base the quantification of educational provision on the need for trained workforce. This highlighted the role of quantitative planning, which was partly separated from content. Defined in this way, educational provision entails a high degree of centralized control. As a result, intakes in different fields and their regional distribution were defined in great detail by means of a multi-level planning process. The quantification plans were ultimately approved by the Government.

The present demand on Finnish vocational education is to intensify interaction between the school and business and industry and to make vocational education more attractive. Especially during a period of economic boom when labour demand exceeds supply these needs become topical. In the Finnish system, business

and industry does not necessarily play a vital role in initial education and training. The fact that authorities have a statutory duty to provide a place in further education for all school leavers enlarges the educational opportunities available to young people and creates differences in the popularity of different fields.

Representatives of business and industry take part in educational development on various consultative committees. They have a large representation on the Advisory Council for Educational Planning, which mainly focusses on the quantification of educational provision. There are national field-specific educational committees as well as local and institutional committees on which both employer and employee organizations are represented.

The present rapid rate of technological progress means great challenges for institutional education and training, especially in Finland where the school network is extensive. There are some 500

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“In 1990s, the number of apprenticeships has increased by almost 40%, from 7 200 to 10 000. This is still only 5% of all vocational education and training.”

“The new Act on competence-based examinations was enforced this year, and so far only very few examinations has been passed. The first experiences are that very few people can pass the new examinations without formal training or education. The skills they learn in the job are too narrow for them to meet the requirements of these examinations.”

vocational institutions catering to 200 000 students annually. It is not possible for a vocational institution to renew its teaching facilities at the rate the most progressive employers acquire new equipment and machinery. This makes it indispensable to transfer essential parts of practical training to progressive enterprises.

Especially in the nineties there has been a strong trend towards a conception of education as a customer service. The client decides the type and quality of education he/she wants, and as a result of this, educational demand steers educational development and supply. In Finland the Government has already defined this as one of the criteria to be used in quantification.

Finland now finds herself in a situation in which general education and vocational education and training are being developed separately according to the principles of the “edifying school” and the labour market school, respectively, but one of the underlying principles is a market-based, service-oriented school. The provision of labour market training for adults is already built exclusively on demand and marketing.

School and working life

The problem of school-based vocational education is related to the contacts with working life and to the changing demands of working life. The educational policy lays great emphasis on bringing education closer to practical work. The proportion of work practice in the theoretical education has increased greatly in the last few years. An optimal balance and integration between education and work is the crucial question at the moment.

The change in educational policy towards greater individuality, flexibility, optionality and local responsibility has strengthened the training alternatives. There have been two alternative tendencies in recent years, the expansion of apprenticeship training and the introduction of competence-based vocational examinations like NVQ's in the UK.

During the last few years, both the employer and the employee organizations

have actively promoted apprenticeship training. In the 1990s, the number of apprenticeships has increased by almost 40%, from 7 200 to 10 000. This is still only 5% of all vocational education and training. Apprenticeships are not easy to establish in new fields, because of the tradition of school-based education. There is a lack of curricula of apprenticeships in many fields and a lack of trained trainers and instructors in firms.

The new Act on competence-based examinations was enforced this year, and so far only very few examinations have been passed. The first experiences are that very few people can pass the new examinations without formal training or education. The skills they learn in the job are too narrow for them to meet the requirements of these examinations.

One feature of Finnish education today is that vocational education for the young and adult education have developed along separate lines. The diversity of training and education is increasing, but at the same time equal attainments in different schools and different parts of the country are decreasing.

Administrative reforms

Recent developments have generated pressures for dismantling the present centralized administration. This is due to two factors in particular: current neo-liberal social thinking, which stresses the responsibility of the provider of services, and economic developments. As a result of the slump in industrial production, the relative share of the public sector will grow in gross national product.

The leading principles underlying the current administrative reform in Finland is to do away with normative regulation and delegate decision power. As a result of the deteriorating economic situation, personnel has to be reduced, and relevant decisions, also as concerns educational administration, have already been made.

In the Finnish administration there are three different levels of state authorities to steer local activities. Nearly all ministries have a national central agency and a regional (provincial) administration sub-



ordinate to them. This multiple-level structure in decision-making and planning has proved unduly heavy. Decisions and planning responsibilities will be delegated to the local level. As regards education, the aim is to create national frameworks within which educational institutions are fairly free to provide education according to local needs.

The growth of local autonomy is an essential part of the reform of educational administration. Curricula include discretionary elements to be decided locally within loose target frameworks. This creates conditions for flexible educational provision. It is also hoped that growing local autonomy will improve the effectiveness and efficiency of education. Various interest groups will follow the activ-

ities of an institution more closely than before.

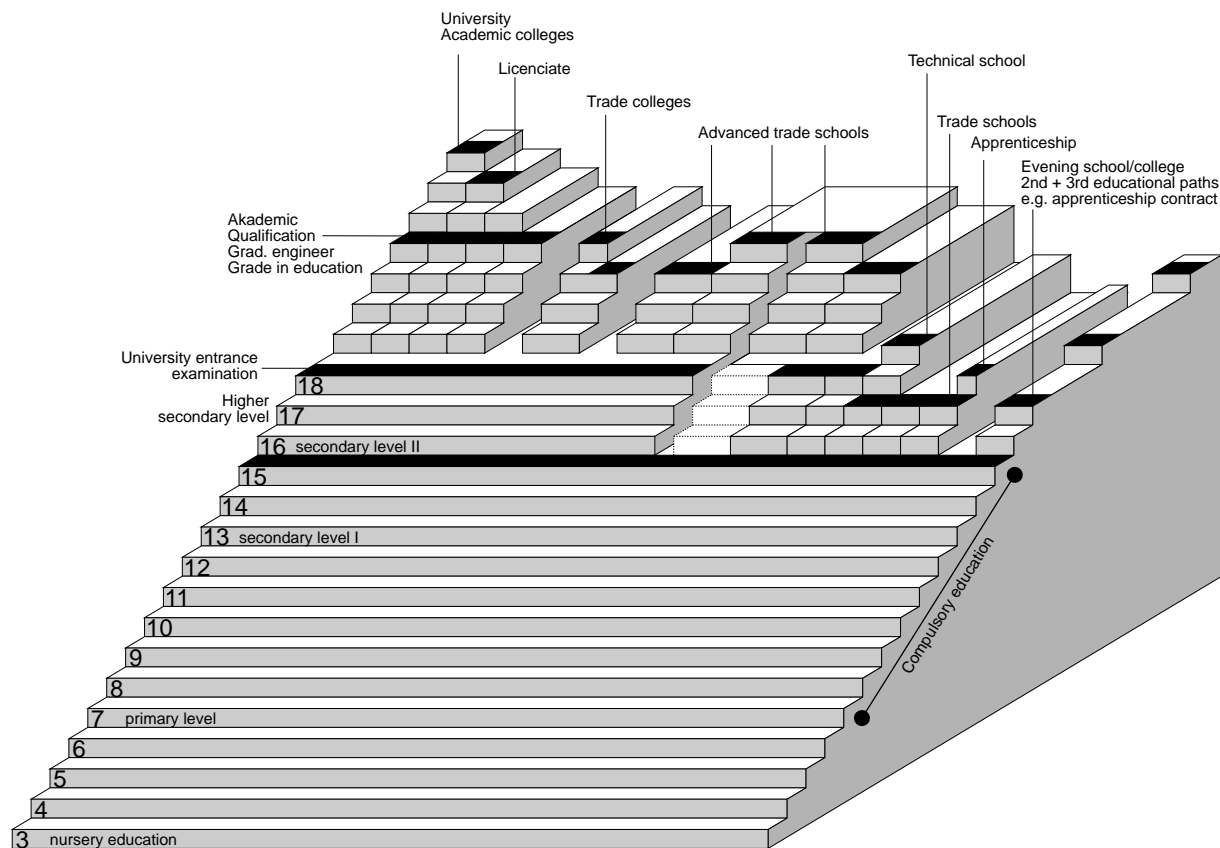
In terms of administration, the present development stage is somewhat vague. At some quarters it is feared that the delegation of governmental powers and regulation to the local level will shift real decision-making power to social partners. There is a risk that development frameworks will be defined by the Teacher Union through their influence on the national division of classroom-hours and by employer organizations through their influence on national end-of-programme examinations.

There is still the possibility that decentralization means only a localization of bureaucracy. The infrastructure of the

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The regular education system in Finland



Graphics: Rudolf J. Schmitt; Technical production: Axel Hunstock, Berlin; Consultation commissioned by CEDEFOP: Pekka Kämäräinen



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They receive state grants based on their expenditure and on the financial status of the municipality in question.”

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educational system is not as flexible as it should be in a real customer-driven system. The network of educational institutions is built up to support the regional policy in a country with the fifth largest area in Europe and a population of five million inhabitants.

Trends in financing

In Finland the duty to provide vocational education will be gradually transferred to municipalities. At present half of vocational institutions are run by municipalities. They receive state grants based on their expenditure and on the financial status of the municipality in question.

In the near future, as a result of the adoption of management by objectives in the whole state administration and the current rationalization and decentralization, state grants will be allocated according to a new system. An institution will receive a lump sum calculated on the basis of three factors - its classroom hour quota, number of students and its size. The institution can use the sum at its discretion. Expenditure will no longer be divided into

costs which entitle to state support and those which do not.

It is hoped that the new system will raise the standard of educational services and enable the institutions to cater to special local needs better than under the present system. At the same time municipalities are encouraged to provide cost-effective services and to prune their administration.

Parliament noted in its communication on the Government's educational policy report that the state grants reform must not change the distribution of educational costs between the state and municipalities. When new tasks and responsibilities are transferred to municipalities, they must also receive the resources they need to execute them. Parliament also noted that during recession no cuts should be made in education, on the contrary, it should be given more support.

Education and training have always been regarded a privilege of citizenship. For this reason the financing of education and training very largely rely on public funds. No change in the financial responsibility is expected in the near future because of this traditional attitude.

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Boom in apprenticeship training in Finland

Rediscovered avenue into working life

Whatever the level of unemployment and the scope of structural changes, the need for trained and skilled manpower remains. Without exception, past development and forecasts in the industrialized countries suggest a rise in highly skilled but a shrinking in the unskilled labour force. Many a routine job will be replaced by automatized processes. As trades, crafts, production lines and entire industrial sectors disappear, key skills for an individual and for schools will include flexibility, receptiveness for training and retraining, willingness to change career, customer orientation. Job assignments change so rapidly that it is virtually impossible to anticipate future requirements through manpower planning.

A qualified labour force, well-trained and capable of independent and innovative thinking and action, is an indispensable factor of competitiveness in free and growing enlarged markets. It is a challenge to the society to achieve a good match between the demand for and provision of skills, given constraints on the public purse and high expectations of people as to the advantages of education.

With high or rising unemployment, interest in education has grown. Thus, labour market policies also contain more education and training initiatives than previously. With more diversified and service-oriented labour markets, we can no longer secure high employment by straightforward methods of increasing demand through the public purse. In a country where incomes policy agreements traditionally play a large role, it is politically difficult to let market mechanism reduce unemployment through lower wage levels; a more sophisticated approach is to upgrade the skills of people and try to match better the firms and training institutions with a view to students acquiring relevant skills.

In Finland, this means late realization of an obvious but fundamental fact: it is the companies, the providers of goods and services, which are **par excellence** a training resource inferior to none and underutilized so far. A company, in order to be successful, needs to keep abreast of technological and organizational development, markets, and customers' needs. In this respect, on-the-job training means an efficient learning method and early accommodation to company culture and working life. It is a suitable place of learning for those needing professional basic training and for those in need of further training or retraining.

Rapid transition to industrial society

Finland's transformation from a predominantly agricultural autarchy into an open market economy with flourishing industry started and gathered momentum in the latter half of the 19th century. Forest resources, so far used rather passively mainly for households, entered the international markets by virtue of developments in wood processing technology and modes of transport. Liberal legislation replaced earlier restrictions on trade and production (Guilds were suppressed in 1897). Growing markets of Imperial Russia were available for the Finnish producers. Skilled and ingenious industrialists arrived in Finland from the West to launch important initiatives in pulp and paper, textiles and engineering¹.

Taking the incipient production of pulp and paper as the starting point, a virtuous circle of growth soon emerged: symbiosis of the production, research and manufacturing of the requisite machinery and equipment. Every seventh paper machine in the world is of Finnish origin.

The scale of the engineering industry was modest in the 1930s. After World War II, the obligatory payment of war indemnities



Henry J. Vartiainen

works at the University of Helsinki, Finland. Prior to this, he was employed at the

Bank of Finland Institute for Economic Research, the OECD Secretariat in Paris and Conference Board in Brussels, the Association of Finnish Employers and Industry, and the Finnish Institute of Management (LIFIM).

After industrialization started in Finland in the latter half of the 19th century, public schooling dominated the field of vocational education.

Since 1980s, there has been a new emphasis on individual achievements and the importance of options. The new law in force since 1993 enlarged the coverage of apprenticeship training to all professions and also to supplementary education. The schools have more freedom and responsibility in setting up courses and modules. Examinations are competence-based and independent of the way skills are acquired (school, apprenticeship, practical experience). Responsibility for the examinations lies with the Examination Boards, where the labour market partners, schools and local authorities cooperate. The most important challenge now is to make the employers interested and committed.



“(...) it is the companies, the providers of goods and services, which are par excellence a training resource inferior to none and underutilized so far.”

“(...) vocational education has (...) been developed mainly in public institutions and under public aegis.”

“Many factors were responsible for keeping the numbers (of apprentices) down. It was not only the fact that apprenticeship training did not rank very high on the social scale; the trade unions also viewed on-the-job training with suspicion.”

1) The influx of foreign immigrants was triggered off much earlier by Napoleon's decrees forbidding continental countries to trade with Great Britain or her colonies. Goods could, but people could not be prevented from moving. Thus, the early consequences of Finland's internationalization were positive in Finland.

to the Soviet Union was in all its harshness a blessing in disguise, giving rise to a modern engineering industry producing inter alia paper & pulp-making machinery, motors, ships, etc.

Since World War II, there have been marked structural changes in society. The share of people engaged in primary production (agriculture and forestry) fell from 36% in 1960 to 5% in 1994. The age composition of the population is changing; the share of those under 15 years which was 30% in 1960, was down to 19% in 1994, and the share in the 15 to 64 year-bracket rose from 62 to 67%. Demographic development thus underlines the importance of adult education.

Public schooling dominates

The requisite vocational training was first given by the companies themselves. At an early stage, Government assumed the responsibility for schooling. In the 1840s it set up Sunday schools for apprentices in the handicrafts, and technical colleges in main cities. They offered curricula of 4 years for students of at least 12 years of age, consisting of general subjects and technical training in those sciences which were considered relevant for manufacturing industry and handicrafts. The view that

vocational training belongs to the public domain, as elsewhere in Scandinavia, went uncontested. Since independence, vocational education has thus been developed mainly in public institutions and under public aegis.

Volume of in-company training

Apprenticeship training was rather modest in volume for decades. In the 1970s there were only some 4 000 apprentices annually. In the following decade their number rose to about 8 000, and passed the 10 000 mark in 1993. The number of new contracts tripled in that year to reach 8 830, as contracts could be made in the same subjects as in other school types. The target estimate for 1995 is 17 000 places, of which adults and supplementary training account for about a half.

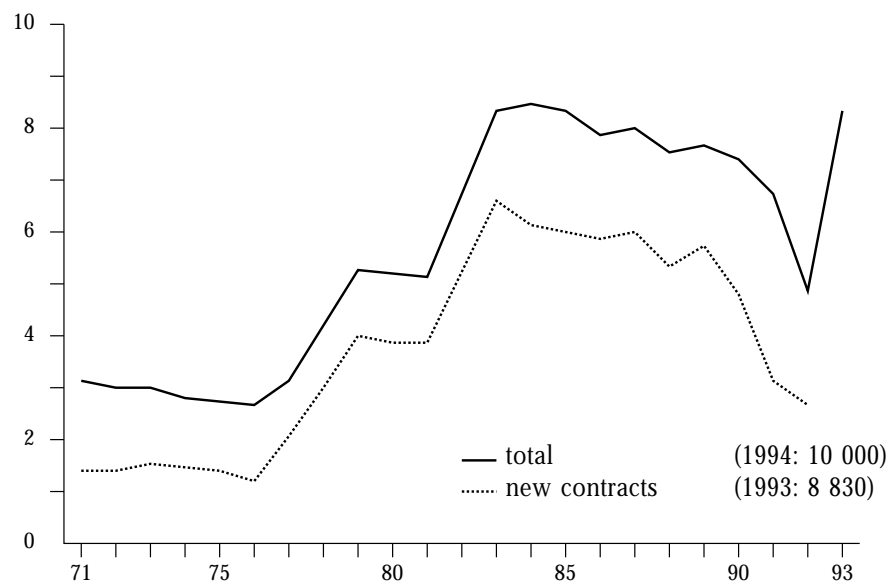
Still, these numbers are only a fraction of the 200 000-strong enrollment in all vocational institutions. In-company training is found mostly in such trades (graphic arts, hairdressing, baker, confectioner etc.) where the tradition, and the efficiency of learning, call for this form of schooling. Commerce and administration, but also electrical engineering and social services have also been favourite choices.

Many factors were responsible for keeping the numbers down. It was not only the fact that apprenticeship training did not rank very high on the social scale; the trade unions also viewed on-the-job training with suspicion. Learning contracts were defined primarily as work contracts, with rigorous application of all labour legislation including minimum wages. Plentiful red tape dampened any enthusiasm the employers might have felt. Many a tailor shop simply vanished for this reason.

New thinking

In the 1980s there was much discussion on the objectives of education. Individual needs, and the existence of options, were now emphasized as a reaction to previous trends, which stressed equality, uniformity and standardized norms gauged to the society's needs. The needs of the

Enrolment in apprenticeship training in Finland in 1970-1994



Source: Vartiainen Henry J., Apprenticeship training, (in Finnish), in: Taloustieto, August 1994



economy were acknowledged but rather on a theoretical level. To learn in work has to be seen as an equally good way of acquiring competence and passing examination as learning in public vocational institutions.

Flexibility was to be the key word. The authorities are aiming at improving compatibility of work experience and the formal examination. The distinction between theoretical and practical work is also becoming more and more blurred. On the other hand, statistical progress helps: various target groups in need of training are now identified more clearly because of a better statistical basis in the Ministry of Labour. Groups in need of retraining are early school leavers with no vocational training, those in early retirement or unemployed young people.

Industry is a strong advocate of apprenticeship training, considering it the modern response to the diversified labour market. It has many advantages. Professions to be trained for are real, the employment situation is taken into account, training can start any time, it is more up-to-date than top technology (as an overall criterion, however, some reasonable average standard will have to suffice for examination, and not top technology). In sparsely inhabited areas, this may be the only way of organizing training.

Organizational reform

New thinking was reflected in new legislation. Until recent years, responsibility for training was entirely vested in the vocational institutions. This was and still is the most marked difference compared to the German-type training. The institutions arranged work practice for students in companies either during school hours or as guided extracurricular work training. Employers are remunerated from public funds for contracted training. The contract was an agreement between a vocational institution and an employer on a student's work practice. The curricula followed strictly the guidelines defined by the National Board of Education.

A new law on Apprenticeship Training came into force in 1993, aiming at improving the competitiveness of this train-

ing in regard to other education. The possibility of training by contract was extended to all subjects and examinations available in educational institutions. Vocational institutions acquired large freedom in introducing new courses along these lines and in assuming the responsibilities for individual curricula. Under the new circumstances, cooperation between local administration and the school is enhanced. In the new law, an apprenticeship training contract is a special arrangement between an employer, agreeing to give the training defined in the contract, and a student pledging to work in exchange for the training. Calling it a training contract emphasizes its educational character.

Reforms were not so radical as to change the main responsibilities. However, some decentralization took place. More independence is to be given to the schools in devising the study programmes of the pupils. While grading continues to be done by the authorities, they do it on the basis of the employers' assessment.

Responsibility for the examinations and accreditations lies with the local or national Examination Board, which consist of representatives of labour market, schools and local administration. Organizing the examination, within the broad framework set by the National Board of Education, is usually entrusted to a school and local firms.

Planning the curricula and responsibility for the costs is now in the same hands. In organizing theoretical courses, the local administrator buys the services concerned from a vocational institution or other study centre, or from a firm. Choice of courses has increased substantially. Vocational institutions have now **cartes blanches** in setting up courses and modules. Given the rather centralized system having been in force up to now, this is quite a challenge to schools. Active innovators stand to gain.

Wider fields of application

Starting in 1993, apprenticeship can be resorted to, when the student has no previous vocational training; when he wants to develop his skills and needs a certified

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“The new law on competence-based examinations came into force in May 1994. Examinations, which consist of a variety of clearly identifiable modules, are now independent of the way the requisite skills and knowhow have been acquired.”

“Starting in 1993, apprenticeship training can be used either as full education of 1 to 4 years, or as supplementary education lasting 4 to 12 months.”

“In the long run, the combination of adult education with apprenticeship training will mean economies of scale and better possibilities of building up training modules.”

“New methods of financing mean a shift of control from central to local administration.”

