National Institute for Vocational Education and Training

Ob železnici 16, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia

Phone: +386 (0)1/ **5864 200**
Fax: +386 (0)1/ **5422 045**
E-mail: **info@cpi.si**
http://**www.cpi.si**

National Research Report (NRR)

Slovenia 2009

CEDEFOP
European Centre
for the Development
of Vocational Training

REFERNET

Authors

Tanja Čelebič, MSc, Senior Advisor II, Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development (IMAD)

Veronika Šlander; retired, Headmaster of a Secondary Vocational School, Head of the Occupational Standards Department within Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training. She has also played an important role in the development of National Vocational Qualifications in Slovenia.

Darja Štarkl, MSc, Senior Adviser for Vocational Qualifications Development, Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training

Barbara Kunčič, Senior Adviser for Vocational Qualifications Development, Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training

Natalija Vrečer PhD, research fellow, Slovenian Institute for Adult Education

Coordination of the report: Metka Šlander, ReferNet Coordinator; Marjana Komprej, Institute of the republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training

The preparation of this report has been cofinanced by the European Community.

Table of contents

Abstract

1. Benefits of VET

The authors structured the report around selected literature. In *Employability in Slovenia*, they discuss ways of organising the existing database using existing data. They determine that the database has not been used sufficiently. Later, they examine the problem of matching on the Labour Market by quoting *Vocational Education and the Labour Market: Matching Vocational and Technical Titles with Professions*. This publication examines the conceptualisation, followed by the method of empirically resolving the problem of matching.

This theme is further discussed in the publication entitled *The Problem of Matching and the Transition of Young People in the Work Sphere*, where the connection between the educational sphere and the employment sphere is presented. Later, Samo Pavlin researches the question of how educational institutions are supposed to develop the competences of their graduates that are appropriate for labour market. Lastly, the author concludes with an example of a competence analysis.

2. VET and employment-related mobility and migration

While researching material for this literary review, the author discovered that statistical data concerning Slovenia is short on data about VET. The author divided mobility into the following categories:

(a) Geographical mobility: According to the Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development (IMAD), higher or lower GDP is directly correlated to the level of education in the region. Accordingly, the central region of Slovenia has inhabitants with a higher education level and a small proportion of the population with only primary school education and, consequently, the highest GDP in Slovenia. On the other hand, the people in the Prekmurje region have one of the lowest education levels in Slovenia, and thus the lowest GDP. The mismatch on the labour market between the supply and demand of workers could be a reason for interregional migrations.

(b) Daily mobility is a substitute for permanent migration. Slovenes are averse to moving and are attached to their hometowns, and therefore prefer to commute to the workplace everyday. There has also been an increase in the number of external daily commuters, since Slovenia joined European Union in 2004.

(c) Job mobility (change of employers) and occupational mobility (change of profession). Since quick changes are common today, the ability of workers to adapt to a new environment and rapidly gain experience and knowledge is of key importance. Occupational and geographical mobility is also seen as a solution for regional, professional and educational mismatches.

CPI is leading an effort to introduce a single qualification framework connected to the European Qualification System that will result in the linking of countries' qualification systems and thus promote the mobility of citizens between countries, and promote lifelong learning. The author concludes that Slovenian policy makers and researchers should give more attention to the topic of VET, as it is under researched.

3. Educational leadership

This chapter presents the roles and responsibilities of school leaders, as well as the current situation in the field of school leadership in Slovenia. The term school leadership and the roles and responsibilities, procedures and requirements for the appointment of school leaders are all defined in the Organisation and Financing of Education Act, and also in various other acts and rules. The National School for Leadership of Education of the Republic of Slovenia (NSLE) has been established for leadership development and management training.

The main tasks of NSLE are to provide training for head teachers, to support professional development of educational leaders, the implementation of the Headship licence programme, the publication of books, magazines and other periodicals from the field of education, and to provide the continuous professional development of head teachers.

School leadership also falls under the responsibility of several other state institutions: the National Education Institute, the Centre for Mobility and European Programmes and the Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training

School leaders are organised into several professional associations where they discuss professional issues such as financing and salaries, which depend on the school size and organisation, and are defined on a national level.

In conclusion, although there has been significant development in school leadership since independence in 1991, the background report shows that anticipated trends and policy development were not based on actual data. Therefore, the consequences of the current changes in the curriculum at the secondary education level and in financing and organisation cannot be predicted.

4. Labour market groups at risk

This chapter discusses the position of selected labour market groups at risk. The author distinguishes between 5 groups: **low-educated persons, long-term unemployed persons**, **early school leavers**, **older persons** and the **Roma** population. A low level of education results in few chances for employment and, consequently, in social exclusion. Long-term unemployment diminishes the chances of finding a job even further. Generally, higher education is directly correlated to higher wages. Furthermore, individuals with tertiary education tend to participate in education, while people with primary school education do not demonstrate such tendencies. They are less motivated, mostly due to negative experiences

from formal education, low self-esteem and poor learning habits. A lack of financial means is also an important factor in their non-participation.

With regard to early school leavers, their numbers are relatively low in Slovenia, and some successful measures have been implemented in practice.

However, this is not so for older persons, whose employment rate is rather low. The rate is increasing, but remains among the lowest in the European Union. Even though participation in lifelong learning is an important factor for a competitive position in the labour market, participation rates continue to decline with age.

As regards the Roma, their low education rates limit their chances of finding a regular job. The number of adult Roma participating in primary and vocational programmes is increasing. However, the long-term goal is not only to encourage them to attend school, but to complete their studies as well.

Theme 1: Benefits of VET

The following article focuses on a specific dimension of the benefits of VET, namely "labour market outcomes of VET". The chapter concentrates on summaries of articles and publications published in Slovenia from 2004 to 2009 regarding education and its position on the labour market. The introduction discusses the problem of obtaining quality data for the analysis of education and professions on the basis of available data sources. The first publication introduces the topic of how to organise a database containing data on anticipated demand on the labour market and how to use the data for monitoring the labour market in relation to vocational education. Further on, a matching problem on the labour market is introduced, presenting discrepancies between the planned educational programmes and occupations on the labour market, as well as the consequences of these discrepancies. The conclusion presents an example of a competence analysis based on a database of the demand for workers.

1.1. Introduction

In the past the attempts to research the linkage between the labour market and education in Slovenia were few and far in between. During the last four years this topic has become the subject of several studies in scientific circles. The need has arisen in Slovenia for empirically verified data that will ultimately replace past practices for planning educational needs, which were the result of economic planning.

The result of the needs for the appropriate planning of qualifications development was the establishment of the Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training. One of the Institute's most important tasks is the preparation of educational programmes based on labour market data.

This includes data on movements in the labour market maintained by the Employment Service of Slovenia and the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia in their respective official records. Both institutions collect data on current developments on the labour market in their official records using their own classification tools in the process. As this data is shown at the aggregate level (i.e. unemployment, the active population, needs for new employment positions, etc.), the requirement for a research institution to analyse and monitor changes on the labour market in terms of support for decisions made in the preparation of educational programmes in the field of vocational and technical education and possibly to forecast education requirements, has emerged several times in the past.

1.2. Examining the connecting/matching problem in the labour market

The official records on current demand managed by the Employment Service of Slovenia, where all employment positions offered by employers are recorded, have proven to be a comprehensive source of information. However, the problem with these records is disorganised data on various educational programmes, which changed during various educational reforms, and thus require a comprehensive data review, as well as its translation into high-quality topical data (educational programmes).

In the book entitled *Zaposljivost v Sloveniji* (*Employability in Slovenia*) (ed. A. Kramberger and S. Pavlin, 2007), the chapter entitled *Informacijske podlage za pripravo izobraževalnih programov v smeri večje zaposljivosti: primer strojništva* (*Information Foundations in Preparing Educational Programmes Aiming towards Greater Employability: Mechanical Engineering as Example*) (Štarkl, 2007), deals precisely with the problem of organising the existing database based on current demand on the labour market and using the data for the purpose of monitoring the labour market in the field of vocational and technical education. The author finds the database on current demand for workers has not been used sufficiently, as it could have been used for more than just extracting aggregate data. She clearly demonstrates how condensed data can be obtained, along with telling indicators that show the situation on the demand side of the labour market. The paper also provides a practical example of data analysed in the field of mechanical engineering, as well as an example of its practical application to support the preparation of educational programmes.

The author then continues her analytical work of studying labour market data and applies it to all areas covered by vocational and technical education in Slovenia. The results are published in the publication entitled *Izobraževalni programi na trgu dela* (*Educational Programmes on the Labour Market*) (Štarkl, 2007). The chapters cover 13 sectors that present the dynamics of demand, classified by particular educational levels and regions, on the basis of empirical examination from the aspect of current demand.

Those who prepare educational programmes have access to information on how individual educational programmes are valued on the labour market, as well as information regarding the types of knowledge and skills that are important for the economy. To the creators of educational programmes, this indicates which types of knowledge should, in the preparation of the open curriculum[1] which in Slovenia takes up to 20 % of the educational programme, required by the local economy. In the open curriculum, schools can include those types of knowledge that are required by the local economy. Every sector also treats the corresponding connecting/matching problem on the Slovenian labour market. The results mainly show discrepancies among qualifications provided by schools and the actual demand at companies.

[1] In Slovenia, 80 % of the professional and vocational curriculum is prepared at the national level, while 20% is open curriculum, prepared by schools in conjunction with social partners.

For example in the food processing sector, catering sector and wood processing sector employers demand low-qualified workers. On the other hand, the levels of qualifications provided in schools are getting higher. These discrepancies signal how to encourage alternative ways of obtaining qualifications, particularly for those already employed or unemployed.

The Master's thesis entitled Poklicno izobraževanje in trg dela: ujemanje poklicnih in strokovnih nazivov s poklici (Vocational Education and the Labour Market: Matching Vocational and Technical Titles with Professions, Štarkl, 2007) examines conceptualisation, followed by the method of empirically resolving the matching problem in Slovenia, and subsequently empirically verifies the problem by using selected examples from the field of vocational education and training. As the starting point for verification of the matching/connecting problem, the author develops three sets of indicators:

- Indicator 1 – matching planned professions in educational programmes with employers' professions,
- Indicator 2 – demand for certain professions in terms of employers' activities,
- Indicator 3 – demand in terms of the main professional/sectoral domains.

By comparing Indicator 1, the author determines where in educational programmes vocational education planning was adequate, and where this planning was less adequate. A comparison of Indicator 2 shows in which sectors employers' demands for educational programmes were sufficiently condensed and where they were rather dispersed. Indicator 3 shows in which educational programmes the professional sectoral domain was most distinctive and where it was fairly dispersed.

The author finds that a higher rate of matching between the professions planned in educational programmes and the professions demanded by employers can be seen both at the lower and higher levels of education. Furthermore, we can see this trend in various sectors of industry.

The vocational structure of demand is changing in accordance with the current requirements of employers, but **certain types of education, particularly those from the field of vocational and technical education, flow into specific labour market segments, meaning there is, in practice, no major link between a certain type of education and certain professions and sectors.**

On open labour markets, experience and various skills obtained in the process of informal education, which are referential for an employer when looking for an employee, play an important role. The broader general content of educational programmes in technical secondary schools and higher vocational schools provides more easily transferrable knowledge, welcome in various sectors. The knowledge obtained in a certain professional area, combined with other types of knowledge, is very much desired by employers. In this way, graduates have the opportunity to disperse more easily across various professions and different sectors, and can move between various segments of the labour market.

The recognisability of the candidate's knowledge is very important when employers decide on which candidate to employ. In the dual system[2] of education, employers have the opportunity of getting to know the students and their personal and other characteristics that provide key information on their productive capabilities.

The link between the educational sphere and the employment sphere as well as the possible consequences of over-regulation in vocational education with direct positions of employment was presented by Anton Kramberger (2007) in his paper entitled *Ujemalni problem in prehod mladih v sfero dela* (*The Problem of Matching and the Transition of Young People to the Work Sphere,* Kramberger, 2007) by studying the labour market matching problem and the distribution of persons with similar background education across various occupations.

Traditionally, vocational education in Slovenia was heavily determined by the labour market and the demands of the economy. However, too **great of a link between the two areas, particularly in extremely specialised occupations, can lead to an excess in graduates entering the labour market.** On the other hand, **too great a dispersion of persons with similar vocational education can result in a rapid loss of original knowledge due to frequent retraining.**

According to Kramberger (2007), the phenomenon of non-matching signifies "a visible separation between state-planned educational and vocational trends, which is very normal in the market economies of modern societies, as it is a result of an independent functioning of individualised labour markets and the heterogeneous nature of work as such."

The matching problem can also shed some light on the causes of problems occurring when young persons transition from schools to the labour market. Kramberger (Kramberger, 2007) states four typical links between qualifications and occupations:

- The first case shows a narrow vocation-oriented programme on the one hand and a limited number of specialised jobs on the other, which results in unemployment among those young persons who hold a degree in these qualifications.

- In the second case, there is, again, a vocation-oriented programme, but no particular specialised employment positions on the labour market, which forces graduates in these programmes to seek employment in a dispersed manner throughout the related professional areas.

[2] Slovenian educational reform in 1996 introduced a dual system of vocational education, adapted to the needs of the craft industry and micro-economy. The main characteristic is an increased scope of practical instruction carried out at companies or workshops. The newly-adopted Vocational Education Act (2006) introduced the dual system as a form of workplace training for all vocational and professional education students.

- The third example is a combination of a programme that is not specialised and leads to dispersion across various professional groups, meaning vocational specialisation could take place after the transition to the work sphere.

- The final case deals with the broadest, generally set programmes that usually lead to further studies, or with relatively broadly set study programmes at the tertiary level, where the graduates are, when searching for employment, left to well-established practices of transition to the labour market, their own initiative and the general situation on the labour market.

By analysing the matching problem in Slovenia, Kramberger (Kramberger, 2007) finds that persons posses very dispersed school knowledge both in terms of the education field and the level of complexity in various professions. The author sees this as a sign that the Slovenian labour market has already unbound itself from formerly closed Socialistic professional markets, and that we are now dealing with an open labour market. As workers, however, are recruited into occupations in a very broad sense, many of them are trained at work, and the work process itself functions at a rather low average level of (school and work) knowledge, and probably also at a low technology level. This situation can create a developmental problem in terms of how to achieve more technical, specialist-focused production that will also demand more complex knowledge and technology.

In his article entitled *Izobraževalni sistem kot generator ključnih kompetenc za delo: empirična analiza izbranih poklicev* (*Educational System as the Generator of Key Competences for Work: Empirical Analysis of Selected Professions*), Samo Pavlin (Pavlin, 2007) poses a similar question, but from another analytical aspect: how are educational institutions supposed to develop the competences of their graduates that would be suitable for the labour market? Pavlin is especially interested in the relationship between the level of formal education and the complexity of respective professions.

The research, which covered 1,512 individuals employed in 63 vocational groups most typical of the Slovenian labour market, monitored occupations practiced by respondents at the time of the survey. The survey respondent sample was primarily represented by relatively young persons working in their professions, who completed their public education in the preceding 10 years, namely the programmes corresponding to the profession both in terms of the education level and the education field. The purpose of this research was to determine the importance of the education suitable for practicing a certain profession.

