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ABSTRACT

This report discusses various aspects of continuity--internal, external, and complex--in education and training. Chapter 1 defines conditions for the three different types of continuity and describes the organization of the report, which distinguishes four different sectors of education and training: public education, private education, labor market training, and voluntary. Chapter 2 describes the governance structure of initial and adult education and training in Norway. Chapter 3 describes the public education sector, comprising compulsory education, upper secondary education, and higher education and discusses various aspects of continuity in regard to each level. Chapter 4 describes the private education sector, which in Norway is relatively small. Chapter 5 deals with the voluntary sector of adult education associations. Chapter 6 deals with labor market measures and describes two major labor market initiatives: the In-house Training Scheme and the Substitution Scheme. Chapter 7 deals with organizational innovations to coordinate local delivery of education and training. Three innovations are described: the regional competence committees in the county of Nordland, local and regional resource centers, and a new role for local employment offices. Appendixes include a description of provision for preschool children in Norway, child-care institutions, and educational programs for 6-year-olds; and a translation of a chapter in the main agreement between The Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry and The Norwegian Conference of Trade Unions 1994-97 on development of competence. Contains 30 references. (YLB)

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Coherence between compulsory education, initial and continuing training and adult education in Norway

CEDEFOP panorama

Coherence between compulsory education, inital and continuing training and adult education in Norway

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FOREWORD

This study is the Norwegian contribution to CEDEFOP's work on "Compulsory Education, Initial and Continuing Training, Adult Education as a Continuum", project number 5 in CEDEFOP's work programme for 1994. NORUT Social Science Research has been commissioned by the Norwegian Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs to do the report on the Norwegian education and training system.

The report is intended to be as extensive as possible, covering all aspects of the education and training system. However, one important area has only been touched upon and has not been given the attention which it deserves, namely the area of continuing education and training. The continuous updating and upgrading of the employed work force which is undertaken by public and private employers is to a large extent regulated by collective agreements between the social partners. In Norway the most recent main agreement between the two sides of industry includes a separate chapter on the development of competence. Regrettably, it has not been possible to give extensive treatment to this area, within the time and resources which have been available for this report. However, section 7.2 "Local and Regional Resource Centres" covers some of the activities in continuing education and training. Also, a separate appendix has been added, which gives an English translation of chapter XVI "The Development of Competence" in the Main Agreement between The Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry and the Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions for 1994-97.

The report is written by Tone Skinningsrud. Jens Bjørnåvold has done the research for Chapter 6 "Labour Market Training", section 7.1 "The Regional Competence Committees in the county of Nordland" and section 7.3 "An Extended Service Function for Local Employment Offices", and the Appendix on Child-Care and Pre-School Education in Norway.

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SUMMARY

This report is the Norwegian contribution to the CEDEFOP study on Compulsory Education, Initial and Continuing Training and Adult Education as a Continuum. The report discusses various aspects of continuity in education and training: internal, external and complex continuity. These aspects cover a wide variety of conditions, which facilitate the implementation of life long learning as an aim for education and training policy.

In chapter 1, conditions for the three different types of continuity are defined. *Internal continuity* points to arrangements in the educational system, such as clear progression routes, opportunities for transition from one stage of education and training to the next, and certification systems which correspond to the qualifications which are produced in the education and training system. *External continuity* entails arrangements for alternation between education and work at various stages in the educational and occupational career of individuals. *Complex continuity* is facilitated by access routes and special provision of education and training for adults, who have missed educational opportunities in their youth, but want to resume education and training. The concepts internal, external and complex continuity point to structural preconditions for life long learning.

Chapter 1 further describes the organization of the report, which distinguishes four different sectors of education and training. T*he public education sector* contains compulsory education, upper secondary education and higher education. T*he private education sector* consists mainly of higher education institutions and non-governmental distance education institutions. *Labour market training* includes various kinds of vocational training funded by the Labour Market Authorities. T*he voluntary sector* of adult education associations provides mainly leisure and recreational courses for adults.

Chapter 2 describes the governance structure of initial and adult education

and training in Norway. Compulsory education is the responsibility of the municipalities. Upper secondary education, including vocational options, is the responsibility of the counties' Education Authority. Apprenticeship, or in-service training is organized and supervised by the County Vocational Training Boards, which serve as liaisons between the education system and working life. The responsibility for adult education and training is divided among several parties. Adult education in compulsory school subjects is the responsibility of the municipalities. Secondary education for adults is the responsibility of the counties. Courses which are not circumscribed by curricular and examination requirements are the special domain of the voluntary adult associations. The Labour Market Authorities are charged with the responsibility for Labour Market Training. This division of labour in provision for adults, which is based in the 1976 Adult Education Act, has been somewhat eroded in recent years, as Labour Market Training and courses provided by the adult education associations increasingly have included certified and formally recognized courses.

Chapter 3 describes the public education sector, comprising compulsory education, upper secondary education and higher education. The various aspects of continuity are discussed in regard to each level of the system. Section 3.1 deals with compulsory education. Compulsory education provides internal cotinuity by avoiding streaming and tracking of pupils. All pupils prepare for the same final examinations and receive the same final certificate. The practice of adapted education, which takes into account the needs, abilities and background of the individual pupil leaves it to the professional judgement of the teacher to find adequate methods of teaching which meet the needs of the individual pupil. External continuity in compulsory education is provided in three different ways: (1) by the inclusion of practical, social and cultural activities (PSK) as a specific field of study in the mainstream programme of the schools, (2) by the inclusion of short periods of work practice and occupational knowledge in the curriculum of lower secondary schools, and (3) by special individual programmes combining education and work throughout the school year for pupils who lack motivation for the mainstream compulsory education programme.

Section 3.2 deals with upper secondary education. The current reform of upper secondary education, Reform 94, provides a legal right to three years of upper secondary education for all 16-19-year-olds. Internal continuity in upper secondary education is improved by: (1) the provision of open entry in upper secondary schools for compulsory school leavers, (2) clearer routes of progression towards vocational certificates, and (3) opportunities for vocational students to acquire entry qualifications to higher education. The new apprenticeship system which forms part of upper secondary education will improve external continuity for a larger number of students in that the third (and in some cases third and fourth) year of upper secondary education will be spent in apprenticeship training. The target which has been set by the government for apprenticeship training is to provide for one-third of the age group. The new curriculum plans also emphasize continuity between education and work. The new modularized plans which target all categories of students; 16-19-year-olds, adults and Labour Market clients, will facilitate alternation between education and work for all categories. The new Follow-up Service for all 16-19-year-olds who are neither in education or training, nor in work, will allow individual combinations of education and work and thus contribute to complex continuity. Adult enrolment in upper secondary educatio.. has increased in recent years. In order to maintain provision for adults in upper secondary schools, Ministerial Regulations oblige the counties to provide a minimum of extra places, exceeding the volume required for the group of young people who hold a legal right by about 75 %. Special provisions for adults who want to obtain craft and trade certificates without having served as apprentices will be continued (§20- courses). Besides, people may register for upper secondary examinations without being enrolled as students in an accredited institution (privatist-ordningen).

Section 3.3 deals with higher education. Internal continuity in higher education concerns possibilities for transfer and credit accumulation across all institutions of higher education. All students in regional colleges may now obtain a recognized first degree and proceed to study for higher degrees at the universities. Transfer of credits is also allowed for those who want to transfer before completing their first degree. Access policy in

higher education concerns both applicants from vocational fields of study in upper secondary education and mature students with working experience. In the late 70s there was a tendency to see vocational training and working experience as equivalents to general subject knowledge in qualifying for higher education. The emphasis is now on requiring additional qualifications in general subject knowledge among applicants holding vocational certificates and those who seek admission on the grounds of age and working experience.

Chapter 4 describes the private education sector, which in Norway is relatively small. Private institutions at the compulsory and upper secondary level are very few. However, during the last decade, the number of enrolments in private higher education institutions has increased dramatically, from 8 % in 1978 to 19 % in 1988. Private higher education institutions promote continuity in educational careers by providing courses which are in demand, but are not provided by public higher education. Many private institutions are also accredited and their students may transfer credits on transfering to universities. The accreditation of private institutions, however, has often been granted on the condition that liberal entry rules, admitting students with work experience, but without formal higher education entry qualifications, be discontinued. The non-governmental distance education institutions also contribute substantially to increased accessibility of education. Public provision of distance teaching is still in an early phase of development.

Chapter 5 deals with the voluntary sector of adult education associations. This sector is now a mixed sector in that course activities organized by adult education associations are subsidized by the State. According to the 1976 Adult Education Act, adult education associations are expected to provide courses outside the domain of formal qualifications. However, increasingly, the associations do provide courses for formal examinations and certificates. The 1976 Adult Education Act established adult education as a universal welfare state measure, and emphasized the right to equal opportunities for all adults to acquire knowledge, insight and skills. Studies have indicated that inequalities prevail in adult education, in that those with

higher initial levels of education have a higher participation rate in adult education. Still, the voluntary associations deliver courses and serve as liaisons to different sections of the education and training market, thus making provisions more readily available and contributing to continuity in the educational career of individuals.

Chapter 6 deals with Labour Market Measures. The trend in Norwegian Labour Market policy is to increase the emphasis on training in employment services and employment schemes, and to increase the provision of formally recognized courses in Labour Market Training. Two major Labour Market Schemes are described, the In-house Training Scheme, which targets companies, and the Substitution Scheme, which targets individuals. The In-house Training Scheme provides funding for company specific training in order to facilitate company readjustment and introduction of new technology. The Substitution Scheme is a more recent and innovative scheme in that it simultaneously provides employment for unemployed persons and training for company employees.

Chapter 7 deals with organizational innovations to coordinate local delivery of education and training. Three innovations are described: the regional competence committees in the county of Nordland, local and regional Resource Centres, and a new role for local Employment Offices. All three organizational innovations are, to various extents, designed to improve the quality and relevance of provisions, and to improve efficiency in the utilization of locally available resources for education and training.

Appendix I describes provision for pre-school children in Norway, child-care institutions and educational programmes for 6-year-olds.

Appendix II is a translation of chapter XVI in the Main Agreement between The Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry and The Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions 1994-97 "The development of competence".

1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this report is to present the Norwegian education and training system in the perspective of continuity and coherence.

1.1 CENTRAL CONCEPTS OF CONTINUITY

The research protocol which has been formulated by CEDEFOP for the project suggests three main aspects of continuity and coherence:
- internal continuity provided by opportunities for progression in generating and validating qualifications within the education and training system
- external continuity provided by links between the education and training system, and working life
- complex continuity in education and training in the sense that individual plans are remade, and coherency produced at various stages in the education and working career of the individual. It concerns the availability of course offers, access to education and training institutions and entitlement to leave of absence from work for upgrading and further education and training.

1.1.1 Internal Continuity

Internal continuity concerns progression routes from lower to higher stages in the system, doing away with 'blind alleys' and allowing opportunities for change of path and delayed choice of future career by keeping options open. Conditions for internal continuity are:

- continuity between various stages in the education and training system. Entry rules and regulations that allow easy transition between successive

stages of the education and training system: the transition from compulsory education to upper secondary education, transition from upper secondary education to higher education, and transition from school based education to in-company training.
- continuity between the generation of qualifications and the validation of qualifications. National accreditation systems for qualifications which are generated by existing education and training provisions ensuring that completion of a given course provides either recognized qualifications for work or fulfill entry requirements for progression in the educational system.
- internal arrangements providing opportunities for changes of path and delayed choice of path in the education system in preparing for vocational careers.

1.1.2 External Continuity

External continuity concerns coordinated arrangements in the work sphere and the education and training system, which provide opportunities for alternation between education and work. Opportunities for alternation between education and work may be provided during initial, continuing and adult education and training, and for adults, and for both the employed and the unemployed population. Alternation between education and work requires arrangements for leave of absence and it requires resolving the question of who is to pay for the education and training. These questions are generally negotiable between the social partners. Labour market training schemes have increasingly contributed to continuity in the education and training career of individuals. External continuity may be further specified to concern the issues of:

- alternation between education and work in compulsory and initial education and training
- arrangements for education and training of the employed population, such as statutory rights to absence from work for education and training purposes and public subsidies for paid educational leave. Such

arrangements will normally be settled by agreements between the social partners
- qualification schemes provided by Labour Market Authorities. In Norway these include: Substitute places for unemployed persons (utdanningsvikariater), Labour Market Training (AMO), Trainee Places (praksisplasser), which combines education and work practice, and In-house Training (BIO).

1.1.3 Complex Continuity

The arrangements which facilitate complex continuity are difficult to separate from those which provide external continuity. Further education and training for the employed population and the various Labour Market Schemes which involve training, all provide opportunities for people to obtain meaningful continuity in their educational careers. However, the need for complex continuity also concerns people who are not in employment and are not registered as unemployed. They may be housewives who want to improve their qualifications before they return to work, or persons who want to embark upon an entirely new career. The main challenge in providing continuity for these groups is to provide access routes and suitable provisions. Complex coherency may be further specified to concern the issues of:

- special provisions for adult learners to study for the compulsory school certificate
- special entry requirements and quota places for adult learners in upper secondary schools
- access routes and povisions for adult learners who want to qualify for formal upper secondary examinations in general and vocational fields of study
- access routes and provisions for adult learners who want to enrol in higher education,(correspondance courses, distance learning,course activities by voluntary adult education associations)

- open admission to sit for qualifying examinations and certification tests at all levels.
- opportunities for assessment of prior learning

1.2 THE ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The question of continuity concerns education and training activities at all levels. In order to deal with this vast area in an orderly manner, we will discuss in this report the various aspects of continuity for each education sector separately. We have indentified four different education and training sectors in Norway :

- the public education system comprising compulsory education, upper secondary education and higher education
- the private education system, which covers the same stages as the public system is a much smaller sector. On the whole the private school system in Norway administers the same examinations as the public sector. Most courses in private higher education institutions are accredited in the national degree system. This enables student transfer between the sectors.
- the Labour Market Training sector has grown in recent years and covers both short courses to meet skill shortages in the labour market and formal courses accredited in the public education system
- the voluntary sector consists of voluntary adult education associations, which originally ran courses for their members on organizational issues, or for recreational or enlightenment purposes. Increasingly they have come to engage in accredited formal education courses

The concluding chapter of the report describes some recent organizational innovations in the local coordination and delivery of education and training.

2 THE GOVERNANCE OF INITIAL AND ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN NORWAY

2.1 INITIAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

*Compulsory education organized by the municipalities.*There are 435 different municipalities in Norway. These local decision-making units have democratically elected bodies and a public administration. They vary in size, from a population of less than 500 to about 470 000 (in Oslo). About 250 municipalities have less than 3 000 inhabitants (Solstad 1994). The municipalities are responsible for providing *compulsory education* for the 7-16-year-olds and education in compulsory school subjects for adults who have missed basic education in their youth. Compulsory education for 7-16- year-olds is regulated by the Primary and Lower Secondary Education Act. Education in compulsory school subjects for adults is regulated by the Adult Education Act (cfr section 2.2).

