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VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT SERVICES IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

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PREFACE

This country monograph is the result of a request from the European Commission (Directorate General for Employment and Social Affairs) in the context of the Employment Policy Reviews launched by the latter in the candidate countries in 1999. According to this request, the key aim of the country monographs is to provide up to date, detailed information and analysis on the vocational education and training systems and structures as well as on the public and private employment services in order to support the monitoring of the Joint Assessment Papers (JAP) on Employment Priorities. This analysis is considered to provide a useful input enabling the candidate countries and the Commission to identify the most important needs and gaps.

In particular, the analysis aims to provide:

1. an instrument to assess the progress made by the countries to increase the responsiveness of their education and training systems to labour market needs - this assessment addresses particularly the challenges and priorities related to the development of lifelong learning;
2. a tool to assess the effectiveness of the public and private employment services to assist both young and adult unemployed people and those threatened by unemployment to enter the labour market; and
3. a basis for positioning the development trends of these systems in relation to those in EU member states.

The work has been conducted by a team of national, EU and ETF experts, under the responsibility of the ETF and with the support of the National Observatory. The method of work combined the use of desk research and field visits in the capital and also in some selected regions. The final document has been prepared by the ETF and therefore reflects primarily its viewpoint.

The preparation of the monographs has also benefited from a close consultation process with representatives of the national authorities who were invited to provide their opinion on the final draft. In addition, a seminar was organised on 27 September 2002 in Brussels with the aim of presenting and discussing the documents with the national authorities of the candidate countries as well as with the European Commission. This monograph also reflects the outcomes of this seminar and further discussions and comments from the countries.

The document makes use of quantitative indicators from international institutions as well as national sources. As discussed during the 27 September meeting, it should be acknowledged that in relation to indicators used in the EU, some data are still missing, others might refer to different realities. Therefore, figures must be interpreted with caution taking into account that statistics should be complemented by more qualitative assessments. Further analytical work will be needed to improve the picture and in particular the positioning of developments in the country towards developments in the EU.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The country monograph on vocational education and training and employment services provides baseline information and analysis aiming to identify the progress in implementing the priorities identified in the Joint Assessment Paper on Employment Policy agreed between the government of the Czech Republic and the European Commission. Current EU policies based on the Lisbon conclusions, such as the lifelong learning initiative, and the European Employment Strategy set the framework for the analysis.

1. THE CONTEXT

1.1 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

- During the early 1990s, the Czech Republic managed to maintain a relatively stable macro-economic climate despite the ongoing structural transformation. In 1996, economic growth slowed down to 4.3% compared to +5.9% in 1995. The following recession period (-0.8% in 1997, -1.2% in 1998, -0.4% in 1999) was followed by an economic upturn (GDP +2.9% in 2000, compared to 3.3% EU average¹).
- GDP per capita increased from €12,000 in 1997 (equivalent to 63% of the EU average) to €13,500 in 2000, compared to an EU average of €22,530.
- The shares of different sectors in GDP changed between 1990 and 2000²:

Structure of GDP in 1990* (%)		Structure of GDP in 2000* (%)	
Agriculture and forestry	8.2	Agriculture and forestry	3.9
Industry	36.6	Industry	32.8
Construction	10.8	Construction	6.8
Services	44.4	Services	56.1

* measured as share in Gross Value Added

1.2 KEY EMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR MARKET DEVELOPMENTS

- The economic downturn in the late nineties resulted in a **considerable increase in unemployment**. Following a period of remarkably low unemployment in the first half of the 1990s, the unemployment rate reached 5% in December 1997; in January 1999 it rose to over 8% and has remained at a level of around 9.0% ever since, apart from some seasonal changes. There are large regional disparities in unemployment, caused to a large extent by the specific economic profile and industrial structure of each region.
- The ratio of unemployed university graduates continues to be considerably lower than that of upper secondary school graduates (April 2000: university graduates: 5.4%, higher professional school graduates: 11.5%, compared to secondary technical schools³: 16.1%, secondary vocational schools (SVS)⁴ **with maturita**: 17.8%, secondary

1 Statistical Yearbook on Candidate and South-East European Countries, Eurostat 2001.

2 Czech Statistical Office.

3 Schools providing mainly 4-year programmes, leading to maturita.

4 Schools providing mainly 3-year programmes without maturita, leading to a skilled worker qualification.

vocational schools **without *maturita***: 26.4%, secondary general schools: 10.5%⁵).

- **Activity rates are declining** (61.6% in 1994, 61.0% in 1999, 60.4% in 2000), particularly for women (52.6% in 1994, 52.1% in 1999, 51.6% in 2000)⁶. The most significant drop can be observed for young people under 20 (from ca. 35% in 1994 to 21% in 1999 and 15% in 2000)⁷, which reflects longer periods of school attendance and higher participation rates in education.

1.3 DEMOGRAPHIC DEVELOPMENT

- **The Czech population is ageing.** The mid 1990s saw a change from natural population increase (+1.4 in 1990) to natural decrease (-18.1 in 2000)⁸ due to a dramatic decline in birth rates. According to data provided by the Czech Statistical Office, the number of 15-24 year olds was 1,555,897 in 1990 and decreased to 1,535,466 in 2000 (by 1%)⁹. According to projections, this age group will further decrease to 1,220,675 by 2010¹⁰ (i.e. by ca. 20%). During the same period, the number of persons aged over 60 will increase dramatically (from 1,893,792 to 2,799,644, i.e. by ca. 50%)¹¹.

2. FOUNDATIONS FOR LIFELONG LEARNING

The issues outlined above underpin **new needs for lifelong learning**. Although the current education and training policy already incorporates some of the basic

building blocks for lifelong learning, a comprehensive approach does not exist. This became evident also in last year's consultation process on the Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning.

Links between initial and continuing training are still weak. This is due to a number of factors such as limited co-operation between the ministries in charge (the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs); the lack of co-operation between the two separate major guidance and counselling services under the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports' and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs' responsibility; the absence of mechanisms for accreditation of prior learning and certification of skills obtained on the basis of work experience.

Among education and training options for adults, the possibility to take up part-time studies leading to recognised qualifications within the public education system free of charge is an incentive for re-entering education and training.

2.1 PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

- **Educational attainment levels are high.** 86% of the 25-64 age group have completed at least upper secondary education (including 44% without *maturita*), compared to an EU average of 59.9%¹² (1999 figure). However, only 11% of the same age group have attained tertiary education, compared to an EU average of 20.5%¹³.

5 Unemployed graduates, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, April 2000. Quoted in: *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory, 2001.

6 as percentage of the given group in total. Labour Force Survey, Czech Statistical Office.

7 *ibid.*

8 National Observatory Key Indicators 2001. Source: Age Structure of the Population, Czech Statistical Office. 1990 data are from the census 1991.

9 *ibid.*

10 Human Resources in the Czech Republic 1999, Institute for Information in Education and National Training Fund, 2000, Table A.7.

11 Population forecast until 2030, Czech Statistical Office.

12 Eurostat data 1999.

13 Eurostat data 1999.

- Participation rates of students in upper secondary education (ISCED 3) are **traditionally high** (ca. 95%) up to the age of 17, but drops dramatically from 18 years of age onwards (55% of 18 year olds, 37% of 19 year olds, 1999 figures¹⁴). Vocational education and training plays an important role with 81.5% of basic school graduates entering vocational schools. This is among the highest rates in Europe.
- Over the previous years there has been a **shift towards education programmes leading to higher qualifications**. Entry into upper secondary general schools preparing for *maturita* and tertiary education is slowly increasing (18.5% in 2000/2001 compared to ca. 15% in 1996). In 2000/01, 36.4% entered secondary technical schools and 45.2% opted for secondary vocational schools¹⁵. The share of students in courses leading to *maturita* is approximately 59% compared to 43% in 1989.
- The **net entry rate to tertiary education is still low** at 23%, compared to 58% in Hungary, 59% in Poland and an OECD country average of 45%¹⁶ despite efforts to increase access to tertiary education (+37% between 1995 and 1999). This is mainly due to limited absorption capacity in tertiary education institutions, which leads to the rejection of ca. 50% of all applicants. This leads to a low enrolment rate of 12.9% for the age group 20-29, compared to an OECD country average of 20.7%¹⁷. Czech sources indicate that ca. 9% of secondary school graduates entered higher professional schools in 1999/2000.
- There is **no specific policy to counteract early school leaving** (estimated at 4-5%¹⁸) or to support reintegration of dropouts into mainstream education. Dropout rates are estimated at 1.3% for general secondary schools, 4% for secondary technical schools and 6.5% for secondary vocational schools (1999)¹⁹.
- **Participation of adults in part-time studies** within the formal education and training system continues to play a significant role. These study programmes normally lead to nationally recognised qualifications. While the number of adult participants in part-time programmes at ISCED 3 level has been decreasing from 42,122 in 1995/96 to 30,592 in 1999/00 and 29,833 in 2000/01, the number of adult part-time students at tertiary level institutions has been steadily increasing from 13,429 in 1995/96 to 31,275 in 1999/00 and 59,083 in 2000/01²⁰.
- According to the **IALS (International Adult Literacy Survey) 1998/99**, 27% of the Czech population aged 25 to 64 years participated in continuing training, compared to 18% in Hungary, 22% in Italy and 48% in Norway²¹.
- According to the **Eurostat CVTS 2, in-service** continuing training plays an important role in the Czech Republic and ranks first among candidate countries. 69% of enterprises provide continuing training, compared to 48% in Slovenia, 37% in Hungary, and 11% in Romania. Compared to EU Member States, the figures for the Czech Republic are similar to those of Austria with 72%, Luxembourg with 71% and Belgium with 70%, but lower than the figures for Denmark (96%), the

14 *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory, 2001.

15 Vojtech, 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*, National Institute for Vocational Education, 2001.

16 *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table C3.1.

17 *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table C1.2.

18 Institute for Information on Education, 1999.

19 *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory, 2001.

20 *Statistical Yearbooks of Education 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000*, Indicators of Performance, Institute for Information on Education, Prague. These figures include participants in distance education and special further education courses provided by universities.

21 *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table C6.1b.

Netherlands (88%) and Ireland (79%). Only Spain with 36% and Portugal with 22% lag behind considerably. The **participation rate** is 49%, compared to 46% in Slovenia, 26% in Hungary and 20% in Romania. Compared to EU Member States, the Czech Republic is placed in the centre (Denmark 55%, Ireland 52%, Belgium 54%, Austria 35%, Spain 44%). The participation rate of women is lower (41%) than that of men (53%).

- Although **the system of public employment services is well established, active labour market measures in general and training for unemployed are not sufficiently developed**, compared to EU member states with similar unemployment rates. The increase in numbers of participants in re-training measures from 11,352 in 1993 to 22,136 in 1999 and 32,260 in 2000²² can be explained by growing unemployment, but altogether, the share of trainees in the number of unemployed was only about 7% in 2000.

2.2 FINANCIAL RESOURCES

- **Resources for education and training are limited.** Expenditure on education has decreased from 5.3% of GDP in 1993 to 4.7% of GDP in 1998 and 4.5% in 2000 (5.7% as OECD country average, 4.8% in Greece, 5.7% in Portugal)²³. This is also reflected in low teacher salaries compared to national average income (average gross wage = 100, average gross wage in education = 83.6) and inadequately equipped public training facilities.
- **An increase in public spending on education to 6 % of GDP is envisaged for 2005.** The share of education costs (except Higher Education) in the state budget decreased from 10.44% in 1994 (€1,590 million) to 8.86% (€1,898 million) in 1999. This is less than the OECD country average (14% according to OECD *Education at a Glance 2000*²⁴). As a consequence of public administration reform, the funding mechanism was modified and initial training funds are now channelled through the new regional authorities.
- Expenditure per student at upper secondary level was €3,900 in PPS (Purchasing Power Standard) (Portugal €5,600, OECD country average €6,500) in 1998. The situation was better at tertiary level with a per capita expenditure of €6,100 in PPS (OECD country average €9,900, Greece €4,500, Spain €5,500).
- **Czech enterprises spend approximately 1.9% of their labour costs** for training measures, compared to 1.3% in Slovenia, 1.2% in Hungary. In the EU, the costs for continuing training courses ranged from 1.2% in Portugal to 3.0% in Denmark²⁵.
- **Public expenditure on Employment Policy amounted to 0.52% of GDP in 2000** (€286 million), compared to 4.51% in Denmark, 3.12% in France (1999 data) and 3.13% in Germany (these countries have a similar or slightly lower unemployment rate). Expenditure on public employment service administration was 0.08% of GDP (€44 million), compared to 0.11% in Denmark, 0.17% in France and 0.23% in Germany. Funds allocated for active labour market measures in 2000 amounted to only 0.22% of GDP, equivalent to €121 million (1.23% in Germany, 1.36% in France), of which **0.02% (€11 million) was earmarked for training** (0.34% in Germany, 0.23% in France)²⁶.
- **Employment policy is funded through 'State employment policy contributions'** collected from employers and employees. They amount to 3.6% of the wage bill (ca. €575-600 million), shared between employees (0.4%) and employers (3.2%), but **only ca. 50% of the**

²² Employment Services Administration, MoLSA.

²³ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001.

²⁴ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2000.

²⁵ Eurostat CVTS2, 2001.

²⁶ *OECD Employment Outlook*, June 2001.

estimated total amount that flows into the state budget (= €286 million) is made available for employment policy.

3. INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Reform of initial vocational education and training was mainly determined by a bottom-up approach, encouraged by the liberalisation of regulatory frameworks in the early nineties. In the context of current public administration reform and the establishment of regional self-governing bodies, the responsibility for secondary education was transferred to the regional authorities. A comprehensive legal framework with a holistic approach to reform in the perspective of lifelong learning is still missing.

3.1 POLICY AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

- The medium-term **National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic (White Paper)**, drawn up under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports was approved in early 2001. It demonstrates the government's readiness to deal with education reform, including initial training, in a more strategic perspective than in the early years of transition. The overall aims of this document are in line with the proposals formulated in the **National Employment Plan** prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in 1999. Other policy documents, such as the **National Employment Action Plans** 2000 and 2001, **A Vision of the Development of the Czech Republic in 2015**, **A Strategy for Human Resources Development in the Czech Republic**, etc. have been elaborated as well. Although these papers focus primarily on wider issues, they are supposed to provide a basis for further development of the education and training system in a lifelong learning perspective.
- **The achievements at policy level are however not accompanied by the necessary adaptation of the legal framework.** Initial training is regulated by a law of 1984, which has been amended several times. Amendments in 1990 and 1995 include provision for the establishment of private and confessional schools, school autonomy and the establishment of higher professional schools. A 1998 Law on Higher Education provides for the establishment of private universities.
- **In May 2001, parliament rejected the new education bill**, which was expected to give new impetus to vocational education and training (VET) reform and to provide the basis for measures to achieve the objectives set in the various policy documents, including lifelong learning. A new fundamental legislative initiative is not likely to be taken before parliamentary elections in June 2002, and pending issues will most probably be addressed by amendments to existing legal documents.
- Based on the law on the establishment of "higher-level administrative units" (regions) which came into force on 1 January 2000, the **regional authorities were taking over responsibility for secondary and post-secondary schools.** This includes establishment and administration of educational institutions, allocation of public funds, elaboration of development plans and reporting on progress. The non-approval of the education bill and the fact that the powers and responsibilities of the new regional bodies in the area of initial training and their relation to state administration have not yet been determined precisely have an impact on progress of education and training reform.

3.2 RESOURCES

3.2.1 Teachers

- **The situation of teachers remains precarious.** Salaries and social status are low. A teacher salary in upper

secondary vocational education after 15 years of experience amounts to €11,600 PPS per year (compared to €31,000 PPS per year in Austria, €44,800 PPS per year in Germany, and an OECD country average of €31,000 PPS per year)²⁷. Female teachers predominate, particularly at lower levels of education, but this is the case also in all other OECD countries²⁸. Combined with limited career options in a demanding context, the teaching profession has become less attractive, in particular for younger and better-educated professionals.

- Continuing training for teachers suffers from limited resources. The establishment of a network of 14 pedagogical centres in the regions can be considered a step towards better co-ordination of training activities.

3.2.2 Equipment

- **Technical equipment** of school workshops in secondary technical and vocational schools and universities is largely outdated. However, **access to computers** in schools at secondary level is comparable to the EU (the Czech student/computer ratio is 17.4:1 and 79% of students use computers in school, compared to 17.0:1 and 79% in Iceland, 16.3:1 and 72% in Luxembourg)²⁹.

3.3 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION

- The liberalisation of education in the early nineties resulted in a **diversification of the education and training offer and a wider choice of programmes and pathways**, in particular through the creation of a post-secondary education level. However, the structure of the initial training system has not changed substantially. It remains rather rigid and is dominated by linear three and four-year programmes leading to narrow

professional qualifications. Modularised programmes are used only sporadically and the range of optional subjects is limited. This reduces horizontal permeability and prevents individuals from adjusting their educational pathways to personal needs.

- Numerous modernisation initiatives launched by schools, partly supported by the European Union's Phare VET Reform Programme 1994-1998 and other international donors, have resulted in a wide variety of curricula (ca. 1,000). This was the response to short-term requirements of the labour market and the demand of students and parents in the early transition phase. Due to insufficient co-ordination and support at national level, this has resulted in a lack of transparency, despite the prevalence of centralised accreditation of curricula.
- A standard curricular framework, defining a common core for all newly designed programmes, including general objectives of education and key competencies, as one of the outputs of the Phare VET Reform Programme, was supposed to alleviate the situation. However, to date only 14% of the programmes delivered by vocational schools correspond to the requirements defined in this framework. A follow-up initiative for curriculum development is under way ('Framework Educational Programmes'), adopting a competence-based, output-oriented approach and giving more space to the school-specific curriculum component.
- Nationally recognised certificates can be only obtained within the formal education system, based on non-standardised examinations that are held within individual schools. Certificates obtained in vocational schools also certify the capacity of graduates to perform practical tasks required in specific occupations. **A national qualification framework agreed in co-operation with social partners is not in place**, but an initiative of the Ministry of Labour and

²⁷ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table D1.1d

²⁸ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table D2.2

²⁹ Computers in basic and secondary schools. Results of the SITES International Survey, Institute for Information on Education, Prague, 2000.

Social Affairs to develop an integrated system of professional and occupational profiles and competency requirements can be considered a first step in this direction.

- **Research into medium- and long-term labour market developments is insufficient.**

Although a number of projects have been carried out, sound forecasting methodologies to facilitate medium-term projections of qualification requirements have not been developed yet.

- The bottom-up approach of education reform in the early 1990s has resulted in a considerable **increase of the numbers of relatively small schools** (average number of students in secondary technical school: 238, in secondary vocational school: 294 in 2000/01). In 2000/01, the teacher/student ratio was 1:8 in upper secondary schools. Combined with the extension of compulsory basic education to nine years (age 6 to 15) and demographic decline, this has caused excessive secondary school capacity redundancies that are exploited only partly for continuing vocational education and re-training. As recommended by the OECD, an optimisation process started in 1997, but it was not completed due to the decentralisation. The rationalisation of the school network remains an urgent issue.

3.4 DELIVERY

- As in most candidate countries, **social partner involvement in education and training policy and programme design is limited**, and their role has not yet been defined in specific laws. Social partner participation in the consultation on policy papers, such as the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning, is not reflected in decision-making.
- **The traditional links between schools and enterprises under the former regime no longer exist.** Industrial restructuring led to a decline of specific sectors, and many large companies were closed or reorganised. In parallel,

small and medium-sized enterprises gained importance. This development had a big impact on vocational education provision, as practical training is now almost exclusively provided in school-based workshops. This is one of the reasons why a **considerable number of participants in initial training do not obtain any real workplace experience** during their studies. If co-operation exists, it is mainly based on personal initiative.

3.5 RESPONSIVENESS OF INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING TO THE NEEDS OF THE LABOUR MARKET AND THE INDIVIDUAL

- **Guidance and counselling** – provided by educational and psychological counselling centres and school advisors under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports – focuses mainly on educational and psychological issues, and in some cases on advice related to individual educational pathways. A new subject 'Career Choice' is gradually being introduced in schools, but progress so far is limited. Career guidance and testing is provided by the services under the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Links between the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs' and the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports' counselling services are not sufficiently developed.
- **Integration of Roma population into mainstream education** (starting at pre-school age) **remains a big problem.** Some progress has been made in modifying the basic school curriculum, introducing preparatory classes, and employing Roma assistants. In 2000/2001, 110 preparatory classes had been established, accommodating 1,364 children, and 175 Roma assistants were employed to support teachers and to facilitate communication with Roma families.

- The Czech law provides for **gender equality** in schools. Males and females are more or less equally represented at secondary schools, with a slightly higher proportion of girls at secondary general schools (1998/99 enrolment: 21% of females and 17% of males in secondary general education, 79% of females and 83% of males in secondary technical and vocational education). This is similar to the situation in the EU. The predominance of either male or female students in specific programmes is not counteracted in a systematic way.
- According to a survey carried out in the Czech Republic in 2000, training components to promote **business and entrepreneurial skills** are an integral part of approximately 30% of upper secondary programmes (initial and continuing training) approved after 1990.
- The developments in initial training during the 1990s, characterised by extension and diversification of education and training provision and an evolving private training market **have at least partially contributed to making the system responsive**, both to the labour market and individual needs. This is due to the relatively stable economic and social conditions in the country, even during the transition phase, and the prompt adaptation of the education and training offer to immediate demand, such as foreign languages and information technology.

4. CONTINUING VOCATIONAL TRAINING

- The **boost of continuing training development** over the last decade can be attributed to the **emergence of a training market** in the context of economic change and has been driven both by supply and demand. The considerable expansion of continuing training provision in the early 1990s which resulted in an estimated 1,200 private training providers currently active in the market, contributed to the adaptation of the training offer as a response to newly evolving needs for re-training, updating of skills and delivering new skills and competencies.

4.1 POLICY AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

- A **coherent policy and strategic framework for continuing training is lacking**, despite references to continuing training in the National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper) 2001. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports assumes to play a crucial role in continuing training development. This was reinforced by assigning the co-ordination of consultations on the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Moreover, the National Employment Plan 1999 and the National Employment Action Plans for 2000 and 2001 contain strategic elements for continuing training development, in particular recommendations to clarify responsibilities of continuing training stakeholders and to set up basic rules for continuing training financing. The role of social partners remains limited.

4.2 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION

- The formal education and training system continues to play an important role for continuing training delivery. Part-time studies for adults in public vocational schools are free of charge for participants. They offer traditional pathways leading to recognised qualifications.
- Occasionally, public schools and universities provide short-term tailor-made courses as a service to companies or labour offices. Their share in the total number of continuing training providers is however small, but potentially such paid services could compensate for the lack of funding from public resources. In addition, a private training market has evolved, leading to a mushrooming of various training institutes.
- **Continuing training provided by companies is an important** factor (for details related to participation, see chapter 2). Enterprises also invest a substantial amount of money for staff

development (see chapter 2). Training courses for employed are delivered mainly by private training institutions. The market share of schools is negligible (secondary schools 1.4%, universities 3.7% of the total number of courses contracted out by enterprises).

- The number of participants in re-training as part of active labour market measures is low (see chapter 1). Only 7% of the unemployed participated in re-training measures in 2000.

4.3 RESPONSIVENESS OF CONTINUING TRAINING TO THE NEEDS OF THE LABOUR MARKET AND THE INDIVIDUAL

- **Responsiveness of continuing training** to individual needs depends largely on the types of programmes and training institutions. In general, it is weaker within the formal education system at secondary and tertiary level due to the relatively rigid linear structure. Modularised training courses and distance learning possibilities have not been sufficiently developed yet.
- **There is a lack of policy addressing the needs of vulnerable groups.** Measures to promote access to continuing training remain fragmented and often depend on personal initiative of labour office directors or non-governmental organisations. Re-training courses organised by labour offices continue to be the main tool to counteract social exclusion. These courses are available only for registered unemployed. Activation measures for persons with low qualifications, such as counselling services and re-integration courses are limited.
- **Guidance and counselling** provided under the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, such as the **information and counselling centres** at district labour offices and special diagnostic centres ('centres de bilan') following a French model, are not sufficiently co-ordinated with services provided by schools or specialised centres.

- **The development of targeted measures for the adult Roma population is limited** and is undertaken mainly by non-governmental organisations. Although precise data are lacking, the estimated unemployment rate of ca. 70% suggests the need for action at different levels. The Inter-Departmental Commission for Roma Issues as an advisory body to the government deals with general policy matters. Regions with a high proportion of Roma (as e.g. North West Bohemia) have developed specific employment initiatives for adult Roma, mainly to encourage a revival of traditional occupations (handicraft and trade).
- **Participation of women** in retraining and part-time courses is high, despite certain inequalities in the conditions for specifically vulnerable groups of women (particularly those on maternity leave and with small children). Participation of women in in-company training is considerably lower than that of men (41% women compared to 53% men³⁰).

5. PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

- Public employment services are well established and play an important role in the implementation of the national employment policy. However, due to budget constraints, the impact of active labour market measures is limited.

5.1 LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK

- **The legal and policy framework governing public employment services is well established.** Policies outlined in the National Employment Plan 1999 and the National Employment Action Plans 2000 and 2001 are in line with the four pillars of the European Employment Strategy and the Employment Guidelines.
- **Tasks of labour offices** include job mediation, providing information and counselling services related to career choice and qualification requirements,

³⁰ Eurostat CVTS 2, 2001.

implementing active employment policy measures, administering the register of unemployed and vacancies and managing the unemployment benefit system.

5.2 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION

■ **The Employment Service**

Administration with approximately 70 employees is a division of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. A network of public employment service offices (or labour offices) was established in 1990. It consists of 77 district labour offices that are legal entities, 56 branch offices and 116 additional permanent workplaces (i.e. micro branch offices).

- In accordance with the relevant legal provisions, these offices implement all main functions of public employment policy. The labour offices are directly subordinate to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, which controls all operations through its Employment Service Administration Department. In each of the 14 administrative regions, one labour office was appointed as regional employment policy co-ordinator.
- **Private employment services** (215 agencies in the Czech Republic) **have developed rapidly during the nineties** and have contributed to increasing labour market flexibility. Due to the non-existence of monitoring mechanisms, information on their activities is scarce and their role and market share cannot be assessed properly. Co-operation between public and private employment services takes place on an ad hoc basis. A clear policy is not in place.

5.3 RESOURCES

- Between 1991 and 2000 the number of **employment service staff** rose from 2,688 to 4,900. While the number of registered unemployed multiplied by 2.71 from 1992 to 1999, the number of

employees at labour offices multiplied only by 1.75 during that period. In addition, the scope of tasks performed by labour office staff has widened and includes also the investment incentives agenda and lay-offs in case of insolvency. **The relation labour office staff to clients has increased from 1 to 34.1 in 1995 to 1 to 93.3 in 2000.**

- Labour offices are well equipped with computers for staff and computer modules for active job search for clients, but access of clients to the Internet is limited.
- The limited scope of active labour market measures is a consequence of the increased unemployment rate after 1997, **as active and passive measures were understood as “communicating vessels” in a context of limited resources available for employment policy.** Following a peak in 1991 (70,342 people), the number of participants in active measures decreased significantly (30,745 people in 1997) and went up until 1999 (66,707 people). In 2000, 62,770 people benefited from active measures³¹. Participant inflow into labour market programmes in 2000 was 1.77% of the workforce, compared to 21% in Denmark, 4% in Germany and 10% in France (1998 figure)³².