***“(…) there are no plans to introduce a levy on all firms as in Denmark (…)
The French method of imposing on firms the obligation to provide training has not found support in Finland.”***

diploma for this; when his job expands to new fields; when he assumes a new work assignment; when formal qualifications are wanted; when a company's personnel is retrained for new or more specialized tasks; when a suitable qualified person is not available on the labour market.

The new law on competence-based examinations came into force in May 1994. Examinations, which consist of a variety of clearly identifiable modules, are now independent of the way the requisite skills and knowhow have been acquired. In maintaining the level of examinations, quality, good reputation and effectiveness are among the main criteria. Also placement and relative status in the labour market will be studied as useful indicators.

Also for adults

Starting in 1993, apprenticeship training can be used either as full education of 1 to 4 years, or as supplementary education lasting 4 to 12 months. Apprenticeship training will not mean a dead end, but will be a step in the logical sequence of education.

Basic vocational education was originally designed to accommodate young people. Adult training began to expand towards the end of the 1980s. About 35 000 adults annually are estimated to be in need of supplementary education and retraining. It can thus be used for the individual needs of the trainees or as a personnel training tool of a company. Over half of new contracts cover trainees who already have basic vocational training behind them. Partial examinations also can be taken this way.

In the long run, the combination of adult education with apprenticeship training will mean economies of scale and better possibilities of building up training modules. More flexibility will be required from the trainees, too: they must take the initiative and be willing to move after a desired education.

Costs

Government decides on the compensation per student in vocational and in vo-

ational supplementary training. These are graded according to scales used in state aid to local governments.

New methods of financing mean a shift of control from central to local administration. Many a central norm applied previously will simply be disregarded. Local administration is empowered to allocate central government funds according to its own needs.

There are no changes in the overall principles of financing apprenticeship training; apart from some limited and time-bound exemptions, apprentices' wages are determined in national wage agreements and comply with labour legislation. The cost of training is too high at the prevailing wage rates, so companies are compensated by the Government. At present, these reimbursements vary between FIM 1 400 and 2 100 during the first year, and about half of this in the following years or for supplementary training. Government support is on a per capita basis with no incentives tied to performance. Local governments can pay incentive premiums to companies undertaking new training. This is done by the City of Helsinki, for example.

The disadvantages are that budgetary constraints may set limits to the volume of available financing; and public frugality in fixing the rates of reimbursement may lessen the motivation of employers to make training places available.

So far, there are no plans to introduce a levy on all firms as in Denmark, distributing the cost of training over all companies, trainers or not. The French method of imposing on firms the obligation to provide training has not found support in Finland.

Training the trainers

There has been a gap in Finnish legislation, as there has not been any formal legislation on the qualifications of a trainer. Things have always worked out, however. There is discussion now underway on a need for a training programme for professional trainers, which companies could resort to if their own training capacity is insufficient.



Labour market policies

Unprecedented depression and structural changes brought about by rapid technological developments, led to surprisingly high unemployment: in 3 years from 1990 to 1993, total production fell by 15%, gross investments were halved and unemployment finally rose to almost 500 000 persons or 20 per cent of the labour force. Education as a labour market measure gained in importance. The unemployed themselves found time for continuing education.

Well-intentioned advice on job creation abounds. Youth unemployment, which, incidentally, is rather high in such countries where apprenticeship does not play an important role, is a problem of great concern to the authorities. Thus, on top of other labour market measures, the Ministry of Labour gives support to an employer who is willing to make a contract. Criticism is voiced that such support should not be too generous compared to reimbursement for training expenses.

A reasonable trade-off is discussed between youngsters who are looking for their first education and adults being offered retraining by the Ministry of Labour, if both come out of the public purse. In general, the labour market authorities and the school authorities cooperate quite well in matters of apprenticeship training. Labour people know the companies, school people know what the vocational institutions can offer.

Inspectors' views and other comments

A group of officials in a rather central position is the corps of inspectors, about 50 in number. They take part in the work of local advisory councils, ensure that the decisions are carried out, draw up the contracts, and negotiate between the trainee and the trainer. They decide on the allocation of funds: compensation to employer, purchase of theoretical courses, reimbursements to students for some living expenses, and costs of administration.

In a recent inquiry (Lapiolahti 1992), the inspectors were requested to assess pre-

vailing arrangements and give their views on developments. They found bottlenecks in availability of training places, particularly in health and social services and in some rare trades such as that of goldsmith. Other problems were urgent production schedules, leaving little time for instruction, unawareness of the importance of training, and inexperienced teachers. There was blame on both sides: insufficient appreciation and excessive absences on the part of the student. In many schools preference was given to instruction at school, to the detriment of **young apprentices**.

Some obstacles were reported to stem from financial constraints limiting the possibilities to make requisite courses available. No clear-cut answer was available as to the need to ensure the existence of the routine courses or allot funds to more risky new ones. In developing apprenticeship training, inspectors considered changing attitudes of primary importance: to bring this form of training on to an equal footing with other schooling.

There is also a vicious circle of information: the less training you have, the scantier the information reaching you. Those with little or no training are also least interested in training. In some sectors apprenticeship training is not suitable: small entrepreneurs hardly have time to give training, let alone fill out the necessary documentation. Part-time work also may pose problems. Ideally, theory classes could be taken in free time, but often it may be difficult to achieve this.

Those interviewed regarded the first year of schooling as very decisive for the final results. They agreed that in limited cases lack of in-service training can be compensated for by classroom teaching or by company visits, as in Denmark or Norway; in other words, apprenticeship training should be the flexible component.

In another inquiry (Järvenpää & Nuppola 1992), the attitude of the employer was found to be decisive for success or failure. Priority to production, insufficient appreciation, indifference, unclear responsibilities were sieved out as major difficulties to be overcome. On the other hand, employers considered it important

“Youth unemployment, (...) is rather high in such countries where apprenticeship does not play an important role (...)”

“(...) the labour market authorities and the school authorities cooperate quite well in matters of apprenticeship training.”

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“(...) the attitude of the employer was found to be decisive for success or failure. Priority to production, insufficient appreciation, indifference, unclear responsibilities were sieved out as major difficulties to be overcome.”

“Small business would like to see the formation of training circles encouraged, and complains about the lacking willingness of the vocational schools to coordinate their courses with the needs of the employer.”

“An urgent task is (...) to make employers interested and committed.”

to broaden the professional horizon of the trainee.

An inquiry among headmasters of vocational institutions (1994) showed that most of the headmasters saw no problems in cooperation, while the inspectors considered this an obstacle. Some threshold problems were cited: uncoordinated syllabus, lack of premises, available teaching resources, traditions, jealousy about domains, isolation from working life, compartmentalized teaching according to disciplines.

Small business would like to see the formation of training circles encouraged, and complains about the lacking willingness of the vocational schools to coordinate their courses with the needs of the employer. They also point out that apprenticeship training can be quite incompetitive vis-à-vis other labour market measures: an employer may get more support for the creation of a job than for making a training place available. There is now strong political pressure for exempting the employers from the social charges, but nothing will be done before autumn 1995, given the parliamentary elections in spring.

...

Legislative reforms have now been introduced and emphasis will henceforth be

placed on implementation and evolution. Reforms are not very radical, as the main features of organization and financing have been retained, but they go some way towards decentralization of powers and responsibilities. In particular, gates will be opened for:

□ **expanding the volume of apprenticeship training,**

□ **putting this avenue on a par with others in the educational structure.** One step in this direction is the independence of examination of the ways skills have been acquired.

□ **making the schools realize and appreciate their new role as elements of an active and continuing system of education, with functioning contacts with the business sector.** This will benefit schools and educators with innovative ideas and readiness to enter into cooperation with institutes elsewhere in Europe.

An urgent task is, however, to make employers interested and committed. There is much underutilized capacity in this sector. This is what Mr. Vilho Hirvi, the General Director of the National Board of Education, had in mind when he recently suggested that “a successful campaign for increasing training places should be a matter of national effort”.

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Vocational training in Austria

A clear yes to Europe

When in 1987 the Board of the Industrialists' Association (I.V.) - the largest voluntary employers' organization in Austria - took the decision that "Austria must become a member of the EC", it was uncertain if and when this vision would become reality but an initial course was set towards Europe. The prime consideration was not confined to solely economic issues (2/3 of Austria's trade is conducted with Community Member States) but also to the growing together of a "Europe of citizens".

It was clear from the very outset that an efficient economic area could not be prescribed through provisions, laws and regulations and that human beings primarily must mould and bolster it. The thoughts of Jean Monnet were the guiding light for the I.V. and incentive enough to look in depth at the consequences of EU accession for education, qualifications, science and teaching. No vision, no single event has in preceding decades caused more movement towards discussion and reform in the Austrian education system than European integration.

The 12 June 1994 - an historical date - and the tremendous and surprising Yes to Europe voiced by 66.6% of Austrians was an almost untypically clear expression of intention to pursue the path towards an uncertain future, it was a clear renunciation of slogans designed to instil fear - of foreigners, or leaving a position of neutrality - and an expression of trust in the policies of this country. It was also of significance for Europe as no country had shown such unanimity in advocating the EU since Maastricht.

The vocational education system in Austria

The multiplicity of opportunities following compulsory education (9 years) is doubtless an uncontested strength of the

Austrian education system. Three of four "education paths" open opportunities for vocational training, in itself a testimony to the high status of vocational training in Austria and which accounts to a large extent for the economic success of the past decades.

The following educational paths may be selected following compulsory education:

- ❑ the four-year advanced level at the General Higher School which leads to university entrance (grammar schools),
- ❑ the five-year full-time vocational training at Higher School which opens the opportunity for both university entrance and vocational training (e.g. technical and commercial schools),
- ❑ the three - four year full-time vocational training Intermediate School (e.g. technical and economic specialized colleges) which do not provide access to university,
- ❑ the three to three and a half year training in enterprises and part-time vocational schools as part of the dual vocational training system.

16% of young people (as a % of this age group in the population, see Table 1) complete the five-year vocational training Higher School, 13% the four-year General Higher School, 8% the three-four year vocational Intermediate School, 41% of young people complete dual vocational training.

Although - and this is regarded as a strength of the Austrian system - only some 2% of young people do not pursue education and training after compulsory education, 21% of young people do not acquire a certificate following three years of further education or training, a problem still searching for a solution.

The most important path for ensuring a supply of skilled workers is the dual path



Gerhard Riemer

Head of the Education and Social Policy Department, Industrialists' Association, Vienna

The author broadly sketches the contours of the Austrian vocational training system, stressing that three of a total of four "education paths" following compulsory schooling provide vocational training. He goes on to state the most important expectations which Austrian industry places upon European integration, stressing that "(...) no vision, no single event (...) in preceding decades caused more movement towards discussion and reform in the Austrian education system than European integration".



Table 1: the attained education of young people 1991 as a percentage of the comparable age group in the population*

| | |
|---|----|
| 5-year vocational training higher school | 16 |
| 4-year general higher school | 13 |
| 3- 4-year vocational training intermediate school ¹⁾ | 8 |
| dual vocational training ¹⁾ | 41 |
| general compulsory school ²⁾ | 21 |
| <hr/> | |
| total | 99 |

* average of 17- 19 year-olds (n=104 920)

1) including agriculture and forestry trainees

2) or specialized school of less than three years duration

Source: BMUK; ÖSTAT; ibw estimates

“Although (...) only some 2% of young people do not pursue education and training after compulsory education, 21% of young people do not acquire a certificate following three years of further education or training (...)”

“The most important path for ensuring a supply of skilled workers is the dual path of vocational training which is taken by some 46% of this age group.”

of vocational training which is taken by some 46% of this age group.

At the end of 1993 in Austria there were 131 359 apprentices undergoing training (see table 2). The decrease in the number of apprentices is attributable primarily to demographic trends and is accentuated by increasing competition between practical training in companies and the school following compulsory schooling and through a still somewhat cautious rethinking in industry.

Expectations placed on vocational training policy in the EU

In formulating Austrian expectations of a European vocational training policy - from the perspective of the I.V. - three points come to the fore:

1. Since 1.1.95 when Austria entered the Community the EU is no longer giving priority to information and publicity work but to involvement in organization, in decision making and in bearing responsibilities. The experience gathered in this will demarcate the opportunities and limitations of implementing political aims.

2. The broader and stronger national consensus is in political issues, the greater will be the chances of implementing these.

Austrian policy is still involved in formulating joint priorities as regards to content; industry has stated its expectations and significant approaches are currently

being formulated for an “Austrian White Paper”.

3. In a “larger entity” like the EU the aims of the individual partners have particular chance of success when they are identical to the concerns of other countries. On this account it is important for vocational policy in Austria to seek and implement jointly with colleagues and friends in other Member States the paths to pursue.

The autonomy of States in education and cultural policy is as important as the official competence borne by the European Union for educational issues as part of the Maastricht Treaty.

In the view of the I.V. there are a number of focal points in European vocational training policy:

1. Multiplicity means a richness of experience and thus the **exchange of experience and information** among European countries in vocational training is of decisive importance. We would like to discuss and know more about the ideas, measures and procedures in other countries in order to make a better assessment of our own problems, to build upon our strengths and to eliminate weaknesses.

We must all know more about others, and others more about us.

This means: Intensifying the exchange of experience between educational practitioners, experts, trainers in companies in order to examine the specificities of the Austrian vocational training system in the combination which has proved its



worth to us for 14 - 19 year-olds and consisting of general education, vocational training and practical training.

2. When in the year 2000 some 80 % of technologies are outmoded and will be replaced by others and at the same time 80 % of those in active employment today are still in employment a European vocational training policy must also focus on **continuing training**. 50 % of learning in our society will take place subsequent to school and/or university.

This means: Focusing on continuing training (CVT) in European educational policy which calls for a detailed analysis of continuing training activities in the individual countries (CVT at school, universities, in the enterprise ...) and in a European comparison in order to build political measures upon this; for example, increased tax incentives for companies investing in training.

3. If cerebral skills in modern occupations are increasing in importance to the detriment of manual skills, trainers must be able to adapt more quickly to new challenges, and vocational training policy must adapt more quickly. European vocational training policy is thus increasingly dependent on international **training and qualification research** - this is the experience gathered by Austria. Particular importance is attached to a targeted promotion and support of **training and education innovation** particularly in cooperation with companies.

4. The **“new European dimension”** in the education system must have a greater impact on vocational training. This signifies improving knowledge of foreign languages among young people in the dual system, targeted promotion of international mobility (transnational exchange programmes for young people in vocational training and not only primarily for advanced school pupils and students) in addition to extending their knowledge of other European cultures.

5. In Austria as in Germany and Switzerland there is in our view no alternative to **vocational training in a dual system**. This vocational training path can only maintain its significance if its attractiveness and its capacity to grant access to more advanced levels of education are improved. This view must be examined critically in a dialogue with other Member States.

6. Finally we expect a realistic discussion of education utopias such as, for example, promoting training leave.

In view of the structural change, international pressure on costs and high training investment by the economy in Austria (1 % of GNP) firms are not in a position to accept greater burdens. On the other hand better qualified staff are one of the most important prerequisites for companies to remain competitive. This tension which can only be resolved through a step-by-step policy must take into account the varying national situations.

“Multiplicity means a richness of experience and thus the exchange of experience and information among European countries in vocational training is of decisive importance.”

“(…) a European vocational training policy must also focus on continuing training.”

“(…) there is in our view no alternative to vocational training in a dual system.”

“In view of (...) high training investment by the economy in Austria (...) firms are not in a position to accept greater burdens.” For this reason tax incentives for training expenditure should be improved (for the individual and the company).

Table 2: Apprentices by economic sector and demographic training potential

| Sector | 1980 | | 1993 | | Diff. % |
|-------------------------------|----------------|------------|----------------|------------|---------|
| | total | % | total | % | |
| Trade and handicrafts | 102,051 | 53 | 72,449 | 55 | + 2 |
| Industry | 28,668 | 15 | 18,076 | 14 | - 1 |
| Commerce | 40,536 | 21 | 22,251 | 17 | - 4 |
| Tourism and leisure | 16,232 | 8 | 11,562 | 9 | + 1 |
| Transport | 3,001 | 2 | 2,565 | 2 | 0 |
| Banking and insurance | 524 | 0 | 728 | 1 | + 1 |
| Areas not covered by Chambers | 3,077 | 2 | 3,728 | 3 | + 1 |
| Total | 194,089 | 101 | 131,359 | 101 | |

Source: Austrian Chamber of Commerce



Responsible involvement in organizing vocational training policy within the European Union (...) demands (...) a realistic self-critical analysis of the situation and problems, an unprejudiced openness in analysing alternative perhaps new solutions and the courage and stamina, if necessary, to pursue new paths in a common Europe."

This means: greater motivation for workers to undergo continuing training and use their leisure time for training purposes, greater investment on the part of the companies in training, improving tax incentives for training investments (for the individual and the company).

programme will play an important role. Austria is well prepared, the Austrian Office has already commenced work and will initiate, support and accompany programmes in close cooperation with industrial associations and companies.

Responsible involvement in organizing vocational training policy within the European Union places three demands on Austria and our experts:

Conclusions

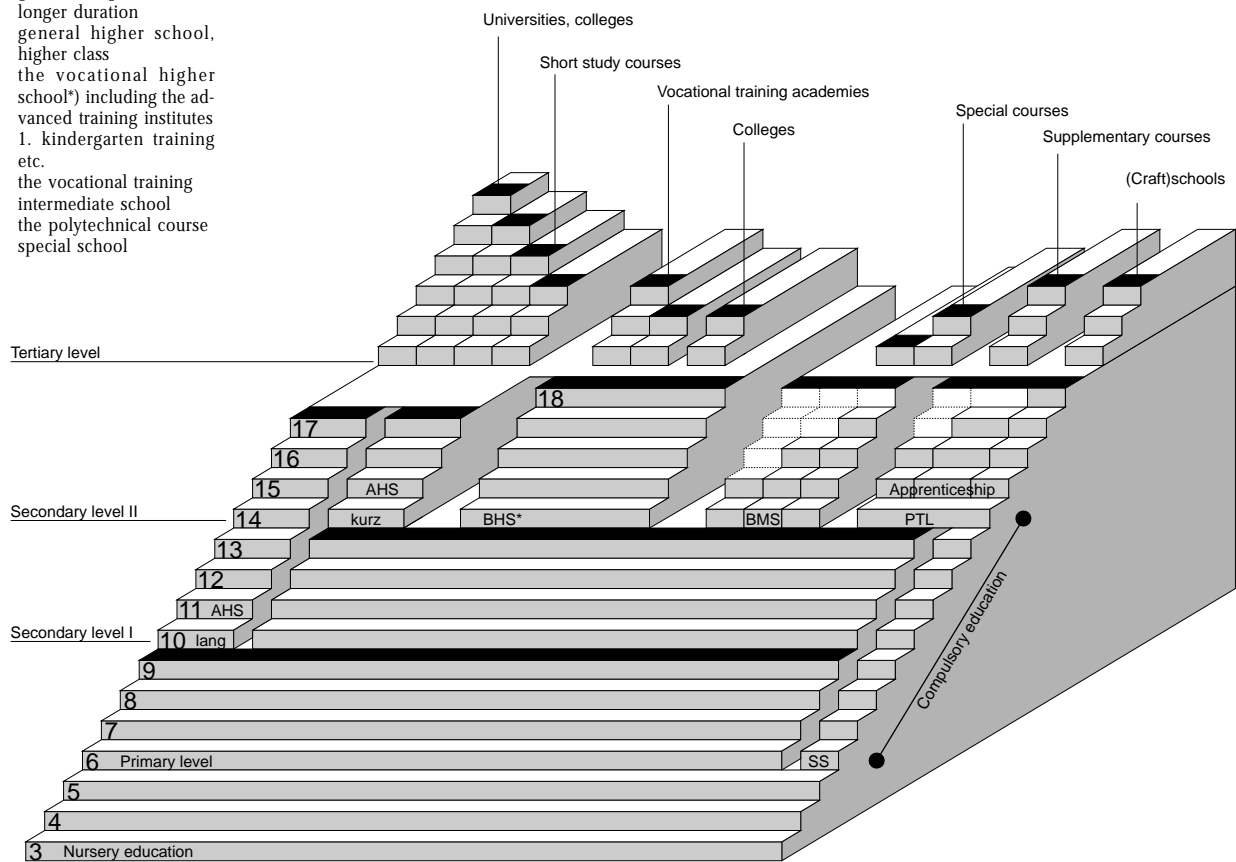
On the basis of the aims formulated concerning a Community policy of vocational training in the Treaty on European Union Austria expects a great deal of support and assistance in its policies. The opportunities afforded by the LEONARDO pro-

A realistic self-critical analysis of the situation and problems, an unprejudiced openness in analysing alternative perhaps new solutions and the courage and stamina, if necessary, to pursue new paths in a common Europe.

