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Background study

Czech National Observatory

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Basic Information:

The Czech National Observatory was established in October 1996 on the initiative of the European Training Foundation. It is based at the National Training Fund (NTF) of the Czech Republic, set up in 1994 with the support of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs to implement the Phare Human Resource Development Programme. The NTF has become one of the leading institutions in the Czech Republic in the field of management training and human resource development in enterprises. It implements programmes aimed at supporting the reform of public administration and is charged by MoLSA as an implementing agency for pre-ESF programmes. The NTF also includes the Leonardo da Vinci National Co-ordination Unit, the National Resource Centre for Guidance, the Pro-Active Labour Market Intervention Fund and the Social Welfare Initiative Fund.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In last two years, a more strategic approach has been applied in the field of education and labour market. As concerning education, at the turn of 2000 and 2001, the development of a National Programme for the Development of Education in the CR, a so-called **White Paper**, came to a head.

The overall aims of this document are in line with the proposals contained in the National Employment Plan prepared by MoLSA.

IVET's legal situation has been complicated further, in particular by the fact that the proposal for a new education bill has been refused by Parliament. Current problems will probably be addressed by means of individual amendments. IVET has been considerably affected by the law on the establishment of "higher-level administrative units" (regions). Over the course of 2001, regional authorities are gradually taking over responsibility for the administration of secondary schools. Since the new education bill has not been passed, the powers and responsibilities of these new bodies in the area of IVET are not precisely determined and the implementation of public administration reform is therefore far from being complete.

The development of **public expenditure on education** was rather unbalanced in the 1990s. Expenditure on education in 2000 is expected to have reached 4.5 per cent of GDP. The strategic aims of the White Paper envisage an increase in public spending on education, up to 6 per cent of GDP in 2005. A change in financial flows is expected as a consequence of public administration reform. IVET funding (except in the case of universities) in coming years will be taken over by the new regional authorities; however, the methods of funding will still be determined by MoYES. One important funding principle will consist of earmarking relatively high sums for innovative and development programmes.

The student-teacher ratio is gradually increasing (with the exception of higher professional schools). Appropriate pay for teachers is one major problem. The regional distribution of main types of school is very balanced. The demographic decline and the extension of basic schools have caused excessive secondary school capacity, which is only being exploited to a degree for continuing vocational education and retraining. Small school size remains one of the most serious problems in the rationalisation of the educational process and the effective use of resources.

The structure of the IVET system is not sufficiently flexible yet, so it can barely adjust to the necessary changes on an ongoing basis. Three- and four-year programmes hardly facilitate the adjustment or individualisation of the educational pathway.

The development of IVET in the 1990s in the CR, in terms of meeting the new qualification **requirements of the labour market**, was rather more spontaneous than based on the planned identification of these needs. As yet, there is no integrated system of data collection and forecasting which would facilitate medium-term projections of qualification requirements. The 1990s were marked with a large degree of innovation of the vocational part of the curriculum (around 90 per cent of courses since 1989). One most important activity was the development of the **Standard** of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education, which was approved by MoEYS in 1998. It may also be expected that the development of professional standards will be influenced by the so-called "Information System of Typical Jobs", the development of which has been commissioned by MoLSA. A new, modernised version of the standard – so-called framework educational programmes – is under preparation.

The evaluation system, including the evaluation of VET quality, is underdeveloped in the CR. The evaluation of the professional competencies of graduates is still being carried out within the powers of individual schools with the absence of social partners (employers), which makes it impossible to assess the relevance of VET outputs in relation to labour market needs. The varying standards of examinations at different schools have recently become a new model of "maturita", subject to broad discussions and experimental testing for several years. Certification in the schools system is not linked to continuing education, provided outside the schools system. Finally, the issue of the certification of skills obtained informally, on the basis of experience, has not as yet been raised in the CR.

Modularisation of the educational framework is only sporadically being used by some schools within existing organisational and legal regulations. In student assessments, concentration on the quantity of memorised subject matter prevailed over causality and contexts.

The continuing education of teachers has long suffered from a lack of conception and funding. The White Paper pays considerable attention to the necessary changes in initial as well as continuing teacher training. It is recommended that a standard of teaching qualification should be developed, which would be used as a criterion in the accreditation of teacher training programmes. 15 pedagogical centres have been set up by MoEYS.

IVET is not sufficiently flexible in its response to **individual needs**. There is still a high proportion of linear programmes - i.e. fixed from the beginning to the end; they do not allow for any modifications by the school or choice by the student. Optional subjects are only part of some 5 per cent of educational programmes.

The education of pupils from **disadvantaged groups** who normally have special educational needs has undergone various qualitative changes over the last ten years. Important changes are taking place in the education of the Romany population - preparatory classes, Romany assistants and modification of the basic school curriculum. The law provides for an **equal position of men and women** in schools and Czech society is not experiencing any major difficulties in this respect. There is relatively equal representation of males and females at secondary schools. However, there are still programmes which it is customary to call "for girls", as regards tertiary education.

The preparation of pupils for **business and entrepreneurial** activities is also part of the vocational subjects within some **vocational programmes**. Approximately 30 per cent of courses approved after 1990 include training in business or entrepreneurial skills. There are also specific programmes which are focused on entrepreneurship.

The legal framework of the CVT in the Czech Republic is weak. The specific law covering the CVT or education of adults does not exist. Therefore, the competence of major stakeholders (e.g. the state, social partners and regional bodies) is not specified.

After approximately ten years of development based only on demand and supply, i.e. without priorities, incentives, stimulation, support and co-ordination of CVT development, **more strategic documents have been elaborated and presented**. In addition to the White Paper, the Strategy for HRD in the Czech Republic has also been drafted. It is a mid-term strategy identifying the key problems of HRD development (incl. CVT) and proposing actions for various relevant institutions. The National Employment Plan and National Action Plan for 2001 contain requirements for setting up responsibilities in the CVT area and setting up basic rules for the financing of CVT.

There are three main groups of **CVT providers** in the Czech Republic: schools, enterprises and training firms. All types of CVT are certified; however, participants are awarded with certificates of differing validity. No statistical data is available on the overall budget for continuing training. Part-time study at state schools is free of charge for participants. Costs are covered by the state from the MoEYS budget. Czech enterprises spend approximately 1 per cent of their payroll on the CVT of their employees. Statistical data is available on expenditure on requalification. The total amount of expenditure on requalification courses has increased considerably over the last years.

As far as **the responsiveness of CVT to the needs of individuals** is concerned, the situation is different in the three main parts of the Czech CVT system. The implementation of modular training and distance learning within adult part-time study at schools is weak. The use of modular courses in CVT is on a purely exceptional basis. Distance learning programmes are used rather exceptionally. Counselling and guidance services for employed adults are covered weakly. Insufficient accreditation influences the quality of CVT programmes and trainers: it differs very much. Users can not always compare options, which complicates their choice and lowers the efficiency of the time and costs being invested in CVT.

The missing framework for **continuing education** policy has negative effects **on socially disadvantaged groups**, among others. There is no comprehensive government policy towards these groups in the area of education, let alone a policy combining social and educational aspects. Measures promoting access to education for disadvantaged groups are being elaborated, in particular as far as the requalification courses organised by labour offices are concerned. However, requalification is only

designed for the unemployed who are registered at labour offices. The participation of disadvantaged groups is entirely inadequate.

The participation of Romanies in various programmes is not being monitored. Labour offices as well as other institutions are not authorised to monitor Romanies separately, as a specific group. This missing information makes the development of targeted programmes more difficult. However, there are specific courses in regions with a higher proportion of this ethnic group. Many policy targets are being addressed by the Inter-Departmental Commission for Romany Issues; however, as far as education is concerned, they are focused on IVET. Interest in retraining and continuing education on the part of persons with low qualifications is very low; social benefits have a disincentive role here. Counselling services and re-socialisation courses which should stimulate this interest are underdeveloped.

Women's access to education is explicitly open. This is true of both initial and continuing education. The participation of women in the re-qualification organised by labour offices is relatively high. In reality, however, there is a certain inequality in the conditions for certain groups of women (particularly those on maternity leave and with small children). The economic activity of women remains at a relatively high level. In spite of this, there are still differences between men and women as regards their position in the labour market. The flexible workloads being exploited by women are low. A very low percentage of women have their own business. The system of state and public pre-school child care facilities and out-of-school centres basically satisfies demand for this type of services. The system of social care services is absolutely inadequate. The implementation of "Government Priorities and Procedures in Pursuing Equality of Men and Women" is assessed annually. The co-ordination of the relevant activities is the responsibility of MoLSA.

Public employment services, according to the law, shall provide information, counselling and brokerage, manage retraining, administer evidence of the unemployed and vacancies and administer benefits agenda. Besides this basic agenda, advisory services are provided in respect of the choice of qualification. In the framework of active employment policy, it is also possible to assist employers with the retraining of their employees, e.g. where they are threatened by mass layoffs. A new law was passed in 2000, reacting to newly-emerged needs not only on the labour market but in the entire economy. This concerns investment incentives, among others, through subsidies for new workplaces and subsidies for retraining of employees.

The basis for steps in the field of **employment policy** is given by the law, within which there is fairly adequate room to manoeuvre. The National Employment Plan and National Employment Action Plan for 2001 are basically in line with EU employment guidelines; however, they are not sufficiently detailed at the level of measures and actions that should be taken under each guideline. The NEAP represents a potential work programme for many Ministries. The ministry does not seem to have any policies on private employment agencies.

There is a rising trend for active **employment policy spending** in relation to GDP since 1997. However, this must be seen in relation to the unemployment rate and average duration of unemployment, which are also increasing. There is no scheme for assessing **staffing needs** on a national level. In connection with the lengthening of the average length of unemployment and with an increase in the number of long-term unemployed, more services would be needed to be provided by the labour offices. However, there is not enough capacity to carry this out. This is true for both labour offices and the Employment Service Administration ministerial division. All of the activities of the public employment services are being monitored; however, their impact is not being researched.

At a **regional level**, the directors of the district labour offices have their so-called "advisory boards", where employers, trade unions, schools and other players are members. The institute of advisory boards is positive. However, use of its potential depends on the labour office itself, i.e. to what extent it can communicate with the others and to what extent the labour office is able to drive the advisory board's proposals into actions. Public administration reform is currently taking place in the Czech Republic. As regards public employment services on a regional level, so far one ministerial employee is attached to each of the NUTS2 regions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The labour market in the CR has been undergoing rapid changes which are associated with restructuring of the economy, the corporate sector and with absorption of technological developments.

For still some time restructuring will be accompanied by extensive redundancies among employees in declining companies and sectors. Pressures to maintain a relatively high level of employment will therefore be strong. A fast increase occurs particularly in the proportion of the long-term unemployed. This is why active employment policy should be more target-oriented and based on a wider range of measures, the efficiency of which should be regularly assessed in relation to the targets attained.

On the other hand, new investors signal a lack of qualified workers with the necessary skills. Flexibility is an ever more important factor for necessary transfers of workforce between sectors and companies so that they may be engaged in more efficient activities. A major challenge is to keep pace with the current globalisation trends and to improve the comparative position of human resources. It is therefore necessary that the reform of initial education move faster towards acceptance of labour market needs and acquisition of skills indispensable for life-long learning.

The differences between regional labour markets are increasing as a consequence of their unequal development potential, while a very low inter-regional mobility is preserving this unfavourable situation. It will be important both to promote job creation and to increase the level of education and flexibility of population in the declining regions so that they become attractive for investors bringing in new technologies. Regional strategies and involvement of various regional interests in employment policy will play an increasingly important role.

The structure of population is showing an increase in the proportion of elderly people. The task of coping with the ageing population will be more difficult for the CR than for other EU member countries where this process is more balanced. A new need will arise to focus education much more on adult population and to rapidly develop an efficient system of continuing education for all generations. The overall situation will also depend on the willingness of people to invest, through public budgets as well as from private sources, in education and to give it the concentrated effort and time.

Since 1990 the labour market policy has been implemented on the basis of defined legal provisions which apply to the operations of Employment Services including labour offices. There is a principal range of active employment policy measures, which are stipulated in the law and include following area:

- Support for employment of disadvantaged groups of population including support for the start-up of businesses (self-employment);
- Support for employment of disabled people;
- Creation of jobs for the unemployed particularly those with low qualifications in the form of public utility jobs;
- Organisation of retraining for unemployed people either in line with the requirements of a specific future employer, or non-specific retraining which provides skills enhancing the chances of getting a job; re-socialisation and motivation courses are organised for low-qualified and disadvantaged people;
- Support for the creation of jobs by employers for school leavers so that they may acquire practical experience;
- A new measure consisting in investment incentives in the form of subsidies to investors for new jobs and retraining of new employees. The incentives are graded depending on the rate of unemployment in the respective region.

The structure of activities within employment policy fully sufficed in the early 1990s when there was a low rate of unemployment and job seekers would find work within 3 and 5 months. As problems grew, it was necessary to pay more attention to disadvantaged groups and regions. The scope of existing measures was therefore enlarged by various decrees in order to address the specific problems concerning employment of school leavers, members of the Romany minority and disabled people. The new employment bill, which is under preparation, should further expand the scope and flexibility of active measures in order to ensure better responsiveness to the needs of individuals as well as regional labour markets. Since 1999, emphasis has been placed on increasing the proportion of active instruments. This is evidenced by a considerable increase in resources allocated to active employment policy as compared to passive expenditure.

The development of the National Employment Plan (NEP), the National Employment Action Plan (NEAP) and the Sectoral Operational Programme for Human Resource Development (SOP-HRD) have applied a new employment policy approach. These documents, which have been one by one adopted since 1999, concentrate more on national priorities, while an important consideration in their development was to bring these priorities in line with the principal pillars of EU Employment Guidelines. Another new aspect is the obvious effort to view employment policy in a more comprehensive manner and to involve other partners (particularly government agencies and social partners) in its development and implementation.

Government priorities within employment policy may be summarised as follows::

- To maintain high levels of employment through job creation particularly in regions where traditional sectors and productions are being phased out (support for the creation of employment opportunities, entrepreneurship and SMEs);
- To increase adaptability of employees and employers by means of retraining and a more extensive application of flexible workloads;
- To expand the range of active employment policy measures, to improve their flexibility having regard to the needs of various groups and regions; to increase the level of funding for active employment policy;
- To motivate to work through increasing the income from work as compared to welfare and other benefits, to promote re-socialisation and motivation courses;
- To develop continuing education in a coherent manner, particularly to define the relevant powers and responsibilities, to develop rules for financing and financial incentives, to develop information and other support systems;
- To accelerate the reform of the system of initial education, to improve its horizontal and vertical “permeability”, to include the key competencies according to the labour market needs and to establish links necessary for the process of life-long learning.

There is also a marked emphasis on more coherent and structured approaches to the development of education and human resources. Various documents have been prepared which set out aims for a medium-term period. The National Programme for the Development of Education (so-called White Paper), approved by the government in February 2001, establishes the overall framework for national educational policy, aims and priorities. It sets out the decisive steps for their implementation in all educational sectors – i.e. from pre-school education to life-long learning. An Outline of State Information Policy in Education has also been adopted. Its purpose is to gradually enhance the knowledge and use of ICT in schools and in population at large. In 2000, a Strategy for Human Resource Development was prepared, which sets out priorities aimed to strengthen competitiveness of human resources and concerns individuals, educational institutions, social partners, the corporate sector as well as public administration. It proposes a necessary adjustment of the responsibilities of public administration bodies in the area of continuing education ad HRD. Moreover, the Strategy involves the preparation of organisation structures, mechanisms and instruments for the governance and systemic support for continuing education in relation to employment and competitiveness at national and regional levels.

The implementation of the priorities and policy aims set out in the above documents including the Employment Plans has not been proceeding with a sufficient speed. Also, there is often a gap in the legal and institutional prerequisites. This is why further consideration must be given to the elaboration of the priorities and aims to implementation decisions, to ensure their evaluation, the division of responsibilities and involvement of all partners concerned.

2. CAPACITY OF INITIAL VET SYSTEM TO SUPPORT NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT POLICY

2.1 Overview of the initial VET system

2.1.1 Legal framework

IVET up to the level of higher professional schools is provided for by Law No. 29/1984 Coll., as later amended, concerning **the system of basic, secondary and higher professional schools**. There have been nine amendments to the law, the most recent one in 1995 (Law No. 138/1995 Coll). The law on **state administration and self-government in education** No. 564/1990 Coll., as later amended (the most recent amendment of 1995) defines the jurisdiction and tasks of various state administration and self-government bodies in education.

In view of the haphazard structure of legal regulations on education, which is the consequence of frequent and extensive amendments, substantial changes to the relevant legislation are being planned. The MoEYS has drafted proposal of a **new education bill** which was put forward to the Parliament in May 2001. Although the new education bill was prepared for a long time, Parliament did not reach a consensus and did not pass it.

Higher education institutions (universities) are governed by Law No. 111/1998 on higher education institutions which has made it possible to establish private HE institutions and which has changed the legal status of state HE institutions. They became so-called public HE institutions. An amendment of 2001 gives the institutions the right to do business using their assets and to collect tuition fees for so-called life-long learning courses.

IVET has been considerably affected by Law No. 347/1997 on the **establishment of “higher-level administrative units”** (regions) which came into force on January 1, 2000 and other laws related to the public administration reform. This comprehensive reform of public administration has now entered its first implementation stage. This has had a significant impact on the system of IVET governance. The leading principles of the public administration reform are therefore decentralisation and participation, i.e. shift of powers from the centre to regional administrative and self-governing bodies. The reform establishes the much needed and hitherto missing regional level of government and increases significantly the role of self-government.

New regional authorities should foster the overall development of education in the respective regions. In the course of 2001, regional authorities are gradually taking over the responsibility for administration of secondary schools. Since the new education bill was not passed, the powers and responsibilities of these new bodies in the area of IVET are not precisely determined, and the implementation of the public administration reform is therefore far from being complete.

The role of social partners has not yet been provided for in terms of legislation. The Council of education has already been set up as an experiment only. It has 18 members – MoYES representatives (3), experts from education sphere (7), representatives of public administration and self-government (2), employers (2), employees (2) and Parliament (2).

The legal situation of IVET is made more complicated particularly by the fact that the proposal of a new education bill was refused by the Parliament. The existing problems will be probably addressed by means of individual amendments.

2.1.2 Policy framework

At the turn of 2000 and 2001 the development of a **National Programme for the Development of Education¹ in the CR, so-called White Paper**, came to a head. The White Paper was approved by the government in February 2001 and will be discussed in Parliament so that its intentions and recommendations may be implemented within a medium term. The objective of the programme was to “make education a matter of the whole society” so that considerations about its further development go beyond the boundaries of the education sector.

¹ The National Programme for the Development of Education in the CR. Prague, March 2001. See Anex.

The National Programme for the Development of Education stresses that education must be a priority of the socio-economic development of the Czech Republic. In order to carry out the necessary changes, financial and political support must be given to state and self-governing bodies, enterprises and components of civic society so that expenditure on education gradually increases to account for 6% of gross domestic product.

At present, the aims of the White Paper are gradually being elaborated in a so-called long-term plan of the MoEYS, which should set out principal development programmes for the next four year. The programmes will be funded by the Ministry and implemented in cooperation with newly established regional authorities.

The outcomes of the **PHARE VET Reform** programme have partially found their way into the White Paper as well as the bill for the new schools act. The outcomes of this programme affected immediately the approval of the Standard of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education in 1998², which was prepared by the NIVTE in cooperation with the pilot school involved in the programme. After the experiment of pilot schools ended in 1998, the positive outcomes were not applied in a systemic manner. Although the curricula developed within the programme were approved by the Ministry for a general use by all schools, only a very small number of schools decided to use them, particularly due to great demands for organisation, human resources and funding associated with their introduction. Another reason were inappropriate legal regulations (teaching loads, common first year for different courses etc.).

The overall aims of the policy documents stated above are in line with **proposals contained in the National Employment Plan**³ prepared by the MoLSA which, however, pinpoints the link between VET and the labour market. The National Employment plan, adopted by the government in 1999, sets out medium-term principal priorities in the area of employment. These priorities have been elaborated in specific measures of the National Action Plan for 2001.

The White Paper and the National Employment Plan are documents approved by the government which are gradually being elaborated in implementation projects⁴. Strategic aims in the area of education and employment policy were worked out independently, because they fall within the purview of two ministries. However, they were subjects to mutual comments.

2.1.3 Resources (human and financial and physical)

Funding

Total **public spending**⁵ (i.e. expenditure from the state budget and public budgets) on education accounts for 85% of the total expenditure on education. Private spending in 1995/96 was estimated at approximately 11-12 billion CZK. These resources come from various sources: for example, they include non-budgetary income of universities, revenues from tuition fees and grants from individuals in the case of private schools, revenues from sponsors, from students' activities etc. However, private expenditure is not monitored.

The development of public expenditure on education was rather unbalanced in the 1990s. The low level of funding in early 1990s was offset by a more favourable period around 1995. Due to the overall economic and political development the expenditure dropped significantly again in 1997/98. Expenditure on education in 2000 is expected to have reached 4.5% of GDP. Strategic aims of the White Paper envisage a relatively fast but still only gradual increase in public spending on education up to 6% of GDP. This goal should be achieved in 2005.

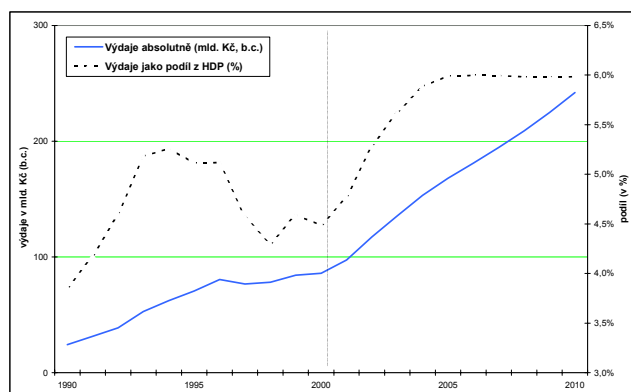
² See 2.2.2 Curriculum design/development

³ The National Employment Plan. Prague, MoLSA 1999.

⁴ For example development programmes supported by the MoEYS: „Programme for Support of VET in Selected Fields with Lack of Balance between Labour Market Requirements and Interest of Prospective Students“ and „Continuing Education of Teachers“.

⁵ See tables for chapter 2

Public expenditure on education: proportion of GDP and absolute figures



According to the 1999 data on the budget structure, capital expenditure accounts for approximately 9,6% and non-capital expenditure accounts for 27,4% and wages around 63%. There are trends to increase the proportion of wage costs so that the pay of teachers may be gradually increased. This results in decreasing the expenditure to cover schools' running costs, which often causes considerable problems in their operations.

Structure of public expenditure on education in current prices 1996- 1999

	1996	1997	1998	1999
	Bill. CZK	Bill. CZK	Bill. CZK	Bill. CZK
Wages	47,4	48,6	48,8	54,6
Other non-capital expenditure	23,0	22,7	23,3	23,8
Capital expenditure	11,3	7,6	8,2	8,4

Source: Na prahu změn. Praha MŠMT, ÚIV, 2000, p. 12

The structure of public spending depends on the structure of public administration. **A change in financial flows⁶** is therefore expected as a consequence of the public administration reform. Funding of IVET (except universities) will be taken over by the new regional authorities, but the methods of funding will still be determined by the MoEYS. The funding of universities will be still provided for by the law on higher education institutions (universities) – i.e. through so-called “normatives” (a flat rate based on the field of education and the number of students).

One important principle of funding will consist in earmarking relatively high sums for **innovative and development programmes**. The resources will aim to support schools which apply for participation in programmes declared by the state.

Teachers

Teachers at secondary and higher professional schools have a Master's degree. Teachers of general subjects normally have a two-subject qualification, teachers of vocational subjects are, as a rule, graduates from the relevant university and have complementary teacher training. Vocational training supervisors at secondary vocational schools (SVS) usually have an apprenticeship certificate in their specialization area, “maturita” and complementary teacher training. The teaching load at secondary schools involves 21 teaching hours. Recruitment of teachers is the responsibility of directors of schools which are legal entities.

Due to the expansion of secondary education in the early 1990s, the overall number of teachers was increasing until 1995/96. From 1996, when basic school was extended by one year, a whole year

⁶ See annex

of students was missing in secondary school until 2000. This radical fall in the number of students along with an increase in the teaching load in 1997 resulted in the decrease of the total number of teachers. In 1998/99 there were only 60% of teachers at secondary schools compared to 1989/90. Although the teaching load was reduced by the new social democratic government in 1999 (to the original 21 hours per week), the number of teachers did not increase. Even the re-filling of third and fourth years of secondary schools in September 2000 did not significantly affected the total number of teachers at technical and vocational schools. The student-teacher ratio is therefore gradually increasing (with the exception of higher professional schools) – indicated in full-time equivalent⁷. One secondary school teacher teaches only three quarters of his/her teaching load. The reason for this is that many teachers teach on an external basis. At the same time the proportion of women teachers is increasing (62% at STS, 58% at SVS in 1995). As for age distribution, the proportion of younger age groups is decreasing. One major problem is appropriate pay of teachers. Qualified teachers leave the education system for better-paid jobs (particularly in administrative centres and big cities with higher levels of pay).

This is why a system of career development for teachers has been proposed by MoEYS. It would be linked to the pay increases. This system, which has not yet been approved, is based on differentiation of teachers' work and facilitates classification in a higher qualification (and pay) band depending on specialization as well as the quality of and creative approach to work. The aim is to motivate teachers and other educators to pursue their professional as well as personal development.

The number of **university teachers** rose slightly in the 1990s, but this increase was far slower than that in student numbers. The student-teacher ratio in universities increased. The problem remains of a lack of teachers with higher research and teaching qualifications, since these qualifications are normally achieved at a relatively high age (associate professorship at 40, professorship at 50 and over). The need for an increase in university teachers' pay is even more pressing than at other schools, since the low level of pay forces particularly young people to leave for other sectors and abroad.

Number of university teachers (in thousand) 1996-1999

1996	1997	1998	1999
13	13,2	13,3	13,6
Increase in %			
1997/96	1998/97		1999/98
1,9%	0,6%		2,3%

Source: Na prahu změn. Prague, MoEYS, Institute for Information on Education, 2000, p. 72-73

School types and numbers

Secondary and higher professional courses are provided by the following types of school (see the table) the names of which are in line with the Law on Education. One legal entity may consist of one or more types of school. A typical example is "integrated" schools which normally house an STS and an SVS (possibly a special training centre). Higher professional schools also normally incorporate a STS within one legal entity. In 1999 there were 2,486 schools organised as 1,720 legal entities⁸.

SVSs	585	Incl. Special and those at institutional care facilities
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⁷ See tables for chapter 2

⁸ Own calculation based on data for the publication „Statistical Yearbook on Education 1999/2000. Performance Indicators. Prague, ÚIV 2000

VS	161	
STSs	880	Incl. Special
“Gymnázia”	360	Incl. special
HPSs	180	Incl. conservatoires
Training centres	180	Incl. those at institutional care facilities
“Practical schools”	140	Incl. those at institutional care facilities
Total	2486	

The regional distribution of main types of school is very balanced. This is the result of planning the school network before 1990 and its lasting effects. Prague is an exception with the highest proportion of *gymnázia* (25%), while the national average is 20% in individual regions. The numbers of schools above are directly proportional to the numbers of students only in the case of *gymnázia*. The differences between the number of students and schools in individual regions are higher, which is due to the school size. The small size of schools remains to be one of the most serious problems of the rationalisation of the educational process and effective use of resources. Despite optimisation measures adopted to date, STSs had on average 197 students and SVSs 294 students in 1999.

The development of school numbers is primarily affected by the overall number of students within secondary and higher professional education. In recent years, the most important factors in this respect have included **demographic decline, extension of basic education to nine years and a sweeping process of school network rationalisation.**

The demographic decline and the extension of the basic school have caused excessive capacity⁹ of secondary schools, which is only to a degree exploited for continuing vocational education and retraining. Neither have distance forms of learning developed significantly in terms of quantity. The rationalisation of the school network (i.e. decrease in their numbers and mergers) started in 1997. At present, it has virtually stopped due to the public administration reform and changes in the system of governance. Powers in this area will be gradually taken over by regional authorities which should address these issues in view of the available educational programmes and the needs of the relevant region. Consideration will also be given to efficient and rational school operations.

The aforementioned facts imply that the system of IVET suffers from inefficient use of existing resources and their inappropriate allocation. According to information provided by the MoEYS, approximately 150-190 thousand places at secondary vocational schools in the year 2001 will not be filled, which equals to approximately 870 medium-sized schools which do not provide education but whose running costs are covered. These costs amount to 2 billion per annum. On the other hand, schools do not have sufficient amount of financial resources to cover both their running costs and, particularly, teachers' wages. The tertiary sector suffers from lack of capacity and insufficient funding of running and labour costs also.

2.1.4 Structure and organisation of initial VET

The structure of the education system of the CR is illustrated in the attached chart.

After the completion of the compulsory nine-year basic school or in the corresponding year of a multi-year *gymnázium*, pupils may choose from three streams of secondary education. Apart from secondary general education there are two basic choices within VET: a training course completed with the award of an apprentice certificate or a study course completed by “maturita” giving access to tertiary education.

Secondary technical schools (STS) provide predominantly four-year study courses completed by “maturita” which prepare the students for the performance of various technical-operational jobs, jobs in business, education, health care, social and legal areas, administration, fine arts, music and drama etc. Vocational and technical curricula are developed to ensure that graduates may enter the labour market with medium levels of qualification. **Secondary vocational schools**

⁹ See tables for chapter 2

(SVS) provide predominantly three-year courses completed by the award of an “apprentice certificate” and, to a lesser degree, four-year courses completed by “maturita”. These programmes consist of a large proportion of vocational training (about 48%) and prepare for the performance of skilled manual occupations and crafts. In consequence of school network optimisation in the 1990s individual schools expanded their supply of programmes and some of them were transformed into so-called **integrated secondary schools** which, “under one roof”, provide both “maturita” courses and vocational courses without “maturita”.

As regards the participation of basic school leavers in IVET it is a positive development that an overwhelming majority (90-95%) of young people continue their education at the upper secondary level (ISCED3).

It is important to stress one positive feature within secondary education, which is an equal treatment of technical and academic education (i.e. *gymnázia*). This long-term tradition is associated with high respect for technical courses, and the consequence is the high level of participation of young people in vocational and technical education. The CR ranks among European countries with the highest proportion of young people in VET at secondary level. The quantitative development of the proportion of students in the previously mentioned three streams of education is stated in appendix¹⁰.

While the “maturita” examination in general as well as vocational and technical education gives the right to apply for studies in the tertiary sector, the “apprentice certificate” does not provide this. However, it is possible to pass “maturita” in two-year follow-up courses and then to continue in further studies. This ensures **a very high level of vertical “permeability”** of the education system which is limited only by the capacity of the tertiary sector, particularly universities. All successful basic school leavers, irrespective of their choice of an educational route, have the chance to continue at a higher level of education.

There is a completely different situation as concerns the **horizontal “permeability”** of the Czech education system – i.e. possibility of transferring between educational routes. The VET system may still be described as rigid since it requires a clear-cut choice before entering it and the necessity to complete the studies at the end of an educational programme. Despite efforts there are still barriers between the two major educational routes (i.e. courses with “maturita” and without “maturita”) within secondary education. Moreover, one principal problem remains which consists in the fact that if the student fails in a final examination or “maturita”, there is no way in which the previous four years of study could be recognised. This also prevents the establishment of flexible links between initial and continuing education.

Having completed secondary education with “maturita”, the graduates have two opportunities **of entering the tertiary sector** – higher professional schools or universities.

Higher professional schools (higher professional studies) were introduced on a larger scale in 1996/97 in order to expand the educational provision for those interested in tertiary education. Higher professional courses last two to three and half years and are focused on practically oriented training for positions requiring higher than secondary qualifications. At the same time, the theoretical-academic education typical of universities is not essential in this type of studies. Their development has been halted, because their status and, most importantly, the issue of transferability between them and universities has not yet been clarified.

In 1999 the enrolment in the tertiary sector accounted for 33.6% of all secondary school graduates – 24.1% in universities and 9.5% in higher professional schools. This means that immediately after completion of IVET with “maturita”, 27% of STS graduates and 15% of SVS graduates continued at the tertiary level (including graduates from follow-up courses¹¹).

It is clear from the above that some two thirds of secondary school leavers enter the labour market immediately after graduation – some only temporarily (to make another attempt at admission

¹⁰ See tables for chapter 2

¹¹ Interest in University Studies in 2000. A joint press release prepared by the MoEYS and the Institute for Information o Education. 1 August 2000.

to the tertiary sector). It may therefore be estimated that around 15-20% of *gymnázia* graduates, 66% of STS graduates, 90% of SVS graduates with “maturita” and 80% of SVS graduates without “maturita” go directly to the labour market¹².

School graduates **entering the labour market** find employment depending on their qualification, employment situation in the relevant region and on their personal qualities. Surveys mapping employment of graduates in terms of a match between the jobs they perform and qualifications they have achieved¹³ show, however, that a large number of graduates (particularly technical qualifications) find **employment outside their specialisation**. While in terms of the level of education achieved the match is appropriate (although many graduates from STS perform manual occupations), the situation is entirely different so far as a match between the specialisation and job performed is concerned. There is a high level of accord only in business and health care disciplines (some 80%). On the contrary, only around 10% of graduates from mechanical engineering courses have jobs which fully correspond to their specialisation¹⁴. The average of 20-25% of IVET graduates hold jobs which show a “gross mismatch” with the discipline they studied.

The overall picture of employment (or unemployment) of school graduates is complemented by their rate of **unemployment**¹⁵ which, since recently, has increased considerably along with the overall unemployment figures to 21.7% (secondary school graduates) in April 2000. The highest rate of unemployment is among SVS leavers without “maturita” (26%). Secondary VET graduates with “maturita” (SVS 17.8%, STS 16.2%, G 10,5%) are unemployed less often. Unemployment among HPS graduates is on average 11.5% - there are only too few of them and this figure must therefore be carefully considered. The figures above confirm that the higher level of education, the lower rate of unemployment among graduates. School graduates have difficulties finding employment particularly in some regions (North Bohemia, North Moravia). The best situation in this respect is in Prague.

The structure of the IVET system is not yet flexible enough so that it could adjust to the necessary changes on an ongoing basis. Three- and four-year programmes hardly facilitate any adjustment or individualisation of the educational pathway. Nor do they facilitate a continuous adjustment to the needs of the labour market and this results in the fact that many graduates therefore often find employment outside their field or immediately undergo retraining. The unclear status of higher professional schools also remains to be a major problem – both within the education system and in terms of potential employment of their graduates in the labour market.

