



Career management skills (WP1)⁶

3.1 Context and rationale⁷

The career guidance reviews carried out by the OECD, the World Bank, and a range of EU agencies (i.e. the European Training Foundation, Cedefop, and the DG Employment, Social Affairs, and Equal Opportunities), have all underlined the need for citizens to be well equipped with skills to manage the complex and non-linear transitions that mark contemporary education, training and working pathways. A common thread in all these reviews is the conviction that today, individuals are likely to face a certain degree of insecurity as they navigate occupational options, opportunities and setbacks throughout their life, and can expect to change or lose employment with a greater degree of frequency than before. Because of this, their engagement with formal learning, training

and re-training is likely to last well into adulthood, in response to rapid changes in technology, markets, and related employment opportunities.

Some of the arguments used to highlight the need for lifelong learning may be challenged by the way the modern economy uses – or fails to use – skills. Indeed, a range of industrial sectors not only retain but generate low-knowledge, low-skill, neo-Taylorised jobs simultaneously with knowledge-rich jobs. As the experience of many countries have shown, investment in education and training can increase exponentially, but this does not necessarily translate into improved employment prospects, or into significantly higher percentages of new entrants into the labour market becoming knowledge workers. The prevalence of graduate underemployment, with educational and training attainments exceeding job requirements, suggests that a ‘knowledge society’ does not necessarily lead to a ‘knowledge-based economy’. Despite this, there are clear signs that the notion of ‘career’ as a one-time ‘choice’ and a lifelong channel for one’s economic pursuits is being supplanted by the notion that individuals need to actively construct ‘portfolio’, ‘boundaryless’ careers as well as career identities (in employment or self-employment) in ways that are open-ended and flexible, in response to the changing vicissitudes

⁶ This chapter is a team effort of the ELGPN Work Package 1 on Promoting career management skills. The text has been prepared by Professor Ronald G. Sultana, based on the contributions and reflections from the participating countries: AT, CZ DK, FR, IT, LT, LU, MT, PT, SE, SI, SK, UK. Mr. Jasmin Muhic from the Czech Republic supported the process as the WP1 lead-country representative.

⁷ Given the nature of this synthesis report, no references are provided. Readers interested in deepening their understanding of the issues discussed, as well as in reading further about the themes raised, are referred to the two Reflection Notes produced after the Work Package peer learning events. See also R.G. Sultana (2010) ‘Learning career management skills in Europe: a critical review’, *Journal of Education and Work* (forthcoming), which provides a bibliography of the relevant literature.

of life. Such representations of ‘self’ and ‘career’ may be more applicable to the knowledge-rich sectors of the economy, given the fast pace of change there. Efforts on the part of EU Member States to transform themselves into knowledge-based economies suggest, however, that the skills required in managing one’s education, training, and career transitions are likely to become more and more useful, and necessary.

The awareness of the increasing need for such Career Management Skills (CMS) has become evident in a number of ways. At a pan-European level, the EU Council of Ministers of Education has promulgated Resolutions which give special attention to career guidance, highlighting the way such a service can support the acquisition of the skills required to successfully manage one’s transitions throughout life (Council of the European Union 2004, 2008). At national levels, and across a whole range of institutions that include education, training, community and employment settings, one can note several initiatives which attempt to develop CMS in individuals and groups (see Case Study 1 for an example of such initiatives). While the teaching of such skills is certainly not new, there seem to be two linked rationales that have intensified interest in CMS:

- There is, first of all, a greater awareness of the need to introduce or strengthen CMS in response to the need for skills in managing one’s non-linear career pathways. Some countries have clearly articulated their vision for CMS in relation to the changing world of work, aiming for a skills strategy that encourages competitiveness. This is the case with UK-Scotland’s ‘Curriculum for Excellence’ initiative, as well as Austria’s ‘key2success’ strategy, for instance – not to mention the fact that CMS features as a core element in Austria’s national LLG strategy. France and the Netherlands too have mapped a series of CMS in relation to the European Reference Framework of Key Competences for Lifelong Learning.⁸ Germany has introduced several publicly-funded initiatives to support

CMS for young persons in the period of transition from school to training or work (Berufsorientierung/Berufsvorbereitung), while Sweden has published a new steering document which helps schools identify some of the key school-to-work teaching areas that need to be covered.