In May 1994, the Norwegian Storting decided that compulsory education should be extended to 10 years, starting at the age of 6. The government is presently aiming for the implementation of this decision from the school year 1997/98.

Upper secondary education organized by the counties. There are 19 counties in Norway, with populations ranging from 75 000 to 470 000 (Oslo, which is both a county and a municipality). The county is an intermediate level of decision-making between the municipalities and central government. In the same manner as the municipalities, the counties have democratically elected bodies and a public administration. The counties are responsible for providing *upper secondary education* for the 16-19-year-olds, and for adults who want to re-enter education. Upper secondary education contains options for study of general subjects and vocational subjects. Upper secondary education for 16-19-year-olds is regulated by the Upper Secondary Education Act. Upper Secondary

Education for adults is regulated by the Adult Education Act (cfr section 2.2).

The vocational training system is organized by County Vocational Training Boards (Yrkesopplæringsnemnda), consisting of representatives from the social partners, political party representatives and the county Chief Executive of Apprenticeship Training. Apprenticeships, or in-service training, is organized and supervised by the County Vocational Training Board and its administration, in accordance with the Vocational Training Act. Thus, there are two main types of initial vocational education and training; school based vocational education, and apprenticeship or in-service training. The two types of initial vocational education are regulated by different Acts and supervised at the county level by different political bodies. The administration is increasingly integrated at the county level.

The functions of the County Vocational Training Board, in organizing apprenticeship training, consist of: controlling the quality of training provisions, persuading companies to increase their intake of apprentices, suggesting appointments to the Examination Boards (Prøvenemnder) and advisory Vocational Committees (Yrkesutvalg), which monitor the competence required within each trade. It further monitors apprenticeship contracts, registers entries and breaches of contract, certifies enterprises for apprenticeship training and keeps a register of these, registers apprentices; time served and examination results. Some County Vocational Training Boards also conduct surveys among companies regarding their plans for intake of apprentices.

In addition to the administration of the apprenticeship system, the County Vocational Training Board also serves as a link between the upper secondary education system and working life. It provides advice on current and future training needs to the county education authorities, in their planning of school based provisions. Besides providing information for the planning of school based vocational education, the apprenticeship system and the school based system are intertwined at the point of delivery of services. Apprentices have often completed one or two years of upper

secondary education before starting in-service training, and upper secondary schools provide facilities and teachers for apprentices' release courses. The new reform of upper secondary education, Reform 94, implies closer integration of apprenticeship training and school based provisions (cfr section 3.2).

2.2 ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The 1976 Adult Education Act established adult education as part of the welfare state in the sense that education for adults was recognized as a public responsibility and a universal right. The first paragraph stated the main purpose of provisions under the Act: equal opportunities for adults in access to knowledge, insight and skills. Much subsequent research has been devoted to finding out whether adult education funded by the act provides equal opportunities. Evidence seems to indicate that participation in adult education increases with higher levels of initial education and training (Nordhaug 1991, Moland 1991). Thus, adult education tends to increase educational inequalities rather than reduce them. This has been described as the paradox of adult education (Moland 1991).

The 1976 Adult Education Act distinguishes between various categories of adult education. The categories covered by the Act are as follows:

- education in compulsory school subjects for adults (§ 5).
- upper secondary education for adults (§ 4)
- adult education courses in leisure activities and cultural subjects outside formal examinations and certification systems (§ 6)
- further education and training, provided by upper secondary schools (§ 4)
- further education and training provided by institutions of higher education (§ 18)
- vocational training for adults as part of labour market policy (§ 3 and § 23)

- in-company training
- education for special target groups

The Act establishes a division of labour between different institutions in providing education for adults. Education in compulsory school subjects is the responsibility of the municipalities. Upper secondary education as well as further education and training provided by upper secondary schools, are the responsibilities of the counties. Adult education outside formal examination and certification systems such as courses in recreational and cultural subjects, are the responsibilities of the voluntary adult education associations. Further education and training in institutions of higher education is the responsibility of the State. Training for the unemployed is the responsibility of the Labour Market Authorities.

Certain exceptions to this division of labour is permitted by the Act. For example, the provision of initial education for adults with working experience may be undertaken by voluntary adult education associations in cases where there is a shortage of public provision, whereas normally, initial education and training for adults is the responsibility of the public education system.

The division of labour which the Act establishes among the public education system, labour market training, and the voluntary sector, determines the right to public subsidies of activities. Organizations that organize courses outside their legal domain may not receive public funding for their activities. However, in recent years, the division of labour laid down by the Adult Education Act has become less distinct. Increasingly, both Labour Market Authorities and adult education associations, which receive substantial public subsidies, provide credit-giving courses preparing for official exams and certificates. According to the Act, this should be the responsibility of the ordinary public education system.

2.3 SUMMING UP

In Norway, the provision of compulsory education, both for the 7-16-year-olds and for adults is the responsibility of the municipalities. Compulsory education will be extended to 10 years, starting at the age of 6, from 1997/98, according to present plans. Upper secondary education, including vocational education both for the 16-19- year-olds and adults, is the responsibility of the county Education Authority. Apprenticeship training is the responsibility of the County Vocational Training Board. The recent reform of Upper Secondary Education, Reform 94, will transfer the responsibility for providing apprenticeship training to the county education authorities (efr section 3.2). The provision of publicly subsidized adult education is divided between the municipalities, which are responsible for education in compulsory school subjects for adults, the counties, which are responsible for providing upper secondary education, including vocational education, for adults, the Labour Market Authorities that are responsible for providing employment training and the adult education associations which should restrict their provisions to non-credited course offerings. In recent years courses preparing for formal and publicly recognized examinations have increasingly been provided by both the Labour Market Authorities and by adult education associations.

3 THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SECTOR

3.1 COMPULSORY EDUCATION

The Norwegian 9-year compulsory education system contains a primary stage, age 7-13, and a lower secondary stage, age 13-15. When compulsory education is extended to 10 years, it will be divided into three stages, the primary stage, age 6-9, the intermediate stage, age 10-12, and the lower secondary stage, age 13-15. Compulsory education in Norway is the responsibility of the municipalities. In addition to compulsory education

for 7-15-year-olds, the municipalities are obliged to provide course offers in compulsory school subjects for adults who have not completed compulsory education. In 1986, a block grant system for transferring money from central to local government was introduced, which replaced the previous earmarked funding of education. The block funding allows some local autonomy in allocating money to the various public services. After the replacement of earmarked funding of education with a block grant system, local variation in the share of public funding for education purposes has increased. Adult education seems to be one of the areas which suffers from a lack of local funding.

The new Curriculum Guidelines for compulsory education, which are currently circulated on a hearing round among all implicated parties, lays down the principle of equality of resources for all compulsory education in Norway. The use of measures from central authorities to achieve this aim , is subject to revision, in view of annual reports on local practices issued by the municipalities.

3.1.1 Internal Continuity: Mixed Ability Grouping and Adapted Education

The Norwegian compulsory school system tries to avoid segregating pupils and teaches mixed ability groups from the first to the ninth grade. Some remedial teaching is provided for small groups in certain subjects, but these groups are normally not permanent and organized as separate classes. Streaming or tracking is not practised at the compulsory level.

The basic principle that has been laid down for compulsory education is that all teaching shall be adapted to the needs, abilities and background of the individual pupil. All pupils are entitled to receive an individually adapted education in their local schools. This principle is called "tilpasset opplæring" (adapted education), and concerns all pupils. The right to adapted education for all is confirmed in § 7 in the Primary and Lower Secondary Education Act. The practice of adapted education requires that

teachers use their professional judgement in choosing methods of teaching that will meet the particular needs of the individual pupil.

Adapted education implies that no repetition of grades is practised. All pupils, by the end of their final year, sit for the same examination and receive the same type of certificate. The transfer from compulsory schools to upper secondary schools is effective in the sense that in 1993, about 95% of all compulsory school leavers proceeded directly to upper secondary education. The ease of transition will be further enhanced from 1994, after the introduction of the new reform of upper secondary education, Reform 94. This reform confirms a right for all 16-19-year-olds to three years of upper secondary education. County Education Authorities will be responsible for providing places in upper secondary education for all 16-19-year-olds who apply for admission.This may mean that the transition rate will come up to one hundred per cent.

3.1.2 External Continuity: Education and Work

Already at the compulsory stage, pupils are brought into contact with working life in their community. The National Curriculum Guidelines (M87) recommend inclusion of work experience in the school programme and require that engagement in practical, social and cultural activities be incorporated in the mainstream provisions of the school from the 1st to the 9th grade. Historically, the notion of the community active school may be seen as an extension of ideas which first were applied in special provisions for low-achieving and school-rejecting pupils. Work practice and participation in local activities have gradually acquired higher esteem and have come to be considered as valuable learning experiences for all categories of pupils, also the high achievers. The inclusion of practical, social and cultural activities (PSK), as part of a general community school perspective in the National Curriculum Guidelines, had its forerunners in several development projects during the 70s and 80s. These ideas are also at the centre of a major national project "The Community Active School", which includes the establishing of mini-enterprises run by the pupils as

part of the school programme.

We will provide a short description of two of the projects which were forerunners of present practices of including work practice in the compulsory school programme:

Extended Training (Utvida Opplæring) was a project run by The National Council for Innovation in Education (Forsøksrådet for skoleverket) between 1974 and 1979. The project started with the aim of developing models for schoolwork combinations by documenting existing practices in most municipalities. These practices had emerged as improvised solutions to problems with truancy among pupils in lower secondary schools, in the wake of the 1969 Primary and Lower Secondary Education Act, which extended compulsory schooling from 7 to 9 years. Pupils who lacked motivation for school were allowed to spend two or three days a week in a local shop or factory, or were admitted to vocational courses in neighbouring upper secondary schools. These practices which had evolved as local solutions to problems which were widespread at the time, were initially seen as second best to full-time education. However, during the project period, a change of perspective on schoolwork combinations occurred. This was reflected in the change of project title from the original "Alternative (to) Schooling" (Alternativ Opplæring), to "Extended Training" (Utvida Opplæring) (Solstad 1994). The change of title shows the more positive regard in which combinations of education and work were seen by the end of the project period. The provisions were no longer seen as a last measure for the academically low performing pupils, but as valuable ways of learning, also for high achievers.

In conjunction with the project, half-year and one-year post-certificate courses at the Teachers' Training Colleges in Stavanger and Bodø were developed to improve teachers' qualifications in this area of education and training (Solstad op.cit.).

From 1989 Ministerial Regulations concerning work practice and other optional activities in lower secondary school confirmed that pupils might

opt for a maximum of two days' work participation per week. Taking such an option did not disqualify for entering academic fields of study in upper secondary education (Ibid.).

The School in the Local Community Project (Skolen i nærmiljøet) likewise was initiated by the National Council for Innovation in Education. It was operated from 1981 to the end of 1984. The project included a large number of compulsory schools from all over the country. The participating schools were selected on the basis of applications in which they defined aims, objectives and lines of action for their own participation, within certain prescribed frames. Research consultants from The National Council provided facilitating and supporting activities and networks were established between the participating schools in each region. The results of the project provided support for the idea that compulsory schools ought to modify their national standard curriculum and develop local curriculum plans in order to incorporate local knowledge and opportunities for learning (Ibid.). The project provided case studies of successful school involvement and initiation of local community undertakings, and thus promoted the idea of the school as an active community agent, especially in small rural communities, where few public services other than those provided by the compulsory school were available (Ibid.).

These projects, "Extended Training" and "The School in the Local Community" represented a trend of thought which was further manifested in the revised national Curriculum Guidelines which were introduced in 1987 (M87). The Curriculum Guidelines emphasized the role of the compulsory schools in the local community by requiring them to develop local curricula and work plans. The Guidelines called for local development and innovation in schools (Ibid.). Compulsory education should be adapted to the background of the child and to the everyday experiences in the local community. The M87 Curriculum Guidelines recommend integrated teaching, the organization of field work and excursions, local optional subjects, and the inclusion of work experience in the school programme. In short, cooperation between the school and the local community is generally recommended. Pupil participation in local

practical, social and cultural activities (PSK) is designated as a new field of study, and is given a special weighting in terms of the minimum number of periods devoted to it. Across the grades 7-9 in lower secondary school, 150 periods should be devoted to these kinds of activities. In comparison, the subject Social Studies is allocated 330 periods during lower secondary education (Ibid.).

In addition to practical, social and cultural activities (PSK), the Curriculum Guidelines mention theoretical and practical knowledge of working life. Theoretical knowledge of working life is taught as part of the subject Social Studies, and is also integrated in other subjects. Project work concentrated over several days, up to one week, is recommended as a suitable method for dealing with this topic. Work practice, or practical knowledge of working life, may be organized as one block, lasting for one week, according to the Guidelines. Some schools arrange placements in local companies and enterprises to provide work experience for their pupils. Others organize special projects, such as mini-enterprises located in the school buildings, run by the pupils themselves, combining the requirements of work practice and practical, social and cultural activities.

Practical, social and cultural activities (PSK), and theoretical and practical knowledge of working life are provided as part of the mainstream programme for all the pupils in lower secondary school. Special individual programmes combining education and work throughout the school year, may be designed for pupils who lack motivation for the mainstream school programme. During the school year 1990/91, 814 pupils[1] in Norwegian lower secondary schools were enrolled in such individual programmes which provided 1-3 days per week of work practice and 2-4 days per week of school based education (Sørlie 1991).

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[1] The number is an underestimate because not all Municipal Education Authorities responded to the survey questionnaire (Sørlie, op.cit.).

3.1.3 Complex Continuity: Access and Provision for Adults

There are still members of the adult population who have not completed the 9-year compulsory schooling.The Ministry of Education estimated the number of adults who were enrolled in compulsory education programmes to be 7 000 in 1992 (NOU 1993:6). This group consists of various categories. Some may have dropped out of compulsory school. The older members of the group may have completed compulsory school before the 1969 Primary and Lower Secondary Education Act, when compulsory schooling was extended from 7 to 9 years. Immigrants and refugees constitute an increasing proportion of the group. Besides, there are adult persons who according to specialist testimony are entitled to special education in compulsory school subjects. Presently, the establishing of a reliable data base for educational statistics is a high priority task in the Ministry of Education. This data base includes information about adults who are enrolled in compulsory school programmes, and covers the following categories:

-adults who receive special education in compulsory school subjects, not necessarily preparing for final examinations
-adults who are registered for final examinations in compulsory school subjects
-adult immigrants and refugees

In 1993 these groups together consisted of about 8 000 persons.

