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The Emergence of Higher Vocational Education (HVE) in China (1980-2007): Vocationalism, Confucianism, and Neoinstitutionalism

by

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Dedication

To Changzheng

Abstract

This study examines how political-economic and socio-cultural influences had impacted the institutional development of HVE in China by investigating the historical development process of HVE between 1980 and 2007, when the country was undergoing tremendous political, economic, and social transitions toward building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. With the research method of document content analysis, the study reveals causes, effects, and trends of HVE development through comparisons between HVE-related policy contents concerning major HVE institutional realities including contexts, missions, structures, access, tuition, curricula, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status.

Within a theoretical framework utilizing vocationalism, Confucianism, and neoinstitutionalism, analysis and discussion resulted in a number of findings. First, the development of HVE in China embodied a trend of vocationalism, which has led and is leading to higher education expansion, higher education restructuring, and a positive change of Chinese people's views on careers. Second, in addition to its discrimination against skills/skilled workers, the mechanism of upward mobility entailed in Confucianism was another major reason causing resistance to HVE. Third, given the increasingly competitive Civil Service Examination, Chinese people's views on careers were not synchronized to the mass higher education system that was underway in China. Fourth, while supporting HVE, vocationalism itself created problems for HVE. A new vocationalist view was needed for future HVE development. Confucianism may

contribute to such a new vocationalist view drawing on humanities education and the mechanism of upward mobility, though its notion of scholar-officials was critiqued for impeding the development of HVE. Fifth, HVE students had been treated unequally in the whole process of studying in HVE from admission to participation to graduation. Sixth, from a neoinstitutionalist perspective, the development of HVE represented the process of its institutionalization, in which HVE needed to obtain legitimacy. Absence of legitimacy was the major reason causing various challenges facing the development of HVE. Seventh, the development of HVE indicated institutional isomorphic changes in Chinese higher education. Eighth, biased policy causing stratification of Chinese higher education was another major factor leading to various challenges facing HVE.

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List of Abbreviations

CPC	The Communist Party of China
CNKI	China National Knowledge Infrastructure
GDP	General Domestic Product
HVE	Higher Vocational Education
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
PRC	The People's Republic of China
WTO	World Trade Organization

Chapter 1 Introduction to This Study

With three decades of “reform and opening-up” (*gaige kaifang*), China has emerged as “a global economic superpower” (Guthrie, 2009, p. xv). According to Pocket World in Figures 2008, China is the fourth largest economic entity in the world in terms of gross domestic product (GDP). Guthrie (2009) notes that “for the better part of the last two-and-a-half decades, China has had the fastest growing economy in the world” (p. 3).

In this process, the whole country has experienced tremendous transformations. However, the country has been facing the challenge of a severe shortage of skilled manpower, especially a high-level skilled workforce, which mainly refers to “senior skilled workers” (*gaoji jigong*), “technicians” (*jishi*), and “technologists” (*gaoji jishi*), serving on front line of productions ever since reform started in the late 1970s and early 1980s. According to Zhou (1986), among the 40,000,000 skilled workers across the country in the 1980s, junior skilled workers accounted for 71%, intermediate skilled workers made up 27%, and senior skilled workers comprised only 2%. Even in Shanghai, the largest industrial base of the country then, high-level skilled workers were on the brink of extinction (Zhou, 1985).

Chinese public higher education has a long tradition of emphasizing academic knowledge but ignoring practical skills. With such a tradition, universities and colleges just supplied a single type of human resources – the theorists for society. In order to supply a high-level skilled workforce urgently demanded by the fast growing economy since the early 1980s, “higher vocational

education (HVE)” (*gaodeng zhiyejiaoyu*) has emerged and been developed to resolve the contradiction between the fast growing economy and the shortage of a high-level skilled workforce. With increasing policy support since then, the development of HVE has made great leaps quantitatively. This dramatic growth of HVE has been instrumental in transforming the entire system of Chinese higher education from elite higher education to mass higher education, by which equal higher education opportunities have been enhanced.

Nevertheless, with further economic development, China is still facing a severe shortage of high-level skilled workers (Gao, 1995; The Skill-Training Division in the Department of Occupational Skill Development of the Ministry of Labor, 1998; Li, 1999; Li, 2006; Ma, et al., 2004; Wu, 2006; Wu, 2007; XinhuaNet, 2006a; Zhang, 1995). Statistics of the Ministry of Labor and Social Security (*Laodong yu Shehui Baozhang Bu*) (as cited in XinhuaNet, 2006) show that among 270 million employees in cities and towns across the country, only 87.2 million employees were qualified skilled workers that comprise 32% of the total employees. Only 3.6 million are high-level skilled workers, which accounts for 4% of those qualified. Apparently, the component of high-level skilled manpower is still very low among employees in China. XinhuaNet (2006) and Bing Zhang (2006) have pointed out that the shortage of high-level skilled manpower is challenging the notion of “Made-in-China” and the upgrading of Chinese industries.

The indication is that the goal of developing HVE to supply a high-level skilled workforce has far from been reached. Indeed, the importance of

developing HVE has been reiterated by the Chinese government and educational researchers in terms of human resource supply. Thus, two questions need to be answered: Why has the quantitative growth of HVE not resulted in quantitative growth of high-level skilled manpower? Why has the development of HVE not been in synch with plans issued by the government?

Statement of Purpose

In order to answer the above questions, I reviewed a wide range of literature regarding HVE. I found that indeed, HVE has been full of challenges ever since its inception in the early 1980s. These challenges have distracted HVE institutions from addressing vocational education, which mainly include duplication of undergraduate education, low student quality, student loss, terminal education, unreasonably high tuition, less autonomy in specialization and curriculum design, teacher shortage, low graduate employment rate, insufficient funding, and lesser status. These challenges cover a wide range of HVE institutional activities such as mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status. Thus resolving these challenges is important not only for making HVE institutions focus on vocational education so as to fulfill their mission of supplying high-level skilled manpower, but also for a sound development of HVE. The question is how to resolve these challenges. To answer such a question, it is necessary to find reasons for these challenges and actions that can be taken to smooth the development of HVE in the future.

Therefore, I conducted an investigation of the historical development of HVE in China between 1980 and 2007. Considering the fact the development of education enterprises at different levels is under the guidance of policies made by the central government, I decided to focus on HVE-related policies to examine how HVE has been developed in China and the effects of developing HVE on Chinese society.

This study is concerned with why the development of HVE has been full of challenges and how to resolve these challenges. To address these problems, the study focuses on HVE-related policy designed by the Chinese central government between 1980 and 2007.

Since the beginning of the development of HVE in the early 1980s, increasingly diverse and intensified research regarding challenges facing HVE has emerged. Almost all challenges facing HVE are considered to be the result of the impact of government policy and a dominant traditional Chinese culture – Confucianism. Government policy is considered decisive in resolving existing challenges facing HVE. Thus, it is necessary to look into how HVE has been constructed in related government policy and what the effects are. However, there are very few researchers carrying out in-depth investigations on such a topic. Second, existing literature ignores the positive impacts of Confucianism on HVE in terms of social justice while emphasizing the negative impacts of Confucianism that result in discrimination against HVE. Third, a global and local perspective in studying challenges facing the development of HVE is largely absent. Furthermore, internationally, China's HVE is a rarely addressed topic in

educational research. Therefore, in this study, I intended to accomplish the following goals:

1. To describe the historical development of China's HVE between 1980 and 2007.
2. To analyze HVE-related policy documents designed by the Chinese central government between 1980 and 2007.
3. To explore causes, effects, and trends of the development of HVE in China.
4. To reassess the contribution of Confucianism in developing HVE in China.

Significance of This Study

This dissertation is expected to provide policy, pragmatic, and theoretical perspectives with implications for Chinese and international policy makers and those involved in higher education research, especially research on HVE.

Policy implications. Focusing on HVE-related policies adopted between 1980 and 2007, my study explores problems existing in HVE-related policies through detailed policy content analysis. These problems are discussed as the sources leading to challenges facing the development of HVE. Analysis and discussion of these problems provide concrete implications for policy making. For instance, the analysis and discussion of HVE-related policies show that challenges facing HVE mainly result from the hierarchical higher education system, designated student sources, limited transfer access, unreasonably high tuition, poor curriculum design, narrow skill learning, the shortage of qualified teachers, low graduate employment rate, insufficient funding, and lesser status. This will

provide reference for policymakers to adjust and improve HVE-related policies in the future.

Pragmatic implications. China, as the largest developing country in the world, has become a model for many other developing countries seeking space in the global economy (Kurlantzick, 2005; Xinhua News Agency, 2003). The detailed description and analysis of how challenges facing HVE come into being based on generic institutional realities of HVE will provide valuable experience and lessons for other developing countries which need to develop HVE.

Furthermore, it also can serve as a reference for developed countries in building collaborations with China in terms of joint educational programs for workforce preparation and/or laborforce import. Moreover, given the fact that education of all types at different levels share similar institutional realities to China's HVE such as context, mission, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, and funding and governance, this study can be applied to institutional research of education in other settings as well.

Theoretical implications. First, adopting vocationalism and neoinstitutionalism in the major theoretical framework guiding analysis and discussion, this research provide new perspectives for research on China's HVE and even the entire higher education system, which has historically been influenced by Confucianism. Strongly promoted by the government, vocationalism is expected to exert much wider and deeper impacts on Chinese society. Therefore, my study will be useful for understanding vocationalism in China.

Furthermore, a neoinstitutionalist approach is adopted in my research, by which the development of HVE is regarded as a process of institutionalization. The absence of legitimacy at regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive levels indicates that HVE has not been institutionalized. This has led to various challenges facing HVE. Scott (2005) notes that

An embarrassingly large proportion of our theoretical conceptions and empirical findings has been constructed by U.S. scholars based on data collected from U.S. organizations operating during the past few decades. Institutional theory can do much to overcome this regional, temporal bias as it fosters a rich combination of historical and comparative research, and supports this effort by providing conceptual tools to encompass and interpret the extraordinary variety of organizations over time and space. (p. 478)

Therefore, my study will contribute to broadening studies on neoinstitutionalism by focusing on institutional practice of HVE in China.

Moreover, according to Rust (2003), one type of comparative education research refers to single-country studies based on or testing more general theories. Based on the theory of globalization, my research examines HVE-related policies adopted between 1980 and 2007 and explores a conflict between the global trend and the local cultural context in developing HVE. Indeed, China's HVE is a rarely addressed topic in literature of educational research published in English. Unquestionably, my study will contribute to comparative education with the distinct experience of China's HVE.

Delimitations and Limitations of the Research

This research was delimited to examining the cause and effects of the development of HVE in China. Analysis and findings are based on the data collected from HVE-related policy documents enacted between 1980 and 2007. In

terms of China's distinct political, economical, and educational contexts, this major delimitation of the study may impact the applicability of the findings to other contexts. Therefore, readers may need to assess the utility of findings from this study to other settings.

Using policy documents as the key data source means there isn't emphasis on other important data sources such as non-governmental documents, interview texts, and observation notes. This is likely the major limitation of adopting a document content analysis method for this study. In order to minimize the impact of such a limitation on my research, I used some measures to ensure richness of collected data. First, I classified the data into different categories including context, mission, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status of HVE. Then, I organized all categorized data according to the four stages of HVE development. With these measures, the single source data has been contextualized and enriched.

Due to the issue of accessibility, all policy documents for this study were collected from the Internet. Admittedly, such a limitation may result in incompleteness of data. When collecting policy documents online, the importance of the documents was put in priority. In order to ensure that the policy documents collected through the Internet have/had important and/or direct effects on the development of HVE, I usually collected the policy if it has been cited in reviewed research articles on HVE.

Another potential limitation of this study may come from my personal experience as a student, educator, and researcher in China. In the process of

conducting the research, I tried to broaden my view and knowledge through reading and talking to people so as to avoid limited and even stereotyped perceptions. For instance, I conducted a field research at Peking/Beijing University, Beijing, China, between August 2007 and March 2008. The field research provided me opportunity to get access to original Chinese research articles and scholarly books on China's HVE. I also communicated with researchers, education practitioners and government officials related to HVE. The field research enabled me to obtain an overview of the development of HVE, which was helpful because I had been away from China since 2003.

Research Questions

Originally, based on my research proposal, this research was designed as a comparative study examining China's HVE and the US community college education. The main research question was: How has HVE been applied to Chinese higher education as a world model of higher education? However, my literature review of China's HVE and my immersion with HVE data led me to shift my focus from comparing two educational systems to studying one system – China's HVE. Such a change was strongly encouraged by what Kandel (1933) states:

In order to understand, appreciate and evaluate the real meaning of the education system of a nation, it is essential to know something of its history and traditions, of the forces and attitudes governing its social organizations, of the political and economic conditions that determine its development. (p. xix)

Therefore, while shifting my focus solely to China's HVE, the title of my research has become *The Emergence of Higher Vocational Education in*

China(1980-2007): Vocationalism, Confucianism, and Neoinstitutionalism. My major research question now asks:*How have political-economic and sociocultural influences impacted the institutional development of HVE in China?* Such a main question was answered through considering the following sub-questions:

1. What are the driving forces behind developing HVE in China?
2. How do these forces work in HVE development and reform?
3. What are the effects of developing HVE?
4. What are the trends in the development of HVE?

Terms

In this study, I adopted some terms for analysis and discussion. In order to avoid ambiguities, it is necessary to explain some commonly used terms in the research. They mainly include HVE, HVE institutions, short-cycle higher education institutions, universities, vocational education, and regular/general/academic education.

According to UNESCO's International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997, HVE is located at the junior stage of post-secondary education with programs focusing on practical occupational specific skills for workforce preparation, which does not lead directly to an advanced research qualification such as the degree. In this study, the discussed HVE refers to public HVE that comprises the major components of HVE in China.

HVE institutions refer to organizational forms of HVE in China. In the research, HVE institutions include all types of public colleges addressing HVE. These colleges are mainly short-cycle higher education institutions with two to

three-year programs compared to universities with four-year programs. While HVE institutions focus on vocational education, universities mainly focus on regular/general/academic education.

Bragg (2001) states that vocational education “engage[s] learners in education and training linked to enhancing individual and organizational performance (productivity) in the workplace” (p. 6). As well, she notes that vocational education has been labeled with terminology such as “occupational, career, technical or technological, semiprofessional, subbaccalaureate, terminal, workforce preparation, workforce development, human resource development, and economic development” (p. 6).

In contrast to vocational education, regular/general/academic education “include[s] training in the basic skills and the provision of liberal learning opportunities” (Kerr, 1990, p. 298).

Organization of This Dissertation

My dissertation is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter is the introductory section, which presents the purpose, problem, significance, and research questions for my research. Chapter Two provides a review of the relevant literature and background for the study. Chapter Three establishes the analytical framework. Chapter Four describes my role as the researcher, addresses methodological issues of the study, and provides political, economic, educational, and historical contexts of the development of HVE. Chapter Five analyzes HVE-related policy documents between 1980 and 2007. Chapter Six discusses the significant findings of the study. Finally in Chapter Seven, I provide an overview

and a summation of this study, drawing conclusions based on the research questions and providing recommendations for HVE-related policymaking and suggestions for future research on China's HVE.

Chapter 2 Review of the Literature

The purpose of this literature review is to investigate key issues in the development of higher vocational education (HVE) in China from 1980 to 2007. The discussion focuses on the main institutional realities of HVE such as mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status of HVE. In this study, the significant issue is that China has been struggling to resolve the severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by the country's fast growing economy through developing HVE. However, such a mission of HVE has not been realized over the past almost thirty years of HVE development due to a variety of challenges facing HVE. Contributions made by the development of HVE are discussed as well.

Introduction

Since its founding in 1949, The People's Republic of China (PRC) has engaged in socialist modernization under the leadership of the Communist Party of China (CPC). Education at different levels has become a means of supplying builders and successors for the undertaking of socialist construction. Due to political reasons, China's higher education was influenced by the Soviet Union model, which focused on engineer education in the 1950s and 1960s (Ma, 2007; Min, 2004). However, the Cultural Revolution, occurring between 1966 and 1976, interrupted the process of China's socialist modernization. In late 1978, the CPC under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping reinitiated the undertaking of socialist

modernization with the national policy of reform and opening-up. Focusing on economic development, the socialist modernization aimed to build “Socialism with Chinese Characteristics” (*zhongguo tese shehui zhuyi*). Passed on for three generations of leadership from Deng Xiaoping to Jiang Zemin to Hu Jintao, China’s socialist modernization has made great achievements with reform and opening-up. The most phenomenal indicator is the consistently growing gross domestic product (GDP) of the country from \$307,599 billion in 1980 to \$3,248.522 billion in 2007 (IMF, 2007). Meanwhile, the per capita GDP has grown from \$311.634 in 1980 to \$2,459.76 in 2007 (IMF, 2007). The fast growth of China’s economy is presented in Table 2-1.

Table 2-1 China Gross Domestic Product (GDP) & Population (1980-2007)

(Adapted from

<http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2010/01/weodata/weoselgr.aspx>)

Year	GDP percent change	GDP U.S. dollars (billions)	GDP per capita U.S. dollars	Population (millions)
1980	7.91	309.266	313.323	987.05
1981	5.259	292.608	292.398	1,000.72
1982	9.015	281.283	276.706	1,016.54
1983	10.895	301.806	292.992	1,030.08
1984	15.171	310.688	297.717	1,043.57
1985	13.472	307.016	290.045	1,058.51
1986	8.861	297.591	276.811	1,075.07
1987	11.572	323.973	296.407	1,093.00
1988	11.267	404.148	364.012	1,110.26
1989	4.072	451.311	400.439	1,127.04
1990	3.832	390.278	341.352	1,143.33
1991	9.2	409.165	353.268	1,158.23
1992	14.199	488.222	416.675	1,171.71
1993	14.004	613.223	517.413	1,185.17
1994	13.097	559.225	466.604	1,198.50
1995	10.929	727.946	601.007	1,211.21
1996	9.997	856.002	699.411	1,223.89
1997	9.299	952.649	770.589	1,236.26
1998	7.798	1,019.48	817.147	1,247.61

1999	7.6	1,083.29	861.212	1,257.86
2000	8.403	1,198.48	945.597	1,267.43
2001	8.308	1,324.81	1,038.04	1,276.27
2002	9.104	1,453.83	1,131.80	1,284.53
2003	10.003	1,640.96	1,269.83	1,292.27
2004	10.105	1,931.65	1,486.02	1,299.88
2005	10.403	2,235.93	1,710.00	1,307.56
2006	11.606	2,657.85	2,021.98	1,314.48
2007	13.016	3,382.44	2,559.95	1,321.29

In the process of building socialist modernization focusing on economic development, education at different levels has been emphasized to serve such an undertaking by supplying a variety of qualified human resources at different levels. Without a doubt, the Chinese education system has an output goal of producing manpower required by the economy. With the fast development of the economy, however, China has faced a severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower such as “senior skilled workers” (*gaoji jigong*), “technicians” (*jishi*), and “technologists” (*gaoji jishi*) urgently demanded by economic and social development (Gao, 1995; Shao, 2005; Sun, 1994; Wu, 2006; Yang & Meng, et al. 1995; Zeng, 1985; Zeng, 2005; Zhang, 1997; Zhang, 1994; Zhou, 2004a; Zhou, 1985; Zhou, 1986). Gao (1995) points out that “high-level skilled workers, such as senior skilled workers and technicians, are responsible for practical operation in the process of production. Without their work, technologies cannot be transferred into productions” (p. 9).

The shortage of high-level skilled manpower has threatened the economic development of the country in terms of low quality, low efficiency, raw material waste, and rejected products (Cai, 1997; Gao, 1995; Li, 1999; Pan, 1987; Sun, 1994; The Skill-Training Division in the Department of Occupational Skill

Development of the Ministry of Labor, 1998; Wang, 2001; Wang & Bao, 1995; Yu, 1994; Zhang, 1997; Zhang, 1995; Zhou, 1985; Zhou, 1986). According to Gao (1995), the shortage of high-level skilled workers has resulted in the fact that “what usually should be done by high-level skilled workers is actually done by workers with lower level skills. This has directly resulted in an annual loss of RMB 200 billion *yuan* (US\$25 billion) for rejected products” (p. 9).

Since the early 1980s, HVE has emerged and developed in China to fulfill the mission of supplying a high-level skilled workforce urgently demanded by the growing economy. A major reason for accrediting HVE such a mission was the discrepancy between higher education and human resource supply (Cui & Sun, 1989; Gao, 1995; Wang & Bao, 1995; Yang & Meng, et al. 1995). Before 1980, China did not have the kind of education to supply high-level skilled manpower including senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists. Engineers (*gongchengshi*) were supplied by colleges and universities. Skilled workers (*ji gong*) equal to tradesmen in North America were mainly supplied by secondary vocational education. Viewed between engineers and skilled workers, high-level skilled manpower including senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists, were not supplied by a corresponding school education.

With further economic development, China is still facing a severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower (Gao, 1995; The Skill-Training Division in the Department of Occupational Skill Development of the Ministry of Labor, 1998; Li, 1999; Li, 2006; Ma, et al., 2004; People’s Daily, 2004; Wu, 2006; Wu, 2007; XinhuaNet, 2006a; Zhang, 1995). The Ministry of Labor and Social Security

(2003) notes that, “among the 70 million skilled workers in China, there are 42 million junior skilled workers comprising 60% of the total, 25.2 million intermediate skilled workers comprising 36% of the total, and just 2.8 million high-level skilled workers comprising 4% of the total” (para. 2). According to People’s Daily (2003), China is in dire need of high-level skilled workers for further economic development. Thus, supplying high-level skilled manpower for the industry of manufacturing has become an urgent mission for HVE in recent years (Li, 2006; People’s Daily, 2003; Shao, 2005; Zhou, 2004a, 2004b; Zhou, Cheng, & Deng, 2007).

The indication is that the shortage of high-level skilled workers has not been resolved efficiently for almost three decades of HVE development. Why has not the development of HVE resulted in supplying enough qualified high-level skilled manpower for economic development? According to reviewed literature, the development of HVE has been facing various challenges such as an ambiguous role, student loss, high tuition, poor curriculum design, a teacher shortage, low employment rate, insufficient funding, and discrimination against HVE in Chinese society. Admittedly, these challenges have constrained HVE to fulfill its mission of supplying high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by the market. These challenges reflect the situation of HVE in terms of structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, employment, funding and governance, and social status of HVE. Based on these institutional activities, the following section discusses key issues of HVE in contemporary China.

Key Issues in the Development of HVE

Structure. Hayhoe and Zha (2004) reveal three tiers of Chinese public higher education. The top tier is the most prestigious research universities, which belong to “Project 211” (*er yao yao gongcheng*) and/or “Project 985” (*jiu ba wu gongcheng*). Project 211 was carried out in 1995 by the Chinese central government. The purpose was to facilitate the establishment of world-class universities in the 21st century by providing significant financial support for the top 100 universities in China (The Ministry of Education, 2008a). In order to accelerate the establishment of world-class universities, the top nine universities of the 100 universities in Project 211 were selected for a much higher level of funding in May 1998 (Hayhoe & Zha, 2004). Since 1999, the top 36 universities have been selected as universities in Project 985 (The Ministry of Education, 2008b, 2008c, 2008d). The second tier is made up of provincial universities, and the third tier consists of largely short-cycle higher education institutions. HVE institutions are located at the last tier of such a hierarchy.

HVE emerged as short-cycle higher education institutions when Jinling Vocational College (*Jinling zhiye daxue*), the first short-cycle vocational college (*duanqi zhiye daxue*) in China, was founded in Nanjing, China in 1980. With continuous higher education reform, organizational forms of HVE have become diversified based on short-cycle vocational colleges. Currently, they include independent vocational and technical colleges, adult colleges, vocational and technical colleges run by universities, regular junior colleges, independent four-year colleges, and secondary vocational schools providing five-year HVE programs (Cao, 2002; He & Liao, 2005; Wu & Sun, 2008; Zhu, 2001). Except for

secondary vocational schools providing five-year HVE programs, most HVE institutions are mainly designed as short-cycle higher education institutions with two to three-year programs.

Wu and Sun (2008) relate that the development of HVE has made great contributions in restructuring Chinese higher education as a non-university sector. The freshman enrollment of HVE increased from 430, 500 in 1998 to 2, 681, 000 in 2005, which account for 39.73% and 53.12% of total higher education enrollment in the same years (Chen & Guo, 2006; The Ministry of Education, 1998a). With the fast growth of HVE, Chinese higher education has been expanded. Wu Qidi (2004), Vice-Minister of Education, states that HVE plays a key role in transforming China's higher education from an elite system to a mass one.

Practically, HVE has been considered as a type of higher education at junior college levels and not just lower-level higher education (Gao, 2005; He & Liao, 2005; Ye, 2002; Zhang, 2005). Nevertheless, Ye (2002) notes that such a position for HVE has not gained policy support. As short-cycle higher education institutions, HVE was simply treated as higher education at lower levels and its distinct features of human resource supply has been ignored (Yang, 1996; Zhou, 1997). The corollary is that HVE tend to replicate undergraduate education due to its ambiguous role in higher education systems (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; The Research Team of the Education Research Association of China's Vocational Colleges, 1987; Ye, 2002). Moreover, HVE institutions are evaluated with standards for evaluating regular higher education institutions. Consequently, most

HVE institutions have become shortened undergraduate education with three-year programs and were critiqued for the low quality (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; Ye, 1995).

Access. Liu (2006) and Xiong (1995) note that access to HVE institutions is mainly determined by the “National College Entrance Examination” (*gaokao*). Students passing the examination with qualified scores have access to different higher education institutions, including HVE institutions. In China, higher education recruitment is conducted in a certain order based on the aforementioned hierarchy of higher education institutions.

Generally, research universities at the top tier have the priority to recruit students with the highest exam scores. Following that, provincial universities recruit students with lower scores. At the lowest level of the higher education hierarchy, HVE institutions are in the last recruiting group of public higher education institutions. This indicates that HVE institutions only recruit students with the lowest exam scores (Liu, 2006; Wang, 2000). In 1999, the central government initiated the recruitment increase of 100,000 students for HVE institutions to relieve the pressure of students’ increasing needs for higher education (Zhou, 1997; Meng & Zheng, 1999; Wang, 2000). Higher education expansion has led to more students with lower scores entering HVE institutions. This has directly resulted in low student quality in HVE (Gao, 2000; Han, 2001; He & Liao, 2005; Liu, 2006). Tian (2000) and J. Yang (2004) critique that the hierarchical selection system has positioned HVE as inferior higher education, non-formal higher education, and higher education just for low score students. For this reason, many students recruited by HVE institutions have given up their

admissions and gone back to senior high schools for remedial education to prepare for the examination in the next year (Cao, 2002; Liu, 2006; Meng & Zheng, 1999; Wang, 2000). In some HVE institutions these students have accounted for 70% of total recruitment (Meng & Zheng, 1999; Wang, 2000). Tian (2000) and Wang (2000) suggest that such a selection system for HVE students must be reformed with the advent of mass higher education. J. Yang (2004) declares that the hierarchical selection system never worked for HVE students because it adopts academic standards only.

Higher education expansion continued in the early 2000s. During this process, however, student enrollment in HVE shrunk (Cao, 2002; Chen, 2006; Han, 2001; Liu, 2006). According to Han (2001), the freshmen enrollment rate of the HVE institution provided by a prestigious university fell from 95.8% in 1999 to 67.5% in 2000, as some enrolled students withdrew from HVE programs and turned to study abroad. Thus, expanding student sources for HVE has been suggested to resolve such a challenge (Han, 2001; He & Liao, 2005; Liu, 2006).

Generally, student sources for HVE institutions have included senior high school students passing the National College Entrance Examination, graduates from secondary vocational schools, on-the-job technical workers, and senior high school students with relatively high scores who did not pass the examination (Liu, 2006; Xiong, 1995; Xu & Wu, 1991; Ye, 1994). Indeed, regular-senior-high-school graduates have been the major student source for HVE institutions (Han, 2001; Liu, 2006). Recruiting students from secondary vocational schools into HVE institutions has been restricted so as to ensure the stability of secondary

vocational education (Liu, 2006; Ye, 1995; Zhang, 1997). Further, given the fact that senior high school graduates have comprised the major student source for HVE institutions, graduates from secondary vocational schools and on-the-job skilled workers account for a very small proportion (Liu, 2006; Xiong, 1995). Tian and Zhou (2007) suggest that the entrance examination to HVE institutions should be independent from the National College Entrance Examination with a focus on practical knowledge rather than academic knowledge. Some advise that HVE institutions should broaden student sources by recruiting graduates from secondary vocational schools (Han, 2001; Liu, 2006).

Han (2001) notes that a major reason for student loss at HVE institutions is that HVE has been terminal education, by which HVE students' transfer access to undergraduate education is limited. Indeed, transfer access to undergraduate education for HVE emerged around the year 2000 via the "upgrading examination" (*zhuan sheng ben kaoshi*). After one year of study, HVE students can attend the exam and transferred to undergraduate education with qualified scores. In order to realize their dreams of undergraduate education, many students usually spend most of their time preparing for the exam when studying at HVE institutions (Cao, 1994; Dong, Lu, & Lin, 2005; Ye, 2002). Administrators and teaching staff are working hard to help students pass the exam, because the more students pass the exam, the better reputation the institution will have. Thus, the HVE institution might qualify for being upgraded to an undergraduate institution (Chen B. & Chen Z., 2006; Ye, 2002). It is worth noting that the upgrading examination mainly focuses on academic knowledge rather than skill learning.

Thus the upgrading exam is critiqued for weakening the vocational orientation of HVE institutions (Chen, 2006; Chen B. & Chen Z., 2006; Dong et al., 2005; Ye, 2002).

However, in terms of social equity, students' needs for undergraduate education are reasonable. Many educators and researchers have suggested that developing HVE at an undergraduate level may relieve such a tension (Deng, 2004; Gu, 2006; Liu, 2007; Pan, 2004; Yang, 2003; Ye, 2002). Indeed, four-year HVE programs have been tried at some HVE institutions and universities (Ye, 2002). The trend to extend HVE to higher levels, such as the graduate level, has been suggested as well (Li, 2004; Peng, 2006).

Tuition. Ever since the inception of HVE in the early 1980s, HVE institutions have charged students tuition. According to the Research Team of the Education Research Association of Vocational Colleges in China (*zhongguo zhiye daxue jiaoyu yanjiuhui keti yanjiu zu*) (1987), vocational colleges charged students very low tuition in the 1980s. Generally, tuition for arts students was RMB 80 *yuan* (US\$ 52.3) and for science students were RMB 100 *yuan* (US\$ 65.4) per year. According to Ji and Xiong (2006), in 1980, one US dollar equaled RMB 1.53 *yuan*. Before 1997, HVE institutions were the only public higher education institutions charging tuition under the centrally planned economy. Thus, HVE has been credited as the pioneer initiating the market practice of Chinese higher education. With the advent of a market economy, most Chinese college students began to pay tuition in the late 1990s (Li, 2006).

With higher education expansion in the early 2000s, tuition for HVE

institutions has become unreasonably high, even higher than that for universities (Chen, 2006; Gao, 2000; Guo, 2003; Li, 2004; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004; Zhang, 2002). Zhang (2002) reveals that in Hebei Province, tuition for HVE institutions is RMB 5,000 *yuan* (US\$ 604.6) while tuition for universities is RMB 3,000 *yuan* (US\$ 362.8). In 2005, one US dollar equaled RMB 8.27 *yuan* (Ji & Xiong, 2006). Leaders of HVE institutions attribute the high tuition to insufficient funding (J. Yang, 2004). According to Gao (2000), poor students have to give up their admissions to HVE institutions due to unaffordable tuition. Referring to the majority of students from low-income families, J. Yang (2004) notes that the unreasonably high tuition of HVE institutions has resulted in education inequity. Chen (2006) stated that high tuition of HVE was a result of policy.

Curriculum. In order to supply qualified high-level skilled manpower, specialization design and curriculum development at HVE institutions need to focus on occupational requirements so as to meet economic development demands (Li, 2007; Lou, 2005; Lu, 2006; Meng & Zheng, 1999; Wang, 1995; Ye, 1985; L. Zhang, 2006; Zhang, 1985; Zhang, 1990; Zhu, 2001). With such a principle, HVE courses need to equip student with necessary theories and practical skills, in which experiment, practice, and practical training should comprise a large proportion of HVE course content (Meng & Zheng, 1999; Wang & Shen, 1998; Yang, et al., 1999; Zhu, 2001). Accordingly, the teaching system at HVE institutions is comprised of two major parts: the theoretical teaching system and the practical teaching system (Wang & Shen, 1998, p. 25). Specialization design and curriculum development at HVE institutions should meet student

employment requirements and meet the market requirements through carrying out practical training in teaching processes, cooperating with industries in human resource supply by conducting “order education” (*dingdan shi jiaoyu*) and developing “characteristic specializations” (*tese zhuanaye*) (Liang & Liu, 2007; Liu, Guo, & Peng, 2004; Wang & Shen, 1998; Xu, 2006; Zhu, 2001).

Currently, HVE specializations and curricula do not meet economic demands. This has led to the fact that skilled manpower is in short supply while HVE graduates have difficulties in getting employment (Ma, 2006). According to Ye (1994), the central and provincial governments do not understand HVE well and do not take good care of HVE institutions. This has mainly led to the current contradiction in developing HVE institutions. For instance, specialization designed by the central government does not fit the local economic needs (Liu, 1989; Lou, 1994; Wang, 1995; Ye, 1994). Impacted by traditional education ideologies, some HVE institutions still duplicate academic higher education in terms of curriculum development and teaching. Practical teaching is ignored in HVE practice (Ma, 2006; Wu & Sun, 2008).

As well, humanities education is ignored in HVE institutions while practical skills of students are emphasized repeatedly (Chen, 2003; Gao, 2000; Gong, 1998; Ji, 2005; Wang, 2007). In order to change the situation, many researchers suggest that HVE institutions should carry out humanities education based on profound Chinese traditional culture such as Confucianism.

Teaching staff. Scholars agree that qualified teaching staff is a vital factor in producing high-quality practical manpower at HVE institutions (Huang, 2003;

Wang, 1995; Wang, 2004; Wang & Bao, 1995; Zhang, 2005; Zhu, 2001). HVE teachers mainly consist of full-time teachers, part-time teachers, and contract teachers (Meng & Zheng, 1999; Peng, 2002; The Research Team of the Education Research Association of China's Vocational Colleges, 1987; Ye, 1985; Zhu, 2001). Generally, supplied by regular higher education, full-time teachers lack practical experience. These teachers are usually trained at HVE institutions before starting teaching (Wang & Bao, 1995). According to Huang (2003), currently, graduated college students comprised the vast majority (69%) of HVE teachers (p. 19). In addition, HVE institutions hire part-time teachers with rich practical experience from industries (Huang, 2003; The Research Team of the Education Research Association of China's Vocational Colleges, 1987; Ye, 1985; Zhu, 2001).

With the mission to supply high-level skilled manpower, teachers at HVE institutions are required to have two qualities. According to Huang (2006), Liu and Wang (2007), and Baoge Zhang (2006), "the two-quality teacher" (*shuangshi xing jiaoshi*) generally has following meanings. First, two-quality teachers refer to teachers with two certificates including teaching certificates and professional qualification certificates. Second, two-quality teachers have two professional titles, such as a title of the professor plus a title of the engineer. Third, two-quality teachers indicate teachers with two types of knowledge such as academic knowledge and practical experiences. Moreover, two-quality teachers also refer to teachers hired from two sources including full-time teachers hired from college graduates and part-time teachers hired from industries. These different

understandings had led to different goals in team building of two-quality teachers at HVE institutions. The ambiguity of two-quality teachers may account for the slow progress of building the team of two-quality teachers at HVE institutions.

Indeed, HVE institutions have been facing a shortage of two-quality teachers (Gong, 1998; Han, 2001; Huang, 2003; Lou, 2006; Baoge Zhang, 2006). Without a doubt, the ambiguous meaning of two-quality teachers may account for the teacher shortage at HVE institutions. The most direct reason is that the vast majority of HVE teachers are college graduates without practical experiences due to the academic focus in Chinese higher education. Consequently, teaching at HVE institutions has been focusing on academic knowledge more than practical knowledge. Apparently, this does not fit the mission of HVE to supply the high-level skilled manpower demanded by economic and social development (Liao, 2006; Lou, 2006; Teng & Gao, 2007; Zhang L., 2006).

Another major reason causing teacher shortage is the issue of the brain drain challenging HVE institutions (Li & Lang, 2006; Liao, 2006; Wang, 2006). According to the same authors, the brain drain at HVE institutions has mainly resulted from social prejudice toward HVE, less funding for HVE, and an unfavorable work environment for HVE teachers. Moreover, less policy emphasis, less industry involvement, and inappropriate evaluation standards were also reasons for the shortage (Lou, 2006; Baoge Zhang, 2006).

In order to build a stable team of two-quality teachers, HVE institutions have been advised to regularly send teachers for field practice in industries so as to enhance on-the-job training, import qualified teachers from various sources

such as key technicians from industries to be full-time and part-time teachers, supply two-quality teachers through cooperating with industries, set up customized evaluation standards for HVE teachers, and improve administration systems for teachers so as to create a favorable work environment for teachers (Peng, 2002; Wang, 1995; Wang, 2000; Wang, 2004; Wang & Bao, 1995; Zhu, 2001). Additionally, China has build up four-year teachers' colleges of technology to supply two-quality teachers for HVE institutions (Gao, 2000; Wang & Shen, 1998).

Graduate employment. Although graduate employment for HVE was not based on the tradition of central job placement for college graduates when HVE emerged in the early 1980s, HVE graduate employment did not become an important issue in Chinese society until the occurrence of higher education expansion after the year 1999 (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; Shen & Wang, 1988; Wang, 1988; Wang, 1998; Wang & Bao, 1995; Xi, 2006; Ye, 1985). Pan (2004) points out that only 100 out of 1,047 HVE institutions have a good graduate employment rate around 90%. The graduate employment rate for many other HVE institutions is around 50% and goes as low as 30%. This situation is harmful for the sustainable development of HVE (Liu, 2006).

There are a variety of reasons leading to the tough situation of HVE graduate employment. First, HVE institutions focus on academic education by duplicating universities and blindly emphasizing the number of students passing the upgrading examination (Chen, 2006). The consequence is that HVE graduates are less competitive than university graduates in terms of academic knowledge,

and also are less competitive than secondary vocational school graduates in terms of practical skills. Second, vocational schools focus on supplying human resources for the industry of service while few human resources have been supplied for the industry of manufacturing (Li, 2006). Furthermore, most HVE institutions are short of qualified teachers (Liu, 2006). Moreover, the system of vocational qualification certificates does not work well in student employment (Liu, 2006). In addition, employers prefer to hire graduates with high credentials, while HVE students are not granted degrees but diplomas and occupational qualification certificates (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004).

According to Yang and Chen (2006), college graduates' employment-seeking has been impacted by the traditional (Confucian) view on careers – to be government officials. The civil servant has been ranked the number one most popular jobs among college graduates in recent years (Li, 2007; XinhuaNet, 2006b). This indicates that currently, Chinese college graduates do not significantly value the occupation of high-level skilled workers.

In addition, Zeng (2005) notes that human resource distribution in China is uneven in terms of industries and regions. While human resource supply for non-state-owned sectors and industries is insufficient, qualified human resources are mainly concentrating in state-owned sectors, government departments and public institutions. Although HVE graduates were advised to work in grassroots areas and units such as rural areas, township enterprises, local small and medium enterprises, and service sectors so as to serve local needs (Li, 1989; Wang, 1995; Ye, 1985, 1994; Zhang, 1997), college graduates prefer to work in cities due to

the predominance of city culture (Li, 2007; Yang & Chen, 2006). Indeed, not only these grassroots areas/units but also major cities were facing the shortage of high-level skilled manpower (Wang, 1995; Ye, 1995; Yu, 1994; Zhang, 1995; Zhang, 1985; Zhou, 1985; Zhou, 1986).

Liang and Liu (2007) relate that in order to achieve a high employment rate of HVE graduates, HVE institutions need to cooperate with industries in design of specializations, construction of practical training bases, carrying out order education; and implementation of certificates upon student graduation so as to ensure the quality of graduates.

Policy adjustment to help HVE institutions advance is suggested as the main solution. Policymakers and most researchers and educators have reached a consensus that HVE institutions should serve the market needs to improve graduates' employment competency (He & Liao, 2005; Zhou, 2004a, 2004b). According to Li (2007), the HVE graduate employment rate is increasing in Sichuan Province because "employers value HVE graduates' work attitude, with which they are willing to work in small and medium sized industries at grassroots levels" (p. 47).

Funding and governance. Based on the aforementioned higher education hierarchy, the funding system in Chinese public higher education is also hierarchical. On the top, universities in Project 985 and Project 211 are key funded institutions. The second tier includes universities under the direct governance of the Ministry of Education. Universities at the top two levels are funded by both central government and provincial/ municipal governments.

Funding for universities under the supervision of each province/municipality mainly comes from provincial/municipal governments. Most universities in China are located at this level. Since each province/ municipality has its own Project 211, a similar funding hierarchy exists at provincial/municipal levels. Located at the bottom of the hierarchy, HVE institutions usually get the least funding.

Compared to universities, China's HVE institutions have very limited government funding. Provincial/municipal government appropriation and tuition are the major sources by which HVE is funded mainly according to student headcounts (Liu, 2006; Shen & Wang, 1988; Yang J., 2004; Zeng, 2004). Due to the uneven development of the economy, the amount of funding from provincial/municipal governments varies across the country. Among China's three major economic development zones, the west is less developed than the central and the coastal areas (Wang, 2004). Most HVE institutions in Western China could not gain funding from the local government (Zhao, 2001; The Higher Education Division in Shaanxi Provincial Department of Education, 2007). Undoubtedly, government investment for HVE is limited due to factors such as imbalance of regional economic development and limited financial capacity of local governments. In addition, most provincial/municipal governments do not set up standards for per student funding. Therefore, funding for HVE institutions is unsecured, which has been the major factor impeding the development of HVE (Wu & Sun, 2008).

Indeed, ever since its emergence in the early 1980s, HVE has been facing the challenge of insufficient funding, mainly insufficient government funding,

especially the central government funding (Gu, 2006; Liu, 2006; The Research Team of the Education Research Association of China's Vocational Colleges, 1987; Wang, 1988; Wang, 1998; Wang, 2000; Wang & Bao, 1995; Yang J., 2004). HVE needs more investment because it needs necessary conditions for practical teaching and training (Ye, 2002). J. Yang (2004) and Ye (2002) note that costing more than regular education, vocational education needs more government investment. Insufficient funding has led to the fact that teaching conditions for most vocational schools cannot meet basic requirements for practical teaching and training (Liu, 2006; Sun, Huang, & Lin, 2002; Yang J., 2004). Thus, insufficient funding for facilities has led to the fact that HVE institutions cannot retain their characteristics as suppliers for high-level skilled manpower (Liu, 2006).

Although industry, private donations, and school-run factories are also mentioned as funding sources for HVE institutions, funding from these channels is still very small (He & Liao, 2005; Ye, 2002; Zeng, 2004). Industry is regarded as the greatest potential funding source and partner for HVE (Sun & Wang, 2003; Ye, 2002). However, collaboration between the two has not been widely developed. Suggestions on resolving the problem include government coordination, tax reduction, and adjustment of HVE (Sun & Wang, 2003; Wu, 2007; Ye, 2002). A newly emerged order education in HVE institutions is expected to connect the two parts.

Multiple funding sources were suggested to ensure and increase investment in HVE, such as government funds, industry fees for contract training, students' tuition and fees, donations by non-government sectors and individuals,

and revenue generated by HVE institutions through school-run industries and commercialization of technological service (He & Liao, 2005; Ye, 2002; Zeng, 2004). Except for Zeng (2004), many researchers agree that government funds, especially the central government funds, for HVE should be increased (Deng, 2004; Ye, 2002). As a matter of fact, since 2004, the central government has allocated special funds for construction of practical training bases at qualified HVE institutions (The Sixth National Education Forum, 2006). Moreover, implementing the Project of Establishing 100 Nationwide Model HVE Institutions, the central government has allocated RMB 2.43 billion *yuan* (US\$ 0.31 billion) to enhance the development of these 100 model HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2009a). This is the first significant financial support for HVE by the central government. Inspired by the central government's support, provincial/municipal governments and industry have also allocated RMB 5 billion *yuan* (US\$ 0.64 billion) and RMB 1.2 billion *yuan* (US\$ 0.15 billion) to build model HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2009a). Another aspect attracting more government funding is education equity. Since September 2007, students at HVE institutions have been eligible for applying for college student assistance funded by the central government. According to Prime Minister Wen Jiabao (2007), the total amount of money the central government appropriated for this project in 2007 was RMB 9.5 billion *yuan* (US\$ 1.27 billion), and in 2008, it was RMB 20 billion *yuan* (US\$ 2.67 billion). In addition to that, local governments also allocate funds to this project.

The emergence and development of HVE has transformed higher

education governance from two-level governance by the central and provincial governments to more levels including the central government, provincial/autonomous/municipal governments, city governments, and some county governments (Min, 1994; Ye, 1985). Before the formal establishment of HVE in 1996, vocational colleges were under the direct governance of the “Department of Vocational Education” (*zhiyejiaoyu si*) in the Ministry of Education. After, HVE has been under the governance of the “Department of Higher Education” (*gaodeng jiaoyu si*) in the Ministry of Education.

The current government governance over HVE is critiqued for being so rigorous that autonomy of HVE institutions in daily operation has been largely limited (Wang, 2004; Zeng, 2004). According to Zeng (2004), the government has played a variety of roles in developing HVE, such as making annual recruitment plans, determining recruitment methods, designing specializations, setting up fee standards and household registration, granting diplomas, guiding graduate employment, confirming the standard for per student funding, determining arrangements for curricula, text-books, and course hours, ensuring education quality, regulating education provisions, and improving school conditions. In order to increase HVE institutions’ autonomy and create a flexible environment for HVE institutions to run independently and meet the needs of the market with China’s accession to the World Trade Organization, the government is encouraged to play certain roles in developing HVE such as the policymaker of HVE-related laws, regulations, and policies, the coordinator of HVE development, the supervisor of HVE, the facilitator of implementation of HVE-related policy,

and investor in HVE (Wang, 2004; Wu & Sun, 2008; Zeng, 2004). Wu and Sun (2008) state that the government should focus on macro rather than micro management over HVE. That is, the government should provide guidance through creating a favorable environment, build the interactive platform, make policy, and provide information service for HVE institutions to independently run in the market.

Social status. HVE has had lesser status in Chinese society for a long time (Guo, 2003; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004; Zhang, 1985). Researchers, educators, and policy makers have realized that the lower status of HVE is rooted in the Confucian notion of the “scholar-official” (*shidafu*), which values the production of academic knowledge and scholar-officials (*civil servants*) rather than practical knowledge and skilled workers (Gao, 1994; Münch & Risler, 1987; Nivison & Wright, 1959; Ogden 1995; Wang, 2000; Xiong, 2007; Yang & Chen, 2006; Ye, 1995; Zhang, 1985). Most Chinese people are deeply impacted by the idea that “a good scholar will make a government official” (*xue er you ze shi*) (Peng, 2001; Sun et al., 2002).

In such a situation, HVE has lacked social/cultural acceptability and credibility in Chinese society for a long time (Cao, 2002; Wang, 2004; Xiong, 2007, 2008). For example, there is an environment of discriminating against vocational education (HVE) as non-formal higher education and inferior higher education (Cao, 2002; Sun et al., 2002; Tian, 2000; Wang, 1995; Wang, 2000; Wang, 2004; Yang J., 2004; Yao, 2004; Zhang, 1985; Zhou, 1986). Second, many HVE institutions are facing student loss (Cao, 2002; Liu, 2006). Third, HVE

graduates are undergoing difficulties in getting employed (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; Wang, 2004; Yao, 2004). Furthermore, HVE institutions have been trying to remove “vocational” from their names and many HVE institutions are trying to upgrade to become prestigious undergraduate institutions (Tian, 2000; Ye, 2002). Moreover, HVE students focus on preparing for the upgrading examination to move to undergraduate education (Dong et al., 2005; Ye, 2002).

Additionally, according to Meng (as cited in Zhou, 1997), the lower status of HVE results from policy bias against HVE. In centralized China, the biased policy deteriorates the situation of HVE even further (Cao, 2002; Liu, 2006; Meng & Zheng, 1999; Sun et al., 2002; Yang J., 2004). For instance, in the hierarchical recruiting system, HVE institutions are in the last group to recruit students with lower scores. Second, HVE students’ residence registration (see p. 103) is not moved to where the HVE institutions are located; furthermore, HVE graduates are not issued unified diplomas and dispatch letters for employment (see p. 105) as are other college graduates; and HVE students are charged high tuition. These policies have led to the situation that HVE does not belong to formal higher education (Chen, 2006; Sun et al., 2002).

Consequently, HVE has been treated as an adjunctive and peripheral part of higher education in China (Pan et al., 2005; Yang, 2003). Problems facing HVE, such as the ambiguous role, student loss, high tuition, institution upgrading, poor curriculum design, teacher shortage, low graduate employment rate, and insufficient funding are considered to be the major results of the lower status of HVE. These problems have been regarded as the major barrier in further

developing HVE (Guo, 2003; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004; Zhang, 1985; Zhang, 2005).

In order to improve the lower social status of HVE, some researchers have suggested HVE to improve its quality (Guo, 2003). Many researchers and educators note that government policy support is needed to improve the status of HVE (Liu, 2006; Meng & Zheng, 1999; Pan, 2004; Wang & Bao, 1995; Xiong, 2008).

