

Decision making

for lifelong learning



Processus de prise de décision

dans le contexte de formation continue

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VUBPRESS

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Third Summer School - Troisième Université d'Eté
Proceedings / Actes

Universiteit van Amsterdam
27 August / Août - 1 September / Septembre 1996

Editors / Editeurs
Raoul Van Esbroeck, Val Butcher, Jean Paul Broonen, Anne-Margriet Klaver



FEDORA - European Forum for Student Guidance

FEDORA - Forum Européen de l'Orientation Académique

President / Présidente: Lucia Berta

The third FEDORA Summer School (1996) was organised at the Universiteit van Amsterdam by the FEDORA Training Group (chair: Val Butcher).

La troisième Université d'Été FEDORA (1996) était organisée à l'Universiteit van Amsterdam par le Groupe Formation FEDORA (présidente: Val Butcher).

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Cover/Couverture: Danny Somers

Book design/Photocomposition: B. Bardyn

© 1997 VUBPRESS - Brussels

ISBN 90 5487 183 0 NUGI 722

D / 1997 / 1885 / 028

VUBPRESS - VUB University Press, Pleinlaan 2 - B 1050 Brussels - Belgium

Fax + 32 2 6292694 - E-mail: kvschare@vub.ac.be.

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Preface - Avant-propos

It is a pleasure to see that the "Summer School - Europe Guidance" in its third session on the theme of "Decision Making for Lifelong Learning" has, once again, been a great success.

The 84 participants, amongst whom we again found some "regular" as well as new colleagues from different European countries, including those of Eastern Europe, have almost unanimously expressed a positive opinion. It appears, therefore, that our objective, which is to offer all European specialists in advice and guidance in higher education opportunities to develop their professional skills, has been achieved, with the expectations of the participants having been satisfied. The exchange of experiences, the opportunity to reflect in a scientific way and the comparison of the practices and methodologies of working have been judged to be very rich and stimulating. Finally, the participants have themselves experienced a situation of "continuing education".

Furthermore, the list of people that I would like to thank very warmly grows longer. It is additional evidence of the growing interest aroused by this activity of the FEDORA Training Group.

C'est un plaisir de constater que l' "*Université d'été - Europe Orientation*" dans sa troisième édition sur le thème "Le processus de prise de décision dans le contexte de la formation continue" a été, encore une fois, un grand succès.

Les 84 participants, parmi lesquels nous avons retrouvé des "habitués" mais aussi des nouveaux collègues des pays européens y compris les pays de l'Est, ont exprimé, presque à l'unanimité, un jugement positif. Il paraît donc que notre but, qui est d'offrir à tous les spécialistes européens du conseil et de l'orientation universitaires des occasions de développer leurs compétences professionnelles, a été atteint, les attentes des participants ayant été satisfaites. L'échange d'expériences, la réflexion à caractère scientifique et la comparaison des pratiques et des méthodologies de travail ont été évalués comme fort riches et stimulants. Finalement les participants ont expérimenté eux-mêmes une situation de "formation continue".

De plus, la liste des personnes que je désire remercier vivement s'allonge. C'est un témoignage supplémentaire de l'intérêt croissant soulevé par cette activité du Groupe FEDORA - Formation.

A big "Thank You" therefore:

- to the members of the Organising Committee, Val Butcher, Raoul Van Esbroeck, Martine Pagès, Nicole Palard, Daan Vunderink and, particularly, Anne-Margriet Klaver;
- to the Vice-Chancellors and Rectors of the organising Universities: the University of Amsterdam, the University of Leeds, the Free University Brussels, the University of Bordeaux I, the University of Bordeaux II;
- to the organisations and the Vice-Chancellors and Rectors of universities which have given financial support: the European Commission, the Mayor and Aldermen of the City of Amsterdam, the RUI Foundation, Shell, the Piramide Foundation, the ING Group, the University of Leiden, the University of Liège, the University of Karlsruhe, the Libero Istituto Universitario "Campus Biomedico", the University of Lausanne, the University of Bordeaux III, Stockholm University, Trinity College Dublin, the University of Central Lancashire;
- to all those people who led workshops and plenary sessions as well as those who organised the study visits;
- to Els Boender, Ilja Ramaker, Diana Gosens and Roy van Dam for their collaboration in the organisation and management of such a warm welcome;
- to Jean Paul Broonen, Françoise Michaux and Tony Raban for their help in translating the texts;
- to the interpreters who worked with us during these days of intensive work.

Un grand merci donc:

- aux membres du Comité Organisateur: Val Butcher, Raoul Van Esbroeck, Martine Pagès, Nicole Palard, Daan Vunderink et tout particulièrement à Anne Margriet Klaver;
- aux Recteurs et Vice-Chancellors de universités organisatrices: Universiteit van Amsterdam; University of Leeds, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Université Bordeaux I, Université Bordeaux II;
- aux organisations et aux Recteurs et Vice-Chancellors des universités qui ont accordé leur soutien financier: la Commission Européenne, le Maire et les Conseillers Municipaux d'Amsterdam, la Fondazione Rui, la Shell, La Fondation Piramide, l'ING-Groep, la Rijks Universiteit Leiden, l'Université de Liège, l'Universität Karlsruhe, le Libero Istituto Universitario "Campus Biomedico", l'Université de Lausanne, l'Université Bordeaux III, la Stockholm University, Trinity College Dublin, l'Université de Central Lancashire;
- à toutes les personnes qui ont animé les ateliers et les séances plénières ainsi que celles qui ont organisé les visites d'étude ;
- à Els Boender, Ilja Ramaker, Diana Gosens et Roy van Dam pour leur collaboration au niveau de l'organisation et de la gestion d'un si chaleureux accueil;
- à Jean Paul Broonen, Françoise Michaux et Tony Raban pour leur aide au niveau de la traduction des textes;
- aux interprètes qui nous ont accompagnés pendant ces jours d'intense travail.

And now, taking account of the suggestions of our colleagues who participated as well of the project of creating a European Masters in university guidance, I invite you to work on preparing the next session of our "Summer School" which will take place, at the very kind invitation of the four Rectors of the Bordeaux universities, in July 1998 in Bordeaux.

Lucia Berta
President of FEDORA

Et maintenant, compte tenu des suggestions des nos collègues participants ainsi que du projet de création d'un programme de Master européen en orientation universitaire, je vous invite au travail pour préparer la prochaine édition de notre "Université d'été" qui aura lieu, sur la bien aimable invitation des quatre Recteurs des Universités bordelaises, en juillet 1998 à Bordeaux.

Lucia Berta
Présidente de FEDORA

Decision making for lifelong learning: introduction to the theme

Why 'lifelong learning'?

The question is why did FEDORA opt for the theme 'Decision making for lifelong learning'?

Originally the theme was inspired by the keynote contribution of Tony Watts, one of the founding FEDORA members, at the Second FEDORA Summer School in Dublin. In his speech on 'University guidance in Europe in the context of lifelong career development' Tony Watts referred to the concept of a 'lifelong access to guidance' (Watts, 1996, p. 32). He defines career as a subjective concept 'describing an individual's lifetime of progression in learning and work' (Watts, 1996, p. 32). If this definition is supported we may conclude that 'Careers are now forged, not foretold. They are based on a long series of iterative decisions made throughout our lives.' (Watts, 1996, p. 32).

Consequently we may conclude that 'Guidance needs to be available at all these decision points. Without it, there is a risk that the decisions will be reactive rather than proactive, and focused on survival rather than development.' (Watts, 1996, p. 32). Lifelong access to guidance is necessary to develop a 'concept of serendipitous planning' (Watts, 1996, p. 32).

However, Tony Watts was not the only one to plead for lifelong learning and guidance. The EU also was very well aware of the necessity of lifelong learning and declared 1996 as the 'year of lifelong learning'. FEDORA being very supportive of the idea of the European movement, embraced the proposal for the theme of 'lifelong learning' very warmly.

Why 'decision making'?

Though the idea of decision making was included in T. Watts' presentation, the choice to opt for the topic decision making still needs some further explanation.

The rationale for this topic is found within recent developments in the counselling profession. The actions which should be undertaken by counsellors and guidance workers can be divided into three main groups:

- prevention
- remediation
- development of self-management skills.

In the past counsellors worked too often in a reactive way, responding to individual problem situations which were brought to them by their clients. This approach concentrated often on individual custom tailored counselling and guidance support. The concentration on individual problems leads sometimes to neglecting the group counselling and the group support. Though, the social group to which an individual belongs can be a source of individual problems, sometimes the solution of these problems lies in solving the group problem situation.

This brings us right away to prevention. Indeed, the educational environment, as e.g. the educational approach within an university, can sometimes be the cause or the starting point of individual problems. In this case adequate preparation of the individual at risk for the educational environment could help to prevent the development of the problem. The cause of the problem could equally lie within the institutional strategy of the organisation, particularly with respect to the way in which it supports or hinders the guidance process. Adapting the structural environment in such a way that it will allow, and even stimulate, an optimal development of the individual can be considered as one of the most important tasks for counsellors and guidance workers. System support must be an integral part of the activities.

That most of the higher education counsellors and guidance workers include preventive and remedial actions in their practice has been generally accepted.

The third activity, development of self-management skills, though highly supported by counsellors is not so widely spread. Indeed, counsellors agree beyond any doubt that their actions should help the individual client to develop in such a way that he/she acquires the necessary knowledge and skills that will allow them to take full responsibility for the own development and to operate adequately and satisfactorily in society. Many programmes to enhance self-management skills have been developed by higher education counsellors. However, these activities are not common practice and if they are available they are often carried out in special settings independent from reality or daily learning activities. The integration of this type of programme into regular class activities is rather scarce. Nevertheless this approach can be expected to be the new trend for the coming years.

Guidance workers and counsellors should be prepared for this task.

Within these self-management development programmes the topic of decision making will receive special attention. Indeed, modern society requires the continuous development of skills to cope with change. In school, university, work and private life people have to have the ability to adapt. However, self-management is only possible if individuals dare to take responsibility for their own lives and learning and understand how to take decisions to influence their lives and achieve their goals. It is clear that decision making is a key requirement for lifelong learning and development.

The psychological concept and the target groups

The topic of 'decision making for lifelong learning' is a rather complicated topic that can be approached in different ways. First of all there is the theoretical component of the decision making as a psychological concept. If this is projected on the variable of lifelong development, together with the fact that different groups of students may require different specialised support, we can arrive at following structure for studying the theme (see table 1).

Table 1:

Stages of development	Decision making as a concept	Target groups		
		traditional students	students with disabilities	culturally diverse background
School	the learning process and growth towards self-reliance in decision making	preparing for decisions on further education: decision making training programs, self-development programs, etc.		
University	applying the decision making	preparing for decision making in work life: training programs for undergraduate and graduate students, role of the employers, etc.		
Work Life	decision making at all stages in adult and career development	applying decision making at all stages: development of awareness of new career patterns in the 21st century, decision making as a lifelong task, etc.		

Higher education counsellors have a responsibility for equipping learners with the skills for decision making at several crucial points in the individual's development. Support must be given at the transition from secondary school to university, the progress throughout university and the transfer to the labour market.

In higher education we recognise more and more the existence of special student groups who need special support. The counselling of these groups also requires from counsellors special skills and appropriate attitudes. The group of students with disabilities is a long standing consideration within FEDORA. The activities of the HANDI working group illustrate this commitment.

One of the concluding remarks at the Second Summer School in Dublin, was that special attention should be given to the aspect of counselling for diversity (Van Esbroeck, 1996). Indeed 'international students', 'immigrant students' or more generally 'students from culturally diverse backgrounds' is a growing group in universities.

This group may need special types of support but will also require special preparation from the counsellor.

Remarkably, awareness of and provision for this special group of students is new in higher education. Few languages have a specific term to indicate all of these different subgroups of students with another cultural background. There is no appropriate word for it in English nor in French. The specialised literature in English is using words such as multicultural, cross-cultural, immigrants, foreigners, minorities, etc. or lengthy descriptions. None of these terms actually cover the whole variety of students with another cultural background. Why could we not refer to Greek and use the term 'allochton'? This term could be used the opposite of the more widely spread term 'autochton'?

One group of students, which also should receive special attention, has been left out of the general scheme. The 'adult', or even better 'mature' student is a growing group in our institutions. And with the expected 'lifelong learning' coming up, this group will continue to grow. Not only within 'Open University' systems, but also within traditional institutions, the number of full- or part-time adult students is growing, both in postgraduate programmes, and also in regular first degree programmes. These students are the pioneers of the 'lifelong learning' movement. Taking into account the importance of this topic for future developments one workshop on this topic has been included. We strongly hope that the workshop on 'adult education in Catalonia', given by Frederic Company (Universitat Ramon Llull, Barcelona) will raise interest in this important development. This topic has certainly, within FEDORA, not been given the attention it deserves.

Subthemes, keynote presentations and workshops

The analysis, with reference to the presented model, of the activities scheduled during the Amsterdam Summer School leads to following distribution:

1. Decision making as a psychological concept and general developments

A more theoretical approach to the concept of decision making and lifelong learning, in which the practical consequences for guidance practice will not be forgotten, is to be found in some keynote contributions. Yann Forner (INETOP, Paris) gives his view on the role of decision making styles in careers guidance. Frans Meijers (Rijks Universiteit Leiden) presents the concept of career identity in relation to lifelong learning and career development.

Reflections on some general developments in the field of career counselling and guidance appear in the keynote presentation of Tony Raban (Cambridge University). He gives an update on new developments in European guidance and education systems. This presentation builds on the 'European Handbook for Guidance Counsellors' he wrote for the European Commission (European Commission, 1994).

2. Decision making for lifelong learning with traditional students

This is, as usual, the main topic of the FEDORA Summer School. Peter Hawkins (University of Liverpool) highlights the skills needed for a career in the 21st century. This survey indicates that we must prepare our students for a lifelong learning and decision making process.

All important moments of transition are approached in the workshops by giving an example of programmes to equip students with the necessary skills. The transition from secondary school to university appears in two workshop reports. One on a computer assisted guidance project called "Choices" ("Choix" in French) brought by Carlos Bekaert and Serge Eisenhuth (Flemish National Centre for Training of School Counsellors) and one on possible actions to enhance the decision making process by Luc Van Wanzele, Linda Willems (Vrije Universiteit Brussel) and Philippe Fonck (Université Catholique de Louvain).

Possible training programmes and actions for supporting students while progressing through university are presented by Val Butcher and Jane Conway (University of Leeds), Claude Roulin (Université de Lausanne), Paola Binetti (Universitario Bio-Medico di Roma) and Liz Rhodes (Shell Technology Enterprise). A more fundamental topic is treated in the workshop report by Colm Tobin (University College Dublin) who discusses the influence of educational methods in lifelong learning and career guidance.

An example of what can be done for those who are already employed is given by Martine Pagès (Association Bernard Gregory and Université Bordeaux 1).

3. Decision making for lifelong learning with students with disabilities

Piet Vriens (Universiteit van Amsterdam) undertakes the difficult task of analysing the development of attitudes in our society and within the universities towards students with disabilities. In this analysis some reference to 'economic reality' is made. An interesting report on the Swedish pilot project on a Scholastic Aptitude Test for students with dyslexia and visually impaired students is brought by Tina Altonen and Nichlas Malmdahl (Stockholm University).

4. Decision making for lifelong learning with students from culturally diverse background

A general introduction to counselling with students with another cultural background is given by Monica Armour, a recognised expert in this field working for Transcultural International. She introduces the topic of guidance with these 'allochton' students and also gives some practical recommendations.

A team from the University of Amsterdam, Frank van Kampen and Willeke Jeevinga, presents a contribution on the role of student mentors in the guidance of secondary students with another cultural background. Bernadette Dumora (Université

de Bordeaux 2) gives the results of a research project on the development of the educational career of 'allochton' students at the university.

The new developments in Eastern-Europe allow comparison of guidance systems in different settings. Gerhart Rott (Bergische Universität in Germany), Eliska Strakova and Zusanna Freibergova (Center for Higher Education Studies - Prague) compare the developments in their countries.

5. Study-visits

The importance of theoretical contributions and exchange of ideas among practitioners is beyond any doubt. However, it is equally beneficial to experience how some guidance and counselling centres in the host country deal, in practice, with decision making and lifelong learning. Some study-visits to companies, specialised guidance and counselling services in the Netherlands give such an opportunity. The contribution of Pieter Vroegop (Rijks Universiteit Leiden) in relation to how European universities react to the phenomena of lifelong learning deserves special mention.



Processus de prise de décision dans un contexte de formation continue: introduction au thème

Pourquoi "dans un contexte de formation continue"?

La question est: pourquoi FEDORA a-t-elle opté pour le thème 'prise de décision dans un contexte de formation continue'?

Au départ, la nature du thème fut inspirée par une conférence de Tony Watts, l'un des membres fondateurs de FEDORA, lors de la deuxième Ecole d'Eté de FEDORA à Dublin. Dans son discours sur 'University guidance in Europe in the context of lifelong career development', Tony Watts se référait au concept de 'lifelong access to guidance' (Watts, p. 32). Il définit la carrière comme un concept subjectif 'describing an individual's lifetime of progression in learning and work' (Watts, 1996, p. 32). Si l'on admet cette définition, on peut conclure que 'Careers are now forged, not foretold. They are based on a long series of iterative decisions made throughout our lives.' (Watts, 1996, p. 32).

Par conséquent, nous pouvons conclure que 'Guidance needs to be available at all these decision points. Without it, there is a risk that the decisions will be reactive rather than proactive, and focused on survival rather than development.' (Watts, 1996, p. 32). L'accès permanent à l'orientation est nécessaire pour développer un 'concept of serendipitous planning' (Watts, 1996, p. 32).

Cependant, Tony Watts ne fut pas le seul à plaider pour une formation et une orientation permanentes. L'Union européenne était aussi parfaitement avertie de la nécessité d'une formation permanente et déclarait 1996 comme 'année de la formation continue'. FEDORA se voulant un soutien de l'idée de mouvement européen adopta avec enthousiasme la proposition du thème de 'la formation continue'.

Pourquoi 'prise de décision'?

Bien que l'idée de prise de décision fût incluse dans la présentation de T. Watts, la décision d'opter pour le thème 'prise de décision' nécessite quelque explication complémentaire.

On trouve la logique de cette thématique dans les récents développements de la profession de conseiller. Les actions que les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation devraient mener peuvent être divisées en trois groupes principaux:

- prévention
- remédiation
- développement des habiletés d'auto-gestion.

Par le passé, les conseillers ont trop souvent travaillé dans une perspective réactive, répondant aux problèmes individuels qui leur étaient soumis par leurs clients. Cette approche se focalisait souvent sur un conseil et un soutien d'orientation taillés sur mesure au service d'une personne déterminée. Or, la focalisation sur des problèmes individuels conduit parfois à négliger le conseil de groupe et le soutien de groupe. Pourtant, le groupe social auquel un individu appartient peut constituer une source de problèmes individuels et parfois la solution de ces problèmes réside dans la résolution d'un problème groupal.

Ceci nous amène immédiatement à la question de la prévention. C'est qu'en effet l'environnement pédagogique, comme par exemple l'approche pédagogique dans une université, peut parfois être le point de départ de problèmes individuels. Dans ce cas, une préparation adéquate du sujet au risque par rapport à l'environnement pédagogique pourrait aider à prévenir le développement des problèmes. L'origine du problème peut aussi résider dans la stratégie institutionnelle de l'organisation, en particulier eu égard à la façon dont elle aide ou fait obstacle au processus d'orientation. L'adaptation de l'environnement dans ses structures d'une manière telle qu'il vise à permettre, voire à stimuler, un développement optimal de l'individu peut être considérée comme l'une des tâches les plus importantes des conseillers et des spécialistes de l'orientation. L'aide comme élément d'un système doit faire partie intégrante de leurs activités.

On accepte généralement l'idée que l'action de la plupart des conseillers et des spécialistes de l'orientation de l'enseignement supérieur implique des activités de prévention et de remédiation.

Le troisième secteur, le développement d'habiletés d'auto-gestion, quoique les conseillers en soient éminemment partisans, n'est pas aussi répandu. En effet, les

conseillers s'accordent sans aucun doute sur l'idée que leur action devrait aider le client à se développer d'une manière telle qu'il/elle acquiert les connaissances et les savoir-faire lui permettant d'assumer la pleine responsabilité de leur propre développement et d'agir adéquatement et de façon satisfaisante dans la société. De nombreux programmes destinés à accroître les habiletés d'auto-gestion ont été développés par les conseillers d'enseignement supérieur. Cependant, ce genre d'activités ne constitue pas une pratique répandue et, si elles existent, elles sont souvent mises sur pied dans des dispositifs déconnectés de la réalité ou de la quotidienneté des activités de formation. L'intégration de ce type de programmes dans le cours régulier des activités académiques est assez rare. Néanmoins on peut s'attendre à ce que cette approche constitue la nouvelle tendance des prochaines années.

Les spécialistes de l'orientation et les conseillers devraient être préparés à cette tâche.

A l'intérieur de ces programmes de développement de l'auto-gestion comportementale, le thème de la prise de décision devra recevoir une attention particulière. En effet, la société contemporaine requiert le développement continu de savoir-faire pour gérer le changement. A l'école, à l'université, au travail et dans la vie privée, les gens doivent disposer de la capacité à s'adapter. Cependant, l'auto-gestion comportementale n'est possible que si les individus osent prendre leurs responsabilités dans leur propre existence et dans leur formation, et comprennent comment prendre des décisions pour influencer leur existence et atteindre leurs buts. Il est clair que la prise de décision est une exigence clé pour la formation et le développement permanents.

Le concept psychologique et les groupes cibles

La thématique de la 'prise de décision dans un contexte de formation permanente' est assez complexe et on peut l'approcher par plusieurs côtés. Premièrement, il y a la composante théorique de la prise de décision comme concept psychologique. Si l'on projette celui-ci sur la variable développement permanent, en même temps que le fait que différents groupes d'étudiants peuvent avoir besoin d'une aide spécialisée différenciée, on peut arriver à la structure suivante d'étude du thème (voir tableau 1).

Tableau 1:

Stades de développement	Prise de décision comme concept	Groupes cibles		
		étudiants traditionnels	étudiants handicapés	d'origine culturelle différent
Ecole	Le processus de formation et de progression vers l'auto-suffisance dans la prise de décision	préparation à la prise de décision dans la scolarité ultérieure: programmes de prise de décision, d'auto-développement, etc.		
Université	application de la prise de décision	préparation à la prise de décision dans le monde du travail: programmes de formation pour les étudiants de premier cycle et diplômés, rôle des employeurs, etc.		
Vie de travail	prise de décision à toutes les étapes de la vie adulte et dans le développement de carrière	application de la prise de décision à toutes les étapes: développement de la prise de conscience de nouveaux profils de carrière au 21 ^e siècle, prise de décision comme tâche permanente, etc.		

Les conseillers d'enseignement supérieur ont la responsabilité de pourvoir les apprenants d'habiletés touchant à la prise de décision à des moments cruciaux de leur développement individuel. On doit fournir un soutien à la transition de l'enseignement secondaire à l'université, durant le cursus universitaire et au moment de l'entrée sur le marché du travail.

Dans l'enseignement supérieur, nous constatons de plus en plus l'existence de groupes spécifiques d'étudiants qui requièrent une aide particulière. Le conseil mis en oeuvre avec ces groupes demandent aussi de la part des conseillers des savoir-faire particuliers et des attitudes adéquates. Le groupe des étudiants porteurs de handicaps constitue de longue date un sujet de considération particulière au sein de FEDORA. Les activités du groupe de travail HANDI illustre cette préoccupation.

L'une des remarques conclusives de la Deuxième Université d'Été de Dublin était qu'une attention toute spéciale devait être accordée au conseil par rapport à la diversité (Van Esbroeck, 1996). En effet, 'les étudiants internationaux', les 'étudiants immigrants', ou plus généralement les 'étudiants provenant d'horizons culturels divers' constituent un groupe de plus en plus important dans les universités. Ce groupe a sans doute besoin d'un type d'aide spécifique, mais requerra aussi une préparation spécifique de la part du conseiller.

Il est à remarquer que la prise de conscience de l'existence de ce groupe spécifique d'étudiants et l'émergence de leur prise en considération sont des faits nouveaux dans l'enseignement supérieur. Peu de langues ont un terme *ad hoc* pour désigner ces diffé-

rents sous-groupes d'étudiants porteurs d'un "autre" fond culturel. Il n'existe aucun mot approprié en anglais ni en français. La littérature anglo-saxonne spécialisée use de termes tels que 'multicultural', 'cross-cultural', 'immigrants', 'foreigners', 'minorities' etc. ou de paraphrases. Aucun de ces termes ne couvre réellement la variété complète des étudiants porteurs d'un "autre" fond culturel. Pourquoi ne pas se référer au grec et utiliser le terme 'allochtone'? Ce terme pourrait être utilisé par opposition au terme 'autochtone' dont l'usage est largement répandu.

Un groupe d'étudiants qui devrait aussi faire l'objet d'une attention toute particulière a été oublié dans la schéma général. L'étudiant 'adulte', ou mieux 'mature', constitue un groupe qui va croissant dans nos institutions. Et avec l'apparition de la 'formation permanente', ce groupe continuera à grandir. Non seulement dans les systèmes dits d' 'Université ouverte', mais aussi au sein des institutions traditionnelles, le nombre des étudiants adultes à temps plein ou à mi-temps est en train de grandir, à la fois dans les programmes de troisième cycle et dans les programmes de premier cycle. Ces étudiants sont les pionniers du mouvement de la 'formation permanente'. Il fallait donc inclure un atelier sur ce thème afin de prendre en compte son importance pour des développements ultérieurs. Nous espérons vivement que l'atelier sur la 'Scolarité des adultes en Catalogne' organisé par Frederic Company (Universitat Ramon Llull, Barcelone) soulèvera un intérêt pour cet important développement. Ce thème n'a certainement pas reçu au sein de FEDORA toute l'importance qu'il mérite.

Sous-thèmes, conférences et ateliers

En référence au modèle présenté, l'analyse des activités au programme de l'Université d'Été d'Amsterdam conduit à la distribution suivante:

1. Prise de décision comme concept psychologique et développements généraux

On trouvera une approche plus théorique des concepts de prise de décision et de formation continue, où les conséquences pratiques pour la pratique de l'orientation ne seront pas oubliées, dans quelques contributions principales. Yann Forner (INETOP, Paris) fournit sa vision du rôle des styles de prise de décision dans l'orientation de carrière. Frans Meijers (Rijks Universiteit Leiden) présente le concept d'identité de carrière en liaison avec la formation permanente et le développement de carrière.

Des réflexions sur certains développements plus généraux appartenant au champ du conseil et de l'orientation de carrière apparaissent dans la conférence de Tony Raban (Cambridge University). Il fait une mise à jour des récents développements des systèmes d'orientation et scolaires européens. Cette communication se base sur le 'Manuel européen pour les conseillers d'orientation' qu'il a écrit pour la Commission européenne (European Commission, 1994).

2. Prise de décision dans un contexte de formation continue avec des étudiants traditionnels

Il s'agit du thème habituel et principal des Ecoles d'Eté de FEDORA. Peter Hawkins (University of Liverpool) souligne les habiletés requises pour mener une carrière au 21^e siècle. Ce survol montre que nous devons préparer nos étudiants à une formation et à un processus de prise de décision permanents.

Toutes les périodes importantes de transition sont abordées dans les ateliers en donnant un exemple de programmes destinés à pourvoir les étudiants des habiletés nécessaires. La transition de l'école secondaire vers l'université apparaît dans deux rapports d'ateliers. L'un sur un projet d'orientation assistée par ordinateur appelé "Choices" ("Choix" en français) et présenté par Carlos Bekaert et Serge Eisenhuth (Centre national flamand pour la Formation de l'Ecole des Conseillers), l'autre sur des travaux visant à améliorer le processus de prise de décision par Luc Van Wanzele, Linda Willems (Vrije Universiteit Brussel) et Philippe Fonck (Université Catholique de Louvain).

Des propositions de programmes et d'actions de formation en vue de soutenir les étudiants tandis qu'ils progressent à l'université sont présentées par Val Butcher et Jane Conway (University of Leeds), Claude Roulin (Université de Lausanne), Paola Binetti (Universitario Bio-Medico di Roma) et Liz Rhodes (Shell Technology Enterprise). Un thème plus fondamental est traité dans le rapport de l'atelier de Colm Tobin (University College Dublin) qui discute l'influence des méthodes pédagogiques dans la formation permanente et l'orientation de carrière.

Un exemple de ce qui peut être réalisé pour ceux qui sont déjà engagés dans le monde du travail est donné par Martine Pagès (Association Bernard Gregory et Université Bordeaux 1).

3. Prise de décision dans la formation continue avec des étudiants handicapés

Piet Vriens (Universiteit van Amsterdam) entreprend la difficile tâche d'analyser le développement des attitudes dans notre société et dans les universités envers les étudiants handicapés. Dans cette analyse, il fait référence à la 'réalité économique'. Un intéressant rapport sur le projet pilote suédois relatif au 'Scholastic Aptitude Test' pour les étudiants dyslexiques et malvoyants est fait par Tina Altonen et Nichlas Malmdahl (Université de Stockholm).

4. Prise de décision dans la formation continue avec des étudiants d'une autre origine culturelle

Une introduction générale au conseil avec des étudiants d'une autre origine culturelle a été présentée par Monica Armour, expert reconnu dans le domaine et qui travaille pour Transcultural International. Elle introduit le thème de la guidance avec les étudiants 'allochtones' et donne aussi des recommandations pratiques.

Une équipe de l'université d'Amsterdam, Frank van Kampen and Willeke Jeeninga, présente une contribution sur le rôle de mentors dans l'orientation des étudiants dans l'enseignement secondaire qui ont un background culturel différent. Bernadette Dumora (Université de Bordeaux 2) fournit les résultats d'un projet de recherche sur le développement du cursus académique des étudiants 'allochtones' à l'université.

Les récents changements en Europe de l'Est autorisent la comparaison des systèmes de guidance dans différentes situations. Gerhart Rott (Bergische Universitäten), Eliska Strakova et Zusanna Freibergova (Centre des Etudes d'Enseignement Supérieur- Prague) comparent les développements dans leurs pays respectifs.

5. Visites d'étude

L'importance des contributions théoriques et les échanges d'idées entre les participants est évidente. Cependant, il est tout aussi bénéfique de se rendre compte de la façon dont des centres déterminés d'orientation et de conseil dans le pays d'accueil gèrent en pratique les problèmes de prise de décision et de formation permanente. Des visites d'étude dans des centres spécialisés dans l'orientation et le conseil aux Pays-Bas procurent une telle opportunité. La contribution de Pieter Vroegop (Rijks Universiteit Leiden) sur le mode de réaction des universités européennes au phénomène de la formation permanente mérite une mention spéciale.

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Le concept de prise de décision dans un contexte de formation continue: un cadre théorique

Introduction

La complexité du thème sous investigation a été fort bien illustrée par les contributions, de caractère plutôt théorique, de Y. Forner (1997) et F. Meijers (1997). Ces contributions faisaient appel à des théories et à des recherches expérimentales issues évidemment des champs de l'orientation et du counselling, mais aussi de domaines plus larges de la pédagogie et de la psychologie, et même de la sociologie scolaire. L'analyse du développement de la carrière académique et professionnelle des clients et des problèmes éprouvés par les conseillers a aussi intégré l'impact de variables de nature économique.

L'évolution observée non seulement dans les systèmes d'enseignement supérieur (Raban, 1997), mais aussi dans l'enseignement tout court (Tobin, 1997), a été questionnée en fonction des importantes conséquences qu'elle peut entraîner dans un contexte de formation continue. A titre d'exemples *in vivo*, les participants ont pu découvrir un cas d'application de formation d'adultes (Company, 1997) et une analyse des réalisations concrètes des universités européennes en formation continue (Vroegop, 1997).

Tous ces présentations ont sans aucun doute contribué à l'expression de quelques messages qui sont d'une grande importance pour des conseillers de l'enseignement supérieur et à la formulation d'avis qui ne sont pas négligeables pour la pratique de l'orientation et le conseil psychologique.

De quelques messages et de leurs conséquences pour la pratique

1. La mission de l'enseignement et la responsabilité des conseillers

La définition de la mission de l'enseignement dans notre société actuelle n'est pas claire. L'analyse de Meijers (1997) indique que le monde économique et le monde du travail sont en plein changement et caractérisés par l'incertitude (société post-indus-

trielle). Ou, l'enseignement n'est pas en phase avec ces changements et conserve les attitudes caractéristiques du monde industriel. Ce déphasage amène à un court-circuit entre les missions fondamentales de l'enseignement et les exigences du monde économique. Les conséquences pour les conseillers sont évidentes. Les certitudes ont disparu pour eux aussi.

Cette belle analyse n'empêche pas que l'on se pose une question fondamentale: y-a-t-il vraiment désaccord entre les deux systèmes? Peut-être bien, mais tout le monde ne le voit sans doute pas de la même façon. Et il est fort probable qu'une partie de notre société, et particulièrement une partie de la population estudiantine, n'éprouve pas ce désaccord. Nous ne pouvons pas oublier que notre société est devenue une société multiculturelle où les différences existent. Les différences entre les différents groupes culturels européens sont énormes. Et les conseillers ont le devoir de respecter les différences propres aux systèmes de valeurs de leurs clients.

Une autre question se pose encore: est-ce que l'enseignement n'a pas comme tâche de sauvegarder certaines valeurs fondamentales? C'est pourquoi dans le passé l'enseignement n'a pas toujours suivi les changements économiques. Est-ce que nous devons suivre l'évolution d'un monde économique qui est orienté uniquement vers la rentabilité immédiate mais ignore certaines valeurs humaines? Les enseignants et les conseillers doivent-ils souscrire à cette conception égoïste et jouer le jeu du monde économique? Le devoir des conseillers n'est-il pas plutôt de combattre cette évolution et de préparer les étudiants, leurs clients, à mieux résister à ces changements? Le développement de concepts comme "life themes" et "career identity", ainsi qu'il a été suggéré par Meijers (1997), peut aussi servir ces buts.