Organization and structure of the Austrian education system

key:

- AHS-lang: general higher school, longer duration
- AHS-kurz: general higher school, higher class
- BHS: the vocational higher school*) including the advanced training institutes 1. kindergarten training etc.
- BMS: the vocational training intermediate school
- PTL: the polytechnical course
- SS: special school



Source: ibw, Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft, *Das berufliche Bildungswesen in der Republik Österreich, Report for the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, (CEDEFOP), Vienna, December 1991; Grafics: Rudolf J. Schmitt, Berlin; Technical production: Axel Hunstock, Berlin*



Reforms in the vocational education and training systems of the Nordic countries

Development of reform scenes and modifications to reform ideas

Two preliminary remarks

On Nordic concepts of vocational education and training

In most of the Nordic countries the emergence and expansion of VET systems is related to the late industrialization process. Public provision for VET (i.e. vocational schools and technical colleges) was established and extended to bolster the initial development of emerging industries. The role of apprentice training has remained marginal or complementary. The major exception to this rule is Denmark, where traditional apprentice training and a specific “alternance training” model have been the basic means of providing initial VET.

The prime institutions delivering initial vocational education have been full-time schools (for basic vocational education) or colleges (for higher level vocational qualifications). These institutions form an integral part of the public education systems (under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education). In national terminology the general concepts for VET refer clearly to an educational policy context (SE: yrkesutbildning, NO: yrkesutdanning, DA: erhvervsuddannelse or FI: ammatillinen koulutus) and primarily to the above-mentioned institutions.

The provisions for continuing vocational training (CVT) have been developed either on a market basis or as a part of

employment policy. An infrastructure for public employment training provisions was developed in most Nordic countries in the 1960s or 1970s. Gradually the employment training schemes and the respective training centres were consolidated as public training centres for all kinds of CVT provision. The original concepts for these provisions emphasize employment promotion as their main function (SWE: arbetsmarknadsutbildning, NOR: arbeidsmarkedsopplaering, DA: arbeidsmarkedsuddannelse, FIN: työllisyyskoulutus).

On reform scenes related to initial VET systems and to CVT provision

In the following sections the notion of “reform scene” is used as a compound concept to characterize conceptual continuity in original reform ideas or conceptual changes and reorientations within reform processes. The main criteria for distinguishing between different kinds of reform scenes are the following:

1) The systemic context:

A distinction is made between

- a) reforms in educational systems that redefine the role of VET provision and
- b) detached CVT reforms which redefine the role of CVT provision within employment promotion measures or as a corollary to labour market policy.

2) Institutional and conceptual implications:



Pekka Kämäräinen

has carried out research at the University of Tampere (Work Research Centre),

Finland. In June 1994 he joined CEDEFOP as an expert on a temporary basis (on secondment from the Finnish government).

The article examines an era of reform processes in the vocational education and training (VET) systems of the Nordic countries (since 1970 to the present day). Two main kinds of approaches can be identified in VET reforms:

1) attempts to bridge the gap between “academic” and “vocational” tracks in the educational systems and

2) attempts to re-vitalize co-operation between public (school-based) VET provisions and working life.

The article explores the impact these approaches have had on the national concepts of vocational education (and the extent to which they have been actually implemented). In this context the article goes on to describe national differences in curriculum development strategies. The main focus is placed on initial VET systems but an additional section explores reform tendencies in continuing vocational training (CVT) systems.



“The role of apprentice training has remained marginal or complementary. The major exception to this rule is Denmark, (...)”

“The prime institutions delivering initial vocational education have been full-time schools (for basic vocational education) or colleges (for higher level vocational qualifications).”

“The original reform model (implemented in 1970) for upper secondary education in Sweden was the forerunner of structural unification reforms in the Nordic countries.”

“The core idea (...) was that the educational system should be developed into a unified system consisting of comprehensive institutions at each educational level (...)”

A distinction is made between
a) structural unification reforms which integrate initial VET provision into comprehensive institutions (or development frameworks) of upper secondary education and

b) sub-structural convergence reforms between different kinds of VET provision.

3) The role of curriculum development:

A distinction is made between

a) curricular “paradigm shifts” which require thoroughgoing reorientation in the development of teaching/learning contexts and

b) limited curriculum revision or pragmatic transitions to new curricular formats.

In the dynamics of the national reform processes one can distinguish between 1) programming or introductory phases and 2) revision or modification phases. Due to national circumstances interim phases in the reform processes can also be identified. These are characterized by contradictions between policy premises and between the actual implementation contexts.

The original reform models and the development of the reform scenes in the 1970s

The following section describes the original reform models that were designed for initial VET and partially implemented in the 1970s (or at the latest in 1980). The order of the national cases corresponds to the chronological order of the respective reform debates. It is worth noting that some national reforms have served as pilot reforms for neighbouring countries. This has led both to “family resemblances” and to pattern variation between different national reform models.

Sweden: Unification of (upper) secondary education as the basic model

The original reform model (implemented in 1970) for upper secondary education in Sweden was the forerunner of structural unification reforms in the Nordic countries. The reform integrated the previous academic school track (gymnasium) and the former full-time vocational schools

(yrkesskola) and technical colleges (fackskola) into one integrated school form for the whole upper secondary level (gymnasieskola). The reform was accompanied by new terminology that emphasized the integral frameworks and equal status of the curricular options (consistent use of the attribute “gymnasial” referring to all curricular options). At the same time expressions that referred to the specific “vocational” character of VET provision (‘yrkes-’) were avoided or minimized.

The core idea behind this was that the educational system should be developed into a unified system consisting of comprehensive institutions at each educational level (comprehensive school, unified upper secondary, comprehensive higher education). Thus, the reform intended to reduce the number of qualification levels and to transform status distinctions into horizontal differences between equal options (at the same level).

The main thrust of the reform was not in the first phase to launch radical integration of academic, vocational and technical curricula. Therefore, the curricular change was merely a pragmatic transition to a linear structure that converted previous separate provisions into linear options within a common framework.

In the late 1970s an attempt was made to develop a thoroughgoing curriculum reform model that would take further steps towards bridging the gap between “academic” and “vocational” learning and to develop a broad macro-sectoral structure for the foundation year of vocational options. However, when the committee had completed preparations for such a curriculum reform, the political and the economic contexts had changed. Neither the political willingness nor the economic possibility existed to implement such a reform.

Finland: Compromised two-track model with unified frameworks for the initial VET system

In Finland a similar model for institutional unification was prepared in the early seventies. The original model also included a curriculum reform concept for a broad foundation period (based on occupational fields) and for successive specialization.



Due to political and educational controversies the model was revised to a compromise based on a two-track system (Government decision 1974, framework legislation 1978). The main thrust of the reform was then to integrate the vocational and technical education provisions into a coherent sub-system which could compete with the academic track and provide alternative progression routes to higher education.

The curriculum reform concept was based on three premises:

- 1) aggregation of hitherto separate vocational and technical curricula into 25 basic lines;
- 2) introduction of a joint foundation phase to be followed by successive differentiation in different qualification levels (skilled worker/technician/ engineer) and respective specializations;
- 3) reduction of the specialization options to a limited number of broad occupational profiles.

The reform concept was implemented towards the end of the 1970s and in the early 1980s but with several gradual modifications. The joint foundation year was not implemented in the areas in which vocational schools and technical colleges existed as separate institutions. Moreover, the idea of postponed differentiation or specialization only after the foundation year was soon abandoned (after a short experimental period).

Yet, the curriculum reform concept had three essential consequences. The aggregation of VET provision into a limited number of basic lines made opting for vocational and technical education more transparent. A larger number of general subjects was introduced into the foundation phase in order to boost vocational progression routes towards higher qualifications (or to higher education). The major consequence was that the occupational profiles after the foundation phase were converted into broad aggregate specializations.

Norway: Unification of upper secondary education and a complementary reform in apprentice training

In Norway a unification reform model for upper secondary education was being for-

mulated in the mid-60s. The legislation was passed in 1974 and implemented in the latter part of the 1970s. In principle the reform model was similar to that of Sweden. Thus, the previous school form for academic track and the full-time school for vocational education were integrated into the unified school form for upper secondary education (videregående skole).

On account of a lengthy preparatory phase accompanied by some experimentation, integration was more in the form of organizational rearrangement than a major political measure. This integration was not linked to a cultural redefinition of the relationship between academic (almenn utdanning) and vocational (yrkesutdanning) options. Nor was the Norwegian reform linked to a parallel trend to render post-secondary education comprehensive (as was the case in Sweden) or to integrate vocational and technical education (as in Finland).

The curricular format implemented in Norway differed clearly from the neighbouring countries. Whereas the Swedish and Finnish reforms were implemented with "whole curriculum" approaches, the Norwegian unification reform was accompanied by a cyclic structure based on three cycles: the foundation cycle (grunnkurs) and two successive continuation cycles (videregående kurs I, II). Thus, individual schools could limit their provisions to the first cycle (or to the first two cycles). Moreover, the students or trainees were able to reconsider their choice of study options after each cycle.

During preparation of the Norwegian reform model it was assumed that apprentice training would gradually be replaced by school-based vocational education. Yet, in rural areas and in certain sectors apprentice training had a necessary complementary function. An additional argument for preservation and for re-vitalization of apprentice training was the tradition of a separate final examination (svennepröv, fagpröv), recognized by the labour market. Apprentice training proved to be the most effective way to guarantee the required post-school work experience.

The new law on apprentice training of 1980 (lov om fagopplaering) provided curricular harmonization between school-

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based vocational education and apprentice training. In addition it facilitated flexible transition from school-based vocational education to apprentice training. Thus, the harmonization of school-based vocational education and apprentice training became a systemic feature in the Norwegian reform scene.

Denmark: The search for a policy choice between apprentice training reform and a unification perspective

In Denmark a tradition of apprentice training (mesterlaere) had prevailed as the dominant means of providing initial VET. The two central principles have been that of trade's self-management (faglige selvstyre - the co-management role of social partners), and that of alternance training (vekselsuddannelse - a rotation between school-based and workplace-based sequences). However, the supply of apprentice training opportunities was far more limited than that of school-based provisions in the neighbouring countries. Moreover, the curricula were based on highly traditional and rather narrow occupational profiles. After the comprehensive school reform there was a clear risk of marginalization.

Against such a background an experimental curriculum for a vocational foundation phase (erhvervsfaglige grunduddannelse - EFG) was designed. The EFG-model was launched as a pilot scheme and formalized by an experimental law in 1972. In contrast to the traditional apprentice training it introduced broader occupational clusters and within the school-based parts encouraged experimentation in integrated teaching/learning provision. The EFG-model was used both as an entrance phase within the apprentice training and as an access programme to full-time technical (or semi-professional) education provision (HTX, HHX).

On account of the widespread nature and polyvalent character of the EFG-model the Danish government proposed in 1978 a reform of initial VET that was primarily based on the EFG-model. It was supported by the social partners (which were also represented in the commissions supervising the EFG-experiments). Yet, the proposal was rejected by the Danish parliament whereas the EFG-model was maintained as an experiment to be continued.

This decision led to several years' stagnation in reform that would cover the whole range of initial VET.

Parallel to the introduction of the EFG-model there was a long-term policy debate as to whether Denmark should follow a course similar to the other Nordic countries towards unification of upper secondary education. The most important document in this debate was prepared by a government commission (U90) which was asked to prepare guidelines for national educational policy with a 15-year perspective.

The U90 (1978) report policy perspective for youth education that should be implemented by several institutions through cooperation between complementary provisions and curricula. In this respect the commission presented further development of the EFG-model as a possibility to bridge the gap between hitherto separate teaching/learning cultures.

Due to the rejection of the EFG-based reform proposal in the parliament the broader reform scene was affected even more severely than the particular VET-related scene. Whereas the EFG-based schemes continued to be developed, long-term policy planning lost one of its essential cornerstones and entered a period of stagnation.

Iceland: In search of a national reform model through small-scale experiments

In the 1970s in Iceland there was little movement towards national reform in initial VET. Due to the scarcity of national resources interest focused on observing certain pilot models in other Nordic countries and on adapting these to the national context. The modest dimensions of national VET provision and the national labour markets meant that the need for systemic framework solutions or national policy choices was not as evident as in other Nordic countries.

Due to direct contacts the vocational schools made some attempts to implement the Danish EFG-model through school-specific curriculum development. In the Reykjavik area the local education policy brought about organizational restructur-



ing directed towards unified upper secondary education.

Changes to the original national reform scene

The following section deals with the revision and modification of original reform models and with attempts to introduce new reform models after a period of stagnation in reform debates.

Sweden: New emphasis on workplace-based learning within initial VET

The Swedish unification reform model was essentially a reform of school structures and the role of working life remained marginal. This was partially justified by the argument that school-based vocational education should be followed by a completion phase (färdigutbildning) after the transition to working life. The educational policy-makers expected that the social partners would provide the frameworks for the completion phase training through general agreements.

On account of these underlying premises and cost factors, the vocational curricular options were limited to 2 years' duration whereas the academic options were of 3 years duration (and the technical option 4 years). However, the social partners did not reach such general agreements, but instead the upper secondary schools started to develop particular schemes for the completion phase (påbyggnadskurser). These schemes were developed primarily for local or regional purposes but gradually they provided most sectors with a non-transparent supply structure.

In the mid-80s a government commission reviewed the vocational options within the unified upper secondary level (Översyn över gymnasial yrkesutbildning - ÖGY). The report concluded by making two major proposals:

- a) an aggregation of the vocational curricula based on labour market sectors and
- b) a reshaping of vocational curricula into 3-year programmes including an integral workplace-based completion phase.

The proposals of the ÖGY were further developed in two parallel processes. A

national experimental programme on 3-year VET with a workplace-based completion year was implemented (1988-1992). Parallel to this experiment a reform of framework legislation and a new curricular structure was prepared.

The new legislation was passed in 1991 and it ushered in a new phase in curriculum revision. The core philosophy of curriculum revision is the implementation of national model programmes (based on the sectoral approach of the ÖGY report) and increased autonomy for regional, local or individual modifications. Moreover, the new framework introduces a core of general subjects (the main precondition for progression to higher education). The workplace-based completion phase is defined as an integral part of the vocational curricula. School-based completion schemes are also introduced (to prepare trainees in vocational education for higher education).

Finland: Dissolution of the basic reform model and emergence of new fields of experimentation

In Finland the partial unification of vocational and technical education did not produce a balance between the academic and vocational tracks. The academic track continued to expand and the demand for higher education increased constantly. Due to the "overproduction" of graduates from the academic track (with an entrance qualification to higher education), parts of vocational and technical education started to provide curricular options for this clientele (with the baccalaureate as the entrance requirement). Thus, parts of vocational and technical education were converted into post-secondary provisions while other parts were used as an additional prelude to higher education.

In 1990 the Finnish Ministry of Education launched a public debate on the outcome of prior reforms and on the need to revise the structural and curricular frameworks in post-compulsory education. The debate focused on a draft version of a new reform concept (the "vision" document).

The structural and curricular implication of this proposal was a dissolution of the "basic line" framework of the previous

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“The reform of upper secondary provisions has turned into cooperation (and mutual exchange) between academic and vocational curricula. Students and trainees at the respective school forms are provided with a coordinated set of locally matching modules that cover the curricula of the respective options. The aim is to facilitate combined study profiles that integrate an entrance qualification to higher education (or to “polytechnics”) with initial vocational education. This experiment continues in the form of local cooperation till the end of 1996.”

In Norway “(...) in the 1980s it was apparent that there was a permanent lack of apprentice training opportunities not compensated for by school-based provisions.”

“The gap between the two VET sub-systems was discussed by a government commission (...) in 1989-91. (...) the commission favoured policy measures that would guarantee initial full-length vocational training.(...) This should take the form either of full-length school-based provisions or of a combination of school-based provisions and apprenticeship.”

reform model. Proposals were made to upgrade the “technical education” level colleges or curricula to the non-university sector of higher education. The academic and vocational provisions of the upper secondary level were to be integrated into unified institutional or curricular frameworks (similar to the Swedish “Gymnasieskola” or to the Norwegian “Videregående skole”).

After a short period of debate and further preparation a new reform cycle was launched on the basis of an experimental law - the upgrading of “technical education” colleges proceeding with 22 local experiments leading to multi-sectoral “polytechnics”. Some of the experimental “polytechnics” expect to be granted regular status in 1995.

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Norway: The emergence of the Norwegian version of “dualization” as a major reform scene

In Norway the unification reform model was concluded with apprentice training reform. Due to a flexible transition regulation these two forms of initial VET were expected to provide sufficient training opportunities and continuity of vocational learning processes. Yet, in the 1980s it was apparent that there was a permanent lack of apprentice training opportunities not compensated for by school-based provisions.

The gap between the two VET sub-systems was discussed by a government commission (Blegen-utvalg) in 1989-91. The work of the commission was accompanied by several empirical studies on the transition of youth from initial VET (and on the utilization of optional choices within the unified upper secondary level).

The commission discussed the possibility of introducing new legislation covering all VET provisions. Instead of proposing major revision of the legal frameworks the commission favoured policy measures that would guarantee initial full-length vocational training. Thus, the commission proposed that regional authorities should be given the responsibility of guaranteeing at least 3-year initial training. This should take the form either of full-length school-based provisions or of a combination of school-based provisions and apprenticeship. The most favoured model in policy debates has been a combination of two years’ school-based vocational education and two years’ apprenticeship (the Norwegian version of dualization).

In their formulation the implementation of these proposals has been combined with a curriculum reform in the unified upper secondary school. The reform process (Reform 94) is scheduled for the period 1994-96. During this time the new curricular frameworks (which consist of programme structures similar to those in Sweden) will be implemented. Parallel to the school-internal curriculum revision there is a mobilization of training potential to guarantee full-length initial VET provision.

In the implementation process the social partners are becoming active cooperation partners for the public education system. In addition to this the social partners have also emphasized that the present VET provisions should be accompanied by measures to open a work-related progression route for vocational learning

Denmark: Emergence of a new reform scene for initial VET

In Denmark the reform debates recommenced in the latter part of the 1980s after a period of stagnation. A government commission (Nielsen-Nordskov udvalg) prepared a new model to integrate the parallel provisions in initial VET (mesterlaere; EFG). The proposals of the commission provided the basis for the new legislation passed in 1989 and which came into force in 1991.

The new reform model (Erhvervsuddannelsereform - EUR) combined the two existing models into two entries to an in-



tegrated curricular structure. The foundation year curriculum of the EFG model was divided into two school periods (of which the first one was not obligatory to those who have an apprentice contract). Following the first school period the students or trainees have similar curricula (irrespective of whether they have entered as vocational school students or as apprentice trainees). During the workplace-based training periods the apprentices returned to the enterprises with which they had a contract, whereas the vocational schools were responsible for arranging a training opportunity for those without a contract.

Major changes were made to the management of education. The regulations concerning recruitment areas were abolished and the vocational schools became competitors on the national training market. The financing of the vocational schools was also made dependent upon their accounted success in attracting trainees (the transition to the so-called taximeter-principle).

During the implementation phase it became evident that the proportion of apprentice contracts was not growing and that the vocational schools had difficulties in providing the necessary opportunities for workplace-based practical periods. This led to the emergence of compensatory simulation-based practical training arrangements. These have been gradually accepted as alternative means of organizing the practical training periods.

Another problem has been vocational progression. Whereas the EFG-model provided also access to "technical education" curricula, the foundation phases of the new model were not designed to have a similar "polyvalent" function.

Iceland: Transition to a unified framework with modular curricula

In Iceland new structures for upper secondary education were gradually developed on the basis of local decisions in the Reykjavik area. In 1988 a new law on the unification of upper secondary education (*framhaldsskola*) was passed. The curricular format of the Icelandic reform model was one of complete modularization of the curricula. This enabled op-

timal use of scarce teacher resources in rural areas (concentration on foundation modules in vocational options and cooperation between academic and vocational provisions).

Parallel to the curricular unification the guidelines for final examinations for vocational qualifications (similar to the Norwegian 'svennepröv') were standardized.

However, the most recent tendencies indicate a willingness to find new sector-specific training models (formally within the integrated frameworks but practically as spin-offs from the general patterns). The two most essential initiatives are the attempts to introduce a dual model of apprentice training as the main model for the graphics industry and the initiative to set up a separate training centre for the transport sector.

On reform in the continuing vocational training systems

The reform processes that have been discussed above have contributed to new conceptual definitions of the role of initial VET in the educational systems. The reforms to the employment training schemes have been initiated as specific measures within employment promotion policies. Gradually the schemes have gained greater relevance as continuing vocational training provisions. Consequently, reform models for these provisions are being transformed into general frameworks for curriculum development or for certification of CVT provisions.

Moreover, in some countries the employment training schemes have served as pilot schemes for curriculum innovation or for bridging experiments. In different countries the pilot experiments have been related to bridging public training provisions and company-specific training and development measures or school curricula and respective provisions for adult learners or for bridging training schemes and competence-based assessment.

In Denmark the employment training (AMU) provisions have special status as the training provision for a traditional

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“All Nordic countries continue to develop their national VET systems as integral parts of the educational system.”

The unification reform models “(...) have not led to a conceptual integration or to a cultural convergence between “academic” and “vocational” options.”

“Partial VET reform models (which have been based on a combination of school-based and work-related learning) (...) have encountered problems in guaranteeing a sufficient amount of workplace-based training opportunities or flexible continuity of learning processes (...)”

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category of the semi-skilled workforce (Specialarbeider). The employment training provisions have also had essentially an ice-breaking function in the development of pedagogic cooperation arrangements that combine public training provisions (with a more general perspective) and company-specific needs for adequately specialized training. Moreover, the employment training measures have also served as pilot schemes for developing appropriate training strategies for adult learners who are not used to academic forms of teaching and learning (the reverse EFG approach).