Summary

Aiming at supplying high-level skilled manpower including senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists, China's HVE has been developed as a non-university sector of higher education over the past three decades. In the process of fulfilling such a core mission, HVE has made great contributions. First, while restructuring Chinese higher education as a non-university sector, the development of HVE has resulted in diversification of higher education institutions. HVE institutions mainly include independent vocational and technical colleges, adult colleges, vocational and technical colleges run by universities, regular junior colleges, independent four-year colleges, and secondary vocational schools providing five-year HVE programs. Consequently, Chinese higher education has been expanded with increased HVE institutions and student enrollment. Second, the development of HVE has introduced practical knowledge into higher education curriculum and teaching, which were mainly focused on academic knowledge. Moreover, the development of HVE is credited as an experiment of market practice of Chinese higher education in terms of tuition,

non-central-placement of graduates, and decentralized funding and governance.

Nevertheless, the development of HVE has been full of challenges.

Reviewed literature indicates that challenges facing HVE are mainly rooted in two factors: one is the tradition of Confucianism, which values academic knowledge/theorists and ignores practical knowledge/skilled workers; the other is biased policies. These two factors have mutually enhanced a situation of discriminating HVE in Chinese society.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there are biased policies related to HVE: 1) The hierarchical system of Chinese higher education in which HVE is treated as lower level higher education; 2) HVE can only recruit low quality students; 3) HVE is funded with the least money; 4) HVE charges students unreasonably high tuition; 5) the regulated mission of HVE to supply high-level skilled manpower has made HVE terminal education, which mainly prepares HVE students for employment not for gaining upward mobility in higher education systems; 6) the centralized control of higher education specialization and curriculum design has meant that specializations and curricula at HVE institutions do not accommodate local needs, which has led to difficulties in HVE graduate employment. In addition, biased policies related to HVE can also be found in evaluation activities at HVE institutions. HVE institutions are evaluated with standards for assessing regular higher education institutions, especially universities. Furthermore, although HVE teachers are required to have two qualities, evaluation standards for these teachers are borrowed from universities as well, which totally ignores practical skills that HVE teacher should have. Instead,

evaluation focuses on the academic knowledge of teachers such as how many research articles they have published. Moreover, the decentralized administrative system of HVE has also reinforced the issue of insufficient funding for HVE.

Unquestionably, these biased policies cover many aspects of HVE operations such as structure, access, tuition, graduate employment, curriculum, teaching staff, and funding and governance of HVE. Thus, the development of HVE has been largely restricted in fulfilling its mission of supplying high-level skilled manpower.

Consequently, policy biases have led to challenges facing HVE such as the ambiguous role, student loss, high tuition, institution upgrading, poor curriculum design, teacher shortage, low graduate employment rate, and insufficient funding.

Synthesis

With almost thirty years of development, China's HVE has been required to supply high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by economic and social development, which mainly refers to senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists. However, the severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower is still challenging the further development of China's economy. A major reason is that the development of HVE has been full of challenges since its inception in the early 1980s. Most of them have influenced the development of HVE jointly. For instance, student loss, low quality students, and insufficient funding directly result from the hierarchical system of Chinese higher education. Within the hierarchical recruitment system, HVE institutions can only recruit students with lower scores who are considered low quality students. Thus it enhances discrimination against HVE as inferior higher education. Consequently, students do not want to enter

HVE institutions. Therefore, many HVE institutions are challenged by student loss. As well, student loss is reinforced by limited upward social mobility. In order to supply high-level skilled manpower in the short-cycle, HVE is mainly terminal. Limited upward social mobility has kept many students away from HVE because they believe HVE is inferior higher education in terms of terminal education. Moreover, many students from low-income families have to give up their admissions to HVE institutions because of unreasonably high tuition.

Within the hierarchical funding system, HVE institutions are usually funded insufficiently. Insufficient funding has resulted in unreasonably high tuition and poor teaching conditions at HVE institutions. As discussed earlier, while students from low-income families cannot afford the high tuition charged by HVE institutions, poor teaching conditions, especially poor facilities for practical teaching and training, have made employment difficult for HVE graduates.

Another example is the duplication of undergraduate education. HVE institutions duplicate specializations and curricula of undergraduate education for the following reasons: 1) universities are more prestigious than HVE institutions in the hierarchy of Chinese higher education; 2) the majority of teachers at HVE institutions lack practical experience; 3) HVE institutions lack necessary equipment and facilities for practical teaching and training; and 4) HVE institutions have limited autonomy in specialization and curriculum development. Consequently, HVE graduates are facing difficulties in employment because they are less competitive than undergraduate graduates in terms of academic

knowledge and they are less competitive than secondary vocational school graduates in terms of technical knowledge.

Moreover, the Confucian tradition that values academic knowledge/theorists rather than practical knowledge/skilled workers has tremendous impacts on various stakeholders of HVE. For students and parents, HVE is not formal higher education. Thus students do not want to enter HVE institutions. Parents do not want their children to enter HVE institutions as well. For HVE practitioners, such as leaders and teachers at HVE institutions, they consider HVE institutions to be less prestigious than universities. Thus, they are working hard to upgrade their institutions to prestigious undergraduate institutions. For policymakers, HVE is located at the lowest level of the higher education hierarchy; HVE institutions are regulated to recruit students with lower scores; and HVE institutions are always funded with the least money due to the hierarchical funding system of higher education. Thus such policymaking has made HVE an adjunctive and peripheral part of Chinese higher education although the importance of HVE has been emphasized repeatedly by policymakers. For employers, they prefer to hire college graduates with high credentials such as degrees while HVE graduates are not granted degrees.

Undoubtedly, these challenges are intertwining in influencing the development of HVE. According to existing literature, it seems that if these challenges could be resolved efficiently, HVE would be able to fulfill its mission of supplying high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by the fast growing economy. However, resolving these challenges is not easy. The intertwining effect

of challenges has made it difficult and complicated to resolve them. Most of them have existed for a long time since the inception of HVE in the early 1980s, such as the ambiguous role, institution upgrading, poor curriculum design, teacher shortage, insufficient funding and discrimination against HVE in Chinese society, while some challenges only emerged with the expansion of higher education in the early 2000s, such as student loss, unreasonably high tuition, and low employment rate. This indicates that most challenges have never been resolved efficiently while new challenges continue to emerge. Therefore, it is worth asking why these challenges have not been resolved and how to resolve them efficiently.

Considering that most challenges facing HVE represent the lesser status of HVE, policy biases in HVE-related policies are reflecting the impact of Confucianism on policymakers. Although the tradition of Confucianism and biased policies have enhanced each other in influencing HVE to fulfill its mission of supplying high-level skilled manpower, I agree with many other researchers that HVE-related policy adjustment and policy support are vital for improving the lesser status and resolving other challenges facing HVE in centralized China. Thus it is necessary to look into how HVE has been constructed in related government policy and what the effects are. However, there are very few researchers carrying out in-depth investigations on such a topic. My research is going to contribute to this area.

Chapter 3 Analytical Framework: Vocationalism, Confucianism, and Neoinstitutionalism

In this chapter, I develop a theoretical framework based on conceptions of vocationalism, Confucianism, and neoinstitutionalism. Vocationalism is discussed as an emerging trend in developing HVE, which is a response to the global competition demand driven by workforces needed for a knowledge economy. As well, China's HVE has been deeply influenced by Confucianism – the dominant traditional culture in Chinese education. The development of HVE is considered a process of the institutionalization of HVE. As a neoinstitutionalist notion, the process of institutionalization of HVE represents a process of gaining HVE legitimacy at regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive levels and experiencing isomorphic changes among HVE institutions.

Vocationalism

The core belief of vocationalism is that formal schooling should prepare a skilled workforce for national and global economies (Coulter & Goodson, 1993; Golby, 1987; Grubb, 2006; Grubb & Lazerson, 2004, 2005; Hickox, 1995; Skilbeck et al., 1994). Moore and Hickox (1999) state that “in the contemporary world, a better educated and trained workforce is an indispensable prerequisite for any economy that wishes to compete at the level of high quality, ‘value added’ products” (p. 50). Brown and Lauder (2006) stress that

The dominant view today is that we have entered a global knowledge economy, driven by the application of new technologies and collapsing barriers to international trade and investment, accelerating the evolutionary path from a low to a high skills economy. Becker (2002) has depicted an ‘age of human capital’, where the prosperity of individuals and nations rests on the skills, knowledge and enterprise of all rather than the elite few that drove industrial capitalism in the twentieth century. This

view is reflected in the central role of education in national economic and social policy. Not only is education seen to hold the key to a competitive economy but it is also seen to be the foundation of social justice and social cohesion. (p. 25)

Although critiquing the human capital theory for exaggerating the role of education in employment, Livingstone (1999) reveals some characteristics of the knowledge economy as follows: knowledge becomes essential in production; higher education credentials enhance employment competency; a professional and technical workforce has expanded; and workers require more skills for employment. Obviously, vocationalism may serve the needs of the knowledge economy.

Hickox (1995) notes that the state has played a major role in promoting vocationalism in individual countries, especially the United States. According to Grubb (2006) and Grubb and Lazerson (2005), vocationalism (or professionalism) has a longer history in the United States than in any other country. Starting in 1862 with the Morrill Act, the impact of vocationalism on American higher education intensified over the course of the twentieth century. This has led to the extreme version of vocationalism in the recent two decades with “the [the government’s] shrill harping on the importance of skills” (Grubb, 2006, p. 29). The twentieth century has been termed as “the century of vocationalism, the century of professionalization, or (as economists might say) the century of human capital” (Grubb and Lazerson, 2005, p. 300), in which an intensification of vocationalism has emerged since the oil crises of the 1970s and resulted in “the increasing number of vocational learning opportunities and qualifications at upper secondary and tertiary levels in education systems across the world, and an

increasing emphasis on developing work-related skills in the young” (Hayward, 2004, p. 4).

Grubb and Lazerson (2005) summarize that vocationalism has four meanings as follows:

One meaning involves “occupational intentions,” where students and others view the purpose of a school or a university as occupational preparation. A second meaning depends on whether an institution’s subject matter is directed toward overtly vocational ends—the criterion of “occupational curriculum.” A third conception of vocationalism, “related employment,” involves the connection between education and employment. A fourth version of vocationalism, “required schooling,” where a particular kind of schooling is an absolute requirement to enter an occupation; examples include medical school for doctors, PhD programs for professors, and prebaccalaureate licenses for aviation mechanics. (pp. 309-310)

Ryan (2003) assesses vocationalism with three criteria: economic, educational, and social. He argues three merits of vocationalism as follows: first, students can get economic benefits because “a schooling system that teaches work-related skills is taken to contribute more to economic performance than does one with the classical orientation to book learning and knowledge for its own sake” (p. 149). Second, students are willing to learn theories and techniques in a practical context because “contextualization of knowledge increases learning” (p. 149). Third, “advocated as a way not only to increase average educational attainment, but also to reduce the variance of attainments”, vocationalism “tends to reduce socio-economic inequality” (p. 150).

Based on the same criteria, vocationalism is critiqued as well. First, the greater cost of vocational education does not result in economic benefit for students. Second, lacking moral and political perspectives, vocational education

does not foster the critical thinking ability of students which has resulted in “an uncritical acceptance of work as currently organized, with all its hierarchy and inequality” (p. 151). And finally, “instead of encouraging all young people to learn a common curriculum, vocationalism promotes curricular differentiation, early streaming by achievement (and thus by social background), and the consolidation of educational and social inequality” (p. 151).

In terms of economic, educational, and social criteria proposed by Ryan (2003), vocationalism exerts influences on higher education as follows. First, vocationalism has led to the fact that higher education focuses more on workforce preparation. Second, vocationalism has resulted in higher education expansion with diversified higher education institutions belonging to the non-university sector. Third, vocationalism has caused inequity issues in higher education. In other words, vocationalism is shaping China’s HVE with workforce preparation, higher education expansion, and the issue of equity.

Workforce preparation. Driven by global competition, higher education institutions in many countries are required to serve national interests in the global marketplace with increasing focus on the practical and technical value of higher education (Currie, 2004). A rationale for vocationalizing higher education is the powerful effects of higher education on human resource development because “economic development in a global market is easier if a country’s workforce both is productive and has the mental agility to retrain for new industries as old ones become defunct and new opportunities arise” (Bloom, 2004, p. 57).

The development of HVE in China is a very good example. As a non-university sector of higher education, HVE has been developed with a focus on producing high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by economic development. As Bloom (2004) notes, “weak human capabilities are the source of many of the problems policy makers are confronted with” (p. 57). The shortage of high-level skilled workers has been a challenge facing Chinese policy makers since the inception of economic reform and development in the late 1970s. Thus, developing HVE is regarded an efficient way to resolve such a challenge.

Higher education expansion. Vocationalism leads to higher education expansion (Grubb, 2006; Grubb & Lazerson, 2005). Ryan (2003) points out that the past century is “the century of vocationalism, an era in which the expansion and vocationalization of school-based education went hand in hand” (p. 147).

Higher education expansion mainly refers to the expansion of student enrollment. Johnstone, Arora, and Experton (1998) note that the expansion of higher education has been an important theme of higher education reform in the world. This expansion is driven by both the demands of a growing, upwardly mobile population and the needs of an increasingly competitive, technologically sophisticated economy. Trow (1973, 2005) defines three stages of higher education according to changes in *higher education gross enrollment ratio*—the proportion of the relevant age group that attends post-secondary institutions. The first is *elite higher education*, which is characterized as a stage when the gross enrollment ratio is less than 15% of the age group. *Mass higher education* is the second stage when the gross enrollment ratio is more than 15% and less than 50%.

The third stage is *universal higher education* when the gross enrollment ratio is more than 50%.

In most countries, higher education expansion occurs not simply from expanding existing universities, but by developing diversified institutions, especially lower-cost short-cycle colleges with missions and functions different from traditional universities (Grubb, 2006; Scott, 1996; Trow, 1996). The best example for this is the role community colleges play in transforming American higher education. HVE institutions are just such similar short-cycle colleges in China. Trow (1996) notes that the United States was the first country to enter the mass higher education stage, and later universal higher education. In 1964, other western countries began the transition from elite higher education to mass higher education. By the 1980s, developed countries had finished such a transition in higher education (Reiko, 2001). Although it is exclusively American based, Trow's theory of mass higher education has been extensively applied to many other countries' higher education policies and practices (Reiko, 2001; Scott, 1996), including China (The Ministry of Education, 2009b; Wu, 2004). Since 2002, China's higher education has entered the stage of mass higher education with the gross enrollment ratio of 15% (The Ministry of Education, 2009b). The massification of Chinese higher education is still ongoing. It has been well recognized that HVE has played a key role in transforming China's higher education from elite higher education to mass higher education. The details of Chinese higher education expansion are presented in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 Chinese Higher Education Expansion at Levels of Undergraduate and Junior College Education (1980 – 2007) (Zheng, 2008)

Year	Institutions	Recruitment (10,000)	Gross Enrollment Rates (%)	Enrollment (10,000)	Graduates (10,000)
1980	675	28.1	2.22	114.4	14.7
1981	704	27.9	2.16	127.9	14
1982	715	31.5	1.96	115.4	45.7
1983	805	39.1	2.09	120.7	33.5
1984	902	47.5	2.37	139.6	28.7
1985	1016	61.9	2.91	170.3	31.6
1986	1054	57.2	3.56	188	39.3
1987	1063	61.68	3.6	195.9	53.19
1988	1075	66.97	3.7	206.6	55.35
1989	1075	59.71	3.67	208.2	57.62
1990	1075	60.89	3.45	206.1	61.36
1991	1075	69.99	3.2	204.4	61.43
1992	1053	75.41	3.47	218.4	60.42
1993	1065	92.4	4.68	253.6	57.07
1994	1080	89.98	5.7	279.9	63.74
1995	1054	92.59	6.86	290.6	80.54
1996	1032	96.58	8.03	302.1	83.86
1997	1020	100	8.84	317.4	82.91
1998	1022	108.4	9.76	340.9	82.98
1999	1071	159.7	10.5	413.4	84.76
2000	1041	220.6	11.2	556.1	94.98
2001	1225	268.3	12.9	719.1	103.63
2002	1396	320.5	15	903.4	133.73
2003	1552	382.2	17	1109	187.75
2004	1731	447.3	19	1334	239.1
2005	1792	504.5	21	1562	306.8
2006	1867	546.1	22	1739	377.47
2007	1908	565.9	23	1885	447.79

Higher education equity.¹ Vocationalism is critiqued for leading to inequity in higher education (Grubb, 2006; Grubb & Lazerson, 2004, 2005; Ryan,

2003). First, greater access to higher education does not mean equitable access. This is reflected by limited student sources of HVE, in which secondary-vocational-school graduates are strictly limited to enter HVE institutions. Second, HVE students are at a disadvantage in terms of getting access to higher education at different levels (Grubb & Lazerson, 2005). This has mainly resulted from the streaming function of vocationalizing education. Focusing on workforce preparation, HVE is mainly terminal education. In other words, providing very limited transfer access to undergraduate education, HVE provides students very limited upward mobility. Moreover, Grubb and Lazerson (2005) and Ryan (2003) critique that vocationalism has resulted in narrow curricula which focus on skill learning but ignore humanities education. In order to ensure students' employment competency, HVE has been required to focus on practical skill learning rather than academic-knowledge learning such as humanities education. It is well known that vocational education does not foster the critical thinking ability of students, which has resulted in "an uncritical acceptance of work as currently organized, with all its hierarchy and inequality" (Ryan, 2003, p. 151).

Equity is an issue in social justice discourse. Education is regarded as an important pathway to realize social equity. UNESCO (1985) states that

The equity objective, broadly conceived, is that every person, irrespective of his place of birth or residence, sex, ethnicity, social-economic status, [or] financial capability, must get as a citizen and human being an opportunity for education of equitable standards and of the kind for which he is best fitted and to the fullest extent of his power that he is able to avail of the best opportunities in the post-educational situation. Such an objective may not be fully realistic but if pursued generates energy and effort for its near attainments. (p. 6)

¹ A version of this section has been published. Xiong 2010. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(3): 421-436.

Higher education has become increasingly necessary to better one's socio-economic status. College access is important for people to approach social equity by gaining upward social mobility. Sorokin (1927) points out that upward social mobility refers to ascending vertical social mobility, which indicates transition of an individual from a lower social stratum to a higher one.

According to Coleman (1966) and Berne and Stiefel (1984), higher education equity indicates that students have equal opportunities in admission, students are equal after enrollment, and all students are equal in gaining success. Higher education equity is viewed by UNESCO (1985) as "equal access to the system, equal participation in the system, equal attainments through the system, and equal opportunity after the completion of the education process" (p. 7). Bailey and Morest (2006) relate that higher education equity comprises "equity in college preparation, access to college, and success in reaching college goals" (p. 2). Apparently, equity is perceived at various points in the higher education process. The last definition extends the higher education process to the stage of college preparation. It is useful because access to higher education does have close connections with secondary and even elementary education. However, I would merge the preparation stage into the stage of access.

Based on aforementioned frameworks, a mixed framework on higher education equity may be helpful for analyzing and discussing equity issues in HVE. That is: equity in admission, equity in participation, and equity in gaining success. Accordingly, this investigation focuses on students' admission to HVE, participation in HVE, and success rates in HVE.

Confucianism

“Confucianism (*ru xue*),” Li (1993) states, “[is] a system of philosophical, ethical and political thought based on the teachings of Confucius [*kongzi*, 551–479 B.C.]”, who was the most prominent ancient Chinese philosopher and educator (p. 305). Neville (1978) notes that “as one of the most ancient philosophic traditions in the world, Confucianism has been perhaps the dominant intellectual influence in East Asian cultures” (p. I). The essence of Confucianism is that “the significance of every human life, as well as the goal of society, can be achieved only in the harmonic unity between self and others, and between human beings and nature” (Zhu, 2004, p. 251). For more than two thousand years, from the rise of the Han Dynasty (*han chao*) (206 B.C.–220), Confucianism has moulded and dominated the Chinese mind, though it has been critiqued or even been abandoned at some historical moments (Durant W. & Durant A., 1992; Li, 1993; Zhu, 2004). Moreover, it is widely recognized that Confucianism is the dominant ideology in Chinese (higher) education (Guo, 1996, 2009; Li, 1993; Oldstone-Moore, 2002; Reagan, 2000; Thompson, 1979; Tu, 1990). Li (1993) notes that “Confucianism permeates Chinese society, particularly that of the intelligentsia” (p. 305). Generally, Confucianism influences Chinese higher education through its notion of the scholar-official and the examination system (Guo, 1996, 2009; Li, 1993; Oldstone-Moore, 2002; Reagan, 2000; Thompson, 1979; Tu, 1990).

The scholar-official. A typical member of the intelligentsia was the scholar-official, a translation of the Chinese term *shidafu*. This intellectual

functioned as a civil servant in Imperial China. *Shidafu* is also translated as *literati*, *intelligentsia* or *scholar-bureaucrats*. Educated within Confucian doctrine, scholar-officials were seen as role models and the pillars of the traditional Chinese society: “They formed the foundation of leadership not only in government, but also in almost every corner of social life” (Zhu, 2004, p. 254). Imperial China was administered by scholar-officials who were members of a ruling class educated as scholars of the classics and experts in morality. Nivison and Wright (1959) state that “in the Chinese bureaucracy, the generalist held a position superior to the specialist” (p. 163). Similarly, “in the social hierarchy of the Confucian state, officials occupied the highest position, above the peasants, craftsmen and merchants” (Münch & Risler, 1987, p. 23). Reagan (2000) notes that such a negative view of manual labor in general is a criticized aspect of Confucian educational thought. According to the same author, Confucian education serves “a very pragmatic purpose—the creation of individuals who would be able to ensure better government” (p. 108).

The scholar-official has evolved into the civil servant in contemporary China. In 1993, the system of the Chinese civil service was formally established (XinhuaNet, 2005a). Qianlong News Net (2006) notes that in recent years, the civil servant has been ranked number one as the most favorite job for all college graduates. Reasons for choosing such a career mainly lie in the stable and remarkable income, health insurance, pension, and high social status of a civil servant. It indicates that the civil servant is still a similar elite social class in current China, as was the scholar-official in the past.

The examination system. In imperial China, scholar-officials were selected by the Imperial Examination System, named *keju kaoshi* in Chinese. Thompson (1979) stresses that success in the Imperial Examination provided opportunity for an official career, which enabled status, privilege, and success. Thus, the goal to be scholar-officials was considered as the motivation for the majority of Chinese students.

Although Confucianism was adopted as the state doctrine in the Han Dynasty, the Imperial Examination System did not become a major method for selecting government officials until the Sui Dynasty (*sui chao*) (581-618). It was further improved during the Tang Dynasty (*tang chao*) (618-907). For more than a thousand years, most government officials were selected by the examination, which is primarily based on Confucian classics and policy issues. The examination was open to almost all males.

The Imperial Examination included a series of examinations at different levels. Although levels of the examination vary according to different dynasties, the imperial examination system generally comprises examinations at three levels. The entry level of the examination system was the “Cultivated Talent” (*xiucai*) Examination, which was held once a year in individual districts. People passing this examination were called Cultivated Talents, who are entitled to participate in the “Provincial Graduate” (*juren*) Examination, which was held at provincial levels every three years. Then Provincial Graduates were qualified for the “Capital Graduate” (*jinshi*) Examination, which was held in the capital city, also every three years. The Capital Graduate Examination was at the highest level of

the Imperial Examination System. Teng (1943) notes that “these three honors roughly correspond to the western B. A., M. A., and Ph. D. Degrees” (p. 270).

“In the [imperial] examination system, moral values always played a more significant role than specialist knowledge, and the examination texts were interpreted by the candidates in accordance with the prevailing opinion of the times” (Münch & Risler, 1987, p. 24). W. Durant and A. Durant (1992) stress that “it tested the applicant in his memory and understanding of the writings of Confucius, in his knowledge of Chinese poetry and history, and in his capacity to write intelligently on the issues of moral and political life” (p. 800). In Confucian education, textbooks are comprised of “Five Classics” (*wu jing*) and “Four Books” (*si shu*). The “Five Classics” are the Book of Odes (*shi jing*), the Book of Documents (*shu jing*), the Book of Rites (*li ji*), the Book of Changes (*yi jing*), and the Spring and Autumn Annals (*chun qiu*). The “Four Books” are the Analects of Confucius (*lun yu*), the Book of Mencius (*meng zi*), the Great Learning (*da xue*), and the Doctrine of the Mean (*zhong yong*). Collectively, these books are called the “Nine Classics” (Durant W. & Durant A., 1992, p. 665). It was since the Song Dynasty (*song chao*) (960 to 1279) that the “Four Books” had become more important textbooks than the “Five Classics” for imperial examinations, with the orthodox doctrine under the influence of Neo-Confucian philosophy that integrated the cultivation of self and the understanding of the world (Zhu, 2004, p. 254). Focusing on Confucian classics and Neo-Confucian commentaries, the Imperial Examination System kept Confucianism at the heart of Chinese education in imperial China.

Participating in the Imperial Examination to pursue the career of a scholar-official entails many years of intensive study of the canonical texts. These examinations were very strict and competitive. Zhu (1992) highlights that “the pathway to be a scholar-official through the examination system was the narrowest and most difficult” (p. 12). Nonetheless, it is undeniable that the examination system was the major way to improve social status for common people by providing upward social mobility to pursue power and honor for all males regardless of age or social class (Reagan, 2000). The Chinese Imperial Examination has been praised by many western scholars for being an open and equal competition (Durant W. & Durant A., 1992; Kracke, 1947; Zhu, 2004).

With a history of 1300 years, the Imperial Examination System came to an end for various reasons in 1905. A majority of researchers agree that Confucianism as the examination content was the major reason, which was blamed as the key factor for China’s backwardness in the world. Liu (2005a, 2005b) contends that the promotion of western-style schools is the most important reason for the abolition of the examination. In addition, he also reminds people that the western influence on China in the Qing Dynasty (*qing chao*) (1644-1911) is another important factor that should not be ignored. This led to the presence of foreign missionaries, foreign armies, and it resulted in many unfair treaties for China.

In the West, the Chinese Imperial Examination System is known as the oldest system of examinations in history to select officials for public service. Kracke (1947) extols the examination system “one of China’s most significant

contributions to the world” (p. 103). Most scholars agree that the Chinese Imperial Examination System has inspired the establishment of modern civil bureaucratic systems in the West (Teng, 1943; Zhu, 2004). Reagan (2000) states that “China was well ahead of its time in terms of the development of a professional civil service based on talent rather than on birth” (p. 120). Today, the examination is still a distinct feature in the so-called “Confucian Cultural Region”, including Mainland China and Taiwan, Japan, Korea, Vietnam, and Singapore (Zhu, 2004, p. 255).

Admittedly, the Imperial Examination System has been abolished for more than 100 years. Nevertheless, examinations have been kept as a method to select civil servants in contemporary China. According to Liu (2005b), the National College Entrance Examination was the major way to select civil servants in China before 1990. In 1993, the system of the Chinese civil service was formally established with adoption of the Chinese Civil Service Examination (XinhuaNet, 2005b).

Neoinstitutionalism

The emergence of neoinstitutionalism was a reaction to the old or more traditional institutional theories, mainly “functionalism and Marxist/conflict theory that dominated American society in the 1970s” (Meyer, Ramirez, Frank, & Schofer, 2005). In old institutionalism, the production of social structures was explained as the functional needs or the power and interests of actors operating in local situations. Organizations were viewed as continually adapting and changing as closed, rational systems that emphasize rational actors and the drive toward

efficiency (Rowan & Miskel, 1999). In contrast, “neoinstitutionalism highlights the importance of the wider social and cultural environment as the ground in which organizations are rooted” (Scott & Christensen, 1995), such as meanings, definitions, rules, and models. Moreover, organizational changes are highly constrained: Once a local structure has been established, whatever change does occur will be toward greater conformity (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Meyer J. W. & Rowan, 1977). This trend toward conformity is viewed as a central element of the neoinstitutional perspective, which is called isomorphism. Furthermore, the key constraint of organizations is legitimacy not efficiency (Meyer J. W. & Rowan, 1977, 1978). These ideas of neoinstitutionalism have been applied to educational organization since the late 1970s with John Meyer and colleagues as major contributors (Meyer H.-D. & Rowan, 2006).

Given the absence of concepts such as rationality, self-interest, difference, and efficiency in neoinstitutionalism prior to the 1990s, Meyer H. D. and Rowan (2006) critique that “institutions were viewed as objective structures that exist independent of human action” (p. 6). With new social developments, a renaissance of neoinstitutionalism has emerged since the 1990s (Meyer H.-D. & Rowan, 2006), which Campbell (2004) calls “a second movement in institutional analysis” (p. 4). An important feature of this renaissance is that those absent concepts have been reconsidered by neoinstitutionalists to study educational organizations since the 1990s (Meyer H.-D. & Rowan, 2006).

Institutional environments. Scott (2001) states that “Institutions operate at multiple levels, from the world system to interpersonal interaction” (p. 50).

Campbell’s (2004) definition is helpful to understand what institutions mean:

Institutions are the foundation of social life. They consist of formal and informal rules, monitoring and enforcement mechanisms, and systems of meaning that define the context within which individuals, corporations, labor unions, nation-states, and other organizations operate and interact with each other. Institutions are settlements born from struggle and bargaining. They reflect the resources and power of those who made them and, in turn, affect the distribution of resources and power in society. Once created, institutions are powerful external forces that help determine how people make sense of their world and act in it. They channel and regulate conflict and thus ensure stability in society. (p. 1)

According to Scott (2001), rules, norms, and cultural beliefs are central ingredients of institutions. Therefore, regulative systems, normative systems, and cultural-cognitive systems shape the institutional environments of individual organizations. Regulative systems involve the capacity to establish rules, inspect others’ conformity to them, and, as necessary, manipulate sanctions—rewards or punishments—in an attempt to influence future behavior. Normative systems introduce a prescriptive, evaluative, and obligatory dimension into social life. Cultural-cognitive systems, as central to institutions, are “the shared conceptions that constitute the nature of social reality and the frames through which meaning is made” (Scott, 2001, p. 57). Scott (2001) points out that since institutional environments are often varied and conflicted, the elements of institutions may not be aligned and one may undermine the effects of the other.

Institutionalization. Tolbert and Zucker (1983) state that the institution is not a static entity, but a dynamic process, which includes the processes of institutionalization and deinstitutionalization. In this light, institutions are

evolving entities and “changes in social practice both modify existing institutions and create novel forms” (Abercrombie et al., 1994, p. 217). As Scott (2001) puts it, “[I]nstitutionalization is a process occurring over time that affects what kinds of structures develop and persist” (p. 208). In defining its opposite, Scott adds, “[D]einstitutionalization refers to the processes by which institutions weaken and disappear” (p. 182).

Legitimacy. According to Jepperson (1991), institutionalization leads to legitimacy for individual organizations, and obtained legitimacy enhances the status of institutionalization. Suchman (1995) defines legitimacy as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions” (p. 574). Scott (2001) reveals that the three pillars of institutions—regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive elements—provide distinctive bases for institutional legitimacy.

Regulative legitimacy is based on conformity to rules, which provide legal and quasi-legal requirements for the establishment and operation of legitimate organizations. Normative legitimacy, linking to professionalism, emphasizes a deeper, moral base for evaluating legitimacy. Compared to regulative legitimacy, normative controls are more likely to be internalized. In addition to material resources and technical information, cultural acceptability and credibility are necessary for organizations to survive and thrive in their social environment (Scott, 2001). This relates legitimacy to a cultural-cognitive level. Cultural-cognitive legitimacy comes from cognitive consistency, which embraces an

orthodox structure or identity relating to a specific situation. Such orthodoxy is usually historically and culturally engrained. Among the three, “cultural-cognitive legitimacy is the deepest level because it rests on preconscious, taken-for-granted understandings” (Scott, 2001, p. 61).

Isomorphism. The idea of isomorphism or isomorphic change is a unique element of institutional theorizing. Isomorphism occurs among organizational forms when organizations are sharing the same institutional environments (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Rowan & Miskel, 1999; Scott, 2001).

Neoinstitutionalists have revealed that the uniformity of schooling in the world, mass higher education, and the form of higher education (mainly the university), and so forth, are all isomorphic phenomena in education.

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) identify three mechanisms for institutional isomorphic change: *coercive isomorphism*, *mimetic isomorphism*, and *normative isomorphism*. Coercive isomorphism means organizations adapting to pressures exerted by other organizations they depend on and by cultural expectations in the society within which organizations function (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In this process, “organizations in a sector follow the formal rules and regulations laid down by the state and its agencies and thereby end up with similar structures or procedures” (Rowan & Miskel, 1999, p. 366).

Mimetic isomorphism comes from uncertainty, which is “a powerful force that encourages imitation” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 151). In mimetic processes, “organizations facing uncertainty lack a clear idea of what they should do and so copy the practices of other, apparently successful, organizations in their

field” (Campbell, 2004, p. 21). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) state, “The greater the extent to which technologies are uncertain or goals are ambiguous within a field, the greater the rate of (mimetic) isomorphic change” (p. 156). Mimetic isomorphic change results in “homogeneity as organizations in the same institutional sector adopt similar structures in a long run” (Rowan & Miskel, 1999, p. 367).

Normative isomorphism results primarily from professionalization (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). That means “the homogenizing effect of the growth of professional networks fosters communication and similar practices and procedures” (Morphew & Huisman, 2002, p. 496). Rowan & Miskel (1999) note that “professional codes are spread to organizations by personnel who have been socialized and educated to follow professional standards” (p. 366).

In this study, HVE is considered a newly emerging institutional form in Chinese society. Vocational and technical colleges are organizational forms of HVE in China. The development of HVE entails a process of institutionalization of HVE. According to neoinstitutionalism, the institutionalization of HVE is determined by the formation of corresponding institutional environments for HVE, which are supported by regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive elements. For HVE, regulative environments are reflected in laws, regulations, and government policies that demonstrate political and economic interests in developing HVE. Second, industry is expected to be the major normative force providing universal criteria for HVE curricula and teaching and evaluation and a professional network among leaders of HVE institutions is considered key in

promoting standardization of HVE. Third, it seems that vocationalism has been imposed on Chinese society as the culture supporting the development of HVE. However, resistance of Confucianism to vocationalism exists. A dialect between the two is expected to work as cultural-cognitive dimensions embraced in social/cultural recognition and acceptance of HVE in the future. The institutionalization of HVE will not be achieved if any of the three pillars of HVE's institutional environments is absent. The eventual formation of institutional environments for HVE depends on gaining regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive legitimacy. Meyer and Rowan (1991) point out that if organizations lack acceptable legitimated accounts of their activities, they are more vulnerable to claim that they are negligent, irrational, or unnecessary. Moreover, from the neoinstitutionalist perspective, the emergence and development of HVE in China indicates isomorphic changes in Chinese higher education in terms of non-university sectors, short-cycle colleges, skill-learning, insufficient funding, and two-quality teachers, and so forth.

Synthesis

Driven by a knowledge economy, higher education in each country has been vocationalized to supply qualified high-level skilled manpower for economic development. Vocationalization of education embodies a global trend of vocationalism. This has made school education and employment/occupations closely connected in terms of occupational preparation, occupational curriculum, related employment, and required schooling. Furthermore, vocationalism has led to expansion of higher education in terms of differentiation of higher education

institutions and increased student enrollment. This enhances equal higher education opportunities. Moreover, vocationalism has brought inequity issues in higher education such as designated student sources, limited transfer access, and narrow curriculum focusing on skill learning.

In order to succeed in worldwide competition, China is in great need of a better educated and trained workforce such as the high-level skilled manpower supplied by HVE. Accordingly, a global trend of vocationalism has emerged in Chinese higher education, which is reflected by the development of HVE. Driven by vocationalism, China's HVE is required to focus on supplying high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by economic development. The development of HVE has facilitated the transformation of Chinese higher education from elite higher education to mass higher education, and such a transformation is still ongoing. However, this trend has also brought inequity issues in China's HVE such as designated student sources, limited upward mobility, and narrow curriculum. The development of HVE has encountered a variety of challenges.

China's HVE has also been deeply influenced by Confucianism – the dominant culture of Chinese education, which values academic knowledge/theorists but ignores skill learning/skilled workers. Under the impact of the Confucian notion of the scholar-official, Chinese students have been motivated to pursue their careers as elite government officials rather than skilled workers. The Confucian examination system has provided upward social mobility for Chinese students. Undoubtedly, the Confucian notion of scholar-official has

deeply impacted Chinese people's view on careers with the prestige of such a career and the examination system. With such a Confucian tradition, academic/theoretical scholars with higher credentials are valued highly in Chinese society.

Through comparison, vocationalism and Confucianism are opposite to each other in most ways. First, vocationalism values practical knowledge/skilled workers while Confucianism values academic knowledge/theorists. Thus, vocationalism values vocational education while Confucianism values academic education. Second, vocationalism results in mass education while Confucianism results in elite education. Third, vocationalism limits students' upward mobility with the purpose of workforce preparation while Confucianism supports students' upward mobility through the examination system with the purpose of supplying government officials. Undoubtedly, impacted by two such different cultures, the development of China's HVE is full of tensions.

From a neoinstitutionalist perspective, HVE has been an emergent institution in Chinese society. Implicated by relevant experience of developed/northern countries, the development of HVE represents a process of institutionalization of HVE in China. The goal of the process is to obtain the institutional legitimacy of HVE. With almost 30 years of development, China's HVE has been struggling to gain legitimacy for institutionalization in terms of regulative legitimacy, normative legitimacy, and cultural-cognitive legitimacy while experiencing isomorphic changes. From a neoinstitutionalist perspective, gaining institutional legitimacy, especially cultural legitimacy, is key to make

HVE institutionalized. In terms of cultural legitimacy, institutionalization of HVE entails the internalizing of vocationalism in developing HVE. However, this process has encountered resistance from the dominant Confucian ideology in China. Moreover, isomorphic changes appear in the process of HVE development.

Chapter 4 Research Design

This chapter begins with a discussion of my location as a Chinese researcher who has experienced the system of Chinese higher education and who is studying the development of higher vocational education (HVE) as this system transitions while China seeks a prominent place in the global economy. As the chapter unfolds, I discuss my research strategy—document content analysis, which I used to guide me through the intricacies of data gathering and data analysis. Within this discussion, I also address the issue of research trustworthiness. The chapter concludes with a description of the contemporary context shaping my study of the emergence of HVE in China, which focuses on China's politics, economy, and higher education reform, and the four-stage historical development of HVE.

The Researcher

My research interest in this area originated from my experience as a student, an educator, and a researcher. In previous research, I investigated the governance system of HVE in China. At that time (1995-1998) HVE was just formally established as a new type of higher education in China with a focus on supplying high-level skilled manpower for a booming economy. Conducting this research raised particular questions for me: Will the development of HVE be smooth in the future? Will HVE play a similar role as short-cycle higher education institutions in developed countries such as community colleges in the United States? With such questions in mind, I kept an eye on what was happening in the field of HVE after graduating with a Master's Degree. Unfortunately, the

development of HVE in China has been full of challenges. Thus, in the research I wanted to study why this development has been full of challenges and how these challenges may be resolved.

In China, the country with the largest population in the world, it has been a long tradition that the examination is adopted as a major means to select eligible students to enter colleges. Every year, there are millions of students participating in the National College Entrance Examination, which was reinstituted in 1977 after the Cultural Revolution (*wenhua da geming*) (1966-1976). Only very few of these students can be selected to go to college. In 1977, 5.73 million people participated in the National College Entrance Exam and 0.27 million of them finally entered colleges (Yang X., 2004). The enrollment rate in higher education was around 5% then. Indeed, this rate remained relatively stable until the late 1990s when expansion of Chinese higher education occurred with the further development of HVE.

Although increasingly more students have obtained access to higher education due to the expansion, the intensity of the National College Entrance Examination competition has never been alleviated. In this milieu, not only the students, but also the parents, the teachers, and even the schools have been involved in the competition. In order to get higher rates of students passing the National College Entrance Examination with higher scores, competition among schools starts very early in the Chinese education system. Just as universities and colleges select students by the National College Entrance Examination, high

schools also select students with a similar competitive examination process.

Students are streamed by those examinations.

As a Chinese student, I have experienced the whole process. Fortunately, I passed all those examinations and finally entered a college. However, most of my peers were streamed out of the system by the examinations, and thus they did not have the opportunity to go to college. Later, I saw my students undergoing the same experience that I had had.

In 1995, after five years of teaching, I passed another entrance examination for my graduate study at Shaanxi Normal University, Xi'an, China. When choosing my field of study, I was attracted to higher education. At that time, I really wanted to know what was happening in higher education in China. I especially wanted to know why it was so hard for Chinese people to get access to higher education, and if the situation could be changed. I selected *higher education administration* as my field of study. During my graduate studies at Shaanxi Normal University, I learned that access to higher education had been expanded in most Western countries by developing junior colleges that were designed to produce a skilled workforce to meet social demands, especially after the Second World War. In contrast, the Chinese equivalent of junior colleges functioned primarily to supply academics like universities did. Skilled workers were usually produced by secondary vocational schools.

HVE emerged in China in the early 1980s. At that time, HVE was mainly addressed in short-cycle vocational colleges, which were developed to produce the high-level skilled workers demanded by local economic development.

However, as a new type of higher education, short-cycle vocational colleges were not treated as formal higher education institutions. Their development was full of challenges. In order to survive, most short-cycle vocational colleges had to address academic education rather than vocational education. This led to the decline of HVE in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In 1996, the second year of my Master's study at Shaanxi Normal University, the *Law of Vocational Education* was issued, which legitimated HVE as the highest level of vocational education. This law nurtured hope and possibility for the development of HVE. Ever since then, HVE has become a major topic in Chinese higher educational research. Early on, research focused on how to define and develop HVE in China. The government was regarded as the major force in developing HVE. When doing my Master's research, I learned that developing HVE in China would be a complex and problematic engagement.

After graduating with a Master's Degree, I worked in different educational institutions. My employment experience told me that employers preferred to hire people with higher credentials such as degrees. During this period, a part of my Master's thesis was published. I noticed that HVE was still facing tremendous challenges, despite the efforts made by the central government. I wanted to continue to investigate issues affecting the development of HVE. In 2003, I decided to pursue my doctoral studies in Canada.

Studying at a Canadian university perhaps located me as an outsider in studying HVE in China. However, given over thirty years of living, studying, working, and doing research in China, I am still an insider. But I have

accumulated outsider's knowledge for this research. Undoubtedly, the outsider's knowledge helps expand my perspectives for conducting research. It also influences my perceptions of key issues related to my research, such as the influence of globalization on China and HVE development. For the researcher, the insider's knowledge is a double-edged sword. It is simultaneously helpful and limiting for engaging in research. When doing this study, I always reflected such a position of mine and made adjustments accordingly. For example, as an insider, my attitude toward globalization was as positive as most Chinese researchers. We believed that globalization brought more opportunities than challenges to Chinese society. At early stages of this study, I was limited by such an insider's view. With the research going on, my constant reflections and outsider's knowledge gradually changed it.

Document Content Analysis

In qualitative research, research designs and analysis techniques vary according to research purposes, research questions, and the resources available (Patton, 1990). Guba and Lincoln (1981) propose four guiding rules for qualitative researchers in choosing a method: First, if the technique available provides more data; second, if the technique available provides better data; third, if the technique available provides data at a lower cost than other methods; and finally, if the source of data is replete with clues as to the nature of the context. Guided by these rules, a document content analysis approach was chosen as the primary research method for this study.

Document content analysis is a research method that includes a systematic process toward finding and understanding meanings and insights of texts (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Krippendorff, 2004; Weber, 1990; Whitt, 2001). This approach has particular importance in research that requires a search for historical information by providing the qualitative researcher concrete and rich evidence to investigate events, places, people and systems in depth (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Holsti, 1969; Krippendorff, 2004). Moreover, Krippendorff (2004) notes that document content analysis is an appropriate method for studies on institutional realities. That is, organizational memories, identities, and practices are stabilized by written documents. “[Document] content analysis of what is said and written within an organization provides the key to understanding that organization’s reality” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 77). Further, Holsti (1969) points out that document content analysis explores the causes and effects of communication, which is usually one of the most interesting and challenging research problems. In this study, my major research question is: How have political-economic and sociocultural influences impacted the institutional development of HVE in China? I conducted an historical investigation into the emergence and development of HVE in China from 1980 to 2007. The central focus is on exploring the driving force behind the emergence and development of HVE and the effects of HVE development in China.

Document content analysis proved helpful in examining trends and patterns in HVE development and HVE policy-making in material reviewed (Holsti, 1969; Stemler, 2001). Furthermore, document content analysis “helps the

inquirer to maintain interest in the context and helps to ensure that research is not removed from its social, historical, and political frame of reference” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 234). According to Krippendorff (2004), document content analysis is a process of reading text, using text within a social context, and analyzing text. Context, within which the available texts are examined, is key for every content analysis because “a context renders perceptual data into readable texts and serves as the conceptual justification for reasonable interpretations, including for the results of content analysis” (p. 24). Within the time range of HVE development, Chinese society was undergoing tremendous transformations. Domestically, China has made great achievements in socialist modernization and the modernization enterprise is still ongoing. Internationally, China has become an active player on the stage of the global economy. Both domestic and international impacts are reshaping China’s political, economic, and social cultural contexts. They are also restructuring all Chinese educational systems, especially the system of higher education. That is, the emergence and development of HVE were influenced by factors at two levels: one is the domestic transformations of Chinese society in terms of politics, economy, and social culture, in which Chinese higher education had been undergoing reforms. The other is the influence of a global knowledge economy. They constituted the context of developing HVE in China, which framed analyses and discussions about data and findings.

Data collection. Krippendorff (2004) suggests that document content analysts are obligated to explain how they collect data because “data [for

document content analysis] are made, not found, which result from the procedures the researcher has chosen to answer specific questions concerning phenomena in the context of given texts” (p. 81). According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), Holsti (1969), and Krippendorff (2004), document content analysis is a rule-guided procedure. Clearly specified rules and defined categories are necessary to ensure the objectivity of the research.

In this study, text documents provided data sources. Documents are important data sources because of their availability, accessibility, stability, and richness of information (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Moreover, data collected from documents are unobtrusive (Krippendorff, 2004; Marshall & Rossman, 2006), which avoids the problems of “reactivity and sensitivity of measurement” encountered by data collection in interviews and observations (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, p. 263). For several reasons, I decided to use documents as the data source for my study. First of all, documents on HVE for this study are stable records of the history of HVE. Second, most of them are always available in China and even elsewhere in the world. Third, they are the most accessible data sources for this study. Fourth, they provide rich context information about HVE in different historical periods. Fifth, the topic of the historical development processes of HVE is not observable and is difficult to discuss with people. Finally, my cultural and linguistic background gave me a distinct advantage in working with the Chinese documents.

The data analyzed in this study were mainly collected from documents that I examined during my field research in Beijing, China from August 2007 to

March 2008. This research trip was funded by the Fund for Support of International Development Activities (FSIDA) which was offered by the University of Alberta International and Research Abroad Travel Grant which was co-provided by the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research. During the research trip, I mainly worked at the Graduate School of Education in Peking/Beijing University, where I gained access to the university and public libraries and online database to review documents.

Guided by my research proposal, I planned to review and collect documents on HVE from academic journals, textbooks, and governmental policy. Since government education policy usually could be found in journals and books, I decided to review journal articles first. In China, education academic journals are classified into “core journals” (*hexin qikan*) and “general journals” (*fei hexin qikan*). The former has a good reputation for quality. My first step was to review core journals covering the issue of HVE from 1980 to 2007. With my former research experience in China, I put the following journals on my list: *jiaoyu yu zhiye* (Education and Vocation), *zhiye jiaoyu yanjiu* (Vocational and Technical Education), *zhongguo zhiye jishu jiaoyu* (Vocational and Technical Education in China), *zhongguo gaodeng jiaoyu yanjiu* (Higher Education in China), *gaodeng jiaoyu yanjiu* (Higher Education Research), *liaoning gaodeng jiaoyu yanjiu* (Liaoning Higher Education Research), *liaoning jiaoyu yanjiu* (Liaoning Education Research), *jiaoyu fazhan yanjiu* (Education Development Research), *jiangsu gaojiao* (Jiangsu Higher Education), *shanghai gaojiao* (Shanghai Higher Education), *jiaoyu yanjiu* (Education Research), and some *gaoxiao xuebao*

(university/college journals). In the first month, I searched articles manually, which was time-consuming and inefficient. When I gained Internet access one month later, I started to search journal articles through China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) (<http://www.cnki.net>), which is the largest database for Chinese academic journals (CNKI, 2007).

At first, I was overwhelmed by the large volume of documents generated for each core journal via searching the key word of HVE. However, I had an overview of the situation. Then I used some strategies to narrow them down: First, when reviewing documents (mostly for title), I always kept my research question in mind. If the article included content that may answer my research question, I just kept it in a file. Based on my research proposal, this research was designed as a comparative study examining China's HVE and US community college education. The main research question was: How had HVE been applied to Chinese higher education as a world model of higher education? In order to answer this question, information about institutional realities of HVE which also included information about US community colleges as a reference model was needed. Strictly speaking, this was the first round of my search. Then I defined initial categories that covered almost all aspects of HVE development. They included government policy and influence, industry's demands and influence, the changing social and cultural context, HVE as a part of higher education, *characteristic features*, the notion of scholar-official, Chinese people's view on careers, *employment situation of higher education in China*, HVE cases, HVE and secondary vocational education, HVE and economy, *rural vocational education*,

skilled workforce, governance, curricula and teaching, international HVE (community colleges), *other*, and *missing*. Italicized categories emerged in the process of the review. With these broadly defined categories, plenty of document sources for data were ensured. After searching core journals, I also searched the rest of journals in case some good sample documents had been missed. Consequently, I gained almost 4,000 articles after the first round of searching. All collected articles were organized in chronological order fitting four development stages of HVE: 1985-1995, early exploration of HVE; 1996-1998, legislation of HVE; 1999-2002, rapid growth of HVE; and 2003-2007, restructuring of HVE. In addition to my research question and the categories, these four-stage time ranges were adopted as another rule for my coding and for later analysis and discussion.