The 1976 Adult Education Act confirms that municipal authorities are responsible for providing education in compulsory school subjects for adults. This is in accordance with the general rule that compulsory education is a municipal responsibility. Municipal authorities may collaborate with voluntary adult associations and the Labour Market Authorities in organizing the courses.

The block grant transfer of funds from central to municipal level of government covers the whole range of municipal public services including

adult education in compulsory school subjects. The relative amount of funding allocated to education is subject to negotiations at the local level, and the amount allocated to adult education varies between municipalities. The Orskaug Commission (NOU 1993:6) claimed that provision of compulsory level schooling for adults generally has been insufficiently prioritized by municipal authorities. The commission suggested that the municipalities establish collaborative schemes with other organizers of education in order to pool resources for this purpose. Successful experiments have been carried out in the county of Finnmark along these lines. The relevant partner for such collaborative efforts are Labour Market Authorities, which have administered earmarked funding for education and work preparatory courses in their budget (Rundskriv P-2/92).

However, from 1 August 1994, the Labour Market Authorities have discontinued the funding of education and work preparatory courses. This funding has been used to provide compulsory school education for those above school leaving age. The withdrawal of this funding may have an impact on adult enrolment in compulsory education programmes in that these provisions will now have to be financed without the support of Labour Market Training funds.Voluntary organizations may still provide compulsory education programmes, but as these organizations only receive limited subsidies, substantial private fees may have to be introduced.

3.1.4 Summing up

Compulsory education is the responsibility of the municipalities, both for the 7-16 age group and for adults. *Internal continuity* in compulsory education is secured by avoiding streaming and tracking of pupils. All pupils prepare for the same final examination, and receive the same certificate. The practice of adapted education, which takes into account the needs, abilities and background of the individual pupil, requires that teachers use their professional judgement in choosing methods of teaching that will meet the particular needs of the individual pupil. Compulsory education provides *external continuity* with working life by means of three

different measures:
- the inclusion of practical, social and cultural activities (PSK) as a specific field of study in the mainstream programme of schools
- theoretical and practical knowledge of working life as part of the curriculum in lower secondary schools, and
- special individual programmes combining education and work throughout the school year designed for pupils who lack motivation for the mainstream school programme.

Complex continuity in the sense of making compulsory education available for adults, who for various reasons have not completed their basic education, concerns adults with needs for special education, adults who have missed the opportunity in their youth, and refugees and immigrants who need basic schooling. The funding of compulsory education for adults, according to some reports, have had a low priority in the municipalities. Cross-sectoral pooling of resources and cooperative efforts between various providers have been promising in securing such provisions locally.

3.2 UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION: REFORM 94

Norwegian upper secondary education provides three years of study, consisting of a foundation course (first year), advanced course I (second year), and advanced course II (third year). The students may choose between routes that lead to qualifications for higher education, and routes that lead to vocational qualifications. Upper secondary education is currently being reorganized. Legal amendments to the Upper Secondary Education Act and the Vocational Training Act, new Ministerial Regulations and new curriculum plans all contribute to comprehensive changes in upper secondary education provisions, which are designed to improve internal, external and complex continuity. After the new reform, initial vocational education will involve two years in upper secondary school followed by one or two years of in-company training. The reorganization is commonly referred to as Reform 94.

The main points of the reform may be summarized as follows:

- *All 16-19-year-olds have a legal right to 3 years of upper secondary education.* The right implies a legal entitlement, which can be claimed by the individual concerning admission to provisions that lead to either qualifications for entry to higher education, or vocational qualifications. It implies admission to one of three preferred choices of foundation course, listed in order of preference, among thirteen available options. The entry right must be exercised within one year after the completion of compulsory education. The right is effective for 4 (5) years after the completion of compulsory education. The period during which the right is effective may be extended to five years in cases where the third year of upper secondary education is spent in apprenticeship training. Apprenticeship training normally lasts for two years after two years of school based education.

-*Extended rights to upper secondary education for certain groups.* An extended right to 5 years of upper secondary education applies to applicants with documented needs for special education, if specialist advice justifies this. Though, the right may not be extended beyond the age of 22. If a person has not completed upper secondary education within the 4 (5) years during which the right is effective, the person must compete for admission with other applicants who do not hold a legal right to entry.

-*Simplification of the structure of upper secondary education.* The reform implies a simplification of the structure of upper secondary education. The number of foundation courses (first year of study) has been reduced from over one hundred to thirteen. The new foundation courses are less specialized, in that several of the former courses have been merged, and the course contents provide a broader knowledge base in vocational fields of study, which now include a larger share of five general subjects: Norwegian, English, mathematics, natural science, and sports and physical education.

-*General and vocational fields of study in upper secondary education.* Among the thirteen foundation courses, three courses emphasize on general subjects and serve as starting points for paths which lead to qualifications for entry in higher education: General and Business Studies, Music, Dance and Drama, Sports and Physical Education. Ten foundation courses

emphasize on vocational subjects and serve as starting points for paths which lead to vocational qualifications: Arts, Crafts and Design Studies, Woodworking Trades, Engineering and Mechanical Trades, Building and Construction Trades, Hotel and Food processing Trades, Technical Building Trades, Electrical Trades, Agriculture, Fishing and Forestry, Chemical and Processing Trades, Health and Social Studies. During the second year a wider range of options are available, about ninety different courses. The third year normally consists of apprenticeship. In some trades this period is extended to two years. Students who have chosen vocational options may also obtain qualifications for entry in higher education if they choose a course in general subjects instead of in-company training during the third year in upper secondary education.

- *A new apprenticeship system.* The new apprenticeship system is integrated in upper secondary education by requiring that the two first years of upper secondary education should be completed before entering apprenticeship training. The apprenticeship period normally lasts for two years, varying between trades. Exceptions from the main model, which requires two years of upper secondary education before apprenticeship training may be granted in special cases. The aim of the Reform is to be able to offer apprenticeship training to one-third of the age group, after two years of upper secondary education. A number of new occupations and trades has been included in the apprenticeship scheme. Most vocational routes in upper secondary education will contain an apprenticeship period at the end.The counties share a responsibility with the social partners for providing a sufficiently large number of apprenticeship places. The tripartite County Vocational Training Boards at the county level (Yrkesopplæringsnemnda) are the operative agents for establishing liaisons with companies and allocating apprentices to the relevant enterprises. In the case of undersupply of apprenticeships, the county is responsible for providing alternative school based provisions during the third and last year of upper secondary education. The County Vocational Training Board is responsible, on behalf of the county, for allocating apprentices to individual companies. Placements of apprentices are based on mutual agreement between the County Vocational Training Board and the

individual companies. Companies receive a direct money transfer for each apprentice they take on. This compensation is paid by the county from the block grant which is transferred from the central state to the county. Enterprises will play a new role as an arena in the total national training system in that the in-service training of apprentices will no longer be primarily a way of recruiting new employees. Companies are encouraged to take on more apprentices than required for their own recruitment purposes.

- *New curriculum plans.* New curriculum plans are developed for all courses in upper secondary education as part of the reform. The new curricula are designed to promote continuity and cohesion in the education system, from compulsory education, through upper secondary education, and apprenticeship training, to adult education (further education and training). More time is given to general subjects in vocational fields of study during the first and second year. This will facilitate the transition for vocational students, who want to proceed to higher education. Features of the new curricula include:

  - a new general statement of aims, purposes and principles that should guide the Norwegian educational system from the bottom to the top, has been worked out. The overriding aims and principles of this general curriculum statement have provided norms for all the specific course curriculum plans.
  - one single curriculum plan, including school-based education and apprenticeship training, replaces the previous separate curriculum plans for school based and in-company training. This will ensure improved continuity between school based and company based provision.
  - only one curriculum plan will exist for each vocational option in upper secondary education. Before, there have been separate plans for the same course depending on the target group; whether it was run for the 16-19 group, adult groups (including § 20-course participants, cfr 3.2.3) ; or employment training clients.
  - the new curriculum plans are modularized in order to provide flexibility and opportunities for alternation between education and

work.

- the statement of learning objectives is a central feature of the curriculum plans. The teaching profession will be responsible for adapting methods of instruction to the different target groups.

-*The responsibilities of the counties.* The counties are legally obliged to provide a sufficiently large number of places in upper secondary education so that all applicants who are entitled to three years of upper secondary education are admitted.The counties are also responsible for providing an additional number of places to accommodate those who are granted extended right, those who want to change their field of study, and adult applicants. The minimum volume of provisions which the counties are obliged to provide is 375 % of the average age cohort among 16-19-year-olds. This means about 75 % extra capacity. The counties are responsible for providing a sufficiently wide variety of options in order to accommodate both demands from the applicants, and labour market demands, within the economic means of the county. Several counties may cooperate in order to establish provisions that have few applicants. The counties are also responsible for arranging the possible release provisions for apprentices, but are not responsible for their funding. Several counties may collaborate to establish release provisions. As mentioned above, the counties share a responsibility with the social partners for providing a sufficiently large number of apprenticeship places and is responsible for providing alternative school based provisions in the case of undersupply of apprenticeships.

-*The role of the social partners.* The social partners will continue to influence decisions concerning school based vocational education and apprenticeship training after the reform. The partners constitute a majority in the National Council for Vocational Training (Rådet for Fagopplæring i Arbeidslivet), the twenty-six Vocational Training Councils (Opplæringsrådene) representing various branches and trades, and the County Vocational Training Boards. In 1993 the number of Vocational Training Councils was reduced from more than sixty to less than thirty. Recently, a committee has been appointed to reassess the structure of the

Vocational Training Councils.

- *The new Follow-up Service.* The counties are responsible for establishing a Follow-up Service for that section of the 16-19 age-group who have a right to three years of upper secondary education, but have not applied for entry, have not accepted the place which was offered, or have dropped out during the school year. The main task of the Follow-up Service is to provide guidance and information concerning available alternative provisions to the ordinary courses in upper secondary education. The Service is expected to coordinate and instigate organizers of provisions to initiate suitable course offers for these groups. The Service is not expected to organize and deliver courses itself. As upper secondary education is voluntary, the Service is primarily an offer to provide information and guidance. However, the Service is expected to be active in contacting all individuals who are not in education and not employed. Apprentices are included in the target group for the Service. The Ministerial Regulations for the Service which were issued in May 1994 specify the following tasks for the Service:

  - to obtain a complete register of the target group
  - to make contact with each and every young person in the target group
  - to offer guidance and counselling to each member of the target group
  - to offer education or work placement to each member of the target group
  - to be informed about existing provisions for the target group
  - to follow up young people who have accepted provisions offered by the Service.

-*Upgrading courses for teachers and trainers in the implementation of the reform.* The Ministry of Education has developed a National Action plan for the planning, design and delivery of upgrading courses for teachers, guidance personnel and trainers (instruktører). Guidance counsellors are normally teachers, and not treated as a separate category. Trainers are those persons who are responsible for the in-company training of

apprentices. At present no formal teacher qualifications are required for trainers, and private employers have no legal obligation to provide upgrading courses for their training personnel. Still, several branches of industry have developed their own plans and programmes for the training of trainers. In addition, the publicly funded upgrading programmes include private company trainers in their target group. The aim of the publicly funded upgrading courses is to ensure that the principles of the curricular reform will be pursued in classroom teaching and learning practices, and in in-company training. The Action Plan implies two main types of upgrading programmes:

- *General courses for teachers and trainers* with the purpose of creating a common understanding of the justification and rationale of the reform. The programme consists of modular courses supported by audiovisual and other teaching material. The general upgrading programme consists of four parts. The first part is for teachers and trainers and concerns the general background and contents of Reform 94. The second and third parts of the programme target the teachers in the new foundation courses and concern the new curriculum plans. Central themes in part two and three are: the concept of knowledge, the integration of practical and theoretical knowledge, curriculum plans and learning objectives, teaching methods, learning processes and assessment practices.
- *Upgrading courses in specific subjects* concern the didactics of specific subjects. Central themes are: the encounter between curriculum plan, teacher and student and the process of teaching and learning with regard to specific subjects.

Two different models of delivery are utilized in the upgrading programmes: the decentralized model and the centralized model. The decentralized model of delivery targets large groups of personnel, such as teachers of courses with high frequency enrolment. Local key personnel are selected and given special upgrading in order to serve as resource persons in the local delivery of courses. The centralized model of delivery targets smaller groups of personnel from courses with low frequency enrolment. Upgrading courses for these groups are delivered centrally for the total

national target group.

Upgrading courses (etterutdanning), which are not formally accredited, must be distinguished from further education courses (videreutdanning), which give additional recognized qualifications. The former must be provided by the employer, in this case the county, while the latter is an individual responsibility. The modules which have been developed as part of the National Action Plan so far, are not accredited.

The State and the counties have a shared responsibility for planning and implementing the upgrading courses. The State participates through central coordination, planning, implementation, and the development of teaching material for both the general upgrading programme and the subject specific upgrading programme. The State has also assumed a shared responsibility in the funding of activities embodied in the National Action Plan. The counties have been expected to contribute an equal share to the funding of upgrading activities.

3.2.1 Internal Continuity: Progression Routes and Curriculum Plans

Previously there were more than one hundred different foundation courses, some of them fairly specialized for designated areas of work. Some of these courses were dead ends in the sense that there were no advanced courses to proceed to for the students. The reduction of foundation courses from over one hundred to thirteen, each of which provide a broad knowledge base and leads to specific options for advanced study and in-service training during the second and third year, will delay the choice of career path, and improve opportunities for progression towards final certificates. The new structure will also provide opportunities for vocational students to obtain general entry qualifications for higher education, through the provision of supplementary courses.

The new curriculum plans will improve continuity, by providing one curriculum plan including both school based and company based training

and, providing one and the same plan for all target groups, 16-19-year-olds, adults and Labour Market clients. The modular structure of the curriculum furthermore contributes to flexibility and continuity in facilitating the accumulation of course credits for those who alternate between education and work.

3.2.2 External Continuity: Education and Work Practice

Vocational fields of study in upper secondary education have normally included some work practice. The recommended amount of work experience is stated in the curriculum plans. However, as these recommendations have often been vague, each upper secondary school has developed its own tradition concerning alternations between education and work. Various types of schemes have been implemented: one day per week, two days per week and blocks of one to four weeks of work practice in local enterprises. Schemes have varied in having one student alone or several students together in the work place. Such work practice has not been part of the apprenticeship scheme, but has been integrated in the school based programme. The aim of such schemes has been for the student to adapt to working conditions, acquiring social skills and developing a sense of responsibility, more than learning specific technical skills.