In Sweden the bridging functions of the AMU provisions have applied more to an integrative approach to develop modular forms of general and vocational learning provisions for adult learners. In the recent curriculum reform of unified upper secondary education particular emphasis was placed on the need to develop optimal harmonization between the initial VET provisions and the respective provisions in adult education (KomVux and AMU).

In Norway legislation on apprentice training provided also the essential frameworks for retraining adults changing from one occupational field to another. However, in recent years the Norwegian AMO has played more than an auxiliary role as an alternative provider of initial VET.

In Finland the employment training schemes have been redefined as CVT provisions that are available also for self-organized learning and for contracted learning. Moreover, these training provisions have served as a pilot field for the introduction of the Finnish version of competence-based assessment.

Concluding remarks

The reform scenes cited above in the Nordic VET systems have been reconstructed with emphasis on national reform models and on national reform management. However, recent developments indicate that the Nordic countries are in a transition process towards a new kind of constellation between policy-making, educational management and curriculum development.

An additional dimension of change is greater involvement of the Nordic countries in European cooperation. Already this aspect is manifested by national interest in the comparability of the national VET provisions and in quality control (or quality management) of VET systems.

From the perspective of such changes the following conclusions (which refer to an era of national reforms) must be viewed as interim conclusions. Nevertheless, these can at least feature in the broader European discussion as lessons from the Nordic reforms:

1. All Nordic countries continue to develop their national VET systems as integral parts of the educational system. However, the role of systemic planning at national level is changing due to decentralization of educational management. Thus, local institutions have an essential role to play in decisions concerning the adaptation of model curricula (and with regard to cooperation with other educational institutions or with working life).

2. The unification reform models have encountered resistance or they have been reduced to organizational reforms. As such they have not led to a conceptual integration or to a cultural convergence between “academic” and “vocational” options. Moreover, it has become necessary to supplement (or to modify) such reform models with curricular sub-structures that are based on cooperation with working life.

3. Partial VET reform models (which have been based on a combination of school-based and work-related learning) have led to other kinds of implementation problems. These models have encountered problems in guaranteeing a sufficient amount of workplace-based training opportunities or flexible continuity of learning processes (also in practice). Moreover, these models have been accompanied by a further need to open attractive progression routes for vocational learning to higher education (or to an equivalent level).

4. The role of curriculum development within different reform phases has changed. In the original reform models the curricular structures provided a stand-



ard format (either linear or cyclic or semi-modular). In the most recent phases curricula have been transformed into programme frameworks which enable flexible adaptations or curricular cooperation between different educational institutions.

5. The public CVT provisions (based on employment training schemes) have developed from sporadic measures to an essential sub-system of VET. This sub-sys-

tem has also served as the pilot field for cooperation between public training provisions and company-specific development projects. Moreover, this sub-system has also been the main experimental field for modularization and for the Nordic versions of competence-based assessment. However, in most cases there is a need to improve curricular correspondence between initial VET programmes and CVT schemes.

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Per Lundborg

Research Fellow at
IUI (the Industrial
Institute for Econom-
ic and Social
Research);
Associate Professor



in Economics.

Theoretical and empirical
research on issues related to
international migration,
particularly in the Nordic
labour market.

The experiences gained from the Nordic labour market are presented in the light of European labour market integration. Major flows of migrants across country borders are only obtained when real income differences are large and job vacancies available in the high-income country. Nordic real income equalization, and, more recently, lack of job openings in the Swedish labour market, have caused mobility between the Nordic countries to fall quite drastically. To the extent that income differentials between Southern European countries and other EU Member States fall, one should also expect European migration rates to fall.

“The Nordic labour market was formally established in 1954 when Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland and Iceland signed an agreement that removed all formal barriers for workers to migrate across the Nordic countries.”

Experiences from the integrated Nordic labour market

Introduction

Labour mobility in the European Union is receiving increasing interest, one reason being the proposed monetary union. For the monetary union to constitute an efficient exchange rate regime it is crucial that labour mobility is high and wages and prices are flexible. Today, however, labour mobility is very limited across most member countries, and from this perspective, the experiences gained from the Nordic labour market may very well be of interest. The purpose of this article is to summarize the major experiences and to present some basic facts about the Nordic labour market.

The Nordic countries have a long-standing experience of labour market integration. The Nordic labour market was formally established in 1954 when Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland and Iceland signed an agreement that removed all formal barriers for workers to migrate across the Nordic countries. No permit was then needed for a Nordic citizen to work and reside in any other Nordic country. Moreover, the local authorities in all countries were committed to actively inform employment agencies in the other Nordic countries about local job openings and working conditions. Far reaching commitments to equal treatment of native and immigrant workers were also made.

Migration in the Nordic countries.

By the time the Nordic labour market was established Sweden was the Nordic country with the highest per capita income. Moreover, the Swedish labour market situation was very favourable and being geographically surrounded by the other Nor-

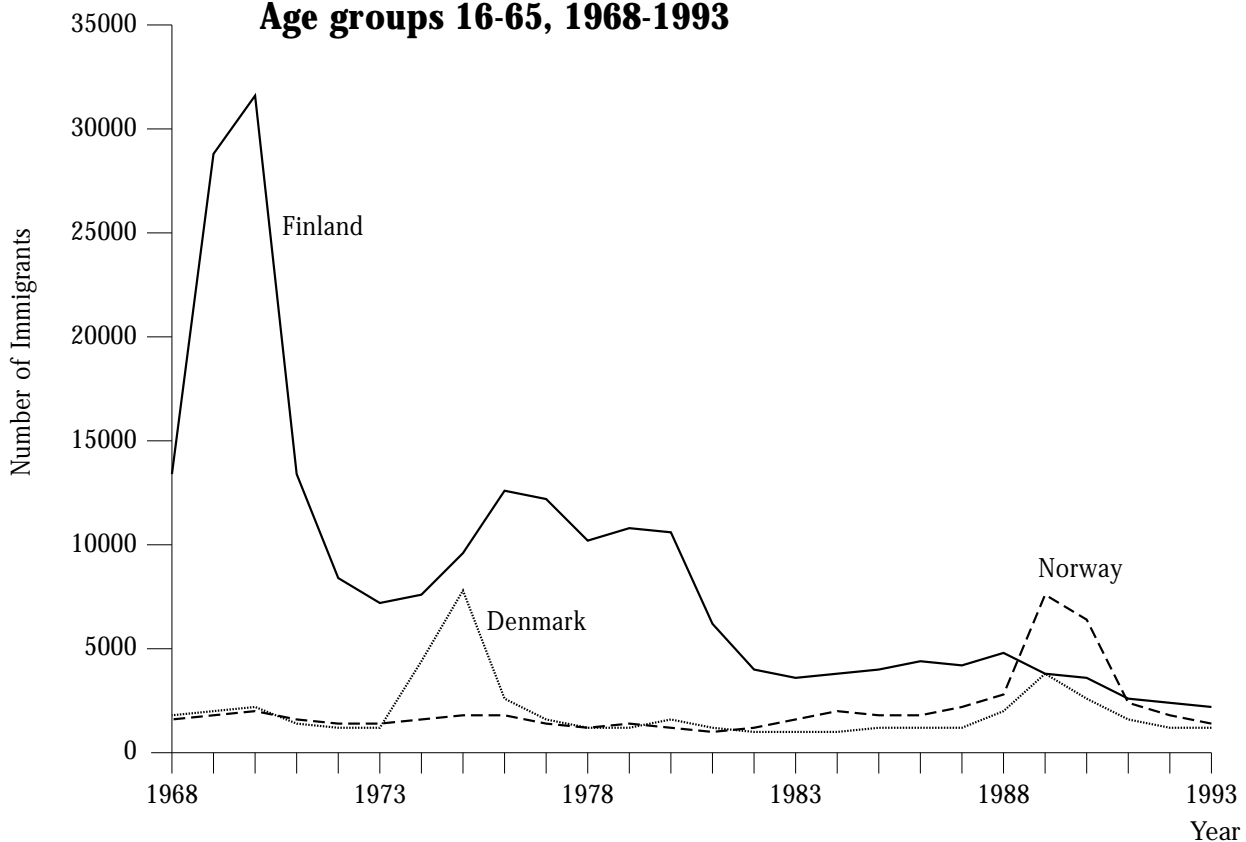
dic countries it was no surprise that Sweden became the main country of immigration. Given that Sweden has been a net receiver of immigrants from all the other Nordic countries for almost every year since 1954, it is natural to focus particularly on immigration into Sweden.

When the agreement came into operation it did not trigger a major influx of labour into Sweden. The reason is that Sweden already by 1954 pursued a liberal immigration policy which partly was a continuation of the Swedish commitments to receive war refugees from the other Nordic countries. The major migrations into Sweden instead took place in the 1960s. Gradually, a community of Finnish immigrants was established in Sweden and with a substantial real wage difference between Sweden and Finland and job growth in Sweden it became increasingly common for Finnish citizens to work in Sweden. During the years of the business peak in 1969 and 1970, Finnish gross immigration into Sweden reached record levels of around 40 000 people per year. Since then, immigration tapered off and the 1980s gross immigration figures were considerably lower. Sweden is the dominating country of destination for the Finnish citizens and very small numbers of Finns have chosen to work and reside in Denmark or Norway.

It is difficult to single out labour migration from migration for other reasons like studying, family reunion, etc. Figure 1 shows immigration flows to Sweden from Finland, Norway and Denmark, excluding children below 16 and elderly above 65 and of citizens from these three countries respectively. This underestimates the gross migration figures but compared to overall gross migration a more correct picture of labour migration among the citizens of these three countries is provided.



**Figure 1: Immigration to Sweden from Norway, Denmark and Finland
Includes only citizens of the home countries
Age groups 16-65, 1968-1993**



Immigration to Sweden from the other Nordic countries has generally been at much lower levels than immigration from Finland. With the exception of 1974 and 1975 when unemployment rose drastically in Denmark, and in the late 1980s, Danish migration to Sweden has been at a low level, approximately 1 000 persons per year.

Norwegian migration to Sweden also has been remarkably stable and at about the same level as Danish migration. However, with the rise in unemployment in Norway in 1989 and 1990 there also followed a rather drastic increase in immigration to Sweden, where labour demand by this time was at a high level. Thus, to both the Danish workers in the mid-1970s and Norwegian workers in the late 1980s access to the Swedish labour market reduced the unemployment problem.

The Finnish economy entered a period of mass unemployment in the early 1990s. In 1993, for instance, the unemployment

rate reached 17.7%. Still, no increase in emigration to Sweden occurred, which primarily reflects the lack of job openings in the Swedish market. Indeed, the rates of migration to Sweden are low and immigration from Finland is at similar levels as those from Denmark and Norway.

Determinants of Nordic migration

Clearly, many factors contribute to the migration flows. In explaining Finnish-Swedish migration one cannot overlook the fact that real per capita income differentials between Finland and Sweden have been high (Lundborg (1991)). An employed potential migrant then compares his present wage to the expected wage at the destination. But income differentials are not only important when it comes to wages but also to unemployment benefits. As the unemployed have incentives to move to other jobs, it is evi-

“Given that Sweden has been a net receiver of immigrants from all the other Nordic countries for almost every year since 1954, it is natural to focus particularly on immigration into Sweden.”

“in the 1960s (...) it became increasingly common for Finnish citizens to work in Sweden.”

“(...) to both the Danish workers in the mid-1970s and Norwegian workers in the late 1980s access to the Swedish labour market reduced the unemployment problem.”



Today as a consequence of the lack of job openings in the Swedish market, “ (...) the rates of migration to Sweden are low and immigration from Finland is at similar levels as those from Denmark and Norway.”

“ (...) income differentials are not only important when it comes to wages but also to unemployment benefits.”

“Empirical research has shown that vacancies or labour market turnover (hiring and firing) has a higher explanatory value than the unemployment rate.”

“Other factors that may affect migration are countries’ cultural and language similarities. (...) Person-specific factors like age, gender and education also play a role. (...) better educated people tend to migrate more than the poorly educated.”

dent that the potential unemployed migrant compares the expected wage at destination to the benefit level at the origin.

Another set of explanatory variables can be derived from the labour market. It is quite natural that countries of full employment are more attractive to migrants than countries of high unemployment. But this is largely a consequence of the fact that low unemployment countries in general have more vacancies than high unemployment countries. Empirical research has shown that vacancies or labour market turnover (hiring and firing) has a higher explanatory value than the unemployment rate. The Nordic countries which have had a rise in the number of vacancies have thereby been able to attract workers from the other countries. For many years, vacancies in the Swedish labour market attracted Finnish workers. But during the 1980s many Finns returned to Finland despite a higher unemployment rate there. The reason was then that the number of vacancies grew at high rates in Finland.

Still, emigration more often takes place from areas of high unemployment than from low unemployment areas. But this does not mean that only the unemployed move. Employees also have a higher propensity to move in a situation of rising or high unemployment since the unemployment risk is high. But irrespective of employment status, emigration lowers the unemployment problem at the place of origin. The extent to which the Nordic labour market has decreased the unemployment problem, has, however, not been given much attention in research.

Another set of explanatory variables has to do with distance and represents different costs of moving. It is quite natural that the Danish immigrants to Sweden are concentrated in Southern Sweden. Geographical distance not only represents transportation costs but also the psychological costs of living far away from friends and relatives. The further away a person moves, the higher are the costs of return migration to the place of origin. Of importance is also that uncertainty about the conditions at the place of destination rises in proportion to the distance. As noted, the Nordic authorities are most active at spreading information about lo-

cal conditions to the other Nordic countries.

The inhibiting effects of distance on migration is often counteracted by the existence of previous immigrants from the country of origin. It is a well known fact that immigrants tend to concentrate in a certain country or certain places in a certain country. There are several explanations for this behaviour. The most obvious may be that concentration lowers certain migration costs. In particular, concentration lowers the psychological costs of living away from home. Moreover, previous immigrants may facilitate assimilation and help the recent immigrant in the contacts with the authorities. The stocks of previous immigrants does play a very important role in the Nordic labour market. Lundborg (1991) showed that previous immigration to Sweden from Denmark, Norway and Finland is an important determinant of the labour flows from all three countries.

Other factors that may affect migration are countries’ cultural and language similarities. From this point of view one should expect more immigration to Sweden from Norway and Denmark than from Finland. Person-specific factors like age, gender and education also play a role. Like most migration, Nordic labour migration rates are higher among the young than among the old. Generally, men have a higher migration propensity than women due to a higher labour market participation rate. Finally, better educated people tend to migrate more than the poorly educated. An explanation often put forward is that the better educated are more homogeneous across nationalities and therefore find it more easy to adjust to new environments.

The question of migration of the well educated has other welfare implications than that of the low educated. In particular, often the government finances a large share of higher education and with migration another country reaps the benefits of the investment in education (so called «brain drain»). Migration in the Nordic labour market among the higher educated is analyzed in Pedersen (1994). The migration propensity in the Nordic market is, though, higher for the low educated than for the well educated. Instead, peo-



ple with a high level of education have a higher propensity to migrate to non-Nordic countries than do those with a lower level. This is in line with several other studies that show that distance has less of a deterring effect for the well educated.

The welfare consequences of the Nordic labour market

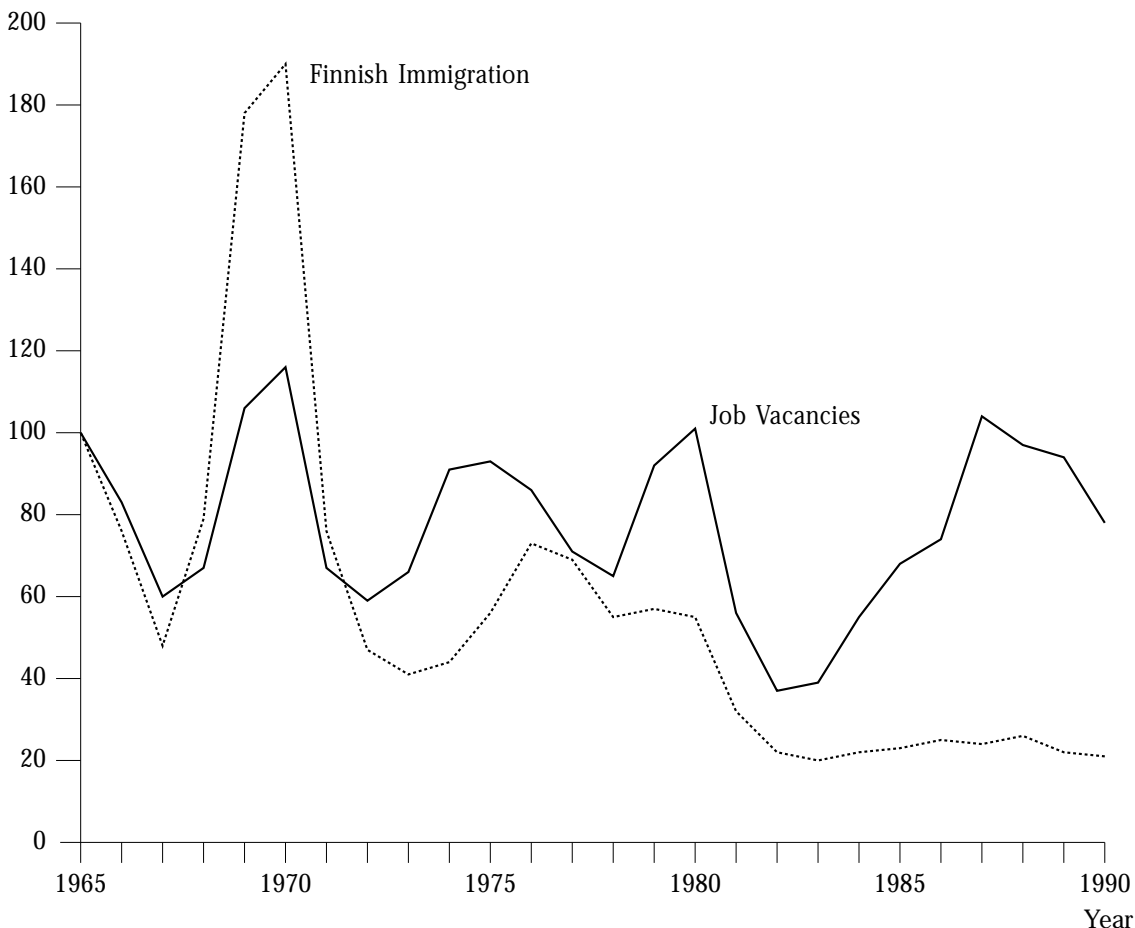
A standard textbook argument is that a free labour market raises total production in the integrated area which is a major argument in favour of liberalization. Though no study has analyzed this issue in detail, there are no good arguments to question this theoretical prediction. This does not, however, imply that both the emigration and immigration country benefit and even less that all types of workers benefit.

Clearly, the free Nordic labour market provided Sweden with a larger workforce than it otherwise would have had. As the bulk of Nordic immigrants were blue collar workers a possible effect of this increase in the supply of unskilled workers is that their wages are somewhat lower than otherwise had been the case. With the same reasoning, the emigration of workers from Finland should be expected to raise the wage level there and hence the integrated labour market should contribute to equalizing wages across the participating countries. However, these issues have not been examined empirically. But it is well known that during the period when the free Nordic labour market has been in existence, we have experienced a major equalization of real wages in the Nordic countries, and in particular between Sweden and Finland. The wage changes are therefore much in line with what we should expect from a theoretical model of the consequences of migration.

“The migration propensity in the Nordic market is, (...) higher for the low educated than for the well educated.”

“As the bulk of Nordic immigrants were blue collar workers a possible effect of this increase in the supply of unskilled workers is that their wages are somewhat lower than otherwise had been the case.”

Figure 2: Finnish Immigration and Job Vacancies in Sweden. 1965 to 1990. Index 1965 = 100





“(...) during the period when the free Nordic labour market has been in existence, we have experienced a major equalization of real wages in the Nordic countries, and in particular between Sweden and Finland.”

“(...) in the early 1980s (...) the real income differences between Sweden and Finland had narrowed to such an extent that it no longer paid to move to Sweden to fill these vacancies.”

“In the Nordic labour market, real wages have equalized to such an extent that no country that experiences an increase in vacancies can expect immigrants to fill these.”

“With sustained income narrowing across EU Member States migration in the Union will undoubtedly fall in the future.”

“Should labour demand rise in some of the better off union countries, migration rates might again go up. This requires though a more active policy to stimulate employment than the one pursued by the EU Member States and that unemployment compensation does not prevent job search.”

1) For the effects of unemployment benefits on Nordic migration, see Lundborg (1991).

2) Editorial note: cf. The EEC Regulation on freedom of movement for workers within the Community

Vacancies at the destination and real income differentials in the two countries are the major forces behind international migration. This can be illustrated in Figure 2 showing immigration from Finland into Sweden from 1965 to 1990. The line indicating vacancies in the Swedish labour market reflects the Swedish business cycle.

We see, that for a long period, up to the early 1980s, immigration to Sweden from Finland largely matches the vacancies. However, the correlation between immigration and vacancies is broken in the early 1980s and the major reason is that by this time the real income differences between Sweden and Finland had narrowed to such an extent that it no longer paid to move to Sweden to fill these vacancies.