- There is also a conviction that such skills increase employability, thus promoting social equity and inclusion. At school level, curricula have been or are being developed in order to help young people become more adept at planning and managing their transitions between education, training, and employment. The Czech Republic, for instance, has recently integrated work-related thematic areas into existing subject matter in the curriculum, while Austria, Lithuania, Malta and the Netherlands, to mention only four other examples, report an increasing emphasis being placed on preparing young people for the world of work. Hungary has developed a career skills curriculum for students in Grades 1 to 12 (age 6 to 18). CMS are also promoted with unemployed people, with many Public Employment Services delivering or outsourcing innovative programmes that build employability skills in adults, with a view to increasing their chances of integration in a tight labour market. In Portugal, for instance, as in many other EU Member States, a great deal of work has been done to support the unemployed in developing self-esteem, in building up personal and social skills, in acquiring an entrepreneurial spirit, and in learning job-seeking skills. Norway too has developed regional partnerships in which the county administration works closely with the

⁸ These key competences include: communication in mother tongue; communication in a foreign language; math, science and technological literacy; digital competence; learning-to-learn; interpersonal and civic competences; entrepreneurship; and cultural expression. See European Communities (2007). *Key Competences for Lifelong Learning: European Reference Framework*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publication of the European Communities. http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/publ/pdf/ll-learning/keycomp_en.pdf (accessed 21 June 2010).

PES and social partners to promote CMS. In Poland, as in most if not all EU Member States, PES staff support service users in drawing up Individual Action Plans, which involve a range of CMS.

While the rationale behind emphasising CMS appears, at face value, to be sound, it is nevertheless worth highlighting the fact that the tightening of the bonds between education and employment is in tension with the decreasing opportunities for employment – and especially for ‘decent work’. There is a danger in this, in that while the intention behind the development of CMS can indeed be to increase employability and to enhance equity and social inclusion, the unintended sub-text could be that those who end up out of work have only (or mainly) themselves to blame. This trend towards ‘responsibilisation’ and ‘individualisation’ of social issues (also veiled by such terms as ‘career resilience’ and ‘career agility’) alerts us to the process of ‘insourcing’, i.e. a reallocation of functions, activities and responsibilities to the individual that were previously regarded as primarily the responsibility of institutions and collectives. Such a trend is particularly worrisome since it is taking place at a time when notions of social solidarity are being weakened. ‘Negative globalization’ has simultaneously reduced the power of the state, and provided it with complex, often bewildering challenges that it is ill-equipped to handle through the legal and institutional instruments that have been developed throughout its 200-year-old history. The state finds itself unable to offer security to its citizens, and obliged to call for more ‘flexibility’ in the labour market and in all other areas of life regulated by market forces. This means even more insecurity, and an increase in risk. CMS, unless critically approached, can easily become yet another way by means of which the state reframes its deficit by projecting it as personal failing, with the victim blamed for problems that are structural in nature.

3.2 CMS content and modalities of programme delivery

While, at pan-European level, the term ‘CMS’ is now widely employed, at Member State levels other terms are used to refer to a similar set of skills. These include ‘lifeskills’, ‘personal and social education’, ‘transition skills’, ‘school-to-work curricula’, ‘career education’, ‘career learning’, ‘career development learning’, and so on. While there are overlaps in the meaning of the semantic fields associated with each word or phrase, it is important to note that ‘CMS’ is a particularly Anglo-Saxon term, and not readily understood in a range of Member State contexts where English is not commonly used. Furthermore, even in Anglo-Saxon contexts, the term ‘CMS’ has different connotations, given that it started being first used in the HRD field in order to refer more narrowly to vertical and horizontal mobility *within* a particular job rather than to transitions *between* a range of education, training, employment and self-employment settings.