Assumptions of the research were verified at three levels:

- The first level attempted to ascertain how the required level of competences of a certain profession is related to the time the individual needs to become an expert. It was expected that occupations with a higher level of assessed complexity of key competences would also require a longer period of time before persons working in the profession would become experts. Although this assumption was confirmed in the course of the analysis, the period of performing a occupations alone is not the only factor that affects the development of competences. The analysis exposed professions which were classified

surprisingly high given the required level of competences needed for practicing the profession and time required for an individual to become an expert. Such professions were, for example, car mechanics, hairdressers, installers of electronic equipment, electronic equipment maintenance personnel, etc. These are professions where practical work is likely the basis for enabling the development of key competences.

- The other research area was to determine the link between formal education and the possibility of carrying out an occupation without it. It was assumed that the possibility of carrying out an occupation without suitable education, both in terms of the level and content, is greater with occupations requiring formal education that is completed in a shorter period of time. In such cases, the respondents stated that they could perform their work even if they had not completed the appropriate schooling. It would be hardest of all to perform such work for those whose occupation also encompasses practical work, such as doctors, pharmacists, lawyers, high school and elementary school teachers, those employed at universities and senior staff nurses. However, there were some exceptions even in these cases, namely in professions which, despite the schooling process, require several years of work experience for persons to become competent in them (i.e. hairdressers, engine mechanics, car mechanics and electrical equipment maintenance staff).
- The third research area deals with the link between the level of professional competences and formal education. The purpose of this research was to determine whether the preparation of graduates for employment is truly the fundamental function of educational institutions. The logical assumption would therefore be that occupations where the required level of competences is higher also have greater support in the institutionalisation of the vertical level of formal education. The assumption that the complexity of work observed across the expected level of occupational competences is conditioned by the institutionalisation of a suitable vertical level of formal education turned out to be correct. Interesting deviations appeared in this analysis too. "Combined" professions, where several tasks and competences are united, for example sales engineers, journalists, managers, and line managers (mechatronics), appear high on the scale, whereas a doctor as a traditional profession appears rather low.

Pavlin (Pavlin, 2007) points out that the research is particularly interesting as it raises the question of developing "new professions", where assumptions were not confirmed and which bring inconsistency into the research logic. These are professions showing a relatively low level of formalisation in suitable educational programmes, but a high level of required competences, as well as relatively long time in which persons working in the profession can become experts, along with a relatively low probability of performing work well without suitable education.

Pavlin (Pavlin, 2007) concludes the fundamental finding of the research is that the Slovenian labour market is no exception in witnessing the occurrence of a group of professions where, **due to technological and other changes, persons working in these professions posses a higher level of competences, which require more time to be mastered, and encounter**

more difficulties in performing work without the appropriate education than would be expected given the actual appropriate level of education. In Pavlin's opinion, these findings call for reflection on the possibility of establishing a suitable educational system and on its integration with informal forms of education and the development of competences.

1.3. Competence analysis in terms of labour demand

Based on the demands of employers making inquiries into new hires, the Employment Service carried out a detailed study of competences. The competence analysis results are published in the publication entitled *Analiza dodatnih pogojev za zasedbo prostih delovnih mest v letih 2007-2008* (*Analysis of Additional Conditions Required to Occupy Positions of Employment in 2007-2008*) (Kladis Kravos, 2009) prepared by a task force appointed by the Employment Service of the Republic of Slovenia. Based on certain criteria, 56 units of subject groups in occupations were selected from the Standard Classification of Occupations, which were classified into seven main groups. The data was collected through a form on available employment positions, in which employers, besides stating the required education, also defined additional criteria for employment. The latter are written in standardised form and include: knowledge of foreign languages, computer skills, other skills (the ability to communicate, managing small/large groups, and organisational skills) and a driving licence. In addition to the above mentioned standardised categories, employers also had the opportunity to define other additional types of knowledge. These are stated in a descriptive manner. Thus the authors limited the competence analysis to nine units from the field of economics, due to the extensiveness of data. The analysis provided a set of the following competences: communication, precision, reliability, adaptability, business skills and problem-solving skills. The results of the analysis of additional employment criteria performed by selected units are presented in extensive tables and represent high-quality information to counsellors at the Employment Service of Slovenia when working with both the unemployed and employed, and in work involving the vocational orientation of young persons. This type of competence analysis also serves as a good source of information necessary to prepare the bases in planning the content of educational programmes at the Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training.

1.4. Conclusions and Implications for further research

The analyses described above represent the beginning of empirical analyses for identifying educational needs and specific attempts to address this problem. The linking of empirical data to school policies itself is not sufficiently organised from a systemic point of view. We find that Slovenia has an organised data collection system, but is deficient in including these data in the vocational education planning system.

In fact, we find that it is necessary to build on previous successful attempts and systematically include them in Slovenia's vocational education development strategy. This also raises the issue of linking institutions which, together, could plan measures for a more rapid response to labour market problems and trends.

1.5. References:

1. Kramberger, A (2007): Ujemalni problem in prehod mladih v sfero dela (The Problem of Matching and the Transition of Young People to the Work Sphere) in: Kramberger, A., Pavlin, S.(ed.): Zaposljivost v Sloveniji (Employability in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Založba FDV, pp.128-148.

2. Kravos, K. et al. (2009): Analiza dodatnih pogojev za zasedbo prostih delovnih mest v letih 2007- 2008 (Analysis of Additional Conditions Required to Occupy Positions of Employment in 2007-2008*)*. Ljubljana: Zavod Republike Slovenije za zaposlovanje.

3. Pavlin, S. (2007): Izobraževalni sistem kot generator ključnih kompetenc za delo: empirična analiza izbranih poklicev (Educational System as the Generator of Key Competences for Work: Empirical Analysis of Selected Professions). in: Kramberger, A., Pavlin, S. (ed.): Zaposljivost v Sloveniji (Employability in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Založba FDV, pp. 185-213.

4. Štarkl, A. (2007): Izobraževalni programi na trgu dela *(*Educational Programmes on the Labour Market). Ljubljana: Center RS za poklicno izobraževanje.

5. Štarkl, A. (2007): Poklicno izobraževanje in trg dela: ujemanje poklicnih in strokovnih nazivov s poklici: Magistrska naloga (Vocational Education and the Labour Market: Matching Vocational and Technical Titles with Professions: Master's thesis). Ljubljana: Univerza v Ljubljani; Fakulteta za družbene vede.

6. Štarkl, A. (2007): Informacijske podlage za pripravo izobraževalnih programov v smeri večje zaposljivost: primer strojništva (Information Foundations in Preparing Educational Programmes Aiming towards Greater Employability: Mechanical Engineering as Example). In: Kramberger, A. and Pavlin, S. (ed.): Zaposljivost v Sloveniji (Employability in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Založba FDV, pp. 149-165.

Theme 2: VET and employment-related mobility and migration

This research report is the result of the literary review on VET and employment-related mobility and migration in Slovenia. Primarily books and research papers published in Slovenia from 2004 to 2009, and with a special focus on those written by national researchers, were consulted. In Slovenia, the topic VET and employment-related mobility and migration is under-researched. The results of the literary review indicate that, due to the ageing population, Slovenia needs migrants. However, they are usually employed in low-esteem and low-paid professions. The results also showed that mobility in Slovenia is still very low. This holds true for geographical and occupational mobility. However, in order to achieve development, the aforementioned forms of mobility should be encouraged in contemporary societies, including Slovenia, to remove the obstacles to geographical and occupational mobility, which represent a challenge that Slovenia will have to face in the future. Mobility not only facilitates better employability, but also equips persons with intercultural competences, which represent some of the key competences needed for successful functioning in a contemporary society. VET must also develop as multicultural education in Slovenia, since Slovenia, like other European countries, is a multicultural society.

2.1. Introduction

Mobility and migration are as old as mankind. They are characteristic of all historical periods, as persons have always migrated and experienced various types of mobility. In a period of globalisation, mobility and migration have become even more intense, as demographic changes are characteristic for Slovenia, as well as for other parts of the EU. The active population is decreasing while the number of elderly is rising. Migration can partly resolve the issue of low fertility. Due to a falling fertility rate, migration becomes an increasingly important factor of demographic development. Today, Slovenia depends on migration, a fact that will become even more evident over the next 30 years (Jakoš, 2009). According to the same author, demographic issues represent one of the most important factors for the future development of Slovenia.

Therefore, it is a challenge for education systems to include VET to respond to these contemporary societal challenges of migration and mobility. This national report deals with VET and employment-related mobility and migration. Special attention is given to occupational mobility. However, geographical and daily forms of mobility, which are linked to occupational mobility and migration, are also dealt with.

The literary review revealed that mobility in Slovenia is still very low, but nevertheless very important for the future of the state (Drobnič J., 2006; Medved, 2006). The improvement of geographical and occupational forms of mobility is one of the key challenges for a contemporary world (Drobnič J., 2006). They, therefore, need to be improved in Slovenia as well (Skuber, 2006).

Let us first define what is meant by migration and mobility. Some authors use the terms interchangeably, yet there have been attempts to differentiate between the two terms. For example, IMAD (2008) uses the following definition, written by Bole: the term "mobility" is used in connection with overcoming distances in space by an individual whose permanent residence does not change, while "migration" or "population movement" denotes the change of residence of individuals or groups of people (Bole, 2004: 28). Moreover, "social mobility" is defined as a change in the status of an individual or group in the system of social relations (IMAD, 2008: 115).

2.2. Methodology

This national research report is a literary review of current key issues and outcomes related to VET and employment-related mobility and migration. The main focus is on current national research topics from the period 2004 to 2009 and on literature published in Slovenia.

The search for books, research papers and articles in COBISS (Cooperative Online Bibliographic System and Service) on the aforementioned topic produced no results. COBISS is a virtual Slovenian library that contains all publications issued in Slovenia, including all foreign publications catalogued in all Slovenian libraries. That means that not only is there no national publication on the researched topic, there are also no related foreign publications available in Slovenian libraries. As the keywords VET and mobility and VET and migration entered into COBISS produced no results, the following separate keywords were also taken into consideration: VET, mobility, migration. Thus we were able to access those publications that at least (briefly) mentioned VET and employment-related mobility and migration. It was interesting that even in statistical data concerning Slovenia, data are very frequently available only for the primary school, secondary school and university levels. Therefore, too often data are lacking for vocational schools, and for post-secondary vocational education and higher vocational education. Thus, this research report succinctly drives home the fact that additional research is required in Slovenia on the topic of VET and employment-related mobility and migration. Moreover, it was determined that the overall topic of VET is under-researched in Slovenia and also requires more attention.

2.3. Geographical and daily mobility in Slovenia

2.3.1. Geographical mobility in Slovenia

This subchapter refers to internal migration within Slovenia. Statistical data shows that in the EU, most persons migrate within their own country, while migration between Member States represents only a small proportion of total migration (Medved, 2006). The same holds true for Slovenes, who prefer to migrate to another city or town in Slovenia rather than move to other EU/EEA countries. This data has been confirmed by research conducted by the Public Opinion and Mass Communication Research Centre (Medved, 2006).

According to the 2002 population census, only 45% of all inhabitants of Slovenia lived in the town where they were born and 1,076,023[3] inhabitants were migrants (IMAD, 2008). After the Second World War, deagrarisation, industrialisation and urbanisation occurred in Slovenia. These processes caused persons to begin migrating from villages to cities and towns. After independence in 1991, internal migration became an economic necessity. However, IMAD (2008) presents the results of a questionnaire among the unemployed carried out by Jakoš, which revealed that only half of those persons (53%) were prepared to move. Thus, IMAD (2008) concludes that Slovenes are not prone to move. Today, Slovenia faces a situation in which persons are moving from cities and towns, usually to the outskirts, to solve their housing problems, as flats and houses outside of cities and towns are cheaper. IMAD (2008) finds that the number of regional internal migrants in Slovenia totalled nearly 100,000 between independence in 1991 and 2006. In Slovenia, housing is on par with the workplace as a motivating factor in persons' decisions to move to another town. Nevertheless, regional migration in Slovenia is not very significant, as an average of just 6,243 people move to another region a year (IMAD, 2008). In the period from 1997 to 2004, the proportion of internal migrants was just 1.53% annually (Grčar, 2006).

According to IMAD (2008), human capital is, besides natural resources, the infrastructure, etc., an important factor for regional development. The same institution estimates that regions with inhabitants with higher education levels and longer periods of formal education generate higher GDP. Individuals with higher education levels receive higher income, while these regions enjoy other advantages (i.e. a better healthcare system, etc.). According to the 2002 population census, inhabitants with the longest period of formal education live in the central region of Slovenia (including the capital of Ljubljana), which has the smallest proportion of the population with only primary school education. Therefore, this region has the highest GDP in Slovenia. The opposite is true in the Prekmurje region, where people have the lowest level of education, while this region has the lowest GDP and many unemployed persons.

This mismatch on the labour market between the supply and demand of workers with a specific education level (i.e. lower, upper secondary and university education) could be a reason for interregional migrations (IMAD, 2008). Lower education levels have a negative impact on a region in terms of immigration, and a positive impact in terms of emigration. Conversely, higher education levels have a positive impact on a region in terms of immigration, and a negative impact in terms of emigration (Pekkala, Knaggashar and Grčar, IMAD, 2008). Persons with post-secondary vocational education and higher education tend to move to the central region of Slovenia and the Gorenjska region, while the Zasavje region lost more than 10% of persons with post-secondary vocational education and higher education (IMAD, 2008). In Slovenia in recent years, the number of higher education institutions in other regions, apart from the two biggest cities of Ljubljana and Maribor, has risen, meaning that more persons will be able to complete their studies in their own region. However, "in order for an individual to stay in his or her own region after their studies, the offer of higher

[3] Slovenia is a country with 2 million people.

education needs to be adapted to the existing and future needs of the regional economy" (ibid.: 100).

According to Medved (2006), geographical mobility can improve professional opportunities. The creative workforce (i.e. engineers, doctors, teachers, researchers, artists, etc.) does not move strictly in accordance with the principle that persons follow jobs (not only to find employment), but also in accordance with the principle that jobs follow persons (they move where the most creative conditions for employment can be found) (IMAD, 2008). In Slovenia, this is the central region, where persons with higher education levels tend to move. Drobnič, R. (2006) writes that Slovenia intends to solve the problems of structural mismatches on the labour market (i.e. regional, vocational and educational mismatches) through geographical and occupational mobility.

2.3.2. Daily mobility in Slovenia

Daily mobility is a kind of spatial (horizontal) mobility, where persons travel to another city or town on a daily basis or several times a week. They do not, however, change their permanent residence (cf. to Bole, 2004; IMAD, 2008). The main reason for daily mobility is a lack of jobs in the local area (Bole, 2004).

The origins of daily mobility can be traced to the early industrialisation period, when workplaces were no longer linked to permanent residences (i.e. the workplaces of farmers). In this period, the workplace became linked to the cities and towns where industrial activities could be found (IMAD, 2008, Bole, 2004). "The birth of large employment centres and the overpopulation of the rural countryside on the one hand, and the development of the transportation infrastructure on the other, resulted in daily streams of workers from their place of residence to their place of employment. The first widely used means of transporting commuters was the train, followed by buses and later by the automobile" (Bole, 2004).