Following Holsti's (1969) suggestion that sampling is a process of reducing the volume of data to manageable proportions, I took other strategies to narrow down the number of articles produced in the previous search. First, I went back to my research question and examined those broad categories, which were vague and overlapping. Since "the most important requirement of categories is that they must adequately reflect the investigator's research question" (Holsti, 1969, p. 128), I asked myself: what exact information about the institutional reality of HVE did I need to answer my research question? Thus, I refined those initial categories of institutional realities of HVE as follows: context, mission, skilled workers, access, locality, tuition, articulation, HVE and higher education structure, HVE institutions, curricula and facilities, teachers, graduate employment, funding and governance, discrimination against HVE, and

international HVE (community colleges). Compared to the original broad categories, the refined categories better met the requirements of being exhaustive, mutually exclusive, and independent (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Holsti, 1969). Articles providing information fitting the refined categories were selected. Moreover, I focused on articles directly relevant to HVE in the second round. With these measures, the number of articles was reduced to around 1,500.

Based on the result of the second round search, the number of collected articles was further reduced with quality assurance strategies. When reviewing these articles, I made sure that articles with authors having good reputations were kept; then, if the author was less well known, I checked the source of the article. Articles from core journals had priority. The authors' reputation was assessed with my knowledge and/or their affiliations. Further, for those articles with unknown authors or from non-core journals, I read the article and assessed its quality with my expertise. With these strategies, I finally got around 1,000 articles. My literature review was based on these articles.

In the process of document sampling, I continually reflected on the research question, the category, the four stages of HVE, and the relevance of collected documents. As I refined the categories, I focused on how they could represent the institutional realities of HVE, how these categories could logically coexist, and how these categories could work in my document analysis.

Getting access to governmental documents in China was a problem. Although having connections with the Ministry of Education, my access to some government documents from the Ministry of Education was not formal.

Considering the issue of research ethics, I did not use those government documents in my research. A connection in the Ministry of Education told me that most government policy regarding HVE was available on websites. Considering the issue of document quality, I traveled to Xi'an, where I got my Master's Degree, to see if I could find relevant documents there. Even though I did not get expected documents on HVE-related policy, I did get some valuable provincial documents, including a copy of a survey summary report for HVE in Shaanxi Province covering 1998-2006.

Eventually, almost all documents for government policy were collected from China's official websites. Moreover, I also collected some documents from online official news media. In addition, quantitative data regarding enrollment, tuition, funding, and the institutional growth of HVE were gathered from official statistical reports produced by the China Ministry of Education, the Shaanxi Provincial Department of Education, and journal articles. All these documents were reviewed under Scott's (1990) four criteria: authenticity (the origin and the authorship of a document); credibility (the sincerity and accuracy of a document); representativeness (the typicality of a document); and meaning (the understanding and significance of a document).

Having obtained the policy documents, I started to collect data from them. Whitt (2001) noted that "the process of collecting data from documents is both systematic, in that it is purposeful and aims for accuracy, and flexible, in that the possibility of finding unexpected insights and information is appreciated" (p. 450). Drawing on Whitt (2001), I used document summary forms to record policy

documents because they facilitated a systematic data collection process.

Information recorded in document summary forms mainly included: the title of the document; the author of the document; the source of the document; the purpose of the document; context in which the document was produced; main points contained in the document; and the significance of the document for the study. Each HVE policy document was recorded in such a format. Organized in chronological order corresponding to the four stages of HVE development, these structured document summary forms provided basic information of data sources for this study.

While recording policy documents in the document summary form, I also created a different form – content summary form, which included information about the source of the content, quotation (text content), descriptive interpretation, analytical interpretation, and notes. The forms provided a basic frame for further analyses and inferences. All these data were recorded by classifying large amounts of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings and “these categories can represent either explicit communication or inferred communication” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). Sentences and paragraphs are major content units for analysis. Text content extracted from each policy document was organized under the categories and the four stages of HVE.

It is important to note that I changed my research direction from a comparative study to focusing on China’s HVE. I did collect relevant data on community colleges. However, my literature review of China’s HVE and my immersion with HVE data led me to change my focus. First, when reviewing

literature and investigating data, I felt that a focus on China was very necessary for this study considering the abundant information. Second, my literature review showed that many issues of HVE were connected with HVE policy, even in relation to those challenges HVE had been facing for a long time. However, a thorough policy analysis of HVE was absent. Moreover, Yang (2002) states:

China is gaining an increasingly important position internationally as a socioeconomic and geopolitical force, due to two facts: that the Chinese government has shifted from its isolationist, politics-oriented policies to open door, economic-oriented policies; and the continuous annual GDP increase of about nine percent for nearly twenty years. It is fascinating to fix our gaze on how this change has been accompanied by major reforms in higher education, which are ascribed a key supporting role in the drive to modernize the nation. The integration of China's HE system into the world community is important and urgent to both China and the international HE circle. It has attracted wide attention from scholars around the globe. (pp. xv-xvi)

Indeed, China's HVE was a rarely addressed field in comparative education. Thus it is worth putting a sole focus on China's HVE. Therefore, I changed the title of my research from *Understanding HVE in China: An institutional perspective* to *The Emergence of Higher Vocational Education in China: Vocationalism, Confucianism, and Neoinstitutionalism*. Thus my major research question changed from *How has HVE been applied to China as a world model of higher education?* to *How have political-economic and socio-cultural influences impacted the institutional development of HVE in China?* With the changed research question, I examined my data categories: context, mission, skilled workers, access, locality, tuition, articulation, HVE and higher education structure, HVE institutions, curricula and facilities, teachers, graduate employment, funding and governance, discrimination against HVE, and

international HVE (community colleges). Generally speaking, most of them fit the new research question as well. With further consideration, however, I refined these categories again as follows: context, mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, funding and governance, graduate employment, and social status of HVE.

Meanwhile, the four stages of HVE development was adjusted as: 1980-1995, the early exploration of HVE; 1996-1999, legislation of HVE; 2000-2005, fast growth of HVE; 2006-2007, restructuring of HVE.² The four time ranges provided context for reviewed documents and data collected. Whitt (2001) notes that “document content analysis is an iterative process of constructing categories from the data and testing those categories against the data” (p. 451) as well as “drawing of inferences on the basis of appearance or nonappearance of attributes in message” (Holsti, 1969, p. 10). In this study, a consistent rule construction and reconstruction in terms of the research questions, the categories, and the four stages of HVE development represented such a systematic and flexible process of document content analysis.

Data analysis. In this study, it was natural that data analysis and data collection occurred concurrently. Holsti (1969) points out that at the coding stage, the content analyst is limited to recording only manifest messages such as specified words, themes, and the like that actually appear in the document and/or in categories. The content summary forms created at the end of data collection indicated that my data were ready for further analysis. Holsti (1969) notes that

² The four stages of the development of HVE has been published. Xiong, 2008. *Minban Jiaoyu Yanjiu*, 6: 24-31, 107.

“content data are meaningless without comparisons” (p. 5). In the research, I compared data regarding the HVE policy context at different historical stages of HVE in an exploration of the development of HVE in China as a response to the requirements of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics (politics), economic development, educational reform, and global competition. Meanwhile, this comparison also revealed a trend of vocationalism embodied in increasingly strong policy support for the development of HVE, especially in recent years. Further, I compared policy data regarding HVE institutional realities to explore how the development of HVE has been constructed by policy in terms of mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status. This comparison revealed that the development of HVE has restructured China’s higher education in terms of human resource supply, enrollment, tuition, curriculum structure, teacher supply, graduate employment, and funding and governance. As well, comparisons between policy data under the same categories in different time ranges exposed the instability of HVE policy, which had led to various challenges facing HVE, such as poor student sources, limited upward mobility, high tuition, poor curriculum design, poor teaching conditions, low employment rate, insufficient funding, and lesser status. Moreover this study revealed a cultural conflict between vocationalism as an emerging trend in developing HVE and the Confucian tradition of HVE and explored rooted factors leading to the unresolved challenges facing HVE.

Inspired by Prunty's (1984) work, Edmondson (2000) defines policy as "an agenda or set of objectives that legitimize the values, beliefs, and attitudes of its authors" (p. 4). Thus, according to the same author, "[Education] policy exerts an ideological influence as sovereign governmental decisions are made about education" (Edmondson, 2000, p. 4), which impacts various stakeholders of education. According to Gordon, Lewis, and Young (1977), policy analysis has two forms. One is "analysis *for* policy" (p. 27), which provides the informational base upon which policy is constructed. The other is "analysis *of* policy" (p. 27), which provides the critical examination of existing policies. While doing the literature review, I found that HVE policy analysis in China had mainly focused on analysis *for* policy. This was easy to find in most HVE-related policy studies (Chen, 2006; Sun, 1994; Wang, 1988; Wang, 2001; Yang, 1996; Yang & Meng, et al., 1995; Xiong, 2008; Ye, 1994; Ye, 2002; Zeng, et al., 1988; Zhang, 1990; Zhang, 1985; Zhou, 1986). Critical examination of HVE policy was minimal, especially examination of the values, assumptions and ideologies underpinning the HVE policy process.

Using a critical analysis approach, my study explored how HVE had been used as a means to serve socialist modernization, economic development and global competition by the government. In this process, an increasingly intensified policy support for HVE indicated an emergent trend of vocationalist ideology in developing HVE, which had led to inequality and utilitarian effects on HVE students. Furthermore, a contradiction between HVE realities and strong government policy support was explored as well. In terms of education equity, the

strong power of Confucianism, the dominant traditional culture in Chinese higher education, was explored as a major resistance to the trend of vocationalism. Such resistance was explored to account for why strong policy support did not result in removing challenges facing HVE. The mechanism of upward mobility entailed in Confucianism and a Confucian humanities education were proposed to prevent the unequal treatment for HVE students. These analysis processes represented a further analysis of data by drawing inferences about effects of HVE development, which were considered “the most important aspect of the communication paradigm” (Holsti, 1969, p. 35).

Research Trustworthiness

Challenged around the issue of trustworthiness, qualitative research “must respond to the canons of quality—criteria against which the trustworthiness of the project can be evaluated” (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p. 200). As the researcher, I am obligated to provide a clear, explicit report of data collection methods and procedures of analysis to show that the analyses and findings of this study are reliable. This is what Huberman and Miles (2001) call “transparency of method” (p. 565) by which the reader can trust and verify the reported conclusion, enabling further analysis of the data and technical replication of the study. In this study, I adopted four criteria commonly used to ensure accuracy in qualitative research, as proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1985, 1989). They include credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

Credibility. Since data for this study were collected from documents, obtaining credible documents was ultra-important. My research trip to China

enabled me to review the span of Chinese literature related to my research. These policies, articles, statistics, reports, and news releases were all kept in record for verification. Meanwhile, adopting Scott's (1990) four criteria for evaluating documents enhanced the credibility of my data sources as well.

Second, since my research was based on translated documents, the accuracy of translation was vital. A peer PhD Candidate in a Faculty of Education at a Canadian university verified my document translation from Chinese to English. This student is a Chinese native speaker with a background in English Linguistics. With her confirmation of the accuracy of my translation, I started to extract content units from translated documents and organized them within constructed categories. They formed the basis for interpretations and analyses.

Third, all original policy documents in Chinese are attached to the appendix of my dissertation. Since I provided translations for all key Chinese words, policy, and issues in my thesis, the documents are helpful for verification.

Transferability. Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1985, 1989) suggest that research findings should be useful to other researchers in similar situations, with similar research questions or questions of practice. In order to ensure the transferability of my research, I provided thick description of the historical context within which China's HVE has emerged and flourished, which presents a comprehensive picture of the dynamic development process of HVE within the context of globalization. Furthermore, this study focuses on the development process of China's HVE. It is undeniable that some findings of this study can be applied to other countries, which are undergoing economic transformation and

need to develop HVE. Moreover, given the fact that English literature on China's HVE is relatively rare, my research will be useful for relevant comparative studies in various settings.

Indeed, transferability of my research is enhanced by data categories constructed in my research, which represent the institutional reality of HVE: context, mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, funding and governance, graduate employment, and social status of HVE. Given the fact that education of all types and at different levels shares many similar institutional realities as China's HVE, this study can be applied to education institutional research in other settings as well.

Dependability. In qualitative research, according to Guba & Lincoln (1981, 1985, 1989), dependability is concerned with consistency of the research, which can be tested by people other than the researcher. In addition to the former peer who examined my translation, an English-speaking peer PhD Candidate with a background in education was invited to verify my research. This student examined the process I used to conduct my research. While reading my recorded data, interpretations, and analysis, she also reviewed what the research question covered, how the data were collected, why documents were data sources, why such categories were adopted, and how the categories were constructed. Moreover, the dependability of this study was also enhanced by a consistently applied frame in the coding and analysis process, which referred to the research question, the categories, and the four stages of HVE development.

Confirmability. The meaning of confirmability is parallel to the traditional concept of objectivity. It is generally accepted that the researcher is the key “instrument” of his/her research. Being objective or neutral is the core of confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, 1985, 1989). In order to avoid the author’s bias in this study, the second knowledgeable peer examined my interpretations and analyses as well and confirmed that my interpretations and analyses were all based on my data. Thus, the confirmability of my research is ensured to a large extent.

Overview of the Context for the Study

Reflecting the dynamics of reform and opening-up that has been taking place in China for thirty years, the development of HVE has widely connected to politics, the economy, and educational reform. In this section, I discuss transitions regarding China’s politics, economy, and educational reform so as to provide an overview of the context shaping my study of higher vocational education (HVE) in China.

A brief history of China. Reagan (2000) notes that “Elements of Chinese civilization can be traced back at least as far as 6,000 years, and perhaps considerably further” (p. 101). Chronologically, the history of China evolved from Ancient China (ca. 2000 B.C. – 221 B.C.), to Imperial China (221 B.C.-1839), and to Modern China (1840 to present) (See Table 4-1).

Table 4-1 A Brief Chronology of Chinese History (People’s Daily, n.d.)

	Dynasty		Period
Ancient China	Xia Dynasty		2070-1600 B.C.
	Shang Dynasty		1600-1046 B.C.
	Zhou Dynasty	Western Zhou	1046-771 B.C.
		Eastern Zhou	770-256 B.C.

		Spring and Autumn Period	770-476 B.C.	
		Warring States Period	475-221 B.C.	
Imperial China	Qin Dynasty		221-206 B.C.	
	Han Dynasty	Western Han	206 B.C.-A.D. 25	
		Eastern Han	25-220	
	Three Kingdoms	Wei	220-265	
		Shu Han	221-263	
		Wu	222-280	
	Western Jin Dynasty		265-317	
	Eastern Jin Dynasty		317-420	
	Northern and Southern Dynasties	Southern Dynasties	Song	420-479
			Qi	479-502
			Liang	502-557
			Chen	557-589
		Northern Dynasties	Northern Wei	386-534
			Eastern Wei	534-550
			Northern Qi	550-577
			Western Wei	535-556
			Northern Zhou	557-581
			Sui Dynasty	
	Tang Dynasty		618-907	
	Five Dynasties	Later Liang	907-923	
		Later Tang	923-936	
		Later Jin	936-947	
		Later Han	947-950	
		Later Zhou	951-960	
	Song Dynasty	Northern Song	960-1127	
		Southern Song	1127-1279	
	Liao Dynasty		907-1125	
Jin Dynasty		1115-1234		
Yuan Dynasty		1206-1368		
Ming Dynasty		1368-1644		
Qing Dynasty		1616-1839		
Modern China	Qing Dynasty		1840-1911	
	Republic of China		1912-1949	
	People's Republic of China		Founded on October 1, 1949	

As the writer of *Science and Civilisation in China*, “the most thorough and comprehensive study of traditional scientific thought and practice in China,” the British scholar Joseph Needham (1900-1995) highly praised the contribution of

China's civilization to the world in terms of science and technology (Reagan, 2000, p. 117). According to Gernet (1996), "Chinese civilization was the guiding spirit of a very large section of humanity, giving it its writing, its technology, its conceptions of man and of the world, its religions and its political institutions" (p. 1). However, at the turn of the 20th century, the country declined mainly due to civil turmoil, military defeats, and foreign invasion and occupation. Imperial China was overthrown in 1911 and followed by the founding of the "Republic of China" (*zhonghua minguo*) in 1912. The Republic of China was facing frequent wars, such as "warlords fighting" (*junfa hunzhan*) (1916-1928), the "War of Resistance Against Japan" (*kangri zhanzheng*) (1937-1945), and the "Civil War between Kuomintang and the Communist Party of China (CPC)" (*jiefang zhanzheng*) (1945-1949).

On October 1, 1949, the "People's Republic of China" (PRC) (*zhonghua renmin gongheguo*) was founded with the CPC in power while Kuomintang continued the Republic of China in Taiwan that was supported by the United States. Compared to the Republic of China, the People's Republic of China was named New China, which focused on socialist modernization of China. Chairman Mao Zedong was the absolute leader of the New China from 1949 to 1976. Due to poverty and very limited resources, a centrally planned economy reflected strict controls over all aspects of social life. Moreover, Mao initiated a series of political movements after 1949, which culminated in the Cultural Revolution during 1966-1976. This transition did not change the poor situation of China but made it worse, even though China did make some great achievements in international relations.

First of all, before the 1970s, socialist China was isolated by Western capitalist countries. The situation deteriorated when the alliance between China and the Soviet Union collapsed in the 1960s. In order to stand firmly in the world, the country started to make friends with Third-World countries mainly in Asia, Africa, and Latin America in the 1950s. The Three World Division was proposed by Mao in 1974 (XinhuaNet, 2009a) as follows: The United States and the Soviet Union comprised the First World; Japan, Europe, and Canada comprised the Second World; the Third World included the most populous countries in Asia except for Japan as well as Africa and Latin America. Moreover, the diplomatic achievements of China mainly resulted from China's adherence to an independent foreign policy of peace based on the "Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence" (*heping gongchu wu xiang yuanze*). The five principles refer to "Mutual respect for territorial integrity and sovereignty" (*xianghu zunzhong litu wanzheng he zhuquan*), "mutual non-aggression" (*hu bu qinfan*), "mutual non-interference in each other's internal affairs" (*hu bu ganshe neizheng*), "equality and mutual benefit" (*pingdeng huli*), and "peaceful coexistence" (*heping gongchu*). On the basis of such a policy, China developed friendly relations and cooperation with all other countries by holding the view that countries with different social systems should treat one another as equals and co-exist peacefully. In the 1970s, consequently, China made great breakthroughs in diplomacy. First, China returned to the United Nations as a permanent member. Second, relations between the PRC and the United States were normalized. Furthermore, relations between

China and Japan were normalized as well. These diplomatic changes laid the foundation for China's eventual opening-up.

During this period, higher education was deeply impacted by the Soviet Union model of "engineering socialist industrialization" (Ma, 2007, p. 180). A system of socialist higher education was basically established with a focus on engineer education. However, during the Cultural Revolution, higher education, even the entire education system, was almost destroyed.

In December 1978, The Chinese leadership under *Deng Xiaoping* announced a program to build socialist modernization in "The Third Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the CPC" (*shiyijie sanzhong quanhui*) (XinhuaNet, 2003a), which was a session of "the 11th National Congress of the CPC" (*zhongguo gongchandang di shiyi ci quanguo daibiao dahui*). At that time, the country was facing the dual difficulties of political uncertainty after *Mao* passed away in 1976 and economic stagnation that was mainly caused by the Cultural Revolution during 1966 -1976 (XinhuaNet, 2003a). With the announcement of shifting the state's focus to economic construction and a policy of reform and opening-up, this session has been considered a historical turning point for China (XinhuaNet, 2007a). Since late 1978, China made tremendous achievements in building socialist modernization, which has been phrased as Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. HVE development and reform discussed in this research happened within this period between 1980 and 2007.

Political context. Deng Xiaoping, the chief architect for China's reform and opening-up, made a very famous statement about socialist modernization of

China in “The 12th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shier ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) held in December 1982. He said:

The modernization of China must proceed according to China's reality. Learning and using experiences from foreign countries are necessary for our socialist construction. However, it would be far from success if we simply replicated and imitated other states' experiences and models without considering the reality of our country. We have learned many lessons from that. What we must do is to build socialism with Chinese characteristics by integrating the universal truth of Marxism to the concrete practice of our country and following our own path. This is the basic conclusion drawn from our long-term historical experiences. (XinhuaNet, 2009a)

This was the first time that the CPC proposed the conception of “Socialism with Chinese Characteristics” (*you zhongguo tese de shehuizhuyi*), which firmed the socialist direction of China's economic reform. A trenchant argument of Deng Xiaoping was that poverty was not a symbol of socialism and socialism must eliminate poverty. In the third plenary session of the same congress, the Party enacted a policy with great significances – “Resolution on Reforming the Economic System” (*guanyu jingji tizhi gaige de jueding*). The purpose was to accelerate economic system reform with a focus on cities to create a new situation for building socialist modernization (People, 2008).

The construction of China's modernization has followed a “Three-Step Strategy” (*sanbuzou zhanlue*), which was proposed during “The 13th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shisan ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) in October 1987 (XinhuaNet, 2005b). Generally, this is a plan for boosting the economy by achieving three major targets over three different time durations. The first step was to double the GDP of 1980 by 1990 and ensure that most of the population had enough food and clothing. The second step was to double the GDP

of 1990 by 2000 and ensure that most people were living prosperous lives. The third step is to quadruple the GDP of 2000 by 2050 to ensure that most people are living well-off lives within a fully operational market economy in China. While emphasizing economic construction as the central task in the same congress, the Party reinforced the implementation of sticking to “Four Cardinal Principles” (*sixiang jiben yuanze*) and adhering to “reform and opening-up” (*gaige kaifang*). This was formulated as the basic line of “one central task” (economic development) and “two basic points” (adherence to reform and opening-up and adherence to the Four Cardinal Principles) (*yige zhongxin, liangge jibendian*). Four Cardinal Principles refer to: compulsory adherence to the socialist route, compulsory adherence to the people’s democratic dictatorship, compulsory adherence to the leadership of the Communist Party of China, and compulsory adherence to Marxism-Leninism and Maoism. The Four Cardinal Principles are regarded as the cornerstone of the country, while reform and opening-up are approaches to strengthen the country.

In October 1992, “The 14th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shisi ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) announced that the economic reform targeted establishing the “Socialist Market Economy” (*shehuizhuyi shichang jingji*) (XinhuaNet, 2005c). In order to facilitate realization of the goal to build China’s modernization, the congress stressed two fundamental transformations in the economy: one change is from a planned economy to a market economy; the other is from a labor-intensive to knowledge-intensive economic growth mode.

“The 15th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shiwu ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) was held in September 1997, which established Deng Xiaoping Theory of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics as the guiding ideology of the CPC (XinhuaNet, 2003b). It is worth noting that in this congress, the “strategy of invigorating China by relying on science, technology, and education” (*kejiao xingguo zhanlue*) was further stressed, which evolved from a Deng Xiaoping’s thought in 1977 that science and technology were the primary productive forces (XinhuaNet, 2009b). As a consequence, education has been given priority for development.

In November 2002, “The 16th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shiliu ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) was convened, which established “Three Represents” (*sange daibiao*) proposed by Chinese President Jiang Zemin as a guiding ideology of the CPC. The notion of Three Represents emphasizes that the CPC always represents the development needs of China's advanced social productive forces, always represents the onward direction of China’s advanced culture, and always represents the fundamental interests of the overwhelming majority of the Chinese people (XinhuaNet, 2002).

Another guiding ideology of the CPC – the “Scientific Development Concept” (*kexue fazhan guan*) was proposed by Chinese President Hu Jintao in “The 17th National Congress of the CPC” (*zhongguo gongchandang di shiqi ci quanguo daibiao dahui*) (People, 2007). The Scientific Development Concept stresses that economic development must be scientific, people-oriented, all-round, harmonious, and sustainable (XinhuaNet, 2005d). In this congress, the Central

Committee of the CPC put more emphasis on human resource supply. It was the first time that supply of high-level skilled workers was emphasized in human resource development. It was also the first time that education was required to enhance employment ability, innovation ability, and the entrepreneurship ability of citizens. The purpose was to try to transform the pressure of a huge population into the advantage of qualified human resources.

According to Shi (2007), the theory of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics was enriched by the Three Represents and the Scientific Development Concept. Moreover, it is worth noting that from Deng Xiaoping's theory to the Three Represents to Scientific Development Concept, there has emerged a shift from focusing on economic development to focusing on both economic development and people so as to build a harmonious society. Harvey (2005) notes that "key decisions ratified at party congresses set the stage for each step on the reform trail" (p. 122). Policy made by the CPC provides macro guidance for all undertakings in the country, which are subordinate to the core mission of economic development.

The economic reform designed by the Central Committee of the CPC has been targeted to realize socialist modernization regulated by the Three-Step Strategy. With such a long-run plan, China's economic development also follows a relatively short-run plan – "The State Economic Development Five-Year Plan" (*guomin jingji fazhan wunian jihua*), which is usually called The Five-Year Plan (*wunian jihua/guihua*). Indeed, the Five-Year Plan worked in China much earlier than the Three-Step Strategy. Since adopting the first Five-Year Plan in 1953,

China has made eleven Five-Year Plans (XinhuaNet, 2009c): *The First Five-Year Plan* (yi wu jihua), covered the years 1953-1957 and *the eleventh Five-Year Plan* (shi yi wu guihua) covered 2006-2010. Five-Year Plans regulate major construction projects, distribution of productivity, and important proportions of state economy. Like policy made by CPC congresses, these Five Year Plans are macro policy made by the central government to guide economic work in China.

Economic context. With the enactment of *The Central Committee of the CPC: Resolution on Reforming the Economic System*, China's reform started to spread throughout the whole country with a focus on cities. Harvey (2005) relates that China's reform coincided with the turn to neoliberal solutions in Britain and the United States. This has led to building "a particular kind of market economy that increasingly incorporates neoliberal elements interdigitated with authoritarian centralized control" (p. 120). The core of China's reform was to change a highly centralized governance system and to diversify the ownership of the economy.

Reforming the centrally planned economy has resulted in devolution of political-economic power to the regions and localities, by which the provincial and local governments are taking more responsibilities in planning, funding, and governing the local economy. Furthermore, the ownership of the economy has been expanded from the traditionally single public ownership to multiple ownerships of the economy. Titled the "tail of capitalism" (*zibenzhuyi weiba*) before the reform, self-employed and private business, and other types of non-public sectors of the economy have been encouraged as necessary supplements to the public one (Zhou & Ouyang, 2008). Multiple ownerships of the economy have

resulted in expansion of funding sources for socialist construction. With these reforms, private businesses and township businesses at grassroots levels mushroomed as supplements to state-owned businesses.

It is true that China's economic reform was carried out without any reference. The process represents Deng Xiaoping's description of "groping the stone to cross the river" (*mo zhe shitou guohe*). Through the reform, China had reached the first two-step goals of the Three-Step Strategy before 2000. At *The 17th National Congress of the CPC* in December 2007, the third step was revised to quadruple the per capita GDP of 2000 by 2020 instead of 2050 (XinhuaNet, 2007b, 2009d).

The remarkable achievements of China's economic development are not possible without opening up. Due to political reasons, the People's Republic of China, also known as *New China*, had been isolated from the outside world, especially the Western world ever since its founding on October 1st, 1949. With opening up, China's international trade has flourished. According to Yu and Han (2008), total imports and exports of China reached US\$2,173.8 billion, which accounted for 105 times the figure in 1978. The annual increase was 17.4%. The share of China's total imports and exports in total world trade increased from 0.78% in 1978 to 8% in 2007. China's rank in world trade increased from 32nd in 1978 to 3rd in 2007. The contribution rate of China's international trade for world trade increased constantly from less than 1% to 11%.

With the construction of "special economic zones" (*jingji tequ*) in 1980, which were the experiment zones for opening the country to outside world,

foreign capital started to flow into China (Zhang, 2008) and “gather momentum during the 1990s” (Harvey, 2005, p. 126). Yu and Han (2008) relate that up to October 2007, 625,000 enterprises with foreign investment had been approved and set up in China with total foreign investment of US\$740 billion. China has been ranked number one in absorbing foreign capital among developing countries for 15 years. Currently, more than 190 countries and regions have invested in China with a total money stock of US\$292.6 billion. Undoubtedly, China has become an active player in the global economy, especially after its accession to the WTO in 2001. Reform and opening-up have connected China with the open world and the global market.

Nevertheless, the development of China’s economy is uneven in the country. At the front of opening-up, the southern and eastern coastal areas have surged ahead, while the central and the west are still underdeveloped. Accordingly, the provincial and local governments in different regions are facing different financial situations. Moreover, focusing on urban areas, China’s reform has led to sharp differences between urban and rural areas. This kind of difference is regarded as an issue of “social inequality” (Harvey, 2005, p. 142).

Higher education reform. The enactment of *Resolution on Reforming the Economic System* mobilized reforms in all social undertakings including education. In 1985, “Resolution on Reforming the Educational System” (*guanyu jiaoyu tizhi de jueding*) was enacted. The purpose of reforming the educational system was to improve the quality of citizens, produce more human resources, and produce human resources with high quality, so that education could serve

economic development more efficiently (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985). Since then, reforms in all types of education at different levels have been carried out, including higher education.

Structure. Chinese public higher education consists of two sectors: university and non-university. Traditionally, Chinese higher education focused more on undergraduate education, which mainly referred to universities. In contrast, short-cycle higher education institutions including junior colleges had very small sizes, which represented the non-university sector of higher education (Ye, 1994). Zhong (2001) points out that in 1981, the enrollment of junior colleges was 218,000, which accounts for 17.8% of total enrollment of both junior colleges and undergraduate institutions. The disproportion between junior college education and undergraduate education did not meet the state's requirement that junior colleges should produce more skilled graduates for socialist construction in shorter cycles. Thus, the structure of university and non-university sectors of higher education has been reformed by expanding the non-university sector. The development of the non-university sector has resulted in Chinese higher education expansion. In 2002, Chinese higher education entered the stage of mass higher education from an elite stage.

Moreover, before the reform, academic/theoretical education was the major knowledge transmitted at higher education institutions. Short-cycle higher education was called "shortened undergraduate education" (*benke yasuo*) for replicating the academic education provided by undergraduate institutions using a shorter schooling period. As a means of serving the socialist modernization,

higher education was required to produce diverse graduates instead of academics only for the booming economy. Therefore, the knowledge structure of higher education, especially in the non-university sector, has been reformed from academic-centered to skill-centered knowledge. This is expected to ensure the supply of high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded.

Funding and governance. In centralized China, the “Ministry of Education” (*Jiaoyubu*) is the highest authority administering education across the country. Since the inception of higher education reform in 1985, governance of Chinese higher education has been mainly decentralized to local governments. Decentralizing higher education to local governments was based on the assumption that higher education could better serve the local economy. However, many researchers agree that in China, “fiscal decentralization was a prime motive for educational decentralization” (Hawkins, 2000, p. 450).

The funding system in Chinese public higher education is hierarchical based on the three tier discussed by Hayhoe and Zha (2004). On the top, universities in *Project 985* and *Project 211* are the key funded institutions. They are funded by both the central government and provincial governments. Funding for universities under the governance of each province mainly comes from the provincial governments. Most universities in China are located at this level. Since each province has its own *Project 211*, a similar funding hierarchy exists at provincial levels. Located at the bottom of the hierarchy, short-cycle higher education institutions including HVE institutions usually get the least funding.

Meanwhile, funding sources for higher education have been reformed from the single source of the government to multiple sources, which refer to the government funding budget, private funds, education tax, tuition and fees, school-run industry income for education, donations by non-government organizations and individuals, education foundations, community service, and loans (Ding, 2009; Jilin Association for Higher Education, 2008). Nevertheless, the Jilin Association for Higher Education (2008) notes that government funding and tuition are the two major sources for higher education institutions. Moreover, according to Mok and Lo (2009), government funds for higher education have never met the requirement that they should account for 4% of GDP, which was regulated by *the Outline for Chinese Education Reform and Development*, issued in 1993 (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993). Another reality is that the reformed higher education funding system has also led to uneven development of higher education across the country. In developed areas, higher education has good teaching conditions with sufficient funds, while in less developed areas, insufficient funds for higher education have resulted in poor teaching conditions and difficulties in institutional operation.

Recruitment. Similarly, higher education recruitment is conducted in a certain order based on the aforementioned hierarchy of higher education institutions. In general, research universities at the top tier have the priority to recruit students with the highest exam score. Following that, provincial universities recruit students with less high scores. At the lowest level of the higher education hierarchy, short-cycle colleges including HVE institutions recruit

students with the lowest scores. In China, higher education recruitment has been highly planned by the government and not by higher education institutions (Xiong, 2009). Moreover, higher education students are still mainly full-time students although the College Entrance Examination was opened to all eligible citizens in 2001 (China Youth, 2001; Univs, 2009a).

It is worth noting that access to higher education is uneven between different areas. For instance, students in Beijing and Shanghai are usually recruited by the top universities with lower scores than students in other areas. This has been regarded as an issue of inequity. In China, higher education recruitment is based on the “system of household registration” (*hujizhidu*), by which each adult should have his/her own “residence registration” (*hukou*). That is, the student needs to attend the National College Entrance Examination in places where his/her residence registration is. Such a policy has been critiqued for not fitting the marketization trend in Chinese society in terms of migration.

In terms of ethnicity and gender, furthermore, people in different ethnic groups and males and females have equal access to higher education in general. China has 56 ethnic groups, in which the “Han Chinese” (*hanzu*) is the largest ethnic group while the other 55 ethnic groups are defined as “minority ethnic groups” (*shaoshu minzu*). China Statistical Yearbook 2003 showed that in 2000, the Han Chinese population was 1, 159, 400, 000, accounting for 91.59% of the total population, while the population of the 55 minority ethnic groups was 106, 430, 000, comprising 8.41% of the total population. In order to change their backward situations of economic and social development, the Chinese

government has adopted a nationality policy to support ethnic minority areas. In terms of higher education access, minority ethnic students enjoy a score-add policy. That is, in addition to scores gained in the National College Entrance Examination, minority ethnic students are usually offered extra scores according to their residence areas.

Moreover, females currently have equal opportunity in gaining access to higher education by participating in the National College Entrance Examination in China. Like many other nations in the world, females in China were treated unequally in gaining education in the past, especially before the year 1919 when the “May Fourth Movement” (*wusi yundong*) took place. In Imperial China, females were not allowed to participate in the Imperial Examination.

Tuition. It is true that most public higher education institutions were tuition-free except for HVE institutions. With the advent of a market economy, tuition and fees at most higher education institutions were reformed from tuition-free to tuition-charging based on a notion that higher education is not compulsory education (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993; The Ministry of Education, 1994). Li (2006) and Univs (2009a) note that Chinese public higher education institutions generally started to charge tuition in 1997. Consequently, the issue of equity in higher education was challenged by charging tuition considering many rural students could not afford higher education tuition. In order to relieve tuition pressures on students from low-income families, a financial support system for full-time college students has been gradually established in recent years.

Graduate placement. Traditionally, college graduates were assigned jobs by the college with a title of “official” (*ganbu*), which indicated a higher status in the workplace. Since 1994, the college graduates’ placement system has been reformed from unified job assignment with an official identity for all students to encouraging the majority of students to find jobs on their own without the title of official (The Ministry of Education, 1994; Univs, 2009b). Generally, college graduates are issued unified diplomas upon graduation and dispatch letters for employment.

Further, due to the sharp differences between urban and rural areas, college graduates prefer to work in cities, especially large cities, for more development opportunities. The household registration system also plays a restrictive role in disseminating college graduates to grassroots areas. Furthermore, with marketization of college graduates’ placement, minority ethnic students are facing more challenges in the employment market due to narrow majors. Thus, the protective policy for minority ethnic students’ employment requires improvement (People, 2010). Moreover, Z. Liu (2007) points out that in terms of gender, age, stature, education, health, and appearance, college graduates are facing discrimination in employment.

Teaching staff. Employment of college teachers in China was reformed from permanent employment or “iron rice bowls” (*tiefanwan*) to “contractual employment” (*pingrenzhi*). In recent years, the system of “tenure-track” (*zhongshen jiaoshou*) has been introduced to China. However, Li (2008) notes that the current salary system at colleges and universities has been built on the

basis of a planned economy, which does not meet the requirement of a market economy. Generally, salaries for college teachers do not match their work. According to Ma (2007), college teachers used to have low income and heavy workloads in the 1980s and 1990s. Many teachers went abroad for degree study or “jumping into the sea of business” (*xiahai*). She further relates that many college teachers studying abroad did not return to China due to the difference in living standards and research conditions. This directly resulted in the issue of a brain drain for China. Recently, as a response to the “strategy of strengthening China with human resources” (*rencai qiangguo zhanlue*), reforming the salary system of colleges and universities has been emphasized by the central government. A new salary system is expected to be established in the near future (Li, 2008).

Legislation. During the process of reform, a process of developing Chinese education legislation has been carried out. This is indicated by a series of education laws issued in the 1990s: “the Law of Education of the People’s Republic of China” (*zhonghua renmin gongheguo jiaoyufa*) enacted in 1995, “the Law of Vocational Education of the People’s Republic of China” (*zhonghua renmin gongheguo zhiye jiaoyufa*) enacted in 1996, and “the Law of Higher Education of the People’s Republic of China” (*zhonghua renmin gongheguo gaodeng jiaoyufa*) enacted in 1998.

Four stages of HVE development.³ Since the emergence of HVE in the early 1980s, the development of HVE has experienced four stages. They are: Stage One, 1985-1995, early exploration of HVE; Stage Two, 1996-1999,

³ A version of this section has been published. Xiong, 2008. *Minban Jiaoyu Yanjiu*, 6: 24-31, 107.

legislation of HVE; Stage Three, 2000-2005, rapid growth of HVE; Stage Four, 2006-2007, restructuring of HVE.

Stage one: 1980-1995, early exploration of HVE. In the first phase, HVE emerged and developed unstably and slowly. The distinct feature of HVE was the *short-cycle vocational colleges* – the only organizational form for HVE at this stage, which was locally newborn and neither gained recognition by society nor emphasis by the central government. According to Zhang (1990), the number of local vocational colleges dropped from 128 to 119 in 1989. Finally in the early 1990s, there were only 57 short-cycle vocational colleges, most of which did not focus on vocational education anymore in the early 1990s. Nevertheless, Yang (1996) states that the experience of vocational colleges is valuable for developing HVE in China.

Stage two: 1996-1999, legislation of HVE. This is the turning point for developing HVE in China. The formal establishment of HVE took place in 1996, when the *Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China* was enacted, in which HVE is legitimated as the highest level of vocational education. Moreover, the *Law of Higher Education of the People's Republic of China* was issued in 1998 which regulates that HVE is an integral part of the higher education system. Although HVE development was still slow at this stage, legislation and subsequent supportive policies laid the foundation for rapid development of HVE in the third stage.

Stage three: 2000-2005, rapid growth of HVE. A distinct feature of this stage is that the takeoff of HVE from 2000 to 2005 has led to expansion of

Chinese higher education. The number of HVE institutions increased from 432 in 1998 (The Ministry of Education, 1998a) to 1,091 in 2005 (The Ministry of Education, 2005). The freshman enrollment of HVE increased from 430,500 in 1998 (The Ministry of Education, 1998) to 2,681,000 in 2005 (Chen & Guo, 2006). With the rapid growth of HVE, China's higher education entered a mass developmental phase with a gross enrollment rate of 15% in 2002, 17% in 2003, 19% in 2004, and 21% in 2005 (The Ministry of Education, 2003, 2005; Wu, 2004; Zheng, 2008). Total enrollment of higher education reached 23, 000, 000 in 2005 (The Ministry of Education, 2005).

Stage four: 2006-2007, restructuring of HVE. The quantitative expansion of higher education in the previous phase led to quality problems for higher education including HVE. In order to ensure HVE quality, the Project of Building 100 Model Vocational and Technical Colleges was launched in 2006. The purpose of this project was to fund 100 model HVE institutions with high quality so as to bring along all HVE institutions to improve their quality. This indicated that the focus of HVE development shifted from quantitative growth to quality assurance. Expectation for the completion of such an ongoing process of HVE restructuring is around the year 2015.

Summary. In the process of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, Chinese society has undergone tremendous transformations with great achievements under the leadership of the CPC. The theory of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics is constituted by three components: The Theory of Deng Xiaoping, Three Represents, and the Scientific Development Concept. The

purpose of such a theory is to emancipate and develop productive forces so as to build a well-off and harmonious society. In terms of politics, an open system of the Theory of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics has been established as the guiding ideology for all undertakings .

In terms of the economy, Socialism with Chinese Characteristics refers to the Socialist Market Economy. With a neoliberal practice influencing socialism, the Socialist Market Economy is characterized by aspects like devolution and privatization strongly supervised by the Chinese government, which is different from the Western “free market.” In order to build a Socialist Market Economy, the country has reached the first two-step goals according to the planned schedule. With the fast economic development in recent years, the country has rescheduled the timeline for realization of the third step goal, which was expected to be achieved earlier than the original plan. Consequently, people’s living standards are dramatically improved and most shortages common to the planned economy are eliminated. Consequently, the country’s overall strength has been increasingly enhanced. Moreover, during this process, the centralized planned economy has been gradually transformed into a socialist market economy.

In terms of education reform, the centralized higher education of China has been reformed to meet the market demands by supplying qualified human resources for economic development. The development of HVE reflects the dynamics of reform and opening-up that have been taking place in China for thirty years. The first two stages of HVE development from 1980 to 1999 just fit the planned schedule for achieving the first two step goals, while the third and fourth

stages of HVE development in 2000-2007 are the early phases of achieving the third step goal. Apparently, the development of HVE is closely connected with the speed and depth of economic development.

Nonetheless, we must bear in mind that building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics is an ongoing process. Considering the splendid achievements China made in the past, building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics may be regarded as a process that enables China to rebuild its overall strength with the development and reform of the economy, higher education, and HVE. Although the country has made great achievements over the last 30 years, China's economy, higher education, and HVE are still facing challenges which are not easily resolved. It will take more time to address the weakness and stagnations in the previous ages.

Chapter 5 Analysis of HVE-Related Policy Documents (1980-2007)

In this chapter, I compare data regarding the HVE policy context at different historical stages of the emergence of HVE and explore how developing HVE in China is a response to the requirements of politics, the economy, educational reform, and global competition. This comparison also reveals increasingly stronger policy support for HVE from 1980 to 2007. Furthermore, I compare policy constructs regarding HVE's mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, funding and governance, graduate employment, and social status at different stages of HVE development to explore the effects of developing HVE in China. Analysis and discussion in this chapter are framed by the following research sub-questions:

1. What are the driving forces behind developing HVE in China?
2. How do these forces work in HVE development and reform?
3. What are the effects of developing HVE?
4. What are the trends in the development of HVE?

Data analyzed in this chapter is mainly extracted from HVE-related policies adopted at different stages of HVE development between 1980 and 2007. These policies are listed in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1 HVE-Related Policies (1980-2007)

Stage	HVE-Related Policy
Stage One: 1980-1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A Report on Accelerating the Development of Higher Education (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983) • Resolution on Reforming the Educational System (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985), • Advice on Enhancing Regular Junior College Education (The Ministry of Education, 1991),

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resolution on Energetically Developing Vocational and Technical Education (The State Council, 1991) • The Outline of China's Education Reform and Development (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993) • Advice on Implementing the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development (The State Council, 1994) • Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges (The Ministry of Education, 1995)
Stage Two: 1996-1999	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China (1996) • Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998) • The Law of Higher Education of the People's Republic of China (1998) • Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century (The Ministry of Education, 1998) • Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999) • Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Fully Promoting Quality Education (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999)
Stage Three: 2000-2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advice on Strengthening the Human Resource Supply by Higher Vocational Education and Junior College Education (The Ministry of Education, 2000) • Resolution on Vigorously Promoting the Development and Reform of Vocational Education (The State Council, 2002) • Information and Advice on Strengthening Team Building of High-Level Skilled Manpower (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2003) • Six Ministries and Commissions Including the Ministry of Education Jointly Initiating the Project of Supplying Skilled Manpower in a Time of Severe Shortage for the Industry of Manufacturing and Modern Service (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003) • Resolution on Further Enhancing the Work of Human Resources (The State Council, 2003) • The Plan of Training 500,000 New Technicians in Three Years (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004) • Action Plan for Invigorating Education Between 2003 and 2007 (The Ministry of Education, 2004a)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some Advice on Further Higher Vocational Education Reform with Employment Purposes (The Ministry of Education, 2004b) • Resolution on Further Emphasizing Vocational Education by Seven Ministries and Commissions (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004) • Resolution on Energetically Developing Vocational Education (The State Council, 2005)
Stage Four: 2006-2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Notice of Compiling and Submitting Regular Higher Education Recruitment Plans Based on Institutions and Disciplines in 2006 (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006) • Advice on Accelerating the Reform and Development of Higher Vocational Education by Implementing the Project of Building (100) Nationwide Model Vocational and Technical Colleges (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006) • Some Advice on Fully Improving the Quality of HVE (The Ministry of Education, 2006a) • Advice on Further Strengthening the Work of High-Level Skilled Manpower (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006) • Advice on Establishing and Improving Policy Systems of Financial Assistance for Low-Income Students at Universities, HVE Institutions, and Secondary Vocational Schools (The Ministry of Finance, The Ministry of Education, & The Center for National Student Assistance Administration, 2007)

Analysis of Policy Content Extracted from HVE-Related Policy Documents

Stage one: 1980-1995, early exploration of HVE. At the first stage, HVE-related policies were designed immediately after China started its economic reform and carried out the policy of reform and opening-up in the late 1970s. Thus the early development of HVE took place at the early stage of China's economic reform, in which the nation's economy was recovering from the stagnation caused by the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976). During this period, three national congresses of the CPC were convened, which included *The 12th*

National Congress of the CPC in 1982, *The 13th National Congress of the CPC* in 1987, and *The 14th National Congress of the CPC* in 1992. According to these Party Congresses, China's modernization aimed at building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, which was shaped by the Three-Step Strategy. Economic development was emphasized as the central task in building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics while the centrally planned economy was planned to be reformed into a market economy. This was expected to build China's overall strength in global competitions.

Achieving the first-step goal set by the Three-Step Strategy in 1990, China entered a new phase of reform and opening-up and modernization. The national economy and overall strength have been improved to a new level by establishing a socialist market economy, picking up the speed of reform and opening-up and modernization, and further freeing and developing productive forces. While providing opportunities, these situations have proposed new tasks and requirements for education (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993). Therefore, the 1990s was considered the vital decade for China's socialist modernization. In order to achieve the second-step goal of the Three-Step Strategy and lay the foundation for economic and social development in the next century, it was urgent for China to further develop education and advance science and technology (The State Council, 1991). Directed by the ideology of Building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, the Central Committee of the CPC clearly proposed that in order to realize socialist modernization, education must be

developed as a priority (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993).

As a response to the *Resolution on Reforming the Economic System*, the policy named the *Resolution on Reforming the Educational System* was enacted in 1985. In this policy, the central government required that “education must serve the construction of socialism, while the construction of socialism must rely on education” (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985, para. 2). Moreover, it was emphasized in the policy that “the purpose of reforming the educational system is to improve the quality of the citizens by producing more high-quality human resources because human resources are one of the vital factors for successful economic reform” (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985, para. 1). Therefore, significant development of education is necessary to resolve the problem of human resource supply so that education will be able to serve economic development more efficiently (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985).

Indeed, education had stagnated during the Cultural Revolution. The Central Committee of the CPC (1985) noted that vocational education was the weakest part of the Chinese education enterprise while the Ministry of Education (1991) noted that regular junior college education was still relatively vulnerable in Chinese higher education. For instance, the purpose of the policy called *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges* was to promote the sound development of vocational colleges through reform and construction so as to make vocational colleges contribute more to the

development of China's HVE and economic construction (The Ministry of Education, 1995).

Nonetheless, during the first stage of HVE development from 1980-1995, policy evidence showed that no policy was customized for HVE until the enactment of *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges* (The Ministry of Education, 1995) at the end of this stage. Most messages on HVE were scattered in policies addressing education, higher education, or vocational education. This indicated an ambiguous identity for HVE. Moreover, as a directive document for constructing a socialist educational system with Chinese characteristics, *the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development* (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993) served as a blueprint for education reform and development in the 1990s and the early 2000s (The State Council, 1994). However, such an important policy did not plan HVE as an independent part of education. Later, the government addressed the issue of policy in *Advice on Implementing the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development* (The State Council, 1994), which was a supplement to the former policy. This instability in government policy further confirmed that there was not a clear understanding of HVE, which indicated less policy support for HVE at that time.

Within the above contexts, HVE was constructed by related policies regarding its mission, structure, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, funding and governance, graduate employment, and social status. Each context is now considered.

Mission. In order to supply qualified human resources for China's economic development, HVE was required to produce "specialized manpower" (*zhuanmen rencai*) (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983). Later, the Central Committee of the CPC (1985) stated that China's economic development was crying for millions of "intermediate and junior technicians" (*zhong chu ji jishu ren yuan*), "managerial manpower" (*guan li ren yuan*), skilled workers (*jigong*), and other labor types produced by vocational education. Without such a skilled workforce, advanced technology and equipment could not be transformed into efficient productive forces (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985). Accordingly, the mission of HVE was regulated to supply "applied manpower" (*ying yong xing rencai*) (The Ministry of Education, 1991), "skilled senior operators" (*ji yixing qiang de gaoji caozuo ren yuan*) (The State Council, 1991), or "senior and some intermediate applied and managerial manpower" (*gao zhong ji shi yong jishu guan li rencai*) (The Ministry of Education, 1995). There was no clear definition about what kinds of human resources they constituted. Different names and various levels of these human resource types indicated an unclear understanding of human resources supplied by HVE. Indeed, some of them were not exclusive to human resources supplied by HVE. For instance, specialized manpower was supplied also by other sectors of higher education (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983). Undoubtedly, the mission of HVE was vaguely constructed by policies during the first stage.