5.4 SPECIFIC ISSUES

- **Social partners** are represented on the “advisory boards” of labour offices. However, use of their potential depends on individual labour offices, i.e. on their communication skills and partnership approach, to what extent the advisory board’s proposals can be translated into action.
- **Social exclusion is not properly counteracted** by the current legal regulations that permit unemployed, also those belonging to explicitly disadvantaged groups, to reject participation in active employment measures. The benefit schemes in place can be considered a disincentive to taking up occupational activity.

³¹ Active Employment Policy Analysis, *Labour Market Yearbook*, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Prague

³² *OECD Employment Outlook*, June 2001.

Overall, this situation deteriorates the chances of endangered groups for re-integration into the labour market.

- **Mechanisms to assess the effectiveness of active labour market measures systematically are not in place.** Effectiveness is only measured as regards labour market integration following re-training.

6. CONCLUSIONS

- According to the Joint Assessment Paper, progress is still needed with respect to modernising the vocational education and training system in a lifelong learning perspective in co-operation with social partners. Particular reference is made to transparency and responsiveness to the labour market, as well as adaptation to the demands of a knowledge-based economy and society.
- Although a more strategic approach to education and training reform has been applied over the previous two years, a comprehensive strategy for lifelong learning has not been developed yet. As a result, **links between initial and continuing training remain weak**, and access to **higher education and re-training for unemployed is not sufficiently developed.**
- However, the **National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic** (White Paper) identifies ambitious targets **in line with the Lisbon conclusions**:
 - increase expenditure on education from 4.5% to 6% of GDP in 2005;
 - increase the average salary of teachers beyond the national average wage by 2007;
 - extend the overall duration of education by two years by 2005;
 - increase the ratio of students entering general education programmes from 18.5% to 30%;
 - increase the ratio of persons with *maturita* in the overall population to 75%;
 - increase access to higher education from 23% to 53% in 2010.
- Whether these targets can be achieved within the given timeframe will depend on several factors, not least availability of funds.
- The current shortage of resources could be partly alleviated by optimising the existing ones. This relates in particular to savings that could be attained by optimising the school network. This may free up means to address the burning issue of low teacher salaries.
- Compared to other acceding and candidate countries, **progress has been slow in developing an appropriate legal framework** to ensure efficient and effective governance and to define the roles and responsibilities of key actors in education and training, **including social partners.** Moreover, the lack of adequate legal provisions hampers the completion of public administration reform, in particular with regard to decentralisation.
- Despite continued efforts to modernise the education and training system by adapting a large number of vocational curricula to the needs of the labour market and by creating new pathways to increase flexibility of education and training provision, **many qualifications provided by the formal system remain outdated.** Moreover, due to school autonomy, a lack of co-ordination at the central level, and the absence of a national qualification system, the education and training offer is largely non-transparent.
- There is a need to re-establish **systematic co-operation between vocational schools and enterprises**, involving social partners, in order to improve practical training.
- Partially, both initial and continuing training reform initiatives and enlarged provision due to establishment of numerous (private) training institutions have **contributed to enhancing employability and competitiveness.** They have mainly responded to short-term needs of the labour market and individuals, but further reform initiatives are needed to develop the formal system in a lifelong learning perspective and to achieve more flexibility in reacting to the different needs. In particular, efforts towards **social inclusion and cohesion need to be reinforced.**

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- With regard to public employment services, a necessary **policy shift towards prevention and activation** as well as more individualised services for early identification of job seekers' needs is highlighted in the Joint Assessment Paper.
- Due to limited availability of resources, it has become increasingly difficult for public employment services to deal with the high number of unemployed. Staffing bottlenecks limit the possibility to focus more intensively on individuals and hamper the development of preventive measures in co-operation with enterprises or economic sectors still to be restructured.
- Referring to the Lisbon conclusions, some of the targets have already been incorporated into relevant policy documents (increase investment in human resources development, raise the numbers of students continuing their studies at upper secondary and tertiary level, improve access to the Internet, develop new basic skills). However, the majority of the lifelong learning building blocks still need to be developed further and implemented. These include co-ordination between the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; involvement of social partners; investment in education and training, and improving access to learning, in particular for vulnerable and marginalised groups.

1. INTRODUCTION

1

The labour market in the Czech Republic has been subject to continuous change related to the restructuring of the economy, in particular the corporate sector, and development of new technologies. During the early years of transition, the country managed to maintain relatively stable macro-economic conditions including low unemployment and moderate inflation rates. Impoverishment of large segments of the population could be avoided. This was due to the fact that the inadmissible reform of the industrial structures was not sufficiently supported in the first half of the 1990s, and progress in privatisation remained slow. In 1996, economic growth slowed down to 4.3% compared to +5.9% in 1995, followed by a recession period (-0.8% in 1997, -1.2% in 1998, -0.4% in 1999). This resulted in a considerable increase in unemployment that has remained at a level of around 9% despite the economic upturn from 2000 onwards (GDP +2.9%).

Particularly in heavy industry, coal mining and quarrying, the restructuring ahead will most likely be accompanied by extensive redundancies. Avoiding a further decrease

in employment levels will pose a considerable challenge for policy makers and employment services.

Current developments in the structure of unemployed show a growing proportion of long-term unemployed. This indicates the need to reinforce active labour market policies and tools and to adapt them to newly evolving needs, both by better targeting already existing measures and by designing new ones.

On the other hand, new investors signal a lack of qualified workers with the necessary skills. Flexibility has become a crucial factor for success in the labour market. The reform of initial education increasingly needs to be in line with labour market needs and acquisition of skills to enable lifelong learning.

The differences between regional labour markets are increasing as a consequence of their unbalanced development potential, which is stabilised by low inter-regional mobility. The highest rates can be found traditionally in the districts of Most (21.6% in March 2001), Chomutov (16.6%),

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Teplice (17.5%) and Louny (16.4%) in North-West Bohemia, and in the districts of Karviná (17.7%), Ostrava - city (16.7) and Bruntál (17.1%) in Northern Moravia.

In March 2001, 16 districts out of 77 in the Czech Republic had an unemployment rate higher than 12%. The lowest rates can be found in Prague, Prague-West, Prague-East, Mladá Boleslav and Benešov (around 3%). On average, there are eight registered unemployed for one vacancy reported at public employment service offices. In some districts, this number is however higher than 30 unemployed per one vacancy, e.g. in Karviná (53.3), Teplice (47.7), Most (41.2) or Chomutov (32.1).

It will be important both to promote job creation and to increase the level of education and flexibility in the declining regions so that they become attractive for investors. Regional strategies and involvement of various regional stakeholders in employment policy will play an increasingly important role.

Population numbers were relatively stable during the nineties. In the second half of the decade, the dramatic decline of the birth rate caused a negative population growth of -18.1 per 1000 inhabitants in 2000. According to data provided by the Czech Statistical Office, the number of 15-24 year olds was 1,555,897 in 1990 and decreased to 1,535,466 in 2000 (by 1%). According to projections, this age group will further decrease to 1,220,675 by 2010 (i.e. by ca. 20%). During the same period, the number of persons aged over 60 will increase dramatically (from 1,893,792 to 2,799,644, i.e. by ca. 50%).

The task of coping with an ageing population is similar in all countries. Education will have to focus increasingly on adults and to rapidly develop an efficient system of lifelong learning for all age groups. Progress will also depend on the willingness of stakeholders to invest, through public budgets as well as from private sources, in education, also in terms of other resources.

Since 1990, employment policy has been implemented on the basis of defined legal

provisions, which constitute the basis for Employment Service operations through district labour offices. There is a wide scope of active employment policy measures, which are stipulated in the law and include following areas:

- support for employment of disadvantaged groups of population including support for the start-up of businesses (self-employment);
- support for employment of disabled people;
- job creation for the unemployed - particularly those with low qualifications - in the form of socially useful jobs;
- organisation of re-training 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;
- investment incentives in the form of subsidies to investors for new jobs and retraining of new employees.

The structure of activities within employment policy was adequate in the early 1990s when there was a low unemployment rate and job seekers would find work within three to five months. Meanwhile it has become necessary to pay more attention to disadvantaged groups and regions. The scope of existing measures was extended in order to address the specific employment problems of school leavers, members of the Roma minority and disabled persons. The new employment bill, which is under preparation, will 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 employment policy tools.

The development of the **National Employment Plan**, the **National Employment Action Plan** and the

Sectoral Operational Programme for Human Resource Development (SOP-HRD) indicate a new employment policy approach. These documents, which have been 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 intention to consider employment policy in a more comprehensive manner and to involve other partners (particularly government agencies and social partners) in policy development and implementation.

Government priorities for employment policy may be summarised as follows:

- 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 small and medium-sized enterprises);
- increase adaptability of employees and employers by means of retraining and a more extensive application of flexible workloads;
- 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;
- motivate for work through increasing the income from work as compared to welfare and other benefits, to promote re-socialisation and motivation courses;
- 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;
- accelerate reform of initial education, to improve its horizontal and vertical permeability, to incorporate key competencies according to the labour market needs into curricula and to create flexible links between programmes and pathways to foster life-long learning.

More recently, emphasis has been put on coherent and structured approaches to the development of education and human resources. Various documents have been prepared which set out objectives for the medium term. The **National Programme for the Development of Education** ('White Paper'), approved by the government in early 2001, establishes the overall framework for national educational policy, its aims and priorities. It includes implementation steps for all educational sectors – i.e. from pre-school education to life-long learning. An **Outline of State Information Policy in Education** has been adopted as well. Its purpose is to gradually enhance the knowledge and use of information technology in schools and in society at large.

In 2000, a **Strategy for Human Resource Development** was prepared, which aims to strengthen competitiveness of human resources and is targeted at individuals, educational institutions, social partners, the corporate sector as well as public administration. It proposes the definition of tasks and responsibilities of public administration bodies in human resources development and lifelong learning. Moreover, the strategy includes an outline of organisational structures, mechanisms and instruments for governance and systemic support for continuing education and training and lifelong learning 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 National Employment Plan and National Employment Action Plans has proceeded at a relatively slow pace. This may be related to gaps in the legal and institutional prerequisites, unclear objectives and priorities, and lack of adequate monitoring mechanisms to assess progress.

In order to cope with the challenges outlined above and to develop a coherent lifelong learning strategy, adequate co-operation mechanisms to involve all relevant stakeholders including social partners at national, regional and local level will be required.

2. CAPACITY OF THE INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM TO SUPPORT THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT POLICY

2

2.1 OVERVIEW OF THE INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

2.1.1 LEGAL FRAMEWORK

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports is responsible for the education system including initial vocational education and training, except secondary vocational schools in the agricultural sector and police and military schools, which are under the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Defence respectively. Until 1996, secondary vocational schools were under the authority of the Ministry of Economy. Since then, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports has been in charge. Moreover, in 2001 the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports was appointed co-ordinator of the consultation process on the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is responsible for the re-training of unemployed. Training curricula are accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports.

There is no evidence of systematic inter-ministerial co-operation to develop education and training in a lifelong learning perspective.

The existing legal framework does not foresee a specific role of social partners in vocational education and training. Their contribution to vocational education and training design and planning is limited, as they are represented mainly in consultative bodies.

Initial vocational education and training - including higher professional schools at post-secondary level - is provided for by Law No. 29/1984 Coll. on the **system of basic, secondary and higher professional schools**. It stipulates

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operational conditions, entry and completion requirements, organisational and technical matters such as compulsory attendance, planning of the school year, and teaching materials. Moreover, it contains regulations related to the teaching staff. The law was amended nine times, most recently in 1995 (Law No. 138/1995 Coll).

The first major amendment dates back to 1990 (Law No. 171/1990). Among other provisions, it paves the way for private and confessional schools. Secondary schools became independent legal entities and school autonomy was reinforced. Compulsory schooling was extended to nine years. Moreover, the Law transfers the responsibility to establish secondary vocational schools from company associations to public administration bodies and co-operatives.

Another important amendment (Law No. 138/1995) completes the shift to a nine-year basic school and introduces higher professional schools as a separate educational level. It broadens the scope of schools that are permitted to generate and manage their own funds. It also provides for involvement of enterprises in practical training and the possibility to charge tuition fees.

Law No. 111/1998 on Higher Education reorganises the concept of university and non-university forms of higher education and provides for the establishment of private higher education institutions. A recent amendment (2001) enables higher education institutions to carry out business activities and to collect tuition fees for continuing training courses in the framework of life-long learning.

The law on **state administration and self-government in education** No. 564/1990 Coll., amended most recently in 1995 (Law No. 139/1995), determines tasks and obligations of administrative bodies at different levels (state administration, self-governing bodies, municipalities, school inspectorate, school councils, school directors) in education.

A **new comprehensive School Act**, which was expected to integrate and consolidate legal provisions, still does not exist. Although the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports had invested considerable time and resources into drafting the new bill, Parliament did not reach a consensus and the bill was not passed (May 2001). This was a setback, which might delay necessary reform steps in the light of the devolution of powers to the regions until after the elections in 2002.

In addition, the ongoing decentralisation process based on Law No. 347/1997 on the **establishment of “higher-level administrative units”** (regions) which came into force on 1 January 2000 and other laws related to public administration reform have a considerable impact on initial training, in particular on initial vocational education and training governance. The leading principles of this public administration reform are decentralisation and participation, i.e. a shift of powers from the centre to regional administration and self-governing bodies, by establishing a regional level of government and increasing significantly the role of self-government bodies.

Major elements of the current reform process are:

- Transferring responsibility for long-term educational planning, including establishment and administration of secondary and post-secondary vocational schools, to the new regional authorities.
- Extending school autonomy beyond curricula and human resource policy issues towards economic, financial and administrative independence.
- Revising the role of the Czech School Inspectorate (shift from administrative control to assessment of achievements).
- Strengthening participative management mechanisms at school level by creating school councils composed of stakeholder representatives.

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- Abolishing District School Offices (i.e. administrative bodies of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports at district level) and re-distributing their responsibilities between regional self-government bodies and municipalities.
- Modifying the current funding system (see chapter 2.1.3).

In addition, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports will strengthen its regulatory and co-ordination functions, such as

- medium- and long-term policy and strategy development;
- curriculum policy and quality assurance;
- establishment of appropriate funding mechanisms and monitoring of expenditure;
- management and implementation of innovative measures
- creation of the appropriate framework for social partner participation in decision making;
- co-operation with representatives of national and regional administrations;
- international co-operation.

During 2001, the new regional authorities - which were established following regional elections in November 2000 – gradually took over the responsibility for secondary school administration. These reform measures are expected to link overall educational development in the region more closely to the regional regeneration process. Implementation of the reform is already under way, but is still far from being complete.

2.1.2 POLICY FRAMEWORK

Major principles of educational policy in the 1990s were strengthening school autonomy and the abolition of centrally devised curricula to enable flexibility of programme development and provision.

The initial reform phase in the 1990s was characterised by an abundance of mainly bottom-up initiatives implemented without a clearly defined strategy. Recent

developments have demonstrated the readiness of the current government to continue reform with a more strategic perspective.

A number of fundamental policy papers have been elaborated, reflecting some of the approaches and aims of the **Phare VET Reform Programme (1994-1998)**, such as the **Principles of Educational Policy** approved by the government already in 1999. In addition, seven strategy papers on the main areas of education (pre-school, basic, secondary and tertiary education, continuing training, the role of schools as catalysts of change, the teaching profession) were drafted. These were widely discussed and constituted the basis for the **National Programme for the Development of Education³³ in the Czech Republic** (White Paper on Education), partially building on the outcomes of the Phare VET Reform Programme. It is based on the principles of lifelong learning and determines the preconditions for supporting the concept at policy level. The document was approved by the government in February 2001. The objective of the process was to “make education an issue for society as a whole” to pave the way for considerations about the future development beyond the boundaries of the education sector.

Apart from the overall objectives for the development of education, the white paper contains a number of quantifiable targets in line with the Lisbon conclusions (details in Annex 2), such as

- increase expenditure on education from 4.5% to 6% of GDP by 2005;
- increase the average salary of teachers beyond the national average by 2007;
- promote **educational programmes focussing on general education** in addition to *gymnázia*, - e.g. technical and business *lycea*;
- increase the proportion of young people entering general secondary education programmes (target: 30% of secondary school students in 2010 from 18.5% in 2000/01 in upper secondary general schools);

³³ The National Programme for the Development of Education in the CR. Prague, March 2001. See Annex.

- increase the ratio of citizens with 'maturita' to 75%;
- increase access to higher education from 23% to 53% of the age group in 2010;
- increase capacity of the tertiary education sector.

In order to create a basis for translating into practice the aims formulated in the white paper and ensuring a uniform approach towards developing and implementing education policy at national and regional level, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports is in the process of elaborating a long-term development plan for education. This document sets out the priorities and measures to be implemented both at national and regional level. It will be adapted at regular intervals. Specific **development programmes** launched by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports will operationalise the general aims to implement the necessary measures in co-operation with newly established regional authorities.

The **Outline of State Information Policy** adopted in late 1999 aims to provide the basis for a computer literate society. It includes targets related to computer literacy of school leavers (by 2005), equipment of schools with up-to-date computer equipment, application of information technology as common teaching and learning tool (75% of teachers in 2005), using schools as lifelong learning centres for information technology.

Another comprehensive document **A Vision of the Development of the Czech Republic until 2015**³⁴ with contributions of numerous high-profile experts includes projections of the development of education and employment, compiled on the basis of a scenario method.

The overall aims of these policy documents correspond with **proposals in the National Employment Plan**³⁵ prepared by

the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. This was adopted by the government in 1999 and sets out medium-term priorities in the area of employment, underlining the link between VET and the labour market. It does not contain any clearly defined targets related to education and training. Specific actions as a follow-up to the National Employment Plan have been drawn up in the National Employment Action Plan 2001.

Both the white paper and the national employment plan are documents approved by the government, providing the basis for concrete projects³⁶ to address the identified priorities. Although the strategic aims in the areas of education and employment policy were worked out independently - because they fall within the purview of two ministries - the proposals were mutually commented. This indicates a growing readiness to co-operate in a wider perspective, but has not yet developed into a joint effort to tackle the issue of lifelong learning in a comprehensive manner.

2.1.3 RESOURCES

Funding

The development of public expenditure on education was rather uneven in the 1990s. The low level of funding in the early 1990s was followed by a more favourable period around 1995. Due to the overall economic and political development, expenditure dropped again in 1997/98 and has not recovered since (1998: 4.4% of GDP, 2000: 4.5% of GDP, compared to 5.5% OECD country average, 4.8% in Greece, 5.7% in Portugal³⁷). Expenditure related to VET at secondary and post-secondary level amounts to approximately 25% of the total education budget. Private spending in 1995/96 was estimated at approximately €33 million. These resources include non-budgetary income of universities, revenues from tuition fees and grants paid

³⁴ Vize rozvoje CR do r. 2015 (A Vision of the Development of the Czech Republic until 2015). Praha, Gutenberg 2001.

³⁵ The National Employment Plan. Prague, MoLSA 1999.

³⁶ 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".

³⁷ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001.

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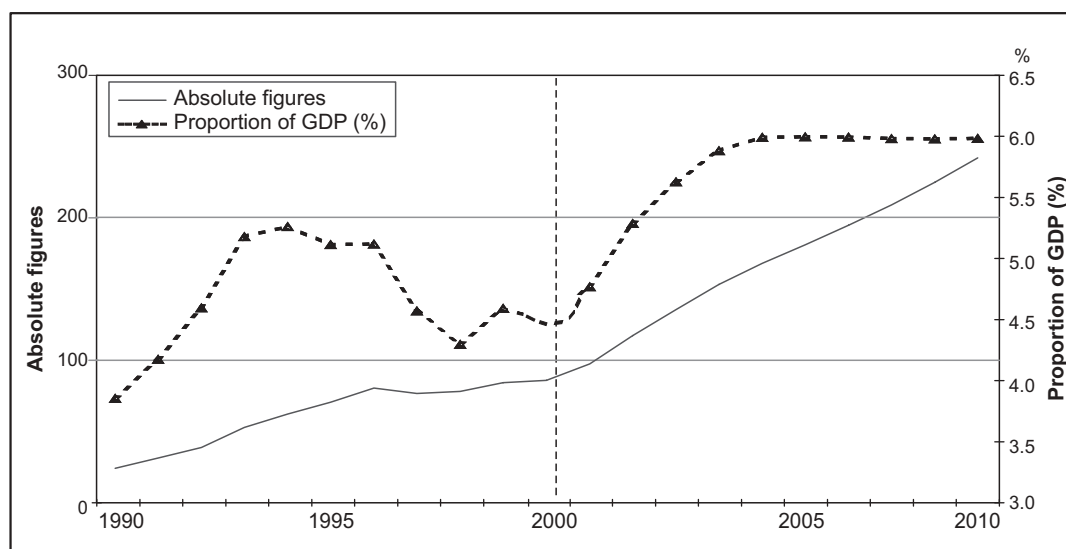
by individuals in private schools, revenues from sponsors, from students' activities etc. However, private expenditure is not monitored.

According to the Czech Ministry of Finance, the share of education (without higher education) in the state budget was €1,590 million in 1994 (10.44%), €1,735 million in 1998 (8.38%) and €1,898 million in 1999 (8.86%). This is less than

the OECD country average (14% according to OECD *Education at a Glance 2000*³⁸)

Expenditure per student at upper secondary level was €3,900 PPS (Portugal €5,600, OECD country average €6,500) in 1998. The situation was more favourable at tertiary level with a per capita expenditure of €6,100 (OECD country average €9,900, Greece €4,500, Spain €5,500).

Public expenditure on education: proportion of GDP and absolute figures



There are no direct employers' contributions to initial training funding apart from their obligatory tax payments and voluntary involvement in practical training provision on a case-by-case basis. In the ongoing discussion on whether and how financial contributions by employers should be introduced, there is a considerable difference of opinions, and employers' representatives strongly oppose any attempts by public authorities in this direction.

Funding of initial training (except universities) is gradually being taken over by the new regional authorities, but the funding methods will continue to be determined by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. The new system envisages a distinction between 'direct costs' of education (salaries of teaching staff, social security contributions, continuing training for teaching staff,

innovative and development programmes, teaching aids) and 'running' and 'investment costs'. The former category is covered from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports' budget, the latter from the budget of the respective 'school founder' (i.e. mainly the relevant regional authority). The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports allocates financial resources to cover the direct costs to the new regional offices on a per capita basis depending on school type and specific programme. Per capita rates had been increasing till 1997, but are now even lower than four years ago.

The effects of the revised structure and organisation of public funding and the **change in financial flows**³⁹ that are a consequence of the current public administration reform cannot be assessed yet, due to the early stage of implementation.

³⁸ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2000.

³⁹ See annex.

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Although the white paper envisages an increase in public spending on education to 6% of GDP 2005, this seems most unlikely under the current economic circumstances. More efficient and effective use of existing resources and the willingness of all major stakeholders (enterprises, social partners, etc.) to co-operate in exploring new funding possibilities are crucial elements for progress in this field.

Teachers

The important role of **teaching staff in education and training reform as drivers of change does not seem to have been properly acknowledged**, neither by policy makers nor by the general public. This has led to a number of developments that potentially hamper further reform.

Due to the expansion of secondary education in the early 1990s, the overall number of teachers had been increasing in parallel until 1995/96. The extension of basic school attendance by one year in 1996 along with an increase in the teaching load to 23 hours in 1997 resulted in a decrease of the total number of teachers. In 1998/99 there were 19,900 full time teachers in secondary technical and vocational schools at ISCED 3 level out of a total of 142,000 which means only 60% of the 1989/90 number. Although the teaching load was reduced again in 1999 (to the original 21 hours per week) and third and fourth years of secondary schools were re-filled in September 2000, the number of teachers has not increased.

Despite decreasing student numbers, the **student-teacher ratio** in the Czech Republic has developed as follows:

	Secondary technical school		Secondary vocational school		Higher professional school	
	1996/97	2000/01	1996/97	2000/01	1996/07	2000/01
CZ total	8.7	10.8	12.2	17.5	12.7	10.9

This indicates that the situation has deteriorated, in particular in secondary vocational schools.

Teacher salaries are low. A teacher salary in upper secondary vocational education after 15 years of experience amounts to €11,600 PPS per year, compared to €31,000 PPS per year in Austria, €44,800 PPS per year in Germany, and an OECD country average of €31,000 PPS per year⁴⁰. This induces qualified teachers to leave the education system for better-paid jobs (particularly in urban centres with higher pay levels).

Salaries depend on the category of the teaching staff. Basic salaries of academics are higher than those of non-academic staff. In principle, teachers need to fulfil the formal educational qualifications as employment prerequisite. Recruitment of teachers is among the responsibilities of school directors.

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 who have undergone complementary teacher training of 300 to 400 teaching hours. Vocational training supervisors at secondary vocational schools usually have an apprenticeship certificate in a specialised field, '*maturita*' and complementary teacher training of approximately three months that can also be completed by means of distance learning arrangements.

In order to maintain or improve teaching standards, there is a need to create incentives (including salary increases) to encourage teachers at all levels and types of schools to stay in the teaching profession. A positive signal in reaction to the above challenges is the teacher career

⁴⁰ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table D1.1d.

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development system developed by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. It envisages a differentiated approach with respect to teachers' career prospects and pay, which will be linked to qualification levels and job profiles, specialisation, teaching quality, and creativity. The aim of the proposal is to motivate teachers and other educators to pursue professional and personal development.

School types and numbers

The school network

Flexibility of programme development and provision were among the principles of education reform in the nineties. Combined with per capita funding, this led to excessive growth of the **network of schools** by large numbers of relatively small schools, as a result of the strategy of schools to avoid closing down by expanding their vocational education and training provision. Consequently, the

country ended up with a high number of relatively small sized schools (average number of students in secondary technical school: 238; in secondary vocational school: 294 in 2000/01). In addition, demographic decline and extension of basic education to nine years have caused considerable capacity redundancies⁴¹ of secondary schools, which is only partly exploited for continuing vocational education and re-training.

The number and different categories of establishments involved in VET provision is shown in the table below. In 1999, the overall number of 2,486 schools corresponded to 1,720 legal entities⁴². Such an entity may incorporate one or more types of schools. A typical example are "integrated" schools, which normally host secondary technical schools and secondary vocational schools, and in some cases also special training centres. Higher professional schools are usually linked to secondary technical schools within one legal entity.

Secondary vocational schools	585	Including special schools and those at institutional care facilities
Vocational schools	161	Providing courses of less than three years
Secondary technical schools	880	Including special schools
"Gymnázia"	360	Including special schools
Higher professional schools	180	Including conservatories
Training centres	180	Including those at institutional care facilities
"Practical schools"	140	Including those at institutional care facilities
Total	2486	

The regional distribution of the main types of schools is reasonably balanced due to the detailed planning of the school network before 1990. Prague is an exception with the highest proportion of *gymnázia* (25%), while the national average amounts to 20%.