After the Second World War, daily mobility increased in Slovenia due to the fact that cars became more accessible, which slowed down the processes of migration (IMAD, 2008). Daily mobility from surrounding municipalities to Ljubljana is widespread. This is particularly true of persons in the aforementioned creative professions, who tend to commute to Ljubljana every day (ibid.). According to this institution, daily labour mobility in Slovenia is actually a substitution for permanent migration. As previously mentioned, Slovenes are generally averse to moving. The questionnaire results (Jakoš, IMAD, 2008) showed that 80% of those interviewed were prepared to commute to work every day. Other results indicate that Slovenes are very attached to their home town and enjoy commuting to the workplace every day. The 2002 population census showed that there were 658,911 commuters in Slovenia, workers (440,299) accounting for two-third and pupils and students (218,612) enrolled in primary, secondary, higher education accounting for one-third. Those enrolled in education institutions use public transport more frequently (53%) than workers who commute (less than 10%) (IMAD, 2008). "The average Slovene commuter has a secondary school education, lives between 15 and 30 minutes from the place of employment and drives to work alone in

an automobile. The use of an automobile increases with increasing levels of education" (Bole, 2004: 38).

According to the 2002 population census, Slovenia had only 4,500 external daily commuters, who travelled to work in another country and returned home every day (IMAD, 2008). Since Slovenia joined the EU in 2004, it has seen an increase in external daily labour mobility, as more Slovenes go to work in Austria and Italy on a daily basis than before Slovenia's accession to the EU (Medved, 2006). The regions that border neighbouring countries, such as the Goriška region, the Štajerska region (Styria) and the Prekmurje region, account for the majority of external daily commuters (IMAD, 2008). The main push factors include an inadequate number and the structure of hometown jobs, the desire to earn more for the same work, the desire to work abroad, the desire for additional earnings and the availability of education (Zupančič, in IMAD, 2008). The reasons for external daily labour mobility differ from region to region. In the coastal region (the Obalno-kraška region), many younger female pensioners, who work as cleaning ladies, maids or baby sitters to earn extra money, can be found among the commuters to Trieste. In the Goriška region, young women working in the service sector (i.e. tourism and personal services) also commute. Men from the Gorenjska region, employed in the wood industry, tend to commute (Zupančič, IMAD, 2008). Men from the Koroška region, employed in, for example, forestry, also tend to commute. Low-educated persons from the Štajerska and Prekmurje regions, seeking work on farms and in forestry, can be found among commuters. Seasonal mobility linked to farm work is also present (IMAD, 2008).

IMAD (2008) also emphasises the need for sustainable mobility: among the principles of sustainably organised transport, there is a need to reduce travelling requirements, as traffic pollutes the environment. According to Plevnik et al. (in IMAD, 2008), sustainable mobility should be environmentally friendly and economically efficient, and should encourage the use of bicycles, public transport etc.

2.4. Occupational mobility in Slovenia

Despite the fact that occupational mobility is the major topic of our national research report, there was not a significant amount of literature on this topic, as related literature in the period from 2004 to 2009 is very scarce, and practically non-existent.

Hiršl (2008) writes that, in Slovenia, the term occupational mobility includes two forms of mobility that can occur simultaneously: job mobility (job-to-job mobility) and occupational mobility in a more narrow sense. The transfer of an individual from one employer to another is characteristic of job mobility, while occupational mobility in a more narrow sense means a change of a profession. According to Hiršl (2009), in Slovenian legislation, the basis for occupational mobility is laid down in Article 49 of the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 33/1991). The Slovenian constitution provides for the freedom of work, the right to free employment and equal access to every job under equal conditions.

Rapid changes are characteristic of contemporary times. Therefore, the capacity of workers to gain professional knowledge and experience is more important than ever before (Drobnič, R., 2006). Thus, special attention should be given to the importance of occupational mobility in Slovenia, as mobility enhances employment and education opportunities. The improvement of geographical and occupational mobility is thus one of the key challenges of contemporary society as a whole. This holds true for every EU Member State (Drobnič, J.[4] 2006). "Our development and economy, economic competitiveness and the realisation of the Lisbon objectives depend on how successfully we will overcome the numerous remaining obstacles concerning mobility" (Drobnič, J., 2006).

As previously emphasised, in Slovenia, the government aims to resolve structural mismatches on the labour market, such as regional, professional and educational mismatches, through occupational and geographical mobility (Drobnič, R. 2006). The goal is to reduce structural mismatches on the labour market through professional standards, which are the basis for the preparation of educational programmes in lower secondary, vocational professional education and post-secondary vocational education, and the catalogue of standards of professional knowledge and skills (Drobnič, R., 2006). The Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training is striving for a single qualification framework linked to the professional standards of the European Qualification Framework (EQF). The EQF is a common European reference framework that links countries' qualification systems, and acts as a translation device to make qualifications more readable and understandable across different countries and systems in Europe. It has two principal aims: to promote citizens' mobility between countries and to facilitate their lifelong learning (Etf, 2009). The goal of EQF is also to stimulate national systems. National qualification frameworks should be developed by 2011. Their goal is not only to achieve more transparency, but also to facilitate a path to qualifications and employment (Zevnik, 2007). The ECVET system, which facilitates dialogue and exchange between VET and qualifications systems, is also important for achieving greater mobility. Zver[5] (2008) finds that ECVET will introduce the conditions that are required for the mobility of VET students. According to Zver, ECVET can be considered a tool for the exchange of information, which will enable an individual to take advantage of the knowledge gained, notwithstanding where in Europe that knowledge was gained, and notwithstanding how that knowledge was gained, i.e. through formal non-formal or informal learning. In 2006 and 2007, the programmes of lower and upper secondary vocational and professional education were rejuvenated with the funds from European Social Fund, as the tendency was that increasingly fewer persons were interested in these programmes. However, it is expected that the rejuvenation of these programmes will result in an increasing number of student enrolments, thus reducing the professional mismatch on the labour market (Drobnič R., 2006). In Drobnič's opinion, social partners and local communities play an important role in encouraging mobility (geographical and occupational).

[4] Janez Drobnič is the former Minister of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

[5] Dr. Milan Zver is the former Minister of Education and Sports, who served during Slovenia's EU Presidency in the first half of 2008.

Although 2006, the European Year of Workers' Mobility, triggered several important events in the EU and Slovenia, such as awareness raising campaigns on the importance of mobility, attempts to eliminate obstacles to mobility, efforts for the free movement of EU workers and attempts to eliminate the transitional period for the employment of persons from new Member States, low mobility on the Slovenian labour market remains one of the reasons for the difficulties encountered in the employment of certain categories of unemployed persons in Slovenia (Drobnič J., 2006). Drobnič finds that important factors influencing workers' attitudes to mobility include social policies, employment policies and the relation between flexibility and security. The concept of "flexicurity" facilitates employee's flexibility and security. Mobility contributes to the security of employment, as it enables employees to develop and realise their capacities (Drobnič J., 2006). According to Drobnič, mobility must begin in the education process itself, with study visits and work practice done abroad. In Slovenia, the exchange of VET students and professors is carried out in the scope of lifelong learning programmes, such as Leonardo da Vinci, Comenius and Erasmus. Students with foreign-exchange experience find employment more easily in Slovenia than other students (Drobnič J., 2006). In the scope of VET, there is also mobility at the level of competitions abroad. Worthy of particular note in this regard are Worldskills and Euroskills. The latter is a biennial competition of participants who already have some professional experience from a specific workplace. The focus is on applied professional knowledge. Euroskills began in 2008, and is intended for young persons aged 18 to 25 years. In addition to Euroskills, VET students in Slovenia attend other competitions abroad, such as competitions for florists, ploughmen, cooks, foresters, waiters, roofers, tinsmiths, etc.[6]

Eurobarometer research showed that Slovenes very rarely change their jobs (less than three times during a career, which is lower than the European average) (Medved, 2006 and Hiršl, 2008).[7] It is characteristic of active employment policies in Slovenia to focus on programmes for the training of the unemployed, particularly during their transition to professional status or occupational mobility (Drobnič. R, 2006). National professional qualifications also represent an important part of active employment policies.

Important elements of occupational mobility in Slovenia are national professional qualifications, which have been in force in Slovenia since 2000 through the National Professional Qualifications Act. National professional qualifications enable adults to gain a certificate of professional qualification for the knowledge, skills and competences acquired informally on the basis of a national professional standard. "A professional standard is a document that determines the content of professional qualifications at a certain level of work complexity, and that defines knowledge, skills and professional competences" (Zgonc, 2006: 748). "Professional standards represent a link between the labour market and education, as they comprise the knowledge, skills and competences that a certain occupation requires" (Drobnič, R., 2006: 10).

---

[6] Lovšin (2009) and personal communication with the author on 29 September 2009.

[7] Hiršl (2008) writes that an average EU employee changes jobs four times, while an average American changes jobs six times during his or her lifetime.

The aim of the certificate system is to facilitate occupational mobility, and to enhance employability at home and abroad (Može, 2004). National professional qualifications represent an important part of the active employment policies implemented by the Employment Service of Slovenia, particularly for those fields, activities and professions for which there is a demand on the labour market. The certificate system is also linked to the school system, i.e. national vocational qualifications are a part of educational qualifications, and are especially suitable for early school leavers, the unemployed and low-educated persons, so that these groups are able to gain basic professional qualifications or retrain (Grm, Zevnik, 2008).[8]

2.5. Migration to Slovenia

The problems of an ageing population in the European Union, including Slovenia, could in part be solved through migration. As previously stated in the introduction, today Slovenia depends on migration, a fact that will become even more evident over the next 30 years (Jakoš, 2009). Also, the Development Strategy of Slovenia (2005) emphasises that Slovenia requires a positive net migration flow.

The number of work permits issued in Slovenia has increased in recent years (60,664 in 2007, an increase of 36% on 2006, when there were 44,654 work permits for foreigners) (Vrečer et al., 2008). Due to the current economic crisis, which began in autumn of 2008, the number of work permits for foreigners has fallen by one-quarter. The increase in work permits in 2008 was largely due to demand for workers in so-called occupations in excess demand (i.e. construction, metallurgy, transport and catering) (Vrečer et al., 2008). Most migrants in Slovenia come from the ex-Yugoslav republics of sBosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro. Those from the new EU Member States come mainly from Slovakia, Poland and Hungary, and primarily work in construction, the metal products industry and international transport, while migrants from older EU countries mainly occupy managerial positions in international corporations (ibid.).

Bešter (2007) found that migrants and their descendants in Slovenia have similar education levels to Slovenes. Bešter (2007) also researched the occupational structure of migrants in Slovenia. She found out that, according to the 2002 population census, migrants and their descendents are found in above-average numbers in so-called simple-labour professions, in professions included in the category machine and device operators and industrial producers and in non-industrial professions. She concludes that the population of migrants and their descendents are found in above-average numbers in low-esteem and typically low-paid professions. It seems that migrants in Slovenia do not enjoy equal employment opportunities in more reputable jobs as the rest of Slovenes (Bešter, 2007).

[8] Marjana Komprej emphasised that national professional qualifications also enable easier passage to formal education, if the modules accomplished in national professional qualification are recognised, they can therefore be considered as a step toward formal education (Marjana Komprej, personal communication, 26. 8. 2009, Institute of the RS for Vocational Education and Training (CPI).

Moreover, these persons share a situation of downward mobility with other migrants around the world. However, it was emphasised in the Strategy of Economic Migrations (2008) that migrants in Slovenia are more entrepreneurial than Slovenes. Here the importance of ethnic entrepreneurship should be noted, as ethnic social networks are of significant assistance to migrants in starting businesses in Slovenia.

Vrečer et al. (2008) found in their research on the educational needs of migrants in Slovenia that the inclusion of migrants in vocational education and training programmes in Slovenia requires improvement.

2.6. Emigration of Slovenes to foreign countries

Economic migrations from the ten new Member States that joined EU in 2004 are low, as persons from new Member States represent just 0.2% of the inhabitants of the 15 older Member States (Medved, 2006). In the EU, there is a larger proportion of migrants who seek seasonal and short-term employment. Furthermore, migrants from third countries are more common in the EU than mobility within the EU itself (Medved, 2006). Thus, the fear during negotiations on EU expansion from 15 to 25 Member States of mass migrations of workers from new Member States to old Member States was politically and economically motivated. Driven by this fear, the EU-15 reserved the right to fully facilitate the free movement of persons within the EU only after seven years have passed from the accession of new Member States in 2004. This also applies to Slovenian workers, although it was obvious from the time of negotiations onward that not many Slovenes would opt to work in the EU-15 (Malačič, 2006).

The Public Opinion and Mass Communication Research Centre confirmed in its research that the culture of mobility in Slovenia is very low, as previously mentioned. It researched the opinions of Slovenes on the mobility of Slovenian workers in the search for employment in the EU and EEA. The respondents of the telephone questionnaire ranged from 18 to 45 years of age. As previously mentioned, Slovenes prefer to migrate to another city or town in Slovenia than to move to other EU/EEA countries. When Slovenes decide to migrate abroad, personal factors (partner and family) are more important than systemic factors, such as official procedures, obtaining permissions or the lack of knowledge of a foreign language. A gender analysis showed that females give more importance to systemic, as well as personal factors, than males. At the same time, respondents with a lower level of education (i.e. completed primary school or vocational school) give more importance to personal obstacles than individuals with post-secondary vocational education and higher education. The research also found out that young persons are more prone to migrate to the EU than older persons. Persons who were more prone to move were men, younger persons, those less attached to their partners, those from bigger cities and those with a higher education level. The analysis of data showed that persons who are dissatisfied with their present employment are more prone to think about working abroad (Kovačič and Vovk, 2006).

2.7. Conclusions

A very important aspect of mobility in recent times is learning to tolerate and accept other cultures (Drobnič J., 2006). It is, therefore, important that vocational education and training in Slovenia become multicultural. Slovenia does not have a tradition of multicultural education, but without it, education would not be able to address contemporary social issues, such as mobility and migration. The fact is that all European societies are multicultural, and this holds true for Slovenia as well. The origin of multicultural education in Slovenia can be found in 2007, when the Ministry of Education and Sport, together with its partners, published the Strategy of inclusion of migrant children, pupils and students into the education system in the Republic of Slovenia. This strategy is also relevant for the students of vocational education and training. However, a significant amount of work lies ahead to implement this strategy. The increased mobility of VET teachers and students in Slovenia is also needed (cf. to Lebe and Rok, 2006), as mobility would improve the intercultural competences of students and teachers, thus enabling them to deal with the diversity that is characteristic of every multicultural society. In international exchanges, persons learn the language, they improve their understanding of other cultures, they learn to be flexible, open, and tolerant and they possess an ability to practice dialogue (cf. to Lebe and Rok, 2006). Ultimately, intercultural competences represent some of the key competences defined by the European Commission, required for successful inclusion in contemporary societies. The Vocational Education Act of 2006[9] lays down the basis for intercultural vocational education, by emphasising in Article 2 that one of the tasks of vocational and professional education is to educate for the "responsible protection of freedom, for tolerant and peaceful coexistence and the respect of people". Educators are also tasked "to develop and maintain own cultural traditions and to become familiar with other cultures and civilisations".