Structure. As the major organizational form of HVE during the first stage, “short-cycle vocational colleges” (*duanqi zhiye daxue*) belonged to the non-university sector of higher education (The Ministry of Education, 1995; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983). In order to change the disproportion between the non-university sector and the university sector, organizational forms of HVE were expected to be expanded by reforming existing vocational colleges, regular junior colleges, adult colleges, and some key secondary professional schools providing HVE programs (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Ministry of Education, 1995; The State Council, 1994). This policy was called “Three Transformations and One Supplement” (*san gai yi bu*). In the policy titled *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges*, the Ministry of Education (1995) stressed that as the major organizational form of HVE, vocational colleges needed to maintain relative stability and they were not permitted to change their names to regular junior colleges. This was a response to vocational colleges changing their names to regular junior college, which shifted the focus from vocational education to regular education.

Access. The Ministry of Education and the Commission of Planning (1983) pointed out that China’s economic development was facing a shortage of specialized manpower because many regular junior colleges and vocational colleges had small enrollments. In order to relieve this tension, vocational colleges were required to reform by enlarging their size. The central government suggested that HVE size be enlarged by expanding access to HVE with multiple

student sources instead of senior-high-school graduates as the major source. These sources could include graduates from secondary vocational schools, qualified on-the-job technical workers, and graduates from junior high schools for five-year HVE programs (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Ministry of Education, 1995).

Tuition. As non-compulsory education, HVE was regulated to charge students tuition when higher education was mainly tuition free during the first stage (The Ministry of Education, 1995; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993; The State Council, 1991). Consequently, vocational colleges were the only public higher education institutions charging tuition at that time. Although financial support such as the student loan was recommended by the government to alleviate poor students' tuition pressure, corresponding policy for HVE student financial assistance was not available at that time (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993).

Curriculum. In order to maintain HVE characteristics in supplying applied manpower, HVE curricula and teaching were expected to be reformed as practically-focused to ensure that HVE graduates gained occupational skills (The Ministry of Education, 1995). Accordingly, minimum content of academic/theoretical teaching was enough for HVE curricula at vocational colleges (The Ministry of Education, 1995). Additionally, moral education covering Four Cardinal Principles (compulsory adherence to the socialist route, compulsory adherence to the people's democratic dictatorship, compulsory

adherence to the leadership of the Communist Party of China, and compulsory adherence to Marxism-Leninism and Maoism), the national situation, patriotism, socialism, collectivism, communism, and vocational ethics needed to be primary in HVE (The State Council, 1991).

Teaching staff. The Ministry of Education (1995) emphasized that HVE institutions needed to strengthen team building of teachers by encouraging existing teachers to learn practical skills and by hiring experienced engineering technicians and managerial staff as part-time teachers. Thus, HVE institutions were encouraged to maintain a full-time and part-time teaching team. The latter were mainly hired from professions to supplement the former who lacked practical skills.

Graduate employment. During the first stage, there was no central government policy specifically addressing the issue of graduate employment at HVE institutions. However, the general situation of college graduates' job placement was clearer. The Ministry of Education and the Commission of Planning (1983) and The Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council (1993) noted that college graduates were mainly employed under a centralized job placement system based on their performance. In this placement system, each college graduate was allocated a job with a title of "official" (*ganbu*), which indicated a higher social status in workplaces. With the educational reform across the country, such a job placement system needed to be reformed to a market system (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993). However, the reform was challenged by the

situation that essential skills were not required for employment (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985). In order to enhance essential skills for employment, the central government required that the employment system needed to be reformed as education reform was carried out, in which “trained before employed” (*xian peixun hou jiuye*) should be adopted as the principle of employment (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993; The State Council, 1991). Furthermore, HVE institutions were required to gradually lay equal importance on “diplomas” (*biye wenping*) and “technical grading certificates” (*jishu dengji zhengshu*) or “occupational qualification certificates” (*gangwei zige zhengshu*) (The Ministry of Education, 1995). With two certificates upon graduation and the principle of trained before employed, HVE students were expected to be in advantageous situations for employment.

Funding and governance. Although the country operated with a centrally planned economy in this period, multiple agencies such as local governments at city levels, industries, non-government organizations, democratic parties, and individuals were encouraged to provide HVE (The Ministry of Education, 1995; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983). Further, the Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council (1993) stated that vocational and technical education (including HVE) should be co-provided mainly by industries and other social sectors. This indicated that the government was shifting the responsibility to other providers.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education (1995) indicated that HVE institutions were less funded than regular junior colleges in terms of per-student funding. In order to promote the reform and construction of vocational colleges, funding for HVE was required to be increased annually. Moreover, the development of a school-run industry was encouraged to be a funding source for HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 1995).

Additionally, the Ministry of Education (1995) noted that the local government at city levels should be mainly responsible for designing specializations, appointing leaders, and raising funds for HVE's administration, capital construction, and equipment while the provincial government was mainly responsible for college evaluation, teaching and learning guidance, and quality assessment. This indicated that local governments at provincial and city levels, especially the latter, would take major responsibilities in administering HVE.

Social status. According to the Central Committee of the CPC (1985), vocational education was full of challenges for various reasons. The major reason was that over a long period of time, vocational education had been much undervaluing in Chinese people's minds. In order to resolve such a challenge, the central government required that the entire Party and society needed to be educated with the notion that all occupations were honorable and equal. Another reason was that essential skills were not required for employment. This was expected to be resolved with an employment principle of *trained before employed* (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985).

Stage two: 1996-1999, legislation of HVE. During the second period, HVE-related policies were made as China was achieving the second-step goal of the Three-Step Strategy and preparing for the country's development in the 21st century. Convened in 1997, *the 15th National Congress of the CPC* further emphasized building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics with *the strategy of invigorating China with science, technology, and education*. Giving education priority for development, the spirit of this Party Congress was reflected by HVE-related policies strengthening HVE reform and development in this period (*The Law of Higher Education*, 1998; *The Law of Vocational Education*, 1996; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999).

As it worked to achieve the second-step goal of the Three-Step Strategy in the 1990s, China found itself in a critical period for constructing a socialist market economy and realizing the strategic goals of modernization (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999). Such a situation urged the central government to put emphasis on developing HVE to supply a qualified workforce for the coming new century to strengthen China in economic construction, social development, and global competitiveness (The Ministry of Education, 1998; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999; *The Law of Vocational Education*, 1996; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999).

According to the policy named *Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education*, the development of vocational education (HVE) lagged behind economic development due to its weak situation, which would potentially weaken China's economic development (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998). Indeed, the entire education enterprise did not fit the new context and did not meet the demand of improving citizen quality due to inferior ideas, systems, structures, human resource supply patterns, and teaching content and approaches (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999).

Mission. With explicit emphasis on HVE by the central government, the mission of HVE was set to supply practical and specialized manpower serving local economic and social development (The Central Committee of the CPC & the State Council, 1999; The Ministry of Education, 1998). Without explanation on who they were, however, both practical manpower and specialized manpower were too general types of manpower that might be supplied by education other than HVE. Thus, the mission of HVE was still ambiguous.

Structure. According to the Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China (1996), school vocational education is addressed at three levels—"junior vocational education" (*chudeng zhiye jiaoyu*), "secondary vocational education" (*zhongdeng zhiye jiaoyu*), and higher vocational education (HVE) (*gaodeng zhiyejiaoyu*). Junior and secondary school vocational education are each addressed by corresponding vocational junior high schools and

vocational senior high schools. HVE is mainly addressed by HVE institutions. In addition to HVE institutions, regular higher education institutions can also provide HVE. Furthermore, the *Law of Higher Education of the People's Republic of China* (1998) stressed that higher education institutions refer to universities, independent four-year colleges, and junior colleges including HVE institutions and adult colleges. Thus, HVE was legislated as the highest level of vocational education and a part of the non-university sector of higher education.

At the second stage, HVE institutions became more diverse in contrast to vocational colleges in the first period. In addition to vocational colleges, HVE institutions included vocational and technical colleges, regular junior colleges, independent adult colleges, some key secondary vocational schools, vocational and technical colleges run by universities, and private colleges (The Ministry of Education, 1998; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education & Commission of Planning, 1999). The Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council (1999) recommended that vocational colleges, independent adult colleges, and some junior colleges needed to be reformed and restructured into a unified form of HVE institution – vocational and technical colleges.

According to the Ministry of Education, the Commission of Economy and Trade, and the Ministry of Labor (1998), HVE institutions were mainly two-to-three-year short-cycle higher education institutions. Programs recruiting graduates from junior high schools lasted five years.

Access. HVE was expected to grow by increasing HVE recruitment so as to provide more higher education opportunities for senior high school students (The Ministry of Education, 1998; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999). According to the policy the *Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century*, in order to provide more higher education opportunities for graduates from senior high schools, the enrollment of college students would be expanded to 6,600,000. The greatest increment of the planned recruitment would focus on HVE recruitment. The gross enrollment ratio of higher education would be improved to 11% in 2000 (The Ministry of Education, 1998).

An efficient way to expand HVE enrollment was to seek more student sources for HVE institutions. Traditionally, graduates from regular senior high schools attending the National College Entrance Examination were the major student source for HVE. With the reform, HVE student sources would mainly include graduates from regular senior high schools, graduates from secondary vocational schools, and people with equivalent education (The Ministry of Education, 1998; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999; The Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council, 1999). The Ministry of Education and the Commission of Planning (1999) suggested that an independent examination system with skill tests should

be designed and managed by the provincial government to recruit graduates from secondary vocational schools to HVE institutions.

However, policy instability existed in terms of student sources. For example, *Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education* (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998) stresses graduates from secondary vocational schools were an important major student source for HVE, while *Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century* reinforced graduates from regular senior high schools as the dominant student source (The Ministry of Education, 1998). In the latter, graduates from secondary vocational schools recruited to HVE institutions were severely restricted to a very small proportion (3%) (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999).

Moreover, transfer access of HVE students was first addressed in the policy the *Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Fully Promoting Quality Education*, by which “graduates from vocational and technical colleges can continue undergraduate education by exam-based selection procedures” (The Central Committee of CPC & The State Council, 1999). This addressed the issue of equity in HVE.

Tuition. HVE charged students tuition to supplement its funding. At the end of the stage, however, the Ministry of Education and the Commission of Planning (1999) suggested that tuition be the major source for HVE funding

instead of government funding. This would result in high tuition that challenged education equity.

Graduate employment. Although the central government required that HVE graduate job placement should be based on the market, the implementation went slowly. According to the policy called *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System* developed at the end of the second stage, the central government stated that HVE graduates were not going to be allocated jobs upon graduation (The Ministry of Education, & The Commission of Planning, 1999).

Funding and governance. HVE institutions were encouraged to develop multiple funding sources, such as governments at different levels, industries, employers, donations, and tuition. Among these sources, governments at different levels should play a major role in increasing funds for HVE (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998). Given the fact that tuition was emphasized as the major source for HVE funding while government funding was a supplement in the policy named *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System* (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999), multiple funding sources of HVE were not formed. Additionally, this indicated that government funding for HVE was not sufficient.

As major providers for HVE, the provincial/municipal governments took the major responsibility in developing HVE under the macro supervision of the central government (The Ministry of Education, 1998; The Ministry of Education

& Commission of Planning, 1999; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999). For instance, in the policy called *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System*, the Ministry of Education and the Commission of Planning (1999) noted that the central government was mainly responsible for macro management of HVE, such as overall planning, coordinating, making unified criteria for quality evaluation and management approaches, compiling an annual achievement plan, examining and approving the qualification of running a college, and overseeing the practice of these pilot colleges. With the macro guidance of the central government, the provincial government needed to fix an annual student recruitment plan, recruitment approaches, program design, fees, and residence registration management. The provincial government also oversaw certificate grants, provided guidance on student employment, and made criteria for matching funding for colleges. Moreover, it was the provincial government's responsibility to assure teaching quality, regulate school operations, and improve education resources.

Curriculum, teaching staff, and social status. During the second stage, adopted HVE-related policies did not address the issue of curricula, teaching staff, and social status of HVE. In contrast, the focus was putting on infrastructure by building HVE institutions.

Stage three: 2000-2005, rapid growth of HVE. According to HVE-related policies during the third phase, “The Strategy of Strengthening the Nation with Qualified Human Resources” (*rencai qiangguo zhanlüe*) had to be vigorously implemented and a large number of high-quality personnel had to be

nurtured so as to realize the magnificent goal of building a “well-off society” (*xiaokang shehui*) in the comprehensive way set by *the 16th National Congress of the CPC* (The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003). In these policies, human resources were considered the key issue related to the development of the Party and the state for being the most important strategic resource to further economic globalization and rapid advancement of science and technology and for being central to competition for overall national strength. Furthermore, accelerating team building of high-level skilled manpower was emphasized as a major content of human resource work (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003).

Laying the basis for long-term development in terms of human resource supply, education had to be stressed as a strategic priority on the country’s development agenda of building a well-off society (The Ministry of Education, 2004a). Among the entire education enterprise, the central government put great emphasis on vocational education (including HVE) in terms of economic development, employment, and global competition (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). For instance, in the policy *Six Ministries and Commissions including the Ministry of Education Jointly Initiating the Project of Supplying Skilled Manpower in Severe Shortage for the Industry of Manufacturing and Modern Service*, the central government stated that “bearing

important responsibilities in producing technical and skilled manpower, vocational education was the part of Chinese education connecting most closely and directly with economic development” (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003).

Nevertheless, vocational education (including HVE), even all education, was still vulnerable and facing various challenges (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). For instance, vocational education was still overlooked in overall planning for the development of education; measures adopted to promote the reform and development of vocational education were still inefficient; conditions of vocational schools were poor; funding for vocational education was insufficient; operation mechanisms of vocational schools were inflexible; students were less motivated to enter vocational schools; human resources supplied by vocational schools were not able to meet the requirements of economic construction and social development in terms of quantity, structure and quality; the importance of vocational education was less appreciated in practice; and the development of vocational education was uneven between regions and urban and rural areas (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2002). Thus, it was an urgent task with strategic significance to change the relatively slow progress of vocational education and make vocational education tangibly play its fundamental role in economic and social development (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004).

Mission. With the goal of building a well-off society and realizing the third step of the Three-Step Strategy, China was in great need of strong skilled manpower, especially a high-level skilled workforce (The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003; The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004). The shortage resulted from the fact that supply and use of skilled manpower, including high-level skilled manpower, were still ignored in overall planning for human resource development in some areas and departments (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004).

In order to improve the shortage of high-level skilled manpower, HVE was expected to fulfill the mission of producing “specialized manpower with high-level applied skills” (*gaodeng jishu yingyongxing zhuanmen rencai*) or “high-level skilled manpower” (*gao jineng rencai*) (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2003). Although called by two different names, they explicitly emphasize high-level skills of manpower supplied by HVE. It is at this stage, the meaning of high-level skilled manpower is defined in relevant policy. The Ministry of Labor and Social Security (2003) states:

High-level skilled manpower is a kind of human resources working in the front line of production, transportation, and service, which refers to people who are proficient in professional knowledge and technology as well as practical skills, and can resolve problems regarding key technology and techniques in practical work. High-level skilled manpower is usually granted professional certificates of senior skilled workers, technicians, or technologists (para. 2).

Moreover, the high-level skilled manpower supplied by HVE was required to support the Party's basic line; to accommodate the demand of the front line of production, construction, management, and service; and to have the necessary professional ethics and dedication (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004b).

Structure. In HVE-related policies during the third stage, HVE institutions were named vocational and technical colleges, which should be developed vigorously in cities at different levels (The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). In order to accelerate the supply of high-level skilled manpower that was in severe shortage, HVE institutions were required to shorten their programs from three years to two years (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003). Furthermore, HVE institutions were not allowed to be upgraded to undergraduate institutions in this period (The State Council, 2005).

Access. The size of HVE was expected to be expanded in terms of enrollment, the number of graduates, and student sources (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). While stressing the increase of the proportion of graduates from secondary vocational schools entering higher education institutions especially HVE institutions, the State Council (2002) advised that a consistent curriculum system for both secondary and higher vocational education should be established and HVE institutions should recruit graduates from secondary vocational schools with independent entrance exams focusing on professional knowledge and

occupational skills. Moreover, the State Council (2002) further emphasized transfer access for HVE students by appropriately increasing the proportion of graduates of vocational and technical colleges entering universities.

Tuition. The central government stressed that HVE tuition should be totally used in school development and competent departments could neither use tuition to balance regular appropriation for vocational schools, nor retain and transfer tuition for any other use (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004). This indicated that HVE tuition had not been fully used for school development of HVE because of insufficient funding. In order to relieve students' tuition pressures, HVE institutions were encouraged to carry out experiments to waive student tuition by a work-study system shared between HVE institutions and industries (The State Council, 2005).

Curriculum. HVE curriculum and teaching reform were important and challenging in HVE and junior college education reform (The Ministry of Education, 2000). Specialties, programs, curricula, and teaching at HVE institutions needed to accommodate market and social needs and industry requirements for high-level skilled manpower by focusing on practical teaching helping students obtain professional qualification certificates so as to enhance graduates' employment competency (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003; The State Council, 2005). Accordingly, the central government strongly encouraged HVE institutions to energetically carry out order education and module education,

especially the former one, to enhance graduates' employment, by which industries and employers were involved in HVE curriculum development (The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b). Labs and practical training bases/centers were required to be built as necessary facilities enhancing practical teaching at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2005). In this process, local governments were responsible for building practical training bases for HVE institutions, while the central government allocated special funds for that (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The State Council, 2005). Moreover, the Ministry of Education et al. (2004) and the State Council (2005) stressed that industry should provide practice opportunity and practical training for HVE students, which should not be less than half a year. In addition, while focusing on practical knowledge, HVE curricula and teaching were required to pay less attention to academic knowledge.

According to the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al. (2003), academic/theoretical courses in vocational schools needed to be arranged according to industry requirements for skilled manpower and HVE institutions needed to avoid blindly increasing the proportion of academic/theoretical courses by weakening occupational skill training. As well, vocational ethics were required to be an important content of curricula at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The State Council, 2005). The State Council (2005) pointed out that education on

vocational ethics at HVE institutions needed to be focused on honesty and dedication.

Teaching Staff. HVE teachers needed to have two qualities – practical skills and teaching abilities (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003; The State Council, 2005). While hiring part-time teachers with practical experiences from industry was an efficient way to strengthen the team building of two-quality teachers at HVE institutions, HVE teachers should be trained regularly at industry, state-run key training bases for vocational school teachers, and teachers' training bases attached to the national model vocational training centers (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003). Local governments were responsible for team building of two-quality teachers at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The State Council, 2005). In order to retain capable teachers, HVE institutions needed to reform personnel and salary systems and create a favorable work environment (The State Council, 2005).

Graduate employment. Deepening HVE reform and development, the central government stressed employment as the purpose of HVE to improve disadvantageous situations that HVE graduates faced for employment through strengthening students' employment competency and improving the employment rate (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003). In order to enhance students' employment competency, HVE institutions needed to develop specialties and

courses focusing on practice/skill-centered knowledge and emphasize practical teaching content according to industry's needs (The Ministry of Education, 2000; The Ministry of Education, 2004a; The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003; The State Council, 2005) In order to enhance their employment competency, HVE students were encouraged to obtain two certificates upon graduation with efforts made by HVE institutions, local governments, and employers based on the employment principle of *trained-before-employed* (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003; The State Council, 2005). It was emphasized that the graduate employment rate was the core criterion for assessing the quality of HVE institutions every five years (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2003). Consequently, HVE institutions with low graduate employment rate would not be awarded good or excellent institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2004b).

In order to relieve employment pressures on HVE graduates, the central government needed to develop an overseas employment market (The State Council, 2002). Additionally, improving social acceptability and credibility of HVE were necessary to facilitate HVE graduate employment (Ministry of Education, 2004b).

Funding and governance. As major funding sources for HVE, governments at all levels should increase funds for HVE (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and

Social Security et al., 2003; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005).

According to policies during the third stage, the central government needed to provide special funds for HVE institutions to subsidize teachers' education, curriculum and textbook development, multi-media education resource construction, and construction of key and model vocational colleges in rural areas and central and western regions of the country. Special funds were also needed to support the construction of practical training bases and to reward, subsidize, and support students. Governments at all levels needed to assist students from low-income families by providing scholarships, subsidies, loans, and training allowances (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005).

In order to ensure that HVE well served the local economy, a decentralized management system was adopted by which local governments at both provincial and city levels played the principal role in developing HVE under the overall planning of the central government (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). Meanwhile, diverse funding sources for HVE were encouraged, such as government finance, tuition, education tax, loans, donations, and overseas funds (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003; The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). Accordingly, diverse providers of HVE were encouraged, including the governments, industries, non-government sectors, and foreign HVE resources (The State Council, 2002; The State Council, 2005). Nonetheless, multiple funding sources and providers for

HVE should not change the dominance of the public ownership of HVE. Public vocational colleges should be the main force in developing HVE (The State Council, 2005).

Accordingly, the central government needed to put more emphasis on administering HVE to plan and coordinate HVE across the country and to investigate and resolve major problems in HVE (The State Council, 2005). In order to facilitate HVE development, the central government considered the graduate employment rate in HVE a key indicator for performance evaluation of principal leaders of local governments (The State Council, 2005). Additionally, internal administration systems at HVE institutions, especially personnel and salary systems, needed to be reformed to create a favorable environment for HVE teachers (The State Council, 2005).

In addition, the central government stresses that “public vocational and technical colleges adopt the internal governance system that the president should assume overall responsibility under the leadership of the Party committee with designated terms” (The State Council, 2005, para. 25). In such a dual internal governance system, the Party committee represents the CPC in maintaining the socialist direction of HVE institutions.

Social status. The development of HVE was facing an unfavorable social environment, which did not value HVE and high-level skilled manpower (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2005). In order to create a favorable social environment for HVE in which vocational education was valued, emphasized, and supported by the whole society, the central government strongly

advocated that every occupation is equal, the importance and function of HVE needed to be widely publicized, and public awareness of vocational education in society needed to be increased (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2005). Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education, et al. (2004) and the State Council (2005) advocated to gradually uplift social status of skilled manpower by strongly publicizing the important contributions made by outstanding high-level skilled manpower in building socialist modernization and regularly holding national occupational skill competitions that valued (high-level) skilled manpower with awards and commendations. One more way to uplift social status of high-level skilled manpower was to increase their income (The State Council, 2005).

Stage four: 2006-2007, restructuring of HVE. The year 2006 was the beginning of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan period (2006-2010). At The 17th National Congress of the CPC in December 2007, the central government revised the timetable of realizing the third-step goal of the Three Step Strategy with quadrupling the per capita GDP of 2000 from 2050 to 2020 (XinhuaNet, 2007b, 2009d). The accelerated economic development urged the country to accelerate team building of high-level skilled manpower to implement the strategy of strengthening the country with qualified human resources, which was considered a major task driving the development of the economy and society in building socialist modernization (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006).

Nevertheless, HVE, as the main supplier for high-level skilled manpower, was still in a disadvantaged situation in terms of low quality. In order to ensure

the supply of high-level skilled manpower in a new stage of economic development, the quality of HVE was required to be greatly improved to better serve the economic construction and social development (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). Moreover, building 100 nationwide model vocational and technical colleges was carried out to facilitate quality improvement of HVE institutions across the country in terms of school strength, teaching quality, management standards, and school efficiency and effects (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006). Improving the quality of HVE was aimed at facilitating the sound development of HVE through implementing the spirit of the State Council Resolution on Vigorously Developing Vocational Education (The Ministry of Education, 2006a).

Mission. As a type of higher education, HVE played an irreplaceable role in accelerating the construction of socialist modernization by supplying “high-level skilled manpower” (*gao jineng rencai*) for the front line of production, construction, service, and management (The Ministry of Education, 2006a; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006). The central government stressed that high-level skilled manpower was the only type of manpower supplied by HVE (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006; The Ministry of Education, 2006a). This indicated a clear and unified understanding of the mission of HVE.

Structure. According to the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance (2006), HVE institutions were unified with the name of vocational and technical colleges in the process of implementing the Project of Building 100

Model Vocational and Technical Colleges during the 11th Five-Year Plan period (2006-2010). With this project, a non-university HVE system was expected to be formed as a part of the overall Chinese higher education system. In addition, HVE institutions also included senior technical schools and technician colleges (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006).

Access. In order to ensure and improve the quality of HVE and higher education, the central government started to restrict the enrollment increase of HVE institutions, especially reducing recruitment of HVE institutions attached to universities (The Ministry of Education, 2006b; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). In this process, the central government restricted the number of graduates of secondary vocational schools recruited by HVE institutions to a very small proportion (5%) of total HVE recruitment (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). As well, the central government exerted restrictions on transfer access of HVE students. That is, the number of HVE students recruited by undergraduate institutions based on the upgrading exam was controlled to less than 5% of new graduates of HVE institutions annually (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). Additionally, key universities in Project 985 and Project 211, independent colleges, and private colleges were not permitted to recruit HVE students passing the upgrading exam (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). In terms of education equity, all these restrictions could lead to negative effects on HVE students, the development of HVE, and vocational education.

Tuition. According to the policy named *Advice on Establishing and Improving Policy Systems of Financial Assistance for Low-Income Students at Universities, HVE Institutions, and Secondary Vocational Schools* (The Ministry of Finance, The Ministry of Education, & The Center for National Student-Assistance Administration, 2007), the central government and the local governments jointly-built the system of national student financial assistance, providing financial support for poor full-time students at universities and HVE institutions, and all full-time rural students and low-income urban students at secondary vocational schools. It was estimated that the annual budget for student financial support would reach RMB 50 billion *yuan* (US \$ 7.4 billion), which benefited four million students at 1,800 higher education institutions and 16 million students at 15,000 secondary vocational schools. In addition, the central government continued to provide National Scholarships rewarding outstanding full-time students at universities and HVE institutions. Annually, 50,000 students at universities and HVE institutions were awarded with this scholarship with a value of RMB 8, 000 *yuan* (US \$ 1176.5) for each student (The Ministry of Finance, The Ministry of Education, & The National Center for Student Assistance Administration, 2007). This student financial support system helped to enhance education equity in HVE.

Curriculum. In order to improve HVE students' employment competency, improving the quality of HVE needed to focus on curriculum construction and reform, which were central to teaching reform at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). In order to facilitate HVE quality improvement, the central

government was actively involved in building HVE specialties, curriculum, teaching materials, and practical training bases by cooperating with both HVE institutions and industries (The Ministry of Education, 2006a; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006).

In order to enhance graduates' employment competency, HVE institutions were expected to cooperate with industries in curriculum development, reforming curriculum structure, and teaching content according to occupational requirements and occupational qualification standards (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). Accordingly, human resource supply at HVE institutions should be reformed with a focus on a practical teaching process, such as order education and “work-study programs” (*gongxue jiaoti*), by which HVE connected closely with social needs by cooperating with industries (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). As well, practical training and practice bases were necessary teaching conditions for HVE institutions. During the period of the 11th Five Year Plan (2006-2010), the state would support the construction of practical training bases for key specializations (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). Additionally, in order to supply high-quality skilled manpower with honesty and credibility, dedication and responsibility, and law-abidance, HVE institutions must further strengthen socialist ideological and political education and put great emphasis on vocational ethics education and legal education (The Ministry of Education, 2006a).

Teaching staff. Team building of two-quality teachers was expected to meet the requirement of human resource supply reform at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). Still, HVE institutions were facing a short supply

of two-quality teachers (The Ministry of Education, 2006a; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006). In order to resolve the shortage of two-quality teachers, HVE institutions needed to arrange HVE teachers to practice regularly in industry, import leading experts and teachers of high quality, and hire key technicians and skilled craftsmen from industry to work as part-time teachers (The Ministry of Education, 2006a; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006). Accordingly, the central government required that HVE institutions should establish standards for selecting, hiring, and evaluating qualified HVE teachers (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). In addition, training and continuous education for young and middle-aged HVE teachers were emphasized to improve the overall quality of HVE teachers (The Ministry of Education, 2006a).

Graduate employment. Two certificates upon graduation were important in enhancing HVE student employment competency. In order to ensure that most HVE graduates could obtain two certificates upon graduation, the central government required that relevant government and industrial departments should build up a professional qualification system. This qualification system was expected to provide guidance for occupational skill evaluation centers at HVE institutions to conduct skill evaluation. HVE graduates with professional qualification certificate should account for 80% of all graduates (The Ministry of Education, 2006a).

Funding and governance. In order to fully promote the development of HVE, the central government allocated significant funds for the Project of

Building 100 Nationwide Model Vocational and Technical Colleges. The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance (2006) noted that, from 2006 to 2010, the central government would carry out the Project of Building 100 National Model Vocational and Technical Colleges incrementally across regions. In this project, the central government determined funds for selected model colleges, allocated total funds to model colleges over three years, evaluated model colleges annually, and made appropriate adjustments according to each college's performance. Moreover, the central government required the local governments to fully understand the importance of implementation of such a project through focusing on building model colleges within local overall plans.

In terms of governance, the central government stressed that local governments should facilitate the overall school provision of HVE institutions by reinforcing the overall planning and management for HVE, increasing funds for HVE, and encouraging industries to be actively involved in providing HVE. In addition, as an important factor influencing the development of HVE, leadership of HVE institutions was required to be strengthened and the quality of HVE graduates was suggested as an important variable in evaluating the leadership of HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2006a).

Social status. Social acceptability and credibility of HVE needed to be improved. In order to improve the social acceptability and credibility of HVE, the central government required that studies on HVE theories and summaries of HVE practice should be emphasized, the popularization of HVE reform and development achievements should be enhanced, and people's understanding of

HVE needed to be reinforced (The Ministry of Education, 2006a). Moreover, high-level skilled manpower was still facing an unfavorable environment. According to the Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council (2006), building a favorable environment for high-level skilled manpower relied on the leadership at different levels.

Trends in the Development of HVE in China

Context. For almost three decades, HVE has been developed in the process of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics under the leadership of the CPC. In China, the Central Committee of the CPC plays its role as the core leadership. Macro policies made by the Central Committee of the CPC are guiding policies for all undertakings across the country, including HVE. In China, the Central Committee of the CPC constitutes the Chinese central government together with the State Council and its ministries and commissions. Most of them constitute the authors of HVE-related policies selected for this study. Therefore, accompanying China's reform and opening-up since the early 1980s, the central government has constructed HVE-related policies as political requirements of developing HVE to serve the undertaking of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics.

As a composition of Chinese education systems, undoubtedly, HVE is a means of serving the political goal of China's socialist modernization. Such a political function of HVE can be easily found in all HVE-related policies in different periods. Many of them clearly explicated that the purpose of their policy making was a response to implementing the central government's macro policies.

In China, the central government's support is vital for all undertakings across the country, including HVE. Therefore, the political force is decisive in HVE development. Such a force has made the ongoing development of HVE possible.

It is worth noting that there has been a clear trend of increasingly strong policy support for the development of HVE from 1980 to 2007. During the first stage of HVE development from 1980-1995, HVE did not gain strong policy support. Policy evidence showed that there was no policy customized for HVE until the enactment of *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges* (The Ministry of Education, 1995) at the end of this stage. Most messages on HVE were scattered in policies addressing education, higher education, or vocational education. This indicated an ambiguous identity for HVE. Moreover, "as the directive document for constructing a socialist educational system with Chinese characteristics, *the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development* drafted a blueprint for education reform and development in the 1990s and the early 2000s" (The State Council, 1994, para. 1). However, such an important policy did not plan HVE as an independent part of education. Later, the government addressed the issue in the policy named *Advice on Implementing the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development* (The State Council, 1994), which was a supplement to the former one. This instability in government policy further confirmed that there was not a clear understanding of HVE.

At the second stage of the development of HVE during 1996-1999, the central government started to place emphasis on developing HVE by strengthening policymaking, especially legislation. Compared to the previous

stage, customized policies for HVE were made, such as *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System* (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999). Most importantly, the *Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China* (1996) and the *Law of Higher Education of the People's Republic of China* (1998) were enacted to enhance the role of HVE in Chinese educational systems—the highest level of vocational education and a composition of higher education. In addition, the central government also enacted a series of policies to promote HVE across the country, such as *Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education* (The Ministry of Education, Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998); *Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century* (The Ministry of Education, 1998); and *Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Fully Promoting Quality Education* (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999). Compared to policies made in the previous phase, these policies indicated a stronger policy support by the central government in developing HVE, which was intended to lead to a major development of HVE at this and the next stage.

During 2000-2005, the third stage of HVE development, policy support for HVE became much stronger. Under the leadership of the Central Committee of the CPC and the State Council, more ministries and commissions were involved in promoting HVE, such as *Six Ministries and Commissions including the Ministry of Education Jointly Initiating the Project of Supplying Skilled*

Manpower in Short Supply for the Industry of Manufacturing and Modern Service (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003), *The Plan of Training 500,000 New Technicians in Three Years* (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004), and *Resolution on Further Emphasizing Vocational Education by Seven Ministries and Commissions* (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004).

Moreover, most policies in this period were designed with titles including words like *strengthen, vigorously, jointly, further, deepen, and energetically*. Additionally, concrete numbers appeared in HVE-related policies such as *The Plan of Training 500,000 New Technicians in Three Years* (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004), and *Action Plan for Invigorating Education Between 2003 and 2007* (The Ministry of Education, 2004). All these indicate that the central government exerted much stronger emphases on the development of HVE more than ever before.

At the stage of the development of HVE during 2006-2007, the central government put the strongest emphasis on developing HVE. Like most HVE-related policies made at the third stage, most HVE-related policies in this period had titles that included words like *accelerating, fully improving, and further strengthening*. More importantly, these policies were made specifically for HVE or had direct relevance to HVE. The concept of HVE was no longer mixed with other kinds of education such as higher education or vocational education, as had appeared previously. This indicated the firm attitude of the central government in developing HVE.

As discussed earlier, the economy has been emphasized as the core of China's socialist modernization. Since 1982 when the 12th National Congress of the CPC was convened, the theme for each congress has focused on building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics through reform and opening-up. Economic development is placed at the center of China's modernization. Apparently, politics and the economy have been intertwined in exerting impacts on Chinese society. As a political requirement, developing HVE has been expected to supply a high-level skilled workforce urgently demanded by economic development to facilitate the construction of socialist modernization.

According to Min (1994), Ye (1985), and Zhang (1985), producing skilled manpower urgently demanded by the local economy is the main reason leading to the emergence and development of vocational colleges in the early 1980s. Given the fact that economic development is regulated as the central task of China's modernization, undoubtedly, the economic demand for high-level skilled manpower is the initial and core force in driving HVE development in China.

Since economic construction is emphasized as the core mission of China's modernization, all other undertakings were subordinate to economic development. Education is required to serve the construction of socialist modernization by supplying qualified human resources. With such a political-economy rationale, HVE-related policy reflects the requirement of the central government that HVE needs to be developed and reformed to supply high-level skilled manpower for economic construction.

Indeed, the whole situation of education has lagged behind economic development. The graduate supply pattern of regular (higher) education must be changed by developing vocational education (HVE) so as to improve the quality of the labor force and to enhance employment of graduates. With almost three decades of development, HVE is still weak in Chinese higher education systems though the government has suggested fostering a favorable social environment for HVE since the first stage.

Apparently, developing and reforming HVE are required to change the underdevelopment of Chinese higher education and vocational education to better serve socialist construction. Traditionally, Chinese higher education did not produce skilled manpower while vocational education was too weak to supply enough qualified skilled manpower for society. In order to supply a high-level skilled workforce, Chinese higher education was restructured in terms of the human resource supply, knowledge structure, and institutional structure. The development of HVE indicates the emergence of a non-university sector of Chinese higher education, which focuses on practical/skill knowledge and supplies different human resource types from universities. With the restructuring of higher education, the goal of producing qualified high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by China's modernization is expected to be achieved. Thus, education reform is the fundamental force in developing HVE.

China's economic development is not isolated from the outside world. It has been impacted by the world economy, especially since China joined the WTO in 2001. In order to succeed in global competition, China greatly needs a large

contingent of qualified human resources, especially a high-level skilled workforce, to enhance the overall strength of the country.

A growing consciousness of the pressures of globalization is found in HVE-related policies since the 1990s. Globalization is first mentioned as “worldwide competition related to the economy and the overall strength among countries” in the policy called *The Outline for China’s Education Reform and Development* (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993). This important policy was made to “direct education reform and development in the 1990s and the early 2000s, and to make education better serve socialist modernization” (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993, para. 1). Similar words were found in *Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Fully Promoting Quality Education* (The State Council, 1999). The word “globalization” (*quanqiu hua*) first appeared in a 2002 policy – *Resolution on Vigorously Promoting the Development and Reform of Vocational Education* (The State Council, 2002).

Globalization is an exogenous force exerting pressure not only on the development of HVE but also on the whole country. With exponential increases in China’s GDP and foreign investment flowing into China in recent years, such an exogenous force has stimulated an increasingly strong need for the development of HVE at a time when the central government has repeatedly emphasized the goal of building a well-off society, the strategy of invigorating the country with science, technology, and education, and new approaches in China’s industrialization.

Mission. From the first to the fourth stage of HVE development, the mission of HVE has focused on supplying specialized manpower, specialized manpower with applied knowledge, skilled senior operators, or applied and managerial manpower at the first stage; practical or specialized manpower to serve local economic and social development at the second stage; specialized manpower with high-level applied skills or high-level skilled manpower at the third stage; and high-level skilled manpower at the fourth stage. Called differently in different phases, these human resource types share a common feature: They work at the front line of production and service focusing on practical skills. In the process of the development of HVE, the level of skills taught at HVE institutions becomes more and more clear from no specification to high-level skills.

It is not difficult to detect a trend of an increasingly clear understanding of the need for human resources supplied by HVE. Also, given the trend of increasingly strong policy support for HVE, it may be assumed that an increasingly clear understanding of the mission of HVE – supplying high-level skilled manpower - has led to much greater policy support for HVE development.

Structure. HVE has emerged and developed as the non-university sector of Chinese higher education and vocational education at post-secondary levels. From a policy perspective, this did not happen until the end of the first stage. Enactment of the two laws in the second phase has legitimized the position of HVE in both higher education and vocational education systems.

Second, organizational types of HVE have evolved from a single organizational type – vocational colleges at the first stage to diverse types in later

stages. Although the government has tried to use a unified name – vocational and technical colleges for all HVE institutions, various names of HVE institutions exist. They include vocational colleges, junior colleges, adult colleges, some key secondary vocational schools, and some universities at the second stage; vocational colleges, vocational and technical colleges, private colleges, regular junior colleges, vocational colleges run by universities, a few key secondary vocational schools, and some adult colleges at the third stage; and in the final phase, senior technical schools and technician institutes have been added to those at the previous stages.

Generally, these colleges were mainly three-year short-cycle higher education institutions. In order to accelerate the supply of urgently demanded high-level skilled manpower, the central government has required that these colleges need to shorten their programs from three years to two years since the third phase. As well, HVE institutions were not permitted to upgrade to undergraduate institutions in recent years. This indicates the determination of the central government in developing HVE.

Access. In order to supply high-level skilled manpower in a short-cycle to accommodate the booming economy and provide more higher education opportunities, the central government worked out many policies to increase HVE recruitment from the first stage to the third stage. This has resulted in higher education expansion in China. At the fourth stage, however, the central government started to restrict the enrollment of HVE institutions so as to ensure and improve the quality of HVE.

In the process of expansion, student sources of HVE have been expanded. Traditionally, graduates from regular senior high schools attending the National College Entrance Exam were the major student source for HVE. With the reform, HVE student sources mainly included regular-senior-high-school graduates, secondary-vocational-school graduates, junior-high-school graduates, on-the-job technical workers, and people with equivalent education. The expanded student sources have enhanced equal opportunities in higher education with HVE development.

In general, Chinese education at different levels is based on examinations. From elementary education to undergraduate education, a student needs to attend a series of examinations, such as the Elementary School Entrance Examination (not officially allowed but mainly run by key elementary schools), the Junior High School Entrance Examination (officially abolished but still exists), the Senior High School Entrance Examination, the National College Entrance Examination, and the Upgrading Examination (for HVE students to get access to universities). In addition to selecting qualified students to education at higher levels, examinations from junior-high-school levels also play an important role of streaming /tracking students. Usually, students with high exam scores are selected to regular school system while students with low exam scores are streamed to vocational schools at the corresponding level. Students in the system of vocational education are mainly prepared for work. Vocational education at all levels are generally terminal. Chinese students are mainly streamed by the Senior High School Entrance Examination and the National College Entrance Examination.

Indeed, no evidence shows the number of on-the-job technical workers and people with equivalent education recruited to HVE institutions. According to the evidence, secondary-vocational-school students became the major source in addition to regular-senior-high-school students for HVE institutions. However, the number of students recruited from secondary vocational schools to HVE institutions has been strictly limited in almost all phases. Although no evidence for the first stage was found, the number might be limited as well considering the small scale of higher education at that time. The inference is that secondary-vocational-school students have limited access to higher education.

Since 1999, the central government has encouraged HVE institutions to provide transfer education, by which HVE students gain transfer access to undergraduate education. However, in order to ensure and improve higher education quality, the central government put restrictions on transfer access of HVE students at the fourth stage. This has limited HVE students' upward mobility and challenged education equity.

Tuition. As non-compulsory education, HVE institutions charge student tuition at all stages. Emphasized as a source, even a major source of funding for HVE institutions in the second phase, HVE tuitions became unreasonably high during the third stage. In 2007, the central government and the local governments jointly-built the National Student Financial Assistance System to relieve tuition pressures on HVE students. This has enhanced education equity in HVE.

Curriculum. In order to supply urgently needed (high-level) skilled manpower, HVE curricula and teaching need to focus on practical/skills

knowledge so as to meet occupational needs. Since the third stage, the central government has encouraged HVE institutions and industries to carry out specifically designed programs such as order education, module education, and work-study programs to strengthen cooperation between them in HVE curriculum and teaching reform. Given the fact that such reform in HVE curricula and teaching is still the focus of HVE reform at the fourth stage, it seems that HVE curriculum and teaching reform were not implemented well. With involvement of governments at all levels in reforming HVE curricula and teaching in the third and fourth phases, further government facilitation for HVE reform and development is expected.

Focusing on practical-knowledge, HVE curricula and teaching ignore academic education to a large extent. This indicates a utilitarian trend in the development of HVE. In addition, HVE curricula also include moral education, which mainly refer to socialist ideological and political education and vocational ethics education. As mandatory content for curricula for all education at all levels in China, socialist ideological and political education represents Chinese characteristics.

Teaching staff. HVE teachers need to have two qualities, which refer to teaching ability and practical ability. However, HVE has been facing a short supply of these teachers. In order to resolve this challenge, HVE institutions have had a long tradition of hiring part-time teachers with rich practical experiences in industries. Then, in order to strengthen team building of qualified HVE teachers, the central government has stressed that HVE teachers should be trained regularly

since the third stage. As well, HVE institutions need to reform their personnel and salary system and create a favorable work environment for these teachers so as to retain capable teachers.

Graduate employment. Reforming graduate employment of HVE from central job placement to a market system went slowly. According to HVE-related policies, graduate employment of HVE did not become the policy focus until the third stage. The purpose of these policies is to strengthen HVE graduates' employment competency by granting HVE students two certificates upon graduation; adopting the employment principle of trained-before-employed; stressing practical teaching and team building of two-quality teachers at HVE institutions; building practical training bases; facilitating cooperation between HVE institutions and industries to promote order education, module education, and work-study programs; enhancing leadership at different levels; and creating a favorable social environment for HVE and skilled manpower. Graduate employment has been strongly emphasized as the ultimate purpose of HVE. Accordingly, the employment rate of HVE institutions has become the major criterion for evaluating HVE institutions' performance.

Funding and governance. Major responsibilities for funding and administering HVE institutions have shifted from local governments at city levels at the first stage, to provincial/municipal governments at the second stage, to cooperation between local governments at provincial/municipal levels and city levels at the third stage, and now to governments at all levels – local governments at city levels, local government at provincial/municipal levels, and the central

government. This indicates a trend of increasing support for HVE by the central government.

HVE institutions have faced insufficient government funding for a long time. Although the central government has emphasized multiple funding sources for HVE, such as government finance at different levels; industries, enterprises and employers; fundraising, tuition, school-run industries, education tax, loans, donations, and overseas funds, funding sources for HVE are still limited. As well, the central government has encouraged diverse providers to run HVE institutions, which include local governments at city and provincial levels, industries and enterprises, non-government organizations, democratic parties, individuals, and foreign organizations/individuals. However, in the policy named *Resolution on Energetically Developing Vocational Education*, the State Council (2005) stresses that multiple funding sources for HVE should not change the dominance of the public ownership of HVE and “public vocational colleges should be main forces in developing vocational education” (para. 18). Consequently, the government has played a role as the major provider for HVE institutions. Compared to local governments at provincial and city levels, however, the central government became involved later. By exerting macro management over HVE, the central government started to emphasize HVE practice at the second stage. At the third stage, the central government started to allocate special funds for HVE. At the fourth stage, the central government started to allocate significant funds for HVE. This process of involvement indicates that the central government has placed an increasing emphasis on developing HVE. Moreover, a dual internal governance

system at HVE institutions is reflecting the strong leadership of the CPC. This has been a major means of ideological control in China.

Social status. As vocational education, the emergence and development of HVE has occurred in an unfavorable social environment, in which HVE and skilled manpower are undervalued and ignored. Although the central government has promoted the notion that every occupation is equal and honorable to improve the social acceptability and credibility of HVE and skilled manpower, the unfavorable social environment for HVE and skilled manpower still exists.

Summary

Samoff (2003) states that “education was both cause and consequence” (p. 56). The above analysis of HVE-related policy contexts indicates that the development of HVE is under the influence of a variety of driving forces including politics, the economy, educational reform, and global competition. In the process of China’s socialist modernization, economic development is challenged by a shortage of high-level skilled manpower. In order to resolve such a problem, the central government has promoted the development of HVE across the country with increasing policy support. However, Chinese higher education did not accommodate such an economic demand due to its underdevelopment and little vocational education. Developing HVE is expected to change Chinese higher education by extending a non-university structure. Among these forces, politics is a decisive force for the development of HVE, driving the construction of HVE-related policies to achieve the goal of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. Then, as the central focus of China’s socialist modernization, the

economy is also a core driving HVE development. As well, educational reform is fundamental to HVE development, enabling HVE to become a means of supplying high-level skilled manpower to accommodate the needs of politics, the domestic economy, and global competition. Moreover, globalization has been increasingly emphasized as an exogenous force driving the development of HVE in recent years. All these forces are intertwined to drive the development of HVE so as to resolve the challenge posed by a severe shortage of a high-level skilled workforce in China.

With increasingly strong policy support, the development and reform of HVE in China has experienced tremendous transitions from 1980 to 2007. Evidence indicated an obvious trend from a less clear to a more clear mission for HVE – supplying the high-level skilled workers urgently needed by a fast growing economy. Such an increasingly clear role for HVE had resulted in relevant institutional changes for HVE. First, in order to change the situation of the severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower, HVE has expanded from a small to a larger size with increased enrollment leading to higher education expansion. Second, in order to supply qualified high-level skilled manpower, curricula and teaching have been reformed to focus on skills/practice learning while students are required to obtain two certificates for employment and teachers are required to have teaching and practical knowledge. Furthermore, tuition has been unreasonably high since tuition is the major source of HVE funding. As well, government funding at all levels, especially the central government funding, is

always insufficient within a decentralized governance system, and graduates have faced difficulties in obtaining employment.

Indeed, some unresolved challenges exist in the process of HVE development and reform. First, HVE curricula and teaching are still unresolved. This may be improved by cooperation between HVE institutions and industries under the overall planning and coordination of the government. Similarly, two-certificates upon graduation for HVE graduate employment are unresolved. A way to improve this situation is to establish a professional qualification system that is overseen by the government and to build up occupational skill evaluation centers. The third unresolved challenge is the shortage of two-quality teachers. This is expected to be resolved by hiring experts, technicians, and skilled craftsmen with rich practical experience as part-time teachers, training on-the-job teachers regularly, and creating a favorable work environment for teachers. Insufficient funding, especially government funding, is still a major problem facing HVE. This disadvantaged situation for HVE can be improved by increasing government funds at all levels. Moreover, the unfavorable social environment for HVE and skilled manpower has not changed much in terms of a perennial underemphasis on the development of HVE and high-level skilled manpower. HVE and skilled manpower are still much needed in Chinese society. Improvement of this situation requires enhanced government efforts to build a favorable social environment for HVE and skilled manpower.

Admittedly, these trends in HVE development and reform have occurred at the same time as tremendous transitions are taking place in all aspects of

Chinese society and indeed globally. Thus it is interesting to investigate what implications these trends include, which determine continuous HVE development and reform and even the country's sustainable development in the next decade.

Chapter 6 Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the significant findings of this study considering the existing literature on HVE development, vocationalism, Confucianism, higher education equity, and neoinstitutionalism. This discussion is based on HVE-related policy and literature at different historical stages of the development of HVE between 1980 and 2007. First, I focus on vocationalism as an emerging trend embodied in increasingly strong policy support for the development of HVE. Second, I discuss how Confucianism impacts the development of HVE as a local culture. Next, I focus on equity issues in HVE. Moreover, I discuss the institutionalization of HVE in China, considering how HVE is gaining its regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive legitimacy and experience isomorphic changes. And finally, I provide the summary of the findings.