According to information provided by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, approximately 150,000 to 190,000 places at secondary vocational schools are redundant in 2001. This corresponds to approximately 870 medium-sized schools, or one third of existing schools which in fact do not provide

education but whose running costs (circa €5.7 million per annum) are covered. At the same time, many schools have to cope with the negative consequences of insufficient financial resources. The Programme for Optimisation of the School Network initiated in 1997 as recommended by OECD has not yet considerably reduced existing capacity redundancies. At present, the process has in fact stopped due to the ongoing public administration reform and changes in governance. Responsibilities in this area will be taken over by regional authorities.

⁴¹ See tables for chapter 2

⁴² Calculation based on data for the publication *Statistical Yearbook on Education 1999/2000. Performance Indicators*. Prague, ÚIV 2000

These factors indicate that initial training delivery is hampered by inefficient use of resources and weaknesses linked to allocation mechanisms. The situation in tertiary education is similar as regards insufficient funds for running and salary costs. As opposed to secondary education, higher education is characterised by resource constraints in terms of buildings and equipment. This problem might be tackled by sharing existing facilities, e.g. setting up multi-functional schools as proposed in the White Paper, providing programmes at different levels and for different age groups order to use existing capacities more effectively.

2.1.4 STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION OF INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The changes of the Czech VET system since 1990, first and foremost extension and diversification of VET provision and development of a private education and training market have to a certain degree facilitated adaptation to the newly emerging requirements of a market economy and changes in the economic structure. The main features of the system were not substantially altered, with training still being mainly school-based.

The most important changes include:

- establishment of private schools (their 2000/01 share is 22% catering for 12% of pupils),
- diversification of programmes regarding duration, types and education and training fields,
- development of follow-up courses for secondary vocational school leavers (without '*maturita*'),
- introduction of higher professional schools.

Fragmentation into highly specialised and rather narrow programmes and rigidity of the system have not yet been addressed in

a comprehensive manner by reform initiatives. This results in limited transparency and horizontal permeability, poses a risk for quality and reduces comparability of outcomes.

The following gives a brief overview of the structure of the education system in the Czech Republic.

After completing compulsory nine-year basic school (usually from 6 to 15) or the corresponding number of years in a multi-year *gymnázium*, there are three main strands of **upper secondary education** to select from, two of which within VET. This decision predetermines to a large degree the further educational pathway of the individual and has a considerable impact on future career options.

- **Secondary general education** (*gymnázium*), which remains the most prestigious type of secondary school (entry rate: 18.5% in 2000/01 compared to 15% in 1996⁴³).
- **Secondary technical schools** providing predominantly four-year programmes completed by '*maturita*' which prepare students for various technical-operational jobs, jobs in business, education, health care, social and legal professions, administration, fine arts, music and drama etc. Curricula contain a relatively high proportion of general education (ca. 40%) and are developed in a way to enable graduates to enter the labour market with medium qualification levels. The entry rate was 36.4% in 2000/01⁴⁴.
- **Secondary vocational schools** provide mostly three-year programmes completed by an "apprentice certificate" and, to a lesser degree, also four-year courses completed by "*maturita*". These programmes consist of a large proportion of practical vocational training (about 48%) and prepare for the performance of skilled manual occupations and crafts. In 2000/01, 45.2% of school entrants opted for this school type⁴⁵.

⁴³ Vojtech, 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*, National Institute for Vocational Education, 2001.

⁴⁴ *ibid.*

⁴⁵ *ibid.*

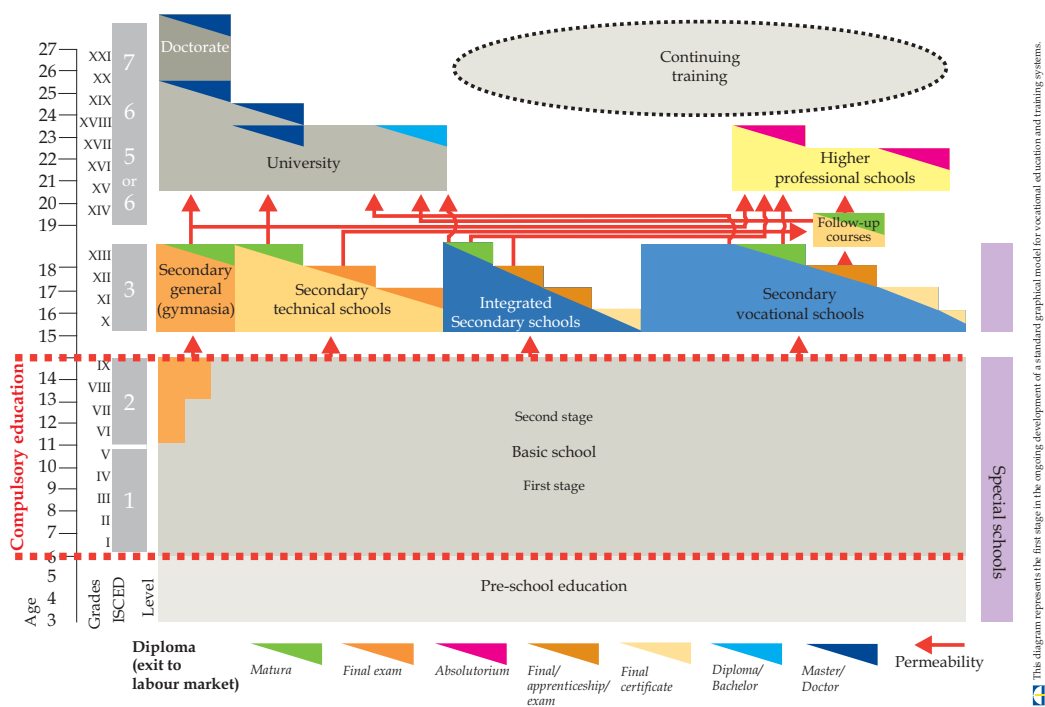
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As a consequence of school network optimisation in the late 1990s individual schools expanded their supply and some of them were transformed into so-called **integrated secondary schools** which, under one roof, provide both '*maturita*' courses and vocational courses without '*maturita*'.

Higher professional schools were introduced on a larger scale in 1996/97 in

order to expand educational provision at **tertiary level**. Higher professional courses last two to three and a half years and provide practically oriented training (instead of the theoretical-academic approach typical for universities) for jobs requiring higher qualifications than those acquired through upper secondary education.

Vocational education and training in the Czech Republic



Horizontal “permeability”, i.e. transfer possibilities between educational routes is limited due to the rigid VET structure that requires a clear-cut choice of the training programme already at the relatively low age of 15 when completing basic school. Due to the absence of modularised VET programmes and mechanisms to accredit prior learning, there is currently no possibility to recognise previously achieved education and training, in case a student fails in a final examination or '*maturita*'. This reality hampers flexible links between initial and continuing education.

Theoretically, there is a **high level of vertical “permeability”**. Precondition for entry into the post-secondary or tertiary level of education is the '*maturita*' examination (primarily attained at *gymnázia* and secondary technical schools). Holders of apprentice certificates do not meet this entry requirement. They can however prepare themselves for the '*maturita*' examination by means of follow-up courses. In practice, mobility between the different levels of the education system is limited due to financial constraints and capacity bottlenecks in the tertiary sector, particularly at universities.

Enrolment

Participation of basic school leavers in education and training at upper secondary level (ISCED 3) is high (ca. 95%) up to the age of 17, but drops dramatically from 18 years of age onwards (55% of 18 year olds, 37% of 19 year olds, 1999 figures⁴⁶).

Traditionally, technical and vocational education is highly esteemed. With 81.5% of basic school leavers entering vocational schools, the Czech Republic ranks among those European countries with the highest proportion of young people in VET at secondary level. Over the past years there has been a trend towards programmes finishing with '*maturita*' which is illustrated by student numbers in 1st grades of upper secondary education:

1989 42.9% in programmes with '*maturita*'
2000 58.7% in programmes with '*maturita*'

The development of two-year follow-up courses which enable three-year vocational course leavers to acquire full secondary vocational education (with '*maturita*') and the trend to enter higher education institutions have considerably increased participation rates of the more senior part of the 15-19 age group (81% of 17 year olds, 55% of 18 year olds and 37% of 19 year olds in 1999⁴⁷).

More details about the quantitative development of the proportion of students in the previously mentioned three streams of upper secondary education is illustrated in appendix⁴⁸.

The number of students admitted to full-time studies at **universities** increased between 1989 and 1999 by 80%. Currently only around half the applicants are admitted, due to a gradually increasing interest in university studies.

The net entry rate to tertiary education is still low at 23%, compared to 58% in Hungary, 59% in Poland and an OECD country average of 45%⁴⁹ despite efforts to increase access to tertiary education (+37% between 1995 and 1999). This is mainly due to limited absorption capacity in tertiary education institutions, which leads to the rejection of ca. 50% of all applicants. This causes a low enrolment rate of 12.9% for the age group 20-29, compared to an OECD country average of 20.7%⁵⁰.

Enrolment in tertiary education in total accounted for 33.6% of all secondary school graduates – 24.1% in universities and 9.5% in higher professional schools in 1999. This means that immediately after completion of initial training with '*maturita*', 27% of secondary technical school graduates and 15% of SVS graduates continued at the tertiary level (including graduates from follow-up courses⁵¹).

The interest of students to continue their educational pathway in higher professional schools has remained limited due to the perception of higher professional schools as 'second class' compared to universities, lower status and lack of transferability of knowledge and skills between higher professional schools and universities.

Assessment of vocational education and training outcomes

The development of comprehensive mechanisms to evaluate VET quality in general is at an early stage. Social partners do not have an 'institutionalised' role in the assessment of professional competencies of graduates (although employers occasionally take part). Therefore the possibility to assess the relevance of VET outputs in response to labour market needs remains limited.

⁴⁶ *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, Prague 2001.

⁴⁷ *ibid.*

⁴⁸ See tables for chapter 2.

⁴⁹ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table C3.1.

⁵⁰ *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 2001, Table C1.2.

⁵¹ Interest in University Studies in 2000. A joint press release prepared by the MoEYS and the Institute for Information on Education. 1 August 2000.

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Assessment is still carried out under the responsibility of individual schools. At secondary level, initial educational programmes are completed either by a final examination leading to an “apprentice certificate” (or a final examination certificate), or by the ‘*maturita*’ examination leading to the respective certificate. Higher professional study programmes are completed by an ‘*absolutorium*’ and the relevant diploma. These certificates are awarded on the basis of legally defined, although non-standardised examinations and are nationally recognised. Each school is responsible for the organisation of final examinations including examination panels, which are chaired by an external teacher appointed by the local education authority. Verification of achievement and certification is left to the professional responsibility of the teachers.

The limited transparency of programme contents and outcomes, and linked to that, non-uniform examination standards at different schools, have been a matter of concern for some time, in particular in the case of ‘*maturita*’ which entitles graduates to apply for admission to tertiary level education. This led to a new model of ‘*maturita*’ that has been broadly discussed and tested for several years, and was subsequently included in the bill for the new schools act. The unexpected rejection of the bill by Parliament in May 2001 is a serious drawback, and the matter will continue to be a high priority issue in the policy agenda to be resolved quickly.

The issue of transparency is essential also for employers, in particular with regard to practical skills and competencies acquired through the vocational component (theoretical and practical training) of the various programmes. A framework to

ensure active employer involvement in defining competency requirements does not exist yet.

Employment situation of graduates

Approximately two thirds of secondary school graduates enter the labour market immediately after finishing school – some only temporarily (before making another attempt to be admitted to tertiary education). The group that enters the labour market immediately consists of 15-20% of *gymnázia* graduates, 85-90% of vocational school graduates without ‘*maturita*’ and 70-80% of vocational school graduates with ‘*maturita*’⁵².

Employment possibilities of school graduates depend on qualification, labour market conditions in the relevant region and personality. Surveys on employment of graduates comparing the jobs performed and qualifications achieved⁵³ demonstrate that a large number of graduates (particularly those with technical qualifications) take on **work not corresponding to the specialisation** obtained. Business and health care disciplines show a high level of accord (some 80%) of educational and professional profile. On the other hand, only around 10% of mechanical engineering graduates have jobs that fully correspond to their specialisation⁵⁴. Approximately 20-25% of initial training graduates perform jobs that show a “gross mismatch” compared to their study field. This indicates that at least part of the training profiles on offer do not meet existing labour market demands. Education levels attained seem to conform more closely to the type of work carried out, although many graduates from secondary technical school perform manual occupations.

⁵² *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, Prague 2001.

⁵³ Vojtech, J.: *Employment of Graduates from Secondary VET*. An analysis based on labour force sample survey by the Czech Statistical Office. Prague, VÚOŠ 1998.

⁵⁴ Graduates from mechanical engineering courses often are not interested in working 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 people off, while the work in factories is not attractive or well paid.

Unemployment⁵⁵ of secondary school graduates has increased considerably (April 2000: 21.7%) along with overall development in unemployment. Two years after completion of initial education and training programmes, unemployment is highest among SVS leavers without 'maturita' (26.4%). Secondary school graduates with 'maturita' (secondary vocational school 17.8%, secondary technical school 16.1%, *Gymnasia* 10.5%) are unemployed less often. Unemployment among higher professional school graduates amounts to 11.5% (due to their low number, this figure must be considered with reservation). University graduates are in a better position with an unemployment ratio of only 5.4%⁵⁶.

These figures confirm the relation between higher education levels and lower unemployment and vice versa. The influence of other factors on the unemployment rate, such as the overall economic situation in a specific region, has to be taken into account as well (e.g. high unemployment in North Bohemia, North Moravia, favourable situation in Prague).

2.2 RESPONSIVENESS OF THE INITIAL TRAINING SYSTEM TO THE NEEDS OF THE LABOUR MARKET AND THE INDIVIDUAL

2.2.1 PROGRESS MADE IN INCREASING THE RELEVANCE OF INITIAL TRAINING

Planning and programming

Initial training development in the 1990s was a spontaneous bottom-up reaction to new qualification requirements in a labour

market undergoing extreme socio-economic change. Although data on labour market developments have been regularly collected and assessed since 1990, an integrated monitoring system and sound forecasting methodologies to facilitate medium-term projections of qualification requirements do not exist yet. The development of co-operation mechanisms among stakeholders representing the labour and education sectors is still at an early stage, as is social partner involvement.

Several key projects⁵⁷ dealing with the development of appropriate methodologies to identify and forecast labour market needs to align VET provision with skill requirements have already been initiated. Although they have been beneficial, they remain isolated and lack **continuity and co-ordination**.

This applies also for education and training research in general. Although the scope of research related to education and training is wide and frequently linked to national or international projects, the overall situation is characterised by a lack of coherence and co-ordination. Research activities are often isolated and findings are not properly disseminated, which limits their impact on initial training development.

In terms of quantity, the education and training offer has been tailored mainly to the immediate demands of students and parents, without proper assessment of medium and long-term economic development options. In parallel, there are efforts – particularly on the part of labour offices and some social partner representatives - **to link the development of the initial training structure** more closely to the labour market situation.

⁵⁵ Ryška,R.- Úlovcová, H.-Horácková,D.-Vymetalová,S.: *Position of Graduates in the Labour Market*. ÚIV, Praha, 2000.

⁵⁶ Unemployed graduates, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, April 2000. Quoted in: Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, Prague 2001.

⁵⁷ 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"(Leonardo da Vinci programme). Praha, NVF 2001.

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Curriculum design and development

Innovative approaches were successfully piloted through the Phare VET Reform Programme. However, after the experimental phase came to an end in 1998, the positive outcomes of the programme were not disseminated widely and thus their impact on the systemic level remains limited. The current situation is still characterised by the co-existence of old and new curricula (ca. 1,000). This results in limited transparency and orientation difficulties for the clients of the education system.

The adjustment of curricula to newly evolving labour market needs in the nineties was largely driven by individual initiative, often at school level. In parallel, more targeted activities were launched to adapt and innovate the vocational part of the curriculum⁵⁸ (around 90% of courses since 1989), mainly of programmes and branches significantly affected by economic and labour market developments. Their objective was to develop a standard curricular framework to ensure a more systematic approach to meeting the qualification requirements of various occupations.

Modularisation of VET was limited to drafting so-called modular educational programmes, taking into consideration legislative and organisation barriers at schools. The modular system was not widely implemented due to lack of support by the central authorities and is therefore only sporadically used by a limited number of schools within the existing organisational and legal regulations.

A new curricular framework, the '**Standard of Secondary Vocational and Technical Education**', developed by the National Institute for Technical and Vocational Education (NITVE - NUOV), was approved by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 1998. The standard defines a **common core** for all newly designed education programmes and describes

basic requirements for the concept, nature, objectives, and content of new as well as innovated educational programmes. Key competencies derived from general qualification requirements constitute a relatively independent component of the standard. It is binding only for new programmes (developed by schools or other stakeholders, e.g. employers, after 1/1/1998). Most schools continue to teach according to curricula that do not meet the new requirements of the standard. Only 14% of the current programmes correspond to the requirements defined by the standard.

As regards the **vocational component** of secondary technical schools and secondary vocational schools curricula, the standard defines the requirements rather broadly without identifying competency requirements for specific occupations. A **national qualification framework** agreed in co-operation with social partners is not in place.

However, in addition to the 'general' standard, **occupational standards**⁵⁹ in terms of job-related activities are being developed on the basis of skill requirements for specific occupations formulated by the industry. This initiative is implemented by "occupational groups" of professionals set up at the National Institute for Technical and Vocational Education (NITVE) under the general responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. These groups constitute a network of experts who monitor global trends in the development of labour and study the development of individual disciplines and professions as a basis for designing standards. The groups are composed of secondary VET practitioners and external experts with a thorough understanding of occupational issues in the world of labour. One of the outcomes is a set of analytical documents "Monitoring Development Trends in Groups of Occupations"⁶⁰, comparing development trends in the relevant sectors in the Czech Republic and advanced EU countries, covering 21 VET branches.

⁵⁸ Kofronová, O - Vojtech, J.: Kurikulární politika v CR po r. 1989 a její odraz ve vývoji oboru přípravy ve středním odborném školství. Projekt RS 96 156 Resortního výzkumu MŠMT. Praha, VÚOŠ 1996.

⁵⁹ Švanda, I. : Kvalifikační požadavky na absolventy odborného školství a možnosti jejich zjišťování (dílní studie ke grantu). Praha, VÚOŠ 1998.

⁶⁰ Kadlec, M.: Monitoring Development Trends in Groups of Related Occupations. Praha, VÚOŠ 1999.32 pages.

A parallel project under the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs - **Information System of Typical Jobs**⁶¹ - identifying precise qualification requirements for occupational fields and specific jobs, may have an impact on occupational standard development. The link between these two initiatives is constituted through the involvement of NITVE experts.

The NITVE is currently working on a follow-up to the Standard of Vocational Education and Training, i.e. output-oriented **framework educational programmes (curricula)** including clearly defined occupational competencies for various VET branches. This initiative will give clear guidelines for developing the school-specific curriculum component. At the same time it is an attempt to overcome the current excessive **specialisation of VET**. This may contribute to more transparency concerning the content of educational programmes and the qualifications obtained. Moreover, it is expected to facilitate orientation in the system for prospective students as well as employers. The expected streamlining effect is also in line with the new initial vocational education and training classification based on larger education and training 'fields' (categories)⁶² which was adopted by the Czech Statistical Office in 1998.

Teaching and learning methodologies

Innovation in education programmes is rather focussed on updating curriculum content than on a **fundamental change of the teaching methodologies**. More innovative approaches often face a lack of acceptance by education administration bodies and legislative barriers, but occasionally also reluctance on the part of teachers and parents.

Despite all efforts mentioned above, modern teaching methods are not widely employed in the Czech Republic. According to the Czech school inspectorate Annual Report⁶³, teaching is still primarily understood as transfer of knowledge in a

one-way communication mode ("class teaching"). This is also linked to the insufficient supply of new textbooks and teaching materials. Although in general professionally correct and well delivered, this method tends to neglect the development of key competencies in students and does not support individualised approaches. Consequently, memorising knowledge prevails over comprehension of causality and contexts in student assessment.

Distance learning in VET is developing primarily in tertiary education and continuing training. The National Centre for Distance Learning, which is a part of the Centre for Higher Education Studies in Prague, prepares an annual overview of distance learning programmes developed by universities and other government and non-governmental institutions. The Centre is linked to the European network EDEN (European Distance Education Network). Progress in integrating open and distance learning into the formal education system is rather slow.

Teacher training

Teachers often lack experience and capacity to respond to the changed requirements in a transition phase and to adjust their teaching methods accordingly. 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, partly because there are no regular contacts to the world of work. The response of the teacher training system (both initial and in-service) to the new demands has been limited due to the lack of an adequate national policy. A teacher career development initiative has been launched by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports only recently (see chapter 2.1.3).

In general, formal qualification levels and professional competence of teachers at secondary technical and vocational schools are considered to be high. A majority of teachers have obtained a relevant

⁶¹ Information System of Typical Jobs. InfoPaket. CD ROM. Praha, Trexima. March 2000.

⁶² See indicators.

⁶³ Výroční zpráva ČŠI 1999/2000. Praha 2000.

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university degree, and a high percentage of teachers of vocational subjects have acquired teaching qualifications either at teacher training departments of universities or through post-graduate teacher training courses. The situation is less favourable as regards practical training of instructors who normally have an apprentice certificate and secondary technical education, often without a specific teaching qualification.

In reality, initial teacher training is characterised by a fragmented curriculum, insufficient links between professional and pedagogical-psychological components and inadequate links between theory and practice. Innovations have been introduced (primarily concerning the pedagogical-psychological component of teacher training), but there is no systematic approach towards raising the standards of initial teacher training. In addition, autonomy of universities has contributed to the current extensive diversification both in terms of content and organisation of teacher training in recent years. Moreover, the predominantly academic approach leads to imbalances between theory and practice and insufficient links to the world of work.

The existing **continuing training provision for teachers and educators** may counteract, at least partially, the deficiencies in initial teacher training. After the collapse of the network of continuing teacher training institutions in the 1980s, a wide range of new institutions and programmes evolved in the 1990s, lacking however any coherent strategic orientation. At the end of 2000, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports reacted by establishing 15 regional pedagogical centres providing continuing teacher training in a more co-ordinated way (in addition to the existing teacher training faculties).

A positive indication of policy makers' appreciation of the importance of the issue is the White Paper recommendation to develop a **standard of teaching qualification**. This would be used as a criterion for accreditation of teacher training

programmes and should motivate teacher training faculties to phase out the traditional academic concept of teacher training. A new integrated approach is to combine experience learning, training and theoretical reflection, self-reflection and action research methods. Concrete outcomes will depend on the readiness at central level to set up the appropriate mechanisms.

Equipment

Upgrading of technical equipment in public initial vocational schools, in particular facilities needed for practical training delivery seems to be a major problem, mainly due to financial constraints. According to an annual report of the Czech School Inspectorate⁶⁴ secondary schools, in general terms, have the necessary **facilities** to provide education and training at adequate levels. However, schools sometimes do not seem to be in a position to purchase modern teaching aids or technology, and examples indicate the existence of major shortcomings (e.g. outdated workshop equipment, limited availability of CNC devices).

The situation is more favourable as regards **the use of information and communication technologies**, although problems occur even in this area. This is illustrated by the fact that at present, not all students in secondary VET get acquainted with computer technology during their studies. However, access to computers in schools at secondary level is comparable to the EU (the Czech student/computer ratio is 17.4:1 and 79% of students use computers in school, compared to 17.0:1 and 79% in Iceland, 16.3:1 and 72% in Luxembourg⁶⁵). It is expected that the situation may improve due to an extensive Programme for Promotion of Information Technologies in Education initiated by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports⁶⁶, for which several million euro have been earmarked. The programme envisages all schools to be equipped with state of the art technology including Internet connection

64 Výroční zpráva UĚŠI 1999/2000. Praha 2000.

65 Computers in basic and secondary schools. Results of the SITES International Survey, Institute for Information on Education, Prague, 2000.

66 Informační politika ve vzdělávání. Praha, MŠMT 2000.

within the next five years. Information on the current situation is available through the SITES international survey using indicators that allow for international comparison⁶⁷.

Social partners

Due to the absence of an appropriate legal framework, the insufficient involvement of **social partners** in VET-related issues remains a fundamental problem.

Apart from a Working Group on Education under the Council of Economic and Social Agreement (CESA), there is still no specific institutional framework for systematic social partner involvement in VET at national, regional and local levels. Social partners are represented at the Council for Education Policy established in 1999 (two representatives of employers and employees each, out of 18 members). This can be considered a step in the right direction, although on both platforms, social partners play a purely consultative role.

In general, awareness of the need to involve social partners more actively in VET issues has increased, which is underpinned by a number of practical examples. Indications of this tendency are participation of social partners in expert working groups at the National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education (NITVE resp. NUOV, former VUOS) on a regular basis and the establishment of VET Councils at regional Chambers of Commerce, in which employers, schools and labour offices are represented. However, without a stable legal and institutional framework, social partner involvement will remain dependent on individual inputs.

Contribution of enterprises

Partnerships between schools and companies have been established, to a large extent based on personal initiative of relevant stakeholders, and include various activities, such as visits and excursions, sponsoring, teacher placements, membership in school councils, and work

placements for students (cf. table in annex).

Progress in school-employer co-operation with regard to placements for initial education students is limited. An alarming outcome of a survey conducted at secondary vocational schools⁶⁸ is that approximately 65% of students do not obtain any experience at a real workplace during their studies. The interest of employers is low, linked in particular to a lack of adequate facilities, but more generally, due to the non-existence of incentives to motivate employers to get involved in VET.

2.2.2 SYSTEM RESPONSE TO INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

The rigidity of the initial training system and the predominance of **linear programmes** limit the possibility for schools and students to modify programmes and pathways. Optional subjects are part of only some 5% of education programmes.

Due to lack of flexibility within the system and limited transparency of the education and training offer, there is a need for comprehensive information on pathways and professional profiles. Pedagogical-psychological counselling centres and vocational guidance services at schools have a long tradition in the country. These centres provide mainly services associated with study and psychological problems, but assistance related to career choice or professional orientation seems to be insufficient.

A number of initiatives have been launched to address the existing shortcomings:

- The optional subject “career choice” that became part of the Standard of Basic Education in 1998, but has not had a visible impact yet, as the majority of schools have decided against implementing this subject;
- The establishment of a functional network of counselling centres for psychological diagnoses and individual

⁶⁷ See indicators.

⁶⁸ See tables.

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career planning at regional level (Government Decree 640 of July 1999);

- The planned introduction of career choice and professional orientation as an obligatory part of all secondary school curricula.

However, a comprehensive guidance and counselling system does not exist yet. The structures already in place need to be improved and streamlined with the services provided by the career guidance centres at labour offices, which have been operational since 1996.

2.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE INITIAL TRAINING SYSTEM TO PROMOTING SOCIAL AND LABOUR MARKET INCLUSION

2.3.1 PROMOTING ACCESS FOR ALL

Open access to upper secondary education for all and the traditionally high prestige of vocational education in the Czech Republic encourages a large proportion of school leavers to continue education after nine years of compulsory school (ca. 95%). Entry rates to initial training amount to more than 80%.