However, the correlation of labour immigration and vacancies until 1982 was of a considerable importance to the Swedish economy. In the peak years of 1969 and 1970, a total of 80 000 immigrants arrived who filled a very large number of the job vacancies. Had these immigrants not been allowed entry to the Swedish labour market, the excess demand for labour had undoubtedly spilled over into higher wages and hence inflation. In the peak of the business cycle in the late 1980s, no such labour immigration occurred and the excess demand for labour contribute to inflation. Thus, a free labour market not only benefits the efficiency of the economies of participating countries, but also has important macroeconomic effects and can contribute to restrict both inflation at the destination and unemployment at the origin.

Income differences across countries are, though, of great importance. In the Nordic labour market, real wages have equalized to such an extent that no country that experiences an increase in vacancies can expect immigrants to fill these. If another country suffers from unemployment the likelihood is higher that immigrants arrive. But this, in turn, requires that unemployment benefits in the country of origin are not high enough to prevent the unemployed from migrating.

Matching the unemployed in one country with vacancies in other countries is a crucial aspect of labour market integration. It is a fact that in some Nordic and

in EU countries the benefit level is so high that mobility inside the country and even more so across countries is inhibited.¹⁾ For labour market integration to be an efficient means of lowering unemployment and the number of vacancies, the benefit level can hardly be overlooked.

Other effects of immigration concern tax payments and provision of transfers. From the host country's point of view, the ideal immigrant is one who pays high taxes but receives little transfers such as the young and able. The labour market participation rate among the immigrants largely determines whether or not net transfers are provided to the citizens of the host country. An early study, Ekberg (1983) indicated that Sweden in 1970 received a net surplus from overall immigration. By that time labour participation among immigrants, including the Nordic immigrants, was high compared to the native Swedish population. Today, a similar calculation might be negative also for Nordic immigrants as the labour market participation rate is higher among the natives than among the immigrants.

Some lessons for the EU Member States

Real income differences between Southern EU Member States and the rich countries have been reduced at impressive rates. As real wages equalize, a consequence is that labour migration falls, as the case of Finnish migration to Sweden shows. With sustained income narrowing across EU Member States migration in the Union will undoubtedly fall in the future. Language barriers as well as cultural and religious differences are also likely migration obstacles though research has largely neglected these effects. Only in the long run will these obstacles be overcome.

However, labour demand also plays a role. Should labour demand rise in some of the better off union countries, migration rates might again go up. This requires though a more active policy to stimulate employment than the one pursued by the EU Member States and that unemployment compensation does not prevent job search. The 1992 programme²⁾ involved deregulation measures that would stimu-



late migration. Still, the crucial aspects in determining the prospects of migration, be it in the EU or elsewhere, are the narrowing of income differences and the existence of job vacancies. One can hardly foresee an increase in migration rates in the Union without an increase in job vacancies.

High migration rates *per se* are not an indicator of a well functioning economy. Only to the extent that the rate of matching of unemployed and suitable job openings across countries is low does there exist an economic problem. Low migration rates may simple reflect that economies develop at similar rates.

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The new Member States : some data ...

Statistical data

Data from OECD in Figures, supp. to the OECD Observer No. 188, June/July 1994

Demography

| | Total area thousand sq. km | Population | | | | | Age Structure of Population; % of total population | | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|--------|--------------|------------------|------------------|--|------|-------------------|------|-------------------|------|----------------|
| | | thousands | | per sq.km | Growth Rate % | | under 15 | | 15-64 | | 65 and over | | |
| | | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1992/91 | 1975/74 | 1992 | 1960 | 1992 | 1960 | 1992 | 1960 | |
| Austria | 83,9 | 7,884 | 7,571 | 94,0 | 0,8 | -0,3 | 17,5 | 22,0 | 67,3 | 65,8 | 15,2 | 12,2 | Austria |
| Belgium | 30,5 | 10,045 | 9,856 | 329,3 | 0,4 | 0,3 | 18,2 ^a | 23,5 | 66,5 | 64,5 | 15,3 | 12,0 | Belgium |
| Denmark | 43,1 | 5,170 | 5,119 | 120,0 | 0,3 | 0,3 | 17,0 ^a | 25,2 | 67,5 ^c | 64,2 | 15,5 | 10,6 | Denmark |
| Finland | 338,0 | 5,042 | 4,827 | 14,9 | 0,3 | 0,4 | 19,2 | 30,4 | 67,1 | 62,3 | 13,7 | 7,3 | Finland |
| France | 549,0 | 57,372 | 54,480 | 104,5 | 0,6 | 0,5 | 20,0 | 26,4 | 65,6 | 62,0 | 14,4 | 11,6 | France |
| Germany | 248,6 ^a | 64,846 ^b | 61,638 | 260,8 | 1,2 | -0,4 | 15,5 | 21,3 | 69,2 | 67,8 | 15,3 | 10,9 | Germany |
| Greece | 132,0 | 10,300 | 9,790 | 78,0 | 0,3 | 0,9 | 19,4 ^f | 26,1 | 66,8 ^f | 65,8 | 13,8 ^f | 8,1 | Greece |
| Ireland | 70,3 | 3,547 | 3,480 | 50,5 | 0,7 | 1,7 | 26,8 ^e | 30,5 | 61,8 ^e | 58,6 | 11,4 ^e | 10,9 | Ireland |
| Italy | 301,2 | 56,859 | 56,639 | 188,8 | 0,2 | 0,6 | 15,7 | 23,4 | 68,9 | 67,6 | 15,4 | 9,0 | Italy |
| Luxembourg | 2,6 | 390 | 366 | 150,0 | 2,1 ^c | 1,1 | 17,7 ^e | 21,4 | 68,8 ^e | 67,8 | 13,5 ^e | 10,8 | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands | 40,8 | 15,184 | 14,313 | 372,2 | 0,8 | 0,9 | 18,3 | 30,0 | 68,7 | 61,0 | 13,0 | 9,0 | Netherlands |
| Portugal | 92,4 | 9,858 | 9,877 | 106,7 | 0,0 | 1,0 ^d | 19,1 | 29,0 | 66,9 | 62,9 | 14,0 | 8,1 | Portugal |
| Spain | 504,8 | 39,085 | 37,961 | 77,4 | 0,2 | 1,0 | 18,4 | 27,3 | 67,6 | 64,5 | 14,0 | 8,2 | Spain |
| Sweden | 450,0 | 8,674 | 8,327 | 19,3 | 0,7 | 0,4 | 19,0 | 22,4 | 62,9 | 65,9 | 18,1 | 11,7 | Sweden |
| United Kingdom | 244,8 | 57,848 | 56,335 | 236,3 | 0,3 | 0,0 | 19,2 ^a | 23,3 | 65,1 ^c | 65,0 | 15,7 ^a | 11,7 | United Kingdom |

Notes: a. 356,9 for unified Germany
b. 80,569 for unified Germany
c. 1991/90

d. 1976/75
e. 1991
f. 1989

Sources: Labour Force Statistics: 1972-1992, OECD, Paris, 1994; Employment Outlook, OECD, Paris, September 1992.

Employment I

| | Total Labour Force | | | | Total Civilian Employment | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------------|---------------------------|--|------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------|
| | Thousands 1992 | Change since 1982 % | Female Participation Rate ¹ % | | Thousands 1992 | Change since 1982 % | Agriculture Forestry and Fishing ² % | Industry ² % | Services ² % | |
| | | | 1992 | 1982 | | | | | | |
| Austria | 3,679 | 11,4 | 58,0 | 50,2 | 3,546 | 11,2 | 7,1 | 35,6 | 57,4 | Austria |
| Belgium | 4,237 | 2,8 | 54,1 | 48,3 | 3,724 | 5,3 | 2,6 | 27,7 | 69,7 | Belgium |
| Denmark | 2,912 ^a | 8,9 ^b | 78,9 ^a | 72,6 | 2,612 ^a | 10,3 ^b | 5,7 ^a | 27,7 ^a | 66,6 ^a | Denmark |
| Finland | 2,527 | -0,6 | 70,7 | 72,4 | 2,163 | -8,6 | 8,6 | 27,9 | 63,5 | Finland |
| France | 25,109 | 5,8 | 58,7 | 54,7 | 22,032 | 3,7 | 5,2 | 28,9 | 65,9 | France |
| Germany | 30,949 | 8,4 | 58,6 | 52,9 | 28,708 | 9,6 | 3,1 | 38,3 | 58,6 | Germany |
| Greece | 3,934 ^a | 6,9 ^b | 40,8 ^a | 36,4 | 3,634 | 2,9 ^b | 22,2 ^a | 27,5 ^a | 50,3 ^a | Greece |
| Ireland | 1,384 ^a | 4,9 | 39,9 ^a | 37,6 | 1,113 ^a | -1,6 ^b | 13,8 ^a | 28,9 ^a | 57,3 ^a | Ireland |
| Italy | 24,612 | 8,0 | 45,8 ^a | 39,8 | 21,271 | 7,0 | 8,2 | 32,2 | 59,6 | Italy |
| Luxembourg | 165 ^a | 3,1 ^b | 44,7 ^a | 41,3 | 162 ^a | 2,5 ^b | 3,3 ^c | 30,5 ^c | 66,2 ^c | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands | 7,133 | .. | 55,5 | 39,0 | 6,576 | .. | 4,0 | 24,6 | 71,4 | Netherlands |
| Portugal | 4,764 | 10,0 | 61,9 | 54,4 | 4,498 | .. | 11,6 | 33,2 | 55,2 | Portugal |
| Spain | 15,432 | 12,8 | 42,0 | 32,5 | 12,359 | 11,4 | 10,1 | 32,4 | 57,5 | Spain |
| Sweden | 4,429 | 1,7 | 79,1 | 75,9 | 4,195 | -0,6 | 3,3 | 26,5 | 70,2 | Sweden |
| United Kingdom | 28,149 | 5,5 | 65,0 ^a | 57,1 | 25,181 | 6,8 | 2,2 | 26,5 | 71,3 | United Kingdom |

Notes: .. not available;
1. Defined as female labour force of all ages divided by female population aged 15-64;

2. See also pp. 26-27;
a. 1991;
b. 1991/81;
c. 1990

Sources: Labour Force Statistics: 1972-1992, OECD, Paris, 1994.



Employment II

| | Part-Time Employment as % of total employment | | | | | | Female Part-Time Employment % of total part-time employment | | Self-Employment % of total employment | | |
|--------------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|--|-------------------|--|-------------------|--------------------------|
| | Both Sexes | | Women | | Men | | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | |
| | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | | | | | |
| Austria | 9,1 | 8,0 | 20,5 | 18,9 | 1,6 | 1,5 | 89,1 | 87,8 | 10,2 | 16,0 | Austria |
| Belgium | 11,8 ^a | 6,4 ^b | 27,4 ^a | 16,3 ^b | 2,1 ^a | 1,3 ^b | 89,3 ^a | 86,2 ^b | 14,1 ^a | 13,7 | Belgium |
| Denmark | 23,1 ^a | 23,7 ^b | 37,8 ^a | 46,5 ^b | 10,5 ^a | 5,6 ^b | 75,5 ^a | 86,9 ^b | 9,1 ^a | 11,8 ^b | Denmark |
| Finland | 7,9 | 7,7 | 10,4 | 11,6 | 5,5 | 4,1 | 64,3 | 72,0 | 14,2 | 12,7 | Finland |
| France | 12,7 | 9,2 | 24,5 | 18,9 | 3,6 | 2,5 | 83,7 | 83,9 | 12,6 | 16,4 | France |
| Germany | 15,5 ^a | 12,0 ^b | 34,3 ^a | 28,9 ^b | 2,7 ^a | 1,6 ^b | 89,6 ^a | 91,9 ^b | 9,0 | 8,7 | Germany |
| Greece | 3,9 ^a | 3,3 ^b | 7,2 ^a | 6,6 ^b | 2,2 ^a | 1,8 ^b | 62,9 ^a | 62,4 ^b | 34,8 ^f | 38,9 | Greece |
| Ireland | 8,4 ^a | 6,6 ^c | 17,8 ^a | 15,5 ^c | 3,6 ^a | 2,7 ^c | 71,6 ^a | 71,6 ^c | 21,7 ^a | 20,8 | Ireland |
| Italy | 5,4 | 5,1 ^b | 10,5 | 10,1 ^b | 2,7 | 2,9 ^b | 67,9 | 61,4 ^b | 24,4 ^a | 23,6 | Italy |
| Luxembourg | 7,5 ^a | 6,3 ^c | 17,9 ^a | 17,0 ^c | 1,9 ^a | 1,0 ^c | 83,3 ^a | 88,9 ^c | 10,6 ^a | 12,4 | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands ¹ | 32,8 | 18,7 ^b | 62,9 | 44,6 ^b | 13,4 | 6,9 ^b | 75,0 | 74,6 ^b | 9,6 ^a | 12,4 | Netherlands ¹ |
| Portugal | 7,2 | 7,3 ^d | 11,0 | 14,7 ^d | 4,2 | 2,6 ^d | 67,4 | 77,9 ^d | 24,5 | 30,4 | Portugal |
| Spain | 5,9 | 5,8 ^e | 13,7 | 13,9 ^e | 2,0 | 2,4 ^e | 76,8 | 71,5 ^e | 21,4 | 22,1 | Spain |
| Sweden ² | 24,3 | 25,0 | 41,3 | 46,5 | 8,4 | 6,4 | 82,3 | 86,4 | 9,5 | 7,7 | Sweden ² |
| United Kingdom | 23,2 | 17,9 ^b | 44,6 | 40,0 ^b | 6,1 | 3,1 ^b | 85,4 | 89,6 ^b | 12,2 | 9,2 | United Kingdom |

Notes: .. not available;
1. Break in series 1985;
2. Break in series 1986;
a. 1991;
b. 1981;

c. 1983;
d. 1980;
e. 1987;
f. 1990

Sources: Employment Outlook, OECD, Paris, July 1993; Economic Outlook, OECD, Paris, December 1993; Labour Force Statistics: 1972-1992, OECD, Paris, 1994

Employment III

| | Unemployment Rates ¹ | | | | | | Long-term Unemployment (12 months or more) % of total unemployment | | Youth Unemployment Rates (under 25) % of youth labour force | | | | |
|----------------|--|------|--|------|--|------|--|-------------------|---|------|-------------------|------|----------------|
| | Both sexes % of total labour force | | Women % of total female labour force | | Men % of total male labour force | | 1992 | 1982 | Women | | Men | | |
| | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | | | 1992 | 1982 | 1992 | 1982 | |
| Austria | 3,6 | 3,5 | 3,8 | 4,8 | 3,5 | 2,8 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Austria |
| Belgium | 9,3 ^a | 11,9 | 13,2 ^a | 17,0 | 6,5 ^a | 8,7 | 61,6 ^a | 66,3 ^c | .. | .. | .. | .. | Belgium |
| Denmark | 9,1 ^a | 11,0 | 10,0 ^a | 11,2 | 8,3 ^a | 10,7 | 31,2 ^a | 33,0 ^c | .. | .. | .. | .. | Denmark |
| Finland | 13,0 | 5,3 | 10,5 | 5,2 | 15,1 | 5,4 | 9,1 ^a | 22,3 ^c | 21,4 | 10,2 | 25,1 | 9,6 | Finland |
| France | 10,2 | 8,1 | 12,7 | 11,2 | 8,2 | 6,0 | 36,1 ^a | 42,1 | 26,1 | 25,3 | 16,6 | 13,8 | France |
| Germany | 5,8 | 6,4 | 6,4 | 7,3 | 5,4 | 5,9 | 45,5 ^a | 39,3 ^c | 6,0 ^b | 9,6 | 5,4 ^b | 9,0 | Germany |
| Greece | 7,0 ^b | 5,8 | 11,7 ^b | 8,0 | 4,3 ^b | 4,7 | 47,0 ^a | 35,0 ^c | .. | .. | .. | .. | Greece |
| Ireland | 15,7 ^a | 11,4 | 12,1 ^a | 9,7 | 17,3 ^a | 12,1 | 60,3 ^a | 36,9 ^c | 21,1 ^a | 16,6 | 25,0 ^a | 22,9 | Ireland |
| Italy | 11,4 | 8,4 | 17,2 | 13,9 | 7,9 | 5,6 | 67,1 ^a | 57,7 ^c | 38,1 | 33,3 | 28,1 | 23,8 | Italy |
| Luxembourg | 1,2 ^a | 1,2 | 2,0 ^a | 1,7 | 1,1 ^a | 1,0 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands | 7,0 ^a | 11,3 | 9,5 ^a | 11,3 | 5,3 ^a | 11,4 | 43,0 ^a | 50,5 | 9,5 | 17,0 | 10,8 | 20,2 | Netherlands |
| Portugal | 4,1 | 7,3 | 4,9 | 12,1 | 3,5 | 4,0 | 38,3 ^a | 56,0 ^d | 11,5 | 23,8 | 7,8 | 8,0 | Portugal |
| Spain | 18,1 | 15,6 | 25,3 | 18,5 | 14,0 | 14,4 | 47,4 | 48,5 | 40,5 | 39,5 | 29,6 | 31,8 | Spain |
| Sweden | 5,3 | 3,1 | 4,1 | 3,4 | 6,3 | 2,9 | 8,1 ^a | 8,4 | 9,2 | 7,8 | 13,7 | 7,4 | Sweden |
| United Kingdom | 9,5 | 10,4 | 5,1 | 7,0 | 12,9 | 12,6 | 28,1 ^a | 47,0 | 9,9 | 19,7 | 19,7 | 25,9 | United Kingdom |

Notes: .. not available;
1. National definitions;
a. 1991;

b. 1990;
c. 1983;
d. 1986

Sources: Labour Force Statistics: 1971-1991, OECD, Paris, 1993; Employment Outlook, OECD, Paris, July 1993



Education I¹

| | Public Expenditure on Education % of GDP | | | | | Full-time Pupils/Students per thousand of population | | | | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------|---------|-----------|----------|---|-----------------|---------|-----------|----------|----------------|
| | Total ² | Pre- primary | Primary | Secondary | Tertiary | Total ³ | Pre- primary | Primary | Secondary | Tertiary | |
| Austria | 5,4 | 0,3 | 1,0 | 2,6 | 1,1 | 198 | 25 | 47 | 95 | 31 | Austria |
| Belgium | 5,4 | 0,5 | 0,9 | 2,4 | 0,9 | 217 | 38 | 75 | 80 | 25 | Belgium |
| Denmark | 6,1 | .. | .. | .. | 1,3 | 195 | 10 | 66 | 90 | 29 | Denmark |
| Finland | 6,7 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 209 | 7 | 78 | 89 | 35 | Finland |
| France | 5,4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 252 | 45 | 72 | 101 | 30 | France |
| Germany | 4,0 | 0,2 | 0,5 | 1,8 | 0,9 | 189 | 28 | 40 | 93 | 28 | Germany |
| Greece | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Greece |
| Ireland | 5,5 | 0,5 | 1,6 | 2,2 | 1,2 | 278 | 36 | 119 | 101 | 20 | Ireland |
| Italy | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 200 | 27 | 54 | 94 | 25 | Italy |
| Luxembourg | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands | 5,6 | 0,3 | 1,3 | 2,2 | 1,7 | 208 | 24 ^a | 77 | 82 | 25 | Netherlands |
| Portugal | 5,5 | 0,1 | 2,2 | 2,0 | 0,9 | 215 | 17 | 104 | 75 | 18 | Portugal |
| Spain | 4,5 | 0,3 | 1,0 | 2,4 | 0,8 | 247 | 25 | 72 | 117 | 31 | Spain |
| Sweden | 6,5 | 0,2 | 2,3 | 2,8 | 1,2 | 170 | 11 | 68 | 69 | 22 | Sweden |
| United Kingdom | 5,3 | 0,2 | 1,4 | 2,3 | 1,0 | 182 | 14 ^b | 79 | 76 | 13 | United Kingdom |

Notes: .. not available;
 1. 1990-91;
 2. Expenditure undistributed by school level is included in total;
 3. Total includes pre-primary pupils enrolled at part-time;
 a. All pre-primary pupils are enrolled at part-time;
 b. Some pre-primary pupils are enrolled at part-time

Source: Education at a Glance, OECD, Paris, 1993.