2.2 Responsiveness of the initial VET system to the needs of the labour market and the individual

2.2.1 Progress made in increasing the relevance of initial VET

Planning/programming

The development of IVET in the 1990s in the CR in terms of meeting new qualification requirements of the labour market was more spontaneous rather than based on planned identification of these needs. There is not as yet an integrated system of data collection and forecasting which would facilitate medium-term projections of qualification requirements. The election of social democratic government in 1998 has meant, however, a much stronger political will to address the issue of strategic approach, the evidence of which is an extensive document called “Vision of the CR’s

¹² Own calculations (VÚOŠ-Vojtěch)

¹³ Vojtěch, J.: Employment of Graduates from Secondary VET. An analysis based on labour force sample survey by the Czech Statistical Office. Prague, VÚOŠ 1998.

¹⁴ Graduates from mechanical engineering courses often are not interested to work in their field although there is demand for them in the labour market. The reason is that large companies do not have clear prospects, often lay off people, while the work in factories is not attractive and well paid.

¹⁵ Ryška,R.- Úlovcová, H.-Horáčková,D.-Vymětalová,S.: Position of Graduates in the Labour Market. ÚIV, Praha, 2000.

development until 2015¹⁶. This document was prepared by dozens of experts and also includes projections of the development of education and employment which have been compiled based on a scenario method. In the area of education the documents mentioned previously have been developed: the “National Programme for the Development of Education” (the White Paper) and the Strategy of Human Resource Development”.

As regards the specific issue of identification of labour market needs in VET, **feasible ways** are systematically being sought in which the relevant information could be collected and appropriately used in the development of VET structure and content in the still unstable economic in transition. On the one hand, attention is being devoted to the **qualitative aspects**¹⁷, of qualification requirements (i.e. which competencies should be reflected in the **content** of VET so that graduates from various courses may find relevant jobs). On the other hand, the **quantitative aspects** are being considered, i.e. what **structure** of VET will meet the future labour market requirements for the numbers of persons with relevant levels of education and specifications.

As regards the forecasting of labour market needs (the quantitative aspects), the education on offer is strongly influenced by the demand which, again, is influenced to a degree by the success of graduates in the labour market. The demand for educational courses certainly is responding to the labour market – however, the response is delayed and primarily reflects the specific situation in terms of restructuring of various sectors, as well as work conditions and willingness of young people to perform specific types of job.

At present, there are efforts – particularly on the part of labour offices and some representatives of social partners - **to regulate the development of IVET structure** in relation to the existing situation in the labour market. In view of the life-long prospects of graduates these trends are short-sighted as they respond to the current situation and do not heed the long-term global development trends in the labour market.

The CR still lacks **methods for forecasting the labour market skills needs developments**, although several important projects¹⁸ have already been initiated in this area. All these targeted activities designed to identify qualification requirements and **project labour market developments** have been very beneficial for the CR. However, they are **not continuous and systematic**. Also, the development of mechanisms of co-operation between all stakeholders, i.e. representatives of the domains of labour and education, is still at the early stages.

Curriculum design/development

The 1990s were marked with a large degree of innovation of the vocational part of the curriculum¹⁹ (around 90% of courses since 1989). This innovation particularly concerned courses and branches which are significantly affected by the developments in the labour market and the economy. In addition to spontaneous adjustment of curricula to the labour market needs, important targeted activities were carried out. They were aimed to develop a standard curricular framework and to ensure a more systematic approach to the qualification requirements of various occupations.

As regards the standard curricular framework, a most important activity was the development of the **Standard of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education** which was approved by the

¹⁶ Vize rozvoje ČR do r. 2015 (A Vision of the Development of the CR until 2015). Praha, Gutenberg 2001.

¹⁷ These aspects will be dealt with the chapter Curriculum

¹⁸ These projects include, for example:

- “The Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market: Analysis and Outlook” Praha, ÚIV, VÚOŠ, CSVŠ, 1999-2000.

- “Regular Forecasting of Educational Needs: Comparative Analysis, Development and Application of Methodology”(project Leonardo da Vinci). Praha, NVF 2001.

- „Scenarios and Strategies for Vocational Education in Europe“(project CEDEFOP). Praha, NÚOV 2001

¹⁹ Kofroňová, O - Vojtěch, J.: Kurikulární politika v ČR po r. 1989 a její odraz ve vývoji oborů přípravy ve středním odborném školství. Projekt RS 96 156 Resortního výzkumu MŠMT. Praha, VÚOŠ 1996.

MoEYS in 1998. The Standard describes basic requirements for the concept, nature, objectives and content of new as well as innovated educational programmes. Proposals for new programmes which are being developed by schools or are initiated by other bodies (such as employers) are reviewed by central bodies for their match with this Standard. Only after this scrutiny are they approved. The Standard defines a **common core** for all newly developed educational programmes.

The proportion of **general education** accounts for 45% of the teaching time in “maturita“ courses and 30% in courses without “maturita“. As regards the **vocational component of education**, the Standard only defines requirements for a broadly-conceived vocational basis and does not specify the competencies required from graduates from individual courses. The key competencies make up a relatively independent category in the Standard which integrates various educational objectives derived from general qualification requirements.

The Standard is binding only for new programmes (developed after 1.1. 1998) and this is why most schools are still teaching according to curricula which do not entirely meet the new requirements of Standard.

Since the Standard does not define graduate profiles in individual disciplines and specialisms, so-called **professional standards**²⁰ are being developed on the basis of qualification requirements for occupations formulated by the industry. The objective is to define requirements from graduates from VET courses in terms of activities performed in jobs for which the trainees are prepared. The development of professional standards is the responsibility of so-called “professional groups“ set up at the National Institute for Vocational and Technical Education (NIVTE). The groups constitute an information network of experts who monitor global trends in the development of labour and study the development of individual disciplines and professions. The groups are composed both of persons working in the area of secondary VET and external experts who understand occupational issues in the world of labour. One of the outcomes of their work is a set of analytical documents entitled „Monitoring Development Trends in Groups of Occupations“²¹ covering 21 branches of VET. The analysis is based on comparison of development trends in the relevant sectors in the CR and advanced EU countries.

It may also be expected that the development of professional standards will be influenced by the so-called “**Information System of Typical Jobs**”²², the development of which has been commissioned by the MoLSA. On the basis of extensive research in the sphere of labour the system should identify qualification requirements for individual occupations or rather specific jobs. It is expected that the first version of the information system will be tested on the Internet around mid 2001.

While the Standard of Secondary Vocational and Training is a document approved by the MoEYS and binding for the development of the respective curricula, the function of the professional standards is to only provide the relevant information to curricula developers.

The NIVTE is currently working on a new, modernised version of the Standard of Vocational Education and Training, which should have the form of so-called **framework educational programmes (curricula)**. They should be developed at the central level for various VET branches which should also include professional competencies required from graduates. This would mean that, in the development of new programmes, schools would have to meet both the requirements concerning the common core, and those concerning professional competencies of a graduate. The work on this is still underway.

The framework educational programmes should also continue a way in which excessive **specialisation of VET** could be overcome (too many courses which sprung up in the 1990s). The excessive growth in the number of courses, lack of transparency in the titles and content of educational programmes and difficult orientation in the system on the part of prospective students as well as

²⁰ Švanda, I. : Kvalifikační požadavky na absolventy odborného školství a možnosti jejich zjišťování (dílní studie ke grantu). Praha, VÚOŠ 1998.

²¹ Kadlec, M.: Monitoring Development Trends in Groups of Related Occupations. Praha, VÚOŠ 1999.32 pages

²² Information System of Typical Jobs. InfoPaket. CD ROM. Praha, Trexima. March 2000.

employers have come in for criticism. The need to redress this situation has resulted in the development of the new classification of IVET based on the larger units (categories)²³ of educational programmes which was adopted by the Czech Statistical Office in 1998. The development of framework educational programmes (curricula) could be a further step to significant reducing the overall number of courses.

Delivery

The provision of VET is strongly affected by changes in the **network of schools**. Excessive capacity of secondary schools is gradually, although not very successfully, being reduced by means of a Programme for Optimisation of Schools Network initiated in 1997. Schools sought to expand their provision to avoid closing down, the consequence of which is that there are many schools with a small number of pupils in a large number of courses. This is inefficient and financially demanding. The White Paper gives preference to the setting up of so-called multi-functional schools, i.e. school providing general as well as vocational programmes at various levels.

According to an annual report of the Czech School Inspectorate (CSI)²⁴ secondary schools have the necessary **facilities** to provide the respective education. However, schools buy hardly any new and modern teaching aids or technology due to a lack of resources. The situation is more favourable as regards **the use of information and communication technologies** - although problems occur even in this area. It is alarming that, at present, not all Czech students in secondary VET get acquainted with computer technology during their studies. It is expected that this situation will improve due to an extensive Programme for Promotion of Information Technologies in Education initiated by the MoEYS²⁵, for which the Ministry has earmarked several billion CZK. The programme envisaged that all schools should be equipped with appropriate technology including connection to the Internet within the next 5 years. The current situation ascertained within the SITES international survey is described with the use of indicators allowing for international comparison.²⁶

The system of evaluation including **evaluation of quality** of VET is underdeveloped in the CR. Evaluation of professional competencies of graduates is still carried within the powers of individual schools with the absence of social partners (employers), which makes it impossible to assess the relevance of VET outputs in relation to labour market needs.

At the secondary level, IVET educational programmes are completed either by a final examination with the award of an „apprentice certificate“ (or a final examination certificate), or by „maturita“ examination with the award of „maturita“ certificate. Higher professional courses are completed by *absolutorium* and the award of a diploma. These certificates are national and are awarded on the basis of examinations defined by law and decrees. The examinations are not standardised and are school-based. They are organised by the relevant schools and students are examined in front of a panel. Examination panel members are teachers of the relevant school, the panel is chaired by an external teacher appointed by the local education authority. Verification of study achievement and certification therefore rests on the professional responsibility of the teachers.

The varying standards of examinations at different schools have recently come in for some criticism, particularly as far as the „maturita“ examination is concerned. Successful completion of „maturita“ makes it possible to apply for studies at the tertiary level. In view of this, a new model of „maturita“ has been included in the bill for the new schools act which had been subject to broad discussions and experimental testing for several years. What remains to be resolved, however, is the transparency of the learning outcomes in the vocational part of education for employers. Moreover, certification in the schools system is not linked to continuing education provided outside the schools system. Finally, the issue of certification of skills obtained informally on the basis of experience has not as yet been raised in the CR.

²³ See indicators

²⁴ Výroční zpráva ČŠI 1999/2000. Praha 2000.

²⁵ Informační politika ve vzdělávání. Praha, MŠMT 2000.

²⁶ See indicators

The fundamental problem is still the insufficient involvement of **social partners**, particularly of employers and employees. This means primarily their absence in the development of educational programmes, in setting examination requirements, during examinations and in arranging for placements. The CR lacks an institutional framework and there is no legislative base which would provide for the involvement of social partners in the VET development. The forms of participation of social partners, if there are any, have developed rather informally mostly at the local and regional levels as partnerships between schools and companies.

The cooperation between schools and employers concerning placements for IVET students is also faltering. One alarming outcome of a survey conducted at secondary vocational schools (SVS)²⁷ is that approximately 65% of students do not enter a real workplace during their studies. Employers are often not interested or they do not have the relevant facilities, since the issue of motivating businesses to get involved in VET has not yet been addressed.

Teaching and learning methodologies

Innovation in educational programmes is still focused on updating the content rather than on a **fundamental change of the teaching methodology**. The content of education has been changed, but most schools still employ the traditional teaching methods. Most schools use the „teacher-in-front-of-the-class“ method and teachers primarily concentrate on passing knowledge (although up-to-date) and neglect or are unable to support the development of key competencies in students. Those schools who attempt to innovate teaching methods are faced with unwillingness on the part of teachers, questioning by some parents and lack of acceptance by education administration bodies as well as legislative barriers. Moreover, efforts to make curricula more flexible to facilitate tailor-made educational routes have not received a wide-spread positive response.

In connection with the implementation of the Standard of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education, which also includes key competencies, considerable attention was paid to the promotion of methods supporting the development of these competencies - particularly by means of **project teaching**. Projects covering several subjects were planned to become an integral part of curricula (and teaching). With the assistance of schools which participated in the PHARE programme, a publication²⁸ was issued and model educational projects were developed for the inspiration of and use by other schools.

In the first half of the 1990s, a modular system of VET was developed and piloted within the PHARE programme. In view of legislative and organisation barriers at schools (a stable weekly teaching load for the entire year, funding depending on subjects etc.), only so-called modular educational programmes were developed. The modules were developed as relatively independent units of teaching and learning (normally 32 teaching hours) and included precisely defined learning outcomes. Each student was supposed to meet these requirements. Such a system contributed to a partial change in teaching methods, particularly in terms of weakening emphasis on communicating the content and greater emphasis on output competencies of graduates. The introduction of a modular system was not supported by the central level and the system is only sporadically used by some schools within the existing organisational and legal regulations.

Despite all efforts mentioned above modern teaching methods are not widely employed in the CR. According to the CSI Annual Report²⁹ routine „frontal“ methods predominate primarily in teaching general subjects. Although they are mostly based on a professionally correct and well delivered presentation of the teacher, the focus on the average student fails to be differentiated between the needs of individual students. Insufficient supply of new textbooks and teaching materials which would respond to the development of teaching techniques and aids was one of the reasons for a literal „dictation“ of basic knowledge to students. In student assessment, concentration on the quantity of

²⁷ See indicators

²⁸ Jezberová, R. a kol.: Klíčové dovednosti v teorii a praxi odborného vzdělávání.

²⁹ Výroční zpráva ČŠI 1999/2000. Praha 2000.

memorised subject matter prevailed over causality and contexts. The overall assessment of teaching standards was in a great majority of cases better in STSs than in SVSs.

Distance learning in VET is developing in the CR primarily in the sector of tertiary education. The National Centre for distance Learning, which is a part of the Centre for Higher Education Studies in Prague, annually prepares an overview of distance learning programmes developed by universities and other government as well as non-government institutions. The Centre is linked to the European network EDEN (European Distance Education Network) and coordinates in the CR the Phare programme designed to develop distance education and its gradual integration into the education system. Besides universities, these forms of studies are characteristic rather of continuing vocational education.

Teacher training

The qualification structure and professional competence of teachers at secondary technical and vocational schools (in terms of their education) is considered to be of high standards. Most teachers have the relevant university degree and there is a high percentage of teachers of vocational subjects who have teaching qualifications acquired either at teacher training departments of some universities or through teacher training post-graduate courses. The situation is worse as regards practical training supervisors who normally have an apprentice certificate and secondary technical education often without a teaching qualification.

Initial teacher training courses within the tertiary sector are provided by pedagogical faculties as well as other university-type of institutions (economics, engineering, agriculture, arts). They deliver vocational courses designed for teaching. Since universities are autonomous, teacher training has, in recent years, undergone extensive diversification both in terms of content and organisation.

Initial teacher training is characterised by a fragmented curriculum, insufficient links between the vocational and pedagogical-psychological component and inadequate links between theory and practical training. Although partial innovations have been introduced (primarily in the pedagogical-psychological component of teacher training), there is not a systemic approach to the issue of raising the standards of initial teacher training.

Continuing education of teachers has for long suffered from a lack of conception and funding. Teachers often do not have the capacity to adjust teaching to the needs of the economy and society in transition. Teachers of vocational subjects, in particular, often fail to keep track of changes and development trends in their field and to incorporate them into teaching. The result is that traditional cognitive learning prevails over learning focused on problem solving. Teachers of vocational subjects are not regularly in contact with enterprises, which prevents them from applying theory to the solution of practical tasks and they cannot upgrade their knowledge and skills.

In view of this situation the White Paper recommended that **a standard of teaching qualification** should be developed which would be used as a criterion in accreditation of teacher training programmes. This should motivate teacher training faculties to phase out the traditional academic concept of teacher training and to replace it by integration of functions concept based on experience learning, training and theoretical reflection, self-reflection and application of action research methods.

An emerging **system of continuing training of teachers and educators** is attempting to eliminate at least partially this deficiency in initial teacher training by means of an extensive supply of various educational activities. After the collapse of the network of institutions providing continuing teacher training in the 1980s, a wide range of programmes and institutions initiating and implementing various forms of continuing education gradually developed in the 1990s. Efforts to ensure a more systematic approach to continuing education of teachers were materialized as late as the end of 2000. There were 15 pedagogical centres set up by the MoEYS, which should rank among the most important institutions (besides the relevant teacher training faculties) providing and coordinating continuing teacher training. Continuing training courses are provided to schools and teachers mostly

for a payment. Only selected courses of special importance (e.g. information technologies) are funded from resources earmarked by the MoEYS for development programmes. However pedagogical centres are focused on pedagogical aspects or general subjects teaching and do not provide courses or practical training for vocational subject teachers.

Specialists who have not obtained the formal pedagogical qualification, can deliver teaching of vocational subjects under precondition of completion of an additional pedagogical course. Duration of pedagogical courses for vocational teachers at STS and SVS : 300-400 teaching hours. Duration of pedagogical minimum for instructors in companies: 30 teaching hours.

2.2.2 How flexible is the system in responding to individual needs

One of the major principles of educational policy in the area of IVET in the 1990s was the strengthening of autonomy of schools and departure from centrally prescribed curricula in favour of more freedom as regards programmes on offer and their development.

However, these aims of educational policy were put into practice only to a limited degree. Despite the fact that in the first half of the 1990s diversification of the structure of educational programmes was introduced in the form of various experiments (branching, modular), these approaches are only marginally represented and have never found their firm position within IVET – primarily because of legislative barriers. This means that there is still a high proportion of **linear programmes** - i.e. fixed from the beginning to the end and they do not allow for any modification by the school or choice by the student. Optional subjects are part of only some 5% of educational programmes. An individual student related modification is therefore possible only via a transfer to another educational programme.

Only some educational programmes approved by the MoEYS after the 1998 are drawn up allowing for a loose timetable, which does not specify the precise number of teaching hours per subject and year. Schools may considerably influence their graduate profiles. These programmes are being gradually developed for disciplines with high numbers of students (e.g. business academies). However, they facilitate adjustment of the graduate profile to school-defined requirements and circumstances, and not to individual needs and interests of students.

2.2.3 Measures to raise the overall skills level in the country

One of the prerequisites for upgrading the overall level of skills is concentration, within IVET, on laying the foundations for life-long learning and establishing conditions for students to become true citizens and active participants in the labour market. This is the spirit of policies within the White Paper which includes the following major objectives: a) support for preparedness of young people for **life-long learning** and support for **employability** of young people throughout their lives with an emphasis on broadly-conceived and general-vocational educational base and key competencies, which are necessary in any employment and which facilitate retraining.

New demands of an information society primarily consist in the provision of higher levels of education to young people (full secondary and higher) and in raising the overall standards of general education. This need is confirmed, for example, by surveys of so-called functional literacy which point to the relatively low level of general competencies in many graduates, particularly from vocational courses without „maturita“.

In order to meet these objectives, the White Paper sets out the following measures:

The development of *generally focused educational programmes* will be promoted so that in 2010 at least 30% of students at secondary schools are enrolled in them. In addition to *gymnázia*, general and broadly-conceived vocational programmes will be promoted such as those provided by technical and business *lycea*, which will perform the function of transition to the tertiary sector of education. The tertiary sector will be gradually increasing its capacity. Along with the support for follow-up courses (which make it possible for vocational course leavers to take „maturita“

examination), the proportion of population with „maturita“ should increase up to 75% of the relevant age group.

2.2.4 Conclusions

Vocational education and training has been adjusted to new labour market requirements particularly in terms of **content** (90% of curricula were innovated in this respect) – however, the changes focused more on short-term requirements. The CR still lacks methods for medium and long term **forecasting the labour market developments**, although several important projects have already been initiated in this area. Also, the development of mechanisms of co-operation between all stakeholders, i.e. representatives of the domains of labour and education, is still at the early stages. There therefore remains the principal problem of insufficient involvement of **social partners**, particularly employers and employees, in the planning, implementation and evaluation of IVET

In addition to spontaneous adjustment of curricula to the labour market needs, important **targeted activities** are being carried out. The activities designed to develop a standard curricular framework which should lay foundations for life-long learning were successfully consummated by the approval of the **Standard** of Secondary Vocational Education and Training by the MoEYS in 1998. On the other hand, activities designed to provide for links between qualification requirements of professions and graduate profiles of individual programmes have not, as yet, found their way into any document, which would be binding for curricula developers.

Consequently, there is still a high number of various programmes whose output is not sufficiently transparent - particularly for employers. However, all these programmes do have a broadly-conceived curriculum with a high proportion of general education (45% in “maturita” programmes and 30% in vocational programmes without “maturita”).

Only partial progress has been made as regards the structure and organisation of curricula. Linear study programmes still dominate, providing only a limited possibility of changing direction or transferring to another programme in the course of studies. This does not guarantee sufficient flexibility of individualised education.

The content of education has been changed, but most schools still employ the traditional **teaching methods**. Most schools use the „teacher-in-front-of-the-class“ method and teachers primarily concentrate on passing knowledge (although up-to-date) and neglect or are unable to support the development of key competencies in students. This is why the MoEYS has been paying increased attention to continuing education of teachers, the introduction and use of information technologies in schools and other development programmes which support changes in teaching methodology.

The system of evaluation including **evaluation of quality** of VET is underdeveloped in the CR. Evaluation of professional competencies of graduates is still carried within the powers of individual schools with the absence of social partners (employers), which makes it impossible to assess the relevance of VET outputs in relation to labour market needs.

It is clear from the above that the IVET system underwent significant changes in the 1990s, which aim to increase the relevance of VET in relation to the needs of the labour market as well as individuals. However, the implementation of many aims presented in various strategic documents remains to be incomplete.

2.3 Contribution of the initial VET system to promoting social and labour market inclusion

2.3.1 VET system in promoting access for all

The participation at upper secondary level I quite high. The selectivity of the schools system remains at a relatively high level. Those who show interest do achieve the relevant education and qualification - in international comparison, the CR ranks among the top countries in terms of the proportion of population with completed upper secondary education (ISCED3)³⁰ (83%). However, selection and separation on the basis of study achievement is still considered as „normal“ and beneficial for the teaching and learning processes by a significant part of the public as well as teachers.

The selection of applicants at various types of schools takes place within entry examinations, which are organised by the schools themselves. The school director decides whether or not an applicant is admitted. The most demanding entry examinations are organised by various renowned *gymnázia*. On the contrary, some courses at SVSs require only admission proceedings (including, for example, an interview), not examinations.

There are no major problems as concerns the drop-out rate. According to estimates, the drop-out rate is 2-3% at *gymnázia*, 5% at STSs and approximately 10% at SVSs.

In the 1990s IVET was expanded, which resulted in a broader access to courses and educational opportunities were diversified. The most important changes include:

- the development of private schools which contributed to the increase in supply of courses (in 2000/2001 there are 22% of private schools with 12% of pupils),
- diversification of education on offer: at present, it is more frequent that schools provide courses of various length, type and in various disciplines,
- the development of follow-up courses for secondary vocational school leavers (without „maturita“),
- introduction of by higher professional schools which represent an independent level of the education system.

The most prestigious type of secondary school is *gymnázium*. In consequence of high selectivity enrolment figures at *gymnázia* have been rising only slowly. Nevertheless, in 1999/2000 *gymnázia* students accounted for almost 20% all first year students at all upper secondary schools. The remaining part of population attends VET, while the number of those enrolled in „maturita“ courses has been increasing as the numbers in vocational courses without „maturita“ were decreasing. This trend was halted as late as after 1997. This means that in the 1990s the proportions of students in IVET changed in favour of courses completed by „maturita“ (around 40% of students of first years at secondary schools)³¹.

The number of upper secondary school leavers has also increased, among other things, due to the development of two-year follow-up courses which make it possible for three-year vocational course leavers to acquire full secondary vocational education (with „maturita“). The changes mentioned above have resulted in a considerable growth in participation in education of the more senior part of the 15-18 age group (88% of 17-year-olds and 60% of 18-year-olds in 1998).

As regards access of young people to education, there are more substantial problems in the tertiary sector. Since 1996/97 higher professional schools have been providing two-to-three-and-half-year courses to „maturita“ certificate holders with the objective to prepare them for demanding professional activities. The supply of these courses mostly satisfies those who were not admitted to universities. Over the last three years the proportion of 18-year-olds attending higher professional school has been hovering at between 7.8 and 9.8%.

The number of students admitted to full-time studies at universities increased between 1989 and 1999 by 80%. Although this growth has been continuous, only around half of applicants get admission - the reason being a stable increase in the interest in university studies. Enrolment figures, however, have been rising significantly: in the period stated above the proportion of those admitted (out of a hundred of 18-year-olds) increased from 13 to 29.5%. This method of calculation is only for

³⁰ Pohled na školství v ukazatelích OECD. Education at a Glance. 1997. OECD-CERI. Praha ÚIV. 1998.

³¹ See tables for chapter 2

rough estimation as among the young people enrolled to universities are not only fresh graduates from upper secondary schools but also those who were graduated in previous years and still applying for admission. These developments are reflected in the increase in participation in education of the age group where young people most frequently undertake tertiary education (25% of 20-year-olds and 17% of 23-year-olds in 1998).

There are various **social obstacles** hindering access to education at all levels of education. The Czech society is not paying appropriate attention to this issue, primarily because, for a long time, such obstacles virtually did not exist and the level of awareness in this respect decreased. Depending on the achievement at basic school, children are influenced to choose from three streams of secondary schools. The differences in the standard of education in these three streams are so large that, at this stage, the realistic chances of continuing education at the tertiary level are pre-determined. Therefore, both secondary education with an early division in its three mainstreams and higher education with austere admission requirements are highly selective, and moreover, their selectivity is closely linked to social stratification. Inequality in access to education persists, which is also evidenced by the fact that children of less educated parents have less chances to achieve higher levels of educational attainment.

2.3.2 VET system in promoting inclusion in the labour market for young disadvantaged groups

Education of pupils from disadvantaged groups who normally have special educational needs has, over the last ten years, undergone various qualitative changes. The major trend consists in eliminating segregated education of pupils with special needs and their integration into mainstream education. Disabled pupils used to have special educational programmes with long tradition and well-developed special pedagogy, on the other hand, however, the system was somewhat rigid and, although the network of the relevant institutions was relatively dense, often would take children with most severe disabilities away from their families.

The fundamental positive changes include the possibility of integrating the disadvantaged into mainstream education and increased openness and flexibility within the system of special schooling. This does not mean that the traditionally high standards of special education should disappear - the development is rather aimed at promoting transferability between special and mainstream schools in both ways. However, these trends towards integration are hindered by insufficient levels of preparedness of mainstream schools to work with pupils with special needs - in terms of professional qualifications, human resources and facilities. This is why various projects have been underway within continuing training of teachers, which aim at upgrading the knowledge of special teaching strategies and methods among mainstream school teachers at all levels.

It is common to concentrate „under one roof“ several types and levels of school and other facilities (e.g. secondary vocational school, practical school, *odborné učiliště*, *učiliště*³²). This arrangement facilitates smooth transfers of pupils from one type of school to another. A new type of secondary school - the „practical school“ is designed for leavers from *zvláštní* and *pomocná škola* or those who failed to complete all nine years of basic school. This school prepares pupils for the performance of simple tasks - in a differentiated way, taking account of their disability. What may be considered as substantial qualitative innovation is courses designed for *zvláštní* or *pomocná škola* leavers and for those who were designated as „impossible to educate“ in the past - in these courses they may complete their basic education.

An important and often preventive role in this area is also played by various components of the **counselling system**. Educational counsellors at schools are the front runners in addressing difficulties of individual pupils and play an important part particularly in preventing drop-outs caused by personal problems, socially disturbing family background and other aspects. Educational-psychological guidance centres and special pedagogical centres are designed to provide more comprehensive solutions to serious difficulties of pupils who often need individual, long-term

³² Odborné učiliště – training centre (TC) – is designed to provide vocational training to pupils who completed *zvláštní škola*. Učiliště (U) provides vocational training to pupils who failed to complete all nine grades of basic school.

counselling services. Diagnostic institutes provide preventive care to juvenile persons with behavioural difficulties, unless they are placed within the institutional or protective care system in facilities of so-called „substitute educational care“. In these facilities pupils may gain qualifications to enter the labour market. Preventive-educational care takes the form of voluntary visits to counselling institutions and one-day or short stays in institutional care facilities.

Important changes are taking place in education of the **Romany population**. Before 1989, Romany children were mostly educated at *zvláštní školy*, which was the consequence of the high demands of basic school and the resulting selectivity. *Zvláštní školy* prepared Romany children to meet lower demands and accepted their „otherness“, which was perceived as positive by their families during school attendance. There were no problems with unemployment since there was a great demand for unskilled labour in the economy. After 1989 the situation in the labour market changed, requirements of each member of society grew and deficiencies in education limit the opportunity of finding employment. It was necessary to change the established approach to education of Romany children. This process has started by debates in 1995 and is going to continue for a long time. The existing measures (starting at pre-school age) may be summarised as follows:

- the introduction, in 1996/97, of preparatory classes for children from socially and culturally disadvantaged background at kindergartens and at basic schools. In 2000/2001 there are 110 of them accommodating 1364 children,
- the introduction of the position of Romany assistant at basic schools who assist teachers and facilitate communication with Romany families. There were 175 of them in 2001;
- modification of the basic school curriculum to meet the needs of Romany children - in terms of didactics as well as content,
- testing instruments by means of which Romany children were placed in *zvláštní školy* were changed so as to be relevant for children from a different cultural background;
- instructions have been set out concerning transfers of pupils from *zvláštní škola* to basic school, counselling concerning the choice of education and career is being promoted;
- possibility of reducing the minimum number of pupils in the class with a high proportion of Romany children, similarly to classes for ethnic minorities;
- possibility of admission to secondary schooling of students with incomplete basic education on the condition that they meet the relevant admission requirements;
- a programme to support Romany students (including finance) has been developed;
- support for activities of Romany civic associations aimed at activities with children and young people;
- promoting information flows between the majority population and Romanies concerning the Romany culture, teachers and educators are beginning to train in multi-cultural issues.

2.4 Contribution of the initial VET system to promoting entrepreneurship

At the beginning of the 1990s the lack of business skills in the Czech society was enormous. The system of IVET gradually responded to this in several ways. A new subject entitled **economics** was introduced to all educational programmes, which also included issues such as the setting up of a business or a firm and the development of management and business skills. The scope of the subject matter is not large. It consists of the basics of business in three-year programmes, in „maturita“ courses the scope is larger and often include work at „fictitious“ or student firms. This way of developing business skills is most common at business academies and at schools focused on business studies. At the University of Economics in Prague there is a centre of fictitious firms (CERIF) which registers several hundred of these firms and provides newly established firms the necessary information and facilitates their integration in the market of fictitious firms both in the CR and abroad.

The project of student firms is being implemented within the programme „Applied Economics“ which is being promoted in the CR by Junior Achievement, which is a non-profit organisation set up by entrepreneur Mr. Bat'a. Its mission is to educate Czech young people at basic and secondary schools so that they get acquainted with the value of entrepreneurship, to understand the importance of the market economy and to be well prepared for the world of labour. This form of teaching consists in pupils establishing a company in the class which produces a specific product or provides specific services. Unlike „fictitious“ firms there are real goods being sold for real money. This project is not so wide-spread as the fictitious companies one.

Preparation of pupils for business and entrepreneurial activities is also part of vocational subjects within some vocational programmes. It is focused on the specific fields within which the pupil should find a job upon completion of the programme. Based on a survey the objective of which was to analyse various curricula³³ approximately 30% of courses approved after 1990 include as part of curricula training in business or entrepreneurial skills. This issue was devoted increased attention particularly in the first half of the 1990s. After this period the level of interest in this topic decreased - obviously as a result of sufficient level of saturation of curricula in this respect.

There are also specific programmes which are focused on entrepreneurship. They particularly include programmes entitled „Business in the Field of“ designed for graduates from three-year vocational courses as part of follow-up courses. Approximately 40% of all pupils in first years of follow-up courses are admitted to these programmes.

Employers take part in the development of business skills within IVET only through student placements. Labour offices organise within the framework of retraining so-called non-specific courses which among others provide the unemployed with the skills they need to set up and operate a business or a firm.

2.5 Contribution of the initial training system to promoting equal opportunities between men and women

The law provides for an equal position of men and women in schools and the Czech society is not experiencing any major difficulties in this respect. Before 1990 there were regulatory measures concerning admission of young people to courses at secondary schools and universities, which also affected educational aspirations of women. Young females were mostly interested in disciplines dominated by women (they applied predominantly for admission to business academies, secondary medical schools etc.) where they were not often admitted due to large numbers of applicants. Therefore they had to study different disciplines (e.g. engineering). At present, almost two thirds of women who then graduated from engineering courses perform entirely different jobs than those for which they were trained. Their chances in the labour market are lower as a result of this.

After 1990, there were efforts to expand educational provision on offer by programmes in which women could take interest. New programmes were developed which attempted to adjust engineering disciplines to the interests of women, such as administration in mechanical engineering etc. In 1991 first so-called family schools sprung up offering courses with as well as without „maturita“ (approximately 200). The core of the curriculum included subjects focused on family life and, subsequently, graduates from these courses could receive training (shorter than usual) in certain occupations - e.g. cook, seamstress etc. Girls were also trained in administrative tasks (typing, computers etc.). Similarly to courses provided by family schools, a three-year vocational course was developed focused on the provision of household services. According to data provided by labour offices family school leavers have been having difficulties finding jobs. This is why, since 1995, family schools have been undergoing transformation and have been phased out. At present, they only have a marginal importance.

³³ Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J.: An Analysis of Educational Programmes in terms of Employability of Graduates. Working texts within the project „Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market: Analysis and Outlook“. Prague, ÚIV, VÚOŠ, CSVŠ 2000, 67 pages

There is a relatively **equal representation of males and females at secondary schools**. However, there are still programmes which it is customary to call „girls’: there are virtually only females trained for kindergarten teachers and nurses, females dominate in business courses and in many service oriented courses. (There are a few courses designed explicitly for males - particularly in heavy industry, there is simply a majority of males in other courses and females are not interested). There are no measures aimed at redressing this stereotype in the choice of courses.