Given the contestations over meaning and relevance of concepts embedded in notions of CMS, it is important to define the way the term is being used in this context, in ways that can identify the content of a CMS programme. One definition which seems to capture the agenda behind CMS is the following: “Career management skills refer to a whole range of competences which provide structured ways for individuals and groups to gather, analyse, synthesise and organise self, educational and occupational information, as well as the skills to make and implement decisions and transitions.”

Within such a definition, and despite the different terms used across a range of Member States, one can identify a high degree of shared understanding across Europe of what constitutes CMS content or a CMS curriculum. Most of the CMS-related programmes taught within schools and in PES contexts across Europe cover themes that easily fall within the DOTS framework – i.e. they involve learning competences that support Decision-learning, Opportunity awareness, Transition learning, and Self-awareness.

They also overlap with the themes which appear in the National Career Development Guidelines developed in the US in 1989, and later in the Canadian and Australian Blueprints.⁹ The Canadian Blueprint, for instance, organises CMS around three main categories, namely ‘personal management’, ‘exploring learning and work’, and ‘life/work building’.

While there is a broad agreement on what themes should/could feature in CMS programmes, there are a number of issues that deserve to be highlighted. Some of these issues signal a number of tensions that also need to be addressed:

- There is a core of themes that is broadly applicable to – and useful for – all citizens, irrespective of their age or circumstance. However, there are arguments to be made regarding the level at which these different themes are addressed, depending on the age and educational level of the persons to whom the programmes are addressed. Both the Canadian and Australian Blueprints adopt such an approach, for instance.
- Another set of arguments can be made in terms of identifying specific CMS that are more appropriate or more necessary for a range of target groups, including those who, in policy terms, are defined as ‘vulnerable’ or ‘at risk’. Some approaches to CMS are therefore keen to identify career development learning targets for specific groups of citizens, such as persons with disability, as well as the long-term unemployed, Roma/travelling people, immigrants, refugees, asylum-seekers, ex-inmates, fostered children, young offenders, victims of family violence, the homeless, those suffering from substance abuse, and senior workers. There would of course be a great deal of overlap with a range of career management skills taught in ‘mainstream’ programmes, but more targeted attention would

here be given to challenges that specific categories of citizens face.

- Despite the reference to ‘career’ in the term ‘CMS’, several countries interpret the remit of this area as going beyond work-related aspects of a person’s development. Broader terms such as ‘lifeskills’ or ‘personal and social education’ (PSE) more explicitly encourage a more life-wide approach which includes, but is not restricted, to employment – though of course, the term ‘career’ is also commonly used in English to apply to wider forms of work, and includes learning too. As Austria, Finland and Lithuania note, adopting the more generic terms could be strategically wiser because these make the target competences ‘more visible’ to students and parents alike, since they are easier to understand: for some citizens/learners, notions of ‘career’ and ‘career management’ might appear alien or incongruent with the manner in which life pathways are considered and constructed. There are, however, some dangers in adopting a CMS curriculum that is too broad and inclusive. As some Member State experiences show, career-related issues can, over time, be given less importance and are even elbowed out of the PSE curriculum in schools. For a number of reasons – not least because psycho-social problems among students are perceived to be on the increase – many PSE teachers will tend to privilege the personal dimensions in the PSE curriculum, rather than the themes linked to career development issues.
- While the emphasis on CMS appears to be somewhat new, one must not assume that the novelty of the term for some countries is equated with novelty in curricular practice. Most if not all countries have some experience in teaching aspects of the skills which are now associated with CMS. Furthermore, one should not forget that CMS are often an outcome of the regular curriculum. Several school subjects,

⁹ See <http://206.191.51.163/blueprint/whatis.cfm> for information about the Canadian Blueprint. Information about the Australian Blueprint for Career Development is available at <http://www.blueprint.edu.au/>

for instance, teach students about the world of work, and develop broader life skills that contribute to one's interaction with employment and self-employment. Indeed, some curricular traditions – such as the Austrian one – are underpinned by the conviction that education cannot teach competences as much as it can provide rich, varied and pedagogically appropriate experiences and environments that facilitate their development. The issue of diverse curricular traditions is important, and alerts us to the problems of adopting a 'one-size fits all' approach across Member States, or of 'importing' wholesale ready-made frameworks from elsewhere. Lithuania, for instance, ran into difficulties when it tried to implement the Canadian Blueprint, which was found to be underpinned by a different philosophical approach to education, learning, and the curriculum (see Case Study 2).