In international comparison, the Czech Republic ranks among the top countries concerning the proportion of inhabitants with completed upper secondary education including VET (ISCED 3)⁶⁹ (86%, including programmes without *maturita*). Even though, selection and separation on the basis of educational achievement continues to be considered a "normal" feature of society and beneficial for teaching and learning processes.

Decisions on educational routes at secondary level (general, technical, vocational) are influenced by educational achievement and success at basic school and the result of non-standardised entry examinations or other admission

procedures under the responsibility of individual schools/school directors. The different standards in these three paths strongly pre-determine future options to continue education at the tertiary level.

Therefore both the need to take a far-reaching decision on the secondary education path at an early age and a higher education system that maintains rigorous admission requirements help to stabilise social stratification.

There is no specific policy to counteract early school leaving (estimated at 4-5%⁷⁰), or to support reintegration of dropouts into mainstream education. Dropout rates of 1.3% at *gymnázia*, 4% at secondary technical schools and approximately 6.5% at secondary vocational school (1999 estimates)⁷¹ do not seem to be a major concern for the responsible bodies, despite the high risk of unemployment of young people without qualification.

In practice, inequality in access to education persists, which is also underpinned by the fact that children from an underprivileged background and with less educated parents have fewer chances to achieve higher levels of educational attainment.

2.3.2 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROMOTING INCLUSION OF YOUNG DISADVANTAGED GROUPS IN THE LABOUR MARKET

The main trend as regards education of pupils with special needs, in particular those with physical or mental disadvantages, over the last ten years was to combat segregation by enrolment in special schools and to foster their integration into mainstream education instead.

Obstacles on the way towards integration are insufficient levels of preparedness of

⁶⁹ Pohled na školství v ukazatelích OECD. Education at a Glance. 1997. OECD-CERI. Praha ÚIV. 1998.

⁷⁰ Institute for Information on Education, 1999.

⁷¹ *Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training in Transition Countries*, National Report Czech Republic, Czech National Observatory, 2001.

mainstream schools to work with pupils with special needs. This concerns professional qualifications of teaching staff, human resources and appropriate facilities. Numerous projects aiming at updating knowledge on special teaching strategies and methods have been implemented for mainstream school teachers at all levels. At the same time, this requires more openness and flexibility within the system of special schooling without compromising the traditionally high standards of special education, but rather promoting transferability between special and mainstream schools in both ways.

In order to facilitate smooth transfers of pupils from one type of school to another it is common to integrate several types and levels of school and other facilities "under one roof"⁷². "Practical schools" at secondary level were designed for leavers of special schools (*zvláštní or pomocná škola*) or those who failed to complete all nine years of basic school, in order to prepare them for performing simple tasks - in a differentiated way, taking account of their disability. Another qualitative innovation concerns courses designed for *zvláštní or pomocná škola* leavers and for those who were designated as "impossible to educate" in the past to complete their basic education.

Counselling at different levels (educational counsellors at schools, educational-psychological guidance centres, special pedagogical centres and diagnostic institutes) plays an important and often preventive role in this context, not least in assisting pupils to obtain qualifications relevant in the labour market, thus enhancing their employability.

Roma

The Roma community, which according to expert estimates amounts to 1.6% to 3% of the total population, was severely affected by the changes after 1989. Growing unemployment on the one hand, increasing skill requirements on the other

hand and education deficiencies due to the traditional approach to school education for Roma children, among other factors, has limited their success in school. A political debate on how to improve the situation started in 1995 and is still ongoing. Measures taken (starting at pre-school age) may be summarised as follows:

- introduction, already in 1996/97, of preparatory classes for children from socially and culturally disadvantaged backgrounds at kindergartens and basic schools (110 in 2000/01, accommodating 1,364 children);
- introduction of Roma assistants at basic schools to support teachers and to facilitate communication with Roma families (175 in 2001);
- smaller groups of pupils, modification basic school curricula, didactical approaches and testing tools for school entrants;
- instructions concerning transfers of Roma pupils to mainstream basic school and admission of pupils with incomplete basic education to secondary school as well as support to Roma students (also financially);
- promotion of educational and career counselling;
- support for activities of Roma civic associations, information campaigns on Romany culture and introduction of multi-cultural issues in schools.

Lack of systematic monitoring prevents an assessment of the impact of these measures.

2.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE INITIAL TRAINING SYSTEM TO PROMOTING ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The development of business skills was a priority from the beginning of the 1990s. Consequently, a number of targeted measures were implemented within initial training.

⁷² Odborné učilište – training centre (TC) – is designed to provide vocational training to pupils who completed *zvláštní škola*. Učilište (U) provides vocational training to pupils who failed to complete all nine grades of basic school.

2. CAPACITY OF THE INITIAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM TO SUPPORT THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT POLICY

- A new subject '**economics**' was introduced as part of all education programmes, which includes issues such as setting up a business and the development of management and business skills. In three-year programmes it is limited to basic matters, in '*maturita*' courses the scope is wider and often includes work at so-called 'practice firms'. This way of developing business skills is most common at business academies and at schools focused on business studies.
- Various vocational subjects contain elements preparing students for entrepreneurial activities, mainly linked to specific vocational fields.

Specific programmes focused on entrepreneurship form part of follow-up courses for graduates from three-year vocational programmes. Approximately 40% of all first year students are admitted to these programmes.

Entrepreneurship is also fostered through individual programmes and projects, partly also based on private initiative of employers, but overall the role of employers in the development of business skills within initial training is limited to providing training placements.

The result of a survey analysing various curricula⁷³, approximately 30% of courses approved after 1990 include training in business or entrepreneurial skills. Following a period of high interest in this matter, particularly in the first half of the 1990s, the demand regarding this topic seems to have been satisfied.

2.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE INITIAL TRAINING SYSTEM TO PROMOTING EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

Existing laws provide for equal treatment of men and women in schools and there are no major difficulties in this respect. Regulatory measures concerning

admission of young people to courses at secondary schools and universities before 1990 sometimes affected educational and career aspirations of women, who tended to apply predominantly for admission to business academies, secondary medical schools etc., where they often were not admitted due to large numbers of applicants. Therefore, they had to take up different disciplines (e.g. engineering). At present, almost two thirds of women who graduated from engineering programmes perform entirely different jobs. This evidently reduces their prospects in the labour market.

The trend towards gender stereotyping in the early nineties, manifesting itself through vocational programmes with a strong gender-specific focus in so-called 'family schools', has changed. Data collected by labour offices give evidence of the fact that graduates of this type of school faced difficulties to find employment. Since 1995, family schools have been gradually phased out and at present have only a marginal importance.

The choice of programmes in mainstream initial training also indicates the **prevalence of gender stereotypes**, although generally speaking, males and females are **equally represented in secondary education**. However, there is a predominance of either females or males in specific courses, e.g. programmes for kindergarten teacher, nurses, business administration, and services are chosen mainly by girls, whereas some courses, particularly in heavy industry, are designed explicitly for males. Neither for the general public nor for policy makers this seems to be a matter of concern, and consequently there are no measures aimed at addressing this phenomenon.

Participation of women in **tertiary education** has increased considerably. In 1994/95, 77 females were enrolled per 100 males, against 105 female graduates per 100 male ones. In 1998/99, 93 females were enrolled per 100 men, against 119 female graduates per 100 men.

⁷³ Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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, CSVS 2000, 67 pages.

2.6 CONCLUSIONS

The changes implemented in the early 1990s have facilitated adaptation to newly emerging requirements of a market economy and local labour market needs. However, most of the experimental approaches have never been widely disseminated and transferred to the systemic level to establish a firm position within initial training.

- A major step forward has been accomplished by elaborating two key documents (National Programme of Development of Education – white paper - and Strategy for Human Resource Development) setting out strategic medium-term objectives for initial training 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 was approved by the government, its impact on the education policy of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and on initial training is still restricted and fragmented.
- The rejection of the education bill by Parliament and the absence of clear definitions as regards the roles and responsibilities of various bodies at central, regional, district and school level in the area of VET will have an impact on the pace of the reform process. Necessary reform steps will be delayed until after the elections in 2002.
- The most critical initial training problems affecting national employment policy include:
 - Insufficient involvement of social partners in the development and evaluation of initial training including insufficient legislation in this respect.
 - Inefficient use of the existing resources and inappropriate allocation mechanisms, which concerns particularly the structure of the school network and courses. In the future, these issues should be addressed by regional authorities in relation to long-term development plans of regions and not only on the basis of the short-term needs.
 - Insufficient flexibility of initial training curricula in terms of their continuous adjustment to labour market requirements and needs of individuals. This also involves inappropriate links between initial and continuing training. These issues remain unresolved particularly at the central level (legislation, development programmes etc.).
- Fragmentation and limited transparency of initial training have not been sufficiently tackled yet. This hampers employability of graduates and does not encourage participation in life long learning. Appropriate assessment methods for VET outputs to judge their relevance for the labour market still need to be developed.
- Vocational education and training has adjusted to new labour market requirements, particularly in terms of **content** (90% of curricula were subject to certain adjustments). However, many of the changes focused on short-term requirements. A second aspect is the high degree of conservatism and resistance to change, reflected in the continuation of education and training programmes targeted at traditional occupational patterns dominated by the previously existing industrial structure.
- This is on the one hand a consequence of the traditional barriers between the education and employment administrations. On the other hand, it is due to the absence of adequate medium and long term **forecasting methodologies for labour market developments**, although several projects have already been initiated in this area. The development of mechanisms to foster co-operation among all relevant stakeholders is still at an early stage. The principal problem of insufficient **social partner** involvement in the planning, implementation and assessment and evaluation of initial training remains to be tackled.
- In addition to spontaneous adjustment of curricula to labour market needs, further progress in developing a standard curricular framework as a foundation for lifelong learning is needed.

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- Despite changes regarding the content of education, traditional **teaching methods** prevail. In order to support innovative ways in teaching, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports has been paying increased attention to continuing education of teachers to counteract the existing shortcomings of initial training. Measures include the introduction and use of information technologies in schools and development programmes. The outcomes of these efforts cannot be assessed yet.
- Access to all types of education was expanded during the 1990s. However, students are still selected by means of entry examinations. Surveys show that

this promotes the reproduction of well-educated population strata and limits vertical social mobility. This particularly concerns tertiary education, which suffers from capacity shortages. On the other hand, considerable attention is paid to the integration of disadvantaged groups into mainstream education, without reducing the well-established system of special education. The results of the integration efforts remain limited, because mainstream schools and teachers are not well prepared for this specific type of work. The position of women in initial training is not considered a specific problem that would need particular attention.

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

3

3.1 OVERVIEW OF CONTINUING TRAINING PROVISION

3.1.1 LEGAL FRAMEWORK

A coherent legal framework for continuing vocational training, defining roles and assigning responsibilities to stakeholders at national, regional and local level is not in place.

Some clearly specified continuing training areas are covered by legal provisions, such as

- adult education within the formal school system (**Education Act 1984**, under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports);
- continuing training for specific professional and occupational groups, e.g. doctors, teachers, electricians (specific regulations linked to the sector-related laws in force). In addition, some principles relevant for continuing training are defined in the **Labour Code**. These relate to the obligation of employers to create appropriate conditions to encourage professional development of their employees, the obligation of employees to participate in training related to safety at work, the principle that participation in training leading to upgrading of qualifications is considered paid work.
- legally binding agreements between employer and employee. These agreements may include regulations on work release for training on the part of the employee.

- re-training for unemployed (**Employment Act 1991**, under the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs). The existing law and relevant decrees related to re-training set out various detailed provisions (entitlement to receive higher unemployment benefits during re-training periods, types of re-training etc.), but many essential aspects are not covered. Therefore, far-reaching decisions on active employment policy implementation are left to individual labour offices without clear guidelines (for details, see chapter 4). A new bill on employment that will provide for enlarged access to re-training has been drafted, but not yet discussed by Parliament.

- re-training elements also included in two acts that were passed in 2000 in reaction to the overall economic and employment situation:

- **Act No. 72/2000 on investment incentives**, such as tax reductions, subsidies to municipalities for technical infrastructure, subsidies for new jobs and subsidies for the re-training of employees in case of restructuring. It can be considered an important economic tool. Both new and already existing enterprises are expected to benefit from the new provisions. In addition, the act provides for re-balancing of employment policy in favour of active labour market measures. At the same time, investment incentives are acknowledged as an important economic tool.

- **Act No. 118/2000**, which ensures the protection of employees in the event of their employer's insolvency.

Efforts to tackle the problem related to fragmentation of the legal framework in the first half of the 1990s did not achieve any results. The draft bill on adult education, prepared by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, was not supported by relevant stakeholders, amongst them employers' representatives and the Ministry of Finance. This led to a halt of the process. The most recent drawback was the rejection of the new education bill by Parliament in May 2001 (cf. Chapter 2.1.1)

which, despite focussing mainly on initial education and training, included also continuing training elements.

Consequently, necessary reform steps will be further delayed.

Law No. 347/1997 on the establishment of regions does not affect continuing training.

Systematic social partner involvement is not provided for by the existing legal acts and therefore their role remains limited.

3.1.2 POLICY FRAMEWORK

In the 1990s, no key policy objectives nor priorities for continuing training were set up at governmental level and continuing training development was largely determined by supply and demand. Over the last two years several strategic documents have been elaborated and presented to the public. This indicates a certain readiness of key stakeholders to tackle continuing training issues in a more co-ordinated and coherent way than before.

The following are key documents containing strategic elements for further continuing training development:

- the **National Employment Plan 1999**, prepared under the main responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, which includes e.g. measures to motivate employers to enable company staff to upgrade their qualifications or to participate in re-skilling measures in case of structural change or introduction of new technologies, supported by labour office interventions;
- the **National Employment Action Plan**⁷⁴, prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, was approved by the government in February 2001. It proposes to:
 - define responsibilities of various stakeholders for continuing training,
 - set up basic rules for continuing training financing,
 - extend computer literacy programmes for adults,

⁷⁴ National Employment Action Plan 2001. <http://www.mpsv.cz/scripts/1ssz/akcniplan/default.asp>

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- finalise a database of continuing training providers and training offer,
- evaluate the efficiency of training programmes in selected enterprises and
- set up support mechanisms for participation in these programmes.

Both the National Employment Plan and the National Employment Action Plan are in line with the existing EU employment policy guidelines. An implementation programme for the National Employment Action Plan was approved by the government in April 2001. Measures already under way include the development of the proposed database of continuing training providers and training offer.

- **A Strategy for Human Resources Development in the Czech Republic**⁷⁵. This document is the output of a project implemented by the National Training Fund (NTF) under Phare. The paper outlines the key challenges of human resources development (including continuing training) and proposes actions for relevant stakeholders and institutions at different levels and incentives to stimulate participation of all age groups in continuing training. The 2001 follow-up project focuses on implementing the recommendations. Planned outputs of the activity are e.g.
 - establishment of a national human resources development board to support human resources development (including continuing training), composed of key stakeholders in the area (discussions have already started);
 - creation of a human resources development management scheme at a regional level;
 - establishment of an information system to support human resources development stakeholders.
- the **National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic** (white paper) elaborated by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (cf. Chapter 2.1.2). It identifies the key problems and main priorities in adult education, i.e.

- improve the legal framework,
- implement a system for adult education, including mechanisms for quality assurance, accreditation and certification,
- develop and implement a set of incentives to encourage participation in education and training in addition to the existing ones (higher unemployment benefits for those participating in re-training measures organised by labour offices, inclusion of training costs in overall enterprise expenditure).

Moreover, it is proposed to

- define the roles and responsibilities of major stakeholders in continuing training,
- establish clear rules and procedures for continuing training financing,
- start negotiations on incentives for different target groups between government representatives and social partners to stimulate continuing training development, e.g. incentives for employers to increase continuing training investment, for job seekers to encourage participation in re-training, for continuing training providers to align continuing training supply and demand, and for individuals to foster openness for continuing education in general,
- to develop accreditation mechanisms for knowledge and skills by informal and non-formal learning.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports assumes to play a key role in continuing training. This was reinforced by assigning the co-ordination of consultations on the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. The key messages of the memorandum correspond partly to the objectives and proposals outlined in the white paper.

The challenge ahead is to translate the recommendations formulated in the white papers, in particular those reinforcing the lifelong learning concept, into practical measures. Co-operation of

⁷⁵ Human Resources Development Strategy for the Czech Republic, discussion version for the conference Czech Human Resources at the Crossroads. Prague: National Training Fund 2000.

the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports with all relevant stakeholders (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, National Training Fund, social partners, etc.) is a precondition for progress in this field.

Additional strategic papers that contain continuing training and lifelong learning elements are **the Concept of Information Policy in Education**⁷⁶ prepared by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and **'A Vision of the Development of the Czech Republic until 2015'** presented in March 2001⁷⁷ (cf. Chapter 2.1.2).

All these documents stress the importance of a strategic vision and an adequate legal framework for continuing training in a lifelong learning perspective. Despite different target groups and, linked to that, a variation in priorities, they confirm the intention of stakeholders to tackle continuing training and human resources development issues in a more systematic way.

3.1.3 RESOURCES

Funding

Continuing training is funded from public as well as private resources. Statistical data on the overall expenditure for continuing training are not available, and the contributions of major stakeholders (state, regions, municipalities, employees, trade unions, professional associations, etc.), with the exception of enterprises, cannot be quantified.

In order to estimate the financial input, continuing training needs to be broken down into three main areas:

- adults participating in study programmes within the formal education system (mainly on a part-time basis);
- re-training of the unemployed;
- continuing training of employed people provided for by enterprises.

Costs for the first two areas are covered from the state budget, training of employed persons initiated by enterprises is funded either by the companies or by employees themselves.

Study programmes organised at state schools are free of charge for participants. Costs are covered from the **Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports' budget.** Expenditure for an adult student corresponds to a certain percentage of the amount spent for a full-time student. This percentage decreased from 30% in 1998 to 10% in 2000. In absolute figures, the expenditure for one adult student amounted to approx. 9,000 CZK (ca. €250) per year (1998) at upper secondary level and approx. 13,000 CZK (ca. €360) at tertiary level⁷⁸. The total expenditure amounted to approx. 900 million CZK (ca. €25 million) or approx. 2.3 % of the total expenditure on education from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports budget. This amount has been relatively stable over the last years.

Costs for the **re-training of the unemployed** are covered by the **budget of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs** and constitute only part of the actual budget revenue achieved from employers' and employees' employment policy contributions (3.6% of the payroll). This component of continuing training provision is statistically well documented.

The data available indicate that the increase in expenditure has two main reasons:

- higher numbers of participants in re-training courses due to an increase in unemployment, and
- higher costs per training participant.

The current trend indicates a further increase of re-training expenditure⁷⁹.

According to the **CVTS 2** carried out by Eurostat, **Czech enterprises spend approximately 1.9% of their labour costs**

⁷⁶ Concept of Information Policy in Education. <http://www.msmt.cz/SIPVZ/Documents>.

⁷⁷ *The Vision of Development of the Czech Republic until 2015*. Prague: Gutenberg 2001. ISBN 80-86349-02-0.

⁷⁸ *Statistical Yearbook of Education 1998*, Economic Indicators in Sector of Education. Prague: Institute for Information in Education 1999. ISBN 80-211-0310-8.

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for training measures for employees, compared to 1.3% in Slovenia, 1.2% in Hungary and 1.8% in Estonia. In the EU, the expenditure for continuing training courses ranged from 1.2% of labour costs in Portugal to 3.0% of labour costs in Denmark⁸⁰.

The readiness to invest in training appears to be higher in enterprises with foreign capital. Total expenditure amounts to ca. 10 billion CZK or €280 million per year (estimate). This amount appears to have been relatively stable over the previous years with variations linked to economic performance.

Teachers

There is no specific category of continuing training teachers. After acquiring the formal qualifications according to the legal provisions of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, teachers at state schools may give lectures both for young and adult students. Insufficient co-operation with enterprises, limited practical experience in industry, and lack of specific pedagogical tools for teaching adults are among the major shortcomings in this area.

With regard to non-state continuing training provision, there are no established qualification requirements for teachers and trainers. It is up to individual training providers to set up criteria, e.g. a relevant professional background, for specific areas, such as management training.

3.1.4 THE STRUCTURE AND ORGANISATION OF CONTINUING TRAINING

Continuing training provision

The current continuing training structures and provision is fragmented and scarcely transparent as a result of the fundamental changes in the nineties. The mainly sector-related training structures of the previous period ceased to exist and were

replaced by a disparate group of newly established private training providers with different profiles, legal status, size, and quality standards.

Access to information on continuing training providers and training possibilities remains a problem, but there are initiatives to improve the situation (cf. chapter 3.2.2).

A comprehensive data collection system including all relevant elements of labour market development to enable robust skill needs forecasts is not in place. This limits the possibility for planning and co-ordinating continuing training provision.

The formal education and training system at upper secondary and tertiary level continues to play a major role in continuing training delivery. Education and training programmes for adults provided by upper secondary schools (primarily secondary vocational schools and secondary technical schools) are largely determined by their standard initial training offer and lead to recognised qualifications. These programmes are usually organised as part-time studies.

Approximately 30,000 adults participate in **study programmes provided by technical and vocational schools** at upper secondary level (ISCED 3), another 30,000 are registered in **programmes at tertiary level**.

Public schools and universities also provide re-training courses for the unemployed contracted by labour offices and specific short-term training courses as a service to enterprises, often related to new technologies or the use and processing of new materials. The link to formal initial training is however merely organisational. Training courses initiated by companies are carried out mainly by private training institutions. The share of public schools and universities in this market is low (1.4% of secondary schools, 3.7% of universities), although such services could compensate for budget shortages.

⁷⁹ For details, see chapter 4.

⁸⁰ Eurostat, CVTS 2, 2001

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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 continuing training⁸¹ through part-time study provision (cf. tables in annex). This service constitutes a source of additional income for schools. Vocational school facilities are also used in the framework of the project 'Academy of Crafts and Services' (cf. chapter 3.5).

The number of continuing training providers other than state schools is estimated at about 1,200 with a slightly decreasing tendency due to over-supply in the training market.

Continuing training provision is evenly spread throughout the country without significant regional disparities.

Currently, there are two trends in the development of continuing training provision by schools.

- The share of schools providing long-term courses is decreasing. Between 1996/97 and 1999/00, this share decreased by approx. 10% due to the diminishing interest of adults in long-term courses and funding shortages. Contrary to this trend, the number of adult part-time students at tertiary education establishments has been increasing steadily over the last few years⁸² (from 9.8% in 1995/96 to 13.9% in 1999/2000 of the total number of students).

Involvement of schools in short-term continuing training provision is developing at a slow pace despite an increasing demand by different client groups (individuals, enterprises and labour offices).

- Reasons for the above trends are unfavourable framework conditions

such as lack of support to continuing training activities by school authorities, long duration of approval procedures for new training programmes, insufficient organisational and financial basis for implementing highly specialised short-term programmes, limited progress in developing tailor-made teaching methodologies for adult clients, lack of adequate quality assurance mechanisms and inadequate marketing skills of school managers.

Statistical coverage varies according to groups. Re-training of unemployed in terms of numbers and characteristics of participants is well documented. Data are collected by the labour offices, and compiled and synthesised by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. These data underpin the trend towards increasing numbers of re-training participants. It may be assumed that this is mainly due to higher unemployment. Statistical data on training initiated by enterprises have been made available in Eurostat's CVTS 2 (see also chapter 3.1.3).

According to the last annual Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports survey⁸³, the number of providers of re-training initiated by labour offices has been increasing (1,433 in 1998, 1,578 in 1999 and 1,825 in 2000). From 1997 to 2000, the number of participants increased from 11,918 to 32,260, and the share of participants in re-training in relation to the total number of registered unemployed increased from 4.4% to 7.0%⁸⁴. Despite this increase, the participation rate is still considerably lower compared to EU member states.

At the same time, there are examples of providers suffering from client shortages, and some Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports - accredited providers are not involved in training activities of this type at all. Approximately 72% of re-training providers are private training firms, 20%

⁸¹ *Statistical Yearbook of Education, Indicators of Performance*. Prague: Institute for Information on Education 2000. ISBN 80-211-0354-X.

⁸² *Statistical Yearbook of Education, Indicators of Performance*. Prague: Institute for Information in Education 2000. ISBN 80-211-0354-X.

⁸³ Palán, Zdenek: *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.

⁸⁴ 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>.

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are schools and ca. 6% are enterprises. The modalities including funding of re-training provision are agreed between labour offices and training providers in the respective region/district.

Recent surveys⁸⁵ show an upward trend of in-company training, which increased in almost half the enterprises between 1996 and 1998. Enterprises use both their own training departments and external training providers. Involvement of internal trainers and line managers in continuing training has increased and computers are used more frequently in the training context. Specific training facilities are available mainly in larger companies, e.g. Český Telekom. As an exceptional case, Škoda Auto runs a secondary technical school, a higher professional school and a university, which are open to the public as well.

According to the **Eurostat CVTS 2, in-service continuing training plays an important role**, and the Czech Republic ranks first among candidate countries in terms of training provision. 69% of enterprises provide continuing training, compared to 48% in Slovenia, 37% in Hungary, and 11% in Romania. Compared to EU Member States, the figures for the Czech Republic are similar to those of Austria with 72%, Luxembourg with 71% and Belgium with 70%, but lower than the figures for Denmark (96%), the Netherlands (88%) and Ireland (79%). Only Spain with 36% and Portugal with 22% lag behind considerably. The **participation rate** is high with 49%, compared to 46% in Slovenia, 26% in Hungary and 20% in Romania. Compared to EU Member States, the Czech Republic is placed in the centre (Denmark 55%, Ireland 52%, Belgium 54%, Austria 35%, Spain 44%). The participation rate of women is considerably lower (41%) than that of men (53%)⁸⁶.

Concerning the number of continuing training course hours per participant, the

Czech Republic ranks only in the eighth position with 27 hours for women and 24 hours for men (Romania: 46 hours for women, 40 for men; Hungary 38 hours for both genders; Slovenia 21 hours for women, 27 for men). In EU Member States the number of course hours ranges from 56/31 in Denmark to 25/28 in Germany⁸⁷.

Other surveys⁸⁸ indicate that there are considerable differences with regard to continuing training for employees related to sectors (the highest participant numbers can be found in the banking sector), size of the enterprises (the lowest numbers in small and medium-sized enterprises), and qualification levels of participants (tertiary education graduates rank first).

Employers are responsible for continuing training that is compulsory for specific professions (e.g. physicians, electrical engineers, welders, etc.) as defined in sector-related laws and regulations. Such courses are organised either internally or externally. Examples for sector-specific continuing training are two sectoral training establishments in the power generation and power distribution sector, which offer both obligatory and optional continuing training to employees at power plants and other relevant enterprises.

A specific survey among member institutions of the Association of Institutions for the Education of Adults (AIVD)⁸⁹ (a non-governmental body of voluntary members without formal responsibilities) indicates a certain dynamic with regard to continuing training aims and course content as well as course types, e.g.:

- an increasing ratio of short-term courses;
- an increasing number of courses (1998: 363 re-training courses accredited by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, 1999: 467 courses, 2000: 608 courses);

⁸⁵ Koubek, Josef: The Cranfield Project of European Human Resource Management, *Acta Oeconomica Pragensia*. Prague: University of Economics 2000. ISSN 0572-3043.