As regards **tertiary education**, there has been considerable progress in terms of the participation of women. In 1994/95 there were 77 females for a hundred males enrolled, but 105 female graduates for a hundred men. In 1998/99 there were 93 females enrolled for a hundred men and 119 female graduates for a hundred men.

The public does not consider participation of females in VET to be a problem which should be tackled. Problems considered by our society as well as by women themselves as much more pressing primarily concern the opportunity to use the knowledge and skills acquired in the labour market.

2.6 Conclusions of the chapters 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5

It may be stated on the basis of the facts described above that access to all types of education was expanded during the 1990s. However, various schools still select their students by means of entry examinations. Surveys show that this promotes the reproduction of well-educated strata of population and limits vertical social mobility in society. This particularly concerns tertiary education, which is tackling the problem of insufficient capacity. On the other hand, considerable attention is devoted to the integration of disadvantaged groups into mainstream education without reducing the system of special education. However, the results of such integration are often questionable, because mainstream schools and teachers are not ready to work with such students. Insufficient attention is still being paid to the specific situation of women.

2.7 Overall conclusions

The overall situation in IVET has recently become more complicated, since Parliament did not pass the new education bill. This means that the current state of affairs will be preserved and many strategic aims formulated in the National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper) will not be implemented, as they require the relevant legislative basis. The most pressing problems will be probably solved by means of amendments to the existing legislation.

Another pending problem is the transfer of powers and responsibilities in the area of IVET to regional authorities. This strategic aim in the form of decentralisation cannot be fully implemented (in consequence of the non-passage of the bill), since there is no precise definition of responsibilities of various bodies at the central, regional, district and school levels, nor is there a precise implementation schedule.

What is very important is the existence of the two documents (National Programme for the Development of Education – White Paper, Strategy for Human Resource Development) which set out strategic medium-term aims in IVET development. This ensures the possibility of directing specific measures within education policy towards a certain vision and linking them to the priorities of national employment policy. Although the White Paper has been approved by the government, its impact on the education policy of the MoEYS and in IVET is still restricted and patchy.

The most critical problems affecting national employment policy include:

- Insufficient involvement of social partners in the development and evaluation of IVET – also insufficient legislation in this respect;
- Inefficient use of the existing resources and their inappropriate allocation, which concerns particularly the structure of the network of schools and courses. In the future, these issues should be addressed by regional authorities in relation to long-term development plans of individual regions and not only on the basis of the needs of the moment;

- Insufficient flexibility of IVET curricula in terms of their continuous adjustment to labour market requirements and needs of individuals. This also involves inappropriate links between IVET and CVET. These issues remain unresolved particularly at the central level (legislation, development programmes etc.).

On the other hand, one important achievement is the adoption of the Standard of Secondary Vocational Education and Training, which implies an overall curricular framework for the entire IVET system. This framework places emphasis on laying the foundations for life-long learning and key competencies, which are necessary in any job.

The specific assessment of IVET development in relation to JAP requirements is presented in the annex.

3. CAPACITY OF CONTINUING VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING SUPPORT NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT POLICY OBJECTIVES

3.1 Overview of continuing training provision

3.1.1 Legal framework

The CVT developed **spontaneously** during the 1990s in the Czech Republic. This spontaneous development has a positive and negative impact on the CVT in the country. It enabled a quick reaction to the considerable political, economic and social changes, such as the adaptation of CVT's offer of entirely new training needs, the establishment of many new CVT providers, etc. On the other hand, this development has not been supported by a clear and targeted CVT policy through legal, financial and other rules at a national level. One of the consequences of this situation is **the weak legal framework of the CVT in the Czech Republic**. The specific law covering the CVT or adult education does not exist. The competence of major stakeholders (such as state, social partners, regional bodies) is therefore not specified.

In the first half of the 1990s, MoEYS prepared the first draft of the new law on the education of adults; however, the preparation procedure was not finished due to the negative views of important relevant players, such as employers or the Ministry of Finance. Therefore, **the large area of the CVT is not regulated by the respective law(s)** and relevant legal regulations only exist in some specific areas of the CVT. For example, the requalification of job seekers is regulated by the Employment Law (prepared by MoLSA), adult education at schools is regulated by the Education Law and the CVT of specific occupation groups (such as doctors, electricians, teachers) is regulated by the respective legal regulations, mostly at a lower level of legal norms than laws.

This situation is permanently being criticised by various bodies, namely by the Association of Adults Education Providers (AIVD), employers associations, Trade Unions and non-state organisations. **The weak legal framework of the CVT has been identified as one of the three key problems of adult education** by the National Programme of Education Development (White Paper on Education) prepared by MoEYS in 2000 and approved by the Czech Government in February 2001. The White Paper was prepared on a parallel basis with the draft of the new Bill on Education, which should replace the current law from 1984, with many amendments. The bill mostly focused on IVT whilst it underestimated CVT issues. This bill was refused in May 2001 by the Parliament (see Annexes). On one hand, it postpones its approval; however, on the other hand it opens up a new opportunity for more attention to be paid to CVT in the next proposal.

The weak legal framework of the CVT has a negative impact on the development of CVT. First of all, **the legal obligations of the main stakeholders are not clear**. Neither state bodies nor non-state ones are explicitly responsible for CVT as a whole, nor for its development or quality. It concerns the Ministries, the social partners, Chambers, local authorities, professional and other associations, etc. The legal framework not only influences the responsibility of various players in the

field of CVT but also **the funding of CVT**, because the rules for the creation of the necessary funds and their allocation are not clearly set up. Moreover, **the lack of incentives** does not sufficiently stimulate the development of CVT. There are some forms of incentives; however, they are only partial and are not efficient. For example, the enterprises may include part of the expenditure on training in their total costs. There is also a difference between unemployment subsidies: people participating in requalification courses (organised by Labour Offices) receive a 10 per cent higher subsidy. Individuals are not being efficiently stimulated to participate in CVT.

The Labour Code and other provisions define some principles which are relevant to CVT. For example, employers are obliged to create favourable conditions for the improvement of the professional skills of employees. The participation of employees in training, the purpose of which is to enhance their qualifications, is considered to be paid work. The employee is obliged to participate in training concerning work safety. A general legal framework exists for the conclusion of agreements between employer and employee. There is regulation on work “relief”. All these provisions are focused on partial or specific issues and do not meet the requirements on the overall legal framework of CVT.

3.1.2 Policy framework

During the 1990s, no key governmental policy objectives/priorities were set up for CVT; however, **considerable progress has been reached in the last years**. After approximately ten years of development based only on demand and supply, i.e. without priorities, incentives, stimulation, support and co-ordination of CVT development, **more strategic documents have been elaborated and presented**. All these documents have been published during the last two years.

MoLSA considers CVT in the form of requalification courses to be an integral part of its pro-active policy. Some sections of **the National Employment Plan (NEP)** deal with CVT issues. For example, measure 3.2 proposes **an increase in the motivation of employers in order to improve the qualification of employees** e.g. through the contributions being provided by Labour Offices to employers to enhance or change employee qualifications as regards structural changes and the implementation of new technologies, etc. However, this measure is not always being realised by Labour Offices.

One chapter of **the National Programme of Education Development** (prepared by MoEYS and accepted by the government), the so-called **White Paper**, is focused on the education of adults. This part was prepared in co-operation with the NTF. **Three current key problems regarding the education of adults in the Czech Republic are identified** in this chapter and the respective measures are proposed therein. Following this identification, **three main objectives/priorities were set up:**

- to improve the legal framework
- to develop and to implement the incentives
- to implement the system, ensuring quality, accreditation and certification.

It is proposed that the competence of major stakeholders in the CVT is set up and specified and that clear rules and procedures for CVT financing are established. It is also proposed that negotiations between representatives of state and social partners are started, regarding setting incentives stimulating the development of CVT. More types of incentives are proposed: for employers (in order to invest more in employee CVT), for job-seekers (in order to support their participation in requalification courses), for CVT providers (in order to offer the appropriate training courses) and for individuals (in order to participate in CVT). The first steps in the accreditation of knowledge and skills being acquired by non-formal learning are also proposed in the chapter on the education of adults of the White Paper. More proposals correspond with the key messages of the Memorandum on Lifelong Learning. As the White Paper only provides recommendations concerning CVT development, the necessary practical measures should be drafted and approved; however, the MoEYS has a very limited capacity to deal with this, so the NTF, MoLSA and other institutions and stakeholders should take part in this process.

In 2000, MoEYS announced **the Programme of Information Policy in Education**³⁴. It is mainly focused on support for the information literacy of pupils and students within IVT, however, it includes some CVT aspects. For example, it proposes improving the ICT literacy of teachers via training. Also, better equipping public libraries with computers with an Internet connection, enabling free access for all, can help to adult CVT. Starting the programme was postponed by the MoEYS and its implementation suffers from many difficulties and is moving forward very slowly.

In parallel with the state bodies' initiative, another strategic document has been prepared. The National Training Fund, a non-governmental institution, established and co-ordinated a group of experts, whose aim was to elaborate **a strategy for human resources development in the Czech Republic**³⁵. This is a middle-term strategy identifying the key problems of the HRD development (incl. CVT) and proposing actions for various relevant institutions. The strategy was presented and discussed at the national conference in November 2000, attended by approximately 300 experts. The CVT and adult education was stressed by this strategy. It also proposed the implementation of incentives stimulating the participation of people of all age groups in CVT. In 2001, a follow-up project focusing on the implementation of this strategy was launched in co-operation with the Irish FAS. For example, the establishment of the National Human Resources Development Board is now being discussed. The intention of this is to bring the representatives of key HRD stakeholders together and to create a national body supporting HRD (including CVT) in the country. An HRD management scheme at a regional level and an information system supporting HRD stakeholders is also one of the target results of the project. More regional seminars and discussions will take place in June 2001, which should stimulate HRD support at a regional level. As HRD strategy corresponds with the more substantial aims of lifelong learning, the EC Memorandum on Lifelong Learning will also be discussed at these seminars.

In February 2001, **the National Employment Action Plan**³⁶, prepared by MoLSA, was approved by the government. The establishment of responsibilities in the CVT area and the setting up of basic rules for the financing of CVT are among the actions being proposed (and approved). It is also proposed to enlarge ICT literacy programmes for the adult population, to finish the database of CVT providers and the training being offered by them, to evaluate the efficiency of training programmes in selected enterprises and set up principles for the support of these programmes, etc. The government decided to elaborate on the NEAP implementation programme in April 2001. Some measures are currently being implemented, such as a database of CVT providers and the training being offered by them.

In March 2001, **The Vision of the Development of the Czech Republic until 2015** was presented³⁷. This covers all aspects of the political, economic and social development of the Czech Republic. This vision was initiated by the Government Office. Its authors include many Czech experts co-ordinated by the Centre for Social and Economic Strategies of the Charles University. It is not, of course, an official document, however, it helps identify key problems and priorities. One chapter of the vision focuses on education, including CVT.

The set of strategic documents prepared and approved during the last two years in the Czech Republic clearly indicates an increasing interest in the strategy for the future and **interest in supporting the development of CVT and HRD**.

3.1.3 Resources

No statistical data is available on the overall budget for continuing training in the Czech Republic. If we were to try to estimate the resources for CVT, it would be necessary to estimate these in three main CVT areas:

³⁴ Concept of Information Policy in Education. <http://www.msmt.cz/SIPVZ/Documents>.

³⁵ Human Resources Development Strategy for the Czech Republic, discussion version for the conference Czech Human Resources on the Crossroad. Prague: National Training Fund 2000.

³⁶ National Employment Action Plan 2001. <http://www.mpsv.cz/scripts/1ssz/aknciplan/default.asp>

³⁷ The Vision of Development of the Czech Republic till 2015. Prague: Gutenberg 2001. ISBN 80-86349-02-0.

- a) A study of adults in schools (part-time study),
- b) The CVT of employees in the enterprises,
- c) The re-qualification of job-seekers.

The study of adults at schools (part-time study) is aimed at obtaining a certificate which equals the certificate awarded to successful young people finishing their full-time studies. The study programmes are long and usually last for the same or a higher number of years which are foreseen for young people. Approximately 30,000 adults attend these courses which are provided by vocational schools at an upper secondary level (ISCED 3) and approximately 30,000 adults attend the courses provided by schools at a tertiary level. These numbers have increased very slightly during the last years³⁸. Study at state schools is free of charge for participants. The costs are covered by the state from the MoEYS budget. The amount of expenditure on one adult student's CVT **is established as a percentage of the expenditure on one young full-time student**. This percentage is decreasing (from 30% in 1998 to 10% in 2000). Over the last years, the expenditure on one adult student at an upper secondary level reached approx. 9,000 CZK in one year (1998) and approx. 13,000 CZK at a tertiary level³⁹. The total expenditure on the CVT of adults studying within the school system can reach approx. 900 million CZK. This is approx. 2.3 % of the total expenditure on education from the budget of the MoEYS. This amount has been almost stable in some of the last years.

Some schools also provide specific programmes for adults; however, their percentage is low. First of all, schools at an upper secondary education level provide short-term training courses for people with specific occupations which are focused on the use of new materials or technologies. The provision of these courses is based on a contract between the vocational school and the enterprise. The payments being paid by enterprises for the provision of these courses is income for the schools.

In addition, complete and regular statistical data on expenditures on the CVT of employees in Czech enterprises is not available. (It will be available after the publication of the results of the Continuing Vocational Training Survey 2 by Eurostat and the Czech Statistical Office, in circa June 2001.) Other surveys carried out by various institutions to date⁴⁰ show that **Czech enterprises spend approx. 1% of their payroll on the CVT of their employees**. (Enterprises with foreign capital usually spend more money on the CVT of their staff.) The total sum can be estimated as approx. 10 billion CZK per annum. This amount also been almost stable in some of the last years; however, it could be expected to increase in coming years due to real and also forecasted economic growth. Employers cover the cost of the CVT of their employees if it corresponds to their needs. Employees cover the costs of their CVT if the training is not required by their employer and meets their personal needs or interests.

The third important part of the CVT is the re-qualification of the job-seekers. The costs of this type of CVT are covered by the state from the budget of the MoLSA. Statistical data on expenditure on re-qualification is available. **The total amount of expenditure on requalification courses has increased considerably during the last years**. After some years of stagnation, it reached approx. 147 million CZK in 1998, 236 million CZK in 1999 and 346 million CZK in 2000. This was approx. 10% of the total expenditure on the pro-active employment policy in 2000. Statistical data shows that the increase in expenditures has two main reasons: the increasing number of participants in re-qualification courses and the increasing amount per one participant. In 1997 – 2000, the number of participants increased from 11,918 to 32,260 and the share of participants in the re-qualification of the total number of registered unemployed people increased from 4.4% to 7.0%⁴¹. This percentage has

³⁸ Statistical Yearbook of Education 1999/2000, Indicators of Performance. Prague: Institute for Information in Education 2000. ISBN 80-211-0354-X.

³⁹ Statistical Yearbook of Education 1998, Economic Indicators in Sector of Education. Prague: Institute for Information in Education 1999. ISBN 80-211-0310-8.

⁴⁰ Koubek, Josef: The Cranfield Project on European Human Resource Management. In: Acta Oeconomica Pragensia. Prague: University of Economics 2000. ISSN 0572 – 3043.

⁴¹ Procházková, E., Projsová, I.: Pro-active Employment Policy in the Czech Republic. Prague: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Employment Services Section 1998. ISBN 80-85529-48-3, data from 2000 <http://www.mpsv.cz>.

been increased; however, on the other hand, it is still considerably lower compared to the same percentage in EU member states. In the next years, expenditure on requalification is expected to increase still further.

The qualification of teachers is regulated by the provisions of the MoEYS in the Czech Republic. All teachers at state schools at an upper secondary and tertiary level must be graduates of tertiary education; only teachers of practical training within apprenticeship schemes must have a secondary education and the requirement for a lower stage of tertiary education is currently being discussed. Teachers in schools delivering CVT courses are mostly teachers taught within the IVT, so there is no specific category of teachers. The number of their teaching hours within CVT is usually only a fraction of their total number of teaching hours. The statistics do not therefore distinguish between the data on teachers or teaching hours within IVT and CVT. The teachers have little practical experience of co-operation with enterprises and often work with outdated equipment. The qualification requirements for trainers within non-state CVT providers are not set up; however, there are some occasional cases (e.g. in the management sector) in this area.

The CVT providers network is more or less equally spread out at a regional level, without significant differences.

3.1.4 The structure and organisation of continuing training

There are three main groups of CVT providers in the Czech Republic: schools, enterprises and training firms. According to the specific survey carried out for this Monograph⁴², schools train 758 persons on average (per school) per annum and training firms train 784 persons (by firm). The same indicator, describing the situation in enterprises, is distorted by the low number of enterprises participating in the survey and by the high share of large enterprises in the sample: the average number of employees participating in training in one year reached 6,560 persons (per enterprise).

Schools (mostly secondary vocational schools and secondary technical schools) are involved in CVT to different extents. Some provide all three main types of CVT, i. e. adults study, training courses for the employees of enterprises (as external contracted training providers) and re-qualification courses for job-seekers. The involvement of schools in all three parts of CVT demonstrates the link between continuing training provision for adults and the formal education system. **The different extent of the involvement of schools in CVT** is influenced by the branches of the VET. More than one quarter of all secondary technical schools (251 schools) and nearly one third of all secondary vocational schools (252 schools) are involved in the CVT⁴³ through part-time study provision. **There are two trends** in the development of the involvement of schools in the CVT. First, the share of schools providing long-term courses is decreasing. In 1996/97 – 1999/00, this share decreased by approx. 10%. It is influenced by the decreasing interest of adults in long-term courses and by the decreasing amount of funds for this type of CVT by the MoEYS. Secondly, there is a trend for a very slow increase in the involvement of schools in the provision of short-term CVT courses. The share of schools involved in this type of CVT is influenced by more factors: the interest of customers (individuals, enterprises and Labour Offices) in the CVT, a lack of quality, specific short-term programmes for adults, the skills of teachers to teach the adults, the weak marketing skills of headmasters, the bureaucratic procedure for the approval of new training programmes and weak appreciation of and support for CVT activities by school authorities.

Czech enterprises use both their own training departments and external training providers; however, more precise data does not exist. Large enterprises use their own training departments more frequently. The trends are not clear. The involvement of enterprises as employers is the main (and almost only) type of involvement of social partners in CVT. It is mostly realised at a company level.

⁴² Palán, Zdeněk: Minisurvey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, National Training Fund 2000.

⁴³ Statistical Yearbook of Education, Indicators of Performance. Prague: Institute for Information in Education 2000. ISBN 80-211-0354-X.

The employer is usually the initiator of CVT; it asks the employee to participate in CVT and covers training costs. There are also cases of CVT at a sectoral level; however, they do not exist in all sectors. For example, two sectoral training establishments exist in the sector of power production and distribution, where employees at power plants and other relevant enterprises participate in both obligatory and other CVT.

As far as the providers of re-qualification organised by Labour Offices is concerned, their number is increasing. In 1998 their number reached 1,433, in 1999 it was already 1,578 and in 2000 it was 1,825; however, some providers are only being accredited without real training activities. They are registered and accredited by the MoEYS. Every year the Ministry organises a survey on the activities of these providers. The last survey⁴⁴ showed that **the number of providers of re-qualification courses has increased over the last years**. Approximately 72% of re-qualification providers are private training firms, 20% are schools and nearly 6% enterprises. On one hand, the number of participants in re-qualification courses is increasing; however, on the other hand, some providers do not have enough clients. The Labour Offices negotiate the provision of the re-qualification courses with the relevant training providers or schools in their region and pay them for the provision of re-qualification courses.

All types of CVT are certified; however, participants are awarded with certificates with different types of validity. Adults finishing long-term study (part-time) within schools (both state and private) are awarded with the same certificates as young full-time students. These certificates are valid and acknowledged in general, and are proof of the respective qualification. All other certificates which are awarded after finishing CVT have a limited validity for specific jobs or are only a formal document about participation in a specific training course. On one hand, a certification system exists within the formal education system; however, on the other hand, **there is no system of certification for non-formal and informal training**. Its implementation is recommended by more strategic documents, mentioned above.

The overall mechanism for ensuring the quality of CVT at a national and institutional level does not exist in the Czech Republic; however, some forms of quality assurance for re-qualification courses does exist. There are some cases of such mechanisms which are based on the initiative of individual bodies or organisations, for example within the banking sector or large enterprises (mostly with foreign capital), e.g. Škoda-Auto. The DAHA Agency (Prague) participated in the Leonardo da Vinci project, EXTQM, the aim of which is to elaborate the methodology of quality assessment for CVT providers. The project finished in April 2001 and DAHA Agency is currently disseminating the results.

3.2 The responsiveness of continuing training provision to the needs of the labour market and the individual

CVT reacts to industrial change, including technological and organisational change. It can be illustrated by the results of more surveys. In 1996, Czech enterprises participating in the survey⁴⁵ designated the following CVT areas as the most frequent: staff management and control, marketing and sales, quality management, ICT and new technologies, client services. In the next round of this survey, in 1998, the ranking of the CVT areas changed: quality management had become frequent than two years before. Another survey⁴⁶ showed the high variability of CVT areas. In 1998 the most frequent areas for re-qualification courses were computers, accounting, foreign languages and basic entrepreneurial skills (for clerks and technicians), massage, manicure and tourist guiding (for the services sector), saw operating, sewing and shop assistant activities (for workers). This survey, which

⁴⁴ Palán, Zdeněk: Survey of Requalification Activities Performed by Institutions Accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 1999. Prague: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports 2000.

⁴⁵ Koubek, Josef: The Cranfield Project on European Human Resource Management. In: Acta Oeconomica Pragensia. Prague: University of Economics 2000. ISSN 0572-3043.

⁴⁶ Palán, Zdeněk: Survey of Requalification Activities Performed by Institutions Accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 1999. Prague: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports 2000.

is carried out every year, showed that during the last three years courses focused on more general skills, e.g. communication skills, and personality development became more frequent.

The specific survey was carried out for this Country Monograph among member institutions of the Association of Institutions for Education of Adults, AIVD⁴⁷. AIVD associates various providers engaged in the education of adults on a voluntary basis. It has about 150 members. The specific role of this association is to forward the interests of the respective training providers, to support the development of the education of adults and to organise events dealing with the education of adults. The above-mentioned survey showed that not only the aims and content of CVT courses is changing but also the types of courses: the ratio of short-term courses has been increasing. Moreover, the number of CVT courses is increasing: in 1998 the total number of re-qualification courses accredited by the MoEYS reached 363, but there were already 467 courses in 1999 and 608 courses in 2000. More than half of the institutions to respond also gave information about the increasing number of CVT participants. The effectiveness of re-qualification courses illustrates the data from some Labour Offices. For example, the Labour Office in Ostrava (Northern Moravia) organised about 140 courses in 2000 and approx. 40% of their participants found the job up until six months after finishing the courses. The Labour Office in Písek (Southern Bohemia) organised about 50 courses in the first half of 2000 and approx. 54% of their participants found the job at some point during the six months following the ending of their courses.

A more detailed analysis of data provided by the above-mentioned surveys showed that in the Czech Republic continuing training provision is organised more frequently **along occupational groups lines, rather** than along sectors. It is influenced by the weak involvement of sector bodies in CVT. For example, accountants' CVT (incl. examination and certification) is organised by the rules set up by their association. The CVT system for doctors could be used as another example. Also, the re-qualification courses, as the best managed part of Czech CVT, prefer an occupational approach.

As far as **the responsiveness of CVT to the needs of individuals** is concerned, the situation is different in the three main parts of the Czech CVT system. The implementation of modular training and distance learning within the part-time study of adults at schools is weak. The use of modular courses in CVT is only exceptional. (A good basis for the implementation of modular courses was created within the Phare project, VET Reform, in 1994 – 1998; however, the implementation of the results was not supported by the MoEYS.) The curricula for long-term, part-time training programmes are mostly traditionally designed. The extent of the use of distance learning programmes in tertiary education could be illustrated by the numbers of distance learning courses presented every year in the catalogue published by the Study Centre for Tertiary Education⁴⁸. In 1997 – 1999 the numbers of distance learning courses increased (84, 94, 131); however, in 2000 this number decreased (87). According to the survey⁴⁹, only 11% of Czech training firms provide distance learning courses.

Work-based training in Czech enterprises is becoming more frequent. According to the surveys⁵⁰, this form of CVT was increased in nearly half of the enterprises in 1996 – 1998. Also, the involvement of internal trainers and line managers in CVT has been increased. A significant increase is evident in the use of computers for CVT in enterprises. The share of enterprises participating in the survey and providing information about the use of computers for CVT reached 21% in 1996 and increased to 35% in 1998. Therefore, an individual approach to training needs is better in enterprises than in schools.

No incentives/measures encouraging individuals to take more responsibility for their own training have been introduced by the government or by employers in the Czech Republic. The

⁴⁷ Palán, Zdeněk: Special Country Monograph Survey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, National Training Fund 2001.

⁴⁸ Offer of Study Programmes Realized in the Czech Republic, Distance and Combined Form. Prague: National Centre for Distance Education, Higher Education Study Centre 1999.

⁴⁹ Palán, Zdeněk: Special Monograph Survey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, National Training Fund 2001.

⁵⁰ Koubek, Josef: The Cranfield Project of European Human Resource Management. In: Acta Oeconomica Pragensia. Prague: University of Economics 2000. ISSN 0572-3043.

lack of these incentives has even been identified as one of the most important weaknesses of and barriers to CVT development in the country.

Counselling/careers advice and guidance is fragmented in the Czech Republic. The counselling and guidance system within the education sector is focused on children and youngsters, not adults. The counselling and guidance system within the labour sector ensured by the network of Information and Guidance Centres within the Labour Offices is open to all clients; however, in reality, it mainly deals with job-seekers. The system of counselling and guidance for employed adults is weak. Better links between existing counselling and guidance activities within individual sectors should be developed and improved. MoLSA made a very useful step this year via support for and implementation of a nation-wide information database of CVT providers and their training courses which will be available on the Internet and will also be used for counselling and guidance purposes. Another useful step made by MoLSA is its intention (presented in the National Employment Action Plan 2001) to establish a network of diagnostic centres in the regions. These centres offer the identification of skills for individuals who are seeking a job. The establishment of a methodology centre for the management of such regional diagnostic centres is currently being prepared.

A policy on the assessment and recognition of non-formal and informal learning does not exist in the Czech Republic.

Statistics on the numbers and characteristics of individuals undertaking training are available in the CVT, focused on re-qualification organised by the Labour Offices. Data on the numbers of participants is compiled by the Labour Offices in the districts and summarised by MoLSA. This data shows the trend for an increasing number of participants (see section 3.1). Statistics on the individuals undertaking training as employees of enterprises are not available. The infrequent specific surveys based on samples⁵¹ show a slight increase in the total number of CVT participants. Statistics on the total number of adults studying at schools at a secondary and tertiary level are available; they also show a very slight increase of numbers of CVT participants. More detailed data on the structure of participants is not available.

The ability of the CVT system to anticipate and respond to the needs of those in the labour market at risk of unemployment is, in part, improving. First of all, it concerns CVT organised by Labour Offices. The relevant respondents of the specific survey⁵² carried out among Labour Offices provided information about the close co-operation of the Labour Offices with employers, regional authorities, CVT providers and other bodies at a regional level. (This information was verified by personal field research in March and April 2000.) The aim of this co-operation is to strengthen preventive approaches within labour market policies. The preventive approach is also evident from the close co-operation of the Labour Offices with schools and school authorities, focused on the updating of training programmes within a region. Also, the co-operation of Labour Offices with large enterprises which plan to cut their staff exists in some cases, so that the re-qualification of people threatened by unemployment can start before their dismissal.

On the other hand, the current Czech CVT system **weakly promotes the adaptability of employees in work.** There are no efficient incentives/measures encouraging employers to up-grade the skills of their staff. Therefore, the situation is very differentiated: on one hand, there are employers/enterprises with an excellent system of staff CVT and, on the other hand, there are employers which do not almost train their staff at all. Only some initiatives of non-governmental institutions try to implement measures promoting CVT in enterprises. For example, in 2000 the Sebel Agency announced a competition called Learning Organisation. 25 enterprises participated in this competition in 2001 and nine were awarded the above-mentioned title. The winners in two categories of the competition reached a. o. following results: 100% participation of the staff in CVT, 6,7 days, resp., 15 days of training per employee per annum, the implementation of 51, resp. 20 new courses in the year and expenditures on CVT of more than 5% of the payroll.

⁵¹ See Nr. 1.

⁵² Vylitová, Markéta: Special Country Monograph Survey carried out among Labour Offices. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Education and Labour Market, National Training Fund, 2001.

The scope of CVT provision for employees can be illustrated by the results of a survey from 1998⁵³. Less than 10% of the staff participated in training in one ninth of enterprises participating in the survey, 10 – 24% of the staff in one quarter of enterprises, 25 – 50% of the staff also in one quarter of enterprises and more than 50% of the staff participated in training in more than one third of the enterprises. Following this data, it could be estimated that approx. an average of 30% of the staff participated in CVT. This represents about 1.5 million employees per annum. Managers were trained about 8.6 days per annum, technicians 8.5 days, clerks 3.6 days and manual workers 3 days. Another survey⁵⁴ provided slightly higher data: managers 10.7 days, technicians 9.2 days and clerks 4.9 days. There are differences between sectors: the highest data is in the banking sector, average data is in the manufacturing industry and the lowest data is in education. The other differences are in terms of the size of the enterprises (the lowest data in the SMEs) and the level of qualification (the highest data in the group of employees with a tertiary education). The other surveys⁵⁵ provided similar data.

As the part-time study provided by schools is too long and inappropriate for adults, the retraining provided by labour offices and enterprises is too narrow and focused on immediate needs, the opportunity for adults to acquire recognised qualification level through appropriate courses is lacking. Therefore, a project focused on the support of training centres for adults has been proposed by the National Training Fund within the Phare 2001 programme. The aim of this is to build up vocational adult training centres in pilot regions, providing competence-based vocational qualifications and vocational training programmes for adults using training forms and methods specifically adapted to the individual needs and conditions of adults and reflecting their existing experience and skills. Vocational adult training centres will match people's qualification potential with real labour market needs in the regions in a flexible and effective way, and related counselling and guidance will form part of their activities.

Conclusions

The following **conclusions** can be drawn concerning the responsiveness of CVT provision:

- Continuing training is only partly responsive to the needs of the labour market and individuals. Moreover, differences exist between three main CVT areas. Part-time study programmes provided by schools for adults are mostly too long. The content of the programmes is improving; however, the design of training courses is developing too slowly (traditionally designed courses prevail, a modular approach is only used on an exceptional basis, the courses meet the specific aspects of adults insufficiently, distance learning is developing slowly). The CVT of employees in enterprises is not a company management priority. The number of participants in re-qualification courses being organised by the Labour Offices is increasing; however, this type of CVT is being provided to the low percentage of unemployed (7% compared to approx. 20% in EU member states).
- The lack of incentives supporting employers and individuals (and CVT providers as well) is the main constraint and challenge for the future; the situation is not changing.
- The weak involvement of sector bodies in CVT, the education sector's insufficient focus on the needs of individuals and the lack of statistics on the CVT of employees are the most important gaps within the Czech CVT system.
- The counselling and guidance system is focused on young people who decide on an educational path and future occupation and on job seekers; however, it does not meet the needs of employed adults who want to participate in CVT.
- A means of accreditation and the certification of skills acquired by non-formal learning does not exist.
- Insufficient accreditation influences the quality of the CVT programmes and trainers: it is very different. Users can not always compare options, which complicates their choice and lowers the efficiency of time and costs invested in CVT.

⁵³ See Nr. 1.

⁵⁴ Price Waterhouse on International Strategic Human Resource Management – Results of Surveys. Prague: University of Economics 1997. ;

⁵⁵ Kuchař, Pavel: School Graduates in the Czech Republic. Prague: Universitas 1998.

3.3 The responsiveness of continuing training provision for the needs of groups at risk of exclusion from the labour market

3.3.1 Policy promoting access to continuing training for disadvantaged/marginalised groups - measures, impact

Socially disadvantaged groups usually suffer from the problem of low levels of education, insufficient motivation to achieve better education and little stimulating social background. The reasons stem from different roots, which are peculiar to individual groups and must be taken into consideration in the relevant policies.

The **missing framework for a continuing education policy has negative effects**, among other things, **on socially disadvantaged groups**. There is no comprehensive government policy towards these groups in the area of education, let alone a policy combining social and educational aspects.

Education policy measures

Some measures have been taken within **the education policy**, which promote the integration of disadvantaged groups into society and improve their access to education. However, they are more concerned with initial education and are focused on children and youth. Part-time education (for adults), which is provided by secondary schools, higher professional schools and universities in similar courses to those within IVET and completed with the award of the relevant certificate, is not even adjusted to the needs of the mainstream adult population. This form of education is therefore absolutely inappropriate for disadvantaged groups, both because of the required previous education (which these groups do not have), and the excessive length (normally 4-5 years).

Basic schools provide courses designed to complete a basic education. They are offered to adults who failed to finish all grades of basic school or to those who completed *zvláštní škola* (a type of special school) which is not recognised as a complete basic education. An amendment to the education law was passed last year in order to improve access to an upper secondary level of education. The amendment stipulates that *zvláštní škola* leavers may apply for studies at secondary schools and may be admitted upon successful passing an entrance examination. This opportunity, however, is not sufficient, since it is not supported by other measures, i.e. preparatory courses – those concerned will not be able to meet the admission requirements.

Measures promoting access to education for disadvantaged groups are elaborated, especially as far as **re-qualification courses organised by labour offices** are concerned. However, re-qualification is only designed for the unemployed who are registered at a labour office. Persons not entered in this registry do not have access to this type of training. The new law on employment, which is under preparation, provides for enlarged access to retraining programmes. However, the work on the law is only proceeding slowly.

The existing law and the relevant decrees concerning re-qualification set out various detailed provisions (entitlement to an increase in unemployment benefits during retraining, types of retraining etc), which do not cover all of its essential aspects. The non-existence of a solid legal framework for targeting active employment policy (for details, see chapter 4) therefore facilitates a different understanding of retraining and categorisation of targeted groups on the part of labour offices. The recently developed planning documents (National Employment Plan and Action Employment Plan) have also failed to bring about change. They do set out general objectives such as preferential treatment of disadvantaged groups in retraining⁵⁶, or the extension of re-socialisation courses⁵⁷, but they are not quantified and therefore binding in terms of implementation. The result is that the degree to which the most disadvantaged groups are targeted within retraining is very low.