- The current emphasis on CMS should not lead to the assumption that young people and adults do not already have a range of career management skills, which they may have learned through socialisation in family contexts, and through their contribution to community-based activities such as youth clubs, sports associations, and through participation in the labour market through part-time or full-time employment, holiday and seasonal work, and entrepreneurial initiatives.
- All this also raises issues as to how to integrate CMS in an educational context, i.e. whether to have it as a separate, timetabled 'subject', to have CMS (or at least aspects of it) infused throughout the curriculum (e.g. as a horizontal theme, as is the case with the introduction of 'personal financial management' in the Czech Republic, or of 'lifelong learning and career planning' in Estonia), to offer CMS as a extra-curricular activity (e.g. through workshop-type sessions at key transition and decision-making points), or through a judicious mixture of two

or more of these strategies. Decisions about which of these options to choose depends on a number of factors, such as curricular traditions within a country, concerns about an overloaded curriculum, trends in cross-curricular collaboration among teachers, and so on. These are not only Member-State-specific, but also sector-specific: it might be easier, for instance, to have teacher team work in delivering CMS at primary and lower secondary levels than at higher levels of the education system, where the boundaries between specific subjects become more tightly drawn. An interesting example of how teachers can work together to ensure coverage of key CMS is provided by Austria (see Case Study 3).

- Within the context of Public Employment Services (PES), CMS programmes are often delivered as a set of activities within 'job clubs', for instance, where the unemployed learn a range of skills that increase their employability, such as job-hunting strategies, self-presentation skills, c.v. writing, and so on. Most of these programmes are limited in duration, offered in-house or out-sourced to private providers, and are short-term in orientation, seeking to place individuals into jobs as quickly as possible rather than supporting more long-term goals such as career development. Several PES across Europe also deliver aspects of CMS programmes in targeted ways with specific groups of at risk citizens, tailoring a broad approach to the more particular needs of vulnerable groups. In achieving this, they are often supported by community-based organisations that are closer to the client groups and thus in a better position to provide tailored services.

3.3 Curricular principles underpinning CMS

All curricula are fundamentally selections that are made from a wide body of knowledge that is avail-

able. These selections tell us a lot about what a particular society values, and what it gives priority to. They also tell us a lot about which groups wield enough power to negotiate and include what they consider to be valuable, worthwhile knowledge, and whether access to such knowledge should be open or restricted, and if so, to which groups. The inevitably political nature of curricula – whether they are delivered formally or informally, whether in schools or other learning contexts – is also shaped by ‘national’ definitions of the educational project. We in fact note across Europe a range of curricular traditions – including the ‘encyclopaedic’, the ‘humanist’, the ‘pastoral’, and the ‘outcome-based’ – that have been defined throughout a historical process of nation-state formation, and which is one of the main reasons why the EU has tended to eschew any attempt at harmonisation in matters educational.

Despite the context-specific nature of curricula, many curriculum projects are inspired by a very similar set of principles, which reflect political orientations and values, as well as to specific understandings of what it means to teach and to learn. In UK-Scotland, for instance, the ‘Curriculum for Excellence’ is underpinned by a commitment to ‘challenge and enjoyment’, ‘breadth’, ‘progression’, ‘depth’, ‘personalisation and choice’, ‘coherence’, and ‘relevance’. All these principles resonate with efforts in curriculum construction in several countries within and beyond Europe.