La contribution de C. Tobin (1997) dans laquelle il est fait référence à des approches pédagogiques "traditionnelle", "moderne" et "future" peut être analysée dans ce cadre. En effet, la dissémination des connaissances et la certitude comme aspirations sont mises en cause. Ces conceptions sont remplacées par celles de faculté d'adaptation et de tolérance à l'ambiguïté.

Mais comment faire face au fait que beaucoup de personnes n'ont qu'une capacité d'adaptation et de tolérance à l'ambiguïté limitée? Jusqu'où les conseillers peuvent-ils accepter d'aller dans leur insistance sur ces exigences à travers leur relation de support avec leurs clients?

Est-ce que les limites de nos interventions ne sont pas déterminées par les limites de nos clients eux-mêmes et parfois aussi par nos propres limites?

2. Une meilleure compréhension du multiculturel devient indispensable

La population estudiantine exige de plus en plus de leurs conseillers une compréhension du multiculturalisme de notre société. Il y a d'abord l'aspect du multiculturalisme qui tient à l'origine étrangère, ou allochtone, d'une partie de nos clients. Cet aspect est d'ailleurs tellement important qu'il constitue désormais un thème en soi (voir Broonen, 1997). Mais la question multiculturelle est beaucoup plus large que cela. Même dans notre société autochtone, les divergences culturelles sont d'une telle envergure

qu'on peut parler de multiculturalisme. En particulier, la disparition d'une sub-culture dominante est à la base de ces divergences (Elchardus, 1994; Van Esbroeck, 1996).

Aussi bien la contribution de Meijers (1997) que celles de Raban (1997) et de Forner (1997) apportent des appuis à cette thèse. L'analyse exemplaire de Raban sur la nécessité de bien comprendre la terminologie appliquée dans l'enseignement supérieur l'indique clairement. Ce qui est un diplôme pour les uns ne l'est pas pour les autres, malgré le fait qu'ils employent exactement la même terminologie.

3. Une approche différentielle dans le counselling

Aussi bien les résultats des recherches expérimentales (Forner, 1997) que l'analyse de l'évolution dans l'organisation de l'enseignement supérieur européen (Raban, 1997) supportent l'idée de la nécessité d'une approche différentielle dans le counselling.

En effet, les systèmes d'enseignement européens sont les uns par rapport aux autres d'une part divergents pour certains aspects, mais d'autre part aussi convergents pour d'autres. Cette situation nécessite une approche différentielle dans les programmes d'orientation suivant le système d'enseignement dans lequel on est intégré.

Les recherches de Forner (1997), même limitées à la problématique du style de prise de décision, indiquent que l'orientation doit par exemple tenir compte:

- du type de tâche devant laquelle le client se trouve;
- du type d'enseignement;
- de la maturité vocationnelle du client;
- de l'origine culturelle, même pour les autochtones;
- du stade de développement vocationnel.

Cette liste non limitative de variables influençant la stratégie et la méthodologie de l'orientation pose certainement des problèmes pour les conseillers. Ainsi en va-t-il par exemple des questions relatives à la mesure de ces variables. Ce problème technique prend encore plus d'acuité dans un contexte de massification de l'enseignement supérieur.

Le problème d'une approche différentielle devient encore plus aigu lorsque les conseillers sont confrontés à des étudiants moins habituels comme par exemple les adultes (voir Company, 1997).

4. L'aide aux étudiants et aux institutions

Un autre message à retenir, certes pas toujours clairement exprimé mais en tous cas très visible, est que les conseillers ont aussi un rôle important à jouer vis-à-vis de l'orientation de leurs institutions. En effet les conseillers recueillent une information immense sur les dysfonctionnements de leurs institutions et de certains groupes, aussi bien parmi le corps enseignant que parmi les étudiants, dans leurs institutions. Une globalisation et une analyse systématique de cette information s'imposent. Les conseillers sont incontournables dans l'"institutional guidance".

Ce ne sera pas une tâche facile. Comme l'orientation n'est pas toujours considérée comme faisant partie intégrante du cursus et comme une partie du corps professoral la considère comme une tâche superflue dont la nécessité est parfois discutée, les conseillers peuvent être assurés qu'un engagement dans l'"institutional guidance" se heurtera à des réactions négatives.

Malgré ces difficultés, le conseiller doit prendre ses responsabilités sur ce plan, car le bien-être de ses clients en dépend très souvent.

Conclusions

L'analyse théorique a abordé quelques thèmes qui jouent un rôle important dans la pratique journalière des conseillers. Ceux-ci sont effectivement confrontés à un monde économique en pleine mutation qui nécessitera des changements dans l'approche de nos clients. La question est de savoir jusqu'à quel point les conseillers sont prêts à s'engager dans le changement vis-à-vis de la formation des étudiants pour le monde de demain? Est-ce qu'ils doivent jouer un rôle réactif ou plutôt proactif dans ce processus de changement? Même dans les autres sous-thèmes de la 3^{ème} Université d'été de FEDORA ce problème a été abordé (voir Vriens, 1997). Mais se posent aussi les questions de la gestion des différences entre les étudiants de l'enseignement supérieur et de la conciliation d'une telle approche différentielle avec un enseignement de masse.

Beaucoup de questions qui peuvent servir de point de départ pour des discussions et des thèmes d'analyse aux prochaines Universités d'été de FEDORA.



The concept of decision making for lifelong learning: a theoretical framework

Introduction

The complexity of the theme under investigation has been very well illustrated by the contributions, largely theoretical in character, of Y. Forner (1997) and F. Meijers (1997). These contributions refer to theories and experimental research, obviously arising from the field of guidance and counselling, but also from the wider domains of pedagogy and of psychology and even from educational sociology. The analysis of the client's educational and professional career development and of the problems encountered by counsellors has also taken account of the impact of variables of an economic nature.

The evolution seen, not only in systems of higher education (Raban, 1997), but also in education itself (Tobin, 1997), has been examined for the important conse-

quences which it could bring for continuing education. By way of a living example, the participants have been able to see a case of its application to adult education (Company, 1997) and an analysis of what has been put into practice by European universities in continuing education (Vroegop, 1997).

All these presentations have, without any doubt, contributed to the expression of several messages which are of great importance for counsellors in higher education and to the formulation of opinions which are not without importance for the practice of guidance and psychological counselling.

Some messages and consequences for practice

1. The mission of education and the responsibility of counsellors

The definition of the mission of education in our current society is not clear. The analysis of Meijers (1997) shows that the economic world and the world of work are undergoing great change and are characterised by uncertainty (the post-industrial society). However, education is not in line with these changes and remains close to the attitudes characteristic of the industrial world. This mismatch leads to a short-circuit between the fundamental missions of education and the demands of the economy. The consequences for advisers are obvious. The certainties have disappeared for them as well.

This neat analysis does not prevent one from asking a fundamental question: is there really a lack of harmony between the two systems? Perhaps yes, but not everybody, doubtless, sees it in the same way. It is very likely that one section of our society, and particularly a section of the student population, does not experience this disharmony. We cannot forget that our society has become a multicultural society where differences exist. The differences between different European cultural groups are enormous, and counsellors have a duty to respect the differences in the value systems of their clients.

Yet another question arises: does not education have as a task the safe-guarding of certain fundamental values? That is why, in the past, education has not always followed economic change. Must we follow the evolution of the economic world which is geared solely to immediate profit but ignores certain human values? Must teachers and counsellors subscribe to this selfish concept and play the game of the economic world? Is not the duty of counsellors rather to combat this development and to prepare the students, their clients, to be better able to resist these changes? The development of concept like "life themes" and "career identity", such as has been suggested by Meijers (1997), can also serve as goals.

The contribution of C Tobin (1997) in which reference is made to pedagogical approaches, which are "traditional", "modern", and "future" can be analysed in this framework. In effect, the dissemination of knowledge and certainty as aspirations are questioned. These concepts are replaced by those of the faculty of adaptability and tolerance of ambiguity.

However, how do we cope with the fact that many people have only a limited capacity to adapt and tolerate ambiguity? How far can counsellors agree to go in their insistence on these requirements in their supportive relationship with their clients?

Are not the limits of our intervention determined by the limits of our clients themselves, and sometimes also by our own limits?

2. A better understanding of the multicultural is becoming essential

The student population demands more and more from its counsellors an understanding of the multicultural nature of our society. There is, first of all, the aspect of multiculturalism which arises from the foreign or non-indigenous origin of some of our clients. This aspect, moreover, is so important that in future it will be a theme in itself (see Broonen, 1997). But the multicultural question is much bigger than that. Even in our indigenous society, the cultural differences are of such strength that one could talk of multiculturalism. In particular, the disappearance of a dominant sub-culture is at the root of these differences (Elchardus, 1994; Van Esbroeck, 1996).

The contributions of Meijers (1997) as well as those of Raban (1997) and of Forner (1997) support this thesis. Raban's analysis by examples of the necessity to understand properly the terminology applied to higher education shows it clearly. What is a diploma for one person is not so for others, despite the fact that they are using exactly the same terminology.

3. A differential approach in counselling

The results of experimental researches (Forner, 1997) as well as of the analysis of the development of the organisation of European higher education (Raban, 1997) both support the idea of the necessity for a differential approach in counselling. Indeed, the systems of European education when compared to each other are, on the one hand, divergent in certain aspects but, on the other hand, convergent in other aspects. This situation requires a different approach in guidance programmes according to the system of education in which they take place.

The researches of Forner (1997), although limited to the question of the style of decision-making, show that guidance must, for example, take account of:

- the type of task facing the client
- the type of education
- the vocational maturity of the client
- the cultural origin, even for the indigenous population
- the level of vocational development

This list of variables (not definitive) which influence the strategy and the methodology of guidance poses certain problems for advisers. For example, it leads to questions about how to measure such variables. This technical problem becomes even more serious in the context of the growth of mass higher education.

The problem of a differential approach becomes even more acute when counsellors are confronted with non-traditional students such as, for example, adults (see Company, 1997).

4. Help for students and institutions

One other message which should be noted, certainly not always clearly expressed, but in any case very obvious, is that counsellors also have an important role to play vis-à-vis the guidance of their institutions. Indeed, counsellors gather an enormous amount of information on the dysfunctional aspects of their institutions and of certain groups, both amongst the teaching staff and amongst students, within in their institutions. A sharing and a systematic analysis of this information is imperative. Counsellors are essential to "institutional guidance".

This will not be an easy task. As guidance is not always considered as playing an integral part in the curriculum, and as a part of the teaching staff consider it a superfluous task, whose necessity is sometimes questioned, counsellors can be sure that involvement in "institutional guidance" will lead to negative reactions.

Despite these difficulties, counsellors must take responsibility in this area because very often the well being of their clients depends on it.

Conclusions

This theoretical analysis has addressed several themes which play an important role in the day-to-day work of counsellors. Counsellors are, in practice, confronted with an economic world undergoing great change, which will necessitate changing the approach of our clients. The problem is to know how far counsellors are ready to engage in this change in training students for the world of tomorrow? Must they play a reactive or a proactive role in this process of change? Even in the other sub-themes of the third FEDORA Summer School, this problem has already been addressed (see Vriens, 1997). But questions arise also about managing the differences between students in higher education and the reconciliation of such a differential approach with mass higher education.

Here are many questions which could serve as a point of departure for the discussions and the themes to be analysed in future FEDORA Summer Schools.

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Decision making for lifelong learning with traditional students

Introduction

'In the 21st Century, the most significant challenge for graduates will be to manage their relationship with work and with learning', Peter Hawkins (1997, p. 83) emphasised in his keynote address. He established the context for the theme of the Third FEDORA Summer School by offering an appraisal of the changing world awaiting European graduates beyond their university: gone is a job for life with its planned career structure and company or organisational training scheme; gone is a clear functional identity and the assured progressive rise in income and security. Instead, most graduates will experience 'Portfolio careers', moving through a series of transitions in work and learning, self-employment and unemployment.

Three main issues arise for counsellors and guidance workers in higher education as a result of these radical changes:

- *identifying what attributes students/graduates need to cope with this changing world.* Decision making is a skill; enabling students to understand the nature and application of decision making also involves helping them to develop a range of other skills and attributes and different guidance services need to be clear what these might be.
- *How this learning can be delivered and by whom:* by specialist interaction? One-to-one; by group work; within the academic curriculum; by distance- and open-learning approaches particularly using new technology? There is a key issue of how far and in what ways we draw-in other university colleagues — including academics — to support this process, and a clear challenge to enable students to acquire the skill of self-managed progression.
- *The need for counsellors and guidance workers to deal with external stimuli and constraints* - external, that is, to guidance specialists: from the attitudes and expectations of university colleagues and managers; the students themselves, the employers of graduates and local and central government agencies throughout Europe.

What attributes are counsellors and guidance workers trying to develop?

Hawkins (1995) has identified a range of 'Self-sufficiency skills' attributes which enable individuals to make effective choices in a constantly changing world of learning and work; skills which will enable the individual to create and benefit from opportunities in less-traditional graduate employment and to return to learning.

Developing such skills within an academic programme is a new challenge: these are skills which the Shell Technology Enterprise Programme seeks to develop (Rhodes, 1997). The Programme has a small pilot activity in Holland and has successfully developed a U.K.-based initiative which organises 2-month vacation work placements for undergraduates at the end of their penultimate year in small companies, voluntary organisations and environmental organisations. A key issue in enabling students to develop their self-awareness and understand the nature and processes of the decisions they have to make is that the learner must have the opportunity to record and reflect upon their experience. STEP are addressing this through the development of a computer disk on which students log a 'placement diary' throughout the two months of their work placement.

The need for this transparency — for graduates to have the ability to recognise and articulate the skills as well as knowledge they have gained from their university learning — may be new, but the identification of graduate skills has a long history. This is especially the case in the U.K. and Ireland, through a series of surveys including the work carried out at Sheffield University in the late-1980s, to individual surveys increasingly being undertaken throughout Europe by University Careers Services. These skills are equally relevant to the needs of post-graduate students, as demonstrated by the work of Pagès (1997) at the Association Bernard Gregory and Butcher &

Conway (1997) at the University of Leeds. The world beyond university is also changing radically for post-doctoral students and other graduates, who increasingly cannot expect a life-time future in academia.

In the future, counsellors and guidance workers in higher education must not only collaborate with academic colleagues and students to ensure that the degree curriculum enables students to develop skills as well as knowledge, but will have a particular responsibility to ensure that students are aware of why they are being invited to develop these new attributes; to be aware what these skills are for.

Generic personal skills like communication, team-work, problem solving, creative thinking, information technology, time-management and so on can undoubtedly enhance both learning and employability for graduates throughout Europe. It is not enough, however, contented Butcher & Conway (1997) in their workshop to equip students only with these skills, but also to ensure that in a world of increasing change and transition, graduates understand how to manage their own career progression. The key role of counsellors and guidance workers must be to equip learners, whilst at University, to gain conscious awareness of the skills of self-managed guidance.

The work of Law & Watts (1977) has had a major influence on the articulation of what these 'meta-competences' might be: and the basic concepts (self-awareness, opportunity-awareness, decision-learning and transition-learning) have been adopted and adapted in many different ways throughout Europe. This model is a basis for their self-managed learning modules at the National University of Distance Education (Repetto & Malik, 1996). The 'Career Learning Log' developed at the University of Leeds (Butcher & Conway, 1997) offers a flexible adaptation of a similar model. It is a challenge however, for all counsellors and guidance workers equipping students to deal with the challenges of lifelong learning to ensure that a sufficiently flexible model of personally-managed progression through study and employment is clearly understood, and clearly owned by all graduates in 21st Century.

How can this learning be delivered?

Counsellors and guidance workers face particular challenges of increasing student numbers at a time when the individual may feel more than ever dependent on good guidance, because of the unfamiliarity of the world in which they are having to make choices. Tobin (1997) made a very strong case for the need for new guidance approaches and models in this situation — not the authoritarian traditional models of matching and certainty or the mainly non-directive recent approaches of Super (1990) and Rogers (1951) but since change is now so rapid that 'informed' self-determination is virtually impossible, he outlined a new 'proactive, interactive, adaptive guidance approach' (Tobin, 1997).

As a matter of urgency, we need to be able to identify how far and in what ways guidance services in European Universities are responding to the challenge of developing decision making skills and career management. The discussion prompted by

Claude Roulin's workshop group (Roulin, 1997) identified a clear need to undertake a survey of such curriculum development and to evaluate the results. Because of the diversity of learning cultures in university organisations, it is unlikely that one single 'effective' model will be identified, but the dissemination of good practice will extend all our horizons. A possible 'model' on how the decision making education can be approached has been given by Binetti (1997), who presented the educational model used at the 'Libero Istituto Universitario Campus Bio-Medico di Roma'. In this model the decision making education is integrated in a holistic interactive educational model in which the total personality of the student is involved.

The relation between higher education and secondary education also received attention. Whilst the U.K. has the most practical experience in delivering accredited modules in career development to undergraduate and postgraduate students, universities in other European countries — illustrated by the work of Fonck, Willems and Van Wanzele — have been more pro-active in drawing on their knowledge of the graduate experience to feed these insights back into schools. The Université Catholique de Louvain undertakes group sessions in schools; the Vrije Universiteit Brussel has developed a log book for use by pupils during the final three years of secondary education.

The increasing dissemination of experience and good practice reinforces for University counsellors and guidance workers, of whatever specialism or country, that no single method is sufficient to address all the problems and issues. This is particularly clear when one considers computer assisted guidance programmes. 'Choix', a personal assessment programme, based on criteria defined by the students themselves, is a particularly flexible example of this, but still needs the interaction of skilled personnel to enable students to obtain maximum benefit from the programme — in particular, so that students do feel that there is no one absolute 'right' choice (Bekaert & Eisenhuth, 1997). For university counsellors and guidance workers, there are not only professional but also political imperatives in this emphasis — university managers too often think that technology can replace staff.

External stimuli and constraints

Throughout Europe at the start of 21st Century, the ability of counsellors and guidance workers to offer appropriate support is inevitably influenced to some extent by factors external to the guidance process, however skilled the delivery: this includes the expectations and levels of awareness of students about the changing nature of the world of learning and employment. Too often, the counsellor and guidance worker is seen as a scape-goat who is unable to deliver the anticipated traditional outcome of degree-level work and this particularly challenges the credibility of the 'messenger'. Similarly, the expectations of the institution and the degree of awareness of what guidance involves by the university management has direct implications on the resourcing and status of counselling and guidance provision. There is now a particular responsibility on counsellors and guidance staff to ensure that they communicate

with, inform and motivate their academic colleagues and the university management; these are new skills which many counsellors and guidance workers have not previously had to exercise.

The development of new skills will require to establish the balance between theory and practice so that our work is credibly supported and illuminated and so that practitioners have a clear understanding of how far counselling and guidance can draw upon successful research or not.

The issues of resources, to meet the increasing needs of student, will be a major issue effecting the ability to meet new challenges in university counselling and guidance services over the next few years. In order to obtain a more appropriate proportion of university or public sector funding, counsellors and guidance workers need to devote more time to influencing higher education policy and planning. Also the support through sponsorship or marketing professionally-credible materials becomes a major issue. Deciding on a morally and professionally acceptable funding base will also be a new challenge which counsellors and guidance workers will need to address in the future.

The external influences and constraints indicate two major challenges for university guidance workers and counsellors: (i) the balance between theory and practice, and (ii) financial strategies appropriate to adopt and accept in different cultures and countries.

The imperative need to acquire new skills to support graduates through new experiences will rest to a great extent on both of these.



Processus de prise de décision dans un contexte de formation continue avec des étudiants traditionnels

1. Introduction

“Au 21^e siècle, le défi le plus important pour les diplômés sera de gérer leur relation au travail et à l'apprentissage”, soulignait Peter Hawkins (1997, p. 83) dans sa conférence plénière. Il dressait le cadre du thème de la Troisième Ecole d'Eté de FEDORA en proposant une vision du nouveau monde qui attend les diplômés européens au sortir de leur université: disparu le poste que l'on décroche pour la vie avec son plan de carrière planifié et sa structure de formation organisationnelle ou d'entreprise; disparue l'identité claire attachée à la fonction et l'accès progressif assuré à un revenu et à la sécurité. Tout au contraire, la plupart des diplômés feront l'expérience d'un “Portefeuilles de carrières”, évoluant via une série de transitions au travers de phases de travail et d'apprentissage, de création de son propre emploi et de chômage.

En conséquence de ces changements radicaux, trois grandes questions se posent aux conseillers et aux spécialistes de l'orientation dans l'enseignement supérieur:

- *identifier la nature des traits que les étudiants/diplômés doivent acquérir pour s'adapter à ce monde changeant.* La prise de décision est une compétence; permettre aux étudiants de comprendre la nature et le champ d'application de la prise de décision implique aussi qu'il faut les aider à développer une gamme d'autres capacités et traits et les différents services d'orientation devraient être au clair sur ce qu'ils signifient.
- *Comment cet apprentissage peut-il être organisé et par qui?* Par l'intermédiaire d'un spécialiste? individuellement? dans des activités de groupe? à l'intérieur du curriculum académique? à travers des approches du type enseignement à distance et université ouverte, en particulier avec le recours aux nouvelles technologies? C'est une question de fond que de savoir jusqu'où et par quelles voies nous allons solliciter nos collègues universitaires — en ce compris les académiques — pour qu'ils soutiennent ce processus et c'est un défi évident que de permettre aux étudiants d'acquérir la capacité à l'auto-gestion de sa progression personnelle.
- *la nécessité pour les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation de se confronter aux stimuli et aux contraintes* — externes, c'est-à-dire les attitudes et attentes des collègues et des gestionnaires des universités; les étudiants eux-mêmes, les employeurs des diplômés et les intermédiaires que constituent les gouvernements locaux et centraux dans toute l'Europe.

2. *Quels traits les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation essaient-ils de développer?*

Hawkins (1995) a identifié une gamme de "capacités d'auto-suffisance" qui permettent aux individus de réaliser des choix efficaces dans un monde du travail et de l'apprentissage en perpétuel changement; ces capacités permettront à l'individu de créer et de bénéficier des occasions de se développer dans des emplois qualifiés moins traditionnels et de se remettre en situation d'apprentissage.

Le développement de telles capacités à l'intérieur d'un programme académique est un nouveau défi: ce sont de telles capacités que le Shell Technology Enterprise Programme cherche à développer (Rhodes, 1997). Ce programme comporte une petite cellule de pilotage en Hollande et a développé avec succès au Royaume-Uni une action qui consiste en un stage de travail pendant les deux mois de vacances dans de petites entreprises, des organisations bénévoles et des organisations qui se consacrent à l'environnement, à l'intention des étudiants qui sont à la fin de leur avant-dernière année. Un élément essentiel à considérer dans la promotion chez les étudiants du développement de leur conscience de soi ainsi que de leur compréhension de la nature des décisions à prendre et des processus de prise de décision est que l'apprenant doit avoir l'occasion d'enregistrer et de réfléchir sur son expérience. STEP rencontre

cette exigence via la conception d'une disquette sur laquelle les étudiants tiennent un 'agenda de travail' tout au long de leur stage de travail.

Ce besoin de transparence — qui vise à favoriser chez les diplômés l'habileté à reconnaître et à articuler les compétences aussi bien que les connaissances acquises à l'université — peut sembler neuf, mais l'identification des capacités des diplômés a une longue histoire. C'est particulièrement vrai au Royaume-Uni et en Irlande, comme on peut le voir dans une série d'enquêtes où l'on trouve le travail entrepris à l'Université de Sheffield à la fin des années 80, mais aussi partout en Europe dans les services d'orientation professionnelle à travers des enquêtes individuelles dont le nombre va croissant.

Ces compétences concernent aussi les étudiants en études de troisième cycle comme le montre le travail de Pagès (1997) à l'Association Bernard Gregory et Butcher & Conway (1997) à l'Université de Leeds. Le monde du travail change aussi radicalement pour les étudiants qui sont en situation post-doctorale et pour les autres diplômés; ils peuvent de moins en moins espérer faire carrière dans les universités.

Dans le futur, les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation dans l'enseignement supérieur devront non seulement collaborer avec leurs collègues professeurs et les étudiants afin de garantir que l'organisation du cursus permette aux étudiants de développer leurs talents tout autant que leurs connaissances, mais aussi s'engager tout particulièrement à garantir que les étudiants soient conscients des raisons pour lesquelles ils ont été invités à développer ces qualités d'un genre nouveau; à être conscients de la finalité de ces compétences.

Des compétences personnelles particulières comme la communication, le travail en équipe, la résolution de problèmes, la pensée créative, la technologie de l'information, la gestion du temps etc. peuvent sans aucun doute accroître chez les diplômés européens à la fois le potentiel des acquis et l'adéquation de leur profil aux attentes des employeurs. Il ne suffit toutefois pas, ont soutenu Butcher et Conway (1997) dans leur atelier, d'équiper les étudiants de ces compétences: il faut encore s'assurer, dans un monde en perpétuel changement et en constante transition, que les étudiants comprennent comment il faut gérer une carrière. Le rôle clé des conseillers et des spécialistes de l'orientation doit être de favoriser chez les apprenants, pendant leurs études universitaires, une prise de conscience des compétences nécessaires à une orientation autogérée.

Le travail de Law et Watts (1977) a eu une influence déterminante sur l'articulation de ce que ces 'métacompétences' pourraient bien être: les concepts de base (conscience de soi, apprentissage de la prise de décision et apprentissage du franchissement d'une étape) ont été adoptés et adaptés de multiples façons à travers l'Europe. Ce modèle est à la base des modules d'apprentissage autogéré mis sur pied à la National University Distance Education (Repetto & Malik, 1996).

Le 'Career Learning Log' développé à l'Université de Leeds (Butcher & Conway, 1997) propose une adaptation flexible d'un modèle similaire. C'est cependant un défi, pour tous les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation qui pourvoient les étudiants de compétences leur permettant de relever les défis d'une formation continue, de garantir qu'un modèle suffisamment flexible de progression personnelle autogérée

par l'étude et à travers un emploi soit clairement compris et intégré par tous les diplômés du 21^e siècle.

3 Comment dispenser cet apprentissage?

Les conseillers et les spécialistes de la guidance sont face au défi spécifique de l'accroissement du nombre d'étudiants au moment où l'individu peut se sentir plus que jamais dépendant d'une guidance appropriée, en raison d'un manque de familiarité avec le monde dans lequel il va devoir faire des choix. Tobin (1997) a particulièrement insisté sur la nécessité de développer de nouvelles approches et de nouveaux modèles de l'orientation: en l'occurrence, au lieu des modèles autoritaires traditionnels de mise en correspondance marqués au sceau de la certitude ou au lieu des plus récentes approches non-directives de Super (1990) et de Rogers (1951), il a plaidé, puisque le changement est à présent si rapide que l'autodétermination 'informée' est virtuellement impossible, pour une approche nouvelle de l'orientation 'proactive, interactive, adaptative' (Tobin, 1997).

Pour parer au plus urgent, il faut que nous soyons à même d'identifier jusqu'où et par quelles voies les services d'orientation des universités européennes répondent au défi du développement des compétences, de prise de décision et de gestion de carrière. La discussion soulevée dans le groupe de travail de Claude Roulin (Roulin, 1997) a permis de détecter un besoin manifeste d'une enquête sur l'état de ce type de programmes et sur ses résultats. En raison de la diversité des cultures d'apprentissage dans les institutions universitaires, il est peu vraisemblable que l'on parvienne à dégager un modèle 'efficace' unique, mais la propagation d'une pratique adéquate élargira nos horizons. Un 'modèle' possible de la façon dont l'éducation à la prise de décision peut être approchée a été fourni par Binetti (1997), qui a présenté le modèle d'enseignement utilisé au 'Libero Istituto Universitario Bio-Medico di Roma'. Dans ce modèle, l'éducation à la prise de décision est intégrée à un modèle éducatif holistique interactif où la personne totale de l'étudiant est considérée.

Le lien entre l'enseignement supérieur et l'enseignement secondaire a aussi retenu l'attention. Tandis que le Royaume-Uni possède une très grande expérience de la délivrance de modules crédités dans le développement de carrière des diplômés de premier et de troisième cycle, les universités d'autres pays européens — comme l'a illustré la travail de Fonck, Willems et Van Wanzele — se sont davantage attachées à s'appuyer sur leur connaissance de l'expérience des diplômés de deuxième cycle pour répercuter ces éléments de clarification dans les écoles. L'Université Catholique de Louvain organise des sessions de groupes dans les écoles; la Vrije Universiteit Brussel a développé un 'log book' à l'usage des élèves durant les trois dernières années de l'enseignement secondaire.

La propagation croissante de l'expérience et d'une pratique idoine renforce les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation des Universités, à quelque spécialité ou pays qu'ils appartiennent, dans l'idée qu'aucune méthode ne peut à elle seule suffire à

résoudre tous les problèmes et toutes les questions. Ceci est particulièrement clair lorsque l'on considère les programmes d'orientation assistée par ordinateur. 'Choix', programme d'évaluation personnelle basé sur des critères définis par les étudiants eux-mêmes, en constitue un exemple particulièrement flexible, mais nécessite encore l'interaction avec un personnel entraîné pour permettre aux étudiants de profiter au maximum du programme — en particulier de manière à ce que les étudiants n'aient pas l'impression qu'il n'y a qu'un seul 'bon' choix (Bekaert & Eisenhuth, 1997). Pour les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation des universités, cette remarque n'a pas que des implications professionnelles mais aussi politiques — les gestionnaires des universités croient trop souvent que la technologie peut remplacer les personnes.

4. Stimuli et contraintes externes

Dans l'Europe du début du 21^e siècle, la capacité des conseillers et des spécialistes de l'orientation à offrir une aide appropriée est inévitablement influencée dans une certaine mesure par des facteurs externes au processus d'orientation, quel que soit le degré d'expertise de l'intervention: ceci inclut les attentes et le niveau de prise de conscience des étudiants à propos de la nature changeante du monde de l'apprentissage et de l'emploi. Trop souvent le conseiller et le spécialiste de l'orientation sont vus comme des boucs émissaires incapables de fournir une prévision des débouchés traditionnels d'un travail correspondant au niveau du diplôme universitaire, ce qui met en question de manière aiguë la crédibilité du 'porteur de nouvelles'. De même, les attentes de l'institution et le degré de prise de conscience par les autorités universitaires de la nature du travail d'orientation ont des implications directes sur les moyens et le statut accordés au conseil et à l'orientation. Cela dit, il est de la responsabilité des conseillers et du personnel attaché à l'orientation de s'assurer qu'ils communiquent avec, informent et motivent leurs collègues professeurs et les responsables de la gestion de l'université; il s'agit de nouvelles compétences que bien des conseillers et des spécialistes de l'orientation n'ont pas encore eu l'occasion d'exercer.

Le développement de nouvelles compétences requerra que l'on réalise un équilibre entre la théorie et la pratique de manière que notre travail s'en trouve crédibilisé et mis en lumière et aussi pour que les praticiens aient une appréhension claire de la mesure dans laquelle le conseil et l'orientation peuvent s'appuyer ou non sur des recherches fiables.

La question des ressources permettant de rencontrer les besoins grandissants des étudiants sera d'une importance déterminante dans l'affrontement aux nouveaux défis lancés aux services de conseil et d'orientation universitaires dans les prochaines années. Afin d'obtenir une proportion plus adéquate de soutien financier de la part de l'université ou du secteur public, les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation doivent consacrer plus de temps à l'inflexion de la politique et de la programmation de l'enseignement supérieur. L'aide à obtenir auprès de sponsors ou le support financier que l'on peut retirer de la mise sur le marché d'outils techniquement valides deviennent aussi une question importante. Décider d'une base d'allocations moralement et

professionnellement acceptable constituera aussi un nouveau défi auquel les conseillers et les spécialistes de l'orientation devront faire face à l'avenir.

Les influences et les contraintes extérieures sont révélatrices de deux défis majeurs pour les spécialistes de l'orientation et les conseillers: (1) l'équilibre entre la théorie et la pratique et (2) les stratégies financières appropriées à adopter et à accepter dans les différentes cultures et les différents pays.

C'est de ces deux défis que dépendra dans une grande mesure la réponse au besoin impératif d'acquérir de nouvelles compétences pour aider les diplômés dans leurs nouvelles expériences.

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Le conseil psychologique européen du XXI^e siècle sera multiculturel ou ne sera pas

Introduction

La mobilité des étudiants universitaires dans l'Union Européenne élargit désormais *de facto* la pratique du conseil psychologique (en particulier, mais pas exclusivement, d'orientation) à une population multiculturelle. Cet état de fait, dont il est peu douteux qu'il ne fera que s'amplifier dans les prochaines années, rend à l'évidence nécessaire de porter son attention à la fois sur le recueil et l'analyse de données relatives à la diversité des situations culturelles et académiques des étudiants étrangers par rapport à l'université d'accueil, et sur l'impact de cette évolution sur la pratique du conseil.

C'est pourquoi figuraient au programme de l'Université d'été un exposé par Armour (1997) sur 'L'orientation des étudiants d'origines culturelles ou ethniques différentes', ainsi que trois ateliers. Le premier intitulé ' Full-colour enrollment: The Mentor/Monitor Project at the University of Amsterdam' (van Kampen & Jeeninga, 1997); le deuxième était centré sur le cursus universitaire et l'évolution des intentions d'orientation des étudiants d'origine étrangère (Dumora, 1997); le troisième, focalisé sur les prises de décision selon les cultures (Rott, Strakova and Freibergova, 1997).

Conseil multiculturel: manque d'intérêt parmi les spécialistes européens?

Les deux premiers ateliers ont dû malheureusement être annulés faute d'un nombre suffisant de participants. Est-ce le fruit du hasard ou faut-il voir dans cette abstention le symptôme d'un manque d'intérêt propre aux spécialistes européens du conseil psychologique? Pedersen (1991) a pu dire récemment du conseil multiculturel qu'il était la quatrième force, après les mouvements psychodynamique, behavioriste et humaniste. Quoique certains préfèrent voir dans le mouvement féministe cette quatrième force, il est clair qu'aux Etats-Unis, la croissance des programmes de formation en conseil psychologique comportant un cours sur le multiculturalisme est très sensible, particulièrement depuis les années '80. Très précisément, les plus récentes recensions (Hills & Strozier, 1992) que citent Ponterotto, Casas, Suzuki et Alexander dans leur *Handbook of Multicultural Counseling* (1995) font état de 42 à 59 % de programmes de formation universitaire comportant un cours obligatoire sur le counselling multiculturel et la plupart des programmes (87%) ont au moins un choix optionnel dans

cette matière. De plus, en 1993, l'American Psychological Association a édité une charte intitulé 'Guidelines for Providers of Psychological services to ethnic, linguistic and culturally diverse populations.'