Vocationalism

China's economic reform has been ongoing for three decades and has made great strides in bringing China into the global economy. Indicated by foci on "worldwide competition," "global competition," "economic globalization," "overall national strength," "market economy," "labor market," and "human resource development" in HVE-related policies in recent years, this analysis suggests that the development of HVE has been increasingly impacted by globalization, especially with China's accession to the WTO in 2001. The three endogenous forces, namely politics, economic development, and educational reform have worked together to drive HVE development so as to resolve a social

problem facing Chinese society: the growing economy has faced a severe shortage of skilled manpower, especially high-level skilled manpower such as senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists. According to Pal's (2001) definition of public policy, HVE-related policies have been designed by the central government of China to fix the problem of the severe shortage of a high-level skilled workforce. Thus, the purpose of developing HVE is to supply a high-level skilled workforce urgently demanded by China's booming economy. In order to facilitate HVE to fulfill such a mission, the central government has exerted increasing policy support for HVE development in building up HVE institutions, reforming curricula and teaching at HVE institutions, and promoting the employment orientation of HVE. All these fit neatly with the four meanings of vocationalism summarized by Grubb and Lazerson (2005), which refer to "occupational intentions, occupational curriculum, related employment, and required schooling" (pp. 309-310). Undoubtedly, the development of HVE has represented a trend of focusing on the practical and technical value of higher education by supplying high-level skilled manpower to serve the state's interest in the global marketplace. This indicates that vocationalism has spread to Chinese higher education since the inception of China's reform in the late 1970s and early 1980s, especially in recent years.

Indeed, vocationalization of education appeared in China as early as the 1860s, when China was gradually reduced to a "semicolonial and semifeudal society" (*ban zhimin ban fengjian shehui*) after "the Opium War" (*yapian zhanzheng*) of 1840. Invasion by western countries changed the country

profoundly in terms of unequal treaties and industrialization. Chinese people realized the weak overall strength of the country and started to find solutions to strengthen China. Examining and translating “Western Learning” (*xixue*) was in fashion among Chinese scholars and officials after the 1840s. Then, the influential “Self-Strengthening Movement” (*yangwu yundong*) (1861–1895) was carried out by a group of government officials. The purpose of this movement was to strengthen the country by developing industries. However, the movement faced a shortage of human resources, especially skilled manpower (Liu, 1997).

Consequently, modern schools were built up, which included the first group of secondary vocational schools that emerged in China (Liu, 1997; Zhang, 1985). According to Liu (1997), these vocational schools founded by members of the Self-Strengthening Movement indicated the emergence of vocationalist ideas in China. I would argue it was a result of foreign invasion. Although these vocational schools declined due to the failure of the Self-Strengthening Movement, vocationalization of education has been a legacy of Chinese secondary education. Later, between the 1910s and the 1930s, such a vocationalist idea was strongly proposed in China by some famous Chinese educators such as Huang Yanpei (1878-1965) and Tao Xingzhi (1891-1946). This movement was under the strong impact of Dewey’s pragmatism. Su (1995) notes that Dewey visited China and lectured to Chinese intellectuals between 1919 and 1921. Tao Xingzhi was one of Dewey’s Chinese disciples (Guo, 2009; Su, 1995). Since 1913, Huang Yanpei had advocated vocational education in China (Liu, 1997). According to the same author, the trip to the United States in 1915 enhanced

Huang Yanpei's determination to promote vocational education across the country. Moreover, Huang Yanpei is regarded to be the first person introducing foreign vocational education to China, especially the American vocational education (Liu, 1997). Unquestionably, Dewey's pragmatism did influence vocationalization of Chinese education during this period. However, this movement came to an end when the War of Resistance Against Japan broke out in 1937. Zhang (1985) notes that "China's vocational education has a long history focusing on secondary vocational education with slow development, small influence, and tiny effects. Therefore, the development of higher vocational education lags far behind" (p. 20).

Before the emergence of HVE in the 1980s, vocationalism never had such strong impacts on China's higher education. Zhang (1985) states that the development of HVE is a breakthrough in Chinese higher education. Relevantly, vocationalism entails a set of beliefs, perceptions, assumptions, and values framing HVE development in China. According to Fleras and Elliott's (1992) definition of ideology, vocationalism is an ideology which provides a framework for "organizing, maintaining and transforming relations of power and dominance in society" (p. 54).

Linking higher education and workplaces. Supplying high-level skilled manpower, HVE has created a new connection between higher education and workplaces. Gao (1995) points out that discrepancies have existed between school education and high-level skilled manpower such as senior skilled workers and technicians. This gap has resulted in the severe shortage of high-level skilled

manpower. Although some industries have tried to supply high-level skilled manpower through customized training, this measure does not work well due to reasons such as ignorance of the leadership and little incentive for employees (Jiang, 1989; Zhou, 1989). As early as the first stage, many researchers and practitioners suggested that vocational colleges should supply high-level skilled workers in short supply (Gao, 1995; Min, 1994; Ye, 1985; Zeng, 1985; Zhang, 1985; Zhou, 1986; Zhou, 1989). According to data analysis and discussion, however, specialized manpower, a generic type of human resources supplied by all types of higher education, became the type of human resources supplied by HVE at the first two stages. This indicated a misfocus in the human resource type supplied by HVE at early stages of HVE development. This may be one account for why HVE development at the first two stages was slow.

In later stages, with an increasingly clear understanding of human resources supplied by HVE, policymakers put more emphasis on promoting HVE to produce the high-level skilled workforce demanded by the market. With increasingly strong policy support, a conformity in the emphasis on supplying high-level skilled manpower has emerged among HVE institutions, industry, and the government in terms of order education, module education, work-study programs, and practical training base construction. This linkage between school education and work has been anchored in Chinese society.

Indeed, vocationalism impacted Chinese higher education earlier than the emergence of HVE in the 1980s. When reforming higher education in accordance to engineer education of the Soviet Union in the 1950s and 1960s, China did

adopt a policy of vocationalism. In order to supply engineers demanded by economic development, specialized institutes were built. Generally, these institutes were originally a department of a university. Focus of the reform was on undergraduate education, although it was replicated by regular junior colleges as well. Higher education reform initiated in the 1980s have mainly followed the United States' model. In this process, many of those separated institutions have been merged into comprehensive universities. Even though, vocational education does exist in universities in current China, which is entailed in specializations such as engineering, law, medicine, teachers education, and other applied subjects. However, this kind of vocational education addressed in universities has never been categorized as vocational education. Before or even after the emergence of HVE, vocational education was just considered at the level of secondary vocational education. According to analyzed HVE-related policies, the vocational education function of HVE has been repeatedly emphasized.

Expanding the higher education system. The analysis of HVE access in related policies suggests that the increase of HVE recruitment has led to an expansion of Chinese higher education. Although the central government required HVE to expand during the first two stages, the real expansion of higher education started to take effect in the late 1990s with the enactment of the following three policies: *Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education* (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998), *Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century* (The Ministry of Education,

1998b), and *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System* (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999). Taking Shaanxi Province as the example, the freshman enrollment of HVE increased from 11,236 in 1998 to 101,189 in 2006, which account for 24.82% and 46.19% of total higher education enrollment in the same years (The Higher Education Division in Shaanxi Provincial Department of Education, 2007). With the expansion of HVE, Chinese higher education has been expanded from elite higher education to mass higher education. From 1998 to 2006, the gross enrollment rate of Chinese higher education increased from 9.1% to 22% and the number of students enrolled increased from 3,408,700 to 17,388,400 (The Ministry of Education, 2006c; Zheng, 2008). According to Grubb (2006), Scott (1996), and Trow (1996), higher education expansion in most countries occurs not simply from expanding existing universities, but by developing diversified institutions, especially lower-cost short-cycle colleges with missions and functions different from traditional universities. It has been well accepted that HVE has played a key role in transforming China's higher education from an elite system to a mass one.

Chinese public higher education consists of two sectors: university and non-university. Traditionally, Chinese higher education has focused more on undergraduate education, which is mainly the domain of universities. In contrast, short-cycle higher education institutions such as junior colleges, which represented the non-university sector of higher education, were low in number. Zhong (2001) points out that in 1981, enrollment in junior colleges was 218,000,

which accounted for 17.8% of the total enrollment in higher education. The disproportion between junior college education and undergraduate education did not meet the state's requirement that junior college education, including junior colleges and vocational colleges, should produce more specialized/applied manpower for socialist construction in shorter cycles (The Ministry of Education, 1991; The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983). At the first stage, indeed, China's junior college education was a replication of university education with shorter programs. This influenced vocational colleges' focus on vocational education and many vocational colleges changed their names into junior colleges later in the first phase. Promoted by the central government at the end of the first stage, the non-university sector of Chinese higher education was not established until the establishment of HVE in 1996 when the Law of Vocational Education was enacted.

In order to achieve the goal of producing more specialized/applied manpower for socialist construction, the central government has restructured higher education with university and non-university sectors, and expanded the non-university sector by developing HVE. With this reform, organizational forms of HVE have extended from a single type—vocational colleges to diverse types such as vocational colleges, independent vocational and technical colleges, independent adult colleges, junior colleges, vocational and technical colleges run by universities, private colleges, senior technical schools, and technician institutes. Additionally, many secondary-vocational-schools were upgraded to address HVE as a supplement to HVE resources (Wang, 1998; Yang, 1996). Thus, the non-

university sector of Chinese higher education was greatly expanded and it functioned differently from the university sector. With the expanded structure, consequently, the increase of enrollment at HVE institutions led to Chinese higher education expansion.

Providing more access opportunities to higher education, the development of HVE has enhanced education equity. Indeed, vocational colleges have contributed to education equity since they emerged in the early 1980s. In the early phase of HVE, vocational colleges were considered non-formal higher education. Most senior high school graduates with qualified exam scores were not attracted to these colleges. In order to recruit sufficient students, these colleges opened their doors to many senior high school graduates with relatively high scores who did not pass the College Entrance Exam (Ye, 1994). Meanwhile, they also opened their doors to secondary-vocational-school graduates who were not able to enter colleges upon graduation (Xiong, 1995; Xu & Wu, 1991; Ye, 1994).

Charging high tuition. With the advent of a market economy, tuition and fees at most higher education institutions were reformed from tuition-free to tuition-charging based on a notion that higher education was not compulsory education (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993; the Ministry of Education, 1994). Li (2006) noted that Chinese public higher education institutions generally started to charge tuition in 1997.

It is true that most public higher education institutions were tuition-free except for HVE institutions before the late 1990s. Since enactment of the policy *Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation*

System, tuition has become the major funding source for HVE institutions while the government funds were a supplement (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999). Indeed, before the enactment of this policy, HVE charged very low tuition (see p. 22). It was after enactment of this policy, HVE institutions started to charge students high tuition. Chen (2006), Gao (2000), and J. Yang (2004) have critiqued that tuition in HVE institutions is unreasonably high, even higher than that of universities (see p. 23). Policy influences, undoubtedly, made HVE become a very expensive commodity for students to buy. The unreasonably high tuition of HVE in China contrasts with the cost of HVE in developed countries. For example, in US community colleges, where tuition is more affordable compared to universities. According to American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) Facts 2007, the average annual tuition of public community colleges was \$2, 272, while the average annual tuition of universities was \$5,836 (American Association of Community Colleges, 2007). Given the fact that tuition in HVE institutions is much higher than in universities and the majority of HVE students are from low-income families, HVE is facing the challenge of building equity.

Admittedly, relieving tuition pressures on HVE students with student loans and tuition waiver programs have been addressed in related policies since the 1990s (The Central Committee of CPC & The State Council, 1993; The State Council, 2005). Nevertheless, it was not until 2007 that the financial support system for HVE students took effect. Moreover, policies in recent years have required that HVE institutions need to shorten their three-year programs to two-

years (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003). This may relieve HVE students from high tuition pressures (Liu, 2006).

Limiting upward mobility. The analysis shows that HVE institutions are expected to develop as short-cycle colleges with two-to-three-year programs. Located at the lower end of the higher education hierarchy, HVE is mainly designed as terminal education, where students prepare for work. In 1999, HVE students were permitted to continue their studies at undergraduate levels by taking upgrading exams (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999). However, the number of HVE students moving up to undergraduate education has been strictly limited by the government (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). Additionally, employment has been the focus of HVE institutions during the recent two stages (2000-2007). Thus, upward mobility of HVE students has been limited to a large extent.

Indeed, the entire system of vocational education mainly functions as terminal education at different levels. As my data analysis has shown, students at secondary vocational schools have very limited access to HVE institutions. While promoting HVE across the country, the government points out that the focus of vocational education should be placed on secondary vocational education (The State Council, 2002; Wen, 2007). This indicates that both HVE and secondary vocational education were mainly designed for workforce development rather

than transfer education. Without a doubt, upward mobility of HVE students has been limited to a large extent. Han (2001) notes that the terminality of HVE has led to the challenge of student loss facing HVE institutions. Limited upward mobility for students at all vocational schools is a disadvantage that these students confront, limiting social equity.

Addressing narrow skill-learning. The analysis indicates that in order to strengthen graduates' employment competency in recent years, HVE curricula and teaching should be practically-centered to meet occupational needs while academic knowledge has been minimal. According to Grubb and Lazerson (2005), "employers seek specific skills narrowly tailored to their production, and educational institutions are limited to providing preparation for employer-specific hiring, and nonutilitarian subjects such as the arts and the humanities have been eliminated" (p. 317). No doubt, increasingly intensified vocationalist policies resulted in utilitarian emphases in HVE institutions. For instance, curricula at some HVE institutions are mainly developed for students' skill training for employment (Gao, 2000; Gao, 2005; The Ministry of Education, 1995; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security et al., 2003; Zhu, 2001). Furthermore, Gao (2000), Gong (1998), and Ji (2005) note that humanities education is ignored in HVE institutions, which put HVE students at risk because vocational education does not address moral education. A Confucian humanities education, recommended by Gao (2000), is expected to moderate emerging utilitarian impacts of vocationalism on HVE students. Li (1993) states that "many Confucian ideas are

morally prescriptive, and exhibit a concern for social consciousness” (p. 305).

Regardless of valuing academic/theoretical education and the career of civil servants, “Confucius emphasizes that to be a truly educated person, one’s character must be formed by such precepts as benevolence, righteousness and integrity. The linking of good character with education is a concern of Chinese intellectuals today” (Li, 1993, p. 306).

According to Bragg (1997) and Lehmann and Taylor (2003), the proposal of offering humanities education in HVE institutions indicates a new vocationalist view on HVE. In Western countries, vocationalism is shifting to a new vocationalism, which is regarded as “a critical movement” (Skilbeck et al. 1994, p. 5). Orr (2001) summarizes that, driven by a new economy, this new vocationalism reflects a growing emphasis on vocational-technical education to foster skilled workers in demand on the basis of lifelong learning, which is focused on skill training rather than degree acquisition. Compared to traditional vocationalism, new vocationalism has some distinct features. First, it emphasizes skill sets not only for entry-level occupations but for high-wage, high-skill occupations (Jacobs, 2001). Second, the new vocationalism focuses on long-term preparation for careers, not simply quick, short-term preparation for immediate employment (Grubb, 1996; Jacobs, 2001), which is driven by the idea of lifelong learning. Third, it is more holistic in its educational approach, integrating academic and vocational knowledge to foster knowledge workers, which makes vocational education more progressive (Bragg, 1997; Lehmann & Taylor, 2003). Fourth, the new vocationalism enhances articulation of education at different levels (Bragg,

1997; Lehmann & Taylor, 2003). Fifth, it stresses complex collaborative relationships among different partners—educational sectors, business and industry, and other entities (Orr, 2001; Lehmann & Taylor, 2003). Finally, the new vocationalism enables students to be more critical of workplace practices and systems of employment (Lehmann & Taylor, 2003). Compared with vocationalism, Orr (2001) states that “new vocationalism is more holistic in its educational approach by stressing complex collaborative relationships among educational sectors, business and industry, and other entities” (p. 47).

Analysis and discussion in this study show that the new vocationalism is emerging in the development of HVE. Signs of new vocationalism in HVE refer to emphasis on high-level skilled manpower; critiques on ignorance of humanities education at HVE institutions; designated articulation between secondary vocational education, HVE, and undergraduate education; and encouragement of cooperation between HVE institutions and industry and business. Future policymaking for HVE needs to take this trend into consideration.

Moreover, considering the quality of higher education, aforementioned utilitarian efforts in HVE may lead to a quality loss for HVE. When discussing why higher education needs to address both liberal arts education and vocational education, Massen (1997) discusses two essential qualities of higher education – its intrinsic quality and its extrinsic quality: “Intrinsic qualities of higher education include the basic values and ideals which form the very heart of higher education: the search for truth and the pursuit of knowledge” (p. 112), while “extrinsic qualities of higher education comprise the [colleges’ and] universities’

ability to respond to the needs of the societies of which they are a part” (p. 112). It appears that vocationalism, in developing HVE, has overemphasized the extrinsic quality of HVE and ignored its intrinsic quality. Such a quality loss may result in negative impacts on HVE students because “if students think of schooling in purely utilitarian and credentialist terms, then they have every reason to get away with as little work as possible, as long as they obtain the credentials necessary for employment” (Grubb & Lazerson, 2005, p. 312).

Requiring a centralized governance system. According to my analysis of funding and governance of HVE, major responsibilities for funding and administering HVE institutions have shifted from local governments at city levels at the first stage, to provincial/municipal governments at the second stage, to cooperation between local governments at provincial/municipal levels and city levels at the third stage, and to governments at all levels finally. Compared to local governments at city and provincial levels, however, the central government came into the stage later. Exerting macro governance over HVE, the central government started to emphasize HVE practice at the second stage by facilitating legislation for HVE and promoting the construction of vocational and technical colleges. At the third stage, the central government started to allocate various funds for HVE such as special funds for building practical training bases. Moreover, the central government started to allocate significant funds for HVE at the fourth stage to build 100 nationwide model vocational and technical colleges and providing a financial support system for HVE students.

In addition to increasing funds for HVE development, the central government's emphasis on developing HVE has also been reflected through establishing the joint meeting system of seven ministries/commissions/offices.

According to the Fifth National Vocational Education Forum (2006):

The joint meet system was formally approved and established by the State Council in June 2004, which includes seven ministries/commissions/offices: The Ministry of Education, the Commission of Development and Reform [guojia fa gai wei], the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Personnel [renshi bu], the Ministry of Labor and Social Security [laodong yu shehui baozhang bu], the Ministry of Agriculture [nongye bu], and the State Council Leading Group Office of Poverty Alleviation and Development [guowuyuan fupin ban]. Among them, Ministry of Education plays the leading role. Duties and functions of the joint meeting system mainly include: overall planning vocational education across the country and promptly working on relevant problems in vocational education. Members of the joint meeting system are responsible in supervising, inspecting, and guiding the implementation of policies on vocational education within respective department duties (p. 34).

Moreover, in order to ensure the implementation of HVE development, the central government has required that an important criterion for evaluating principal government leaders at all levels is the performance of vocational education in those areas (The State Council, 2005). This process of involvement indicated that the central government has put increasingly emphasis on developing HVE as the non-university sector of Chinese higher education.

In contrast, Ding et al. (2008) note that increasingly decentralized funding and governance systems emerged as the major trend in reforming China's higher education funding systems after the enactment of the *Resolution on Reforming the Educational System* (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985). In this reform process, funding and governance of higher education has gradually been decentralized to local governments with China's transition from a centralized

planned economy to a market economy. Compared to its highly centralized feature before 1985, Ding et al. (2008) state that Chinese higher education provision was reformed as a three-level pattern in which the central government, the provincial/autonomous/municipal governments, and city governments were main providers for higher education. In China, providers are responsible for funding higher education. Thus, higher education was jointly funded by governments at the three levels with the trend that the local government at provincial levels is taking more funding responsibilities than the central government. Accordingly, Chinese higher education governance was reformed into a two-level pattern, in which the central government and the provincial/autonomous/municipal governments were mainly responsible for higher education governance.

Admittedly, in the process of its development and reform during 1980-2007, HVE provision expanded from city governments to city governments and provincial/autonomous/municipal governments and then to city governments, provincial/autonomous/municipal governments, and the central government. This trend is just opposite to the decentralized trend of higher education provision reform explored by Ding et al. (2008). That is, while decentralizing funding responsibilities to the local governments, the central government has increasingly taken more responsibilities in funding HVE. A gradually centralized process of HVE governance has emerged. This is a very interesting phenomenon, which may be a result of vocationalist policies. Indeed, HVE has taken credits in changing

local higher education provision, by which HVE is considered as a pioneer in decentralizing higher education in China (Wu & Sun, 2008).

Confucianism

According to Arnove (2003, 2007), a global and local dialectic may work with the application of vocationalism to Chinese higher education as a global culture. What is the key local factor interacting with vocationalism in developing HVE? Certainly, the answer is Confucianism. As the dominant culture in Chinese higher education, Confucianism has shaped the thoughts of all stakeholders of higher education such as students, teachers, parents, employers, and policymakers. That is, Confucianism provides the cultural soil in which HVE has emerged, developed, and been reformed. The analysis of HVE-related policy data shows how HVE development and reform is influenced by the Confucian notion of official-scholars.

Prestiged social elites. The production of skilled manpower and the advancement of vocational education take place against a history of social disfavor in China. Although the central government has repeatedly emphasized the improvement of social acceptability and credibility of vocational education and skilled manpower in HVE-related policies since the first stage, problems for both HVE and high-level skilled manpower has changed little (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Ministry of Education, 1995; The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The Ministry of Education, 2006a; The State Council, 2005). These policies do not explain why vocational education and skilled manpower are discriminated against in Chinese society. However, it is not

difficult to find an answer in existing literature. Scholars agree that the lower status of HVE and skilled manpower are rooted in the Confucian notion of the scholar-official (Gao, 1994; Peng, 2001; Xiong, 2005, 2007; Yang & Chen, 2006; Ye, 1995; Zhang, 1985). Thus Confucianism has been critiqued as the major factor impeding the development of HVE (Sun, et al., 2002; Xiong, 2007, 2008; Ye, 1995; Zhang, 1985). As discussed earlier, Confucianism, the dominant ideology in Chinese education for thousands of years, values the production of officials (civil servants) rather than skilled workers. Ogden (1995) has noted that “the imperial China was administered by members of a ruling class who were educated as scholars of the classics and were experts in morality, rather than in any particular (technical) field” (p. 19). Consequently, the Confucian notion of scholar-official has deeply impacted Chinese people’s view on education and careers with the prestige of such a career and the examination system.

The vocationalist view of supplying high-level skilled manpower demanded by the market through developing HVE is totally opposite to the Confucian tradition in China. The Confucian view on skilled manpower has led to negative impacts on HVE. Firstly, students are motivated to become social elites – civil servants rather than skilled workers. Qianlong News Net (2006) notes that recently, the civil servant has been ranked number one as the most popular job for all college graduates. Reasons for choosing such a career mainly lie in the stable and solid income, health insurance, pension, and higher social status of a civil servant.

Second, HVE institutions are not motivated to focus on vocational education. Since HVE institutions have been treated as a subordinate and peripheral part of higher education in China, leaders and teachers at HVE institutions want to upgrade their institutions to undergraduate institutions for prestigious status (Pan, 2004; Yang, 2003; Ye, 2002). According to policy data, the central government has explicitly stopped HVE institutions from upgrading to undergraduate institutions (The State Council, 2005). This is expected to ensure sufficient resources for HVE development.

Ensured upward social mobility. Evidence shows that although the Imperial Examination System has been abolished for more than 100 years, examinations are kept as a major method of human resource selection in China. Guo (1996) summarizes two categories of China's examinations:

In China, examinations may be divided into ordinary examinations and admission examinations. Ordinary examinations are organized at least twice every term, midterm and final. Admission examinations are used to admit students from primary schools to middle schools, from middle schools to universities, from undergraduates to postgraduates, from master's programs to doctoral programs. (p. 28)

The focus of this study is on admission examinations. Currently, a complete examination system for formal-education students mainly includes the Elementary School Entrance Examination, the Junior High School Entrance Examination, the Senior High School Entrance Examination, the National College Entrance Examination, the Upgrading Examination (for HVE students to get access to universities), the Graduate School Entrance Examination for Master's Studies, Graduate School Entrance Examination for Doctoral Studies, and the Civil Service Examination. It seems that to be a civil servant is the ultimate

purpose of Chinese education. Currently, most civil-servant positions require at least a bachelor's or master's degree, or even a doctoral degree (People, 2009). With increasing interest in the Civil Service Examination, *Workers' Daily* (2005) reports that 383,008 people applied for the 2006 Chinese Civil Service Examination to compete for 10,000 positions as civil servants. According to People (2009), although HVE graduates are eligible to apply for some civil servant positions by participating in the examination, these positions are at the lowest level in the civil-servant system, under the toughest work conditions, and mainly open for males.

Admittedly, the current examination system adopted for selecting civil servants in China is quite different from the Imperial Examination System in Imperial China in terms of subjects and genders. The subjects of the Civil Service Examination include almost all existing university subjects. Meanwhile, these examinations are open to all eligible males and females. However, the hierarchical exam-based selection system has similar functions as the Imperial Examination System: generally, all students are equal to move from the lower level to the top level through such an examination system. That is, the examination system provides a pathway for students' upward mobility in China, which enhances social equity.

Data analysis shows that focusing on workforce preparation, HVE is terminal education to a large extent. Only a very small proportion (5%) of HVE students can move up to universities by upgrading examinations. In this light,

upward social mobility of HVE students has been strictly limited. Apparently, this counters social equity.

Rooted academic knowledge. My analysis suggests that curriculum and teaching reform at HVE institutions has not been well implemented. Even at the fourth stage, practice/skill-centered curricula and teaching were still emphasized in related policies. As well, the shortage of two-quality teachers has challenged the development of HVE. All these reflect the deep impact of Confucianism, which values academic/theoretical knowledge. Focusing on academic/theoretical knowledge, Chinese higher education has had a long history of supplying academics/theorists. In this light, teachers supplied by higher education are not equipped with the practical knowledge required by HVE institutions. This may explain the shortage of qualified teachers at HVE institutions. Undoubtedly, it is hard for teachers without practical knowledge to conduct practical teaching and reform curricula focusing on practice/skills.

One more strong influence of Confucianism on knowledge is reflected in exams. Focusing on academic knowledge, the National College Entrance Exam is the major method of HVE recruitment. Although the customized entrance exam for HVE institutions has been designed in some places to recruit secondary-vocational-school graduates, the vast majority of students recruited by HVE take the general entrance exam. This indicates a disjunction between the knowledge structure examined and the knowledge requirements of HVE. In addition, the upgrading exam is based on academic knowledge as well. In order to pass the

upgrading exam and move up to undergraduate education, students may not be motivated to learn skills.

Disadvantaged employment. Since the inception of higher education expansion in 1999, unemployment of college graduates, especially HVE graduates, has become an increasingly important issue in Chinese society (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006). The low employment rate reflects low social acceptability and credibility of HVE. Influenced by a Confucian tradition, skilled workers are not valued by Chinese society. This is indicated by the phenomenon of heated Chinese Civil Service Exam in recent years. Discrimination against HVE has been a longstanding challenge facing HVE development in Chinese society (Guo, 2003; Pan, 2004; Xiong, 2005, 2007, 2008; Yang J., 2004). Holding such a Confucian view, employers prefer to hire graduates with high credentials (Gao, 2005; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004), while HVE students are not granted degrees but diplomas and occupational qualification certificates.

The three stages of higher education have distracted people's attention from the core of Trow's theory of mass higher education. In fact, Trow's purpose is to remind administrators that expansion of higher education systems requires corresponding adjustment in higher education policy and practice. He takes the expansion of higher education in European countries as an instance: "That transformation [from elite higher education to mass higher education] has created severe problems for these systems in finance, governance, access, accountability, standards, the curriculum, graduate study and research" (Trow, 1996, p. 25). The differences between mass and elite higher education systems are not just

quantitative but also qualitative. Trow (2005) notes that such differences result in different students' careers—elite higher education produces a relatively small group of future leaders of the society, while mass higher education trains young people for specific occupations.

Data analysis shows that the Chinese people's view on careers is not synchronized to a mass higher education system. The fact that the position of civil servants has been ranked number one as the job preferred by college students coupled with the increasingly intense competitive Civil Service Examination indicates that the Chinese people's view on careers is stuck at the stage of elite higher education.

The Issue of Equity in HVE⁴

According to the aforementioned mixed framework on higher education equity summarized by Coleman (1966), Berne and Stiefel (1984), UNESCO (1985), and Bailey and Morest (2006), HVE students are treated unequally in the whole process of studying in HVE which refers to admission to HVE, participation in HVE, and gaining success via HVE. At the admission stage, they do not have equal opportunities of matriculation and need to pay high tuition. Due to different learning systems, secondary-vocational-school students are disadvantaged in gaining access to higher education by participating in the unified National College Entrance Examination focusing on academic-knowledge. Furthermore, the hierarchical selection system makes HVE students inferior to university students. This has led to inequity in the stage of participation. That is, even after enrollment,

⁴ A version of this section has been published. Xiong 2010. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(3): 421-436.

HVE students are discriminated against for being considered less capable in learning than university students with higher scores. Moreover, insufficient funding has resulted in poor infrastructures and teaching conditions at most HVE institutions. Such unequal participation of HVE students has been exacerbated by unreasonably high tuition and narrow practical knowledge/skill learning. At the stage of gaining success by reaching college goals, HVE students have been unequally treated with strictly limited upward social mobility and disadvantaged employment options.

Institutionalization of HVE

My analysis and discussion of policy data and relevant literature suggest that, although HVE has gained increasing policy support from the central government, its development and reform have been full of challenges, such as lower social status, limited upward mobility, unreasonably high tuition, a student loss, insufficient funding, weak infrastructures, poor learning conditions, a shortage of qualified teachers, and tough employment situations for graduates. Except for the emergence of the tuition and employment issues in recent years, the other challenges have been unresolved since the first stage of HVE development. Why are so many challenges still unresolved in HVE development through strong policy support from the central government? How might these challenges be addressed?

From a neoinstitutionalist perspective, I argue that HVE is a newly emerging institutional form in Chinese society and the development of HVE is a process of institutionalization of HVE. In this process, HVE are gaining

legitimacy while experiencing isomorphic changes. Formation of institutional environments of HVE is expected.

Regulative legitimacy. In China with its centralized government, the regulative system has played a vital role in developing HVE. Emerging in the early 1980s, HVE was not emphasized as a distinct section of higher education until 1995 when the policy titled *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges* (The Ministry of Education, 1995) was issued. Since then HVE has been reinforced in a variety of policies as a non-university sector of higher education and the highest level of vocational education that serves economic demands. The most significant regulative support for HVE is the enactment of two laws. One is the *Law of Vocational Education* (1996) and the other is the *Law of Higher Education* (1998). They provided the legislative basis for HVE in both the vocational education system and the higher education system. This has been enhanced by increasingly strong policy support for HVE in later years and stages. Nevertheless, Analyses have indicated that HVE development and reform went slowly at the second stage with enactment of these laws. This indicates that conformity to these HVE-related regulations has not been reached. Indeed, many challenges explored in this research have been facing HVE for a long time while new challenges continue to emerge. Why hasn't strong policy support by the central government resolved challenges facing HVE? In addition to aforementioned factors such as high tuition and limited transfer access of HVE, some other biased HVE-related policies exist as well. They mainly refer

to a hierarchical selection system, designated student sources, and insufficient funding.

Students passing the National College Entrance Examination with qualified scores will have access to different higher education institutions, including HVE institutions. In China, higher education recruitment is conducted in a certain order based on a three-tier hierarchy of higher education institutions discussed by Hayhoe and Zha (2004). Locating at the lower level of the hierarchy, HVE institutions are in the last recruiting group of public higher education institutions and can only recruit students with lower exam scores. This has resulted in HVE being discriminated against as inferior higher education (Liu, 2006). According to Cao (2002) and Liu (2006), many students recruited by HVE institutions have given up their admissions and would go back to senior high schools for remedial education to prepare for the exam in the next year.

Generally, student sources for HVE institutions have been constituted by senior high school students passing the National College Entrance Exam, graduates from secondary vocational schools, on-job technical workers, and senior high school students with relatively high scores who did not pass the exam (Liu, 2006; Xiong, 1995; Xu & Wu, 1991; Ye, 1994).

In the early phase of HVE, vocational colleges were considered non-formal higher education. Most senior high school graduates with qualified scores were not attracted to these colleges. In order to recruit sufficient students, these colleges opened their doors to many senior high school graduates with relatively high scores who did not pass the College Entrance Exam. Meanwhile, they also

opened doors to secondary vocational high school graduates who were mainly prepared for work. In this light, the emergence of HVE enhanced education equity at its early stage.

With the legislation of HVE in the 1990s and a series of government policies that strongly supporting its development, HVE has been formally established as a non-university sector of Chinese higher education system. Since then, senior high school graduates must pass the exam to get access to HVE. Even now, the majority of HVE students are graduates from regular senior high schools. A very small portion is from secondary vocational schools. It is much harder for secondary vocational school students to pass the exam than those in regular senior high schools due to different learning systems. Although in some places HVE institution entrance exams are designed to recruit graduates from secondary vocational schools and on-the-job technical workers, especially the former, the number of graduates recruited from secondary vocational schools have been strictly limited by the government. Encouraged by the policy named the *Resolution on Reforming Educational Systems* (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985), some vocational colleges, the earliest form of HVE institutions, recruited graduates from secondary vocational schools in the 1980s (Min, 1994; Xiong, 1995; Xu & Wu, 1991; Zhang, 1985). However, the number of students recruited from secondary vocational schools was too small. According to Xiong (1995), students recruited from secondary vocational schools accounted for 5% of total recruitment of vocational colleges. Indeed, this number has never been expanded. In the 1990s, although it was explicated by many government policies

that HVE institutions needed to recruit graduates from secondary vocational schools (The Ministry of Education, 1995, 1998b; The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trades, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998; The Ministry of Education & Commission of Planning, 1999; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999), students recruited from secondary vocational schools have comprised a rather small proportion of the total number of secondary vocational school graduates. In the policy titled *Action Plan for Invigorating Chinese Education in the 21st Century* (The Ministry of Education, 1998b), it is regulated that a certain portion accounting for about 3% of graduates from secondary vocational schools can be recruited by HVE institutions in the near future. At that time, the total number of secondary vocational school graduates was about four million (The Ministry of Education, 1998a). In 2006, the rate was still limited to 5% by the central government (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006). The number of secondary vocational school graduates was about five million in the same year (The Ministry of Education, 2006c).

Given the fact that secondary vocational education was terminal before the emergence of vocational colleges, the development of HVE enhanced education equity by providing higher education opportunity for secondary vocational school students. With rapid growth of HVE and expansion of higher education, nonetheless, secondary vocational school students' access to higher education has been heavily restricted by government policy. The major reason for such restrictions may be that China needs more skilled workers supplied by secondary

vocational education not HVE. In the policy named Resolution on Vigorously Promoting the Development and Reform of Vocational Education (*guowuyuan guanyu dali tuijin zhiye jiaoyu gaige yu fazhan de jueding*), the State Council (2002) stresses that

Secondary vocational education is the focus. The size of HVE needs to be expanded. During the Tenth Five-Year Plan period [2001-2005], secondary vocational education needs to supply over 22,000,000 graduates and HVE needs to supply more than 8,000,000 graduates for society. (para. 4)

Limited access to higher education indicates less upward mobility in society for students at secondary vocational schools. Undoubtedly, education equity is secondary to political mandates.

The funding system in Chinese public higher education is hierarchical. On the top, universities in Project 985 and Project 211 are key funded institutions. They are funded by both the central government and provincial /municipal governments. Funding for universities under the governance by each province/municipality mainly comes from the provincial/ municipal governments. Most universities in China are located at this level. Since each province/ municipality has its own Project 211, a similar funding hierarchy exists at provincial/ municipal levels. Located at the bottom of the hierarchy, HVE institutions usually get the least funding.

According to Liu (2006), J. Yang (2004), and Zeng (2004), provincial/municipal government appropriation and tuition are the major funding sources for HVE institutions. Due to the uneven development of the economy, the amount of funding from provincial/municipal governments varies across the

country. Among China's three major economic development zones, the west is less developed than the coastal and the central areas. Zhao (2001) points out that HVE institutions in Western China could not get sufficient funding from the government. Indeed, government funding for HVE institutions across the country is insufficient in general (Gu, 2006; Liu, 2006; Yang J., 2004). HVE institutions have been encouraged to raise funds by themselves since their emergence in the 1980s and even after legislation of HVE in the 1990s, though raising money was not usual for public education in China. Therefore, HVE has experienced a funding shortage for a long time. Consequently, insufficient funding has led to high tuition and poor teaching conditions including a lack of necessary facilities for technical training at HVE institutions (Liu, 2006; Sun et al., 2002; Zhao, 2001).

These biased policies indicate that the regulative environment of HVE needs to be improved although there has emerged a trend of strong policy support for HVE in recent years. Moreover, considering that there are three pillars impacting the institutional environment of HVE, it is necessary to look into the other two elements of HVE institutional environments.

Normative legitimacy. According to my data analysis, curricula and teaching at most HVE institutions have not focused on practice/skill learning. As well, infrastructures for practical training were poor and qualified teachers were in short supply. Therefore, discrepancies existed between the graduates supplied by HVE institutions and the high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by industries. This may account for the low employment rate for HVE graduates in recent years. Undoubtedly, norms regulating the kind of education that graduates

need have been in short supply. From the perspective of neoinstitutionalism, HVE lacks normative legitimacy. Analysis of policy data indicates that during the first two stages (1980-1999) of HVE development, HVE curricula and teaching were not the foci of policy. Only one policy addressed HVE curriculum and teaching reform, which was *Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges* (The Ministry of Education, 1995). Although emphasizing practical teaching and occupational needs, this policy did not mention universal norms for HVE curricula and teaching and evaluation. Such norming did not become the focus of policy until the late part of the third stage.

According to Yang & Meng, et al. (1995), the issue of developing HVE was initially proposed by industry because graduates from higher education institutions could not meet industry's needs. Then a question was proposed: What kinds of human resources should be produced by higher education? Indeed, the mission of HVE to produce applied/skilled manpower at all levels for industry was articulated by all policies. Meeting industry's needs is the basic requirement for human resources supplied by HVE. Apparently, industry may be capable of setting the criteria for demanded human resource types. Therefore, industry was encouraged to get involved in developing HVE. Still, a severe shortage of high-level skilled workers in China has been reported in recent years. This indicated that the goal of HVE has not been realized after almost 30 years of HVE development. Given the low employment rate of HVE graduates, a core problem in developing HVE must be resolved: how to ensure the quality of the human resource supply at HVE institutions. Establishing a normative system of HVE is

crucial to answer such a question. In the policy the *Resolutions on Energetically*

Developing Vocational Education, the State Council (2005) states:

With the guidance of educational principles of the state, competent departments of industry and industrial associations carry out manpower demand forecasts for the industry, make education and training plans, organize and direct vocational education and training for the industry; participate in making criteria for specific occupation qualifications, vocational skill appraisal, and issue certificates; participate in making criteria for qualifications of training institutions and employees; and participate in vocational colleges/schools evaluation and management. (para. 23)

The implication of this policy is that competent departments of industry and industrial associations have normative functions in developing HVE. With the involvement of industry in developing HVE, universal standards for human resource supply and evaluation would enhance curriculum and teaching reform at all HVE institutions. Analysis of policy data suggests that building normative legitimacy for HVE is a key task for the development of HVE during the fourth stage. Examples for this include increasing demands for enhanced cooperation between HVE institutions and industries, wide application of order education and module education at HVE institutions, and the construction of 100 nationwide vocational and technical colleges across the country. Therefore, with strong government facilitation, it seems that the formation of a normative environment of HVE is not far away.

Cultural-cognitive legitimacy. Earlier discussion indicates that vocationalism has provided a supportive cultural environment for HVE development. Still, vocationalism has been resisted by various stakeholders holding a Confucian belief in education, which impacted the development of HVE

and the production of high-level skilled manpower for a long history in Chinese society. First, HVE institutions can only recruit students with low examination scores; second, HVE receives disproportionate government funding in a highly hierarchical funding system of higher education; furthermore, students at HVE institutions are limited to move up for undergraduate education. The cumulative result has been in less motivated students and less motivated leaders and teachers at HVE institutions, less motivated employers, and inefficient policymaking. With HVE in turmoil, students have given up admission to HVE institutions; HVE students have tried to move up for undergraduate education by taking upgrading exams; HVE institutions have tried to upgrade to universities; and many employers have preferred to hire students with higher credentials. Due to the very low social and cultural acceptance and credibility of HVE in Chinese society, the cultural-cognitive legitimacy of HVE is largely absent.

This situation is expected to change with HVE development and reform. Still, even with an increasing emphasis on the importance of HVE and high-level skilled manpower by the central government in recent years, students' motivation to accept HVE is still not high. Given Chinese students' strong desire for the civil service examination and the cultural ranking for the position of civil servants in recent years, Chinese students are not motivated to become lowly-ranked high-level skilled workers in China today. This is despite government efforts to foster a favorable environment for HVE and high-level skilled manpower since the first stage.

The lesser status of HVE is linked to the lesser status of high-level skilled manpower. However, I would argue that a more complex explanation is required than the different views on careers between Confucianism and vocationalism. I contend that a major reason also lies in the mechanism of upward mobility behind the two cultures. It is undeniable that Confucianism supports upward mobility for common people. Indeed, most common people in imperial China never gave up their opportunity to participate in the imperial examination, although it was the narrowest and most difficult way to realize the common people's dreams of upward social mobility. Driven by vocationalism, HVE is emphasized as education for workforce preparation. Upward mobility for HVE students is largely limited with such a terminal function. Moreover, as mentioned before, the number of students recruited from secondary vocational schools is strictly limited. The indication is that the entire vocational education system is designed to stream students at different levels for workforce preparation. The limited upward mobility counters social equity. Therefore, HVE encounters resistance in Chinese society. Thus, providing transferrable education at HVE institutions may be the major way to motivate Chinese people. However, given the fact that the country has been in great need of skilled manpower at all levels, the government will not open up transfer access for either HVE students or secondary-vocational-school students in the next decade. Data analysis indicates that the government has made more efforts to improve the social status of skilled manpower and HVE through further reforms, the National Occupational Skill Competitions, propaganda via mass media, and enhanced leadership (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The

Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006; The State Council, 2005). However, I argue that such a situation may not be easily changed if the issue of social equity is ignored. Apparently, from a neoinstitutionalist perspective, most unresolved challenges facing HVE result directly or indirectly from the fact that China's HVE lacks institutional legitimacy at all levels. The absence of institutional legitimacy of HVE may account for unresolved challenges as well as newly emerging challenges facing HVE.

Isomorphic change. In the process of HVE institutionization, HVE institutions are experiencing isomorphic changes in terms of missions, structures, admissions, tuition fees, curricula, teaching staff, funding and governance, graduate employment, and social status. Consequently, a non-university sector of higher education is emerging, which is marked by recruiting students with low scores, offering two to three-year short-cycle programs, offering limited transfer access, charging unreasonably high tuition, building a team of two-quality teachers, equipping with practical training facilities, receiving insufficient funding, sharing a low graduate employment rate, and sharing lesser status.

As discussed earlier, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) define three isomorphic forces including coercive, mimetic, and normative. Data analysis in this study indicates that government coercion is the major force driving isomorphic changes among HVE institutions through policy regulations. Furthermore, mimetic isomorphism has been strongly encouraged with implementation of building 100 model colleges in recent year. Moreover, industry and industrial associations are required to function as normative forces to facilitate the process of

institutionalization of HVE. According to Campbell (2004), “in normative process, organizational leaders have been professionalized to share similar views on what constitutes appropriate organizational practice” (p. 21). Nevertheless, it seems that such a professional network has not been addressed in HVE-related policies.

Summary of Findings

Finding one. The development of HVE embodies a trend of vocationalism in Chinese higher education and society. This has led and is leading to a variety of changes of Chinese higher education and society. First, the development of HVE has facilitated the transformation of Chinese higher education from an elite higher education system to a mass one in early 2000s. The massification process of Chinese higher education is still ongoing. Second, the development of HVE has restructured Chinese higher education in terms of human resource supply, the non-university sector, and knowledge focus. Third, In order to realize the mission of HVE, the Chinese central government has advocated society to transform such a Confucian view of valuing the career of civil servants into a view that every occupation is equal and glorious, especially high-level skilled manpower including senior skilled workers, technicians, and technologists (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004; The State Council, 2005; Zhou, 2004). In terms of equality, transforming Chinese people’s view on careers from valuing officials to valuing all occupations indicates a positive change of Chinese society. This may be regarded as one more contribution that vocationalism can make to Chinese society.

Finding two. A widely accepted idea that different views on careers between vocationalism and Confucianism are the major reason causing the lesser status of HVE is complemented in this study. The mechanism of upward mobility entailed in Confucianism is offered as another major reason causing resistance to HVE in Chinese society. This is crucial in the continuous development of HVE in terms of social equity.

Finding three. Based on Trow's (2005) discussion on different students' careers between elite and mass higher education systems, vocationalism supports mass higher education while Confucianism supports elite higher education. Given the strong desire for the civil service examination, Chinese people's view on careers is not synchronized to the mass higher education system that is underway in China. Considering that the position of civil servants is ranked the number one job among college students with the increasingly competitive civil service examination, the Chinese people's view on careers has been stuck at the stage of elite higher education.

Finding four. While supporting HVE, vocationalism itself creates problems for developing HVE. For instance, the development of HVE is challenged by high tuition, limited transfer education, and ignorance of humanities education. Therefore, a new vocationalist view is needed for the future development of HVE. Confucianism may contribute to such a new vocationalist view. Although being critiqued for impeding the development of HVE for not valuing skilled manpower and vocational education, Confucianism does include

positive factors for developing HVE such as humanities education and a mechanism of upward mobility.

Finding five.⁵ Analysis and discussion indicate that HVE students have been treated unequally in the whole process of studying in HVE. Admittedly, the Chinese government has been making efforts to improve the situation of HVE students. For instance, corresponding curriculum and exam systems for recruiting graduates from secondary vocational education to HVE institutions are required by the central government (The State Council, 2002); significant funds from the central government have been allocated to HVE development (The Ministry of Education, 2006a); both central and local governments are working together to improve teaching conditions at HVE institutions (The Ministry of Education, 2004a); low-income HVE students have been benefited from a newly established student financial assistance system (The Ministry of Finance, The Ministry of Education, & The Center for National Student Assistance Administration, 2008); the country's employment system has been gradually reformed according to educational reforms (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985; The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993; The State Council, 2005); and education of vocational ethics has been emphasized repeatedly by the central government (The Ministry of Education, 2004b; The State Council, 2005).

Nonetheless, these efforts do not include expanding transfer access of HVE. On the contrary, according to aforementioned analyses, transfer access of HVE students has been highly controlled by the government with exact

⁵ A version of this section has been published. Xiong 2010. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(3): 421-436.

percentage requirements. According to many HVE-related policies designed in recent years, it is not hard to find out that the major reason for restricting transfer access of HVE students is that China has been in great need of the high-level skilled manpower supplied by HVE. These policies mainly include *Six Ministries and Commissions Including the Ministry of Education Jointly Initiating the Project of Supplying Skilled Manpower in Short Supply for the Industry of Manufacturing and Modern Service* (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003), *Resolution on Further Enhancing the Work of Human Resources* (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2003), *The Plan of Training 500,000 New Technicians in Three Years* (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004), *Some Advice on Deepening Higher Vocational Education Reform with Employment Purposes* (The Ministry of Education, 2004b), and *Advice on Further Strengthening the Work of High-Level Skilled Manpower* (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006).

Regulated by government policy to supply high-level skilled manpower in short-cycle, HVE provides very limited transfer access for students. This indicates that HVE students have less upward social mobility, which apparently counters social equity. This may account for tough challenges facing HVE, such as student loss and the heated upgrading exam. Therefore, the issue of limited upward mobility should not be ignored in developing HVE.

Finding six. The development of HVE represents a process of institutionalization of HVE. The goal of the process is to obtain institutional

legitimacy for HVE. With almost 30 years of development, China's HVE has been struggling in gaining institutional legitimacy at regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive levels. Thus, the development of HVE has been facing various challenges due to the absence of legitimacy. Although laws, rules, and regulations supporting HVE have been enacted, conformity to these regulations has not been formed yet, which is indicated by the fact that HVE-related policies have not been implemented well. Unified standards of professionalism in HVE will be established by largely involving industries in HVE development, which will lead to normative legitimacy of HVE. The resistance to HVE in Chinese society is a strong indication that HVE has not gained cultural-cognitive legitimacy in China. As the core of HVE legitimacy, cultural legitimacy determines conformity to the regulative and normative systems. Without a doubt, vocationalism is the culture support for HVE while Confucianism resists it. In this light, the process of developing HVE is a process of internalizing vocationalism in Chinese society for the prosperous development of HVE. However, this process has encountered resistance from Confucianism, a traditional culture dominating China. The resistance has resulted in the absence of legitimacy of HVE with almost three decades of development.

Finding seven. From a neoinstitutionalist perspective, the development of HVE represents an isomorphic change in Chinese higher education. That is, HVE institutions has been established with similar institutional structures. This isomorphic change of China's HVE supports the theory of isomorphism proposed by neoinstitutionalism. In the case of China's HVE, the isomorphic change has

been mainly driven by coercive and mimetic forces. However, normative isomorphism is absent. An important normative force, a professional network among leaders of HVE institutions, is needed.

Finding eight. According to analysis and discussion in this study, biased policies are another major factor leading to challenges facing of HVE in addition to Confucianism and vocationalism. Regulated by biased policies, Chinese higher education has been stratified. In a regulated three-tier higher education hierarchy, HVE is located at the lower level. Consequently, HVE institutions just recruit students with low exam scores. This has led to student loss at HVE institutions. Furthermore, HVE institutions just received insufficient or even no funds, which has resulted in poor teaching conditions at HVE institutions. Moreover, regulated to focus on workforce preparation, HVE does not emphasize transfer education. This has led to student loss because student upward social mobility is strictly limited.

Chapter 7 Conclusions and Recommendations

In this chapter, I present a summary of the research, conclusions drawn from this study, recommendations for future policymaking, and plans for future research. Conclusions are made based on posed research questions.