⁸⁶ CVTS2, Eurostat 2002.

⁸⁷ *ibid.*

⁸⁸ Kuchar, Pavel: *School Graduates in the Czech Republic*, Prague: Universitas 1998.

⁸⁹ Palán, Zdenek: *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.

- an increasing number of participants (reported by more than 50% of the respondents).

Quality assurance, accreditation and certification

A comprehensive quality assurance system at national, regional, local and institutional levels is not in place, but there are a number of initiatives that aim at maintaining good quality levels in training.

The **Commission for Accreditation of Re-training Programmes** at the **Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports** seeks to maintain quality standards of re-training by accrediting specific programmes. When selecting training to be implemented, labour offices usually give preference to accredited programmes for re-training of unemployed.

The **Association of Institutions for the Education of Adults** deals with quality issues (e.g. certification of lecturers, preparation of a certification system for programmes and institutions, ethical code), but has no decision-making powers.

In-company training does not have to meet any formal quality criteria, but there are examples of good practice in quality assurance of re-training courses, e.g. in the banking sector or large enterprises (mostly with foreign capital), such as Škoda-Auto. Initiatives in the area of quality assurance are limited to pilot activities (e.g. a Leonardo da Vinci project, EXTQM, aiming at developing a quality assessment methodology for continuing training providers). Assessment, recognition and certification of informal and non-formal training have been identified as issues to be tackled in the strategic documents referred to above. So far, this has not resulted in any concrete outputs.

Continuing training provided within the formal education system is subject to the same monitoring procedures by the School Inspectorate as initial training. Concerning certification, there is no difference between part-time studies for adults and standard

programmes for young people on a full time basis. The certificates obtained are acknowledged throughout the country and evidence the respective qualification acquired.

Other types of continuing training are certified as well, but certificates are valid only in specific contexts, e.g. firms, or they confirm participation in and conclusion of specific training courses.

Social dialogue and social partner involvement

The role of social partners in continuing training design and provision is restricted to a consultative function defined in the current regulatory and institutional framework. The existing platforms enabling social dialogue at national level are the Council of Economic and Social Agreement and the Council for Education Policy (see 2.2.1). At regional and local levels, similar structures do not exist.

Neither employers' associations nor trade unions have defined roles and responsibilities or executive powers with regard to continuing training. Continuing vocational training issues are discussed in the relevant bodies (e.g. the School Commission of the Confederation of Industry and Transport of the Czech Republic, The Co-ordination Council of Secondary and Basic Schools of the Union of Employers' Associations, the Education and Training Department of the Czech-Moravian Confederation of Trade Unions), but there are no mechanisms in place to translate the discussion outcomes into practical measures.

In the framework of collective bargaining at company level, trade unions normally focus on wages and terms of employment rather than continuing training.

The education and training division of the Economic Chamber of the Czech Republic focuses on continuing training for entrepreneurs and craftsmen, implemented by its Academy of Crafts and Services.

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3.2 THE RESPONSIVENESS OF CONTINUING TRAINING PROVISION TO THE NEEDS OF THE LABOUR MARKET AND THE INDIVIDUAL

3.2.1. RESPONSIVENESS OF CONTINUING TRAINING TO INDUSTRIAL CHANGE

The considerable extension and diversification of continuing training provision including management training over the previous decade can be attributed to the emergence of a training market in the context of economic change. It enabled flexible responses to new skill needs related to the fundamental changes of the economic structure, even though mainly on an ad hoc basis due to the absence of systematic analyses.

The growth of the continuing training sector was largely demand-driven, both by enterprises and individuals seeking to improve their career perspectives. Training was also considered an element to support the reintegration of unemployed into the labour market in the case of major lay-offs due to restructuring of traditional industries and massive reduction of work places. A number of surveys illustrate the reaction of continuing training to industrial change, including technological and organisational change. In 1996, a survey⁹⁰ among enterprises identified staff management and control, marketing and sales, quality management, information technology and new technologies, and the development of client services as most urgent needs. 1998 data indicate a shift towards quality management.

Another survey⁹¹ demonstrates a high variability of continuing training areas. In 1998, demand focused on provision of computer skills, accounting, foreign languages and basic entrepreneurial skills (for clerks and technicians), and personal services such as massage, manicure and tourist guiding, saw operating, sewing and

shop assistant activities (for workers). Over the last three years, there has been a shift towards general skills, e.g. communication skills, and personal development.

The predominant pattern of re-training courses follows occupational lines. This is confirmed by the surveys mentioned above (e.g. continuing training for accountants incl. examination and certification, continuing training for physicians in accordance with the rules the relevant professional associations). It indicates the limited involvement of sector bodies in continuing training, but also the absence of more systematic approaches to training as a strategic tool.

With regard to **management training**, the National Training Fund established with Phare funds can be considered a pioneer in fostering human resource development, mainly by focusing on the quality of management training and ensuring compatibility of managerial qualifications with those in the EU.

The role of management training in promoting entrepreneurship will be assessed in chapter 3.4.

3.2.2. RESPONSIVENESS OF CONTINUING TRAINING TO INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

Generally speaking, the currently existing continuing training provision has a certain potential to respond to individual needs, given the wide scope of the education and training offer provided by the formal school system, private training establishments and enterprises. The wide variety of educational and training possibilities on the one hand is juxtaposed by an equally wide scope of individual needs that include personal as well as professional aspects.

Continuing vocational training provided within the formal school system shows the same structural, organisational and curricular inflexibility that prevails in initial training. **Distance learning and modular**

⁹⁰ Koubek, Josef: The Cranfield Project on European Human Resource Management, *Acta Oeconomica* Pragensia. Prague: Univeristy of Economics 2000. ISSN 0572-3043.

⁹¹ Palán, Zdenek: 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.

courses in continuing training do not play a major role, curricula follow linear patterns, horizontal and vertical permeability is limited, traditional teaching methodologies predominate, and there are no mechanisms to accredit prior learning. According to the survey mentioned above⁹², only 11% of Czech training firms provide distance learning courses. The number of distance learning programmes in tertiary education even decreased in 2000 (to 87), following a period of steady increase between 1997 and 1999 (84, 94, 131), according to figures published annually in the catalogue of the Study Centre for Tertiary Education⁹³.

These factors reduce the possibility of adult students to adapt the training offer according to their needs, e.g. through individual pathways.

Re-training provided by labour offices and enterprises is rather narrow and focuses primarily on immediate needs without offering a wider human resource development dimension in a lifelong learning perspective. However, in terms of responding to the needs of the individual (the priority issue in this case is reintegration into the labour market), re-training can be considered responsive. An example on the effectiveness of re-training courses is illustrated by data collected by the Labour Office in Ostrava (Northern Moravia). About 140 courses were organised in 2000 and approx. 40% of their participants found a job within 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 a job within the six months after the courses.

Motivation of individuals to invest in further development of their capacities by targeted training is rather low due to factors such as lack of incentives, and to a certain degree also to the existing social

assistance scheme in the Czech Republic (for more details see chapter 4).

Counselling and career guidance is not adequately prepared to meet the needs of adults due to fragmentation, insufficient links between the different counselling and guidance bodies and staffing shortages, in particular at the Information and Guidance Centres at district labour offices. Mechanisms to ensure systematic co-operation between the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs need to be established (cf. chapter 2.2.1).

A promising initiative launched by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is the implementation of a nation-wide information database of continuing training providers and the existing training offer. The information will be accessible through the Internet and will be available for counselling and guidance purposes.

The development of preventive approaches to anticipate and respond to the needs of those threatened by unemployment has recently been given increased attention. This is confirmed by the results of the specific survey⁹⁴ and it was also verified by field research carried out between March and May 2001. As a first step, co-operation of labour offices with employers, regional authorities, continuing training providers and other bodies at a regional level has started. Moreover, labour offices collaborate with schools and school authorities with the objective to update training programmes according to regional needs. There are also co-operation examples of labour offices with large enterprises envisaging staff cuts in order to start re-training measures for staff threatened by unemployment in a timely manner to prevent subsequent job loss.

A large number of enterprises do not systematically use continuing training as a

⁹² Palán, Zdenek: Special Monograph Survey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Training and Labour Market, National Training Fund 2001.

⁹³ Offer of Study Programmes Realized in the Czech Republic, Distance and Combined Form. Prague: National Centre for Distance Education, Higher Education Study Centre 1999.

⁹⁴ Vylítová, Markéta: Special Country Monograph Survey carried out among Labour Offices. Prague: National Observatory for Vocational Education and Labour Market, National Training Fund, 2001.

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tool for human resource development, although there are examples of enterprises with human resource development policies and plans that include training components. An adequate policy framework promoting continuing training and encouraging employers to invest in upgrading their staff's skills by offering incentives is not in place.

Generally speaking, despite the broad continuing training offer, many of the options at hand are not properly adapted to the wider needs of adults. In order to create adequate possibilities for adults to acquire recognised qualifications for personal or professional reasons, a project focusing on the support of training centres for adults has been proposed by the National Training Fund within the Phare 2001 programme. The aim of the project is to establish adult vocational 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, reflecting their experience and skills.

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 AND MEASURES PROMOTING ACCESS TO CONTINUING TRAINING FOR DISADVANTAGED AND EMARGINATED GROUPS

The phenomenon of unemployment that emerged in the early transition phase affected all parts of the population, but some groups turned out to be particularly vulnerable and in danger of permanent social exclusion.

A comprehensive government policy addressing the needs of disadvantaged groups, combining social and educational components, is lacking.

The most recent planning documents (National Employment Plan and National Employment Action Plan 2001) set out general objectives such as preferential treatment of disadvantaged groups in retraining⁹⁵, or the extension of re-socialisation courses⁹⁶, but without quantifiable implementation targets.

The National Employment Action Plan 2001 refers to the following groups as being gradually displaced from the labour market:

- low qualified and unqualified unemployed;
- long-term unemployed;
- young school graduates and people with incomplete education;
- women with young children (both on maternity leave and afterwards);
- the disabled;
- Roma population.

Current measures to promote access to continuing training of vulnerable groups are based on various legal provisions, related either to the education sector or to the labour and social affairs sector. They remain fragmented and often depend on local initiatives either by labour offices or non-governmental organisations.

The lack of an overall framework might lead to a certain 'creaming effect', e.g. focusing re-training mainly on those unemployed whose chances to be integrated into the mainstream labour market are comparatively higher than those of groups with less favourable starting positions.

Measures at government level

Current continuing training provision and practices lack mechanisms to encourage and motivate individuals belonging to groups at risk.

⁹⁵ National Employment Plan - measures 1.5.3

⁹⁶ National Employment Plan - measures 1.8.3

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Measures within the formal education system aiming at integrating disadvantaged groups and improving access to education, e.g. courses to complete basic education, are not embedded in an overall concept of lifelong learning for all.

Theoretically, the current part-time study programmes within the formal education system are open for disadvantaged groups, but cannot be considered a realistic option because of entry requirements and long duration (normally 4-5 years). Since additional support measures, i.e. preparatory courses, are not foreseen access remains limited.

Participation in re-training courses organised by labour offices for disadvantaged groups remains limited to registered unemployed.

Access to continuing training is likely to improve through the network of counselling and diagnostic services at NUTS II level (Government Resolution No. 640/1990⁹⁷) which is being gradually⁹⁸ implemented.

Measures related to non-governmental organisations and social programmes

Non-governmental organisations often take the lead in initiating training activities and services for target groups that are otherwise neglected by the state policy. A wide variety of educational activities are organised as part of social programmes managed by national or local bodies or non-profit organisations in addition to the activities of labour offices. These activities are subsidised by the state by annual grants. The financial instability has a negative impact on the sustainability of these projects. Despite the problems of the non-profit sector, it remains a driving force

with regard to services for groups at risk of exclusion⁹⁹.

Measures for Roma population

The level of educational attainment among adult Roma people is still very low – according to estimates, there are currently only some 3% of young Roma people who have achieved an upper secondary education¹⁰⁰. Despite this, four Resolutions on Roma matters (including two that deal with educational issues¹⁰¹, mainly related to initial education of Roma children and young people) do not include the objective to provide targeted training measures for the adult Roma population and to increase their motivation to participate in further education. Continuing education issues are mainly conceived as support to initial education and training measures, e.g. training of teachers working in schools with a higher share of Roma children, programmes for Romany advisors working in public administration or Romany assistants employed by schools.

The Inter-Departmental Commission for Roma Issues, set up in 1997 as an advisory body to the government, focuses on general policy matters, but proposes also targeted measures.

Although the need to develop specific measures for the Romany population to counteract social exclusion is widely acknowledged, policy measures remain fragmented and are not accompanied by sufficient funds. Apart from that, the development of targeted programmes is hampered by lack of precise information (e.g. unemployment rate, participation in various programmes, etc.) because of legal provisions that prevent Romany issues to be monitored separately. Registration according to ethnic criteria is not foreseen.

⁹⁷ Government Resolution no. 640/1999 on measures promoting employment of persons with difficulties finding positions in the labour market.

⁹⁸ 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 co-operate with the relevant specialised centres.

⁹⁹ *Education and Training Against Social Exclusion: Report on the Situation in the Czech Republic*, National Observatory, 2000.

¹⁰⁰ An Outline of Government Policy towards Members of Romany Community Promoting their Integration into Society.

¹⁰¹ Government Resolution no. 686/1997 concerning the Report on the Situation of the Romany Community in the Czech Republic and Government Resolution no. 599/2000 entitled "An Outline of Government Policy towards Members of Romany Community Promoting their Integration into Society".

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This is why in general labour offices do not organise **special retraining courses for Roma population**¹⁰². However, in districts/regions with a relatively high proportion of Roma, such as North-West Bohemia, specific courses are organised, most frequently focused on re-socialisation and motivation, practical skills, training for security services, etc. Although there are good examples – either explicitly designed for Romany¹⁰³ or not – the provision of re-socialisation and motivation courses addressing the specific needs of this ethnic group need to be further developed.

Resources earmarked for active employment policy are also used to fund continuing education programmes within the framework of labour office-organised re-training to provide qualifications for Roma advisors and assistants in public administration, public services and self-government, social workers for the Roma population, workers in anti-drug and counselling centres, children's homes etc. Similar courses are also provided for by Roma and Pro-Roma organisations financed from various EU sources. Over the last year the interest in these programmes has decreased, which seems to be linked to the on-going reform of public administration and the unclear division of responsibilities. Due to the lack of co-ordination, the impact of these activities remains limited.

3.3.2 CONTINUING TRAINING FOR DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

Detailed statistical data on continuing training for disadvantaged groups are not available.

Participation of unemployed people in re-training is low in general (see chapter 3.2), and disadvantaged groups are seriously underrepresented. While the

average participation in re-training was 7% of the total number of unemployed, analyses¹⁰⁴ show that only around 4% of the long-term unemployed (over 12 months), 3% of the disabled and 2.7% of low qualified people underwent re-training in 2000. The proportion of targeted re-training is not linked to the unemployment rate. On the contrary, due to the "creaming effect", the lowest participation of disadvantaged groups in re-training courses can be found in districts with a high unemployment rate.

The interest of **low-qualified people** in re-training and continuing education is limited¹⁰⁵ and not sufficiently stimulated by counselling services and other measures such as pre-retraining, re-socialisation and motivation courses, which only account for approximately 9% of all re-training courses¹⁰⁶. Other negative factors include the possibility to turn down re-training opportunities without negative consequences regarding disbursement of benefits and rather vague rules related to provision and funding of motivation courses.

Compared to other groups of unemployed, participation of young **school graduates** in re-training courses is above average (approximately 12%). Most re-training programmes for young unemployed and school graduates aim at increasing their employability by providing additional skills required in the labour market. The situation of young people with only basic education and consequently no qualification at all is precarious, as the re-training measures provided cannot substitute for full training programmes in formal education and training. In those cases, additional measures would be needed.

According to the specific country monograph mini-survey¹⁰⁷, approximately 40% of private providers deliver courses for

¹⁰² 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 Romanies.

¹⁰³ For example, programmes implemented by the labour office in Most

¹⁰⁴ Rákoczyová, M. – Sirovátka, T.: Analýza cílenosti rekvalifikací ("Analysis of Targeted Retraining"), Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs, 2001

¹⁰⁵ A questionnaire survey at labour offices, 1998, Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs

¹⁰⁶ A questionnaire survey at labour offices, 1998, Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs

disadvantaged groups funded by labour offices or other public institutions. The involvement of private training institutions largely depends on market demand.

Non-profit sector involvement in educational activities has only a local impact, but ensures flexible reactions to specific needs of clearly defined at risk groups. Although information on the scope and type of these courses, the numbers of participants and their structure is incomplete, it may be concluded that supply and demand are not balanced properly.

3.4 CONTRIBUTION OF CONTINUING TRAINING TO PROMOTE EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES OF 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

Explicit access restrictions for women to initial and continuing education and training do not exist. This is underpinned by the high participation of women in re-training organised by labour offices (ca. 56% of participants in re-training, while their proportion in the total number of unemployed is slightly over 50%). In addition to normal re-training, there are specific courses for women re-entering the labour market. The participation rate of women in part-time education provided by schools is stable (55% in upper secondary courses with '*maturita*', and over 70% in higher professional courses; there is a lower proportion of women in vocational courses without '*maturita*') and corresponds to their proportion in employment.

In reality, however, the conditions for certain groups of women (particularly those on maternity leave and with small children) are more difficult due to limited distance education possibilities and a number of clauses in existing legal provisions that exclude women from participation in re-training courses during maternity leave. Existing laws (Employment Act, Act on State Social Benefits) have not been amended yet.

The non-profit sector has tried new approaches, but progress is hampered by limited co-operation with public administration, financial constraints and lack of appropriate information flows.

3.4.2 PROACTIVE MEASURES TO PROMOTE EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES IN EMPLOYMENT

Despite the non-existence of targeted measures to promote equal opportunities in employment, the economic activity of women remains at a relatively high level and does not drop below 60%, even at the age of active maternity. Between the age of 35 and 55 the economic activity rate of women is ca. 86 – 90%¹⁰⁸ and does not differ largely from that of men. The percentage of women entrepreneurs is low (23 – 30%¹⁰⁹).

However, the existing differences between men and women as regards their position in the labour market prevail. According to surveys¹¹⁰, the average wage of women is almost 30% lower than that of men – particularly in the business sector. Differences in the level of educational attainment play merely a marginal role. Approximately one third of this wage difference may be ascribed to fact that women are often placed in low-paid jobs, in low-profile companies and at the low-paid end of the hierarchy within companies. Around two thirds of the wage gap are likely to be caused by pay discrimination,

¹⁰⁷ See Annex

¹⁰⁸ *Modernisation of VET in the Czech Republic*, Czech National Observatory, 2000.

¹⁰⁹ Labour Force Survey, 4th Quarter, 2000 (23% is related to the number of business people with employees, 30% is related to the number of self-employed without employees)

¹¹⁰ Jurajda, Š.: *Gender Wage Gap and Segregation in Late Transition*, CERGE, 2000

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which occurs less frequently in the public sector. The potential extent of pay discrimination in the youngest generation is significantly lower.

Employers are concerned about higher level of absenteeism on the part of women with small children and their limited willingness to accept shift work. According to questionnaire surveys¹¹¹, over 50% of employers employ women on a part-time basis – particularly in the service sector. (On the other hand, one third of companies refused to modify working hours in any way). One fourth of employers offer women additional training courses upon their return from maternity leave. Among those, a considerable number is operating with foreign capital.

The proportion of flexible working arrangements for women is low. The objective to increase this possibility is set out in the National Employment Plan as well as in the National Employment Action Plan. To date, these intentions remain mere paper declarations, since concrete implementation steps (such as counselling, financial incentives, etc.) still lack.

Among other factors, the absence of targeted counselling services, specific re-training measures, a shortage of social care facilities and inadequacies related to the legal provision (law on social assistance) hamper equal opportunities of women in the labour market.

3.4.3 MONITORING AND TARGETS FOR REDUCING GENDER GAPS

Although the document on **Government Priorities and Procedures in Pursuing Equality of Men and Women** was adopted by the government already in 1998 and the implementation of the priorities is assessed on an annual basis, progress has been relatively slow. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is responsible for co-ordinating activities in this context. An inter-departmental

commission for equal opportunities was also established at the ministry. However, to date, this issue is treated rather formally. Systematic approaches – e.g. training provision for civil servants and awareness raising initiatives – are not being applied.

The promotion of equal opportunities is also part of new employment policy documents such as the National Employment Plan and National 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).

Despite efforts at policy level and project initiatives of specialised institutions such as the Sociological Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, a more general awareness of gender issues and the need for specific actions seems to be only vaguely developed.

3.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE SYSTEM TO PROMOTING ENTREPRENEURSHIP

At the beginning of the 1990s, the development of measures to promote entrepreneurship was considered a priority. Management training as an important aspect of promoting entrepreneurship developed in a similar way as continuing training in general and has been largely determined by supply and demand.

The employment aspects of entrepreneurship are acknowledged by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. This is reflected also in the National Employment Action Plan¹¹² that contains measures to foster entrepreneurship. The timetable for the implementation of these measures is currently under preparation.

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

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

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Knowledge and skills related to company management - such as accounting, management, marketing, business and trade¹¹³ - are elements of training programmes of all continuing training providers, and they most certainly facilitate the development of a culture of entrepreneurship.

Approximately 10% of continuing training providers focus on the provision of management training¹¹⁴. Training institutions respond flexibly to client demand, making use of know-how developed abroad. This constitutes an important element of training programmes, in particular in the framework of foreign aid programmes such as Phare and Tempus.

The scope of management training programmes offered in the training market is wide and covers areas such as quality and strategic management, finance, trade skills, leadership, communication, teamwork, innovation, negotiation skills, etc., often in a short-term format. Current trends include

- a shift from general management theory to specific management fields (e. g. foreign trade management);
- a growing interest in international and inter-cultural management subjects;
- a shift from knowledge transfer to provision of skills.

At present, quality assurance mechanisms related to management training provision are still limited. The National Training Fund's mission to support and develop management training included extending the scope of management training, increasing training quality, widening access to training with a view to improving management of enterprises in the public and private sector had a positive impact both on the quality of provision and demand.

Examples of National Training Fund activities are:

- the establishment of a network of training institutions;
- needs analyses, programme development and know-how transfer including monitoring, evaluating and supporting selected management training programmes,;
- development of teaching and methodological materials and training of trainers;
- provision of information and counselling services;
- support to initiatives related to quality assessment and quality assurance.

Besides the National Training Fund, other non-governmental organisations are concerned with management training issues as well (e.g. the Association of Institutions of Adult Education, the Association of Management Trainers and Consultants, the Czech Association of MBA Studies, the Czech Association of Management Education and Training Institutions CAMETIN, etc.). The lack of co-ordination remains a major barrier to the overall improvement of the sector, together with lack of transparency and high costs for companies and individuals.

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 Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports on the use of some vocational schools, facilities and teachers for training of entrepreneurs who wish to improve their knowledge and skills. The Chamber developed curricula for training courses for several branches (e.g. plumbers, car repair services). The first groups of attendants finished their training in 2001 and it is expected that the development of this project will continue over the following years. One important aspect of this activity is the comparability of knowledge and skills of Czech craftsmen with their counterparts from EU member states.

¹¹³ Palán, Zdenek: Minisurvey on Current Trends in the Continuing Vocational Training. Prague: National Observatory, National Training Fund, 2000.

¹¹⁴ *Modernisation of VET in the Czech Republic*, Prague: Czech National Observatory, 2000.

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The Chambers at district level (approximately 110,000 inhabitants on average) organise training courses for entrepreneurs in the region as well; however, training issues are not among the priority activities of the Chambers. As the membership of entrepreneurs in the Chamber is voluntary, the impact of Chambers in the districts varies.

In addition to training measures, the establishment of a network of regional information centres for entrepreneurship, supported by the former Ministry of Economy, attempted to improve the business environment in general terms. There are currently 21 regional information centres for entrepreneurship, which operate within areas of an average of half a million inhabitants, that is approximately 250,000 economically active people. The activities of the centres are co-financed by the government.

Their tasks are to

- provide information relevant to both potential and real entrepreneurs;
- organise training and seminars for their clients;
- provide assistance for self-employed.

Continuing training promoting entrepreneurship is also supported by EU programmes. The Phare programme 2000 offers support to start-up businesses, self-employed and small and medium-sized enterprise staff. 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 small and medium-sized enterprises in two pilot regions (the Ostrava region and North-West Bohemia).

In addition, Czech small and medium-sized enterprises and bigger enterprises have participated in Leonardo da Vinci pilot projects or placements in EU member states, and the number of pilot projects focused on the training of small and medium-sized enterprise staff or entrepreneurs submitted by the Czech organisations is increasing. Leonardo da Vinci also contributes to the improvement of training of self-employed adults.

3.6 CONCLUSIONS

- Continuing training development over the last decade is characterised by spontaneous development based on market principles, driven both by supply and demand. The considerable expansion of the continuing training sector in the early nineties, with an estimated 1,200 private training providers currently active in the market, contributed to the adaptation of the training offer to newly evolving training needs. On the other hand, however, the existing legal framework is limited to clearly specified areas, and the absence of an overall regulatory framework and clearly defined objectives and strategies resulted in oversupply, fragmentation and lack of transparency.
- In order to tackle these problems and to foster coherent continuing training development in a strategic perspective, a clear definition of roles, tasks and responsibilities of relevant stakeholders – i.e. ministries, social partners, professional associations – at national, regional and local level is crucial. Key areas to be addressed include funding, quality assurance, incentives to stimulate participation in and delivery of continuing training as well as the establishment of sustainable co-operation mechanisms among stakeholders in order to use the potential of continuing training to contribute to social and economic cohesion to its full extent.
- A coherent policy and strategic framework for continuing training is lacking, despite references to it in the National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic (white paper) in 2001. First steps towards a more coherent human resources development approach in a lifelong learning perspective have been taken, but, due to the non-existence of adequate follow-up in terms of specific measures, incentives and implementation schedules, there are no concrete outcomes yet.
- The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports continues to play a key role in continuing training development. This was reinforced through the recent task to co-ordinate consultations on the European Commission's Memorandum

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on Lifelong Learning. In this context, the need to develop mechanisms for accrediting prior learning was widely acknowledged, but concrete actions have not been taken yet.