Reform 94 may reduce the amount of informal and non-credited work practice during the first two years of upper secondary education, as general subjects have been allocated a larger share on the time table. Work practice during the school based upper secondary course will probably be retained for those fields of study which do not have apprenticeship schemes. Those fields of study which lead to apprenticeship training during the third (and fourth) year will have most of their work practice postponed until then.

3.2.3 Complex Continuity: Access for Adults

The primary target group for upper secondary education is 16-19-year-olds. However, upper secondary schools have also been firmly established as providers of education for adults. This obligation has been confirmed in the recent reform. § 4 in the amended Upper Secondary Education Act states that the counties are obliged to provide places exceeding the number required for those who hold a legal right to education at this level. The extra places are intended for students who are granted extended rights, those who want to change their field of study and, finally, adult applicants. Ministerial Regulations require the counties to provide a minimum capacity of 375% of the average age cohort among 16-19-year-olds, in order to accommodate the mentioned groups of applicants.These minimum requirements laid down by the Ministry are intended to ensure that upper secondary schools will continue to provide for adult learners.

Despite reduced age cohorts among 16-19 year-olds during recent years, there has been an increase of enrolment in upper secondary education. This is partly due to an increasing rate of direct transfers from compulsory school to upper secondary schools, and partly due to an increasing number of adult applicants. The places which have been provided for adults in upper secondary education have partly been financed by the county, and partly by the State. The official statistics of enrolment in upper secondary education indicate a steady increase in the proportion of adult students.

Table 1 shows that during the period 1975 to 1992 an increasing proportion of young adults up to the age of 29 were enrolled in upper secondary education. Official statistics do not distinguish between enrolment financed by the State and enrolment funded by the county. All who have participated in courses that last for more than 2 1/2 months are registered. As most 16-19-year-olds are enrolled in full-year courses, and many adults are enrolled in shorter courses, the percentage of adult enrolments may provide a biased picture which overestimates adult students as a proportion of total enrolment.

There may also be some double registering, as one adult may participate in more than one course during the school year.[2]

Table 1 Adults in the age groups 19-24 and 25-29, males and females, in upper secondary education in per cent of registered population in age group in 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990 and 1992.

Gender:	Males		Females	
Age:	19-24	25-29	19-24	25-29
1975	10.2	2.1	10.9	1.1
1980	10.7	2.6	12.5	2.1
1985	11.2	2.3	12.3	2.1
1990	17.0	4.0	15.1	3.6
1992	18.1	4.9	16.3	4.2

Source: Official Statistics of Norway, Educational Statistics Upper Secondary Schools, C 139

However, these sources of error do not modify the general trend of increasing proportions of 25-29-year-olds, who are enrolled in upper secondary education from 1975 to 1992.

Table 2 further illustrates the role of the upper secondary education system as provider of education for adults. From 1980 to 1992 the proportion of adults post 25 years of age, in the total student body, increased both for men and women.

The Nowegian National Bureau of Statistics has provided information for this report on the percentage of double registries in 1992, in the age group post 25 years of age. 2 % of the group were registered twice.

Table 2 Number of adults in the year group 25+, males and females, in upper secondary education in per cent of total enrolments in upper secondary education 1980-1992.

Gender:	Male			Female		
Year:	Total	25+	%	Total	25+	%
1980	183.931	7.917	4,3	94.147	7.407	7,9
1985	209.629	6.898	3,3	106.202	7.913	7,5
1990	253.625	14.851	5,9	124.269	17.244	13,9
1992	260.431	19.022	7,3	125.983	19.601	15,6

Source: Official Statistics of Norway, Educational Statistics Upper Secondary Schools, C 139

The proportion of adult students in the total female student body nearly doubled during the period[3].

Craft and trade Certificates for adults, § 20-courses. The Vocational Training Act, § 20, allows adults to register for the same qualifying examinations as apprentices without having served as an apprentice. If a person has been in relevant employment for a period which is 25 % longer than the required time for apprentices in the same trade, he or she has a right to register for the certifying examination. Adults, with extensive work practice, who want to sit for the certifying examination, may study for the theoretical part of the examination in courses which are specially arranged for people in employment. Extensive and varied work practice is seen as equivalent to apprenticeship training, and adults who register are exempted from entering apprenticeship contracts. Table 3 illustrates the importance of this opportunity for adults to obtain formal qualifications. In 1992/93 more than half of the craft and trade certificates under the Vocational Training Act were obtained by people who were more than 25 years old.

[3]These figures are biased in the same direction as the figures in Table 1.

Table 3 Number of obtained craft and trade certificates under the Vocational Training Act, by age, total numbers and per cent 1992/93

Age	Obtained craft and trade certificates, total number	Obtained craft and trade certificates, per cent
<18	1	-
19	373	2,9
20	1 044	8,0
21	1 430	10,9
22	1 194	9,2
23-24	1 694	12,9
25<	7 302	55,9
Total	13 038	100

Assessment of prior learning (privatistordning). The Vocational Training Act entitles adults to assessment of prior learning in submitting themselves to certifying examinations in various crafts and trades. School based upper secondary education also provide this opportunity. People who want to obtain formal qualifications in one of the three course options which qualify for entry in higher education, general studies, commercial studies and technical school, may register for the exam without having to enrol as a student in the course. The Blegen Commission (NOU 1991:4) suggested that opportunities for assessment of prior learning be introduced for all the vocational options in upper secondary education.

3.2.4 Summing up

Upper secondary education in Norway is currently being reformed. Reform 94 implies changes concerning access to provisions in providing a legal right to three years of upper secondary education for all 16-19-year-olds. The structure of course offers is simplified and made more transparent in providing a reduced number for foundation courses, thirteen courses replacing the previous more than one hundred course offers. The structural changes imply clearer routes of progression towards (vocational certificates), and improved opportunities for obtaining general entry qualifications to higher education for vocational students. The apprenticeship system will become part of upper secondary provision by apprenticeships making up the last phase of vocational training included in the three-year entitlement. The integration of school based and company based education and training is seen in the new requirement of two years of upper secondary education before apprenticeship contracts can be entered and the new curriculum plans which include both school based and in-service training. Two years of school based education is normally followed by one or two years of in-company training. The ambitious aim is to expand the number of available apprenticeship places to cover one third of the age group. The new modularized curriculum plans and the new Follow-up Service will contribute to establish continuity between school based and company based education and training, as will the upgrading courses for teachers, guidance personnel and trainers, which are arranged as part of the implementation process of the reform. Continued access to upper secondary education for adults under the new reform, is maintained by legal and Ministerial Regulations which oblige the counties to provide a minimum of extra places, exceeding the volume required for the group who holds a legal right by about 75 %. In addition to these extra places, adults still have access to § 20- courses. These courses enable adults to register for apprenticeship exams without having served as apprentices, provided they have varied and extensive work practice. Some school based upper secondary options also allow people to register for examinations without being enrolled as a student in an accredited institution

(privatistordning).

3.3 HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education in Norway is provided by universities and colleges. Apart from a few privately owned colleges, the institutions at this level are state run. Traditionally they have enjoyed a considerable degree of academic and administrative autonomy. This autonomy was further extended by the 1989 Act concerning Universities and university level Colleges.

The Storting (Parliament) defines the overall aims of the institutions of higher education through legislation and plenary decisions.

Each institution works out its own budget proposal for the Ministry, allocates the annual grants for the running of the individual departments and appoints staff. The institutions cannot be given instructions concerning the content of their teaching or research. The Ministry of Education decides on questions concerning degrees, examinations and the inclusion of subject areas in degree requirements.

The National Council of Universities has been established by the universities and the specialized university level colleges to co-ordinate the activities of the institutions and contribute to national policy on higher education.

At present, Norway has four universities and six specialized state colleges at university level. These institutions offer degree courses of various lengths, lasting from four to seven years. In addition, during the recent decade most of these institutions have established doctoral studies. The six state colleges with university status are specializing in agriculture, veterinary medicine, physical education and sports, business administration and economics, architecture, and music.

In 1994, 98 colleges around the country were reorganized into 26 state colleges, each with their own Board. These institutions offer programmes of various duration, running for one to four years. At some institutions longer courses and graduate programmes of up to six years have also been introduced.

Most programmes at these state colleges are oriented towards specific occupations, such as pre-school teaching, compulsory school teaching, engineering, social work, nursing, administration, economics, information technology, library services, journalism, etc.

The universities have traditionally devoted a fairly high percentage of their resources to research, while most of the colleges originally had no such function. Gradually, however, many institutions in the regional system of colleges have developed research actitvities, most often connected to specific professional or regionally based problems.

In accordance with the proposal of the Hernes Commission on higher education (NOU 1988:28), all institutions of higher education are now being linked together in an integrated network, the "Norway network". The network is designed to provide students with a wider range of options for study and to facilitate the combination of educational programmes from different institutions. It is intended to motivate student mobility, institutional specialization and cooperation.

Most of the undergraduate programmes offered by the colleges and other non-university institutions of higher education are accredited in the sense of being aknowledged as a basis for further studies at the universitites. Accreditation normally implies equating study time, that is, one year of study at a college equals to one year of study at the university. Figures showing the number of students who have proceeded from college to university studies are very scarce and uncertain, but there seems to be an increasing number of students pursuing this path, thus combining college and university study programmes.

The total number of students enrolled in the four universitites and the specialized colleges at university level more than doubled during the period 1965 to 1975, increasing from approximately 19 500 to nearly 41 000. During the next ten-year period, the increase was small, and in 1984 close to 42 500 students attended these institutions. In 1989 nearly 57 000 students were enrolled in the university sector. In 1993 the number had increased to 78 000.[4]

At the non-university higher education institutions, the colleges, the number of students increased from 16 900 in 1965 to 26 000 in 1975, and to about 51 000 in 1984. In 1989, 70 000 students attended the non-university institutions of higher education, and in 1993 the total number amounted to approximately 95 000. These figures include students in private as well as public institutions.[5]

In 1992 the proportion of women in higher education was 54 %. The proportion of women and men in the 19-24 age cohorts, who were enrolled in higher education, were 24% and 20 % respectively. While the gender differential has been reduced, the proportion of women has increased, there are still regional inequalities in the recruitment to higher education. In 1992, the county Møre og Romsdal had the highest relative proportion of 19-24-year-olds in higher education, 24,7%, while the county of Finnmark had the lowest relative proportion, 14,8 % (Official Statistics of Norway 1992).

Several circumstances explain the expansion in student numbers after 1965. *Existing institutions have been expanded*, and *new institutions have been established.* The first three regional colleges were established in 1969. During the 70s several new regional colleges emerged, and in 1992, there were fifteen regional colleges. Furthermore, *some institutions have been*

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[4]Source: The Central Bureau of Statistics, Aud M. Holöien.

[5]Source: Ibid.

upgraded to higher education institutions. During the second half of the 1970s, existing teachers' training colleges, engineering colleges, and colleges for social work were upgraded to higher education institutions. In 1981, several types of health education were upgraded, as was also the case in 1982 for maritime education and the regional branches of the Norwegian School for Management, a private institution.

Since the late 1980s, an increase in the general rate of unemployment has led to a marked increase in the number of new students. This has led to restrictions in admission to most programmes in higher education. A dialogue is currently being conducted between the institutions of higher education and the Ministry of Education on how to solve the problems linked to this new situation.

During the post-war period Norwegian policy on higher education has been designed to increase enrolment and widen access. As the number of institutions increased, the need for a unified award system and opportunities for transfer of credits from one institution to another became obvious. The universities had traditionally been seen as a separate set of institutions. Already in the late 60s, the Ottosen commission initiated the process of establishing higher education as one sector, including all post-secondary provisions (Skoie 1988). This implied that both university education and short cycle higher education were seen as constituting parts of one post secondary system. However, it was a long way to go to create cohesion and continuity in this system.

The regional colleges established from 1969 onwards were a new development suggested by the Ottosen Commission as a way of dealing with the increasing demand for higher education. Regional dispersion of higher education was seen as a way to improve equality of access for various groups. The regional colleges were intended to integrate existing provisions and at the same time establish new course offers. The former specialized colleges were, however, retained as separate institutions, but from 1976 with a common board in each county. The idea outlined by the Ottosen Commission was that it should be possible to proceed from the

colleges to universities and other academic higher education institutions. As mentioned above, transfer of credits, now, on the whole, functions satisfactorily. The regional colleges have had more lenient entry rules than most traditional institutions of higher education, and they have widened the basis of recruitment by making provisions more geographically accessible.

During the 70s further measures were introduced in order to make higher education more accessible. New rules of admission were designed, which allowed entry for applicants who had not followed the academic track in upper secondary education. Students from specific vocational fields of study, who had acquired additional qualifications in general subjects could be admitted. Also, entry could be granted on the basis of individual assessment, where working practice and informal learning was accredited to the extent that it was seen to have produced "real competence", as distinct from formal competence. These new entry rules favoured the admission of mature students.

3.3.1 Internal Continuity: The National Accreditation System for Higher Education

During the late 60s and early 70s, short cycle higher education was, on the whole, not credited by the universities. Students who had completed their education in a college and wanted to continue at a university had to start from the bottom of the university system.[6] No common yardstick existed for the comparison of education within the regionally based colleges and the university institutions.

The Ottosen Commission emphasized the need for horizontal transition routes between different types of post secondary education in order to allow combinations of courses from academic institutions and other post

[6]Graduates from teachers' training colleges made an exception, and were allowed to study certain subjects at the universities which were relevant to their teaching practice.

secondary institutions. This would prevent blind alleys and provide improved opportunities for continuity in the system.

The structure suggested by the Ottosen Commission was that the regional colleges should provide the basis for further study at the universities, and that the courses which were run at the colleges should be accredited before they were operated. However, the colleges established and operated courses before they were accredited by the universities. The number of students skyrocketed during the first five years with an increase of students, from 160 in 1969 to 3 000 students in 1974. The lack of accreditation for the course offerings became a problem. Many students wanted to proceed to the universities, and they wanted to be able to transfer credit earned at the regional colleges (Mordt 1993).

The 1970 Examination Act provided the groundwork for the solution of these problems of transition between various higher education institutions. The act permitted academic institutions to recognize exams from non-academic institutions of higher education.

In 1973, responding to the new Examination Act, the Universities' Chancellors' Meeting appointed a National Coordinating Committee (NKU), which was to develop criteria for the accreditation of course work carried out in non-academic institutions of higher education. The National Coordinating Committee consisted of representatives from the universities and colleges with university status.

The new accreditation system started a process of integration among all post-secondary education into a unified award system. The accreditation body, NKU, represented the university level institutions of higher education, which implied that university standards was the yardstick against which external provisions had to be measured. Many colleges complained that their students were at a disadvantage compared to students in the universities. Students in the regional colleges had to spend longer time to obtain the same qualifications and degrees if they wanted to proceed to universities. This was demonstrated by the practice of equating

2-year external studies with one-year university studies. This was often the case with regard to interdisciplinary courses, which had no clear equivalents among university courses. The universities also some times required additional exams at the university before admission as an accredited student (Mordt, op.cit.).

