

OUTI KIVINEN (toim.)

FROM EDUCATION TO WORK

Report from Friskie EU -project



TURUN AMMATTIKORKEAKOULU
ÅBO YRKESHÖGSKOLA



COMMENTS FROM TURKU POLYTECHNIC 20

Turku Polytechnic
Turku 2005

Cover design: Mari Palkén ja Kari Salmi

ISBN 952-5596-13-3(printed)

ISSN 1457-7941(printed)

ISBN 952-5596-14-1 (electronic publication)

ISSN 1459-7756 (electronic publication)

URL: <http://www.turkuamk.fi/julkaisut/isbn9525596141.pdf>

Printed by City of Turku, Printing Services, Turku 2005

CONTENTS

Foreword Outi Kivinen	4
THEORETICAL STARTING POINTS	5
Young people in transition – vocational school as a promoter of participation and active citizenship Eeva Timonen-Kallio	6
The value of working when you are young Anette Bolin	14
The Friskie workbook as a vehicle for exploring young peoples’ social and cultural capital Elsebeth Fog	20
FROM EDUCATION TO WORK – DATA COLLECTION FROM ALL PARTNERS	29
Young people and working life in Finland Outi Kivinen, Anna-Liisa Lindström & Teija Suominen	30
How the young person is prepared towards working life and employment in vocational education in Sweden Anette Bolin	42
The Friskie EU -project at Os vocational high school in Norway Kristine Skåtun	54
Work and employment in United Kingdom Timothy Woodhead	63
Entering to the working life through the vocational education in the Netherlands Marchien Ties	73

FOREWORD

The transition process for young people and the route from education to working life is becoming more and more complex. Many traditional jobs in industry or business have simply disappeared for unqualified workers. The importance of vocational qualifications and the individual's ability to choose the right pathway to working life is becoming more and more important. Today there are more possibilities for young people than ever before, but at the same time there are those who face difficulties in finding their own pathway to employment. These young people need support and guidance in their everyday lives.

Friskie EU 2003–2006 is a Leonardo da Vinci program funded development project where the partners create, plan, facilitate and run supervised group activities and individual work in non-traditional learning environments. The central principle is to combine learning, teaching, participation and activating methods in initial vocational education and the objective is to gain social skills that are necessary for independent living and working life. The Friskie EU partners are Turku Vocational Institute and Turku Polytechnic in Finland, University of Trollhättan/Uddevalla in Sweden, Royal Borough of Kingston upon Thames in UK, Drenthe College in the Netherlands and Os Vidaregående Skole in Norway and University of Oviedo in Spain.

In the first part of this Friskie EU project report, “From Education to Work”, Eeva Timonen-Kallio, Anette Bolin and Elsebeth Fog are examining how the transition process of young people from education to working life is understood in the context of the Friskie EU -project. Eeva Timonen-Kallio writes about the importance to establish new activities, methods and arenas for inclusion to help young people to find their pathway to adulthood and active citizenship. In order to meet the requirements of working life, an individual must be able to make choices, plan his or her life, co-operate and communicate with others. Can these kinds of social and citizenship skills be taught and learnt in vocational training? Elsebeth Fog's article discusses how the Friskie workbook can be used as a vehicle for exploring young people's social and cultural capital. Anette Bolin's article discusses the value of working life for young people. How youth unemployment and youth lifestyles are interlinked in the sense that being unemployed excludes groups of young people from a wider choice of life. In the second part of the report, the Friskie EU partners examine young people's employment and unemployment in their countries. The partners also discuss the support systems for young people who are entering their life. The primary objective of this information is to describe the situation and the challenges of working life and employment of young people. The secondary objective is to describe the role of vocational education in providing important working life skills for young people. Thank you all partners for your contribution.

Turku, Finland 27.05.2005

Outi Kivinen Friskie EU Project Coordinator

THEORETICAL STARTING POINTS

YOUNG PEOPLE IN TRANSITION – VOCATIONAL SCHOOL AS A PROMOTER OF PARTICIPATION AND ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP

Eeva Timonen-Kallio

The chances of an individual to manage personal life and to integrate into society depend decisively on conforming to the systems of education and working life. Reaching adulthood in the 21st century increasingly involves weighing up various educational alternatives, planning one's career ahead, and making appropriate choices. To be able to transfer from school to working life and thus to an independent adult life, young people need to complete vocational qualifications. Vocational qualifications includes professional skills, academic skills and social skills.

The aim of this paper is to justify the need for social skills programme in vocational training. In this paper, I will discuss how it is important to seek and establish new activities, methods and arenas for inclusion to help pupils to learn social skills and find their pathway to adulthood and active citizenship. This paper also investigates possibilities for young people for integration and participation in voluntary work and hobby circles in the fields of culture and care.

Young people in post-modern society

It has been said that modern society is fundamentally an educational society, in which the social status of an individual is basically determined by education. As a consequence of educational society making a positive contribution to society is becoming more complex for some groups of young people. The risk of dropping out from vocational training is on the increase, as learning difficulties and lack of motivation are becoming more prevalent among students. Up to 20 % of all students at one Finnish vocational institution do not complete their training (Torniainen 2003). A project called Haavi has been launched to find ways of reaching those students that have dropped out from vocational schools and to help comprehensive school pupils in danger of social exclusion to move on to upper secondary education (Torniainen 2003). In England this group is called NEET – not in education, employment and training. In post 16 education e.g. in area of Kingston Borough 3,4 % are not in education, employment or training.

According to Komonen (2001, 83), the reasons for low levels of education, negative attitudes towards education, and lack of motivation might be found in the contents of education. All students receive the same educational contents and are subject to the same expectations irrespective of their previous experiences and personal interests. Komonen argues that the prevailing faith in education is closely connected to a belief that storing young people in educational establishments yields positive results in resocializing excluded individuals and in preventing social exclusion. She prophesies that this storage function that emphasizes stability and order will be a key ingredient of social integration in the future. By storing away a great number of idle citizens that the society has little or no use for, they can

be brought under control and assigned to an apparently meaningful existence. In Komonen's view, we have moved away from the morality of work towards the morality of education.

Involuntary integration into the system is exemplified by social policies that have targeted young Finns in recent years. The Finnish youth researcher Minna Suutari (2003, 103–104) describes, how changes in legislation stipulating that unemployed people under the age of 25 with no vocational qualifications must apply for training or participate in various employment measures in order to qualify for labour market support are a clear signal that dropping out of mainstream society is not acceptable. Since participating in education and paid work is a sign of "normality" in Finnish society, not being involved in these activities is often regarded as deviant or marginal behaviour. Accordingly, the authorities are keen to bring those young people who are neither working nor studying swiftly back to mainstream society and a predominantly middle-class way of life that proceeds from getting an education through finding employment to buying a house or a flat and leading a stable life surrounded by one's family. However, Suutari claims that forced integration through education may bring about social inequality and trap some people in poorly paid, precarious and low-status employment.

The economic aspect of work is of crucial importance in the successful integration of a young person. Being left outside the labour market and thus outside the field of economy entails fewer opportunities in other fields particularly relevant to post-modern youth, such as consumerism and hobbies. In many cases, it also involves prolonged financial dependency on the support systems of the welfare state and on one's family, above all parents. Nonetheless, Suutari believes that work alone does not, at present, form a sufficient basis for young people's integration. The basis for young people's integration consists of much more than the labour market and the field of economy, and social exclusion is usually not caused by unemployment alone. Suutari (2003, 105–108) points out that it is the young people's social networks that largely determine the values, attitudes and frames of reference which they identify themselves with and which they adhere to in all important areas of their lives, including work and education.

In a reality permeated by the ideology of individualism, young people's individuality is determined in different ways. According to Järvinen (2001, 68), the individuality of those young people who move swiftly from one level of education to another and eventually attain good qualifications is determined in accordance with the values of the surrounding society. These young people act purposefully and form a clear and optimistic view of their own future. By contrast, those young people who have fallen out of the educational system and have poor labour market qualifications are confronted with the downside of the ideology of individualism. Järvinen maintains that as social problems are to an ever greater extent interpreted as an individual's personal crises, disadvantaged young people are forced to take more and more responsibility for their own lives and for managing their own affairs. The transitional stage of the welfare state and the weakening social support systems (family, neighbourhood, social welfare services etc.) oblige individuals to work out their own 'per-

sonal projects' in their lives. On the one hand, welfare society offers a lot, but on the other, it demands a lot. In post-modern society, making educational choices, entering working life and managing one's life in general require the kind of know-how that young citizens do not currently receive at school. This might be one of the reasons why it has recently been suggested that compulsory education in Finland should continue until the age of 18 instead of the current 16, so that all adolescents would remain in education and benefit from the support and guidance offered by schools for another two years.

In addition to these barriers in one's personal life the high unemployment figures and diminishing employment possibilities have caused young people a serious problem when trying to find their place in society in many European countries. A growing number of young people are becoming more and more 'not involved' in working life and communities. The socio-political management of youth affairs, in other words the guidance and counselling offered by professionals (student counselling, career counselling, joint application systems, tutoring, mentoring), concentrates above all on supporting young people's educational and career choices and on steering them gently from school to working life. However, it remains debatable whether these services aimed at young people succeed in meeting their day-to-day expectations and needs. The choices young people experience are hardly made less dramatic by the fact that nowadays it is easier than before to reverse choices and start over. (Julkunen 2003, 400.)

Starting over is not always easy if you are not living in a supporting family. Barriers to successful transition is listed (Thorne 2005) as lacks of:

- Lack of understanding of the options available
- Biased advice from other people
- Lack of a clear future plan
- Lack of realism about choices being made
- Barriers to progression such as low esteem/self-confidence; poor basic skills; poor presentation; difficult family circumstances; offending behaviour; teenage pregnancy; substance misuse; poor presentation skills, independence skills
- Lack of support from someone who can advocate for young person
- Not being in a place where there are any resources or support to research options

Group of young pupils are not capable to get advantage of those many kinds of options there are available in extending main stream schools and are at a risk not completing their studies. These pupils are most vulnerable because quite often they don't get support and guidance from their parents.

How to learn to become an active citizen

The international research project *Education and Training for Governance and Active Citizenship in Europe: Analysis of Adult Learning and Design of Formal and Informal Educational Intervention Strategies (ETGACE)* found that the instruction and educational contents of schools had little impact on the formation and consolidation of active citizens. Although it is clear that the knowledge mediated by the educational establishment is indispensable, the people interviewed by ETGACE did not feel that it had encouraged them to become active citizens. Many of them criticized the education they had received by saying that they had been taught citizenship skills for the benefit of the school rather than for life outside school. The primary objective of the education had been to prepare the students to respond correctly in different types of tests such as the matriculation examination. Schools had not sought to teach their students how to cope with everyday life, let alone encouraged them to participate in political decision-making. (Laitinen & Nurmi 2003, 127–128; Laitinen & Nurmi 2002, 25.)

The Belgian ETGACE team set out to explain the process of becoming and/or learning to become an active citizen at a transitional stage of one's life from the viewpoints of challenge, capacity, connection, and context. In the Belgian model, becoming an active citizen presupposes that one is faced with a challenge. A challenge can take many different forms. It can be an opportunity or a threat that one is confronted by, and it may evoke a sense of solidarity with those who find themselves in a similar situation. For example, the experience of having been treated unfairly or discriminated against can be interpreted as a challenge. It is equally possible that seeing others face challenging or threatening situations make an individual feel that their help or contribution is needed. The principal motives for becoming an active citizen can thus be either personal or social. It is often the case that something of personal interest turns out to be important for others as well and then becomes the object of wider social and political activity. (Laitinen & Nurmi 2005.)

Laitinen and Nurmi take a critical approach to the model, but consider it an adequate basis for examining the prerequisites for becoming an active citizen. The authors of the model introduce three contexts on different levels that are instrumental in investigating how one learns to become an active citizen. The first one is the **sociocultural context**, i.e. the nation state, the second one is the **social context** which consists above all of groups, communities and social environments and their values, and the third one is the **context of one's personal life**, that is to say the immediate environment of the learner.

Critical pedagogy is a field mainly concerned with schools and school pedagogy as tools for socialization. Critical pedagogy focuses on the viewpoint of the oppressed and subordinated and consciously views the world through the eyes of the underprivileged. It also strives to make their voice heard in society. Critical pedagogues must oppose poverty, racism, patriarchy and class oppression, and defend universal human needs in words and deeds. This requires an ability to perceive the various connections between schools and society. Schools should constitute a public space where critical knowledge is produced and

where opportunities for change are identified. Students must learn how to bring about social changes and how to become critical citizens. They must be taught the language of critique and the language of hope. (Giroux & McLaren 2000, 17.)

Citizenship is a concept that has different meanings in different contexts. The formal definition of the concept refers merely to the legal status held by an individual under the authority of a certain state but the wealth of theories and studies dealing with the issue suggests that there is something more about it than just the legal dimension. We can see that it deals with questions like the relationship between the individual and the society and especially the requirements there are for an individual to be able to take part into the life of the society, to use her/his citizenship rights and fulfill her duties as a member of a community. (Nivala 2003.)

One form of social participation and a context for learning to become a citizen is volunteering. The scope and scale of voluntary activity are significant. Compared to other Europeans, young Finns are proficient in civic knowledge and skills, yet Finns rarely engage in social participation. Many forms of social participation that are common elsewhere in Europe are not part of Finnish tradition. Anne Birgitta Yeung, who has studied youth activism and social capital notes that young people's initiative and positive attitudes towards grass-roots social participation should not be dismissed or underestimated. Instead, it is important to consider how to activate and motivate them and inform them on volunteering and other forms of social participation. Finnish research shows that some of the most important factors discouraging young people from volunteering are that they do not know how to get started and that no one has ever asked them to join in. Young people should be recruited by inspiring and perhaps even provocative campaigns specifically targeted at them. Young people are not passive and do not have negative views on all social participation even if they are not interested in politics. (Yeung 2004.)

In the context of personal life, the education one receives may or may not foster the development of citizenship skills. The opportunity to be a member of a community, to win the approval of others and to be actively involved in decision-making in as many different kinds of situations as possible is fundamental to democracy education. Young people should gradually learn to participate and influence decision-making in more and more demanding contexts. They should be able to practise all the skills that they will need to be able to participate in communal affairs and to successfully advance their interests in society. To promote equality, the weakest and shyest in particular should be encouraged to take part in public life and social interaction. A culture of participation is built on everyday situations and interaction. Many different methods can be applied, as long as they all systematically promote the participation of all citizens. (Vesikansa 2002, 23, 27.) It is worthwhile to consider, for example, whether students can make their voice heard in the school community. Do teachers and other education professionals encourage the students to express their own ideas, or do they instead try to keep a tight rein on what goes on in the classroom?

The workshop of citizens was aimed at providing young people who had completed their compulsory education with individually tailored services to help them enter education or the labour market (Karjalainen 1999). It is noteworthy that the project was called the *workshop of citizens*. The name of the project reflects the idea of a workshop for civic engagement that is based on the principles of participation and close working arrangements with opportunity providers in community and municipality. The project was targeted 17 to 24-year-old unemployed people with no vocational qualifications.

According to the working plan the workshop project addressed the following issues: learning to perform daily errands, discovering ways to influence local decision-making, developing the participants' life management skills, and learning about sustainable development and healthy living. The initial plan was to co-operate with the municipality and other partners by organizing clubs and afternoon care for primary school pupils, assisting physical education instructors and supervising children on an adventure track, and to work together with organizations providing home help services and services for the disabled, kindergartens, youth workers and voluntary organizations. Improving the participants' life management and teamwork skills were eventually recognized as the most important goals. Life management included learning to take responsibility for one's own affairs and finding pathways to working life. The purpose of the project was to identify and strengthen skills that are not based on paid work and labour market citizenship alone.

Skills for life as an educational content

In this social and political context, it is absolutely necessary to find new pedagogical solutions to the integration problems of under-achieved groups in schools and to encourage them to commit themselves to education and later on to work or some other social activity. How should schools change so that the individual study, career and activation plans promote pupils' personal goals and that the plans would be socially just and realistic. Another challenge is to find balance between placing services, practical training and workshops etc. into the school and creating new alternative learning environments outside the school community.

Storing disadvantaged young people in education and training could -in empowering scenario- afford them an opportunity to learn citizenship skills, to prepare themselves for the challenges of modern society and to help them to make choices that improve their lives. The labour market need not be the only way to integration. But what kind of learning environment would enable the students to learn these skills, and what kind of pedagogical solutions and organizational culture should vocational institutions adopt?

In vocational training, on-the-job learning could be developed so that, in addition to acquiring theoretical knowledge and vocational skills, the pupils would also learn citizenship skills. Vocational institutions could open up more to working together with the third sector and voluntary organizations. Partnership work would provide pupils with new opportuni-

ties for meaningful activities in real-life context where they could meet challenges and feel that they are really needed.

Vocational institutions could co-ordinate schemes and projects to involve young people in the surrounding society, for instance in the manner of the earlier mentioned workshop of citizens. This would also broaden the pupils' social network and familiarize them with different values and attitudes towards life. Thus, students will be presented with alternative lifestyles and, in the best scenario, this will increase voluntary and community engagement. Individual guidance should be improved and provided in general teaching to offer necessary level of support and advocacy near pupils. With younger pupils the work with parents is essential to explain options and support choices.

References

- Giroux, H. & McLaren, P. 2001. Kriittinen pedagogiikka. Gummerus. Jyväskylä
- Helne, T., Julkunen, R., Kajanoja, J., Laitinen-Kuikka, S., Silvasti, T., Simpura, J. Sosiaalinen sosiaalipolitiikka. WSOY. Helsinki.
- Julkunen, R. 2003. Ihmiset iät ja työ. In Helne, T., Julkunen, R., Kajanoja, J., Laitinen-Kuikka, S., Silvasti, T., Simpura, J. Sosiaalinen sosiaalipolitiikka. WSOY. Helsinki.
- Karjalainen, P. 1999. Nuorten työpaja – osallisuutta omaan elämään. Helsingin yliopiston Lahden tutkimus- ja koulutuskeskuksen raportteja ja selvityksiä 32/1999. Tampere.
- Komonen, K. 2001. Työn moraalista koulutuksen moraaliin. In Kuure, Tapio (ed.) 2001. Aikuistumisen pullonkaulat. Nuorten elinolot -vuosikirja. Nuorisotutkimusseura. Julkaisuja 16. Nuorisasian neuvottelukunta, Nuora, julkaisuja 19. Sosiaali- ja terveysalan tutkimus- ja kehittämiskeskus, Stakes.
- Kuure, T. (ed.) 2001. Aikuistumisen pullonkaulat. Nuorten elinolot – vuosikirja. Nuorisotutkimusseura. Julkaisuja 16. Nuorisasian neuvottelukunta, Nuora, julkaisuja 19. Sosiaali- ja terveysalan tutkimus- ja kehittämiskeskus, Stakes.
- Laitinen, M. & Nurmi, K. E. 2003. Aktiiviseksi kansalaiseksi kasvaminen suomalaisten elämäkertojen valossa. Aikuiskasvatus 2, 122–132.
- Laitinen, M. & Nurmi, K.E. 2002. Biographical observations on Active Citizenship Learning in Finland. University of Helsinki. Department of Education. Research Report 183.
- Laitinen, M. & Nurmi, K.E. 2004. www.kansalaisfoorumi.fi (retrieved 4.3.2005.)