- Continuing training for employees in enterprises is only vaguely covered by legal provisions and neither the role of social partners in continuing training design and provision nor possible financial contributions to continuing training are specified by any legal provisions.
- Some small steps towards systematic quality assurance in continuing training have been made, e.g. by formal accreditation of re-training providers co-operating with labour offices by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. However, an overall continuing training quality system does not exist. Certification of continuing training is regulated only for part-time study programmes provided within the formal education system, while certification for the other continuing training areas (continuing training of employees in enterprises, re-training of the unemployed), that would ensure recognition at national level and flexible pathways, has not been developed. The system of accreditation and certification of skills acquired by informal and non-formal learning does not yet exist.
- There is a certain responsiveness of continuing training to the short-term needs of labour market and individuals; however, it does not reflect the long-term needs, nor sufficiently emphasise preventive approaches. The traditional subject-driven design of training courses prevails; a modular approach is used only exceptionally.
- Counselling and guidance remain fragmented: it helps young students and job seekers, but does not sufficiently meet the needs of employed adults.
- Continuing training provision for disadvantaged groups is underdeveloped. On the one hand, the importance of continuing training and supporting measures is pointed out in a number of policy documents; on the other hand, the measures taken have only had a limited impact on increasing participation of disadvantaged in continuing training. The low interest of certain groups in re-training measures (e.g. the low skilled) is not counteracted by efficient financial or other incentives.
- Although access of women to continuing training is not explicitly limited, improvements would be needed in specific areas such as for women on parental leave who are not registered in the labour offices as job seekers, low-qualified women, and women starting their own business.
- The promotion of entrepreneurship through continuing training is mentioned by policy documents approved within the last two years (e.g. the National Employment Action Plan 2001). In practice however, specific action is mostly focused on other areas than continuing training (e.g. financial support, information and guidance). Many continuing training courses providing knowledge and skills related to entrepreneurship offered by private training firms have been developed in the last decade. Some training on entrepreneurship is also offered by Chambers, entrepreneurship centres in the regions and within the framework of specific projects. An overall framework for monitoring and evaluation is not in place.

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4

4.1 THE ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

Legal framework

The main legal documents governing public and private employment services are **Act No. 1/91 on Employment** and **Act No. 9/91 on Employment and Institutions in the Field of Employment**. The Constitution grants every Czech citizen the right to employment. As stipulated in the 1991 law, this implies that every person actively looking for work is entitled to receive assistance in finding suitable employment, as well as to training and income support in case of unemployment. In legal terms, this refers exclusively to registered job seekers. Registration is possible only for the unemployed who are available for work. Act No. 1/91 also provides the legal basis for unemployment benefits.

In accordance with the law, labour offices act as job mediators, provide information and counselling services, manage re-training, administer the register of unemployed and vacancies and the benefits agenda. In addition to the basic agenda, they also provide advisory services related to career choice and qualification requirements. Service providers can be both “physical” and “legal” bodies, i.e. individuals and corporations.

The current laws define mediation of work as a service targeted at job seekers looking for suitable jobs. At the same time, it is a service for employers looking for candidates to fill open positions. Mediation of work is supposed to include more than publishing information on vacancies. Amendments to the legal provisions that came into force on 1 January 2001 prohibit job seekers from being charged by employment agencies. The Employment Act also provides for assistance to

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employers for staff retraining, e.g. in the event of mass layoffs.

A new bill on employment combining the contents of Act 1/91 and Act 9/91 has already been approved by the Government, but has not been discussed by Parliament yet.

The Public Employment Service Administration of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is responsible for preparing ministerial directives and methodological guidelines for labour offices to ensure common understanding and uniform application of legal provisions, particularly as regards active employment policy. These legal documents are the operational tools for employment policy implementation, as they define eligibility criteria for participating in active employment measures and receiving subsidies, measures for school leavers, adaptation of existing measures to the specific employment and labour market conditions in individual districts, etc.

Other relevant acts are Act No. 72/2000 on investment incentives and Act No. 118/2000 on the protection of employees in cases of insolvency (cf. chapter 3.1.1).

The current legal provisions guarantee sufficient flexibility for labour offices in their day-to-day work. To a large extent, the scope of activities and services provided within the given legal framework depends on personal initiative and creativity of individual labour office directors and their staff.

Policy framework

The principles and objectives of Czech employment policy are set out in a number of policy documents that were developed as a response to the overall socio-economic situation. Policies are usually drafted at national level under the main responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in co-operation with other stakeholders, but are applied directly at district or regional level. Adequate mechanisms to ensure involvement of

regional and local partners (non-governmental organisations, trade unions, employers' organisations, regional governments, etc.) in the preparation of strategic documents are not in place. Therefore, the degree to which local stakeholders (primarily district labour offices) can influence policy formulation to ensure that regional and local needs are addressed properly depends largely on the active interest of local partners.

The **National Employment Plan**, a mid-term concerted strategy in the field of employment adopted by the Government in May 1999, and the **National Employment Action Plans** 2000 and 2001 are in line with EU employment policy guidelines. The measures and actions under each guideline outlined in the National Employment Plan remain at a general level. The national employment action plans identify a wide range of actions, the implementation of which potentially involves a number of ministries (cf. chapter 3.1.2).

Employment policy issues are also dealt with in other strategic documents, such as the **Sectoral Part of the Regional Development Plan – Human Resources Development** and the **Human Resources Development Sector Operational Programme**.

All existing strategy documents only have a guiding function due to the general nature of their objectives and measures. In the absence of quantifiable targets and milestones, a basis to measure progress achieved by the implementing bodies is lacking.

There are no binding regulations as regards the share of active measures in the overall labour office activities or defined quality standards of the services provided. The National Employment Plan stresses the need to increase employability in general terms, but does not sufficiently highlight the crucial role of preventive and activation measures in this context, nor the need to evaluate their cumulative impact on a regular basis.

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Structure and organisation

The Employment Service Administration - with approximately 70 employees - is a division of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. A network of Public Employment Service offices (labour offices) was established as early as 1990. It consists of 77 district labour offices that are legal entities, 56 branch offices and 116 additional permanent workplaces (i.e. micro branch offices). In accordance with the relevant legal provisions, these offices implement all main functions of public employment policy. The labour offices are directly subordinate to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, which monitors all operations through its Employment Service Administration department.

The network ensures easy access to all services for the public. In emergency situations, e.g. in the event of major layoffs, labour offices may set up temporary service units to cope with the additional challenges.

In the context of the decentralisation, a reform of public administration is under way. Related to this, one employee detached from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is currently operating in each NUTS2 region¹¹⁵. Their function is to create direct links between the regions and the ministry, and to facilitate co-operation of different stakeholders at the regional level. Their role and task description is rather vague, and their responsibilities and powers have not yet been clearly defined. Once more, there seems to be a lack of policy and systematic guidance by the central authorities.

Directors of district labour offices and the Director General of the Employment Service Administration are appointed by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs. The Director General of the Employment Service Administration has nominated one district labour office director in each administrative NUTS3 region as

co-ordinator of all activities of district labour offices in the region. These co-ordinators chair a 'regional council' of labour office directors, which provides a platform for the exchange of knowledge and experience and good practice, but apart from that, they do not have any power to enforce common approaches and actions of district labour offices in the region.

The directors of labour offices are responsible for the organisation and institutional set-up of the institution. Active labour market measures (re-training, wage subsidies for employers who offer work placements to school leavers and young people, subsidies for socially purposeful jobs and for public utility jobs and subsidies for sheltered employment for the disabled) and administration of benefits are integrated services within the labour offices. A countrywide harmonisation of structures and activities of labour offices is under discussion.

Each district labour office has an 'advisory board' composed of employers, trade unions, schools and other stakeholders. In principle the concept of advisory boards is positive, although their contribution and impact varies according to the attitudes of labour offices and their capacity to establish stable partnerships, communicate with relevant stakeholders to identify priorities, define objectives, develop coherent strategies and implement actions to achieve the agreed objectives.

Regular monitoring of labour market developments, collecting of data and reporting on activities is part of the district labour offices' obligations, but is not sufficiently complemented by more detailed analyses, e.g. on functioning of labour offices, effectiveness and efficiency of employment policy measures, impact, etc. This is a result of the current situation – a huge number of day-to-day activities – at labour offices as well as at the Employment Service Administration at central level.

¹¹⁵ With two exceptions – North-Moravia and North-West Bohemia as two of the most endangered regions (facing restructuring of mining and other heavy industry) have two detached employees from the MoLSA working there.

4.2 RESOURCE ALLOCATION TO THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Financial Resources

According to the OECD Employment Outlook 2001, public expenditure on employment policy as percentage of GDP amounted to 0.52% in 2000 (€286 million), compared to 3.12% in France (1999 data), 3.13% in Germany and 4.51% in Denmark (these EU Member States have an unemployment rate similar or slightly lower than the Czech Republic)¹¹⁶. Expenditure on

Public Employment Service administration was 0.08% of GDP (€44 million), compared to 0.17% in France, 0.23% in Germany and 0.11% in Denmark. Funds allocated for active labour market measures in 2000 amounted to only 0.22% of GDP, equivalent to €121 million (1.36% in France, 1.23% in Germany), of which 0.02% (€11 million) was earmarked for training (0.23% in France, 0.34% in Germany)¹¹⁷.

The following table gives an overview of active employment policy measures, public expenditure and participant inflow in the Czech Republic¹¹⁸.

Programme categories	Czech Republic							
	Public expenditure as a percentage of GDP				percentage of the labour force			
	1997	1998	1999	2000	1997	1998	1999	2000
PES and administration	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.08				
Labour market training	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.22	0.32	0.44	0.64
• Training for UE adults and those at risk	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.22	0.33	0.44	0.64
• Training for employed adults	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Youth measures	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.18	0.21	0.22
• Measures for UE and disadvantaged youth	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.18	0.21	0.22
• Support of apprenticeship and related forms of general youth training	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Subsidised employment	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.09	0.30	0.39	0.60	0.91
• Subsidies to regular employment in the private sector	-	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.13	0.24	0.41
• Support of unemployed persons starting enterprises	-	-	0.01	0.01	-	-	0.06	0.11
• Direct job creation (public or non-profit)	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.23	0.23	0.31	0.39
Measures for the disabled	-	0.01	0.01	0.01	-	-	-	-
• Vocational rehabilitation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
• Work for the disabled	-	0.01	0.01	0.01	-	-	-	-
Unemployment compensation	0.20	0.23	0.31	0.30				
Early retirement for labour market reasons	-	-	-		-	-	-	-
TOTAL	0.32	0.36	0.50	0.52				
Active measures (1-5)	0.11	0.13	0.19	0.22	0.59	0.90	1.27	1.77
Passive measures (6 and 7)	0.20	0.23	0.31	0.30	-	-	-	-
FOR REFERENCE: GDP (national currency, at current prices, in billions)	1,680	1,829	1,833	1,911	5,185	5,201	5,218	5,186
Labour force (thousands)								

¹¹⁶ OECD Employment Outlook, June 2001

¹¹⁷ *ibid.*

¹¹⁸ *ibid.* (Statistical annex H)

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The financial resources available for employment policy are based on the insurance principle. 'State employment policy contributions' are collected together with social insurance (pension and sickness) contributions by the Czech Administration of Social Security. They amount to 3.6% of the wage bill, shared between employees (0.4%) and employers (3.2%). The contributions to state employment policy paid within the social insurance scheme are currently perceived as state budget revenue. Expenditure on employment policy (both active and passive) reached 11.2 billion CZK (ca. €286 million) in 2000. This is only 50% of the estimated total amount of money that flows into the state budget through the above-mentioned contributions. For this reason, a separation of the Employment Service Administration from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and its transformation into a fund has already been discussed for some time. The actual budget available for active labour market policy is the result of annual negotiations with the Ministry of Finance.

The budgets of individual labour offices are calculated on the basis of 18 criteria (e.g. unemployment rate, age and education structure of the unemployed, expenditure during the previous year, etc.) and allocated to the districts by the Employment Service Administration of the MoLSA. Labour offices themselves do not have much influence on the total amount they have at their disposal.

When active employment policy measures were launched in the beginning of the nineties, unemployment was low (around 3%). Active and passive measures were understood as "communicating vessels". Following a decrease of the share of active employment policy expenditure in total employment policy expenditure during the nineties, there has been again an upward trend since 1999 with a share of 25.2% and 37.5% in 2000, compared to 31.5% in 1991, 34.6% in 1993 and only 13.9% in 1997.

A similar development can be observed regarding the number of participants in active employment policy measures. Following a peak in 1991 (70,342 people), the number decreased significantly (30,745 people in 1997) and went up until 1999 (66,707 people). In 2000, 62,770 people benefited from active measures¹¹⁹.

These trends need to be assessed in relation to the unemployment rate and the average duration of unemployment. Administrative costs are rising in absolute terms, while they remain stable in relation to GDP. Their relation to active employment policy expenditures has been decreasing since 1995. For more details, see the tables in Annex 1.

The financial regulations governing active employment policy measures are strict as concerns technical and financial details (i.e. the maximum amount of support for job placements, maximum subsidy for public utility jobs, percentage of contributions to re-qualification courses, etc.). On the other hand, there are no centrally determined priorities and targets, nor other rules related to the division of the total district labour office budget among individual active measures. Allocation of funds to specific measures and handling of financial resources¹²⁰ in general largely depend on the labour office director.

Staffing

Between 1991 and 2000 the number of Employment Service staff rose from 2,688 to 4,900. While the number of registered unemployed multiplied by 2.71 from 1992 to 1999, the number of employees at labour offices multiplied only by 1.75 during that period. In addition, the scope of tasks performed by labour office staff has widened and includes also the investment incentives agenda and lay-offs in case of insolvency.

The relation labour office staff to clients has increased from one to 34.1 in 1995 to one to 93.3 in 2000 (cf. tables in annex).

¹¹⁹ Active Employment Policy Analysis, Albur Market Yearbook, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Prague

¹²⁰ There are examples of good practice, such as in the Most district – according to the Country Monograph field research in March 2001. The district labour office in Most co-operates with many different stakeholders at the labour market in respect of job creation, requalification and vulnerable groups support.

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There is no mechanism for assessing staffing needs at national level. Some district labour office directors (e.g. in the Teplice district) have elaborated a scheme of all activities to be performed, their regularity and extent. However, there are no indications that such a scheme is used in other districts as well. In case of acute staffing bottlenecks, capacities are increased by more intense co-operation with NGOs, private training providers, etc.¹²¹.

In connection with an increase of the average duration of unemployment, and higher numbers of long-term unemployed (36,218 people in 1995, 144,726 people in 1999 with a duration of unemployment over 12 months), there is also a need for more counselling and guidance to be provided by labour offices. However, there is not enough capacity to meet this need. This is confirmed also by research carried out by the Research Institute of Labour and Social Affairs (RILSA).

Staffing bottlenecks occur both at the level of labour offices and the Employment Service Administration of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs with approximately 70 employees who have to deal with a wide scope of issues including strategy planning, statistics and analyses, active employment policy including re-training, and juridical and economic issues. Compared to OECD countries, this number is very small (studies show that the proportion of Public Employment Service staff allocated to central, and if existing, regional offices was 15-20% of the total in Japan, Norway, the Netherlands and the UK, and more than 50% in Spain). According to information provided by Employment Service Administration managerial staff, another 1,000 employees would be needed for Public Employment Services in the Czech Republic in order to meet the requirements of an employment policy designed along European standards.

Despite these staffing constraints, contracting out of activities to external institutes (analytical tasks, evaluation or technical support, information provision and counselling, etc.) has not been widely used, and only limited experience has been gained to date.

When district labour offices were established in the beginning of the 90s, many employees were transferred from previous administrative bodies operating in the regions on behalf of the central administration. Although standards related to qualifications or experience of newly entering employees did not exist, staff seems to be well qualified (professional rather than clerical staff) according to the OECD Review of the Labour Market in the Czech Republic (1995).

At present, job mediators are usually trained upon starting the job. This training takes place directly at the labour office. Specific training related to counselling is offered at the three training centres of the Employment Services Administration, which are part of the labour offices in Pisek, Olomouc, and Pardubice.

Training focuses mainly on client-related communication skills, including basic psychological training, interaction with clients in crisis situations, information on the legal framework and consists of 30 to 40 lectures.

The scope of further training of labour office employees is wide and includes e.g. employment of foreign workers, guidance and counselling methods, co-operation with municipalities, new legal provisions, etc.

Infrastructure

In general, labour offices are well equipped with computers and information technology facilities, which also serve data collection purposes. However, there are only a

¹²¹ One possibility as to how to increase the number of people who work on behalf of the district public employment service office - but not as official employees - is to co-operate with private providers such as training institutions or the 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 on their own and thus they have a close relationship with the private sector. Most labour offices help 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.

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limited number of district labour offices where a PC with Internet connection is available to the general public. At the labour office Olomouc, for example, clients have access to the Internet and to look for vacancies other than those displayed on the public labour office web sites. However, the traditional channel of job advertisements in papers remains the one most widely accessed. This may be due to the high proportion of low-skilled unemployed. At present, when also qualified and better-educated people get unemployed, the use of new tools is increasing.

“Info-boxes” (self-service computer modules) are available to visitors at every labour office in the Czech Republic. These enable clients to look themselves for vacancies announced to the labour offices network; however, there is usually an information delay concerning vacancies in other districts.

About 50% of the district labour offices provide their own web sites that provide also access to vacancies.

4.3 RANGE AND QUALITY OF SERVICES

The wide range of labour office tasks combined with limited resources in terms of staff and funding reduces the possibilities to tailor services to individual needs.

Within the scope of labour office activities, those focused on unemployed constitute the majority, with the exception of information and guidance centres for young people (so-called “IPS”) and, to a smaller extent, the retraining of employees threatened by redundancy due to large scale company restructuring.

4.3.1 TASKS OF LABOUR OFFICES

Managing the unemployment benefit system

Over one third of the registered unemployed are entitled to receive unemployment benefits. Handling of the issues related to benefits constitutes a high proportion of the labour offices’ tasks. Eligibility is defined in the Employment Law (Act No.1/91). Job seekers are entitled to receive unemployment benefits, if they are not offered a suitable job or re-training measure within seven days from his/her benefit claim. In order to qualify for unemployment benefit, the job seeker needs to have been employed for at least 12 months in last three years before the benefit claim. Study periods, military service, parental leave (up to three years per child), taking care of a dependant relative, eligibility for full invalidity benefits are treated as employment periods.

A person who repeatedly refuses to take up a job or who was dismissed for unsatisfactory performance is not entitled to unemployment benefits. Benefits are payable for a maximum period of six months or until the re-training course is finished. A person, who is not (or no longer) entitled to unemployment benefits, is protected by other provisions of the social security system, mainly through social assistance benefits.

Unemployment benefits are calculated on the basis of the average net wage earned in the preceding job: the payment amounts to 50%¹²² of the calculation basis for the first three months and 40% for the following three months. In case of retraining, 60% of the last average net salary is disbursed. If a person’s income before becoming unemployed was below subsistence level, the subsistence minimum of an individual is taken as a basis.

The following figures illustrate the development of numbers of unemployment benefit recipients. Between 1991 and 2000 their proportion has decreased considerably.

122 Benefits are not subject to taxation.

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	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
mid-year figures										
No. JS	139,351	141,718	138,581	160,098	143,984	144,065	202,562	289,537	435,005	451,396
w UB	86,877	68,470	62,616	72,197	62,536	63,900	96,758	131,878	181,412	157,794
wo UB	52,474	73,248	75,965	87,901	81,448	80,075	105,804	157,659	253,593	293,602
% UB	62.3	78.3	45.2	45.1	43.4	44.4	47.8	45.5	41.7	35.0

Source: OECD proceedings *Labour Market Policies and the Public Employment Service, Prague Conference July 2000*
Explanation: JS = job seeker, w UB = with unemployment benefit, wo UB = without unemployment benefit

The social security scheme does not encourage unemployed to reintegrate into the labour market by putting effort into job search activities. The net subsistence minimum of a four-member household corresponds to the level of an average gross wage. Those with low qualifications are likely to earn wages closer to the minimum than to the average. The minimum wage in the Czech Republic is not aimed at covering family subsistence needs, but the needs of an individual only. This matter has been under discussion for some time, but the debate has not led to concrete proposals on adjusting the legal provision so far.

Job mediation

Besides dealing with unemployment benefits, job mediation is a primary task of district labour offices. Each unemployed person is entitled to appropriate assistance in finding a job. Each job seeker has a clearly identified contact person at the labour office in charge that he/she is obliged to meet at regular intervals to discuss progress in the job search. Employers are obliged by law to announce vacancies to the public district labour office. Depending on the employer's requirements, the labour office publishes information about the reported vacancy in newspaper advertisements and on the Internet web site. With prior permission of the job seeker, his/her name can be put on the web to facilitate the job search.

According to a survey carried out by the Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs (RILSA) in April and May 2000, the

working time of a job mediator at a labour office is broken down into the following tasks:

Administrative work 37.3%
(range of responses from 20-50%)

Contacts with job-seekers 54.0%
(range of responses from 25-80%)

Contacts with employers 7.8%
(range of responses from 0-25%)

On average, there are 281 client contacts per job mediator per month. However, as a consequence of the existing lack of uniform job descriptions and methodological guidelines, there is a wide variation of tasks across Public Employment Service offices.

Contracting out of job mediation to private institutions and NGOs is not used in the Czech Republic¹²³.

Active employment policy instruments

Although the system of Public Employment Services is well established, active labour market measures in general and training for unemployed in particular are not sufficiently developed, compared to EU Member States with similar unemployment rates.

■ Organising re-training courses

Labour offices organise or procure vocational training courses for the unemployed. Courses take place either at public or private training institutions or

¹²³ However, there are some good practice examples. As our field research has shown, the Most district labour office co-operates with at least one private personnel employment agency, not only with regard to retraining, but also training, advisory services, assistance to sheltered workshops for handicapped. Besides this the personnel employment agency provides usual human resource services to enterprises.

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vocational schools, which are selected by labour offices and provide their services on a contractual basis. The two major types of courses are targeted re-training for specific occupations, often linked to concrete job perspectives offered by employers, and courses with a more general approach, aimed at providing participants with core skills to enhance their employability.

The increase in numbers of participants in re-training measures from 11,352 in 1993 to 22,136 in 1999 can be explained by growing unemployment, but altogether the share of trainees in the number of unemployed was only about 7% in 2000¹²⁴.

According to a special survey conducted by RILSA, the average completion rate of re-training courses was 90% in 1998. Since then, this figure has been decreasing. 40% of the re-trained find a job within a month after finishing the course, more than 80% have been reintegrated into the labour market six months after the re-training course. The data collected however give no evidence as to whether the subsequent employment is long-term or only temporary.

The duration of re-training has gradually decreased from an average of 2.9 months in 1992 to 1.7 months in 2000, and the real costs of one re-trained person have increased from 5,500 Czech Crowns to 10,400 Czech Crowns in the same period.

■ Developing measures for school leavers

Young people, in particular school leavers, are the target group of a subsidy scheme that focuses at enabling young graduates to acquire practical experience at a workplace (including socially purposeful jobs and public utility jobs). The subsidies are paid to employers to cover the salary costs of the young trainees. Subsidised jobs are usually provided for a limited duration up to one year. These placements are often combined with some on-the-job training and try to meet the needs of graduates from different educational backgrounds. They aim at facilitating

participants' integration into the mainstream labour market.

■ Supporting job creation for disabled

For disabled, a subsidy system for sheltered work is in place, which covers both special workplaces in normal enterprises and separate workshops. Sheltered workshops are often organised by co-operatives and focus on developing independent profit-oriented activities.

■ Activities related to restructuring needs

In the context of regional regeneration and re-conversion of industries, labour offices co-operate with enterprises facing restructuring and mass layoffs. Employers are obliged to inform district labour office in advance to prepare interventions such as guidance and counselling to workers that will be made redundant and also specific, goal-oriented re-training.

■ Additional activities

Labour offices provide targeted assistance also to disadvantaged groups, such as low skilled persons and members of the Romany community, which combine different elements, such as counselling, professional orientation, training for specific occupational qualifications, organisation and brokering of public utility jobs, socially purposeful jobs, and assistance in job search.

Data can be found in the annexed tables.

■ Guidance and counselling

Career guidance plays an important part in the scope of labour office activities. Since 1996, career guidance centres have been established at all labour offices. Services are provided free of charge to all interested individuals, notwithstanding their status (employed, unemployed, students) and include both identifying career possibilities and adequate training paths, based on interests and abilities of individuals and information on labour market prospects.

124 Employment Services Administration, MoLSA.

4.3.2 MONITORING OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE ACTIVITIES

The share of active labour market policy within total employment policy is not defined or at least recommended in any of the existing legal or policy documents. While unemployment benefits are mandatory, active employment policy measures are not, and thus, when funding shortages occur due to budget constraints, primarily the allocations for active measures are used to bridge funding gaps.

All activities of the public employment services are monitored. Data collection is however limited to quantitative input and output figures. There is no systematic impact research, apart from registering the number of re-training participants who find a job, but subsequent career development of trainees is not followed by the standard monitoring procedures.

District labour offices prepare progress reports on the labour market situation in their district twice a year and provide an account of the employment policy measures implemented. Currently, an upgrade of the statistical and analytical programme of the Employment Service Administration is under preparation, which will allow for a more systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of ALM programmes and measures.

Data on the performance of private agencies are not collected.

4.4 ROLE OF PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICES

While most of the clients of public employment services are unemployed, private employment services also aim at those already employed. Their main task is to find people with suitable profiles for specific jobs.

Legal framework

Private employment services operate under the same legal provisions that are described in chapter 4.1.

In order to become operational, a licence issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is required. Decisions on granting licences are taken by a five-member committee.

There is no legal provision (except ILO Convention No. 181/97, signed by the Czech Republic) distinguishing between different types of private employment agencies. So-called 'Personnel Agencies' that do not consider themselves as job-brokers do not need a license issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

Policy framework

Currently, a clearly defined government policy vis-à-vis private employment agencies does not exist. Co-operation between public and private employment services is limited to pilot activities (see chapter on links/co-operation between public and private employment services).

Organisation

There are about 215 private agencies in the Czech Republic, one third of them located in Prague. The remaining part is spread over the other regions, with at least one agency in each district. The list of agencies is available on the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs's web site. However, it does not comprise information on the scope of activities¹²⁵ carried out. In general, the number of private employment agencies is higher in districts with low unemployment rates.

The number of applications for licenses is increasing. In 1998, there were some 45 applications per year, whereas today there are about 12-20 claims per month. Since 2001, licenses have been issued for a three-year period (renewable) 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, licences were only issued for one year. Licenses are issued for a fee –

¹²⁵ In the Most district there was only one personnel agency out of three that was addressed during the Country Monograph field research in March 2001.

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10,000 CZK as regards job mediation abroad (both for Czechs and foreigners job-searchers) and 1,000 CZK for Czech citizens within the Czech Republic.

In order to obtain a license, the applicant has to provide comprehensive documentation of the planned activities. A statutory deputy of the private employment agency (a personnel agency) must prove that he/she either has a university degree and two years experience in the field of job brokerage and guidance or a secondary school degree and five years work experience in that field. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and district labour offices are in charge of controlling whether the legal provisions are observed.

However, due to the absence of legal provisions, staff shortages both in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (one person in charge of private employment services) and in labour offices, and a lack of adequate reporting mechanisms, neither the number of placements, nor the quality of services provided by private employment services are monitored on a regular basis. Therefore their market share cannot be specified.

The annual license renewal procedure used in previous years contained an element of control as the documentation required included also questions concerning the number of job seekers. This practice has however been discontinued, as the reliability of the data provided could not be ensured.