In 1981, an amendment of the Examination Act upgraded fifty institutions to become institutions of higher education: the regional colleges, the engineering colleges, colleges for social work, the State College for Librarians and the Norwegian College for Journalism. This meant that authority to award academic degrees was dispersed. The newly included institutions were allowed to bestow the degree of cand. mag., the first degree level at the universities. This new regional cand.mag.-degree is to be distinguished from the university cand.mag.-degree. However, both degrees include 4 years of study (3 1/2 years for courses in natural science), and both qualify for post graduate studies at the universities.

More upgrading of institutions to be included in the higher education sector was carried out in 1989 and 1991. In 1989 the State College for Health Occupations, the Marine Colleges, the State Music Conservatories, the State Food Technology College and the Norwegian Hotel & Catering College. The upgrading of these institutions implied that they were authorized to award the regional cand.mag.-degree.

In 1982 the University Council decided to accept the 'time by time' or 'registered time' principle. This meant that students from non-university institutions, the colleges, could bring with them course time from one institution to another on transfer between the institutions. Academic control was maintained by securing the right of the individual university or academic institution to decide on the equivalence of course contents. The individual university in some instances imposed requirements of additional course work as a condition for graduate studies.

The 70s and 80s were marked by a growth in the non-university college sector, and by the upgrading of vocationally oriented educational

institutions to become institutions of higher education. The introduction of the regional cand.mag.-degree and the adoption of the time-by-time principle for the transfer og credits from one institution to another contributed to promote student mobility between the non-university college sector and the university level institutions, and thus prevent blind alleys and improve continuity in post secondary education.

3.3.2 Complex Continuity: Access on the Basis of Vocational Studies and Work Practice

During the recent decades recruitment of mature adults to higher education institutions has increased. Table 3 shows that close to one fourth of students who completed a course in higher education in 1991/92 were more than 30 years of age. These adults are students who have commenced their studies at a mature age and/or are part time students.

Table 3 Persons in higher education institutions who completed an education, by age and gender, 1991/92. Total numbers and per cent.

Gender:	Males		Females		Total	
Age:	N	per cent	N	per cent	N	per cent
< 29	22 985	78,6	28 434	73,7	51 419	76,1
30<	6 242	21,4	10 113	26,3	16 355	23,9
N	29 227	100,0	38 547	100,0	67 774	100,

Source: Official Statistics of Norway, Educational Statistics, Universities and Colleges, 1992.

The increasing rate of mature students in higher education reflects an increasing demand for higher education among these categories. It also

reflects the policy of widening access, in order to accomodate new categories of students. The effort to design access routes for students with vocational qualifications and working experience has been a central question in educational policy for several decades.

At present there are three different routes to university studies:

1) Route I: Specific fields of study in upper secondary education: General Studies, Commercial Studies and 2-year technical schools qualify for direct entry in higher education institutions.
2) Route II: Specific fields of study in upper secondary education supplemented by four general subjects qualify for entry in higher education institutions.
3) Route III: Individual routes. The universities allow entry for students who are above 25 years of age and have at least 5 years of working experience and who hold formal qualifications in only a limited number of general subjects.

These three different routes: via academic upper secondary education, via vocational upper secondary education with additional qualifications in general subjects, and via individual assessments, were first suggested by the Immatriculation Commission in 1971. This sugggestion of two additional routes to supplement the main academic route through upper secondary school, was a break with traditional entry requirements. Traditionally, access to higher education was obtained through the academic upper secondary school, the gymnasium. The final exam in the gymnasium, "Examen Artium", comprising a range of subjects, was required for university admission.

From comprehensive to single subject examinations. The supplementing of the traditional route with two new ones was facilitated by the proposal of the 1965 White Paper on Adult Education. This proposal was subsequently approved by the Storting, suggesting that the public examinations at lower and upper secondary levels should be divided into a number of single examinations in specific subjects. Previously, these

public examinations had been comprehensive exams in several subjects, for which the candidates had to sit during one continuous exam period. The separation of individual subject exams meant that a person might study for lower and upper secondary school exams for a prolonged period, and accumulate subject exams to obtain the final certificate. This new arrangement facilitated adult part time study for formal examinations in line with the main principle put forward by the White Paper on Adult Education to make initial education and training more easily accessible for adults who had missed the opportunity at a younger age.

Real competence and formal competence. The establishing of the two new routes of entry to higher education was based in the concept of "real competence" as distinguished from the formal competence testified by exam records. The whole reasoning around "real competence" was an expression of doubts about the absolute validity of exam results in deciding an individual's aptitude for studies in higher education. The concept "real competence" drew attention to the fact that work experience and knowledge which was acquired and documented by other means than formal schooling and exams might dispose for success in higher education. The 1971 Immatriculation Committee suggested four different criteria for assessing "real competence" when admitting applicants along the third route:

1) realistic academic ambitions
2) proficiency in Norwegian or English or another international language at the level of "examen artium"
3) previous achievements in theoretical fields that indicate abilities for studies in higher education
4) broadness of knowledge acquired through work experience or education other than upper secondary education

Point 3 was further elaborated by the Immatriculation Committee which stated that the individual university might allow entry for individuals who had five years of working experience and on the basis of this experience had acquired independence of thought, stamina and the ability to concentrate, provided the person could also show adequate proficiency in

Norwegian and English.

Admission on the basis of vocational studies and working experience. Already before the issue of additional access routes to higher education was placed on the political agenda in the 70s, some of the colleges gave credit for working experience as a basis for admission in addition to academic results, i.e. teachers' training colleges and colleges of social work (Telhaug 1991). However, working experience had on the whole been given few credits. Entry was mainly based on academic results. Although the additional access routes were used, an overwhelmingly large proportion of the student body in higher education was recruited through the main route I, the examen artium. The new regional colleges are the institutions which have practised the most liberal rules of entry. In 1977 21 % of the student body in these institutions did not have examen artium. The regional colleges and the teachers' training colleges have to some extent allowed working experience to compensate for low grade point scores from upper secondary schools in competition for admission. The universities have on the whole been more restrictive in this matter and emphasized obtained grade point score (Telhaug 1991).

The broadening of the criteria for admission in higher education raised some fears concerning the threats to quality. The universities had been represented in the Immatriculation Commission, which suggested the new routes of access, and supported the new rules of entry. However, precaution was taken to ensure that the universities would not have to provide education at upper secondary level. The Academic Council at the University of Oslo made a statement to the effects that the universities should not provide upper secondary education. The possible knowledge deficiencies among the students that were to be admitted through routes II and III would have to be compensated by the students themselves and not by the universities. The task of the university should not be to give preparatory courses for higher studies (Telhaug op.cit.). This principle was also confirmed by the Ministry of Education in the White Paper on higher education (St.meld.nr.17 1974-75).

The political debate about entry requirements for higher education continued throughout the 70s. The Steen Commission delivered three reports on upper secondary education from 1967 to 1970. In arguing for a comprehensive reorganization of the upper secondary stage, containing both academic and vocational courses of study in one school organization, the commission put forward the idea that it should be possible to obtain both entry qualifications for higher education and vocational certificates during three years of study. Supposing that one year was dedicated to vocational training, the remaining two years would be sufficient to provide the general qualifications needed for university entry. The majority fraction of the Steen commission, headed by Labour Party politicians, considered this to be the best solution. The minority fraction, consisting of the non-socialist group considered this to be unrealistic and suggested that a fourth year of general upper secondary education would be necessary to provide qualifications for higher education entry among students who had completed vocational 3-year courses (Telhaug, op.cit.).

During the 1974 debate in the Storting on the Upper Secondary Education Act, it was suggested that three years of vocational training should provide general entry in higher education on an equal basis with three years of general education. This view had the majority support in the Storting in 1974 (Telhaug op.cit.). A White Paper in 1979-80 (St.meld.nr. 22 1979-80) likewise suggested that all tracks in upper secondary education, vocational as well as general fields of study, should qualify for general entry in higher education. It also suggested that apprenticeship training should be seen as a general qualification for entry, and that applicants above 25 years of age, and with at least five years of working experience should be considered qualified (Telhaug op.cit.). These suggestions were heavily opposed. The opponents maintained that a substantial amount of general education in core subjects must be the basis for entry in higher education. It was argued that by relaxing entry rules, universities would be forced to lower their standards, and individuals who lacked the ability for higher education would be misled to seek admission. When age was to be credited, older students would put the younger ones at a disadvantage (Telhaug op.cit.). The suggestions of equating vocational qualifications with academic ones

- implying a rather extreme disregard for qualifications in theoretical subjects as a condition for entry in higher education - were never implemented.

Recent policy on general entry requirements (generell studiekompetanse). The Blegen Commission (NOU 1991:4) stands in the tradition of the Steen Commission from the late 60s in its concern for providing opportunities for admission to higher education for vocational students. However, the more extreme views of the late 70s, where vocational upper secondary education was considered equivalent to general fields of study in qualifying for entry, have been abandoned. The Blegen Commission suggested that completion of three years of upper secondary education as a rule should lead to *either* vocational certificates *or* qualifications for entry in higher education institutions, rather than providing both, which was the idea of the Steen Commission. Furthermore, the Blegen Commission suggested an increase of general subjects in vocational courses and supplementary courses in general education for vocational students during their third year as the way of enabling vocational students to obtain qualifications for entry in higher education.

The Blegen Commission also discussed the question of general entry requirements for higher education on the basis of a growing problem connected to the jungle of different routes and additional admission criteria which had evolved among higher education institutions during the period of expansion. In order to simplify the rules of entry, the commission suggests that general national entry requirements (generell studiekompetanse) should be established.

The Commission also suggested that route III to higher education be maintained, entry on the basis of individual assessment. Admission on the basis of individual assessment should give emphasis to informal rather than formal qualifications.

The main principles suggested by the Blegen Commission, first, to strengthen the possibilities for recruitment from vocational fields of study

to higher education, and secondly, the granting of admission to higher education for adults without completed upper secondary education, but with work experience and informal qualifications, have been confirmed both by The White Paper (St.meld.nr. 33 1991-92) and by the permanent Parliamentary Committee on education (Innst. St.nr. 200 1991-92).

The Parliamentary Committee unanimously voiced a concern for adult access to the formal educational system, by emphasizing the general aim of establishing arrangements for recruiting a larger proportion of adults to higher education. The Committee suggested that §3 in The Adult Education Act concerning "real competence" should be implemented by providing access for adults who can provide evidence of "real competence" to higher education, and asked the Ministry to develop rules for how knowledge and skills derived from work experience and informal learning contexts may be assessed (assessment of prior learning) (Innst. S. nr. 200 1991-92).

A parliamentary bill concerning higher education will be passed by the Storting in 1995. This bill concerns all publicly funded institutions of higher education: the universities, the colleges with university status and the 26 state colleges, formerly regional colleges. The bill states that general entry requirements for all public higher education should be decided by the Ministry of Education, and should be the same for all institutions covered by the Act. Exceptions may be granted for specific fields of study, such as those which require artistic skills and abilities. The general entry requirements, which were suggested by the Blegen Commission and seconded by the White Paper (St.meld.nr. 33 1991-92) are:

- completed upper secondary education, including both general and vocational fields of study, with specified requirements concerning subject range, subject level (course volume) and obtained grade.
- craft and trade certificates under the Vocational Training Act, and
- individual assessment of work practice and other types of education applying to applicants above 23 years of age.

Applicants with craft and trade certificates and persons applying for

individual assessment must hold qualifications in specific general subjects with specified standards of attainment, that is, in terms of level (course volume) and obtained grade. Ministerial Regulations will provide guidelines for the assessment of relevant work practice and non-standard education as basis for entry, in order to enforce uniformity of practice across institutions. Until now, common guidelines developed by the Norwegian University Council have been applied in the crediting of work experience on granting entry. It is suggested that the Ministry of Education from now on should be given the authority to develop common guidelines for all public institutions of higher education. Individual applications will be dealt with at institutional level, in accordance with the general guidelines. Certain fields of study may be allowed to establish additional entry requirements when this can be justified. However, unjustified differences between entry requirements in similar fields of study in different institutions should be avoided. The bill confirms that being admitted in one institution under the Higher Education Act automatically implies admission to all open fields of study in other institutions under the Act. General entry requirements should be uniform across all public higher education institutions (Ot.prp.nr. 85 1993-94).

3.3.3 Summing up

Since the late 60s, the system of higher education in Norway has changed a great deal in terms of expansion, accessibility and internal structuring. From the point of view of internal continuity, higher education has become a more integrated system. Although the university level institutions and the colleges are still separate sectors, distinct in their functions and structure of governance, students may now transfer course credits and proceed from the colleges to universities to obtain higher level degrees without losing time. From the point of view of complex continuity, access for applicants without the traditional formal qualifications for entry is facilitated through changes in rules of admission. The political efforts to broaden the basis for entry in higher education during the 70s were partly concerned with:

- the transition from upper secondary to higher education, that is, what type of upper secondary education should qualify for entry in higher education, and partly with
- securing assesses for adults on the basis of working experience and knowledge acquired outside the formal education system.

The problem of how to secure access for vocational and mature students to higher education has been a central concern in educational policy from the Steen Commission of the late 60s to the Blegen Commission of the 90s. In the discussions on access policy during the 70s, the most radical position was to consider vocational training and work experience as equivalent to theoretical studies as a basis for admission. Good work habits, such as thoroughness, concentration and perseverance were seen as key qualifications, provided by both vocational and theoretical fields of study. However, the policy of requiring general theoretical qualifications as a condition for entry has persevered into the 1990s. Vocational training and work experience will not be considered as equivalents to theoretical studies in the new entry rules for higher education. Such practical qualifications must be supplemented by additional studies in five core subjects. The measures which will be implemented by the current reform of upper secondary education, Reform 94, in order to make higher education more easily accessible for vocational students, include:
- an increased volume of theoretical and general subjects in vocational fields of study, and
- supplementary courses in general subjects for vocational students during their third year.

The new Labour policy has adopted some of the objections to its own policies of the 70s. The emphasis is now on raising the level of general knowledge among vocational students rather than seeing their practical qualifications as an acceptable equivalent to theoretical knowledge. However, the basic concern for keeping options open for vocational students and adults with working experience, and enabling them to proceed to higher education if they so wish, remains. The bill on higher education which is scheduled to pass the Storting in 1995, continues the policy of

facilitating access, but with a stronger emphasis on the maintenance of standards, compared to some of the policy suggestions of the late 70s.