Suutari, M. 2002: Nuorten sosiaaliset verkostot palkkatyön marginaalissa. Nuorisotutkimus-verkosto/ Nuorisotutkimusseura. Julkaisuja 26.

Thorne, B. 2005. What Connexions/Prospects Offer Young People in Transition in Kingston. Friskie-EU seminar 29.4.2005. Kingston. England.

Torniainen, J. 2003. "Haavi" eli tuettu siirtyminen perusopetuksesta ammatillisiin opintoihin, ESR-välikirje. Vantaan ammatillinen koulutuskeskus.

Vesikansa, S. 2002. Demokratia kouluissa ja nuorisotyössä. In Gretschel, Anu 2002. Lapset, nuoret ja aikuiset toimijoina. Artikkeleita osallisuudesta. Humanistinen ammattikorkeakoulu. Suomen kuntaliitto. Helsinki.

Yeung, A. 2004. Nuoret ja vapaaehtoistoiminta – mahdollon yhtälö?
www.kansalaisfoorumi.fi. (retrieved 4.3. 2005.)

THE VALUE OF WORKING LIFE WHEN YOU ARE YOUNG

Anette Bolin

In Sweden as well as in Europe there has been a rise in youth unemployment during the 1990's. Research has shown that the gap between rich and poor widened and that it was young people who were hit the hardest (Trondmand & Bunar 2001; Miles 2000). In a nationwide research project called *Youth in the Twilight Zone* during the nineties, researchers could conclude that it is a certain group within the wider section of youth who are the ones who are most effected. These youngsters could be called working class young people, but only if by this it is meant young people with immigrant backgrounds and young people with Swedish backgrounds living in the suburbs of the larger cities (Bunar & Trondman 2001). My aim in this article is to discuss how youth unemployment and youth lifestyles are interlinked in the sense that being unemployed excludes groups of young people from a wider choice of lifestyles.

Anthony Giddens (1991) asserts that everyone in modern society has to select a lifestyle, but that different groups will have different possibilities. Wealth would certainly seem to increase the range of options. According to Giddens, 'Lifestyle' is not only about fancy jobs and conspicuous consumption, though; the term applies to wider choices, behaviours, and (to greater or lesser degrees) attitudes and beliefs. Lifestyles could be said to be like ready-made templates for a narrative of the self. But the choice of ones lifestyle does not predict any particular type of life story. So a lifestyle is more like a genre: whilst movie directors can choose to make a romance, a western, or a horror story, we – as 'directors' of our own life narratives – can choose a metropolitan or a rural lifestyle, a lifestyle focused on success in work, or one centred on clubbing, sport, romance, or sexual conquest. The choices which we make in modern society may be affected by the weight of tradition on the one hand, and a sense of relative freedom on the other. Everyday choices about what to eat, what to wear and who to socialise with, are all decisions which position us as one kind of person and not another. And as Giddens says, "The more post-traditional the settings in which an individual moves, the more lifestyle concerns the very core of self-identity, its making and remaking' (Giddens 1991, 81).

What happens when a large group of young people are denied the possibility to choose a lifestyle which they might want? And how are they effected when, simultaneously, they encounter society's mantra that "You can be what you want to be, you just have to want it bad enough." What, in reality, is the possibility of choosing a lifestyle if you have dropped out of school? Maybe the life style you choose is in fact the only one available. But before discussing the reality of choice, I would like pause briefly to look at the concept of 'youth'.

Conceptualizing youth

The term 'youth' is defined in different ways and we are not always in agreement about what it means being young. Young people's experiences are arguably so diverse that they it almost becomes meaningless to categorize young people using the all-encompassing term 'youth'. Steven Miles (2000), a British sociologist who writes about young people, suggests however, that "young people *do* call upon their lifestyles as a common resources, a breathing space within which they can actively, and at times creatively, cope with the constant uncertainties apparently characteristic of life in a so called 'post-modern' world" (Miles 2000, 1.) Facing unemployment could enhance these feelings of uncertainty.

Sometimes young people are portrayed as risk-taking troublemakers, only motivated by their own rebellious self-interest. That the everyday reality of young people is an expression or a reproduction of the dominant values of society is a fact that, according to Miles (2000), is often neglected. Jonathon S. Epstein (2002), an American sociologist and who conducts research on adolescence and music writes that social scientists have long been both intrigued and confused by youth and, not infrequently, seem to define youth as social problem. The two opposite sides of viewing young people is either on the one hand, to define youth as itself a problem or, on the other, to view it as resourceful and creative. What most people can agree on is that the majority of Western societies view young people as the holders of the nation's destiny, which can in part explain the adult world's interest in the 'youth'. Many researchers have pointed out that young people are a barometer, or a seismograph of social change. At the same time, young people might equally be conceptualized as an index of social ills (Miles 2000.)

Different categories of youth groups have exemplified the media's interest in the phenomenon of 'youth'. In the 1960s it was the hippies, in the 70s it was punk, in the 80s it was rave, and in the 90s it was Generation X. All were movements depicted as being self-centred and having no interest in anything or anybody other than themselves. One interesting group to emerge on the youth scene was 'DIY' an acronym for 'Do It Your Self Feminism'. Basically, the idea is a reinterpretation of the punks do it yourself directive. According to Kearney "Riot girls have adopted the radical political philosophy and practise of separatism in order to liberate themselves from the misogyny, ageism, and, for some, homophobia and racism they experience in their every day life" (Kearney 2002, 140). But all the same, the criticisms both of the media and indeed of youth researchers, is that they tend to focus on the subordinacy of youth, and focus on sub cultures that have been perceived to be deviant or debased, but also lower down the social ladder due to exclusionary experiences based on class, race, ethnicity and age (Thornton 1997).

Miles (2000) argues that even if belonging to a specific youth sub culture give young people the opportunity to experience the sense of a social reality independent of the adult world (where adults provide the space within which young people can be young) we need to remember that young people's cultural life actively reflects their relationship to dominant power structures. Miles believes that the nature of such structures and their cultural expression have changed to such an extent that, nowadays, the notion of youth lifestyles is poten-

tially more useful than that of youth subcultures. The majority of young people in Sweden don't belong explicitly to a distinctive group of young people, but the media is certainly giving the picture of young people being harbingers of moral panic to such an extent that young people's real experienced problems, for example the opportunity to create an ordinary life with somewhere to live and work, are being neglected. Drawing on my own experienced working as a social worker, when asked about the future a majority of the young people I worked with wanted what we would call an ordinary 'Svensson' life. This, for the young people I worked with in a middle sized town in Sweden, meant having a job at the local automobile factory, a flat or preferably a house, and a husband/wife and some children.

The vast majority – in excess of 90 % – of the young people between 16–19 in Sweden are enrolled in full-time education, and of those who studied on a vocational program, only 70 % had work three years later.¹ 50 % of the young people between 20–24 years old and 15 % of those aged 25–29, study at university. Nearly 50 % of young people between 20–24 works, while 70 % of the 24–29 year-olds work. That means that the majority of young people between 20–29 years old work. This article, however, focuses on the ones who don't work, the ones who might want to work but might say they don't want to because they know they that they only option they have is to join yet another youth project. These are the young people who experience the effects of a limited choice of life styles.

Exclusion from the symbolic value of belonging to the work force

Exclusion in any society is a painful experience. Youth unemployment in Sweden can be understood as a structural conception of alienation. Epstein (2002) means that in order for alienation to be a structural variable there must be a discrepancy between the resources of a society and the ability of certain groups to attain those resources. One important factor for young people is how society views their chosen lifestyle. Is the young person's choice included in what is called the 'common' or the 'hegemonic' culture? The 'hegemonic culture' is created by those groups which possesses the greatest power, weight and influence in society Lalander & Johansson 2002. ² In Sweden you could say that a dominant hegemonic culture is that one of having a lifestyle which makes you financially independent through having a job. To have a job provides both a symbolic, as well as economic belonging to society. The common culture could be described as an expression of the everyday life of the other social groups and classes. In this article, my focus is on the everyday life of unemployed young people from the suburbs of bigger and medium-sized towns. So how

¹ 69 % of young people who finished a vocational training program 2000/2001 had work three years later in 2004. For young people who finished higher education during the same period 92 % had work. Part time work is more common for women than men, three of ten women worked part-time one of ten for the men.

² The concept of **hegemony** is crucial to Gramsci's, an Italian academic, thinking and embodies his most important legacy. By 'ideological hegemony' Gramsci means the process whereby a dominant class contrives to retain political power by manipulating public opinion, creating what Gramsci refers to as the 'popular consensus'.

might I want to define what a life style is? Muggleston (1997) argues that youth life styles appear, currently, more individualistic than sub-cultural. Life styles are an active expression of not only the relationship between the individual and society, and between structure and agency, but also individuals' relations to social change. "A lifestyle enclave is formed by people who share some features of private life. Members of a lifestyle enclave express their identity through shared patterns of appearance, consumption, and leisure activities, which often serve to differentiate them sharply from them with other lifestyles (Bella et al. 1985, 335 in Miles 2000). The relationship between lifestyle and identity as been explored by Thomas Johansson and Fredrik Miegel (1996), who conduct research on young people in Sweden. They argue that the core of a lifestyle is to be found in the identity of the individual. They have divided the concept of identity into three different construction of a person's life style. Adapting Bourdieu's (1984) notion of habitus, Johansson and Miegel stress the importance of internalizing abstract culture and of mediating between societal structures and subjective interpretation of, and attitudes towards these situations.

Pierre Bourdieu presents a theory of consumption and consumer lifestyles based on the structure and agency relation. Pivotal to this theory is the term *habitus*, the everyday knowledge or what can be called cultural capital that the individual gleans from her surroundings. He defines the habitus as providing a group with a distinctive framework of social cognition and interpretation. These become the mental structures which individuals carry around in their heads and which enable them to deal with the world. Bourdieu believes that the consumer is not merely a product of social structures. He has created four categories of capital as analytical instruments to understand people's actions and thoughts; cultural capital, economic capital, symbolic capital and social capital. Cultural capital which, of the four, has been the type of capital that has received the most academic attention, is seen by Bourdieu as the embodiment of the cultural disposition and sensibilities which structure group behaviour, for example language and cultural taste – whether it be football, the fine arts e.t.c. He suggests that habitus is in fact instigated from early childhood through interaction with family and other various social agents. My own belief is that since young people have different cultural frames to relate to, they will develop their "own" habitus which is more greatly influenced by experience with peers than with family members. For example, how will a young person's cultural identity be developed when she or he is taking part in a fifth program for young people who are unemployed without having ever been able to get a job? Even if her family culture is that work is important for receiving respectability in society, the young woman's peers' culture is that work is not important for who you are because it is your style that shows who you are. But, given a choice, she and her peers might say that work is important if they only knew it was possible for them to actually get a job.

Economic capital includes the financial possibilities the young person has while symbolic capital is defined by how other people value things, actions e.t.c. For example, the symbolic value of being a good local hip hop artist who has dropped out of school might vary depending on the context. When you are applying for a job in a restaurant it might not give you any symbolic value, but if you apply for a job in a record shop it just might. Clothes are

also often distinctive symbolic value artefacts. You are what you wear. Or, perhaps, if you believe that we live in a consumer society, you are what you buy. Social capital includes, for example who your family knows, whether any family friends can help you to find a job and help to extend social contacts etc. Johansson & Miegel suggest that lifestyle is not the same as total freedom of individuals in their choice of values, attitudes and actions although this freedom may have increased. They mean that the core of freedom is, therefore, located in cultural identity. Whereas the personal identity is non- individual, cultural identity can be both individual and non individual.

In order to understand lifestyles in contemporary Western societies, one must understand the dynamic relationship between the individual and society. Miles gives as an example that young people in general and those pursuing criminal careers in particular, are dismissive of the support provided by youth training schemes because they simply don't provide them with the resources they need to maintain the sort of lifestyle they want and have become accustomed to through the opportunities provided by criminal activities and the from the escape that can be found through drug culture. It is important to remember that lifestyle is about identity, attitudes and beliefs. It is the symbolic value of being together. One example provided by Lalander & Johansson (2002) is how a group of young boys vandalise a buss shelter as an act of bonding and the symbolic value behind it is important. From an outsider's perspective it can only appear to be a meaningless and pointless act of vandalism. Attitudes towards work if you are young and unemployed, can be viewed in the same way in that they provide a feeling of identity through belonging to an excluded group in society. If you are not welcome as a citizen in society why bother? And if you cannot become economically independent and rent your own home on the income you get from the youth project, why bother to enrol in the first place?

Two Swedish youth researchers, Lundahl and Hansson, (2002) conclude that, during the nineties, temporary youth projects became the common approach to handle a structural problem with unemployment on an individual level. They argue that two thirds of the projects (in a nationwide survey) focused on social upbringing (fostran) and integration, by keeping the young people occupied and in this way trying to prevent social exclusion and criminality. Only one fifth of the projects focused on the transition from education to work. Lundahl and Hansson conclude that middle class young people most frequently viewed such projects as a place to pass time before they moved on. For the young people who had had contact with social services, the participation in project seemed to reinforce that it was because of individual deficiency that they where unemployed, and not the result of any structural reasons. In their view those projects that tried to change young people's 'heads' (by focusing on personal development) instead of giving skills, were the least successful. So, back to the original question: is it that the adult world, with all the best intentions, is nevertheless trying, via youth projects directing young people towards an lifestyle – the lifestyle of a citizen who is working, who can create the lifestyle they want due to economical resources – that, in fact, the young person herself is not interested in? The only problem is that the young people have seen through this facade, because they know that the chances of getting a reasonable job which they can support themselves from,

is often virtually nil. The jobs that are around are often taken by middle class youth, or youth who have finished school with good grades. In a way, it seems that we are cheating socially vulnerable young people by pretending we are offering a route into society because, in reality, what we are offering instead is a route into exclusion by being enrolled in a “project”.

References

Bourdieu, P. 1989. *Distinction: a social critique of the judgement of taste*. London: Routledge.

Epstein, J. S. 2002. (ed.) *Youth culture. Identity in a post-modern world*. USA: Blackwell Publishing.

Hansson, K. & Lundahl, L. 2002. Youth Politics with New Features? Young people's encounters with youth projects. *Education and Social justice*, 4 (2), 37–46.

Johansson, T. & Miegel, F. 1996. *Kultursociologi*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Johansson, T. & Lalander, P. 2002. *Ungdomsgrupper i teori och praktik*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Miles, S. 2000. *Youth lifestyles in a changing world*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.

Trondman, M. & Bunar, N. (ed.) 2001. *Varken ung eller vuxen: samhället idag är ju rubbat*.

THE FRISKIE WORKBOOK AS A VEHICLE FOR EXPLORING YOUNG PEOPLES' SOCIAL AND CULTURAL CAPITAL

Elsebeth Fog

The aim of the Friskie EU -project is to develop a social skills training programme for initial vocational education. It is targeted at young people who are not able to take advantage of existing training and who are at risk of not completing their vocational education. The Friskie partners create, plan and run supervised group activities and individual guidance to facilitate learning in non-traditional learning environments e.g. in alternative forms of study, in the workplace, at employment offices, in drama workshops etc. The partners in the project are collaborating on the development of a workbook that can be used in different contextual and cultural vocational training process in the different participating countries. In this article I will discuss how the workbook can be used as a vehicle to explore young people's social and cultural capital.

Often, the concepts of social and cultural capital are used as a positive concept. However Wacquant (1998) indicates how 'social disinvestment' with the withdrawal of public services can create a vicious cycle of decline in social capital. He distinguishes between 'informal social capital', that he describes as resourceful social ties based on interpersonal networks and forms of exchange with resourceful social ties based on interpersonal networks of exchange and obligations, and 'formal social capital' which is the set of resources and values that individuals may draw upon by virtue of their membership in, or connection to formal organizations (Wacquant 1998, 28). Wacquant argues that the deterioration in public services in America's inner cities has proceeded to the point where public institutions operate as negative social capital that maintain ghetto residents in a marginal and dependent positions (Wacquant 1998, 29). Sanderson in turn emphasises that the social capital perspective highlights the importance of access to a range of relational resources and the role of disinvestment by private and public institutions in socially deprived localities in undermining the capacity of communities to combat processes of social exclusion (Sanderson 2004). This means that, in addressing the problem of social exclusion and promoting social inclusion, it is necessary to work on individual, group and structural levels.

The first step might be teaching and helping young people to learn the social skills they need to be motivated to put themselves in charge of their lives. The group process will help them to identify what is needed, share experiences and identify differences. It might be the first step towards the creation of a network where the process of creating positive social capital can be started. For the social pedagogue³ the first step to be taken is to get an understanding of what the young person actually regards as social skills. How, for example, do young people define these cultural, contextual and situational skills and, for that matter, can

³ In Sweden we use the concept *Social Pedagogue* while other countries i.e UK use the term *social educator*

they explain how they were appropriated. According to Barbara Rogoff, appropriation is the process by which individuals transform their skills and understanding through their participation. Appropriation occurs in the context of engagement, often with others in socio-cultural activities, but has its focus on the personal processes of transformation that are part of an individual's participation. (Rogoff 1993, 138). What the young person may regard as being positive social skills might not in fact correspond with what are more normally seen as 'proper social skills'. It might for example, according to Rogoff, be the "development of practices that we prefer to prevent, such as learning to participate as victim and perpetrator in abusive relationships or learn to handle life's problem through aggressions or drugs" (Rogoff 1993, 149).

Saljö (2000, 139) argues that learning is determined by the situation we find ourselves in and the opportunities that it presents, since, according to Säljö, "all our acts are determined by our own knowledge and experience and by what we, whether consciously or unconsciously, assume that any specific situation allows or demands of us". He stresses the value of situatedness as a tool of interpretation and points out that it is important to establish an awareness of the fact that contexts are constantly changing and never exist independently of human action, whilst, at the same time, the context is also part of the learning process. Säljö believes that learning depends on who we are i.e. the prior experiences we bring to a new situation and what we know. The prior knowledge we bring with us is equally as necessary as a contextual ingredient, as the situation we are in. Learning outcomes depend, of course, on how we conceptualize the impressions we obtain, how we interpret the situation, what it demands from us, and what it makes possible or permits. So, the next question to be answered is why these social skills were important in the socio-cultural situation in which the young person is participating. Through careful questioning and understanding the reason why, processes of blame and victimisation can be avoided and the different experiences can become a starting point for forms of education which identify problems and which are based on dialogue (Freire 1972, 61) and which lead, eventually to enlightenment.

This notion is a key concept in the British self-directed group workers who are working from the principles of social action. Their work is based on anti-oppressive principles and the notion that people can gain collective strength through working in groups (Mullender & Ward 1991.) They are influenced by the work of Paulo Freire, and they emphasise that by asking the question about the reasons why things are as they are gives people "the opportunity to widen their horizons of what is possible, to break out of the self-perpetuating narrowness of vision, introspection and 'victim blaming' induced through poverty, lack of opportunity and exclusion" (Ward & Boeck 2000, 46; Quoted from Aubrey 2004, 13). The Centre for Social action has created six fundamental principles which guides its work (2001)

1. Social Action workers are committed to social justice. We strive to challenge inequality and oppression in relation to race, gender, sexuality, age, religion, class, culture, disability or any other form of social differentiations.