Private agencies do not seem to compete with public employment services, as their client structure is different. Private agencies offer their services to anybody looking for employment, while public services focus on the unemployed. Clients of private agencies are usually qualified and skilled persons and most of them are active in their job search. Different agencies focus on different client groups depending on qualification levels of their clientele (executive search, general personnel agency, lease work). There are

indications that employers concede private agencies a higher level of trustworthiness.

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

There is no formal co-operation between public and private employment services. Links with private employment services – mainly with personnel agencies with licences for brokerage – exist merely on an informal basis and vary from district to district.

Some private agencies¹²⁶ conduct surveys on labour market demand, design training courses, provide guidance and sometimes assist unemployed in negotiations with employers, in particular on matters related to work contracts. On a case-by-case basis, private agencies provide training courses and services on a contractual basis for labour offices.

A pilot project was launched at the beginning of 2001, connecting the vacancy database of five labour offices with the database of a private agency that runs some job-portals on the Internet. Both job seekers and employers have benefited from this new approach, as job seekers have access to a wider scope of vacancies, and employers can select from a larger number of persons looking for jobs. The project was supposed to end in April 2001 but it was continued because of the very positive response, and may even be expanded. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs intends to incorporate this project into its long-term strategy on information technologies.

4.5 REFORM OF THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Unemployment did not pose a serious threat in the early years of transition. The reason for this was, on the one hand, the delayed restructuring of the Czech economy and, on the other hand, a quick launch of active labour market policy measures implemented by Public Employment Service offices.

¹²⁶ As was the case in both the Most and Chomutov districts, which were interviewed during the Country Monograph field research in North-West region.

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The difficult economic situation in the previous five years, which resulted in a considerable increase in unemployment, has however put enormous pressure on the existing employment service institutions.

From the above, it is obvious that the workload of the Public Employment Service staff has increased dramatically in all activity areas defined by law.

The National Employment Action Plan 2001 explicitly mentions the need to modify and expand the legislative, competency, organisational and financial framework of employment service bodies to reflect labour market needs. This should be achieved by drafting a bill on institutional arrangement and conduct of employment services to be submitted to Parliament, and by continuing to produce relevant organisational and legal norms dealing with the institutional arrangements and conduct of employment services. Executing bodies would be the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and labour offices at regional level. The National Employment Action Plan does not give any indications on milestones and time frame.

4.6 SUPPORT FOR IMPLEMENTING THE EUROPEAN EMPLOYMENT STRATEGY

Potentially, Public Employment Services in the Czech Republic are capable to promote and implement the principles of the European Employment Strategy through active employment policy measures. However, due to the lack of agreed targets and priorities set by the central authorities,

the activities of labour offices are not evenly distributed across districts, nor is there a balance among the active employment policy measures implemented. As stated above, the existing legal framework provides for a high degree of flexibility, and the actual scope of activities largely depends on the personal initiative of labour office directors and staff. This is illustrated by good practice examples in the Most district¹²⁷ labour office. According to findings from the field work, the flexibility needed in the daily labour office operations seems to be inhibited occasionally by the strict administrative rules related to project implementation.

A proper assessment of the impact of labour office contributions cannot be done due to the absence of a clear frame of reference.

The situation is similar for private agencies concentrating mainly in regions that have already overcome basic structural problems. To a certain degree, they contribute to promoting flexibility in the labour market (as confirmed by some findings in last year's study by the Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs on flexible arrangements of working conditions), but in the absence of systematic monitoring, a well-founded assessment is not feasible.

Developing a culture of lifelong learning

Due to the absence of clear responsibilities for implementing the concept of lifelong learning at national and regional level, the role of labour offices as promoter of lifelong learning remains unclear. Their involvement is limited to organising and facilitating re-training and training of

¹²⁷ The labour office in Most co-operates with various stakeholders, initiates 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). One example is the "housekeeper" project: an unemployed in a house has a contract with a co-operative of flat-owners in that house for taking care of the house. The labour office contributes to the wage under the scheme of public utility jobs. The subsidy is 100% in the first year, then it is gradually decreased. Another example is the project "free time assistant": the labour office came across the fact that school children do not have a lot of leisure time activities in the afternoon, which is dangerous. Thus the labour office together with free time facilities created a public utility job called "free time assistant" who guides children in their afternoon activities, informs them about possibilities and news in their surrounding area etc. A similar initiative is "Roma assistant", again paid under the public utility job scheme. The Most labour office however lacks 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 provide for paying public utility job to a state or municipal authority with the exception of social services facilities.

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

employees of enterprises in certain areas particularly affected by industrial change.

Facilitating equal access to the labour market

The objectives of active labour market policy include (re)-integration of disadvantaged groups into the labour market. Accordingly, labour offices allocate time and resources for combating social exclusion by different measures, such as sheltered or subsidised employment for the disabled, work placements for young people without any experience, and specific projects for the Romany population, e.g. in the Most and Chomutov districts.

Labour offices are not involved systematically in educational planning to align educational supply and demand. In individual cases, district labour offices co-operate with the education sector, and occasionally used to be involved in the “optimisation” process of the school network¹²⁸. On a case-by-case basis, labour offices are consulted on the labour market situation before new training programmes are designed or new vocational schools are established.

Apart from budget constraints, the systematic use of active employment measures as a tool for regional economic recovery is hampered by the fact that under the existing legal regulations, unemployed are not obliged to take up public utility jobs, socially-purposeful jobs or re-training courses. Such measures are not considered gainful employment, and therefore refusal to accept such measures does not lead to a cessation of benefits. This creates a vicious circle for unemployed.

Another impeding factor is that apart from the regular monitoring of labour office operations, no further in-depth analyses of developments in employment and client needs are performed by public and private employment services.

Preventing youth and long-term unemployment.

Compared to the ‘normal’ active employment policy agenda of labour offices

which includes re-training, subsidised job placements, public utility jobs for school leavers etc., preventive approaches seem to receive less attention. Examples of successful labour office initiatives in this respect are the introduction of a subject “Career Choice” in basic school curricula, and the introduction of the subject “Starting a business” at some secondary schools.

Assistance to job-search is provided also to employed persons or people who do not meet the requirements to be included in the register of job-seekers.

The awareness that guidance and counselling are key elements of preventive approaches has led labour district labour offices to run or to co-operate with “Information and guidance centres” (so-called IPS), which offer information to students and adults about the scope of professions, their content, educational pathways, etc.

There are indications for a positive trend in this respect, but the absence of targets and priorities does not allow for a more detailed assessment.

Enhancing equal opportunities between men and women

There are no specific initiatives or measures, e.g. positive discrimination, focused on women at the level of labour offices. If registered as unemployed, women have equal access to all measures, including re-training.

Although many district labour offices perceive women with young children as an endangered group in the labour market, specific measures for this target group remain exceptions. Gender-related data are collected by labour offices, but these data are not evaluated and monitored from a gender point of view and do not serve as a basis for specific support measures. Information about the practice of private agencies is not available, as the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is not entitled to require data, and agencies themselves usually do not publish analyses or statistics.

¹²⁸ In relation with the public administration reform, this process is stopped now.

According to a RILSA survey carried out in district labour offices conducted in 2000, co-operation with care providers to broaden the access to family-friendly services to reconcile family and professional life is up to individual labour offices. If parents decide to attend re-training courses during parental leave, some district offices conclude agreements with kindergartens to ensure that children are taken care of properly.

Increasing mobility

Mobility between jobs is to a certain degree fostered by re-training measures, but data are not available.

Geographical mobility is hampered by the fact that active employment policy measures do not include transport allowances. District labour offices would be in favour of revising the regulations in place, in order to accommodate the needs evolving from changes in the labour market, higher unemployment rates and to counteract more efficiently the existing disincentives caused by the current system of social benefits.

Labour offices do not promote part-time jobs or flexible forms of employment. The traditional full-time work continues to be the guiding principle.

4.7 CONCLUSIONS

- The legal framework for Public Employment Service and private employment services (with the exception of private job brokerage agencies) seems to be well established and provides sufficient flexibility for individual labour offices to perform their tasks. At the same time, the absence of clear implementation rules and agreed priorities and guidelines results in lack of co-ordination among labour offices and different approaches towards implementing employment policy. At the same time, however, this flexible framework encourages innovative approaches and creativity with regard to active employment policy and enables labour offices to play a decisive role in regional or district development.
- The number of tasks and services of labour offices has increased considerably against the background of higher unemployment and the respective legal measures to counteract these developments. The capacity of the current Employment Service Administration in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and of district labour offices has reached its limits in terms of staffing. In order to comply with the requirements set by the European Employment Strategy, resources need to be increased, including investment in staff training, not least to reinforce research and analytical capacities. Systematic assessment of labour market turnover, enterprise skill needs and out-flows from unemployment into the labour market as well as the effectiveness of active employment policy measures still needs to be developed.
- No quantifiable targets have been agreed for the implementation of employment policy measures. Existing strategic plans and the general aims formulated in the relevant documents do not oblige the bodies in charge to action. Reactive and remedial approaches predominate active employment policy, preventive measures play a minor role.
- Social exclusion is not properly counteracted by the current legal regulations that permit unemployed, also those belonging to disadvantaged groups, to reject participation in active employment measures. The benefit schemes in place can be considered a disincentive to taking up occupational activity. Overall, this situation deteriorates the chances of risk groups to be re-integrated into the labour market.
- Due to the lack of data, conclusions on the role and activities of private employment agencies can only be tentative. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs does not pay much attention to this issue. This is confirmed by the absence of any relevant policy or systematic approach, which could eventually facilitate regular co-operation with private employment services in national employment policy implementation.

5. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

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The issues outlined above underpin new needs for lifelong learning. Although the current education and training policy already incorporates some of the basic building blocks for lifelong learning, a comprehensive approach does not exist. This became evident also in last year's consultation process on the European Commission's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning.

- According to the Joint Assessment Paper (JAP), progress is still needed with respect to modernising the VET system in a lifelong learning perspective in co-operation with social partners. Particular reference is made to transparency and responsiveness to the labour market, as well as adaptation to the demands of a knowledge-based economy and society.
- Although a more strategic approach to education and training reform has been applied over the previous two years, a comprehensive strategy for lifelong learning has not been developed yet. As a result, **links between initial and continuing training remain weak**, and access to **higher education** and **re-training for unemployed is not sufficiently developed**.
- However, the **National Programme for the Development of Education in the Czech Republic (White Paper)** identifies ambitious targets **in line with the Lisbon conclusions**:
 - to increase expenditure on education from 4.5% to 6% of GDP in 2005,
 - to increase the average salary of teachers beyond the national average wage by 2007,
 - to extend the overall duration of education by two years by 2005,
 - to increase the ratio of students entering general education programmes from 18.5% to 30%,
 - to increase the ratio of persons with *maturita* in the overall population to 75%,
 - to increase access to higher education from 23% to 53% in 2010. Whether these targets can be achieved within the given timeframe will depend on several factors, not least availability of funds.
- The current shortage of resources could be partly alleviated by optimising the existing ones. This relates in particular

to savings that could be attained by optimising the school network. This may free up means to address the burning issue of low teacher salaries.

- Compared to other candidate countries, **progress has been slow in developing an appropriate legal framework** to ensure efficient and effective governance and to define the roles and responsibilities of key actors in education and training, **including social partners**. Moreover, the lack of adequate legal provisions hampers the completion of public administration reform, in particular with regard to decentralisation.
- Despite continued efforts to modernise the education and training system by adapting a large number of VET curricula to the needs of the labour market and by creating new pathways to increase flexibility of education and training provision, **many qualifications provided by the formal system remain outdated**. Moreover, due to school autonomy, a lack of co-ordination at the central level, and the absence of a national qualification system, the education and training offer is largely non-transparent.
- **The vocational education and training system responds only partially to the needs of the individual**. On the one hand, the content of training courses and the structure of the training offer is changing; however, on the other hand, the traditional design of training courses prevails and a modular approach, distance learning and e-learning so far remain exceptions. While the counselling and guidance system is focused on the choice of educational pathways for young people and on the needs of jobseekers, it does not meet the needs of employed adults. Considerable progress has been achieved 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.
- **Access of young people to all types of education** was improved. However, most schools still select their students on the basis of entry examinations. Surveys provide evidence that this facilitates the reproduction of well-educated population groups and, on the contrary, limits vertical social mobility in society. This particularly concerns **tertiary education**, which suffers from capacity bottlenecks. This problem is further intensified by the unclear status of higher professional schools, particularly as concerns the transferability between them and universities.
- There is a need to re-establish **systematic co-operation between vocational schools and enterprises**, involving social partners, in order to improve practical training.
- **Some elements promoting entrepreneurship through the training system were implemented in the 1990s** in both initial and continuing training programmes. The support for entrepreneurship is mentioned in policy documents approved during 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.
- Partially, both initial and continuing training reform initiatives and enlarged provision due to establishment of numerous (private) training institutions have **contributed to enhancing employability and competitiveness**. They have responded to (mainly) short-term needs of the labour market and individuals, but further reform initiatives are needed to develop the formal system in a lifelong learning perspective and to achieve more flexibility in reacting to the different needs. In particular, efforts towards **social inclusion and cohesion need to be reinforced**.
- With regard to Public Employment Services, a necessary **policy shift towards prevention and activation** as well as more individualised services for early identification of job seekers’ needs is highlighted in the JAP.

5. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

- Due to limited availability of resources, it has become increasingly difficult for public employment services to deal with the high number of unemployed. Staffing bottlenecks limit the possibility to focus more intensively on individuals and hamper the development of preventive measures in co-operation with enterprises or economic sectors still to be restructured.
- 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 contribute to increasing the flexibility of the labour market. Unfortunately, since information about their activities is scarce, it is impossible to assess their role and market share (compared to labour offices). Co-operation between public and private employment services takes place on an ad hoc basis, but in these cases seems to be positive. A clear policy on this area does not exist.
- Referring to the Lisbon conclusions, some of the targets have already been incorporated into relevant policy documents (to increase investment in human resources development, to raise the numbers of students continuing their studies at upper secondary and tertiary level, to improve access to the Internet, to develop new basic skills). However, the majority of the lifelong learning building blocks still need to be developed further and implemented. These include co-ordination between the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and involvement of social partners, investment in education and training, and improving access to learning, in particular for vulnerable and marginalised groups.

ANNEXES

The Joint Assessment Paper priorities – state of the progress in initial training , continuing training and public employment service

JAP priorities		Reflection in Czech documents	State of progress
Initial vocational education and training			
Proceed with initial training reform in a more strategic perspective	National Programme for the Development of Education (White Paper) – MoEYS Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR – National Training Fund	A number of policy documents have been developed which show the strategies of initial training 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 initial training 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 Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs), or between various levels of governance. The implementation of these strategies is further complicated by the reform of public administration whereby important powers within initial training 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.	
Increase the involvement of the social partners in initial and continuing training, in particular through encouraging links between schools and enterprises	National Employment Plan –MoLSA Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR - National Training Fund	Although the policy documents mentioned above stress the role of social partners, their involvement in initial training 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.	
Reinforce links between initial and continuing training 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	Strategy for the Development of Human Resources in the CR - National Training Fund	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 initial training. Initial and continuing training 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. Initial and continuing training do become interlinked in certain cases where co-operation occurs between schools, labour offices, municipalities and companies (school provide retraining or leisure courses for adults).	

JAP priorities	Reflection in Czech documents	State of progress
	Continuing vocational training	
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.
Continue to reinforce links between initial and continuing vocational education and training with a view to implement an overall concept of human resources development to strengthen employability and competitiveness of the workforce and to foster lifelong learning.	The importance of links between initial and continuing training is mentioned in the National Programme of Education Development however it is not followed by concrete measures. The overall concept of human resources development was proposed and stressed by the Strategy of Human Resources Development for the Czech Republic presented by the National Training Fund as a non-governmental institution.	No considerable progress was achieved in making closer links between initial and continuing training in reality. The situation in the human resources development is better: the overall concept of the human resources development wins support of more stakeholders both at national and regional level. The human resources development aspect is included into more development programmes
	Public Employment Service	
Co-ordination between tax and benefit systems in order to provide greater incentives for people to work and for enterprises to provide employment opportunities	Act No. 72/2000, on Investment Incentives	Guarantees for investors, interest rate subsidies and grants. Emphasis is also on ensuring that this sector can respond effectively to opportunities for outsourcing from incoming large foreign investors.
Promotion of occupational and geographical mobility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National Employment Plan ● National Action Employment Plan for 2001 	
Review of the pensions system from an employment perspective	Conception of the Ministry for labour and social affairs 2000-2001 (governmental decree No. 399/99, 482/00 resp.)	Principles of arrangement and financing of social insurance system adopted by government
Strengthening of the public employment service to support a policy shift towards prevention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National Employment Plan ● National Action Employment Plan for 2001 	The Principles of new Act on employment are discussed in government (the proposal extends variety of active employment policy measures, it does not deal with the structure of employment services)

ANNEX 2

National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)		
Strategic lines	Aims for measures	Aims for actions
<p>The national Programme of Education Development is a mid-term strategic document that was drafted in 2000 – 2001 by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. 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.</p> <p>1. The implementation of the system of lifelong learning To saturate and initiate educational needs in children, youth and adults through adequate increase of capacities at schools and other education 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 ethnic minorities and aliens 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>Upper secondary education</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 schools</i> may be set up (schools providing general as well as technical and vocational programmes at various levels). <p>Higher education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The development of the supply of education 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 co-operation and fulfilment with international treaties and declarations (the Lisbon Treaty, Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations) <p>Adult education</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

National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)		
<p>2. The adaptation of education 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 education 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>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 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 young people from three 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, ● on the basis of National Curriculum to develop general education programmes for all phases and fields of education in order to become a starting point for creation of autonomous educational programmes for schools, ● to support the implementation of new concept of educational programmes by initiation of development programmes in the following areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> teaching of two foreign languages, one of which must be English, with the introduction in the third and sixth 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 ● to integrate study programmes of tertiary education with scientific, research and developmental activities in the education institutions and outside ● to promote the international mobility of students, youth and teachers and international co-operation in educational policy 	<p>Upper secondary education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to develop and make legal provisions for a state programme for education and framework educational programmes based on a broad core of knowledge and key competencies and their incorporation into school curricula. ● to support the development of branching and multi-level education programmes and to introduce gradually a modular system to the organisation of technical and vocational programmes, which facilitate vertical as well as horizontal “permeability” and continuity of education. <p>Higher education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● University studies and higher professional courses will be distinguished by the degree to which they will incorporate scientific, research and other creative activities ● Students will be encouraged to develop high levels of professional flexibility, creative capacities, cultural and communication skills and moral values.


National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)		
<p>3. Monitoring and evaluation and effectiveness of education To build a system of evaluation of activity of education 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 young people.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to create legislative and organisational conditions for constructing the system of evaluation at the level of the national education system, new regional structure and individual schools, ● 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 the 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 education sector, ● to carry out and introduce mechanism of quality assessment in adult education especially in further professional education. 	<p>Upper secondary education</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>Higher education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The system of external quality evaluation will take into account the varying objectives and tasks of individual educational institutions within the tertiary sector
<p>4. Promotion of internal reform and openness of education institutions 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 a coherent instrumental system for the development of school autonomy, ● to introduce the school development programme and support further activities of the Fund for the development of higher education institutions as innovative 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 education institutions and civic associations in education, ● to strengthen the role of institutions of tertiary education in regional development 	

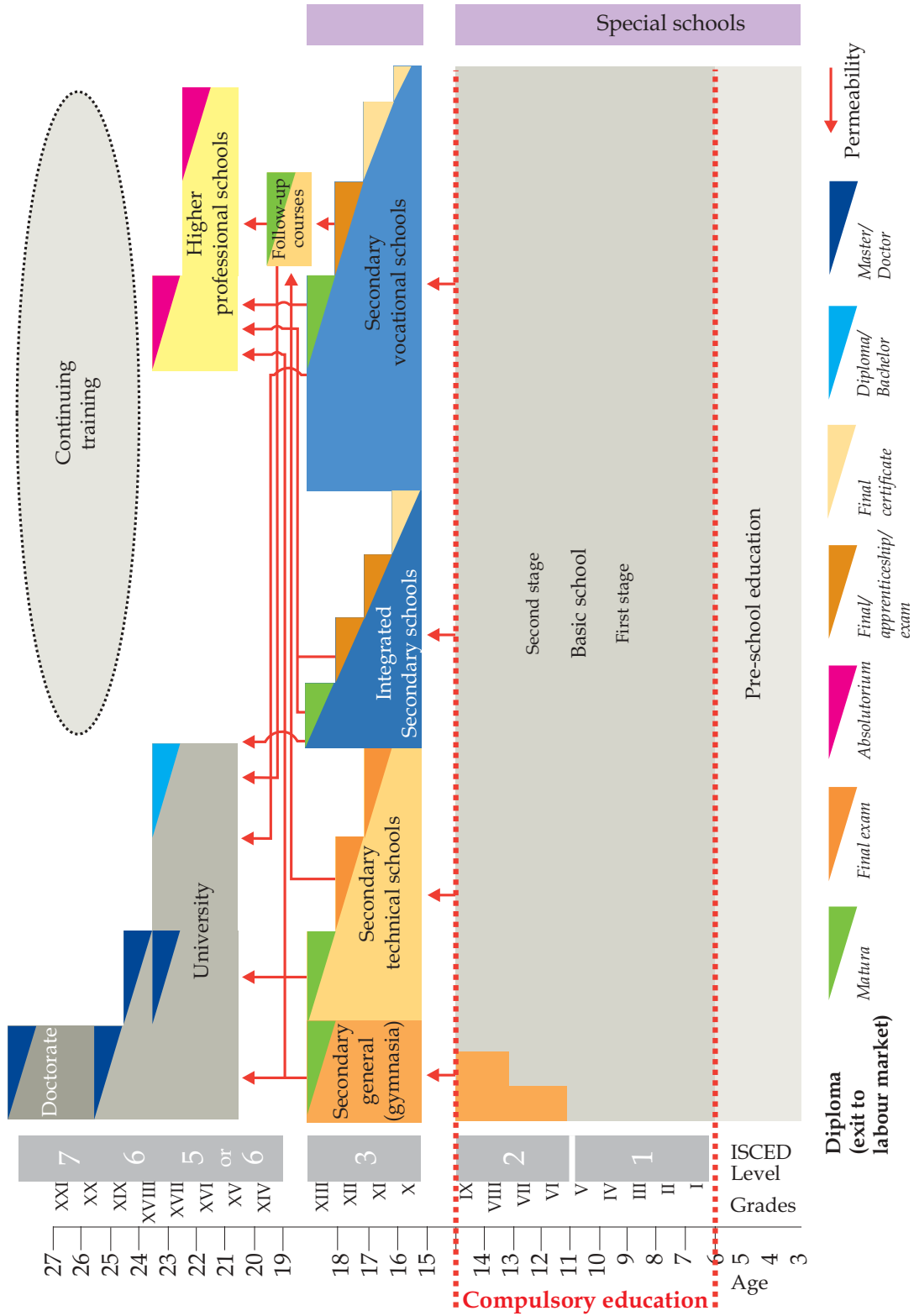
National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)	
<p>5. The change of roles and professional perspective of teachers and academics</p> <p>To support a change in the approach and performance of teacher profession in all institutions of education, to strengthen social and 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>	<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 the case of teachers at primary level, 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 (leisure time activities, educators), ● to upgrade the quality of pre-service training of teachers emphasizing 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 the remuneration level of teachers to gradually reach the average salary level of teachers in public schools at the level of 130% of the average salary across the nation, ● to equate the salary level of academics with similar professions in the private sector.

National Programme of Education Development in the Czech Republic (White Paper)		
<p>6. Transition from centralised management to accountable shared decision making</p> <p>To implement decentralised management of education by way of state and self-governing bodies with the active participation of social partners and other representatives of civic society. In higher education to reach a balance between autonomy and self-governance of education 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 work 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 the 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 about the governance and practice of education by supporting pedagogical research, ● to foster human resources in the system of management of education primarily by way of introducing further in-service training of school headmasters and other leadership structures. 	<p>Upper secondary education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● to introduce, in co-operation with social partners, <i>supportive measures facilitating the 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 vocational student ● to support the development of professional and career counselling ● to support the development of an information system on the relationship between education and the world of work ● to support the development of compensatory programmes for young unemployed people.

ANNEX 3

Vocational Education and Training in the Czech Republic

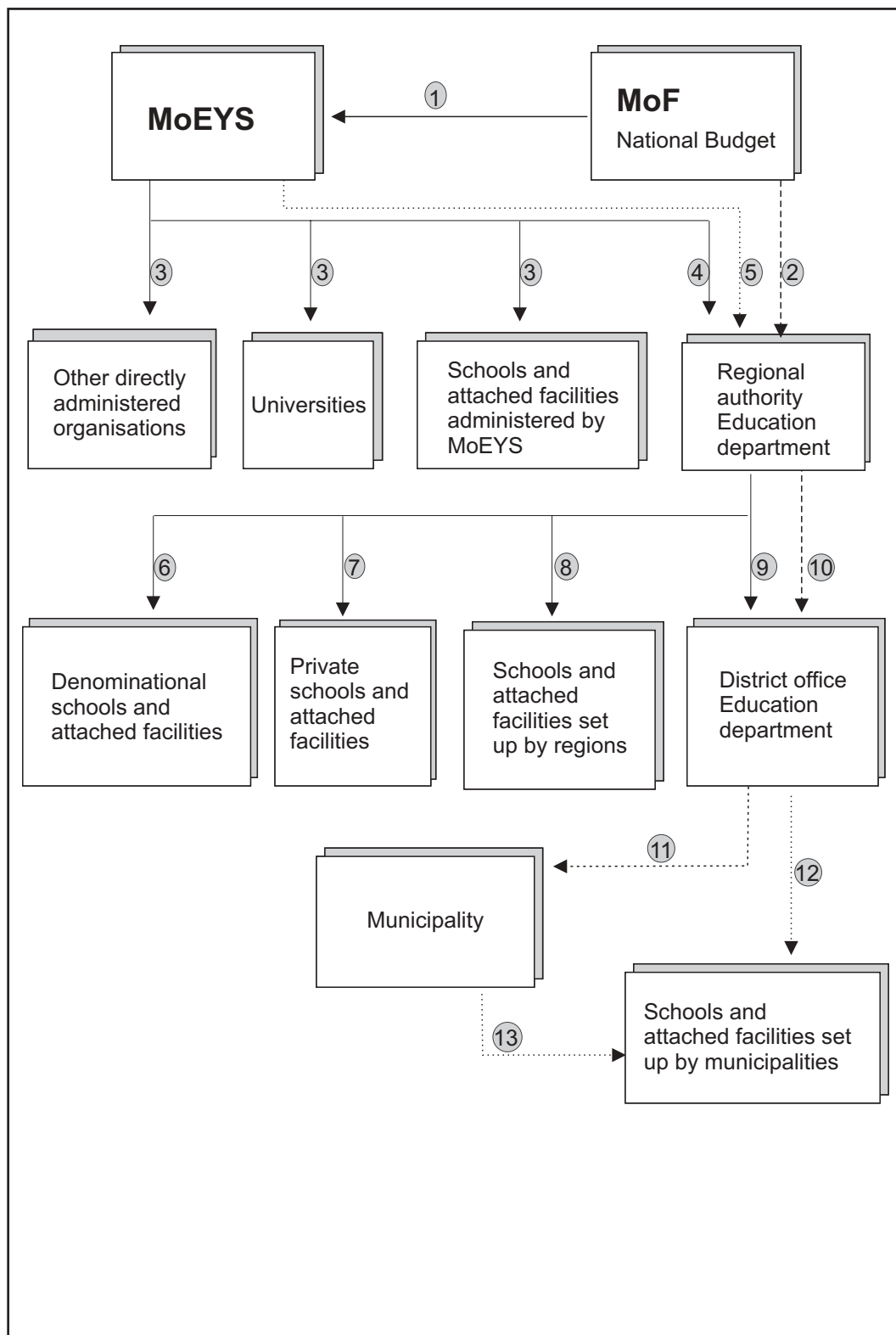
 This diagram represents the first stage in the ongoing development of a standard graphical model for vocational education and training systems. Future refinement may include the further alignment of terms, student enrolment and dropout figure, and local language terms.