4 THE PRIVATE EDUCATION SECTOR

Private education institutions play a minor role in the total Norwegian education system at compulsory and upper secondary level. However, during the recent decade the number of students enrolled in private institutions of higher education has increased dramatically. In 1978 the number of students enrolled in private institutions of higher learning was 6 000 (8 % of the total enrolment in higher education). By 1988 the number had risen to 20 000 (nearly 19 % of the total enrolment). The increased volume of the student body in private higher education institutions during the 80s was concentrated in the fields of business studies and information technology. It has been suggested that the private sector in Norwegian higher education has developed from being peripheral in relation to the public sector to being parallel with the public sector. Increasingly, private institutions have come to play the role as safety valve, releasing the pressure of increasing social demands for higher education (Amdam 1994). The private higher education sector has been equipped to play this role after a laborious process during the 70s and 80s, when many private higher education institutions went through the procedures of having their exams accredited in the national degree system for higher education.

4.1 INTERNAL CONTINUITY AND QUALITY CONTROL

The purpose of creating a unified system, where all examinations in public and private higher education institutions were integrated into one degree award system, was to allow student mobility from one institution to another, and to ensure that credits from various institutions could be accumulated into a final degree (Mordt 1993).

The integration of private higher education institutions into the national system of academic credits and awards was voluntary and based upon applications from the institutions or from individuals who wanted to bring with them credits on transfer from private institutions to universities.

During the 70s and 80s private higher education institutions were already receiving public funding. However, the 1986 Private Higher Education Act regulated the relationship between public authorities and private higher education institutions for the first time in Norwegian history (Ibid.). The regulations concerned the right to administer exams, award degrees, bestow legally protected professional titles and the right to receive public funding. The new Act established these as legal rights. Certain requirements had to be fulfilled in order to obtain these rights: specified and uniform entry requirements, and qualified teachers. These conditions were quality controls, which would ensure that accredited private institutions measured up to the same level as public higher education institutions (Ibid.).

Additional requirements for a private institution to achieve accredited status was that its existence was justified by either a religious or ethical mission, by it representing alternative teaching methods and pedagogy, or it being complementary to public higher education provisions in the sense of offering courses which were in demand, but not provided by public institutions (Ibid.).

From 1988 the accreditation of private institutions acquired a new function in that the Department of Education required accreditation by the National Coordinating Committee as a prerequisite for public funding, the right to administer exams and entitlement to state loans for their students. The Committee acquired a new function as gate keeper. Committee rulings would be decisive for public funding and authorization as award granting institutions (Mordt, op.cit.).

Mordt (op.cit.) gives an account of the encounter between the Norwegian School of Management and the National Coordinating Committee.

The Norwegian School of Management submitted its first application for accreditation of one of its courses to the Committee in 1977. The application was turned down. The reasons given were that the school staff were insufficiently qualified and the course contents did not measure up to academic standards. After a major revision of the course in 1979, it was accredited by the Committee in 1984. An advanced course was submitted in 1985. This was approved without questioning. However, when the school tried to obtain accreditation for decentralized study programmes, which provided advanced courses based on the already accredited basic course, it was turned down. The reasons given were that the teaching staff in the regions did not possess adequate qualifications, and that no external examiners were used in student assessments. It was raised as a general requirement by the Commitee that the School must introduce external examiners if they intended to maintain accreditation for courses that had already been approved.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education raised the question of entry requirements at the School. Originally the target group for the study in business economics had been mature students with work experience. During the 70s, entry requirements were only one year of study in commercial subjects and five years of work practice in addition to the compulsory school certificate. This was changed in the early 80s, when general qualifications for higher education were introduced as a requirement for entry. However, the School all along allowed entry on a quota for students who were more than 25 years of age, had at least five years of work practice, and whose formal educational background was lacking. This recruitment policy was criticised by the Committee.

The School decided to comply with the Committee's requirement of external examiners, it changed its recruitment policy for the teaching staff, and did away with the quota for entrants without formal qualifications for higher education.Thus, the integration of this private institution of higher education into the national system of accredited awards, has implied that applicants without formal qualifications have had to be excluded from entry. Working experience has been devalued both in judging the

qualifications of staff and in allowing student entry.

4.2 COMPLEX CONTINUITY: NON-GOVERNMENTAL DISTANCE EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND A PUBLICLY FUNDED DISTANCE LEARNING NETWORK

There are several non-governmental distance education institutions in Norway, three larger than the others. NKS, The Norwegian Correspondance School, was established in 1914 by a private entrepreneur and concentrated on commercial subjects. NKI, The Norwegian Correspondance Institute, originally a Swedish enterprise establishing a branch in Norway in 1961. This correspondance school provided courses mainly in technical and engineering subjects. The People's Correspondance School was established in 1946 by The Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions and The Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry. This correspondance school has expanded its ownership, and is now owned by 60 different organizations. Most of the courses provided by this school are upper secondary and vocational courses, but courses in higher education are also offered. These course offers are joint enterprises with higher education colleges and universities (Støkken 1992).

These schools started out as privately owned institutions, but have developed into proprietary nonprofit institutions. They have also developed their teaching methods, from relying on correspondance to including the use of various audiovisual media, and decentralized teaching sessions.

Distance teaching has been the domain of private operators like the correspondance schools. However, in 1989, the Ministry of Education designated seven public institutions of higher education as network junctions for distance teaching in higher education: the universities of Oslo, Bergen, Trondheim and Tromsø, and regional higher education colleges in Oppland, Rogaland and Nordland. An administrative centre for coordination and initiation was established in Tromsø (SOFF). This centre started its activities in 1990, for a trial period from 1990 to 1993.

This initiative was an effort to make higher education more accessible to a wider audience. The present report has already presented the discussion on entry rules to the universities, and the establishment of regional colleges of higher education. The initiation of a distance-teaching network must be seen as a measure to pursue the same aim of widened access. However, while the establishment of regional colleges was a decentralization of on-campus provisions, distance-teaching represents off-campus provisions (Støkken op.cit.).

4.3 SUMMING UP

Historically, private education has played a very minor role in Norway. Private institutions at the compulsory and upper secondary level are still very few. However, during the recent decade, the number of students enrolled in private institutions of higher education has increased dramatically, from 8 % of the total enrolment in 1978 to 19 % of the total enrolment in 1988. The 1986 Private Higher Education Act established legal rights for private institutions to administer exams, award degrees, bestow legally protected titles, and the right to receive public funding on certain conditions. These conditions were: the practising of specified and uniform entry requirements, and the employment of qualified teachers. In addition, private institutions have to justify their existence by pointing to a religious or ethical mission, alternative educational methods, or being complementary to public higher education provisions in the sense of offering courses which are in demand, but are not provided by public institutions. Increasingly, private higher education institutions have come to play the role as safety valve, releasing the pressure of increasing demands for higher education. Other non-governmental institutions which have provided assess to education at various levels, are the former correspondence schools, now distance education institutions, which started as private enterprises, but have developed into proprietary non-profit organizations. The correspondence schools have extended their methods to include the use of various audiovisual media and combinations of distance and face-to-face teaching methods. Recently, public authorities have

initiated distance teaching as part of higher education provisions, giving special emphasis to the development of infra structure. This is still in an early phase of development.

5 THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR: ADULT EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

The voluntary sector is a mixed sector in the sense that course activities organized by voluntary adult education associations are subsidized by the State. The voluntary sector organizes, delivers and serves as liaison to the consumers, catering for different sections of the education and training market. The voluntary adult education associations are flexible in making provisions widely accessible. They participate as providers in the education and training market together with a number of other state-subsidized organizers of provisions, relying on a combination of public funding and private fees.

The conditions for receiving public funding are specified in the 1976 Adult Education Act, and the area which is allocated to the associations is course offerings which are not circumscribed by curricula and formal examinations. Courses for leisure and recreational purposes, and various cultural subjects has been designated as the domain of the adult education associations.

When Adult Education Act was passed by the Storting in 1976, it was seen as a recognition of the work that had been done in the voluntary sector.The fact that non-credited courses were legally entitled to publicly subsidies was seen as a victory for free study activities. However, internal discussions in the voluntary sector were already at the time of the passing of the Act raising the question whether it would be a better policy to emphasize course work that was integrated in the formal system of accredited public exams. The first paragraph of the Adult Education Act states that the aim of adult education is to provide equal opportunities for

adults to acquire knowledge, insight and skills. It was argued by some, that it would be more in line with the traditions of the voluntary organizations of helping their members to a better life, to provide accredited courses, than to provide education for leisure and recreational purposes. In 1990, 7,6 % of all adult education courses, which were organized by voluntary adult education associations, prepared for formal exams or recognized qualifications (Moland 1991).

The intention of the 1976 Adult Education Act was to establish a division of labour in adult education between three main providers of adult education: the formal education system, the voluntary sector and the Labour Market Authorities. The formal education system was intended to cater for adult education leading to formally recognized qualifications and certificates. The voluntary organizations were intended to provide adult education courses outside the domain of formal qualifications, while the Labour Market Authorities were expected to provide training on a non-permanent basis responding to the immediate needs of the labour market.

The development of adult education since the passing of the Act has been subjected to evaluation by the National Adult Education Institute in Trondheim. Conclusions as to whether the intentions of the act have been materialized or not have been divergent. A report on the effects of the act a few years after its implementation concluded that the state funding of adult education which was implemented by the act had positive redistributive effects on education in the general population (Nordhaug 1982). Later reports from the same institute, however, are more critical and claim that the act has not worked according its intentions (Gooderham & Lund 1990).

Since the Adult Education Act was passed, the borders between different areas of adult education have been blurred. Increasingly both voluntary organizations and the Labour Market Authorities organize courses which prepare for formal exams. Labour Market Training and adult education provided by voluntary organizations have increasingly become access routes to formal national qualifications and certificates.

Table 4 The relative distribution of persons who participated in adult education courses in 1990, by course organizer (Total number of participants = 1 346 000).

Organizer	Percentage of participants
Adult Education Societies	44,6
Employers	44,6
Formal Education System	3,2
Folk High Schools	1,1
Distance Teaching Organizations	3,3
Labour Market Authorities	3,2
Total	100,0

Source: Moland 1991

It is worth noting that the proportion of course participants recruited by private employers equals the proportion recruited by the adult education associations. This indicates that adult education as a whole is only partly subjected to the control of the Adult Education Act.

6 LABOUR MARKET TRAINING

Since the mid-80s there has been a massive increase in active labour market measures, especially training schemes. In 1991 the sum of public investments in the largest Labour market training scheme (AMO) and State funding of extra places in upper secondary schools, exceeded the funding of the three largest Norwegian universities (NHO 1991). Active labour market measures are normally grouped into three main categories: *exchange services, employment schemes and training schemes.*

All active labour market measures contain some element of training, and thus contribute to the continuity of education and training in the population. A line of development may be detected with regard to the role of training in active labour market measures. The measures increasingly tend to include some training elements. First, *employment services* are being extended to include services coordinating the demand and supply of training. Secondly, *employment schemes* increasingly have come to include some training elements, supplementing work practice. Thirdly, *training schemes* increasingly have come to include training courses leading to formal qualifications, reducing the relative amount of uncertified vocational short courses, which have answered to short term needs in the labour market.

-*Employment services.* The purpose of employment services is to facilitate the functioning of the labour market: to increase mobility among job applicants, reduce the duration of unemployment for job applicants, and reduce the period of job vacancies in companies. The employment service provides information and guidance both to job applicants and employers. During recent years, trial projects have been carried out in some localities, *where employment services matching jobs and job applicants have been extended to include the mediation of demand and supply of training.* This extended role for the Labour Market Authorities implies that local labour market offices will, in cooperation with other relevant bodies, serve as mediators between the demand and supply side of the training market. The justification for this extended role being that the functioning of the training market may be facilitated by establishing, or improving the information network between providers of training and their potential customers. This extended service function is still in an initial stage, but indicates that the Labour Market Authorities consider themselves a potential contributor to the coordination of a growing and increasingly more complex further education and training market.

- *Employment schemes.* The purpose of employment schemes is to stimulate the demand for certain categories of job applicants, especially long term unemployed persons, and to provide jobs for the unemployed.

Measures include wage subsidies for certain groups, and the creation of new jobs.The best known scheme in recent years is the Workfare Scheme (Arbeid for trygd). The scheme was established in February 1989, introducing a new principle of combining rights to employment benefits with admission to an employment scheme. Workfare implies that temporary jobs are created for unemployed persons. Initially the scheme was implemented in the public sector at the municipal, county and central level, in addition to nonprofit organizations. In June 1989 the scheme was extended to include the private sector. This extension was terminated by the end of 1989. A modified version of the scheme was introduced during the summer of 1990, the Extended Workfare Scheme (Utvidet arbeid for trygd). The target group for this modified scheme was persons who had been unemployed for more than 80 weeks, and no longer were receiving unemployment benefits. However, the scheme was also open to persons who had been unemployed for more than one year, who had not earlier received unemployment benefits. From 1 January 1991 the Extended Workfare Scheme was established as the norm for all implementations of Workfare. Long term unemployed persons (more than 80 weeks), who were at the point of losing their unemployment benefits, were to be given preference. The scheme was to be used sparingly, and only after other measures had been tried.

In order that the jobs which were created by the scheme should not displace ordinary employees, the work contents should be "extra-ordinary". An evaluation study of the Scheme showed that "extra-ordinary work" normally was defined as an extension of present services or service domains, or activities carried out at an earlier date than originally planned. Maintenance work has been the most common type of tasks given to Workfare participants. Few of the participants received any training. The main purpose of the scheme was to maintain the employability of the participants and provide opportunities for contact with working life, and at the same time ensuring that participants were available for regular jobs. This was ensured by requiring the participants to work only 80 % of a full-time job. The remaining 20 % was expectd to be spent on training activities or applying for jobs. The participants normally were expected to spend 6

months on the Scheme. In some cases this was extended to 10 months. The Scheme targeted unemployed persons over 20 years of age, and was offered as a last measure, after the provision of labour market training (Pedersen 1992). The Scheme was terminated in 1993, when it was joined with the SKAP Scheme (Job Creation in Municipal Administrations). The SKAP Scheme has later been transformed into the KAJA Scheme (Kompetanse, Arbeidstrening, Jobbskaping for Arbeidsledige - Competence, Work Practice and Job Creation for the Unemployed). All the successive transformations of the original Workfare Scheme have implied stronger emphasis on the training element in the Schemes.

-*Training schemes.* The aim of labour market training, targeting individuals primarily, but also companies, is to improve the prospects of individual participants in the labour market, and to promote the readjustment and the survival of companies by raising the training level of their employees. Many of the courses funded by the Labour Market Authorities are identical to courses run by the ordinary education system. In 1992, one-fourth of the courses belonged to this category. However, the larger proportion of labour market training is more directly related to the needs of working life. The volume of Labour Market Training is adjusted to variations in the rate of unemployment, and is expanded and contracted according to current needs in the labour market.The Labour Market Authorities do not act as course operators, but finance and make decisions concerning the types of courses which are to be run. In recent years, the Labour Market Authorities have been obliged to use a tendering system for their course offers, in order to reduce costs. The course organizers which are commissioned to run courses for the Authorities are: ordinary upper secondary schools, private education and training establishments, voluntary adult education associations, and to a very small extent, short course units in higher education colleges.