2. We believe all people have skills, experience and understanding that they can draw on to tackle the problems they face. Social action workers understand that people are experts in their own lives and we can use this as a starting point for our work.

3. All people have rights including the right to be heard, the right to define the issues facing them, and the right to take action on their own behalf. People also have the right to define themselves and not have negative labels imposed upon them.

4. Injustice and oppression are complex issues rooted in social policy, the environment and the economy. Social Action workers understand people experience problems as individuals but these difficulties can be translated into common concerns

5. We understand that people working collectively can be powerful. People who lack power and influence to challenge injustice and oppression as individuals can gain it through working with other people in similar position.

6. Social action workers are not leaders, but facilitators. Our job is to enable people to make decisions for themselves and take ownership of whatever outcome ensues. Everybody's contribution to this process is equally valid and it is vital that our job is not accorded privilege. (Quoted from Aubrey 2004, 14–17).

Their approach is guided by a methodology that engages practitioners and young people in a joint approach in collectively analysing issues and then taking planned action. The starting point for the learning process is that the social pedagogue helps the individual or the group to identify and analyse their lives in relation to the identification of their shared issues, problems and concerns in the wider context. The next step is to decide how to achieve change where the social pedagogue takes the role of a facilitator by providing vehicles to take planned action and evaluate the process step-by-step (Fyle 2004). This approach builds on the assumption that the young people are ready to go into the hard interactive work and are ready to be challenged to analyse previous behaviour and come into terms with norms concerning relevant and responsible behaviour. This approach also builds on the assumption that the social pedagogue and the young person trust each other so they can share common assumptions about the nature of relevant knowledge and the kinds of 'know-how' that are needed to coach the young person in her interaction with society.

Learning to learn

As the learning process is a parallel process where both the social pedagogue and the young people are learners and educators, it is important for the professional to develop competence by exploring the young persons' socio-cultural background and context. It is important at an initial stage to ascertain the nature of the groups' social and cultural capital and how can these be used in order to prevent social exclusion and promote social inclusion. Social pedagogical work takes its point of departure in people's motivation and every day

life situations. It is a reflective and communicative interactive learning process in which, as Paulo Freire expresses it, we learn to learn. Freire saw teaching as a transitive process which is initiated by a Socratic dialogue about how differences help the other to discover by herself that which she is carrying with her. It is a process where both the teacher and the pupil learn.

In a response to Paulo Freire, Augusto Boal describes Freire's method by giving an example from a rural teacher: "I taught a peasant how to write the word 'plough' and he taught me how to use it – it is only possible to teach something to someone who teaches us back" (Boal 1998, 128). This means that if you are working from a social pedagogical perspective it is important to respect "otherness and the other, difference and the different. My fellow creature resembles me, but he is not me; he is similar to me, I resemble him. By engaging in dialogue we learn, the two of us gain, teacher and pupil, since we are all pupils, and are all teachers. I exist because they exist." (a.a., 129). This means that we have to explore not only my personal reality and that of the people I am working with, but also to explore the limitations of experience in the sense that we can live in the same city but are still living in different worlds. We can be members of the same class, but still have different experiences since we have been exposed to different kinds of social exclusion. The power dimensions in the exclusion of young people, those who are banished to a remote place from where they have difficulties in getting into the labour market, has to be explored and we have to look into the wider questions of social inequality and injustice. A point of departure might be to look into how the other's life is influenced by institutions, the reason why, and what credibility is given to the fact that, in order to diminish suspicions of professionals, a common assumption is that "people have to decide that they'll empower themselves (Oliver 1990, 13–14 in Whitmore 2001, 94).

Dialogic pedagogy demands a reflective approach where the starting points are concrete situations in which the young person must confront the unexpected, the unusual and complex situations where problem-posing, rather than problem-solving becomes the focus (Moreau 1989). Through reflection with others, the young people can come into contact with their personal and learning needs and with the ways in which they approach and interpret different situations that can be perceived as challenging. Mezirow (1981) pays attention to the fact that the reflective process often starts in situations where the obvious is confronted with the unknown and that might create a crisis. He categorises reflectivity as affective reflectivity, discriminating reflectivity and judgmental reflectivity. All of this, Mezirow claims, is combined with practice wisdom – and by this he means 'knowing' 'insight' and 'understanding' all of which are forms of contextual judgement in the construction of meaning out of new situations. Another question is how the professional and the young person translate prior thinking into terms which can help them to more easily engage with new situations. This is what Fook, Ryan and Hawkins (2000, 190–191) call the transferability of knowledge. By this they mean the ability to modify, change and develop theory and knowledge so it can be made readily relevant in different contexts and where the emphasis is on relevance. (Fook, J., Ryan, M. & Hawkins, L. 2000, 190.)

The development of a metacognitive language

Since the learning process is built on communication and relationships, the learner has to learn to develop a metacognitive language that can be used to communicate about the learning process from their horizon and where the professional takes the role of the facilitator. However the lack of an adequate vocabulary about learning can mean that the young person might not feel inclined to participate either in her own or in the learning processes of others (Fritzén 2001). Since learning is a communicative process, the metacognitive process can be facilitated by the appropriate use of metaphors, good examples or simply letting the young person write his or her own school story and then analyzing it together. This process can be one of creating a bridge between experience, social skills and academic skills. It is a retrospective process in which the young person analyses the situations that have experienced as problematic and the reasons why they acted in the way that they did. It thus becomes possible to consider what they could have done differently and how they would have reacted today in order to identify and fence in acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, even if there was a reason for that latter form of behaviour.

When it comes to how to read literature, the social pedagogue must be conscious of how she can use and work with literature that is written in and for another cultural reality, and with examples taken from research from yet another cultural context and with different understandings of basic concepts, such as, for example, the notion of family. Is the family a single mother or a collective? And what does 'help' mean? Is it what you get from your network or family, or is it social acceptable to seek help from public services? What, we have to ask is, do the concepts mean when they are transported into different cultural contexts, and what is the tacit understanding that is embedded in the concept under examination?

One way of circumventing cultural shocks in the learning process can be that the group creates a textbook that has its point of departure in the interest of the young people. Using a language and concept that are familiar to the young people, but which is nevertheless transformed into a more academic kind of language, they can see the difference between everyday and academic discourses. They can thereby become conscious of the meaning of the words in different contexts and group settings, whilst at the same time act as cultural guides in for example the process of creating a fashion book where they describe how different clothing styles symbolise group belonging.

For the social pedagogue it is necessary, in order to facilitate this learning process, to have a healthy dose of curiosity. More knowledge is required; factual knowledge, intuitive knowledge, understanding and skills connected to how to do things with your hands, so that the group members can come into terms with the fact that what I know is important, as well as how I learn and what I have learned. But it is also important that they experience the group leader as a trustworthy person with whom both negative and positive learning experiences can be shared, even if she or he presents a challenge by demanding that you move on from your previous experiences.

The importance of including the young people in the planning and evaluation processes

During the process of working with the Friskie project it has become clear that it is important as a starting point to contextualize the workbook and to develop tools that fit the group you are working with. This provides a tool for problematizing what you did, and for reflecting upon and evaluating learning processes and outcomes. The questions that has been raised is how do we include the young people in the planning process so that we can set realistic goals in relation to the specific group being worked with, and to agree on rights and responsibilities so we can all become a group that can help the individual members to become independent. One important question concerns the role of the group leader. What academic and social skills are needed in order to facilitate metacognitive communication and allow participation in educating the group so that they understand why social skills are important and why it is important to become a good citizen, whilst at the same time understanding the individual's cultural needs and exposure. During the process of developing the Friskie workbook we have been working with ways of developing self-awareness, personal development and what Stig Arne Berglund and Gunbritt Sandström (2001) call 'being prepared for preparation'. They argue that the learning environment has to create a space, apart from the everyday world, where a reflective mood is promoted and where it is permissible to allow vulnerability to surface. The learner needs help to tune in his/ her own subjectivity, to trust feelings, to know and appreciate the emotional world of herself and others, even if the teaching model might be at odds with the dominant concerns of academia; i.e. theoretical-rational skills and knowledge.

This can be achieved via series of practical exercises by means of role-plays both for the young people and the social pedagogues, where they can take the role of the other in situations where they explore different ways of working with self esteem, and ways in which young people can, with help, be encouraged to move on.

Evaluation is a very important part of this reflective learning process. Questions that the young people need to address include, for example, how they felt about taking the role of the professional or a young person – i.e. facing the problem from the other's perspective. In shifting positions and in the construction of meaning, the process of reflection is dual in nature and one in which meaning is constantly constructed and reconstructed in new situations and which involves a shift in position and an ever-changing shift in identities (Razack in Napier & Fook 2000, 220).

Brainstorming is another important tool used by professionals. This is important for social pedagogues who have regular contact with people from different ethnic groups and who depend heavily on knowledge provided by informative insiders in order to learn how to become culturally observant when encountering people who have different ethnic backgrounds. Questions that can arise from such brainstorming can include, what expectations do I have as a professional when I am talking about approaching adulthood? What is needed for development and what tools does a citizen need? How can we live together

when we belong to different cultures and as individuals as part of one nation? What factual knowledge is needed about, for example, how to find accommodation, money management, how to manage a parent's responsibility etc. What, for example, are your legal rights and responsibilities as a citizen? In short, these are all processes where you explore the micro processes in a macro world (Bronfenbrenner 1993, 31).

Being in another socio-cultural context requires that you have to think about the meanings of words you are using in the social context and about the content of the narratives that were told. The influence of tradition and, for example, ways of encountering people, require a knowledge and awareness of culture and traditions. Respect is implicit in both verbal and non-verbal language. Respect involves identifying individuals with superior knowledge and having an awareness about what can be learnt from them. But, it should also be emphasised that the change of an organisational system might not bring any real change if efforts are not made to learn how to manage the system and how to treat people properly.

References

Aubrey, J. 2004. The roots and process of social action in Groupwork. *An interdisciplinary Journal for Working with Groups* 14 (2)/2004.

Boal, A. 1998. *Legislative Theatre. Using performance to make politics* Translated by Adrian Jackson. Routhledge: London and New York.

Bronfenbrenner, U. 1993. *The Ecology of Cognitive Development: Research Models and Fugitive Findings in Wozniak, Robert H. & Fischer, Kurt W. (ed.) Development in context. Acting and Thinking in Specific Environments.* Hillsdale, New Jersey. Hove and London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Fook, J., Ryan, M. & Hawkins, L. 2000. *Professional Expertise. Practice, theory and education for working in uncertainty.* London: Whiting & Birch Ltd.

Freire, P. 1972. *The pedagogy of the Oppressed* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Fritzén, L. 2001. "Det gemensamma projektet" – om utredningsarbete på kommunikativa grunder in Gerrvall, Per. Jenner, Håkan (red.) *Kommunikativ pedagogik och särskilda ungdomshem* Statens Institutionsstyrelse SIS FOU Forskningsrapport 2 /2001.

Fyle, Ian. 2004. Social action and education for citizenship in Scotland in *Groupwork An interdisciplinary Journal for Working with Groups* 14 (2)/2004.

Green, James W. 1982. *Ethnicity and Social services.* Green, J.W. in Green, J.W. (ed). *Cultural Awareness in the Human Services* Prentice-Hall, Inc, Englewood Cliffs, New jersey 07632 .

- Mezirow, J. 1981. A critical Theory of Adult Learning and Education in *Adult Education*. 32 (1)/1981.
- Moreau, M. 1989. *Empowering through a Structural Approach to Social Work*. Ottawa Carleton University: School of Social Work.
- Mullender, A. & Ward, D. 1991. *Self Directed Groupwork: Users take action for empowerment* London: Whiting and Birch.
- Napier, L. & Fook, J. (ed.) 2000. *Breakthroughs in practice. Theorising critical moments in social work*. London: Whiting& Birch LDT.
- Philippart, F. 2003. Using Socratic dialogue. I Banks and Nøhr (Eds.). *Teaching practical Ethics for the Social Professions*. Odder: FESET.
- Razack, N. 2000. Shifting positions in Napier, L. & Fook, J. (ed.). 2000. *Breakthroughs in practice. Theorising critical moments in social work*. London: Whiting& Birch LDT.
- Rogoff, B. 1993. *Children's Guided Participation and participatory Appropriation in Socio-cultural Activity*. I Wozniak & Ficher (Eds.) *Development in Context. Acting and Thinking in Spcific Environments*. Hillsdale, New Jersey, Hove and London: Lawrence Erlsbaum Associates Publisher.
- Sanderson, I. 2004. *Access to services in Percy-Smith, Janie (ed). Policy Responses to Social Exclusion towards inclusion? United Kingdom: Open University Press.*
- Säljö, R. 2002. *Lärande i praktiken. Ett sociokulturellt perspektiv*. Stockholm: Bokförlaget Prisma.
- Wacquant, L.J.D. 1998. Negative social capital: state breakdown and social destitution in America's urban core. *Netherlands Journal of Housing and Built Environment* 13(1), 25–40.
- Whitmore, E. 2001. 'People Listened to What We had to Say': Reflections on an Emancipatory Qualitative Evaluation. In Shaw, Ian and Gould, Nick *Qualitative research in Social Work Introduction to Qualitative methods* Sage Publications London. Thousand Oaks. New Delhi.

Unpublished

Berglund, S. A. & Sandström G. 2001. Personal Development – Theory or Reality Stencil
Umeå: Umeå Universitet.

Friskie Working Paper.

Fog, E. 2004. What does it demands to work from a socialpedagogical perspective in
Friskie EU 2003–2006 Extended school – more opportunities for learning. Data Collection
Report.

Timonen - Kallio E. 2004. Friskie EU – empowering young people on their pathway into
vocational training. In Friskie EU 2003–2006 Extended school – more opportunities for
learning. Data Collection Report 1 Working Papers, 15.

**FROM EDUCATION TO WORK – DATA
COLLECTION FROM ALL PARTNERS**

YOUNG PEOPLE AND WORKING LIFE IN FINLAND

Outi Kivinen
Anna-Liisa Lindström
Teija Suominen

Young people and labour legislation

According to the Ministry of Labour (9 February 2005), the Constitution of Finland stipulates that "the public authorities shall take responsibility for the protection of the labour force". Special provisions concerning young workers, i.e. the Young Workers' Act and the Decree on the Protection of Young Workers, are applied to workers under 18 years of age. The Young Workers' Act is also applied to work done by young persons at educational institutions, even when the work does not take place under an employment relationship. General acts under labour law like the Employment Contracts Act or the Working Time Act, and the acts on work safety are also applied to the employment relationships of young people. Persons who have reached the age of 15 and have completed their compulsory education can be employed for regular work. Young people usually finish their compulsory education and leave comprehensive school at the age of 16.

What kind of work can young persons do?

Young persons may only do work which does not harm their physical or mental development, does not cause them excessive physical exertion, and does not require them to take more responsibility for their own safety or that of others than what is reasonable considering their age, experience and skills. Young persons must not work alone in cases where there is an obvious risk of accident or violence. The maximum working time for young workers who have reached 15 years of age may be of the same length as the regular working time for adults doing similar work.

According to the Employment Contracts Act, the employer has in an employment relationship to observe at least the pay terms which have been prescribed in a universally binding collective agreement on the work concerned or similar work in the branch in question. Thus, the minimum wage is determined by the terms of the universally binding collective agreement. The employer has to ensure that a young worker who has no skills, experience or knowledge of the potential hazards of the work receives instruction and guidance. For a young worker, a health examination should be arranged within one month from the beginning of the employment relationship at the expense of the employer.

Youth unemployment, employment and attitudes concerning employment in Finland

Since the economic recession of the early 1990s, Finland has suffered from a relatively high rate of unemployment. Youth unemployment also rose with the recession and more and more young people now choose to educate themselves rather than enter the labour market. Upper secondary education has effectively become part of compulsory education in Finland. At present, over 90 % of each age cohort continue their education after completing comprehensive school: over half of them in upper secondary general schools and a third in upper secondary vocational institutions. The latter do not enter the labour market before the age of 17 to 20. The fact that 6 to 8 per cent of comprehensive school leavers do not immediately go on to some other form of education has become a matter for public concern. (Koulutus 2002:8. Oppilaitostilastot 2002. Helsinki: Tilastokeskus.)

Since 2000, the employment situation in Finland has improved somewhat. In December 2004, according to the Labour Force Survey of Statistics Finland, 195,000 Finns were unemployed and the rate of unemployment was thus 7,7 %. The male unemployment rate was 7,9% and the female unemployment rate 7,5 %. For the age group 15 to 24, the unemployment rate remained high at 16,7 %. The seasonally adjusted youth unemployment rate stood at 20,5 %. (http://www.stat.fi/tup/tiedotteet/v2005/tiedote_003_2005-01-25.html.)

The stability of employment for newly qualified employees

Young people are more likely to be employed under short-term and fixed-term contracts than other members of the labour force. In 2003, more than half (57 %) of all working 15 to 19-year-olds were in fixed-term employment, while the corresponding figure was 42 % for 20 to 24-year-olds ja 27 % for 25 to 29-year-olds. Of the entire working-age population, only 16 % were in fixed-term employment. Fixed-term employment is particularly common among young women. In 1997, almost half of 15 to 29-year-old women were in fixed-term employment, whereas this was true of only a third of the men in the same age group. It should be noted that many young people specifically choose to work on a temporary basis. Moreover, many tasks typically performed by young employees are by nature casual or temporary.

Fixed-term employment poses problems when it is time for young people to settle down and make life choices about their personal relationships and living arrangements. In addition, economic fluctuations may adversely affect those in fixed-term employment. At the beginning of an economic downturn companies first cut back on recruitment and often decide not to renew fixed-term contracts. If it is considered necessary to lay off permanent employees, the youngest employees with the least amount of company-specific experience will be the first ones to go. On the other hand, with an economic recovery, the demand for young workers increases proportionally more than the overall demand for labour. (Hämäläinen 2002.)

The position of poorly educated young people has worsened

With the overall rise in the educational level of the population, the increased uncertainty in the labour market, and the increasingly strong correlation between one's qualifications and employment prospects, education has become a necessary but no longer a sufficient condition for integrating into the labour market. Those young people who lack vocational upper secondary qualifications find themselves in the weakest labour market position. Since the 1990s, developments in education policy and changes on the labour market have compelled young people to start competing with each other in an effort to receive the best possible qualifications, and to continually strive to improve their performance. Young people are expected to be flexible and adjust themselves to prevailing labour market conditions. Studies show that young people have, in fact, manifested a willingness to adapt themselves to the requirements of a flexible labour market. (Järvinen 2003) However, the requirements of flexibility and adaptability place a high demand on their social skills. They have to know how to seek employment, how to advertise themselves, how to prepare for temporary periods of unemployment and how to manage their personal finances. Again and again, young people are required to adjust to new jobs and new workplaces, to get along with new people, and to learn to perform new tasks. This is especially hard for those with poor interpersonal and vocational skills.