Enhancing geographical and occupational mobility thus represents a challenge for contemporary societies, including Slovenia (Drobnič J., 2006, Drobnič R., 2006 and Skuber, 2006). In order to enhance occupational mobility, employers must facilitate lifelong learning. They must also increase productivity by investing more in human resources (cf. Hiršl, 2008).

In 2006, the European Year of Workers' Mobility, several campaigns and other related events aimed at raising public awareness about the importance of mobility were carried out. However, it was found that Slovenian policy makers and researchers should pay more attention to the topic of VET and employment-related mobility and migration, as it is under-researched and not given sufficient attention by policy makers.

2.8. References

1. Bešter, R. (2007): Socialnoekonomska integracija priseljencev iz prostora nekdanje Jugoslavije in njihovih potomcev v Sloveniji (The socioeconomic integration of migrants

[9] Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 79/2006.

from ex-Yugoslavia and their desecndents in Slovenia), in: Komac, M. (ed.): Priseljenci (Migrants). Ljubljana: Institute for Ethnic Studies.

2. Bole, D. (2004): Daily Mobility of Workers in Slovenia, in: Acta Geographica Slovenica, 44-1, pp. 28-39.

3. Dolenc, P., Vodopivec, M. (2007): Mobilnost dela in fleksibilnost sistema plač (Mobility of work and the flexibility of the salary system). Koper: Fakulteta za management Koper.

4. Drobnič, J. (2006): Introduction in: Klinar, A. (ed.): Mobilnost delavcev: izziv, priložnost, pravica (Mobility of workers; challenge, opportunity and right). Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, pp. 7-9.

5. Drobnič, R. (2006): Introduction in: Klinar, A. (ed.): Mobilnost delavcev: izziv, priložnost, pravica (Mobility of workers; challenge, opportunity and right). Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, pp. 9-10.

6. Etf (2009): European Qualifications Framework: linking to a globalised world, Conference Summary. 29–30 January 2009.

7. Grčar, M. (2006): Interregional Migrations of the Slovenian Population (Medregionalne migracije prebivalstva v Sloveniji). Diploma work. Ljubljana: University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Economics.

8. Grm Pevec, S., Zevnik, M. (2008): Reform and Innovations in Vocational Education and Training in Slovenia. Meeting of Directors General for Vocational Education and Training, Brdo, Slovenia, 1-4 March 2008.

9. Hiršl, A. (2008): Pogledi na poklicno mobilnost (Views on occupational mobility). Ljubljana: Združenje delodajalcev Slovenije (PowerPoint presentation).

10. IMAD (2005): Strategija razvoja Slovenije (Slovene Development Strategy). Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development.

11. IMAD (2008): Socialni razgledi .Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development.10. Jakoš, A. (2009): Načrtovanje, demografija in Slovenija, in: Urbani izziv, Volume 20, No. 1, pp. 21-32.

12. Kolenc, J., Kramberger, A. (2008): Kakovost poklicnega in strokovnega izobraževanja – normativne in strokovne podlage (The Quality of vocational and professional education – normative and professional basis). Ljubljana: Educational Research Institute.

13. Korošec, V. (2008): Socialni in kulturni kapital kot dejavnika razlik v uspešnosti na trgu dela med staroselci, priseljenci in potomci priseljencev: Delovni zvezek No. 12/2008, Volume XVII (Social and cultural capital as the factors of differences in the successfulness in the labour market among the natives, migrants and the descendants of migrants). Ljubljana: IMAD.

14. Lebe, S.S., Rok, M. (2006): Mobility: a quality factor or an essential need in the globalisation process, in: Tourism and Hospitality Industry 2006. Opatija: Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management, pp. 953-969 (electronic source).

15. Josipovič, D. (2006): Učinki priseljevanja v Slovenijo (The impacts of immigration to Slovenia after World War Two). Ljubljana: Slovenian Scientific Research Centre of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts.

16. Kovačič, M., Vovk, T. (2006): Mobilnost slovenskih delavcev pri iskanju zaposlitve v državah EU/EGS (Mobility of Slovene workers in searching the employment in the EU/EGS states). Ljubljana: Center za raziskovanje javnega mnenja.

17. Lovšin, M. (2009). Euroskills v Sloveniji (Euroskills in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training, PowerPoint presentation at the meeting of Community of Wood Schools, 11 June 2009.

18. Malačič, J. (2006): Mobilnost zaposlenih – imigracije in emigracije na slovenskem trgu dela (The mobility of employees – immigrations and emigrations in the Slovene labour market), in: Reforme trga dela. Portorož: Planet GV, Inštitut za delo, Faculty of Law, University of Ljubljana.

19. Medved, F. (2006): Introduction in: Klinar, A. (ed.): Mobilnost delavcev: izziv, priložnost, pravica (Mobility of workers; challenge, opportunity and right). Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, pp. 11-17.

20. Ministry of Education and Sport (2007): Strategija vključevanja otrok, učencev in dijakov migrantov v sistem vzgoje in izobraževanja v Republiki Sloveniji (The Strategy of Inclusion of Children, Pupils and Students of Migrants in the Education system of the Republic of Slovenia). Ljubljana.

21. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, Ministry of Public Administration, Ministry for Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, et al.(2008): Predlog Strategije ekonomskih migracij (A suggestion for the Strategy of Economic Migrations). Ljubljana.

22. Može, M. (2004): Pravica do izobraževanja in uvajanje certifikatnega sistema RS in pomen certifikatov za posameznika.(The right to education and the introduction of the certificate system in the Republic of Slovenia and the role of the certificates for an individual). Master of Science thesis. Brdo pri Kranju: Fakulteta za podiplomske in evropske študije.

23. Sedej, M. (2008): Jobs for Youth – prosperity for all. Conference, 24-25 April 2008, Brdo, Slovenija, Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

24. Skuber, E. (2006): Poklicna mobilnost – ključ do zaposljivosti (Occupational mobility – key to employment). In: Klinar, A. (ed.): Mobilnost delavcev: izziv, priložnost, pravica (Mobility of workers; challenge, opportunity and right). Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, pp. 60-62.

25. Šlander, V., Hvala Kamenšček, P. (eds.) (2007): Recognition of Non-Formal and Informal Learning: OECD Activity 2006-2007: National Report for Slovenia. Ljubljana: Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training.

26. Vrečer, N., Možina, E., Svetina, M., Žalec, N., Javrh, P. (2008): Izobraževanje in usposabljanje migrantov v Sloveniji: Final Report (Education and training of migrants in Slovenia). Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

27. Zevnik, M. (2007): Potno poročilo s konference Agora "Gradimo evropsko področje poklicnega izobraževanja in usposabljanja"(A report from the conference Agora – »Building European Field of VET). Kranj, 6 April 2007.

28. Zgonc, B. (2006): Prenova poklicnega in strokovnega izobraževanja (Renewal of vocational and professional education). In: Javna uprava, Volume 42, No. 2-3, pp. 747-756.

29. Zver, M. (2008), Presentation by Milan Zver as Acting President of the EU Council and Slovenian Education Minister, at the meeting of the Committee on Culture and Education, 21 January 2008.

Theme 3: Educational Leadership

This report aims to identify the roles and responsibilities of school leaders and to present the current state of school leadership in Slovenia. Organisation and Financing of Education Act is comprised of school leadership in kindergartens, elementary schools, upper secondary schools and non-university vocational high schools. The National School for Leadership in Education plays a major role in the development of management, and provides continuous training and education for school head teachers, provides certified programmes and the certification of head teachers.

Due to the autonomy of a university, its leadership plays a different role in higher education: its role is being developed along with the establishment of a system of quality in higher education

From a methodological point of view, this report is a literary review of current key issues and outcomes related to educational leadership. The main sources are from the period 2006 to 2009. The National School for Leadership in Education (hereinafter: the NSLE) is the most important institution for the education and development of head teachers. Therefore, NSLE employees are among the most quoted authors. The main problem in the preparation of this report was the lack of available, specific results of projects implemented in this area and insufficient data regarding the number of licensed head teachers.

3.1. The term "school leader" and the key competences of school leaders

The term "school leader" in Slovenia denotes a head teacher who performs the function of a pedagogical (instructional) leader and has, in accordance with the Organisation and Financing of Education Act (hereinafter: the ZOFVI), certain authority and responsibilities for the implementation of the curriculum and for spearheading the learning process (Erčulj and Peček, 2009; Koren, 2007). Trnavčevič (Trnavčevič 2008) emphasises that the ZOFI (Article 49) defines a head teacher as pedagogical leader and managing body.

There are currently no formally approved national standards concerning the competences of school leaders. Some competences are defined in the compulsory pre-service programme. A list of competences is being developed in a project coordinated by the Educational

Institute, but there is no guarantee it will be recognised at the national level. It is still unclear what type of approach will be used in the national strategy for the self-evaluation of schools (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

The key competences of head teachers can be summarised as follows:

(a) the selection of staff;

(b) the allocation of resources for material costs;

(c) the purchase of school equipment;

(d) designing the content of the elective part of a programme;

(e) designing an above-standard programme;

(f) the organisation of school work;

(g) ensuring the quality of educational processes;

(h) cooperation with the environment (Koren, 2007).

Leadership is seen as an important factor in improving the development of learning. The role of the head teacher is defined as that of a manager and of a pedagogical leader (Article 49 of the ZOFVI). Although the development of learning is not mentioned specifically, various head teacher tasks, such as leading teachers, supporting staff development and cooperation with students as defined in Article 9, are related. In the context of school leadership development programmes, the relationship between leadership and learning is constantly emphasised and is given special emphasis in two programmes. In the initial training programme, the module "Head teacher as a pedagogical leader" focuses on learning-centred leadership, as well as on his or her role in developing teachers' professionalism. "Leadership for learning" is another programme, in which head teachers meet nine times during the year in small groups of 8 to 10, and improve their learning-related practice. The Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training organises training for curriculum-related issues.

The role of leadership in improving the quality of learning has recently became a more frequent subject of discussion (Erčulj and Peček, 2009). It provides evidence on the relationship between governance structures and contexts and effective leadership, as well as on the existence of a set of core competences for effective school leaders, whatever the organisational or environmental context.

3.2. Legal framework

Head teachers as school leaders autonomously lead schools on the basis of the duties and authorities that the state has defined through various acts and rules. The most important legal documents are the Institutes Act and the ZOFVI. Moreover, school governance is defined and implemented through many other rules. The teaching/pedagogical workload is defined in normative terms by the ZOFVI. The number of employed technical, administrative and auxiliary staff is defined in relation to the number of enrolled students or classes (Koren, 2007).

The roles and responsibilities of head teachers are defined in the ZOFVI. There are 21 items that could be categorised under the following headings:

(a) planning;

(b) human resource management;

(c) responsibilities related to pupils/students;

(d) cooperation with other stakeholders, such as parents and institutions responsible for the welfare of children;

(e) administrative tasks (Erčulj and Peček, 2009; Article 49 of the ZOFVI).

At the state level, the "standard"/compulsory programme is defined (national curriculum, including the scope of the elective part of the curriculum). A head teacher is responsible for taking steps to realise the programme. School work is monitored by inspections that function at the national level.

3.3. Education and training for the school leaders

In 1995, the National School for Leadership in Education (hereinafter NSLE) was established by the Slovenian government in order to provide training for head teachers and prospective head teachers that is conducive to a licence for the position of head teacher (Erčulj and Peček, 2009). The NSLE provides continuous training and education for school head teachers, certified programmes and the certification of head teachers. At their own discretion, head teachers also attend other training and educational programmes organised by universities and the National Education Board.

The main objectives of the programme are, therefore, the optimal implementation of the curriculum, the pedagogical leadership of teachers, cooperation with parents and the environment, realisation of the main goals set by schools, identification of the advantages and disadvantages of schools and finding ways to make schools successful (Koren, 2007).

Programmes of the NSLE to support professional development of educational leaders include:

(a) headship licence programme;

(b) mentoring newly-appointed head teachers;

(c) action research for head teachers;

(d) learning-centred leadership;

(e) networks of learning schools – programme for head teachers.

More information about these programmes can be found at www.solazaravnatelje.si.

The core programme of NSLE is the implementation of the headship licence programme. The aim of the programme of initial head teacher training is to implement the headship licence programme. Slovenian legislation stipulates that all school directors/head teachers should participate in the programme within one year of their appointment. The programme consists

of six compulsory modules that cover leadership and organisational theory, teambuilding, learning styles, professional development, planning and decision making, head teacher skills, human resources and legislation. Covering a total of 144 hours, the programme consists of six modules spread over one to two academic years. As of this year, the NSLE will also be able to offer the number of hours needed for self study and related activities (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

Number of participants in the head teacher schooling programme, 2006-2009

Academic year	No. of groups	No. of participants
2006/07	**7**	**131**
2007/08	**7**	**140**
2008/09	**6**	**108**

(Report, 2008)

By providing training for the headship licence programme, the NSLE "provides" a sufficient supply of approximately 150 trained candidates for headship positions, 10% of which have already been appointed head teachers in the last year. The candidates are pre-school teachers, primary, upper secondary, special and music school teachers and school counselling professionals, including some candidates from private, and continuing and adult education centres (Koren, 2007).

However, this is the only compulsory training for candidates. In this context, only pre-service training appears in national documents, while lifelong leadership/management development is not a strategic goal in our national educational strategies (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

Beside the headship licence programme, NSLE activities include professional development, training and other educational programmes, the publication of books, journals and research-related work, as well as experimental development in education. The NSLE is a public-interest institution. In short, the NSLE is responsible for leadership development and management training. There are also other private organisations in Slovenia that contribute to the subject, but were not established for that purpose and, play a marginal, albeit, not unimportant role in the matter referred to above. The NSLE is the only institution with a licence.

Like many countries, Slovenia has also developed in-service training programmes for school leaders. Governments have recognised the need to help their head teachers to adapt to expanded and intensified leadership responsibilities. In Slovenia, there is one programme in the field of effective learning, with special attention on improving the quality of teacher activities focused on leadership/management development, which is an NSLE programme. Slovenia was an early developer of leadership training, and now offers initial, induction and in-service training through the National School for Leadership in Education.

Several years of experience in the training of school leaders and an in-depth need analysis conducted in 2002 have indicated that newly appointed head teachers in Slovenia are in need of mentoring. A system of mentoring was subsequently developed in 2003. The purpose of the programme is to establish systematic support and assistance for new school leaders during their first year of leadership. The programme combines the theoretical principles of leadership in education that were not covered broadly in the headship licence programme. Evaluation indicates that participants appreciate the programme, its content and the method used, while emphasising its value in terms of personal and professional development. It enables the creation of networks of expert groups of head teachers that contribute to more effective and successful school work. Slovenia views school leadership as a professional endeavour and provides opportunities at all stages in a consistent manner, as there are initial pre-service training requirements and a one-year induction programme (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

Participants in the project, Mentoring Newly-Appointed Head Teachers

Academic year	No. of participants	No. of mentors
2006/07	**46**	**44**
2007/08	**45**	**43**
2008/09	**41**	**41**

(Report, 2008)

The NSLE is also responsible for providing opportunities (i.e. courses, conferences and other programmes) for the continuous professional development of head teachers related to improvement in the practical aspects of leadership (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

In accordance with the Establishment Act, the NSLE provides other education as well, and publishes books, magazines and other periodicals and conducts research in the field of education.