⁵⁶ National Employment Plan – measures 1.5.3

⁵⁷ National Employment Plan - measures 1.8.3

Counselling and diagnostic services which would be tailor-made for disadvantaged groups should develop on the basis of Government Resolution No.640/1990⁵⁸. A network of centres providing such services and employing uniform methodology should be set up in all NUTS 2 regions. However, this measure is only being implemented slowly⁵⁹.

Educational activities specifically designed for certain disadvantaged groups – which were mostly innovative and included a set of various complementary or follow-up services (socialisation, counselling, trial work etc.) and which did not fall within the ordinary employment policy – were funded from Phare PALMIF resources. Because of the limited level of funding, the measures were only implemented on a pilot basis.

Measures related to NGO and social programmes

Various educational activities are also being organised within various social programmes, be they programmes managed by national or local bodies or by non-profit organisations which, however, are not linked to the activities of labour offices.

The governmental Council for Non-governmental Non-profit Organisations is one of the advisory bodies and manages the allocation of finances earmarked for the Foundation Investment Fund that was set up in 1992. The non-governmental organisations (NGO) often take a lead in insuring training activities among the target groups which are otherwise neglected by the state policy. In spite of the fact that the state contributes financially to the operations of these services, but only through non guaranteed subsidies granted for a period of one year. This fact negatively affects the sustainability of the training courses and related services. Moreover, the range of NGO services on offer is insufficient. Despite the problems which are faced by the non profit sector, in many aspects it remains a driving force of change as regards the specific problems of groups at risk of exclusion⁶⁰.

The non-existence of information and organisational links between individual stakeholders in continuing education, as well as between institutions providing social services and those providing socialisation courses, is the reason for the non-existence of a comprehensive and properly scheduled solution. Individual courses therefore often have only a limited effect.

Measures for Romanies

The participation of Romanies in various programmes **is not monitored** on its own; even their rate of unemployment is only estimated. Labour offices as well as other institutions are not authorised to monitor Romanies separately, as a specific group. The missing information makes the development of targeted programmes more difficult. In this case, a civic approach as a basis for equal opportunities is being adopted inappropriately.

Many policy targets are being addressed by the Inter-Departmental Commission for Romany Issues. The Commission is an advisory body to the government. It does not have any executive powers, but proposes both policy documents and targeted measures to the government. Since 1997, when the Commission was set up, the government adopted four Resolutions, the implementation of which is being monitored – two of them also deal with educational issues⁶¹. However, the relevant provisions mostly concern the initial education of Romany children and young people. As regards

⁵⁸ Government Resolution no. 640/1999 on measures promoting employment of persons with difficulties finding positions in the labour market.

⁵⁹ According to a special questionnaire survey at labour offices, which was conducted within preparations for Country Monograph (see annex), only 27% of labour offices use diagnostic services and cooperate with the relevant specialised centres.

⁶⁰ Education and Training Against Social Exclusion: Report on the Situation in the Czech Republic, National Observatory, 2000

⁶¹ Government Resolution no. 686/1997 concerning the Report on the Situation of the Romany Community in the CR and Government Resolution no. 599/2000 entitled “An Outline of Government Policy towards Members of Romany Community Promoting their Integration into Society”

continuing education, the measures focus on “systemic” aspects such as the training of teachers working in schools with higher proportions of Romany children, programmes for Romany advisors working in public administration or Romany assistants employed by schools. The Resolutions mentioned above do not set out the objective to provide for courses for the adult Romany population and to increase their motivation concerning further education. The level of education among mature Romanians is very low – according to estimates, there are currently only some 3% of young Romanians who have achieved an upper secondary education⁶².

3.3.2 Training for disadvantaged groups providers

Providers of requalification courses funded by labour offices include various institutions (especially private, public and a low number of schools) which have the relevant accreditation of the MoEYS (the structure of retraining providers - see chapter 3.2). There is no detailed statistical data on the proportion of the overall number of providers (1,600 institutions) who provide re-qualification courses for disadvantaged groups.

As the participation of unemployed people in re-qualification is generally low (see chapter 3.2), the participation of disadvantaged groups is entirely insufficient. According to analyses⁶³, only around 4% of the long-term unemployed (over 12 months) underwent retraining in 2000. In the group of the disabled unemployed, this was 3%, and 2.7% in the group with low qualifications (the average participation in retraining was 7% of the total number of the unemployed). Targeted retraining is not related to the unemployment rate in the relevant district. On the contrary, the “creaming” effect often results in a situation where the lowest participation of disadvantaged groups in re-qualification courses is in districts with a high rate of unemployment.

Interest in retraining and continuing education on the part of persons with low qualifications is very low⁶⁴. Counselling services and re-socialisation courses which should stimulate this interest are underdeveloped. Pre-retraining, re-socialisation and motivation courses only account for approximately 9% of all re-qualification courses⁶⁵. The most frequently cited problems concerning the involvement of disadvantaged groups in retraining include: a low level of interest and motivation on the part of the unemployed, insufficient penalties for turning down retraining opportunities and, in some cases, a lack of clarity in the provision and funding of motivation courses.

The participation of school graduates in retraining courses is above average in comparison with other groups of the unemployed (approximately 12%). It is nevertheless insufficient in terms of the existing needs. Retraining programmes organised by labour offices and designed for young unemployed people and school graduates are focused on additional skills required by the labour market. It is not their purpose to return young people back to school. This problem is evident particularly as regards juvenile persons without qualifications (with a basic education), where retraining courses completed by the award of a mere certificate cannot substitute for the qualification certificate required for a particular job.

Most labour offices do not organise **special retraining courses for Romanians**⁶⁶, because they refuse to register people according to their race and send Romanians to ordinary retraining courses. However, there are specific courses in regions with a higher proportion of this ethnic group and they are most frequently focused on re-socialisation and motivation, practical skills, training for security services and for the jobs of Romany advisors and assistants. Although there are good examples of

⁶² An Outline of Government Policy towards Members of Romany Community Promoting their Integration into Society”

⁶³ Rákoczyová, M. – Sirovátka, T.: Analýza cílenosti rekvalifikací (“Analysis of Targeted Retraining”), Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs, 2001

⁶⁴ A questionnaire survey at labour offices, 1998, Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs

⁶⁵ A questionnaire survey at labour offices, 1998, Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs

⁶⁶ In the questionnaire survey conducted under the Country Monograph project – see the annex – most labour offices (75%) stated that they do not organise courses for Romanians.

successful courses – be they explicitly designed for Romanians⁶⁷ or not – there is a general lack of re-socialisation and motivation courses designed to address the problems of this ethnic group.

Resources earmarked for active employment policy are in certain instances used to fund continuing education programmes designed to train Romany advisors and assistants for public administration, public services and self-government. The programmes are provided by five secondary and higher professional schools. The length and form of studies differ depending on their nature, and range between three and a half and five years (part-time courses completed with “maturita”). The courses are funded within the framework of requalification by labour offices. They train people for the positions of Romany assistants and advisors, social workers for the Romany population, workers in anti-drug and counselling centres, children’s homes etc., which are filled by Romanians. There has been a decrease in interest in these programmes over the last year, one of the reasons being the lack of a clear division of responsibilities within the on-going reform of public administration. Similar courses are also provided for by Romany and Pro-Romany organisations financed from various EU sources – which, however, are not co-ordinated.

Private educational institutions only provide education for clients from disadvantaged groups if they get the required financial coverage from labour offices or other public institutions. In the current situation, where the demand for ordinary training courses is rather low, private educational institutions are willing to provide courses within various programmes organised by labour offices. According to the specific Country Monograph Minisurvey⁶⁸, approximately nearly 40% of private providers are delivering courses for disadvantaged groups.

A number of educational activities are being organised by **the non-profit sector**. However, they only have a local effect. These courses vary considerably and their advantage is a direct focus on the needs of specific groups which are at risk of social exclusion. There is not complete information about the scope and type of these courses, the numbers of participants and their structure. In view of financial restrictions which the non-profit sector is facing (see above), it may be stated that the scope and structure of these training and motivation courses is far from meeting existing needs.

3.3.1 Conclusions

Despite the existing government policies concerning education, the labour market and national minorities, the specific measures are insufficiently targeted to promote the participation of disadvantaged groups in continuing education. Labour offices and other public institutions have an inadequate capacity to provide these groups with more individualised counselling and qualifications.

Due to the specific problems of disadvantaged groups, the efficiency of continuing training courses depends on other measures, such as motivation courses, counselling services, subsidised employment, social support measures etc. In general, however, this comprehensive approach is not being adopted on a large scale.

People with low qualifications and the long-term unemployed express a low interest in continuing education. There are inappropriate financial incentives for the unemployed to take part in retraining (both in terms of motivation and repression). The level of pay a low-qualified person may receive after retraining is not significantly different from the level of welfare benefits. Possible sanctions for refusing to undergo retraining do not have an appropriate impact.

The non-profit sector, which is capable of responding to the needs of disadvantaged groups, is suffering from a lack of finance and co-ordination.

⁶⁷ For example, programmes implemented by the labour office in Most

⁶⁸ See Annex

3.4 Contribution of continuing training to the promotion of equal opportunities between men and women

3.4.1 Approaches for promoting equal opportunities for men and women in the labour market and the contribution of continuing training in this respect

The access of women to education is explicitly open. This is true of both initial and continuing education. The participation of women in re-qualification organised by labour offices is relatively high (women accounted for some 56% of the number of retraining participants, while their proportion in the total number of the unemployed is slightly over 50%). In addition to ordinary retraining, specific courses are also being organised for women re-entering the labour market. The rate of participation of women in part-time education provided by schools is stable and corresponds to their proportion in employment. On average, women account for 46% of all people undergoing in-service training (this is 55% in upper secondary courses with a “maturita”, and even over 70% in higher professional courses; there is a lower proportion of women in vocational courses without a “maturita”).

In reality, however, there is a certain inequality in the conditions for **certain groups of women** (particularly those on maternity leave and with small children) which results in insufficient opportunities as regards participation in education. Special support is therefore needed for low-qualified women with small children. It is very difficult for them to find employment and the incentives motivating them to upgrade their qualifications are weak.

According to the existing legal provisions, women may only take part in the requalification courses organised by labour offices after their maternity leave ends. Although some labour offices provide courses for women on maternity leave to upgrade their knowledge, these courses do not constitute a proper component of the active employment policy. Their provision therefore depends on the approach of individual labour offices and women are often required to pay for these services. It is necessary to amend the law on employment so as to ensure participation in the retraining of persons in receipt of the parental benefit (who are not registered as unemployed). Moreover, the law on state social benefits must be amended in order to make it possible for women on maternity leave to place their children in kindergartens for the duration of the retraining course without losing their entitlement to the parental benefit.

Another obstacle to the greater participation of young women in retraining is the shortage of distance learning courses and, also, the still insufficient number of Internet hosts. Only a small percentage of households can exploit the benefits of the Internet.

Some new approaches to continuing education and the retraining of women are being implemented by the **non-profit sector**. The low degree of co-operation between the non-profit sector and public administration constitutes a problem. There is also a need for sufficient financial resources and an appropriate information system. Innovative projects which are being implemented with the support of Palmif could also be exploited within the new (amended) active employment policy.

3.4.2 Proactive measures to promote equal opportunities in employment

The economic activity of women remains at a relatively high level and, even at the age of active maternity, is not dropping below 60%. At the age of 35 to 55 years, when most women may fully concentrate on their career, the rate of the economic activity of women is some 86 – 90%⁶⁹ and does not differ greatly from that of men.

In spite of this, there are still differences between men and women as regards **their position in the labour market**. According to surveys⁷⁰, the average wage of women is almost 30% lower than that of men – particularly in the business sector. Approximately one third of this difference may be

⁶⁹ Modernisation of VET in the Czech Republic, 2000, Czech National Observatory

⁷⁰ Jurajda, Š.: Gender Wage Gap and Segregation in Late Transition, CERGE, 2000

explained by the fact that women are often placed in low-paid jobs, in badly performing companies and low-paid jobs within companies. Only a negligible part of this difference may be attributed to the differences in the level of education and around two thirds of the wage gap are likely to be caused by pay discrimination. The likeliness of discrimination in the public sector is approximately twice as low. The potential extent of pay discrimination in the youngest generation is significantly lower. This may be caused, among other things, by the fact that these women do not yet have children.

Employers are concerned about higher levels of absenteeism on the part of women with small children and their unwillingness to work shifts. According to questionnaire surveys among employers⁷¹, over one half of employers employ women on a part-time basis – particularly in the services sector (on the other hand, one third of companies refused to alter working hours in any way). One fourth of employers offer women additional training courses upon their return from maternity leave – the highest level of willingness in this respect is in companies with foreign capital.

In spite of this, the proportion of **flexible workloads** exploited by women is low. The objective to increase it is set out in the national Employment Plan as well as in the Action Employment Plan. However, it remains merely on paper, since it is not in the form of measures for implementation (such as counselling, financial incentives etc.).

A very low percentage of women have their **own business**. Only some 23%-30%⁷² of entrepreneurs are women, which is a low proportion regarding the fact that the proportion of women in employment is almost 45%. The provision of training and counselling services must therefore be intensified in order to support entrepreneurship among women. CEPAC methodology (see chapter 3.5, retraining of working with the unemployed may be adjust to the specific situation) of woman.

The system of state and **public pre-school child care facilities** and out-of-school centres basically satisfies demand for this type of services. The system of social care services is absolutely inadequate. Many women who look after their disabled or old family members must substitute for missing services at the expense of their profession. A far-reaching amendment to the law on social assistance should be drawn up, which should individualise and expand the diversity of social services.

3.4.3 Monitoring and targets for reducing gender gaps

In 1998 the government adopted a document entitled “**Government Priorities and Procedures in Pursuing Equality of Men and Women**”, the implementation of which is annually assessed. Co-ordination of the relevant activities is the responsibility of the MoLSA. An inter-departmental commission for equal opportunities has also been established at the Ministry. However, most sectors apply their tasks rather formally. Training courses in the methods of pursuing equality take place only rarely. At the moment, there are no professional capacities which could train civil servants to increase their awareness and cultivate their approaches.

The promotion of equal opportunities is part of new employment policy documents such as the National Employment Plan and Employment Action Plan for 2001. The relevant legal regulations are being gradually amended: since October 1999, an amendment to the employment law has been in place (the prohibition of discrimination on the grounds of gender concerning the right to employment). Since January 2001, an amendment to the Labour Code has been in force (the equal treatment of men and women in job performance).

The participation of women in continuing education is being monitored – however, only where overall data about continuing education, as such, is available. This only concerns some segments of continuing education, such as part-time courses provided by schools and re-qualification courses organised by LOs. Information on the participation of women in training organised by enterprises is missing. The CVTS survey carried out by the Czech Statistical Office in 2000 contains data concerned

⁷¹ A questionnaire survey among 270 employers conducted by the Masaryk University in Brno, 1999

⁷² Labour Force Survey, 4th Quarter, 2000 (23% is related to the number of business persons with employees, 30% is related to the number of self-employed without employees)

with women's participation in education; however, they are not yet available⁷³. The data about the labour market regularly includes characteristics broken down by gender.

Different specific surveys are carried out by various institutions, including public and non-profit ones. Many gender studies are provided by the Sociological Institute of Academy of Sciences of the CR. The current gender project is focused on the position of women in the labour market; another project is starting, focused on the implementation of European policy standards. The Institute also publishes a quarterly entitled "Gender – Equal Opportunities – Research".

3.4.4 Conclusions

In spite of their high level of economic activity and employment, the position of women in the labour market is more difficult in certain respects – particularly as regards remuneration. It is necessary to promote flexible work arrangements and an alternative form of employment via tax incentives and counselling for employers and employees.

The access of women to education is very good. Still, it is necessary to enact the relevant provisions in order to grant the right to retraining for women on maternity leave (who are not registered as unemployed). Specific training measures should be targeted at woman who have not had an opportunity to receive a qualification and who have not obtained any experiences before childbirth.

The proportion of women in entrepreneurial activities is low. Some women are willing to become self-employed, but lack entrepreneurial skills and the relevant training. Therefore, complex training measures and counselling support services for self-employed woman is necessary.

The government's programme documents concerning equal opportunities are of a rather declarative nature and not elaborated in the form of measures for implementation. It is also necessary to create an atmosphere of awareness of the basic principles of equality.

3.5 Contribution of the system to promoting entrepreneurship

At the beginning of the 1990s, more measures promoting entrepreneurship were implemented in the Czech Republic. The core of these measures was focused on the creation of an appropriate environment for the development of entrepreneurship. As part of this environment, the former Ministry of Economy supported the establishment of a **network of Regional Information Centres for Entrepreneurship** (RPIC). These Centres provide information relevant to both potential and real entrepreneurs in the region. They also organise training and seminars for their clients. 21 RPICs now exist, so that their number is higher than the number of new regions. They operate within areas with an average number of about half a million inhabitants (i. e. approx. 250,000 economic active people). The activities of the RPICs are co-financed by the State.

One of useful programmes concerns assistance in self-employment. It was implemented in 1993 in co-operation with a French partner (CEPAC Inter Soissons). The methodology of the design of the **training of new entrepreneurs** was developed by the partnership, CEPAC - Moravia. The training programme is composed of five stages. Training (both with trainers and self-study) is combined with guidance. The participants prepare their own project and defend it in front of a board of experts in the given field, representatives of state administration and local government responsible for the development of the region, entrepreneurs, etc. In 1993 – 1999, 45 courses were organised for clients in 17 districts. They were taken by 634 candidates. The success rate was 90%; 60% of the participants have set up their own businesses and 35% have found new jobs. The activities of CEPAC Moravia gradually spread and, in March 2000, the courses were organised in 32 districts of the Czech Republic.

The structure of the CVT courses offered by private training firms include many courses which provide participants with the **knowledge and skills related to entrepreneurship**. Even these

⁷³ Eurostat, which coordinates this survey with the EU and pre-accession countries, has not released the data for publication.

courses are the most frequent ones⁷⁴: accounting, management, marketing, business and trade etc. However, only part of these courses are of top quality, based on the know-how of top foreign firms.

Management training has been developed in the last decade as a specific form of CVT in the Czech Republic. Roughly 10% of CVT providers focus on management⁷⁵. The content of management training covers various disciplines (e. g. business, innovation, negotiation skills). Short-term courses prevail. Three main trends could be identified in the management training: from general management theory to the theory of specific management fields (e. g. foreign trade management), from training top managers to training middle managers and supervisors and from knowledge to skills. Also, management training focused on the training of managers of SMEs is becoming more frequent. The number of those attending management training courses may be estimated at 60,000 per annum.

Entrepreneurship is also promoted by the MoLSA, which stressed the **employment aspects in the development of entrepreneurship**. One section of the National Employment Action Plan⁷⁶ is focused on entrepreneurship. 15 measures are included in this section. One group of measures intends to support the specific training and guidance programmes targeting people registered by the Labour Offices who can become new entrepreneurs. The timetable for implementation of these measures is currently under preparation.

The Chamber of Commerce of the Czech Republic started its project **Academy of Crafts and Services** in 1999. The Chamber reached an agreement with the MoEYS by which some vocational schools, their premises and teachers will be used for training of small entrepreneurs who wish to improve their knowledge and skills. The Chamber developed the curricula of these training courses for more branches (e. g. plumbers, car repair services). The first groups of small entrepreneurs finished their training in 2001 and it is expected that the development of this project will continue during next years. One important aspect of this activity is the comparability of knowledge and skills of the Czech craftsmen with their colleagues from EU member states, i.e. as regards the expected accession of the Czech Republic to the EU.

The Chambers at a district level (aprox. 110,000 inhabitants on average) also organise some training courses for entrepreneurs in the region; however, training issues are not among the priority activities of the Chambers. As the membership of entrepreneurs in the Chamber is voluntary in the Czech Republic, the impact of Chambers in the districts differs.

The CVT promoting entrepreneurship is also supported by the European programmes. The Phare programme 2000 offers support to target groups which are new-starters, the self-employed and the staff of SMEs. Measure 1 of this programme (Sustainable Development and Adaptability of Human Resources) aims at training, counselling and job creation schemes. Measure 4 aims at increasing the competitiveness of industrial companies and SMEs in the two pilot regions (the Ostrava region and the North-West region).

Also, the participation of the Czech Republic in the European vocational training action programme, Leonardo da Vinci, is contributing to the improvement of training of self-employed and/or adults. More Czech SMEs and bigger enterprises are well prepared and have realised placements in EU member states or participated in Leonardo da Vinci pilot projects. The number of pilot projects focused on **the training of SME staff or entrepreneurs to be** submitted by the Czech organisations, is increasing. For example, a pilot project submitted in 2000 by the University of West Bohemia intends to develop more training modules, enabling SMEs to improve the skills in the ICT area of business.

⁷⁴ Palán, Zdeněk: Minisurvey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, National Training Fund 2000.

⁷⁵ Modernisation of VET in the Czech Republic. Prague: Czech National Observatory for Vocational Education and Labour Market 2000.

⁷⁶ National Employment Action Plan 2001. <http://www.mpsv.cz/scripts/1ssz/aknciplan/default.asp>.

3.6 Conclusions

The CVT system has been developed spontaneously in the Czech Republic in the last years. Its development is based on the supply and demand of main stakeholders without priorities set up by the state or social partners. Therefore, the achievements of the CVT system are results of fragmented activities performed by many individual institutions, which take decisions concerning CVT in compliance with their specific needs. On one hand, slight progress has been achieved in main CVT areas; however, on the other hand, CVT development is slow and does not meet the requirements of current and future lifelong learning. A clear CVT policy does not exist.

There are three key problems of the CVT system in the Czech Republic:

- The weak legal framework of the CVT
- A lack of efficient incentives supporting CVT development
- A missing consistent systemic approach to CVT.

The current legal framework regulates some specific areas of CVT, rather than CVT as a whole. The competence of the main stakeholders (state, social partners, local and regional bodies, CVT providers, individuals) are not established in specific law(s). The situation has not changed during the last ten years. More new strategic documents have been developed within the last two years; however, as yet they are not fully followed by specific measures and action. The weakest legal CVT framework exist for the employees in enterprises, because neither the role of social partners in CVT nor the financial rules dealing with the financial participation of social partners in CVT is specified by any laws. The weak involvement of social partners in CVT development is a specific feature of the Czech CVT system.

Some incentives support CVT development. However, they are not efficient so that they only influence the decision making of institutions and individuals to a limited extent. The development and implementation of more types of incentives is being proposed in new strategic documents, namely by the National Programme of Education Development (White Paper) in 2001.

Some systemic steps concerning the assurance of CVT quality have been made, e.g. by the accreditation of providers of requalification courses organised by Labour Offices. However, an overall CVT quality system does not exist. The certification of CVT is clear in as regards CVT long-term part-time courses provided by schools, while certification for the other CVT areas (the CVT of employees in enterprises, requalification courses of job seekers) has not been developed. The system of accreditation and certification of skills acquired by non-formal learning does not yet exist.

The responsiveness of the CVT system to the short-term needs of the labour market and individuals exists; however, it does not reflect the long-term needs with a sufficiently preventive approach. The traditional design of training courses prevails; a modular approach is only used exceptionally. The counselling and guidance system is fragmented: it helps young students and job seekers but does not meet the needs of employed adults.

The CVT of disadvantaged groups is underestimated. On one hand, the importance of the CVT and other measures focused on disadvantaged groups is stressed by more policy documents; however, on the other hand, implemented measures insufficiently support the participation of disadvantaged people in CVT. The low interest of some groups (e.g. people with low skills) is not being incited by efficient financial or other incentives. Women have good access to CVT in general. Some specific types of CVT should be better supported, e.g. women on parental leave who are not registered by the Labour Offices as job seekers, low-qualified women and women starting a business.

The promotion of entrepreneurship through CVT is mentioned by policy documents approved within the last two years (e.g. the National Employment Action Plan 2001); however, specific action is mostly focused on other areas of entrepreneurship than CVT (e.g. financial support, information and guidance). Many CVT courses which are being offered by private training firms and which have provided participants with the knowledge and skills related to entrepreneurship have been developed in the last decade. However, only part of these courses include top quality based know-how. Some training action focused on the promotion of entrepreneurship is being performed by Chambers, entrepreneurship centres in the regions and within the framework of specific projects.

4. CAPACITY OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICES TO SUPPORT THE AIMS OF THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

4.1 Overview of public and private employment services

4.1.1 Overview of public employment service

Legal framework

The employment policy practice in the Czech Republic is entirely based on legal provisions. Public employment services shall, according to the law (Act No.1/91), provide information, counselling and brokerage, manage retraining, administer the evidence of the unemployed and of vacancies and administer the benefits agenda. In addition to the basic agenda, advisory services in respect of the choice of qualification are provided. Most activities are based on Acts No 1/91 on employment and 9/91 on employment and institutions in the field of employment. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) - its Employment Services Administration - prepares ministerial orders and methodological guidelines for labour offices in respect of giving common direction on the understanding and usage of legal provisions, mainly those parts that concern an active employment policy. We understand an active employment policy to signify retraining, wage subsidies for employers who offer work experience to school leavers and youngsters, subsidies for socially purposeful jobs and for public utility jobs and subsidies for sheltered employment for the handicapped. Ministerial orders are very important for the real life as they make the law concrete: they e.g. say who is eligible for which active employment tool or for what amount of subsidy, they concretise conditions for subsidising of school leavers etc. Orders also allow to distinguish among various districts in respect to the situation on the particular labour market. Under the Employment Act, it is also possible to assist employers in the retraining of their employees, e.g. in the event of being threatened by mass layoffs. However, in reality, this tool has not been much used until the 2000 law on investment incentives. The reason for this was the unclear explanation of the legal position. A new Employment Act has been prepared and already approved by the Government. It joins the two acts of 1991. However, it has not been discussed by the Parliament yet.

Two new laws were passed in 2000, both reacting to newly emerged needs, not only on the labour market but in the entire economy. The first is Act No 72/2000 on investment incentives. The following is understood to include investment incentives: tax rebates, subsidies to cities for technical infrastructure, subsidies for new workplaces and subsidies for the retraining of employees. Incentives are aimed at either new enterprises or at broadening the work of current enterprises. The second is Act No 118/2000 which ensures the protection of employees in the event of their employer's insolvency. According to the new provisions of 2000 regarding employment policy, it no longer only focuses on unemployment but also on employment (this is particularly true for investment incentives as an active employment policy measure and, at the same time, is an important government economic tool).

Public employment offices are responsible for unemployment benefit payments. The eligibility is given by the law (Act No.1/91): entitled is such a job-seeker, for whom the employment service is unable to find a suitable job or retraining within seven days from his/her benefit claim. The job-seeker entitled for benefits should have been employed for at least 12 months in last 3 years before he/she claims for the benefit. The following periods count as "employment": studies, military service, parental leave (up to 3 years of a child), taking care after a dependant relative, eligibility for full invalidity benefits. A person who continuously refused to take up a job or with whom the employment contract was phased out for bad work results is not entitled to unemployment benefits. Benefits are payable for a maximum period of 6 months or until the retraining course is passed. A person, who is not (or not any more) entitled to unemployment benefits, is protected by other means of social security system: mainly social assistance benefits.

The level of benefits is counted on the basis of an average net wage in the last employment: for the first 3 months 50%⁷⁷ is paid, for the following 3 months 40% of the calculation base is paid. There is a surplus in case of retraining: a benefit counts for 60% of the last average net salary. In case a person did not have a salary that might be counted as a basis, a subsistence minimum of an individual is taken as a basis.

One more area should be mentioned here, right at the beginning of the chapter, as it has a direct impact on incentives for the unemployed to seek work, to attend a retraining course, etc. It is the area of an social assistance scheme in the Czech Republic. The net subsistence minimum of a four-member household, which is on the level of an average gross wage, represents a serious disincentive for the unemployed in terms of their activities in seeking employment – mainly for those who are low-qualified and can expect a wage closer to the minimum than to an average wage. The concept of the minimum wage in the CR is not aimed at covering family needs; the minimum wage only covers the needs of an individual. This problem is being broadly discussed but there are no outcomes from this discussion so far in respect of new legislation.

Policy framework

The government's key objectives and priorities for the public employment service are to ensure activity. The Czech government approved the National Employment Plan as a mid-term concerted strategy in the field of employment in May 1999. Following that, the MoLSA prepared the first Czech National action employment plan for 2001. Both of these documents are basically in line with EU employment guidelines; however, it is not sufficiently detailed at the level of measures and actions that should be taken under each guideline. The NEAP represents a potential work programme for many Ministries.

Then there is the Joint Assessment Paper, which is the only officially agreed document between the Czech Republic and the EU and shall be the basis for regular monitoring in the accession process (for more details, see Annex). A number of other strategic documents have been prepared or are currently under the process of preparation and approval which are connected with employment issues, such as the Sectoral Part of the RDP – Human Resources Development, the HRD Sector Operational Programme, etc. These show that there are some common steps being performed by more resorts than is the resort of labour and social affairs. However, these strategic documents only have a guiding role. As aims are addressed therein without quantification and without clear steps leading toward targets, they do not bind players on the labour market to providing measurable results. A clear policy framework is missing.

There is also a lack of coherent policy on interventions by the PES staff. The importance of activation measures as well as of need for evaluation of their cumulative impact is not being clearly highlighted. This is despite the fact that the NEP has increased employability as one of the four pillars – in practice, the shift towards activation is not very visible. There should be a shift away from measures to reduce the labour supply to those that improve the employability of the unemployed.

The basis for steps in the field of employment policy is given by the law, within which there is quite a good room for manoeuvring. On the other hand, it is not always clear what the scope of possibilities under the current legislation is, or what makes some labour offices almost inactive. To a large extent, this depends on how on the labour office itself uses current possibilities.

There is an urgent need for feedback on an active labour market policy. The policy is being drafted at ministerial level and applied at district (or, recently, also at a regional) level, but there are only weak feedback relations, which might lead to a change in policy (or in some measures) if this is desired.

Although it is possible to respond to regional needs within a given legislative framework, this response only depends on the interest of local partners (district labour offices, at most). What would be desirable in respect of the application of strategic documents is the active involvement of other

⁷⁷ Benefits are not subject to taxation.

partners – NGOs, trade unions, regional governments – in the preparation and drafting of these documents.

Resources

There is a rising trend in active employment policy spending in relation to GDP since 1997, when the post 1991 decline stopped, so that it reached the 1991 level in 1999. However, this must be seen in relation to the unemployment rate and the average duration of unemployment. Administrative costs are rising in absolute terms, while these are stable in relation to GDP. Their relation to AEP expenditures has been decreasing since 1995. For more details, see the tables in Annex 1.

The financial resources available for employment policy are based on the insurance principle. So-called “state employment policy” contributions are collected together with social insurance (old-age and sickness) contributions by the Czech Administration of Social Security. Its level is 3.6% of the wage bill, shared between employee (0.4%) and the employer by (3.2%). Immediately after collecting the contributions, the employment policy part is forwarded to the state budget. Labour offices distribute the money from a budget that they are given by the Employment Service Administration (the ministerial section), but they do not have much influence on the total sum they can distribute. The Employment Service Administration division at the MOLSA uses 18 criteria for the distribution of national financial resources for ALMP between regions/districts - nine of which are objective and nine relative. Among the former, we can find criteria such as the unemployment rate, age and education structure of the unemployed etc. Among the latter, the most important and most frequently used is the last year’s spending.

The entire national budget for an active labour market policy is not framed in legislation, but is subject to annual negotiation with the Ministry of Finance. Expenditure on employment policy (both active and passive) reached 11.2 billion CZK in 2000. This is only 50% of the estimated total amount of money that inflows into the state budget through above-mentioned “para” taxes paid by employers and employees.

The rules for financing active labour market measures are quite strict as concern the technical and financial details (i.e. the maximum amount of support for new job placement, maximum subsidy for public utility jobs, percentage of contribution during re-qualification courses, etc.). On the other hand, the total amount of the district budget is divided by the LO director between individual active measures without clear priorities and targets. It largely depends on the individual director as to how he or she will deal with financial resources⁷⁸ in reality.

When a job-broker assumes that a job-seeker needs professional guidance and counselling or one of active measures would suit him/her well, the job-broker recommends this job-seeker to a special department at the PES office.

There is no scheme for assessing staffing needs on a national level. Some district PES office directors (e.g. in the Teplice district) do have a scheme of all activities that must be performed by the district PES office, their regularity and extent. However, we do not have any signs that this scheme might be used in other districts as well. The total number of PES employees is hard to extend.⁷⁹ While the number of registered unemployed rose 2.71 times from 1992 to 1999, the number of employees of

⁷⁸ There are examples of good practices as it is in Most district – according to the Country Monograph field research in March 2001. The district LO in Most co-operates with many different stakeholders at the labour market in respect of job creation, requalification and vulnerable groups support.

⁷⁹ One possibility how to extent number of people who work on behalf of the district labour office – however not as its employee - is to co-operate with private providers such as training institutions or various NGOs that run sheltered workshops and with social partners. This is used e.g. in Most and Chomutov districts where district labour offices say they are not capable of doing everything only on their own and thus they have close relationship with private sector. Most labour office helps trade unions to establish small “branch offices” at big enterprises. Such branch offices often employ people from the unions in the enterprise, not from the labour office itself.

labour offices rose only 1.75 times during that period. However, there are more tasks that must currently be carried out by labour office staff. On one hand, the agenda of investment incentives, on the other hand the agenda of insolvent employers. In connection with lengthening the average length of unemployment, and with an increase of the number of long-term unemployed, more counselling and guidance would be needed to be provided by labour offices. However, there is not enough capacity to carry this out. This is true for both the labour offices and the Employment Service Administration ministerial division, where there are approximately 70 employees for the entire agenda of strategy planning, statistics and analyses, active labour market policy including retraining agenda, juridical and economic issues. It is the opinion of the E.S. Administration managerial staff that, without an additional 1,000 employees, the entire public employment services in the Czech Republic could not achieve an employment policy defined along European standards.

The Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs carried out a survey in April / May 2000, that showed the following share of activities in working time of the job-broker at the PES office:

administrative tasks	37,3%	(20 – 50%)
contact with the job-seekers	54,0%	(25 – 80%)
contact with employers	7,8%	(0 – 25%).

One person on the position of the job-broker has in average 281 clients per month.

However, tasks of job-brokers differ at various PES offices as a consequence of a non-existent common methodological guidelines and job descriptions.

To date, low experience has been gained in terms of contracting out some activities. At a national level, ES administration does not fully utilise the subcontracting of some analytical works, evaluation or technical support. At a district level, subcontracting might be more than useful with respect to some agendas – it is, for example, a case of information and counselling.