Young Finns' perceptions of the working world according to the 2004 Youth Barometer

The Advisory Council for Youth Affairs (NUORA) has for several years now monitored young people's perceptions of and attitudes to various social phenomena and their personal lives. Issues related to work, education and unemployment form the basis for the survey, and they are supplemented each year by topical themes such as tolerance or the use of intoxicants. The 2004 Youth Barometer was conducted in December 2003 by interviewing 1,820 young people aged 15 to 29 over the telephone. Young Finns' attitudes towards the working world were fairly conventional. They wished to commit themselves to a permanent employment relationship and were unwilling to change jobs often. This is in marked contrast with the wide-spread notion that young people have a short attention span and that they wish to commit themselves neither to their employers nor to long-term personal relationships. (NUORA 2004, 6.) As many as 84 % of the respondents felt that work is an important part of a person's life, while a mere 5 % disagreed. Young people were willing to commit to their work and believed that, their success depended to a considerable extent on their own attitudes. When asked about their personal priorities, the respondents ranked finding employment and having a secure income as very important. Worrying about the stability of their employment was seen as the most important cause for feelings of insecurity and uncertainty (NUORA 2004, 16.)

Income security during unemployment

Finnish unemployment benefits provide a basic income during periods of unemployment. A valid registration as a job seeker at the employment office is required to be eligible for unemployment benefits. Unemployed job seekers are obliged to actively seek employment and to accept any work or training offered to them. Forms of unemployment benefits include unemployment allowance, labour market support, training subsidy and training allowance, pay guarantee and unemployment pension. In 2005, the basic unemployment allowance is €23,24 per day, and it is paid for weekdays only.

Regarding labour market support, the following limitations apply to **persons under the age of 25 with no vocational qualifications**:

1. Persons under the age of 17 are not eligible for labour market support.
2. 17-year-olds are only eligible for labour market support while participating in employment training, work practice, work try-outs, or rehabilitation arranged by the labour administration.
3. 18 to 24-year-olds are eligible for labour market support during unemployment on the condition that they have not without valid grounds refused work, resigned or been dismissed from work and that they have not declined to participate in any employment measures offered to them. In order to remain eligible for labour market support, persons under the age of 25 with no vocational qualifications are required to apply for suitable vocational training.

From vocational training to working life

The school-based training pathway has predominated in the Finnish vocational system and the volume of apprenticeship has been very low among the young people. Although various types of practical training have been included in vocational education programmes, the system as a whole has been basically institution-centred. This has been possible because vocational schools and institutions are well equipped with up-to-date workshops and other types of learning environments. In the late 1990s, closer co-operation between the educational system and the working world became a central target for education and employment policy. The reasons for seeking a new relationship are familiar: rapid technological change, problems in matching employees' skills with their tasks, high unemployment among young people and the increasing importance of lifelong learning. Vocational education must enhance the students' employability and provide them with self-employment skills.

The Ministry of Education decided that, from 1999 onwards, all three-year programmes in vocational education and training would include six months of practical training in a genuine working environment. This is called on-the-job learning, in contrast to conventional practical training. On-the-job learning is guided, focused and assessed in accordance with

the educational objectives determined in the curriculum. The training is planned and implemented co-operatively by the educational institutions and employers. This means that in the near future the Finnish system of vocational education and training will be moving towards a combination of instruction in vocational institutions and instruction at workplaces; hence, the educational system will become less school-centred. Vocational schools and educational institutions will, however, continue to play a major role in preparing and guiding young people to employment and the working world.

Every year, approximately 40,000 young people enter vocational education and training, two thirds in three-year programmes and the rest in two-year programmes. The implementation of on-the-job learning in the workplace will create a need for more than 40,000 trainee places every year. On-the-job training must offer **benefits** and motivation for all parties involved. For the student, on-the-job learning provides an opportunity to work with real problems at a real workplace and to assess their own competence. All this makes it easier to get a job after school. For the school, organising on-the-job learning provides an opportunity to improve the training programmes to meet the needs of the working world and to explore and refine educational objectives, instruction and assessment. In companies, students in on-the-job training may offer examples of new working methods and approaches and involve the company's personnel in a shared learning process. From the perspective of the society, on-the-job learning consolidates the personal and social qualities that facilitate a young person's entry into working life and their capacity to function as an active member of society. As the transition from school to working life becomes easier, youth unemployment and marginalisation will decrease and productivity will improve.

The Vocational Education Act of 1998 contains several provisions concerning contacts between employers and education and the arrangement of on-the-job learning. **Training arranged** in the workplace is based on a written contract between the education provider (the school) and the workplace. However, the student is normally not hired by the employer. The contract between the school and the employer must specify the tasks of the parties, arrange supervision and assessment of students, provide for any remuneration to the employer and handle any other issues related to training. The occupational safety of the students is a matter of special concern. The training periods are assessed by the teacher responsible for the instruction and the on-the-job instructor or trainer appointed by the employer. Generally speaking, the tasks of student assessment include supporting and motivating learning, developing the students' self-assessment skills and producing information on the level of skills attained. **The assessment** of on-the-job learning should preferably be based on a variety of methods, such as work demonstrations, assignments accounts, reports, and possibly tests, project results, portfolios and peer assessments.

Students receive a study grant and student social benefits such as free meals and compensation for any travel expenses incurred. They usually receive no wages during the on-the-job learning period, except when an employment contract has been made. Educational institutions may pay the employer for on-the-job training, although the educational authorities maintain that such compensation, as well as any compensation for the work done by the

student, should be an exception; in the long run, all parties concerned will benefit from the system.

During the training, the employer is responsible for the students' occupational safety in accordance with the law and other regulations covering employees, even if the student does not have an employment contract with the employer. The workplace appoints an on-the-job instructor, who will participate in instructor training. The instructor's duties and use of time shall be agreed on at the workplace, thus securing practical opportunities to supervise the student.

(National Board of Education, On-the-job learning incorporated into vocational education and training in Finland www-sources, 23.2.2005.)

Vocational training and on-the-job learning

The objective of vocational training is to provide employers with qualified workers and to ensure that young people have a chance to apply for further education and to grow as individuals. It is the responsibility of educational establishments to offer young people the latest knowledge and technical skills with due regard for their needs and abilities. This means catering for the individual and varying needs of each student on the one hand while taking into account the requirements of society and the working world on the other. It should also be borne in mind that various factors causing uncertainty in young people's lives can affect their training. At present, vocational training includes interaction and co-operation on a number of issues between the staff, the student, the student's family and their whole social network. This involves keeping an open mind and discovering and exploring new ways of working together with the students. Since early childhood, young people have grown accustomed to choosing and seeking alternatives that suit them. In vocational training, it is customary for students to include individual elements in their study programme and to complete their training in a manner that best suits their personal objectives and their life as a whole. Traditional occupations and tasks have changed and new ones are constantly emerging.

Transitional period co-operation between comprehensive schools and upper secondary schools

Moving on from compulsory education to an upper secondary school and finding a suitable training programme is an important stage in a young person's life, but it is also of interest to the educational establishments involved. Since 1999, Turku Vocational Institute has been co-operating with seven comprehensive schools to guide school-leavers through the transitional period, and in 2005, all upper level comprehensive schools in the city of Turku will join in. The focus is on pupils who are in need of special support or have health concerns or social problems. The student counsellors at comprehensive schools are experts on the subject of their pupils; together with the career planners and student counsellors at

Turku Vocational Institute they prepare the pupils in need of support for the transition. For such pupils, finding a suitable field and training programme usually takes quite some time and may require individually tailored measures such as

1. On-the-job learning periods at vocational schools or workplaces that have the necessary resources for instructing young workers.
2. Training try-outs at vocational schools.
3. Co-operation between comprehensive schools, families, vocational schools and other partners.

During their training at Turku Vocational Institute, students have access to student welfare services but may also receive additional support if necessary.

Continuous admission

Since 2000, the Tommilankatu unit of Turku Vocational Institute has applied the policy of continuous admission to its special needs education. The continuous admission procedure allows young people to start their training flexibly, depending on their own situation and on whether there are vacant places in the training programmes. Those applying in the middle of the term are admitted for a probationary period. During the probationary period, students have the opportunity to show that they are willing and able to meet the standards of the educational institution in question. After the probationary period (2 to 4 months), the principal decides whether the applicant is accepted as a student. Courses completed during the probationary period are entered into the student's record. It is often the case with young people who attend upper secondary vocational education and single-term house-keeping courses that they have not been admitted to the education of their preference and many of them are still unsure about their vocational interests. This may result in switching to another line of study, or dropping out due to lack of motivation or pregnancy (in the school year 2003–2004, 18,3 % of the students discontinued their training).

A flexible way to achieve vocational qualifications

To be able to help students complete their vocational qualifications in a flexible manner, allow them to make individual choices and guide them into working life, schools and teachers have had to adopt new policies and procedures. About 9% of the students at Turku Vocational Institute need special support and have an individual study plan (ISP). The ISP includes an individual educational plan (IEP), an important document mapping out the student's short-term goals. The ISP is a working plan for the teachers and the student and it lays out the student's learning objectives. After an assessment discussion with the teachers, the student is aware of what he or she already knows and which skills still require practice. Documenting each student's progress is an integral part of completing vocational qualifications in a flexible manner. Students are awarded credits on the basis of the assignments, goals and assessments recorded in the ISP, which makes it possible for

them to choose the most suitable learning environment (e.g. on-the-job learning) for each stage of their training and to make use of a variety of different learning techniques.

On-the-job learning and vocational skills demonstrations

On-the-job learning and vocational skills demonstrations offer young people an opportunity to show their skills in practice and to advertise themselves to employers. On-the-job learning is an essential component of upper secondary vocational education and vocational skills demonstrations will be included in all training programmes from 2006 onwards, as prescribed by law. The purpose of a demonstration is to show that a student has acquired the core skills of a vocational study module. Unlike adults, young people may not complete vocational qualifications through demonstrations alone. Vocational skills demonstrations are part of student evaluation and are comparable with e.g. practical examinations. The evaluation of on-the-job learning comprises examining the results of the on-the-job learning period and the entire learning process.

On-the-job learning at Tommilankatu vocational education unit

At Tommilankatu vocational education unit, the on-the-job learning of students wishing to complete vocational qualifications is carried out individually, as part of preparing the students for working life. Students are encouraged to find a workplace where they can improve their skills in accordance with the curriculum and pursue their individual interests. The first on-the-job learning period takes place in the spring term of the first year of training. The students are urged to look for a workplace independently but teachers and instructors are there to help them if necessary. If students have reservations about working outside of school, they can work at Tommilankatu or some other unit of Turku Vocational Institute. On-the-job learning periods are mostly organized at the final stage of training so as to promote the students' chances of finding employment after they have completed their vocational qualifications. On-the-job learning is geared to meet the student's strengths and learning potential, with the aim providing them with the best possible qualifications.

Skills-based qualifications

Turku Vocational Institute is one of the participants in a project co-ordinated by the Finnish National Board of Education, the purpose of which is to develop work-centred upper secondary vocational education. The project targets young people who, on account of learning difficulties, maladjustment or other reasons, are unable to complete their training. Skills-based qualifications involve learning the know-how and skills needed in a particular field and polishing them through practice, with the final aim of finding employment at the end of the training. The training is planned and carried out in co-operation between the school, the students and the workplaces. During the training, the students and their instructors at the workplaces try to identify the skills most relevant to each individual, so that,

later on, they might find work in the open labour market or perform duties specifically designed for them. The students are mainly trained at workplaces. They may continue their training and achieve upper secondary vocational qualifications at some later stage if they wish to do so.

Coaching for working life as part of training

Many young people have a relatively vague conception of the working world and its demands and they often lack the necessary job-seeking skills. The career and recruitment services of Turku Vocational Institute do their best to ensure that the students are well-equipped to move on to the working world after they have completed their training. Indeed, the Vocational Institute regards promoting the students' chances of finding employment as one of its primary responsibilities. The career and recruitment services' tasks also include providing local employers with information on vocational education and bringing job-seeking students and employers looking for workforce into contact with each other. In practice, this means that students are offered coaching for working life while they are still in training. The career and recruitment services are also responsible for honing the teachers' marketing skills and actively seeking contacts with local businesses and employers. In addition, students have the electronic employment and information service URALINJA.NET at their disposal. In the main, coaching for working life is offered to students at the final stages of their training. However, in certain fields of education and for certain groups of the students, finding employment and preparing oneself for the working world is unusually difficult, and in these cases, coaching may be offered earlier on.

At the Tommilankatu unit, coaching for working life started in the autumn 2004 and students are continuously asked to give feedback. At Tommilankatu, coaching begins in the first year of training, as the students are preparing for their first on-the-job learning periods. Students also receive coaching and guidance in seeking summer jobs. As students prepare themselves for on-the-job learning, they plan their future employment and their goals with a teacher's assistance. Gradually, the teacher becomes less involved. During the second year of training, the students start planning their career and employment in more detail. On-the-job learning periods are more and more focused on planning the students' employment after they have completed their training. The students now think carefully about what skills they possess, how they would like to present their skills, how they should proceed to be hired for the kind of work that they are interested in etc.

The purpose of courses that offer coaching for working life is to enhance the students' awareness of their own skills and to teach them to plan their career and their entry into the working world. Positive feedback and the students' support for one another are important elements of coaching courses. Teaching methods include discussions and group work as well as practising job interviews, visiting workplaces and gathering information. The courses deal with topics such as finding employment, getting to know the local labour market and identifying summer job opportunities, composing job applications, thinking about how to meet an employer's expectations, introducing oneself at a job interview, and ques-

tions related to starting a new employment relationship. It is also important to discuss work-related challenges and potential problems in finding employment and to think of different ways to deal with them. Coaching is intended to boost the students' self-confidence and to help them form a realistic impression of their own capabilities, strengths, and areas in need of improvement.

Supporting and facilitating young people's entry into the labour market through legislation and public services

The Act on Rehabilitative Employment (189/2001) stipulates that the local social welfare administration and the employment office must draw up an activation plan together with persons who have been unemployed for more than 500 days and have received labour market support or living allowance. The unemployed person's ability to work and function can be improved through rehabilitative employment. For persons under the age of 25, an activation plan is prepared when they have received labour market support for 180 days during the past 12 calendar months and remain eligible for labour market support. If a person under the age of 25 has without valid grounds refused rehabilitative employment offered to him, he may lose his right to labour market support for a fixed period of time or his living allowance may be reduced. For persons over the age of 25, participating in rehabilitative employment is voluntary. The purpose of an activation plan is to help young people to find their way to the working world. The plan may include employment services by the employment office, various social welfare and health services, education, rehabilitation, and rehabilitative employment. Rehabilitative employment may, for instance, consist of practical training periods at workplaces, work try-outs, or different types of courses and training. The employment office and the local social welfare administration draw up the activation plan together with the client. Among other things, the activation plan establishes how the employment office and the social welfare administration are to support the client in implementing the plan. (http://www.mol.fi/tyonhajakijapalvelut/kuntouttava_tyotoiminta.html)

In Turku, rehabilitative employment for the long-term unemployed is offered by the employment service unit TYPY. The unit houses career planners and the KOHO programme. Two social workers, and a career advisor also work at the unit. The KOHO programme specifically targets unemployed people under the age of 25. It offers assistance and guidance in finding ways out of unemployment, taking into account the clients' individual interests and their situation as a whole.

TYPY is an example of multiprofessional co-operation between several organizations. Such co-operation has also spawned an employment service centre, a joint effort between the city of Turku, the local employment office and the local office the Social Insurance Institution (KELA), which is located in the same premises as TYPY. The centre offers intensified employment services for the long-term unemployed in Turku.

Youth workshops – a pathway to the working world

Workshops are one of the activities offered to people who are under 25 years of age and have been unemployed for a period of three months. In 2003, there were 230 workshops throughout the country that trained a total of 7,000 young people. There have been youth workshop activities in Finland for thirty years. During this time, the cooperation networks, target groups and the content of activities have changed. The Structural Funds available for the activities since Finland's accession to the EU and the economic recession in the early 1990s gave impetus for the development of the workshops to their present form. The workshops are now cross-sectoral activities, which at their best also cover the areas which fall between the administrative sectors. They make use of the special expertise of each sector - youth, education, social affairs and labour - combining them in a new way for the best of the client. The focus of the youth workshops has shifted from primarily providing work experience to preparing young people for education, work and life by strengthening their social and life management skills and supporting the development of skills needed in education and work. This change is reflected in the change of the job title of workshop instructors to workshop coaches.

The key elements of current workshop practices are Individual and Working Training. The contents in a nutshell are:

- Individual training is for improving the beneficiary's life-management, general well-being and capacity for independent living
- Work training is for improving a person's working capacity - skills, educational capacity etc.

The main point is to balance these aspects of life-management in a way that best serves the needs of each individual. Combining these in an appropriate way with a chance to practise work in a real environment makes all the difference compared with previous, less-coherent methods. (<http://www.valtakunnallinenyopajyhdistys.fi>, retrieved 23.2.2005)

References

Hämäläinen, U. 2002 Koulutuksesta työelämään – Nuorten työllistymiseen vaikuttavat tekijät. Palkansaajien tutkimuslaitos. Tutkimuksia 83. Helsinki.

Järvinen, T. 2003. Urheilijoita, taiteilijoita ja IB-nuoria. Lukioiden erikoistuminen ja koulukasvatuksen murros. Helsinki: Nuorisotutkimusverkosto.

Koulutus 2002:8. Oppilaitostilastot 2002. Helsinki: Tilastokeskus.

NUORA. 2004.

<http://valtakunnallinen-tyopajayhdistys.fi>. (23.2.2005).

http://www.mol.fi/tyonhakijapalvelut/kuntouuttava_tyotoiminta.html. (23.2.2005).

http://www.stat.fi/tup/tiedotteet/v2005/tiedote_003_2005-01-25.html.(23.2.2005).

National Board of Education, On-the-job learning incorporated into vocational education and training in Finland [www-sources](#) (23.2.2005).

Ministry of Labour Brochure (9.2. 2005).

HOW THE YOUNG PERSON IS PREPARED TOWARDS WORKING LIFE AND EMPLOYMENT IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN SWEDEN

Anette Bolin

As of 2000, there are 17 national programs, all of which are 3-year programs. The programs provide a broad general education and eligibility to study at the university or post-secondary level. Thirteen of the programs contain at least 15 weeks at a workplace outside the school, so called 'workplace training'. In four of these – the Arts, Natural Science, Social Science and Technology – workplace training is not compulsory, though even these programs offer the possibility of conducting parts of the program at the workplace. 248,000 people were in Upper secondary school 2002/2003 and 53 % of them studied on the vocational programs and 47 % on the theoretical programs. On the vocational courses in social care nearly 30 % doesn't complete the course, in the industry program about 30 % and on the building and construction nearly 35,5 % who doesn't complete the course. (Wennemo, K. & I.)

You can also specially designed programs by combining specific subjects from different programs; a municipality can put together specially designed upper secondary programs to meet local and regional needs. For example in Trollhättan Volvo and Saab have together with the municipality designed two programs with the intention that the pupils are offered work place training and after the three years of education employment. A specially designed program also includes the eight core subjects and project work, and corresponds to a national program in terms of the level of difficulty and number of hours. Special programs can also be designed to meet an individual student's specific learning needs.