The long-term goals of the NSLE are:

(a) the education and training of head teachers and other professional workers in education;

(b) the development of wholesome approaches to leadership in schools and kindergartens;

(c) the implementation of worldwide activities;

(d) linking Slovenian institutions and experts in the field of education;

(e) linking research to school practice and representing a variety of expert solutions;

(f) theories on leadership in education.

A magazine entitled Leadership in Education has been published twice a year since 2003. It is intended for the heads of educational organisations and all others performing jobs linked to leadership within these organisations. The basic purpose of the magazine is to inform the

above mentioned target audience of theoretical viewpoints on leadership in education and, at the same time, open the door for practical, expert articles that can aid the heads of educational institutions in their everyday work. In this way, the magazine aims to cover the area ignored by the Slovenian media or only covered in part by other periodicals.

The magazine also presents books and other magazines from the field of leadership in education, interesting individuals in leadership positions in education, the roles and tasks of a headmaster in other countries, as well as reports from discussions and conferences (www.solazaravnatelje.si).

For all NSLE programmes, evaluation procedures have been developed. However, there is no direct evidence regarding the impact of these programmes on learning-centred leadership.

There are other state institutions that have developed initiatives to support leader-centred leadership:

a) The National Education Institute (Zavod za šolstvo)

The National Education Institute and its counselling centre follow two main goals: school autonomy and the promotion of lifelong learning. The heads of regional units and consultants offer counselling support to the head teachers of primary schools, kindergartens and upper secondary schools in the development of their professional competency and identity, in analysing current issues in the field of education and in promoting school improvement, action research and innovative projects. The Institute encourages head-teachers to explore the potential of planning for sustaining an effective approach to managing quality through whole-school improvement and development with self-evaluation as its central issue. The role of the Institute is to provide an external view as a critical friend, to offer tools for self-evaluation and take an active part in facilitating learning processes.

b) Centre for Mobility and EU Programmes (CMEPIUS)

The programme *Lifelong Learning* is an opportunity and challenge for schools and their leaders. *Comenius School Partnerships* support pupil/student-centred projects or whole-school projects. Within these projects, international mobility supports the planning of project activities and staff professional development. *Comenius Individual Mobility* and

Leonardo da Vinci – Mobility Projects are intended for study visits. International cooperation can also be promoted through eTwinning, the linking of schools and sharing of experiences without complicated applications. A head teacher's role in terms of learning-centred leadership is to recognise the potentials of such initiatives and to support them.

c) Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training (CPI)

No data are available from this institute (Koren, 2007).

There are certain programmes provided by the National Institute of Education and the Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training that are related to the role head teachers play in curricular issues. Some private institutions also provide programmes with components of leadership/management development. They mainly respond to current legislative issues and/or initiatives. Moreover, we do not have access to their content (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

3.4. Research and development activities of the NSLE

3.4.1. Leadership for learning

Learning and teaching must be the focus of the work of schools and head teachers. We are aware that head teachers who express their concern for learning and teaching increase the effectiveness of their schools. It has also been proven that it is difficult for head teachers alone to introduce improvements. Therefore, the NSLE developed the project, Leadership for Learning, which has been active since 2007. Areas for improving the leadership of head teachers were identified, including assessment conferences and development interviews following lectures. Some 23 head teachers were included in the project during the 2008/2009 academic year (Report, 2008).

An article was published in the magazine, Vodenje v vzgoji in izobraževanje (Leadership in Education), illustrates the implementation of this project. The authors state that a development interview combines the monitoring of lessons, individual support for teachers, and the planning of an individual's and a school's development. The authors present the theoretical bases of a development interview for promoting learning, as well as the results of a survey on learning among teachers, the processes carried out in the scope of the project and, finally, the experiences of two participants (Erčulj, Bizjak and authors, 2008).

3.4.2. The NSLE's next research project is Nasilje v šolah: konceptualizacija, prepoznavanje in modeli preprečevanja in obvladovanja (Violence in Schools: Conceptualisation, Recognition and Models for Prevention and Control). The purpose of the two-year research project is to analyse the phenomena of violence in schools and to develop a model, as a possible tool for effectively controlling violence in schools.

3.4.3. Policies, strategies and organisational principles of education in the 21st century. The objective of this research project is to propose the optimal organisation of educational institutions in accordance with contemporary requirements. The project will contribute to improving the quality of monitoring education. Project researchers will study the interaction and interdependence of systemic, organisational and pedagogical factors related to the organisation of educational work. The objective of the project is to determine the level of interaction between the core organisational principles of education and their effect on the achievements of students, and the impact of a school's organisation, work and climate on the cooperation and work of teachers.

3.4.4. Head teachers researching their own work – action research

This programme is already in its third year. Head teachers participating in the programme have identified several benefits, including:

(a) a focus on the important activities of a school or kindergarten;

(b) the receipt of feedback on leadership;

(c) recognition of the importance of delegating;

(d) clearly defined objectives;

(e) systemisation;

(f) improvement in the climate.

In the context of certain problems (i.e. time, the readiness of co-workers and unrealistically high expectation), head teachers are also faced with the question of how to introduce action research in a school or kindergarten as a work method. The programme includes regular group interviews and a final evaluation survey.

3.4.5. A plan for introducing quality indicators and the self-evaluation of schools was drawn up as part of the project, Approaches and Training for Quality, as preparation for a national project at the Employment Service of Slovenia. Evaluation research is being conducted with regard to the implementation of a head teacher exam programme and regarding networks of learning schools as one approach to quality, as well as research on the self-evaluation of public institutions, on the basis of the NSLE example.

3.5. Appointment of school leaders

Head teachers are appointed in accordance with the ZOFVI, which defines the procedures and requirements for a head teacher's appointment. Head teachers are appointed for 5 years and can be reappointed for an unlimited number of terms. When he/she is reappointed, there is no formal appraisal, as he/she has to go through the same procedure as during the first appointment (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

A head teacher is permanently employed. He or she is appointed and dismissed from his or her position by the School Council, which is responsible for both procedures. Before appointment (or dismissal), the School Council obtains opinions from the Academic Assembly, the local community where the school is located and the Minister of Education and Sport. It also has to fully comply with the provisions of the ZOFVI

The requirements for appointment are as follows:

(a) the fulfilment of requirements for being a teacher;

(b) at least 5 years experience as a mentor, advisor or counsellor;

(c) he or she must have or obtain the head teacher certificate. Newly appointed head teachers without the certificate have to complete it within the first year as acting head teacher **(**Koren, 2007).

In the appointment procedures of head teachers, employees play quite an important role. They participate in the voting for head teachers, as this is a part of the selection process. As previously mentioned, feedback from the Ministry of the Education is a compulsory part of the procedure. The Minister makes a decision to appoint head teachers after obtaining the majority (at least 50%) of the votes of the employees of the school in question.

The Minister may transfer his authority to local bodies. The key question here is one of true centralisation or decentralisation

Local environments (i.e. employees, local partners and parents) have a limited voice in a head teacher's appointment, while the central government is responsible for the final decision regarding a head teacher's appointment (Koren, 2006). The state thus maintains a managing role in the centralised system, which is frequently linked to the fact that schools are financed by the state (Koren, 2006).

3.6. Qualification of head teachers and sharing of leadership functions

Head teachers must obtain a so called "headship licence" within one year following their appointment. After a licence is obtained, school leaders are not obliged to attend any further training. Attendance at leadership training, in order to be awarded a licence, is not compulsory: it is possible for candidates to take an exam without training. However, more than 90% of candidates participate in the training.

In most educational institutions in Slovenia, only two functions are defined as leadership functions: that of head teacher and that of deputy head teacher. Article 50 of the ZOFVI defines the role of deputies as "assisting the head teacher in managerial and pedagogical tasks". The number of deputies depends on the size of the school. Vocational centres are headed by directors and head teachers who lead individual programmes. Teachers can equally assume the role of subject leaders and project leaders (Erčulj, Peček, 2009).

Number of head teachers and deputy head teachers in primary schools (PS), primary schools with a modified programme (PSMP), music schools (MS) and pedagogical institutions (PI) in 2009

	PS	PSMP	MS	PI
Head teachers	**448**	**30**	**60**	**22**
Deputy head teachers	**385**	**18**	**25**	**6,5**

(Ministry of Education and Sport, 2009)

3.7. Professional associations for school leaders

There are three professional associations for school leaders:

(a) the Association of Kindergarten Head Teachers;

(b) the Association of School Leaders in Primary Education;

(c) the Association of Upper Secondary Education School Leaders.

These organisations declare themselves to be supra-factional associations established for the purpose of discussing professional issues that go beyond the question of financing and that of head teachers' salaries. They also strive to be equal partners in planning and introducing reforms and changes in education at the system level. However, their involvement depends on the political will of the governing bodies. They meet regularly, and these meetings are usually linked to conferences they organise themselves (Erčulj, Peček, 2009).

3.8. Major strengths and weaknesses in current policy on school leadership

School leadership policies have, from one point of view, been in a constant flow of changes and restructuring, whether it be the governance of schools, curriculum restructuring or changes in the role, appointment and retention of head teachers. From another point of view, the expectations and needs placed upon the education system to contribute significantly to the economic competitiveness of the country lead to rapid changes, and raise questions about the measurement and evaluation of the effects that policies have on school effectiveness and outcomes, whether it be in the form of students' achievements, employment policies and practices or school culture.

Slovenia has made major changes since independence in 1991. The figures and facts, presented in the first two chapters of the national report (AN: Improving School Leadership: Country Background Report for Slovenia) show this significant development, which continues today. However, in the area of school leadership, as in any other area, sustainable development is needed in order to be effective in the long run.

For this reason, policies and their effects need to be assessed, measured and evaluated. Hence, data-driven sustainable development can reflect and embrace the quality of school leadership and the education system.

Governance in Slovenian schools is not particularly dynamic. This means that a head teacher is the school leader who has the authority, responsibilities and duties for managerial and instructional leadership, and who is accountable to stakeholders, particularly to the School Council. A head teacher is a central leadership figure in a school, apart from the School Council as the "highest" governance level. A deputy head teacher is appointed by a head teacher, while appointment depends on the internally (between a head teacher and deputy

head teacher) agreed workload and responsibilities. Other school leaders (subject leaders) have no formal authority and responsibilities. They are professional bodies with no decision-making power. In this context, we understand, present and discuss a "head teacher" as a "school leader" (Koren, 2007).

3.9. Salary of a head teacher

The salary of a head teacher depends on the school size and organisation, and is defined at the national level. Each head teacher is in a "pay grade",' meaning a level in accordance with the pay scale for head teachers. On the grounds of different criteria, such as the number of students and number of different programmes provided by a school, the Minister decides upon the pay level of a head teacher. The flexible part of the salary, which is based on the effectiveness of a head teacher's work, is assigned to the head teacher once a year by the School Council (Koren, 2007).

Over the past 10 years, salaries have shown improvement. The demands and expectations of parents and the public have risen significantly. Working conditions have improved in a technical sense (ICT, building and equipment modernisation, cooked lunch provision, surveillance cameras, security staff, etc.), but have deteriorated in terms of a heavier workload, shorter holidays for the staff, augmented administrative and clerical tasks, and constant reformatory trends aimed at catching up with Europe.

School leaders' salaries were aligned with comparable leadership posts in non-educational public sectors. They are eligible for a small retirement benefit (same as teachers) in the form of a retirement insurance sum paid monthly from the Ministry budget. There are no special bonuses for the school leaders, and their salaries are frequently quite similar to those of teachers with the highest professional title (counsellors) and to those who are in the highest pay grade. In small schools, a head teacher's salary is similar to that of an experienced teacher with the highest professional title (Koren, 2007).

3.10. Some dilemmas of management in higher education

Political and economic changes in Slovenia after 1991 had a significant impact on changes in education (i.e. legislation and the process EU ascension). These changes are considered to be new challenges to those working in higher education. However, the implementation of an efficient management system at the institutional level is of the highest priority.

Awareness of the importance of quality is continuously rising in schools at all levels of education, from kindergarten to higher education. While the standards of quality in individual areas of school management are determined by the state at all levels up to higher education, schools for higher education are more independent in this respect (Trunk, 2002).

The quality of an organisation is closely linked to its management. The basic purpose of the management in schools is maintaining and ensuring the quality of a school. Reynolds (1994) introduced the idea that management is not just one of the closed parts of knowledge that we have to learn and act in accordance with, but rather a process of constant learning. It is easier to discuss quality on a primary and secondary level of education, since questions arise when quality on the university level is discussed. The most important questions are related to autonomy, the relationship between an institution and the state and the eternal problem of financing (Trunk, 2002).

Only a partnership between academic and administrative spheres will ensure a system for quality recognition and assurance in higher vocational schools that will be transparent and responsible, something that stakeholders and the general public demand (Trunk, 2002, Page 6). In 2006, an external pilot institutional evaluation of the quality of higher VET institutions was introduced for the first time (Trunk, 2004).

Slovenia does not have a formal body responsible for quality assurance in higher VET education that is comparable with independent European agencies for quality assurance. The Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology created the Board of Evaluation of the Republic of Slovenia for higher education, in accordance with the Higher Education Act (Zakon o visokem šolstvu, 2006, Article 48).

The National Committee for the Quality of Higher Education (active since 2000) implemented a set of rules in 2004 for monitoring, assuring and recognising the quality of higher education institutions, study programmes and scientific research, and artistic and professional work. In 2006, several external pilot institutional evaluations were carried out (Trunk, 2004).

The Euro-Mediterranean University (EMUNI University) is an international university based in Slovenia. It represents one of the six priorities of the European Union for the Mediterranean region, which were confirmed in the common declaration adopted in Paris on 13 July 2008. One of the missions of the EMUNI University is approving the quality of higher education with study and research programme implementation. EMUNI organised a management course in higher education in September 2009. The main topics of the course were: Higher Education Governance and Institutional Management, Strategic Planning in Higher Education, Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Higher Education (www.emuni.si).

3.11. Main current challenges for school leadership

The main current challenges for school leadership can be summarised as follows:

(a) major policy concerns regarding a decline in the birth rate and the number of redundant teachers and, consequently, the possibility of the number of schools being reduced;

(b) new school policies – schools are expected to function more autonomously;

(c) the changing composition of the student population – an increasing number of students attending general upper secondary schools;

(d) growing accountability in the field of results and social equity;

(e) changing and growing societal and community expectations;

(f) innovations.

A new payment system intended for teachers is now high on the agenda of head teachers (Erčulj and Peček, 2009).

3.12. Trends and changes anticipated in future policy development

The background report (AN: Improving School Leadership, Country Background Report for Slovenia) indicates that not many anticipated trends and future policy developments were explicitly expressed or grounded in data. Rather, general statements were collected, such as "increased autonomy and accountability", "ensuring transparency", "effective and efficient system", and "flexibility". Little is known to date, what direction current curriculum restructuring at the secondary education level has taken and what changes in governance, particularly in financing and organisational structure, can be expected.