Cet état privilégié d'avancement dans le domaine, qui correspond d'ailleurs à un grand développement de la recherche en psychologie interculturelle dominée par les psychologues sociaux (cf. par ex. Williams, 1994), est sans aucun doute lié, entre autres choses, au caractère multiculturel et multiracial de la société américaine elle-même.

Mais, en dépit du fait que les origines de la psychologie sociale interculturelle sont, comme le souligne Klineberg (1980), fondamentalement européennes et bien que les travaux relatifs à la science de la communication interculturelle et à la psychologie sociale interculturelle se multiplient en Europe, la demande d'information et de formation en conseil multiculturel reste frileuse.

Conseil multiculturel: l'Europe est concernée

Pourtant les problèmes sont à nos portes, comme en témoignent les articles que Dumora (1997), ainsi que van Kampen & Jeeninga (1997) ont bien voulu adresser au comité scientifique de l'Université d'été.

Dumora (1997) compare le parcours et l'expérience universitaire d'étudiants étrangers ayant terminé le premier cycle dans la filière Psychologie de l'université de Bordeaux de 1991 à 1993 à une cohorte de référence composée d'étudiants français.

Il apparaît, d'une part, — sans qu'une généralisation soit possible en raison de la faiblesse relative des effectifs — que les étudiants étrangers ont tendance à stagner dans leur cursus (diplôme obtenu en trois ans) ou à échouer alors que les étudiants européens réussissent dans les délais attendus, d'autre part, que les étudiants africains manifestent des difficultés d'intégration aux autochtones avec la contrepartie d'une aspiration par les associations groupant des compatriotes, ont un rapport aux études plutôt attentiste, voire négatif, ne conçoivent pas de projet professionnel clair et font preuve d'une grande indécision relativement à la durée de leurs études et au retour au pays.

L'auteur insiste sur le rôle mobilisateur par rapport au travail de l'étudiant, et donc à sa réussite, d'une attitude caractérisée par l'intérêt intrinsèque que l'apprenant trouve dans les savoirs et leur appropriation, intérêt se manifestant notamment par une disponibilité pour l'apprentissage et les expériences culturelles nouvelles, par opposition à une étude purement instrumentale et utilitaire, faite de passivité et de fermeture à tout ce qui ne semble pas avoir de rapport direct avec l'orientation choisie. On voit bien en quoi le conseiller d'orientation aurait tort de focaliser son travail sur la recherche des motivations en termes de projets professionnels là où ce qui compte, ce sont les significations culturelles que le sujet donne aux savoirs et le rapport qu'il entretient à ceux-ci.

Van Kampen & Jeeninga (1997) se proposaient dans leur atelier d'explorer les ressources d'un système d'intervention dans les écoles secondaires confié à des étudiants déjà engagés dans leurs études supérieures afin de démystifier l'institution universi-

taire, particulièrement auprès d'élèves appartenant à des groupes sociaux ou ethniques sous-représentés à l'université. Ils avaient l'intention d'utiliser comme support les données issues d'une expérience menée par l'Université d'Amsterdam sous le nom de "Mentor/Monitor Project". Le volet "Mentor" de l'opération assigne aux étudiants-tuteurs un rôle de guide auprès des élèves de dernière année au cours de leur processus d'orientation en leur offrant une image réaliste du travail universitaire et de la vie à l'Université. Beaucoup d'élèves appartenant à des groupes ethniques minoritaires considèrent que l'université est hors de leur portée. La proximité de statut entre le tuteur et l'élève et le développement d'une relation singulière paraissent constituer un atout dans une tentative qui vise à modifier ces représentations négatives.

Les activités qui ont eu lieu confirment l'importance du conseil multiculturel. Armour (1997) observe qu'une relation de conseil entre un(e) psychologue et des étudiants culturellement et racialement différents de lui (d'elle) ne peut être fructueuse que si le (la) spécialiste est au fait de ces différences, de leur signification et de leur poids par rapport à la situation de conseil. Elle propose de nombreuses recommandations visant à accroître l'efficacité du travail psychologique et, à travers des questions précises, attire notre attention sur cinq champs fondamentaux dans lesquels un déficit de prise en compte des différences culturelles, raciales ou sociales peut se manifester: la prise de décision, la formation continue, la personne et le rôle de conseiller, les styles de communication et la culture interne de l'université.

Enfin, Rott, Strakova and Freiburgova (1997) ont assigné à leur séminaire l'objectif de faire comprendre dans quelle mesure les structures et les pratiques du conseil et de l'orientation tchèques et allemands sont notamment influencées par les différentes cultures d'appartenance.

Quelques réflexions et un cadre pour des activités futures

D'autres voies d'approche que celles qui ont été brièvement résumées ci-dessus peuvent servir de support à une adaptation des attitudes et des pratiques à la situation nouvelle qui se fait jour dans nos universités. Ainsi en va-t-il du modèle d'intervention pour le changement en contexte multiculturel (Multicultural Change Intervention Matrix) de Pope (1993), exposé par Reynolds (1995). S'appuyant sur la théorie systémique du changement de Watzlawick, Weakland et Fish qui opposent les changements de premier ordre ("changement sans changement") aux changements de second ordre ("changement du changement"), Pope propose un cadre théorique qui offre six voies distinctes d'appréhension et de structuration du changement en contexte universitaire multiculturel (cf. tableau ci-dessous).

Cible du changement	Changement de 1er ordre	Changement de 2d ordre
Individu	A Conscience de soi	B Rupture de paradigme
Groupe	C Composition du groupe	D Restructuration
Institution	E Programmes	F Systémique

La cellule A réfère à des modifications dans la prise de conscience des différences interculturelles et implique la recherche d'informations de contenu pertinentes.

La cellule B vise à une restructuration cognitive impliquant une rupture de paradigme, c'est-à-dire "un changement radical dans la façon dont le monde est perçu." (Kuhn, cité par Kuh, 1983, p. 1, *in* Reynolds, *loc.cit.*, p. 322). Un atelier intensif centré sur la prise de conscience individuelle de son propre système de représentations à partir d'expériences vécues constitue un bon exemple d'intervention à ce niveau.

Le changement de niveau C affecte la composition des étudiants qui se spécialisent dans le conseil où les membres de certains groupes culturels ou raciaux sont sous-représentés. Par exemple, promouvoir une politique de recrutement d'étudiants étrangers plus incisive.

Au niveau D, il s'agit que les étudiants soient impliqués dans une restructuration complète du programme du département qui a en charge la formation au conseil psychologique. Un exemple d'application serait la mise sur pied d'un séminaire ayant pour but, avec les étudiants, de reformuler la philosophie et les objectifs d'un programme de formation au conseil incluant la variable muticulturelle.

La cellule E vise une modification des programmes qui ont trait aux questions multiculturelles, mais sans révision des valeurs et de la structure dont l'institution est porteuse.

La cellule F conduit l'institution au changement de type systémique. Les valeurs, les buts et les procédures d'évaluation de l'institution sont directement mis à l'examen et confrontés aux impératifs d'une conception multiculturelle de la formation au conseil psychologique.

On le voit par ces quelques références, les voies d'entrée dans la problématique du conseil psychologique en situation multiculturelle sont nombreuses. Il ne tient qu'à nous d'en exploiter les ressources pour préparer l'avènement du phénomène dont nous voyons les prémices se développer sous nos yeux et tenter d'influer sur son cours selon les principes généraux dont se réclame notre association.



European psychological counselling in the 21st century will be multicultural or will not exist

Introduction

The mobility of university students in the European Union will in future de facto extend the practice of psychological counselling (in particular, but not exclusively, of guidance) to a multicultural population. This state of affairs, which is hardly in doubt

and can only grow in the years to come, obviously makes it necessary to focus attention at the same time on the collection and analysis of data concerning the diversity of cultural and academic situations of foreign students in relation to the university which accepts them and on the impact of this evolution on the practice of guidance.

This is the reason why a paper by Armour (1997) on *The Guidance of Students of Different Ethnic or Cultural Origins* was included in the programme of the Summer School, as well as three workshops. The first was called "Full Colour Enrolment: The Mentor/Monitor Project at the University of Amsterdam" (van Kampen & Jeninga, 1997); the second was focused on the university curriculum and the development of the expectations of educational guidance on the part of students of foreign origin (Dumora, 1997); the third focused on decision-taking according to culture (Rott, Strakova and Freibergova, 1997).

Multicultural Guidance: A lack of interest amongst European specialists?

Unfortunately, the first two workshops had to be cancelled because of an insufficient number of participants. Was this a matter of chance or should one see in this abstention the symptom of a lack of real interest amongst the European specialists in psychological counselling? Pedersen (1991) was able to say recently of multicultural guidance that it was the fourth force, after the psychodynamic, behaviourist and humanist movements. Although certain people would prefer to see the feminist movement as this fourth force, it is clear that, in the United States, the growth of training programmes in psychological counselling which include a course of multiculturalism, is very noticeable, particularly since the 1980s. Very precisely, the most recent surveys (Hills & Strozier, 1992), which cite Ponterotto, Casas, Suzuki and Alexander in their *Handbook of Multicultural Counseling* (1995), show a situation in which from 42% to 59% of university training programmes contain an obligatory course in multicultural counselling, and the majority of programmes (87%) have at least an optional choice in this subject. Furthermore, in 1993, the American Psychological Association produced a charter entitled "Guidelines for Providers of Psychological Services to Ethnic, Linguistic and Culturally Diverse Populations".

This situation favours progress in this area which, furthermore, corresponds to the considerable development of research in intercultural psychology, dominated by social psychologists (cf. for example Williams, 1994) and is, without doubt, linked, amongst other things, to the multicultural and multiracial character of American society itself.

However, despite the fact that the origins of intercultural social psychology are, as stressed by Klineberg (1980), fundamentally European, and although the work related to the science of intercultural communication and social intercultural psychology is multiplying in Europe, the demand for information and training in multicultural counselling remains limited.

Multicultural Counselling: Europe is involved

However, these problems are at our gates, as witnessed by the articles which Dumora (1997), as well as Van Kampen and Jeeninga (1997) were willing to submit to the Scientific Committee of the Summer School.

Dumora (1997) compares the progress and experience of foreign university students who finished their first cycle in the course of psychology at the University of Bordeaux between 1991 and 1993 with a reference group composed of French students.

It appeared, on the one hand "without it being possible to generalise because of the small number of the sample" that foreign students had a tendency to take longer over their course (the diploma obtained in three years) or to fail, whereas the European students succeeded in the expected time, and on the other hand that African students demonstrated difficulties of integration with the indigenous population with a contrasting aspiration to have associations which brought together their compatriots, but have a more expectant, even negative, attitude to their studies, not having any clear professional career plan and demonstrating great indecision about the length of their studies and the return to their country.

The author stresses the motivating role in respect of the students' work, and therefore of their success, of an attitude characterised by an intrinsic interest which the learner takes in knowledge and its application, an interest manifesting itself noticeably in readiness to learn and for new cultural experiences, as opposed to study which is purely instrumental and utilitarian, undertaken passively and closed to anything which does not seem to have a direct connection with the direction chosen. One sees clearly how the guidance counsellor would be wrong to focus his efforts on the search for motivation in terms of professional career plan, where what counts is the cultural significance that the client accords to knowledge and its connection with this cultural significance.

Van Kampen and Jeeninga (1997) proposed in their workshop to explore the resources for a system of intervention in secondary schools for students already engaged in higher studies in order to demystify the university, particularly for students who belong to social or ethnic groups which are under-represented at the university. They intended to use as a support the data from an experiment conducted at the University of Amsterdam under the title "Mentor/Monitor Project". The "Mentor" part of the operation assigned to student tutors a role as a guide for pupils in their last year as part of their course of guidance, offering them a realistic picture of university work and life at university. Many of the students belonging to ethnic minority groups consider that university is beyond their reach. The closeness of status between the tutor and the pupil and the development of a one-to-one relationship appear to be a strength in this experiment, which tries to alter these negative attitudes.

The activities which took place confirm the importance of multicultural guidance. Armour (1997) observes that a relationship in guidance between a psychologist and students who are racially or culturally different from him or her can only be fruitful if

the specialist understands these differences, their significance and their importance in relation to the guidance situation. She proposed a number of recommendations aimed at increasing the effectiveness of psychological work and, through precise questions, at drawing our attention to five fundamental fields in which a lack of awareness of racial or social differences could be shown: decision-taking, continuing training, the person and the role of the counsellor, the styles of communication and the internal culture of the university.

Finally, Rott, Strakova and Freiburgova (1997) have made it the objective of their seminar to show how far the Czech and German structures and practices of guidance and counselling are noticeably influenced by different cultural starting points.

Some reflections and a framework for future activities

Other methods of approach than those which have been briefly outlined above can serve to support a change of attitudes and practices in the new situation which is becoming apparent in our universities. One such could be Pope's model of intervention for change in a multicultural context (Multicultural Change Intervention Matrix) (1993), described by Reynolds (1995). Relying on the systematic theory of change of Watzlawick, Weakland and Fish, who contrast changes of the first order (Change without Change) with changes of the second order (Change of Change), Pope proposes a theoretical framework which offers six distinct ways of understanding and structuring change in a multicultural university context (see table below):

Target of Change	Change of First Order	Change of Second Order
Individual	A Self-consciousness	B Rupture of Paradigm
Group	C Composition of Group	D Restructuring
Institution	E Programmes	F Change of Systems

Box A refers to the changes in being conscious of intercultural differences and implies research for information with a relevant content.

Box B refers to a cognitive restructuring implying a rupture of paradigm, that is to say "a radical change in the way in which the world is perceived" (Kuhn, cited by Kuhn 1983, p.1 in Reynolds, loc.cit. p.322). An intensive workshop centred on the individual becoming conscious of his/her own system of representation on the basis of experiences undergone constitutes a good example of intervention at this level.

Change at level C affects the composition of students who specialise in guidance where members of certain cultural or racial groups are under-represented. For example to promote a more active policy of recruiting foreign students.

At level D, it is a question of the students being involved in a complete restructuring of the programme of the department which is responsible for training in psychological counselling. An example of its application would be the organisation of a sem-

inar, whose purpose, with the students, would be to reformulate the philosophy and the objectives of the programme of training in guidance to include a multicultural element.

Box E refers to a change of programmes which deal with multicultural questions but without revising the values and the structure which the institution imposes.

Box F leads the institution to change its systems. The values, the purposes and the procedures for evaluation of the institution are directly examined and compared with the necessity for a multicultural conception of training for psychological counselling.

One sees by these few references that the ways of approaching the whole question of psychological counselling in a multicultural situation are very varied. It remains for us to exploit the resources to prepare the future development of a phenomenon which we see beginning to develop before our eyes, and to attempt to influence it during its course according to the general principles which our Association proclaims.

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Styles et stratégies de décision en orientation

1. *Les styles de décision*

Le "style" de décision désigne la tendance d'une personne à traiter de manière analogue l'information dans différentes situations de décision. Il s'agit là de caractériser des personnes. La notion est apparue à la fin des années 60 et, au cours des années 70, peu de publications lui sont strictement consacrées. Au cours des années 80, les publications centrées sur les styles de décision deviennent (relativement) nombreuses. Dans les années 90, ces publications sont devenues rares, en revanche la notion est régulièrement citée dans les revues de questions consacrées à l'orientation. On peut penser qu'après un effet de mode, les styles commencent à être connus des conseillers, même s'ils n'ont pas grande influence sur leurs pratiques quotidiennes.

1.1. Deux grandes taxonomies:

Ces styles ont été décrits à l'aide de diverses taxonomies. Leur nombre varie, généralement entre trois et huit (Forner & Dosnon, 1992).

Harren *et al.* (1979) proposent une épreuve qui permet de déterminer le style dominant des personnes: rationnel, intuitif ou dépendant. Le style rationnel est caractérisé par une perspective temporelle étendue, une réflexion en termes de buts et de moyens, la recherche d'information, et une décision logique. Le style intuitif est décrit par la centration sur le présent, l'utilisation de l'imagination, la conscience des émotions et une certaine spontanéité de la décision. Le style dépendant est marqué par le refus et la projection de la responsabilité, l'influence des attentes d'autrui, la recherche d'approbation et la soumission dans la décision.

Les recherches de Krumboltz (Krumboltz *et al.*, 1986, par exemple) présentent plusieurs caractéristiques. D'une part, les styles sont moins rigides: une même personne peut avoir des styles différents pour ses choix de formation et pour ses choix de métiers. D'autre part, les trois styles de Harren sont retenus, mais on leur ajoute un style impulsif (caractérisé par la spontanéité, l'absence de calcul, voire l'absence de toute représentation associée à la prise de décision) et un style fataliste (caractérisé par la soumission à la réalité, au destin ou au devoir, l'inactivité du sujet dans le pro-

cessus et l'acceptation passive du résultat). Enfin, à côté de cette approche différentielle, les auteurs défendent un modèle général de décision, qu'ils disent rationnel, "DECIDÉS", consistant à: Définir le problème, Etablir un projet, Clarifier les valeurs, Identifier les solutions, Découvrir les conséquences probables, Eliminer systématiquement les solutions et S'engager dans l'action.

1.2. Styles, sexe et genre:

Les hommes n'apparaissent pas de style plus rationnel que les femmes, qui ne sont pas de style plus intuitif. Toutefois, on pouvait penser que le genre (et non le sexe) pouvait intervenir. C'est ce que vérifient Moreland *et al.* (1979) sur des étudiants. Ils évaluent les styles à l'aide du questionnaire de Harren et la masculinité-féminité à l'aide d'un questionnaire permettant de distinguer quatre identités de genre: masculine, féminine, androgyne et indifférenciée. Leurs observations peuvent être résumées: pour les femmes, le style rationnel est plutôt associé aux identités androgyne et masculine ; de même, le style intuitif est plutôt associé à l'identité féminine. Pour les hommes, des associations apparaissent entre le style intuitif et les identités féminine et indifférenciée.

Il faudrait adapter la guidance, non pas selon le sexe des personnes, mais selon leur genre, c'est à dire selon la manière dont elles intègrent psychologiquement leur sexualisation.

1.3. Styles, âge et développement:

Harren *et al.* (1978) s'inquiètent de voir le style rationnel rester stable, voire diminuer légèrement, au cours des études supérieures. En 1990, Blustein et Phillips constatent l'absence globale de relation entre styles et âge mais s'intéressent aussi aux relations entre styles et développement. Pour analyser ce développement, ils font référence à Marcia (1996), pour qui deux processus se manifestent pendant l'adolescence: l'exploration et l'engagement. On peut alors décrire quatre états de l'identité: la diffusion (il n'y a ni exploration, ni engagement), le moratoire (il y a exploration sans engagement), la forclusion (il y a eu engagement sans exploration), l'identité construite (il y a eu exploration puis engagement). Ils observent des associations: l'une entre style rationnel et identité construite, une autre entre style dépendant et forclusion et, peut-être, une troisième entre style intuitif et diffusion de l'identité.

Il serait intéressant de différencier l'aide, non selon l'âge des personnes, mais selon leur maturité: des démarches directives quand l'identité n'est pas formée ou trop vite formée, intuitives quand l'identité est en construction, rationnelles quand l'identité est construite.

1.4. L'efficacité des styles:

On ne peut pas suivre les personnes dans leur carrière et voir si elles vont ou non prendre des décisions efficaces (une décision efficace étant, par exemple, celle qui

permet à une personne de satisfaire ses propres valeurs). Trois voies d'étude sont possibles. Une première est l'observation des comportements: par exemple, les sujets rationnels recherchent-ils plus longuement l'information? Une deuxième voie est la simulation de prise de décisions: on peut comparer les métiers choisis par une personne et ceux qu'elle aurait du choisir pour satisfaire au mieux ses propres valeurs. Une troisième voie consiste à mesurer des compétences à la prise de décision: essentiellement, la "maturité vocationnelle" (un état préparatoire aux prises de décision). On observe habituellement une hiérarchie d'efficacité des styles: le style rationnel d'abord, puis le style intuitif très voisin et, nettement moins efficaces, les autres styles, notamment le style dépendant (Krumboltz *et al.*, 1986, par exemple).

1.5. Les effets des interventions des conseillers:

L'idée générale est qu'une intervention est d'autant plus efficace que sa forme correspond au style du sujet.

Rubinton (1980) propose deux démarches d'aide. Dans la première, de forme plutôt rationnelle, un document écrit guide pas à pas les personnes dans une séquence (identification du problème, information, construction de solutions, évaluation des conséquences et des contraintes, élimination des solutions, évaluation du résultat). La seconde, plus intuitive, utilise des exercices en imagination, consistant à développer une connaissance de ses émotions notamment à travers des jeux de rôles, puis à décider en clarifiant ses valeurs et en estimant les risques que l'on accepte. Les plus grands progrès de maturité vocationnelle et de décision sont observés lors de la première démarche citée, pour les personnes de style rationnel. La deuxième démarche est plus utile aux personnes de style intuitif. Les sujets de style dépendant ne bénéficient pas de ces procédures et leur maturité vocationnelle décroîtrait au cours de ces deux démarches.

Dans une autre étude (Krumboltz *et al.*, 1986), deux groupes sont constitués: l'un apprend le modèle DECIDES (présentation didactique, exercice guidés, exercices individuels suivis de leur correction), l'autre groupe apprend une méthode de conduite d'entretien. Les résultats montrent que les sujets du premier groupe ont une plus grande maturité vocationnelle, quel que soit leur style. De plus, la procédure serait davantage bénéfique pour les sujets présentant un style dépendant, fataliste ou impulsif. Le modèle DECIDES, très normatif, serait donc surtout utile pour les sujets présentant un style inadapté, ou de faibles compétences à la décision.

A la fois au plan théorique et au plan pratique, on commence donc à disposer de démarches différentes, utiles pour des gens différents.

1.6. Styles et processus:

A la question "que fait la personne qui décide?", trois grandes réponses ont été proposées (voir Forner & Vriгдаud, 1996):

1.6.1. L'élimination par aspect.

Décider, ce serait éliminer les options les moins agréables. On exige des niveaux sur des dimensions, par exemple, "je veux gagner au moins 10 000 francs par mois". A chaque exigence posée, on élimine les options insatisfaisantes, puis on passe à l'exigence suivante. Cette démarche est, par exemple, à la base du logiciel CHOIX (Forner & Mullet, 1988), pour une information sur les logiciels de guidance). Ce processus d'élimination par aspect imiterait bien des procédures plus rationnelles, mais des limites apparaissent. Si la personne refuse un salaire mensuel inférieur à 10 000 francs, elle risque d'éliminer un métier dont le salaire est de 9 995 francs, même s'il satisfait au mieux toutes ses autres exigences. Ce processus, intéressant pour une démarche d'exploration ou de recherche d'information, apparaît analogue à celui recommandé par Krumboltz pour les personnes manquant de compétences à décider, notamment celles de style dépendant.

1.6.2. L'appariement des représentations.

Décider ce serait associer au mieux l'image de soi et l'image que l'on a de chaque métier. L'apprentissage de cette méthode est un des buts du logiciel DISCOVER (Donnon & Forner, 1989; Bowlsby, 1991). L'idée est de choisir le métier pour lequel les écarts entre les images sont les plus faibles. Cette approche est globale et compensatoire: un prestige élevé peut, par exemple, compenser une faible rémunération (même si certains faits ne se compensent pas). Dans ce cadre général, la théorie de Holland représente un cas particulier: l'appariement n'est pas réalisé sur des dimensions (prestige, rémunération, etc.), mais sur des types psychologiques. Notons que ce processus d'association entre images est bien proche du fonctionnement décrit pour le style intuitif.

1.6.3. La réalisation de calculs.

Le processus de décision peut s'inspirer de la théorie mathématique de la décision, qui recommande l'option dont l'espérance mathématique est la plus forte. Le logiciel SIGI PLUS (Kapes *et al.*, 1989; Garis & Niles, 1990) recommande une démarche de ce type. Pour chacun des quelques métiers qu'elle retient la personne doit, d'une part, déterminer l'attrait global qu'il présente pour elle ; elle doit, d'autre part, estimer les chances qu'elle a d'y parvenir et le logiciel incite à retenir le métier pour lequel le produit "attrait du métier x probabilité de réussite" est maximal. Même si d'autres calculs auraient pu être proposés, par exemple maximiser les gains par rapport aux coûts, cette démarche apparaît bien conforme aux exigences du style rationnel.

Derrière les trois processus présentés, il y a sans doute un aspect développemental. Les enfants utilisent spontanément l'élimination par aspect ; les adolescents qui achèvent la construction de l'image de soi peuvent utiliser l'appariement ; les adultes, qui savent calculer, peuvent déterminer l'utilité de diverses options. On souhaiterait pourtant que les processus soient proposés, non pas selon l'âge des personnes, mais selon leur développement (et leur style). On chercherait ainsi à faciliter les processus spontanés des personnes, plutôt qu'à leur imposer une démarche qui leur est étrangère-

re. Mais on souhaiterait aussi que chacun puisse disposer de ces divers processus qui peuvent être chacun utiles. Lorsque des centaines d'options sont possibles (exploration), il faut éliminer économiquement à l'aide d'un processus simple. Lorsque les options sont moins nombreuses (crystallisation) un repérage en termes d'image de soi est possible. Quand seules quelques options demeurent (spécification) la lourde mécanique d'un calcul d'utilité espérée est intéressante.

2. *Des styles aux stratégies*

On peut considérer certains styles, par exemple dépendant ou impulsif, comme des manières de décider qui peuvent être parfois utiles. Le style dépendant, qui consiste s'en remettre à l'expert peut être efficace pour une personne qui ne peut maîtriser l'information qui ne lui est pas disponible ou qu'elle n'a pas les moyens de traiter. Le style impulsif, sans doute peu recommandable pour l'orientation, doit être utile dans les décisions mettant en danger l'intégrité psychologique de la personne.

On passe alors des styles aux stratégies. Le modèle est plus général: chacun dispose d'un répertoire de manières de décider et, à un moment donné, choisit une manière selon sa propre personnalité (son style), selon la décision à prendre et selon la situation dans laquelle la décision est prise. Nous allons évoquer trois études donnant des éléments sur chacun de ces aspects.

2.1. Stratégies et situations: le type d'enseignement suivi:

Nous avons étudié (Dosnon & Forner, 1991) les stratégies de jeunes de fin de collège et de fin de lycée. Nous avons, d'abord, constaté, entre ces deux niveaux, une augmentation des stratégies intuitives et rationnelles ainsi qu'une régression des stratégies dépendantes. Nous avons surtout observé que les stratégies fatalistes à la fin du lycée sont nettement plus fréquentes dans l'enseignement technologique que dans l'enseignement général. Nous proposons d'expliquer cette observation par la situation: dans l'enseignement technologique, en effet, les jeunes ont objectivement des choix d'orientation beaucoup plus restreints et contraints.

2.2. Stratégies et objet de la décision:

Dans cette même étude, nous nous intéressons aux effets des contenus évoqués par les situations. Le questionnement portait sur des choix scolaires (comme le choix d'une langue vivante), d'autres sur des choix de métiers (comme hésiter entre deux métiers également attirants), d'autres encore sur des choix d'adaptation professionnelle (comme le choix de ses collègues de travail). Nous observions que les stratégies rationnelles et intuitives sont d'autant plus fréquemment utilisées que les décisions ont un contenu professionnel. Nous constatons aussi que certaines stratégies inefficaces (surtout impulsives) varient à l'inverse. Si ces observations étaient confirmées,

elles indiqueraient donc que les décisions professionnelles sont traitées à l'aide de processus a priori efficaces.

2.3. Stratégies disponibles et stratégie choisie:

On peut proposer au sujet une situation de décision et plusieurs stratégies permettant d'y répondre. Par exemple, dans le questionnement précédent, la consigne peut être: "Parmi les manières de décider suivantes, quelles sont celles que vous pourriez utiliser?" (il s'agit des stratégies disponibles), ou "Quelle est la seule manière que vous utiliseriez?" (il s'agit de la stratégie choisie).

Nous avons comparé (Forner & Ameur, 1996) les stratégies disponibles et choisies chez des jeunes français de souche et des jeunes d'origine maghrébine. L'idée générale est que les cultures rendent différentes stratégies plus disponibles, mais qu'une stratégie est choisie avant tout en fonction de la situation. Les différences entre les groupes n'apparaissent effectivement que pour les stratégies disponibles. Les stratégies fatalistes sont plus disponibles chez les jeunes d'origine maghrébine et il en est de même pour les stratégies intuitives. Enfin, chez les jeunes maghrébins, les stratégies dépendantes sont plus disponibles pour les filles (ce qui peut s'expliquer par des habitudes culturelles). Chez les jeunes français, en revanche, ces stratégies sont plus disponibles chez les garçons (ce qui peut s'expliquer par l'avance de maturité des filles).

3. Conclusions

3.1. La question de l'indécision vocationnelle:

L'incapacité à choisir une activité différenciée peut avoir diverses causes: trop forte anxiété, absence de méthode de choix, manque d'information, anticipations excessivement pessimistes, etc. On a pu parler de "styles d'indécision". Une telle approche différentielle des formes de l'indécision peut permettre au conseiller d'adapter sa réponse à une personne, ou d'intervenir plus efficacement auprès de groupes présentant une même forme d'indécision. Il s'agit de ne pas se tromper de démarche: ne pas chercher à informer une personne avant tout très inquiète, ne pas rassurer quelqu'un qui n'a pas de méthode pour décider, etc. Par ailleurs, cette approche permet aussi de mieux évaluer les effets d'aides à l'orientation. On peut prendre pour exemple l'"Education Des Choix": contrairement aux attentes cette méthode psychopédagogique apparaît faire augmenter l'indécision à la fin du collège (Forner & Vouillot, 1995).

3.2. La maturité vocationnelle:

Il s'agit de la capacité à traiter efficacement des informations (sur soi, le monde du travail ou les études) à l'aide de divers processus (exploration, décision, planification). On peut admettre l'existence d'un état unique de maturité. Mais on peut

admettre aussi l'existence d'une diversité des voies d'acquisition de cet état. Par exemple à partir de la connaissance de soi ou à partir de celle des réalités des métiers ; par exemple aussi à partir de l'utilisation préférentielle d'un processus. Il ne s'agit pas de dire qu'il y a autant de voies possibles que de personnes, mais que des groupes de personnes peuvent développer leur état préparatoire aux décisions de différentes manières. En ce sens, ils devraient être traités différemment pour parvenir à un même état final de maturité.

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Career identity as a form of empowerment

1. Introduction

Almost forty years ago Schelsky (1959, p.18) remarked that education is the 'primary decisive, and almost only social determinant of rank, position and scope for development of the individual...'. The 'key power' of education as a whole, including adult education, has only increased since then (Glebbeeck, 1993; Dronkers & Ultee, 1995). Having a diploma is the most important determinant for getting a paid job. A paid job, in its turn, is the most important determinant for social participation.

In post industrial or late modern society (Giddens, 1991), the responsibility for a successful education and career is placed almost completely on the shoulders of the students. However, the majority of them lack a clear orientation towards their investments in education in relation to the work role(s) they prefer. As a result of that, they lack an elaborate educational as well as an elaborate labour market strategy, which is very problematic in view of the responsibility mentioned above. In the Netherlands, students orientate themselves during their stay in higher education primarily to the demands of the educational programme(s) they are following and secondly to their peers (Meijers, 1995).

Their teachers are not oriented towards the demands of the labour market, either. Although for different interests, students and teachers together create a 'pedagogic reservation' in which the relation between education, work and biography is not a meaningful but a strictly instrumental one. By this is meant that students — and their parents and teachers — can only understand their investments in education in terms of 'fear of being left behind' (Dronkers, 1995).

As long as the study results are good this is not problematic. When these results drop, however, many students lack a meaningful frame of reference within which they can reorient their educational investments. It is necessary, therefore, to establish a system of careers guidance in higher education. This system cannot be built, however, around the principle of providing information about the educational system and the situation in the labour market. The situation in the labour market is much too unstable, to make information about jobs etc. of much use. Besides that, information as such cannot compensate for a meaningless educational programme.

Students have to develop a career identity, which can be seen as a form of empowerment (Van 't Rood, 1996). Students must be enabled to (re-)create a meaningful

relationship between education, work and their own biography in order to develop the sense of identity and direction needed for good study results and for surviving successfully in the labour market.

2. Education, work and biography in an industrial society

The transition from an industrial to a post-industrial society confronts both individuals and institutions with the problems of identity and direction (Wijers & Meijers, 1996). In an industrial society identity and direction are institutionally entrenched. An individual is born into a family in which the relationships between the various members are clear to everyone. The parents have an almost absolute authority which they, in part, delegate to professionals within the education system. Together parents and teachers have no difficulty in making themselves responsible for the guidance of children towards adulthood (Meijers & Du Bois-Reymond, 1987; Tillekens *et al.*, 1990) because the upbringing goals are clear.

The parents share the responsibility for their children's upbringing with teachers, who can also unequivocally define themselves as instructors. In other words, there is no doubt as to what the societal function of education is: education prepares students for a working career because it initiates them in the necessary knowledge and skills for performing a job. This conception of education corresponds with a fairly stable societal structure. Of course both jobs and qualification structure change in the process of are not fundamental in nature (Mintzberg, 1983). The result is that the education system has no need to undergo fundamental changes. An internal differentiation that corresponds approximately with the differentiation taking place in the industrial occupational structure suffices. For an elaboration on vocational education see Meijers (1983).

All roles in the education system are transparent. The relationships between teachers and students are regulated by what Willis (1978) has called the 'trade of knowledge for order'. The underlying assumption that makes this trade possible is that teachers, in the most literal sense, have valuable knowledge with which they subsequently acquaint students according to a preset curriculum. In this interaction the knowledge presented occupies a central place. The school knowledge can take on this directing position because the job structure is so stable. Because the education system professes to pass on occupational knowledge and skills and because there is a stable job structure and full employment, power can be obtained over the spreading of individuals over the societal ladder.