ANNEX 4

Initial vocational education and training finance

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.

ANNEX 5

**National Employment Plan and National Employment Action Plan priorities
concerning initial training**

National Employment Plan – objectives and measures concerning initial training		
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 creating 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 Roma 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 dropouts ● 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 ● 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).

National Employment Action Plan for 2001 – objectives and measures concerning initial training			
National Employment Action Plan measures - 2001	Support on the part of initial training	State of progress (1-5) ¹²⁹	
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	5
Minimising the number of pupils who fail to complete the respective level of education	No specific measures	The dropout rate is not considered to be high. It is around 5% at secondary technical schools and 10% at secondary vocational schools	1
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	2
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
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 nine years of basic school on the condition that they meet the relevant admission requirements.	This is only a formal measure which does not replace the necessary support measures for the disadvantaged groups.	4
	No other specific measures	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	1
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-governmental organisations	5

¹²⁹ 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

ANNEX 6

Initial vocational education and training field research results

Integration of the disadvantages – 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					
● basic school 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

Please describe your positive experience as well as problems you encounter 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"/>	Co-operation 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

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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. Please assess the quality of your co-operation 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

Please describe your positive experience as well as problems you are encountering when co-operating with these institutions

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

7. To what extent do you believe the school system is efficient in providing vocational training to disadvantaged groups of population and in their integration into society?
8. Is the current **social policy** towards disadvantaged groups of young people appropriate?

Please state whether there are any social policy measures which make difficult the provision of vocational training to these groups – for example, lead to dropouts, bar access to training, etc.

9. 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 on the efficiency of initial training 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 a questionnaire 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, *ucilište* 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 *ucilište* 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*. *Ucilište* 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, *ucilište* 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 4,168 pupils distributed as follows:

TC	Ucilište	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 an 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, *ucilište* 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.

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

Czech nationality	Roma	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. Schools 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 co-operation 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 co-operate 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%
Co-operation 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 co-operate 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 Roma 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

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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 co-operate. 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 dropouts 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 dropouts 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%

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 co-operate 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 co-operation 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 co-operation	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 co-operate 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 co-operation between schools and the aforementioned institutions is mostly of good standards, a number of respondents stated that the quality of such co-operation depends on good personal contacts. The reason is that the relevant legal regulations stipulate that these institutions may co-operate 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 Romanies 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

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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, de-motivate 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 dropouts 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 co-operation 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

Continuing vocational training field research results

Mini-Survey of current trends in continuing vocational education

(For the 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, seven schools which provide accredited continuing training courses and five 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 education institutions in the Czech Republic have one employee.

The most frequent types of course/programme

Subject	Number	%
Management	15	12.4
Computing skills	14	11.6
Various retraining courses	13	10.7
Foreign languages	11	9.1
Sales skills, trade management	7	5.8
Communication	6	4.95
Psychology – personal development	6	4.95
Accountancy	6	4.95
Training courses for companies	5	4.1
Basic entrepreneurial skills	4	3.3
Continuing training of teachers	3	2.5
Marketing	3	2.5
Specialised/follow-up courses and seminars	3	2.5
Motivation courses	2	1.6
Health protection, fire protection	2	1.6
HR management	2	1.6
Building construction	2	1.6

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Subject	Number	%
Public administration	2	1.6
Introduction to various vocational skills	2	1.6
Security services	1	0.8
Finance	1	0.8
Graduates club	1	0.8
Quality	1	0.8
MBA	1	0.8
Trade unions-related issues	1	0.8
Body therapy	1	0.8
Legal issues	1	0.8
Power trucks driving	1	0.8
Secretary, assistant	1	0.8
Specialisation courses	1	0.8
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 Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports 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 Czech Republic 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 carrying 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

Public and private employment services 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. Trade unions
- b. Chamber of Commerce
- c. Associations of employers
- d. Schools
- e. Private personal agencies
- f. Private education facilities, retraining centres
- g. 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 co-operation 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 co-operation 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 specific courses where larger numbers of Roma participants are envisaged?

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. Roma (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.
Research team of the RILSA and National Training Fund
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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 co-operate with them?
2. The answers implied that the co-operation 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 co-operate with the economic chamber or private agencies.

One positive finding was an effort to co-operate 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 co-operation for several years. One example is the labour office in Teplice.

a) Municipal/district office

Representatives of municipal offices and the district office co-operate with the labour office 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 labour office holds regular meetings with mayors (information about public welfare jobs and the situation in the labour market). It also closely co-operates 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 co-operates with the labour office within the AB.

c) The economic chamber

The district economic chamber (DEC) co-operates with the labour office within the AB (the chairman of the DEC board of directors is a member of the advisory body). Within this co-operation, 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 labour office about the situation in the business sector within the district, supports new entrepreneurial activities, negotiates various investments and co-operates in the creation of new jobs.

d) Employers, representatives of employers

Representatives of employers are active members of the AB. Employers co-operate with the labour office 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 labour office arranges for retraining of job seekers and employees (to ensure they may perform other tasks). Co-operation has been initiated between labour offices in the Labe Euroregion and important employers within a group for human resources development. As a result of its monitoring activities the labour office 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 human resources development and this type of co-operation will therefore have to be intensified.

e) School representatives

Schools co-operate with the labour office 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 labour office.

On the part of the labour office, co-operation 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 labour office co-operates with educational counsellors, organises training for teachers of the subjects "Career Choice" and "Introduction to the World of Labour". Co-operation 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 labour office (search for top specialists and managers for employers, arranging employment abroad). The labour office sends people interested in working abroad to the relevant recruitment agencies which have the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs accreditation.

g) Private educational institutions, retraining centres

The labour office co-operates 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 labour office 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.

3. What was the contribution on the part of your labour office to the regional or district development plan (development of the region, human resources development, restructuring of the economy etc.)? How do you co-operate with other parties in the development of such plans?

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According to their answers, almost all labour offices contribute to the development of these plans. This co-operation 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.

4. 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.

5. 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 labour office 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 labour office 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.

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TABLES

TABLES FOR CHAPTER 2

2.1 Expenditure on education

Expenditure on education as % 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

Area	Number of students per one adjusted teaching load											
	STS		SVS		HPS		STS		SVS		HPS	
	1996/1997	2000/2001	1996/1997	2000/2001	1996/1997	2000/2001	1997/1998	2000/2001	1996/1997	2000/2001	1997/1998	2000/2001
The Czech Republic	8.7	10.8	12.2	17.5	12.2	17.5	12.7	17.5	12.2	17.5	12.7	10.9
Prague	7.7	10.2	13.2	17.5	13.2	17.5	12.1	17.5	13.2	17.5	12.1	10.8
Thecity of Prague	7.7	18.1	13.2	18.0	13.2	18.0	12.1	18.0	13.2	18.0	12.1	10.8
Central Bohemia	9.1	10.9	12.3	16.8	12.3	16.8	11.1	16.8	12.3	16.8	11.1	8.1
Central Bohemian region	9.1	8.1	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	11.1	12.3	12.3	12.3	11.1	8.1
South-West	8.7	11.1	11.3	17.4	11.3	17.4	13.4	17.4	11.3	17.4	13.4	11.0
Budjovice region	8.2	10.8	11.7	16.7	11.7	16.7	14.6	16.7	11.7	16.7	14.6	12.4
Pizeo region	9.2	11.6	11.0	18.4	11.0	18.4	10.7	18.4	11.0	18.4	10.7	8.6
North-West	8.8	10.9	12.4	17.8	12.4	17.8	11.2	17.8	12.4	17.8	11.2	8.7
Karlovy Vary region	9.6	10.6	13.4	18.4	13.4	18.4	10.7	18.4	13.4	18.4	10.7	8.1
Ústín/Labem region	8.5	11.0	12.0	17.6	12.0	17.6	11.2	17.6	12.0	17.6	11.2	8.8
North-East	8.5	10.7	12.0	17.7	12.0	17.7	12.6	17.7	12.0	17.7	12.6	11.3
Liberec region	7.8	9.8	13.4	18.3	13.4	18.3	13.2	18.3	13.4	18.3	13.2	10.4
Hradec Králové region	9.2	11.2	11.9	17.9	11.9	17.9	10.7	17.9	11.9	17.9	10.7	11.3
Pardubice region	8.5	11.0	11.3	17.0	11.3	17.0	13.8	17.0	11.3	17.0	13.8	11.8
South-East	8.7	11.1	12.6	18.3	12.6	18.3	12.7	18.3	12.6	18.3	12.7	12.5
Jihlava region	9.6	11.5	11.5	18.2	11.5	18.2	15.8	18.2	11.5	18.2	15.8	14.1
Brno region	8.3	10.9	13.0	18.3	13.0	18.3	11.2	18.3	13.0	18.3	11.2	11.7
Central Moravia	9.7	11.0	11.8	16.3	11.8	16.3	14.3	16.3	11.8	16.3	14.3	10.3
Olomouc region	9.5	11.2	11.5	16.3	11.5	16.3	11.5	16.3	11.5	16.3	11.5	10.1
Zlin region	9.9	10.7	12.2	16.3	12.2	16.3	15.7	16.3	12.2	16.3	15.7	10.4
Ostravsko	9.0	11.0	12.2	18.1	12.2	18.1	14.4	18.1	12.2	18.1	14.4	14.0
Ostrava region	9.0	11.0	12.2	18.1	12.2	18.1	14.4	18.1	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 G+STS+SVS	Of which "maturita"	Pupils in 9th 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: Vojtech, 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	1999/00	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

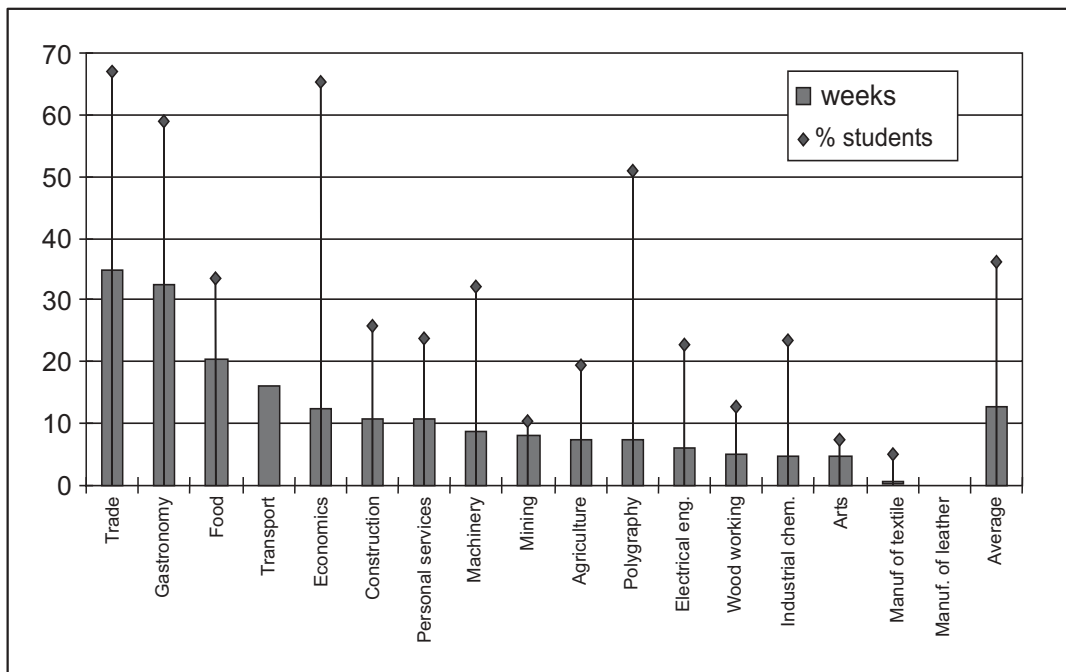
Area	All founders			15-18 age group			Proportion of school capacity in 15-18 age group			
	G	STS	SVS, ¹⁾	2000	G	STS	SVS, ¹⁾	Total		
The Czech Republic	134,023	235,225	249,548	544,807	24.6%	43.2%	45.8%	113.6%		
Prague	21,002	36,092	25,735	54,522	38.5%	66.2%	47.2%	151.9%		
The city of Prague	21,002	36,092	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%		
Budjovice region	8,408	15,414	18,045	33,932	24.8%	45.4%	53.2%	123.4%		
Pizeb 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 region	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

Number of weeks and share of students (%) in work placement - 3 year programmes of SVS



Source: Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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.

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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: Total ¹⁾ = co-operation 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 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).

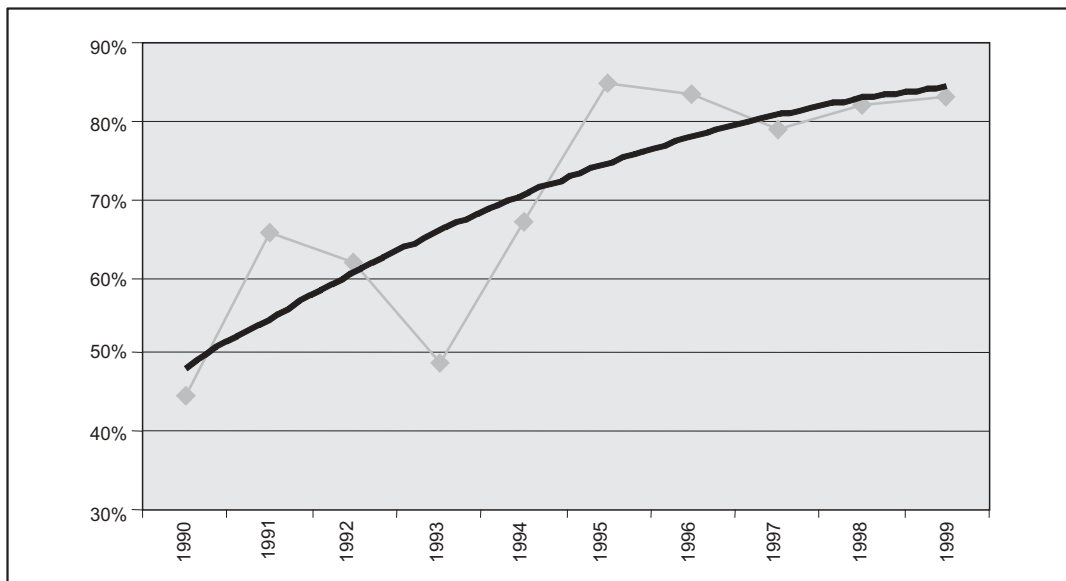
Column 2: The total number of students in schools divided by the total number of computers. National averages were calculated only in schools which use computers in teaching.

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.

2.10 Percentage of educational programmes involving computer science

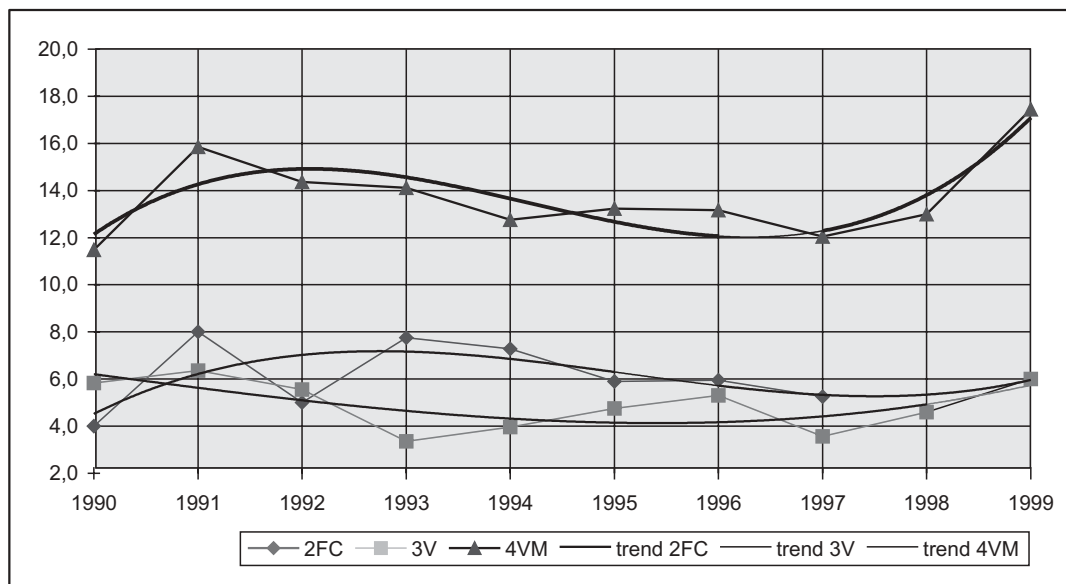


Note: The indicator describes the development concerning the inclusion of computer science into education programmes at secondary schools (SVS and STS) approved in the respective years. The data relates to programmes approved by the MoEYS between 1990-1999.

Source: Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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

2.11 Teaching of foreign languages in vocational schools

Number of foreign language teaching hours per week



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

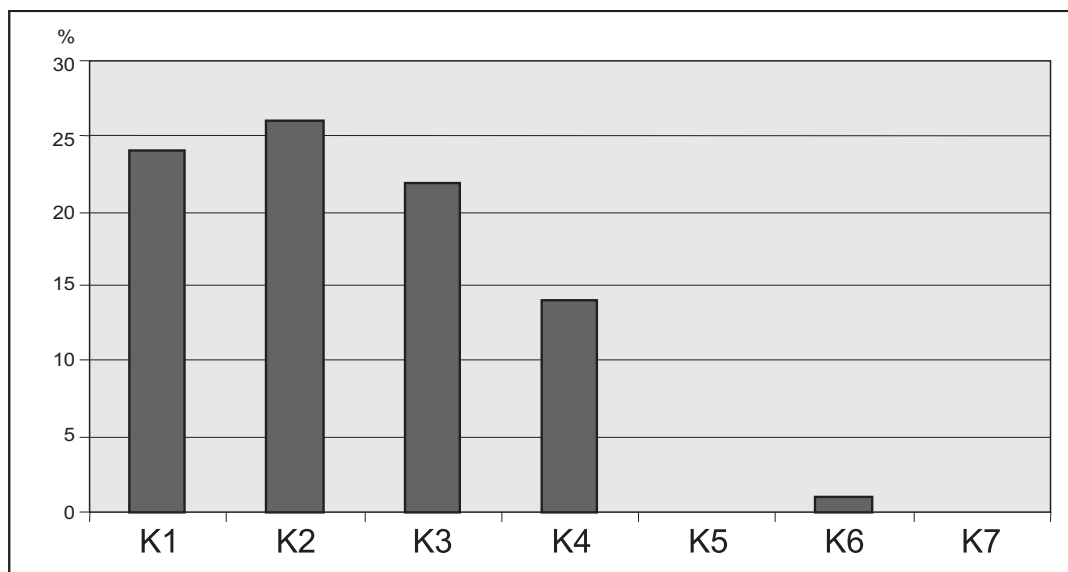
3V = 3 year vocational programmes without maturita

4VM = 4 year technical and vocational programmes with maturita

Source: Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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.

2.12 Ways of incorporation of key skills into the curricula

Characteristics of key skills in the education programmes



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	Simple way: 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	More exact way: 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	Specific way: 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	

2.13 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	5,619	11.0%	2,764	5,7%	2,803	5.7%
SVS with "maturita"	106	1.3%	16	0,2%	20	0.3%
Follow-up courses for graduates of three-	6,253	42.9%	307	30,4%	3,815	42.2%
HPS	686	5.3%	575	4,6%	279	3.7%

Source: Vojtech, 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: Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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.

2.14 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

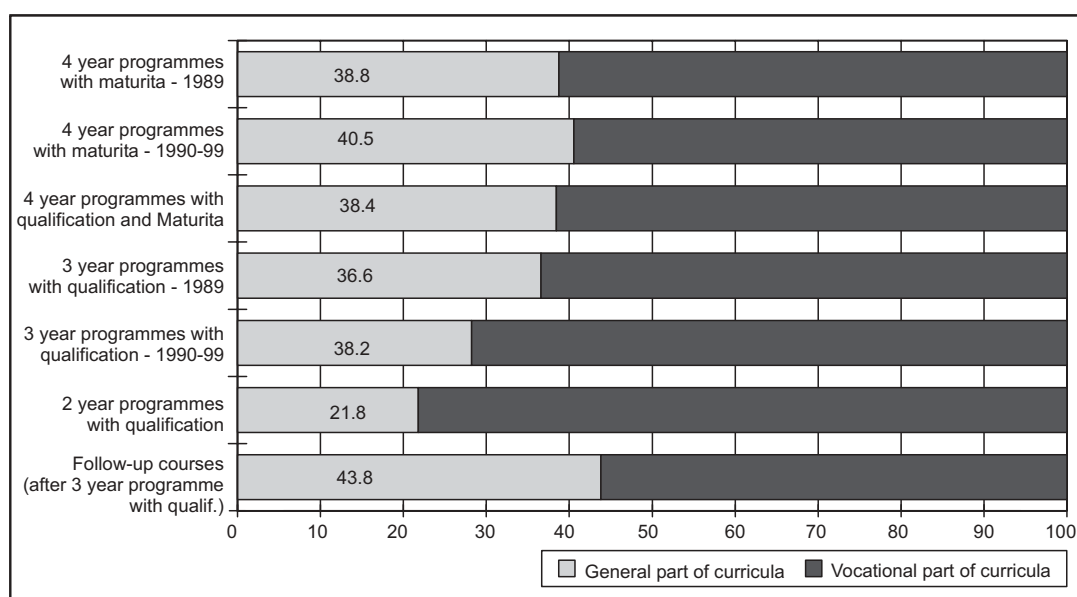
Active "core branch": includes at least one study programme which is actively taught in schools

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.

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



Source: Kofronová, O. - Vojtech, 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. Institute for Information on Education, Prague, 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. Institute for Information on Education, Prague, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000.*

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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 course 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, Zdenek: 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 (in thousands)		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 (in %) (end of the period)							
By Sex							
(end of the period)	Males	n.a.	3.2	3.1	4.2	7.6	6.8
	Females	n.a.	4.7	4.5	6.9	10.7	10.2
By Age							
(end of the period)	15 – 19	n.a.	12.1	12.3	20.2	33.0	35.7
	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							
(yearly average)	Total Czech Republic (ILO)	n.a.	4.3	4.0	4.8	8.7	10.6
	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		141,484	155,214	155,571	219,502	443,171	469,967
Unemployment rate (in %)		3.0*	3.0	3.0	4.3	8.5	9.0
Area: Employment services capacity							
Employment services administration costs (in thousand CZK)		615,900	938,100	1,292,300	1,386,900	1,736,350	1,621,476
relation to employment policy costs (in %)		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)		2,688	4,343	4,565	4,415	4,690	4,900
Relation client/staff of LO		52.6	35.7	34.1	49.7	94.5	93.3

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	1991	1993	1995	1997	1999	2000
Area: Employment policy structure						
Active employment policy (AEP) expenses by program (ths. CZK)	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 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 people 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 people 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

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4.5 Retraining - number of people 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 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	1,415		15.5	6.8
1993	1,005	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	1,059	55.7	57.6	37.2
2000	1,434	40.1	59.0	39.6

4.7 Registered unemployment

	1991		1993		1995		1997		1999		2000	
	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms
Groups of unemployed (On 31 December)	72,411	32.7%	57,625	31.1%	42,752	27.9%	79,887	29.7%	143,784	29.5%	119,975	26.2%
UE under 24	n.a.	n.a.	34,971	18.9%	37,600	24.6%	70,679	26.3%	128,088	26.3%	128,895	28.2%
UE over 45	72,394	32.7%	69,512	37.5%	61,853	40.4%	89,683	33.3%	146,283	30.0%	144,592	31.6%
UE without qualification	31,567	22.3%	49,185	31.7%	61,092	39.3%	86,020	39.2%	223,467	50.4%	264,390	56.3%
Long-term UE	3,527	2.5%	24,160	15.6%	35,281	22.7%	45,790	20.9%	121,392	27.4%	169,659	36.1%
Over 6 months												
Over 12 months												
Yearly average												
UE total	141,484	100.0%	155,214	100.0%	155,571	100.0%	219,502	100.0%	443,171	100.0%	469,967	100.0%

4.8 Unemployment benefits recipients

Number of recipients	1991
Less than 1579 Kc	36,599
1 580 Kc	80,215
1581 - 2000 Kc	23,687
2001 - 2500 Kc	10,509
2501 - 3000 Kc	4,118
3000 Kc and more	3,092

Number of recipients	1993		1995		1997	
	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms
Less than 800 Kc	4,682	7.766	7,766	7.883	7,817	7.817
801 - 1200 Kc	12,354	13.127	7,883	10.154	4,465	4.465
1201 - 1500 Kc	13,127	12,761	10,154	12,530	8,199	8.199
1501 - 2000 Kc	12,761	5,889	10,837	18,451	37,665	37.665
2001 - 2500 Kc	5,889	3,179	8,180	16,764	18,451	18.451
25001 - 3000 Kc	3,179	1,045	9,141	14,515	16,764	16.764
3001 - 3500 Kc	1,045	49	1,132	30,231	14,515	14.515
3501 Kc and more	49				30,231	30.231
Average benefit			2,056 Kc		2,567 Kc	

Number of recipients	1999		2000	
	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms	Absolute Terms	Relative Terms
Less than 1500 Kc	48,134	15,288	48,134	15,288
1501-2500 Kc	64,137	46,146	64,137	46,146
2501-3500 Kc	46,146	26,621	46,146	26,621
3501-4500 Kc	26,621	14,417	26,621	14,417
4501-5500 Kc	14,417	3,759	14,417	3,759
5501-6500 Kc	3,759	1,507	3,759	1,507
6501-7500 Kc	1,507	2,115	1,507	2,115
7501 Kc and more	2,115		2,115	
Average benefit		2,635 Kc		2,830 Kc

LIST OF ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS AND TERMS

ALMP	active labour market policy
CVT	continuing vocational training
ES	employment services
HE	higher education
HRD	human resources development
IT	information technology
JAP	Joint Assessment Paper
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-governmental organisation
NITVE	National institute of technical and vocational education
NTF	National Training Fund
PC	personal computer
PES	Public Employment Service
PPES	public and private employment services
PPS	Purchasing Power Standard
RILSA	Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs
SMEs	small and medium-sized enterprises

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

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