You also have the third biggest program in Sweden the Individual programs. An individual program can vary in length and content and is determined by the needs of the individual student. It is open for students who has all the grades needed to enter the national program as well as for students who has not. For example a student of sixteen might want to work but cannot find a job and choose to *take a break* from class room teaching for a term. The amount of workplace training varies from everyday to a few hours a week. The aim is for the student to later transfer into a national- or specially designed program. Otherwise, the student receives a final grade (learning certificate) from the individual program, when he/she has completed the set program syllabus. The organisation of this program varies from municipality and some have there own workshops for example woodcraft or textile. The methods used for teaching differs from the more traditional programs, for example is work based learning in focus, life competence is a subject which is in focus. The students are being prepared to enter the workforce by having the opportunity to be at workplace, to reflect on the experience together with supervisor and the teacher.

In Trollhättan there is an example of good practice: the Cross cart project. The learning can be divided into social learning and cognitive learning although it is not possible to separate them. The PRIV is an individual program especially for students who are not eligible for national programs due to their not meeting the requirements for passing grades in Swedish, English and Mathematics.

General overview of employment and unemployment of the young people (under 25 years old)

In Sweden the government believes that a good working life with well-functioning employment conditions is a right for all people. There is *Work life policy* which covers issues concerning employment terms and conditions such as the work environment, working hours and employment legislation in general. Specific issues can include the organisation of work, continuing professional development, wage formation, mediation in labour disputes and government wage guarantees in the event of bankruptcies. The effect of work life policy shall be to ensure that people enjoy a good working life with well-functioning employment conditions and a good and stimulating working environment.

The long-term goal of the Swedish Government's labour market policy is to achieve full employment. A well-functioning labour market and an efficient labour market policy are important prerequisites for both growth and welfare. To achieve this, it is important to make it easier for potential employees and employers to find one another in an efficient manner. The Government is taking steps to equip people seeking work to meet the needs of the labour market and to facilitate labour force mobility so as to avoid shortages of labour occurring, either locally or regionally.

The task of labour market policy

Labour market policy has three principal tasks:

- to channel work to the unemployed and labour to employers
- to take measures against shortage occupations and bottlenecks
- to take initiatives to help those who have difficulty obtaining work.

Further, labour market policy must aim to help break down gender divisions in the labour market.

Employment goals

The long-term goal of the Swedish Government's labour market policy is to achieve full employment. An additional goal was set in 1998: the proportion of the population between the ages of 20 and 64 in regular employment should grow from 74 per cent in 1997 to 80 per cent in 2004. The workforce is based on the people who are 20 to 64 years old. Some people who are in that age are not able to work due to sickness, pension or other reasons.

The people who are able and who want to work is usually what's meant with the workforce. (<http://www.sweden.gov.se/sb/d/2192/a/19783>.)⁴

Work and skills principle

The Swedish Government gives active measures designed to enable the unemployed to leave unemployment and begin working priority over passive cash handouts. This "work-first principle" is the foundation on which labour market policy builds. In recent years, the work-first principle has evolved into a work and skills principle.

The work-first principle means that employment always takes priority over labour market programmes or the passive payment of cash support. If no work is available, the unemployed may be offered appropriate education or training or a trainee post, which in turn may lead to a job.

Gender equality policy objectives

Women and men shall have the same opportunities, rights and responsibilities in all significant areas of life:

- equal division of power and influence between women and men.
- the same opportunities for women and men to achieve economic independence.
- equal terms and conditions for women and men with respect to owning their own business, work, employment conditions and career development opportunities.
- equal access for girls and boys, women and men to education and the development of personal ambitions, interests and talents.
- shared responsibility for work in the home and with children.

Age limits on working

If you are younger than 13 years old you are not allowed to work. But you can do easier task such as feeding animals, manual berry picking and similar things on a farm if it's owned by some one in your extended family. You can also sell things such as May day flowers but only if you yourself decide when and how much you should work. If you want to work as extra in films or as an actor the person who wants to employ you must apply for a specific work permission certificate.

After you are 13 years old you can work during school holiday which last at least a week, maximum 7 hours per day and all together 35 hours in a week. If you are attending school you can work maximum two hours a day and altogether 12 hours a week. You are not

⁴ *Ministry of Industry, Employment and Communication*

allowed to work between eight pm and 6 am and you need 14 hours off in one go in a day and 36 hours off in one go in a week. And you have the right of 30 minutes break if the working time is more than 4 ½ hours a day.

What kind of work can 13–15 years old do? You can do more simple no risk work such as working in a kiosk or in a shop. But you are not allowed to be on your own or responsible for the money. You are not allowed to work with dangerous chemicals or machines. The employer needs permission from your parents that you are allowed to work for them. You cannot work between 78 pm and 6 am. You are not allowed to work between eight pm and 6 am and you need 14 hours off in one go in a day and 36 hours off in one go in a week. And you have the right of 30 minutes break if the working time is more than 4 ½ hours a day.

In principal 16–18 years old can take any work she or he would like except the ones who are explicitly dangerous. It is not so many laws or rules specific for this age. You should not work alone if there is risk of being robbed or harmed in any way. You can work 8 hours a day. You are not allowed to work between 10 pm and 6 am. And you need 12 hours off in one go in a day and 36 hours off in one go in a week. And you have the right of 30 minutes break if the working time is more than 4 ½ hours a day.

Employment and unemployment

Open unemployment came to 4,9 per cent in 2003 and at the end of 2004, the proportion of unemployed in the work force was 5,6 percent. The regular employment rate for 2004 is estimated to 77 per cent. The target set by the Government is that 80 per cent of the population aged 20–64 should be in regular employment.

Table 1. Unemployment for young people 18 years old to 24 years old (including young people in programs).

Unemployed	44 946	18 % of total workforce
Young women	19 165	43 % of young people
Young men	25 781	57 % of young people

Table 2. Within above figures the division of different classification of unemployment statistics from 2003.

Long term unemployed (more than 100 days)	About 3 684
Long term registered unemployed	About 1152
Activity grantee	About 538
Konjunkturpr. (different programs)	About 24 929

Table 3. For example Trollhättan the figures would look like this:

	31 January 2005	31 December 2004	31 January 2004
Unemployed in the country	250 541 (4,4%)	246 351 (4,3%)	263 069 (4,6%)
-youth (18–24) in the country	44 872 (6,1 %)	42 952 (5,9 %)	48 321 (6,7 %)
Open unemployment in Trollhättan	1 903 (5,7 %)	1 876 (5,6 %)	2 006 (6,0 %)
In programs	1 123 (3,4 %)	1 147 (3,4 %)	728 (2,2 %)
In programs via Trollhättans council	647	649	519
-young people in Trollhättan programs	162	153	84
-work disabilities	117	117	127
-other	85 (24 of them young)	79 (21 of them young)	64

Table 4. If you dived the numbers of unemployed young people 2005 January 18–23 years old to looking at countries of birth it looks like this:

Number of unemployed, 18 – 24 years old				Total young people in Sweden December 2004
January 2005				
Born in country	Men	Women	Total	
Sweden	22 064	16 596	38 660	552 127
Nordic (exkl Sweden)	164	139	303	5 261
Europé (exkl Nordic)	1 284	935	2 219	26 483
Outside Europe	2 230	1460	3 690	49 229
Total	25 742	19 130	44 872	633 100
Nordic born %	86 %	87 %	87 %	88 %
Outside Nordic born %	14 %	13 %	13 %	About 12 %

Table 5. In total there were 18–23-years old in Sweden in December 2004.

Sweden	552 127
Nordic countries	5 261
Rest of Europe	26 483
Rest of the world	49 229
Total	633 100

(Internet services of the Swedish National Labour Market Administration AMV)

86 % of the unemployed male young people are born in the Nordic countries included Sweden. 14 % are born outside the Nordic countries. 87 % of the female young unemployed are born in the Nordic countries and 13 % outside Nordic countries. 12 % of the young people in total are born outside the Nordic countries. 88 % of the total are born in the Nordic (inc Sweden) countries. The unemployment is slightly higher for young people born outside the Nordic countries but only with 2 %. These figures does not take into account if you are the child of parents who immigrated to Sweden although research shows that young people with non Swedish background has a higher degree of unemployment (ref)

Young people who has parents of which has immigrated to Sweden are often named a young person with immigrant background although the question is: when someone stops being a person with immigrant background? It is not easy to answer. Even children and young people who are born and raised in Sweden are often referred to as having immigrant background (Knocke & Hertzberg 2000). According to Statistics Sweden is a central government authority for official statistics the demographic development mean an increase of people who has immigrant background to amount to about 2 million people. Every fifth citizen will have immigrated or be born by someone who has.

In 2002, an average of 80,9 per cent of those born in Sweden in the age group 20 to 64 were employed. The corresponding number for those born abroad was 62,7 per cent. If labour force participation rates in the future are assumed to remain unchanged with respect to age and country of birth, the average rate of employment for those born abroad will fall to 58,3 per cent in 2020. The reduction depends on any shifts in the composition of this group during these years. The percentage of persons born outside an enlarged EU, the group currently with the weakest link to the labour market, is expected to grow rapidly. However, the percentage of those born in the Nordic countries and the current EU countries will decline markedly. In the estimates made for this Survey, it is assumed that the labour market position of those born abroad will gradually approach that of those born in Sweden. In the baseline scenario, the average employment rate of those born abroad is estimated to increase to 64,2 per cent in 2020. The increase is especially pronounced in the group that currently shows the most difference in a comparison with the native-born, that is, among foreign-born women and persons born outside an enlarged EU. (The Long Term Survey of the Swedish Economy 2003/04SOU 2004:19; Arnell Gustafsson 2003.)

A special feature in the employment/ unemployment of the young in Sweden is what we call the “Project employment”. In the 1990s temporary youth projects became a common approach to handle youth unemployment. You can notice the difference in how to report youth unemployment, if you count all young people in programs it is 18 % and if you take them away it is 6,1. Another important development is that during the 1990 has school and education become more and more important for the possibility to get a job. During the beginning of 21 century girls are in majority entering university. Transition from education to work has changed its character. Established at the labour market is delayed and many young people are spending a relative long time at what we can call the “youth labour market” including youth projects. For example year 1976 50 % of the young people between 16–19 years old men worked fulltime and 40 % of young women. 2002 11 % of young men worked fulltime and 8 % of the women. Ulla Arnell, Swedish researcher, concludes that young people during a longer period is placed in a work market which is characterised by relatively high numbers of part time jobs, relatively unqualified jobs and relatively high unemployment. An increase of number of young people who are, what, she calls inactive, not seeking employment or studying or working. The development towards a *upper secondary school for all* has contributed to the longer periods in education.

Table 6. A propotion of young people in education by age groups.

Age	In school 1972	In school 2002
16	68 %	96 %
17	60 %	93 %
18	39 %	91 %

In the beginning of 20th century the school system changed so that all upper secondary school became tree years. The biggest change was for the vocational courses. It also meant that the number of young people who entered the work market decreased during a period. During 1992–93 it was less young people who worked full time than during 1990–1991. Also a higher number of young people started university year 2000 34 % of young men started university and 43 % of the young women of 25 years olds. The number of new university student’s increase with 40 % from beginning of 1990 to 2000. (Statistics Sweden, National Labour Market Board and Ministry of Finance.)

Facts on unemployment insurance

Unemployment insurance compensates for part of the wages lost through unemployment. It consists of two parts, basic insurance and voluntary income-related insurance. Basic insurance is a basic amount of up to 320 SEK per day. It is paid to individuals who meet the necessary work or study criteria, and who are not registered with an unemployment insurance fund or have not been registered with one for a sufficient length of time.

You must be at least 20 years of age to claim basic insurance. Voluntary income-related insurance is paid to individuals who have been registered with an unemployment insurance

fund for at least a year and meet the necessary work criteria. A daily amount is paid equalling up to 80 % of your previous income. For the first 100 days the amount is up to 730 SEK per day. The rest of the benefit period the amount is a maximum of 680 SEK/day.

Unemployment benefit is taxable and provides a basis for pension. The amount of unemployment benefit you receive depends on your normal working hours, your normal wages/ daily earnings (voluntary income-related insurance), how many hours per week you are able and willing to work and how many hours per week you are unemployed.

If you have had extra jobs or gainful activities that you were able to do for at least six months alongside a full-time job, this may be regarded as a secondary employment.

If you are an unemployed business owner, special rules apply regarding your unemployment benefit and the calculation of the daily amount you are paid.

Sickness Beneficiaries and conditions for entitlement all residents in Sweden are eligible for national health insurance system, subject to no conditions. You and family members accompanying you will receive general medical and hospital care at a cost of a patient's fee, provided that you work in Sweden, are seeking work here or normally reside here. Various medical, hospitals, dental and other services come under the national sickness insurance system. They are financed through taxes and government funding. Patients are charged a fee for consultations. Fees for private doctors and physiotherapists are coordinated with those of national health practitioners. Patients receive a rebate for pharmaceutical products (officially registered medication). People whose medical or pharmaceutical costs exceed a certain limit over the year are entitled to free treatment and medication for the remainder of the relevant twelve-month period. Patients are free to choose a doctor under the national health system or a doctor participating in the national sickness insurance system.

Cash benefits

All permanent residents in Sweden are covered by sickness insurance, the housing-based benefits. All people resident in Sweden are automatically registered with a regional public sector insurance scheme from the month when they reach the age of 16. It is a general benefit system so that if you are not in employment you can receive support (försörjningsstöd) although parents are obliged under the Children and Parents Code to support their children until they are 18 years old or until they stopped education often when they are 19 years old.

Persons working in Sweden are insured for employment-based benefits. Cash sickness benefit/ sick pay are paid at a rate of 80 % of a person's normal pay from the second day of sick leave onwards (the first day of sick leave is not paid). (Sources: Statistics Sweden, National Labour Market Board and Ministry of Finance.)

Young people and possibilities of employment – supporting system for young people

There are one million young people between the ages of 15 and 25 living in Sweden today. They should enjoy the same rights and opportunities to participate in society as other groups and they should have good living conditions in all areas. To encourage development in this direction, the Swedish Parliament has adopted three main objectives for youth policy:

- **Young people shall be given the preconditions for leading an independent life.**
For example, the right to good education and the possibility of getting both a job and accommodation.
- **Young people shall have genuine possibilities for influence and participation.**
For example in their municipality and in their school and through access to public discussion.
- **Young people's commitment, creativity and critical thinking shall be seen and utilised as a resource.**
This should apply both within the activities of authorities and in municipal politics.

It is the first principle which covers the rights and duties when it comes to unemployment. The public employment service offers four specially designed work programs for young people:

- *Kommunalt ungdomsprogram* (Local youth program) If you are under 20 your municipal can offer a youth program. One condition is that the municipality has agreed with the local employment office to collaborate. The program will consist of practical and theoretical moments which should lead to work or studies. You might be offered a placement or education with a private or public employer. The municipality and the unemployment office will together agree on the educations context and the role of the placements. Unemployed young people who do not attend upper secondary school are entitled to the program. The council should offer a place within 100 days from the day you became unemployed. During the program you should be registered unemployed. An individual plan will be designed. The pay varies. If you have completed uppers secondary school that municipality decides the amount. If you have not completed upper secondary school the pay is approximately 151 euro a month. You will have to pay tax. You have work injury insurance as if you when doing a vocational training course at upper secondary school. During the program.
- *Ungdomsgaranti* (Youth assurance) program. If you are between 20 and 24 years old your municipal can offer an activity program. One condition is that the municipality has agreed with the local employment office to collaborate. To be entitled to the program you need to be registered unemployed at your local unemployment office.

The municipality should offer you a place within 90 days after you have registered as unemployed. The salary can be your unemployment benefit if you been working before or a development support of 3 280 Swedish kronor (about 360 euro). If you are entitled to social security benefit you will receive similar amount. The development support is tax free. You are also insured as being employed in a regular way.

- *Projektet Via, Vägen in I arbetslivet* (The route into working life). For unemployed young people between 20–29 years old and who are registered unemployed. The project is run by nine Swedish Folk High Schools in collaboration with the unemployment office and the private sector. The aim is to create an interest and promote greater self confidence by the young people through coaching within the frame of individual plans. The goal is that the young people should get work or start education. Altogether there are 230 places during March to December 2005. The pay is the same as the person would get as unemployment benefit which is 80 % of previous pay in employment (a roof amount of approximately 2200 euro before tax). If you are not qualified for unemployment benefit you will get 25 euro per day before tax, about 125 euro a week)
- *Prova på – plaster* (Try – employment placement). The aim with this program is to enable people who have immigrated to Sweden or been granted asylum who are unemployed and with no, or hardly any experience from working life in Sweden. This program was created on the initiative from the private sector the supported by many of the big unions. Try – a work placement can last maximum for three months and should be fulltime. The pay is based on activity support. Activity support– if you are taking part in a labour market programme If you are taking part in a labour market programme, such as employment training, occupational rehabilitation, practical job experience, work at a computer centre, business start-up or development guarantee, you may be able to get activity support. Activity support is normally equal to the daily allowance you would otherwise have been paid from your unemployment insurance fund. It is payable for five days a week. The amount payable is calculated and paid out by the Insurance Office. Activity support is a taxable benefit.

There are no specific programs for young people with disabilities; they will be included in above programs although there are some specific rules around people with disabilities in general.

- If you have a disability you can apply for a personal assistant to help you at work. The employer can apply for funding for this maximum 1100 euro a year.
- You can gain employment with Samhall which is a state run company which responsibility is to arrange work for people with impaired working capacity. The employment office can allocate work at Samhall. To fit the criteria you need to have

a psychiatric condition, intellectual disability, physical disability. You get paid according to the ordinary pay system negotiated by the employer and the unions.

Examples of good practice

A majority of Swedish municipalities had local youth employment project during late – 80 and nineties. In an article (Hansson & Lundahl 2004) two Swedish researchers could conclude that if you are young and unemployed and if you are lucky you will come to a local youth project which has a clear goal and a clear structure. If you are unlucky you will come to a project with unclear goals and unclear structure. The researchers conclude that if you are from a middle class background the consequences is not that serious. You just pass some time in the project and move on. But if you have previous experience of failure in school, labour market and if you have had contact with social worker and happened to be in a *bad* project the consequences are more serious. If you have taken part in five projects and still not managed to get a job the learning from taking part in the projects is that something is seriously wrong with you. The failure becomes individualised and the responsibility is put upon the young person and not on the fact that it is difficult to find a job because there is no jobs especially if you have dropped out of school for example.

The researchers followed 35 young people between 17–25 years old for two years. The young people came from a small town, a middle sized town and a big city. One of the important conclusions of the research in my view is that the project for the young people who are unemployed is seen a solution for a bigger structural problem i.e. unemployment. The old solutions doesn't work because of the number of unemployed young people (more specific education towards a certain job and unemployment benefit) and the adult world doesn't know how to solve the problem to day. The new approach might look good on the outside that trust the young people own resources. As long as the gain good self confidence and access their own capacity for taking initiative will the unemployment disappear. The projects reproduce class and gender patterns of working life, despite flexibility and individualisation of choice. The concept of structured individualisation can be applied here according to the Swedish researchers. One other conclusion is that the projects with clear goal and clear structure and who doesn't aim at *changing the young persons head* that means who focus on personal development on a psychological way are more successful than the ones with unclear goal and focus on the young persons personal development.