Doing well in school increasingly becomes an instrumental activity. From this perspective good results in school are especially important for students, because they create room for leisure activities. The school certificate proves that an individual has obtained enough knowledge and skills to function productively in a job. Obtaining a certificate initiates a new life phase: that of young adulthood. Central in this phase is the orientation to finding a job and steady partner. Neither the job market nor the relationship market need intensive regulation by the government because there are

no huge qualitative or quantitative discrepancies between supply and demand in either market.

Once one has found a steady job and steady partner, one has become an adult. After a short time men become breadwinners, while the women take on the role of housewife and mother. The men rarely change employers until they reach pensionable age and almost never change occupation.

Summarising one can say that the standard biography in industrial society — on an institutional level also — presents clear roles for every stage of life. During their entire lives it was clear for individuals which social roles they were expected to play and what the corresponding rights and duties were.

3. Education, work and biography in post-industrial society

With the transition to the post-industrial society the existing standard life path has come under pressure. There is a growing problem with regard to direction and identity, both on the individual and on the institutional level. The transition from an economy dominated by industrial production to a service economy above all means that work becomes more flexible and the risks for employers, employees and government increase. Companies are increasingly confronted with the necessity to operate as flexibly as possible. This flexibility is attained in many ways (Van der Zee, 1993, 1996). Most important is the flexibility of employees through deprofessionalization ('Entberuflichung'; see Geurts, 1989) and the flexibility of the company through its maintaining only a small nucleus of staff with permanent jobs and otherwise working with flexible job contracts (the so-called 'core periphery model'). One of the results of this is that the relationship between employer and employees, in terms of roles and the corresponding rights and duties, is starting to become unclear. Another consequence is that it becomes extremely difficult for a person to visualize a career path. Arthur (1994) states that in the turbulence of a globalizing market economy in which the steering power of the nation state decreases (turbo-capitalism), one must speak of a 'boundaryless career'. Everyone will be unemployed in their lifetime for longer or shorter periods and/or be forced to retrain. As it is a case of largely unpredictable forces, individuals — in order not to slide off into anomic situations — will have to organise direction and identity themselves under risky conditions (Beck, 1992; Giddens, 1991).

Where before there was an unambiguous life path which indicated the pattern according to which all parties involved were to act, the road now has to be laboriously discovered, which results in endless negotiations between parents and children, teachers and students, parents and teachers, and employees and employers. The stake of these negotiation processes is the question of what meaning should be given to everyday life. Individuals have to develop self-concepts and biographies with which they can find and shape their role in society. Only when they are able to do this can they function in a post-industrial society.

In the present economic situation business organisations have to survive in a turbulent environment. Emery & Trist (1970) show how entrepreneurs feel forced to invest in such an environment because they are afraid that they will be 'left behind' by their competitors. This results in a kind of mass psychosis. Everyone starts running faster and faster without having a clear sense of the direction into which they are running. In the course of this process there remains less and less scope for free, independent decisions that also take the long term into account, as well as society and the environment. Fear of losses and the threat of damage dominate the policymaking process and, consequently, the development of the organisation. As a result, the working environment becomes more insecure and threatening, not least because employers try to shift the risks on to their employees. The reactions of the employees become increasingly more defensive. This results in a loss of meaning because defensive behaviour is accompanied by a distortion of reality. Ultimately, this leads to a situation in which all members of the organisation feel that they are no longer in control of the situation and consequently there is more insecurity and fear, greater distortions, and an even more turbulent environment. The only way out of such a vicious circle, according to Emery & Trist (1970), lies in a search for authentic values and in subsequently making those values the starting-points of policy.

In education too, we find an increasing loss of meaning. The policies of the business organisations increase turbulence and produce an ambiguous and unpredictable demand for workers with ever-changing qualifications. The educational sector often still accepts this demand as a 'fait accompli', the 'natural' consequence of an economic development that is not under discussion. Policies are predominantly directed towards creating a national qualification structure and towards developing procedures for keeping the education system as responsive as possible with regard to the qualification requirements laid down by trade and industry.

At the level of the educational organisations the demand for a responsive education system is translated into technical and organisational adjustments. Pelkmans & De Vries (1991) conclude that educational institutions put special energy into intake, the modularisation of education, the integration of long and short term courses and the improvement of educational yield. The problems aimed at, and especially the way in which solutions are sought, make it clear that the development of a vision and the improvement of content are ignored altogether. This is illustrated by what is generally seen as an important improvement regarding content: the modularisation of courses. It was thought that the module system would provide a consistent view of the content of what is provided, because a number of stacked modules form a recognized learning route. This is not the case. The system is optimally flexible, while a course in the old sense of the word still remains possible. Thus, using modules does not provide the opportunity to make content-related changes. Just as before, the system gives teachers the chance to present themselves as the experts who, in the most literal sense of the word, trade knowledge in exchange for order from the side of the students (Meijers 1996).

The result of the module system is that the learning paths offered to students have less and less intrinsic meaning and become increasingly more like a rat race. The situ-

ation in education is beginning to resemble that in business organisations. Students react defensively, just like employees. They refuse to commit emotionally to the school, the learning material and the teachers and adopt a passive-instrumental attitude. They develop no desire for a particular occupation and appear unable to express their investment in an education in other terms than 'fear of being left behind' (Dronkers, 1995; Meijers, 1995). It is therefore not surprising that research shows that reproductive learning predominates in educational organisations (Vermunt, 1992; Lodewijks, 1995). If an individual does not know how or what the knowledge (s)he acquires contributes to what (s)he wants and which personal significance that knowledge has, then (s)he has acquired knowledge that does not prepare him/her for self-direction.

4. Acquiring a career identity through learning

In order to become capable of achieving and improving self-direction, the student has to be enabled to undergo a learning process in which (s)he is brought into contact with his/her 'authentic values'. Learning processes should focus particularly on authentic values relating to work and thus allow students to discover a relationship between education, work and life that is meaningful for them.

Discovering authentic values with regard to work can be called 'creative learning'. According to Van Peursen (1992), the essence of creative learning is that the learner replaces or changes the (usually hidden) grammar, syntax or structure of an entire system. A system that has come to be embedded in the language, in symbols, in scientific principles etc. Replacing or changing the structure of a system, especially one that helps constitute one's self-image, is not a question of acquiring and applying knowledge only. Creative learning is only possible if the learner is able and willing to face the turbulence of his world and the lack of meaning in his own life. Creative learning therefore begins with introspection, with acquiring an understanding of oneself 'by identifying dependency-producing psychological assumptions acquired earlier in life that have become dysfunctional' (Mezirow, 1985, p. 20). However, it is only possible to identify dependency-producing assumptions by defining the concrete experiences from which the assumptions originated. The real basis of creative learning, therefore, is experiential learning. Creative learning can be defined as a learning process in which already existing experiences are 'turned into meaning' in such a way that the individual recognises what motivates him/her and what his/her authentic values are.

4.1. Creating meaning as a process

Before describing the process through which individuals acquire a career identity, we first want to analyse the process of giving meaning as such. Previously we stated that people experience a 'lack of meaning', as a result of which they can no longer relate their investments in education to an acceptable work role and to their lives as a whole.

Lack of meaning not only prevents individuals from making sense of the world but also from defining themselves in relation to that world in positive terms. Lack of meaning can be seen as the result of a 'broken' relationship, not only between the individual and (parts of) the society in which he lives, but also between the individual and his past.

According to Debats (1996) meaning can be defined as cognition that is in balance with volition and emotion. The individual has no direct access to volition. It is only through emotions that volition is accessible. Volition makes itself known, however, through cognitions. It is in the will that a goal manifests itself. Emotions and volition both generate impulses to connect cognitions, emotions and volition with each other. In the first instance, emotions are purely instinctive, aimed at the preservation of life. However, human beings are cultural beings: they 'give meaning' to themselves in relation to the world around them. That means that emotions are socially regulated and partly determined. Because man is a cultural being, he develops a sense of historicity, primarily through developing a self-identity. That makes him more than just an adaptive data-processing system. From this perspective, emotions are to be regarded as the result of (life) experiences that are 'given meaning'. Individuals feel whether situations in which a particular behaviour is expected of them are vitalising or have the opposite effect, and subsequently they give meaning to these experiences with the help of symbols (usually words). The meaning in question remains closely connected with the emotion that constitutes its basis (see also Leach, 1974). Emotions can, in line with Fryda's theory (1989), be regarded as expressions of an interest or concern: the emotion shows what a person considers to be of (vital) importance.

Balancing cognition, volition and emotions is a process that never ends because people continually undergo new experiences that force them to redefine the meaning of old ones, which may result in a new goal. That means that the process of giving meaning is in essence a social process in which the individual negotiates (Bruner, 1990) with himself and with others about how reality is to be interpreted. When giving meaning, people move in a 'space of meaning' with a double structure: on the one hand there are the life experiences that have been assimilated in a life history (Hermans & Kempen, 1993) and on the other hand there are group cultures and/or organisation cultures.

Figure 1: Meaning as a process

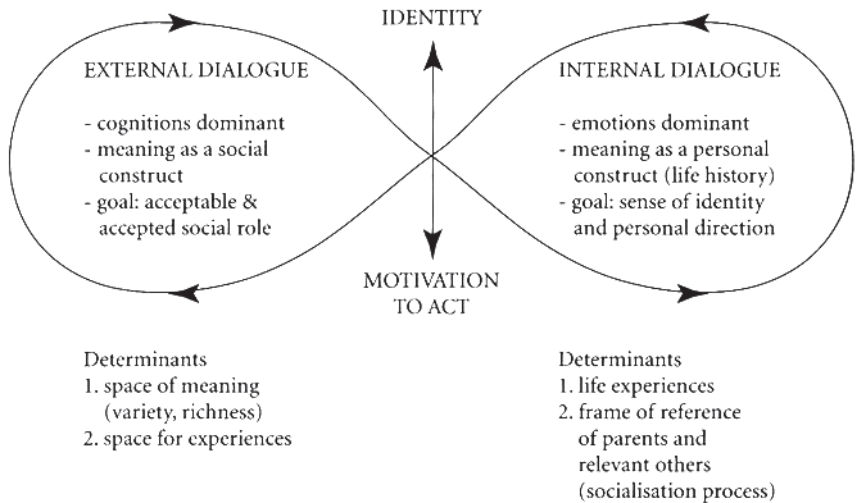


Figure 1 visualises the movement of the individual through the 'space of meaning'. The starting-point of this figure is that the individual's environment is to be regarded as the scope that individual has or receives for creative learning. The environment is of influence in at least four different ways. Firstly, because of the meanings, the collective representations that are passed on in the primary socialisation and thus strongly affect the problem space of children and adolescents (cf. Gottfredson, 1981). The problem in post-modern societies is that it becomes difficult to construct common frames of reference because of the fact that once undisputed 'grand narratives' are increasingly greeted with incredulity (Lyotard, 1994, 1992).

Secondly, it is of influence through the information and the nature of the information that is available in a particular environment. Without information that can be coded on the basis of the already existing semantic structures, it is extremely difficult to learn to construct new internal representations.

Thirdly, the environment is influential because of the opportunities for communication it offers: how and with whom can the individual discuss experiences so as to develop a self-concept in relation to education, work and biography? There is a close relationship between thinking and speaking. Conceptualization takes place through an internal as well as an external dialogue.

Finally, the environment is of influence through the way in which the individual is 'addressed', that is to say, whether or not he gets — in terms of Marcia (1980) — a chance to explore and to build up commitments.

Above we defined creative learning as a process in which already existing experiences are 'turned into meaning' in such a way that the individual comes to recognise what motivates him/her and what his/her authentic values are. The aim of defining authentic values (see hereafter) should be the acquisition of a career identity. A career

identity can be defined as a structure or network of meanings given by the individual to his/her own motives, interests and abilities, which (s)he links with acceptable occupational roles (Meijers, 1995, p. 63). We speak of a structure or network of meanings to make it clear that the individual is the heart and force behind the development of the career identity. The structure of meanings is in constant flux: influenced by the learning processes that are triggered off by concrete experiences. A career identity, however, is not only the sum of these experiences but also involves processing them into meaningful and useful links. This happens when the individual consciously links his/her values with working roles. A student should not only be able to answer the question 'What is the meaning of work in my life?' but also the question 'What do I want to mean to others through my work?' In order to be able to do this, labour and the existing division of labour should themselves be thematised as the historically variable realisation of values.

4.2. From experiences to life themes

Life themes can be defined as central, guiding tendencies in with a (strong) emotional charge. Every individual has a store of emotionally charged experiences in his/her episodic memory and thus, in principle, has the 'hidden' signs they contain at his disposal. Young people rarely have explicit life themes: they have had too little experience with work and life for that. However, they do often feel drawn towards a certain work domain without having the concepts available to 'give meaning' to this intuitive feeling. For adults this is often easier because they have had more experience.

Based on a logical analysis we can now formulate principles about the implicit content of emotionally charged experiences and about the way in which such experiences can be made transparent for the individual and, subsequently, be used to obtain a career identity.

- a. The emotionally charged experiences are related to events that actually took place in time and space.
- b. Asking what in the event caused the emotion makes it possible to determine what the emotionally charged topic or stimulus was.
- c. Asking whether the topic has caused emotional reactions makes it possible to determine whether a more general area of interest for the individual is involved here, because emotions imply that the individual is interested (Fryda, 1989).
- d. Such areas of interest are characteristic of the individual whose experience led to them. For instance: 'I am a person who seems to worry about hidden conflicts and intimate relationships more than most other people.'
- e. Once an area of interest has been formulated, the individual can be questioned about the emotional experiences that led to its coming into existence. Often the individual will come to realise that in former days, in the parental home for instance, he/she used to suffer because of hidden conflicts.
- f. From the area of interest a value or area of values (Hermans & Kempen, 1993; Hermans & Hermans-Jansen 1995) can be deduced. Questions about desires or preferences

rences relating to the area of interest can lead to the discovery of the value or area of values of the individual.

- g. A value that has found conscious expression may allow one to arrive at the realisation that the distance between one's value and the actual situation in the area of interest constitutes a problem.
- h. If the individual thinks of the problem as a burden it is possible that (s)he has some experience in working towards a solution, either in actual fact or by reading or fantasizing about it. There is a chance that (s)he has some knowledge and thoughts about the nature of the problem, and skills and ideas that might bring about a solution. Ideas are to be regarded as talents.
- i. If an individual has the ability to realise his/her value in his/her area of interest or, in other words, if the individual is capable of solving (or learning to solve) problems in his/her area of interest, then perhaps (s)he will or want to be motivated.
- j. If it appears that an individual, in an area of interest that can be traced back to his/her own emotional experience, has discovered a value, is conscious of a problem, has the ability to (learn to) solve that problem and the motivation (will) to work at realising that value/solving that problem, then the area of interest in question constitutes a life theme for that individual. Feeling, cognition and will are combined in a life theme and constitute the subjective component of the theme. The area of interest is the objective component.
- k. Life themes often point to the roles a person has played in the past in the areas of interest discovered. Life themes contain 'life signs' that indicate the role or roles a person played or would like/ be able to play in a particular area of life (interest). The role constitutes the scope for action that allows the subjective and the objective component of the theme to be linked with each other.
- l. The individual can follow the 'life signs' and identify with the role/roles (s)he has played or wanted to play. This enables him/her to develop an identity and a biography. In this way the individual can achieve an insight into the areas of life that were meaningful to him/her and in which (s)he was (and still can be) meaningful to others. Identification with the designated role in the area of life implies an existential choice.
- m. If a person is capable of conducting an internal and/or external reflective dialogue about his/her emotionally charged experiences, then those experiences can, in principle, be converted into themes which contain clues about the roles a person has played, wanted to play, or was forced to play in certain areas of life. Identification with those roles can subsequently help one cope with the experiences from the past and convert them into one's own biography.

4.3. From life theme to career identity

Life themes not only contain indications about a person's past, but used to help develop a perspective on future education and work. In order to achieve this, the personal area of interest, which constitutes the situational side of the life theme, has to be

transformed into a collective area of value. Managing conflicts in intimate relationships, for instance, is of collective interest as well. Society as a whole has a need for adequate conflict regulation in families. In cases where such regulation is absent, adults and children have to live without an important source of emotional security. Collective areas of value are linked with sections of the labour market. In the area of 'conflict regulation', for instance, we find family therapists, social workers and magistrates of juvenile courts. The individual may come to realise that (s)he could play a role in this area of collective value. Performing that role might do justice to the qualities of that individual and society might benefit from his/her motivation, commitment, abilities and experience. A new choice announces itself: 'Do I want to perform this type of role professionally in this area if I get the opportunity to do so?' If the individual decides that (s)he wants to perform such a role in the collective area of interest then a start has been made at developing his/her career identity and finding his/her direction in the labour market. Subsequently, concrete occupations and professions can be investigated, as well as the educational paths leading towards them.

What is central in the link of life themes with career roles is that work is made visible as the realisation of values (Wijers, 1991; Wijers *et al.*, 1991). Values can in this context be defined as the desired level of requirements for life and well-being of a society. The areas that the values relate to are universal: societies have always attached importance to housing, clothing etc, irrespective of time and place. Only the level, quantitatively as well as qualitatively, varies with time and place. Looking back over the past it can be concluded that values change, but the areas of value remain the same.

To make concrete and to realise a value, as an expression of public opinion in a particular period, presents society with a collective task which can be defined as work. Work then becomes an essential activity for that society because it creates the conditions for life and well-being. Conceiving of work as an activity directed towards the fulfilment of collective needs also makes it more tempting in a psychological sense for the individual to think about desirable career roles, because it emphasises the social disposition of human beings.

If work is defined as solving collective problems in collective areas of value or need, it becomes easy to see that problems begin to be divided into sub-problems. The result is an increasingly complex labour market. It can also become clear that changes in the structure of jobs, organisations, functions and production processes are connected with the re-definitions of our collective problems. The process of re-definition is the result of discussions between all the actors involved in a particular area of value.

These discussions are especially important when they concern so-called key problems in a particular sector which can turn into professional dilemmas for the individual practitioner. Making a link between life themes and career roles possible therefore means that such key problems and dilemmas should be given special attention in the learning process. It must be made transparent for the learner what discussions are ongoing about the realisation of values in a particular sector, how the need for solutions is transformed into a concrete demand for solutions, and how the market ultimately generates a supply of solutions.

5. A strong learning environment

Creative learning, necessary for acquiring a career identity which, in its turn, is a *conditio sine qua non* for obtaining a career, implies that the learner has to learn to become aware of elements of his culture that (s)he has always completely taken for granted. How difficult that can be is formulated by Fortman (1971, p. 47): 'If a fish were capable of making discoveries, it has been said, his last discovery would be the existence of water. Only in the fish dealer's cart would he realise what it means to be an aquatic animal. It should not come as a surprise, therefore, that man has only very recently discovered how extensively he has been conditioned by the culture surrounding him'. Such a learning achievement requires a different learning setting or learning environment than is now found in the educational system.

Research in the field of educational psychology shows that higher order learning processes are only possible in a so-called strong learning environment. A strong learning environment can be defined as an educational setting that satisfies six conditions: (i) a strong learning environment has to be functional, which means that there must be as many situations and conditions as possible that correspond to the knowledge that must be applied, (ii) the learning environment must invite activity and must compel the learner to be involved with the learning content in an interactive and integration-oriented way, (iii) learning environments must be realistic and have a user context, (iv) they must have models and involve coaching activities, (v) strong learning environments must teach students how to learn, and (vi) they must systematically develop an understanding of the student's own skills (Lodewijks 1995, p. 44 ff). Concluding it can be said that strong learning environment pay attention to learning enjoyment and to the motivation of the students.

The research of Lave and Wenger (1991) into the way in which trainees in different cultures learn their trade within the framework of the apprenticeship system, illustrates how the interaction between learner and learning environment makes creative learning based on personal experiences possible. Their central conclusion is that in the apprenticeship system the essence of learning is not the acquisition of knowledge by learning by doing or by imitating the activities of experienced practitioners, but by legitimised peripheral participation in existing social practices. The essence of being a student in an apprenticeship system is that (s)he participates in a community of professionals and that acquiring the knowledge and skills belonging to the profession or occupation in question forces but also motivates him/her to participate more and more fully in the practices of that community. Training, in other words, is first of all participating in the socio-cultural practices of a particular occupational group. Attention in this context is focussed especially on the ever-changing pattern of social relationships in which the individual finds himself and which makes him a person. Participation is, after all, always based on situated negotiation and renegotiation of meaning in the world. This implies that understanding and experience are in constant interaction — indeed, are mutually constitutive (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 51).

Since learning a trade is a form of beginning membership of a certain occupational group, the recognition of the status of apprentices by adult professionals appears of greater importance than education in itself. If young people are allowed to participate they tend to be highly motivated to learn, not only because they know that they are on their way to fuller participation but also because they gradually gain their own insight into 'what it is all about' and what actually has to be learned in order to become a professional practitioner. The learners learn particularly from each other, because they are conscious of the fact that they are on the way to fuller participation together.

Participation in socio-cultural practices strongly depends on the degree to which those practices are transparent for the prospective participant. Practices are more transparent when the occupational group has a common frame of reference. The better an occupational group is able to make the importance of the occupational practices clear, the easier it becomes for prospective participants to join them. An occupational practice will only rarely be transparent. It has to be made transparent by means of stories and discussions about the key problems of the profession between prospective members and those who already are full members. The aim of such discussions is not that the newcomers 'learn from talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; it is to learn to talk as a key to peripheral participation' (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 109). That means that newcomers should have free access to the 'real', fully fledged occupational practice without they themselves being able to produce 'fully fledged' work. This is usually realised by letting them participate at the end of the productive process.

The essence of the study of Lave & Wenger (1991) is that a prospective employee must be given the opportunity to familiarise with the 'real' occupational practice and the key problems. Subsequently they can discuss those key problems with fellow students and professional practitioners in order to be able to attach meaning to the job and to working in that particular professional area.

The Dutch education system hardly provides for this opportunity at all. Education and the business world have their backs towards each other. Even in the apprenticeship system, which only plays a peripheral role in the Netherlands, we find increasingly more academics or 'schoolishness' (Frietman, 1990). In such a 'weak' learning environment both students and teachers are incapable of discovering meaningful relationships between education, work and life. Therefore an effort will have to be made on all levels of the education system to realise strong learning environments in which learners are enabled to build up a career identity. It will be clear that this is not just a matter of a simple link between education and the labour market but rather involves creating new educational arrangements that will interfere with existing practices in education as well as in the world of business and industry.

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An update of European guidance and education systems

1. Introduction

This contribution does not aim to give a detailed description of either the higher education or the student guidance systems of each European country. Instead it discusses certain structural features which are important when trying to compare higher education systems and to understand how and why they differ. It also explains how different systems of higher education have produced different systems of student guidance. Finally, it describes some of the current trends and changes which are affecting many systems.

2. Terminology

It is important to clarify some of the terminology used because it is very easy for misunderstandings to arise because of unfamiliarity with some of the terms used and how they relate to similar words in other languages.

The first example is the English word *Diploma* and its equivalents in other languages such as *Diplom* in German and *Diplôme* in French. In most European languages except English it means any qualification although it can also denote a specific one. In French *diplômes universitaires* means all university qualifications but a *diplôme* is also the specific qualification awarded by the *grandes écoles* as opposed to the *licences* or *maîtrises* awarded by the universities. Similarly, *diplom* in German can have the general meaning but can also be a specific title distinct from other qualifications at a similar level like the MA.

However, the real confusion is with English where the equivalent word is not *diploma* but *degree*. English-speakers talk about *university degrees*. *Diploma* has a different meaning and in the UK is generally reserved in higher education for a qualification which is distinct from a degree. The important point is that an English speaker will not understand the same by the word *diploma* as most continentals.

Another difficult area of terminology is the English word *postgraduate* and its continental equivalents. In English-speaking countries this usually refers to periods of study or qualification beyond the normal 'first degree' — ie a doctorate or a Masters degree. Americans also call it *graduate study*. Those terms are not appropriate to many continental systems which typically are structured around a series of *cycles* with most of what English speakers would call postgraduate study being in the *third cycle*.

The term 'first degree', which is common in English, again can be confusing. It usually refers to the normal level of qualification which most of those completing a university education would receive — traditionally the *Bachelors Degree* (not of course to be confused with the French *baccalaureat!*). However, in many continental countries the first real university qualification is at the end of a second cycle and is often equated to the Masters degree in English-speaking systems. The first cycle qualification (eg the *vor-diplom* in Germany, the *propaedeutic exam* in the Netherlands, the *deug* in France) is generally not considered a sufficient university qualification, unlike the *first degree*.

The two tables illustrate the cycles or phases.

Two-cycle higher education (as in UK, Ireland)	
First phase	Usually subject specific studies Always leads to a qualification Normal final education for most
Second phase	Usually includes project/thesis Advanced/specialised subject Lead to Masters/Doctorate

Three-cycle higher education (as in Germany, France, Spain and others)	
First phase	Broad introductory studies Sometimes leads to a qualification
Second phase	Usually includes project/thesis More specialised subject content Normal final education for most
Third phase	Extended specialisation or research Often leads to a doctorate Academia/research usually follows

Another very confusing term is the English word '*polytechnic*' and its equivalents in other languages. In most continental countries it refers to technical institutions teaching engineering, architecture etc. In the UK it was used until recently to refer to a group of non-university institutions of higher education (though they have since become universities) and which were multi-disciplinary rather than technical.

Confusion has also in some ways been made worse in that certain countries (like the Netherlands and Denmark for example) have adopted British or American terminology for certain words in order to make them internationally understood although this does not always work well. The Dutch use the Bachelors degree title for the qualification awarded in the non-university higher vocational education system (HBO) which is not strictly speaking an equivalent of the British or American usage which refers specifically to universities.

3. Structures

Structural features are certain aspects of a system which characterise it and may differentiate it from others. These could be almost unlimited but this article concentrates on five which are important for student guidance: method of entry, length and level of courses, qualifications awarded, control (especially centralised control) of the system, relationship between degree subject and the labour market.

3.1 Method of entry

A few years ago the method of entry to university was simple: most entrants came through a clearly defined secondary education system designed to give entry to uni-

versity and with a recognised qualification — the *baccalaureat* in France, the Irish School leaving certificate, the *Abitur* in Germany etc.

Methods of entry into higher education are now increasingly varied and complex as different countries try to create opportunities for people with widely differing educational backgrounds to enter university. There are, therefore, more and more bridges between academic university systems and higher vocational ones and also opportunities for those who did not enter university at the traditional age of 18 or 19 to do so later.

One very important distinction, however, concerns selectivity. In many systems possession of the appropriate school-leaving qualification gave an automatic right of entry to university. That might have to be moderated by some control of numbers in very popular subjects or very popular faculties — the *numerus clausus*. Medicine is the commonest subject where this happens. This open access is a cardinal principal of the German system and of all those systems modelled on it which actually meant almost all of mainland Europe except France. In this article the term 'Germanic' is used to refer to these systems.

By contrast, many English-speaking countries have a selective system whereby possession of the minimum qualifications does not give a right of entry and individual faculties select their students from amongst the best applicants. This in turn creates a very hierarchical or élitist system, with certain universities being seen as 'better' than others. That élitism is less marked in Ireland and Scotland than in England & Wales or in the USA.

France is an interesting and almost unique mixture of the two systems with the universities having traditionally been open access and the *grandes écoles* highly selective.

Selectivity has some interesting consequences for student guidance. In most selective systems, though not all, teaching staff are involved in the selection process and this perhaps gives them a greater sense of personal responsibility for their students than in systems where students either enrol of their own volition or are allocated by some external mechanism as used to be the case in Greece for example.

Another consequence is that élitist systems tend to mean that students will study away from home in order to go to the 'best' university whereas in non-selective systems students will usually enrol in the most convenient university — often their local one — because it is as good as any other unless they want a particular course which is not taught there. Spain, until recently, almost forced students to study locally.

Finally, selective systems tended to have fewer problems with failure and drop-out rates which have been — and often still are — worryingly high in open access systems.

However, the divisions between selective and non-selective systems are becoming increasingly blurred. Mass higher education — which is such a feature of the late 20th century in all countries — means that selective systems have often had to become more open. This is very clear in the UK which has had the fastest rate of increase in the age participation rate in Western Europe in the last decade. In practice almost anyone with minimum qualifications can now enter university somehow, somewhere. As a result, drop-out and failure rates are going up though some of that is also due to financial difficulties as state support for students is reduced.

That reduction in financial support is also leading far more people to study locally so that in this way, too, the British system is getting closer to the mainland models.

On the other hand, some continental systems are becoming more selective and in particular some of the changes in France have led to effective selection in certain universities. In some cases private universities, where they exist, may be more selective than state ones though Portugal is an interesting exception.

3.2 Length and level of courses

Some of this drawing together can also be seen in the structure of courses and qualifications. The length of university studies has been very different from one country to another. In the traditional 'Germanic' systems there was a clear distinction between the notional length of a course and the actual time that a student might take to complete it which was usually longer — sometimes much longer. Thus a course which officially lasted four years might take on average six years to complete.

The reasons for this difference could be varied — the need to retake examinations because students had failed or had not achieved as high a mark as they wanted, the need to take time out to earn money, to do military service or for personal reasons. Employers accepted this although they might worry if someone took a very long time to complete for not very good reasons.

By contrast, in the Anglo-Saxon systems, courses normally lasted the official length of time and no longer. Retaking exams was limited and time out was the exception, not the rule. Students were expected to be full-time students while they were at university and only to work for money during the vacations, not in term-time. Thus a three year degree should be completed in three years and a four year degree in four years.

In France, the expectation — certainly in the *grandes écoles* but also in the universities — was closer to the Anglo-Saxon than the Germanic model.

However, again pressures on the higher education systems of Europe have led to changes which in some ways have brought the systems closer together. On the one hand, many countries where students were taking a very long time to complete their studies have tried to shorten the time allowed. The Netherlands and certain Scandinavian countries especially have done this though Sweden is an exception. Sometimes, as in the Netherlands, it has been done through financial pressure — penalising students who take too long by withdrawing grants or student privileges.

Sometimes it has been done by introducing shorter courses as an alternative to the old 'long courses'. Examples of this are the *laurea brevis* in Italy lasting 3 years and the new *kandiidatti* qualification in Finland or the so-called Bachelors degree in Denmark. These courses are quite distinct from the shorter vocational courses that exist in many countries — usually outside the universities though occasionally — as in Spain — inside them. It has to be said that so far they have not been very successful in attracting students, most of whom want the higher qualification.

On the other hand changes to structures in the UK, for example, have led to the introduction of modular degrees with a credit structure and financial pressures are

increasing the numbers who need to intermit before continuing their studies, thus lengthening the time taken to complete. Widening access has also meant greater need to retake examinations.

These trends have also affected the structure of qualifications. The fact that many continental countries have regarded Bachelors degrees as lower than their 'first degrees' and argued that their graduates are the equivalent of Masters degree graduates has had an effect in the English-speaking world as well. More British and Irish graduates are taking Masters degrees now as they become more aware of the need for higher level qualifications when competing with continental counterparts.

Thus one can see pressures in many countries leading to a period of 4-5 years being the norm for a full university qualification rather than the 3 years of the Anglo-Saxon world or the 6 years plus which was common in many mainland European countries.

3.3 Control of the system

Another important area of change concerns who controls the systems of higher education. So far the impression given has been that, although each country is different, within each country the system is identical and homogeneous. That is no longer the case.

In the past, most systems were centrally controlled by governments. Most of the funding came from the State except in the case of private universities. In most countries the State laid down in detail the structure of courses and legally awarded the qualifications. In the most centrally controlled, staff were appointed by the State and not by the individual university or faculty. This often reinforced the lack of competition and the unheirarchical nature of the systems.

Again that is changing as universities are given greater freedom and have to seek more and more external funding. Perhaps the Germanic systems remain more homogeneous than others but there are several countries where the variety of systems has become strikingly apparent recently.

One such is Belgium where the two linguistic communities are each developing their universities in different ways from a common origin. Another is France which, although still very centralised, has devolved quite a lot of power to regional and local bodies. A third is the UK where devolution has gone even further and individual universities are deliberately seeking out particular niches in the market. Finally one could mention Sweden where the universities are now enjoying much greater autonomy.

Thus any simplified picture is less and less accurate and less and less capable of reflecting systems which are increasingly complex and heterogeneous within countries, let alone between them.

3.4 Relationship between degree subject and the labour market

Finally there is the graduate labour market into which the products of these systems are going.

In many countries, especially in mainland Europe, there was a very close relationship between what students studied at university and the sort of career or job opportunities which would be open to them. Thus when they chose their subject of study they were also limiting or defining their future career options.

In the Anglo-Saxon systems, this has been less true. Obviously there are important career areas where a relevant degree is essential — medicine, engineering, architecture etc. However the system of relatively short degrees meant that students graduated at a young age and employers were happy to take them and train them in a wide variety of jobs. Their university education was regarded as a general preparation but not a specific training. In this respect France would be in the mainland European camp both for the universities and the *grandes écoles*. Ireland would perhaps also have been nearer to that end of the spectrum.

Again there have been changes in both directions. In a difficult graduate labour market caused partly by the economic climate and partly by the huge increase in the numbers graduating, many UK and Irish graduates have felt the need for more vocational qualifications.

On the other hand, the decline in the public sector — the traditional employment sector for university graduates in many continental countries — has meant that graduates have to look more widely for jobs and many student advisers are trying to help them develop transferable skills and ‘sell’ them to a much wider variety of employers. Thus in this area too there is some convergence.

4. Student guidance systems

In looking at what is happening in the field of student guidance it is helpful to distinguish a number of areas where students may need professional help or advice: (i) entry to university (choice of university and course, entry procedures), (ii) study at university (choices of course or options, study difficulties), (iii) personal problems (psychological, medical, financial, accommodation), (iv) choice of career and (v) job-finding (vacation or student jobs as well as permanent jobs).

These areas cover a time span from the end of secondary education to the entry to working life. Some problems are specific to students — anything to do with study, for example, whilst others are common to all young people and even adults — e.g. personal and psychological and health problems. It used to be the case that students were predominantly young adults with the particular problems of that age group but in most countries now they include many older people.

It is very clear that different countries have evolved different ways of meeting these needs and that some have done so much more fully and effectively than others — or, in some cases, certain universities have done so because there is great variety of provision even within countries.