Phare-Palmif programmes were aimed at designing and checking the practice of innovative employment measures. Although labour offices were also active in these programmes, most core activities were contracted out of the labour office. Palmif programmes were also monitored very well and their impacts were analysed thoroughly.

When district labour offices were established, many employees came from former regional administration bodies at the beginning of the 90s. During the following period, no base line was given for new-coming employees as far as qualifications or experience were concerned. The scope of the further training of labour office employees is very wide and varies from almost no training at all, via training in new legal provisions, to training in guidance and counselling methods.

Job-brokers are trained mainly when they start the job – the training takes place at PES office – and then at training centres of the Employment Services Administration. There are three centres in the Czech Republic (Pisek, Olomouc, Pardubice), where the training in employment counselling takes place. These centres are parts of district PES offices. The main activity is to train skills of contact with the client (30 – 40 lecturers). The training has two levels:

1. basic psychological training: lasts for 1 week and the goal is to be able to deal with clients and to learn legislative framework
2. contact with the client in difficult situations, how to get over tiredness.

Other training courses aim at further tasks, such as cooperation with municipalities or employment of foreign workers.

As far as the infrastructure is concerned, the staff of LOs are well equipped by computers. ICT is also used for data collection. However, there are only a few district labour offices where a PC with a connection to the Internet is available to the general public – in other words, visitors. One of them is in Olomouc, for example, where clients can connect themselves to the Internet and look for vacancies which are also being offered additional sites to the public labour office web sites. However, it should be mentioned that the strongest impact is on vacancies which are printed out on paper, historically given by the former structure of the unemployed. Now, in a situation when skilled and better-educated people are also becoming unemployed, the use of new ways of communication are becoming desirable.

There is, however, an “info-box” at every labour office in the Czech Republic, located so that it is available to visitors. Clients themselves can look for vacancies announced to the labour offices network; however, in practice, there is usually an information-delay concerning vacancies in other districts. For this, also see the chapter on “Structure and organisation”. Labour offices’ staff are well equipped with computers.

All activities of the public employment services are monitored; however, their impact is not being researched. Some evaluation has only been carried out in international projects; otherwise, no impact (such as following-up leavers) is being monitored. District PES offices prepare reports on the labour market situation in their particular district twice a year; however, they only describe the measures being implemented. Currently, an upgrade of the statistical and analytical programme of the E.S. Administration is under preparation, which will allow for the better evaluation of the effectiveness of ALM programmes and measures.

Structure and organisation

The Employment Service Administration is a division of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. District PES offices are legal entities, which are under the ministerial Employment Service Administration in the hierarchy. The E.S. Administration is responsible for 77 district labour offices, which operate 56 branch offices and 116 permanent workplaces (a kind of small branch offices) in order to improve accessibility for the public. When an urgent need arises, the labour office sets up some temporary service units (e.g. in the event of major layoffs). The Minister of Labour and Social Affairs appoints directors of district labour offices and the general director of E.S. Administration.

For some time already, there has been discussion at the MoLSA about the possibility of separating the Employment Service Administration from the Ministry itself. The discussion was mainly for financial reasons: although insurance contributions are paid to a state employment policy within social insurance, these monies are perceived as state budget revenue. There is no connection between the sum of collected contributions and the sum aimed for employment policy, which is distributed from the state budget to the Ministry of Labour. A separation would also mean that the Employment Service Administration would act as a fund, administrating contributions for the state employment policy.

The construction of the labour office itself depends on each director. Activities obviously follow legal provisions. The possible harmonisation of the structure of the labour offices is currently being discussed. As far as the administration of benefits is concerned, this is integrated with active labour market measures within the labour offices.

Directors of district labour offices have their so-called “advisory boards”, where employers, trade unions, schools and other players are members. The institute of advisory boards is positive. However – again – the use of its potential depends on the labour office itself, i.e. with regard to what extent it can communicate with others and to what extent the labour office is able to drive the advisory board’s proposals for steps. On a national level, e.g. in preparation of NAEP or NEP, the stakeholders are asked to give their comments on planned activities. A regional level is now being established and there is a rising need to communicate with them, e.g. with regards to investment incentives: the Ministry has decisive powers regarding the placement of investment incentives and how they should be focused. However, the region also has its role in decision making, in addition to the Ministry.

Currently, public administration reform is taking place in the Czech Republic. As regards public employment services on a regional level, so far one ministerial employee is detached in each of NUTS2 regions⁸⁰. In addition to these people, whose task is, in fact, mainly to act as a direct link between the regions and the ministry, and to put together different stakeholders at a regional level, one director of district labour office in each region has been chosen by the general director of E.S.

⁸⁰ With two exceptions – North Moravia and North-West Bohemia as two most endangered regions (facing restructuring of mining and other heavy industry) have two ministerial detached employees working there.

Administration to perform tasks for the regional co-ordination of labour office activities. Each leads a so-called regional council of labour office directors, which serves as a place for the exchange knowledge, good practice and experience. It does not have any power to bind labour offices in the given region to follow common actions. To return to the role of regional ministerial employees, their job description is rather vague so far. It is not, in reality, very clear what responsibilities and the powers they have. They have great personal potential and enthusiasm but lack a systematic guidance.

No contracting out of employment services to the private and voluntary sectors in terms of the mediation of vacancies is used in the CR.⁸¹ Employers are obliged by law to announce vacancies to the district labour office (the public one). Depending on the employer's requirements, the labour office publishes information about the reported vacancy in a newspaper advertisement and on the Internet web site. If the registered unemployed agrees, he or she can be placed on web site as a job seeker, which makes it easier for employers to contact this person directly. The client can only be put on public sites with his/her permission.

As has already been mentioned in the chapter on "Resources", "Info-boxes" (self-service computer modules) exist for all visitors at all district PES offices where it is possible to go through all vacancies reported to the PES office. At a few district offices, a computer with an Internet connection is also available for clients. When discussing IT being used to open up new channels of service delivery, about half of the district PES offices provide their own web sites where vacancies are usually also available.

There is a need for more analyses in the network of public employment services. However, with the current state of the agenda – many day-to-day activities – at labour offices as well as at the Employment Service Administration, it is almost impossible to spare any time for in-depth analyses, follow-up analyses or cost-effectiveness analyses etc.

4.1.2 Overview of private employment services

The aim of private employment services is mainly to find people for jobs and only then to find jobs for people. This is even being enforced by the amended legal provisions (which came into force on 1st January 2001) on employment services which prohibit the charging of job seekers by employment agencies.

Legal framework

The whole field of employment services (including private services) is regulated by and arranged in the Employment Act No. 1/1991. The law defines the mediation of the work as an activity focused on searching for suitable jobs for job-searchers, or searching for employees for employers (including information-providing and guidance). Services can be provided by both "physical" and "legal" bodies, i.e. by individuals and corporations.

The license provided by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is required, where decided by a five-member committee. Recently, claims for licences are becoming more and more general. The license has been issued for a three-year period since 2001 (a recurrent possibility) if the following three conditions are met: no criminal record, professional competence and permanent residence in the Czech Republic (as regards a corporation statutory or professional representative). Until 2000, the licence was only issued for one year. The license is issued for a fee – 10,000 CZK as regards job mediation abroad (both for Czechs and foreigners job-searchers) and 1,000 CZK for Czech persons within the Czech Republic. Project documentation is required. A statutory deputy of the private employment agency (a personnel agency) must prove that he/she either has an university degree and

⁸¹ However, examples of good practice of such a co-operation can be found. As our field research has shown, in Most district the labour office co-operate with at least one private personnel employment agency in terms of not only retraining, but also training, advisory services, assistance to sheltered workshops for handicapped. Besides this the personnel employment agency provides usual HR services to enterprises.

two-years' experience in the field of brokerage and guidance or a secondary school degree and five-years' work experience in that field.

The agency is not allowed to require any payments from job-searchers. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and public employment services (labour offices) are in charge of controlling legal provision observance.

There is no legal provision (except ILO Convention No. 181/97, which is signed by the Czech Republic) distinguishing between different types of private employment agencies. There are different types of private agencies, not all of which claim to be private employment agencies and some of which are labelled as personnel agencies etc., and thus these do not need a ministerial licence for brokerage.

Policy framework

Until recently, the government has not seemed to have any policy on private employment agencies. However, a pilot project started at the beginning of 2001, under which vacancies offered by public employment services and those offered by the selected "job-portal" are linked and both job seekers and employers have access to a wider scope of vacancies (and job seekers). (Nevertheless, the Employment Act says that publishing information on vacancies is not a mediation of work.) This pilot project should have ended by the end of April 2001 but, in respect to the very positive response, it has been deemed suitable to continue and, maybe, even to broaden. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs wants to incorporate this project into its long-term strategy of information technologies.

Organisation

Most agencies are based in the capital, however there is at least one personnel agency in each district. The tendency is such that, the lower the unemployment rate, the more private employment agencies operate in the district.

There is a rising tendency in respect of claims for licences. In 1998, there were some 45 claims in one year, whereas today there are about 12-20 claims monthly. There are about 215 private agencies in the Czech Republic, one third of which are settled in Prague (the list of agencies is available on the ministry's web site). The rest is unevenly spread over the other regions. However, the list on the web site does not say much about real activities⁸².

Data source on persons placed through private agencies does not exist, so their market share could not be specified.

The private agencies are not in competition with public employment services, taking into consideration their client structure. Private agencies are searching for jobs for everybody who wants them, while public services only do this for unemployed persons. Private agencies' clients are usually qualified and skilled persons and most are active in searching for jobs; however, the rate of qualification depends on the type of agency (executive search, personal agency, lending work force). Private agencies also have a higher level of confidence in employers' eyes.

Quality and standards

There is no system for monitoring the number of persons being placed or the quality of services being provided through private employment services. No institution has the right to require such information on a regular basis, besides the controlling mechanisms. Although there used to be questions about the number of job seekers being served in the previous system of the annual renewing of licences, it did not bring any reliable answers, so this is no longer being used.

⁸² In Most district there was only one performing personnel agency from three that we addressed during the Country Monograph field research in March 2001.

District public labour offices (employment services) and the MoLSA are entitled to carry out the monitoring. However, only one person at the MoLSA deals with private employment agencies (as such, i.e. with the whole agenda of private employment agencies) – which does not represent sufficient capacity.

4.1.3 *Links/co-operation between the public and private employment services*

Formal links concerning co-operation are not in the place, except the previously mentioned pilot Internet project (see chapter 4.1.2., Policy framework), which links a database of five labour offices with the database of a private agency which runs some job-portals on the Internet. Links with “real” private employment services – mainly with personnel agencies with licences for brokerage - exist on an informal basis only and vary from district to district.

There are some examples of private agencies⁸³, which conduct their own surveys of demand on the labour market, create training courses according to that demand, provide guidance and sometimes help the unemployed to deal with an employer regarding signing up a work contract. Some training courses and services could be provided by private agencies under a contract with the LO. In which event, in some cases there would be much closer co-operation between them in reality.

4.1.4 *How responsive are PPES to individual client needs, including those already in the labour market?*

While private agencies also aim at the already-employed, most of the clients of public employment services are the unemployed. Within the scope of labour office’ activities, mostly those focused on unemployed can be found, with the exception of information/guidance centres for young people (so-called “IPS”) and, to a small extent, the retraining of employees threatened by release from jobs on a large scale.

The unemployment problem did not entail a serious threat in the first years of transition. The reason for this was, on one hand, the postponed restructuring of the Czech economy and, on the other hand, a quick commencement of an active labour market policy carried out by labour offices (which started to be more visible after the second half of 1992).

An unemployment rate of 5% was reached in December 1997; in January 1999 it rose over 8% and it remained at a level of around 8.5%, with some seasonal changes. There are large regional disparities in unemployment rates, caused to a large extent by the former structure of both the industry and economy. The highest rates (already almost traditionally) can be found in north-west Bohemia: the Most (21.6% in March 2001), Chomutov (16.6%), Teplice (17.5%) and Louny (16.4%) districts and north Moravia: the Karviná (17.7%), Ostrava - city (16.7) and Bruntál (17.1%) districts. In that particular period of March 2001, there were 16 districts out of 77 in the Czech Republic where the unemployment rate was higher than 12%. The lowest rates are (again almost traditionally) to be found in Prague, Prague-West, Prague-East, Mladá Boleslav a Benešov (around 3%). In average there are eight registered unemployed for one vacancy reported at labour offices. In some districts, this number is however higher than 30 unemployed per one vacancy: Karviná (53.3), Teplice (47.7), Most (41.2) or Chomutov (32.1). Over one third of the registered unemployed are entitled to unemployment benefits.

Already, since the beginning of transition when the phenomenon of unemployment first occurred, endangered groups have started to shape up. The active labour market policy measures were designed to help the unemployed. However, it was not possible to guess which particular groups under what circumstances would become more endangered than the others. Now we perceive the following groups as endangered or in need of help: the low qualified and unqualified unemployed, long-term unemployed, school leavers and youngsters without a completed education, women with children

⁸³ As it was the case in both districts Most and Chomutov – we met during the Country Monograph field research in North-West region.

(both on parental leave and after that), the disabled, the Roma population, people before retirement age, but also those employed under the threat of unemployment and even enterprises (mainly those which need to be restructured).

It is not possible to say how large the creaming effect is in the case of some active employment measures. Targets and goals are not clearly stated in law or in strategic documents, which makes it possible e.g. to focus retraining mainly on those unemployed who are not among the most endangered groups. It is desirable to introduce and apply a complex approach to the endangered unemployed and focus far more on them. But, again, a prerequisite for such an approach is the broader capacity of the labour offices.

In relation to the question about the extent to which the PPES are seen to fit into an overall framework for regional economic regeneration, what shall first be mentioned is that any overall frameworks for regional economic regeneration are not always (clearly) defined. Private agencies largely concentrate in already-regenerated regions (i.e. with no more basic structural problems), so we are not able to say that they hardly contribute in that way. They surely contribute to promotion of flexibility to the labour market (re. some findings in last year's study on flexible arrangements of working conditions). However, in the last year RILSA has studied the situation in the Frýdek-Místek district where the private personnel agency (established by a large foundry) widely co-operates with the PES and tries to solve restructuring problems in this region.

4.2 Contribution of PPES to effective promotion and implementation of active employment policies

There is no connection between the rate of unemployment in the district and the activity rate of the labour office in the district (use of active labour market measures). Some LO directors say that even the current law enables various activities to be carried and resources to be used for an active labour market policy in various ways. Others say that it is not possible and some of those have even had bad experience of monitoring from the economic department of the ministerial Employment Services Administration, which has a very narrow perception of the law. One example of good practice where there are no clashes with monitoring is the Most district.⁸⁴

4.2.1 What progress is being made by the public and private employment services in shifting from passive to active employment measures?

The start of the employment policy at the beginning of the nineties was already good, although in a period of low unemployment. Active and passive measures were understood as “communicating vessels”. As concerns the active labour market policy's effect on the total LM policy, in 1992 this was

⁸⁴ The labour office in Most co-operates with various stakeholders, activates and drafts various projects, which either include and use more active labour market policy measures or for which there are more sources of financing (that is why such activities are than called “projects”, as it is a connection of more than one measure or source). As an example it is a project of a “housekeeper”: an unemployed in a house has a contract with a cooperative of flat-owners in that house for taking care of the house. The labour office contributes for such created workplace for a wage under the scheme of public utility jobs. The subsidy is 100% in the first year, than it is gradually decreased. Or there is a project of a “free time assistant”: the labour office came across the fact that school children do not have many activities in the afternoon, what is dangerous. Thus the labour office together with free time facilities arranged a public utility job of a free time assistant who assists children in their afternoon activities, inform them about possibilities and news in the surrounding etc. The same goes for a “Roma assistant”, again paid under the public utility job scheme. The Most labour office however lacks some kind of partner institutions which would act as an umbrella for all assistant jobs and through which public utility jobs might be paid. The law does not make it possible to pay public utility job to a state or municipal authority with an exception of social services facilities.

54.6%, a year later 34.6% and only 13.7% in 1997. Since then, the share has tended to rise - in 1999, it was 22.5%.

There are some newly emerging needs on the labour market that must be dealt with (e.g. support for new investment initiatives, coping with enterprise restructuring, regional and industrial reconversion, etc.). As far as enterprise restructuring is concerned, public employment services usually co-operate with those enterprises before any mass layoffs start. On one hand, co-operation provides guidance and counselling to future jobseekers and, on the other hand, also offers them a specific, goal-oriented retraining course. Employers are obliged to report their intention to initiate mass layoffs in advance to the district labour office. There is a point of possible disharmony with regards to new investment initiatives, which is the distribution of competencies regarding the before-mentioned. While the MoLSA prepared the NEP or the NAEP 2001 (the policy), it is the Ministry of Industry and Trade who has the budget for new investment initiatives, for industrial zones, etc. In some districts, this causes problems in communication between the resorts of the MOLSA and the Ministry of Industry and Trade.

In districts with an above average unemployment rate, selective support is available for the creation of new jobs through investment incentives for selected employers in selected districts, as already mentioned in chapter 4.1.1. The level of contributions is defined by a governmental decree. The level of support per one new workplace can vary from 80,000 to 200,000 Czech crowns (which only the Most district has so far) or from 25 to 35% of retraining costs, including board and lodging should the trainee be obliged to leave home for the training period.

The share of the active labour market policy on the total employment policy is not fixed or even recommended anywhere. While unemployment benefits are perceived as mandatory, active employment policy measures are not seen in this way and thus, when there is a lack of public money, the first step to be suggested is a cut in resources for active measures.

It would be desirable to know how effective PPES are in providing counselling and guidance as well as other active employment services (e.g. individual action planning assistance). However, only data on inputs and outputs are indicated; no outcomes nor performance is being measured in public employment services. The only exception is the area of retraining, where it is possible to assume the number of retrained who gained a job. No one collects necessary data on private agencies' performance and, on the other hand, almost no one goes public with this information.

When talking about new tasks, the staff of employment services and their capacity to undertake these new tasks should be mentioned. According to some field research conducted by the RILSA last year, the staff of the entire Employment Service Administration including labour offices do not have enough capacity to perform adequately well.

It might be interesting to look at how far active measures contribute to:

- Increasing adaptability and raising the overall skills level of the labour force

All active measures from the range of retraining courses, both specific and non-specific, school-leavers job places, public utility jobs have a large impact on gaining, preserving and raising the skills and qualifications of the labour force.

As far as retraining paid by the labour office is concerned, the success rate of retraining (the share of those retrained who gained a job after the course, compared to the number of those who did not finish the retraining course) reached 44.5% in 1998. While the percentage of "unfinished re-trainees" (those who did not finish the course) has risen since 1993, the percentage of people who found a job after retraining has had an adverse tendency. The length of retraining course was the shortest in 1998 since 1992, and the real costs of one retrained person decreased to 9,000 in 1998. The average rate of finishing the retraining course was 90% in 1998, according to a special survey conducted by RILSA. The following employability is seen as good: 40% of the retrained find a job in a month after the course and, in 6 months after the retraining course, more than 80% of people are employed in total. But, still, we cannot say whether or not such employment is then long-term or only

temporary. The professions that are most in demand on the labour market – according to a RILSA survey in 1998 - are: welder, accountant, cook/waiter, manicurist, cosmetician and pedicurist. Welders are the most in demand of all - 85% of labour offices say that there is a demand for skilled welders.

➤ Promoting entrepreneurship

On one hand, there is the new measure - a government priority for investment incentives - which offers substantial help to both newly established and already existing, usually large, enterprises. On the other hand, a subsidy system exists at the district level, where district labour offices might subsidise entrepreneurs in the beginning of their entrepreneurship, either with a one-off grant or with a subsidy per employee's wage. This second scheme is aimed at SMEs.

➤ Increasing mobility

Active employment measures do not contain any transport allowances that might help cover the costs of travelling to a workplace. There were pilot projects under the Phare - Palmif scheme e.g. in Novy Jicin and Litomerice districts, where travel costs to a distant workplace were covered by a project. However, these projects were not successful. Nowadays, district labour offices would like to have this possibility as the situation at the labour market has changed, the unemployment rate has risen and disincentives caused by the height of social benefits are even bigger.

Labour offices in fact do not offer other forms of employment than full time work at the employers' workplace. They do not openly promote part-time jobs or flexible modern forms of employment.

➤ Developing a culture of lifelong learning

Labour offices do not have any powers to contribute to (the broadening of) a culture of lifelong learning. This is more the role of trade unions in enterprises, which try to change the perception of enterprises in respect of the training of all their employees. However, as lifelong learning has become a more important topic, discussions are being held between the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education, Sports and Youth, with the goal of drafting clear responsibilities for a policy of lifelong learning, financing possibilities and other important topics related to this issue. The MoLSA is already responsible for one part of lifelong learning - which is retraining. It also provides guidance for students in respect of their choice of future profession. Labour offices can assist with retraining and training of employees of enterprises in certain areas. On the other hand, nobody is clearly responsible for the whole concept of lifelong learning, which must be solved in the near future.

➤ Enhancing equal opportunities between men and women

Although women, mainly women with young children, are perceived as an endangered group on the labour market by many district labour offices as well as by the ministerial employment services division, there are no general tasks or measures focused particularly on this group. Women registered at labour offices have the same access as men to, for example, retraining courses. Although, to reach the same output, some positive discrimination shall be thought of.

4.2.2 Role of the PPES in facilitating equal access to the labour market

As far as we know, no monitoring or analyses are performed by PPES with respect to client needs.

In some cases, in the process of “optimisation” of the net of schools⁸⁵ in recent years, district PES offices did have their say in some districts, but this differs from district to district. Some differentiation is to be seen in respect of opening new training programmes or even establishing new vocational schools where the district PES office should give its statement in relation to the labour market situation in that particular district. However, this does not always work as it should. Not all districts give their opinions and not all of them co-operate with the education sector. In some district labour offices, the prevailing idea is that the market solves everything and thus they give positive statements to opening any new schools in the district, irrespective of needs, irrespective of the structure of the unemployed and irrespective of the school’s performance.

Public employment services are also involved in implementing active measures aimed at the integration of disadvantaged groups into the labour market as opposed to simply providing benefits/income support. This is not true for private employment services. Two cases will be offered to you, in particular:

- Promoting the integration of disadvantaged groups, such as the Roma population

Programmes of sheltered employment or subsidised employment for the disabled are among standard active measures. Data for this can be found in Annex Table 4F.

It is not possible to collect any data referring to the ethnicity of job seekers with respect to individual data protection. Thus, any measures aimed at, for example, the Roma population are hard to create and target. However, there are projects designed particularly for the Roma population in Most and Chomutov districts – mainly for renewing the knowledge of Romany traditions, sewing traditional dresses, traditional music, crafts etc. The idea behind those projects is that first the traditions must be renewed, people must be again be aware of what they are able to do and reach and, only after that, can the process of regaining their self-consciousness and the process of integration begin.

- Preventing youth and long-term unemployment.

A subject called “Choice of profession” has been included in curricula of many basic schools after it was tested as a pilot project in the Most district. Following to this, a subject entitled “Starting an entrepreneurship” has recently been introduced at some secondary schools. Many district labour offices run or co-operate with “Information-guidance centres” (so-called IPS), which offer both students and adults information about the scale of professions, the content of these professions and about schools which offer certain types of vocational schooling, etc. What is still lacking is possible co-operation with the parents of those children who visit the IPS and must decide about their future professions. IPS centres also lack labour market forecasts, so that they are not able to say what professions will be needed in five years’ time. They are only able to talk about current needs and past development. Besides the above mentioned, measures such as retraining courses, school-leavers subsidised job places and public utility jobs all have an impact on prevention of unemployment.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs does not know how many schools have this subject included in their curricula. Although it is one of goals of the National Employment Plan of 1999, as drafted by the MOLSA, it does not bind schools (the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports) to include it. There has also been the idea of incorporating parts of the “Choice of profession” into several subjects. That would, however, have to be followed by some roofing session – for example at the end of the school year. At the moment, it is up to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, to handle the outputs of the pilot project, mainly designed by the employment sector.

Even employed persons or those people who do not meet the requirements for inclusion in the job-seeker register can seek and be offered labour office assistance in respect of finding a job, as persons interested in (a change of) employment.

⁸⁵ In relation with the public administration reform, this process is stopped now.

Providers of retraining courses must have accreditation from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports; only after that they can offer their retraining courses to the labour office. Individual contracts with providers do not need any tenders - it is up to the decision of the labour office.

4.2.3 Contribution of the public and private employment services to enhancing equal opportunities between men and women

The MoLSA has gained a special task in 1998, given by the government, which is the task of co-ordinating a home policy on gender issues. All other ministries are to co-operate with the MoLSA and with NGOs focused on women issues. Promoting positive action for men and women in spheres in which they are under-represented is in the preparation stage in the Czech Republic.

The public employment services collect data in respect of gender; however, not for individual measures. Those are not evaluated and monitored from a gender point of view, although many district labour offices perceive women with young children as an endangered group at the labour market. We don't have any information about the practice of private agencies, as the MoLSA is not entitled to ask for data and agencies themselves do not usually publish any analyses or statistics.

According to RILSA survey, held among district labour offices and conducted in 2000, it is up to individual PES offices as to whether they co-operate with care providers in any respect, in respect of broadening the scope of provision of family-friendly services and reconciling family and professional life. Some district offices make agreements with kindergartens about the possibility of taking care after a child whose parent follows a retraining course, although he/she is still on parental leave.

4.3 Conclusions

Although a substantial sum of money goes towards active labour market measures, it is not clear how effectively these financial resources are being spent. Effectiveness, as such, is only measured as regards retraining but nowhere else. However, as ALM measures are offered at a different time of unemployment, mainly depending on the district labour office, it is not possible to estimate the dead-weight effect.

The legislative framework seems to be well established, with one exception: the district offices seem to have too great a power, which sometimes causes an uncoordinated approach to certain activities and labour market policy. On the other hand, these big powers enable district offices to be very much active in respect of ALMP and enables them to contribute to the development of the particular district.

No targets are quantified as a prioritisation of employment policy. Strategic plans, as they only contain general aims, do not bind anyone to actual action. It must be stated that the active labour market policy is currently very much directed as a treating policy, not a preventive one.

Although a regular Labour Force Survey is carried out by the Czech Statistical Office and monthly statistics are collected at the level of Employment Service Administration at the Ministry and also some research studies were carried out in recent years; there is still a lack of information about turnover on the labour market, as well as employers' requirements and the characteristics of off-flows from unemployment in terms of unemployment duration. This data is not provided by any regularly-published material.

The unemployed are not obliged to take up a public utility job or a socially-purposeful job or a retraining course. Participation in all these measures, according to the law, does not have the same value as gainful employment. Refusal of these measures from the unemployed is not seen as a refusal of employment, which would lead a cessation of benefits. This fact, to a large extent, means that the most threatened unemployed who do not have the motivation and incentives to take up this sort of active policy measure will become even more threatened, as the LO does not have any powers to push them into activity.

The role of private recruitment agencies can be assessed only with difficulties, since there is virtually no data about their activities. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs does not pay much attention to this issue, nor does it have any relevant policy in this area or adopt any systemic approach which would facilitate the use of private employment services within its employment policy. This means that any cooperation between labour offices and private agencies is dependent upon personal approach.

The basic legal framework for private recruitment agencies is established by means of the law on employment – however, the legislation is not yet fully in line with European standards. The CR has ratified the ILO Convention No. 181 about private recruitment agencies with the exception of the issue of agencies lending workforce to other entities (brokerage agencies). This type of arrangement is not provided for in the Czech law. It is envisaged that the relevant provisions should be included in the new employment bill.

5. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

In area of IVET, significant progress has been made as regards the **approach of the government to the strategic development** of IVET (for a long time, IVET issues were being addressed on an operational basis). The mid-term National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper) was approved in 2001. Other strategic documents have been separately developed (The national Employment plan – the MoLSA, A Vision of the Development of the CR until 2015) which also deal with IVET issues. In terms of the implementation of strategic aims set out in these documents, however, there is a number of pending issues, primarily because Parliament did not pass the new education bill which was to provide the relevant legislative basis for such implementation. Consequently, the on-going reform of public administration within which important powers in the area of IVET should be gradually transferred to regional authorities is going to be delayed. This means the implementation of a number of objectives set out by the MoEYS may be unfeasible for the time being.

The process of adjusting the IVET system to the needs of life-long learning and employability went in two directions:

The development of a standard curricular framework which would lay the foundations for life-long learning were successfully achieved by the passage of **the Standard of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education** by the MoEYS in 1998. This Standard aims to ensure that all study programmes primarily focus on the development of key competencies and provide a sufficiently broad general education, which will secure the adaptability of graduates in the labour market and their easier retraining.

Although the above mentioned Standard has been developed as well as a two-level curriculum (national and/or school), its introduction to schools on a large scale has been faltering. Therefore, in reality, the content of education is still focused on theoretical and academic teaching rather than on active acquisition of key competencies and competencies required by the labour market. The development of the so-called Framework Educational Programmes (an aim formulated in the White Paper) constitutes a new attempt at modernisation of curricula part of which will be also specification of professional

competencies of graduates. However, previous experience has not been duly assessed by the ministry.

The activities designed to link the qualification requirements and **output competencies of graduates** from individual programmes have not yet been embedded in any document which would be binding for developers of curricula. This is why there is still a large number of various programmes the outputs of which are insufficiently transparent – particularly for employers. The first step towards the formulation of professional standards has been taken by the MoEYS within the project named “Information System of Typical Jobs”, the results of which will be tested in 2001.

The CR still lacks methods for **forecasting the labour market skill needs** developments, although several important projects have already been initiated in this area. All these targeted activities designed to identify qualification requirements and project labour market developments have been very beneficial for the CR. However, they are not continuous and systematic.

The development of mechanisms for co-operation between all stakeholders, i.e. representatives of the domains of labour and education, is still at the early stages. The **role of social partners** has not yet been provided for in terms of legislation. This means that cooperation between schools and companies is still based on personal contacts and it takes place in those sectors where it is more feasible (catering, trade) - the non-existence of legislative and financial regulations makes it impossible to adopt a systemic approach. One of the results is that a considerable part of IVET students do not enter a real workplace in the course of their studies.

Specialisation in the area of IVET should be assessed from two different perspectives: In terms of **curricula** all study programmes have a broadly conceived, general and vocational basis, which facilitates adaptability of graduates to the labour market needs. However, vocational programmes in particular are normally focused on training for one or a few jobs. This shortcoming is gradually being addressed through innovation of the curricula so that preference is given to a broad graduate profile.

In terms of **organisation** there are many programmes (several hundred) which have a different title, but a similar content and graduate profile. This results in a lack of transparency of the IVET system both for prospective students and employers. Efforts tackle this problem have resulted in the introduction of a new classification of programmes based on the larger units (categories) of educational programmes, which was adopted by the Czech Statistical Office in 1998.

In the course of the 1990s, **access of youth to all types of education** was improved. However, various schools still select their students on the basis of entry examinations. Surveys show that this facilitates the reproduction of well-educated strata of population and, on the contrary, limits vertical social mobility in society. This particularly concerns **tertiary education**, which is insufficient in terms of its capacity. This problem is further intensified by the still unclear status of higher professional schools, particularly as concerns the transferability between them and universities.

Considerable attention is devoted to the **integration of disadvantaged groups** (especially disabled) into mainstream education without reducing the system of special education. The results of this integration are often questionable, since mainstream schools and teachers are not trained to work with these pupils.

The vocational education and training system does not react sufficiently to the needs of the individual. On one hand, the content of the training courses and the structure of the training being offered is changing; however, on the other hand, the traditional design of training courses prevails and a modular approach, distance learning and *e-learning* are only used on an exceptional basis. While the counselling and guidance system is focused on the choice of educational pathways for young people and on the needs of job-seekers, it does not meet the needs of employed adults. Considerable progress has been reached in the labour sector, where some new counselling and guidance tools were implemented on a national basis in the last years. The needs of specific groups of clients should be

better met by the counselling and guidance system. The counselling and guidance system in the education sector does not meet the needs of adults and lifelong learning requirements.

Some elements promoting entrepreneurship through the training system were implemented in the 1990s in both IVET and CVT programmes. The support for entrepreneurship is mentioned in more policy documents which have been approved in the last years. The initiatives are mostly evident in the labour, education, industry and regional development sectors; however, a consistent and efficient “transsectoral” approach to promoting entrepreneurship through training does not exist.

The first steps regarding **the overall HRD policy framework in the context of lifelong learning** have been taken by the Czech government in the last two years. More strategic documents have been developed and approved, following almost ten years without a strategy, priorities or consistent HRD policy. MoLSA is the instigator of this effort, since it initiated the development and implementation of the national employment plans and guarantees other HRD policy initiatives (such as the HRD consultation document or HRD sectoral operational plan). The implementation of some measures and action to be taken, proposed in these policy documents, has been launched; however, the majority of these measures have not yet been realised. At a national level, the social partner bodies comment on proposals and documents prepared by state bodies and have not developed any of their own initiatives in the area of HRD. This remarkable initiative has been performed outside state and governmental institutions because the proposal for an overall HRD strategy was developed for the CR. The core part of the progress which has been achieved is therefore the development of more strategic documents; however, the majority of these useful intentions have not yet been implemented.

The following main gaps still exist: i) lack of consistent HRD policy, ii) missing consistent lifelong learning policy, iii) insufficient legal framework for HRD and lifelong learning, iv) lack of efficient incentives supporting HRD and lifelong learning, v) the weak involvement of social partners in HRD and lifelong learning.

The employment strategic documents (NEP and NEAP) clearly stress the need to **shift the core of employment policy more towards active instruments** and, at the same time, to build on the activity of the relevant player in the labour market and their flexibility. In reality, however, no major development in this direction can be observed. None of these materials is legally binding and, although they correctly enlarge the area for the implementation of employment policy beyond the responsibilities of the MoLSA, the ways in which various aims should be put into action are not clearly defined. What is missing is clearly defined goals the implementation of which could be assessed. The impact of the instruments of employment policy is only rarely evaluated and certain data is not collected at all. Consequently, the feedback, which could contribute to the desirable development of employment policy, is not working efficiently.

Since the beginning of the transformation, the basic legislation (particularly the law on employment) has been relatively successful in defining the space for active employment policy, which is largely executed by labour offices. Its provisions give considerable freedom to labour offices as regards the choice of instruments and their application. However, the approach of individual labour offices to the use of instruments of active employment policy often depends not only on the specific situation in the region, but also on the approach of labour office directors. In spite of the radical growth in the number of the unemployed, labour offices have not been allowed additional staff in order to perform their proper functions in the very area of active employment policy (particularly counselling).