References

Arnell Gustaffson, U. 2003. Ungdomars inträde i arbetslivet. In Casten von Otter (red.) Ute och inne i svenskt arbetsliv. Forskare analyserar och spekulerar om trender i framtidens arbete. Arbetsliv i omvandling, 2003:8 ISBN 91-7045-680-1, ISSN 1404-8426.

Hansson, K. & Lundahl, L. 2004. Youth politics and local construction of youth. British Journal of Sociology of Education vol 25. No 2. April 2004.

The Long Term Survey of the Swedish Economy 2003/04SOU 2004:19.

Wennemo, K. & I. Hur står det till med yrkesutbildningarna i gymnasie skolan. Lans
organsiationen i Sverige.

Wuokko Knocke & Fredrik Hertzberg. 2000. Mångfaldens barn söker sin plats. En studie
om arbetsmarknadschanser för ungdomar med invandrarbakgrund. Svartvitt Förlag.

Internet services of the Swedish National Labour Market Administration AMV.
<http://www.sweden.gov.se/sb/d/2192/a/19783>.

Sickness insurance - Beneficiaries and conditions for entitlement.

Statistics Sweden, National Labour Market Board and Ministry of Finance.

THE FRISKIE EU -PROJECT AT OS VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL IN NORWAY

Kristine Skåtun

Employment and youth unemployment in Norway

The seasonally adjusted unemployment rate for Norway is very low compared to many other European countries. In December 2004 the unemployment rate was 4,4 % of the labour force. Unemployment remained on a stable level, but has declined somewhat from the previous year. The number of employees continued to rise in December 2004 and moved towards the record level from the spring of 2002.

2003 was a year of an increase in unemployment. The average for the year was 92,600 completely unemployed people; an increase of 17,400 or 23 % compared with year 2002. The increase in unemployment in 2003 was highest among people in the 20–24 age group with up to four years' higher education after upper secondary school. The highest rise in unemployment was in scientific occupations, while other occupations with large increases included industry, building and construction, and administrative and humanistic work. (<http://www.ssb.no/akumnd en/>.)

Most job seekers found quickly new jobs. This is why the average level of unemployment is much lower than the total number of people who lost their jobs. The average of 92,600 completely unemployed job seekers for the year conceals 335,000 individuals who lost their jobs at some point. This shows that the turnover among unemployed people was high. Despite a high level of throughput of unemployed people, many of those registered with Aetat, the Norwegian Public Employment Service, have been unemployed for relatively long periods. There was a 27 % increase in the number of long-term unemployed compared with 2002, to 26,300 people. From 2002 to 2003, registered unemployment among people in the 20–24 age group increased by 28 %.

The Norwegian educational system guarantees to all young people at least 13 years of education. This means that most young people are entering to the labour force for the first time at the age of 19 or older. The comparatively high % of unemployment in the lowest age group (20–24), reflects the fact that this is the persons without any practise/former job.

In vocational education, there is the 2+2 curriculum: 2 years at school and then 2 years apprenticeship. After this they have to get a job. In addition the high percentage of unemployment in this group reflects many dropouts that have not finished their education. Perhaps because they could not get a contract for vocational training? It is also considered a bigger problem being unemployed before you have even started working-life. The educational system, the employment administrations and the social services are very aware of this.

The role of the employment administrations – Aetat

Aetat, the Norwegian Public Employment Service, follows developments in the labour market and implements the labour-market policy laid down by the political authorities. There are a total of 175 local employment offices around Norway. Aetat Employment Counselling is represented in every county and provides Aetat's local employment offices with specialist expertise in helping job seekers who experience particular obstacles and restrictions in relation to work and training. Aetat Centre for Vocational Rehabilitation provides a service to job seekers with reduced working capacity, for example difficulties in concentrating, or visual or hearing problems.

The objective is for the unemployed to find new jobs more quickly as a result of closer follow-up by Aetat and more active job seeking. Aetat has made several organisational changes in recent years. The number of management levels has been reduced, and responsibility and authority have been delegated from a central to a local level.

Work to coordinate the employment and welfare services is also organised as projects and networks internally within Aetat. The projects give managers and employees experience in handling several reporting channels at the same time.

New ways of working

Several of Aetat's new priority areas are organised as projects. The service has developed its own methodology for project management and can set up groups at short notice to deal with new challenges which the service encounters or is required to address. New electronic services at www.aetat.no have been developed. Every vacancy advertised in Norway is entered into the jobs database, and employers can also register vacancies themselves directly in the database free of charge. Work to coordinate the employment and welfare services is also organised as projects and networks internally within Aetat. The projects give managers and employees experience in handling several reporting channels at the same time.

Aetat will closely follow up all job seekers who do not manage to find work on their own. Recipients of both unemployment and rehabilitation benefits are expected to seek work actively. If a period of individual initiative does not lead to a job, Aetat will step up the effort. The longer a job seeker has been unemployed, the more assistance they will be given. Aetat is particularly concerned with preventing long-term unemployment, i.e. unemployment lasting more than six months.

One specific goal is to prevent young people being unemployed for a long time before having a chance to prove themselves in a working situation. And the results have been pleasing. In 2003, 5,074 people in the target group received help from Aetat. Of these, 3,406 people or 67 per cent participated in labourmarket measures. A questionnaire survey

among the participants shows that approximately 60 per cent have subsequently started work or training.

From the spring of 2004 job seekers needing to register with Aetat can do so themselves, without being dependent on the service's opening hours. Employers can register vacancies and search for candidates among all job seekers, not just among those who have chosen to place their CV on the net. Aetat is the first public service to offer users the opportunity of self-registering and changing their information in a public register containing personal data.

New services for job seekers

Job seekers register their own qualifications and can therefore influence how they appear to employers. They can choose to keep their personal data anonymous, but all qualifications registered with Aetat will remain visible to employers. Registered job seekers have their own page – "My page" – at www.aetat.no. Those who were registered in the case-registry system before the new services were launched can log on at www.aetat.no and gain access to their qualifications summary. These services also make it easier for job seekers to structure their job seeking. The new services feature better search options. By storing current vacancies, creating search profiles that carry out automatic searches in the vacancies database, and adding more job requirements, job seekers can more easily get to grips with job seeking, which in turn makes it easier to find work. (<http://www.aetat.no>. 28.02.05)

This new services will acquire a certain level of ICT-literacy amongst the users. Most young people have this, and one benefit from this is that there will be more time left for the people who needs more help. This electronic service is for the average person seeking jobs, if a person needs job training or any other help they have to meet with a counsellor.

One of the goals for the Friskie project is to prepare and train young people for this situation. We "rehearse" job interviews, and the school counsellor or the parents can, if necessary, follow the young people to their first interview with the counsellor at Aetat. We think that how to practise the situation when you are looking for work should be a part of the new Friskie workbook.

Unemployment benefits

Most employees are entitled to unemployment benefits if they lose their jobs. Unemployment benefits are being given on the following conditions:

- The recipient must have earned a minimum of NOK 88167 during the last twelve months. For young people entering the labour market without any previous income, social benefit or disablement benefit is the only source of income.
- The recipient must be a genuine applicant and to be able to work.

- He or she must be registered as an applicant at Aetat and stay in touch with Aetat on a fortnightly basis.
- The recipient must be unemployed entirely or partly without any fault of your own.
- Unemployed who are not entitled to unemployment benefits are being advised to apply for social care.

Supporting young people in finding a job

The Norwegian law of secondary education grants the students certain rights as far as education is concerned. It also states the responsibility of the school authorities to prepare the young persons into labour market on the local and on the national level. The Norwegian Public Employment Service – Aetat – is the largest marked place for employers and employees in Norway. Aetat has an extensive information service of vacancies and education opportunities in addition to assistance to applicants with a need for further qualifications. Non-governmental employment agencies also operate in this labour market.

On a non-regular basis, Aetat will pay the school to give a group of job seekers a specified education, i.e. as truck-drivers or shop assistants. At Os vidaregåande skule, we have had this cooperation with aetat for years. aetat can also give a job seeker unemployment benefit while he or she goes to school in a normal class, if this is a way to get him/her better prepared for the labour market.

At the present the social security of Aetat and Trygdekontoret (the National Insurance) are being organized into one unit. This to make it easier to get the help needed. Os vidaregåande skule is also working close with aetat on an individual basis with some pupils.

Labour marked initiatives by Aetat

One primary objective for Aetat is to improve the applicants' job opportunities. The most important initiatives to achieve this goal are the following:

- job training
- job training for refugees and immigrants
- temporary employment
- apprenticeships both in the public and the private sector.
- information about vacancies.

Aetat will facilitate geographical mobility in the labour market and give employers incentives to hire unemployed and disabled people. These incentives include financial grants. Unemployed people may also receive financial grants making it easier to move where the jobs are. Aetat also encourages the applicants to get in touch with each other for moral support.

If young people still are unable to find a job they are entitled to unemployment benefits or social benefits.

Secondary education in Norway and its role in preparing young people into working life

The Norwegian law of education grants students the right to three years of secondary education. In special cases this right may be extended to five years. The objectives of secondary education in Norway are:

- to give students access to higher education (college or university)
- to give students vocational skills (carpentry, plumbing, mechanical skills etc.)
- to give students qualifications at a more basic or lower level.

The educational program intended to qualify students for university studies emphasizes theoretical skills.

Vocational training leads to a certain profession or trade. Students who choose vocational training may also qualify for university studies through an additional year which emphasizes theoretical skills.

Currently twelve different educational programs are being offered. The students start with a one-year basic course. They continue with a secondary course which is more specialized. After the second year a student may continue with a third theoretical course to qualify for college or university studies, or he/she may apply for a third year of vocational training required by some professions or trades. However, most of the students doing vocational training, go on to learn the practical skills of the trades they have chosen. This practical part of their education takes two years. Thus a full vocational training program will take four years to complete.

The Norwegian law of secondary education is supposed to ensure that young people make wise decisions concerning their own education. It is particularly concerned with the prevention of dropping out from one educational program or the other. Dropping out may have a number of reasons. The law requires that drop-outs are being closely monitored so that certain difficulties a student may encounter have as minor consequences as possible.

According to the Norwegian Act of Education, *all* youngsters who have completed primary education are guaranteed three years of vocational or academic training at secondary schools. Consequently, the schools are obliged to adapt teaching to meet the individual needs of all learners, irrespective of their level of knowledge or disability. The school is supposed to help students who are uncertain as to which branch of study they should choose, students who are weak at theoretical subjects, students who were not graded in one

or several subjects in primary school, students with social and emotional problems as well as general learning difficulties.

The student should acquire education according to his or her capabilities in order to gain social competence and professional qualifications. To reach this goal, the wishes and abilities of the student must be identified. In this way the student can experience a sense of achievement in selected areas. The student receives a certificate that shows how much the student has achieved with respect to the (vocational) curriculum.

The courses consist of practical tasks and training in social skills in the school workshops, various work assignments inside and outside the school, and a combination of school attendance and 'participation days' in trade.

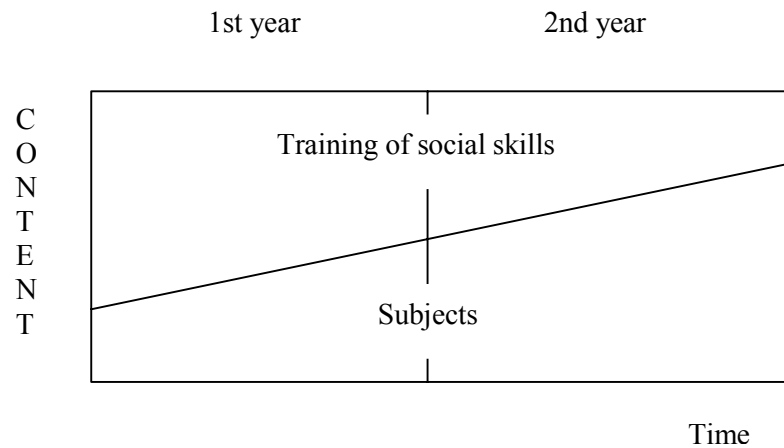


Figure 1. The structure of Vocational Studies at Os Vidaregåaerde Skole.

The important goal in the work with young people is that it will become more systematic and thus meet their needs better. Cooperative learning in a small group will give these young people a way of rehearsing situations they will meet. In Norwegian we use the word "mestring", the feeling and self esteem a person gets from knowing he is able to do something/cope with a situation.

Student counsellor

At Os secondary school there is a student counsellor who is responsible for assisting drop-outs. The counsellor is concerned with the wide range of causes that may inhibit the educational progress of young people. Special emphasis is placed on drug related problems, absenteeism and violence. An important aspect of this work will of course be co-operation with the student and his/her parents.

Other educational programs

Student who for some reason or other do not fit into the ordinary educational programs, may sign a contract with a company as an apprentice. The student will then on the one hand be considered an ordinary employee in the company, but will on the other hand be subject to a certain practical program specifically stating what the student should learn. This program takes four years to complete.

Another category of students will take either the basic course or the secondary course in two years. Some of these students simply use more time completing these courses or they combine these courses with job training.

A third category of students will not obtain full qualifications by the time they have finished their secondary education. These students will get a certificate documenting the factual skills that the student has obtained. The student may then at some later point in time go through further training to get a complete certificate.

Students with mental disabilities learn the most basic skills needed to manage everyday life. This training will be given in combination with work in companies shielded from ordinary competition.

As explained above there are various educational programs in addition to the ordinary ones. What these programs have in common is the combination of theoretical and practical training and the rather low emphasis on the theoretical aspects.

Practical examples how the pupils are supported in finding their way to work and employment

Example 1:

A boy wants to become a plumber, and is accepted at a tertiary college. He attends this institution for two years and during this period he receives both theoretical education and vocational training (60 % theory/40 % practical training).

After having completed this programme, he signs a two years apprenticeship contract with a plumbing company. If he passes his qualifying examination at the end of his apprenticeship he will become a licensed plumber.

Example 2:

A girl who wants to become a nursery school teacher can choose between the two following education programmes:

A. She can attend a sixth form college for three years doing A-level courses which prepare for further academic studies.

B. She can go to a tertiary college for two years attending a programme which offers 60 % theory and 40 % practical training in combination: one year at basic course health and social care studies + one year at advanced course preparing for the children and youth worker-profession.

After two years in school she *may* choose to proceed with her education until she qualifies as an authorized children and youth worker. To achieve that she must be apprenticed to a firm (day-care centre) for two years, and then pass her qualifying exam.

But if she wants to get started with her studies as soon as possible she can attend a general studies supplementary course for one year after having completed her apprenticeship, and then study to qualify as a nursery teacher.

What programme this girl chooses depends on her interests and the counselling she gets. If she chooses a sixth form college she will get much theoretical knowledge and a general university admission certification. If she wants to get an understanding of how it is to work with children she chooses a tertiary college programme which emphasises both theory and practice related to children.

If she chooses a two-year apprenticeship after having completed school she achieves an advanced vocational education. This programme is most often chosen by those who don't wish to achieve an academic education. But some want to take up academic studies after having practised their profession for some years. They then have to complete a general studies supplementary course to achieve their general university admission certification. Experience proves that some pupils change plans when they get to know their future profession.

Example 3:

A boy wants to train as a car mechanic but has great learning disabilities. In his situation the following programme can be tried (based on talks with the boy and his parents and the recommendation given by the practical-pedagogical services at school).

Year 1:

Preparatory basic course (maturation year containing a lot of practical work).

Year 2:

Adapted basic course mechanics: school and work placement in a garage in combination (3 days at school/2 days practical work in a garage).

Year 3:

Adapted advanced course light vehicles: school and work placement combined (2 days at school and 3 days in a garage).

Subsequently the boy can become an apprentice candidate in a company. This arrangement implies that his training continues in a garage, and that he can attend school one day a week (common subjects). But it is difficult to find companies that are willing to enter such contracts, though the job centre can be of assistance as a door opener.

This boy will after having completed his school attendance get competence at the lowest level. Accordingly he is allowed to work within defined areas of the car mechanic profession. But he is not a fully authorized car mechanic, and can of course not compete with persons that are skilled craftsmen.

Most likely the outcome of this situation will be that:

- The pupil gets a job in the company where he has got his job training (this applies to youths that are stabile and able workers).
- The pupil gets a job in a sheltered workshop.
- The pupil is left without a job and will receive benefits or be dependent on social welfare.

References

”Videregående opplæring for deg“ – fylkeskommunens orientering til elever.

“Secondary education for you” – Information from the school district.

<http://www.lovdatab.no/all/nl-19980717-061.html>

<http://www.ssb.no/akumnd/en/> (28.2.05)

www.aetat.no

www.aetet.no

www.trygdeetaten.no

www.shdir.no

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT IN UNITED KINGDOM

Timothy Woodhead

Introduction

Compulsory education in England ends when a young person reaches the age of 16, and the young person has a choice whether they want to stay on in education or seek full time employment but this choice does depend on their qualifications and background. One in 16 young people in England leave school without qualifications each year. The group that are at particular risk are those young people who have been in care. In 2003/4 only 6 % of young people aged 16 or over left care with at least 5 GCSE's at grades A–C (i.e. passes). (Statistics of Education – Children Looked after in England Issue.)

Full time employment

In the UK a young person cannot start full time work until they reach the age of 16 when they cease to be of school age. A person ceases to be of school age on the school leaving date. (This is the last Friday in June). This is in the school year in which you reach 16. This is governed by the Children and Young Person's Act 1933. This legislation affects all young people of school age. In the Borough of Kingston upon Thames most young people aged 16 and over enter post 16 education.

Table 1. Destinations of Year 11 school leavers in Kingston upon Thames 2002.

Destination	%
Entering Post 16 education	81,7 %
Full Time employment	6,9 %
Not settled/not active	4,8 %
Work based/learning (without employment status)	1,5 %

This table indicates the destinations of Year 11 school leavers in Kingston upon Thames in 2002 and shows that only a small percentage of young people enter full time employment when they school at approximately 16. The number of young people in 2001 based on the Census aged 16 was only 1679 living in Kingston on Thames.

In Kingston upon Thames, the number of people of working age was 100,600, which is 66,9 % of the population. The slightly higher than the figure for London of 66,1 %.(Nomis official labour statistics, www.nomisweb.co.uk.) The number of people that are in employment is 80,000. (79,1 %). The higher proportion of this group is male.

Then table below shows the full and part time employment by age group for Kingston upon Thames March 2002 to Feb 2003. (Annual local area Labour Force survey data.)

Table 2. Full and part time employment (000's) by age group for Kingston upon Thames March 2002 to February 2003, not seasonally adjusted.

Age Group	All	Full time	Part Time
16–19	4	*	*
20–24	8	7	*
25–49	50	41	9
50 plus	16	11	5

This table shows only a small proportion of young people aged 16–19 are in full time employment.

Qualifications help to increase the chances of securing good employment and this is illustrated if we examine the economic activity rate. The economic activity rate in London increases from 46 per cent for people with no qualifications to 83 per cent for people with higher-level qualifications.