Overview of the Study

This study investigated the historical development process of higher vocational education (HVE) in China based on analyzing relevant education policies adopted between 1980 and 2007. This investigation examined how political-economic and socio-cultural factors had impacted the institutional development of HVE in the same time range in China.

At the beginning of my dissertation, I discussed that the purpose of developing HVE in China was to resolve a dilemma between China's economic development and human resource supply. After almost 30 years of development, China is still facing this challenge. In order to figure out why the development of HVE has not resulted in an adequate and qualified human resource supply and how the development of HVE can tangibly resolve such a challenge, a major research question emerged to guide the study: How have political-economic and socio-cultural influences impacted the institutional development of HVE in China?

Chapter Two presented an overview of the literature on key issues in HVE development in China between 1980 and 2007, which covers a wide range of institutional activities associated with HVE such as context, mission, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status of HVE. This literature review explored a variety of challenges

facing HVE resulting from the impact of government policy and Confucianism, which have distracted HVE's focus on vocational education.

Chapter Three conceptualized the key issues framing this investigation – vocationalism, Confucianism, and neoinstitutionalism – which provided the analytical framework used in this study. The impact of vocationalism on China was discussed in connection with vocationalization of higher education, expansion of higher education systems, and social equity in higher education. This chapter also discussed Confucianism and its impacts on Chinese (higher) education in terms of the notion of the scholar-official and the examination system. Moreover, from the perspective of neoinstitutionalism, HVE was considered an emergent institution in Chinese society. Thus, the development of HVE was regarded a process of institutionalization of HVE. In this process, HVE has been experiencing isomorphic changes and need to gain its institutional legitimacy at regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive levels.

Chapter Four provided justification of the methodological approaches and the approach to data analysis employed in this study. Document content analysis was a research strategy used to make an interpretive document analysis of HVE-related policies to explore causes and effects of HVE development and determine the trend entailed in HVE-related policies of the Chinese government. As well, a broad context shaping the development of HVE and HVE-related policies was addressed in this chapter. Constituted by China's politics, the economy, higher education reform, and a brief history of HVE, such a context served as the background for the further analysis of the development of HVE in China.

HVE-related policy document content was analyzed in Chapter Five. The process was a document analysis of the development of HVE constructed by government policies. HVE-related policy content regarding key institutional activities of HVE such as context, mission, access, tuition, curriculum, teaching staff, graduate employment, funding and governance, and social status was analyzed based on four historical development stages of HVE: Stage One, 1980-1995, early exploration of HVE; Stage Two, 1996-1999, legislation of HVE; Stage Three, 2000-2005, rapid growth of HVE; Stage Four, 2006-2007, the restructuring of HVE.

In Chapter Six, the significant findings of the research were discussed based on the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Three. Tensions between vocationalism and Confucianism in developing HVE, equity issues in HVE, and an institutionalization process for HVE to gain institutional legitimacy and experience isomorphic changes constituted a major part of the discussion.

In the current chapter, I present conclusions, which are made according to research questions. I then propose recommendations based on the findings. And finally, I propose considerations and suggestions for future research.

Conclusions

In this section, conclusions are presented according to research questions posed in this study. The major research question is: How have political-economic and socio-cultural influences impacted the institutional development of HVE in China? As discussed earlier, the main question was answered through addressing research sub-questions as follows: What are the driving forces behind developing

HVE in China? How do these forces work in HVE development and reform?

What are the effects of HVE development? What are the trends in the development of HVE? Answers for these questions focus on causes, effects, and trends of the development of HVE in China.

Causes. In order to supply a high-level skilled workforce demanded by a fast growing and more globally integrated economy, HVE has emerged and developed under the driving forces of politics, economic development, and education reform to build the country's overall strength in global competition since the early 1980s. In centralized China, politics play a decisive role in developing HVE through driving the construction of HVE-related policies to adhere to the political purpose of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. As the central focus of China's socialist modernization, the economy is also a core force driving the development of HVE through demands for a high-level skilled workforce. Education reform is fundamental to the development of HVE so HVE can become a means of supplying the high-level skilled workforce that accommodates both political and economic needs.

Effects. The development of HVE entails a trend of vocationalism, which is embodied in analyzed HVE-related policies. Valuing skills and high-level skilled manpower, vocationalism supports the development of HVE. Guided by this emphasis, the development of HVE has made a variety of contributions to Chinese higher education reform. First, the development of HVE has bridged the gap between higher education and workplaces by producing high-level skilled manpower. Second, human resources supplied by higher education have extended

from the solo academic model to both theoretical and practical models. Third, practice/skill-centered knowledge has been added to higher education curricula that have been dominated by academic knowledge. Fourth, cooperation between HVE institutions and industries has started to work in terms of specialization and curriculum design, funding, and graduate employment. Fifth, HVE teachers are required to have two qualities – teaching ability and practical ability. Sixth, HVE students are mainly prepared for employment not for transfer education.

Furthermore, the non-university sector of Chinese higher education has been enhanced with the development of HVE. Moreover, Chinese higher education has been transformed from elite higher education to mass higher education with quantitative growth of HVE at the beginning of the 2000s. The expansion has enhanced equal access opportunities in higher education.

However, China's HVE has been mainly dominated by a Confucian tradition, which values academic knowledge and theorists (government officials). Opposite to vocationalism, Confucianism resists the development of HVE. Conflicts between vocationalism and Confucianism have resulted in a variety of challenges facing HVE, which have led to education inequity by which HVE students are treated unequally in the whole process of study in HVE. From gaining access to HVE, to participating in HVE, and to succeeding in HVE, HVE students are treated unequally with the National College Entrance Examination focusing on academic knowledge, the hierarchical recruitment system, unreasonably high tuition, poor teaching conditions due to insufficient funding, insufficient two-quality teachers, narrow curriculum focusing on skill learning,

very limited transfer access to higher learning, and disadvantaged employment options.⁶

In this study, analysis and discussion of HVE-related policy documents indicate that challenges resulting from the conflicts between vocationalism and Confucianism have distracted HVE from focusing on vocational education. Consequently, the quantitative growth of HVE did not result in quantitative growth of the qualified high-level skilled manpower urgently demanded by economic and social development in China.

However, vocationalism values high-level skilled workers while Confucianism values government officials. In terms of equality, transforming Chinese people's view on careers from valuing officials to valuing all occupations indicates a positive change in Chinese society. This may be regarded as one more contribution that vocationalism can make to Chinese society at an ideological level.

Trends. There has been a clear trend indicating increasingly strong policy support for the development of HVE between 1980 and 2007, especially since 1996. This trend is reflected by the increasing numbers and increasingly intensified regulations of government policies regarding the development of HVE. Within this context, some other trends have emerged in the development of HVE. First, there has been a trend from a less clear to a more clear understanding of mission for HVE: supplying a high-level skilled workforce urgently needed by a fast growing economy. The increasingly clear understanding of the mission of

⁶ A version of this section has been published. Xiong 2010. *The International Journal of Learning*, 17(3): 421-436.

HVE and accompanying strong policy support have mutually enhanced the development of HVE. Second, in terms of structure, the trends of diversifying HVE institutions, shortening HVE programs, and prohibiting HVE institutions from upgrading to undergraduate institutions have emerged. Third, access to HVE embodies the trend of shifting from quantitative expansion to restrictions that ensure and improve the quality of HVE and the trend of diversifying student sources. Fourth, tuition at HVE institutions has experienced a trend from low tuition to high tuition with government financial support. Fifth, with a trend of increasing government support for cooperation between HVE institutions and industries in specialization and curriculum design, a utilitarian trend has emerged in terms of HVE curriculum design, by which practice/skill-centered knowledge has been overemphasized and humanities education has been ignored.

Another trend in HVE curriculum is that HVE must adhere to the leadership of the CPC in terms of moral/ideological education, by which HVE students are expected to contribute to the undertaking of building Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. Although economic development has been emphasized as the core mission of the country since the inception of economic reform and opening up in the late 1970s, the CPC has never given up ideology control via education at different levels. In other words, aiming at establishing a socialist market economy, it seems that neoliberalism has been well applied to economic fields in China. However, in order to avoid being totally westernized, China holds a distinct political ideology – Socialism with Chinese Characteristics. This ideology has permeated into all aspects of social life, especially education. In

terms of Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, the development of HVE is a process of building an HVE system with Chinese Characteristics. In such a system, most conducts have been reformed as what can be found in any Western systems, such as massification, marketization, competition, and privatization (Although they are not the focus of this study, private HVE institutions have emerged and are expected to be important in the composition of HVE in China). The Chinese characteristics of HVE mainly refer to the dominant political ideology exerted under the strong leadership of the CPC. Most HVE-related policies are made as responses to macro policies made by the Central Committee of the CPC. Furthermore, the strong leadership of the CPC has also been embodied in a dual internal governance system, which includes a powerful Party committee and a president at HVE institutions. With such a system, the socialist ideology is expected to be stressed and maintained. Moreover, students' socialist ideology has also been strengthened by curricula on political education at HVE institutions.

Sixth, a favorable work environment for HVE teachers is expected to be established so as to retain qualified teachers at HVE institutions. Seventh, with increasingly strong government policy support, cooperation between HVE institutions and industries is expected to improve HVE graduate employment rate. Eighth, a trend of recentralization of HVE funding and governance has emerged. Finally, strongly promoted by the central government, a trend of improving the lower social status of HVE has appeared.

The determination of the Chinese government in developing HVE is obviously indicated by HVE-related policies in recent years. Undoubtedly, the

government is playing the major role in leading the above trends in the development of HVE. The continuous development of HVE in the following decades will be strongly influenced by such vocationalist policies. Thus, there is a trend that vocationalism is going to be promoted continuously and forcefully by the government. The corollary is that vocationalism may replace Confucianism as the dominant ideology of HVE.

Recommendations

Concerning the realization of the political goal to build Socialism with Chinese Characteristics, to increase the supply of qualified human resources for the economy, and to establish an efficient higher education system so as to build the country's overall strength in global competition, China is determined to develop HVE to resolve the challenge of the severe shortage of a high-level skilled workforce. Therefore, it is necessary to consider how to efficiently avoid resistance to HVE in its continuous development in the following decade.

Recommendation one. Education is an important pathway to social equity. However, education inequity makes it hard, such as the inequity issues in China's HVE. In order to enhance education equity, government policy needs to consider inequity issues that may be brought about by vocationalism, such as terminal education and narrow skill learning when promoting the development of HVE. In order to avoid these inequity issues, positive elements of Confucianism need to be taken into account in HVE policymaking, such as the mechanism of upward mobility and humanities education. Moreover, the Chinese government needs to reform the hierarchical recruitment system to eliminate policy bias

against HVE in terms of higher education stratification. Additionally, tuition for HVE should be reduced to a reasonable level to enhance education equity.

Recommendation two.⁷ Since the absence of legitimacy at all levels (regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive) has been the major factor leading to a variety of old and new challenges facing HVE, the Chinese government should address such an issue in developing HVE in the following decade. First of all, policy support for HVE should be focused on fostering a supportive cultural environment that matches the development of HVE. Such a cultural environment will form the conformity to HVE-related laws, regulations, and policies. Furthermore, HVE-related policies should focus as much on trying to change work conditions in certain HVE-associated occupational areas as raising the quality of HVE so as to improve the disadvantaged work conditions of high-level skilled manpower and enhance competitive capacity of HVE graduates in employment markets. Moreover, while building 100 model vocational-and-technical colleges, the government should focus on implementing normative functions of industry and industrial associations and establishing a professional network among leaders of HVE institutions.

Recommendation three.⁸ Given the severe shortage of high-level skilled manpower and the limited upward mobility of HVE students, building an HVE system has been recommended as a solution by many researchers. In this system, HVE is addressed at different levels: the junior-college level, the undergraduate level, and the graduate level. While supplying high-level skilled manpower, this

⁷ A version of this section has been published. Xiong, 2008. *Minban Jiaoyu Yanjiu*, 6: 24-31, 107.

⁸ A version of this section has been published. Xiong 2010. *The International Journal of Learning*,

system is expected to enhance education equity by providing HVE students with more upward mobility. However, a major weakness is that the HVE system is independent from the regular higher education system. It is worth noting that the latter is more prestigious than the former in Chinese society. Thus, the disconnection between the two systems will result in more inequity issues. Moreover, it is hard to maintain reasonable ratios of students at different levels in the HVE system. Undoubtedly, such a system cannot efficiently solve the challenge of limited transfer access for HVE students except for generating more inequity issues.

Therefore, I propose that a more open HVE system rather than a stratified one needs to be taken into consideration with the continuous development of HVE. That is, to build an HVE system that communicates well with the regular higher education system. Thus, HVE students and students in regular higher education institutions can move freely from one system to another.

Recommendation four. In order to build the overall strength of HVE, the central government has allocated significant funds for 100 model HVE institutions. Indeed, before being selected as model HVE institutions, the 100 colleges were stronger than the vast majority (more than 900) of HVE institutions in terms of funding, recruiting, curriculum design, teaching conditions, and graduate employment. As model HVE institutions, these colleges can get more government funding and are becoming elite HVE institutions. This indicates that the stronger may become even stronger. In contrast, the majority of HVE

institutions may become weaker. Considering the negative impacts of the higher education hierarchy on the development of HVE, the emerging stratification in HVE may be dangerous for the sound development of HVE in the future.

In this study, analysis and discussion show that insufficient funding has been a key factor leading to the underdevelopment of most HVE institutions. The government should invest more money for non-model HVE institutions instead of elite HVE institutions. Thus, improving the overall strength of HVE may be possible.

Future Research

As an ongoing transition in higher education, the development of HVE embodies tremendous changes the country is undergoing in terms of politics, the economy, education systems, and cultural traditions. Being rarely addressed in comparative literature, China's HVE needs more attention from international researchers so HVE can benefit from relevant research. Findings of this study are encouraging me to continue my research on HVE. First, I am really interested in how the continuous development of HVE (vocationalism) influences social equity in China because the lower level and skill-learning focus of HVE may lead to social stratification. In order to achieve such a goal, I am planning to conduct empirical studies at some case HVE institutions in China in the next phase of my research. Furthermore, I am curious about how HVE-related policies have been implemented in practice. As a part of the grand project of HVE development, the 100 model HVE institutions have attracted my research interest as well. I would like to investigate how this project has been developed and implemented, what

effects the project will exert on the majority of HVE institutions, and if this project will work as the government expected. Moreover, I am also planning to investigate HVE policy and practice in developed countries such as Canada and the United States. I expect that my future research can provide helpful suggestions in building efficient higher education systems and enhancing social equity in HVE in China. All these indicate that my research will continually contribute to comparative studies on international higher education reform.

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Appendix A HVE-Related Policies (1980-1995)

1. 《关于加速发展高等教育的报告》(1983年4月28日)

Title: A Report on Accelerating the Development of Higher Education (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1983)

Source: Retrieved on December 19, 2007 from
<http://www.zzedu.gov.cn/article/120131/20044594255.htm>

为了贯彻党中央、国务院关于加速发展高等教育的指示精神，教育部最近先后与北京、上海、天津教育部门的负责同志及部分高等院校的负责同志交换了意见，尔后教育部同国家计委、财政部又进行了研究。现将我们的意见报告如下：

(一) 为了实现党的十二大提出的奋斗纲领，各条战线和各个地区都深感专门人才缺乏，迫切要求教育先行，为国家早出人才，多出人才。因此，加速发展高等教育事业，已成为刻不容缓的大事，必须采取有力措施，促使整个高等教育事业在近期（五年左右）就有计划按比例地有一个较大的发展，并为今后更大的发展打下基础。

考虑到我国国民经济正在继续贯彻“调整、改革、整顿、提高”方针，高等教育事业既要千方百计地克服困难加速发展，又要注意实际可能；要采取多种形式，开辟新的门路，调动各方面的积极性，继续贯彻“两条腿走路”的方针；要在扩大高等教育规模的过程中，根据国家四化建设的需要，调整改革高等教育内部结构，增加专科和短线专业的比重；要分层次规定不同的质量要求，同时抓紧重点学校和重点专业的建设；要把今后四、五年的发展，加以统筹规划，全面安排，使招生人数持续上升，防止大起大落，造成困难和浪费。

根据上述原则，经我们初步测算，一九八三年到一九八七年高等教育事业的发展计划和设想如下：

第一，五年内全日制高等学校年度招生人数，由一九八二年的三十一万五千人，增加到一九八七年的五十五万人，增长75%，一九八七年的在校学生数将增加到一百七十六万人，比一九八二年的一百一十五万三千人增长53%，平均每年增加在校生十二万一千人。今年的招生人数拟安排三十六万人，比一九八二年增加四万五千人，增长14%，在实际执行时，还应力争多招一些。

第二，采用其他形式举办的高等教育，如广播电视大学、函授大学、夜大学、厂办职工大学、县办农民大学、管理干部学院、教育或教师进修学院等，要在注重质量的原则下更快地发展。初步设想：招生人数由一九八二年的二十九万人增加到一九八七年的一百一十万人，增长二点八倍。在校学生数由一九八二年的六十四万人增加到一九八七年的二百三十七万人，增长二点七倍。

考虑到目前高等院校中，专科学生较少，而各方面所需要的专门人才中又急需补充专科毕业生。因此，各类高等院校所增加的招生任务，特别是工科主要应招收专科学生。

(二) 实现上述设想，拟采取以下的途径和措施：

第一，充分发挥现有高等学校，特别是老校的潜力。一方面要根据需要尽可能再多招些学生，有条件的本科院校，要办些专科；另一方面可以分出一批教师和干部，采取“下蛋”办法，举办分校或夜大学。这种分校不只在高等学校集中的大城市办，还应帮助教育基础差的外地城市办，以办专科为主。从今年招收的新生开始，凡家在学校所在城市，离学校不太远的，一律实行走读。城建、商业、交通等部门，要想方设法为走读生提供方便。同时，对住校生要酌收住宿费，助学金制度要改为奖学金和助学金相结合的制度。被其他单位占用的校舍，由院校主管部门出面召集有关单位研究、签订退还校舍的协议，逐步实施。

第二，积极提倡大城市、经济发展较快的中等城市和大企业举办高等专科学校和短期职业大学，为本地区、本单位培养人才，办学方式，可以单独办，也可以与有基础的院校

合办。此外，还要鼓励民主党派、群众团体和爱国人士举办这类学校。为了提高办学的投资效益和人才质量，院校规模不宜过小。这类学校一般应酌收学费、实行走读、毕业生择优录用。今后成立高等专科学校和短期职业大学以及其他各类短学制的院校，分别由主管的省、自治区、直辖市人民政府和中央各部委按规定的办学标准和审批程序审批，报教育部、国家计委备案。为此，各省、自治区、直辖市和中央各部委要加强本地区、本部门的人才预测工作和高等学校管理工作。地市机构合并后的多余的房屋要优先用于教育。

第三，大力发展广播电视大学、函授大学、夜大学，扩大招生规模，加强国家急需的专业。百万人口以上的大城市，要逐步成立教育电视台，增加财经、政法和应用文科等科类的专业。

第四，目前，中等专业学校招生过少，有些学校欠招较多，以致高等、中等专业人才比例失调。为了改善人才结构，有关部门要采取措施，积极发展中等专业教育，增加中专招生人数。本系统、本地区招生任务不足的，可以采取接受委托培养等办法，以发挥潜力。中等专业学校一般不宜改为高等专科学校，但中等专业学校连续招有大专班学生，质量又确有保证的，可以继续办好大专班。

第五，根据需求和可能，并按照上述原则，有计划地适当新建一些全日制高等院校。

（三）考虑到国家当前的实际困难，本着尽可能挖潜力，又要增加必要的投资和人力精神，我们初步计算，五年内高等教育（不包括研究生、留学生等）需增加的办学条件如下：

第一，在一九八二年高等事业费约二十二亿元的基础上，经与财政部商议，“六五”后三年在原定“六五”计划的基础上共追加三亿元，一九八六和一九八七年的数字另行商定。

第二，在一九八二年高教基建投资九亿五千万万元的基础上，每年平均增加二点五亿元，五年共计增加十二亿五千万万元。其中“六五”后三年在原定“六五”计划基础上共追加六亿元。

上述所需事业费和基建投资，建议分别在“六五”计划中追加和列入“七五”计划，并作为国家重点建设项目加以保证。中央部门的院校所需经费和投资，由国家计委、财政部负责安排，地方的院校所需经费和投资，由省、市、自治区统筹解决，并注意不影响普教和职业教育的发展。

第三，为了促进重点院校、重点专业的建设，争取在下一阶段的世界银行贷款中使大学建设的贷款额比过去有较多的增加。

第四，高等学校急需增加的基础课教师，首先在现有院校教师中调剂，确实不足的，国家计委适当分配一些今年毕业的大学生、研究生。

（四）为了推动落实高等教育的加速发展，需要各省、自治区、直辖市和中央各部委一齐动员起来。我们建议由国务院批准上述安排，通知各省、自治区、直辖市和国务院各部门，请他们参照上述意见，结合本地区、本部门的实际情况，提出一九八三年到一九八五年扩大高等教育规模的方案，五月上旬报国家计委和教育部，由国家计委、教育部综合平衡后，尽快确定今年追加的招生数，以便同原定招生计划一道安排招生，并抓紧明年增加招生的准备工作。

以上报告当否，请批示。

2. 《关于教育体制改革的决定》（1985年5月27日）

Title: Resolution on Reforming the Educational System (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985)

Source: Retrieved on December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/level3.jsp?tablename=208&infoid=3318>

一、教育体制改革的根本目的是提高民族素质，多出人才、出好人才

党的十二届三中全会关于经济体制改革的决定，为我国社会生产力的大发展、为我国社会主义物质文明和精神文明的大提高，开辟了广阔的道路。今后事情成败的一个重要关键在于人才，而要解决人才问题，就必须使教育事业在经济发展的基础上有一个大的发展。

教育必须为社会主义建设服务，社会主义建设必须依靠教育。社会主义现代化建设的宏伟任务，要求我们不但必须放手使用和提高现有的人才，而且必须极大地提高全党对教育工作的认识，面向现代化、面向世界、面向未来，为九十年代以至下世纪初叶我国经济和社会的发展，大规模地准备新的能够坚持社会主义方向的各级各类合格人才。要造就数以亿计的工业、农业、商业等各行各业有文化、懂技术、业务熟练的劳动者。要造就数以千万计的具有现代科学技术和经营管理知识，具有开拓能力的厂长、经理、工程师、农艺师、经济师、会计师、统计师和其他经济、技术工作人员。还要造就数以千万计的能够适应现代科学文化发展和新技术革命要求的教育工作者、科学工作者、医务工作者、理论工作者、文化工作者、新闻和新闻出版工作者、法律工作者、外事工作者、军事工作者和各方面党政工作者。所有这些人才，都应该有理想、有道德、有文化、有纪律，热爱社会主义祖国和社会主义事业，具有为国家富强和人民富裕而艰苦奋斗的献身精神，都应该不断追求新知，具有实事求是、独立思考、勇于创造的科学精神。这就向我国教育事业的发展和体制的改革，提出了伟大而又艰巨的任务。

建国以来，我国教育事业的发展走过了曲折的道路。经过解放初期的接管改造和以高等学校院系调整为中心的教育改革，我们把旧中国的半殖民地半封建教育事业转变成成为社会主义教育事业。三十几年来，依靠广大教育工作者的辛勤努力，教育事业取得了中国历史上从来没有过的巨大的发展，成绩是显著的。今天战斗在我国各条战线上的广大有文化的劳动者和各方面工作的骨干力量，绝大部分都是建国以后培养出来的。但是，另一方面，从五十年代后期开始，由于全党工作重点一直没有转移到经济建设上来，由于“阶级斗争为纲”的“左”的思想的影响，教育事业不但长期没有放到应有的重要地位，而且受到“左”的政治运动的频繁冲击。“文化大革命”更使这种“左”的错误走到否定知识、取消教育的极端，从而使教育事业遭到严重破坏，广大教育工作者遭受严重摧残，耽误了整整一代青少年的成长，并且使我国教育事业同世界发达国家之间在许多方面本来已经缩小的差距又拉大起来。

十一届三中全会以后，经过指导思想的拨乱反正，党中央对教育工作做出了一系列新的论断和决策，我国教育事业得到了恢复，开始走上了蓬勃发展的道路。但是，轻视教育、轻视知识、轻视人才的错误思想仍然存在，教育工作方面的“左”的思想影响还没有完全克服，教育工作不适应社会主义现代化建设需要的局面还没有根本扭转。特别是面对着我国对外开放、对内搞活，经济体制改革全面展开的形势，面对着世界范围的新技术革命正在兴起的形势，我国教育事业的落后和教育体制的弊端就更加突出了。现在的主要问题是：

（一）在教育事业管理权限的划分上，政府有关部门对学校主要是对高等学校统得过死，使学校缺乏应有的活力；而政府应该加以管理的事情，又没有很好地管起来。

（二）在教育结构上，基础教育薄弱，学校数量不足、质量不高、合格的师资和必要的设备严重缺乏，经济建设大量急需的职业和技术教育没有得到应有的发展，高等教育内部的科系、层次比例失调。

（三）在教育思想、教育内容、教育方法上，从小培养学生独立生活和思考的能力很不够，发扬立志为祖国富强而献身的精神很不够，生动活泼地用马克思主义思想教育学生很不够，不少课程内容陈旧，教学方法死板，实践环节不被重视，专业设置过于狭窄，不同程度地脱离了经济和社会发展的需要，落后于当代科学文化的发展。

中央认为，要从根本上改变这种状况，必须从教育体制入手，有系统地进行改革。改革管理体制，在加强宏观管理的同时，坚决实行简政放权，扩大学校的办学自主权；调整教育结构，相应地改革劳动人事制度。还要改革同社会主义现代化不相适应的教育思想、教育内容、教育方法。经过改革，要开创教育工作的新局面，使基础教育得到切实的加强，职业技术教育得到广泛的发展，高等学校的潜力和活力得到充分的发挥，学校教育和学校外、学校后的教育并举，各级各类教育能够主动适应经济和社会发展的多方面需要。

发展教育事业不增加投资是不行的。在今后一定时期内，中央和地方政府的财政拨款的增长要高于财政经常性收入的增长，并使按在校学生人数平均的教育费用逐步增长。现在，各级都有一些领导干部，宁肯把钱花在并非必要的方面，对于各种严重浪费也不感到痛心，唯独不肯为发展教育而花一点钱，这种状况必须改变。但是同时必须认识，国家对教育的投资毕竟要受经济发展水平的制约，当前办学经费困难和教师待遇较低的状况只能逐步改善。因此，现在的问题就是如何在有限的财力物力条件下，把教育搞上去，满足社会主义现代化建设的迫切需要。这就要求我们通过改革来更好地调动各级政府、广大师生员工和社会各方面的积极性，团结一致，同心同德，多想办法，发挥各方面的潜力，使教育事业一年比一年更好地向前发展。要下真功夫，才能做到这一点。全党同志和全国人民应该为此而努力。

二、把发展基础教育的责任交给地方，有步骤地实行九年制义务教育

实行九年制义务教育，实行基础教育由地方负责、分级管理的原则，是发展我国教育事业、改革我国教育体制的基础一环。义务教育，即依法律规定适龄儿童和青少年都必须接受，国家、社会、家庭必须予以保证的国民教育，为现代生产发展和现代社会生活所必需，是现代文明的一个标志。我国基础教育还很落后，这同我国人民建设富强、民主、文明的现代化社会主义国家的迫切要求之间，存在着尖锐矛盾，决不能任其继续。现在，我们完全有必要也有可能把实行九年制义务教育当作关系民族素质提高和国家兴旺发达的一件大事，突出地提出来，动员全党、全社会和全国各族人民，用最大的努力，积极地、有步骤地予以实施。为此，需要制订义务教育法，经全国人民代表大会审议通过后颁行。

由于我国幅员广大，经济文化发展很不平衡，义务教育的要求和内容应该因地制宜，有所不同。全国可以大致划分为三类地区：

一是约占全国人口 1/4 的城市、沿海各省中的经济发达地区和内地少数发达地区。在这类地区，相当一部分已经普及初级中学，其余部分应该抓紧按质按量普及初级中学，在 1990 年左右完成。

二是约占全国人口一半的中等发展程度的镇和农村。在这类地区，首先抓紧按质按量普及小学教育，同时积极准备条件。在 1995 年左右普及初中阶段的普通教育或职业和技术教育。

三是约占全国人口 1/4 的经济落后地区。在这类地区，要随着经济的发展，采取各种形式积极进行不同程度的普及基础教育工作。对这类地区教育的发展，国家尽力给予支援。

国家还要帮助少数民族地区加速发展教育事业。

地方各级人民代表大会根据本地区的情况，制订本地区的义务教育条例，确定本地区推行九年制义务教育的步骤、办法和年限。

在实行九年制义务教育的同时，还要努力发展幼儿教育，发展盲、聋、哑、残人和弱智儿童的特殊教育。

建立一支有足够数量的、合格而稳定的师资队伍，是实行义务教育、提高基础教育水平的根本大计。为此，要采取特定的措施提高中小学教师和幼儿教师的社会地位和生活待遇，鼓励他们终身从事教育事业。与此同时，必须对现有的教师进行认真的培训和考核，把发展师范教育和培训在职教师作为发展教育事业的战略措施。要大力提倡和鼓励教师密切结合教学进行自学和互教；要为在职教师举办函授和广播电视讲座；要切实办好教师进修院校，并且利用现有设施，分期分批轮训教师；还要有计划地动员、挑选和组织高等学校的一部分教员和高年级学生、研究机构的一部分研究人员和党政机关的一部分具备条件的干部，参加帮助培训中小学教师的工作。总之，要争取在 5 年或者更长一点的时间内使绝大多数教师能够胜任教学工作。在此之后，只有具备合格学历或有考核合格证书的，才能担任教师。从幼儿师范到高等师范的各级师范教育，都必须大力发展和加强。师范院校要坚持为初等和中等教育服务的办学思想，毕业生都要分配到学校任教，其他高等学校毕业生也应有一部分分配到学校任教。任何机关、单位不得抽调中小学合格教师改任其他工作。

基础教育管理权属于地方。除大政方针和宏观规划由中央决定外，具体政策、制度、计划的制定和实施，以及对学校的领导、管理和检查，责任和权力都交给地方。省、市（地）、县、乡分级管理的职责如何划分，由省、自治区、直辖市决定。为了保证地方发展教育事业，除了国家拨款以外，地方机动财力中应有适当比例用于教育，乡财政收入应主要用于教育。地方可以征收教育费附加，此项收入首先用于改善基础教育的教学设施，不得挪作他用。地方要鼓励和指导国营企业、社会团体和个人办学，并在自愿的基础上，鼓励单位、集体和个人捐资助学，但不得强迫摊派。同时严格控制各方面向学校征收费用，减轻学校的经济负担。

三、调整中等教育结构，大力发展职业技术教育

社会主义现代化建设不但需要高级科学技术专家，而且迫切需要千百万受过良好职业技术教育的中、初级技术人员、管理人员、技工和其他受过良好职业培训的城乡劳动者。没有这样一支劳动技术大军，先进的科学技术和先进的设备就不能成为现实的社会生产力。但是，职业技术教育恰恰是当前我国整个教育事业最薄弱的环节。一定要采取切实有效的措施改变这种状况，力争职业技术教育有一个大的发展。

职业技术教育问题已经强调多年，局面没有真正打开，重要原因在于长期以来对就业者的政治文化技术准备缺乏应有的要求，在于历史遗留的鄙薄职业技术教育的陈腐观念根深蒂固。因此，要在全党和全社会进行教育，树立行行光荣、行行出状元的观念，树立劳动就业必须有一定的政治、文化和技能准备的观念，并且在改革教育体制的同时改革有关的劳动人事制度，实行“先培训，后就业”的原则。今后各单位招工，必须首先从各种职业技术学校毕业生中择优录取。一切从业人员，首先是专业性技术性较强行业的从业人员，都要像汽车司机经过考试合格取得驾驶证才许开车那样，必须取得考核合格证书才能走上工作岗位。有关部门应该制定法规，逐步实行这种制度。

根据大力发展职业技术教育的要求,我国广大青少年一般应从中学阶段开始分流:初中毕业生一部分升入普通高中,一部分接受高中阶段的职业技术教育;高中毕业生一部分升入普通大学,一部分接受高等职业技术教育。在小学毕业后接受过初中阶段的职业技术教育的,可以就业,也可以升学。凡是没有升入普通高中、普通大学和职业技术学校的学生,可以经过短期职业技术培训,然后就业。要充分发掘现有中等专业学校和技工学校的潜力,扩大招生,并且有计划地将一批普通高中改为职业高中,或者增设职业班,加上新办的这类学校,力争在5年左右,使大多数地区的各类高中阶段的职业技术学校招生数相当于普通高中的招生数,扭转目前中等教育结构不合理的状况。

发展职业技术教育要以中等职业技术教育为重点,发挥中等专业学校的骨干作用,同时积极发展高等职业技术学院,优先对口招收中等职业技术学校毕业生以及有本专业实践经验、成绩合格的在职人员入学,逐步建立起一个从初级到高级、行业配套、结构合理又能与普通教育相互沟通的职业技术教育体系。

中等职业技术教育要同经济和社会发展的需要密切结合起来,在城市要适应提高企业的技术、管理水平和发展第三产业的需要,在农村要适应调整产业结构和农民劳动致富的需要。要着重职业技能的训练,训练的范围不要太窄,基础教育也要适当配合,以适应长期广泛就业、进行技术革新和继续进修的需要;同时还 要重视职业道德和职业纪律的教育。

发展职业技术教育,要充分调动企事业单位和业务部门的积极性,并且鼓励集体、个人和其他社会力量办学。要提倡各单位和部门自办、联办或与教育部门合办各种职业技术学校。这些学校除了为本单位和部门培训人才外,还可以接受委托为其他单位培训人才并招收自费学生。

师资严重不足,是当前发展中等职业技术教育的突出矛盾。各单位和部门办的学校,要首先依靠自身力量解决专业技术师资问题,同时可以聘请外单位的教师、科学技术人员兼任教师,还可以请专业技师、能工巧匠来传授技艺。要建立若干职业技术师范院校,有关大专院校、研究机构都要担负培训职业技术教育师资的任务,使专业师资有一个稳定的来源。中等职业技术教育主要由地方负责。中央各部门办的这类学校,地方也要予以协调和配合。

四、改革高等学校的招生计划和毕业生分配制度,扩大高等学校办学自主权

高等学校担负着培养高级专门人才和发展科学技术文化的重大任务。我国高等教育发展的战略目标是:到本世纪末,建成科类齐全,层次、比例合理的体系,总规模达到与我国经济实力相当的水平;高级专门人才的培养基本上立足于国内;能自主地进行科学技术开发和解决社会主义现代化建设中重大理论问题和实际问题作出较大贡献。为了实现这个目标,当前高等教育体制改革的关键,就是改变政府对高等学校统得过多的管理体制。在国家统一的教育方针和计划的指导下,扩大高等学校的办学自主权,加强高等学校同生产、科研和社会其他各方面的联系,使高等学校具有主动适应经济和社会发展需要的积极性和能力。

要改革大学招生的计划制度和毕业生分配制度。改变高等学校全部按国家计划统一招生,毕业生全部由国家包下来分配的办法,实行以下三种办法:

(一)国家计划招生。要做好发展高等教育的总体规划和人才需求的中长期预测,切实改进招生计划工作,努力克服招生计划同国家远期和近期需要脱节的状况。这部分学生的毕业分配,实行在国家计划指导下,由本人填报志愿、学校推荐、用人单位择优录用的制度。为了保证边远地区及工作环境比较艰苦的行业能分配到一定数量的毕业生,应按国

家招生计划的一定比例实行定向招生，到这些地方工作的毕业生待遇从优。为了保证国防的需要，要为人民解放军培养一定数量的毕业生。

（二）用人单位委托招生。为了鼓励学校挖掘潜力多招学生，为了更好地满足社会对人才的需求，近年来行之有效的用人单位委托学校培养学生的制度，要继续推行和逐步扩大，使之成为国家招生计划的重要补充。委托单位要按议定的合同向学校交纳一定数量的培养费，毕业生应按合同规定到委托单位工作。

（三）还可以在国家计划外招收少数自费生。学生应交纳一定数量的培养费，毕业后可以由学校推荐就业，也可以自谋职业。

不论哪类学生，都必须经过国家考试合格，由学校录取。

要改革人民助学金制度。师范和一些毕业后工作环境特别艰苦的专业的学生，国家供给膳宿并免收学杂费。对学习成绩优异的学生实行奖学金制度，对确有经济困难的学生给以必要的补助。现已在校的学生，仍按原来的规定办理。

要扩大高等学校的办学自主权。在执行国家的政策、法令、计划的前提下，高等学校有权在计划外接受委托培养学生和招收自费生；有权调整专业的服务方向，制订教学计划和教学大纲，编写和选用教材；有权接受委托或与外单位合作，进行科学研究和技术开发，建立教学、科研、生产联合体；有权提名任免副校长和任免其他各级干部；有权具体安排国家拨发的基建投资和经费；有权利用自筹资金，开展国际的教育和学术交流，等等。对不同的高等学校，国家还可以根据情况，赋予其他的权力。与此同时，国家及其教育管理部门要加强对高等教育的宏观指导和管理。教育管理部门还要组织教育界、知识界和用人单位定期对高等学校的办学水平进行评估，对成绩卓著的学校给予荣誉和物质上的重点支持，办得不好的学校要整顿以至停办。

为了调动各级政府办学的积极性，实行中央、省（自治区、直辖市）、中心城市三级办学的体制。中央部门和地方办的高等学校，要优先满足主办部门和地方培养人才的需要，同时要发挥潜力，接受委托，为其他部门和单位培养学生，积极倡导部门、地方之间的联合办学。

高等教育的结构，要根据经济建设、社会发展和科技进步的需要进行调整和改革。改变高等教育科类比例不合理的状况，加快财经、政法、管理等类薄弱系科和专业的发展，扶持新兴、边缘学科的成长。改变专科、本科比例不合理的状况，着重加快高等专科教育的发展。大学本科主要通过改革、扩建和各种形式的联合，充分发挥潜力，近期内一般不建新校。

要根据中央关于科学技术体制改革的决定，发挥高等学校学科门类比较齐全，拥有众多教师、研究生和高年级学生的优势，使高等学校在发展科学技术方面做出更大贡献。为了增强科学研究的能力，培养高质量的专门人才，要改进和完善研究生培养制度，并且根据同行评议、择优扶植的原则，有计划地建设一批重点学科。重点学科比较集中的学校，将自然形成既是教育中心，又是科学研究中心。

在高等教育体制改革的同时，按照理论联系实际的原则，在辩证唯物主义和历史唯物主义的思想指导下，改革教学内容，教学方法、教学制度，提高教学质量，是一项十分重要而迫切的任务。要针对现存的弊端，积极进行教学改革的各种试验，例如改变专业过于狭窄的状况，精简和更新教学内容，增加实践环节，减少必修课，增加选修课，实行学分制和双学位制，增加自学时间和课外学习活动，有指导地开展勤工助学活动等等。为了提高教师的教学和学术水平，有条件的学校，教学任务较重的副教授以上的教师今后每5年

中应有1年时间供他们专门用来进修、从事科学研究和进行学术交流。要尽可能改善教学的物质条件,增添现代化的教学手段,更新和充实实验室、图书馆。

高等学校后勤服务工作的改革,对于保证教育改革的顺利进行,极为重要。改革的方向是实行社会化。学校所在地方的党政领导机关要把解决好这个问题的责任担当起来。

五、加强领导,调动各方面积极因素,保证教育体制改革的顺利进行

在教育体制改革中,必须尊重教育工作的规律和特点,坚持实事求是,一切从实际出发。大政方针必须集中统一,具体办法应该灵活多样,决不可一哄而起,强制推行。改革既要坚决,又要谨慎,注重试验。涉及全局和广大范围的改革措施,要经上级批准。在整个教育体制改革的过程中,必须牢牢记住改革的根本目的是提高民族素质,多出人才、出好人才。衡量任何学校工作的根本标准不是经济收益的多少,而是培养人才的数量和质量。紧紧掌握这一条,改革就不会迷失方向。

为了加强党和政府对教育工作的领导,成立国家教育委员会负责掌握教育的大政方针,统筹整个教育事业的发展,协调各部门有关教育的工作,统一部署和指导教育体制的改革。在简政放权的同时,必须加强教育立法工作。今后地方发展教育事业的权力和责任更大了,各级党委和政府都要按照党的十二大的决策,把教育摆到战略重点的地位,把发展教育事业作为自己的主要任务之一,上级考查下级都要以此作为考绩的主要内容之一。应该特别提出,农村实行农业生产责任制以后,党的农村基层组织应该把更多的精力放到党员和群众的思想政治教育和文化技术教育上来,放到办好本村本乡的教育事业上来。中央认为,在新的经济和教育体制之下,各地将有充分的可能发挥自己的经济和文化潜力,加快教育事业的发展。不仅要承认全国各省市之间经济文化发展的不平衡性,而且要承认在一个省、一个市、一个县范围内的发展也是不平衡的,所以必须鼓励一部分地区先发展起来,同时鼓励先发展起来的地区帮助后进地区,达到共同的提高。

改革教育体制要调动各方面的积极性,最重要的是要调动教师的积极性。我国已有近千万人的教师队伍,长时间来,他们中的绝大多数人,无论生活如何清苦,无论经历什么政治风雨,都始终不渝地坚信党、热爱社会主义祖国、忠于人民的教育事业,不愧为人师表。在教育体制改革中,必须紧紧地依靠教师,认真听取他们的意见,充分发挥他们的作用,有关学校自身的重大改革都必须经过教师充分讨论。随着国民经济的发展和国家财力的增强,各级政府和有关部门今后每年都要为教师切实地解决一些问题。要在全社会范围内,大力树立和发扬尊重各级各类教师的良好风尚,使教师工作成为最受人尊重的职业之一。在改革中还要充分注意调动学校思想政治工作人员、行政管理人员、后勤工作人员和其他工作人员的积极性。要根据他们的劳绩和贡献,给予合理的待遇和应有的鼓励。

学校逐步实行校长负责制,有条件的学校要设立由校长主持的、人数不多的、有威信的校务委员会,作为审议机构。要建立和健全以教师为主体的教职工代表大会制度,加强民主管理和民主监督。学校中的党组织要从过去那种包揽一切的状态中解脱出来,把自己的精力集中到加强党的建设和加强思想政治工作上来;要团结广大师生,大力支持校长履行职权,保证和监督党的各项方针政策的落实和国家教育计划的实现;要坚持用马克思主义教育广大师生,激励他们立志为祖国的富强奋勇进取、建功立业,保证学生德智体的全面发展,使学校真正成为抵御资本主义和其他腐朽思想的侵蚀,建设社会主义精神文明的坚强阵地。

要动员和教育全党、全社会和全国人民关心和支持教育体制改革,发展教育事业。鼓励各民主党派、人民团体、社会组织、离休退休干部和知识分子、集体经济单位和个人,遵照党和政府的方针政策,采取多种形式和办法,积极地自愿地为发展教育贡献力量。

教育体制改革要总结我们自己历史的和现实的经验，同时也要注意借鉴国外发展教育事业的正反两方面的经验。特别是在新技术革命条件下，一系列新的科学技术成果的产生，新的科学技术领域的开辟，以及新的信息传递手段和认识工具的出现，对教育产生了重大的影响，发达国家在这方面的经验尤其值得注意。要通过各种可能的途径，加强对外交流，使我们的教育事业建立在当代世界文明成果的基础之上。

本决定着重解决的是学校教育体制改革的问题。有关干部、职工、农民的成人教育和广播电视教育是我国教育事业极为重要的组成部分，国家教育委员会应就改进和加强这方面工作，作出专门的决定。

军事系统学校的改革问题，由中央军委决定。

中央相信，只要各级党委和政府加强领导，坚持正确方针，经过全党、全社会和全国各族人民的共同努力，教育体制改革必将获得成功，具有中国特色的社会主义教育事业必将空前繁荣，从而强有力地推动我国的社会主义现代化建设，把全民族的文化科学素质和精神境界提高到一个崭新的水平。

3. 《关于加强普通高等专科教育工作的意见》(1991年1月6日)

Title: Advice on Enhancing Regular Junior College Education (The Ministry of Education, 1991)

Source: Retrieved on December 19, 2007 from

<http://law.chinalawinfo.com/newlaw2002/SLC/slc.asp?db=chl&gid=41734>

党的十一届三中全会以来,特别是1983年全国高等教育工作会议之后,我国普通高等专科教育事业有了很大发展,为社会主义建设事业培养了大批急需的专门人才,也使高等教育中长期存在的本科与专科学学生比例不合理的状况有了明显的改变。但是,由于历史的、现实的种种原因,普通高等专科教育事业的现状还不能适应我国社会主义现代化建设发展的需要,面临着一些困难和问题,仍然是高等教育体系中比较薄弱的部分。为此,特对加强普通高等专科教育(不含师专)工作提出如下意见。

一、普通高等专科教育是在普通高中教育基础上进行的专业教育,培养能够坚持社会主义道路、适应基层部门和企事业单位生产工作第一线需要的、德智体诸方面都得到发展的高等应用性专门人才。它同本科教育、研究生教育一样,都是我国普通高等教育体系中不可缺少的重要组成部分。

普通高等工程专科教育的毕业生,主要去工业、工程第一线,从事制造、施工、运行、维修、测试等方面的工艺、技术和管理工作。

普通高等农林专科教育的毕业生,主要去农林生产第一线、社会化服务系统和生产管理部门,从事农林技术推广应用和生产管理工作。

普通高等医学专科教育的毕业生,主要去县乡、厂矿等基层医疗卫生机构,从事常见病、多发病的预防、医疗和初级保健工作。

普通高等财经专科教育的毕业生,主要去基层财经管理部门和企事业单位,从事财经管理工作。

普通高等政法专科教育的毕业生,主要去基层政法部门和企事业单位,从事法律事务方面的工作。

普通高等文科专科教育的毕业生,主要去基层部门和企事业单位,从事文秘等方面的工作。

二、我国经济建设和社会发展(尤其是广大农村)需要普通高等专科教育培养大批高等应用性专门人才。当前在经济治理整顿时期国家控制高校总招生规模的情况下,普通高等专科教育要基本稳定规模,把工作的重点放在改善办学条件,深化改革,提高教育质量上。近五年的后期,某些科类的普通高等专科教育可根据实际需要有适当发展。

近十年来,成人高等学历教育发展很快,并取得了很大成绩。但一些地方存在着与建设需要脱节,办学条件较差,必要的教学环节不够配套,培养质量得不到保证的问题。成人教育要根据建设需要和保证质量的原则加以逐步调整,有些方面要适当压缩高等专科学历教育的规模。电视大学、函授教育等各种远距离教育形式,要发挥自己的特点,调整所设专业,对实验、实践教学环节要求较多又无法保证质量、社会不急需的应用性科类专业要适当压缩。

三、各类普通高等专科学校都要根据国家的需要,安于其位,努力办好专科教育,为社会主义现代化建设做出自己应有的贡献。

为了消除各类普通高等专科学校在校名方面存在的混乱现象,使之规范化,根据国务院《普通高等学校设置暂行条例》,要对现有的学校名称进行整顿。今后,各类普通高等专科学校,一般情况下都应称为某某“高等专科学校”。各教育主管部门将所属普通高等专科学校拟启用的名称于1991年9月底以前重新核定并报国家教委,审批公布后正式启用;凡没有达到《普通高等学校设置暂行条例》中高等专科学校标准的,不予公布,并对学校继续进行整顿。

四、现有独立设置的普通高等专科学校是专科教育的骨干，要在努力改善现有办学条件的基础上，把工作的着重点，放到办出专科和本校特色，提高教育质量上来。

现有大多数短期职业大学在服务对象、专业设置、培养目标、培养模式、毕业生去向等方面与普通高等专科学校区别甚微，实际上是由地方举办的综合性高等专科学校。办学部门应根据本地区经济建设和社会发展的实际需要，认真研究这些学校的办学方向。一部分应办成以培养高级技艺性人才为目标的高等职业教育；一部分根据需要，经过上级主管部门审定并报国家教委批准，可以明确为普通高等专科学校。不论哪一部分学校，都要切实改善办学条件，确保教育质量。

本科院校举办普通专科专业要经过上级主管部门批准。学校必须认真研究所办专科专业在培养目标、培养模式、教学方针、教学内容等方面与本科专业的重大区别，遵循专科教育的规律，精心制订教学计划，认真组织教学活动，大力加强实践教学环节，加强理论与实际的联系，培养合格的专科人才。那种把不合格的本科生转为专科生处理的办法是不当的，必须中止。

五、各类普通高等专科教育都必须坚持社会主义的办学方向，认真贯彻执行教育为社会主义建设服务、与生产劳动相结合、德智体诸方面都得到发展的方针，始终把坚定正确的政治方向放在学校一切工作的首位，把培养社会主义建设者和接班人作为根本任务。

要把坚持四项基本原则、坚持改革开放、反对资产阶级自由化作为德育的首要要求，并坚持不懈地向学生进行爱国主义、社会主义、集体主义和自力更生、艰苦奋斗的思想教育及革命传统教育。要积极引导学生走与工农相结合的道路，增进对国情的了解、解决好为谁服务的问题，培养学生树立起面向基层、服务基层，向群众学习、向实践学习和踏实、实干的思想作风。……

4. 《关于大力发展职业技术教育的决定》(1991年10月17日)

Title: Resolution on Energetically Developing Vocational and Technical Education (The State Council, 1991)

Source: Retrieved December 15, 2007 from <http://www.edu.cn/20010907/3000630.shtml>