One major difference is whether universities as such accept any responsibility at all for student guidance. In some cases universities have tended to say that these pro-

blems do not concern them — or only in a limited way. This is the minimalist view and it tends to prevail in certain countries and to be encouraged by certain structural features. Thus, advice on entry to universities may be the province of advisers based in the secondary education system and the role of the university is limited to providing information (prospectuses, websites etc).

Students have often been left to find their own way through the complexities of the university's administrative systems and if they fail or drop out, so what? If they have personal, psychological or health problems, let them use the normal health services for the region. If they need jobs or careers advice then they can use the public employment services or family contacts or whatever: it is not the role of a university to deal with employment.

Culturally, Southern European countries have tended to assume most strongly that professional guidance is unnecessary because students will be supported by their families and local networks. Indeed professional advisers are often looked on with mistrust. In systems where students live at home, such support is much easier than if they move away for study as in the UK or France.

In systems where choice of subject limits and defines career opportunities, careers advice is seen as less necessary — at least as long as appropriate jobs are available. That view has again been easier to maintain where students live and study locally and often then want to remain there to work. Various pressures have now led to its being challenged.

The need for many graduates to look outside traditional employment areas related to their subject has already been referred to. There is also a growing trend for students to study away from home and a growing sense of internationalism has also fostered an interest in wider career horizons. Local and family networks are no longer adequate for their needs. There is also some pressure on universities from public opinion which can often question the production of large numbers of unemployed young graduates. Thus, in some countries there has been a growth of careers related advice offered by universities themselves.

This has always been a strong feature of the English speaking world, partly because of the nature of the labour market and partly because of the habit of leaving home to study. It has always been a feature of the French *grandes écoles* though often through their *alumni* associations rather than the school itself. It is now common in most Dutch and Belgian universities. Some Eastern European universities are now setting up careers services — Poland perhaps being the best example. There are also developments in Greece and Spain — less so in Italy though a small number of Italian universities have taken an interest.

The debate about whether universities should take any direct part in this area of activity is still at its strongest in Germany. At the FEDORA Conference in Rostock in May there was a very lively division of opinion in Germany on this issue. Nevertheless it is clear that throughout Europe there is a move towards providing more help in career choice and in preparation for job hunting. Direct links with employers and placement are, as yet, more limited.

Going back to the beginning of the process, again the demand for information and not just from local students has led many universities in many countries to improve the amount of guidance and information they offer to potential students. There is still, however, quite a big divide between countries like Belgium and Germany where the universities have strong links with local schools and provide professional advisers to help applicants and those who, like the UK, tend to give the responsibility primarily to advisers based outside the universities.

The one area where most universities in most countries have developed some student advisory services is in study advice for current students. This will usually cover the academic aspects (choice of course, study difficulties, administrative matters) and sometimes extend to areas like financial questions. Such questions are the day-to-day work of the *studentendecanen* in the Netherlands, the *studienberatung* in Germany and the *conseillers* in the French SCUOs as well as their equivalents in other countries like Belgium and the Scandinavian countries.

The other model which has in the past characterised the Anglo-Saxon systems has been the use of teaching staff to provide much of this advice and that has developed out of the fact that the universities have typically been relatively small and the student population relatively young and often living away from home — thus in need of more help. That tutorial system is under threat with expansion of student numbers and greater pressures on teaching staff to teach and do research. It is not clear that teaching staff have been adequately replaced with professional advisers.

Finally in the area of health and personal problems, again there has been a divide between those who argue that specialist help should be provided through student counselling services (especially for personal and psychological problems) and those who argue that students can rely on the local community health provision. Most universities in Northern Europe again now provide some help though varying in scope: Southern Europe is less likely to do so as yet.

Thus there are great differences between countries, and often between universities, in what guidance or help they regard as appropriate for them to provide and what they regard as the province of external organisations. Even in the areas of internal provision there are many different ways of organising student advisory services. At one extreme is the integrated student advisory service offering everything from academic advice through personal and psychological counselling to careers advice and placement. Such a model is rare except perhaps at a managerial level where one Vice-Rector or senior administrator may be responsible for all aspects of student welfare. Even in such integrated services, there are usually specialists in the different aspects of guidance.

In other cases the advice may be provided by a number of separate services as is often the case in the UK where the Careers Service is usually separate from the Counselling Service and again from the Accommodation Service etc.

Why these different practices have grown up as they have can often be understood in relation to the educational structures. An obvious example is careers advice which is particularly strong in the UK & Ireland because of the nature of the labour market,

with career choices often being postponed until graduation and where many students look outside their own home areas for work so that family contacts are less effective. Universities' involvement with local schools works best when the majority of future students come from the local area and not when they are drawn from the whole country.

Help with academic and administrative problems is often more necessary in very large, complex universities where the contact with the teaching staff is not very strong.

However, the general trend is clearly towards more specialist advice in more countries. Even Southern Europe is moving in this direction. The growing contacts between universities internationally and in Europe is fostering these developments for two quite separate reasons.

On the one hand students themselves increasingly see the world (or at least Europe) as their stage. They do not just look locally for courses, for postgraduate study or careers. Local and informal networks cannot provide the sort of advice and information they need.

Also, universities themselves are learning from each other and developments in one country are often the result of contacts with or looking at the work of colleagues elsewhere. This is, of course, one of FEDORA's main purposes and achievements.

5. Conclusion

A few years ago the picture of higher education that could have been painted was a much simpler one. Systems were relatively centralised in each country and many derived ultimately from the German model. Student advice — at least that provided within the universities — was relatively limited with a few areas of well-developed activities in certain countries or particular institutions.

Now the picture is much less clear cut. Higher education systems everywhere have been subject to enormous pressures — expansion, lack of money and staff and difficult labour markets for their graduates to name but three. Central control has often been loosened and the changes have been very varied as a result. There has been some convergence, with systems both of higher education and student guidance coming closer together as a result of similar pressures and greater international contact. But there has also been some divergence, greater complexity and greater heterogeneity.

The needs of students for more professional guidance in an increasingly complex world are slowly being recognised throughout Europe and FEDORA is playing an important role in spreading experience and good practice across national frontiers.

References

Up-to-date and detailed reference sources for all European educational systems are hard to find. Most countries produce some material on their own systems — in some

cases specifically aimed at foreign readers — and this is often published by national Ministries of Education. By definition such material is not uniform or comparable across the whole of Europe.

For information dealing with the whole of the European Union, EURYDICE — the European Commission's Education Information Network system of documentation on education — can be a very useful source of references and does also publish some of its own material but not on all countries. Most comprehensive in that it covers all the 15 member states plus Norway and Iceland is:

Office for Official Publications of the European Communities (1995). *Structures of the Education and Initial Training Systems in the European Union*, Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the E.C. (also on the WWW: <http://www.cec.lu/en/comm/dg22/struct/struct.html>)

Other Usefull sources include:

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Skills for graduates in the 21st century

1. Introduction

The world of work continues to change profoundly and with it graduate careers. To deal successfully with these changes, graduates will need a new set of skills — those of Self Reliance. They are the skills to manage a lifetime's progression in learning and work, rather than to do the work itself. As process rather than functional skills, they enable people to utilise and transfer other skills and knowledge.

A recent report for the Association of Graduate Recruiters (AGR, 1995), by White-way Research, argues that self-reliant graduates need to take responsibility for their career and personal development, and manage their relationship with work and lear-

ning. They will need negotiating, action planning and networking skills, and qualities of self-awareness and confidence.

Traditional graduate jobs are the most vigorously promoted, but routes into employment are changing. Many graduates now join small or medium sized enterprises (SMEs) or larger organisations outside formal graduate training schemes. However, graduate-level skills are not being effectively applied in these sectors.

The AGR report identifies the major challenges for employers, higher education, students and government. Recommendations for action include a fundamental review of the way universities and their staff are rewarded for teaching and learning.

This paper seeks solely to provide a 'snap shot' of the findings of the AGR Report. It is not intended to be an academic review.

2. A new vocabulary and new routes to new careers

In order to deal successfully with the changing world of work and their career development, graduates will need a new and different set of skills and attributes — grouped under the heading of 'Self-Reliance' — which underpin the effective learning and transfer of all other skills and knowledge. The report suggests how these skills can be developed, especially within the context of higher education.

The pace of change in business, with global competition, deregulation, and new technology, means organisations must respond rapidly to market demands. The AGR's report says that 'It is impossible to imagine that the skills needed in the workplace will remain the same in the 21st century' (AGR, 1993, p. 4).

Few companies have taken a long hard look at the future world of work and formulated graduate recruitment policies accordingly. The report adds, 'At best, selection is on the basis of the skills of existing staff.' (AGR, 1993, p. 4).

Simply asking employers what they need from graduates is not enough to predict the skills which they will need in the future.

Employers have vastly different requirements, despite the similarities in the language they use. In addition, their requirements are often based on past or, at best, current requirements for the jobs which graduates will initially fill. They are rarely derived from a strategic assessment of the graduates' future roles within the organisation. Employers are also unlikely to take account of the need for graduates to have the skills to know when and how to get a better job with their competitors, not just how to find and keep one.

One of the main reasons for the project was an awareness that, as the Enterprise in Higher Education (EHE) programme of the Department for Education and Employment was ending, relatively few graduates had benefited by being involved in the process (Biggs *et al*, 1994). AGR hopes to gain a more universal acceptance of the principles of EHE throughout higher education.

The research examined the changes taking place in graduate careers in order to predict the kinds of skills they will need as a result.

3. New careers

In the new world of work, careers are very different. Gone is the job for life with its planned career structure and company training scheme. Gone is the clear functional identity and the progressive rise in income and security. Instead there is a world of customers and clients, adding value, lifelong learning, portfolio careers, self-development and an overwhelming need to stay employable.

The new vocabulary	
From	To
Ladders & Escalators	Bridges
Career Clarity	Fog
Employer	Customer
Job	Adding Value
Functional Identity	Project Team Role
Career	Portfolio
Progression	Personal Growth
Rising Income & Security	Maintaining Employability
Education & Training	Lifelong Learning

Many organisations are either down-sizing, delayering, outsourcing, re-engineering, globalising, collaborating, and forming multi-disciplinary teams. The exact pace of change may be uncertain but successful businesses have responded fast.

The changes facing organisations have an effect on graduates' careers and therefore on the skills required. In the past, Self-Reliance skills have been assumed — or neglected — by both employers and higher education. Self-Reliance skills are now to the fore because:

- Career transitions are more frequent
- Graduates need to manage uncertainty and change
- Knowledge rapidly becomes obsolete
- Supporting structures have disappeared
- Staff-student ratios in higher education have increased
- Graduates need to be flexible and adaptable.

In the 21st century the most significant challenge for graduates will be to manage their relationship with work and with learning. This requires skills such as negotiating, action planning and networking, added to qualities like self awareness and confidence. These are the skills required to be self-reliant.

4. *New routes*

For most graduates, the routes into employment are also changing. Graduate training schemes still exist but traditional positions will not absorb the growing number of new graduates. Instead, more are joining SMEs, or intending positions previously filled by school leavers. Even in the larger companies, decentralisation often means that small company conditions exist. (see challenges to SMEs).

5. *New skills*

Self-Reliance skills are the enabling skills which will be essential for graduates to survive in the 21st century. They are the skills to manage a lifetime's progression in learning and work, rather than to do the work itself. They are process skills, and enable people to utilise and transfer all their other skills. This differentiates them from other attributes which graduates need in the workplace.

The Self-Reliant Graduate is aware of the changing world of work, takes responsibility for his or her own career and personal development and is able to manage the relationship with work and with learning throughout all stages of life.

This requires several high level skills and attributes:

Self-awareness:

Able clearly to identify skills, values, interests and other personal attributes. Able to pinpoint core strengths and 'differentiating factors'. Equipped with evidence of abilities (eg summary statement, record or 'portfolio'). Actively willing to seek feedback from others, and able to give constructive feedback. Able to identify areas for personal, academic and professional development.

Self-promotion:

Able to define and promote own agenda. Can identify 'customer needs' (academic/community/employer) and can promote own strengths in a convincing way, both written and orally, selling 'benefits' to the 'customer', not simply 'features'.

Exploring and creating:

Able to identify, create, investigate and seize opportunities. Has research skills to identify possible sources of information, help and support.

Action planning:

Able to plan a course of action which addresses: Where am I now? .Where do I want to be? .How do I get there? .Organising time effectively. Identifying steps needed to reach the goal. Preparing contingency plans. Able to monitor and evaluate progress against specific objectives.

Networking:

Aware of the need to develop networks of contacts. Able to define, develop and maintain a support network for advice and information. Has good telephone skills.

Matching and decision making:

Understands personal priorities and constraints (internal and external). This includes the need for a sustainable balance of work and home life. Able to match opportunities to core skills, knowledge, values, interests etc. Able to make an informed decision based on the available opportunities.

Negotiation:

Able to negotiate the psychological contract from a position of powerlessness. Able to reach 'win/win' agreements.

Political awareness:

Understands the hidden tensions and power struggles within organisations. Aware of the location of power and influence within organisations.

Coping with uncertainty:

Able to adapt goals in the light of changing circumstances. Able to take myriad's of tiny risks.

Development focus:

Committed to lifelong learning. Understands preferred method and style of learning. Reflects on learning from experiences, good and bad. Able to learn from the mistakes of others.

Transfer skills:

Able to apply skills to new contexts (this is a higher level of skill in itself. Skills are not automatically transferable).

Self confidence:

Has an underlying confidence in abilities, based on past successes. Also has a personal sense of self-worth, not dependant on performance.

6. The challenges

In developing these new skills there is a part to be played by employers, higher education and policy makers. The research team consulted a wide range of stakeholders and identified the barriers which have limited the success of previous initiatives such as Enterprise in Higher Education. Overcoming these would enable different organisations to work in partnership so that students can develop the skills of Self-Reliance.

The report provides an action plan to ensure students maximise their employability during their higher education experience. This experience is summarised in the student action plan.

Student Action Plan:

1. Increase your self-awareness
2. Make an informed decision about what, how and where to study
3. Gain relevant work experience
4. Develop skills for the workplace
5. Set aside opportunities to reflect on your learning
6. Explore alternative career options

7. Practice negotiation skills
8. Do something different to stand out from the crowd
9. Don't panic! You don't have to be perfect!

7. Challenges for SMEs

In the 1995 Competitiveness White Paper (HMSO, 1995) the government emphasised the small business sector as a catalyst of economic success. Higher-level skills are also seen as essential, and the expansion of higher education has been the principle means to address this.

In order to make full use of their skills, graduates need new opportunities to apply them. Traditional graduate jobs will not absorb the growing numbers of graduates. SMEs are the likely growth area for graduate employment and they could also provide much of the vacation work experience that undergraduate students need in order to develop their skills. However, no clear strategy is currently in place to ensure that graduate-level skills are effectively applied in the SME sector.

This sector has tended not to recruit graduates in the past. The SMEs' focus is often on the short-term needs of the business, which limits strategic thinking. They need someone immediately for a limited period, whereas graduates/students mostly become available in July and want permanent jobs or six week placements.

Many entrepreneurs are themselves not graduates whom they perceive as high-cost and high-risk — they are not sure what they will get and worry about retention and graduates commitment.

Traditionally, SMEs have had few links with higher education and are unaware of what universities and graduates have to offer. They have few mechanisms for recruiting graduates and recruitment is generally carried out by non-specialists. This means that SMEs find problems in identifying, recruiting and utilising graduates. They need graduates to make an immediate contribution to the business but generally have no formal induction programmes or structured training and development.

While SMEs need to understand the benefits graduates can bring, graduates also need to understand the labour market. Their perceptions are currently skewed by the fact that the traditional graduate jobs are the most vigorously promoted.

8. Recommendations

The AGR report has also outlined several recommendations for action.

8.1. For large employers

1. Employer communication: Creative learning resources should be produced collectively by AGR members in partnership with other stakeholders to ensure that

students and academics have realistic expectations of the changing world of work and the resulting skill requirements.

Individual ACR members can contribute to this by modifying their brochures and other materials to include, for example, profiles of graduates in positions not traditionally requiring a degree.)

Material should also be made available to school leavers and teachers.

2. Graduate utilisation: Employers should develop clear policies on the utilisation of all graduates, especially in non-traditional jobs, including help with their self-development. If this is not addressed, employers' under-use of graduates may be as much of a problem as the failure of higher education to provide the right mix of skills.
3. SME links: AGR member organisations can help improve the level of skills within their small and medium sized suppliers and customers. They should forge closer links with them, aided by local agencies such as Business Link, to assist them with recruitment and university contacts. They should also consider providing training. These links will have such benefits as: facilitating short-term graduate placements, improving supplier and customer relationships, raising the supplier's level of skills and hence quality. Good links could also mean that graduates changing jobs might join a supplier or customer rather than a competitor.

AGR should assist its members in this process by producing generic materials to be provided to SMEs, encouraging and enabling them to recruit graduates.

8.2. For students

Students can also take positive steps to develop their Self-Reliance Skills, following the Action Plan in the report.

8.3. For government

1. Funding Criteria: Universities should be rewarded for excellence in teaching. A system based on research excellence and student numbers alone will exacerbate the current difficulties.
2. SME Awareness: Government resources, should be used to increase SMEs awareness of the benefits of employing graduate-level talent, and to ensure that they are able to recruit and develop them. Initiatives should take place in co-operation with higher education careers services.

The UK's Department for Education and Employment is in the process of placing contracts with a number of universities to develop links with SMEs with a view to encouraging employment of graduates.

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Cultural and racial diversity: implications for guidance and counselling

1. Introduction

The process we use in the way that we work is as important as the content of our work, particularly when we are working with issues of cultural and racial diversity. The purpose of this presentation is to discuss some key issues relating to the guidance and counseling of culturally and racially diverse learners. In a broad sense, diversity includes all the ways in which people differ, by age, background, health condition, ability, language, religion, gender, culture, race and others. This presentation, however, is limited to a focus on differences in cultural and racial backgrounds.

Cultural and racial differences include shared physical characteristics, as well as core values and beliefs that differ between cultural and racial groups. Of course, individual variability also exists within groups. However, because people are members of

specific social groups recognized by the larger society, some group characteristics are ascribed to all members of the group. Physical characteristics include body build and size, skin, hair and eye colour, among other characteristics. Core values are the beliefs and priorities of individuals and entire groups. People often believe so strongly in their core values and beliefs, that they are willing to sacrifice for them. Awareness of this is important for the guidance and counselling function. Some other factors that differ from group to group are life styles, behaviour that is considered acceptable in public and private, and rituals and ceremonies that are observed on a regular basis.

In regard to the subject of this presentation, additional differences exist in whether members of different social groups consider a counselling relationship to be a private or public relationship. Finally, the degree of group political, economic, social and cultural power are as important as the other factors described above. Power and privilege, as well as lack of power and disadvantage, play a large role in peoples' decision making and their beliefs about and pursuit of life long learning.

The behaviours in which members of different groups engage may look strange to people from other cultural groups. Not being aware of these differences can result in a poor counselling relationship if either the counsellor or client does not understand or takes offense at the behaviour of the other person because it does not fit their own cultural norms.

All of these factors, group physical characteristics, core values and beliefs, and degree of power or disadvantage in larger society, strongly influence students' academic experiences, career choices and progression through their work and life experiences. For example, in the Netherlands many people of Turkish and Moroccan background cannot succeed in entering a police job because they do not know how to swim. The ability to swim is a basic requirement for Dutch police officers because of the large number of rivers, lakes and canals in the country and the close geographic proximity they are to people's every day lives. One of the responsibilities of a police officer is to be able to rescue a drowning person. Learning to swim is difficult for adults who have had little, if any, experience with bodies of water as children. This may seem like an artificial barrier to a job as a police officer, but in the Netherlands, it is real.

In regard to authority, cultural differences exist in determining who is the decision maker in peoples' lives, the manager, the mother, father, grandmother or grandfather. Are students expected to make choices for themselves about their own life in matters of education, decision making, career and family creation, or are those choices made for them? For example, when I worked with Chinese-Canadian students in a counselling relationship, I met resistance when I stressed the importance of making independent decisions and taking control of their own lives. In many traditional Chinese families, the family as a group made decisions about its members' lives. For these students, the directions and wishes of their parents were more important than what they wanted, what the counsellor, the school or the work place manager said. When we think about decision making, the person's cultural background, place in the family, religious orientation, and other factors play a powerful role. If we ignore or contradict these factors, we may not be very helpful to our clients.

In terms of power and control, people who come from some cultural and racial backgrounds will encounter prejudice and discrimination on a daily basis in some societies. A classic example is the traditionally different career choice advice that often has been given to female students than to male students. Women have been discouraged from preparing themselves for many areas of work for which men are encouraged to prepare, and vice-versa. In addition, people from different cultural and racial groups may experience harassment because they are members of a group that is different from the majority of the society they live in, or they simply do not have the power that other groups do have.

Counsellors must take these factors into account, as they impact strongly on decision making, life long learning, expectations of the role and person of guidance counselor, and the diverse communication styles we use in the counselling relationship.

2. Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for increased effectiveness in working with culturally and racially diverse students.

- 1) Become aware of your own core values, beliefs and behaviors and how they affect your behavior as a guidance and counseling person. I remember my own Canadian feminist attitudes and the counter effect produced on the traditional Chinese-Canadian students I was counselling.
- 2) Recognize and acknowledge that students' core values, beliefs and behaviour systems may be different from yours and those of your organization. The approach your students take may be very different from the approach of yourself or your institution.
- 3) Define these diverse core values, beliefs, and behaviours as simply different, neither right nor wrong. The moment we judge them, we place limits on our ability to work effectively with culturally and racially diverse students.
- 4) Approach each client as an individual as well as a member of one or more social groups in the larger society. In the Western European context, if you are working with a female Muslim student, you approach her as an individual. However, it is also important to keep in mind that in her social context, gender is important and that her religious beliefs and family may have a large impact on what she may or may not do, and the prices she will have to pay if she chooses to do other than what her family or community expect of her.

These recommendations have four counterpoint 'do not's.' They are:

- 1) Do not make assumptions about individuals based on the stereotypes you have about the groups of which they are a member.
- 2) Do not pretend that you are unbiased. We are all biased. Acknowledge your prejudices and preconceptions and how you collude with stereotypes, prejudices and

discriminatory behaviour of other people and institutions. It is important to know how you, actively or passively, support the prejudices and discrimination in your organizations' cultures and other social systems.

- 3) Do not assume that everyone shares your beliefs and learning preference styles.
- 4) Do not label differences as right or wrong, simply differences.

3. A tool kit for counsellors

For effectiveness as a counsellor, a tool kit of questions is provided here. Counsellors are invited to keep these questions in mind and to use them actively in counselling and guidance encounters, regardless of the ethnocultural or racial background of the client.

First, answer these questions for yourself to acquire self awareness and self knowledge so you are clear about your own assumptions and biases — and therefore hopefully less likely to impose them on the client.

Second, ask and get answers to these questions for your organization. How does your university answer these questions. Take into consideration the mission statement of the institution, and most important, the informal practices that are really making the decision and creating the power and influence in the organization. Quantitative and qualitative data are important for answering these questions. Data on human resources — who are professors or teachers in your institution? How do they break down along gender lines, age lines, cultural and racial diversity lines, religious lines, and any other dimension of diversity that may be salient? How do teachers relate to students in the classroom? Do they respond to women students differently than they respond to male students? Do they respond differently to students who are members of minority groups than students of the majority (or dominant) group?

Third, ask and get answers to these questions from the clients with whom you interact. Create a culturally acceptable way to get the information you need from the client if possible, rather than through third parties who may make assumptions about individuals based on their stereotypes of the social groups of which those individuals are members.

These questions are broken down into five categories: decision making, life long learning, the person and role of counsellor, communication styles, and organizational culture.

4. Decision making

- 1) Do (you) believe in an internal or external locus of control?
- 2) Do (you) believe that you have the power to make your own decisions? In what aspects of (your) life do you have that power? In what aspects of your life do think that you do not have that power?

- 3) How much of the decision making affecting (your) life has been made by yourself or by others?
- 4) How do (you) typically make decisions? Do (you) use more than one method for making decisions? If yes, what are the different ways in which (you) make decisions? What methods are included in (your) decision making repertoire?
- 5) Under what conditions do (you) use which decision making methods? For example, you may use your intuition in some situations, a rational method of identifying pros and cons in other situations, and a force field analysis in yet other situations.
- 6) Who are, and have been, the decision makers in (your) life?
- 7) What meaning do these people or institutions have for (you)? How important are they for (you)?

5. Lifelong learning

- 1) What does the term “life long learner” mean to (you)?
- 2) In what kinds of situations or contexts do (you) think of (yourself) as a learner?
- 3) In what situations, or under what circumstances do (you) find learning inviting, stimulating, exciting, rewarding and fun?
- 4) What are (your) preferred learning styles? In terms of David Kolb’s learning styles, are (you) a concrete experienter, a reflective observer, an abstract conceptualizer, or an active experimenter? In what combination or situation do (you) use these learning styles?
Counselling and guidance is a learning experience for your clients. Their preferred learning styles will give you information about the counselling style(s) that may be most useful to them.
- 5) What is (your) strategy for creating continuous lifelong learning opportunities for yourself and others?

6. The person and role of counselor

In regard to your clients from culturally and racially diverse backgrounds:

- 1) With what kinds of issues do they find it helpful to talk with someone (educational issues, personal issues, religious issues, health issues, etc.)?
- 2) Under what circumstances do they find it helpful to talk with someone?
- 3) Whom do they think of going to when they need someone to talk with about issues that concern them? Is it an acceptable practice in their background to go to a stranger for counselling, or does the culture create an expectation that the role of counsellor is to be filled only by specifically designated members of the community such as a parent, grandparent, community elder, religious leader, or teacher)?

- 4) How do clients expect people with whom they talk about their concerns to behave? What do they expect them to do when they come to them with their questions or problems? Some people will expect the counsellor to give advice, to make their decisions for them. You will need to find a way to help clients understand what your expectations of this relationship are and what you see your role to be. It may be necessary to find a middle ground where they have some sense of comfort and direction, at the same time as they learn how to make sense of their own direction. Do they expect some kinds of physical contact (holding their hand, a hug) or is this taboo in a counselling relationship?
- 5) What do counsellors do that the client finds helpful?
- 6) What do counsellors do that they find hindering and unhelpful?
- 7) What is the meaning of going to a professional counsellor to the client?

Remember to ask these questions of yourself, your institutions, and then of your individual clients.

7. Communication styles

Think about your own preferred communication style and the communication styles of the other person. What are their preferred communication styles?

- 1) Verbal — direct, indirect, through story telling, metaphors?
- 2) Written — through letters, diary and journal entries? It may be helpful for clients, who experience verbal communication as difficult, to encourage them to keep a journal that they are willing to share with the counsellor or to write letters that can be read aloud at the counselling session.
- 3) Visual — through visualization, dreams, drawing, painting, sculpting, photographs, and other visual means?

Find ways to help clients maximize the communication you have with each other using whatever styles are most comfortable and expressive for them. Develop your own ability to relate effectively and comfortably to these different communication styles.

8. Organizational culture

Organizational culture is a critical factor in all of the issues discussed above. The messages that students receive from the university about decision making, life long learning, the person and role of counsellor, and communication styles say more to them than educational materials and what we say to them as guidance counsellors. They also get these messages from the larger society. However while they are a member of the institution of higher education, the formal and informal messages that the university sends may be the most profound messages that they get and to which they pay real attention both at a conscious and unconscious level.

- 1) Is the culture of your educational institution hospitable to and inclusive of cultural and racial diversity?
- 2) Are culturally and racially diverse role models present in and connected to your educational institution? Do your culturally and racially diverse clients see themselves reflected in any of their professors, in any of the department heads, any of the officers, any of the board members of the institution or the institutions in the larger community that relate to it? Do the annual reports and other materials issued by the institution include pictures of any people other than white middle class people dressed in business suits?
- 3) What messages do culturally and racially diverse students receive from your organization about the following issues:
 - a) Their capacity for life long learning: Are culturally and racially diverse students encouraged to participate in post-graduate education, to achieve a masters or doctoral degree? Are they encouraged to pursue non-traditional ways of learning and behaving in terms of their professional career goals?
 - b) Do students have the freedom and support to make decisions about matters that affect them or are decisions made for them by the institution?
 - c) Are the appropriate guidance and counselling services, as well as other forms of support available and accessible to culturally and racially diverse students to the same degree that they are available to the main stream majority group? While education, guidance, and support may be available, it is not as often accessible. Both concepts need to be actualized with the emphasis on accessibility in addition to availability. For example, counselling services may be available to everyone, but if they are only available at certain hours when some students cannot take advantage of them, or if they are available only in the dominant language, recent immigrant students may be find them accessible.

The culture of your organization speaks the loudest to your students, particularly your culturally and racially diverse students. Counsellors and guidance workers need to see themselves as agents of cultural change in their organization, as well as counsellors of individuals or small groups of students. Both roles are essential. You will have limited success as an individual guidance or counselling person if you do not also become an agent of positive change in your organization, so that you and your students have structural support for the work you are doing together in providing and receiving the best and most appropriate and accessible guidance and counselling services possible.

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Special need to strive forward

1. Introduction

Yesterday I received an exultant message on my texttelephone from Marije Schadee that she has taken her degree of Master in law and she invited me for the celebration. Marije is a student who is deaf.

Five years ago she sat amongst others in the waiting room of my office. I called her name but nobody responded. After my second call Marije pointed her finger to herself with an asking face. I did not know that I had an appointment with a student who is deaf. I remember that the start of this first conversation with Marije was difficult because I was not prepared for it. Apparently I need some time to gather my skills to communicate with someone who is deaf. My experience is that after a conversation with a deaf or hearing impaired student I remain using these skills, intensively focussing and carefully pronouncing for half an hour. So I have to make an effort to communicate with her. Observations prove that people with disabilities are neglected or avoided by fear.

A Dutch female author who suffers from ME (myalgic encefalomyelitis) writes: 'In our culture exists such a unwillingness to recognise the vulnerability of human beings, that those who show this vulnerability, the ill and the disabled and in a certain way also the elderly people, are under moral obligation to pretend that everything is fine. Accept your ailment! Get ready with it! Don't trouble us!' (Dorestein, 1993, p. 114).

Marije had most of her secondary education on a regular school. So she knew that she was one of the most intelligent pupils in her class. Therefore she took it for granted that she had to go to the university. She was a good student, was a member of the students' corps, had many friends, is a member of the committee for the recognition of Dutch sign language as an official language and she probably will get a job on academic level in the department of Wellfare, Health and Sports.

Yesterday's message is like nectar, for a student counsellor. But the stories are not allways so successfull.

2.. Disability and our society

One of the core values of democracy is to respect minorities. My proposition is: the extent of participation of minorities on public life is decisive for the quality of democracy.

United Nations (1993), Unesco (1994), the European Union (1993), many national governments and institutions have formulated their policy on the integration of people with disabilities, impairnesses and chonical illnesses in society.

This integration however is often a bitter disappointment. National governments aiming to join the European Monitary Union, reduce social aid programmes. They mitigate restricting laws. Everywhere you can see that the intentions for integration of people with disabilities in the labour market are not realised. The dominating economic regime, I call it economism: no-nonsens, efficiency, compete on the global market, has nearly become a new religion. To sin against the rules results in punishment. A lot of managers pretend that they would like to follow their conscience, to fulfil their social responsibility, and employ people with disabilities, but that higher authority forbids it.

Even governments do not meet their own regulations. A captain of industry in the Netherlands said to one of his friends who has a severe disability: 'Just let me compete on the market with a minimum of regulations and I can guarantee you a good benefit through your whole life. When you want me to implement complex social programmes in my industry, I can't compete with industries in the United States, Asia and Eastern Europe and I have to move to a country with less regulations.'

Leading economists, like the Dutch economist Van Wijnbergen (1996), say that the practice of the strict ideology of the global market in Europe is an artefact of misunderstanding between people who control the techniques, but don't see the problems on one hand and on the other hand those who know the problems but don't control the techniques.

In the prevailing conditions of large unemployment employers prefer to engage workers they are familiar with: the young, white, well-educated, healthy men and women. There is no reflection of society in companies and institutions but a reflection of the image of the employers. This is the result of the short-term acting of economism. Industries have a declining commitment with local communities. They settle where they expect most profit. The interests of the employees are more and more subordinated to the laws of economism. That's why they are not really interested in the pluriformity of society.

Like Van Esbroeck (1996) said in the 'Introduction to the Summer School Programma', there is a danger that the backbone of society, of social strength and coherence will be sacrificed on the altar of the global market of economism.

3. Students with disabilities in higher education

The aim of universities is to educate the potential intelligence of the country and to recruit them for scientific research and education. A physical disability mostly doesn't effect the intellectual capacity, the motivation and the ambition of a person. According to the above mentioned policies of the United Nations, the European Union and governments, universities have the obligation to support highly gifted students with disabilities by conducting them to an academic level corresponding to their intellectual and social abilities.

When you understand why young men and women want to win the olympic games, when you observe how they fight to develop their talents and to prepare themselves for these games, when you understand why young men and women want to win the paralympics, you perhaps can understand why students with a severe disability put on all their talents and fight to overcome all obstacles in order to reach the highest top in university.

An increasing number of pupils with disabilities, chronically illnesses, learning disabilities or psychical illnesses enters higher education. This has been caused by better expert support in primary and secondary education, by integration in mainstream education, by better comparison of talent, by the emancipation movement of people with disabilities, by technical support, by following the example of those who are successful.

Still higher education feels a bit strange in regard to these freshmen. There are insufficient experts on universities and there is a lack of awareness. Besides economism also conquers higher education. The institutions of higher education suffered for years from the massive increase of students. The earnings don't grow, on the contrary they decrease dramatically. Therefore higher education pays more attention to efficiency, conciseness and selection. It pays less attention to the individual. The reduction of public funding of scholarships and of universities in general increases the pressure on fast progress of study. The studyload is heavier. Professors have to support more students better in less time. Students are expected to invest financially in their future, to take a mortgage. Universities are more and more conducted like industries of science.

4. Consequences for students with disabilities

Students with disabilities are, due to the present societal attitudes and the attitudes within higher education, in danger to be isolated and not to be able to meet the demands. These students even will hesitate to start an higher education programme.