Education II¹

| | Number of full-time equivalent teachers per thousand of population | | | | | Full-time Enrolment Rates % of age-group concerned | | | Proportion of Age-group Concerned per thousand of age-group | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------|------------------|-----------|----------|---|-------|-------|---|-----------------------------------|----------------|
| | Total | Pre- primary | Primary | Secondary | Tertiary | 3-6 | 15-19 | 20-24 | Obtaining Secondary Qualifica- tions ² | Entering tertiary Education | |
| Austria | 17,2 | 1,2 | 4,1 | 10,1 | 1,9 | .. | .. | .. | 866 | 277 | Austria |
| Belgium | 21,3 | x | 7,7 ^a | 10,7 | 1,9 | .. | 81,6 | 21,8 | .. | 484 | Belgium |
| Denmark | 16,1 | 0,7 | 5,9 | 8,4 | 1,0 | 23,7 | 77,0 | 29,0 | 1.004 | 380 | Denmark |
| Finland | 14,2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 14,9 | .. | .. | 1.235 | 649 | Finland |
| France | .. | 1,6 | 3,1 | 7,2 | .. | 100,5 | 83,7 | 23,6 | 758 | 444 | France |
| Germany | 11,4 | 1,2 | 2,0 | 5,7 | 2,6 | 75,4 | 82,9 | 27,8 | 1.173 | 445 | Germany |
| Greece | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Greece |
| Ireland | 13,4 | 1,3 | 4,5 | 5,9 | 1,6 | 65,0 | 67,9 | .. | 783 | 338 | Ireland |
| Italy | .. | .. | 4,8 | 10,1 | 0,8 | .. | .. | .. | 507 | .. | Italy |
| Luxembourg | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | Luxembourg |
| Netherlands | 12,9 | 1,1 | 3,9 | 5,8 | 2,0 | 73,8 | 75,2 | 23,9 | 822 | 357 | Netherlands |
| Portugal | 17,7 | 0,8 | 7,8 | 7,5 | 1,5 | 58,0 | 53,8 | 13,2 | 506 | 352 | Portugal |
| Spain | 12,8 | 1,0 | 3,3 | 7,0 | 1,3 | 82,6 | 64,2 | 25,5 | 637 | .. | Spain |
| Sweden | .. | .. | 6,5 | 6,5 | .. | 23,1 | 68,5 | 14,0 | 802 | 492 | Sweden |
| United Kingdom | 11,9 | 0,5 | 3,7 | 6,1 | 1,3 | 81,9 ^b | 48,6 | 8,4 | .. | 277 | United Kingdom |

Notes: .. not available;
 x included in another category;
 1. 1990-91;
 2. Two or more qualifications can be obtained at secondary level;
 a. Includes pre-primary;
 b. Some pupils aged 3-6 are enrolled at part-time

Source: Education at a Glance, OECD, Paris, 1993



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Sweden

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Useful addresses

Austria

Public bodies

Bundesministerium für Unterricht und Kunst (BMUK)

Abt. II/7

z.H. Herrn Ministerialrat Mag. Peter Kreiml

z.H. Herrn Rat Mag. Schlick

Minoritenplatz 5

A-1014 Wien

Tel. 431++53120/4339

Tel. 431+53120/4491

Fax 431+53120/4130

Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Angelegenheiten

Stubenring 1

A-1010 Wien

Tel. 431+71100/5223 (Mag. Jost)

Fax 431+7142718

Fax 431+7137995

Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung

Rosengasse 2-6

A-1014 Wien

Tel. 431+53120/5920

Fax 431+53120/6205

Bundeskammer der gewerblichen Wirtschaft

z.H. Herrn Dr. Georg Piskaty

Wiedner Hauptstrasse 63

A-1045 Wien

Tel. 431+50105/4072

Tel. 431+50105/4073

Fax 431+50206/261

Vereinigung österreichischer Industrieller

z.H. Frau Mag. Gerlinde Pammer

Scharzenbergplatz 4

A-1030 Wien

Tel. 431+71135/2365

Fax 431+71135/2922

Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte

z.H. Herrn Mag. Ernst Löwe

Prinz-Eugen-Strasse 20-22

A-1040 Wien

Tel. 431+50165/2473

Fax 431+50165/2230

Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte

z. H. Frau Mag. Brigitte Stierl

Prinz-Eugen-Strasse 20-22

A-1040 Wien

Tel. 431+50165/3132

Fax 431+50165/2230

Fax 431+50165/3186

Österreichischer Gewerkschaftsbund

z.H. Herrn Sekretär Gerhard Prager

Hohenstaufengasse 10-12

A-1010 Wien

Tel. 431+53444/466

Fax 431+53444204

Research institutes

Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung

z.H. Herrn Ministerialrat Dr. Heinz

Kasparovsky

Rosengasse 2-6

A-1014 Wien

Tel. 431+53120/5920

Fax 431+53120/6205

Institut für Berufs- und Erwachsenenbildungsforschung an der Universität Linz (IBE)

z.H. Univ. Doz. Mag. Dr. W. Blumberger

Raimundstrasse 17

A-4020 Linz

Tel. 4370+6511083

Fax 4370+609313/12

Institut für Bildungsforschung der Wirtschaft (IBW)

z.H. Herrn Dr. Klaus Schedler

Rainergrasse 38

A-1050 Wien

Tel. 431+5451671/27

Fax. 431+5451671/22

Österreichisches Institut für Berufsbildungsforschung (ÖIBF)

z.H. Frau Maria Hofstätter

Kolingasse 15

A-1090 Wien

Tel. 431+31033340

Tel. 431+3197772

Fax 431+3197772



Institut für höhere Studien

z.H. Herr Dr. Lorenz Lassnig
Stumpergasse 56
A-1060 Wien
Tel. 431+599910

Industriewissenschaftliches Institut

z.H. Mag. Alexander Kohler
Reisnerstrasse 40
A-1030 Wien
Tel. 431+7153790

Social Partners

Employers' Organization

Vereinigung Österreichischer Industrieller (VÖI)

Haus der Industrie Scharzenbergplatz, 4
A-1031 Wien III
Tel. 431+711350
Fax 431+711352507

Trade Union

ÖGB

Hohenstaufengasse 10-12
Postfach 155
A-1011 Wien
Tel. 431+2253444
Fax 431+225344/4204

Finland

Public bodies

Ministry of Labour

Eteläesplanadi 4
Box 524
FIN-00101 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+18561
Fax 3580+1856427

National Board of Education

Hakaniemenkatu 2
FIN-00530 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+7061
Fax 3580+7062865

Further education centre for the vocational institutes and administration

Lapinniemenranta 12
FIN-33180 Tampere
Tel. 35831+534400
Fax 35831+534434

National Board of Education (Opetushallitus):

Areas of expertise: evaluation, EURYDICE, CEDEFOP, INES, comparison of certifications, lines of educational policy, general administration of education
P.O. Box 380
FIN-00531 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+774775

Ministry of Education/Planning Unit Secretariat (Opetusministeriö/suunnittelusihteeristö)

Areas of expertise: strategies for future planning of education
P.O. Box 293
FIN-00171 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+134171

Research institutes

The Research Institute (FISS)

Swedish School of Social Science
PB 16 (Topeliusgatan 16)
FIN-00014 University of Helsinki

University of Tampere: Work Research Centre (Tampereen yliopisto: Työelämän tutkimuskeskus)

The links between work and education, specialized research concerning work and chances in work
P.O. Box 607
FIN-33101 Tampere
Tel. 35831+156111
Fax 35831+157265

University of Lapland

Faculty of Social Science
Unit for Social Work
P.B. 122
FIN-96101 Rovaniemi
Tel. 35860+3241
Fax 35860+32420

University of Jyväskylä: Institute for Educational Research (Jyväskylän yliopisto: kasvatustieteiden tutkimuslaitos)

Areas of expertise: learning results IEAE, Votec, specialized research for education
P.O. Box 35
FIN-40351 Jyväskylä
Tel. 35841+601211



University of Turku: Research Unit for the Sociology of Education (Turun yliopisto, koulutussosiologian tutkimuskeskus)

Sociologically oriented research of education
Hämeenkatu 1
FIN-20500 Turku
Tel. 35821+6335878

Government Institute for Economic Research (Valtion taloudellinen tutkimuskeskus)

Economic research of education
Hämeentie 3
FIN-00530 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+70371

The Research Institute of the Finnish Economy (ETLA) (Elinkeinoelämän Tutkimuslaitos)

Lönnrothinkatu 4 B
FIN-00120 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+609900
Fax 3580+601753

National Research and Development Centre for Welfare and Health (STAKES) Sosiaali- ja terveystieteiden tutkimus- ja kehittämiskeskus

P.O. Box 220
FIN-00531 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+39671
Fax 3580+761307

☐ **Social Partners**

Trade Unions

Central Organization of Finnish Trade Unions (SAK)

Siltasaarenkatu 3 A
FIN-00530 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+77211
Fax 3580+7721447

Finnish Confederation of Salaried Employees (STTK)

Ponjoisranta 4 A
P.B. 248
FIN-00171 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+131521
Fax 3580+652367

Confederation of Unions for Academic Professionals in Finland (AKAVA)

Rautatienläisenkatu 6
FIN-00520 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+141822
Fax 3580+142595

Employers' Organizations

Confederation of Finnish Industry and Employers (TT)

Eteläranta 10; P.B. 30
FIN-00131 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+68681
Fax 3580+68682316

Employers' Confederation of Service Industries in Finland (LTK)

Eteläranta 10
FIN-00130 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+179831
Fax 3580+655588

Commission for Local Authority Employers (Kunnallinen Työmarkkinalaitos)

2 linja 14, Kuntatalo
FIN-00530 Helsinki
Tel. 3580+7711
Fax 3580-7012239

Sweden

☐ **Public bodies**

National Employment-Training Board (AMU-Gruppen)

Box 1264; S-11119 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7016500

Utbildningsdepartementet Ministry of Education and Science

Drottninggatan 16
S-10333 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7631000
Fax 468+7231734

Skolverket-National Agency for education

Kungsgatan 53
S-10620 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7233200
Fax 468+244420

Arbetsdepartementet Ministry of Labour

Drottninggatan 21
S-10333 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7631000
Fax 468+210842



**Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen Swedish
National Labour Market Board**

S-17199 Solna
Tel. 468+7306000
Fax 468+278368

Statistics Sweden

Department of Labour and Educational
Statistics
S-70189 Örebro
Tel. 4619+176000

□ **Research Institutes**

**The Industrial Institute for Eco-
nomic and Social Research
(Industrins utrednings institut)**

Box 5501
S-11485 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7838000
Fax 468+6617969

**Stockholm Institute of Education
Lärarhögskolan i Stockholm**

Box 34103
S-10026 Stockholm

**The Council for Research into Uni-
versities and University Colleges
Rådet för forskning om universitet
och högskolor**

Box 45501
S-10430 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7283802

**Stockholms Universitet/Institutioner
för internationell pedagogik
Stockholm University/Institute of In-
ternational Education**

S-10691 Stockholm
Tel. 468+162000
Fax 468+153133

□ **Social Partners**

Employers' Organizations

**Svenska Arbetsgivareföreningen (SAF)
Swedish Employers' Confederation
(SAF)**

S-10330 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7626000
Fax 468+7626290

**Swedish engineering
employers' association (VF)**

Box 5510
Storgatan 5
S-11485 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7820800

Trade Unions

**The Swedish Trade Union Confedera-
tion (LO)**

Bainhusgatan 1
S-10553 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7962500
Fax 468+7962800

**The Swedish Confederation of
Professional Employees (TCO)**

S-11494 Stockholm
Tel. 468+7829100
Fax 468+7829108

Europe - International

Information material, studies and comparative research

Vocational education and training in

- ❑ **Belgium** (FR, IT, NL)
- ❑ **Denmark** (DA, EN, ES, FR)
- ❑ **Germany** (DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, NL, PT)
- ❑ **Spain** (ES)
- ❑ **France** (DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, IT, PT)
- ❑ **Greece** (DE, EN, GR)
- ❑ **Italy** (DE, FR, IT)
- ❑ **Ireland** (EN, ES)
- ❑ **Luxembourg** (EN, ES, FR, PT)
- ❑ **the Netherlands** (DE, EN, FR, PT)
- ❑ **Portugal** (PT)
- ❑ **the United Kingdom** (DE, EN, ES, IT, PT)

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)
Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1993, 1994

After describing the administrative, demographic and economic context and giving a brief synopsis of the history of training systems, these national monographs look at the operation of initial and continuing vocational training, the organizations in charge of training, the role of the social partners, and the financing of training. The monographs also include a description of trends and current developments.

Structures of the education and initial training systems in the Member States of the European Union and in the EFTA/EEA countries

Prepared in cooperation by the Education Information Network in the European Community (EURYDICE) and the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)
European Commission: Task Force Human Resources, Education, Training and Youth
Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, *currently being published*
DE, EN, FR

This second edition has been written on the basis of information supplied to the EURYDICE European Unit by the EURYDICE National Units, and has been validated by the competent national authorities. All countries are dealt with in a similar way in order to facilitate comparison between them, if desired. Chapters cover: responsibilities for and administration of the education system as a whole, plus a description of pre-school, primary and secondary education provision up to the end of compulsory schooling. Both the public and the private sectors are taken into account.

The determinants of transitions in youth. Papers from the conference organized by the ESF network on Transitions in Youth, CEDEFOP and GRET (Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona). Barcelona 20-21 September 1993

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)
Berlin, CEDEFOP Panorama, no. 43, 1994, 338 pages
EN

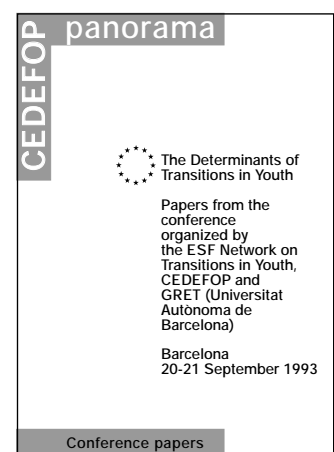
Available free of charge from CEDEFOP

This was the first international meeting of the "European Science Foundation Network on Transitions in Youth", which has the long-term goal of advancing theoretical understanding of transitions in youth, and especially, of the relationships between education/training and the labour market, through the comparative analysis of regular and longitudinal surveys of transitions. The conference had five workshops: perspectives on systems, institutions and changes; labour market itineraries of secondary school-leavers; social and household dimensions of youth transitions; the process and consequences of educational differentiation; labour market itineraries of higher education graduates. The ensuing papers reproduced here allow comparison of approaches and pre-occupations between countries and identify complex and multi-dimensional features of the integration process which involves numerous economic, social and personal factors.

Reading selection

This section has been prepared by
Maryse Peschel
and the Documentation Service with the help of members of the national documentation network (cf. last page)

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





Occupations in the tourist sector. A comparative analysis in nine Community States

Guerra D.; Peroni G

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,

1994, 576 pages

ISBN 92-826-8367-2 (en)

EN, FR, IT

This study on occupations in the hotel and tourist sector is part of the "Community directory of occupational profiles" project. This project, which was launched in 1990, is intended as an experiment for a method of international comparison of occupations in the hotel and tourist sector, in the electronics industry and in the audio-visual sector. On the basis of the national reports for nine countries (Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Greece, France, Italy, Portugal, United Kingdom), the study presents the methodology followed, an analysis of the tourist sector in the various countries and a card index of the 27 vocational profiles selected. For each of the profiles selected, this index consists of a comparative file followed by nine national files comprising: a description of the reference function, a chart of the vocational tasks, the skills required, the typical training route, its duration and certification.

A first report, published in 1992 by CEDEFOP, is offered for sale at the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities: "Community directory of occupational profiles. Occupations in the Hotel Tourist Sector within the European Community - A Comparative Analysis" ISBN 92-826-2986-4 (en).

Trends in the structure of qualifications for occupations relating to computer networks

Haji C.

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP)

Berlin, CEDEFOP Panorama, no. 47, 1994, 38 pages

EN, FR

Available free of charge from CEDEFOP

This report is a first attempt at a comparative study of the structures of qualifications in various national contexts. Car-

ried out in Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom, the study compares the evolution of qualifications for occupations involving the installation, management and maintenance of local or long-distance networks. Jobs relating to computer networks involve new and highly specific qualifications, which involve the following functions: research and planning, installation, management, user assistance (desk help), control and maintenance. On the basis of the national conclusions drawn, it would seem that companies seek persons with a high degree of adaptability, who are able to establish interpersonal relations of high quality for the successful execution of the functions listed above. *A summary of this study has been published in the CEDEFOP Flash series, 3/94 (DE, EN, FR).*

Higher education in the European Union. Facts and figures over a decade

European Commission

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,

1994, 116 pages

ISBN 92-826-6830-4 (en)

DE, EN, FR

This report begins with a description of the methodological aspects of the study and continues with a proposal for the statistical analysis of higher education in the European Union from 1980 to 1990. The following aspects are covered for each country: the higher education system, student numbers, diplomas offered, teaching staff, duration of courses, unemployment among graduates and financing. A comparative analysis rounds off the report.

Employment in Europe 1994

European Commission

COM (94) 381 final, 14.09.94, 190 pages

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,

ISBN 92-77-80666-4 (en)

ISSN 0254-1475 (en)

DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, IT, NL, PT

This is the sixth report in an annual series aimed at providing business, trade unions, governments and interest groups



with an up-to-date overview of many aspects of employment in the European Community. The information is divided under two main headings: Part 1 - employment prospects - looks at the trends in the Community with regard to employment. Part 2 examines the progress made in the Member States concerning the actions foreseen by the White Paper on employment, growth, competitiveness. A series of graphics completes the report.

The European report on science and technology indicators 1994

European Commission

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994, 338 pages + annex (Studies 1)

ISBN 92-826-9004-0

ISSN 1018-5593

EN

This first European report of science and technology indicators focuses on the science and technology performance of the 12 EU Member States, but also includes detailed information on the EFTA countries and some Central and Eastern European economies, as well as international comparisons with the other major science and technology performing countries in the world. The indicators are divided into six parts covering: the level and trend in the aggregate resources devoted to science and technology; industrial R&D and competitiveness; the specificities of the various national S&T systems in Europe; intra-European cooperation in this area; cooperation agreements of the EU with other countries / regions of the world; and the differences between European countries in their attitudes to S&T.

- **Eurocounsel synthesis final report, phase 2. Counselling - a tool for the prevention and solution of unemployment. Case study portfolio. Examples of innovative practice in labour market counselling**

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994, 116 pages

ISBN 92-826-7868-7 (en)

ISBN 92-826-6906-8 (en, case study)

DE, EN, FR

As unemployment rises in most parts of Europe, increasing recognition is being given to the role which counselling, advice, information and guidance services can play as tools to prevent and solve unemployment. This report summarizes the results of the second phase of the Foundation's programme, Eurocounsel, the aim of which is to improve the quality and effectiveness of counselling services for the unemployed and those at risk of becoming so. The focus in this second phase has been to build on transnational work, through a pilot programme of exchange visits for practitioners. In addition, a portfolio of case studies of interesting and innovative experience from the seven participating countries has been compiled. The results of this second phase of the programme highlight the problems associated with the rise in unemployment, including the pressure this places on resources and the difficulties for counselling providers in areas with low demand for labour. The report concludes by making recommendations as to the ways in which counselling services can be improved.

- **A guide to good practice in labour market counselling**

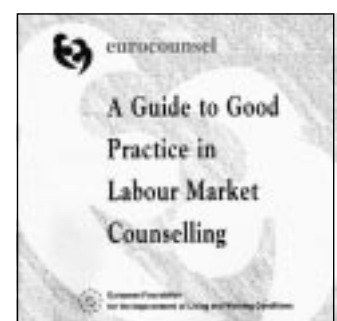
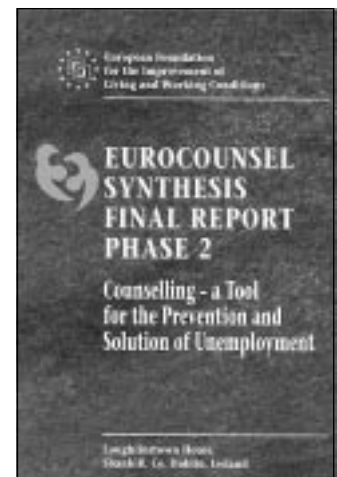
European Foundation for Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

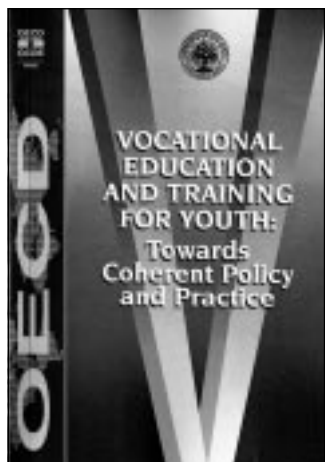
Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994, 20 pages

ISBN 92-826-8851-8

EN

This booklet outlines key elements of good practice in labour market counselling which have emerged from the work of the Foundation's Eurocounsel programme to date and from the knowledge and experience of researchers, policy makers and practitioners in this field. The aim of this booklet is to provide a summary of good practice drawn from European experience which can serve as an aide-mémoire to those concerned with improving counselling services in relation to the prevention and solution of long-term unemployment.





The changing role of VOTEC (Vocational and technical education and training):

□ **Vocational education and training for youth: towards coherent policy and practice**

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Paris, OECD, 1994, 180 pages
ISBN 92-64-14285-1
EN, FR

This volume explores four themes in an effort to identify and explain the link that produces effective VOTEC. The themes studied are: educational pathways, learning strategies integrating theory with practice, the role of social partners, and policy coordination.