Private employment services have been rapidly developing since the early 1990s on the basis of the law on employment. It may be stated that, particularly in larger cities, they significantly contribute to the increasing of flexibility of the labour market. Unfortunately, since there is insufficient information about their activities, it is impossible to specify their role and their market share (in comparison with labour offices). The cooperation between public and private employment services could often be mutually beneficial. Unfortunately, this issue is not mentioned in any of the policy documents.

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List of Acronyms, Abbreviations and Terms used in text

ALMP	Active Labour Market Policy
CVT	Continuing Vocational Training
E.S.	employment services
HE	Higher Education
HRD	Human Resource Development
IT	Information technology
JAP	Joint Assessment Paper
LO	Labour office
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
NEAP	National Employment Action Plan
NEP	National Employment Plan
NGO	non-government organisation
NTF	National Training Fund
PC	personal computer
PES	public employment service
PPES	public and private employment services
RILSA	the Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs
SMEs	small and medium enterprises

Part-time study – CVT programmes for adults provided by schools in similar courses to those within IVET and awarded by the equal certificate as IVET

Requalification course – retraining organised by labour offices and financed from active employment policy sources

ANNEXES

Annex 1

The Joint Assessment Paper priorities – state of the progress in IVET, CVT and PES

JAP priorities	Reflection in the Czech documents	State of Progress
Initial Vocational Education Training (IVET)		
<p><u>Section 3.3:</u> Proceed with IVET reform in a more strategic perspective</p>	<p>- National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper) – (MoEYS)</p> <p>- Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR - (NTF)</p>	<p>A number of policy documents have been developed which show the strategies of IVET development in relation to the needs of the labour market and society as a whole (see chapter 2.1.2). The documents have not as yet been appropriately projected into legislation, nor have they been incorporated in a system of specific measures for implementation. This is why IVET reform is based on ad hoc measures, although these are prepared with the knowledge of strategic plans. There is still the problem that these plans are not sufficiently coordinated either between various ministries (particularly the MoEYS and MoLSA), or between various levels of governance. The implementation of these strategies is further complicated by the reform of public administration whereby important powers within IVET governance are being taken over by regional authorities. The issue of coordination of strategic development plans is not yet clear and there may be different developments in various regions.</p>
<p><u>Section 3.3:</u> Increase the involvement of the social partners in IVET and CVET, in particular through encouraging links between schools and enterprises</p>	<p>- NEP (MoLSA)</p> <p>- Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR – (NTF)</p>	<p>Although the policy documents mentioned above stress the role of social partners, their involvement in IVET development has been insufficient. The CR still lacks an institutional framework and there are no legal provisions or measures which would motivate social partners to get involved in VET development. Participation of social partners, if there is any, has been rather informal - promoted by means of various projects more often at regional or local levels as partnerships of schools and companies. At the central level, a Council for Educational Policy was set up as an experiment to operate as an advisory body to the Minister of Education. However, social partners on the Council have no specific powers or responsibilities.</p>
Continuing Vocational Training (CVT)		
<p><u>Section 3.3:</u> Reinforce links between IVET and CVET with a view to implement an overall concept of human resource development to strengthen employability and competitiveness of the workforce and to foster lifelong learning</p>	<p>- Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR – (NTF)</p> <p>- White Paper (MoEYS)</p>	<p>At the policy level this aspect is addressed particularly in the Strategy for the Development of Human Resources, other policy papers within the sector of education still concentrate only on IVET. IVET and CVET continue to develop more as two separate systems with varying rules and there are as yet no legislative or practical conditions for their integration. This causes problems particularly in terms of certification and qualifications. IVET and CVET do become interlinked in certain cases where cooperation occurs between schools, labour offices, municipalities and companies (school provide retraining or leisure courses for adults).</p>

6. <u>Section 3.3:</u> Promote access to training and lifelong learning for older workers.	The promotion of access to training and lifelong learning for older workers is not mentioned in the policy documents and legislation approved in last years.	No progress was achieved. The training and lifelong learning of older workers is not supported by specific measures.
<u>Section 3.1:</u> Encourage enterprises to create more training opportunities for people with low skills.	Neither the policy documents nor legislation approved in last years deal with encouraging of enterprises to create more training opportunities for people with low skills.	No progress was achieved. People with low skills belong to the groups of employees who are trained exceptionally only.
Public Employment Services (PES)		
<u>Section 4:</u> Co-ordination between tax and benefit systems in order to provide greater incentives for people to work and for enterprises to provide employment opportunities	Pre-Accession Programme for the Economy of the CR (Government) Act No. 72/2000, on Investment Incentives	In spite of plans to improve coordination between the tax and benefits system, there has not been major progress in this respect. The level of taxation of income from work is high, particularly that in the form of mandatory social security contributions, and the government does not plan to decrease it. Certain progress could be made as regards the motivation of low-paid categories of population to work, if the amendment to the law on social need proposed by the MoLSA is passed. The proposal provides for a more favourable setting of welfare benefits for citizens who work at the same time. Similarly, the draft proposal for a new law on employment contains certain elements which increase motivation to work among those who are on unemployment benefits. As regards employers' motivation to create jobs, the most important document is the law on investment incentives, which gives certain advantages to investors. The advantages depend on the rate of unemployment in the respective region. The incentives also include contributions to employers for the creation of new jobs and retraining of employees.
<u>Section 4:</u> Promotion of occupational and geographical mobility	- NEP (MoLSA) - NEAP for 2001 (MoLSA)	Regional mobility within the CR is significantly restricted by the deformed housing market. The existing regulation of rents in most rented housing does not promise any major changes in the near future. The government plans to deregulate rents very slowly. It employs certain instruments to support the construction of apartment blocks. There are efforts to concentrate such construction to regions afflicted by higher levels of unemployment. The problem of professional mobility is closely linked to the level and quality of education which should be influenced by the transformation of the education system and the creation of the life-long learning system (see

		above). The lower level of profession mobility also results from the nature of the Labour Code which is not conducive to flexible forms of employment. In the coming years, the Labour Code should be amended in a principal manner.
<u>Section 4:</u> Review of the pensions system from an employment perspective	Conception of the MoLSA for 2000-2001 (governmental decree No. 399/99, 482/00 resp.)	It is necessary to reform the pension system for economic reasons. The government has approved its own policy which is based on a gradual adjustment of the existing “pay as go” system of financing. Unfortunately, this policy does not enjoy a broader consensus with other political partners. Since mid 1990s, the retirement age limit has been increasing. In spring 2001, conditions for so-called “premature” retirement were hardened. However, there are still insufficient links to income from work and the system is not very flexible.
<u>Section 4:</u> Strengthening of the public employment service to support a policy shift towards prevention	- NEP (MoLSA) - NEAP for 2001 - New draft law on employment (MoLSA)	The share of active employment policy measures on the total employment policy costs has recently increased (from 25% in 1999 to 36% in 2000). Moreover, there could be a certain shift towards more active instruments of employment policy on the basis of a new draft law on employment. Its principles, which are currently being discussed by the government, include enlargement of the scope of instruments within active employment policy (requalification courses also for persons endangered by unemployment, counselling should be officially recognised as an active instrument, more measures for disabled, etc.). Although labour offices have a considerable degree of freedom in implementing the existing law, it is difficult to respond to regional needs in a flexible manner. The new law should provide for such flexibility (pilot innovation measures, targeted programmes). This proposed legislation was originally meant to address the issue of institutional arrangements of employment services – an issue about which there is currently a broad discussion. However, it is likely that there will be a new proposal the development of which has not yet begun.
<u>7. Section 3.2</u> Efficient delivery system and continuous evaluation of the implemented programmes should be improved		The active labour market policy measures are monitored however the continuous evaluation of their results is missing. There is a lack of policy measurable targets specification and there is also lack of evaluation methodology.
<u>Section 3.4.2:</u> Improvement of the existing labour market delivery mechanism in particular strengthening local offices. Cooperation with other actors in the labour market	- NEP (MoLSA)	The new draft law on employment was originally meant to address the issue of institutional arrangements of employment services – an issue about which there is currently a broad discussion. However, it is likely that there will be a separate bill the development of which has not yet begun. Cooperation approach to programme design was used by MoLSA in preparing NEP and NEAP. However the real involvement of other partners in programme implementation is weak.

Annex 2

National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)		
The national Programme of Education Development is a mid-term strategic document that was drafted in 2000 – 2001 by MoEYS. Opened by elaboration of seven discussion papers focused on the main areas of education, that was discussed with the social partners, representatives of the educational administration, schools and teachers, representatives of civil society and various interests. After evaluation of public discussion, the document was submitted to the government. The government approved the White Paper in February 2001.		
Strategic lines	Aims for measures	7.1 Aims for actions
<p>1. The implementation of the system of lifelong learning</p> <p>To saturate and initiate educational needs in children, youth and adults through adequate increase of capacities at schools and other educational institutions in order to safeguard the accessibility of all levels of education and provision of opportunities for maximum development of diverse abilities to all individuals in the course of their lives in accordance with the principle of equity and maximum use of talent.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to compensate health and socio-cultural disadvantage of some individuals through the targeted support of developmental programmes for them at all levels of schools, by means of introduction of preparatory classes, inclusion of special schools in the system of standard schools and optimum integration of those who have special needs among other pupils - to improve conditions for education of national and ethnical minorities and aliens - to increase the ratio of young population with completed secondary school final examination (maturita) eligible for study at tertiary level of education up to the 75% of population group, simultaneously to increase the ratio of young people, who follow the general secondary education programmes in gymnasias and secondary vocational schools up to 30%, - to enable access to tertiary education to 50% of population group, to increase the proportion of bachelor's study and safeguard the permeability of all kinds of tertiary education with special support to distance education, non-university higher education institutions and higher professional schools, - to create the legislative framework for the development of adult education, to increase the system of financial and non-financial incentives for its development and in addition to further professional and re-qualification education to provide education of so called "second chance" at secondary, higher professional schools and higher education system and to build a system of civic and non-formal education for adults. 	<p><i>7.1.1 Upper secondary education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to increase the proportion of broadly conceived technical programmes facilitating continuation of studies in the tertiary sector (e.g. <i>lycea</i>) - the extension of "follow-up" courses for graduates from vocational programmes without "maturita" - to support optimisation of the school network so that <i>multi-functional school</i> may be set up (schools providing general as well as technical and vocational programmes at various levels). <p><i>7.1.2 Higher education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The development of the supply of educational programmes will aim to ensure that around one half of graduates enter the world of labour upon the completion of either Bachelor or higher professional courses - A "permeable" system of studies based on modularity will gradually provide the opportunity of continuing studies at the same or different institution (Czech or foreign) either immediately or after certain time - to support the building of an open European education space through the development of international cooperation and fulfilment with international treaties and declarations (the Lisbon Treaty, Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations) <p><i>7.1.2.1 Adult education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to increase access of adults to part-time study in schools and to requalification courses - wider application of distance study - creating a legal framework for the development of adult education - draw up and implement a system of financial and

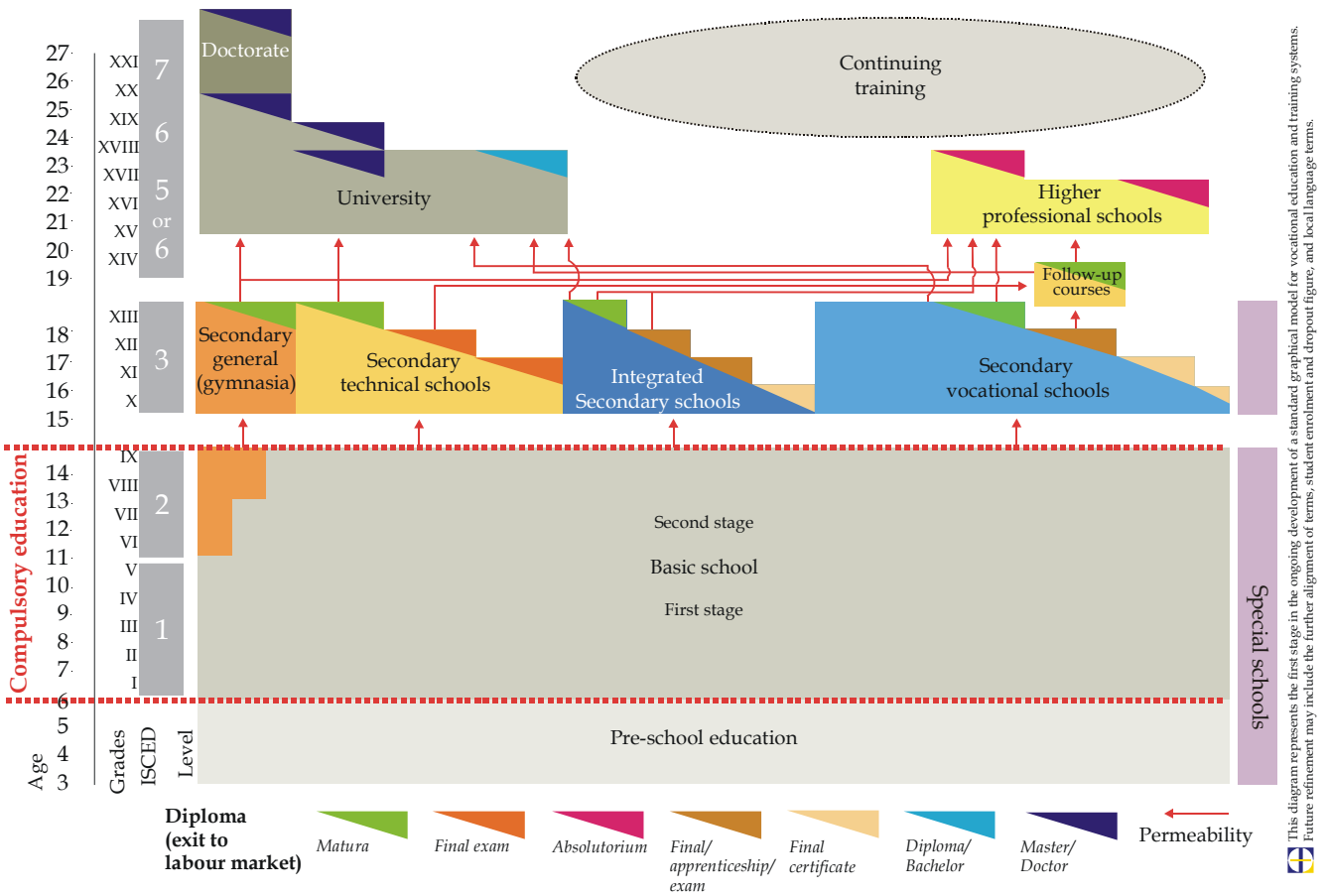
		non-financial incentives - establishing the mechanisms for the systematic development of adult education, especially directed at
<p>2. The adaptation of educational and study programmes to the needs of the life in the knowledge society</p> <p>To increase the quality and function of education by means of preparation of new educational and study programmes, which will meet the demands of information and knowledge society, sustainable development, employability and needs of active participation in the life of democratic society in integrated Europe and at the same time respect individual differences and life conditions of those who are involved in education.</p>	<p>- to work out a basic curricular document and submit it for discussion in the Council for Education and with the social partners as a State Programme of Education (National Curriculum) for children and youth from 3 to 19 years, which will be based on the principle of lifelong education and gaining competencies for the life in the knowledge society, with a special accent on the areas, which are substantial for the life in the global world and integrating Europe: education for democratic citizenship, European dimension, employability, multicultural education, sustainable development, human rights and responsibility, moral and spiritual values, preservation of national cultural heritage,</p> <p>- on the basis of National Curriculum to develop general educational programmes for all phases and fields of education in order to become a starting point for creation of autonomous educational programmes for schools,</p> <p>- to support the implementation of new concept of educational programmes by initiation of development programmes in the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teaching of two foreign languages, one of which must be English, with the introduction in the 3rd and 6th form of the basic school and obligatory secondary leaving education controlled by the state • implementation of information and communication technology in education within the announced state programme of information policy, • education for sustainable development within the programme of state programme of environmental education • development of cross - curricular key competencies and new teaching strategies <p>- to integrate study programmes of tertiary education with scientific, research and developmental activities in the education institutions and outside</p> <p>- to promote the international mobility of students, youth and teachers and international co-operation in educational policy</p>	<p><i>Upper secondary education</i></p> <p>- to develop and make legal provisions for a <i>state programme for education and framework educational programmes</i> based on a broad core of knowledge and key competencies and their incorporation into school curricula.</p> <p>- to support the development of branching and multi-level educational programmes and to introduce gradually a <i>modular system to the organisation of technical and vocational programmes</i>, which facilitate vertical as well as horizontal “permeability” and continuity of education.</p> <p><i>Higher education</i></p> <p>- University studies and higher professional courses will be distinguished by the degree to which they will incorporate scientific, research and other creative activities</p> <p>- Students will be encouraged to develop high levels of professional flexibility, creative capacities, cultural and communication skills and moral values.</p>

<p>3. Monitoring and evaluation and effectiveness of education</p> <p>To build a system of evaluation of activity of educational institutions at all levels of management and administration, monitoring of output of education and examination, evaluation of personality development level and professional orientation of children and youth.</p>	<p>-to create legislative and organisational conditions for constructing the system of evaluation at the level of national education system, new regional structure and individual schools,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to create a centre for evaluation and monitoring educational outputs as a special institution for the development and realisation of national and international survey, especially in collaboration with OECD (INES,PISA) and European commission, - to establish the system of pupils assessment at the end of each phase and expand the existing system of psycho-pedagogical constancy and professional orientation, - to carry out a new concept of secondary education final examination consisting of the general (state) part and individual school part at two (ordinary and advanced) levels and thus facilitate the comparability of results between pupils and schools at the enrolment process to the tertiary education institutions, - to continue the process of improvement of accreditation and evaluation system in the tertiary sector of education, - to carry out and introduce mechanism of quality assessment in adult education especially in further professional education. 	<p><i>Upper secondary education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to develop a <i>two-level common part of the “maturita” examination</i> depending on the student’s choice. The school-based (“profile”) part of “maturita” may include the working and out and defense of a final “maturita” paper. <p><i>Higher education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>The system of external quality evaluation will take into account the varying objectives and tasks of individual educational institutions within the tertiary sector</i>
<p>4. Promotion of internal reform and openness of educational institutions</p> <p>To develop the autonomy, innovative potential and equipment of schools, their open approach towards the society and relations to social background by means of development programmes and networking the co-operating schools. In tertiary sector to promote extension of co-operation of educational institutions with other research and development organisations and participation in the development of the region.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to create an coherent instrumental system for the development of the school autonomy, - to introduce the Programme of schools development and support further activities of the Fund for the development of Higher Education institutions as innovation instruments for education, - to build up the infrastructure for promotion of teacher and school activities, - to broaden the functions of basic and secondary schools in terms of providing opportunities for extra-curricular activities and leisure and provide facilities for further education of adults from local community, - to upgrade the role of cultural and educational institutions and civic associations in education, - to strengthen the role of institutions of tertiary education in regional development 	
<p>5. The change of roles and professional perspective of teachers and academics</p> <p>To support a change in the approach and</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to define the qualification level of all categories of pedagogical workers, so that the required minimum level of attained higher education should be Magister’s degree in case of teachers at 	

<p>performance of teacher profession in all institutions of education, to strengthen social and professional status of teachers and academics, to improve the quality of their preparatory and further education, to create conditions for their career development, growth and stronger motivation towards personal development and team work.</p>	<p>primary level of basic schools, teachers of special education, teachers of general subjects at basic and secondary schools, teachers of vocational subjects at secondary schools and higher professional schools, the Bachelor's level at teachers of kindergartens, instructors of vocational training and social pedagogues (pedagogues of leisure time activities, educators),</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to upgrade the quality of pre-service training of teachers stressing the psycho-pedagogical component, acquiring necessary pedagogical competencies and safeguard the necessary proportion and quality of pedagogical practice during the whole period of teacher training, - to complete the system of further education of pedagogical workers in the network of centrally managed pedagogical centres, in universities and at schools, - to implement the system of career and salary growth for pedagogical workers, which will be based on differentiation and categorisation of pedagogical activities and on definition of qualification requirements for their performance, - to upgrade scientific and pedagogical level of teachers in the tertiary sector of education system, - to rehabilitate remuneration level of teachers to attain gradually the average salary level of teachers in public schools at the level of 130% of average salary in the whole national - economy and the salary level of academics should equal analogous professions in the private sector. 	
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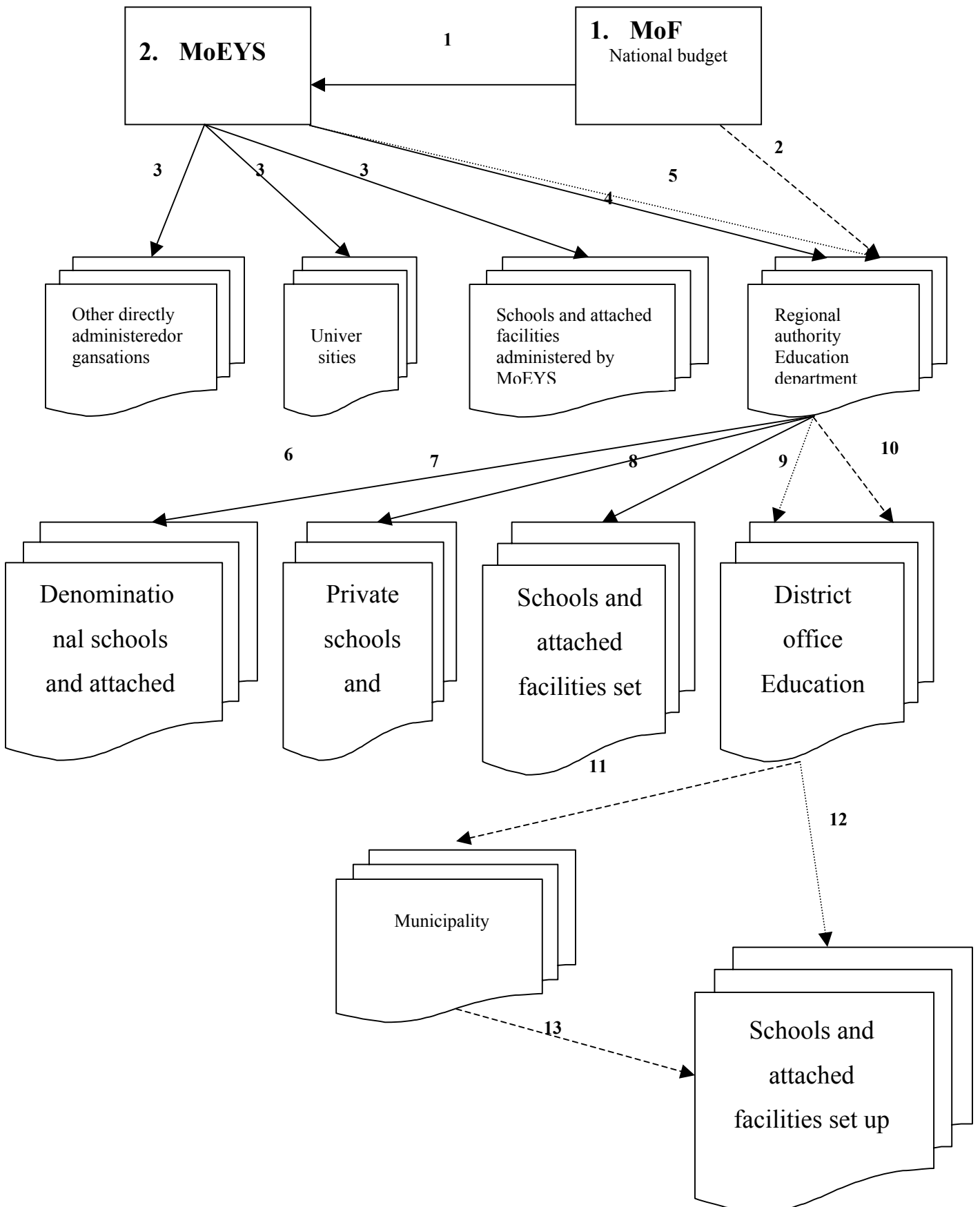
<p>6. Transition from centralised management to accountable shared decision making</p> <p>To implement into social system decentralised management of education by way of state and self-governing bodies with the active participation of social partners and other representatives actors of civic society as the process of planning, organising and evaluation based on strategic goals and realised especially indirect instruments. In higher education to reach balance between autonomy and self-governance of educational institutions and their accountability for the activity pursued.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to finalise the process of decentralisation of education in compliance with the adopted reform of public administration - to restructure the Ministry of Education in accordance with the new concept of management and role of the centre, to concentrate the labour of the Ministry of Education on limited number of key strategic functions in relation to the whole education system and co-operation with other sectorial ministries, especially with the Ministry of Labour and Social affairs and Ministry of Interior, - to build a new structure of communication with social partners at all levels of management and administration, to establish the Council for Education as the government advisory body and school councils by all schools, - to make use of all instruments of indirect management, especially innovative and development programmes, - to expand information and data basis for the governing sphere and practice of education by way of support of pedagogical research and development and purposeful conduct of innovations - to foster human resources in the system of management of education primarily by way of - introduction of further in-service training of school headmasters and other structures of leadership 	<p><i>Upper secondary education</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to introduce, in cooperation with social partners, <i>supportive measures facilitating transfer of school graduates to employment.</i> - to pass legal provisions to ensure employers' participation in final examinations in vocational programmes - to promote and provide for in terms of legislation several-month long controlled placements in companies for each student within VET <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to support the development of professional and career counselling - to support the development of an information system concerned with the relationships between education and the world of labour - to support the development of compensatory programmes for young unemployed people.
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Vocational Education and Training in the Czech Republic



This diagram represents the first stage in the ongoing development of a standard graphical model for vocational education and training systems. Future refinement may include the further alignment of terms, student enrolment and dropout figure, and local language terms.

Financial Flows Chart



Explanatory notes:

1. National budget resources earmarked for education
2. National budget resources for other expenditure of schools and attached facilities set up by regions or municipalities associated with their running and capital investment
3. Full funding of schools and attached facilities set by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, universities and other directly administered organisations
4. Subsidies from funds earmarked for education to cover labour and running costs (not capital) for private and denominational schools
5. National budget resources designed to cover direct costs associated with education for schools and attached facilities set up by regions and municipalities
6. Funding of individual denominational schools and attached facilities allocated by regional authorities (wages, social security, running)
7. Funding of individual private schools and attached facilities allocated by regional authorities (wages, social security, running)
8. Full funding of schools and attached facilities set up by regions (direct costs associated with education and other school expenditure)
9. Direct costs of education for schools set up by municipalities
10. Funding of other costs for schools and attached facilities set up by municipalities
11. Allocation of funds by district offices to cover other school costs of schools in individual municipalities
12. Allocation of funds by district offices to cover direct education costs of individual schools and attached facilities set up by municipalities
13. Allocation of funds by municipalities to cover other school costs of individual schools and attached facilities

Funding of schools and attached facilities:

There is a distinction made between direct costs of education or school services, running costs and capital costs.

Direct costs of education, which are covered by the state through the Ministry, primarily include wages of all school staff, social security contributions, or possibly expenditure on teaching aids and materials provided to students for free, costs of continuing training of teachers and educators.

Running and capital costs of schools set up by the state, regions or municipalities are covered by the respective body (the founder). Capital costs may also be covered from the national budget, for example various grant-aided programmes, provided that this is in line with the law on the national budget.

The Ministry allocates financial resources for education in basic schools or other forms of compulsory education, and in secondary and higher professional schools (through regional authorities). The level of funding is derived from the actual number of pupils and students (including foreigners) according to statistical performance indicators for the relevant year. The maximum level of funding corresponds to the number of pupils and students stated in the decision about the entry of the particular school into the school registry. Expenditure on teaching aids in secondary and higher professional schools is covered by the Ministry, regions or municipalities (depending on which body is the founder) – contrary to basic schools where this expenditure is covered by the Ministry). Textbooks and other aids are paid by students themselves.

Aneex 5

NEP and NEAP priorities concerning IVET

National Employment Plan – objectives and measures concerning IVET		
Employment policy objectives	Proposed measures	Detailed measures 2001
<p>1. Improving Employability</p> <p>This pillar includes measures leading to increased employability of the labour force, provision of appropriate levels of skills and flexibility in order to meet labour market requirements and ease the transition from school to employment. This includes efforts to remove barriers consisting of the inadequate working habits, which might particularly concern young people, people with disabilities and the long-term unemployed. In line with the improvement of employability it is necessary to provide better incentives to our citizens to seek and maintain jobs and improve their labour market status compared with migrant workers.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To implement a reform of the school system, including its management and financing, in particular that of intermediate technical schools and higher technical education, with a view to create conditions for achieving a balance between the graduates' levels and patterns of skills and labour market needs. - In order to facilitate the transition of school leavers to work, to introduce a specific subject „choice of occupation" into the curricula of all schools which are responsible for compulsory school attendance, with a view of achieving a pro-active attitude of pupils, students and their parents. Employment services will be required to supply all relevant information concerning the present and future labour market trends to primary and secondary universal and technical schools. - To implement measures to promote employment among the long-term unemployed, paying special attention to members of the Romany community. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To continue the process of optimisation of the network of secondary schools, its programme structure and funding, also taking into account the success of graduates in the labour market (in the context of the reform of public administration) - To propose measures to minimise the number of drop-outs - To propose solutions to eliminate barriers to „permeability“ of the education system and equal access to education by means of ensuring various alternative educational routes in line with the existing schools act - To establish condition for accelerating the process towards „computer literacy“. To extend the proposed policy to cover the adult population - To include the subject Career Choice“ in all basic school curricula, similarly to the „Introduction to the World of Labour“ at secondary and higher professional schools so that teaching could start on 1 September 2001 - To establish conditions for appropriate training of teachers in „Career Choice“ and „Introduction to the World of Labour“ at teacher training faculties and within continuing education of basic and secondary school teachers <p style="text-align: center;">■ To propose measures to improve transition of basic and special school pupils to secondary schools in order to minimise the number of pupils entering the labour market after compulsory education (with basic level of education).</p>

National Employment Action Plan for 2001 – objectives and measures concerning IVET			
National Employment Action Plan measures - 2001	Support on the part of IVET	State of progress (1-5)⁸⁶	
			5
Rationalisation of the network of secondary schools in relation to the labour market needs	Programme for optimising the network of schools (1997)	Taking place in several stages. At present, new regional authorities are taking over. Labour offices are involved in this process, not social partners	1
Minimising the number of pupils who fail to complete the respective level of education	No specific measures	The drop-out rate is not considered to be high. It is around 5% at secondary technical schools and 10% at secondary vocational schools	2
Elimination of obstacles to „permeability“ of the education system and ensuring equal access to education by means of alternative educational routes	The National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper - 2001)	Propose measures for increasing „permeability“ were adopted by the government, not yet discussed by Parliament, insufficiently reflected in the bill for the new schools act	4
Promoting computer literacy	The National Plan for Information Policy in Education (2000)	The plan was approved by the government, its implementation is failing to meet the planned deadlines	4
			1
Minimising the number of pupils entering the labour market upon completion of basic school	Law no. 19/2000 Coll. has provided for access to secondary school for those who completed compulsory education, but failed to complete successfully all 9 years of basic school on the condition that they meet the relevant admission requirements. No other specific measures	This is only a formal measure which does not replace the necessary support measures for the disadvantaged groups. Until now those who do not continue at a secondary level of education (around 10% of the relevant age group) are taken care of by labour offices by means of active employment policy measures.	5
Introduction of the subject „Career Choice“ to basic schools and „Introduction to the World of Labour“ to secondary schools. Establishment of conditions for the relevant teacher training	Government measures (2000)	The measures are gradually being implemented, the introduction of these subjects depends on the initiative of individual schools, courses for teachers are currently organised by non-government organisations.	

⁸⁶ Degree of progress made concerning specific plans:

1. it is still at the stage of raising awareness and informal discussions
2. it exists on paper as a government document
3. it is ready to be adopted as a legal regulation and put forward to Parliament
4. it has been passed by Parliament and is ready for implementation
5. the reform is currently underway with participation of the relevant bodies

IVET Field Research Results**Integration of the Disadvantaged – Questionnaire for Schools****The total number of pupils at your school:**

State pupil numbers in all years.

The total number of pupils in the school:	Of which:				
	Training centre	Vocational school	3-year practical school	1-to-2-year practical school	Other
Education prior to enrolling in your school:					
- incomplete basic education					
- <i>zvláštní škola</i> leavers					
- other education					
Nationality:					
- Czech					
- Romany					
- immigrants of other nationalities					
Type of disadvantage:					
- Social					
- Mental					
- Physical					
- Other health-related					
- Combined					

Mark the answers to the following questions by putting an x in the respective box. You may mark more answers. If you do so, rate their importance using figures from 1 (most important) to 5.

1. How do you gather information about the educational opportunities of individual pupils who enrol in your school?

<input type="checkbox"/>	From the respective basic school or <i>zvláštní škola</i>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Based on own admission procedures
<input type="checkbox"/>	From the educational –psychological guidance centre
<input type="checkbox"/>	From parents
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other – state how

2. What information concerning individual educational opportunities of the pupils are of most importance for you in terms of developing appropriate educational provision?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Study achievement
<input type="checkbox"/>	Description of health condition
<input type="checkbox"/>	Description of mental condition
<input type="checkbox"/>	Description of social and family background
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other – state what

Would you, please, describe your positive experience as well as problems you are encountering when gathering this information about your pupils?

3. Do you have the position of an educational counsellor in your school?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If so, what is the core of his/her activities?

<input type="checkbox"/>	One-off solutions of specific problems concerning the upbringing and education of the pupils
<input type="checkbox"/>	Long-term individual work with pupils with difficulties
<input type="checkbox"/>	Cooperation with counselling institutions (educational-psychological guidance centres, information centres at labour offices etc.)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Career counselling or assistance in job seeking
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other – state what

Would you, please, state the positive experience as well as problems the educational counsellor is encountering at your school?

4. Is your school implementing any measures to prevent pupils with difficulties from dropping out of the studies?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If so, state which measures are being implemented.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Individual study plans
<input type="checkbox"/>	Additional teaching
<input type="checkbox"/>	Possibility of transferring to a less demanding programme
<input type="checkbox"/>	Facilitation of professional counselling (educational-psychological guidance centre etc.)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other – state which

Would you, please, describe your positive experience as well as problems concerning these measures and, possibly, evaluate their efficiency?