There are examples that also in the past students with disabilities sometimes received strong support. They were excellent students who achieved good results. They were supported by professors, who were individually prepared to look after their well-being. It is remarkable that this support was often seen as a favour, a sacrifice of the professors, sometimes like a nineteenth century act of well-doing of the higher socio-economic classes. There was a reluctance to establish rights, obligations and the systematic construction of provisions where all students with disabilities could appeal to.

Universities, aware of their responsibilities to students with disabilities, will develop a welcoming and support structure. It is remarkable that on the short term universities take financial advantage of it when they don't develop such a structure, because parents and pupils in general will not insist on application when they meet unwillingness or ignorance. When you don't give attention to blind or visual impaired people, they will not enter your institution. When you as an institution are not aware of dyslexia, there will be no students with dyslexia at your university.

It is important that the university has an open and well-known office, responsible for welcoming, coordinating and supporting students with disabilities. The office should be conducted by academic educated experts who have a broad experience with students with disabilities and with the implications that disabilities have on the educational career.

Medical specialists or members of communities of interest often show only a restricted view on the problems. Most of them don't know what kind of obstacles youngsters with a handicap are confronted with in higher education.

As an example I want to tell you about one of my experiences. A girl with a sight-impairment that caused that she couldn't read under uncontrolled light-conditions, was advised by her eye-specialist to read only at home under controlled conditions. In the day-time she only could attend lectures. She lost a lot of time and money by detainment. The eye-specialist probably didn't know of or was not interested in the existence of spoken books, nor the possibility of using a computer as a screen reader nor the help of a reading help. When I informed her hereabout she was absolute surprised that her books could be presented to her by sound. After two month she doubled her study-progress.

Only people with authority in the institution, trained as a counsellor for students with disabilities, acquainted with casuistry and ready listening to the knowledge of the students involved, can have a dispatching function in the institution (Van Acker, 1996). They can solve many problems in a often simple way.

It is important that students with disabilities are conducted to be independent as soon and as far as possible. They should take their own future in their own hands.

These students should develop in higher education the important ability of decision making, a preparation for long-life learning, and to develop themselves as persons that

can live as independent as possible. Students with special needs are required to be their own steward. They need a continuous planning. They should be aware of their strengthes and weaknesses. They have to study to be an explicit expert on their own needs.

It is important that they have the best information about the most recent developments. Students who are blind for instance have a lot of benefit by using braillelines connected to computers. The development of grafic programmes however is a new obstacle for them. To conquer these obstacles is a constant source of inspiration. It is important that they will be continuously informed about new developments to control these grafic presentations.

Students should discover that there abilities are not totally defined by their disability. They should learn that they can exploit their strenghtes, that they can present themselves as academics that know exactly what they want and that they manage the abilities they need for a job. Special application courses for students with disabilities, as offered at the University of Amsterdam, can help them to grow to these discoveries.

To their employers they shouldn't say: 'would you please be so kind to employ me', but: 'these are the abilities I have to offer you, and I have this knowledge and skills you need'. On the guidance of university students with disabilities, there is almost no literature. That is not so strange, then only when the people involved claim their rights, society slowly start to consider changes (Sacks, 1989).

5. Conclusion

Oliver Sacks wrote the book 'A leg to stand on' (1984). This book describes the experiences of a physician as a patient and gives the story of the development of awareness.

We all should have the experience visiting our university in a wheelchair, try to get a book from the library, visit our secretary and make a quick drive to the toilet.

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La Formation des adultes en Catalogne

Une nouvelle politique de formation des adultes en Catalogne

La Catalogne s'est constituée comme Communauté Autonome en 1979, en accord avec la Constitution espagnole de 1978. En Janvier 1981, le gouvernement de la Generalitat assume les pleines compétences en matière d'éducation et par conséquent de l'éducation des adultes, et c'est au Département de l'Enseignement qu'est attribuée cette mission.

En 1988, pendant la troisième législature, le Gouvernement de la Generalitat crée le Département du Bien-Être Social et lui attribue la formation des adultes sous l'appellation Direction Générale des Affaires Sociales et plus tard D.G. de la Formation des Adultes.

Ce changement d'attribution manifeste la volonté du gouvernement de donner à la formation des adultes une nouvelle impulsion dans le sens de rendre possible non pas seulement la formation instrumentale et la formation de base pour les personnes qui n'ont pas pu les entreprendre à l'âge normal, mais surtout l'actualisation, la reconversion et le perfectionnement des connaissances et des habilités, en vue d'exercer une profession ou un métier qui réponde aux exigences du déroulement social et du changement constant du système productif dans le monde du travail.

On a voulu encore insister sur un troisième aspect, celui de la formation dans les domaines des loisirs et la culture, comprise comme dimension de la formation d'adultes qui cherchent à utiliser leur temps libre et la vacance née du chômage, et comme approfondissement des valeurs civiques, à travers une plus grande participation à la vie sociale et la connaissance de la réalité sociale et culturelle de la Catalogne.

En somme ce changement a été beaucoup plus qu'un fait administratif: un modèle catalan de formation des adultes est né et, dans ce sens, le gouvernement a organisé toute une série d'actions où l'information et l'orientation ont un rôle très important.

L'organisation de la formation des adultes

La réalisation des décisions politiques a mené au développement de plusieurs initiatives:

1. Créer la Direction Générale de Formation des Adultes et des sections de coordination dans chaque territoire.
2. Créer un centre de ressources exclusif à la formation des adultes.
3. Créer un Conseil Assesseur avec une grande participation sociale, dans lequel participent non seulement tous les Départements de la Generalitat qui touchent à la formation avec de programmes spécifiques, mais aussi les présidents des Conseils Sociaux des Universités, les syndicats les plus représentatifs du pays, les fédérations et associations de municipales (comparables à une commune) de la Catalogne et aussi les entités non gouvernementales concernant la formation des adultes, les représentants d'entreprises et des personnes qui en font partie à titre personnel en raison de la signification qu'il revêt.
4. Inventaire de la formation des adultes en Catalogne (1989)
Cet inventaire a été l'un des outils les plus importants pour mettre en pratique la formation des adultes dans sa nouvelle formule. L'information essentielle qui en résulte fait référence au niveau d'instruction de la population. Parmi les plus de six millions de personnes qui habitent en Catalogne, 4.680.000 sont âgées de plus de 14 ans. Les 60 % d'habitants de plus de 14 ans n'ont pas le diplôme de Graduat Escolar (premier diplôme qu'on obtient en réussissant l'Enseignement Général de Base — formation obligatoire de base jusqu'à aujourd'hui). Devant cette situation, nous avons augmenté de 34% le nombre de professeurs dans les établissements de formation des adultes de Catalogne et l'on est ainsi arrivé à un effectif total de 540 professeurs.
5. Programme de formation à distance: "Graduï's. Ara pot"
Le programme comporte trois éléments:
 - 155 programmes de TV, d'une durée d'émission de 30 minutes tous les jours, du lundi au vendredi, sur la Chaîne 33 de la TV publique catalane.
 - Des cahiers d'exercices qui constituent un support aux programmes de télévision. Trois cahiers pour chaque matière, un par trimestre.
 - Un téléphone de consultation gratuit.
6. Les Centres d'Autoformation.
Des espaces ouverts équipés techniquement pour que l'élève puisse visionner les unités didactiques en harmonie avec son rythme d'apprentissage et sa disponibilité et, en même temps, travailler dans le centre avec l'aide de professeurs disponibles.
7. La Loi de formation des adultes.
Un élément déterminant du lancement d'une politique de progrès sur la formation des adultes en Catalogne a été la Loi 3/1991 sur la formation des adultes, qui a été adoptée par le Parlement de Catalunya à l'unanimité et qui est née dans un grand consensus qu'il vaut la peine de signaler.

Tous ces dispositifs ont contribué à la réalisation d'une formation des adultes qui comprend la formation pratique et de base, la formation professionnelle et la formation aux loisirs et à la culture. Il faut mentionner aussi la formation des formateurs, la for-

mation à la recherche, à la programmation et à la coordination. La coordination interdépartementale est aussi une des caractéristiques du modèle Catalan pour la formation des adultes.

Projection internationale et politique régionale européenne.

Nous pensons que la qualité de la formation des adultes peut s'enrichir grâce à la participation régionale au sein des institutions européennes. Tel a été un des résultats de nos débats et réflexions pendant le IIIème Congrès International de Formation des Adultes de Catalunya.

Régionalisation et intégration européennes sont deux processus complémentaires et liés. En ce qui concerne l'éducation, nous devons en appeler au Comité des Régions créé par l'Union Européenne comme organisme de participation régional dans la prise de décisions européennes. Cela peut signifier pour les régions une augmentation considérable de leur participation dans la conception, la gestion et l'évaluation des programmes communautaires et aussi le développement de réseaux d'information et d'orientation pour rapprocher de la communauté éducative le nouveau contexte offert par le Marché unique. La qualité de l'éducation pourra s'enrichir de cette participation régionale pendant cette année — 1996 —, proclamée 'Année Européenne de l'Education et la Formation tout au long de la vie'. Des textes comme le 'Livre Blanc Education-Formation: vers une société cognitive' et le Document de la Commission: 'Construire une société de l'information pour tous' sont des documents permettant de réfléchir sur la nécessité de préparer les individus à la prise de décision en formation continue.

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Continuing education, global learning and decision making

Introduction

The world learning situation is faced with one clear and universal fact, and that is the inevitability of change. Change comes, in some cases, through changes in technology, changes brought about by legislation, changes in the values and aspirations of people. Perhaps the single most pervasive change that has occurred in our lifetimes has been the geometrical progression of technological change or the 'knowledge explosion'. It is arguable that we have not acquired globally the skills of adapting to new changes effectively, and we tend to use new technology in minimal ways.

Accepting the inevitability of change, there ought to be a corresponding change in learning methods and adaptive techniques. The adult learning brings to the learning situation his historicity, culture, needs and aspirations. If these are not understood, respected and satisfied, he may learn in spite of the system rather than because of it.

Traditional and modern educational systems

The learning situation is often perceived as that in which 'those who do not know' learn from 'those who know'. The tendency to recognize teacher and learner in absolute terms produces a learning environment in which 'dependency' and behaviours, broadly categorized as 'immature' are learner values. Educational processes and institutions tend to reward these dependent and 'immature' responses.

We know from studies of human learning that adults learn best when:

1. They play a part in defining what they need to learn;
2. The learner is motivated to learn;
3. The new learning does not conflict with previously learned attitudes and behaviour;
4. The learning can be transferred and channelled from the learning situation to other situations and can be appropriately used;
5. The learner is active in the learning process rather than a passive receptor of information;
6. Counselling or guidance is available to encourage, reinforce and help develop new resources.

We know that educational attempts designed to assist people develop a motive have a better chance of success when:

1. The person feels that he can and ought to develop the motive;
2. It is reasonable, rational and realistic that he do so;
3. He can identify the impinging behaviours and associated elements to be learned in achieving a motive;
4. He can link these learned skills to related actions in everyday life;
5. He perceives a new motive as an improvement of self and improvement on prevailing norms;
6. Through counselling, he can keep a record of concrete steps in the achievement of the new motive and be openly and wondrously encouraged and supported in doing so.

From these principles we can see implications for education generally and can note conflicts between older and modern educational systems. In order to demonstrate this, we may attempt to put into juxtaposition some features of what we may term 'traditional' educational methodologies with 'modern' approaches (see diagram). The approaches categorized 'modern' take much from developments in the field of counselling, and indeed 'counsellor' seems an appropriate role for the teacher or educational facilitator. The 'modern' approaches are permeated by a quest: 'learning to learn'.

There are, however, worries concerning 'modern' learning models which are currently being expressed:

1. Self-set goals may be inadequate in capitalizing effectively on the mutual resources of teacher and learner. Change may be occurring and advances progressing at such a rate that interactively set goals¹ would more nearly encompass resources available.
2. Socialization may introduce deterministic undertones to the detriment of individuality and small group identity. To this the popularity of the 'small is beautiful' concept lends support. We may need 'a system of shared socio-academic education' that supports individuality and group identity.
3. 'Tolerance for ambiguity' may produce a tentativeness or inertia that would retard action. We may need systems that produce more active, human value imbued, assertiveness.
4. Non-directive coaching and counselling may prove sedative rather than stimulating. It may not utilize maximally mutual resources. We may need to aspire toward more interactive, stimulating and adaptive counselling techniques so that we may productively work on information and needs in meeting challenges effectively.

Because of these reservations regarding the 'modern' systems and approaches, we may need to develop more appropriate 'future' models and strategies. Some speculative 'future' solutions are suggested in the diagram:

¹ By this is meant a formulation of objectives that takes account of the needs of the learner, the insight, experience and knowledge of the educator; and what is known of the science or topic at any given time.

Diagram:

Educational methodologies			
	Traditional	Modern	Future
1. Purpose	Dissemination of knowledge	Self-set objectives and selection of appropriate information to achieve them	Consciously interactively set goals
2. Focus	Development of self	Socialization of the individual	Shared socio-academic education and identification
3. Desired product	Certainty	Tolerance for ambiguity	Human value imbued assertions
4. Counselling interventions	Authoritarian	Non-directive	Interactive / proactive / adaptive

The need to develop more adaptive counselling strategies corresponds well with the now well-established need among students and job seekers to develop 'personal transferable skills' which many regard as the key to helping learners adapt to a rapidly changing world. There is agreement that among these skills or competences the following are critical: *teamworking*, *communications skills* (verbal, written, electronic); *managing / organizing skills* and *problem solving skills* (including mathematical, computational and information technology skills). Many students have had experiences, both within their course work and otherwise, to develop these skills but they do not always do themselves justice when projecting their skills and abilities to employers in their application requirements and, more importantly, to assess their own skills, interests, abilities and strengths, in choosing wisely and in making the most of their efforts in job seeking. How do we plan systems and strategic interventions that will encourage the development of these competences?

Conclusions

Educational systems need to take account of the holistic development of the individual and the preparation of the learner to adapt their newly acquired skills/knowledge to a rapidly changing world.

These adaptive skills may be developed consciously within the programmes of study or incidentally to them. Skills of adapting to work may be facilitated by Careers Education programmes within the curriculum; or by parallel services such as that carried out traditionally in the Careers Services of the universities in Britain and Ireland. The development of these competences, essential in lifelong learning, ought not be left to chance.

In some speculative and anticipatory thoughts on these issues can be mused that traditional educational methodologies and counselling strategies no longer are help-

ful. The dissemination of knowledge, the development of self and the aspiration towards certainty are not valid goals, especially delivered in an authoritarian fashion, so we have tended in modern times towards selfset objectives, socialization of the individual, tolerance for ambiguity and a non-directive counselling approach. What may now be needed are: interactively set goals; a sharing of socioacademic educational aims; a consensus on human value imbued assertions and creative, proactive and adaptive counselling techniques.

The purpose, focus, desired product and counselling interventions appropriate to our educational systems have been described here in 'traditional' and 'modern' systems. Some reservations have been expressed regarding 'modern' approaches that have developed. And some tentative solutions have been suggested for 'future' structures and approaches. Other possible solutions and adaptations may well be equally valid.

These may be related to recent developments and experiences in careers work:

- within careers services, how can we maximally use information technology?
- there are increased changes within our clients, perhaps they are more secretive, liable to have 'blowouts'.
- there are increased demands on counselling services.
- within our institution perhaps there is a need to see ourselves as part of the wider 'mission statement' of the institution and inform and gain acceptance from our academic colleagues, groups and committees.



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European universities and lifelong learning

Introduction

One of the recommendations of the classical UNESCO report "Apprendre à être" (1972) was to regard recurrent education as a basic principle of all educational systems. The report, prepared by an International Committee chaired by Edgar Faure, expressed views on lifelong learning which at the time were already common in trade and industry and also various professions had already developed systems of continuing education opportunities for their members. Since that date an ever increasing amount of money is spent on education and training to keep the skills of the working population up to the required mark. University involvement in this still developing market is relatively low: although various university sub-units already have a long tra-

dition of organizing continuing education activities, it was only in the nineties that lifelong learning became a serious topic on the agenda of university policy makers (cf. Teichler, 1990; Ojala, 1992).

In 1991 the European Universities Continuing Education Network (EUCEN) was founded. EUCEN's working definition for continuing education (CE) includes as the main types:

- free liberal education: the main motivation for participation to this type of CE is personal growth;
- continuing vocational education: participants aim at continuing professional development, with varying objectives: (i) updating knowledge and skills necessary for adequate performing their profession, (ii) widening knowledge to cover other areas, due to the need to co-operate with colleagues from different disciplines, and (iii) developing management skills, due to moving up to managerial tasks;
- second chance education: education resumed after an interval following completion of some form of initial education.

Continuing education in the European universities

The reluctance of universities to become more active in the area of continuing education, is a recurrent topic on the EUCEN-agenda, although Fleming (1995) argued that the picture is less negative than suggested. For the British situation he distinguishes various types of universities, some of which (e.g. the former polytechnics) are much more active in their interaction with their environment than others (e.g. the old classical universities). In their provision of continuing education different types of universities tend to have different orientations: a demand oriented ("responding") approach by universities such as the former polytechnics vs. a supply oriented ("down-loading") approach by the classical universities. In this context it might be noted that the relation between a university and its environment will also depend on the type of study. In those areas related to university-trained professions the relation will be most close and it is no coincidence that university CE is most strongly developed for disciplines such as medicine, engineering and law.

Though apparently there are notable exceptions, the overall picture shows lack of satisfactory involvement in continuing education of the majority of European universities and it was no surprise that the Memorandum on Higher Education, issued by the European Commission in December 1991, challenged higher education institutes and national governments to reconsider the importance of university continuing education and to give it a sufficiently high priority. The arguments used in this document to emphasize the importance of continuing education, are mainly of an economic nature.

In its reaction to the Memorandum, EUCEN (1992) welcomes the general recommendations included in this document, but regrets that the social and cultural needs of the people of Europe are much less well recognized.

Despite all rethoric and efforts and the presence of some good examples, most universities still do not regard continuing education as a part of their central mission. What are the reasons for this situation? Is the university still an ivory tower or are there respectable explanations? Let us consider the various types of CE mentioned above.

As for *second chance education* many European universities do have quite a number of students subscribed as part-time students, so there is no lack of involvement here. This is not so surprising, because second chance education actually falls within the ordinary task of a university: it is basically regular academic education with the sole difference that it is generally also provided as a part-time study to fit the specific target group.

As for the opportunities for *free liberal education*: in my view the first characteristic aspect for UCE mentioned above, implies that free liberal education should be an important task for a university, because universities have a clear cultural and social function as centers of critical reflection on culture and society. This specifically applies to the "broad" universities and maybe to a lesser extent to the more vocationally oriented universities, such as technological universities or business and administration oriented universities. Although many universities deploy some activities in this area (one can for example think of education for senior citizens, the universities of the third age), it is my view that universities are generally lacking in their duty in this respect. An important factor contributing to this might be the funding problem. Subscription fees must be substantial to make it attractive or even feasible for universities to provide this type of education, but participants are generally individuals who cannot afford to pay high fees. A partial solution to the financial problem might be the offering of 'special status enrolment' opportunities: allowing adults to subscribe to specific courses in principle designed for the regular students, but with enough 'empty benches' to accept additional students.

As for *continuing vocational education*: money seems not to be the real problem, because one might expect this form of continuing education to be self-financing. Apparently there are other barriers which are not easy to overcome.

In the first place, academics mainly focus on research and their academic performance is judged by their scientific production. For many academic staff teaching is an inevitable burden, so they tend to do the minimum in this respect and most of them are not eager to take up additional teaching tasks, certainly not if it does not provide some additional award.

Next, the content of what is being taught at the university develops along with progress in specific disciplines. For average academics keeping up with scientific developments is at the core of their activities, so teaching about this won't be a problem. But, post-initial education for adults with working experience makes higher demands than merely being up-to-date in a specific discipline. CE students require a completely different didactical approach and what's more, their main concern regards practical problems which cannot easily be caught within one discipline. The fact that in many cases (with notable exceptions, of course) contacts between universities and the world of work (industry, business, the various professions, etc.) are weak, is only

adding to this problem. It is clear that these contacts are crucial if the university is to offer something of value in the field of continuing professional development.

Finally, probably the most difficult barrier to overcome is the clear tension between the problem-orientedness and pragmatic attitude of professionals on the one hand and the emphasis on quality and scientific integrity which is characteristic for academic work on the other.

Conclusions

Nevertheless, in spite of the difficulties, all universities have an obligation to make the outcomes of their knowledge production available to the world of work and that one of the ways to do this is by providing continuing education opportunities. However, the barriers mentioned above should be taken seriously. In any case universities should only contribute to continuing vocational education with their specific strengths, as referred to in EUCEN's response to the Memorandum on Higher Education, as a leaving point. To be able to meet the demands of their potential clients, universities should exert themselves to reduce the gap between themselves and the world of work and seek closer collaboration with experts from industry, business and the professions.

Once a university has taken the fundamental decision to include continuing education in its central mission, a number of questions arise: firstly the problem of motivating staff by finding appropriate incentives and furthermore additional questions concerning organisation, deliverance, teaching methods, the role of modern communication technology and distant learning, the relation between the central and the decentral level, costing and pricing, etc.

And as soon as a university enters this path, it will discover that the development will affect initial education as well. It means that a new balance is needed between initial and post-initial education. The insight will grow that initial education should (further) reduce the load of factual and descriptive knowledge, that it should not teach primarily *what* to think but *how* to think (cf. Dillemans, 1996), in summary: that it has to guide students in becoming independent lifelong learners.

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CHOIX - aider des élèves du secondaire dans les processus de prise de décision

Le système Choix

Choix est un système interactif d'aide à l'orientation professionnelle. Intégré dans un processus individuel de guidance professionnelle, il permet aux utilisateurs une auto-évaluation et un élargissement de l'horizon professionnel. Au terme d'un dialogue systématique avec le programme, l'utilisateur aboutit, non seulement à la prononciation de choix possibles; mais surtout à l'élaboration de stratégies de décisions, transférables à des choix futurs.

Les origines de Choix se situent dans le Service Emploi et Immigration du Canada (1980) qui s'était posé des questions par rapport à la réinsertion professionnelle des chômeurs et des émigrés en ce qui concerne les tendances psychologiques, sociales et économiques d'un métier et d'un choix professionnel. En partant d'une base pratique et réaliste: des entretiens avec des professionnels de chaque métier, a été établie une nomenclature de métiers.

En partant de cette base ont été élaborés différents critères de choix. La nomenclature des métiers et les critères choisis sont spécifiques pour chaque pays individuel. Dans l'atelier concerné ont été faites la démonstration de la version française de Choix, mais en même temps on a commenté et illustré les procédures de travail concernant les critères des experts qui ont travaillé dans les différents pays. Ainsi apparaissent par exemple des 'culturalités' spécifiques: le fait qu'en Hollande (1983) on dissimule les métiers militaires ou la liste exemplaire de toutes les adhésions possibles à des églises différentes dans les programmes Américains. Ceci est en contraste avec les versions

'Belges' (Choices Vlaanderen (1994) - Choix Wallonnie (1991)) où ce critère ne figure pas parmi les facteurs déterminés dans le choix professionnel.

Le but essentiel est de stimuler chez l'élève (ou l'adulte) un processus d'auto-évaluation. Choix n'est pas un test mais un bilan d'auto-évaluation concernant différents aspects des relations entre la propre personnalité (intérêts, valeurs — valeurs de travail et valeurs personnelles, capacités, tempéraments,...) et les différents métiers (domaines professionnelles, activités physiques, horaires et déplacements, milieu de travail). A travers des savoirs faire et des savoirs être Choix permet à découvrir certains aspects de sa personnalité en relation avec le monde du travail et en relation avec le monde des études. Cette découverte ne doit pas mener à une formulation d'un choix professionnel clair et restraint, mais plutôt à oser prendre la liberté de formuler plusieurs choix possibles dans des étapes différentes de la vie de l'individu. L'effet recherché est surtout d'aider le jeune — mais aussi ses parents et ses instituteurs — à clarifier ses intentions de donner sens à sa vie, comment il veut se réaliser dans la vie.

Le processus d'orientation étant un processus continu au même titre que la formation

Le rôle des conseillers dans ce processus est encore plus prononcée. Et cela demande une formation spécifique puisque dorénavant le conseiller travaille dans une autre relation: client — ordinateur — conseiller. Les conseillers ont une grande responsabilité dans 'élaboration du programme en soi. Choix n'est pas 'un programme sur ordinateur qu'on sait acheter et utiliser sans plus', et dont ils ne se sentent pas responsable du contenu.

Tous les conseillers peuvent contribuer à la consistance interne du programme, puisqu'ils sont invité à collaborer à la détermination de tout les critères de Choix. Ce sont eux qui déterminent les descriptions des professions, en partant de Systèmes de classifications existentes et contrôlées (p.e. Office National d'Information Sur l'Enseignements et les Professions (1977), Bureau International du Travail (1969), Worker Trade Group Guide (1988)); c'est eux qui font la codification de chaque profession sur les différents critères. Cela signifie que, dans Choix, ce sont les conseillers eux-mêmes qui peuvent/ doivent prendre leur responsabilité de la nomenclature utilisé, en tant qu' 'expert de l'orientation d'études'. Par le biais d'un tel programme, les experts doivent prendre leur responsabilité concernant 'épistémologie' de leur fonction, ceci toujours en travail intégré avec tous les parties impliquées: les professionnels, les élèves, le monde du travail,...

Ainsi, Choix peut contribuer à une meilleure structuration du processus de l'orientation d'études dans les centres P.M.S., dans les Services Universitaires d'orientation des étudiants, dans les services de l'emploi, où même, comme en France, dans les services de réorientation des entreprises.

Les points de discussion

Malgré les avantages évidents, il en reste encore quelques points de discussion :

1. Le problème de l'information.

Notre déficit est de l'impuissance. En tant qu'experts, nous sommes confrontés chaque jour, tout comme nombre de nos clients, à notre ignorance. Aucune des parties concernées ne dispose d'informations suffisamment précises au sujet du monde du travail actuel et futur. Des informations de première main sont vraiment indispensables en la matière.

Pourtant, il n'y a de nos jours pas de manque d'informations. On assiste même à une véritable commercialisation des informations en matière de choix des études et de la profession. L'entrée de nouvelles technologies comme Internet ne facilitera pas le contrôle de la qualité et l'objectivité de l'information. Il existe un besoin urgent de techniques de 'gestion de l'information' et de recherche scientifique fondamentale dirigée vers les besoins réels d'information parmi les jeunes.

2. Le fossé grandissant entre la théorie et la pratique au sein de l'orientation professionnelle.

La théorie actuelle, bien établie, sur laquelle est fondé le modèle d'orientation ci-dessus (Super, 1957) réduit trop nettement la réalité à quelques facteurs : les différences individuelles entre les individus en ce qui concerne les capacités, l'intérêt et les valeurs (auto-concept) sont confrontées à plusieurs alternatives de choix (élargissement de l'horizon). C'est sur ces bases-là que l'on apprend à formuler des choix (à décider).

On ne sait encore que peu de choses au sujet de l'ensemble des variables de processus qui interfèrent avec le choix de la profession, comme par exemple le fonctionnement de l'environnement (Père, 1993), la qualité de la surveillance des progrès, le jeu du hasard, un événement soudain, etc... En outre, toutes les variables du processus n'ont pas la même importance pour chacun de nos clients. La théorie disponible retrécit l'événement de choix de la profession à un événement bien trop naïf.

On peut se rallier intuitivement aux conclusions de Père (1993, p. 21) que les 'variables de réussite du choix de la profession ne résident pas tellement dans les facteurs intrinsèques en eux-mêmes, comme l'aptitude, l'intérêt, les valeurs. Elles résident davantage dans la mesure dans laquelle nous réussissons à introduire ces facteurs au bon moment et en bonne quantité dans le processus et dans la mesure où nous parvenons à les faire accepter'.

3. Le fossé grandissant entre l'idéologie sociale et le choix de la profession.

Le conseiller donne son support aux gens dans le processus de prise de décision en tenant compte de l'intérêt de ces clients. C'est là que réside en fait le point faible, par-

ce qu'ils ne sont parfois pas en mesure de répondre à la question de savoir quel est leur intérêt est qu'elle est l'intérêt de la société.

Les théories actuelles concernant l'orientation professionnelle reposent sur des croyances, sur des vues concernant l'homme, l'homme et le travail, l'homme et la société. Elles ne reposent pas sur des faits (empiriques). Il s'agit donc de théories idéologiques. A la question de savoir ce que l'homme, dans ce monde en mutation de plus en plus rapide, considère comme un meilleur ou un moins bon choix professionnel, se dégagent plusieurs réponses, en fonction des multiples idéologies sociales.

Le conseiller continue de se poser la question de savoir quelle est l'idéologie juste. Et en conséquence, on se demande également encore toujours ce qu'il faut considérer comme un choix professionnel juste, quel doit être le résultat d'un processus de choix professionnel. Etant donné que personne ne dispose des informations exactes, personne ne peut donner les conseils adéquats et personne ne peut choisir en connaissance de cause. Le juste choix des études, le juste choix de la profession, la juste décision n'existent pas.

Une orientation professionnelle qui vise à obtenir la justesse aux dépens de l'ouverture entraîne inévitablement l'angoisse de l'expérimentation, de la transformation. Ceci signifie que les jeunes n'osent plus choisir, de peur de faire un choix erroné.

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Le besoin d'innovation: du plan formatif au plan professionnel. Former au changement

Introduction

Il faut repenser d'une manière critique les idées qui ont eu du succès pendant ces dix dernières années, par exemple:

- la division du travail, avec des spécialisations toujours plus précises;
- la nécessité d'un contrôle minutieux, pour garantir efficacité et efficience;
- une hiérarchie administrative, bien caractérisée sur le plan du profil bureaucratique;
- des départements fonctionnels rigides, avec peu d'interconnexions directes.

La logique sous-jacente à cet ensemble est que chaque opération est unique en son genre et nécessite une compétence spécifique pour sa réalisation. L'hyperspécialisation culturelle est précédée d'une hyperspécialisation professionnelle, où des connaissances fragmentées aboutissent à des produits incomplets, d'où la nécessité d'investir dans une post-formation centrée sur des connaissances et des savoir-faire, qui rassemble les parties d'un processus artificiellement décomposé.

Innover aujourd'hui signifie réinvestir dans de nouvelles formes de synthèse culturelle, qui donnent à chaque professionnel doté de compétences de pointe et d'un sens aigu des responsabilités une vision d'ensemble de tout le processus au cours duquel il doit intervenir. Il s'agit donc de retrouver l'usage des fonctions intégrées et l'abandon des critères comme la subdivision hiérarchique du travail, en faveur d'une approche par problèmes qui privilège l'analyse des processus plutôt que celle des fonctions.

A la base du changement, il faut poser l'idée de la pensée discontinue, qui permet de procéder de façon à anticiper et non à maintenir ce qui est, en intégrant des catégories de type traditionnel, affectif et éthique de manière à prêter davantage d'attention aux processus qu'aux règles. L'avantage de cette approche est de s'attacher à une pensée fondée sur les catégories anticipatoires. La pensée anticipatoire ne cherche pas seulement à améliorer l'action en cours en augmentant la vitesse des processus, en économisant les ressources, mais elle cherche de nouvelles solutions à de vieux problèmes, rediscutant le pourquoi des solutions décisionnelles déjà éprouvées. Le problème de fond est: qu'est qu'on est en train de faire réellement et pourquoi le faisons-nous et pas seulement comment pouvons nous simplement le faire mieux ou le faire plus rapidement?

Beaucoup d'étudiants passent par l'université seulement pour recevoir un diplôme qui en théorie devrait leur ouvrir les portes du marché du travail, mais actuellement celui-ci semble repousser cette masse croissante de nouveaux licenciés qui ne sont pas toujours capables d'exercer correctement leur rôle d'intellectuels. Cette dérive se produit lorsqu'on perd la capacité de se poser les questions essentielles sur "le pourquoi des choses" et lorsqu'on se centre seulement sur le "comment". Le "comment" n'acquiert une grande importance que s'il est subordonné au "pourquoi".

Maintenir vive la flexibilité intellectuelle est l'unique garantie d'un constant entraînement au changement. Ceci demande une formation dans laquelle on travaille en petits groupes et où la leçon "ex cathedra" est limitée à des moments particuliers (dans les parties introductives) et seulement au cours de sessions où l'étudiant est mis au centre du processus formatif, ce qui oblige le "tuteur" à donner de l'importance à un travail d'entraînement des fonctions intellectuelles. Le tuteur est plutôt un médiateur dans le travail de groupe, un coordinateur des objectifs assumés par le groupe comme un devoir commun. Le tuteur forme chez les élèves qui lui sont confiés tout à la fois des compétences intellectuelles et des compétences décisionnelles.

Conclusions

Le travail réalisé dans l'atelier a mis en évidence la nécessité de considérer qu'il existe une relation étroite entre les éléments suivants qui s'organisent selon deux axes:

- Façon d'enseigner — façon d'apprendre (d'étudier);
- Capacité de décider (intelligence pratique) — capacité d'autonomie et d'ajournement.

C'est un couple de relations qui se réfèrent à l'unité du sujet en lui-même (intelligence théorique et intelligence pratique, capacité de connaître, capacité opérative) et à l'unité que celui-ci forme avec le professeur. La relation entre ces facteurs est en train de se perdre dans la conscience professionnelle de beaucoup de professeurs, relation où a prévalu la responsabilité de transmettre des "savoirs" déjà structurés. Il est nécessaire de réveiller ces relations dans un effort de renouvellement didactique et méthodologique. Il convient de travailler d'une autre façon, en évitant de programmer les personnes en fonction de procédés rigoureusement établis, lesquels ont souvent perdu l'esprit initial dans lequel ils ont été créés.

Pour atteindre cet objectif, la première valeur à retrouver est celle de la centralité de l'étudiant dans le processus formatif sans céder à la tentation d'économiser les efforts. La formation n'est pas une opération qu'on puisse faire en série. Quand on perd de vue la différence qu'il y a entre un processus de formation et un processus d'information, la première qualité que l'étudiant perd est celle d'apprendre à décider sur la base d'un processus de responsabilisation personnelle.