In London the difference in the unemployment rates between people with no qualifications (11 per cent), people with lower-level qualifications (seven per cent) and higher-level qualifications (four per cent) is steady, with an increase in qualifications leading to a lower chance of being unemployed.

The economic activity rate is far higher among people with qualifications than without. Someone with higher-level qualifications is almost twice as likely to be economically active than someone without qualifications.

Qualifications have an important influence on occupation and career development. For example, 83 per cent of people in professional occupations have higher-level qualifications compared with only 1,4 per cent who have no qualifications. Meanwhile, 39 per cent of people in elementary occupations hold no qualifications and over 50 per cent of people who have never worked or have occupation not coded, have no qualifications

The census in the UK in 2001 indicated that significant differences between age groups, where the percentage of people with higher-level qualifications increases from 21 per cent among 16–24 year olds to 47 per cent among 25–34 year olds, which then decreases steadily to 14 per cent in the over 65 age group.

Children who are looked after by local authorities have poorer life chances, in general, than those who are not. Care leavers are more likely to have lower educational attainment and to be unemployed.

Looked-after children and young people from Black and Minority Ethnic groups are also more likely to have difficulties concerning their confidence, self-esteem and ethnic identity. (National Children’s Bureau Research Summary 2004.)

At March 31st 2003, there were 11,735 looked-after children in London. Fifty-four percent (6,400) of these were in outer London and 46 per cent (5,400) were in inner London. There were more looked-after boys than girls (57 per cent/43 per cent). (DfES, Children looked after by local authorities, year ending 31 March 2003.)

The number of looked-after children (in 2003) ranged from 85 in Kingston upon Thames and 115 in Richmond upon Thames, to 680 in both Southwark and in Croydon. Rates show a range from 26 children (per 10,000) in Redbridge and 27 in Kingston-upon Thames to 127 (per 10,000) children in Hammersmith and Fulham and 135 (per 10,000) in Islington.

The table below shows that there have been considerable increases in the percentages of young people attaining at least one GCSE or GNVQ whom are leaving care since 1999/00. However, the percentages in London are consistently lower than elsewhere.

Table 3. The percentage of young people leaving care aged 16 or over with at least 1 GCSE at grade A–G or a GNVQ.

Year	England %	Inner London %	Outer London %
1999/00	31 %	24 %	27 %
2000/01	37 %	33 %	25 %
2001/02	41 %	35 %	33 %
2002/03	44 %	38 %	37 %

(Social Service Performance Assessment Indicators 2002/3.)

The attainment of looked-after children also continues to compare unfavourably with young people who have not been in the care system and, with the exception of 5 GCSE’s A* – C, this attainment gap is slightly larger in London than in England as a whole. This is illustrated in the table four:

Table 4 GCSE or equivalent performance of looked after children in Year 11 compared with all children ending 30th September 2003.

	London	England
Number old enough to sit GCSE or GNVQ exams	1220	4600
% sitting one of these exams	54 %	56,8 %
1 GCSE grade A–G or a GNVQ, Looked after children (%)	50 %	52,9 %
1 GCSE grade A–G or a GNVQ, All Children (%)	95 %	95 %
5 GCSE grade A–G or a GNVQ, Looked after Children (%)	34 %	36,8 %
5 GCSE grade A–G or a GNVQ, All Children (%)	90 %	89 %
5 GCSE grade A–C or a GNVQ, Looked after Children (%)	10 %	8,7 %
5 GCSE grade A–C or a GNVQ, All Children (%)	51 %	51 %

(DfES Outcome indicators for looked after children, twelve months to 30th September 2003.)

However, the table below shows that London's looked-after children were more likely to be in full-time education than those in England as a whole. It also illustrates that looked after children are less likely to be in education or employment than normal children.

Table 5. Education and employment status at 30th September 2003 of looked after children in Year 11 in 2002/3 school year compared with all children.

	Total number of children	Full time education %	Full Time Training %	Full Time employment With planned training %	Full Time employment With planned training %	Part time employment education or training %
London-Looked After Children	1220	63 %	6 %	2 %	2 %	7 %
London All Children	77200	78 %	3 %	2 %	2 %	1 %
England Looked after Children	4600	57 %	8 %	3 %	3 %	6 %
England All Children	608 000	72 %	7 %	5 %	3 %	1 %

In Kingston upon Thames, the percentage of looked after children in year 11 who sat GCSE's or GNVQ exams was 71 %, of these 64 % got at least 1 GCSE at grade A to G or a GNVQ in the twelve months ending 30th September 2003. (National Statistics – Outcome indicators for Looked after Children 2003.)

In addition, the position of this group at 30th September 2003 was that 57 % remained in full time education and 43% where in full/part time training or employment.

Financial

A minimum wage for 16–17 year olds was introduced on 1 October 2004, at £3,00 per hour, but for children under the age of 16, there is no minimum wage protection. The National Minimum Wage for adults (those for those aged 22 and over) increased to £4,85 with effect from October 2004, while the youth rate (those aged 18–21) was increased to £4,10.

Employment rights

New regulations introduced in March 1997 (The Health and Safety (Young Persons) Regulations 1997) require an employer to carry out a risk assessment before a young person

under 18 is employed. Young workers are seen as being particularly at risk because of their inexperience, possible lack of awareness of existing or potential risks to their health and safety, and possible immaturity.

On the 1st October 1998, the Young Workers Directive came into force in the UK. It gives young workers new rights to maximum working hours, minimum daily and weekly rest breaks, restrictions on night work and minimum rights to paid holidays. A Young Worker is defined as someone who is over compulsory school leaving age but who has not yet reached 18.

Part time employment

Many young people who are still at school work in their spare time. Some do paper rounds or work part-time in a shop to earn some money. There are strict regulations covering the hours that they can work, and the minimum age that they can work. The main piece of legislation covering the employment of young people under 16 is the Children and Young Persons Act 1933, but there are over 200 other pieces of relevant legislation to take into account, including European and international instruments, Acts of Parliament, and local authority by-laws.

“Class struggles”, a survey of 2,500 schoolchildren in England and Wales (Trade Union Congress 2001), revealed that many children are working longer hours than they are legally allowed to. This survey indicated that one in ten school age workers had played truant at some time to do their jobs. This survey also indicated that 289,000 young people under 13 do paid work, which is illegal. Employment of 13-year-olds is restricted but again some 196,574 were working in jobs illegal for them including paper rounds and babysitting.

According to the amendments to the 1933 Act (national law) which were implemented in 1998, a young person under 14 may not work but 13 year olds may be able to do work which is approved by local authority by-laws. They may only do what is called 'light work' and they must not work:

- before 7am and after 7pm
- during school hours
- more than two hours on a school day
- more than one hour before school starts
- more than two hours on a Sunday.

Local authority by-laws also set out the types of jobs which are regarded as unsuitable for young people. These include:

- work in commercial kitchens
- work in cinemas, theatres and night clubs
- collecting money door to door and;
- delivering milk in glass containers.

Unemployment

Within London there is huge variation in local unemployment levels. Rates were lowest in the Outer London boroughs of Sutton, Kingston upon Thames and Richmond upon Thames – all three boroughs had rates below 4 per cent. Rates were highest in the Inner London boroughs of Newham (12,3 per cent), Hackney and Tower Hamlets (both 11,8 per cent). These three boroughs not only have the highest unemployment rates in London, but also across England and Wales.

People with no qualifications are almost three times more likely to be unemployed than those with higher level qualifications (11,1 per cent compared with 4,2 per cent). Rates for those with no qualifications are very high across Inner London (17,1 per cent).

The Census in 2001 indicated that 60 per cent of all young Londoners (aged 16–24) are active in the labour market, compared with 69 per cent of those aged 25–74. Participation rates for 16–19 year olds are very low at 44 per cent, reflecting the fact that most of this group are in full- time education.

Unemployment rates for those aged 16–19 are very high – of those active in the labour market, more than one fifth are unemployed (a rate of 22,3 per cent, excluding students). The unemployment rates for young men in this group are higher still at 25,2 per cent. The rates for women are lower than those of men but at 18,7 per cent are still high.

Unemployment rates are higher for young people from looked after care. This is illustrated in the table below.

Table 6. Employment status at 30th September 2003 of looked after children in year 11 in 2002/3 school year, compared with all children.

	Employed %	Unemployed %
London, Looked After Children	11 %	20 %
London, All Children	5 %	7 %
England, Looked After Children	12 %	23 %
England, All Children	9 %	7 %

(DfES from the Connexions/Career Service Annual Activity Survey 2003.)

There are lower figures here for employment for Year 11 children as many young people continue on into full time education. To encourage this government in the UK has introduced an education maintenance allowance for these young people on lower incomes to continue into education. To qualify for this the household income has to be less than £30,000.

The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) is the main government agency responsible for getting people into work. They deal with people of working age (16 to 60 for women and 16 to 65 years of age for men) and through Jobcentre Plus, are able to give advice about work and offer benefits for those out of work. The type of benefits that a young person can receive depends on a range of factors including age and their current circumstances.

When a person first signs on at the Jobcentre they will be asked to sign an agreement with an employment officer showing that they are actively seeking work. This is reviewed every fortnight and then at key stages in the months which follow. There are a number of stages, where a person must join a number of programmes; a failure to do so can mean a loss in benefits. The aim of these programmes is to help a person build their confidence and improve their skills in finding work.

Supporting young people in the search for employment and higher education

There are a number of support organisations that can help young people in the search for employment and higher education. This includes the “E2E “ project and New Deal. Local authorities such as Kingston also provide advice and training for these young people, through such projects as Admovere.

The New Deal is a central part of the Labour Government's programme of helping the long-term unemployed back to work. The New Deal for 18–24 year olds was introduced nation-wide in April 1998. The New Deal gives four options to young people aged 18–24 who have been unemployed for six months or more (care leavers do not have to wait six months) and who are claiming Jobseekers' Allowance. It contains a gateway period of 4 months, which includes help with job search, careers advice and guidance, and preparation for and submission to the range of training and work options. Vocational training and subsidised work placements are available during this programme. In December 2003 the number of all leavers who were between the ages 18–24 from New Deal was 995290 with 39 % in unsubsidised employment.

Jobclubs are often set up to meet particular client groups, for example the long-term unemployed, people with disabilities, or people looking for executive or managerial work. They are available for people who have been out of work for six months or more. Attendance is usually required for four and a half days a week for a period up to 26 weeks. If a person has been paid or have been treated as having paid NI contributions they may be able to get a contribution based job seekers allowance. Contribution-based JSA is paid at a fixed rate based on age for up to 26 weeks. If they are on a low income they may get an income-based job seekers allowance, even if you have not paid NI contributions.

16 or 17 are unlikely to have worked for long enough since reaching age 16 to pay enough NI contributions to get contribution-based JSA. 16–17 year olds may be able to get income-based JSA for a short period in special circumstances. For example, if one of the following applies:

- they are forced to live away from their parents.
- they will suffer severe hardship if they do not get JSA.
- they are a member of a couple who has responsibility for a child.

The personal allowance for a young person aged 16–17 is £33,50 or depending on their circumstances they may get £44.05. The personal allowance for young people aged 18–24 is £44,05. A young person is deemed to be an adult at 18 and ceases to be looked after. At this age, they have to leave looked after care and can no longer live in looked after accommodation. If they want accommodation, they have to register on the housing register. Like most local authorities, the number of available housing is very limited. There are some schemes, which provide accommodation for care leavers' aged 16–20, however they have to pay to rent. It is possible to get allowances for accommodation such as housing.

Conclusions

The number of young people in Kingston who enter full time employment at 16 is very low, most young people wait until they have obtained higher qualifications. Young people who are in looked after care often leave education with lower qualifications than those who are not and their chances of getting suitable employment is much more reduced than their counterparts who are not in care. Many of these young people have had bad experiences at school but perform well in educational situations away from the normal school environment particularly when studying for vocational qualifications.

References

Annual local area Labour Force survey data.

“Class struggles”, Trade Union Congress 2001.

DfES from the Connexious/Career Service Annual Activity Survey 2003.

DfES, Children looked after by local authorities, year ending 31st March 2003.

DfES Outcome indicators for looked after children, twelve months to 30th September 2003.

National Children's Bureau Research Summary 2004.

National Statistics – Outcome indicators for Looked after Children 2003.

Nomis official labour statistics www.nomisweb.co.uk

Social Service Performance Assessment Indicators 2002/3.

Statistics of Education – Children Looked after in England Issue No 01/05 Jan 05.

ENTERING TO THE WORKING LIFE THROUGH THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS

Marchien Ties

When you are going to take a vocational training course, you can choose between two ways of learning. One option, which involves going to school and doing a work placement, is called the full-time option or the **BOL (vocational training pathway)**. The other option is called the **BBL (block or day release pathway)** in which you can combine working and learning at the same time. You can choose the way of learning that suits you best. The fact is, you learn the same things going through either programme. Only the way in which you learn is different.

Two ways of learning

BOL (vocational training pathway)

Theory and practice: Your vocational training course includes a work placement, but the emphasis is on theory. In the case of the vocational training pathway, most training courses consist of about 70 % theory and 30 % practice.

Work placements usually enable you to focus on your own areas of interest. You can opt for a lot of different kinds of work placements, but it is also possible to do work placements in a field of activity that you really prefer. So, if you make good use of your work placements, you will be able to set a course for the rest of your career.

Most vocational training courses offer a variety of work placements: you can do a work placement in different kinds of organizations, in different 'departments' and sometimes in different positions. In the work placements you are always surplus to requirements in a department or in a team. For that reason, you do not work without being supervised and you are not deployed as an employee either. This way, the main emphasis is on learning. It is only in the final year that you choose a specialization. That means that you can take your time having a good look around before making up your mind.

BBL (block or day release pathway)

In BBL Programme working and studying are combined and you work in an organization. You gain more practical experience during this programme than during a work placement, which is usually shorter. In the case of the block or day release pathway, most training courses consist of about 30 % theory and 70 % practice.

Because you enter into an apprenticeship contract with an organization before taking a vocational training course, you often choose your specialization line already in the beginning of the course. However this depends on the organization where you are going to work.

You cannot take the pathway until you have been taken on as an apprentice by a learning establishment. So, first you have to apply for a job. Your salary depends on the organization where you are going to work. You should also find out whether you will receive a salary for part of your vocational training course or for the entire training course. Among other things, it depends on the training course that you choose and how the practical training and the theory lessons are combined.

If you are over 18 and in daytime education, you will be eligible for state financial aid for students. In the case of some work-study programmes, you have daytime classes for a period of time and then you work for a continuous period. In that case, you will be eligible for state financial aid for students for part of the programme. Most students and pupils cannot live on the grant, so they have to take out a loan as well and they accumulate a debt. However, it will be smaller if they receive a salary rather than state financial aid for a period of time.

You will have good career prospects seeing that there is a good chance that, after your vocational training course, you will be offered a permanent job with the organization where you have worked.

Entering to the working life through the centre for work and income (CWI)

The CWI is an independent administrative body (ZBO) and operates on the instructions of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. Jobseekers can go to the CWI to **find work** or to **apply for unemployment benefit or social assistance benefit**. Employers can get job placement services and information on the labour market from the CWI. In addition, the CWI grants dismissal permits and work permits, and it also supplies information pertaining to employment. The CWI does its best to match supply and demand in the labour market. The CWI is a centrally administered body, but it has about 130 branches throughout the Netherlands. These are staffed by about 4500 expert advisers.

The CWI matches up employers with jobseekers. The centres offer also to the jobseekers means to find their way to work. The CWI also targets particular groups of jobseekers, such as elderly people, persons re-entering the labour market, young people, ethnic minorities and disabled persons. The employed persons' insurance administration agency (UWV), the municipal social services, and the CWI form the so-called 'chain for work and income'. The idea of 'work before income' is being translated into action by the CWI in close cooperation with the chain partners. The CWI is the first link in the chain.

In the first four months of 2004 the CWI helped 7329 young people get a job, almost 2000 more than last year in the same period. Most of the jobs were in the sales, production, transport and building sectors. The **Youth Unemployment Taskforce** tries to persuade as many employers as possible to offer jobs for young people. The objective of the Taskforce – which officially started work on 18 March 2004 and cooperates closely with the CWI – is to collect 40 000 jobs for young people during the present government's term of office. By the end of this year 7500 young people must have a job that enables them to gain work experience. Until now, employers have notified the CWI of only 535 jobs for young people.

The CWI has set an example by creating temporary jobs at all 130 of the CWI branches. In the near future, special steps will be taken in several regions and major cities. As an additional incentive, a so-called youth job cheque for € 1000 will be available to employers that take on unqualified young people and offer them extra supervision or a short course. Of the young people that register as jobseekers at the CWI, but get a job within six months, 90 % manage to do so within three months. If young people do not find a job within three months, it becomes increasingly unlikely that they will get a job. To reduce youth unemployment, it is important to create a job, temporary or permanent, or a work placement for every young jobseeker as soon as possible.

Regional collaboration in helping young people to enter the working life – regional notification and coordination centre for early school leavers (RMC)

The Regional Notification and Coordination Centre for Early School Leavers (RMC) is a regional collaboration group of authorities, schools and organizations operating in the areas of employment services, education, justice, youth assistance services and welfare. The aim of this cooperation is to keep young people from dropping out of school and to encourage them to obtain appropriate qualifications for the labour market.

On 6 December 2001 a law was passed in order to improve ways of registering and dealing with school drop-outs. This law complements the Secondary Education Act, the Adult and Vocational Education Act and the Expertise Centres Act. The law in question concerns young people who are over school age and are potential school drop-outs. The main change is that the competent school authorities are obliged to notify the RMC of school dropouts under 23 years.

Those young people under 23 who have dropped out of school and enter the labour market without having any basic qualification are in a risk of being excluded from employment in the future. Because the RMC is notified of school drop-outs, these young people stand a chance of having better career opportunities.

It is primarily a school's responsibility to retain its pupils. The school can take good care of potential school drop-outs in different ways, for example by means of careers guidance, pro-active contact with young people that have not enrolled in a subsequent course, and through student counsellors. Not only schools, but also municipalities and/or parents, notify the RMC of unqualified school drop-outs. Together with these young people, the RMC tries to find a solution. That solution may involve attending a course or switching courses, looking for a specific job or resolving personal or other problems.

Council for work and income (RWI)

To begin with, school drop-outs are all young people that leave initial education without obtaining any certificate. They may return to education at a later date, get a job, become unemployed or may no longer be part of the labour force. However, the basic qualification policy implies that all the young people that have not obtained a senior general secondary education certificate, pre-university education certificate or upper secondary vocational education certificate should be regarded as early school leavers, i.e. including those who have obtained an initial professional education certificate, pre-vocational secondary education certificate, junior general secondary education certificate or upper secondary vocational education 1 certificate.

During the European summit in Lisbon in 2000, a target figure was agreed upon in order to reduce the number of school drop-outs. Compared with the situation in 2000, this number should be reduced by 50 % in 2010 and the interim figure in 2006 should be the outcome of a 30 % reduction. Municipalities, educational institutions, and intermediaries in the labour market have coordinated their efforts to persuade the largest possible number of school drop-outs to get back to education, work or work-study programmes. The RWI assumes that the Lisbon objective relates to pupils leaving school without basic qualifications.