However, it can be anticipated that some changes in organisational structure will continue to arise (i.e. the formation of school centres, rather than maintaining small schools), as well as rationalisation in staffing and financial resources allocated to schools through "integrated budgets", the possible outsourcing of services and an emphasis on networking and partnerships between schools and between schools and companies. In such a context, the main issue could remain contentious, namely the head teacher as a school manager and school leader, and it could be anticipated that development, if not radically changed, will shift towards the managerialism of school leadership (Koren, 2007).

3.13. References

1. Erčulj, J. and Peček, P. (2009): Country Report and Case Studies: Slovenia, in: Schratz, M.: The Role of School Leadership in the Improvement of Learning: Country Reports and Case Studies of central-European Projects. Budapest: Tempus Public Foundation, pp. 167-184.
2. Erčulj, J. Koren, A. and Logaj, V. (2007): Improving School Leadership: Country Background Report for Slovenia. OECD, Directorate for Education. **http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/25/40/38561414.pdf (21 October 2009)**
3. Koren, A. (2006): Avtonomija in decentralizacija v izobraževanju (Authonomy and Decentralisation in Education). Ljubljana: Univerza na Primorskem, FM Koper in Šola za ravnatelje.
4. Trunk, N. (2002): Vodenje nevladnih organizacij: primer managementa v visokem šolstvu, in: Jelovac D. (ed.): Jadranje po nemirnih vodah menedžmenta nevladnih organizacij. Ljubljana: Radio Študent: Študentska organizacija Univerze, Koper: Visoka šola za management.
5. Trunk, N. (2004): Kakovost v visokem šolstvu: poročilo Nacionalne komisije za kvaliteto visokega šolstva 2003 (Quality in Higher Education: National committee report on quality in Higher Education). Maribor: Nacionalna komisija za kvaliteto visokega šolstva.
6. Trnavčevič, A. (2008): Stare dileme v novi preobleki: management v izobraževanju (Old dilemmas in new disguise: Management in Education), in: Biloslavo, R.: Management v 21. stoletju (Management in 21st Century). Koper: Fakulteta za management, pp. 133-146.
7. Zakon o organizaciji in financiranju vzgoje in izobraževanja (Organization and Financing of Education Act), Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 16/2007.
8. Zakon o visokem šolstvu (Higher Education Act), Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 119/2006.
9. Poročilo o delu v Šoli za ravnatelje (Report on work in National School for Leadership in Education), 2008
10. Erčulj, J., Bizjak, I., Centa, N., Deutsch, S., Jančan, S., Kaučič, M., Tuš, M., Žun, Š. (2008): Razvojni razgovor za spodbujanje učenja (Developmental discussion to encourage learning), Vodenje v vzgoji in izobraževanje, št. 14, 1/2008
11. Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport Republike Slovenije; Direktorat za vrtce in osnovno šolstvo: Sektor za osnovno šolstvo, 2009 (Ministry of Education and Sport, Directorate of Pre-School and Basic Education: Basic Education Sector)

Websites

Šola za ravnatelje: www.solazaravnatelje.si .

EMUNI: www.emuni.si

Theme 4: Labour Market Groups at Risk

In this article, the position of selected labour market groups at risk (the long-term unemployed, low-educated persons, young persons with no education, not in education and unemployed and the Roma population) in Slovenia is represented. In Slovenia, the long-term unemployment rate declined in the period from 2000 to 2008. Nevertheless, long-term unemployment (12 months or more) as a percentage of total unemployment remains relatively high. Older persons and low-educated persons are more frequently exposed to long-term unemployment. Within the framework of active labour market policy, educational and training programmes for the prevention and reduction of long-term unemployment must be enhanced. A low level of education typically represents a significant factor in the at-risk-of-poverty rate (20% in 2007 for low-educated persons aged 18-64 years). As a rule, low-qualified workers are expected to perform the tasks of elementary operators. The proportion of persons aged 25-64 years with a low level of education has been dropping since 2000 (and stood at 18.0% in 2008) as a consequence of the high participation of young persons aged 15-24 years and adults aged 25-64 years in formal education. However, the proportion of the population with a low level of education increases rapidly with age. On average, the literacy rate of low-educated persons is lower compared to better-educated persons. Several studies, researches and statistical data show that the participation of low-educated persons in education is low. The participation rate of persons aged 25-64 years in secondary education was 0.8% 2006. The percentage of early school leavers[10] is relatively low (4.3% in 2007). *However, some successful measures dedicated to this population were developed and introduced. Older persons also have problems finding employment. The educational structure of the population deteriorates with age. The low participation of low-educated persons is also a development problem. The participation rate in education decreases rapidly with age. The participation rate of older persons in education is low. The adult Roma population also faces the problem of a low level of education, which limits their chances of finding a regular job.*

4.1. Introduction

A person′s position in the labour market has a significant impact on his or her socioeconomic status in society (Kajzer et al., 2009). Unemployment leads to a person′s social exclusion and increases the at-risk-of-poverty rate. In 2007, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for the unemployed stood at 36.2%[11] in Slovenia, which is well above the at-risk-of- poverty rate for persons at work (4.7%). The participation of an individual in education increases his or her opportunities for employment, and plays an important role in reducing social exclusion. A low level of education typically represents a significant factor in the at-risk-of-poverty rate. In Slovenia, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for low-educated persons aged 18-64 years stood at 20% in 2007[12] (secondary school education: 9%; tertiary education: 2%). The participation of the population

[10] Population aged 18-24 years with at most lower secondary education and not included in further education or training.

[11] Income in kind is excluded. According to data from Eurostat.

[12] At-risk-of-poverty rate is presented for the age group 18-64 years for 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers.

in education therefore plays a significant role in improving a person′s position in the labour market and in reducing the at-risk-of-poverty rate.

At the EU level, different target groups in education and the labour market are included in several documents on lifelong learning and employment: elderly persons, immigrants and minorities[13], low-qualified persons, low-qualified persons facing exclusion[14], low-qualified workers[15], lower-educated persons[16] and persons lacking basic skills[17]. Besides those educationally deprived persons[18], persons in marginal groups[19] and disadvantage groups[20] are also mentioned in documents. In Slovenia, selected target groups (the unemployed, young unemployed persons with no proper education, low-educated persons, employed persons, whose jobs are at risk due low education, long-term unemployed persons and older persons) in education and the labour market are included in several strategic and other documents[21]. In these documents, the following terms can also be found: (1) vulnerable groups, also referred to as difficult-to-employ persons (the long-term unemployed aged 50 and elderly persons, young persons looking for their first employment, disabled persons, individuals from ethnic minorities, refugees, the Roma population, migrants and women); (2) disadvantage groups (less educated adults with a low level of literacy, and with the lowest participation in education, the elderly and low-qualified persons); (3) groups in the most difficult labour market positions (the long-term or frequently unemployed persons aged 55 and older, young persons, who have finished or left school, women and persons with asylum); (4) persons with poor employment opportunities (disabled persons, minorities and the elderly).

There are certain groups of the population that are more exposed to labour market risks. Selected labour market groups at risk (the long-term unemployed, low-educated persons, unemployed young persons with no education, not in education or training and the Roma population) in Slovenia are represented below.

---

[13] The Council, 2008.
[14] Commission of the European Communities, 2008a.
[15] Commission of the European Communities, 2007.
[16] Commission of the European Communities, 2006.
[17] Commission of the European Communities, 2006a.
[18] European Parliament and the Council, 2006a, Commission of the European Communities, 2008; the Council, 2008; the Council, 2009.
[19] The Council of the European Union, 2008; Commission of the European Communities, 2008c; Commission of the European Communities, 2007).
[20] European Parliament and the Council, 2006; the Council of the European Union, 2009.
[21] Strategija vseživljenjskosti učenja (Jelenc, 2007), Resolucija o nacionalnem programu izobraževanja odraslih do leta 2010 (Ur. l. No. 70/2004), Slovenia′s Development Strategy (Šušteršič et al., 2005), Nacionalna strategija za razvoj pismenosti (Slovenian Institute for Adult Education, Ministry of Education and Sport, 2006), Okvir gospodarskih in socialnih reform za povečanje blaginje v Sloveniji (Šušteršič et al., 2005), Program ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja za obdobje 2007 – 2013 in Načrt izvedbe programa ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja za leti 2007 in 2008 (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, 2006), Katalog ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, 2009), Operativni program razvoja človeških virov (Government Office for Local Self-government and Regional Policy, 2007), Socialni sporazum za obdobje 2007 – 2009 (2007), Program izobraževanja za brezposelne osebe za šolsko leto 2008/2009 (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, Ministry of Education and Sport, 2008), Program javna dela za leti 2009 in 2010 (Ministry of labour, family and social affairs, 2008), Akcijski program za invalide 2007 – 2013 (Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs, 2007), Resolucija o nacionalnem programu visokega šolstva Republike Slovenije 2007-2010 (2007).

4.2. Long-term unemployed persons

Long-term unemployment typically has an adverse impact on human capital and diminishes the work capabilities of the unemployed and their chances of finding another job. The long-term unemployment rate[22], an indicator of social cohesion and problems in the labour market, declined in the period from 2000 to 2008, and stood at 1.9% in 2008 (Kajzer, 2009). Older persons and lower-educated persons are more frequently exposed to long-term unemployment (Kajzer et al., 2008).

Long-term unemployment (12 months or more) as a percentage of the total unemployment remains relatively high despite dropping (Kajzer et al., 2008), and indicates labour market discrepancies. Therefore, active labour market policy in education policy is needed. In terms of flexicurity, it indicates modest labour market mobility (Kajzer, 2008, Kajzer et al., 2008). Within the framework of active labour market policy, educational and training programmes for the prevention and reduction of long-term unemployment must be enhanced (Kajzer, 2009).

4.3. Low-educated persons

On average, better-educated person receive higher wages and higher lifelong earnings compared with lower-educated persons. A correlation between the level of education and the unemployment rate can also be seen (Čelebič, 2008a).

The proportion of persons aged 25-64 years with a low level of education has been dropping since 2000. In 2008, it stood at 18.0% and was 7.2 percentage points below the level recorded in 2000. This declining proportion is the consequence of the high participation of young persons aged 15-24 years in education and the participation of adults aged 25-64 years in education. However, the proportion of the population with a low level of education increases rapidly with age and is the highest in the age group 55- 64 years. It stood at 28.5% in this group, and was 3.75 times lower than in the youngest selected age group (25-34 years of age). In the oldest age group (55-64 year of age) this proportion dropped the most in the period from 2000 to 2008 (by 10.5 percentage points) (Čelebič, 2009c) (see Table 1).

Table 1: **Proportion of the population with a low level of education, total (age group 25-64 years) and by age, Slovenia, 2000-2008, in %**

	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
25 - 64	25,2	19,7	18,4	18,2	18
25-34	14,6	8,8	8,6	7,7	7,6
35-44	21,7	16,4	15,1	15,5	15,2
45-54	29,3	25,2	22,9	22,4	22,1
55-64	39	30,7	29	28,9	28,5

Source: Eurostat

[22] The long-term unemployment rate is the ratio between the number of long-term unemployed (persons unemployed for more than 1 year) and the size of the labour force. It is one of the Laeken indicators of social inclusion.

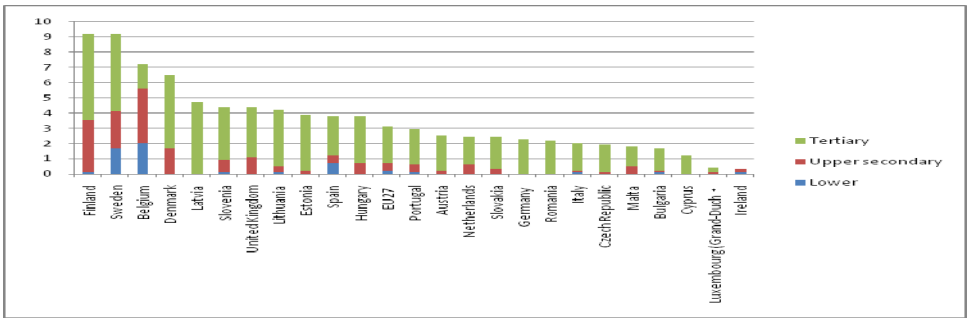
Typically, low-qualified workers are expected to perform the tasks of elementary operators.[23] Occupations involving elementary tasks are practised using simple manual tools and are frequently physically very demanding. Professional knowledge for performing these jobs is not required. As a rule, working conditions in these occupations are very demanding. Typical occupations include simple occupations in construction, services, agriculture, and fishery. These are usually low-paid jobs. For example, the proportion[24] of employed persons with completed ISCED levels 1 and 2 is highest in construction,[25] while the average wages in this sector are the second lowest among all sectors. In Slovenia, the number of low-qualified workers relative to the total workforce in the age groups 25-49 years and 50-64 years is lower than in the EU-27. In 2007, approximately half of low-qualified employees aged 25-49 years worked in manufacturing and around 30% of low-qualified employees aged 50-64 years worked in the same sector (Čelebič, 2009d).

Several studies, researches and statistical data indicate that the participation of low-educated persons in education is low (Čelebič, 2009, Čelebič, 2009a, Čelebič, 2009b). Differences in the participation of the population aged 25-64 years in formal education, with regard to the achieved education level, can be seen. In Slovenia, the participation of the adult population aged 25-64 years in secondary education is higher than in the majority of other European countries and higher than EU-27 average. In 2006, it stood at 0.8%, compared with 0.5% for the EU-27. Participation grew slightly compared with 2000, but is lower than the participation rate in tertiary education (3.3% in the 2006/2007 academic year) (Čelebič, 2009). While the proportion of the population with secondary education drops with age, the participation rates of higher age groups of the population in secondary education also drop with age. In the period from 2000 to 2006, the highest growth in the participation rate in secondary education was recorded in the age group 20-29 years, followed by the age group 30-39 years, while growth was lowest in the age group 40-64 years. The participation rate of this age group in education remained at a low level throughout the 2000-2006 period (Čelebič, 2008a).

Measures to help low-qualified unemployed persons, with the goal of improving their formal education level while they are unemployed, are set out in the programme of education of the unemployed, which is adopted annually. The aim of the programme is to increase employment opportunities (Čelebič, 2009d). The participation of unemployed persons in upper secondary education is low. In the period from 2000/2001 to 2006/2007, the number of adults enrolled in upper secondary schools dropped. Although the unemployment rate is the highest among low-educated persons, the number of unemployed persons participating in secondary education dropped in the period from 2000 to 2008 (Čelebič, 2008b).

[23] Standard Classification of Occupations, Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.
[24] The number of low-qualified persons in employment in a selected sector of activity / the total number of persons in employment in a selected sector of activity)*100
[25] Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia; calculations by Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development.