□ **Vocational training in Germany: Modernization and responsiveness**

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Paris, OECD, 1994, 134 pages
ISBN 92-64-14301-7
EN, FR

This publication looks at the historical context of Germany's dual system of vocational training and the challenges it has faced since the introduction of the Vocational Training Act in 1969. It examines the capacity of two sectors, the metal-working industry and the building trade, to respond to social and economic changes and the subsequent demands for new and higher skills. The study reveals the importance of negotiation and cooperation between government (at federal and state levels), the social partners and research institutes in all aspects of the decision-making process from the elaboration of vocational training policy to the regulation of training capacity and quality. This complex method of cooperation, based on a historical tradition of co-determination, allowed vocational training to modernize its structures and processes to meet the challenges of the 1970s and 1980s. The future of the dual system will depend on its continued attractiveness for able and ambitious young people and its ongoing capacity to adapt to changing conditions in the workplace.

□ **Vocational training in the Netherlands: Reform and innovation**

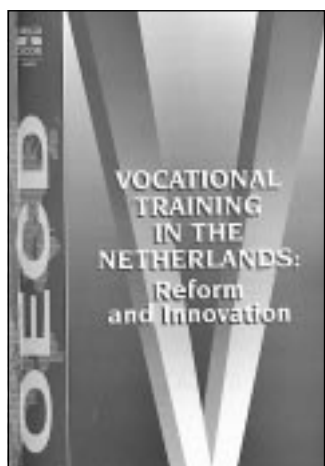
Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Paris, OECD, 1994, 220 pages
ISBN 92-64-14298-3
EN, FR

In the Netherlands, there has recently been growing emphasis to bridge the gap between general and vocational education: the vocational element in university programmes is being strengthened and the vocational sector is increasingly recognized as providing programmes and qualifications equivalent to those of universities. Following a general overview of these policy reforms and innovations, this publication focuses on developments in four areas of economic activity which have affected the needs and demands for knowledge and skills: tourism, the printing industry, installation technology, and CNC machining and flexible production automation. These sectoral case studies reveal that shifts in vocational education and training run parallel to changes in industry structures. The national and sectoral qualification structure presently in elaboration will reinforce the integration of school- and firm-based pathways, and thereby better harmonize training with industry needs.

The OECD jobs study - Evidence and explanations. Part I: Labour market trends and underlying forces of change. Part II: The adjustment potential of the labour market

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Paris, OECD, 1994, 170 pages (Part I), 300 pages (Part II)
ISBN 92-64-14241-X (en)
EN, FR

This book follows an initial overview report, *The OECD Jobs Study: Facts, Analysis, Strategies*, which sets out the facts that depict today's unemployment, analyzes the fundamental factors that produced it and recommends strategies to foster job creation and prepare people for the new jobs. This companion report provides the detailed empirical and analytical underpinning to that overview. It looks at labour markets and analyzes how unemployment has been affected by factors





such as macro-economic management, competition from low-wage countries, faster technological change and slow adjustment to new jobs and skills. The *OECD Jobs Study: Evidence and Explanation* (volume I) pursues the finding that much unemployment is the unfortunate result of societies' failure to adapt to a world of rapid change and intensified global competition. Rules and regulations, practices and policies, and institutions designed for an earlier era have resulted in labour markets that are too inflexible for today's world. It explores how policy can better address wage formation; active rather than passive approaches to getting people back into jobs; improving skills and competences; design and management of unemployment benefit systems; and taxation. *Evidence and Explanations* (volume II) describes varying patterns of performance and policy needs in different OECD countries. Future volumes in this series will examine individual country experiences.

New directions in labour market policy: a territorial approach in the Nordic countries

Paris, OECD, 1994, 12 pages (Innovation & Emploi, no. 16)

EN, FR

OECD - Leed Programme, Paul Paradis, 2 rue André Pascal,

F-75775 Paris Cedex 16

The Nordic model symbolizes an active strategy on the part of public authorities to promote employment and avoid unemployment and poverty. As societies evolve, the content and significance of the "Nordic" model change. This issue analyzes some of the main modifications to the Nordic labour market policies and their connection with local and regional development. It sheds light on the development of partnerships between various protagonists in the public and private sectors. The key word "active measure" still reflects an essential objective of public authorities, but it has taken on a new dimension as the issues involved have changed. What is needed is a new, more direct participation model which would leave more responsibility in the hands of the individual. This re-orientation also presupposes an adaptation of services on a local level, which should ensure more contracts and counselling and serve as a

catalyst for individual and local development.

Financement et régulation de la formation professionnelle: une analyse comparée

Study realized within the scope of the IPEP (Institut international de planification de l'éducation) research and study programme: Développement des ressources humaines - Nouvelles tendances dans l'enseignement technique et professionnel

Atchoarena D.

Paris, UNESCO: IPEP, 1994, 105 pages

FR

IPEP, 7-9 rue Eugène-Delacroix,

F-75116 Paris

Financing for both initial and continuing vocational training is one aspect of the global financial crisis in education. Faced with this situation, planners currently tend to promote a re-distribution in which responsibilities and tasks are shared between the various protagonists of training (state, companies, families, employees). This book attempts to analyze the principles and mechanisms involved in the financing of vocational training. A second dimension attempts to show how financing policies, beyond simple fund-collecting, aim at mobilizing protagonists, through constraints or incitements, to improve the functioning of vocational training systems. The comparative approach, in addition to describing individual systems, sheds light on significant common tendencies. The book ends with a reflection on the links between financing and quality of training. The question of financing inevitably leads to a discussion on the role of the state in planning and regulation, and underscores the scope and diversity of the forms of involvement of the other protagonists of development, in particular the social partners.

Unevoc INFO

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Paris, UNESCO, September 1994, 8 pages

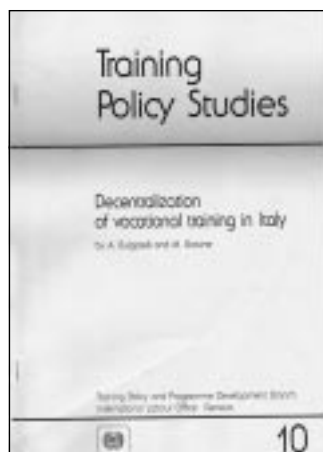
(Unevoc Info no. 1)

ISSN 120-2544 (fr)

EN, FR

UNESCO is publishing this first issue of UNEVOC's quarterly information bulletin





within the framework of the international project for technical and vocational education (UNEVOC). UNEVOC is an international project aiming at developing and improving technical and vocational education in countries belonging to UNESCO. It is based on exchange of information, establishment of networks and a number of other methods of international cooperation. This bulletin will contain information on UNEVOC's activities (technical meetings of working groups, training seminars, case studies, comparative studies and cooperation projects), but also information from other sources on innovations in technical and vocational education. The first issue includes an exposé outlining the initial phase of the UNEVOC project, presenting the history, the mechanisms, the structure and the sectors of the programme as well as a description of 1992-1993 activities and future actions.

Des politiques publiques d'incitation à la formation professionnelle continue. Propositions pour une démarche d'analyse

Zygmunt C.; Rose J.

International Labour Office (ILO): Training Policy and Programme Development Branch

Geneva, ILO, 1994, 55 pages (Training Policy Studies, 14)

ISBN 92-2-209307-0

FR

The aim of the first part of this study is to identify and describe government policies of incitement to continuing vocational training in OECD countries. Why have they been set up? What is their theoretical justification? The second part describes these policies in an attempt to draw up typologies on the basis of the components of these policies. How are incitement policies set up? What is their target group? How is this group to be reached? And finally, the third part of the study looks at evaluation modalities, an essential issue in practice: setting up measures of this sort, in view of the magnitude of the expenditure and the political consequences involved, must be followed by an evaluation phase. A bibliography, synoptic charts and examples of measures of incitement to continuing vocational training round off the report.

Decentralization of vocational training in Italy

Bulgarelli A.; Giovine M.

International Labour Office (ILO): Training Policy and Programme Development Branch

Geneva, ILO, 1994, 16 pages (Training Policy Studies, 10)

ISBN 92-2-109347-6

EN

Following a brief introduction describing the organization and the functioning of vocational training in Italy, this report analyzes how the Regions have reacted to vocational training needs in fulfilment of the role entrusted to them by the Italian constitution. The conclusions drawn by the study show that it is necessary to reform the organization and the institutions involved, as each Region has created its own system. Although this is actually a positive aspect, it is nevertheless necessary to develop a policy of coordination so that vocational training activities are more effective.

Adult training:

□ **Retraining adults in Germany**

Johanson R.

International Labour Office (ILO): Training Policy and Programme Development Branch

Geneva, ILO, 1994, 29 pages (Training Policy Studies, 4)

ISBN 92-2-109310-7

EN

□ **Ireland: adult training and retraining**

Johanson R.

International Labour Office (ILO): Training Policy and Programme Development Branch

Geneva, ILO, 1994, 33 pages (Training Policy Studies, 2)

ISBN 92-2-109317-4

EN

□ **Retraining adult workers in Sweden**

Alfthan T.; Jonzon B.

International Labour Office (ILO): Training Policy and Programme Development Branch

Geneva, ILO, 1994, 25 pages (Training Policy Studies, 3)

ISBN 92-2-109308-5

EN



This set of reports gives an overview of the system of adult training and retraining in Ireland, Sweden and Germany, focusing on the retraining of adults for new occupations due to restructuring of the national economies. Their underlying purpose is to draw conclusions and lessons that may be relevant to other countries which are faced with similar restructuring problems and establishing new national adult training and retraining systems. Each report is complemented by a short bibliography and statistics.

Introduction to public employment services

Ricca S.
International Labour Office (ILO)
Geneva, ILO, 1994, 150 pages
ISBN 92-2-107106-5 (en)
EN, FR

The various topics covered concern: the different stages in the development of employment services by reference to the international labour conventions adopted since 1919; the numerous traditional or new technical functions which these services carry out today; the statutes and structures of employment services; the role of workers' organizations and the problems posed by their participation; their internal management.

Employment policy and employment in the transition economies of Central and Eastern Europe: What have we learned?

Jackman R.
International Labour Office (ILO)
Geneva, in: International Labour Review 3(133), 1994, p. 361-382
ISSN 0020-7780 (en)
EN, FR

Examining the macro-economic evolution and re-structuring of the economy and the labour market after several years of transition, the author postulates that the collapse of production can be explained by supply-side shocks rather than by deflationist policies or by re-structuring. Unemployment - especially long-term joblessness - has increased dramatically in several countries, and private companies are not recruiting their staff from the mass of unemployed, preferring to look for

workers in the state sector. The importance of re-structuring should therefore not be measured against employment levels, but rather on the basis of changes in the sectoral make-up of production. Having investigated the various possible solutions involving salary determination, the author recommends gradually rationalizing over-staffed state enterprises, promoting private sector recruiting and business start-ups, and adopting a policy favouring mobility so as to promote re-employment.

Europahandbuch Weiterbildung / European Manual of Continuing Education / Manuel Européen de la Formation Continue

Kaiser A; Feuchthofen J.E.; Güttler R.
Neuwied; Kriffel; Berlin, Luchterhand,
1994, multiple pages
ISBN 3-472-00569-6
DE

The idea of this handbook is to facilitate the development of contacts and co-operation in continuing vocational training, which have been taking place parallel to the European integration process. Its loose-leaf presentation allows it to be updated regularly. It provides information on the continuing training situation and the latest developments in all European countries. It presents organizations already working in this area in a trans-national context and serves as a useful source of addresses for those interested in collaboration with organizations in continuing training sectors.

Vers l'harmonisation ou le maintien des spécificités. Enseignement supérieur hors université en Belgique et formations supérieures équivalentes en Europe

Fédération Nationale de l'Enseignement Supérieur Catholique (FNESUC); Comité Européen pour l'Enseignement Catholique (CEEC)
Brussels, FNESUC, 1993, 145 pages + annexes
FR
FNESUC, rue Guimard 1, B-1040 Brussels

The records of this colloquium on the European dimension of higher education include the main contributions aiming at





extracting from the diversity of teaching situations a European content of this type of teaching in terms of the expectations and needs of enterprises and also on the basis of quality criteria. The annexes provide the reader with a description of the structures of higher education in Europe and the priorities for action.

Training for work, funding pilot study: International comparisons

Green A.; Mace J.; Steedman H.

London, National Institute of Economic and Social Research (NIESR), 1994, unpagged

EN

NIESR, 2 Dean Trench Street, Smith Square, UK-London SW1P 3HE

This report looks at five countries: USA, United Kingdom, France, pre-unification Germany and Sweden. Areas considered in detail are the organization and funding of state-provided training, work experience and job-searching activities; the extent to which and the methods by which the state contracts with the providers of these activities; how funding is related to outputs; the structure of any differential funding system; evidence of the success of output and differential funding in meeting objectives.

L'Europe de l'emploi ou comment font les autres

Bernhard Brunhes Consultants

Paris, Les Editions d'Organisation, 1994, 296 pages

ISBN 2-7081-1681-9

FR

This book is the result of a broad survey of some sixty companies, trade union / employer organizations and study organizations carried out in six countries of the European Union. What are the prospects of major companies? Are they still recruiting? How do they decide where to concentrate their activities? How do they manage the skills at their disposal, the careers of their personnel? Faced with changes in international competition, technological change, changes in consumer structures, some companies and some countries have been seeking new solutions: they have been looking at flexibility, polyvalence of employees, new

work rhythms, a certain degree of job-sharing. The current crisis has been transforming the ways in which work is managed: new models are being designed, a new distribution of work and employment is emerging in Germany, in Italy, in France and in Great Britain, or in Spain and the Netherlands. This book proposes a new analysis of employment in Europe; in one set of chapters it presents the situation and public discussion on employment in each of the countries concerned; it also includes twelve case studies.

Productivité, qualité et compétences, une comparaison européenne

Mason G.; ARK, B.V.; Wagner K.

Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches sur les Qualifications (CEREQ)

Paris, in: Formation emploi, 47, La Documentation française, 1994, p. 3-21

ISSN 0759-6340

FR

This article is a comparative study of performances in the biscuit industry in four European countries; it reveals strong international differences. These differences do not seem to involve modernness or utilization rate of equipment, but rather levels of skills with regard to strategic product choices. The authors conclude by emphasizing the need for further development of intermediate skills in Great Britain.

Europe's next step: Organizational innovation, competition and employment

Andreasen L.E.; Coriat B.; Den Hertog F.; et al.

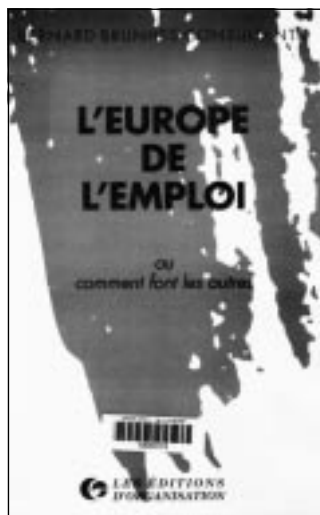
Essex, Frank Cass and Company Limited, 1995, 332 pages

ISBN 0-7146-4151-0 (paperback)

ISBN 0-7146-4630-X (hardback)

EN

The European economy faces a crisis of competitiveness. On the one hand the competitive pressures are intense: Europe is squeezed between the low-wage economies of Asia, high rates of innovation and productivity in Japan and the USA, and the rising power of the Asian Newly Industrializing Economies. On the other hand, rising unemployment and unmet needs set an important domestic agenda for productivity growth. Although the new





information and communication technologies have an important role to play in promoting this competitiveness, international experience shows that these technologies require new forms of organization if they are to be utilized effectively. This has important implications for the organization of production, R&D and human resource development, not just in manufacturing, but also in services. It also affects the relationships between firms, and between the productive sector and the science, technology and educational systems. Everywhere the emphasis is on integration. This book looks at the experience of 13 leading-edge European companies drawn from the manufacturing, services and health sectors. It shows how organization has been the key to their productivity growth. It also shows that whilst Europe has much to learn from Japan and the USA, there is a distinctive European approach to organizational expertise. This has important implications for strategic policy, in these institutions themselves, but also in government at both the national and local levels. Here too, as the case studies show, Europe has considerable expertise on which the production sector can grow.

Vocational and technical education in Switzerland

Wettstein E.

Deutschschweizerische Berufsbildungsämter-Konferenz(DBK)

Lucerne, DBK, 1994, 53 pages

ISBN 3-905406-07-1 (en)

DE, EN, FR, ES, IT

This information brochure describes Swiss educational and vocational training systems, including continuing training. It includes a list of useful addresses.

European Union: policies, programmes, participants

Proposal for a European Parliament and Council Decision establishing 1996 as the European Year of Lifelong Learning

European Commission

Luxembourg, in: Official Journal of the European Communities, C 287, 7.09.1994, p. 18-20

ISSN 0378-6986 (en)

DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, IT, NL, PT

This proposal is a follow-up of the "White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment", and foresees actions which should: a) increase the awareness of life-long learning as a key factor for employment growth; b) improve the cooperation between education and training structures and companies, particularly SMEs; c) introduce a European dimension in education and training; d) confirm the importance of education and training in reaching real equality of opportunities between men and women.

Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament on coordination between the Community and the Member States on education and training schemes in developing countries

European Commission

Luxembourg, in: Official Journal of the European Communities

ISSN 0254-1475 (en)

DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, IT, NL, PT

This communication gives a qualitative overview of education and training systems in the developing world. It highlights the role of education in human development. It stresses the top priority to be accorded to basic schooling, the value of long-term backing for education in the relevant countries and the need to support educational planning, administration and reform. Moreover, it places special emphasis on the following: information exchanges between the countries; regular experts' meetings; an annual progress report; and greater consultation with other major donors in education and training.

Competitiveness, growth and job creation - what contribution can education and training make? Reports from the 1993 Cumberland Lodge Conference

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Brussels, European Commission: DG XXII, 1994, 89 pages

EN/FR (mixed version)

European Commission, DG XXII, 200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels





This conference has become an annual event within the framework of the European Skills Needs Project Monitoring, which was set up in 1990 in response to the European Parliament's request for a Europe-wide exchange of information on skill shortages and future skill requirements. The contributions deal with: the challenge of providing human resources for the 1990s; creating skills the EU needs; training and retraining policy and its effects on skill acquisition; skill needs created by industrial re-structuring; skills and qualifications for combating unemployment, social and economic exclusion; transparency in labour market forecasting to facilitate training decisions. The 1993 conference pointed to the need for anticipation in a world of fast change and showed ways to organize it. The 1994 conference discussed the role human resources may have to play in a European model of development, a model which would be appropriate to European culture, tradition and principles and at the same time contribute to the well-being of its people and to economic and social cohesion.

Cooperation in education in the European Union. 1976 - 1994

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Luxembourg, Studies no. 5, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994, 84 pages

ISBN 92-826-6005-2 (en)

EN, FR

*European Commission, DG XXII,
200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels*

The objective of this report is to examine nearly two decades of cooperation between the Member States and Community institutions in the field of education. It gives historical landmarks and summarizes the current state of cooperation after several years of intense activity. The annexes present the main legal texts and the documents which, since 1976, have formed the basis of community activities and programmes in the field of education, training and youth.

How to improve the possibilities of involving all young people in working and social life. EU Conference 17-19 November 1993, Snekkersten, Denmark

Copenhagen, The Danish Ministry of Education, 1994, Volume 1: Conference Report, 54 pages, Volume 2: Country Papers, 51 pages

ISBN 87-603-0440-5 (Volume 1)

ISBN 87-603-0442-1 (Volume 2)

EN

From 17-19 November 1993, an EU Conference on "How to improve the possibilities of involving all young people in working and social life" took place in Denmark. The background of the conference is the fact that out of 20 million unemployed in the EU, every third unemployed person is under 25 years of age. The aim of the conference - besides mutual exchange of experience between Member States - was to draw up specific proposals as to what education in itself and in interaction with other sectors could do to channel all young people into working and social life. Experts in this field coming from the Member States, the OECD, the Council of Europe and the European Commission participated in the conference. In a separate volume, short reports (Country Reports) written by experts from the various Member States about young peoples' situation in the different countries are presented.

Towards a European curriculum

Employment Department

Sheffield, Employment Department, 1994, unpagged

EN

*Available: Accrington and Rosendale College, Sandy Lane,
UK-Accrington BB5 2AW*

Considers the issues surrounding the development of a more Europeanized curriculum on the basis of the fact that the labour market needs to be increasingly mobile and therefore requires knowledge of other cultures.

A curriculum for Europe

Further Education Unit (FEU)

London, FEU, 1994, unpagged

ISBN 1-85338-355-4

EN





This report explores how current and anticipated changes within the EU should influence curriculum content. It examines some key issues affecting qualifications, guidance, exchanges and international study, language learning and equal opportunities. The main outcome of the report is to define entitlement for the European learner, offering an answer to the question "What exactly does a European learner need from the curriculum and how should this be delivered?"

The UK approach. Competitiveness and employment

Employment Department Group
Sheffield, Employment Department
Group, 1994, 16 pages
EN, FR

*Employment Department, Moorfoot,
UK-Sheffield S1 4PQ*

At the G 7 economic summit in Tokyo in 1993, the heads of government expressed the wish for an "Employment" conference to explore various ways of facing high unemployment rates. This paper presents the ideas of the United Kingdom with regard to this conference as well as the follow-up work of the European Commission's White Paper on growth, competitiveness and employment.