Some of these broad curricular principles deserve further elaboration given their particular relevance to CMS. These principles are here represented as imperatives that serve to shape learning programmes in particular ways, and the inter-linkage between them and the congruence and continuity in value-orientation should be quite evident.

- CMS curricula should empower citizens. One way this can take place is through ensuring that CMS do not focus on presumed individual deficits, but rather acknowledge that individual achievement (including employment) is

strongly defined by the strength or otherwise of the economic environment. In real terms, this distinction is evident in CMS curricula that stress ‘learning *for* work’ (where individuals have to learn coping skills to adapt to a situation), and ‘learning *about* work’, where the focus is on a critical understanding of oneself in context. Austria, Denmark, Finland and France – among others – seem to favour the latter approach, though it would be probably true to say that, in the implementation of CMS programmes, both orientations are used and not necessarily seen as mutually exclusive, with the emphasis on pragmatism, ‘realism’ and ‘fitting in’ more likely to prevail in programmes delivered in labour market settings such as the Public Employment Services.

- A truly empowering approach to curriculum development does not assume a ‘deficit’ perspective in relation to minority or at risk groups, and does not think of such groups as being made up of persons with problems, but rather as persons with resources. Curricula informed by deficit perspectives will tend to adopt a ‘medical’ model, whereby curriculum developers see themselves as the ‘experts’ who understand what the citizens’ ‘problems’ are, and how to address them. Within this mode, curricula are generally designed to ‘compensate’ for the ‘deficiencies’ that others are considered to have. In contrast, policies informed by an acceptance and even celebration of diversity are more circumspect when it comes to claiming that ‘curriculum experts’ have ‘the’ answers. They will tend to be more open to different approaches to life and career, and consequently more willing to question and reform systems, rather than individuals. UK-Scotland’s ‘strengths-based approach’ is a salutary reminder of the need to embrace difference, seeking out the strengths and positives – such as the ability of clients with dyslexia to think creatively, the exceptional listening skills many hearing impaired

clients develop, and the adherence to rules, attention to detail and focus that some people with Asperger's can offer—all of which are key career management skills.

- CMS curricula should connect with learners' frameworks of relevance. In other words, curricula should recognise, acknowledge and build on learners' life experience, which is considered a source of strength on which other knowledge, skills and understandings can be developed.
- CMS curricula should be co-constructed with learners, not only to ensure relevance, but also to democratise both knowledge and the pedagogical relationship. Curricular programmes are therefore not determined inflexibly in advance, but are rather proposed and negotiated with learners, whose voice (in terms of identification of needs, of articulation of goals, and identification of appropriate pedagogy and assessment) is respected.
- CMS curricula should strive for 'centralised decentralisation'. This principle ensures that programmes are developed in relation to a national framework that defines a minimum knowledge and skills base that is available to all citizens, while at the same time permitting a flexible interpretation and implementation of the framework in response to the specificity of context. The broader national framework goes some way in guaranteeing that all citizens, irrespective of their spatial and social location, have access to the same entitlement, while the flexibility in programme delivery ensures and consolidates the principle of relevance referred to earlier. Finland provides a good example of this approach, having articulated open-ended national development programmes or frameworks for basic, second stage, adult and higher education as well as the employment sector.

3.4 Pedagogy and assessment

Across many countries, the status of CMS as a 'new' area of learning means that it is not burdened by the weight of tradition that defines the teaching and assessment modes used in subjects that have been integrated in curricula in an earlier period, such as math, science, and languages. CMS teachers – such as those in Malta, for instance – have therefore tended to enjoy more freedom in employing experiential and innovative pedagogies, and to use not only instruction, but also counselling, a range of experiential learning strategies (e.g. role play, work shadowing and work experience, case studies), career games, computer-based resources, and so on. Indeed, some see in CMS an opportunity to bring about a paradigm shift in the way learning is organised in schools as well as in higher education, with a greater degree of emphasis on supporting student self-directed learning, active learning methods, and constructivist approaches to meaning-making.