Increasingly labour market training is seen as a strategy for raising the general level of education and training in the labour force, rather than solely a reactive measure to relieve frictions in the labour market. The proportion of courses which provide formal qualifications has increased. The SKAP Scheme, which replaced the Workfare Scheme, included more

training than Workfare. Among the three varieties of SKAP models, one of them, the 3+1+1 model, includes three days of work, one day of training, and one day of job seeking. The SKAP Scheme also included opportunities for job replacement. The municipalities, as employers, were allowed to use participants in the Scheme as replacements for their own employees who were granted training leave. Consequently, the amount of training provided by the Scheme was increased in comparison with previous schemes. The Trainee Scheme (Praksisplass-tiltaket), which targets new entrants in the labour market, and in which 16-19-year-olds make up approximately 45 % of the participants, often includes some training beside work practice.

Labour Market Training (AMO) is the largest single training measure which is funded by the Labour market Authorities, and has the longest historical record, being formally established under the name of Vocational Education for Adults, in 1958/59, with forerunners back to the 30s in some districts. Labour Market Training is for unemployed persons above 19 years of age, and consists primarily of courses in vocational subjects, but also, to a small extent, courses in general subjects. The courses vary in length from one week to 40 weeks.Traditionally, Labour Market Training (AMO), consisted of short courses in particular skills, to relieve frictions in the labour market. In later years, these provisions increasingly have come to include longer term vocational courses.

Labour Market Training Schemes may be divided into two main types: *those which target the whole labour stock in a company, and those which target individuals* . In the following, we will give a description of a major scheme, which targets companies, *The In-company Training Scheme* (Bedriftsintern Opplæring) and a new training scheme, which targets individuals, *The Replacement Scheme*. The latter combines training and employment measures.

6.1 THE IN-HOUSE TRAINING SCHEME (Bedriftsintern opplæring (BIO))

The In-house Training Scheme was introduced in the mid-70s, and is one of the Labour Market Schemes with a long historical record. The aim of the Scheme is to promote the readjustment of companies and thereby prevent unemployment in the future, rather than provide training for those who are already unemployed. Readjustments are achieved by supporting training through which the workers can achieve new competences. The Directorate of Labour specifies the conditions which have to be fulfilled by private companies which apply for funding (Forskrifter, kap. 0591, post 71.7 and kap. 0592 post 72.4.1). The funding covers course activities for a maximum of 13 weeks.

The target group for the In-house Training Scheme is small and medium sized companies. The category of small and medium sized companies is normally defined as companies with a maximum of 100 employees. In special cases funding may be provided for larger companies with more than 100 employees.

The Directorate of Labour has defined the target group of companies as follows:

- companies which are going to change their product range and/or are planning to introduce new technology in order to adjust to market demands, and which therefore need to raise the level of competence in their labour stock
- companies which plan to employ persons who have been registered as unemployed. These persons will go through a training programme in order to fill the vacancies in the company
- companies which intend to train persons among their own employees to fill vacancies for which there is a shortage of qualified personnel in in the labour market. The company is obliged to take in the same number of new employees among registered unemployed persons, as the number of company employees who are undergoing training.

Funding will not be provided for educational activities undertaken by the education system, that is, general education and education which gives formal qualification. *The training should be tailor-made and specific to the enterprise,not general education and training.* However, it should contain both theoretical and practical elements. An internal training committee must be established in the company which consists of at least two persons. One of these must be a representative of the company employees. The training programme must be approved by the County Labour Authorities and participating companies must submit reports on the training activities to the same authorities.

The In-house Training Scheme implies joint funding in that the Labour Market Authorities contribute with a maximum of 50 % of the wage costs. Additional public funding may be provided for the trainers' salaries.

The total amount of resources allocated to the Scheme, in comparison to the total amount allocated to all Labour Market Schemes in the country, is shown in Table 5. The decrease in the total amount of resources allocated by the scheme during 1987 and 1988 may be caused by the low unemployment rate during those years.

Table 5 Total amount of resources allocated to Labour Market Schemes in relation to resources allocated to In-house Training Schemes (mainly BIO), in million NOK, and per cent, 1985-1993

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991
	NOK %	NOK %	NOK %	NOK %	NOK %	NOK %	NOK %
In-company training	102,4 5,5	52,4 5,3	15,9 3,1	17,7 2,8	303,7 8,8	182,5 4,1	160,5 3,5
Other Labour Market Schemes	1873,0 100	997,0 100	518,6 100	629,6 100	3459,0 100	4422,4 100	4623,0 100

Source: Institute for Social Research 1992

6.2 THE SUBSTITUTION SCHEME (Utdanningsvikariater)

This Scheme started on a trial basis in three counties in January 1992. From 1 July 1992 it was extended to encompass all the counties in Norway. At the start only private companies were eligible for the Scheme. After it was extended into a nationwide scheme, public sector organizations were also eligible for participation. 1 July 1993 the trial period was concluded, and the scheme was established as a permanent part of labour market measures. The previous ceiling for the number of participants in the scheme, which initially was 2 500, and later was raised to 4000, was removed. A new restriction was introduced, stating that the temporary employee should receive a standard wage. From 1 November

1993 the replacement model from another Labour Market Scheme, Job Creation in the Public Sector (SKAP) was included in the Substitution Scheme.

The Scheme is unique in the sense that *it provides for employed and unemployed groups at the same time*. It contributes to raise the education and training level in the working population, and it provides temporary employment for unemployed persons. As a Labour market Scheme combining employment and training, it represents an innovation. It is also innovative in the sense that the type of education and training, which is indirectly funded by the Labour Market Authorities is decided by the company, and not by the Authorities themselves. Thus, the training activities are closely related to the companies' own definition of present and future competence needs.

The operation of the Scheme involves four parties: an employer, an employee, an unemployed person, and the local Labour Market Authorities. The contracting parties for participation in the scheme are the employer and the local Labour Market Office. The employer makes an agreement with the employee concerning leave of absence for education or training purposes, which is to be financed by the company. The financial terms are negotiable between the two parties. In return the Employment Office presents a list of suitable unemployed persons, among whom the employer may select a temporary replacement for the person on leave. The wage of the temporary employee(unemployed person) is reimbursed by the Labour Market Authorities, who contribute a fixed sum per month, NOK 13,000 (1994) to the employer. This reimbursement does not necessarily correspond to the exact wage of the temporary employee, which is negotiable, and settled in agreement between the temporary employee and the employer. The temporary replacement may last for 10 months.

There are certain restrictions to the operation of the Scheme:
- only permanently employed persons may participate in training, temporary lay-offs may not participate as substitutes

- the employees who are granted leave of absence must return to permanent employment after their leave
-the Replacement Scheme must not be combined with other schemes which reduce the costs to the employer
-the employee must produce evidence of a confirmed place in an education or training institution before the temporary replacement person is made available by the Labour Market Office

Participation in the Scheme has risen steeply during the few years it has been operated. Table 6 indicates the average monthly number of participants for 1992 and 1993, and the number of participants in March 1994.

Table 6 Participants in the Replacement Scheme. Absolute numbers.

Year:	1992	1993	March 1994
Replacement Scheme	540	2 599	4 502

Source: The Labour market Directorate, Monthly Statistics 5/1994

6.3 SUMMING UP

Active labour market measures include: employment services, employment schemes and labour market training schemes. The trend in labour market policy is to increase the emphasis on training in all three types of measures. *The employment service is being extended on a trial basis* to include coordination and networking among providers of training and their potential customers. The employment schemes increasingly include training as an additional element to work practice. The training schemes, which formerly provided short term training to meet skill deficits in the labour market, increasingly provide formally accredited courses for their clients. Two major schemes have been described, the *In-house Training Scheme* targeting companies and the *Substitution Scheme*

targeting individuals. The In-house Training Scheme has a long historical record and aims to prevent unemployment rather than provide training for those who are already unemployed. The training should be tailor-made and specific to the company. It must include both theoretical and practical elements.Training that provides formal educational qualifications may not be funded by the scheme. Conditions for company participation in the scheme relate to company readjustments with regard to product range and introduction of new technology, company intake of unemployed persons and the need for training of internal personnel due to skill deficits in the labour market. The Substitution Scheme, which has been run since 1992, is a new scheme targeting individuals. The scheme is innovative, in combining employment opportunities for unemployed persons with education and training for the employed work force. By sending one or several of its employees on training leave, and having replacements provided by the Labour Market Authorities, the companies themselves decide on the training which indirectly is funded by the Labour Market Authorities. The Scheme has become very popular, and the number of participants in the scheme has grown rapidly since it was initiated.

7 ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATIONS TO COORDINATE LOCAL DELIVERY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

In the recent decade several innovations have been initiated to improve the coordination of local delivery of education and training. These innovations have been developed on the basis of criticism of poor integration, overlapping provisions, unnecessary conflicts between local providers of education and training, and inefficient use of resources in meeting local needs. The Norwegian system for education and training has been seen to have too many providers. Institutions and sectors work separately towards the same goals without coordinating their efforts. For example, education and training for intermediate skills has been provided by upper secondary schools, separate Labour Market Training institutions, adult education

associations and private organizers of education and training. Funders and initiators of education and training are the county authorities, Labour market Authorities, and sometimes ad hoc local and regional education and training projects. The main problem is lack of coordination among the various providers and funding agents of education and training.We will describe three different organizational innovations which have addressed the problem of coordinated delivery of education and training at the local level:

- Regional Competence Committees (Regionale kompetanseutvalg)
- Local and Regional Resource Centres (Resurssentra)
- A new role for the local Labour Market Authorities (A-etatens Kompetanseformidler- prosjekt)

7.1 THE REGIONAL COMPETENCE COMMITTEES IN NORDLAND COUNTY

The regional competence committees in Nordland were established in 1991, as part of the "Autonomous Counties"- project (Frifylkeforsøket). The committees were established in order to coordinate educational provisions at upper secondary level in the county, and in order to promote the work relevance of the provisions. Today there are eleven different regional competence committees in the county. The regions roughly correspond to the regions of the Labour Market Authorities. In most regions there is an Employment Office.

Each Competence Committee has five members: the chief administrator of the Employment Office, the principal of the upper secondary school in the region, one representative from the regional office of the Confederation of Norwegian Industry, one representative from the regional Confederation of Labour Unions, and one representative from the Adult Education Associations. The provisions which are to be coordinated are:

- Provisions funded by the Labour Market Authorities

- Provisions in upper secondary education funded by the county
- Provisions organized by Adult Education Associations (partly funded by the State)

The intention is to coordinate the provisions and the funding resources of three sectors:
- the Labour Market Authorities
- the Ministry of Education
- the voluntary sector of adult education

The concrete tasks to be undertaken by the Committee are to:
- work out regional plans for education and training based on the need for such provisions in the region
- initiate effort to map the education and training needs of companies and enterprises in the region
- initiate local coordination and adjustments of provisions to the needs of enterprises
- establish concrete cooperative projects between enterprises, and education and training institutions

The Committee acts in an advisory capacity and does not change the existing domains of authority of other public bodies. The main role of the Committee has been defined as providing informed advice for the decision- making parties, in order to improve the quality of decisions in matters concerning education and training provisions. The influence which potentially may be exerted by the committee depends on the legitimacy it enjoys among the collaborating parties. As an advisory body it cannot intervene in formal decision-making. In one area the Committee has been granted the authority of decision-making. That is the allocation of county funding for adult education.

The advice given by the Committee seems to have had an influence on the type of Labour Market Training which has been offered in the region. Some Labour Market Training provisions have been discontinued, and overlapping provisions between Labour Market Training and upper

secondary schools in the region have been avoided. With regard to the range of school-based vocational options in upper secondary education in the region, the Committee has had little influence. Currently, it is devoting special attention to providing apprenticeship places in local enterprises. The Committee has also achieved positive results in arranging courses in accordance with § 20 of the Adult Education Act; courses for adults who wish to qualify for the apprenticeship examination, without having served as an apprentice. Most of these courses have been funded by the Labour Market Authorities.

7.2 LOCAL AND REGIONAL RESOURCE CENTRES

The idea of Norwegian resource centres was launched by a comprehensive state intervention programme to support industrial innovation and technological change (NOU 1981: 30A). This programme suggested strategies for support and assistance to small and medium sized companies in the regions. The centres, which initially were publicly funded, were gradually redefined as market driven activities (Uhlin 1992). In subsequent development, authorities have encouraged the organization of such centres as commercial units, and increasingly have demanded that they be self financing. Occasionally they generate a surplus for the institution.

During the 80s, many upper secondary schools and regional colleges established commercial units for short course activities serving local business and industry. In some areas these activities resulted from local initiatives in individual schools. In other places the county education authorities adopted a policy of initiating such activities in their upper secondary schools. In some regions short course provisions were developed as part of centrally initiated regional development projects.

Towards the end of the 80s, the establishing of resource centres, as special units in upper secondary schools, or as separate organizations affiliated with schools and colleges, was adopted as a general policy in the counties. Decisions to organize such centres were made by county education

authorities, and the organizational setup consequently varied a great deal according to local circumstances.

A national project including 15 different municipalities in geographically varied parts of Norway was run from 1990 to 1992. The project provided funding for 15 local short course organizers, and the purpose was to test out the local market for short course provisions and compare different models for the organizational setup of provisions. The models varied in the extent to which the short course activities were integrated in the main stream activities of the school, and the extent to which the schools' short course activities were coordinated with the activities of local providers of similar services.

No decisive conclusion was reached concerning the relative merit of the different models (Bjørnåvold et al. 1992). Subsequently the amount of public funding for each resource centre and the conditions for funding have been left to be decided by the county authorities and varies among regions. In some counties no public assistance is given to the centres, while in others some small grants are provided. Some authorities recommend strict costing and pricing practices, while others leave the schools to decide for themselves on their costing and pricing policy.

In 1993, there were about 150 local resource centres in Norway. These centres are organized in various ways. Some are integrated as separate units in upper secondary schools, others are set up outside the school organization.

7.3 AN EXTENDED SERVICE FUNCTION FOR LOCAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES (Kompetanseformidlerprosjektet)

In Norway at present, the Labour Market Authorities operate one of the largest single budgets for training services. The Authorities do not operate courses, but commission training for their clients from several providers: public education institutions, private course operators and voluntary adult

education associations. The Authorities operate a competitive tendering system.