5. Does your school gather information about placements of your school leavers in the labour market?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If so, how do you use this information?

<input type="checkbox"/>	To improve courses on offer
<input type="checkbox"/>	To attract prospective pupils
<input type="checkbox"/>	To enhance teaching methods
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other – state how
<input type="checkbox"/>	There is no further use of this information

Would you, please, describe your positive experience as well as problems you are encountering when gathering and using this information to meet the needs of the school?

6. Would you, please, assess the quality of your cooperation with the following institutions:

- The district educational-psychological guidance centre

<input type="checkbox"/>	Very good
<input type="checkbox"/>	Satisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsatisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	None

- The information and career counselling centre at the respective labour office

<input type="checkbox"/>	Very good
<input type="checkbox"/>	Satisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsatisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	None

- The diagnostic centre at the respective labour office

<input type="checkbox"/>	Very good
<input type="checkbox"/>	Satisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsatisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	None

- The social affairs department of the respective district authority

<input type="checkbox"/>	Very good
<input type="checkbox"/>	Satisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	Unsatisfactory
<input type="checkbox"/>	None

Would you, please, describe your positive experience as well as problems you are encountering when cooperating with these institutions?

Provided that you take interest in these issues, could you, please, put down your opinions about the following general questions?

5. To what extent do you believe is the schools system efficient in providing vocational training to disadvantaged groups of population and in their integration into society?

6. Is the current **social policy** towards disadvantaged groups of young people appropriate?

Would you, please, state whether there are any social policy measures which make difficult the provision of vocational training to these groups – for example, lead to drop-outs, bar access to training, etc.

3. Is the system of educational and career guidance (i.e. **the district educational-psychological guidance centre and the information and career counselling centre at the labour office**) performing well in relation to these disadvantaged groups?

Report about „Field Research,, – Integration of Disadvantaged Pupils

The field research in this area was conducted because of a lack of information about the ways in which disadvantaged pupils are integrated into IVET and the extent to which IVET is efficient as concerns their education. Due to a limited time as well as capacity, a not very extensive survey was carried out, and it was focused on the groups of socially (possibly due to ethnicity) and mentally disadvantaged pupils. They are young people whose disadvantage is on the verge of normality and pathology. A good educational approach could prevent these people from developing socio-pathological disorders (crime, drugs abuse, life on welfare benefits etc.). Education of these young people should lead them to find, within their capacities, their place in society including appropriate employment.

The survey was implemented using the questionnaire method with closed as well as open questions. The questionnaires were distributed to schools which primarily provide VET to such disadvantaged pupils – i.e. training centres, *učiliště* and practical schools. These types of school are often integrated into one institution in order to facilitate transfers of pupils from less to more demanding programmes and vice versa.

Training centres (TCs) and *učiliště* normally provide two-year vocational training courses completed with the award of an apprentice certificate. TCs are designed for pupils who completed compulsory education in *zvláštní školy*. *Učiliště* normally admit pupils who failed to complete all nine years of basic school. Practical schools provide three-year courses to the same disadvantaged group of pupils, the difference is that they are not awarded the apprentice certificate. One-to-two-year programmes at practical schools are designed for pupils with more severe, usually mental disorders. In addition to training in manual skills, emphasis is placed primarily on socialisation and re-socialisation aspects.

The questionnaires were sent to 50 schools of the aforementioned types – in most cases these were institutions integrating a TC, *učiliště* and a practical school. Some institutions even included a secondary vocational school (SVS). The rate of return was 52% and 26 questionnaires were reviewed.

Schools which have filled in the questionnaires educate the total of 4168 pupils distributed as follows :

TC	Učiliště	Practical school (3 years)	Practical school (1-2 years)	Total
3 625	215	275	53	4 168

We also examined the education background of the pupils, i.e. where they completed compulsory education, whether they transferred from a SVS or other more demanding programme. This information could not be found out for all pupils.

Incomplete basic school (BS)	Zvláštní škola leavers	Other education	Not stated
913	2 422	186	647

The distribution of pupils shows that TCs, *učiliště* and practical schools admit pupils from basic schools and *zvláštní školy* and, to a lower degree, those who failed in more demanding programmes (e.g. SVSs). The differences in previous education are eliminated and therefore pupils with various educational backgrounds may be trained within the same course.

We also attempted to find out the pupils' nationality – particularly due to special attention devoted to the education of the Romany population and immigrants. The respondents either refused to provide this information referring to the law on personal data protection, or they stated that Romanies normally claim Czech nationality. This is why the data is considerably distorted and it may be assumed that the real proportion of Romany pupils at these schools is higher.

Czech nationality	Romanies	Immigrants of other nationalities	Not stated
3 267	130	38	733

In terms of disadvantage, pupils with mental and social disadvantages predominate. These handicaps are often combined – as the focus of these types of school suggests. There is a minority of pupils with physical and other health disorders.

Type of disadvantage:

Social	Mental	Physical	Other health disorder	Combined
703	3 158	59	87	168

Outcomes of the survey

The first area of findings concerns **admission of pupils** to these types of school. School normally obtain information about individual characteristics of pupils and their educational capacities from various sources. The sources are stated in the table – each school presented several of them.

Source of information	Proportion of information from this source (out of 100%)	Proportion of schools which use this source of information
BS, <i>zvláštní škola</i>	27%	81%
Own admission proceedings	22%	65%
District educational-psychological guidance centre (OPPP)	23%	69%
Parents	20%	58%
Other	8%	23%

Schools obtain information about pupils primarily from basic schools and *zvláštní školy* from where most pupils come. The respondents refer to the fact that pupils who come from *zvláštní škola* normally have all documentation sent for them – i.e. in addition to information about study achievement also reports about medical and psychological examinations, behaviour, interests etc. Contrary to this, basic schools usually provide only a minimum of information about study achievement. Schools acquire other information during their own admission proceedings, which often involve an interview with the pupils. In many cases, the files on the pupils from the relevant educational-psychological guidance centre are requested. This information is normally outdated and relates to the time when the pupil was last examined in the DEPGC. Some schools also mention unwillingness on the part of the centres to provide this information. This is why some schools pay a psychologist to carry out the necessary examinations. Schools also obtain information from the pupils' parents – however, this cooperation is often described as problematic because of inappropriate family and social circumstances.

The survey also focused on which **information about individual educational capacities of pupils** is important for schools and which they primarily use in order to develop appropriate training programmes. Each school again stated several types of information which is considered to be the most important. The data is illustrated in the following table:

Type of information	Proportion of this type of information out of 100%	Proportion of schools using this type of information
Study achievement	26%	96%
Health characteristics	25%	92%
Mental characteristics	21%	77%
Social and family background characteristics	20%	73%
Other	8%	27%

Schools realise the importance of acquiring as much detailed information about the enrolled pupils as possible. On the whole, however, they mention difficulties they are experiencing when seeking more detailed data about the health and mental condition of the pupils as well as their social and family background. The reason which they refer to is the new legal regulation on personal data protection. It is only the information on the application form which is available without any problems – i.e. study achievement and health condition. Obtaining other information is largely a matter of personal contacts and activities of the school. In addition to the aforementioned information, schools are also interested in the interest of pupils in particular courses and their employment opportunities after its completion. *Zvláštní školy* usually cooperate in this respect – however, neither basic schools nor SVSs (from which some pupils transfer) do maintain any special educational data, and the information is therefore insufficient. It sometimes happens that some parents conceal the information about the health condition or other problems of their child. Then, the appropriate measures cannot be taken and the child may find himself/herself in an unpleasant or even life-threatening situation.

This is why the role of an **educational counsellor** is even more important at these schools. This position is set up at almost 90% of schools which participated in the survey. We concentrated on the core of his/her activities. The table shows the findings:

Type of activity	The proportion of this activity (out of 100%)	The proportion of schools where the counsellor carries out this activity
One-off solution of educational problems	26%	77%
Individual work with pupils with difficulties	27%	81%
Cooperation with counselling institutions	29%	85%
Assistance in seeking employment	12%	35%
Other	6%	19%

The table illustrates that educational counsellors are primarily coordinators of the various types of care given to the pupils. They cooperate with individual teachers, sometimes visit families or consult parents, provide for psychological examinations, are in contact with officers at social departments of district offices and the relevant Romany assistants. Their important tasks involve prevention of socio-pathological disorders in pupils and monitoring the pupils' leisure activities. This implies that they are predominantly concerned with educational issues (both immediate solutions and long-term development). They are less often concerned with career counselling.

We were particularly focused on information about specific measures the schools are taking in order to **prevent pupils with difficulties from dropping out of school**. All respondents stated that they consider such measures to be of high importance. The following table provides an overview of the specific measures used:

Type of measure	Proportion of the measure (out of 100%)	Proportion of schools implementing the measure
Individual study plans	14%	46%
Additional teaching	24%	81%
Transfers to less demanding educational programmes	26%	85%
Arranging for specialists counselling	27%	88%
Others	9%	31%

The table implies that, in the case of pupils at risk of dropping out, schools first seek to arrange for specialist assistance – be it assistance from other institutions such as bodies within the social care system, the services of a school psychologist at some schools, or the family - provided they are willing to cooperate. A frequent solution ensuring that the relevant pupil may stay in school consists in allowing him/her to transfer to a less demanding programme. It is only after this transfer that individual assistance is provided in the form of adjusting the educational provision to the individual needs of the relevant pupil.

A major problem cited by the respondents which often results in drop outs is the lack of linkage between the education and social systems. The payment of unemployment and welfare benefits to pupils who have dropped out is considered to be a de-motivating factor, which often results in drop outs of pupils without any difficulties. This also happens if there is a negative influence on the part of the parents who are on welfare benefits, which they get for their children as well – however, they do not use the resources to cover their children's needs including education. This is why drop outs are often caused by financial problems of the family – i.e. the parents do not pay for their children's meals and accommodation, or transport to school. The school can hardly prevent drop outs caused by such circumstances.

In the survey we also sought to find out information about the extent to which schools are interested in their graduates and their employment. 77% of schools responded that they acquire this information by means of questionnaires, which means that this information is often incomplete. The ways in which the data is used are shown in the table::

Ways of using information about graduates	Proportion of the particular way (out of 100%)	Proportion of schools using the data in the particular way
Improving educational programmes on offer	38%	69%
Attracting prospective pupils	32%	58%
Improving teaching methods	23%	42%

Other ways	7%	12%
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The table clearly shows that a relatively high number of schools do not take any interest in their pupils after they leave school. The schools which are interested use this information primarily to adjust their programmes to meet the needs of the regional labour market and potential employment. In doing this most schools cooperate with labour offices. The information is also used in admission proceedings and in meetings with parents to attract prospective applicants. The data is exploited to a lower degree by teachers who seek to update their teaching depending on employers' needs

The survey also included questions concerning the quality of cooperation with particular institutions – we selected the relevant district educational-psychological guidance centre (OPPP), information and counselling centres for career choice at labour offices (IPS ÚP), diagnostic centres at labour offices (BDC ÚP) and social departments of district offices. The table shows the information acquired:

Level of cooperation	OPPP	IPS ÚP	BDC ÚP	Social department
Very good	42%	54%	8%	54%
Satisfactory	46%	27%	8%	30%
Unsatisfactory	4%	8%	8%	8%
None	8%	11%	76%	8%

The data illustrates that schools cooperate both with counselling institutions, which focus on educational problems as well as career issues, and with social departments, which primarily address the issues of a problematic social and family background of pupils. This is understandable in view of the high numbers of pupils at these schools who are socially disadvantaged. The diagnostic centres have not as yet played an important role. They have been established only recently and their task is to assess, on an individual basis, the capacities and employment opportunities of individual pupils.

Although the cooperation between schools and the aforementioned institutions is mostly of good standards, a number of respondents stated that the quality of such cooperation depends on good personal contacts. The reason is that the relevant legal regulations stipulate that these institutions may cooperate and exchange information, but “no-one is obliged to do anything”. This is why there is often a lack of flexibility in resolving crises situations of pupils. Also, these institutions sometimes fail to inform the school about the results of their work with a particular pupil. The respondents also complain about a lack of preventive programme (social departments mostly deal only with Romanians and drug addicts). This often results in repressive measures, although certain socio-pathological disorders could be prevented. Consequently, preventive care is mostly provided only by schools.

At the end of the questionnaire the respondents were asked to express their opinions in a free form on whether the **schools system, social security system and the system of educational and career guidance** perform their functions in relation to disadvantaged juvenile persons. The total of 73% of respondents gave their answers.

Most respondents consider **the system of special education** to be very important and efficient. Schools focused on this group of population normally employ teachers with qualifications in special pedagogy, who are better trained to work with individual pupils taking account of their respective disorders. This ensures an appropriate study load. In the event that individual capacities of pupils are not well assessed at the beginning of a course, the system of special education allows for transfers to other, more suitable programmes. In view of this, the respondents largely criticise the integration of such pupils into mainstream SVSs (particularly as concerns *zvláštní škola* leavers) – where they face the risk of not being able to meet the study requirements and dropping out. If such pupils cannot satisfy the study demands, their behavioural problems may intensify, truancy appears and they are more likely to develop various socio-pathological disorders such as drug abuse or crime. This is why the law No. 19/2000 has come in for criticism, since it provides for access of *zvláštní škola* leavers to secondary education on the condition that they meet the admission requirements

The respondents see the biggest problems in **social policy** – primarily as regards its lack of links to the schools system. Generous welfare benefits, which are not related to the obligation to undergo education, demotivate pupils and their parents from socially disadvantaged backgrounds so that they put money ahead of education. If a pupil drops out of school, he/she is also entitled to unemployment benefits for a certain period, which is another de-motivating factor. This leads to drop outs which are not motivated by study failures, but by entirely different factors which the school cannot influence. The respondents therefore suggest that the welfare benefits designed for pupils should not be given to parents (who use them for other purposes). They should be transferred directly to the school which would use the money to pay for meals and accommodation of pupils or to pay for their transport to school.

The system of educational and career guidance is largely considered to be appropriate by the respondents, as is their cooperation with the relevant institutions. Some respondents point to the problems of availability of information held by these institutions, which is the consequence of the new legislation on personal data protection. Many respondents would therefore appreciate if their school could employ an internal psychologist or social worker. It turns out the internal educational counsellors often fail to resolve all problems and in some cases schools employ, for example, a psychologist on a part-time basis.

Conclusions

Although the scope of the survey was very limited, it has pointed to certain problems of disadvantaged students in secondary schools. They include:

- unresolved issues concerning the integration of disadvantaged pupils to mainstream schools (schools are not ready to work with them);
- the inappropriate capacity of the schools system to adjust to the individual needs of disadvantaged pupils, the focus of curricula on the average pupil (adjustment means a transfer to a less demanding programme);
- the limited scope of operations of educational counsellors at schools (he/she rather acts as a coordinator of various activities) – the issue of the necessity of a school psychologist and social worker is therefore discussed;
- insufficient interest on the part of some schools in the situation of their graduates in the labour market;
- problems concerning information flows between the relevant institutions;
- a lack of links between the social and education systems (the link between welfare benefits and the obligation to undertake education).

Annex 7

CVT Field Research Results

7.2

Mini-Survey of current trends in continuing vocational education

(for the needs of Country Monograph - May 2001)

The mini-survey was conducted in April 2001 as a rapid collection of data by means of e-mail. The sample included three types of institution providing continuing vocational education, which were randomly selected:

- schools,
- institutions providing adult education and
- corporate training departments.

The proportions of the institutions of each type corresponded to the numbers of accredited institutions in each category. The total of 89 respondents were contacted. 57 of them returned the filled-in questionnaires, which puts the return at 71.25%.

The information was collected from 45 institutions providing adult education, 7 schools which provide accredited continuing VET courses and 5 training departments of companies. For the purpose of this survey, the institutions were categorised in terms of size (according to the number of trainees). The overall average number of trainees per one institution is higher compared to other surveys. There are several reasons for this. In view of the fact that the survey was conducted via e-mail, it is likely that only larger institutions were contacted, which have the relevant facilities, while most educational institutions in the CR have one employee.

The most frequent types of course/programme

	Subject	Number	%
1.	Management	15	12,4
2.	Computing skills	14	11,6
3.	Various retraining courses	13	10,7
4.	Foreign languages	11	9,1
5.	Sales skills, trade management	7	5,8
6.	Communication	6	4,95
7.	Psychology – personal development	6	4,95
8.	Accountancy	6	4,95
9.	Training courses for companies	5	4,1
10.	Basic entrepreneurial skills	4	3,3
11.	Continuing training of teachers	3	2,5
12.	Marketing	3	2,5
13.	Specialised/follow-up courses and seminars	3	2,5
14.	Motivation courses	2	1,6
15.	Health protection, fire protection	2	1,6
16.	8. HR management	2	1,6
17.	Building construction	2	1,6
18.	Public administration	2	1,6
19.	Introduction to various vocational skills	2	1,6
20.	9. Security services	1	0,8
21.	Finance	1	0,8
22.	Graduates club	1	0,8
23.	Quality	1	0,8
24.	MBA	1	0,8
25.	Trade unions-related issues	1	0,8
26.	Body therapy	1	0,8
27.	Legal issues	1	0,8
28.	Power trucks driving	1	0,8
29.	Secretary, assistant	1	0,8
30.	Specialisation courses	1	0,8
31.	Office skills	1	0,8

The numbers of participants in these courses have been regularly increasing in the last three years – this is particularly true of courses delivered by schools. All corporate training departments as well as institutions providing adult education (although these to a lesser degree) confirm a similar trend.

It is interesting to focus on the most frequently provided courses. The mini-survey has revealed (as do regular surveys conducted annually by the MoEYS among accredited institutions) that the most frequent subjects were management, computing skills and foreign languages. Computing skills, management and languages were the most frequent subjects in the past years as well, while the interest in sales skills and trade management has come to the fore only in recent years. The frequent occurrence of courses in communication skills and personal development is also surprising (such courses appeared only in the past three years). Until then, the most frequently delivered courses included all types of accountancy, secretary-assistant, masseur, power saw operation, power trucks driving and beauty therapy.

The **general increase in the number of participants in training courses** is interesting, because most institutions state that the supply of training courses provided in their region is higher than demand. However this difference between supply and demand must be viewed with caution. The need for training is far higher than the demand in the market which is being affected by a number of other factors – the standard of living, motivation, availability of educational opportunities, financial and time

restrictions etc. This conclusion may be inferred from a general piece of information – while in the CR approximately 12 to 15% of population participate in continuing education, it is 30 to 40% in EU member countries.

The structure of training courses on offer has not changed over the past three years in around one half of institutions. What is somewhat surprising is the trend towards short courses, which is confirmed by one fifth of institutions. There may be several reasons for this (still, it would be worthwhile to carry out a local survey in this respect):

- over the past three years there has been an increase in the number of “one-man” institutions with insufficient capacity to deliver long courses (these are mostly university graduates who resolve their situation in the labour market by means of self-employment;
- it may also be caused by the fact that the generations currently entering the labour market have received good initial education which only needs to be complemented by short specialisation courses;
- in view of the economic situation of companies as well as individuals, there is a shift from long and financially demanding courses.

Training courses for socially disadvantaged groups of population are provided by 28% of schools, by 40% of institutions involved in adult education and 40% of corporate training departments. Out of the 57 respondents which participated in this survey, this type of training is provided by 22 institutions (38.6%).

The training of these groups is paid by:

◆ labour offices	14 x
◆ the participants	2 x
◆ the company	1 x
◆ trade unions	1 x
◆ municipal offices	1 x
◆ grants	1 x
◆ the MoEYS	1 x
◆ the providers	1 x

Most of the institutions polled provide **full-time courses**. Only 17.5% of them have a certain number of **distance** courses. Out of the institutions providing adult education only 11% have certain courses in a distance form. This corresponds to the fact that the most frequent subjects are foreign languages, management skills and computing skills – i.e. disciplines where practical skills prevail and where the distance form of learning would be rather complicated.

Annex 8

PPES Field Research Results

Labour Office Questionnaire

Please give your answers directly into the text.

1. How are individual stakeholders involved in planning and delivery of employment services, labour market measures and education (mainly in your district)? Give us concrete examples of activities, please.

- a. City / District Office
- b. Trade unions
- c. Chamber of Commerce
- d. Associations of employers
- e. Schools
- f. Private personal agencies
- g. Private education facilities, retraining centres
- h. Other

2. How does your office co-operate with different stakeholders to reach the goal of increasing of workplaces? What have been reached in this respect so far? What mechanisms and measures do you use? If you don't co-operate, what is the reason for that?

- a. City / District Office
- b. Trade unions
- c. Chamber of Commerce
- d. Associations of employers
- e. Schools
- f. Private personal agencies
- g. Private education facilities, retraining centres
- h. Other

3. How has your office contributed to the regional or district development plan (regional development, human capital development, economic restructuring etc.)? Do you have such a plan? How do you co-operate with other stakeholders in preparation of such plans?

Answer:

4. Do you have a District Action Employment Plan based on the National Action Employment Plan 2001, where you have real measures, concrete goals, clear financial resources and given responsibilities?

Answer:

5. What is the HR policy at your office? How do you select employees and what training courses do they attend (regular / one-off, what is the goal, organization, ...)?

Answer:

6. What is the cooperation like between your office and schools in the area of preventing unemployment of school leavers? Mark with an x:

- We provide information materials about the labour market to schools and give appropriate lectures
- We provide counselling services to individuals based on their interest
- We are active in providing individual counselling to pupils at risk of dropping out of school where we assume they may become unemployed
- We carry out diagnostic work in cooperation with the respective specialised centre
- We participate in the training of educational counsellors at schools

- We develop or review curricula of the subjects entitled “Career Choice” and “Introduction to the World of Labour” (or their parts which are integrated in other subjects)

7. Do schools in your district teach “Career Choice” (“Introduction to the World of Labour”) or is this issue at least part of other subjects taught (e.g. civic education etc.)? Mark with an x:

- Yes, most schools
- Yes, a very small percentage of schools
- No
- I do not know

8. Have there been in the last three years any changes in the structure of participants in retraining courses in terms of their major groups (e.g. school graduates, the long-term unemployed, the disabled, women after maternity leave, participants broken down according to education achieved)?

- Yes
- No

If so, would you, please, state the groups where the proportion in the total number of participants was rising:

9. Are you developing any specific courses where larger numbers of Romany participants are envisaged? What is the focus of these courses?

The answer:

10. Where do you see problems and limitations in the current legislation and the implementation of employment policy as regards the participation in retraining and its rate of success of the following groups:

- a. Romanies (or people from disadvantaged social backgrounds):
- b. Juvenile persons
- c. School graduates
- d. Women after maternity leave
- e. The disabled
- f. The long-term unemployed

Thank you very much for your answers and your time.
We will send you results from this poll during May.

Research team of the RILSA and NTF
M.Vylítová, J.Kotíková, M.Polívka a V.Czesaná

Results of the Labour Office Survey

In order to collect information about employment services, a questionnaire survey was conducted at Czech labour offices in April and May 2001. The questionnaires were e-mailed to all 77 labour offices. The respondents were asked to send the filled-in questionnaires back as soon as possible.

The rate of return was 61% - 47 labour offices replied.

The results of the survey placed within the context of the questions:

1. **What is the involvement of the following partners in the planning and provision of services in the area of employment, the labour market and education in your district: municipal/district office, trade unions, the economic chamber, employers or their representatives, school representatives, private recruitment agencies, private educational institutions etc. ? In what ways do you cooperate with them?**

2. The answers implied that the cooperation between the parties stated above is not a common practice in the Czech Republic. In most districts the advisory body to the labour office director is composed of representatives of the municipal office (district office, city hall), trade unions and employers. Conversely, only a few labour offices stated that they cooperate with the economic chamber or private agencies.

One positive finding was an effort to cooperate with neighbouring districts in the case that some of the institutions do not operate in the district.

There are labour offices which have been involved in a very good cooperation for several years. One example is the labour office in Teplice.

a) Municipal/district office

Representatives of municipal offices and the district office cooperate with the LO through their representation on the advisory body to the labour office director (hereinafter only AB). Municipalities and towns create public welfare jobs and district offices arrange for jobs for school graduates to get practical experience in organisations either fully or partially funded from the national budget. The LO holds regular meetings with mayors (information about public welfare jobs and the situation in the labour market). It also closely cooperates with the district entrepreneurial office in the implementation of various active employment policy measures and development of labour market projections.

b) Trade unions

A representative of trade unions actively cooperates with the LO within the AB.

c) The economic chamber

The district economic chamber (DEC) cooperates with the LO within the AB (the chairman of the DEC board of directors is a member of the advisory body). Within this cooperation, the labour office organises meetings with employers (promotion of instruments of active employment policy, information about the situation in the labour market). The DEC provides information to the LO about the situation in the business sector within the district, supports new entrepreneurial activities, negotiates various investments and cooperates in the creation of new jobs.

d) Employers, representatives of employers

Representatives of employers are active members of the AB. Employers cooperate with the LO primarily as regards their reporting about and filling of vacant positions, and the creation of new jobs with the support of active employment policy measures. Based on employers' requirements the LO arranges for retraining of job seekers and employees (to ensure they may perform other tasks). Cooperation has been initiated between labour offices in the Labe Euroregion and important employers within a group for HRD. As a result of its monitoring activities the LO receives information from employers which facilitate labour market development projections. Information is being collected about future qualification requirements in the area. However, most employers do not pay appropriate attention to HRD and this type of cooperation will therefore have to be intensified.

e) School representatives

Schools cooperate with the LO in updating the "Školák" information database (available schools and programmes) and take part in an exhibition of secondary education opportunities entitled "ŠANCE", which is organised by the LO.

On the part of the LO, cooperation with schools is primarily focused on establishing closer contacts with schools and employers, providing information about the situation in the labour market and information about numbers of registered job seekers – school graduates. Moreover, the LO cooperates with educational counsellors, organises training for teachers of the subjects "Career Choice" and "Introduction to the World of Labour". Cooperation also takes place in terms of returning back to the education system those juvenile

people who did not continue their education after the basic school, or who dropped out from secondary school

f) Private recruitment agencies

Private recruitment agencies specialise in different types of activity compared to the LO (search for top specialists and managers for employers, arranging employment abroad). The LO sends people interested in working abroad to the relevant recruitment agencies which have the MoLSA accreditation.

g) Private educational institutions, retraining centres

The LO cooperates with these institutions in organising retraining courses for job seekers and employees in line with labour market requirements, and in the development of programmes of retraining activities. Educational services provided by these institutions are understandably used by persons who are not registered by the LO and employers who wish to train their employees.

h) Others

Labour market services are also provided by specialist consultancies – e.g. the Regional Counselling and Information Centre (RPIC Teplice s.r.o.). They primarily concentrate on providing assistance to small and medium-sized businesses which are starting up.

2. What was the contribution on the part of your labour office to the regional or district development plan (development of the region, HRD, restructuring of the economy etc.)? How do you cooperate with other parties in the development of such plans?

According to their answers, almost all labour offices contribute to the development of these plans. This cooperation takes the form of bilateral meetings or the relevant working groups where selected labour office staff are represented. In this context the labour office prepares background materials about employment or unemployment in the district.

3. Do you have an Action Employment Plan for your district (on the basis of the approved National Action Employment Plan for 2001) setting out specific instruments, specific measures, defined sources of funding and responsibilities?

As regards the Action Employment Plan the survey revealed that almost all labour offices have developed this strategic document, although in some cases under a different title (the obligation is stipulated in a ministerial regulation). As the LOs stated, they developed the material so that it responds as much as possible to the needs of the local labour market and establishes conditions for the implementation of the measures of the National Employment Plan for 2001.

4. What HR policy is your labour office employing? How do you recruit new staff and what training do they undergo?

HR policy of labour offices is derived from the organisation regulations and the prescribed number of staff. When filling work positions, applicants are assessed in the light of requirements for education, previous practical experience (depending on the position). The applicants include those who filed their applications to the LO and those who are registered as job seekers.

When filling more senior positions, most labour offices use promotion.

Staff development is provided for by educational centres within employment services, which offer study modules (the relevant knowledge and skills of LO staff and foreign languages).

Some labour offices make use of one-off training courses delivered by private agencies, which concentrate on specific competencies linked to working activities. The participation of staff in such training is limited by the level of funding, which is determined by the national budget.

TABLES

TABLES FOR CHAPTER 2

2.1 Expenditure on education

Expenditure on education in % of GDP	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
	5,3%	5,3%	5,2%	5,2%	4,7%	4,4%	4,7%

Source: Education on the Threshold of Changes. Prague. Institute of Information on Education, 2000.

2.2 Public expenditure on individual types of school

Public expenditure on individual types of school in current prices in 1993 – 1999 (in thousand CZK)								Unit costs of pupil (student) by school type in current prices in 1995 – 1999 (in CZK)				
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Expenditure on education - total	53,6	63,2	71,9	81,7	78,9	80,3	86,8					
<i>Gymnasium</i>	2,1	3,1	3,9	4,2	3,5	3,4	3,7	23 573	25 461	24 932	24 806	26 857
Secondary technical and higher professional schools	4,5	6,1	6,8	7,2	7,1	7,0	7,7	25 291	27 930	31 978	30 126	33 390
Secondary vocational schools	6,6	7,7	8,6	9,1	7,3	6,9	6,9	24 404	27 135	26 589	28 286	30 619
Universities	6,5	8,3	9,5	11,0	11,8	12,8	12,7	65 832	69 221	66 840	67 570	69 241

Source: Education on the Threshold of Changes. Prague. Institute of Information on Education, 2000.

2.3 The student/teacher ratio in individual types of school

Number of students per one adjusted teaching load						
Area	STS		SVS		HPS	
	1996/1997	2000/2001	1996/1997	2000/2001	1997/1998	2000/2001
The Czech Republic	8,7	10,8	12,2	17,5	12,7	10,9
Prague	7,7	10,2	13,2	17,5	12,1	10,8
The city of Prague	7,7	18,1	13,2	18,0	12,1	10,8
Central Bohemia	9,1	10,9	12,3	16,8	11,1	8,1
Central Bohemian region	9,1	8,1	12,3	12,3	11,1	8,1
South-West	8,7	11,1	11,3	17,4	13,4	11,0
Budějovice region	8,2	10,8	11,7	16,7	14,6	12,4
Plzeň region	9,2	11,6	11,0	18,4	10,7	8,6
North-West	8,8	10,9	12,4	17,8	11,2	8,7
Karlovy Vary region	9,6	10,6	13,4	18,4	10,7	8,1
Ústí n/Labem region	8,5	11,0	12,0	17,6	11,2	8,8
Noth-East	8,5	10,7	12,0	17,7	12,6	11,3
Liberec region	7,8	9,8	13,4	18,3	13,2	10,4
Hradec Králové region	9,2	11,2	11,9	17,9	10,7	11,3
Pardubice region	8,5	11,0	11,3	17,0	13,8	11,8
South-East	8,7	11,1	12,6	18,3	12,7	12,5
Jihlava region	9,6	11,5	11,5	18,2	15,8	14,1
Brno region	8,3	10,9	13,0	18,3	11,2	11,7
Central Moravia	9,7	11,0	11,8	16,3	14,3	10,3
Olomouc region	9,5	11,2	11,5	16,3	11,5	10,1
Zlín region	9,9	10,7	12,2	16,3	15,7	10,4
Ostravsko	9,0	11,0	12,2	18,1	14,4	14,0
Ostrava region	9,0	11,0	12,2	18,1	14,4	14,0

Source: Education on the Threshold of Changes. Prague. Institute of Information on Education, 2000.

2.4 Development of student numbers in 1st grades of upper secondary education

Full-time courses

All in %	Gymnasium	STS programmes			SVS programmes (incl. VSSNS and training centres)			Total	Of which	Pupils in 9 th grade
		With "maturita"	Without "maturita"	Total	Without "maturita"	With "maturita"	Total			
30.9.										
1989	14,42	23,25	0,00	23,25	57,12	5,45	62,58	100,0	42,88	0,00
1991	12,80	23,37	5,25	28,62	53,80	4,78	58,59	100,0	40,95	16,83
1992	11,98	26,45	2,88	29,33	53,14	5,55	58,69	100,0	43,98	15,21
1993	14,50	28,64	1,98	30,62	49,13	5,75	54,88	100,0	48,89	10,21
1994	14,39	34,26	1,50	35,76	44,21	5,65	49,85	100,0	54,29	5,60
1995	14,87	35,64	1,46	37,11	43,18	4,84	48,02	100,0	55,36	3,67
1996	40,66	19,02	0,75	19,78	38,49	1,07	39,56	100,0	60,76	---
1997	17,48	39,34	1,09	40,42	37,99	4,11	42,10	100,0	60,92	---
1998	18,16	35,98	2,53	38,51	37,68	5,65	43,34	100,0	59,79	---
1999	18,79	34,44	2,21	36,65	38,80	5,76	44,56	100,0	59,00	---
2000	18,47	34,85	1,51	36,36	39,79	5,37	45,16	100,0	58,70	---

Notes:

Gymnasium students include those enrolled in 1st grades of four-year gymnasium and students of multi-year gymnasium in years corresponding in terms of age to the 1st grade of four-year gymnasium. Students of integrated secondary schools were included according to whether they attended a SVS or STS. The student numbers include pupils of special schools.

In 1996 pupils of the 8th grade of basic school were not admitted to 1st years of secondary schools, because they went on to the 9th grade of basic school. First years of secondary schools were filled only by 9th grade pupils (9th grade was made compulsory). This is why this year is atypical. From this year on the numbers and proportion of pupils in 9th grades are not stated. In the calculation of the percentage of pupils in the 9th grade, the basis was the sum of pupils in the 9th grade and the total number of pupils admitted to secondary schools.

An overview of student numbers in part-time courses is not presented (around 1% of students at SVS and 5% at STS).

Gymnasium = general education (4 year programme)

STS = secondary technical school (4 or 3 year programme)

SVS = secondary vocational school (3 or 4 year programme)

VSSNS = vocational school for special needs students (2 or 1 year programme)

Source: Vojtěch, J.: The Distribution and Numbers of Students in the System of Educational Routes in Secondary and Higher Professional Education and their Situation in the Labour Market. Prague, National Institute for Vocational Education, 2001.