However, histories of curricular subjects show how 'new' subjects – such as physical education, media studies, and home economics, for instance – have attempted to obtain status within the educational system and the curricular pecking order by imitating and taking on board the pedagogical and assessment forms and styles used by more established subjects. In these cases, learning becomes more formalised, falling into the curricular and pedagogical forms that are tightly 'bound' and 'framed'. This has a number of important implications for the definition of the curricular area we are referring to as CMS, particularly in those cases where mainstream curricular principles – such as the organisation of teaching around pre-determined and highly structured learning outcomes and key stages – determine what is taught. Rather than being negotiated with learners in response to their life interests and realities, with pedagogical orientations informed by constructivism, CMS will, in this case, tend to be framed within a more behaviourist approach that emphasise content over process.

Pedagogy is not merely a matter of technical skills in enhancing learning outcomes. Pedagogies also embody political orientations that send out strong messages to learners, and can be enabling or disabling. For instance, some CMS programmes aimed at at-risk groups use Individual Learning Plans or Individual Action Planning as their key method of intervention. While such pedagogical approaches appear, at face-value, to be progressive in goal and outcome, a sole focus on the responsabilisation and ‘activation’ of individuals tends to play down, if not ignore, the impact of the surrounding environment on people who share similar life circumstances. Group approaches acknowledge more explicitly the fact that many have to face a similar set of obstacles when they attempt to transition to the work place, and to manage their career once they do find employment. A focus on these shared circumstances is important in policy terms, as it more easily leads to an acknowledgement of generalised rather than merely individual discriminatory practices, and is thus more likely to generate systemic policies that counteract prejudice. A ‘group’ approach is also more likely to be politically empowering and enabling, given that people who share similar life circumstances, and who are conscientised to locate the source of their frustrations in deficits in the surrounding environment rather than in themselves, are more likely to exercise an influence on policy.

If CMS are considered to be ‘worthwhile knowledge’ (in terms not only of know-that, but also know-why, and know-how), then the principle of assessment comes into play, with ‘assessment’ or ‘evaluation’ being understood as a set of practices that signal whether ‘learning objectives’ have been transformed into ‘learning outcomes’. Four main reasons might come into play when developing assessment strategies in relation to CMS, none of which are mutually exclusive:

- One can assess in order to provide feedback to learners as to their progress in mastering knowledge, values or skills in relation to a par-

ticular learning objective. Educational theory generally asserts that learners have a right to be given such feedback.

- That assessment can be used to signal to external parties – such as parents, institutions, and employers – that a particular individual has indeed mastered a given learning objective. In this case, the right to such knowledge is attenuated by a careful consideration of a professional code of ethics, which includes recognition of the individual’s right to privacy, as articulated in data protection laws.
- The outcome of such an assessment can be codified through the issuing of certificates and formal qualifications, which some consider to be ‘symbolic capital’ that can be translated into financial and social capital in the labour market and wider society. An important principle here is that any investment in formal learning should be formally acknowledged and rendered visible in ways that give learners something to show for their pains.
- Finally, assessment strategies can be used in order to motivate learners to remain engaged and to do their best to succeed in reaching the learning objectives. This is generally referred to as ‘extrinsic motivation’, and mixes ‘carrot and stick’ approaches. In contrast to this is the reliance on ‘intrinsic motivation’ that sees learners engaged with learning because they recognise its value, rather than because they want the prize that is reserved for successful learners, or to avoid the sanctions that accompany failure.