Council decision of 6 December 1994 establishing an action programme for the implementation of a European Community vocational training policy

Luxembourg, in: Official Journal of the European Communities, L 340, 29.12.1994, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,
p. 8-24

ISSN 0378-7060 (fr)

DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, IT, NL, PT

Proposals 1995 - 1999. Socrates, Leonardo, Youth for Europe III

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Brussels, European Commission: DG XXII, 1994, 13 pages
DE, EN, FR

*European Commission, DG XXII,
200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels*

This guide presents a brief description of the three Community programmes proposed by the European Commission for 1995-1999: "Socrates", "Youth for Europe III", and "Leonardo". The first continues in the tradition of the ERASMUS and LINGUA programmes, but with Community actions taking place at all teaching levels for the first time. The "Youth for Europe III" proposal integrates into one single programme all actions carried out for young people until now: Youth for Europe II, the Youth Initiative projects sponsored within the framework of the PETRA programme, the youth activities of the TEMPUS programme and the various priority actions within the youth programme. And finally, the "Leonardo" proposal aims at rationalizing and developing the impact of Community action in the area of vocational training by ensuring follow-up of Community action currently based on the four programmes PETRA, FORCE, EUROTENET and COMETT.

New Community initiatives:

□ Adapt and Employ - two Community initiatives for the development of human resources

European Commission: Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs (DG V)

Brussels, European Commission: DG V, 1994, 15 pages (Initiatives no. 1)

DE, EN, FR

*European Commission, DG V, Unit V/B/4
of the European Social Fund, Community
initiatives, 200 rue de la Loi,
B-1049 Brussels*

This guide presents the two new initiatives adopted by the European Commission within the scope of the Structural Funds.

- **ADAPT** is a new Community initiative specially conceived to help workers adapt to changes in the needs of the employment market. ADAPT's four interrelated aims are: (1) to speed up the adaptation of work to industrial change; (2) to increase competitiveness in industry, services and trade; (3) to prevent unemployment by improving the qualifications of workers and reinforcing their flexibility and mobility; (4) to anticipate and accel-





erate the creation of new jobs and activities, particularly in SMEs.

- **EMPLOI** (employment and human resources development) is a new Community initiative for groups experiencing special difficulties on the employment market. The initiative has three interrelated parts: Emploi-NOW and Emploi-HORIZON, which were two separate initiatives during the preceding structural funding period (1991-1994), and a new part: Emploi-YOUTHSTART:

- Emploi-NOW aims at promoting equality of opportunities for women in employment by means of innovative pilot activities likely to be transferable on a trans-national basis.

- Emploi-HORIZON, which also extends an initiative launched in the preceding programme period, aims at expanding the stable employment prospects of the handicapped and other employable disadvantaged groups.

- YOUTHSTART has been conceived to promote the integration of young people under 20 on the employment market, particularly those lacking qualifications or basic skills.

□ **ADAPT Community Initiative. Practical Application Guide for Project Managers**

European Commission: Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs (DG V)

Brussels, European Commission: DG V, 1994, 16 pages

DE, EN, ES, FR, PT

European Commission, DG V, Unit V/B/4 of the European Social Fund, Community initiatives, 200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels

□ **EMPLOYMENT Community Initiative. Practical Application Guide for Project Managers**

European Commission: Directorate-General for Employment, Industrial Relations and Social Affairs (DG V)

Brussels, European Commission: DG V, 1994, 24 pages

DE, EN, ES, FR, PT

European Commission, DG V, Unit V/B/4 of the European Social Fund, Community initiatives, 200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels

Quality in educational training

Van den Berghe W.

Ministry of the Flemish Community: Department of Education

Wetteren, Tilkon, 1994, 50 pages

EN

Tilkon Consultancy, Kerkwegel 12a, B-9230 Wetteren

The objective pursued by the author of this report is to give an overview of international experience gathered in terms of the adaptation of quality concepts in the fields of education and teaching. This overview covers both continuing and initial training. It describes infrastructures and quality standards for the various training systems. Furthermore, the report serves as a backdrop for activities within the context of the COMETT European action programme.

Jahresbericht 1993 - Deutsche Koordinierungsstelle EUROTECNET

National Coordinating Office (NADU) EUROTECNET in the Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB)

Bonn; Berlin, BIBB, 1994, 202 pages

DE

BIBB, Fehrbelliner Platz 3, D-10707 Berlin

The aim of the EUROTECNET programme is to promote innovation in initial and continuing vocational training so as to meet the challenge of technological change and its effects on employment, work and the innovations needed. This annual report describes the extent of Germany's participation in this programme. The volume presents the 34 official projects and gives information about other activities carried out in Germany with the participation of the National Coordinating Office in the 1993/94 reporting period.

Interim Report on the Force Programme - Action Programme for the Development of Continuing Vocational Training in the European Community

European Commission

COM (94) 418 final, 13.10.1994, 23 pages
Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,

ISBN 92-77-80866-7 (en)





ISSN 0254-1475 (en)
DA, DE, EN, ES, FR, GR, IT, NL, PT

This report is divided into two parts: a) reports the progress made in implementing the activities provided for in the decision setting up the FORCE programme; b) contains the principal conclusions and recommendations of the interim external evaluation of the FORCE programme. It should be noted that the terms of reference for this evaluation excluded the third FORCE call for proposals and the implementation of the Statistical Survey, and reports on the implementation of the common framework of guidelines.

FORCE. Catalogue des produits / Catalog of products / Produktkatalog. 1991 - 1994

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, no pagination
ISBN 92-826-8051-7
multilingual version: DE/EN/FR

This catalogue lists the results of pilot projects and qualification projects undertaken in 1991 and carried out within the framework of the FORCE programme's trans-national partnerships. The various products are presented in files; they deal with training tools and courses, project reports as well as study and research materials.

FORCE. Tableau de bord de la formation professionnelle continue

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 176 pages
ISBN 92-826-8713-9
FR

This "instrument panel", an analysis and synthesis realized within the framework of the FORCE programme, is the result of the Community-wide collection of data available in the early 1990s in the field of continuing vocational training for com-

pany employees. The report ends with the need to improve current data systems, to establish a homogeneous reading method for the various international data, to improve complementariness among national information systems and finally to create a joint structure for data collection and analysis so as to better promote cooperation among Member States.

The role of the social partners in continuing vocational training of workers. Brussels, 29th - 30th November 1993

Flemish Government, Administration of external relations of the Flemish Community; Ministry of the Flemish Community, Administration of Employment; Flemish Employment and Vocational Training Service (VDAB), FORCE NCU Brussels, VDAB, 1994, 53 pages
DE, EN, FR, NL
VDAB, Keizerslaan 11, B-100 Brussels

This conference report emphasizes the role of the social partners in the continuing vocational training of workers, both on a national and Community level, within the framework of the FORCE European action programme. On the one hand, this role is described by means of an evaluation of a certain number of projects relating to vocational training and involving the social partners, and, on the other hand, activities are described in several Member States.

FORCE: De voortgezette heropvoeding in België

van de Poele L.; Oosterlinck L.
Flemish Employment and Vocational Training Service (VDAB); FORCE agency; Rijks Universiteit Gent (RUG)
Brussels, VDAB, 1993, 151 pages
NL
VDAB, Keizerslaan 11, B-1000 Brussels

This report on continuing vocational training in Flanders, written for the European Community, is divided into two sections: the first comprises an overall description of continuing vocational training in Flanders, including legal and financial frameworks, the training offer and trainers. The second section reviews measures to be





taken in Flanders pursuant to the priority objectives of the FORCE European action programme.

Berufliche Weiterbildung in Deutschland. Strukturen und Entwicklungen

Alt C.; Sauter E.; Tilmann H.

Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB)

Berlin; Bonn, BIBB, 1994, 222 pages

ISBN 3-7639-0513-8

DE

This first European report on the current state and prospects of continuing training systems is being presented as a consequence of the EC Council resolution on the FORCE action programme. In addition to reports from the EU Member States prepared along common guidelines, a European synthesis report is also planned. This volume is the German contribution to future regular reports on continuing vocational training in Europe. The Federal Republic can contribute to this work by virtue of its 16 years of experience at publishing a national report on vocational training, which has proven its usefulness as a common basis for planning by government agencies and the social partners.

Berufliche Weiterbildung in Unternehmen

Bechthold S.; Grünewald U.

Bonn; Berlin, Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB), 1994, 8 pages

DE

BIBB, Fehrbelliner Platz 3,

D-10707 Berlin

With its FORCE (Formation Continue en Europe) action programme, the European Commission aims at supporting the efforts of companies to provide more and improved continuing training. Efficient support measures require reliable information about the behaviour of companies in the area of continuing training. Because this information is not yet available, surveys of companies are being conducted in all twelve Member States of the European Union; in Germany, this survey is being conducted by the Federal Bureau of Statistics in cooperation with the Federal Institute for Vocational Training (BIBB). The brochure gives information on the results of the written preliminary survey, which was held in late 1993 with

the aim of gaining an initial idea regarding the type and extent of continuing training activities in German companies. The results published here are based on the replies of approximately 9,300 companies with ten or more employees in the areas of manufacturing, trade, hotel and catering as well as banks and insurance companies.

HORIZON. A Community Initiative for the Vocational Integration of the Disabled, the Disadvantaged and Migrants

HORIZON National Coordinating Office
Bonn, 1994, no pagination

multilingual version: DE/EN/FR

Nationale Koordinierungsstelle HORIZON im Europabüro des paritätischen Wohlfahrtsverbandes, Endericher Str. 125, D-53115 Bonn

This record summarizes the contributions of the various protagonists to the Horizon session - a Community initiative for the vocational integration of the disabled, the disadvantaged and migrants. Debates mainly dealt with trans-national cooperation as well as vocational and social integration policies.

IRIS annual report 1993

European Commission

Brussels, CREW, 1994, 32 pages

EN, FR

IRIS Unit, CREW, 21 rue de la Tourelle, B-1040 Brussels

The report reviews developments in 1993, which marked the end of the first phase and preparation for the second phase of IRIS - a European network of training projects for women - (1994-1998). The main activities of the year were: the adoption by the European Parliament of a resolution on IRIS; a seminar for the social partners; an awareness-raising debate on women's training for top European officials; a partnership seminar; and exchange visits among IRIS members.

PETRA. Training for Europe 2002

Conference reader, Biehler-Baudisch (ed.)
Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB)

Berlin, BIBB, 1994, 86 pages

ISBN 3-88555-569-7 (de)

DE, EN





The PETRA programme includes cooperation projects from Denmark, Germany, Great Britain and Luxembourg in the field of vocational training for environmental jobs. In March 1994, the protagonists of these projects met at a conference held at the European Environmental Academy in Borken to discuss aspects and prospects of vocational training for environmental jobs. The brochure reports on the experience gathered in these projects at the time of transition from development to dissemination phase. It presents individual projects, reprints conference lectures and reports on results of working group discussions. An annex presents details of the module on "Electrotechnicians and the environment".

Handbook for Guidance Counsellors

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII) - PETRA

Luxembourg, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 1994, 409 pages

ISBN 92-826-7990-X (en)

EN (currently being published for other EU languages)

This handbook has been prepared for youth counsellors. It presents a short description of initial education systems (school and vocational training) and a description of the world of work for each Member State. It lists sources of information and data banks on a Community level, counselling institutions and agencies, and the main guidebooks listing the various training streams.

Catalogue of national guidance resource centres

European Commission: Directorate-General XXII - Education, Training and Youth (DG XXII)

Brussels, European Commission: DG XXII, 1994, 101 pages

DE, EN, FR

*European Commission, DG XXII,
200 rue de la Loi, B-1049 Brussels*

This report reports on the establishment of National Resource Centres within the framework of Action III of the PETRA programme, an activity aimed specifically at vocational guidance. The National Re-

source Centres are classified according to countries; the information given for each includes: structure, information topics dealt with at the Centre and means of diffusion; existing trans-national cooperation; 1993/94 programme of activities.

Durchführung von EC-Bildungsprogrammen in Deutschland

German Federal Ministry for Education and Science (BMBW)

Bad Honnef, K.H. Bock Verlag, 1994, 166 pages + Annex (Studien Bildung Wissenschaft, volume 120)

ISBN 3-87066-731-1

DE

This study examines the various programmes and organizational forms initiated and promoted by the European Union. The Federal Republic of Germany has an efficient structure to implement programmes in the fields of general education and vocational training, with both the federal and state governments endeavouring to ensure the participation of German institutions in common measures and to derive the greatest possible advantage from such activity. This study and the day-to-day cooperation in the implementation and preparation of European Union measures have developed new partnerships between the German states, the federal government and the European Union, but also between educational institutions and implementing agencies on national and European levels.

Evaluation of the Euroqualification Programme

Homs O.

Centre d'Iniciatives i Recerques Europees a la Mediterrania (CIREM)

Barcelona, CIREM, 1993, 31 pages

EN

*CIREM, c/Bruc, 114, Ir, 2a,
E-08009 Barcelona*

This report examines the management and the external cohesion of the EURO-QUALIFICATION Programme, a joint initiative of 13 national organizations for adult vocational training and qualifications in the EU Member States. It gives an in-depth evaluation of the progress of activities and development of the programme in Spain and Portugal. The re-





port is based on analysis of the documents produced to date and on interviews with experts responsible for the programme and other associated organizations.

Les entreprises face à l'Europe. Euro-techniciens

Dupeyron A.

Réseau d'Appui et de Capitalisation des Innovations Européennes (RACINE)

Paris, Racine éditions, La documentation française, 1994, 124 pages

FR

*RACINE, 18 rue Friant,
F-75014 Paris*

Structured as an international holding, EUROCOPTER offers alternance training for Eurotechnicians who will then be able to exercise their skills in Germany, France and Portugal. After presenting the company and its industrial strategy, this book describes its policy and training plan, analyzing in particular the Eurotechnician project, its dimension of European mobility, its pedagogical organization, follow-up mechanisms and certification modalities. The support offered to European programmes and the trans-national

aspect of cooperation are also examined. Results are presented as the capitalization of synergetical effects.

European Meeting on Education in Business Organizations. Charleville Mézières, 5th-6th May 1994

Stages EuropéenS en Alternance dans les Métiers (SESAM)

Paris, SESAM, 1994, 18 pages + Annex
DE, EN, FR

SESAM, 6 rue de Braque, F-75003 Paris

This European colloquium was organized by SESAM (Stages Européens en Alternance dans les Métiers), an initiative of the French Ministry of Commerce and Crafts established in 1989 to promote the vocational integration of young European crafts people by preparing them to face the changes which will result from the single domestic market. The report presents a summary of the main discussion points on the promotion of apprenticeship and vocational mobility in the craft trades and in European SMEs as well as on dialogue among the partners from education systems and professional circles in the European Union.



From the Member States

D **Institutionen-Handbuch Arbeitsmarkt und Beruf**

Gaworek-Behringer M.

Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit (InstDokAB)

Nuremberg, InstDokAB, 1994, multiple pages

DE

Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung der Bundesanstalt für Arbeit (IAB), Regensburger Strasse 104, D-90327 Nuremberg

All the German institutions included in this handbook are associated with labour market or occupational research issues. They include political, scientific and research, administrative and professional institutions, ministries and trade unions, etc. Each entry includes information on the type of organization, its activities, partnerships, staff, foundation year, name of director(s), as well as the address, telephone and telefax numbers.

DK **Technology-supported Learning (Distance Learning). Report No. 1252**

Copenhagen, The Danish Ministry of Education, 1994, 156 pages

ISBN 87-603-0415-4

EN

*Undervisningsministeries forlag,
Frederiksholms Kanal 25F,
DK-1220 København K*

In 1992, the Danish Ministry of Education set up an expert committee with the aim of studying the impact of new technologies on the education system and the organization of courses. The main report of the White Paper from July 1993 has been translated into English. The White Paper describes a number of models for the planning and delivery of education with the support of technology. It deals with the economic issues of both traditional and technology-supported learning provisions at present, and projections for a ten-year period. Finally the report emphasizes the importance of adapting the in-

ternal organization of the institution, of developing novel collaborative structures and, not least, the need to change the pedagogical organization of courses to meet the specific requirements of learning supported by technology.

F **Regional policy and innovation: A French-style dual system?**

Bertrand O.; Durand Drouhin M.;

Romani C.

Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches sur l'Emploi et les Qualifications (CEREQ)

Marseille, in: Training and Employment, 17, 1994, p. 1-4

ISSN 1156-2366

EN

For some, the dual system is a model, for others, a structure specific to German society; whatever the case, its example has brought alternating school-company training to the fore of the French debate on the training-employment relationship. In 1988, in the context of the recent decentralization, the Rhône-Alpes region chose to promote an original policy for the development of alternating training based on close cooperation between the occupational branches and the national educational system. Although its quantitative impact still remains limited, this "cooperative apprenticeship" nonetheless demonstrates the feasibility of innovative approaches to the training-employment relationship. However, the establishment of clear rules for the different partners remains an obstacle to its continued expansion.

New directions for vocational education in France?

Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches sur l'Emploi et les Qualifications (CEREQ)

Marseille, in: Training and Employment, 15, 1994, p. 1-4

ISSN 1156-2366

EN

Seen from abroad, the French system of vocational training generally raises a cer-





tain number of questions, notably concerning the confused and inconsistent use of the terms “technical”, “technological” and “vocational”; the importance attached to diplomas even though these do not lead to well-established recognition in the occupational fields concerned; and, because of the crisis in youth employment, the proliferation of organisms involved and measures proposed. These different issues emerge as part of the same system when examined in the context of the educational policy choices of recent decades.

Les métiers de la formation, contribution de la recherche, état des pratiques et étude bibliographique

Centre pour le développement de l'INformation sur la FOrmation permanente (Centre INFFO);
Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers (CNAM);
Université Lille III Charles de Gaulle
Paris, La Documentation française, 1994,
319 pages
ISBN 2-11-003096-8
FR

This book reviews discussions and practices in training professions since 1971 and proposes a commented reading of the main bibliographical references. The many contributions it includes are divided into five parts: the first establishes the context of the emergence of training professions; the next analyzes their development and evolution; the third sheds light on steps, methods and tools used by trainers; the fourth proposes a categorial and institutional approach; and the last part presents a few training paths for trainers within the European context.

De la compétence: essai sur un attracteur étrange

Le Boterf G.
Paris, Editions d'Organisation, 1994, 176 pages
ISBN 2-7081-1753-X
FR

Competence is a strange concept: the difficulty in defining it grows with the need to use it. This book is an essay on the notion of competence, a concept currently taking shape and gradually becoming omnipresent in the corporate world. The author theorizes on several aspects: what is competence? As a skill, is it different from the know-how which constitutes it? Is there a cognitive dynamic element which is particular to competence? What is collective competence? Is there an ergonomic element in the implementation of competence? Who should recognize it, and how?

UK Vocational qualification in England, Wales and Northern Ireland

National Council for Vocational Qualification (NCVQ)
London, NCVQ, 1994, 13 pages
DE, EN, FR
*NCVQ Communications Division,
222 Euston Road, UK-London NW1 2B*

The NCVQ (National Council for Vocational Qualification) publishes this information brochure on the reform of the qualification system in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The recent reforms presented here are related to NVQs (national vocational qualifications) and GNVQs (general national vocational qualifications).





Bilan de Compétences: efficacité personnelle. 20 tests d'auto-évaluation et conseils personnalisés

Couchaere M.-J.
Editions Liaison (EL), Collection EXOTHEQUE
Rueil-Malmaison, Editions Liaisons (EL),
Collection EXOTHEQUE, 1994, 176 pages
ISBN 2-87880-107-5
ISSN 1159-6910
FR

Strategic alliances and process redesign. Effective management and restructuring of cooperative projects and networks

Gerybadze A.
Berlin; New York, Walter de Gruyter, 1995,
314 pages
ISBN 3-11-013989-8
EN

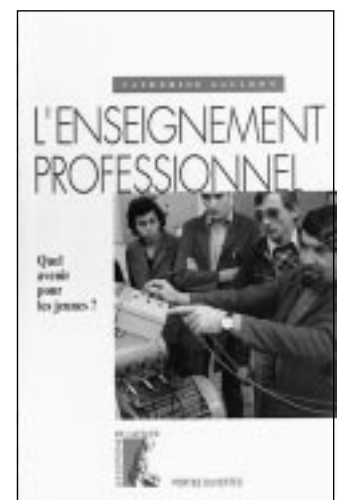
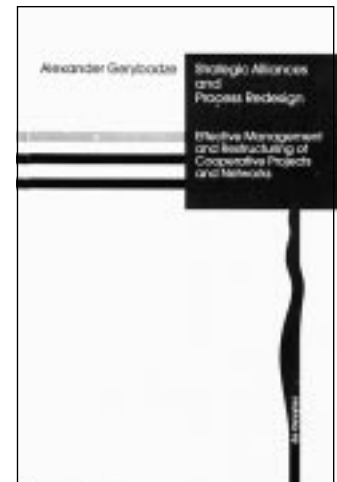
Développer et intégrer la formation en entreprise

Sonntag M.
Rueil-Malmaison, Editions Liaisons (EL),
1994, 224 pages
ISBN 2-87880-106-7
ISSN 1158-470X
FR

L'enseignement professionnel. Quel avenir pour les jeunes?

Agulhon C.
Paris, Les Editions de l'Atelier / Les Editions Ouvrières, 1994, 272 pages
ISBN 2-7082-3113-8
FR

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