2.5 Number of applications, applicants, admitted and enrolled students at universities – 1989/90-2000/01

	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/01
Number of applications	51,4	70,8	106,6	141,1	144,5	156,7	178,0	232,1	260,6	256,3	233,8	208,2
Applicants	51,4	59,5	55,0	65,7	66,8	70,3	78,1	96,8	107,0	107,2	104,4	103,5
Number of admitted students	26,7	27,5	23,9	29,6	31,8	36,3	40,3	44,0	44,5	45,2	47,4	45,3
Number of enrolled students	26,7	27,5	23,9	23,9	27,6	34,1	38,1	41,3	41,9	43,2	44,6	43,7

Note: The data covers all forms and types of studies

Source: Institute of Information on Education

2.6 Capacity of schools, number of study places

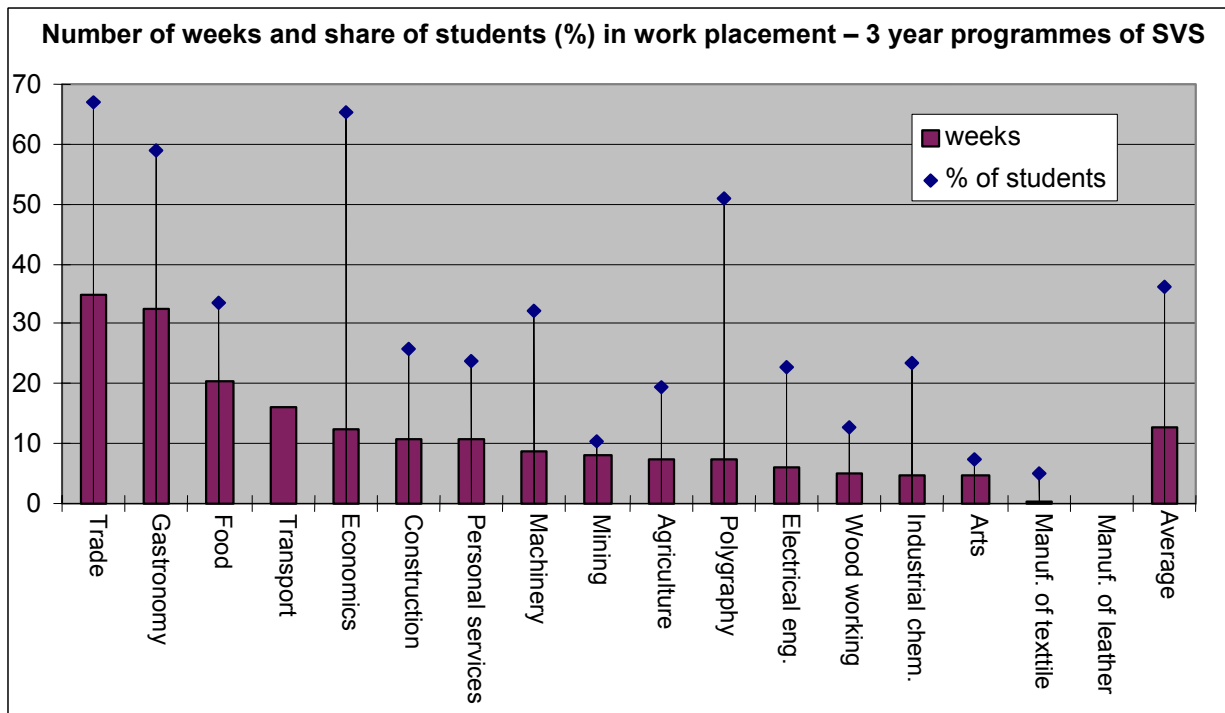
Capacity of schools as of 30 September 2000

Area	All founders			15-18 age group 2000	Proportion of school capacity in 15-18 age group			
	G	STS	SVS, 1)		G	STS	SVS, 1)	Total
The Czech Republic	134 023	235 225	249 548	544 807	24,6%	43,2%	45,8%	113,6%
Prague	21 002	36 092	25 735	54 522	38,5%	66,2%	47,2%	151,9%
The city of Prague	21 002	36 092	25 735	54 522	38,5%	66,2%	47,2%	151,9%
Central Bohemia	12 125	20 636	20 035	57 791	21,0%	35,7%	34,7%	91,4%
Central Bohemian region	12 125	20 636	20 035	57 791	21,0%	35,7%	34,7%	91,4%
South-West	14 851	26 308	30 945	62 428	23,8%	42,1%	49,6%	115,5%
Budějovice region	8 408	15 414	18 045	33 932	24,8%	45,4%	53,2%	123,4%
Plzeň region	6 443	10 894	12 900	28 496	22,6%	38,2%	45,3%	106,1%
North-West	12 029	25 404	28 470	61 438	19,6%	41,3%	46,3%	107,3%
Karlovy Vary region	3 670	6 552	7 056	16 479	22,3%	39,8%	42,8%	104,8%
Ústí n/Labem region	8 359	18 852	21 414	44 959	18,6%	41,9%	47,6%	108,2%
North-East	17 270	33 826	36 724	79 116	21,8%	42,8%	46,4%	111,0%
Liberec region	4 832	8 748	10 795	22 986	21,0%	38,1%	47,0%	106,0%
Hradec Králové region	6 618	12 619	15 313	28 605	23,1%	44,1%	53,5%	120,8%
Pardubice region	5 820	12 459	10 616	27 525	21,1%	45,3%	38,6%	105,0%
South-East	23 846	37 879	40 328	91 157	26,2%	41,6%	44,2%	112,0%
Jihlava region	6 503	12 000	12 378	29 494	22,0%	40,7%	42,0%	104,7%
Brno region	17 343	25 879	27 950	61 663	28,1%	42,0%	45,3%	115,4%
Central Moravia	16 536	26 655	35 542	68 231	24,2%	39,1%	52,1%	115,4%
Olomouc regio	10 105	12 571	18 912	34 956	28,9%	36,0%	54,1%	119,0%
Zlín region	6 431	14 084	16 630	33 275	19,3%	42,3%	50,0%	111,6%
Ostravsko	16 364	28 425	31 769	70 124	23,3%	40,5%	45,3%	109,2%
Ostrava region	16 364	28 425	31 769	70 124	23,3%	40,5%	45,3%	109,2%

Note: 1) including vocational schools for students with special learning needs

Source: Statistical Yearbook on Education, Institute of Information on Education, 2000

2.7 The length of work placements of SVS students in companies



Source: Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J. – Hrešan, J.: A survey concerning work placements in three – and four-year SVS courses. Prague, National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education, 2000.

Note: SVS = secondary vocational school

The data was obtained within the survey conducted among 157 SVSs and relates to year 1999-2000.

The indicator illustrates the length of placements (in weeks) which students of individual groups of SVS programmes spent in companies during the three years of their studies. An additional indicator states the percentage of students out of their total number in the relevant group who participated in the placements.

2.8 Partnerships between schools and companies

Percentage of employers co-operating with schools in the following areas

	SVS	STS, G	Universities	Total, 1)
Work placements	29	39	18	60
Visits, excursions	22	24	10	38
Observation of employees in their workplace	18	21	10	35
Involvement in student assessment	15	17	8	30
Lending resources to schools	11	10	3	19
Sponsoring schools	8	13	2	18
Placements of teachers in workplaces	11	9	4	18
Sponsoring individual rewards for students	7	7	2	14
Lectures, discussions in schools	5	7	5	13
Observation of teachers by employees	3	5	3	9
Teaching of special issues	3	5	3	9
Membership in school councils	3	4	1	7

Note: 1) Total = cooperation in the relevant area regardless of school type

SVS = secondary vocational school

STS = secondary technical school

G = gymnasium (general education)

Source: Opinions and Needs of Employers. Prague, AMD 1998.

The data was obtained in a survey among 820 companies.

2.9 Computers in schools

Number of students per one computer at secondary schools

Country	Student/computer ratio in the country	Student/computer ratio	Students using computers in %
Belgium (French com.)*	26	33,2	42,0
The Czech Republic	10	17,4	79,0
France	7	10,9	73,0
Iceland	11	17,0	79,0
Italy*	14	24,4	68,0
Luxembourg	12	16,3	72,0
Norway	4	5,8	85,0

Explanatory notes:

Column 1: The total number of students divided by the total number of computers in all schools in the country (irrespective of whether they use computers for teaching or not).

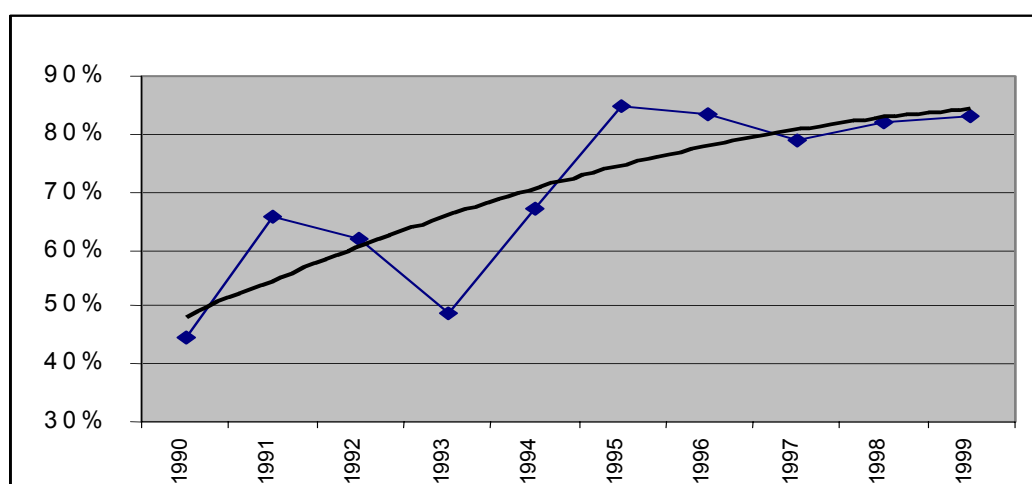
Column 2: The total number of students in schools divided by the total number of computers. National averages were calculated only in schools which use computers in teaching.

Column 3: The percentage of students in the school who use computers. National averages were calculated only in schools using computers for teaching.

* : The country did not meet all selection criteria.

Source: [Computers in basic and secondary schools](#). Results of the SITES international survey. Prague, Institute of Information on Education, 2000.

Percentage of educational programmes involving computer science

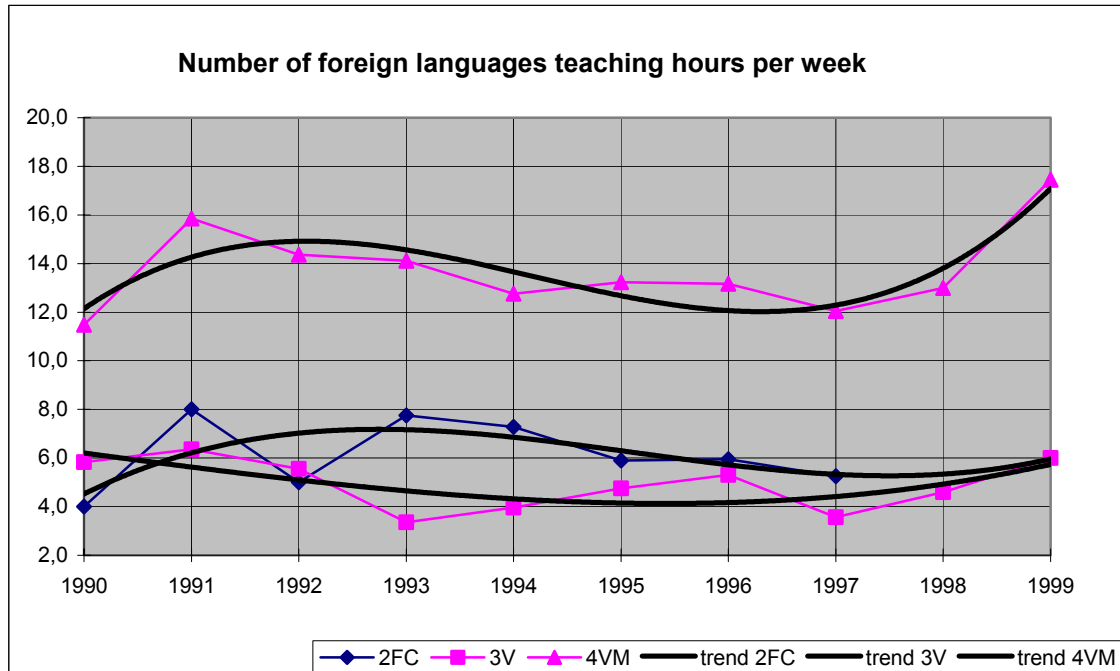


Note: The indicator describes the development concerning the inclusion of computer science into educational programmes at secondary schools (SVS and STS) approved in the respective years. The data relates to programmes approved by the MoEYS between 1990-1999.

Source: Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J.: Analysis of educational programmes in terms of employability of graduates.

Working texts within the project "Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market : Analysis and Outlook". Prague, Institute of Information on Education, 2000

2.10 Teaching of foreign languages in VET schools



Notes:

The graph illustrates the development of average numbers of foreign language teaching set out in the relevant curricula and approved in individual years. Apart from the actual average numbers, the graph also illustrates the trend developments for these average values.

The data relates to educational programmes approved by the MoEYS in 1990-1999.

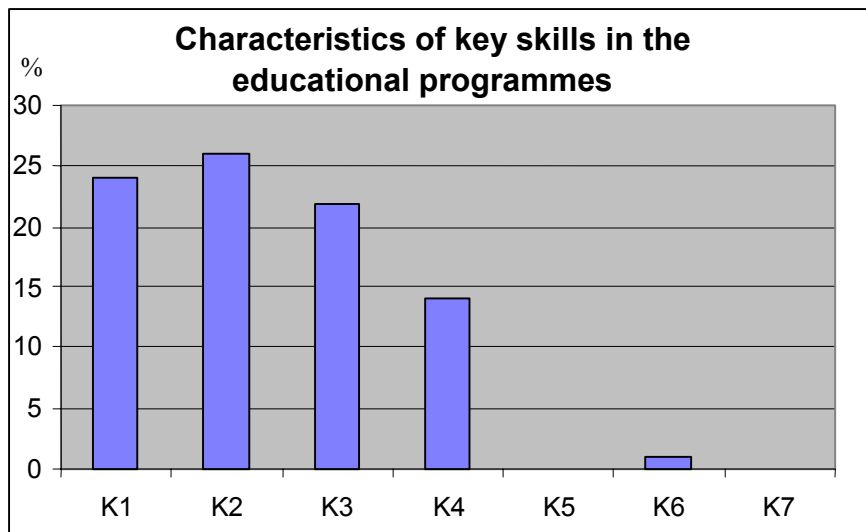
2FC = two year follow-up courses

3V = 3 year vocational programmes without maturita

4VM = 4 year technical and vocational programmes with maturita

Source: Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J.: Analysis of educational programmes in terms of employability of graduates. Working materials within the project "Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market: Analysis and Outlook". Prague, Institute of Information on Education 2000. 67 pages.

2.11 Ways of incorporation of key skills into the curricula



Note: The graph shows percentage of educational programmes, in which key skills are described. Always it is a characteristics of all key skills just as they are defined in Standard of secondary vocational education (communication, personal, interpersonal skills, solution of the problems, exploitation of informational technologies, numerical applications).

Legend:

K1 - tables stating in which subjects key skills will be developed	<u>Simple way</u> : simple incorporation of key skills in the framework of school subjects
K2 - the relevant formulation in the graduate profile or within the description (characteristics) of the programme	
K3 - the relevant formulation in the description of individual subjects	
K4 - an example of a project for the implementation of key skills	<u>More exact way</u> : incorporation of key skills by project teaching signifies the change of school strategies and partly also changes in organisation of school teaching. "Project weeks" are temporal periods, in which the work is concentrate on projects and presentation of project outcomes to the public
K6 - inclusion of "project weeks"	
K5 - independent modules to develop certain key skills	<u>Specific way</u> : separate modules that enable development of key skills are occurred only in branches, where specific training is needed eg. in communication skills (trade etc.)
K7 - other	

2.12 Entrepreneurial Skills

Numbers of students admitted to 1st years of „Business“ courses“

Full-time courses As of 15 October of the respective year	1998		1999		2000	
	number	% ¹⁾	number	% ¹⁾	number	% ¹⁾
STS	5619	11,0%	2764	5,7%	2803	5,7%
SVS with “maturita”	106	1,3%	16	0,2%	20	0,3%
Follow-up courses for graduates of three-	6253	42,9%	307	30,4%	3815	42,2%
HPS	686	5,3%	575	4,6%	279	3,7%

Source: Vojtěch, J.: The Distribution and Numbers of Students in the System of Educational Routes in Secondary and Higher Professional Education and Their Situation in the Labour Market. Prague, National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education, 2001.

Notes: 1) % of the total student numbers in 1st years in all courses

STS = secondary technical school

SVS = secondary vocational school

Follow-up courses = courses for graduates of three year SVS programmes without “maturita”

HPS = higher professional school

The indicator states the numbers of students in programmes specifically focused on entrepreneurship.

Number of programmes which include business-oriented and entrepreneurial knowledge and skills

Year	The number of newly approved programmes in the respective year	The number of programmes focused on business out of the total newly approved progr.	
		number	%
Total 1990-99	591	186	31,5
1990	76	10	13,2
1991	38	19	50
1992	58	19	32,8
1993	84	29	34,5
1994	70	28	40
1995	66	50	75,8
1996	67	17	25,4
1997	52	4	7,7
1998	39	2	5,1
1999	41	8	19,5

Source: Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J.: Analysis of educational programmes in terms of employability of graduates.

Working materials within the project “The Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market: Analysis and Outlook”. Prague, Institute of Information on Education, National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education, 2000.

Note: The indicator states the percentage of educational programmes which, according to the opinions of respondents, prepare for business and entrepreneurial activities.

2.13 Numbers of “core branches” (groups of related programmes) and programmes

Category	Education achieved	ISCED97	Number of “core branches”	Of which empty	Number of study programmes	The ration of study programmes to “core branches”	Number of active “core branches”	Number of active study programmes
A	No education	0						
B	Incomplete basic education	1						
C	Basic education	2	1	0	2	2	1	2
D	Lower secondary education	2	1	0	1	1	1	1
E	Lower secondary vocational education	2	134	61	238	3,3	44	84
H	Secondary vocational education with vocational qualification	3C	139	6	432	3,2	90	189
J	Secondary general or secondary vocational education without “maturita” and vocational qualification	3C	84	65	39	2,1	4	6
K	Full secondary general education with “maturita”	3A	2	0	17	8,5	1	13
L	Full secondary vocational education with vocational qualification and “maturita”	3A	88	11	401	5,2	37	106
M	Full secondary vocational education with “maturita” (without vocational qualification)	3A	99	3	674	7	73	249
N	Higher professional education	5B	59	8	269	5,3	45	181
R	Bachelor degree	5A,5B						
T	University education	5A						
V	Doctoral degree	6						
Total			607	155	2073	4,6	296	828

Notes: A “core branch” : a nominal unit for classification of study programmes which consists of related study programmes

Empty “core branch” : a nominal unit which does not include any programmes in the relevant category

Study programme: a specific programme describe by means of approved curricula

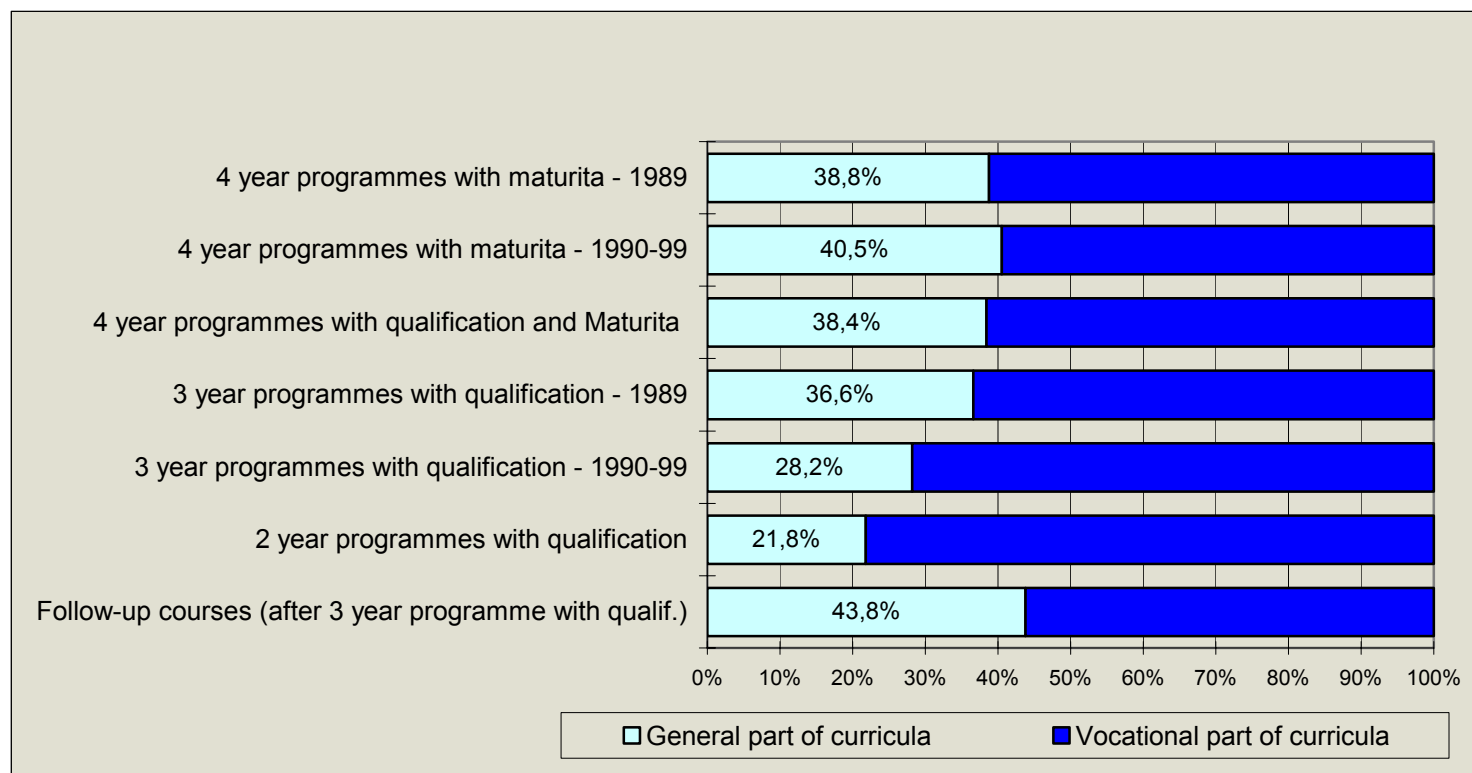
Active “core branch”: includes at least one study programme which is actively taught in schools

An active study programmes: a programme which is actively taught in schools.

The indicator shows the categories of “core branches” (i.e. groups of related programmes), the number of “core branches” in the respective categories, the average number of study programmes in the relevant “core branch”. It also illustrates so-called active “core branches” and programmes (those which are actually taught in schools). The data about study programmes relate to 1999/2000. In reality, schools provide the total of 828 study programmes, although the MoEYS approved a far higher number.

Source: Classification of Core Branches in Education. A measure of the Czech Statistical Office of 16 June 1998. The database of study programmes of National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education, 2000.

2.14 Proportion of general education in study programmes (in %)



Source: Kofroňová, O. - Vojtěch, J.: Analysis of educational programmes in terms of employability of graduates. Working materials within the project “The Position of School Graduates in the Labour Market: Analysis and Outlook”. Prague, Institute of Information on Education, National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education 2000.

Note: The data relates to programmes approved by the MoEYS in 1998-1999.

TABLES FOR CHAPTER 3

3.1 Number of secondary schools and schools providing part-time courses for adults

	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Total number of schools	2 199	2 216	2 145	2 190	2 108
Schools providing part-time courses for adults	562	647	654	588	520
%	25,6	29,2	30,5	26,8	24,7

Sources: Statistical Yearbooks of Education, Indicators of Performance. Prague: Institute for Information on Education 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000.

3.2 Number of adults in part-time courses at secondary schools

	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Total number of students	701 217	576 681	550 390	507 437	513 688
Number of adults in part-time courses	42 122	44 573	45 811	38 154	30 592
%	6,0	7,7	8,3	7,5	6,0

Sources: Statistical Yearbooks of Education, Indicators of Performance. Prague: Institute for Information on Education 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000.

3.3 Number of adult part-time students at tertiary education establishments

	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Total number of all students	136 889	152 602	185 899	212 311	224 566
Number of adult part-time students	13 429	15 839	19 293	28 854	31 275
%	9,8	10,3	10,3	13,6	13,9

Sources: Statistical Yearbooks of Education, Indicators of Performance. Prague: Institute for Information on Education 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000.

3.4 Structure of re-qualification courses providers accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (in %)

	1995	1997	1998	1999
Private training firms	78,0	65,6	74,3	72,0
Schools	10,6	26,1	16,5	20,0
Enterprises	7,6	6,7	6,6	5,6
Other	3,8	1,6	2,6	2,4
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Palán, Zdeněk: Survey of requalification activities of institutions accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 1999. Prague: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports 2000.

3.5 Participation of disadvantaged groups in requalification courses

	Requalification		Unemployment		Participation ratio (b)/(d)
	(a) No	(b) %	(c) No	(d) %	
Total number of unemployed in CR	32 811	100,0	457 369	100,0	1,00
Disadvantaged groups:					
Women	18 248	55,6	229 804	50,2	1,11
Graduates and youthful	6 737	20,5	56 426	12,3	1,66
Disabled people	1 911	5,8	58 199	12,7	0,46
Long term unemployed (above 12 months)	7 069	21,7	175 563	38,4	0,57
Low qualified	3 929	12,0	144 592	31,6	0,62

Source: Rákoczyová, M. – Sirovátka, T.: Analýza cílenosti rekvalifikací (“Analysis of Targeted Retraining”). Praha, Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs, 2001.

TABLES FOR CHAPTER 4:

Source: Labour Market Yearbook, Active Employment Policy Analysis – publications annually published by MoLSA

4.1 Indicators related to selected areas

		1991	1993	1995	1997	1999	2000
Area: Employment and unemployment							
Employment: Yearly average (<i>in thousands</i>)		n.a.	4 873,5	4 962,6	4 936,5	4 764,1	4 731,6
Employment by sector							
	- primary (agriculture, forestry)	n.a.	375,0	325,7	284,4	247,3	240,7
	- secondary (industry, construction)	n.a.	2 092,8	2 076,3	2 031,2	1 912,0	1 868,4
	- tertiary (services)	n.a.	2 405,7	2 560,6	2 620,9	2 604,8	2 622,5
Unemployment rate (<i>in %</i>) (<i>end of the period</i>)							
By Sex	- Males	n.a.	3,2	3,1	4,2	7,6	6,8
(<i>end of the period</i>)	- Females	n.a.	4,7	4,5	6,9	10,7	10,2
By Age	- 15 – 19	n.a.	12,1	12,3	20,2	33,0	35,7
(<i>end of the period</i>)	- 20 – 24	n.a.	5,5	4,5	7,3	14,8	14,4
	- 25 – 29	n.a.	4,9	3,9	6,1	9,6	8,8
	- 30 – 34	n.a.	3,8	3,2	5,7	9,3	8,2
	- 35 – 39	n.a.	2,8	3,1	4,8	7,2	6,9
	- 40 – 44	n.a.	2,7	2,5	4,3	6,8	6,0
	- 45 – 49	n.a.	2,5	2,3	3,8	7,3	6,6
	- 50 – 54	n.a.	2,2	2,0	3,5	6,4	6,5
	- 55 – 59	n.a.	1,7	2,3	2,8	5,2	4,5
	- 60 – 64	n.a.	5,1	3,6	4,3	3,9	5,6
	- 65 or more	n.a.	2,3	3,4	4,3	4,1	2,4
By Region	Total Czech Republic (ILO)	n.a.	4,3	4,0	4,8	8,7	10,6
(<i>yearly average</i>)	- Capital Prague	n.a.	3,5	2,5	2,4	4,0	5,0
	- Central Bohemia	n.a.	4,4	3,8	3,8	8,0	10,0
	- South-West Bohemia	n.a.	3,7	2,8	3,8	6,5	7,6
	- North-West Bohemia	n.a.	4,7	6,2	8,4	13,3	15,3
	- North-East Bohemia	n.a.	4,0	3,6	4,0	7,7	8,5
	- South-East Bohemia	n.a.	4,3	3,4	3,8	8,2	9,6
	- Central Moravia	n.a.	4,5	4,4	4,8	9,6	13,3
	- Ostravsko	n.a.	5,8	5,8	8,0	13,0	16,9
Average number of registered unemployed		141484	155214	155571	219502	443171	469967
Unemployment rate (<i>in %</i>)		3,0*	3,0	3,0	4,3	8,5	9,0
Area: Employment services capacity							
Employment services administration costs (<i>in thousand CZK</i>)		615 900	938 100	1 292 300	1 386 900	1 736 350	1 621 476

	relation to employment policy costs (<i>in %</i>)	25,1	43,3	53,5	34,9	22,8	17,8
	relation to GDP	0,08	0,09	0,09	0,08	0,09	0,09
Number of Employment services staff (recounted)		2688	4343	4565	4415	4690	4900
Relation client/staff of LO		52,6	35,7	34,1	49,7	94,5	93,3
Area: Employment policy structure							
Active employment policy (AEP) expenses by program (<i>ths. CZK</i>)		773 000	749 408	634 791	551 995	1 921 750	3 406 153
	Relation to GDP	0,10	0,07	0,05	0,03	0,10	0,18
Share of AEP on the total expenditure on the employment policy (<i>in %</i>)		31,5	34,6	26,3	13,9	25,2	37,5
Participants in AEP programmes		70 342	44 858	37 474	30 745	66 707	62 770
Number of placed by Employment services into the job from the total number of unemployed		.	28,6	23,7	13,8	15,1	19,8
Area: Employment policy results							
Number of participants in motivation courses to number of long-term unemployed	
Number of participants in programmes for graduates to the number of unemployed graduates		.	39,2	28,1	10,6	15,8	17,8
Number of participants of programmes for disabled to the number of unemployed disabled		.	5,5	3,2	1,4	1,8	2,3

4.2 Socially purposeful jobs – number of job seekers in thousands

Year	Newly placed job seekers	Excluded job seekers (subsidy finished)	Average number in a given year	Average costs of one filled vacancy (ths.CZK) 1)	Average rate of unemployment
1992	82,3	17,9	89,2	14,3	3,1
1993	12,2	41,8	90,6	22,8	3,0
1994	9,9	41,3	57,6	25,6	3,3
1995	6,6	22,2	33,6	27,4	3,0
1996	4,1	12,9	19,3	28,4	3,1
1997	2,9	9,2	11,9	25,2	4,3
1998	8,1	5,1	10,5	22,9	6,0
1999	15,8	7,1	16,7	34,0	8,5
2000	26,7	13,6	28,5	36,3	9,0

Notes: 1) Average costs per 1 workplace are counted as a share of total costs paid by labour offices to a sum of newly placed job seekers. The counting is simplified – subsidies do not have to be paid at once, part of it might be given back to the labour office etc. However, in the long run it has certain explanation power.

4.3 Work experience of school leavers and young people – number of persons in thousands

Year	Newly placed job seekers	Excluded job seekers (subsidy finished)	Average number in a given year	Average costs of one filled vacancy (ths.CZK) 1)	Average number of unemployed school leavers
1993	7,4	11,9	9,4	30,0	20,1
1994	6,8	7,3	6,2	18,1	19,9
1995	5,3	6,7	5,5	21,4	18,9
1996	5,0	5,4	4,5	19,7	22,7
1997	3,5	4,9	3,9	27,1	33,9
1998	9,2	4,2	4,9	18,8	51,9
1999	10,9	9,6	9,3	27,4	69,4
2000	11,3	10,6	9,9	31,2	58,5

Notes: 1) Average costs per 1 workplace are counted as a share of total costs paid by labour offices to a sum of newly placed job seekers. The counting is simplified – subsidies do not have to be paid at once, part of it might be given back to the labour office etc. However, in the long run it has certain explanation power.

4.4 Public utility jobs – number of persons in thousands

Year	Newly placed job seekers	Average number of job seekers per year	Average length of placement on public utility job (in months)	Average yearly costs per one job seeker on public utility job (in thousands)	Average monthly costs per one job seeker on public utility job (in thousands) ¹⁾
1992	25,5	11,4	2,4	7,7	3,6
1993	11,8	6,1	5,5	13,2	2,4
1994	12,9	6,2	5,8	13,7	2,4
1995	10,8	5,9	6,5	16,6	2,7
1996	10,3	5,6	6,5	20,2	3,0
1997	11,9	5,7	5,9	19,1	3,2
1998	11,9	6,9	7,2	25,5	3,3
1999	16,1	9,6	7,6	32,6	4,3
2000	20,0	12,7	8,0	38,5	4,8

Note: ¹⁾ Average annual costs: average length of placement on public utility job

4.5 Retraining - number of persons in thousands

Year	Newly placed job-seekers in retraining courses	Excluded from retraining course ¹⁾	Placed after retraining	Rate of successfulness ²⁾	Average annual number of job seekers in retraining	Average length of retraining (months)	Average annual costs per 1 retrainee (in thousands) ³⁾
1992	17,6	18,4	10,0	54,3	4,3	2,9	5,5
1993	12,1	12,5	6,2	49,6	2,6	2,5	6,1
1994	14,8	15,2	6,5	42,8	2,8	2,3	7,0
1995	13,5	14,0	11,0	78,6	2,5	2,2	7,4
1996	12,1	12,1	10,2	84,3	2,2	2,2	7,6
1997	11,5	11,9	9,3	78,2	2,2	2,2	7,9
1998	16,4	15,5	6,9	44,5	2,3	1,7	9,0
1999	22,9	22,1	9,3	42,1	3,3	1,8	10,3
2000	33,3	32,3	13,7	42,3	4,7	1,7	10,4

Notes: 1) Number of people who quit (finish) a retraining course in a given year.

2) Percentage to the excluded (column 4 to column 3).

3) Average annual costs per 1 retrained are counted as a share of overall costs of retraining to a year sum of newly placed into retraining courses.

4.6 Jobs for people with disabilities in sheltered workshops and workplaces

Year	Number of created jobs of this kind in a given year	Average costs per 1 workplace created (in thousands)	Number of job seekers with disabilities at the end of year (in thousands)	Rate of unemployment of people with disabilities at the end of the year (%)
1992	1415		15,5	6,8
1993	1005	23,7	20,0	8,8
1994	851	40,2	22,0	11,6
1995	824	32,2	22,7	11,2
1996	622	28,4	31,5	17,2
1997	530	30,0	40,5	24,1

1998	920	54,9	49,0	28,6
1999	1059	55,7	57,6	37,2
2000	1434	40,1	59,0	39,6