There are two main positions that are often adopted in relation to assessment of CMS, particularly in the context of the school. The first argues that CMS, by nature, should so appeal to learners due to its relevance to life concerns that the programme should rely on their intrinsic motivation. In this case, assessment should focus on providing feedback to learners so that they become as aware as possible of their successful mastery of the knowledge, skills and

attitudes involved. In this case, particular assessment strategies appear to be more appropriate than others, including, for instance, peer assessment, self-assessment, and portfolio approaches. A good example of the latter is provided by France, which has developed a digital Portfolio of Experiences and Skills (PEC) in twenty universities. Variants of portfolios, whether paper- or web-based, which encourage self-reflection, are used in several other countries, including Austria, Turkey, and UK-Scotland. The notion of having a personal workbook which accompanies students till they leave school seems particularly promising, helping as it does to make tacit knowledge explicit. French secondary schools have adopted a *'passport orientation formation'* (Guidance Training Passport), which is shared with teachers and parents, thus providing students with support in making sense of the career learning developed along the way. Such formative approaches to assessment are seen to be especially suitable to CMS given that these skills are particularly difficult to assess, whether formally or informally. It is difficult, for instance, to assess the outcomes of experiential learning opportunities, such as exploration of work contexts, where the processing of such experiences can extend over a long period of time, and very difficult for the learner to articulate in ways that are susceptible to assessment in traditional ways. Furthermore, much traditional summative assessment sets out to not only grade, but also to implicitly – and sometimes explicitly – rank students in terms of their differential learning achievement. Such grading and ranking seems to be particularly inappropriate in relation to CMS.

A second position argues that within a curriculum and an educational tradition where examinations play a central role, any subject or curricular area that is not formally evaluated ends up appearing as unimportant in the knowledge hierarchy of the institution, and consequently in the eyes of learners. In this case, formal assessment strategies are used in order to ensure continued student engagement and motivation. Other positions include both types

of student evaluation, in some cases giving more importance to one or the other. Clearly, this debate between 'formative assessment' on the one hand, and 'summative assessment' on the other, has more relevance to those educational systems that attempt to develop CMS as a separate area in the curriculum, rather than to those that go for a curriculum infusion approach, where CMS is taught through other subjects as a cross-curricular theme. In the latter case, the CMS programme falls under the same assessment regimes that are practised in other subject areas, for better or for worse.

In many cases, multi-modal forms of assessment are used, reflecting the broader evaluation culture embedded in the national education system. These include formal examinations (e.g. Czech Republic), oral interviews (e.g. Estonia and Turkey), self-assessment (e.g. Sweden), continuous assessment (e.g. Denmark and Estonia), and competence assessment through actual performance proficiency in implementing set tasks (e.g. Austria and Denmark).

Irrespective of the modality or modalities one chooses in terms of assessing learning of CMS, it is important to address a range of issues that relate to the reasons for which one assesses, what it is that one sets out to assess, and how to assess that. Other issues relate to ethical concerns around assessment, including how to record the outcomes of the assessment, whether one should report such outcomes, and if so to whom, and what use is to be made of the results of the assessment.

3.5 Conclusions

Several EU Member States have made progress in integrating CMS in their school curricula, and to a lesser extent deliver elements of these skills to adults through Public Employment Services. In the higher education sector too, innovative approaches have been developed in the context of the Bologna Process. Key challenges that remain include:

- The development of national frameworks that broadly set out CMS entitlements for citizens, while leaving enough flexibility to service providers to remain responsive to the needs of the clientele they serve.
 - The articulation of a clear policy regarding the place of CMS in the curriculum, irrespective of whether the modality in which such skills feature, i.e. whether they are allocated their own discrete curricular space, whether they are infused throughout the curriculum, whether they are taught through extra-curricular activities, or a combination of two or more of these strategies.
 - The promotion of a clear training strategy for those delivering CMS, whether in the education or PES sector. In schools, additional training is required when CMS is delivered through a curriculum infusion model, since this requires all or most teachers to be aware of their role in teaching CMS.
- The development of adequate resources that support educators in school and PES settings to generate powerful learning environments where CMS can be learnt experientially.
 - The identification of areas in CMS programmes that are of particular relevance to target groups, especially those that can be considered to be, in one way or another, at-risk.
 - The promotion of strategies that use assessment for CMS learning, than merely of learning.
 - Further exploration of the possibility of developing a European CMS framework, which serves not as much as a common 'blueprint' but rather to facilitate further collaboration and dialogue on a range of shared issues between the various Member States of the EU.