La didactique "tutorale" semble répondre mieux à ces critères, parce qu'en mettant l'étudiant au centre du processus formatif, on sollicite en même temps les capacités de

connaître, d'entrer en relation et de décider. Il faut aider les professeurs à redécouvrir la beauté du rapport personnel avec l'étudiant, parce que c'est l'unique mode permettant de percevoir le changement et d'être capable de répondre d'une manière adéquate aux diverses circonstances, en restructurant chaque fois les processus à l'aide desquels on élabore les solutions, sans attendre que les crises administratives, organisationnelles et de gestion se déclenchent. En fait, il ne s'agit que de redécouvrir la dimension de l'orientation dans l'enseignement. Il faut rappeler ou dire que le professeur est toujours et avant tout quelqu'un qui oriente le développement des capacités. L'unité du sujet est défendue et bien protégée si la relation professeur-étudiant est complète, profonde et couvre les plans cognitif, éthique et affectif.

La formation "tutorale" assurée par un professeur sensible et expert permet d'atteindre en même temps divers objectifs:

1. Stimuler constamment l'étudiant à étudier sans jamais se substituer à lui;
2. Affronter les problèmes culturels, en dépassant les cloisonnements disciplinaires;
3. Encourager l'élève à assumer la responsabilité de son développement personnel;
4. Permettre à l'élève de se sentir membre à part entière d'un groupe qui a besoin de son apport: il se sent utile;
5. Comprendre tous les niveaux d'approfondissement.

Il est certes toujours possible de critiquer un tel style d'enseignement en soutenant qu'il est trop complexe, trop cher ou trop lent. L'alternative est celle d'être acculé à un apprentissage par crises, étant donné qu'on ne réussit pas à gérer le changement et que l'on est confronté à des enfants souvent démotivés, désadaptés par rapport aux objectifs qu'on leur propose. Dans certains cas, on court le risque que les meilleurs étudiants se trouvent désadaptés par rapport au contexte socioprofessionnel dans lequel ils voudraient s'insérer.

Le système avec "tuteur" fonctionne bien, même dans les moments de plus rapide transformation du contexte, parce que le tuteur est attentif en même temps à la personne en tant que telle, à la personne dans ses relations avec les autres, aux contenus conceptuels que la personne doit acquérir dans sa spécificité et dans l'application opératoire à des problèmes concrets à résoudre. C'est un type de relation d'enseignant-apprenant dans laquelle toutes les ressources du sujet sont toujours en jeu et sont finalisées par rapport à un objectif précis.

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Integrating lifelong career planning skills within the academic curriculum

Introduction

The aim of this workshop was to help participants to consider strategies for the further integration of career planning skills within the courses at their own universities. To achieve this aim, the workshop leaders presented some of the ideas which have been developed at the University of Leeds to encourage students to recognise the possibilities for career development learning during their time at university.

As counsellors and guidance workers we are all familiar with students who leave career planning until the end of their course. These students, typically, fail to see the relevance of their studies to the outside world, feel that they lack any useful skills and become very anxious about the prospect of ever finding satisfying employment. Equally, they are unlikely to undertake sufficient research into the options open to them on completion of their studies and therefore will not realise how the graduate employment market is changing. They will be unaware of the skills they need and may focus on traditional opportunities which are no longer easily accessible. At the University of Leeds several initiatives have been developed to help students avoid such problems; this workshop concentrated on two of those initiatives.

The Career Development Module

This module is being offered to second year undergraduates at the University of Leeds. The course lasts for one semester (11 weeks), is highly participative in nature and is worth the equivalent of 5 ECTS credits. The main aim is to help students to develop, recognise and use career planning skills at an early stage in their studies.

To give a flavour of the way the course is delivered, the workshop participants were asked to undertake an adaptation of an exercise given to students at the beginning of the course. In small groups, the delegates were asked to think about what they would expect their students to gain from a programme of career planning skills and to discuss how a student who had done such a programme would be different from one who had not: what would they achieve at the end of their studies, what extra skills would they have developed, how would the success of the programme be judged? The small groups represented their thoughts in various different ways, on poster sheets, to present back to the whole group. With students, this exercise is used to help them to define their objectives for the course. It also requires them to communicate and negotiate with each other, to work together as a group to agree on common objectives, to recognise that individuals may think and act in different ways to achieve objectives, and to value the differing contributions of group members.

In the context of the FEDORA workshop there was no need to stimulate communication and group working as the groups quickly agreed on common objectives. What did emerge was a very wide range of experience of ways of meeting students' needs; from the newly emerging guidance services in some of the eastern European countries, to long established careers and guidance provision in other parts of Europe. All were agreed that the most important objective should be to help students develop the skills and knowledge to make realistic and satisfying choices about how to spend the rest of their lives; that the students should become empowered to be personally fulfilled was paramount. Beyond this agreement, there was much useful discussion about the most effective ways of meeting the objectives with limited resources. It was acknowledged that the University of Leeds has been very fortunate in attracting external project funding to assist in the development of its career planning initiatives, but the presenters stressed the intention to train members of staff teaching in the academic departments to deliver the programme to ensure its continuation and full integration into the academic curriculum.

The Career Learning Log

A 'Career Learning Log' has been developed for use with students on a post-graduate course, the Master of Research (M.Res) in the Built Environment. This post-graduate course is designed to extend specialist knowledge, and also equip students with skills to make an immediate contribution to the appropriate industry after a one year taught course. The course covers skills which enhance the students' learning and employability such as:

- managing a research project, to include understanding organisations, project management, working in organisations and proposal writing/tendering
- communication, to include interpersonal skills, personal presentation skills, poster presentation/graphic skills, report writing/preparing scientific papers, litera-

ture review/information scan and subject appraisal, information technology tools computing and electronic communication systems

- improving own learning and performance, to include exploring creative ideas, time management, meeting skills, stress management and career planning skills.

The Career Learning Log is a means of helping students to record the development of these skills and to recognise how to apply them to influence career progression. Completion of the Log is supported by three contact sessions with a careers adviser, which introduce the students to essential career planning skills of:

- structured self awareness
- researching ideas and opportunities
- making decisions
- taking action

Understanding and recognition of these skills underpins the completion of the Log which runs throughout the course. Students are encouraged to record how the development of their subject specific skills and knowledge is likely to affect their career planning. Within the log are three 'Summary statements' which are completed by the student and assessed by the careers adviser/tutor to gain credits towards the award of the Masters degree. The summary statements cover the extent to which the students can relate their awareness of their own skills and abilities to future choices; their ability to research the options open to them, including an analysis of the usefulness and validity of a wide range of sources and finally, the synthesis of all this information to make realistic career decisions and take appropriate steps to implement those decisions.

Conclusion

The discussion generated by this workshop centred on the availability of resources to develop the materials, though it was pointed out that both of these initiatives, and the Career Learning Log in particular, should enhance student autonomy in career planning and decision making for lifelong learning and would therefore be less resource intensive, in the long term, than traditional forms of guidance. There was also discussion of the extent to which counsellors and guidance workers should or indeed, would want, to become involved in the academic assessment of their students. Some felt that it was inappropriate, whilst others felt that assessment lends more credibility to the whole process in the minds of the students. The final point raised concerned the theory underpinning career planning, that is, should we continue to accept the trait and factor based matching models; is learning theory more relevant to today's situation, or is there in fact, room for a new approach which integrates the two or even suggests a new paradigm? Careers counsellors and guidance workers will need to address these issues in the future if they are to offer effective support to graduates in the 21st century.

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L'aide à l'insertion professionnelle des chercheurs

Historique

C'est en 1972/1973 qu'on a été créés à Grenoble, à Saclay et puis à Orsay, les premières bourses de l'emploi pour l'insertion professionnelle des jeunes chercheurs scientifiques. Le Délégué Général de la recherche, Bernard Gregory, retient cette formule et la lance. A partir de 1980 une cinquantaine de bourses se développent dans les universités françaises. Elles ont pour mission de promouvoir l'insertion professionnelle des jeunes chercheurs scientifiques formés dans les laboratoires universitaires ou des entreprises et possédant un doctorat dans le secteur industriel.

Dans ce but:

- elle favorise au sein des laboratoires de recherche l'organisation du placement des jeunes scientifiques et coordonne les initiatives en ce domaine;
- elle contribue à mieux faire connaître et à valoriser l'apport de la formation par la recherche, auprès des laboratoires publics et privés, des entreprises et des administrations;
- elle développe par tous moyens, notamment par des stages et des actions d'information, les liaisons entre les organismes formateurs (universités, instituts de recherche, laboratoires, etc.) et les organismes employeurs publics et privés ;
- elle contribue aux programmes d'innovation et de transfert technologique, mis en oeuvre par les pouvoirs publics;
- elle sensibilise les responsables des laboratoires publics de recherche sur leur rôle de formateur de cadres scientifiques adaptés aux besoins de tout le pays.

Rôle de l'association

En relation avec l'aide à l'insertion au monde de travail, l'ABG organise deux activités importantes:

- Diffusion d'offres d'emploi sur serveur Minitel et sur internet;
- Diffusion de candidatures auprès des employeurs.

L'Association Bernard Gregory (ABG) gère une base de candidatures de jeunes docteurs en sciences à la recherche d'un premier emploi dans l'industrie. Cette base est éditée régulièrement dans des recueils trimestriels et sur un serveur Minitel mis à jour en permanence. La diffusion de cette base de candidatures est effectuée auprès d'entreprises, ou d'organismes de recherche recrutant sur titre. Cette diffusion est faite suivant une classification de spécialités. Huit recueils de candidatures sont édités, les candidats devant eux-mêmes déterminer au mieux le domaine dans lequel leur candidature paraîtra. Sauf très rare exception, une fiche ne peut être éditée que dans un seul recueil.

L'inscription à l'ABG et la constitution du dossier de candidature sont à effectuer auprès des antennes locales (Bourses de l'Emploi) implantées dans les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et de recherche publique. L'inscription est gratuite.

Fonctionnement de l'association

En 1994-1995, l'Association a géré 1768 dossiers dont 922 nouveaux candidats et 748 ont été clos.

Après une diminution de l'emploi en 1989 et jusqu'en 1993, le marché 1995 a repris en augmentation de 33% par rapport en 1994 (malgré un volume de recrutement en valeur absolue inférieur à 1988 et 1991, deux années charnières qui déterminent la période la plus favorable).

Une analyse de postes offerts indique que 50% des fonctions se situent dans la recherche-développement et 30% des fonctions en techniques analyse, contrôle qualité ou études de procédés. Un docteur sur deux d'origine universitaire, insérés dans le marché d'emploi par ABG, entre en entreprise (voir Tableau 1).

Tableau 1:

Type de recrutement	%
Enseignement supérieur	6
Organismes publics de recherche	6
Positions académiques temporaires en France	11
Positions à l'étranger	14
Divers	4
Sans suite (sans emploi, retour au pays, situations inconnues)	18
Entreprises	41

Le type de recrutement est très différent entre ingénieurs et universitaires: 53% des ingénieurs docteurs, qui représentent 37% du flux d'inscriptions, ont été recrutés en entreprises et uniquement 33% des universitaires docteurs. Un autre tendance importante est l'augmentation des contrats à durée déterminé. Actuellement, 20%

des placements sont des contrats à durée déterminée, dont 25% sont en positions professionnelles temporaires à l'étranger ou en France.

On observe plus ou moins une égalité entre les salaires des universitaires et des ingénieurs. La différence suivant la spécialisation est nettement plus élevée (voir Tableau 2). Le salaire d'embauche des jeunes docteurs en entreprises est en moyenne de 199500FF.

Tableau 2:

Spécialisation	Salaire moyen	Ingénieur + Thèse		Universitaires + Thèse	
		Hommes	Femmes	Hommes	Femmes
Sciences de la vie	186000	201000	211000	175000	187000
Chimie	198000	204500	192000	189000	210000
Sciences des matériaux	201000	201500	191500	208500	200000
Mécanique/Thermique	203500	213500	192500	196000	193500
Physique	203000	209000	200000	194500	216000
Maths, Informatique	210000	194000	228000	207000	226500
Electronique	195000	200000		191500	
Moyenne générale	199500	205000	198000	196000	199000

Les stages de sensibilisation

C'est une formation d'aide à l'insertion dans l'entreprise organisé par l'ABG. Il s'agit d'une stage de sensibilisation de 5 jours. Cette stage est payé par le laboratoire du stagiaire et coûte 6000FF. Ceci comprend aussi bien le cours que l'hébergement et les repas. La formation est assurée par des professionnels membres de l'ABG et des professeurs des écoles supérieures de commerce.

Le programme comporte:

- deux journées consacrées à des cours classiques sur l'entreprise, les fonctions du marketing, à la production industrielle, aux finances et à la recherche-développement, à l'interaction des fonctions entre elles, à la gestion de projet et au droit de l'entreprise;
- une journée et demie est consacrée à l'application des cours lors d'études de cas et de jeux d'entreprises. C'est ainsi que les étudiants apprennent à mener à bien un projet d'innovation comme le fait un manager d'entreprise;
- une demie-journée est consacrée à la visite d'entreprises;
- une demie-journée est animée par un professionnel du recrutement. Les docteurs apprennent à se présenter, mettre en avant les apprentissages par la recherche et peuvent aborder tous les problèmes qu'ils imaginent ou qui existent pendant un recrutement;

- toutes les soirées apportent des témoignages d'anciens thésards dans l'industrie et chaque thésard doit présenter en 2 minutes sa recherche.

Conclusion

En France il y a 9000 thèses soutenues par an dont 3000 par des étrangers dont la moitié retourne dans leur pays.

L'enseignement supérieur et la recherche publique en recrutent 3000, l'enseignement secondaire et l'administration 1000, la recherche des entreprises 1000. Un déficit aux alentours de 2000 postes apparaît; en fait il y a peu de chômage, car les étudiants utilisent des postes instables dans l'enseignement supérieur ATER ou partent en post-doc.

L'augmentation du nombre des post-doc et la situation mondiale des grandes entreprises ou multinationales qui sous-traitent de plus en plus leurs recherches dans les laboratoires universitaires posent un grand problème pour l'insertion dans la vie active de ces diplômés. Il faut donc que les jeunes chercheurs fassent preuve de plus de dynamisme et d'innovation pour rentrer dans le marché de l'emploi français mais aussi européen et mondial.

Information pratique

L'Association Bernard Gregory présente sur:

1 MINITEL:

Les profils de jeunes scientifiques disponibles sur le marché du travail (Accès direct: 36 29 00 32). Les offres d'emploi pour jeunes scientifiques (Accès direct: 3615 code ABG).

2. INTERNET

Aide au retour des jeunes chercheurs post-doctoraux, offres d'emploi, concours des organismes et des universités, conseils pratiques, 'formation par la Recherche'...

Serveurs:

WWW: <http://abg.grenet.fr/abg>

Gopher: <abg.grenet.fr> 700

FTP: <abg.grenet.fr/pub/abg>

Frojjobs

La messagerie électronique d'aide à l'emploi et au retour en France des jeunes scientifiques séjournant à l'étranger: frojjobs@list.cren.net

Abg-Jobs

Service de diffusion hebdomadaire d'offres d'emploi par courrier électronique: abg-jobs@grenet.fr

E-mail:

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Graduate skills: the SME learning environment and 'Skill Tracker'

Background

The Shell Technology Enterprise Programme (STEP) is a UK-wide programme of project-based assistance for SMEs, utilising undergraduates in their penultimate year of study. Promoted by Shell UK, STEP began in 1986 and provides undergraduates with an opportunity to spend eight weeks in an SME to undertake a project identified by the business that will be of direct benefit to that business.

Survey of its activities

The programme is operated and managed locally by a network of over 100 autonomous organisations, such as TECs/LECs, Business Links, Local Enterprise Agencies and a few universities, who offer a range of services to SMEs. The task of these organisations is to identify an SME who wants a project undertaken, match up a suitable student and organise an integrated programme of off-the-job training for participating students based on substantial guideline material provided by the national STEP team.

As an economic intervention focused through a short-term beneficial placement, the programme has demonstrated a number of positive outcomes with regard to increased economic activity and employment creation. A major research survey of the students and businesses was undertaken in 1994 and 1995 by Storey & Westhead (1995) of the Centre for Small and Medium-sized Enterprises at Warwick Business School. The main outcomes, in terms of company satisfaction were as follows:

- 97% of companies were satisfied with the student performance, of which 52% reported that their expectations were exceeded
- 68% of companies anticipated an immediate impact on their business: 89% anticipated a long-term impact
- 31% of companies indicated that they had identified a skills shortage
- 82% of those that said the experience had influenced company policy are more likely to recruit a graduate to a full-time position.

Other research (Donnelly, 1994, 1995; Gregory, 1996) has illustrated a number of factors critical to the success of STEP as a national, private sector-led initiative:

- it is a client needs driven programme;
- it is short and project-focused, relying on a simple model of partnership;
- recognised quality in terms of management, delivery and materials.

Parallel to these quantifiable outcomes, evidence has been accumulating in relation to the broader impacts of the students on their host companies. While students go into companies to manage specific project briefs, such as computerising manual accounts or stock control systems, preparing health and safety policies, researching new markets, designing new products, they can impact upon the business beyond the narrow parameters of their initial project. While computerising a manual accounts system may at first sight appear a solely technical project requiring either an IT or Business/Finance student, it is often found that the most important facet of that project relates to the training, whether formal or informal, of existing company employees who will be responsible for using the hardware and software once the student has completed the placement.

It is this broader impact of the student on the company that the programme has sought to track through a series of pilot developments between 1994 and 1995. The result of these independently evaluated pilots was the development of SKILLS TRACKER, an interactive computer-based training programme which allows students to assess their skills as they progress through their STEP placement.

Skills Tracker

The programme has been developed using World Wide Web technology and consists of an easy to use floppy disk which can be used on any PC. The programme helps students to manage their project more effectively, asking them to input project descriptions and objectives, allowing them to monitor progress and assess results.

Based on the Management Charter Initiative's (MCI) integrated model of personal competency, the programme encourages the development of skills, competencies and management behaviours that employers are looking for in new recruits. It also works as a powerful self-development tool. Students are asked to assess their own strengths and weaknesses in areas such as working in teams, planning and prioritising objectives and presentation skills. Where they identify a weakness, the programme prompts them to develop an action plan to improve these skills and then to re-assess themselves and check their progress every week. Students are encouraged to record their achievements and monitor their own performance whilst on placement.

While a unique feature of STEP is that it is a task-based, output driven programme, the integration of a competency-based approach to the tracking of the personal skills development of participating students adds significant value to the student experience of STEP by redressing the balance between task and process. By ensuring that the

student is more aware from the earliest stages of their placement of the link between competency and performance and, specifically, the skills and competencies that s/he may already have developed but not yet fully recognised, this approach adds considerably to the quality and effectiveness of the students' performance on placement and thus helps to meet the requirements of participating SMEs, i.e. a successfully completed project.

Conclusions

With SKILLS TRACKER, STEP students utilise a tool with which they can record their technical and personal skills development, more systematically reflect on their progress and develop a longer term action plan for the continued (lifelong) development of these skills via a portfolio approach.

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Passage à l'emploi: faire découvrir les compétences transférables acquises durant les études

Introduction

En Suisse, jusqu'au début des années 90, la question du passage à l'emploi des diplômés universitaires n'a jamais été prioritaire pour les services d'orientation. Les quelques personnes, qui consultaient dans le but de s'insérer professionnellement, avaient des problèmes généraux d'adaptation ou recherchaient des emplois dans des secteurs difficiles d'accès. En effet, le taux de chômage des jeunes diplômés était, entre 1977 et 1989, de l'ordre de 3% en moyenne. Dans une telle conjoncture économique les services d'orientation se sont plutôt consacrés à résoudre les problèmes liés aux difficultés d'adaptation à l'université. Ils avaient donc des tâches très proches de celles qui relèvent actuellement des services de psychothérapie ou de counselling.

A partir de 1990, la situation a brutalement changé. La conjoncture économique s'est rapidement détériorée et le taux de chômage s'est élevé. Il a passé de 3% en 1989 à plus de 9% en 1993. La baisse de ce taux à 6.5% en 1995 risque malheureusement de n'être qu'une brève accalmie. Sous la pression des événements et suite aux demandes des étudiants, les tâches des services d'orientation se sont rapidement modifiées. Par exemple, à l'Université de Lausanne, le prêt d'ouvrages sur le passage à l'emploi (bilan personnel, rédaction de CV et présentation de soi, par exemple) ne représentait en 1989 que 5% du prêt; en 1994, il représentait 14% du prêt.

Des ateliers ont alors été organisés, traitant de différents aspects du passage à l'emploi: *préparer l'insertion, établir son bilan, rédiger un CV gagnant, réussir l'entretien*. Après une année d'expérience, il s'est avéré indispensable de mettre sur pied un atelier intitulé '*valoriser ses études*' à cause des difficultés qu'avaient les étudiants à établir un bilan de leurs études universitaires. En effet, si les gradués des facultés des sciences sociales et des lettres considèrent comme particulièrement difficile de répondre à la question: 'Voilà 4 ans que vous étudiez, qu'avez-vous appris d'utile pour votre vie professionnelle?', les autres diplômés ne sont pas nécessairement plus à l'aise pour s'exprimer sur leurs acquis, à l'exception peut-être des médecins et des pharmaciens. Cette incapacité à identifier compétences et acquis fait que de nombreux gradués développent des sentiments d'impuissance et une paralysie face à la recherche d'emploi. Une enquête (Diem,

1996) a d'ailleurs mis en évidence que 35% des diplômés n'ont entrepris aucune démarche avant l'obtention de leur titre et que 19% des gradués n'ont, jusqu'à un an après la fin de leurs études, jamais fait la moindre démarche pour trouver un emploi.

L'atelier 'Valoriser ses études'

Cet atelier aborde plusieurs thèmes et est organisé de la manière suivante:

Durée: 3h30

Nombre de participants: jusqu'à 20 personnes

Type de participants: pas de sélection, étudiants provenant de toutes les voies d'études.

Thèmes traités:

- Les notions de rôle professionnel et d'expertise professionnelle
- Qu'est-ce qu'un cadre ou qu'est-ce qui caractérise une fonction d'universitaire? (Mintzberg, 1984)
- Quelles sont les compétences transférables? (Sansregret, 1988)
- Décodage des offres en emploi en termes de compétences
- Décodage de l'expérience universitaire en termes de compétences

Objectifs:

L'atelier a été conçu de manière à ce que les étudiants qui y participent soient capables d'identifier les expériences académiques et personnelles reconnues par les employeurs et puissent les traduire en compétences professionnelles. Par ailleurs, les exercices proposés stimulent la réflexion sur les processus de décision et plus particulièrement sur le choix des critères de décision. Enfin, ils permettent aux participants de regagner confiance en eux.

Évaluation:

L'atelier a fait l'objet de plusieurs évaluations. Elles ont montré que les intentions des animateurs sont bien comprises et que les objectifs sont globalement atteints. Le taux de satisfaction est élevé. Il est de l'ordre de 95%. Les remarques négatives principales concernent le fait que l'atelier ne devrait pas s'adresser à des gradués — c'est trop tard — mais qu'il faudrait le proposer plus tôt dans le cours des études.

Deux moments-clés:

- Le premier moment-clé de l'atelier est celui où l'on discute les notions de rôle et d'expertise. Cette discussion et les exercices qui y sont associés permettent de préciser les concepts de savoir, de savoir-faire et de savoir-être. Les participants prennent alors conscience de la diversité des exigences du monde professionnel par rapport à celles du monde académique, qui font essentiellement appel aux savoirs. On y aborde également les questions relatives à la formation continue et postgrade en insistant sur ce qu'elle peut être: centrée sur l'acquisition de connaissances ou au contraire 'expérientielle'?
- Le second moment important est celui où l'on apprend et où l'on s'exerce à traduire les différentes expériences académiques en termes de compétences. C'est un

moment de grande découverte pour les participants qui prennent conscience de ce qu'est une formation intellectuelle et de ce qu'elle peut valoir sur le marché du travail. L'atmosphère du groupe devient très émotionnelle et les participants se lancent avec enthousiasme à la recherche de leurs acquis.

Quelques réflexions des participants

Les participants à cet atelier ont entamés une discussion intéressante qui a porté sur les compétences exigées par les employeurs. Deux études sur ce sujet ont été présentées qui montraient certaines différences. L'étude anglaise (Harvey, 1994) rapportait le point de vue des employeurs et l'étude suisse (Diem, 1996), celui des employés (diplômés universitaires, 1 an après l'obtention de leur grade). Si les employeurs plaçaient en tout premier lieu de leurs exigences le désir d'apprendre, les employés considéraient qu'on tient d'abord à ce qu'ils soient consciencieux et précis. On a ainsi relevé que les qualités requises à l'engagement ne sont pas nécessairement celles que les employeurs voudraient voir se maintenir tout au long de la carrière et que probablement ils fondent leur décision sur deux dimensions, l'insertion 'immédiate' et les potentialités. Il est apparu que les deux approches relatives à l'analyse des compétences sont complémentaires.

Un autre point a fait l'objet de discussions nourries: à quel moment du cursus universitaires ou pour quels étudiants, organiser un tel atelier? On a noté que dans de nombreux pays la tendance était de commencer le plus tôt possible à sensibiliser les étudiants. En France et au Royaume-Uni notamment, plusieurs universités s'adressent aux étudiants de première année, dès le début des études. Ces tentatives connaissent des succès divers qui ne semblent guère tenir aux techniques utilisées ou aux moyens mis à disposition, mais bien plus à l'insertion du programme dans l'institution universitaire. Plus de recherches sur ce point pourraient certainement permettre la mise en place de solutions plus efficaces.

Les échanges entre les participants ont montré que de nombreux services d'orientation développaient des techniques susceptibles de favoriser le passage à l'emploi des diplômés universitaires. Ces expériences sont généralement peu connues hors du pays où elles sont nées, alors qu'elles pourraient intéresser de nombreuses personnes. Il nous a semblé que FEDORA aurait un rôle à jouer dans la diffusion des informations relatives à certaines prestations.

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L'Elaboration d'un projet personnalisé comme processus de prise de décision dans le choix professionnel et de formation supérieure

Introduction

A la sortie de l'enseignement secondaire, le choix professionnel et de formation suppose de la part de l'élève une réflexion en profondeur sur son projet professionnel et de vie. Cette réflexion porte sur une meilleure connaissance de soi, une familiarisation avec les attentes des milieux professionnels, la définition de ses propres valeurs et convictions ainsi que sur un certain nombre d'actions et de dialogues à entreprendre pour définir un projet réalisable.

L'approche élaborée par le "Dienst voor Studieadvies" de la Vrije Universiteit Brussel est caractérisée par quelques principes fondamentaux, tels que:

- la notion d'engagement personnel et la prise de responsabilité par l'étudiant lui-même;
- la problématique du choix en tant qu'élément d'un projet plus vaste de projet de vie;
- la nécessité d'une réflexion approfondie et "mûrie" dans le temps.

D'autre part, cette approche tient compte du contexte éducatif spécifique de la Belgique, qui est caractérisé par:

- une politique d'accès à l'enseignement supérieur et universitaire en grande partie libre, ce qui suppose de la part de l'étudiant une attitude responsable;
- l'attribution aux universités et aux écoles supérieures en collaboration avec les centres psycho-médico-sociaux (PMS) d'une responsabilité d'information des étudiants, d'où la nécessité de formules de travail encourageant la coopération entre divers services d'orientation;
- des moyens limités (personnel disponible, moyens financiers), d'où la nécessité de formules d'action promouvant la participation des "intermédiaires privilégiés" tels que parents, professeurs, amis, etc..

Cadre théorique

Sur le plan théorique l'approche du Dienst voor Studieadvies est déduite du modèle conceptuel et des travaux scientifiques de P. Janssen de la KULeuven (Janssen, 1993;

Minnaert & Janssen, 1990, 1992). Ce modèle présente le choix de formation et professionnel comme l'élaboration d'un projet personnel sur un double axe. D'une part, comme processus dynamique en quatre phases successives aboutissant à un choix réalisable: au départ une phase de sensibilisation, suivie d'une orientation générale et d'une cristallisation d'un nombre réduit de possibilités pour aboutir à un phase de décision finale (Janssen & De Neve, 1988); d'autre part, comme élaboration d'un projet en tant que but à atteindre répondant à trois groupes de critères: la motivation, les capacités requises et le pouvoir d'exécution. Le modèle présente la particularité que les deux angles d'approche se laissent concevoir comme deux axes résultant en douze interactions possibles.

De ce modèle non seulement des hypothèses de travail peuvent être déduites pour la recherche scientifique, mais aussi des schèmes d'actions pour la pratique du conseiller d'orientation.

Le projet KiesWijzer

Dans la perspective du modèle de Janssens, le "Dienst voor Studieadvies" a élaboré une brochure KiesWijzer, conçue comme un *journal de bord* dont l'étudiant peut se servir pendant toute la période de choix. Bien plus qu'une brochure supplémentaire de lecture passive, le KiesWijzer est un point de départ pour des activités différenciées tels que planning, check-lists, thèmes de discussion, questionnaires personnels, exemples de choix vécus, etc... Les mots clefs qui caractérisent le KiesWijzer sont: sensibilisation, communication, réflexion et responsabilisation.

Il est à préciser que le KiesWijzer est un outil de travail qui ne peut remplacer le rôle important que joue l'entourage social de l'étudiant. Sa valeur essentielle n'est pas de remplacer la communication, mais au contraire de la promouvoir.

Quant au contenu, le KiesWijzer comporte:

1. un mode d'emploi invitant l'étudiant à exploiter les différentes approches possibles proposées par le KiesWijzer;
2. un agenda couvrant les trois dernières années scolaires de l'enseignement secondaire dans lequel l'étudiant peut noter des dates importantes, telles que journées d'information et portes ouvertes, périodes d'inscriptions, dates de rendez-vous, etc... Le but étant principalement que l'étudiant se prenne en charge et réalise que le problème du choix demande un suivi actif de sa part;
3. une partie centrale intitulée *Connaitre soi-même* incitant l'étudiant à se poser des questions telles que "Qui suis-je?", "Quelles sont mes aspirations fondamentales?", "Quelles sont mes possibilités et mes limites?"... Afin d'éviter une approche trop abstraite ou théorique, cette partie contient des questionnaires, des check-lists, etc... ouvrant des possibilités d'action et de communication sur des thèmes divers tels que traits de caractère, résultats d'études, méthodes de travail, capacités et intérêts personnels,...

4. La partie *connaissance des études* comporte on seulement des informations générales, mais incite surtout l'élève à rechercher différentes sources d'information concernant les études universitaires et supérieures;
5. De même la partie *connaissance des professions* comporte un aspect informatif et un aspect recherche à la découverte du monde du travail;
6. La partie *Choisir* invite l'étudiant à une synthèse et à une évaluation du chemin parcouru. Les choix retenus sont mis en correspondance et évalués selon divers critères, auxquels l'étudiant est libre d'ajouter des critères personnels supplémentaires;
7. Le KiesWijzer comporte finalement une partie intitulée *A conserver* dans laquelle l'élève est invité à garder des notes personnelles, des questionnaires remplis par lui-même et son entourage, etc.

Conclusions

Le KiesWijzer est actuellement une des brochures les plus utilisées en Flandre, aussi bien par les élèves que par les centres d'orientation et les écoles secondaires. D'autre part il apparaît également que les effets bénéfiques du KiesWijzer dépendent en grande partie de l'emploi qui lui est réservé. Mal compris et réduit à un succédané de l'orientation, le KiesWijzer perd toute sa valeur. Inséré par contre dans une approche globale comme instrument de support, il présente une valeur incontestable aussi bien pour les enseignants et les conseillers que pour les élèves eux-mêmes.

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L'expérience universitaire des étudiants étrangers dans une université bordelaise

Introduction

Nous avons étudié l'expérience universitaire de 72 étudiants étrangers inscrits dans la filière Psychologie de l'université de Bordeaux en 1991, 1992, ou 1993. Ces étudiants sont de 31 pays différents, essentiellement du Maghreb, d'Europe et d'Afrique noire francophone. Leurs parcours de premier cycle sont terminés, quelle qu'ait été leur issue, puisque le premier cycle est limité à trois années universitaires. Il s'agit d'identifier ces parcours par comparaison avec l'étude longitudinale d'une cohorte que nous avons effectuée (Dumora et al. 1995) et de mettre en perspective les types de parcours des étudiants étrangers et les modalités de leur expérience étudiante.

Identification des parcours des étudiants étrangers:

Cette identification est réalisée en comparant les parcours de ces étudiants aux trajectoires-types d'une cohorte de 500 étudiants inscrits dans la filière. Cette étude-cadre permet de décrire cinq types de trajectoires:

- l'excellence: diplôme obtenu en deux ans avec de très bons résultats
- la réussite: diplôme obtenu en deux ans avec des résultats moyens
- la stagnation: diplôme obtenu en trois ans
- l'auto-élimination: abandon en cours de cycle
- l'échec: diplôme non obtenu en trois ans et obligation d'abandon

La filière Psychologie se caractérise en France par un recrutement de bacheliers (88% de filles) plutôt médiocres, plutôt plus âgées que la moyenne des étudiants entrant dans l'enseignement supérieur, et venant pour beaucoup de milieux sociaux et de filières secondaires qui, il y a une quinzaine d'années, ne débouchaient pas sur l'enseignement supérieur long. Il s'agit donc de ce qu'on appelle communément en France une 'filiale de masse'.

Le tableau 1 permet une comparaison entre les parcours de la cohorte qui servent de matrice de référence et les parcours des étudiants étrangers. Le nombre trop réduit d'étudiants de chaque pays ne permet pas de distinguer les origines aussi finement. Nous avons donc opéré des regroupements justifiés géographiquement, et qui, après tâtonnements, s'avèrent différencier au maximum les types de trajectoires. La variable sexe quant à elle n'est pas discriminante.

Tableau 1:

Origine		Type de trajectoire				
		Excellence	Réussite	Stagnation	Auto-élim.	Echec
Cohorte de référence	%	13	29	26	21	12
Europe Nord et Est	N	12	5	0	0	0
Europe Sud	N	0	9	3	1	0
Afrique du Nord	N	0	0	11	2	10
Afrique francophone	N	0	0	4	0	8

En premier lieu, sachons qu'il n'est pas possible de confirmer une quelconque hypothèse avec ces groupes numériquement insuffisants et de plus, nous devons nous garder de toute généralisation abusive car notre étude porte sur une seule filière universitaire d'accueil. Nous observons des tendances, tendance à la réussite pour les étudiants européens, tendance à la stagnation ou à l'échec pour des étudiants venant de pays africains.