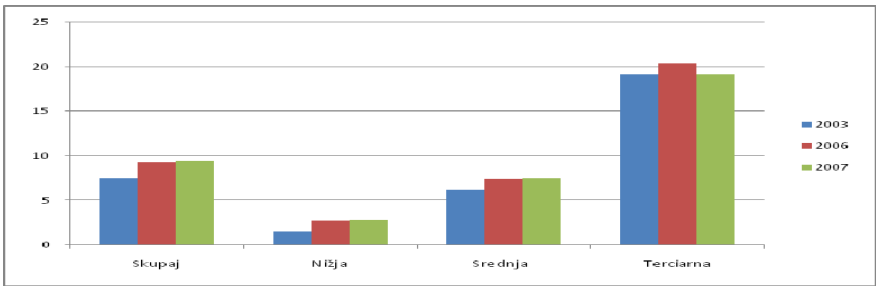
Figure 1: **Participation of the population aged 25–64 years in individual levels of formal education, 2006, in %**



Source: Čelebič, 2009, Population and Social Conditions – Education and Training (Eurostat), 2008

The differences in participation in non-formal education, with regard to education, are also significant (Čelebič, 2009). Participation rates in non-formal education decrease rapidly with a decrease in the achieved education level (Čelebič, 2009b). In 2007, the participation of low-educated persons aged 25-64 years was around seven times lower compared with the participation rate of tertiary-educated persons (Čelebič, 2008a). Data also show that the participation of low-qualified persons aged 25-49 years in training in Slovenia is much lower than the participation of other low-qualified persons, and the participation of low-qualified persons aged 25-49 years is much higher than the participation of low-qualified persons aged 50-64 years. The participation of low-qualified persons increased in the period from 2000 to 2007 in the age groups 25-49 years and 50-64 years (Čelebič, 2009d).

Figure 2: Participation of population aged 25-64 years in informal education, total and by education level, in %, 2003-2007



Source: Čelebič, 2008a, Labour Force Survey, SORS

Research[26], carried out in 2004 by the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education showed that, in Slovenia, the highest rates of participation in education can be found among persons with a tertiary education, and the lowest among persons without a primary education. The difference in proportions between those two groups of the population in 2004 was still very significant, but decreased compared with 1998. The participation rate of persons with a tertiary education is much higher, i.e. five times higher than the participation rate of persons who have not completed primary school. It was, however, this group that saw the highest increase (of 10

[26] The survey measures the participation of the population aged 16 to 65 years in education (respondents with the status of a pupil or student are excluded) in the 12 months before the survey is carried out.

percentage points) in the period from 1998 to 2004, while the participation of persons with a tertiary education decreased slightly. The correlation between the achieved level of education and participation in continuing education is even more evident in informal education, where it increases with each subsequent higher education degree, than in formal education. The participation of persons with a university degree or higher in informal education in 2004 was more than six times higher than the participation of those who had not completed primary school (Ivančič and Drofenik, 2006).

Table 2: Participation of adults in education, Slovenia, 2004, in %

	Proportion of the population participating in formal education	**Proportion of the population participating in informal education**	**Proportion of the population not participating in education**
Total	**7.9**	**32.2**	**63.0**
By education degree			
Incomplete primary school	9.6	9.6	85.6
Primary school education	2.7	16.5	81.9
Completed two-year vocational school	6.5	16.7	78.7
Completed three-year vocational school	3.9	23.3	73.6
Secondary education	12.1	40.5	53.3
Higher education	13.1	54.9	39.9
University education	14.0	66.0	29.1

Source: Ivančič, Drofenik, 2006, SIAE research report 2005

The average literacy rate of low-educated persons is lower compared with better-educated persons. For the purpose of development of adult literacy, the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education developed literacy programmes named UŽU, dedicated to the most vulnerable groups and to persons with less than 10 years of schooling, who wish to improve their literacy skills (Ileršič, 2007). The participants in these programmes acquire new skills, improve basic communication, writing, mathematical and social skills, become more independent and improve their self-confidence, with unemployed persons becoming more active (Ileršič, 2007a).

Typically, persons who have completed, at most, ISCED 1 and 2 levels of education, particularly unemployed person, are less motivated to pursue education, due to negative

experiences from formal education, low self-esteem and poor learning habits. However, low-qualified persons could be motivated to participate in training and in the certification process for informally obtained knowledge (Čelebič, 2009d). The research, entitled Udeležba odraslih v sistemu formalnega izobraževanja (Participation of Adults in the Formal Education System), carried out by the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education indicated differences in the motives for education with regard to the achieved degree of education. For low-educated persons, participation in education is not typically voluntary, i.e. not something arising from their internal needs or interests. However, low-educated persons participate in education due to poor qualifications, the threat of job loss or due to the possibility of performing a new job. Therefore, external pressures are predominant. Human aspects of education are predominant at higher levels of education (Radovan, 2008).

A significant factor in the non-participation of low-educated persons in education is overly expensive education. Trade unions expect the state and employers to create training opportunities for vulnerable groups, such as low-skilled persons and those in low-income categories. A better funding system should be established for the purpose of including lower-income workers (and frequently those with the lowest education level) to participate in training, as they are probably in the worst position (Pavlin, Plachtaj, 2009).

Different types of training programmes could be found as part of active labour market policy, i.e. the co-financing of education and training of employed persons in sectors in transformation. However, there is lack of assessments and evaluations of the programmes' efficiency (Čelebič, 2009d).

4.4 Early school-leavers

In Slovenia, the percentage of early school leavers,[27] is relatively low (2007: 4.3%; EU-27: 15.2%). Two successful measures (PUM[28] and ISM[29]), developed in Slovenia and dedicated to this population, are described below.

The PUM Project, introduced in 1999, is a proven informal educational programme, dedicated to young unemployed persons aged 15-25 years, without an occupation and appropriate employment opportunities. The reasons for leaving school in the population participating in PUM are different. However, the majority of persons encountered problems in school, personal problems or family problems (Dobrovoljc, 2007). The PUM Project is dedicated to eliminating the reasons that led to leaving school or work. Its aim is to motivate young persons to participate again in education and to train them to raise their competitive position in the labour market. The programme takes into consideration the interests and skills of participants, thus setting it apart from other programmes. Participation in PUM is voluntary, and may last from three months to one year. The participants are allowed to choose the theme of the programme, learning sources, methods and procedures, while mentors advise them. The

[27] Population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not included in further education or training.
[28] Project Learning for Young Adults (Projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle).
[29] Parallel Informing and Counselling for Young Persons (Informiranje in svetovanje za mlade na vzporedni poti).

participants obtain fundamental functional knowledge and skills (e.g. mathematics and computers), and positive learning experiences that motivate them to continue the schooling they abandoned (Dobrovoljc, 2002). An evaluation of the PUM Project showed encouraging results. Two-thirds of those enrolled in PUM achieved programmes goals. The effects of the programme are positive in the long term (Dobrovoljc, 2003).

The experimental ISM Project (Informiranje in svetovanje za mlade na vzporedni poti – Parallel Informing and Counselling for Young Persons) was developed by the Institute of the Republic of Slovenia for Vocational Education and Training in 2005, as an attempt to introduce innovations and holistic counselling for young persons aged 15-26 years, who left school or have yet to complete school, are not employed and not registered at Employment Service of Slovenia (Ignjatovič, 2007). The main purpose of the project is to help young persons overcome obstacles on their way back to school or the labour market. The method of counselling used in ISM is parallel holistic informing and counselling for young persons. It derives from an individual's overall position in life and his or her personal life goals, thus making it different from other methods of counselling. Assistance and counselling are fully subordinated and adapted to individual needs (Polak, 2006). The project was very successful in achieving its goals. The purpose of this counselling is to prevent social exclusion, and to promote the successful reintegration in the labour market (Ignjatovič, 2007).

4.5. Older persons

The employment rate for older persons is increasing, but remains relatively low. Despite the increase, the employment rate for older persons (aged 55-64 years) is still among the lowest in the EU (Kajzer et al., 2009, Kajzer, 2008). The main reasons for the low employment rate for older persons in Slovenia are: a) mass early retirement at the beginning of the 1990s; b) the current lower average age at retirement compared with other countries; and c) structural unemployment that affects mostly the elderly who are less involved in lifelong learning (Kajzer, 2008; Kajzer et al., 2008). In the period from 2000 to 2007, the employment rate in the 50-64 age group increased by 12.2 percentage points, while the employment rate in the 55-64 age group increased by slightly less. Among other factors, the increase in the employment rate for older persons is the result of pension reform in 2000 (Kajzer et al., 2009). Older persons face problems finding employment due to age, as well as a lack of skills (Kajzer et al., 2009).

Table 3: Unemployment rates and employment rates, (according to Labour Force Surveys), by age, Slovenia, 2000-2007, in %

	Unemployment rates, in %				Employment rates, in %				
	15 - 24	25 - 49	50 - 64	Total	15– 24	25–49	50– 64	55–64	15–64
2000	16.8	5.7	6.2	7.0	33.6	85.6	37.3	22.5	62.9
2001	18.1	5.1	4.8	6.4	31.4	86.6	41.1	25	63.9
2002	16.7	5.4	4.3	6.4	29.2	86.3	41.3	24.4	63.4
2003	17.4	5.9	4.3	6.7	29.3	85.5	41.1	23.5	62.6
2004	16.3	6.8	4.3	6.3	34	86.3	45.8	29	65.3
2005	16.0	5.9	4.4	6.5	34.0	86.2	47.6	30.5	66.0
2006	13.9	5.6	3.8	6.0	35	86.3	49.1	35.5	66.6
2007	10.3	4.4	4.1	4.9	37.6	87.6	49.5	33.4	67.8

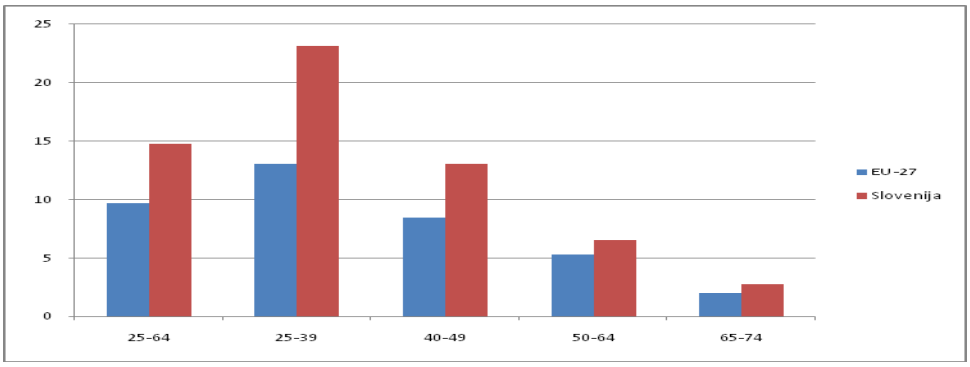
Source: Kajzer et al., 2009, SORS

The educational structure of the adult population deteriorates with age. In 2008, 28.5% of the population aged 55-64 years had only a low level of education, which is approximately four times higher than in the age group 25-34 years and about 10 percentage points higher than in the age group 25-64 years. The structure of adult education improved in the period from 2000 to2008. However, the proportion of low-educated persons remains relatively high among older persons (Čelebič, 2009c).

In the period from 2000 to 2007, the unemployment rate in the age group 50–64 years dropped. However, the rate is relatively low (compared to the total unemployment rate), in part because older persons frequently do not seek employment, and thus do not meet all Labour Force Survey criteria for unemployment (Kajzer et al., 2009). Older persons face problems finding employment due to age, as well as a lack of skills (Kajzer et al., 2009).

The low participation rate of low-educated persons is a development problem (Kajzer, Čelebič, 2009; Čelebič, 2008a; Čelebič, 2009a; Čelebič, 2009c). Several surveys and researches indicate a relatively low participation of older persons in education. According to Labour Force Surveys, the participation rate in lifelong learning decreases rapidly with age, while the participation rate of older persons in lifelong learning is low, although the participation in lifelong learning is an important factor in maintaining a competitive position in the labour market (Čelebič, 2008a). Likewise, the participation of employed persons at companies in continuing vocational education and training drops rapidly with age. The highest participation rate is in the age group of 24 years or younger (54%; 25-54 years: 51%; 55 or older: 44%) (Čelebič, 2008). In terms of demographic changes (i.e. the ageing of the population) the challenge is encouraging for older persons in education (Čelebič, 2008a).

Figure 3: Participation of adults aged 25-74 years in lifelong learning, by age, Slovenia and the EU-27, 2007, in %



Source: Čelebič, 2008a, Labour Force Survey; Population and Social Condition – Eurostat Queen Tree, 2008.
Note: The estimation for low education for 2003 and 2007 is less accurate. In the 2003, the methodology for calculating the indicator changed. Therefore the data from 2003 are represented.

Participation rates in education decline with age, which can also be seen by the research[30] carried out by the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education in 2004. In 2004, participation of the age group 50-65 years in education was twice as low as the participation of age groups between the ages of 20 and 49 years. The same is true of participation in informal education. Approximately one-fifth of the population belonging to the oldest age group participated in this type of education. The participation rate was the same in the youngest age group (16-24 years). On the other hand, participation rates in formal education decline sharply after the age of 40, while after the age of 50, participation in formal education is virtually non-existent. In the period from 1998 to 2004, participation in formal and informal education in higher age groups increased, similarly as in younger age groups (in each group by about 7 percentage points) (Ivančič, Drofenik, 2006).

Table 4: Participation of adults in education by age, Slovenia, 2004, in %

	Proportion of the population participating in formal education	**Proportion of the population participating in informal education**	**Proportion of the population not participating in education**
Total	**7.9**	**32.2**	**63.0**
By age			
16-24 years	16.4	21.2	60.9
25-39 years	14.3	40.6	53.7
40-49 years	5.4	38.7	58.4
50-65 years	0.5	20.1	79.4

Source: Ivančič and Drofenik, 2006, SIAE research report 2005

[30] The survey measures the participation of the population aged 16 to 65 years in education (respondents with the status of a pupil or student are excluded) in the 12 months before the survey is carried out.

A large part of education is tied to labour needs, while the low participation of older persons in education compared with younger persons is most likely tied to the low level of employment. Moreover, for older persons, the expected benefits from education are lower compared with their younger colleagues, as some of them feel they are too old for education. It is also possible that employers are less likely to invest in older employees than in younger ones (Čelebič, 2008). On average, older persons are less educated, while a low level of education presents an obstacle in education (Ivančič and Drofenik, 2006).

4.6. Roma

The low education level of the adult Roma population limits their chances of finding a regular job. The educational structure of the Roma population differs from the educational structure of the Slovenian population as a whole. The proportion of the Roma population with incomplete elementary school is considerably higher than the overall proportion of Slovenes who have not completed elementary school. Education is one of the basic preconditions for breaking the circle of poverty that is pushing the Roma population to the margins of Slovenian society. There are governmental programmes to promote the education of the adult Roma population in Slovenia, which are primarily aimed at those who are registered as unemployed. The Employment Service of Slovenia organises various general and specific programmes for completing education and obtaining qualifications. Despite the fact that the number of adult Roma participating in primary and vocational programmes is increasing, the objective is to get the Roma population to not only participate in, but also to successfully complete education. According to Nada Žagar,[31] it is characterised by the non-homogenous structure of participants. The education of the adult Roma population is a specific activity, differing largely from other education fields. The programmes of the Institute for Education and Culture in Črnomelj are attended by persons of very different pre-education levels (some with no formal education, some with incomplete primary school, and rarely include participants with completed primary or vocational school). Their motivation for education also differs. Those participating voluntary are motivated, while those, encouraged by the Centre for Social Work or the Employment Service, regard this as a burden forced upon them. One of the problems with educating the adult Roma population lies in the fact that the financing of educational programmes lacks systematic regulation, meaning that there is no permanently guaranteed funding for the preparation and implementation of programmes and projects (Bešter, Medvešek, 2007).