党的十三届七中全会再次提出要大力发展职业技术教育,为了认真贯彻落实这一决策,特做如下决定

一、高度重视职业技术教育的战略地位和作用

九十年代是我国社会主义现代化建设非常关键的十年。进一步发展教育事业,推动科技进步是实现第二步战略目标并为下世纪经济和社会发展奠定基础的迫切需要。职业技术教育的规模和水平影响着产品质量、经济效益和发展速度。发展职业技术教育,不仅是提高劳动者思想道德和科学文化素质、实现社会主义现代化的一项具有战略意义的基础建设,而且对于进一步巩固以工人阶级为领导的工农联盟为基础的社会主义制度具有特殊重要的意义。因此,必须坚定不移地把教育事业摆在优先发展的战略地位,必须高度重视和大力发展职业技术教育。

党的十一届三中全会以来,特别是《中共中央关于教育体制改革的决定》公布以来,我国的职业技术教育有了很大发展。到一九九零年底,各类职业技术学校已发展到一万六千多所,在校生超过六百万人,同时全国建有就业训练中心二千一百余所,每年培训待业人员九十多万人;高中阶段各类职业技术学校和普通高中的招生数之比已接近一比一,中等教育结构单一的状况有了较大改变。

但是,目前我国的职业技术教育无论规模、规格和质量都还不能适应经济建设和社会发展的需要,在整个教育事业中仍然是很薄弱的环节。社会上乃至一些部门和地方的领导中还存在着鄙薄职业技术教育的现象;职业技术教育的有关法规和配套政策不健全,管理体制尚待进一步理顺,资金投入不足,办学条件差,支持职业技术教育发展的服务体系很薄弱;教育内部的改革和建设亟需加强,高水平的示范性骨干学校数量还太少,职业技术教育的专业设置和专业结构有些方面与社会需要结合得不够紧密等。这些困难和问题亟待认真研究解决。

因此,国务院要求各级政府和有关部门、广大教育工作者及社会各方面,从国家的全局和民族的未来出发,进一步提高对职业技术教育战略地位和作用的认识,采取有力的措施,齐心协力地大力发展职业技术教育。

二、积极贯彻大力发展职业技术教育的方针

(一)根据未来十年我国经济、社会发展的需要,在九十年代要逐步做到:使大多数新增劳动力基本上能够受到适应从业岗位需要的最基本的职业技术训练,在一些专业性技术性要求较高的劳动岗位,就业者能较普遍地受到系统的严格的职业技术教育;初步建立起有中国特色的,从初级到高级、行业配套、结构合理、形式多样,又能与其他教育相互沟通、协调发展的职业技术教育体系的基本框架。

(二)九十年代发展职业技术教育的主要任务是:

——努力办好现有各类职业技术学校。要有计划地对现有各类职业技术学校加强规范化建设,并集中力量办好一批起示范和骨干作用的学校。要挖掘现有学校的潜力,扩大招

生规模，特别是扩大中等职业技术学校的招生规模，使全国高中阶段职业技术学校的在校生人数超过普通高中的在校生人数。

——广泛开展短期职业技术培训。要办好各地的职业培训中心（包括就业训练中心，下同），在有条件的城市，还可试办层次较高和专业综合性较强的职业技术教育中心。各类职业技术学校也应积极承担短期培训任务。要根据各地教育的普及程度和经济发展水平，对小学后、初中后、高中后不能升学的青少年在从业前进行多种形式不同程度的短期职业技术培训。

——在普通教育中积极开展职业指导，因地制宜地在适当阶段引进职业技术教育因素，在不同阶段对学生实行分流教育。城市可在高三分流，对一部分人进行定向性的或预备性的职业技术教育。农村可根据各地的情况，分别采取“三加一”（即三年初中教育再加一年职业技术教育）、初三分流、四年制渗透职业技术内容或办职业初中等多种形式发展初中阶段的职业技术教育。

——重视并积极发展对在职人员进行职业技术培训的成人教育。在不改变现行管理分工情况下，各级政府和有关部门要统筹规划，加强成人教育与职前的职业技术教育的密切合作。

（三）要制定相应政策稳定中专，支持它们深化改革，办出特色，提高质量，积极发挥中等专业学校在同类职业技术教育中的骨干作用。要加强技工学校和职业中学的建设，改善办学条件，提高教学质量。积极推进现有职业大学的改革，努力办好一批培养技艺性强的操作人员的高等职业学校。为适应对外开放的要求，各类职业技术学校要积极培养国际劳务市场需要的各种从业人员。

（四）在广大农村地区，要积极推进农村教育综合改革，实施“燎原计划”，实行农科教结合，统筹规划基础教育、职业技术教育和成人教育，采取更灵活的方式大力发展职业技术教育。

（五）我国职业技术教育要走符合国情的发展路子。要坚持分区规划、分类指导，因地制宜地确定具体发展目标。要重视并积极帮助老、少、边、山、穷地区发展职业技术教育。

三、采取有力政策支持职业技术教育发展

（一）我国职业技术教育必须采取大家来办的方针，要在各级政府的统筹下，发展行业、企事业单位办学和各方面联合办学，鼓励民主党派、社会团体和个人办学；要充分发挥企业在培养技术工人方面的优势和力量。要发展电视、广播和函授职业技术教育。各类职业技术教育机构的设立、调整和撤销均应按国家有关规定和审批程序办理。

（二）各级政府、各级财政部门、各有关业务主管部及厂矿企业等要从财力和政策上支持职业技术教育的发展，努力增加对职业技术教育的投入。各级各类职业技术学校的业务主管部门要根据财力可能和事业发展的需要，商同级财政部门，制定本地区、本部门

（行业）职业技术学校的生均经费标准。在国家政策规定的范围内，各地各部门应采取多种措施，扩大职业技术教育的经费来源。除国家投资外，要提倡利用贷款，有关部门要为职业技术学校使用贷款创造条件，并鼓励集体、个人和其他社会力量对职业技术教育捐资助学。

（三）各类职业技术学校 and 培训中心，应根据教学需要和所具有的条件，积极发展校

办产业，办好生产实习基地。提倡产教结合，工学结合。政府和有关部门要在起步资金、条件设施、产销渠道等方面给予支持。

非义务教育阶段的职业技术教育，可以收取学费，用于补充教学方面的开支。

（四）各级政府和有关部门应该制定有关法规，采取必要的行政和经济手段，有步骤地推行“先培训，后就业”的原则。首先在专业性技术性较强的行业实行，进而争取尽快做到：在城市，未经职业技术教育、达不到岗位规范要求的一律不得就业、上岗；在农村，企事业单位（含乡镇企业）招工、招干及从事技术性强的生产经营工作，必须经过相应的职业技术教育。今后，各单位招工、招干应首先从专业对口的各种职业技术学校毕业生中择优录用，在对口专业合格毕业生尚未全部录用的情况下，用人单位一般不另行从社会上招用人员。政府和有关部门对回乡参加农业生产的职业技术学校毕业生，在贷款、农用生产资料等方面给予扶持和优惠。

凡进行技术等级考核的工种，逐步实行“双证书”（即毕业证书和技术等级或岗位合格证书）制度。应把技术等级证书或岗位合格证书，作为择优录用和上岗确定工资待遇的重要依据。在农村完善农民技术人员职称评定制度，并视条件逐步实行农民技术资格证书制度。

（五）要在充分利用现有相应机构的基础上，逐步建立健全职业技术教育的研究、教材出版、信息交流、师资和干部培训等服务体系。中央和各地的报刊、广播电台、电视台等应加强对职业技术教育的宣传报导工作。

要充分发挥中国职业技术教育学会、中华职业教育社等有关社会团体的作用。要加强与世界各国和地区及有关国际组织的交流与合作。

四、加强职业技术教育的改革和基本建设

（一）各级各类职业技术学校要把德育放在首位。坚持不懈地进行四项基本原则和国情教育，进行爱国主义、社会主义、集体主义及共产主义人生观等思想政治教育。要注意根据职业技术教育的特点，切实加强职业自豪感、职业道德和职业纪律的教育，坚持严格要求，反复实践，扎扎实实地提高学生的思想觉悟和纪律观念。

（二）要面向社会实际需要，合理规划职业技术学校的布局和专业设置。在农村，要重视办好直接为农林牧业服务、特别是与发展粮棉油生产有关的专业，同时也要注意培养其他各种专业技术人才。专业设置要适应农村经济需要和农民生产经营体制。在城市，要根据国家产业政策加强技术工人的培养。同时，要积极办好适应城市商业和各类服务业发展需要的职业技术教育。城乡职业技术教育专业的布点一般应在地（市）范围内统筹规划。

（三）要改革教学内容和教学方法，突出实践性教学环节，加强职业技能训练；教学安排中要注意增强适应性、实用性和灵活性；职业技术学校在加强德育和智育的同时，还要重视美育、体育和卫生教育，全面提高教育质量。

（四）要积极稳妥地改革中等专业学校和技工学校的招生和毕业生分配制度。应按照国家计划分配、用人单位择优录用和个人自谋职业相结合的就业方针，面向城乡多种所有制需要培养人才，根据专业特点，合理安排毕业生去向，特别是要打开中级技术人才通向农村的渠道。计划、教育、劳动、人事等有关部门应积极配合，推进这项改革。

（五）大力加强师资、实验实习基地和教材等基本建设。本着培养和培训、专职和兼职相结合的原则，多渠道地解决职业技术教育的师资特别是技能教师来源问题。要建立职业技术教育教师、干部的轮训进修制度。要制定职业技术教育教师的任职条件，完善教师专业技术职务评聘办法，逐步实行教师资格证书制度，采取措施逐步提高职业技术学校教师的待遇。要抓紧职业技术教育的教材建设，尽快解决各类职业技术教育对教材的急需。各级政府和参与办学的部门、企事业单位必须认真解决职业技术学校实验、实习设备和校内外实习基地。企业应该积极接纳职业技术学校师生到厂实习。县一级政府要负责安排一定土地、山林或水面给农村职业技术学校做生产实习基地。

五、加强和改善对职业技术教育工作的领导和管理

（一）各级政府及中央与地方的各有关部门要对职业技术教育分工负责。按照《中共中央关于教育体制改革的决定》，国家教育委员会负责掌握职业技术教育的大政方针，统筹职业技术教育的发展，协调各部门有关职业技术教育的工作，统一部署和指导职业技术教育的改革。国家计划、劳动、人事、财政等综合部门应按照职责分工，做好人才需求预测、经费来源、毕业生就业录用和有关职业技术教育管理等方面的工作。

（二）发展职业技术教育主要责任在地方，关键在市、县。因此，地方政府有权对职业技术教育进行必要的统筹和决策。在中央统一的方针政策下，由地方政府统筹安排本地各类职业技术教育的布局、专业（工种）设置、招生、毕（结）业生就业安置及中、长期规划。上级各有关部门应支持地方政府的统筹和决策。部门办在地方的学校，在首先满足本行业所需人才的同时，也应积极为当地培养所需人才。提倡部门和地方根据需要联合办学。

（三）要重视发挥各业务部门在发展职业技术教育中的作用。各业务部门除办好所属职业技术学校外，还要对本行业范围内的各类职业技术教育在学校布局、专业（工种）设置、办学标准、教学要求、质量评估等方面进行指导和协调；在实验实习、师资、设备、教材、考核标准等方面给予服务和帮助。

（四）各地和各部门要落实和加强对职业技术教育的管理。要进一步完善职业技术学校内部的管理体制。高等职业技术学校原则上实行党委领导下的校长负责制；中等和初等职业技术学校原则上实行校长负责制并充分发挥党组织的政治核心作用；要把校长负责、社会参与和教师职工、学生的民主管理监督有机结合起来。

（五）要制定各类职业技术学校的设置标准和评估标准，逐步建立职业技术教育的评估制度。要加强职业技术教育的法规建设，逐步使我国职业技术教育走上以法治教、科学管理的轨道。

（六）各级政府要把职业技术教育纳入当地经济和社会发展的总体规划，使经济建设真正转到依靠科技进步和提高劳动者素质的轨道上来。要建立干部责任制，把职业技术教育工作列入有关考评内容。领导干部要亲自抓典型，要经常深入教育第一线，帮助基层解决实际困难和问题。

要十分重视职业技术学校领导干部的配备，要选派既懂教育、又有一定生产经营管理能力的得力干部到职业技术学校工作。

各级政府和各有关部门应按照本决定的要求，认真落实规划，采取措施，争取在九十年代使我国职业技术教育有更大的发展和提高，为实现我国社会主义建设的宏伟目标，奠定更坚实的基础。

5. 《中国教育改革和发展纲要》（1993年2月13日）

Title: The Outline of China's Education Reform and Development (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1993)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/level3.jsp?tablename=208&infoid=3334>

中国共产党第十四次全国代表大会在建设有中国特色社会主义理论的指导下，确定了90年代我国改革和建设的主要任务，明确提出“必须把教育摆在优先发展的战略地位，努力提高全民族的思想道德和科学文化水平，这是实现我国现代化的根本大计”。为了实现党的十四大所确定的战略任务，指导90年代乃至下世纪初教育的改革和发展，使教育更好地为社会主义现代化建设服务，特制定本纲要。

一、教育面临的形势和任务

（1）当前，我国改革开放和现代化建设事业进入了一个新阶段。建立社会主义市场经济体制，加快改革开放和现代化建设步伐，进一步解放和发展生产力，使国民经济整体素质和综合国力都迈上一个新台阶。这对教育工作既是难得的机遇，又提出了新的任务和要求。在新的形势下，教育工作的任务是：遵循党的十四大精神，以建设有中国特色社会主义理论为指导，坚持党的基本路线，全面贯彻教育方针，面向现代化，面向世界，面向未来，加快教育的改革和发展，进一步提高劳动者素质，培养大批人才，建立适应社会主义市场经济体制和政治、科技体制改革需要的教育体制，更好地为社会主义现代化建设服务。

（2）建国40多年来，我国教育工作取得了显著成就。社会主义教育制度已经基本确立；教育事业有了很大发展，为社会主义建设培养了大批人才；形成了上千万人的教师队伍；办学的物质条件程度不同地有所改善。特别是党的十一届三中全会以来，教育改革逐步展开；九年义务教育开始有计划、分阶段地实施，全国已有百分之九十一人口的地区普及了小学教育；职业和技术教育得到相当程度的发展，中等职业技术学校招生和在校学生人数占高中阶段学生人数的比例，均已超过百分之五十，改变了中等教育结构单一化的局面。高等教育发展较快，普通高等学校和成人高等学校在校学生已达到376万人，初步形成了多种层次、多种形式、学科门类基本齐全的体系；形式多样的成人教育和民族教育也得到很大发展；农村基础教育实行地方负责、分级管理的体制取得了明显效果。教育同科技、农业的统筹结合开始显示出生命力；涌现出一批尊师重教并取得较大成绩的地区、部门和单位。国际教育交流和合作也得到广泛开展。我国教育工作取得的成就，是坚持改革开放的结果。体现了社会主义制度的优越性，是我国教育进一步改革和发展的基础。

同时，必须看到，我国教育在总体上还比较落后，不能适应加快改革开放和现代化建设的需要。教育的战略地位在实际工作中还没有完全落实；教育投入不足，教师待遇偏低，办学条件较差；教育思想、教学内容和教学方法程度不同地脱离实际；学校思想政治工作还需要进一步加强和改进；教育体制和运行机制不适应日益深化的经济、政治、科技体制改革的需要。对教育工作中存在的这些问题，必须随着经济的发展和改革的深化，认真加以解决。

（3）40多年来，我国教育经历了曲折的发展历程，为发展社会主义教育事业积累了宝贵经验。初步明确了建设有中国特色社会主义教育体系的主要原则：第一，教育是社会主义现代化建设的基础，必须坚持把教育摆在优先发展的战略地位。第二，必须坚持党对教育工作的领导，坚持教育的社会主义方向，培养德智体全面发展的建设者和接班人。第三，必须坚持教育为社会主义现代化建设服务，与生产劳动相结合，自觉地服从和服务于经济建设这个中心，促进社会的全面进步。第四、必须坚持教育的改革开放，努力改革教

育体制、教育结构、教学内容和方法,大胆吸收和借鉴人类社会的一切文明成果,勇于创新,敢于试验,不断发展和完善社会主义教育制度。第五,必须全面贯彻党和国家的教育方针,遵循教育规律,全面提高教育质量和办学效益。第六,必须依靠广大教师,不断提高教师政治和业务素质,努力改善他们的工作、学习和生活条件。第七,必须充分发挥各级政府、社会各方面和人民群众的办学积极性,坚持以财政拨款为主、多渠道筹措教育经费。第八,必须从我国国情出发,根据统一性和多样性相结合的原则,实行多种形式办学,培养多种规格人才,走出符合我国和各地区实际的发展教育的路子。这些主要原则,需要在今后的实践中进一步丰富和发展。

(4) 邓小平同志指出,实现四个现代化,科学技术是关键,基础在教育。为了完成党的十四大确定的90年代的要任务,必须把经济建设转到依靠科技进步和提高劳动者素质的轨道上来。我国企业经济效益低、产品缺乏竞争能力的状况之所以长期得不到改变,农业科学技术之所以得不到普遍推广,宝贵的资源和生态环境之所以不能得到充分利用和保护,人口增长之所以不能得到有效的控制,一些不良的社会风气之所以屡禁不止,原因固然很多,但一个重要的原因是劳动者素质低。发展教育事业。提高全民族的素质,把沉重的人口负担转化为人力资源优势,这是我国实现社会主义现代化的一条必由之路。

当今世界政治风云变幻,国际竞争日趋激烈,科学技术发展迅速,世界范围的经济竞争、综合国力竞争,实质上是科学技术的竞争和民族素质的竞争。从这个意义上说,谁掌握了面向21世纪的教育,谁就能在21世纪的国际竞争中处于战略主动地位。为此,必须高瞻远瞩,及早筹划我国教育事业的大计,迎接21世纪的挑战。

面对加快改革开放和现代化建设的新形势,各级政府、广大教育工作者和全社会,必须对教育的改革和发展具有紧迫感,真正树立社会主义建设必须依靠教育和“百年大计,教育为本”的思想,采取切实有力措施,落实教育的战略地位,加快教育的改革和发展,开创教育事业的新局面。

二、教育事业发展的目标、战略和指导方针

(5) 根据我国社会主义现代化建设“三步走”的战略部署,到本世纪末,我国教育发展的总目标是:全民受教育水平有明显提高;城乡劳动者的职前、职后教育有较大发展;各类专门人才的拥用量基本满足现代化建设的需要;形成具有中国特色的、面向21世纪的社会主义教育体系的基本框架。再经过几十年的努力,建立起比较成熟和完善的社会主义教育体系,实现教育的现代化。

90年代,在保证必要的教育投入和办学条件的前提下,各级各类教育发展的具体目标是:

——全国基本普及九年义务教育(包括初中阶段的职业技术教育);大城市市区和沿海经济发达地区积极普及高中阶段教育。大中城市基本满足幼儿接受教育的要求,广大农村积极发展学前一年教育。

——高中阶段职业技术学校在校学生人数有较大幅度的增加,未升学的初中和高中毕业生普遍接受不同年限的职业技术培训,使城乡新增劳动力上岗前都能得到必需的职业技术训练。

——高等学校培养的专门人才适应经济、科技和社会发展的需求,集中力量办好一批重点大学和重点学科,高层次专门人才的培养基本上立足于国内,教育质量、科学技术水平和办学效益有明显提高。

——全国基本扫除青壮年文盲，使青壮年中的文盲率降到百分之五以下。通过岗位培训、继续教育和在职学历教育，提高广大从业人员的思想文化素质和职业技能。

各地区、各部门根据实际情况，制定本地区本行业的分阶段教育发展目标 and 任务。

(6) 为了实现上述目标，应采取深化教育改革，坚持协调发展，增加教育投入，提高教师素质，提高教育质量，注重办学效益，实行分区规划，加强社会参与的发展战略。

——在教育事业发展上，不仅教育的规模要有较大发展，而且要把教育质量和办学效益提高到一个新的水平。

——在结构选择上，以九年义务教育为基础，大力加强基础教育，积极发展职业技术教育、成人教育和高等教育，把提高劳动者素质，培养初、中级人才摆到突出的位置。

——在地区发展格局上，从各地经济、文化发展不平衡的实际出发。因地制宜，分类指导。鼓励经济、文化发达地区率先达到中等发达国家 80 年代末的教育发展水平，积极支持贫困地区和民族地区发展教育。

(7) 基础教育是提高民族素质的奠基工程，必须大力加强。各级政府要认真贯彻执行《中华人民共和国义务教育法》及其实施细则，以积极进取的精神，从本地区的实际出发，把普及九年义务教育的目标落到实处。要建立检查、监督和奖惩制度，确保义务教育法的贯彻执行。政府、社会、家长要认真履行自己的义务，保证适龄儿童入学，制止学生的辍学。对招用学龄儿童和少年就业的组织和个人，必须坚决依法制裁。

发展基础教育，必须继续改善办学条件，逐步实现标准化。中小学要由“应试教育”转向全面提高国民素质的轨道，面向全体学生，全面提高学生的思想道德、文化科学、劳动技能和身体心理素质，促进学生生动活泼地发展。办出各自的特色。普通高中的办学体制和办学模式要多样化。

(8) 职业技术教育是现代教育的重要组成部分，是工业化和生产社会化、现代化的重要支柱。各级政府要高度重视，统筹规划，贯彻积极发展的方针，充分调动各部门、企事业单位和社会各界的积极性，形成全社会兴办多种形式、多层次职业技术教育的局面。到本世纪末，中心城市的行业和每个县，都应当办好一、两所示范性骨干学校或培训中心，同大量形式多样的短期培训相结合，形成职业技术教育的网络。

发展职业技术教育要与当地经济发展的需要相适应。基本普及九年义务教育的地区，应以发展初中后职业技术教育为重点；尚未普及九年义务教育的地区，对不能升入初中的小学毕业生应实行职业技术培训；各地要积极发展多样化的高中后教育，对未升入高等学校的普通高中毕业生进行职业技术培训。普通中学也要分别不同情况，适当开设职业技术教育课程。

各级各类职业技术学校都要主动适应当地建设和社会主义市场经济的需要。要在政府的指导下，提倡联合办学，走产教结合的路子，更多地利用贷款发展校办产业，增强学校自我发展的能力，逐步做到以厂(场)养校。

要真实实行“先培训、后就业”的制度。优先录用经常职业技术教育和培训的学生就业，专业性、技术性较强的岗位，应在获得岗位资格证书后上岗。对未经培训已就业的，要进行岗前培训。

(9) 高等教育担负着培养高级专门人才、发展科学技术文化和促进现代化建设的重大任务。90 年代，高等教育要适应加快改革开放和现代化建设的需要，积极探索发展的新路子，使规模有较大发展，结构更加合理，质量和效益明显提高。

高等教育的发展,要坚持走内涵发展为主的道路,努力提高办学效益。要区别不同地区、科类和学校,确定发展目标和重点。制订高等学校分类标准和相应的政策措施,使各种类型的学校合理分工,在各自的层次上办出特色。要大力加强和发展地区性的专科教育。特别注重发展面向广大农村、中小企业、乡镇企业和第三产业的专科教育,努力扩大研究生的培养数量。要基本稳定基础学科的规模,适当发展新兴和边缘学科,重点发展应用学科。为了迎接世界新技术革命的挑战,要集中中央和地方等各方面的力量办好100所左右重点大学和一批重点学科、专业,力争在下世纪初,有一批高等学校和学科、专业,在教育质量、科学研究和管理方面,达到世界较高水平。

高等学校科学技术工作要认真贯彻国家对科学技术工作的方针,坚持“科学技术是第一生产力”的思想,坚持面向经济建设,坚持同教学相结合。要根据不同条件,大力开展技术开发、推广应用和咨询服务,兴办科技产业,使科技成果尽快转化为现实生产力。要加强基础科学和应用科学的研究,组织精干力量承担国家科技攻关项目和发展高新技术任务。要有计划地建成一批国家重点实验室和工程研究中心,促进相关学科的科研水平进入世界先进行列。

哲学社会科学的教学与科学研究,必须以马克思主义和建设有中国特色社会主义的理论为指导,紧密联系实际,努力研究和解决社会主义现代化建设中的理论和实际问题,为繁荣哲学社会科学,建设有中国特色的社会主义作出贡献。

(10) 成人教育是传统学校教育向终生教育发展的一种新型教育制度,对不断提高民族素质,促进经济和社会发展具有重要作用。90年代,要适应经济建设、社会发展和从业人员的实际需要,积极发展。要本着学用结合、按需施教和注重实效的原则,把大力开展岗位培训和继续教育作为重点。重视从业人员的知识更新。国家建立和完善岗位培训制度、证书制度、资格考试和考核制度、继续教育制度。

大力发展农村成人教育,积极办好乡镇成人文化技术学校。全面提高农村从业人员的素质。抓紧扫除青壮年文盲,坚持标准。讲求实效,把文化教育和职业技术教育结合起来。各级政府要增加扫盲拨款,设立扫盲基金,并加强领导,把扫盲任务落实到乡、村。

成人学历教育要加强和普通学校的联系与合作,努力体现成人教育的特色,注重提高质量。不具备颁发学历文凭资格的各种成人教育机构。可以发给毕业生写实性学习证书;毕业生要取得国家承认的学历文凭,可以参加国家组织的文凭考试或自学考试。要完善和发展自学考试制度,鼓励自学成才。

(11) 重视和扶持少数民族教育事业。中央和地方要逐步增加少数民族教育经费。对有特殊困难的少数民族地区,要采取倾斜政策和措施。在国家安排的少数民族地区各项补助费及其他扶贫资金中,要划出一定比例的经费用于发展民族教育。对志愿到边疆少数民族地区工作的大中专毕业生的待遇,各地要制订优惠政策。认真组织和落实内地省、市对民族地区教育的对口支援。各民族地区要积极探索适合当地实际的发展教育的路子。

(12) 重视和支持残疾人教育事业。各级政府要把残疾人教育作为教育事业的组成部分,采取单独举办残疾人学校或普通学校招收残疾人入学等多种形式,发展残疾人教育事业。逐步增加特殊教育经费,并鼓励社会力量办学、捐资助学。要对残疾人学校及其校办产业给予扶持和优惠。

(13) 积极发展广播电视教育和学校电化教学推广运用现代化教学手段。要抓好教育卫生电视接收和播放网点的建设,到本世纪末,基本建成全国电教网络,覆盖大多数乡镇和边远地区。

(14) 进一步扩大教育对外开放, 加强国家教育交流与合作。大胆吸收和借鉴世界各国发展和管理教育的成功经验。出国留学人员是国家的宝贵财富, 国家要给予重视和信任。根据“支持留学, 鼓励回国, 来去自由”的方针, 继续扩大派遣留学生; 认真贯彻国家关于在外留学人员的有关规定, 支持留学人员在外学习研究, 鼓励他们学成归来, 或采用多种方式为祖国社会主义现代化建设作出贡献。改革来华留学生的招生和管理办法, 加强我国高等学校同外国高等学校的交流与合作, 开展与国外学校或专家联合培养人才、联合开展科学研究。大力加强对外汉语教学工作。

三、教育体制改革

(15) 党的十四大确定我国经济体制改革的目标是建立社会主义市场经济体制。在 90 年代, 随着经济体制、政治体制和科技体制改革的深化, 教育体制改革要采取综合配套、分步推进的方针, 加快步伐, 改革包得过多、统得过死的体制, 初步建立起与社会主义市场经济体制和政治体制、科技体制改革相适应的教育新体制。只有这样, 才能增强主动适应经济和社会发展的活力, 走出教育发展的新路子, 为建立具有中国特色的社会主义教育体系奠定基础。教育体制改革要有利于坚持教育的社会主义方向, 培养德智体全面发展的建设者和接班人; 有利于调动各级政府、全社会和广大师生员工的积极性, 提高教育质量、科研水平和办学效益; 有利于促进教育更好地为社会主义现代化建设服务。

(16) 改革办学体制。改变政府包揽办学的格局, 逐步建立以政府办学为主体、社会各界共同办学的体制。在现阶段, 基础教育应以地方政府办学为主; 高等教育要逐步形成以中央、省(自治区、直辖市)两级政府办学为主、社会各界参与办学的新格局。职业技术教育和成人教育主要依靠行业、企业、事业单位办学和社会各方面联合办学。

国家对社会团体和公民个人依法办学, 采取积极鼓励、大力支持、正确引导、加强管理的方针。国家欢迎港、澳、台同胞、海外侨胞和外国友好人士捐资助学。在国家有关法律和法规的范围内进行国际合作办学。举办具有颁发国家承认的学历文凭资格的各类学校, 应按国家有关规定办理审批手续。

(17) 深化中等以下教育体制改革, 继续完善分级办学、分级管理的体制

——中等及中等以下教育, 由地方政府在中央大政方针的指导下, 实行统筹和管理。国家颁发基本学制、课程标准和课程标准、学校人员编制标准、教师资格和教职工基本工资标准等规定, 省、自治区、直辖市政府有权确定本地区的学制、年度招生规模, 确定教学计划, 选用教材和审定省编教材, 确定教师职务限额和工资水平等。省以下各级政府的权限, 由省、自治区、直辖市政府确定。

——积极推进农村教育、城市教育和企业教育综合改革, 促进教育同经济、科技的密切结合。县、乡两级政府要把教育纳入当地经济、社会发展的整体规划, 分级统筹管理基础教育、职业技术教育、成人教育、统筹规划经济、科技、教育的发展, 促进“燎原计划”与“星火计划”、“丰收计划”的有机结合, 落实科教兴农战略。要积极推进城市教育综合改革, 探索城市教育管理的新体制。

——中等及中等以下各类学校实行校长负责制。校长要全面贯彻国家的教育方针和政策, 依靠教职员办好学校。

——支持和鼓励中小学同附近的企业事业单位、街道或村民委员会建立社区教育组织, 吸引社会各界支持学校建设, 参与学校管理, 优化育人环境, 探索出符合中小学特点的教育与社会结合的形式。

(18) 深化高等教育体制改革。进行高等教育体制改革,主要是解决政府与高等学校、中央与地方、国家教委与中央各业务部门之间的关系,逐步建立政府宏观管理、学校面向社会自主办学的体制。

——在政府与学校的关系上,要按照政事分开的原则,通过立法,明确高等学校的权利和义务,使高等学校真正成为面向社会自主办学的法人实体。要在招生、专业调整、机构设置、干部任免、经费使用、职称评定、工资分配和国际合作交流等方面,分别不同情况,进一步扩大高等学校的办学自主权。学校要善于行使自己的权力,承担应负的责任,建立起主动适应经济建设和社会发展需要的自我发展、自我约束的运行机制。

政府要转变职能,由对学校的直接行政管理,转变为运用立法、拨款、规划、信息服务、政策指导和必要的行政手段,进行宏观管理。要重视和加强决策研究工作,建立有教育和社会各界专家参加的咨询、审议、评估等机构,对高等教育方针政策、发展战略和规划等提出咨询建议,形成民主的、科学的决策程序。

——在中央与地方的关系上,进一步确立中央与省(自治区、直辖市)分级管理、分级负责的教育管理体制。中央直接管理一部分关系国家经济、社会发展全局并在高等教育中起示范作用的骨干学校和少数行业性强、地方不便管理的学校。在中央大政方针和宏观规划指导下,对地方举办的高等教育的领导和管理,责任和权力都交给省(自治区、直辖市)。按照这个精神中央要进一步简政放权,扩大省(自治区、直辖市)的教育决策权和包括对中央部门所属学校的统筹权。省(自治区、直辖市)在充分论证、严格审议程序,自选解决办学经费,以及统筹中央和地方所属高校毕业生就业去向的条件下,有权决定地方高等学校招生规模和专业设置。设置高等学校,由全国高等学校设置评议委员会评议,国家教委审批。

——在国家教委与中央业务部门的关系上,国家教委负责统筹规划、政策指导、组织协调、监督检查、提供服务。中央业务部门要加强对本行业的人才预测和规划,协助国家教委指导本行业的人才培养工作,负责管理其所属学校,包括在国家宏观指导下,决定所属学校的招生规模、专业设置、经费筹措、学生就业等,随着中央业务部门职能的转变和政企分开,中央业务部门所属学校要面向社会,其办学体制和管理体制分别不同情况,采取继续由中央部门办、中央部门和地方政府联合办、交给地方政府办、企业集团参与和管理等不同办法。目前先进行改革试点,逐步到位。

(19) 改革高等学校的招生和毕业生就业制度

——改变全部按国家统一计划招生的体制,实行国家任务计划和调节性计划相结合。在现阶段,国家仍要提出指导性的宏观调控的招生总量目标,并通过国家任务计划重点保证:国家重点建设项目、国防建设、文化教育、基础学科、边远地区和某些艰苦行业所需要的专门人才。在保证完成国家任务计划的前提下,逐步扩大招收委托培养和自费生的比重,这部分调节性计划由学校及其主管部门根据社会需求和办学条件确定。

——改革学生上大学由国家包下来的做法,逐步实行收费制度。高等教育是非义务教育,学生上大学原则上均应缴费。设立贷学金,对家庭经济有困难的学生提供帮助;国家、企事业单位、社会团体和学校均可设立奖学金,对品学兼优的学生和报考国家重点保证的、特殊的、条件艰苦的专业的学生给予奖励。

——改革高等毕业生“统包统分”和“包当干部”的就业制度,实行少数毕业生由国家安排就业,多数由学生“自主择业”的就业制度。近期内,国家任务计划招收的学生原则上仍由国家负责在一定范围内安排就业,实行学校与用人单位“供需见面”,落实毕业生就业方案,并逐步推行毕业生与用人单位“双向选择”的办法;委托和定向培养的学生按合同就业;自费生自主择业。随着社会主义市场经济体制的建立和劳动人事制度的改

革,除对师范学科和某些艰苦行业、边远地区的毕业生,实行在一定范围内定向就业外,大部分毕业生实行在国家方针政策指导下,通过人才劳务市场,采取“自主择业”的就业办法。与此相配套,建立人才需求信息、就业咨询指导、职业介绍等社会中介组织,为毕业生就业提供服务。

(20)完善研究生培养和学位制度。通过试点,改进硕士学位授权点和博士生导师的审核办法,同时加强质量监督和评估制度。在培养教学、科研岗位所需人才的同时,大力培养经济建设和社会发展所需的应用性人才。鼓励有实践经验的优秀在职人员采用多种形式攻读硕士、博士学位。研究生学习期间,实行兼任教学、研究和管理等辅助工作的制度,其待遇视学校内部管理体制改革的进展、所兼工作的实绩,参照在职人员的水平,由学校确定。

(21)改革对高等学校的财政拨款机制,充分发挥拨款手段的宏观调控作用。对于不同层次和科类的学校,拨款标准和拨款方法应有所区别。改革按学生人数拨款的方法,逐步实行基金制,在国家和地方预算下达的教育经费之外,学校可依法筹集资金。

(22)参照高等学校招生、毕业生就业制度改革的精神,加快改革中专、技校招生、毕业生就业制度。根据国家有关政策,由地方人民政府或主管部门制定具体办法。通过联合办学和委托培养、自费等形式,使毕业生面向城乡多种所有制单位就业。中等专业教育和技工教育的重大方针政策,由国家制定,地方政府负责统筹规划和指导。

(23)积极推进以人事制度和分配制度改革为重点的学校内部管理体制改革的。在合理定编的基础上,对教职工实行岗位责任制和聘任制,在分配上按照工作实绩拉开差距。改革的核心在于,运用正确的政策导向、思想教育和物质激励手段,打破平均主义,调动广大教职工积极性,转换学校内部运行机制,提高办学水平和效益。

学校的后勤工作,应通过改革逐步实现社会化。

(24)深化人事劳动制度改革,同教育体制改革相配套。

——建立和完善高等学校毕业生的考核录用制度,推行学历文凭、技术等级证书、岗位资格证书并重的制度,扭转升学、文凭、职称对于教育运行的片面导向作用。逐步建立职业岗位资格考核机构,实施各种岗位的资格考试和资格证书制度。

——改革高等学校职称评定和职务聘任制度。评定职称既要重视学术水平,又要重视有实用价值的研究成果和教学工作、技术推广应用的实绩。高等学校教师实行聘任制。中小学逐步实行教师资格制度和职务等级制度。

——动用劳动工资等政策杠杆,推动教育体制改革。大、中专学校毕业生的起点工资,用人单位可以按照实际水平和实际表现拉开档次。为鼓励各级各类学校毕业生到农村、边远地区、艰苦行业工作,各地要制定津贴和奖励政策。

(25)加快教育法制建设,建立和完善执法监督系统,逐步走上依法治教的轨道。制订教育法律、法规,要注意综合配套,逐步完善。要抓紧草拟基本的教育法律、法规和当前急需的教育法律、法规,争取到本世纪末,初步建立起教育法律、法规体系的框架。地方要从各自的实际出发,加快制定地方性的教育法规。

(26)加强教育和发展的理论研究和试验。各级政府和教育行政部门要把教育科学研究和教育管理信息工作摆到十分重要的地位。社会主义市场经济体制的建立,对教育的改革和发展提出了许多新的课题。教育理论工作者和实际工作者,要以马克思主义为指导,研究和回答建设有中国特色的社会主义教育体系的理论问题和实际问题。要积极开展教育

决策咨询研究，密切教育科研同教育决策、教育实践的联系，发挥教育科研对教育改革和发展的促进作用。鼓励和支持学校、教师和教育研究工作者积极进行教育改革试验。

四、全面贯彻教育方针，全面提高教育质量

(27) 教育改革和发展的根本目的是提高民族素质，多出人才，出好人才。各级各类学校要认真贯彻“教育必须为社会主义现代化建设服务，必须与生产劳动相结合，培养德、智、体全面发展的建设者和接班人”的方针，努力使教育质量在 90 年代上一个新台阶。

(28) 用马列主义、毛泽东思想和建设有中国特色的社会主义理论教育学生，把坚定正确的政治方向摆在首位，培养有理想、有道德、有文化、有纪律的社会主义新人，是学校德育即思想政治和品德教育的根本任务。要进一步加强和改进德育工作，在实践中不断创造改革开放条件下学校德育工作的新经验，把德育工作提高到一个新水平。

对广大青少年要加强党的基本路线教育，爱国主义、集体主义和社会主义思想教育，近代史、现代史教育和国情教育，引导学生运用马克思主义的立场、观点、方法认识现实问题，走与工农结合、与实践结合的成长道路，促进学生逐步树立科学的世界观和为人民服务的人生观，增强学生抵制资产阶级自由化和一切剥削腐朽思想的能力，坚定建设有中国特色的社会主义的信念。要重视对学生进行中国优秀传统文化教育。对中小学生还要注重进行文明行为的养成教育。

要从各级各类学校的实际出发，分层次地确定德育工作的任务和要求，改进德育教材和德育方法，注重实效，使德育落到实处。

(29) 重视和加强德育队伍的建设。加强德育工作是全体教师的共同职责。教师应当把德育贯穿和渗透到教育教学的全过程中，并以自己的楷模作用，促进学生的全面成长。

高等学校要建设好一支以精干的专职人员为骨干、专兼职结合的思想政治工作队伍。中小学要充分发挥思想品德课和思想政治课教师、班主任及共青团、少先队干部的作用。对从事思想政治工作的人员要进行培训，不断提高他们的思想政治素质和政策、业务水平，并采取实际措施解决他们的待遇问题。

(30) 完善政策导向，加强学校管理。在招生、毕业生就业、评奖评优、教师职务聘任、工资晋级和出国留学等方面，坚持德才兼备的原则。教师从事德育工作和参加社会实践的成绩，应与其他业务工作成绩同等对待。

要严格执行校规、校纪，教育学生遵守行为规范，建设健康的、生动的校园文化，树立良好的校风、学风，使学校成为建设社会主义精神文明的重要阵地。

(31) 进一步转变教育思想，改革教学内容和教学方法，克服学校教育不同程度存在的脱离经济建设和社会发展需要的现象。要按照现代科学技术文化发展的新成果和社会主义现代化建设的实际需要，更新教学内容，调整课程结构。加强基本知识、基础理论、基本技能的培养和训练，重视培养学生分析问题和解决问题的能力，注意发现和培养有特长的学生。中小学要切实采取措施减轻学生过重的课业负担。职业技术学校要注重职业道德和实际能力的培养。高等教育要进一步改变专业设置偏窄的状况，拓宽专业业务范围，加强实践环节的教学和训练，发展同社会实际工作部门的合作培养，促进教学、科研、生产三结合。

要逐步改革和完善升学考试制度，稳步推进小学毕业生就近入学、初中毕业生升学考试、高中毕业会考和高考制度的改革。

(32) 建立各级各类教育的质量标准和评估指标体系。各地教育部门要把检查评估学校教育质量作为一项经常性的任务。要加强督导队伍,完善督导制度,加强对中小学学校工作和教育质量的检查和指导。对职业技术教育和高等教育,要采取领导、专家和社会用人单位相结合的办法,通过多种形式进行质量评估和检查。各类学校都要重视了解用人单位对毕业生质量的评估。

(33) 学校教材要反映中国和世界的优秀文明成果以及当代科学技术文化的最新发展。中小学教材要在统一基本要求的前提下实行多样化。提倡各地编写适应农村中小学需要的教材。职业技术学校要逐步形成配套的教材系列。高等学校教材要在积极扩大种类的同时,不断提高质量,加强理论与实际的联系,力求思想性与科学性统一。

(34) 进一步加强和改善学校体育卫生工作,动员社会各方面和家长关心学生的体质和健康。各级政府要积极创造条件,切实解决师资、经费、体育场地、设施问题,逐步做到按教学计划上好体育与健康教育课。

重视国防教育,增加国防观念。继续组织高等学校、中等专业学校和高级中学学生参加多种形式的军事训练。各级教育部门、军事部门和学校要统筹安排,认真组织实施。

(35) 美育对于培养学生健康的审美观念和审美能力,陶冶高尚的道德情操,培养全面发展的人才,具有重要作用。要提高认识,发挥美育在教育教学中的作用。根据各级各类学校的不同情况,开展形式多样的美育活动。

(36) 加强劳动观点和劳动技能的教育,是实现学校培养目标的重要途径和内容。各级各类学校都要把劳动教育列入教学计划,逐步做到制度化、系列化。社会各方面要积极为学校进行劳动教育提供场所和条件。

(37) 全社会都要关心和保护青少年的健康成长,形成社会教育、家庭教育同学校教育密切结合的局面。家长应当对社会负责,对后代负责,讲究教育方法,培养子女具有良好的品德和行为习惯。新闻出版、广播影视、文化艺术等部门,要把提供有益于青少年身心发展的、丰富多彩的精神产品作为义不容辞的责任。在城镇建设中,要注意兴建科学馆、博物馆、图书馆、体育馆和青少年之家等设施,要制定和完善公共文化设施对学生开放和减免收费的制度。各级政府要认真贯彻《未成年人保护法》,采取严来历措施,查禁淫秽书刊、音像制品,打击教唆、残害青少年的犯罪活动,优化育人环境。

(38) 坚持党对学校的领导,加强学校党的建设,是全面贯彻教育方针,加强教育改革和发展,全面提高教育质量的根本保证。学校党组织要认真贯彻党的十四大精神,用建设有中国特色的社会主义理论教育全体党员和师生员工,深入研究学校改革和发展中的重大问题,坚持改革的正确方向。要加强党的基层组织建设,发挥党员的先锋模范作用,密切党员和群众的联系,带动群众推进改革。实行党委领导下的校长负责制的高等学校,党委对重大问题进行讨论并作出决定,同时保证行政领导人充分行使自己的职权。实行校长负责制的中小学和其他学校,党的组织发挥政治核心作用。

五、教师队伍建设

(39) 振兴民族的希望在教育,振兴教育的希望在教师。建设一支具有良好政治业务素质、结构合理、相对稳定的教师队伍,是教育改革和发展的根本大计。要下决心,采取重大政策和措施,提高教师社会地位,大力改善教师的工作、学习和生活条件,努力使教师成为最受人尊重的职业。

(40) 教育的改革和发展对教师提出了新的更高的要求。教师是人类灵魂的工程师，必须努力提高自己的思想政治素质和业务水平；热爱教育事业，教书育人，为人师表；精心组织教学，积极参加教育改革，不断提高教学质量。

(41) 进一步加强师资培养培训工作。师范教育是培养中小学师资的工作母机，各级政府要努力增加投入，大力办好师范教育，鼓励优秀中学毕业生报考师范院校。进一步扩大师范院校定向招生的比例，建立师范毕业生服务期制度，保证毕业生到中小学任教。其他高等院校也要积极承担培养中小学和职业技术学校师资的任务。要制定教师培训计划，促进教师特别是中青年教师不断进修提高，使绝大多数中小学教师更好地胜任教育教学工作。到本世纪末，通过师资补充和在职培训，绝大多数中小学教师要达到国家规定的合格学历标准，小学和初中教师中具有专科和本科学历者的比重逐年提高。

高等学校师资培养培训工作要坚持立足国内、在职为主、加强实践、多种形式并举的原则。要充分发挥教学科研力量较强的高等学校在师资培训中的骨干作用。采取多种形式促进教师和社会的密切联系，聘请实际工作部门有较高水平的专家到校任教，加强高等学校之间教师的相互交流。要建立扶持和培养中青年骨干教师使中青年学术带头人脱颖而出的制度。

(42) 改革教育系统工资制度，提高教师工资待遇，逐步使教师的工资水平与全民所有制企业同类人员大体持平。“八五”期间，教育系统平均工资要高于当地全民所有制职工平均水平，在国民经济十二个行业中居中等偏上水平，其中高等学校平均工资高于全民所有制企业职工平均水平。

要建立符合教育特点的工资制度和正常的工资增长机制，切实保证教师的工资水平随国民收入的增长逐步提高。要贯彻按劳分配原则，克服平均主义、论资排辈的倾向，使贡献大的、教学质量高的教师有更高的工资收入。改革过于集中统一的工资管理体制，在国家宏观调控的前提下，使地方、部门和学校享有自主权。国家规定教育系统工资制度的基本原则和基本工资标准，由各省、自治区、直辖市政府和中央主管部门，在不低于基本工资标准的前提下确定具体工资标准，不搞全国“一刀切”。学校具有调整内部工资关系、增加工资和学校基金分配的自主权。

(43) 精简机构和人员，提高办学效益。适应面向 21 世纪的需要，必须走建设一支人员精干、素质优良、待遇较高的师资队伍的路子。要制订合理的学校人员编制标准，严格考核，精减人员，提高每一教师负担的学生人数。对超编人员，各级人事、劳动、教育部门和学校，要在政府统筹下，通过多种就业渠道妥善安置，使其各得其所，发挥所长。

(44) 在住房和其他社会福利方面实行优待教师的政策。各级政府要制订切实可行的计划，尽快使城市教职工家庭人均住房面积达到当地居民的平均水平。在住房制度改革中，要对教职工住房的建设、分配、销售或租赁，实行优先、优惠政策，逐步社会化。教职工住房建设的责任在地方政府和主管部门，基建投资实行多渠道筹集的办法。地方政府和主管部门要增加对教职工住房建设的投资。“八五”期间，力争使学校教职工住房条件有明显改善。

各地逐步建立医疗、退休保险等方面的教师保障制度。

(45) 地一步改善民办教师工作。目前农村学校存在大量的民办教师，是历史形成的。各地要改进民办教师工资管理体制和统筹办法，增加民办教师补助费，改善民办教师待遇，逐步使民办教师与公办教师同工同酬。对离职民办教师，给予生活补助，有条件的地方要逐步建立民办教师保险福利基金。师范院校要定向招收部分民办教师入学深造。各地要根据当地的实际情况，每年划拨一定数量的劳动指标，从优秀民办教师中选招公办教师。通过多种途径，逐步减少民办教师的比重。

(46) 各级政府和学校,对优秀教师和教育工作者,要进行精神物质的奖励,对有突出贡献的教师要给予特殊津贴或奖励。并形成制度。提倡和鼓励各级政府、社会团体、企业和个人建立教师奖励基金。

六、教育经费

(47) 改革和完善教育投资体制,增加教育经费。目前教育经费相当紧缺,不仅不能适应加快改革开放和现代化建设对人才的需求,而且也难以满足现有教育事业发展的基本需要。增加教育投资是落实教育战略地位的根本措施,各级政府、社会各方面和个人都要努力增加对教育的投入,确保教育事业优先发展。要逐步建立以国家财政拨款为主,辅之以征收用于教育的税费、收取非义务教育阶段学生学杂费、校办产业收入、社会捐资集资和设立教育基金等多种渠道筹措教育经费的体制。通过立法,保证教育经费的稳定来源和增长。

(48) 筹措教育经费的主要措施:

——逐步提高国家财政性教育经费支出(包括:各级财政对教育的拨款,城乡教育费附加,企业用于举办中小学的经费,校办产业减免税部分)占国民生产总值的比例,本世纪末达到百分之四,达到发展中国家八十年代的平均水平。计划、财政、税务等部门要制定相应的政策措施,认真加以落实。

——各级政府必须认真贯彻《中共中央关于教育体制改革的决定》所规定的“中央和地方政府财政拨款的增长要高于财政经常性收入的增长,并使按在校学生人数平均的教育费用逐步增长”的原则,切实保证教师工资和生均公用经费逐年有所增长。要提高各级财政支出中教育经费所占的比例,“八五”期间逐步提高到全国平均不低于百分之十五。省(自治区、直辖市)本级财政、县(市)级财政支出中教育经费所占比例,由各省、自治区、直辖市政府确定。乡(镇)财政收入主要用于发展教育。

——进一步完善城乡教育费附加征收办法。凡缴纳产品税、增值税、营业税的单位和人,按“三税”的百分之二至百分之三计征城市教育费附加;农村教育费附加征收办法和计征比例,由各省、自治区、直辖市政府制定。上述所征款主要用于普及九年义务教育。地方政府还可根据当地教育发展的实际需要、经济状况和群众承受能力,开片其他用于教育的附加费。

——提高非义务教育阶段学生学费标准,同时按不同情况确定义务教育阶段学校杂费收费标准。学费和杂费收取标准和办法,由省、自治区、直辖市政府和直接管理学校的中央业务部门考虑群众承受能力确定。要加强收费管理,严禁乱收费。要创造条件,鼓励和支持学生参加勤工俭学,对家庭确有困难的学生,可减免学杂费或提供贷学金。