As a matter of fact, figures relating to school drop-outs give a distorted picture as far as basic qualifications are concerned. The figures do not include the number of school drop-outs who, while employed or in search of employment, obtain a basic qualification somewhat later in life through adult general secondary education, the block or day release pathway or part-time upper secondary vocational education.

In addition, it should be noted that the number of school drop-outs usually decreases in times of rising unemployment, when the labour market can absorb fewer people. In 2007, 70 % of school leavers should obtain a basic qualification while employed, assuming that they cannot be persuaded to get back to school.

UWV (Employed Persons' Insurance Administration Agency)

The UWV is a combination of the five 'old' social security administration agencies Cadans, Gak (Joint Administration Office), GUO (Joint Administration Agency), USZO (Social Security Administration Agency for the Public Service and Education Sector) and the SFB (Construction Industry Social Fund) en Lisv (National Social Institute). These social security administration agencies continued their activities under the joint name of UWV (Employed Persons' Insurance Administration Agency) as from 1 January 2002.

The main duties of the UWV are:

- to assess entitlement to unemployment benefit or disability benefit;
- to grant benefits;
- to calculate and collect (employer's) contributions.

In addition, the UWV is responsible for helping those who are entitled to unemployment benefit and disabled persons reintegrate if this is not an employer's responsibility.

The UWV administers the employed persons insurance schemes WW (Unemployment Insurance Act), WAO (Occupational Disability Insurance Act), Wajong (Occupational Disability Benefits (Handicapped Young Persons) Act), Waz (Occupational Disability Insurance (Self-employed Persons) Act) / (Work and Care Act), and ZW (Sickness Benefits Act). The UWV assesses entitlement, level and duration of benefits, grants benefits en collects contributions. In addition, the UWV is responsible for the reintegration of unemployed persons and occupationally disabled persons who no longer have an employer. To that end, the UWV engages private reintegration agencies.

“De Pasvorm”

The Drenthe College is a Regional Training Centre for upper secondary vocational education and adult education that is characterized by the best possible service, accessibility, quality and good employership and is future oriented. Its training courses and services are constantly reviewed for social relevance, labour market-orientedness and possibilities of moving on to subsequent education. It has to give consideration to updating the objectives and content of the courses on offer, and the methods and learning environment for these courses.

The large amount of early school leavers is typical for the Netherlands for years. They are young people who have failed in mainstream education for some reason or other. Pupils often become discouraged because they are given negative assessments and then develop a negative self-image. De Pasvorm looks at them from an opposite angle and thinks in terms of what students are able to do, rather than what they are unable to do. The common denominator for the persons involved is the fact that their social position is largely determined by psychological or social factors that prevent them from completing a vocational training course successfully. Using a different approach, “De Pasvorm” tries to give the students a new incentive to succeed.

1. PRAKTIJK (practice)

2. ARBEID (employment)
/STAGE (work placement)

P	A
S	V

3. SCHOLING (training)

4. VORMING (education)

Figure 1. The name of De PASVORM is symbolising these aspects.

1. PRAKTIJK (practice)

Practical training centres at De Pasvorm offer possibility to learn to work in a college environment. De Pasvorm has a number of professionally equipped practical training centres that supply real products. For example, a shop where you can buy new children's clothes. A professionally run shop where you can pay in euros or pay using a bank card with PIN. The shop's customers come from outside the training centre. In addition, there is a lunchroom where students and teachers can get something to eat and drink. And where students learn how to work! Most attention is paid to general and social work skills. A work placement will show what a student needs to learn and what the work placement supervisor needs to include in his guidance of the student. The student's work should be improving all the time.

2. ARBEID (employment)

Working and learning while doing a work placement. Students will do a suitable work placement as soon as possible. If they do not quite know what they want, they will do an exploratory work placement. At first most attention is paid to general work skills, i.e. being punctual, keeping appointments, etc. The students are supervised by the businesses involved, in close cooperation with De Pasvorm. A work placement will show what a student needs to learn and what needs to be included in other parts of the training pathway to be followed. It depends on what happens in practice.

3. SCHOLING (training)

To qualify as an assistant in a particular occupation. When the intake procedure shows that a pupil knows quite well what he / she would like to do for a living and the pupil has the necessary abilities, the pupil will follow a training course to obtain qualifications or modular qualifications for a job as an assistant. However, a lot of students do not really know what they want to do and the work placements will have to show where the students feel as if they really belong. Only then will they follow a training course, if that is feasible. *Guided by practical experience!*

4. VORMING (education)

Learning how to live. When you decide to work and also do a training course, your life will change a lot. You are expected to behave differently. Education is the key theme in the methodology of De Pasvorm. However, De Pasvorm also pays attention to specific ways of learning how to live, i.e. by having students train their social skills and computer skills, play sports and games, etc.

At the end of a training pathway a student should have secured an employment contract and obtained professional qualifications or modular professional qualifications.

To achieve all of its objectives “De Pasvorm” cooperates with a number of institutions in the Netherlands, such as:

- CWI (Centre for Work and Income)
- UWV (Employed Persons' Insurance Administration Agency)
- RMC (Regional Notification and Coordination Centre for Early School Leavers)
- Municipalities in Drenthe

References

http://www.see-educoop.net/education_in/pdf/eurypres-ned-misc-t05.pdf

www.minocw.nl/english_oud/edusyst/ednl.u.htm

CONTACTS

Anette Bolin	anette.bolin@htu.se
Elsebeth Fog	elsebeth.fog@htu.se
Outi Kivinen	outi.kivinen@turkuamk.fi
Anna-Liisa Lindström	anna-liisa.lindstrom@turkuai.fi
Kristine Skåtun	kriska@hfk.vgs.no
Teija Suominen	teija.suominen@turkuai.fi
Marchien Ties	MH.Ties@drenthecollege.nl
Eeva Timonen-Kallio	eeva.timonen-kallio@turkuamk.fi
Timothy Woodhead	timothy.woodhead@rbk.kingston.gov.uk

More about Friskie EU -project:
www.friskie-EU.fi

Publications from Turku Polytechnic

RESEARCH REPORTS FROM TURKU POLYTECHNIC

7. Ovaska, Esko: Ongelma, idylli vai elämysyhteisö? Pienten kuntien sosiaali- ja terveystalvelujen ja sosiaalisen pääoman tarkastelua. Turku, 2003. 323 p. ISBN 952-5113-34-5.
8. Sorsa, Kaisa: Time-share-matkailupalvelun tuotteistamisen lainsäädännölliset puitteet : Espanjan, Iso-Britannian ja Suomen time-share-lainsäädäntöä koskeva oikeusvertaileva tutkimus. Turku, 2003. 257 p. ISBN 952-5113-47-7.
9. Piipponen, Vesa: Materiaalin ostostrategian ohjausmalli lentokoneen elinjakson aikana. Turku, 2003. 86 p. ISBN 952-5113-43-4.
10. Talvitie, Susanna: Sosionomiopiskelijoiden ohjatut harjoittelut : harjoittelut ja niiden ohjaus ammattiin oppimisen tukena. Turku, 2003. 127 p. ISBN 952-5113-49-3.
11. Keltaniemi-Koski, Arja: Kasvunpaikka – muutosprosessin kuvaus projektiopintojen aikana. Turku, 2004. 102 p. ISBN 952-5113-56-6.
12. Sainio, Elina: Suurten ikäluokkien ikääntyminen ja tulevaisuuden näkymät. Turku, 2004. 108 p. ISBN 952-5113-60-4.
13. Hilapieli, Sanna-Maria & Pajamäki, Salla: Asuinviihtyvyys ja sosiaalinen pääoma Jyrkkälässä. Turku 2004. 109 p. ISBN 952-5113-61-2.
14. Mäntsälä, Tuija: Järjestelmä on mutta toimiiko se? Opiskelijoiden arvio opinto-ohjauksen tilasta ja opintopolun eri vaiheiden ohjauksen kehittämistarpeista Turun ammattikorkeakoulussa. Turku, 2004. 97 p. + 17 app. p. ISBN 952-5113-65-5.
15. Eskola, Eeva-Liisa & Palin, Olavi: Lääketieteen opiskelijoiden informaatiolukutaidot muuttuvassa oppimisympäristössä. Turku, 2004. 103 p. ISBN 952-5113-78-7.
16. Lindgren, Pia: ”What Colour Are the Zebra’s Stripes?” Business Bachelor Students’ Perceptions of Teaching and Learning Intercultural Communication. Turku, 2005. 130 p. ISBN 952-5596-05-2.

REPORTS FROM TURKU POLYTECHNIC

11. Alanen, Erja & Halonen, Sirpa (eds.): Ympäristöterveydenhuolto kehittämään : työkirja kunnan ympäristöterveydenhuollon viranhaltijalle = Miljöhälsan står i fokus : arbetsbok för den kommunala miljöhälsovårdsmyndigheten = Development of Environmental Health : workbook for municipal health care officials. Turku, 2003. CD-ROM. ISBN 952-5113-28-0.
12. Koskinen, Ritva: ”*Tää oli kyl tosi kiva juttu, ko sää soitit*” – ohjauskeskustelu opiskelun vauhdittajana. 2nd ed. Turku, 2004. 79 p. ISBN 952-5113-29-9.
13. Lahtinen, Jari: Flamecleaner – liikkuvan öljynpolttolaitteen kehityshanke. Turku, 2003. 26 p. ISBN 952-5113-42-6.
14. Hautala, Tiina & Nenonen, Suvi & Saario, Ilona (eds.): Näkökulmia hyvinvointiin 2. Turku, 2003. 226 p. ISBN 952-5113-41-8.
15. Saalasto, Päivi & Ylander, Sirkka: Seutuportaali – kokemuksia EU-rahoitteisista hankkeista. Turku, 2003. 103 p. ISBN 952-5113-45-0.
16. Veräjänkorva, Oili: Projektityöskentely hoitotyöntekijöiden lääkehoidon osaamisen kehittämisessä : Turun ammattikorkeakoulun, Turun yliopiston ja terveysalan työelämän yhteistyöhankkeen loppuraportti. Turku, 2003. 64 p. + 26 app. p. ISBN 952-5113-48-5.
17. Niinimäki, Jukka: Verkko-opetus ammattikorkeakoulussa : katsaus pedagogisiin malleihin ja toiminnan organisointiin. Turku, 2003. 61 p. ISBN 952-5113-53-1 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-50-7 (printed).

18. Kantola, Ismo & Gates, Marieta (eds.): Internships and Project Studies as Workbased Learning Environments in Professional Higher Education – International Benchmarking. Turku, 2004. 32 p. ISBN 952-5113-57-4.
19. Veräjänkorva, Erkki, Ernvall, Koivuniemi & Syrjäla: Laadukasta lääkehoidon opetusta ja oppimista – seurantalutkimus hoitotyön lääkehoidon opetuksen ja oppimisen kehittämistä. 2nd ed. Turku, 2004. 112 p. ISBN 952-5113-58-2.
20. Tuominen, Telle: Opettaja ja työyhteisö muutospolulla ongelmaperustaiseen oppimiseen. Turku, 2004. 93 p. ISBN 952-5113-59-0.
21. Neitola, Pekka: Toimikortit osana korkeakoulun tietoturva. Turku, 2004. 61 p. + 17 app. p. ISBN 952-5113-68-X (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-60-2 (printed).
22. Krook, Kristina: Näillä eväillä töihin – tradenomien kypsyysnäytteiden kielen analyysia. Turku, 2004. 61 p. ISBN 952-5113-66-3.
23. Elomaa, Leena & Koivuniemi, Sirkku: Näyttöön perustuvan hoitotyön kehittäminen – Karinakodin malli. Turku, 2004. 61 p. ISBN 952-5113-70-1.
24. Haapala, Juha: Bluetooth – teoriaa ja käytäntöä. Turku, 2004. 67 p. ISBN 952-5113-71-X.
25. Hautala, Tiina & Nenonen, Suvi & Saario, Ilona (eds.): Näkökulmia hyvinvointiin 3. Turku, 2004. 137 p. ISBN 952-5113-74-4.
26. Laine, Tom: Computer Software Development & Patenting Computer-Implemented Inventions. Turku, 2004. 95 p. ISBN 952-5113-79-5.
27. Härkönen, Pekka: Vavat verkkoon – kehittämismalli verkko-opintojen tarjontaan. Turku, 2004. 68 p. ISBN 952-5113-89-2.
28. Kopra, Pirjo: Hyvin suunniteltu, kerralla valmis – Turun ammattikorkeakoulun täydennyskoulutus- ja palveluskeskuksen koulutuksen suunnittelun prosessit. Turku, 2004. 94 p. ISBN 952-5113-90-6.
29. Tuohi, Raija & Helenius, Juha & Hyvönen, Raimo: Tietoa vai luuloa – insinööriopiskelijan matemaattiset lähtövalmiudet. Turku, 2004. 111 p. + 12 app. p. ISBN 952-5113-91-4.
30. Koivuniemi, Sirkku & Lind, Kaija (eds.): Tutkien terveyttä 2004. Turku, 2004. 101 p. ISBN 952-5113-90-3.
31. Storti, Antonella & Tulonen, Arja: Onnistunut verkko-opetus – tietoa, taitoa vai tuuria? Turku 2005. 209 p. ISBN 952-5596-07-9.

COURSE MATERIAL FROM TURKU POLYTECHNIC

5. Härkönen, Pekka: Opiskelijatuutorin käsikirja. Turku, 2003. 89 p. ISBN 952-5113-32-9.
6. Virko, Esa: Kipsitöiden pintakäsittely. Turku, 2003. 54 p. ISBN 952-5113-36-1.
7. Bastman, Virpi: Räättälöityä viestintää : suomenkielinen työohjeisto maahanmuuttajanaisten ammatillisen kompetenssin vahvistajana. Turku, 2003. 70 p. + CD-ROM. ISBN 952-5113-37-X.
8. Seppälä-Kavén, Ulla: Muodon ajat : katsaus muotoiluun 1800-luvun lopulta nykypäivään. Turku, 2003. 78 p. ISBN 952-5113-44-2.
9. Viitanen, Anne: Visuaalisen markkinoinnin suunnittelu yrityskuvan rakentamisessa. Turku, 2003. 55 p. ISBN 952-5113-51-5.
10. Härkönen, Pekka: Opettajatuutorin käsikirja – tuutori-, alumni- ja mentoritoiminta Turun ammattikorkeakoulussa. Turku, 2003. 124 p. ISBN 952-5113-52-3.
11. Linnossuo, Outi (ed.): Sosiaalisen nuorisotyön toimintamalleja. Turku, 2004. 91 p. ISBN 952-5113-72-8.

12. Elomaa, Leena & Mikkola, Hannele: Näytön jäljillä – tiedonhaku näyttöön perustuvassa hoitotyössä. Turku, 2004. 50 p. ISBN 952-5113-75-2.
13. Adamsson, Virpi & Puukka, Jaana: IHME – yrittäjätarinoita Loimaan seudulta. Turku, 2004. 93 p. ISBN 952-5113-76-0.
14. Niemi, Linda: Brandien kilpailu kosmetiikan markkinoilla – erilaistumisen kautta menestykseen. Turku, 2004. 115 p. ISBN 952-5113-77-9.
15. Sorsa, Kaisa & Bona Sánchez, Carolina: Timeshare-liiketoiminnan perusteet. Turku, 2004. 92 p. ISBN 952-5113-83-3.
16. Bhatia, Eija & Wiitakorpi, Marja-Leena: ”Me ollaa iha’ hyvii” – menetelmiä ja keinoja terveydenhoitajille lasten itsetunnon tukemiseen. Turku, 2005. 38 p. ISBN 952-5596-00-1.
17. Hirvirinne, Ari & Kähkönen, Anne & Moberg, Jaana: Hygienia – terveystieteiden materiaali. Turku 2005. CD-ROM. ISBN 952-5596-02-8.
18. Hyvärinen, Anniina & Simolin, Maria & Kokkinen, Liisa & Soini, Tiina: Luusto vahvaksi – opas luuston terveyden edistämiseen ravitsemuksen ja liikunnan avulla. Turku 2005. CD-ROM. ISBN 952-5596-03-6.
19. Falke, Israel: A Room for Three – An Exercise in Dramaturgical Adaptation for Puppet Theatre. Turku, 2005. 73 p. ISBN 952-5596-08-7.
20. Adamsson, Virpi & Puukka, Jaana: Vimma – naisten yrittäjätarinoita Turun seudulta. Turku, 2005. 90 p. ISBN 952-5596-06-0

’COMMENTS’ FROM TURKU POLYTECHNIC

12. Kairisto-Mertanen, Liisa: Markkinalähtöisyys korkeakouluympäristössä – katsaus ajattelutavan omaksumiseen ja kehittämiseen. 19 p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-64-7 (electronic) , ISBN 952-5113-63-9 (printed).
13. Angerpuro, Kirsi: Opiskelijapalaute oppimisympäristön ja opiskelun kuvaajana – tuloksia Turun ammattikorkeakoulun vuoden 2003 opiskelijabarometrista. 48 p. + 15 app. p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-69-8 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-67-1 (printed).
14. Silvanto, Jenni: Osaajia omaan maakuntaan – Turun ammattikorkeakoulun työelämäyhteydet ja valmistuneiden työllistyminen Varsinais-Suomeen. 45 p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-82-5 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-81-7 (printed).
15. Hintikka, Tuomas: Visakoivun lujuusominaisuuksien selvittäminen kokeellisesti. 42 p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-85-X (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-84-1 (printed).
16. Veräjänkorva, Oili: Lääkehoidon opetus ja oppiminen Turun ammattikorkeakoulussa – tarkastelun kohteena toteutus suunnitelmat ja opettajien omat arvioinnit. 60 p. + 7 app. p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-87-6 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-86-8 (printed).
17. Koivuniemi, Sirkku (ed.): Hyvät projektikäytännöt terveysalan opetuksessa. 56 p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113-94-9 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-92-2 (printed).
18. Kallio, Nurmela, Tuomaala, Veräjänkorva & Wiirilinna: Terveystieteiden koulutuksen laatu ja vaikuttavuus Turun ammattikorkeakoulussa – opiskelijoiden arvio omasta koulutuksestaan. 85 p. Turku, 2004. ISBN 952-5113- 96-5 (electronic), ISBN 952-5113-95-7 (printed).
19. Kasi, Ella (ed.): Yrittäjyyden kipinöitä – opiskelijoiden ajatuksia yrittäjyydestä. 48 p. Turku, 2005. ISBN 952-5596-11-7 (electronic), ISBN 952-5596-10-9 (printed).
20. Kivinen, Outi (ed.): From Education to Work – Report from Friskie EU -Project. 80 p. Turku, 2005. ISBN 952-5596-14-1 (electronic), ISBN 952-5596-13-3 (printed).

Turku Polytechnic
 Research and Development Centre
 Sepänkatu 3
 20700 Turku / Finland

puh. +358 10 5535 810
 fax. +358 10 5535 791
 publications@turkuamk.fi
 tk.turkuamk.fi/julkaisutoiminta/tilaus.html