Expérience universitaire des étudiants étrangers

Dans un deuxième temps, nous proposons la mise en relation du niveau de réussite et de l'expérience étudiante, c'est-à-dire la façon dont s'articulent chez l'étudiant l'intégration à la communauté universitaire, l'intérêt et l'investissement pour les études, et les projets personnels qu'il y développe. L'étude de la cohorte montre que c'est la qualité de l'expérience étudiante qui différencie le mieux les étudiants en réussite et les étudiants en échec. Qu'en est-il alors chez les étudiants étrangers? Ces mêmes dimensions sont-elles pertinentes?

Nous avons constitué un échantillon de 35 étudiants étrangers, soit près de la moitié des étudiants considérés. La représentativité est évidemment imparfaite mais il s'agissait surtout d'avoir une information qualitative. Nous avons effectué un entretien approfondi avec chacun de ces étudiants et analysé ces entretiens avec une méthode d'analyse de contenu thématique structurée par les trois dimensions dégagées dans l'étude de la cohorte.

1. Les étudiants européens

Si on examine le contenu des entretiens avec les étudiants européens qui ont réussi en premier cycle et surtout les 'excellents', ces entretiens témoignent globalement:

- d'une intégration à la communauté étudiante et d'une capacité d'affiliation très nette. Ils ont tendance à s'intégrer dans des groupes d'étudiants d'origine diverse et ils ont un jugement très critique vis à vis de leurs collègues français qu'ils trouvent dans l'ensemble passifs dans leurs études, sectaires dans leurs relations, et très dépendants de leurs familles.

- d'un intérêt et d'un investissement importants pour leurs études. Ils témoignent d'un rapport très positif aux contenus. Ils disent savoir s'organiser et travailler seul ou en groupe. Les exigences des enseignants et les contenus des examens leur apparaissent correspondre à leur niveau malgré quelques difficultés linguistiques. Mais ils témoignent là aussi d'une très grande capacité critique vis à vis de l'organisation universitaire qu'ils souhaiteraient moins anémique, des enseignants qu'ils souhaiteraient moins distants et des moyens de formation (bibliothèques, etc) qu'ils souhaiteraient plus développés.
- de projets personnels consistants et généraux plutôt que strictement utilitaires ou professionnels. Ils ressemblent en cela aux étudiants français en réussite. Ils témoignent plutôt de projets de mobilité et surtout d'une très grande disponibilité à saisir les opportunités culturelles et relationnelles. Ni focalisés sur une profession particulière, ni pourtant indécis — ce n'est pas contradictoire —, ils apparaissent, pour la plupart, avoir choisi délibérément et personnellement de quitter un temps leur famille et de venir en France pour une formation à la fois culturelle, linguistique et secondairement professionnelle.

2. Les étudiants africains

A l'inverse, l'analyse de contenu des entretiens avec les étudiants africains, plus souvent en échec, témoigne:

- d'une plus grande difficulté d'intégration dans la communauté étudiante et surtout d'une très forte aspiration par les groupes et les associations de leur pays. Très critiques aussi vis à vis de leurs homologues français, ils leur reprochent leur manque d'ouverture à l'autre, voire le racisme implicite de certains comportements et l'absence de vie communautaire. Mais si les étudiants européens déplorent le manque d'investissement des étudiants français dans la vie universitaire, les étudiants africains déplorent surtout le manque d'investissement des étudiants français dans la vie extra-universitaire.
- d'un rapport aux études plutôt attentiste voire négatif qui engendre la passivité, la déception et l'incompréhension face à des enseignements perçus comme dépourvus de sens parce que pluridisciplinaires et conceptuels, plutôt que professionnels, et surtout parce qu'ils exigent une grande autonomie de travail. Cette autonomie semble leur faire essentiellement défaut. Ils se montrent, pour certains, en plein désarroi vis à vis des exigences de lectures personnelles, ou de travaux de recherche personnels. Dans les travaux de groupe, ils disent être plutôt passifs. Ils tolèrent moins bien que les étudiants précédents la distance entre ce qu'ils attendaient et ce qu'ils découvrent et donc entre leurs attentes d'une formation qualifiante et les savoirs de base théoriques et méthodologiques effectivement proposés, mais aussi entre leurs habitudes scolaires de travail et les exigences d'autonomie.
- de projets personnels ou professionnels plutôt flous et d'une grande indécision quant à la durée envisageable de leurs études et à leur retour dans leur pays. Quelques-uns expriment les conflits politiques qui ont motivé leur venue en France et qui, bien sûr,

ne peuvent qu'oblitérer leur investissement à l'université, loin de leur famille et dans l'inquiétude pour elle et pour leur propre devenir. Leur expatriation s'inscrit soit dans cette logique d'évitement de problèmes politiques, soit dans une tradition de leur pays d'envoyer leurs jeunes dans des universités françaises. Ce motif reste d'une certaine façon extérieur à eux-mêmes alors que le motif des étudiants européens témoigne la plupart du temps d'une démarche active et indépendante de formation.

Conclusions

Réussite universitaire et sens des études semblent se construire conjointement. Si la motivation est extérieure aux savoirs enseignés, l'étudiant ne se construit pas des motifs d'apprendre et il y a hiatus entre son mobile personnel et l'objet enseigné. Le rapport à l'étude ne semble positif que s'il y a émancipation par rapport à la stricte utilité attendue, et s'il y a disponibilité pour d'autres enseignements et d'autres apports culturels que ceux pour lesquels on est venu.

Les différences que l'on constate entre les étudiants français en réussite et ceux qui sont en échec, sont en quelque sorte radicalisées entre les groupes d'étudiants étrangers. Les étudiants étrangers qui réussissent ont un rapport aux études, une disponibilité, une curiosité, des méthodes de travail et une qualité d'affiliation supérieures aux étudiants français. Et surtout ils accordent une valeur formative essentielle à leurs études. Ceux qui échouent ont un rapport passif, attentiste et utilitaire aux études semblable aux étudiants français qui échouent.

L'activité de conseil en orientation au cours du premier cycle, trop souvent focalisée sur la recherche de motivations en termes professionnels, postule que la finalité professionnelle donne du sens aux savoirs fondamentaux et motive l'étudiant. Or, ce sont les significations culturelles et intellectuelles inhérentes aux savoirs fondamentaux mêmes et les significations relationnelles, ce que Coulon appelle l'affiliation (Coulon 1990), qui semblent plutôt motiver les étudiants en réussite. Et ce sont ces mêmes significations culturelles et intellectuelles qui font défaut à ceux qui échouent.

L'appropriation des savoirs est finalement d'autant plus aisée que la motivation est... désintéressée, c'est-à-dire ni instrumentale ni utilitaire. Ce qui déplace la problématique du projet du schéma utilitariste moyen-fin dans lequel le sens est différé et extérieur à l'expérience vécue, vers une problématique de recherche du sens dans l'ici et maintenant de l'expérience culturelle et relationnelle qu'est la vie étudiante.

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Un aperçu des prises de décision selon les cultures

Introduction

Aujourd'hui, le développement de l'Europe se fait vers une plus grande intégration de chacun des membres de l'Union et vers une extension géographique où l'Europe de l'Est joue un rôle de plus en plus important. C'est dans ce contexte qu'il nous a semblé intéressant d'établir une comparaison entre les systèmes de conseils et d'orientation de l'Europe de l'Ouest et de l'Est. Nous avons donc choisi comme point de départ de notre atelier de comparer deux pays: la République Tchèque et l'Allemagne. Le système d'orientation des étudiants de la première est certes influencé par le système de l'Ouest; mais ce reflet permet à son tour aux occidentaux de mieux comprendre leur propre système, et d'en saisir la portée et les limites. Peut-on parler d'un apprentissage mutuel?

Le thème principal de ce séminaire était donc de comprendre dans quelle mesure les structures des systèmes d'orientation tchèques et allemands sont influencées par l'évolution actuelle du monde économique. Comparer deux systèmes différents permettait ainsi d'apporter des réponses aux idées de développement des centres d'orientation et de construire des bases communes de travail, fondées sur le concept de soi et la compréhension mutuelle. L'objectif de cet atelier était donc d'évaluer dans quelle mesure les étudiants sont soutenus dans leur prise de décision dans chacun des systèmes.

Modèles et idées générales

Comme base du travail de groupe, nous avons choisi d'utiliser un schéma simplifié pour le développement du *conceptual network* (réseau interactif conceptuel — voir figure 1), un terme développé lors d'une analyse comparative sur la santé psychique des étudiants en Europe (Rott, 1996a).

² Les auteurs tiennent à remercier tout particulièrement Christelle Berlie pour son aide précieuse quant à la rédaction de ce rapport.

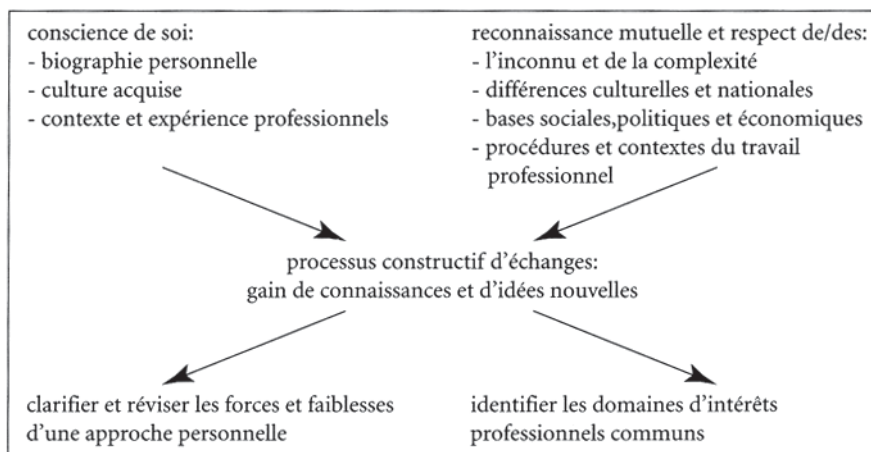
D'autre part, trois principaux thèmes s'influençant réciproquement ont été identifiés:

- la prise de décision des étudiants;
- les influences éducatives, sociales, économiques et environnementales;
- les conseils d'orientation professionnelle et les services d'orientation.

Enfin, au travers d'un exemple concret, nous avons illustré la complexité de la prise de décision, influencée en même temps par la réflexion, les sentiments et la conduite de l'étudiant, soit la cognition, l'émotion et l'action. Dans un schéma intitulé 'Interaction entre émotion, cognition et action dans l'enseignement supérieur' (Rott, 1996b), la prise de décision est rattachée au domaine de la cognition, car elle est étroitement liée au mental, mais les émotions et notamment celles liées au concept de soi, et l'action — gestion et développement de soi — jouent également un rôle prédominant.

Pour faire l'analyse de la prise de décision, le groupe a travaillé avec le 'Schéma de prise de décision professionnelle' de Bußhoff (1994). Dans ce schéma, la prise de décision est influencée par le processus de maturation et par l'expérience d'apprentissage qui font eux-mêmes partie du processus de développement. D'autre part, la prise de décision fait à son tour évoluer le processus de maturation et l'expérience d'apprentissage. Dans ce processus, le concept de soi, le concept environnemental et les méthodes de résolution des problèmes sont étroitement liés et vont du plus général au plus particulier, au plus concret, pour aboutir à l'objectif final de l'action. Et l'action influence à son tour le concept de soi, le concept environnemental et les méthodes de résolution des problèmes. C'est donc un processus continu rattaché aux conditions et influences environnementales: attentes de développement, famille, école, collègues, possibilités de formation et de métier.

Figure 1: Réseau interactif conceptuel: comparaisons inter-culturelles du conseil et de l'orientation des étudiants



Description des systèmes tchèques et allemands

Avant la seconde guerre mondiale, l'orientation professionnelle en Tchécoslovaquie était intégrée à la vie sociale et faisait partie des plus anciennes en Europe. Après la guerre, elle a disparu et en 1950 certaines activités d'orientation professionnelle se sont intégrées aux écoles primaires et secondaires. Depuis 1989, année de la révolution, un nouveau système se met en place. Il y a aujourd'hui deux systèmes d'orientation professionnelle qui soutiennent les jeunes dans leur recherche d'un emploi futur. Le premier système fait partie du Ministère du Travail et des Affaires sociales et le second fait partie du Ministère de l'Éducation, de la Jeunesse et des Sports. Chacun garde cependant son indépendance.

Quant à l'orientation universitaire, elle soutient les jeunes pour résoudre soit des problèmes liés aux études, soit des problèmes plus personnels. Le principe fondamental du travail de conseiller est d'aider l'étudiant à être indépendant, actif et créatif face à sa situation. Les quatre domaines d'activité de l'orientation universitaire sont:

- l'orientation des étudiants à l'entrée de l'université
- l'orientation des étudiants pendant les études
- les services d'orientation professionnelle
- l'assistance psychologique et sociale.

Du point de vue des étudiants, les exigences liées aux études n'ont pas beaucoup changé, mais c'est le style de vie qui a considérablement et rapidement évolué. Ces changements profonds se sont répercutés sur les centres d'orientation, qui sont passés de dix en 1991 à quarante aujourd'hui. Ces éléments, ainsi que le faible taux de chômage et le fait que le marché de l'emploi soit mal développé, sont les raisons principales pour lesquelles les étudiants recherchent auprès des centres une aide psychologique et sociale, de même qu'une orientation professionnelle.

Pour mieux comprendre le système de conseil et d'orientation allemand, une connaissance du système de l'enseignement supérieur en Allemagne est nécessaire. L'une des caractéristiques les plus contraignantes pour le travail de conseiller est la complexité et l'ouverture du système universitaire, aggravé par le nombre croissant des étudiants. L'attention s'est donc portée sur la nécessité d'une orientation des étudiants, qui se développe depuis environ 25 ans dans les universités.

Les trois principaux services de conseil et d'orientation sont les *Psychosoziale Beratungsstelle* (Centres de conseil psychologique), les *Berufsberatung* (Services d'orientation professionnelle) et enfin les *Zentrale Studienberatungsstelle* (Services centraux de conseil pour les études). Ces derniers sont intégrés aux universités et sont les plus développés parmi les services existants. Les *Zentrale Studienberatungsstelle* présentent trois caractéristiques essentielles: elles constituent de par la loi une prestation obligatoire des universités; ce sont des unités centrales, qui coopèrent au sein et au dehors de l'université et au niveau national; chaque service, pourtant bien implanté et formé de professionnels, propose des approches variées de l'orientation et du conseil. Malgré

ces quelques disparités, certaines méthodes essentielles de conseil restent communes. En effet, les méthodes sont:

- axées sur la personne, avec prise en compte du concept de soi, de l'estime de soi et de l'expérience personnelle;
- développementales, prise en compte du processus de maturation;
- contextuelles, prise en compte du contexte universitaire et social;
- éducatives, soutien de l'étudiant dans les techniques d'apprentissage et dans ses capacités à maîtriser les difficultés et à prendre des décisions.

Les méthodes de conseil sont organisées selon quatre groupes distincts, fondés sur une étude empirique élaborée sur toute l'Allemagne: les conseils d'orientation, les conseils axés autour de la personne, les conseils psychologiques et la psychothérapie, et les traitements psychiatriques et psychothérapeutiques.

Travail de groupe et compte rendu des discussions

La comparaison des deux systèmes révèle d'abord des similitudes, mais en examinant de plus près leurs différences, elles apparaissent de façon toujours plus nette et évidente. Parallèlement, cet examen minutieux des différences nous a permis de découvrir et d'approfondir les points communs essentiels et d'établir de nouvelles idées pour le conseil et l'orientation des étudiants, au sein de chacun des pays et en Europe. Les distinctions se reflètent également dans la langue et la terminologie. Une même expression peut avoir une autre signification pour le pays voisin, et à l'inverse, des termes différents peuvent renvoyer à une même notion. Une subtile analyse de la terminologie permet d'identifier des points communs plus précis.

Sur un plan plus concret, il est important de mettre l'accent sur certains aspects. Dans certains pays, la Grande Bretagne et la Pologne par exemple, les services de conseils pour les élèves de lycée et pour les étudiants de l'enseignement supérieur appartiennent à deux organisations totalement séparées. A l'inverse, en Allemagne, l'université supporte la responsabilité de l'orientation et des lycéens et des étudiants. En Grande Bretagne, les universités ont de plus en plus tendance à soutenir les services de conseil et d'orientation dans les écoles. A l'inverse les efforts sont renforcés en Allemagne pour développer les services d'orientation dans les écoles. En suivant deux voies à première vue très différentes, des similitudes se dessinent donc entre le système britannique et le système allemand, qui évoluent progressivement dans la même direction.

Dans certains pays encore, des approches différentes nous sont apparues concernant l'aide psychologique et l'orientation des étudiants. En effet, en Grande Bretagne, en Irlande et en Pologne, ces services sont dispensés par deux organisations distinctes, alors qu'en Allemagne et en République Tchèque ils sont le plus souvent intégrés. Il est cependant intéressant de donner l'exemple unique en Grande Bretagne d'un modèle mis en place il y a une vingtaine d'années, où l'orientation et l'aide psycholo-

gique se sont trouvées intégrées dans un même service. Ce modèle expérimental ne s'est pas implanté comme forme institutionnelle dans tout le pays, mais il a largement influencé l'orientation professionnelle qui axe maintenant davantage ses services autour de la personne.

Lors de sa conception au début des années '90, le système roumain a été fortement influencé par le modèle américain. Cependant, la Roumanie commence lentement à s'intéresser à l'exemple de ses voisins européens.

D'un côté, il a été reconnu comme nécessaire de séparer le rôle du conseiller et du professeur pour soutenir l'étudiant dans sa prise de décision. D'un autre côté, dans certains pays tels que l'Allemagne, les services de conseil et d'orientation souhaitent renforcer le rôle des professeurs dans l'aide et le soutien aux étudiants et établir entre les deux une plus grande coopération. Considérons la situation en Grande Bretagne et en Pologne. On remarque que le système de conseil et d'orientation britannique est intégré à l'université et qu'il est donc du ressort des services publics. C'est un système très bien implanté mais qui, à cause de ses finances réduites, se trouve dans une situation où il lui est de plus en plus indispensable de trouver des fonds privés. En Pologne, aucun fond public n'a jamais été mis à la disposition des services de conseil et d'orientation. Il a été financé ces dernières années par des projets pilotes, des organisations non lucratives, des initiatives commerciales, des entreprises de conseil ou des associations d'anciens élèves. Par des chemins différents, nous parvenons à des situations similaires: en Europe, les fonds privés jouent un rôle grandissant dans les systèmes d'orientation étudiante. Cela traduit l'évolution actuelle du monde économique, où devant faire face aux mêmes exigences, les services de conseil et d'orientation se voient contraints d'y apporter des solutions analogues.

En comparant les systèmes, nous avons observé qu'ils présentent aujourd'hui des similitudes malgré leurs origines diverses. Nous avons identifié des bases communes de travail et des possibilités de coopération future. Ce travail a démontré l'existence d'un apprentissage mutuel entre les pays.

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The Mentor-Monitor project at the Universiteit van Amsterdam

Introduction

The gap between pre-university secondary education (VWO) and the university is one that many young people find difficult to bridge. It has been found that a lot of qualified school leavers do not opt for a university education, thus failing to take advantage of the opportunities that their VWO diploma offers them to continue their education at university level. A large number of this group come from less educated and non-academic circles, including a substantial percentage of ethnic origin. Though the number of VWO pupils among these groups is growing, many are still daunted by the prospect of going to the university.

On the other side of the spectrum, pupils from more highly educated and academic circles are not automatically at an advantage. Experience shows that they are often wrong-footed by too rosy a picture of university and student life.

To ensure that VWO pupils are better prepared for a university study, the University of Amsterdam (UvA) initiated the 'VWO-UvA Crossover Programme' several years ago. Under this programme, the university works closely together with some thirty secondary schools in and around Amsterdam. The primary aim of the project is to reduce any obstacles — and social barriers in particular — that may impede a smooth transition to the university.

The mentor component of the project

The Crossover Programme has given birth to an additional project called the 'Mentor Project VWO-UvA'. Experiences from the Crossover Programme showed that it was

notably the contacts with students that aroused a great deal of enthusiasm among the VWO pupils. For this reason, it was decided to deploy students as mentors in the higher VWO classes. The student mentor acts as an example for the pupils of the higher VWO classes, using his/her own experiences as the basic working material to provide them with guidance and answer any questions they might have. In this way they can explode the myth that university education is exclusively for the elite.

The student mentor programme is to be fitted into the roster of the Crossover Programme. In the first year the VWO-UvA Mentor Project will be confined to six schools and, if successful, will be extended to all of the participating schools.

The schools where student mentors are being deployed generally have pupils, either ethnic or non-ethnic, who do not see a university education as a natural progression from secondary school. As virtually no one in their immediate surroundings has preceded them, they have no one to ask other than their teachers or counsellor at school. If they complete the VWO successfully and decide to go to university, they often have no idea of what awaits them. In this case there may be surprises in store, and not necessarily pleasant ones. Some pupils switch studies and are faced with delays, others drop out, the most determined persist to the end (but often not without a struggle).

The Crossover Programme is designed to help students bridge the gap. Pupils often wonder: 'am I good enough?' or 'what characteristics/qualities do you need to study successfully?' or, quite simply, 'is this what I really want?'

By participating in the Crossover Programme, they receive more information about what a study entails. But no matter how involved the counsellors and teachers may be, they can never fully place themselves in the pupil's shoes. The student mentor is closer to them and pupils ask them questions that they would never dare put to teachers or counsellors. As a consequence, the discussions are livelier and pupils are able to learn a lot more about the day-to-day practicalities of studying.

It is extremely important that the student mentors give a realistic picture of studying at university. If they happen to have problems with any specific parts of their study or are particularly enthusiastic about certain aspects of student life, they must feel free to tell the pupils all about this. But the student mentor must be aware that not all pupils will necessarily share his/her views as to what student life is all about. Ethnic pupils, for instance, can be put off by stories about wild parties into the small hours.

How the student mentor is used depends on the arrangements made between the school and the student mentors. One option is for the student mentor to be assigned to a number of pupils, in which case he or she will act as the intermediary between the pupil and the university for all aspects included in the programme. In the fifth year of the VWO course the student mentor visits the school a few times and accompanies the group during their faculty visits which form part of the Crossover Programme.

To be able to convey the correct information the student mentor must form a clear picture of his or her own education, particularly of the first year. He or she must have a thorough knowledge of the various graduation subjects and career opportunities. In addition, the student mentor must be capable of explaining the specific skills neces-

sary to complete a study successfully and the differences between studying at university and at school.

Here the beneficial effects work two ways: by reflecting on his or her own experiences when switching from the VWO to the University, the student mentor may gain a better understanding of his or her own choices. This self-reflection may help the student mentor with the further progress of his or her study.

The student mentor can also help with various school tasks, if the school and student mentor both think this would be useful. This primarily concerns activities relevant to the transition from secondary and university education. A school may, for instance, ask the student mentor to attend a parents' evening where the pupil's choice of study is to be discussed or, alternatively, to assist with (practical) lessons. Pupils may also request them to give extra lessons after school.

The monitoring part

The second component of the "Mentor/Monitor Project" is aimed at the monitoring of students. The monitoring system is designed to systematically gather know-how and insights into the study experiences and functioning of students over an extended period of time.

The monitoring system will focus, among other things, on the cultural, religious and socio-economic background of the student. In addition, it must generate a picture of the way in which he/she studies and experiences the study. By means of monitoring, data are gathered on the inflow and progress of students as well as other factors which determine the success (or failure) of students in general, and ethnic students in particular.

The primary aim of the monitoring programme is to develop a self-diagnostic programme for students. The idea is that, on the basis of the results of the model, the students will be able to identify how to improve the effectiveness of their own actions and study patterns. Thus, they can become their own advisors. In addition, the system can serve as a guide for the student mentors and possibly also as a tool for making adjustments to the content of the education programme. The monitoring part system is designed to supplement the existing student administration systems.

Progress of project

As noted, student mentors have currently been assigned to six schools. Over sixty students from a range of studies have been recruited for this purpose. The students were screened by means of a personal interview and received appropriate training as well as an instruction manual. Evaluation will take place several times a year, both with the students as well as the coordinators of the participating schools. At the end of this academic year, assessment will take place to establish whether the number of schools

(and students) can be expanded. The experiences at both the schools and student have been positive so far. The monitoring component is currently still being developed on the basis of a detailed inventory and further research.



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The Swedish Scholastic Aptitude Test for Dyslexics: their second chance for higher education and lifelong learning?

Introduction

The Swedish Government has charged Stockholm University to carry out the Swedish scholastic aptitude test in an adapted form for dyslexics (and visually impaired students). It is a three year project, running from the spring term of 1995 to the spring term of 1998. It is targeted at prospective students having reading and writing difficulties (dyslexia).

The aim of the project is — using multimedia techniques as a pedagogical aid — to give the best possible assistance to disabled (dyslexic) prospective students when competing for places at the Swedish universities and university colleges.

Dyslexia may, in simplified fashion, be described as a problem with the interpretation of the contents of the written language and, conversely, in translating thoughts and words into written form. Dyslexia is most commonly caused by specific weaknesses in the linguistic functions of the brain — a dysfunction — which in no way impacts on the individual's general intelligence. The handicap does, however, often cause difficulties at school and lead to grades which do not reflect the individual's ability. It is not easy to estimate the number of individuals diagnosed as dyslexics, but according to Svenska Dyslexifoereningen (The Swedish Dyslexia Association) 5% to 8% of the age group are likely to be dyslexics (von Euler, 1995).

The standard form of the aptitude test

The standard Swedish scholastic aptitude test is a general test of study skills. It gives an estimate of the prospective student's ability to succeed at university by measuring knowledge and skills which are important in all university education. The test con-

sists of five parts, which must all be completed within a set time-limit: Vocabulary, Data Sufficiency, Reading Comprehension, Interpretation of Diagrams, Tables and Maps and English Reading Comprehension.

The opportunity and second chance of disabled students to compete for places in higher education

There are disabled individuals who cannot take the standard aptitude test, e.g. the visually impaired whose loss of sight is so severe that they cannot read black print, i.e. ordinary text. Others find it very difficult to perform as well in the test as their intellectual ability would otherwise allow. This is true, for example, for people suffering from dyslexia.

Ever since it became possible for all applicants to include their results of the aptitude test, the organisations for the visually impaired and the dyslexics have actively been working towards having the test adapted to the circumstances of their members. In the autumn of 1992 the National Agency of Higher Education appointed a reference group with independent experts and representatives from various organisations for the disabled to assist the Agency with the task of appraising the feasibility of adapting the aptitude test to the circumstances of the groups concerned.

A trial run was conducted in 1995, under supervision of the reference group (National Agency for Higher Education, 1995). Eighteen dyslexic students from all over the country took part in the trial, which was a technical and practical success. At this stage the adapted aptitude test for dyslexics and the visually impaired became two separate tests.

In a decision on 29th September, 1994, the Government decreed that a pilot project adapting the tests for dyslexics and the visually impaired should be conducted over three years, beginning in the spring of 1995, with an annual test in Stockholm and in Lund. The overall responsibility for the conduct of the project rests with Stockholm University. The National Agency of Higher Education is to evaluate the project at its end after three years and present the results of its evaluation in a report to the Ministry of Education and Science.

Carrying-out the test

The aptitude test, in a multimedia version adapted for dyslexics, was administered for the first time in 1996. The number of students was restricted to 70. It proved difficult to gain access to multimedia computers with the necessary high performance.

In order to be accepted for the test, the applicants had to attest their dyslexia with certificates issued by someone approved by the National Agency for Higher Education. A long list of approved issuers was enclosed with the application form. The approved issuers were also committed to testing the applicants they certified accor-

ding to a template prepared in advance, all in order that no doubt could be cast on any of the participants. As the applicants came from all over the country, they were offered a diskette for practising or further information about the nearest test location. Ignoring the technical presentation, the aptitude test for the dyslexics has the same form as the standard test, except that the part test Reading Comprehension is somewhat shorter. The test consists of a total of 140 items distributed over the five part tests. The time for the test is 4 hours and 10 minutes, the same as for the standard test.

The test takes place in a multimedia environment, meaning that the text appears on a screen while being read aloud at the same time. It is easy to follow the text while it is being read out, as it is colour-coded and under-lined on the screen. The student controls the scrolling on the screen and the reading out with a "mouse". Each student has access to his / her own computer, complete with head-phones, during the test. The test is also distributed to the students in a printed hard-copy.

Conclusions

The recognition of dyslexia as a disability in Sweden is also reflected in support measures while studying (Wahlstroem, 1996).

This situation puts Sweden in a relatively unique position. The participants of the workshop commented on the support dyslexic students could count on during their studies. The Belgian representatives made reference to an Ombudsman, whose duty it is to see to it that the necessary support is given at the academic level. While in the UK universities have various funds to which they may apply for money. However, several countries, as e.g. France and Germany, have no support measures at the academic level, although they do exist at the secondary education level.

It could be noted that there is still much prejudice specifically against the dyslexic, such as believing them to be lazy, uneducable, and troublesome. In conclusion the participants agreed that there is still much need for information on dyslexia inside and outside the universities all over Europe.

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Study-visits / Visites d'étude

Randstad Holding NV

The Randstad group ranks among the world's major temporary staffing firms. Operations are conducted through a network of some 900 offices in the Benelux, Germany, France, Switzerland, Spain, Great Britain and the South-Eastern region of the United States. Headquarters are located in Amsterdam.

Ms Anja Pieroen, PR-manager, introduced Randstad Holding. The activities of Randstad were illustrated by a film on its role in providing personnel (security guards, tour guides, etc) for the logistical operation of the Olympic Games in Atlanta. The second part of the morning included a discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of flexible and temporary work for employees. Mr Hans Junggebur, Management Search and Development, promoted the issue of the flexible workforce. Several participants disagreed, strongly arguing the disadvantage of lacking social and financial security in working as a temporarily employee.

Spinoza Lyceum

During the guided tour of this secondary school, special attention was given to the units where pupils were working on their homework in small groups or under guidance of a teacher. Pupils decide themselves when to work on their homework, they have their own time schedule. In the discussion after the tour, participants were introduced in issues such as the organisational structure of the school, the concepts of "Studiehuis" (study house) and learning profiles and the "Spinoza-method". This method is based on the assumption that pupils have to take responsibility for their learning and behaviour in an independent way.

It was interesting to hear that the lyceum is establishing more and more contacts with the business world in relation to aspects of the labour market and career guidance. Careers guidance is provided in several ways. Graduates from the Universiteit van Amsterdam and other universities inform pupils about "student-life". School counsellors provide general information about the university and provide diagnostic testing of pupils.

Rijks Universiteit Leiden

At the Careers Advisory Department presentations were given on international student exchange and some lifelong learning projects at the university (see Vroegop, 1997).

Afterwards Mrs. van der Splinter, Internship Co-ordinator, and two students gave a presentation on the internship programme of the Faculteit der Letteren (Faculty of Arts). The internships can last from minimum six weeks up to six months. The students are granted up to 21 credits, counting towards free electives, for these internships. However, the students admitted to the internship programme are going through a strict selection procedure in which their academic advisor, the examination jury of the major and also the Internship Co-ordinator play an important role. The proposed internship must fit into their educational programme, but also the students' profile must fit the expectations of the employer. Special guideline booklets have been prepared for students, faculty and employers. The participants were impressed by the success of this project (over 1000 internships since 1989) and the high quality of the support and of the organisation.

Universiteit van Amsterdam

The visit primarily focused on an introduction to the activities of the "Expert Centre for Academic Affairs". The head of the department highlighted the role of the centre in educational affairs and student policy. Also the management of the centre was explored.

Three sub-departments were analysed in greater depth:

- The Student Union and there role in organising learning support activities.
- The Career Advice Centre.

This centre developed a vision on guidance in which the coaching of clients towards independence in decision making and self development is essential. Some specific activities such as, for example, individual guidance, training courses and presentations by labour market organisations were briefly introduced.

- The Counselling Department.

Dutch counsellors tend to cover a broad field of counselling activities which are mainly of an individual counselling nature. However, more group counselling is being introduced. The project on "demotivation of final year students" that tries to enhance an active and independent learning behaviour, was given as an example of group counselling.

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Third FEDORA Summer School Troisième Université d'Eté de FEDORA 1996

This Summer School was held with the financial and/or organisational support from:

Cette Université d'Eté a été réalisée avec l'aide financière et/ou matérielle de:

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SKILL (UK)
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Stichting Piramide
ING-Groep

Raoul Van Esbroeck, Val Butcher, Jean Paul Broonen
& Anne-Marie Klaver (eds.)

Decision making

for lifelong learning

The papers which were presented, the reports of the workshops and the results of the discussions at the Third FEDORA Summer School at the Universiteit van Amsterdam, are contained in this book. This Summer School was organised as a special activity within the framework of the European Year of Lifelong Learning. Decision making is an essential part of lifelong career development, and career development in its turn is impossible without lifelong learning. How to deal with decision making and life long learning in the guidance and counselling of students is without doubt one of the major concerns of counsellors in higher education. In particular, since they are faced with a more heterogeneous student population than in the past, and with a rapidly changing world, the need for new skills is greater than ever before. The Summer School and its proceedings try to answer these needs.

Processus de prise de décision

dans le contexte de formation continue

Cet ouvrage est le reflet des séances plénières, des activités dans les ateliers et des résultats des discussions de la Troisième Université d'été de FEDORA, qui a eu lieu à l'Universiteit van Amsterdam. Cette université d'été a été organisée dans le cadre de l'Année Européenne de la Formation Continue. La prise de décision est une partie essentielle du développement de carrière, développement qui est impossible sans une formation continue. Comment appliquer la prise de décision et la formation continue dans le cadre de l'orientation et du counselling est certainement une des préoccupations principales des conseillers dans l'enseignement supérieur. En particulier, parce que ceux-ci sont confrontés à une population estudiantine de plus en plus hétérogène dans un monde en plein changement. Le besoin de nouvelles compétences est plus important qu'il ne l'a jamais été. L'Université d'été et les Actes tentent de répondre à ce besoin.



ISBN 90-5487-183-0



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