Labour Market Authorities occupy a central position in the training market in the sense of possessing information concerning skills shortages in the labour market, available education and training offers and, to a lesser extent, the training needs of companies. The advantageous position in respect to flows of information concerning training needs and training offers makes the Authorities into a network junction for information flows in the training market. This is the basis for a potential function for the Authorities, extending their employment services to include the coordination of supply and demand for training services. The Ministry of the Local Government and Labour conducted a 2-year project (1990-92) in 3 different counties, trying out different organization models for the potential extended service function. The aims and anticipated effects of the project are three-fold:

- more efficient employment services and more efficient utilization by the Authorities of their own training budget,with particular emphasis on improving staff qualifications for judging the quality of course offers purchased by the Authorities
-more efficient utilization of training investments in general, by facilitation of information flows among providers concerning course offers. This may prevent the doubling of similar provisions and improve efficiency in the use of available training places.
- enhance the ability of both companies and other actors in working life to articulate training needs. By improving the relevance of provisions, enterprises may increase their competitive power.

The three counties which have established the new service as part of their local Employment Office have developed their own models based on local and regional conditions and needs. The three models are all based on the assumptions that there exists a local or regional training market, that communication between providers and consumers of services is not optimal, and that there is a tendency for providers rather than the

consumers of services to lay the premises for the training contents. Furthermore, all the counties seem to assume that the Labour Market Authorities need to improve staff qualifications in evaluating the quality and relevance of available training services.

- The first model is developed in the west of Norway, the county of Hordaland. This model consists of two extended areas of activity for the local Employment Office. First, the conducting of systematic training needs analyses for local companies, and secondly, the establishing of a forum for providers of training, i.e., schools, private course operators and adult education associations, and companies which are potential customers for the training providers. The forum is established in order to improve the dialogue and cooperation between providers and customers.

-The second model is developed in mid-Norway, in the county of Sør-Trøndelag. It arranges a forum in each of the participating municipalities for improving the dialogue between providers and customers of training services. In addition, training needs analyses paid for by the companies themselves are carried out by private consultants. These analyses have, in some instances, been developed into organizational development schemes, as the problems for local companies seem more related to the internal relationships among employees, than to lack of formal technical qualifications.

-The third model is developed in a county in the south-west of Norway, the county of Rogaland. This model has mainly concentrated on conducting training needs analyses in companies, and has not established new arenas for communication between providers and customers of training services. Improved communication between providers and customers has been a concern, but the model has only targeted a limited number of branches of industry (mechanical and oil industry). It has not tried to cover a broad range of companies in the county. Also, the training needs analyses have concentrated on identifying needs for formal qualifications (skilled workers) and on conveying this knowledge to the appropriate providers of training.

The three models are now being evaluated by the social science research institution NORUT Social Science Research. The evaluation study will look into the prospects of sustaining the extended services after the completion of the trial period, and the relative merits of the different models with regard to improved efficiency in the utilization of resources, and improved quality and relevance of available training provisions.

7.4 SUMMING UP

Although the legal framework for education and training establishes a division of labour among different institutions, sectors and levels of government, at the point of delivery, education and training services provided by different sectors tend to overlap and operate in an uncoordinated manner. Labour Market provisions sometimes duplicate provisions in the ordinary education system, and surplus places provided by one sector may not be utilized by the clients of other sectors. Cross sectoral coordination and pooling of resources at the local level is called for to improve the efficient utilization of investments in education and training. Three different organizational innovations are described: regional competence committees, resource centres, and an extended role for local Employment Offices.The regional competence committees were established in 1991 as part of the "Autonomous Counties"-project, to coordinate educational provisions at the upper secondary level in the county, and to promote their relevance for work. The committees act mainly in an advisory capacity and coordinate information from the local Employment Office, the upper secondary education system, the social partners and the voluntary adult education associations. The committees in the county of Nordland have had some success in preventing overlapping provisions in Labour Market Training and upper secondary schools. It has also succeeded in arranging provisions for adults leading to trade certificates. The resource centres are organizational innovations affiliated with upper secondary schools and higher education colleges, which provide short course services on a commercial basis for local business and industry. Most Norwegian counties have established short

course provisions in conjunction with upper secondary schools. The resource centres have served the dual purpose of coordinating local providers of upgrading courses for companies and trying out the potential of further education and training markets. Organizational models and the extent of public subsidies of provisions vary among the counties. The course volume also varies. However, the role of upper secondary schools and colleges as providers of upgrading courses for local companies has been reinforced by the resource centres. The facilitation of further education and training markets is also the perspective of the project which designs an extended role for local Employment Offices. The Labour Market Authorities are seen as potential monitors of quality and relevance of provisions, and as facilitators of the information flow among providers of training and customers of training services. All the three organizational innovations are designed, to various extents, to improve the quality of provisions, the relevance of provisions and efficiency in the utilization of locally available resources.

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APPENDIX I

CHILD CARE INSTITUTIONS AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES FOR 6-YEAR-OLDS

In Norway, child care services are provided for the age group 0-7. In 1991 an amendment to the Child Care Act allowed municipalities to establish voluntary education programmes for 6-year-olds. Child care services catering for the 0-7 group are organized by kindergartens (barnehager) and voluntary educational programmes for 6-year-olds are organized by primary schools. Child care services and voluntary educational programmes for 6-year-olds are regulated by the 1975 Child Care Act, under the auspices of the Ministry of Children and Family Affairs.

Child care services in kindergartens and voluntary educational programmes for 6-year-olds are jointly funded by direct per capita state subsidies, Municipal Authorities' funding and private fees. Child care services may be organized by the municipalities, and by various private bodies such as: companies which organize kindergartens for the children of their employees, religious bodies, and private families.

The provision of child care is a matter of national policy, but the municipalities are responsible for supplying a sufficient number of places. The state provides a direct subsidy to cover part of the operating costs for each place in local child care institutions, both public and private. The State Housing Bank also provides low-interest morgages for kindergarten buildings. However, the municipalities also have to contribute to the funding of operating costs. The supply of services varies among municipalities. In 1993, the percentage of 6-year-olds, who were enrolled in child care provisions under the Child Care Act was 86,5 %. The

percentage in half of the municipalities exceeded 80 %, while in some municipalities the coverage was below 40 % (St.meld.nr. 40 1992-93). The differences among the municipalities in the supply of services may be accounted for partly by variation in local priorities and allocation of funding, and partly by the various extent to which private organizations initiate such provisions.

Preferential admission to kindergartens is granted to children who are disabled, according to § 10 in the Child Care Act. In 1993 3 % of children who attended kindergartens were admitted on such grounds. Children who were provided with extra resources on the grounds of disability or special needs represented 3,9 % of the total enrolment.

The Nordic countries have a common tradition of child care policy. Norway conforms to this tradition in the sense that:
- the production of child care services is a public responsibility, justified both by the concern for women's right to participate in working life and by considerations of equality of opportunity for children
- the aim is to establish child care as a universal right and not as a special service for the disadvantaged or needy
- the functions of care and education are integrated in one institution.

Historically, the rate of expansion of child care services has been slower in Norway than in other Nordic countries. Norwegian child care policy has been less closely tied to labour market policy than Danish and Swedish child care policies (Leira 1987, 1989). The Norwegian Storting, in the early 70s, rejected a suggestion on expanding child care services and giving priority to full-time care. The attitude at the time was that full-time child care outside the home would not necessarily be good for the child. Consequently, the local municipalities were left to decide on the extent and organization of the services (Dahlström 1993).

The 1975 Child Care Act implied a turn of policy in that public child care was established as part of welfare state services. It was seen as a service

that should be made available for all children. Since the passing of the Act, the total provision of child care has expanded. In the early 1970s, less than 20 % of 0-7 year-olds were enrolled in such institutions (Knutsen 1991). In 1992, the proportion of enrolments had grown to 43 % (174 200). Until the early 80s, part-time child care expanded more than full-time care. By 1992, the majority of children attended full-time in child care institutions attended full-time.

The supply of publicly funded child care provisions has, for many years, been short of the demand, more so in some regions than in others. The undersupply of services has produced an extensive informal system of child care. An informal institution of day-care-mothers (dagmamma) has evolved as a private solution to this undersupply of public services. Day-care-mothers are often mothers who provide child care services in their private homes, taking on one, or several other children in addition to their own. In the early 80s only 18 % of pre-school children with working parents were enrolled in public child care institutions. Close to 40 % were taken care of by private day-care-mothers (Knutsen 1991).

In 1993, 45,7 % of all 0-6-year-olds attended kindergartens or educational programmes for 6-year-olds. The stated aim of the present government is to achieve full coverage of child care for all children, whose partents require such care, within year 2000. Recently introduced measures for the youngest and the oldest in the 0-7 age group will reduce the total demand for places. Besides, the range of institutions which qualify for public funding has been widened. These measures will facilitate the achievement of full coverage for the remaining age groups. The measures include:

- *Extension of maternity leave to 42 weeks.* Parents may chose between 42 weeks with full economic compensation and 52 weeks leave with 80 % economic compensation. Extension of maternity leave will reduce the demand for child care services among the youngest group of infants.
- *Extension of compulsory education to include 6-year-olds from 1997/98.* This extension of compulsory education means that all children will start

school one year earlier than at present. The 6-year-olds, who represent 20 % of all enrolments in child care institutions at present, will be removed from the group requiring child care.
- *Extension of public funding to include new types of provisions.* Child care provisions in private families are entitled to public funding, on the condition that certain criteria for certification are fulfilled.

Extension of compulsory education to include 6-year-olds. School enrolment at the age of 6 has been piloted in a number of projects during recent decades. From 1969 to 1972 the National Council for Innovation in Education conducted a project on "Pre-school Education" in six municipalities. Pre-school education for 6-year-olds was further piloted by "The 4-9 Project", which was operated from 1982 to 1985. The project "Educational programmes for 6-year-olds", which was run in 42 different municipalities from 1986 to 1990, constituted the largest and most encompassing programme. Several of the municipalities which participated in the project continued their education programme for 6-year-olds after the project was over. As a preliminary move towards the introduction of schooling for 6-year-olds on a national basis an amendment to the 1975 Child Care Act in 1991 provided opportunities for local municipalities to establish voluntary education programmes for 6-year-olds in schools. In 1992, 10 000 children, close to 19 % of the group of 6-year-olds, were enrolled in special primary school education programmes. In 1993, the Norwegian Storting decided that compulsory education would start at the age of 6. The decision wil be implemented in 1997/98. The education programme for 6-year-olds will be 20 periods per week, combined with child care in recreation centres outside the school for families who need full-time child care services.

Two main issues were raised concerning the introduction of compulsory education for 6-year olds:
- whether curriculum and teaching methods should conform to the kindergarten tradition or to the primary school tradition
- whether the pre-school education programmes should be located in

kindergartens or in primary schools.

The tradition of child care in kindergartens is different from the teaching practices in primary schools. Kindergartens provide opportunities for play and self-initiated activities among the children. The emphasis is on learning social skills and facilitating the development process, rather than on learning results and achievements. The primary school environment is more structured and based on teacher-directed learning activities. The pilot project, which was operated from 1986 to 1990, tried out three different models of educational programmes:
- programmes located in kindergartens
- programmes located in primary schools
- programmes which involved cooperation between primary schools and kindergarten personnel.

The evaluation of the project indicated that the type of programme which was developed locally, was strongly related to the tradition of the institution which ran the programme. The programmes which were developed in primary schools were more teacher-directed than child-directed. The programmes developed in kindergartens provided more freedom in the choice of activities for the children. The influence on the programme from the institution in which the programme was located, outweighed the unifying influence of the common curriculum plan and the influence of the training background of the teachers. Pre-school teachers in primary schools worked more like primary school teachers when placed in a primary school. However, the training background of the teachers did have some independent effect in exerting influence on the programmes carried out in primary schools.

An important outcome of the pilot project was the curriculum and activities plan (Rammeplanen) for 6-year-olds.

A frequently voiced concern for those who have been sceptical to the introduction of education for 6-year-olds and to the locating of

programmes for this group in primary schools is that the school environment will be too rigid and demand too much discipline. The White Paper (St.meld.nr. 40 1991-92) stresses that provisions for 6-year-olds must be adapted to the development level of the child and provide education combined with care.

APPENDIX II

THE MAIN AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE CONFEDERATION OF NORWEGIAN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY AND THE NORWEGIAN CONFEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS 1994-1997:

CHAPTER XVI "THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENCE"

§16-1 Introduction

The Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry and the Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions agree that the raising of the educational level benefits both the individual person, enterprises and society as a whole. The benefits that accrue from raising the educational level applies to general education, vocational education, adult education, continuing education as well as to retraining.

The social partners therefore want to emphasize the importance of stimulating employees to increase their knowledge and competence, and also the importance of planning education and training for the employees of enterprises, either in-house or externally.

§16-2 Upgrading and continuing education

Upgrading and continuing education are of particular importance for improving the competitiveness of enterprises. For enterprises at all stages of the production chain, relevant competence is a precondition for the

assimilation and utilization of new knowledge. The development of competence through upgrading and continuing training must be based on the present and future needs of the enterprise. The aims and objectives of enterprise production activities must be the point of departure for the development of competence.

Upgrading is defined as maintenance of competence for a given job in the company. Continuing training is defined as education and training for a higher position in the company. Upgrading and continuing education is in the interest of both the company and the individual employee. Both parties must share a responsibility for the development of such competence.

§16-3 Measures of implementation

The individual enterprise shall present its aims and objectives for future development as a basis for the analyses of education and training needs. It is the responsibility of the enterprise, in collaboration with the employees, to conduct the education and training needs analysis and to initiate measures. The education and training needs analysis should normally be updated once a year. Wherever there is a discrepancy between the present level of competence and future needs for competence, this discrepancy will be remedied by relevant education and training measures, or other measures. The costs of upgrading and continuing education/training which correspond to the needs of the enterprise, will be covered by the enterprise. The enterprise and the employees share a responsibility for bridging any gap between existing competence and future needs for competence.

(translation by Tone Skinningsrud, NORUT Social Science Reasearch)

CEDEFOP – European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Coherence between compulsory education, initial and continuing training and adult education in Norway

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Last year, responding to a request from the Commission, the Centre untertook the analysis of the educational and vocational offer in 10 Member States, Norway and Sweden, comparing their ability in making links and interfaces between the various means, content, duration and place of learning in order to facilitate access to the lifelong learning process.

In their original content, form, and language, the twelve national reports are available from CEDEFOP. A comparative analysis is currently being prepared by Guildford Educational Services, UK, and upon completion will also be available.

Because of the increased demand for information on the education and training systems in the EFTA countries, the Centre is presenting in its CEDEFOP-panorama the Norwegian text already published under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, Research and Church affairs.

National report