[31] Manager of the Centre for Education and Culture in Črnomelj (Zavod za izobraževanje in kulturo – ZIK Črnomelj).

4.7. Conclusions

With regard to the position of the long-term unemployed, low-educated persons, young persons with no education, not in education and unemployed, disabled persons and the Roma population in Slovenia, some challenges are presented. In the period from 2000 to 2008, progress in reducing the long-term unemployment rate was made. Nevertheless, long-term unemployment (12 months or more) as a percentage of the total unemployment remains relatively high. Within the framework of active labour market policy, educational and training programmes for the prevention and reduction of long-term unemployment must be enhanced. Older persons and lower-educated persons are more frequently exposed to long-term unemployment, while both encounter problems in finding employment. The problem is also long-term unemployment of disabled persons. A low level of education typically represents a significant in factor in the at-risk-of-poverty rate. In Slovenia, progress had been made in reducing the proportion of the population aged 25-64 years with a low level of education. However, the challenge is in reducing the proportion of the population with a low level education in higher age groups. On the other hand, the percentage of early school leavers is relatively low, and some successful measures dedicated to this population have been developed and introduced in practise in Slovenia. The next challenge is associated with increasing the employment rate of older persons which, despite an increase in the period from 2000 to 2007, is among the lowest in the EU. Moreover, the educational structure of the population deteriorates with age, while the proportion of low-educated persons is relatively high, despite a decrease in the period from 2000 to 2008. The next challenge is associated with reducing the proportion of low-educated persons among the older population. The participation in education may significantly contribute to an individual's opportunities to find employment and to reducing the at-risk-of-poverty rate. However, the participation of older and low-educated persons in education is low. Increasing participation of low-educated and older persons is a development challenge. Another challenge is improving the education level of the Roma population.

There are public policies in Slovenia that are aimed at helping low-qualified persons, older persons and other groups to find a job. For the purpose of implementing an active labour market policy the Programme of Active Labour Market Policy Measures (Program ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja) has been adopted. The programme is adopted by the Slovenian government, followed by consultations with social partners, for the budget period or for the planned period. The last Programme of Active Labour Market Policy Measures was adopted for the period from 2007 to 2013 (Program ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja za obdobje 2007 – 2013 in načrt izvedbe programa ukrepov Aktivne politike zaposlovanja za leti 2007 in 2008, 2006). There are four broad measures included in the programme: counselling and assistance in the search for employment, education and training, promoting employment and self-employment and programmes for promoting social inclusion. Also adopted is the Catalogue of Labour Market Policy Measures (Katalog ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja), the last catalogue having been adopted in 2009.

Measures to help unemployed persons improve their formal education level are set out in the Programme of Education of the Unemployed, which is adopted annually. The programme is

prepared by the relevant ministries (the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education and Sport), in cooperation with several other institutions (the Employment Service of Slovenia, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Slovenia, the Chamber of Craft of Slovenia and the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education). The aim of enrolling unemployed persons in education is to increase their employment opportunities. The programme enables unemployed persons to enrol in several proven educational programmes, particularly in upper secondary programmes. The programme represents a systematic approach to reducing the number of unemployed persons without a vocational or professional education. The last programme was adopted for the 2008/2009 school year.

According to the Programme of Adult Education in the Republic of Slovenia, adults may participate in formal educational programmes (primary and secondary school) and several informal educational programmes. Within the programme, there are also educational programmes, dedicated to low-educated persons. The last programme was adopted for 2009.

Abbreviations

EUROSTAT – Statistical Office of the European Communities

IMAD – Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development/ Urad RS za makroekonomske analize in razvoj/

ISCED- International Standard Classification of Education

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SIAE – Slovenian Institute for Adult Education / Andragoški center Slovenije

SORS– Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia/ Statistični urad Republike Slovenije

4.8. References

1. Bešter, R.; Medvešek, M. (2007): Education Policy of Roma Children in Slovenia: Evaluation of the Education Policy defined in the National Action Plan for Social Inclusion (2004-2006), in: Komac, M. and Varga, R. (ed.): Social Inclusion of Roma Stories from Finland, Slovakia, Slovenia and Portugal. Ljubljana: Institute for Ethnic Studies; Murska Sobota: Mura Regional Development Agency, pp. 129-183.

2. Čelebič, T. (2008): Nadaljnje poklicno izobraževanje in usposabljanje v Sloveniji z mednarodno primerjavo, in: Andragoška spoznanja, Vol. 14, No. 1-2, pp. 57-67.

3. Čelebič, T. (2008a): Vključenost odraslih v izobraževanje z mednarodno primerjavo. In: Andragoška spoznanja, Vol. 14, No. 3-4, pp. 90-98.

4. Čelebič, T. (2008b): Vseživljenjsko učenje, in: Peternelj, M.: Ekonomski izzivi 2008. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 149-150.

5. Čelebič, T. (2009): Vključenost v izobraževanje, in: Kmet Zupančič, R.; Hribernik, M.: Development Report. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 156-157.

6. Čelebič, T. (2009a): Dostopnost vzgojno-varstvenih ustanov in izobraževanja, in: Hanžek, M., Čelebič, T., Pečar, J.; Korošec, V. (ed.): Social Overview 2008. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 48-52.

7. Čelebič, T. (2009b): Dostopnost storitev splošnega pomena, in: Kmet Zupančič, R.; Hribernik, M. (ed.): Development Report. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 43-44

8. Čelebič, T. (2009c): Spreminjanje izobrazbene strukture odraslega prebivalstva v Sloveniji v obdobju 2000-2008 – mednarodna primerjava z drugimi državami EU-27, in: Ekonomsko ogledalo, Vol. 15, No. 7, pp. 17-18.

9. Čelebič, T. (2009d): Slovenia: Quality of Work and Employment of Low-Qualified Workers 2008. An article prepared for European Working Conditions Observatory (EWCO). The paper has been accepted, but not yet published.

10. Dobrovoljc, A. (2002): Evalvacija programa Projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle: Poročilo o izpeljavi programa v šolskem letu 2000/01. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

11. Dobrovoljc, A. (2003): Pridobljeno znanje in spretnosti udeležencev programa projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle, in: Starčič, A. I. (ed.): Evalvacija socialnointegracijske vloge programa Projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle. Ljubljana: Faculty of Arts, pp. 153-158.

12. Dobrovoljc, A. (2007): Življenjski svet osipnikov. Ljubljana: Faculty of Social Sciences.

13. Ignjatovič, M. (2007): Osip iz rednega izobraževanja – individualni in družbeni problem, in: Kramberger, A.; Pavlin, S. (ed.): Zaposljivost v Sloveniji – analiza prehoda iz šol v zaposlitve: stanje, napovedi, primerjave. Ljubljana: Faculty of Social Sciences, pp. 105-127.

14. Ileršič, A. (2007): Programi za razvoj pismenosti odraslih. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

15. Ileršič, A. (2007a): Kaj za posameznika pomeni pismenost?, in: Andragoška spoznanja, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp.37-42.

16. Ivančič, A.; Drofenik, O. (2006): Adult Education, in: Javornik, J. (ed.): Social Overview 2006. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 92-98.

17. Kajzer, A. (2008): Varna prožnost v Sloveniji – kje smo in kako naprej?, in: IB revija, Vol. XLII, No. 3-4, pp. 18-29.

18. Kajzer, A., Čelebič, T., Jurančič, S., Kersnik, M., Kidrič, D., Kraigher, T.; Skledar, Š. (2008): Izzivi trga dela z vidika varne prožnost, in: Peternelj, M., Bednaš, M., Kajzer, A.; Vasle, B. (ed.): Ekonomski izzivi. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 117-153.

19. Kajzer, A., Kraigher, T.; Pečar, J. (2009): Trg dela in zaposlovanje, in: Hanžek, M., Čelebič, T., Pečar, J.; Korošec, V. (ed.): Social Overview 2008. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 20-28.

20. Kajzer, A., Čelebič, T. (2009): Izobraževanje in usposabljanje, in: Kmet Zupančič, R.; Hribernik, M.: Development Report. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 25-28.

21. Kajzer, A. (2009): Stopnja dolgotrajne brezposelnosti, i. In: Kmet Zupančič, R. Hribernik, M. Development Report 2009. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development, pp. 134-135.

22. Lovše, M. (2004): Pregled izpeljave programa Projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle: Poročilo o izpeljavi programa v šolskem letu 2003/04. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education

23. Nacionalna komisija za razvoj pismenosti (2006): Nacionalna strategija za razvoj pismenosti. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

24. OECD. (2000): Literacy in the Information Age: Final Report of the International Adult Literacy Survey. Paris: OECD.

25. Pavlin, S.; Plachtej, B. (2009): Contribution of Collective Bargaining to Continuing Vocational Training. Slovenia: Collective Bargaining and Continuous Vocational Training. European Industrial Relations Observatory (EIRO).

26. Polak, M. (2006): Informiranje in svetovanje za mlade na vzporedni poti, in: Bezić, T., Dobrovoljc, A., Niklanović, S., Polak, M., Raičevič, L., Šlibar, Z., Vilič Klenovšek, T. and Vučetić Dimitrovski, (authors): Informiranje in svetovanje za vseživljenjsko učenje in razvoj kariere v Sloveniji: stanje in perspektive. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education, pp. 31-32.

27. Radovan, M. (2003): Motivacija zaposlenih za izobraževanje. Aplikacija Tp, in: V izobraževanju odraslih. Raziskovalno poročilo. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

28. Radovan, M. (2008): Motivacijski profili odraslih v formalnem izobraževanju. In: Andragoška spoznanja, Vol. 14, No. 1-2, pp. 77-85.

29. Slovenian Institute for Adult Education, Ministry of Education and Sport. (2006): Nacionalna strategija za razvoj pismenosti. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education; Ministry of Education and Sport.

30. Slovenian Institute for Adult Education. (2009): Predstavitev programov UŽU. Ljubljana: Slovenian Institute for Adult Education.

31. Velikonja, M. (ed.) (2000): Izobraževalni programi: Izobraževanje odraslih: Projektno učenje za mlajše odrasle. Ljubljana: Ministry of Education and Sport and the National Education Institute.

32. Commission of the European Communities. (2000): A Memorandum on Lifelong Learning: Commission Staff working paper: SEC (200) 1832. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

33. Commission of the European Communities. (2006): Adult learning: It is never too late to learn. Communication from the Commission COM (2006). Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

34. Commission of the European Communities. (2006a): Efficiency and equity in European education and training systems. Communication from the Commission to the Council and to the European Parliament. Brussels: COM (2006) final.

35. Commission of the European Communities. (2007): Action Plan on Adult Learning: It is always a good time to learn. Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. COM (2008) 865, Final. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

36. Commission of the European Communities. (2008): An updated strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training. SEC (2008) 3059, (COM (2008) 865 Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, Final. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

37. Commission of the European Communities. (2008a): An updated strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training. Impact assessment. SEC (2008) 3047, COM (2008) 865. Commission Staff working document accompanying the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: Impact assessment: Final. Brussels: Commission of the European Communities.

38. Commission of the European Communities. (2008b): Proposal for Council decision on guidelines for the employment policies of the Member States (presented by the Commission). COM (2008) 869, Final, 2008/0252 (CNS). Brussels: European Commission.

39. Commission of the European Communities. (2008c): Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in education and training. Brussels: European Commission

40. Council of the European Union. (2009): Council conclusions on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ("ET 2020"). 2941st Education, Youth and Culture Council meeting, Brussels, 12. Brussels: Council of the European Union.

51. Decree establishing employment quota for persons with disabilities. Official Journal, No. 111/2005.

52. Employment Service of Slovenia (2007): Poročilo o izvajanju ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja v letu 2006. Ljubljana: Employment Service of Slovenia.

53. Employment Service of Slovenia. 2008: Letno poročilo 2008. Ljubljana: Employment Service of Slovenia.

54. Employment Service of Slovenia. (2009): Letno poročilo 2008. Ljubljana: Employment Service of Slovenia.

55. Employment and Insurance Against Unemployment Act. Ljubljana: Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 107/2006.

56. European Parliament and the Council. (2006): The lifelong learning programme: Decision No. 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and the Council of 15 November 2006 establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning. Ljubljana: Official Journal of the European Union, 24 November 2006. L 327/45.

57. European Parliament and the Council (2006a): Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning (2006/962/EC). Official Journal of the European Union, 30 December 2006. L 394/10.

58. Eurostat. (2009): Population and Social Conditions – Education and Training.

59. Eurostat. (2009): Population and Social Conditions – Employment and unemployment (Labour Force Survey).

60. Eurostat. (2009): Population and Social Conditions – Living conditions and social protection.

61. Government Office for Local Self-Government and Regional Policy. (2007): Operativni program razvoja človešekih virov za obdobje 2007 – 2013. Ljubljana: Government Office for Local Self-Government and Regional Policy.

62. Jelenc, Z. (ed.). (2007): Strategija vseživljenjskosti učenja. Ljubljana: Ministry of Education and Sport, Educational Research Institute.

63. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs (2006). Program ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja za obdobje 2007 – 2013 in Načrt izvedbe programa ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja za leti 2007 in 2008. Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

64. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs. (2008): Program javna dela za leti 2009 in 2010. Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

65. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education and Sport (2008). Program izobraževanja za brezposelne osebe za šolsko leto 2008/2009. Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education and Sport.

66. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs. (2009). Katalog ukrepov aktivne politike zaposlovanja. Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs.

67. Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education and Sport. (2009). Program izobraževanja odraslih v Republiki Sloveniji za leto 2009. Ljubljana: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education and Sport.

68. Resolution on the Master Plan for Adult Education in the Republic of Slovenia until 2010. Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 70/2004.

69. Resolution on National Programme of Higher Education in the Republic of Slovenia, 2007-2010. Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 94/2007.

70. Socialni sporazum za obdobje 2007 – 2009. Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 93/2007.

71. Šušteršič, J., Damijan, J. P. and Zajec Hercog, N. (ed.). (2006): Okvir gospodarskih in socialnih reform za povečanje blaginje v Sloveniji. Ljubljana: Government Office for Growth.

72. Šušteršič, J., Rojec, M. and Korenika, K. (2005): Slovenia's Development Strategy. Ljubljana: Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development.

73. Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia. (2009): Standardna klasifikacija poklicev (SKP). Ljubljana: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.

74. The Council. (2002): Detailed work programme on the follow-up of the objectives of education and training systems in Europe (2002/C 142/01). Official Journal of the European Union, 14 June 2002.

75. The Council. (2007): Council resolution of 15 November 2007 on education and training as key driver of the Lisbon strategy (2007/C 300/01). Official Journal of the European Union, 12 December 2007.

76. The Council of the European Union. (2008): Guidelines for the employment policies of the Member States. 10614/2/08 REV 2, SOC 361 ECOFIN 231, EDUC 164. Brussels: Council of the European Union.