——继续大力发展校办产业和社会服务,逐步建立支持教育改革和发展的服务体系,各级政府和有关部门要给予优惠政策。

——鼓励和提倡厂矿企业、事业单位、社会团体和个人根据自愿、量力原则捐资助学、集资办学,不计征税。欢迎港澳台同胞、海外侨胞、外籍团体和友好人士对教育提供资助和捐赠。各级政府要加强对集资工作的统筹管理。——运用金融、信贷手段,融通教育资金,支持校办产业、高新科技企业以及勤工俭学的发展,开办教育储蓄和贷学金等业务。具体办法由国家教委会同有关部门制定。积极开展教师退休养老基金、医疗保险基金等工作。

(49) 重视解决各级各类学校,特别是中小学、职业技术学校仪器设备、教科书和图书资料短缺的问题,增加用于购置仪器设备和图书资料的资金。各级政府对教科书及教学

用图书资料的出版发行和教学仪器设备的生产、供应，实行优先、优惠的政策。继续加强学校危房改造工作，凡属危房不得使用，由当地政府负责限期解决。学校房屋倒塌造成师生伤亡事故的，要追究当地政府主要负责人的责任。坚决制止占用学校校舍和运动场地，保证学校活动正常进行。

（50）各级教育部门和学校必须努力提高教育经费的使用效益。要合理规划教育事业的规模，调整教育结构和布局，避免结构性浪费；要坚持艰苦奋斗、勤俭办学的方针，建立健全财务规章制度，加强财会队伍建设。各级财政和审计部门要加强财务监督和审计，共同把教育经费管好用好。

6. 《关于〈中国教育改革和发展纲要〉的实施意见》（1994年7月3日）

Title: Advice on Implementing the Outline of China's Education Reform and Development (The State Council, 1994)

Source: Retrieved February 20, 2008, from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/19/info3319.htm>

《中国教育改革和发展纲要》（中发[1993]3号，以下简称《纲要》）是90年代乃至下世纪初教育改革和发展的蓝图，是建设有中国特色社会主义教育体系的纲领性文件。认真贯彻实施《纲要》，是各级党委和政府的重要职责，是各级教育行政部门和各级各类学校的中心任务。

一、到2000年我国教育发展的目标和任务

（一）《纲要》根据我国社会主义现代化建设的战备部署，确定我国教育事业发展的总目标是：到本世纪末，全民受教育水平有明显提高；城乡劳动者的职前、职后教育有较大发展；各类专门人才的拥有量基本满足现代化建设的需要；形成具有中国特色的、面向21世纪的社会主义教育体系的基本框架。再经过几十年的努力，建立起比较成熟和完善的社会主义教育体系，实现教育的现代化。

（二）到2000年全国基本普及九年义务教育（包括初中阶段的职业教育），即占全国总人口85%的地区普及九年义务教育。初中阶段的入学率达到85%左右，全国小学入学率达到99%以上。

积极创造条件，使残疾儿童与其他儿童同步实施义务教育。大中城市基本满足幼儿接受教育的要求，广大农村积极发展学前一年的教育。

——根据分区规划，分类指导、分步实施的原则，全国不同地区的发展目标和速度可有差异。

约占总人口40%左右的城市及经济发展程度较高的农村，目前初中普及率较高。这类地区1997年前基本普及九年义务教育。

约占总人口40%左右的中等发展程度的农村，目前小学已普及。这类地区2000年前基本普及九年义务教育。

约占总人口15%左右的经济发展程度较低的农村，其中占总人口5%左右的地区，小学教育基础较好，到2000年基本普及九年义务教育；其余占总人口10%的地区重点普及五、六年小学教育。

约占总人口5%左右的特别贫困地区，要普及三、四年小学教育。

——从各地实际出发，初中办学模式要多样化。农村尤其是经济发展程度较低的地区，初中应适时注入适合本地需要的职业教育内容；也可以在初中教育的一定阶段，实行普通教育与职业教育分流；有的地区可试办职业初中。贫困地区还可采取正规教育 and 非正规教育相结合的方式，普及初中阶段教育。

——各省、自治区、直辖市要制定落实到县、乡的普及九年义务教育的分阶段规划，组织落实，并且按国家教委发布的《普及九年义务教育评估验收办法》，在县（市、区）自查的基础上，负责检查验收。要建立地方各级政府每年向上级政府和同级人大报告实施义务教育情况的制度，国家教委每年公布各地验收情况。要强化各级教育督导机构及其职

能，负责对义务教育实施和验收的监督、检查。本世纪末，国家教委要会同国家统计局进行全国义务教育普查。

（三）大城市市区和有条件的沿海经济发展程度较高地区要在普及九年义务教育的基础上，积极普及高中阶段教育（包括普通高中和高中阶段的职业教育）。普通高中可根据各地的需要和可能适量发展。到 2000 年普通高中在校生要达到 850 万人左右。每个县要面向全县重点办好一两所中学。全国重点建设 1000 所左右实验性、示范性的高中。

（四）有计划地实行小学后、初中后、高中后三级分流，大力发展职业教育，逐步形成初等、中等、高等职业教育和普通教育共同发展、相互衔接、比例合理的教育系列。

——在九年义务教育尚未和一时难以普及的地区，进行小学后的分流，发展初等职业教育。

——大部分地区以初中后分流为主，大力发展中等职业教育，逐步做到 50—70% 的初中毕业生进入中等职业学校或职业培训中心。到 2000 年各类中等职业学校年招生数和在校生数占高中阶段学生数的比例，全国平均保持在 60% 左右；普及高中阶段教育的城市可达到 70%。

——积极发展多样化的高中后职业教育和培训。通过改革现有高等专科学校、职业大学和成人高校以及举办灵活多样的高等职业班等途径，积极发展高等教育。

——职业教育的培养目标应以培养社会大量需要的具有一定专业技能的熟练劳动者和各种实用人才为主。当前要特别注意培养发展社会主义市场经济急需的财会、税务、金融等各类人才。对所有接受职业学校教育的学生，应根据本人的条件和可能，给予多种形式的继续学习深造的机会。

——大力开展多种形式的职业培训。认真实行“先培训、后就业”、“先培训、后上岗”的制度，使城乡新增劳动力上岗前都能受到必需的职业训练。在全社会实行学历文凭和职业资格证书并重的制度。

——全国中心城市和每个县首先重点建设一两所适合本地区发展特点的、综合性的中等骨干职业学校或培训中心，同大量形式多样的短期培训相结合，形成职业教育的网络。全国逐步建成约 2000 所重点中等职业学校或培训中心。

——大、中城市和经济发展程度较高的农村应积极发展残疾人高、中级职业教育。要鼓励社会力量和个人兴办残疾人职业培训机构，对残疾人进行以实用技术为主要内容的中、短期培训。全国逐步建成 30 所省级残疾人职业教育中心。

（五）高等教育要走内涵发展为主的道路，使规模更加适当，结构更加合理，质量和效益明显提高。

——到 2000 年全国普通高等学校和成人高等学校本专科在校生达到 630 万人左右，其中本科生 180 万人，专科生 450 万人。18—21 岁学龄人口入学率将上升到 8% 左右。

——不同类型不同层次的高等学校应有不同的发展目标和重点，办出各自的特色。各类大专层次的高等教育应适当扩大规模，注意充分利用电视、广播、函授等办学形式，为广大农村，乡镇企业以及中小型企业生产第一线培养人才。本科教育要把重点放在提高质量上，硕士生、博士生的培养基本上要立足于国内。在培养基础学科人才的同时，要重视培养社会主义建设急需的高层次应用型和复合型人才。

——实施“211工程”。面向21世纪，分期分批重点建设100所左右的高等学校和一批重点学科，使其到2000年在教育质量、科学研究、管理水平及办学效益等方面有较大提高，在教育改革方面有明显进展。争取有若干所高等学校在21世纪初接近或达到国际一流大学的学术水平。

——进一步发挥高等学校在我国科学技术工作中的重要作用。高校科学技术工作，应面向社会主义现代化建设，同培养人才相结合。大力组织科技攻关，开展技术开发、推广应用和咨询服务，有计划有重点地发展科技产业，使科技成果尽快转化为现实生产力；努力加强基础性研究和高技术研究。到本世纪末建成100个左右国家级的基础研究基地和工程（技术）研究中心。高校哲学社会科学研究工作，应以马克思主义、毛泽东思想和邓小平建设有中国特色社会主义的理论为指导，研究和解决社会主义现代化建设中的重大理论和实际问题，为建设有中国特色的社会主义作出贡献，成立并努力办好教育系统建设有中国特色社会主义理论研究中心。

（六）大力发展以扫盲和岗位培训及继续教育为重点的成人教育。

——到2000年全国基本扫除青壮年文盲，使青壮年的非文盲率达到95%左右。国务院决定成立全国扫盲工作部际机构机构，统筹指导扫盲工作。

——各行业都要建立从业人员在岗和转岗的培训制度，积极开展岗位培训。城市和农村每年都应有一定比例的从业人员接受多种形式的岗位培训。到2000年全国多数乡和村都应办起能常年开展培训活动的农民文化技术学校。把文化知识教育和职业教育结合起来。

——成人学历教育应向多样性、职业性方向发展。各类成人学校要加强同普通学校、职业学校的联系与合作，提高办学效益，努力办出成人教育特色。要充分利用各种远距离教学形式为中小城市、乡镇企业、农村以及边远和经济发展程度较低地区服务。要完善自学考试制度，鼓励自学成才。

——大力加强在职干部的培养提高和继续教育工作。要以高等学校为依托，充分调动社会各方面的积极性，逐步建立规范化的继续教育制度，努力为各行各业培养造就大批适应我国社会主义市场经济和社会发展要求的骨干人才。

（七）重视和发展少数民族教育事业。中央和地方政府在教育经费和师资培训以及世界银行贷款等方面要对少数民族教育采取特殊的倾斜政策。继续认真组织落实内地省、市对民族地区教育的对口支援。认真办好高等学校的少数民族预科教育和本专科民族班教育。加强对少数民族干部的培训。各民族地区要积极探索符合当地实际的发展教育的路子。

（八）积极发展广播电视教育和学校电化教育，推广运用现代化教学手段。到2000年基本建成全国电教网络，全国70%左右的县要建立起教育电视台（收转台），70%左右乡镇中心小学以上的学校和少数民族寄宿制学校要能够直接收看教育电视节目。

（九）进一步加强国际教育交流与合作，扩大教育对外开放，吸收与借鉴世界各国发展教育的成功经验和人类科学文化成果。积极开拓对外交流渠道，争取对我国发展教育的资助与合作项目，支持和发展学校和科研机构的国际学术交流与合作。继续扩大派遣自费留学生，对公费派遣留学人员要优先考虑国家的重点学科、建设项目人才培养的需要，切实改进选拔和管理工作。对留学人员继续实行“支持留学、鼓励回国，来去自由”的政策，鼓励他们学成回国或采取多种形式为祖国服务。改革来华留学生的招生和管理办法。建立国家留学基金管理委员会，使来华与出国留学的招生、选拔和管理工作走上法制化轨道。

（十）我国教育事业的发展还要着眼于大力提高质量和效益。

——按照邓小平同志提出的“教育要面向现代化、面向世界、面向未来”的要求和教育方针，研究制定各级各类学校的基本办学条件标准和质量标准，建立和完善教育监测评估和督导制度，使受教育者的素质有明显提高，更好地适应经济建设和社会发展的需要。

——加强教育发展的统筹规划，合理调整教育结构和布局；积极推进高等学校之间、中等职业学校之间的联合和协作，实行资源共享、优势互补、精简机构、减少冗员、提高生师比，充分发挥现有学校教师和校舍、仪器设备、图书资料等方面的潜力，提高学校的规模效益和办学效益。到2000年学校平均规模，本科院校达到3500人以上，专科学校达到2000人以上，中专学校达到1000人以上，技工学校达到500人以上，职业高中达到600人以上，力争到本世纪末在实现我国教育的高效益方面有更大进展。

二、深化教育改革的任务和政策措施

（十一）《纲要》提出，随着经济体制、政治体制和科技体制改革的深化，教育体制改革要采取综合配套、分步推进的方针，初步建立起与社会主义市场经济体制和政治体制、科技体制改革相适应的教育新体制。通过深化教育改革，促进教育事业的发展，提高教育质量和办学效益，多出人才，出好人才，更好地为社会主义现代化建设服务。

（十二）加快办学体制改革，进一步改变政府包揽办学的状况，形成政府办学为主与社会各界参与办学相结合的新体制。

——基础教育主要由政府办学，同时鼓励企事业单位和其他社会力量按国家的法律和政策多渠道、多形式办学。有条件的地方，也可实行“民办公助”、“公办民助”等形式。企业举办的中小学应继续办好，有条件的地方在政府统筹下也可以逐步交给社会来办。

——职业教育和成人教育应面向社会需要，在政府统筹管理下，主要依靠行业、企事业单位、社会团体和公民个人举办，鼓励社会各方面联合举办。政府通过专项补助和长期贷款等形式给予必要的扶持。职业学校要走产教结合的路子，更多地利用贷款发展校办产业，增强学校自身发展的能力。要建立和完善现代企业教育制度。通过立法，明确企业举办职业教育以及对在职职工进行岗位培训和继续教育的责任。

——普通高等学校实行以政府办学为主，积极发展多种形式的联合办学。某些科类的高等学校可以试行以学生缴费和社会集资为主，国家财政补助为辅的办学模式。社会各界办学应以职业学校为主。

——国家欢迎港、澳、台同胞，海外侨胞和外国友好机构和人士按照我国法律和教育法规，来华捐资办学或合作办学。

（十三）深化中等及中等以下教育体制改革，完善分级办学、分级管理体制。

——基础教育实行在国家宏观指导下主要由地方负责、分级管理体制。国家负责制订有关基础教育的法规、方针、政策及总体发展规划、基本学制、课程设置和课程标准；设立用于贫困地区、民族地区、师范教育的专项补助基金；对省级教育工作进行监督、指导等。省级政府负责本地区基础教育的实施工作，包括制订本地区基础教育发展规划，确定教学计划、选用教材和审定省编教材；组织对本地区基础教育的评估、验收；建立用于补助贫困地区、少数民族地区的专项基金，对县级财政教育经费有困难困难的地区给予补助等。地、市政府根据中央和省级政府制定的法规、方针、政策，对本地区实施义务教育进行统筹和指导。县级政府在组织义务教育的实施方面负有主要责任，包括统筹管理教育经费，调配和管理中小学校长、教师，指导中小学教育教学工作等。乡级政府负责落实义务

教育的具体工作,包括保障适龄儿童、少年按时入学。有条件的经济发展程度较高的地区,义务教育经费可仍由县、乡共管,充分发挥乡财政的作用。

——中等和中等以下职业教育和成人教育要进一步理顺管理体制。中央和地方教育行政部门对职业教育和成人教育负有统筹、协调和宏观管理的责任。要规范各类职业学校的学制,相同水平的各类职业学校的毕业生在就业和待遇上应大体一致。以进行学历教育为主的职业学校和成人学校,原则上由各级教育部门进行管理。职业培训和在岗的岗位培训工作,原则上由各级劳动、人事部门和有关业务部门进行管理。

——继续大力推进农村、城市和教育综合改革。积极实施燎原计划,认真做好推广农村教育综合改革实验县和燎原计划示范乡工作,促进“农科教”结合和“三教统筹”。国家教委和各省、自治区、直辖市教育部门都要重点抓好一批综合改革的试验典型。

(十四)深化高等教育体制改革,建立政府宏观管理、学校面向社会自主办学的体制。

——通过立法,明确高等学校的权利和义务,扩大学校的办学自主权,使学校真正成为面向社会自主办学的法人单位。学校在政府宏观管理下,自主组织实施教学、科研工作及相应的人、财、物配置,包括制定年度招生方案、自主调节系科招生比例、调整或扩大专业范围、确定学校内部机构设置、决定教职工聘任与奖惩、经费筹集和使用、津贴发放以及国际交流等。同时要深化学校内部管理体制,通过学校内部机构、人事制度、分配制度和后勤管理改革,进一步调动教职工的积极性,促进高等学校建立和完善面向社会自主办学和自我约束的机制。

——政府要切实转变职能,改善对学校的宏观管理。政府的主要职能是:制订教育的方针、政策和法规;制订各类高等学校设置标准和学位标准;制订教育事业发展规划和审批年度招生计划;提出教育经费预算并统筹安排和管理以及通过建立基金制等方式,发挥拨款机制的宏观调控作用;逐步建立支持教育发展的服务体系;组织对各类学校教育质量的检查和评估等,对学校进行宏观管理。属于学校的权限,坚决下放给学校。为保证政府职能的转变,使重大决策经过科学的研究和论证,要建立健全社会中介组织,包括教育决策咨询研究机构、高等学校设置和学位评议与咨询机构、教育评估机构、教育考试机构、资格证书机构等,发挥社会各界参与教育决策和管理的作用。

——高等教育逐步实行中央和省、自治区、直辖市两级管理,以省级政府为主体的体制。认真贯彻落实国务院关于《高等教育管理职责暂行规定》中有关中央和地方对高等教育的管理权限。逐步扩大省级政府的教育决策权和统筹权:(1)随着中央业务部门管理的部分高等学校转由省级政府管理或实行联合办学,省级政府应对这些学校连同省属高校,进行统筹,合理布局,对学校和专业设置在自愿和充分协商的基础上进行必要的调整。

(2)有条件的经济发展程度较高地区的中心城市办学,由中央和省两级政府统筹。(3)现阶段仍由国家教委审批高等学校的设置,同时,积极做好高等专科学校和高等职业学校审批权下放的试点工作。

从长远看,中央业务部门除继续办好少量行业特点明显、有特殊需要的高等学校外,应逐步把主要精力放到预测行业人力需求、制订行业岗位规范和岗位资格证书制度、设立奖学金和贷学金、引导培养本行业紧缺人才、组织和参与评估监督、协助国家教委对本行业教育的发展与改革进行指导等方面上。

(十五)逐步改变高等学校条块分割、“小而全”的状况,优化高等教育的结构与布局,提高办学效益。

——中央各部门所属高等学校要扩大服务面和经费来源渠道，加强与地方政府、企业和社会各界的合作与联系，改变单一的办学模式和单一的经费来源状况，增强学校适应社会多方面需求的能力。部门所属学校的管理体制要分别不同情况，采取中央部门办、中央和地方政府联合办、地方政府办、企业集团参与管理、学校之间的联合或合并等不同办法，进行改革。这项改革牵动面比较大，要从实际出发，采取积极而又审慎的态度和相应的配套措施，通过试点，总结经验，逐步展开。要防止一哄而起，搞形式主义，更要注意不能使学校的投入和教学工作受到削弱。

为推进部门所属院校管理体制改革，加快探索部门所属院校由各省、自治区、直辖市政府领导或实行中央部委和各省、自治区、直辖市政府之间多种形式的联合办学，拟成立部门院校体制改革协调小组，加强对这项工作的指导并协调解决改革中出现的各种实际问题。中央各有关部委要继续加强对所属高校的支持和领导。从1994年起，选择若干类型学校进行部属院校管理体制改革的试点，1997年条件成熟的学校进入新体制运行，争取到2000年或稍长一点时间基本形成以省级政府为主办学与管理的条块结合的新体制的框架。

——实行全国和地方（大区、省、中心城市）分层统筹规划，通过必要的政策导向和社会需求的调节机制，促进国家教委所属院校、中央业务部门所属院校、地方所属院校之间以及地方院校之间的联合，鼓励普通高等学校和成人高等学校之间的联合与协作，合理调整高等教育布局。

改变目前高等学校封闭办学的状况，提倡校与校之间有条件地教师相互兼课，充分发挥学校仪器设备、图书资料和校舍的利用率。在研究生培养规模较大的高等学校，逐步实行研究生兼助教的制度并通过实行学分制等各项改革，逐步减少住读生，增加走读生，推进生活服务的社会化，提高办学效益。

（十六）积极推进高等学校和中等专业学校、技工学校的招生收费改革和毕业生就业制度的改革，逐步实行学生缴费上学，大多数毕业生自主择业的制度。1997年大多数学校按新制度运作，2000年基本实现新旧体制转轨。

——改革招生计划体制。在现阶段实行国家任务计划与调节性计划相结合的体制。在人才市场、劳动力市场比较完善，全面实行缴费上学制度后，学校可根据社会需求和办学条件自行调整招生规模。国家通过制订学校设置及学位和学历证书的基本标准、审核办学条件、教学评估、拨款以及有关部门发布毕业生就业状况和人才供求信息等手段，调控招生总规模和专业结构。

——学生实行缴费上学制度。缴费标准由教育行政主管部门按生均培养成本的一定比例和社会及学生家长承受能力因地、因校（或专业）确定。原则上同一学校（或专业）实行同一种收费标准。不应以收取高额学费而降低录取标准。国家建立各种专项奖学金或定向奖学金，奖励品学兼优的学生和报考国家重点保证的某些学科、师范院校及特殊的、条件艰苦的专业和志愿到边远地区工作的学生。急需毕业生的部门、地区或企事业单位也可设立专项奖学金或定向奖学金。国家对家庭经济困难的学生设立贷学金。学生缴费上学制度改革尚在试行阶段，只适用于新入学的学生，原来已在校的学生仍实行老办法。

——高等学校和中等专业学校、技工学校的毕业生，近期内除委托、定向培养和自费生外，实行在国家宏观指导下，学校与用人单位供需见面和一定范围内双向选择的制度。在人才市场、劳动力市场比较完善，全面实行缴费上学制度之后，除享受国家和单位专项或定向奖学金的学生按合同就业外，其余学生根据国家政策指导下进入劳动力市场自主择业。为保证艰苦地区和行业、国家重点单位的人才需求，除实行上述专项或定向奖学金和贷学金制度外，国家还要通过工资政策、规定服务期限等政策措施进行宏观调控。各地区和学校要在调查研究的基础上周密制定实施这项改革的方案，要加强宣传和思想工作。

（十七）加强教育法制建设，依法治教。加快教育立法步伐，抓紧制定《教育法》、《职业教育法》和《高等教育法》等一批教育法律和行政法规。各地也要从实际出发，制定和完善有关的地方教育法规，逐步形成分层次的教育法规体系。各级政府要带头执法，要建立和加强执法监督制度。

（十八）认真贯彻教育方针，深入进行教学改革，努力提高教育质量。

要进一步转变教育思想，改革教学内容和教学方法，克服学校教育不同程度存在的脱离经济建设和社会发展需要的现象。基础教育应把重点放在提高儿童和青少年的思想道德水平、文化科学知识、劳动技能和身体、心理素质上来。要通过深化教学改革以及推进小学毕业生就近入学、初中毕业生升学考试、高中会考和高考制度等改革，切实减轻学生过重的学习负担，使学生在德、智、体等方面生动活泼地得到发展，为将来进入社会和继续学习打下良好的坚实基础。职业教育要注重职业道德和实际能力的培养，努力造就一批能够适应社会主义市场经济发展需要、能够跻身于国际市场激烈竞争的、具有良好素质的新一代熟练劳动者和生产第一线的建设者。高等教育要重点发展应用性学科和专业，适度发展新兴学科、边缘交叉学科，稳定和提高基础学科；要努力培养高层次复合型人才；要特别重视培养农村和乡镇企业需要的各种人才，开拓人才通向农村的途径。采取与实际工作部门以及境外机构和个人联合培训、研修等措施，努力培养适应社会主义市场经济急需的管理人员和教学、研究人员。要合理调整系科和专业设置，拓宽专业面，优化课程结构，改革课程内容和教学方法，加强教材建设，注重素质和能力的培养，增强学生对社会需要的适应性。逐步实行学分制，在确定必修课的同时，设立和增加选修课，拓宽学生的知识视野，激发学生学习的主动性和创造性。建立合理的淘汰制和优秀学生奖励制等教育教学制度，大面积提高教育质量。

（十九）切实加强党对教育工作的领导，大力加强和改进德育工作。要组织师生认真学习马列主义、毛泽东思想，特别是邓小平同志建设有中国特色社会主义的理论。进一步加强党的基本路线教育和爱国主义、集体主义、社会主义思想教育，进行中国历史特别是近代史、现代史教育和国情教育、法制教育，进行中华民族传统美德和革命传统教育，培养和造就德、智、体全面发展的“四有”新人。

要遵循青少年和儿童思想品德形成发展的规律和社会发展的要求，科学地规划大、中、小学德育的目标、内容和实施途径，加强整体衔接。对中小学生重点进行文明礼貌、遵纪守法、公民义务和基本道德规范教育。对中学高年级和大学的学生要简明扼要地讲授马克思主义的基本观点，组织学生认真学习毛泽东同志的重要哲学著作，特别是学习邓小平同志建设有中国特色的社会主义理论。中小学的美育（包括音乐、美术和劳作等）对全面提高学生素质、陶冶学生情操、培养全面发展的人才具有重要作用，应该切实加强。要加强学校的建设，发挥学校党组织的政治核心作用和党员的先锋模范作用，建立和完善校长负责德育实施的管理体制。要加强德育队伍建设，不断提高队伍素质，同时，要从政策和制度上保证“教书育人、管理育人、服务育人”的落实。广大教师和教育工作者要发扬敬业奉献精神，以身作则，为人师表。要加强德育的实践环节，大力推进校园文化建设。要广泛动员社会力量参与学校教育，通过各种途径，关心和保护青少年的健康成长，形成学校教育、社会教育、家庭教育更加紧密结合的新格局。

（二十）各级各类学校都要进一步贯彻教育与生产劳动相结合的方针，采取多种形式促进学校教育与社会紧密结合。要把劳动教育列入教学计划，逐步做到制度化、系列化。社会各方面要积极为学校进行劳动教育提供场所。

进一步加强学校体育、卫生工作，把促进学生身心健康成长作为教学改革的重要任务。认真贯彻落实《学校体育工作条例》、《学校卫生工作条例》等有关学校体育、卫生工作的规定。各级政府要把学校体育、卫生工作状况列为各级教育督导的内容之一。

（二十一）加快劳动、人事、工资制度与教育体制的配套改革，把人才的培养与合理使用更好地结合起来。

逐步建立学历文凭和职业资格两种证书制度，组建职业资格委员会，制定各种职业的岗位规范和录用标准。采取公开招聘、公开竞争、考核录用的办法，使高等学校和中等职业学校毕业生公开、公平竞争就业。要不拘一格选拔人才，打破人才部门和地区所有的状态，促进人才合理流动，并对某些艰苦行业和边远贫困地区实行必要的人才保护政策，建立就业指导、职业介绍等中介机构，为毕业生就业提供服务，运用工资待遇等杠杆调节劳动力的供求和人才的流向。

三、增加教育投入，加强教师队伍建设

（二十二）国家财政对教育的拨款，是教育经费的主渠道，必须予以保证。各级政府要树立教育投资是战略性投资的理念，合理调整投资结构，在安排财政预算时，优先保证教育的需求并切实做到《纲要》提出的“三个增长”。

——《纲要》提出，到本世纪末，国家财政性教育经费支出占国民生产总值的比重应达到4%，国务院有关部门要制定相应的政策措施和实施步骤，认真加以落实。关于各级财政支出中教育经费所占的比例，财政部要会同国家教委，根据财税体制改革后财政计算口径的变化，尽快提出中央财政和省财政中教育经费应占的比例，切实保证教育拨款实际上有较大幅度的增长。

——应制定并颁布《实施义务教育投入条例》，明确规定各级政府要采取有力措施，保证和不断增加对义务教育的投入。农村实施义务教育各类学校公办教师的工资，一般由县级财政负责支付，经济发达的农村，也可以由乡级财政负责支付。民办教师工资，属政府支付部分，由县级财政负责；乡筹部分，在征收的教育费附加中支付；实施义务教育各类学校年生均公用经费定额，由省级政府制定标准，由县级财政（经济富裕地区亦可由乡级财政）负责拨款；城乡实施义务教育的学校新建、改建、扩建和危房改造所需资金，由各级政府列入基本建设投资计划；中央和地方县级以上各级人民政府都应设立和增加对边远、贫困地区实施义务教育的专项经费。中央财政对边远、贫困地区义务教育及有关的师范教育等专项扶助经费，从今年开始由现在的2亿多元要逐年有较大幅度提高，尽快在两三年内达到每年不少于10亿元。地方县级以上各级财政预算也应作出相应安排并应采取有效的监控措施，保证专款专用。

——为实施“211工程”，需要设立专项基金。这项经费中央和地方、部门要作统筹安排。1994年中央财政拨出3亿元专款，作为启动资金，以后逐年增加，省级政府和其他有关中央部门也要根据实际需要，作出安排。

——为切实保证高等学校和中等以上职业学校生均公用经费逐年有所增长，中央各部门及省级人民政府应按国家有关规定制定本部门、本地区各类学校公用经费标准，据此执行和考核。

——为实现事权与财权的统一，要进一步改革教育经费管理体制，教育经费实行预算单列并由各级教育行政部门提出年度计划的建议，报同级财政部门，由同级政府列入预算，批准后认真实施。

——加强对各级政府教育投入水平的监控。从1994年开始，国家教委会同国家统计局对全国和各省、自治区、直辖市教育经费执行情况予以公布，加强社会监控。各级政府应定期向同级人民代表大会专题报告教育预算执行情况，接受监督考核。

(二十三) 适应财税体制的改革, 进一步改革教育费附加征收办法。城乡教育费附加按增值税、营业税、消费税的 3% 征收。农村不缴纳增值税、营业税、消费税的乡镇企业和个体企业教育费附加的征收办法, 由各省、自治区、直辖市政府确定。农民按人均纯收入的 1.5%—2% 征收(包括在农民负担的 5% 之内)教育费附加, 具体比例由各地方从当地实际出发作出规定, 由税务部门负责征收。教育费附加主要用于农村民办教师补贴和补充学校公用经费, 不能扣减, 更不得挪用甚至取消。各地对此都要建立严格而有效的监督检查制度。除足额征收国家规定的教育费附加外, 地方政府可根据国家有关法律和实际需要与可能, 决定开征其他用于教育的地方附加费, 专款必须专用。

(二十四) 多渠道筹措教育经费。

——国家支持学校发展校办产业, 对包括各类职业学校在内的校办产业仍继续实行减免税政策。国家对校办产业的政策性低息贷款将逐年增加。

——建立教育银行, 运用金融手段扩大教育资金来源。

——继续鼓励厂矿企业、社会力量以及海内外各界人士捐资助学和农村集资办学。对教育事业的捐资, 依照有关法律、法规的规定, 从应纳税的所得中予以扣除。农村集资主要用于农村学校危房改造、修缮和新建校舍以及教学基本条件的改善。教育方面除此之外的乱集资必须严格禁止。农村教育集资的审批权放在县一级。各类学校不得以任何名目乱收费, 社会也不得向学校乱摊派。

(二十五) 认真贯彻执行《教师法》, 加强教师队伍建设, 提高教师的思想、业务素质和教学水平, 建设一支具有良好政治业务素质、热爱教育事业、结构合理、相对稳定的教师队伍。

——要有计划地对中小学的校长、教师进行培训。到本世纪末, 使 95% 以上的小学教师和 80% 以上的初中教师达到国家规定的合格学历标准。有条件的经济发展程度较高的地区要逐步提高中、小学教师的学历层次。各级政府要采取特殊政策大力办好师范教育, 鼓励优秀学生报考师范院校, 鼓励师范院校毕业生乐于从教。同时要积极鼓励和吸引更多的非师范院校优秀大学毕业生到中小学任教。为了加强对中小学教师教学工作的管理, 提高校长领导水平, 要制订中小学校长岗位规范, 实施“百万校长培训计划”, 争取 1997 年左右在全国实行中小学校长持证上岗制度。

——高等学校要加强教师的继续教育, 提高教师队伍的整体素质, 平稳实现 90 年代教师队伍的新老交替。为了提高教师的教学和学术水平, 有条件的高等学校可对教学任务较重的副教授以上教师实行学术休假制度。大力培养中青年骨干教师, 重视从国内外吸引优秀人才充实教师队伍, 积极实施“跨世纪人才工程”, 造就一支跨世纪的学科带头人队伍。应用学科应逐步做到新增教师都具有一定的本专业的实践经验, 大力提倡高校教师与企业、研究院(所)和实际工作部门的专家进行交流。

——结合职业教育的特点, 制订职业学校教师资格标准。到 2000 年使中专学校教师基本达到任职资格标准, 职业中学、技工学校 60% 以上的教师达到任职资格标准。积极聘任企业工程技术、管理人员和能工巧匠任兼职教师。职业学校专业技能教师可实行教师职称和专业技术职称双职称制。有关高等学校要积极承担培养职业学校师资的任务, 有条件的可单独举办师资班, 对口招收中等职业学校毕业生。

——各级教育部门和学校都要采取有效措施, 认真加强对教师的思想政治工作, 充分发挥教师中党、团组织和工会的作用, 努力提高教师的政治思想觉悟和道德水平。

(二十六) 提高教师的待遇和社会地位。

——保证实现《教师法》和《纲要》所规定的教师工资待遇的目标，使教师的平均工资水平不低于或者高于国家公务员平均工资水平。要建立有效机制，决不允许拖欠教师工资，人事、财政部门应制订相应的提高教师工资的规划和计划。各地区、各部门在国家规定的政策内可根据实际情况，具体制订教师的津贴标准和范围。要采取特殊措施较大速度地改善优秀骨干教师的待遇。要采取措施提高民办教师待遇，逐步做到民办教师与公办教师同工同酬。今后不再增加新的民办教师。现有合格的民办教师经考核认定资格后逐步转为公办教师，不合格的要予以调整。国家计委、人事部及各地要作出规划，分年度实施，争取到本世纪末基本解决民办教师问题。

——改善教师住房条件。各级政府应继续贯彻执行国务院办公厅（1992）52号文件精神，重视教职工的住房建设，把城镇教师住宅建设纳入城市建设总体规划和“康居工程”计划，对教师住房采取优先优惠政策，尽快使城镇教职工家庭人均住房面积达到或超过当地居民的平均水平。

——切实解决教师尤其是农村教师看病难、报销难的问题。按规定享受公费医疗的教师要同当地国家公务员享受同等医疗待遇。

——各级领导必须进一步确立依靠广大教职工特别是教师办好学校的思想，充分调动教师的积极性和创造性，提高他们的社会地位。各级政府要制订表彰、奖励优秀教师和优秀教育工作者的规定和办法，通过舆论宣传以及搞好每年一度的教师节活动等多种途径，促进全社会进一步形成尊师重教的良好风气。

四、落实教育优先发展的战略地位，加强党和政府对教育工作的领导

（二十七）贯彻实施《纲要》的关键，是各级党委和政府切实把教育摆在优先发展的战略地位并在实际工作中认真加以落实。

各级党、政主要领导都应亲自抓教育，要象抓好经济工作那样抓好教育工作，把教育列入党和政府工作的重要议事日程。

各级政府应将教育发展列入本地区经济和社会发展规划，将各类学校建设纳入地区市政建设和乡村建设规划，在部署、检查、总结年度工作时把教育工作作为一项重要内容。各级政府要就教育发展和改革情况每年向同级人民代表大会作出报告。

把重视教育，保证必要的教育投入，为教育办实事，列为各级领导干部的任期目标责任制和考核政绩的重要内容。

要动员和组织全社会关心和保护青少年和儿童的健康成长，创造良好的育人环境。各级领导干部应经常深入学校，与师生座谈，了解情况，研究和解决问题，定期向师生作形势报告。

各地应认真总结推广本地区落实教育战略地位，实施《纲要》的经验，相互交流。

（二十八）切实加强领导，认真组织好《纲要》的“施工”。贯彻落实《纲要》，是90年代我国教育事业和整个社会主义现代化建设的一件大事，也是一项十分复杂、艰巨的社会系统工程。各级党委和政府、教育行政部门、各级各类学校要把认真学习邓小平建设有中国特色社会主义理论、《中共中央关于建立社会主义市场经济体制若干问题的决定》和认真落实《纲要》结合起来，进一步解放思想，从实际出发，大力开展调查研究并积极支持教育科学研究特别是教育决策咨询研究，促进教育决策的科学化，制定本地区、本部门和学校实施《纲要》的具体规划和措施，分阶段、分步骤组织实施，进一步推进教育事业的改革和发展。

7. 《关于推动职业大学改革与建设的几点意见》（1995年10月6日）

Title: Some Advice on Promoting the Reform and Construction of Vocational Colleges (The Ministry of Education, 1995)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007, from http://old.hnedu.cn/fagui/Law/17/law_17_1111.htm

为贯彻全国教育工作会议精神，落实国务院关于《中国教育改革和发展纲要》实施意见中提出的“通知改革现有高等专科学校、职业大学和成人高校以及举办灵活多样的高等职业教育班等途径，积极发展高等职业教育”的要求，通过改革与建设，促进职业大学的健康发展，使其在我国高等职业教育的发展和经济建设中发挥更大的作用，特提出如下意见：

一、进一步明确职业大学在我国高等职业教育事业发展中的地位和作用

80年代初，为适应地方经济建设和社会发展的需要，部分地方和中心城市相继举办了一批为当地培养实用人才的职业大学。经过十几年的建设，多数学校已具备了基本的办学条件，形成了一定的办学实力，教育质量逐步提高，为社会培养了三十多万应用型高等专门人才，为当地经济建设和社会发展作出了应有的贡献，为探索我国高等职业教育的办学路子取得了一定的经验与可喜的成绩。但是，高等职业教育在我国发展时间不长，经验不足，重视不够，以于职业大学在办学中尚存在着政策不配套、发展不平衡、办学条件不足、专业特色不明显等困难和问题，影响了职业大学的建设与发展。必须进一步明确，职业大学是我国高等教育的一种办学形式，是高等职业教育的重要组成部分。职业大学直接面向地方经济建设，面向基层，面向中小企业和乡镇企业，担负着为地方经济建设和社会发展培养高级（部分中级）实用技术、管理人才的任务。积极发展高等职业教育，推动职业大学的改革

与建设，是我国高等教育进行结构调整，主动适应地方经济建设和社会发展需要的一项重大改革。因此要采取有力措施，重视和加强对职业大学的领导和管理，积极推动职业大学的改革、建设与发展。

二、推动职业大学改革与建设的基本要求和主要措施

1. 密切围绕培养应用型人才的特点，深化教学领域的改革，努力办出高等职业教育的特色。要从职业分析入手，根据一定的职业岗位（群）所需的知识能力结构并兼顾长远需要，确定培养目标，制订切合实际的教学计划。学校可根据经济发展的需要灵活设置专业，教学上要以能力培养为中心，课程设置和课时安排要保证培养目标的实现。理论教学要以“必需，够用”为原则。切实加强实践性教学环节，制订行之有效的职业能力训练计划，并列入考核内容，保证教育教学质量。采取积极措施逐步实行毕业文凭和技术等级证书或岗位资格证书并重的制度。要根据教学的需要重视和加强校外生产实习基地的建设。国家教委将推荐一批高等职业教育特色明显的专业教学计划和教学模式，并部署高等职业教育专业教学计划的修订

工作，制订高等职业教育的教材建设计划。在条件成熟后，将对全国职业大学开设的专业进行汇总，在总结分析各类高等职业教育专业设置情况的基础上，逐步进行规范。

2. 要加强与产业部门的联合，积极实行校企结合。有条件的学校，可建立包括企业界、科技界等方面代表组成的校董会。要努力探索产教结合的办学路子，大力发展校办产业，增强学校的办学活力与自我发展能力。积极开展应用科学技术研究、技术推广以及新技术、新产品开发工作，承担成人教育和岗位培训任务，不断增强学校在当地经济建设和社会发展中的影响力与促进作用。

3. 努力改善办学条件,提高办学水平。根据《中国教育改革和发展纲要》中关于“建立各级各类教育的质量标准和评估体系”的精神,依照国务院发布的《普通高等学校设置条例》中关于高等职业学校的设置标准,国家教委将组织制定有关高等职业教育的质量要求和评估体系,对现有职业大学的办学条件与办学水平进行评估。确定并采取措施,首先办好一批起示范作用的骨干学校。具备办学条件、社会又有较大需求的学校,要努力扩大办学规模,提高办学效益。对不合格的学校要责成主管部门制定计划,采取措施,限期改善办学条件。职业大学要保持相对稳定,要在办学特色上下功夫,今后职业大学不再改名高等专科学校。

4. 加强师资队伍建设。要鼓励教师,特别是专业课教师钻研专业技术,对专业课教师和实习指导教师可逐步实行评定教师职称与专业技术职称的双职称制度。在评聘教师职务时,应将教师的教学实绩和专业实践能力与贡献作为重要的业务条件。要聘请一批富有实践经验,又能胜任教学工作的工程技术人员或管理人员到校任兼职教师,做到专兼结合。

5. 改革职业大学的招生制度。职业大学要根据培养目标的要求,逐步扩大招生对象,对于操作、技能性强的专业,可试点招收部分中等职业技术学校毕业生。有条件的学校,结合专业特点,经国家教委批准,也可举办专科层次的招收初中毕业生学制五年的专业

6. 职业大学实行学生缴费上学制度,根据职业教育实践性强,所需经费多的特点,其收费标准可由当地教育部门会同物价部门参加当地其他普通高校收费标准制定。

三、切实加强职业大学的领导

1. 职业大学属国家承认学历的全日制普通高等学校,其招生、在校生和毕业生待遇等方面执行普通高等院校有关的政策。学校主管部门配备学校领导人员,应按照普通高等学校的要求对待并力求相对稳定。

2. 地方政府要加强对学校的领导,制定必要的政策措施,为职业大学的健康发展创造条件。要将职业大学的发展列入当地教育事业发展的规划中,保证必要的事业、基建和设备经费的投入,其生均经费当前应首先做到不低于当地普通专科学校的标准,并逐年有所提高。

3. 要从当地实际出发加强职业大学的管理。根据职业大学办学地方性的特点,学校的专业设置、干部任用、办学经费筹集等主要由地方负责。省级教育行政部门主要负责学校办学水平评估,教育、教学指导及质量检查等工作两级教育行政部门都要及时了解办学中出现的新情况,帮助学校解决实际困难和问题,促进职业大学的健康发展。

Appendix B HVE-Related Policies (1996-1999)

8. 《中华人民共和国职业教育法》(1996年5月15日)

Title: The Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China (1996)

Source: Retrieved on December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/level3.jsp?tablename=1118300670083031&infoid=1427>

第一章 总 则

第一条 为了实施科教兴国战略，发展职业教育，提高劳动者素质，促进社会主义现代化建设，根据教育法和劳动法，制定本法。

第二条 本法适用于各级各类职业学校教育和各种形式的职业培训。国家机关实施的对外国机关工作人员的专门培训由法律、行政法规另行规定。

第三条 职业教育是国家教育事业的重要组成部分，是促进经济、社会发展和劳动就业的重要途径。国家发展职业教育，推进职业教育改革，提高职业教育质量，建立、健全适应社会主义市场经济和社会进步需要的职业教育制度。

第四条 实施职业教育必须贯彻国家教育方针，对受教育者进行思想政治教育和职业道德教育，传授职业知识，培养职业技能，进行职业指导，全面提高受教育者的素质。

第五条 公民有依法接受职业教育的权利。

第六条 各级人民政府应当将发展职业教育纳入国民经济和社会发展规划。行业组织和企业、事业组织应当依法履行实施职业教育的义务。

第七条 国家采取措施，发展农村职业教育，扶持少数民族地区、边远贫困地区职业教育的发展。国家采取措施，帮助妇女接受职业教育，组织失业人员接受各种形式的职业教育，扶持残疾人职业教育的发展。

第八条 实施职业教育应当根据实际需要，同国家制定的职业分类和职业等级标准相适应，实行学历证书、培训证书和职业资格证书制度。国家实行劳动者在就业前或者上岗前接受必要的职业教育的制度。

第九条 国家鼓励并组织职业教育的科学研究。

第十条 国家对在职业教育中作出显著成绩的单位和个人给予奖励。

第十一条 国务院教育行政部门负责职业教育工作的统筹规划、综合协调、宏观管理。国务院教育行政部门、劳动行政部门和其他有关部门在国务院规定的职责范围内，分别负责有关的职业教育工作。县级以上地方各级人民政府应当加强对本行政区域内职业教育工作的领导、统筹协调和督导评估。

第二章 职业教育体系

第十二条 国家根据不同地区的经济发展水平和教育普及程度，实施以初中后为重点的不同阶段的教育分流，建立、健全职业学校教育与职业培训并举，并与其他教育相互沟通、协调发展的职业教育体系。

第十三条 职业学校教育分为初等、中等、高等职业学校教育。初等、中等职业学校教育分别由初等、中等职业学校实施；高等职业学校教育根据条件和条件由高等职业学校实施，或者由普通高等学校实施。其他学校按照教育行政部门的统筹规划，可以实施同层次的职业学校教育。

第十四条 职业培训包括从业前培训、转业培训、学徒培训、在岗培训、转岗培训及其他职业性培训，可以根据实际情况分为初级、中级、高级职业培训。职业培训分别由相应的职业培训机构、职业学校实施。其他学校或者教育机构可以根据办学能力，开展面向社会的、多种形式的职业培训。

第十五条 残疾人职业教育除由残疾人教育机构实施外，各级各类职业学校和职业培训机构及其他教育机构应当按照国家有关规定接纳残疾学生。

第十六条 普通中学可以因地制宜地开设职业教育的课程，或者根据实际需要适当增加职业教育的教学内容。

第三章 职业教育的实施

第十七条 县级以上地方各级人民政府应当举办发挥骨干和示范作用的职业学校、职业培训机构，对农村、企业、事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人依法举办的职业学校和职业培训机构给予指导和扶持。

第十八条 县级人民政府应当适应农村经济、科学技术、教育统筹发展的需要，举办多种形式的职业教育，开展实用技术的培训，促进农村职业教育的发展。

第十九条 政府主管部门、行业组织应当举办或者联合举办职业学校、职业培训机构，组织、协调、指导本行业的企业、事业组织举办职业学校、职业培训机构。国家鼓励运用现代化教学手段，发展职业教育。

第二十条 企业应当根据本单位的实际，有计划地对本单位的职工和准备录用的人员实施职业教育。企业可以单独举办或者联合举办职业学校、职业培训机构，也可以委托学校、职业培训机构对本单位的职工和准备录用的人员实施职业教育。从事技术工种的职工，上岗前必须经过培训；从事特种作业的职工必须经过培训，并取得特种作业资格。

第二十一条 国家鼓励事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人按照国家有关规定举办职业学校、职业培训机构。境外的组织和个人在中国境内举办职业学校、职业培训机构的办法，由国务院规定。

第二十二条 联合举办职业学校、职业培训机构，举办者应当签订联合办学合同。政府主管部门、行业组织、企业、事业组织委托学校、职业培训机构实施职业教育的，应当签订委托合同。

第二十三条 职业学校、职业培训机构实施职业教育应当实行产教结合，为本地区经济建设服务，与企业密切联系，培养实用人才和熟练劳动者。职业学校、职业培训机构可以举办与职业教育有关的企业或者实习场所。

第二十四条 职业学校的设立，必须符合下列基本条件：

- (一)有组织机构和章程；
- (二)有合格的教师；

(三)有符合规定标准的教学场所、与职业教育相适应的设施、设备；

(四)有必备的办学资金和稳定的经费来源。

职业培训机构的设立，必须符合下列基本条件：

(一)有组织机构和管理制度；

(二)有与培训任务相适应的教师和管理人员；

(三)有与进行培训相适应的场所、设施、设备；

(四)有相应的经费。

职业学校和职业培训机构的设立、变更和终止，应当按照国家有关规定执行。

第二十五条 接受职业学校教育的学生，经学校考核合格，按照国家有关规定，发给学历证书。接受职业培训的学生，经培训的职业学校或者职业培训机构考核合格，按照国家有关规定，发给培训证书。学历证书、培训证书按照国家有关规定，作为职业学校、职业培训机构的毕业生、结业生从业的凭证。

第四章 职业教育的保障条件

第二十六条 国家鼓励通过多种渠道依法筹集发展职业教育的资金。

第二十七条 省、自治区、直辖市人民政府应当制定本地区职业学校学生人数平均经费标准；国务院有关部门应当会同国务院财政部门制定本部门职业学校学生人数平均经费标准。职业学校举办者应当按照学生人数平均经费标准足额拨付职业教育经费。各级人民政府、国务院有关部门用于举办职业学校和职业培训机构的财政性经费应当逐步增长。任何组织和个人不得挪用、克扣职业教育的经费。

第二十八条 企业应当承担对本单位的职工和准备录用的人员进行职业教育的费用，具体办法由国务院有关部门会同国务院财政部门或者由省、自治区、直辖市人民政府依法规定。

第二十九条 企业未按本法第二十条的规定实施职业教育的，县级以上地方人民政府应当责令改正；拒不改正的，可以收取企业应当承担的职业教育经费，用于本地区的职业教育。

第三十条 省、自治区、直辖市人民政府按照教育法的有关规定决定开征的用于教育的地方附加费，可以专项或者安排一定比例用于职业教育。

第三十一条 各级人民政府可以将农村科学技术开发、技术推广的经费，适当用于农村职业培训。

第三十二条 职业学校、职业培训机构可以对接受中等、高等职业学校教育和职业培训的学生适当收取学费，对经济困难的学生和残疾学生应当酌情减免。收费办法由省、自治区、直辖市人民政府规定。国家支持企业、事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人按照国家有关规定设立职业教育奖学金、贷学金，奖励学习成绩优秀的学生或者资助经济困难的学生。

第三十三条 职业学校、职业培训机构举办企业和从事社会服务的收入应当主要用于发展职业教育。

第三十四条 国家鼓励金融机构运用信贷手段，扶持发展职业教育。

第三十五条 国家鼓励企业、事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人对职业教育捐资助学，鼓励境外的组织和个人对职业教育提供资助和捐赠。提供的资助和捐赠，必须用于职业教育。

第三十六条 县级以上各级人民政府和有关部门应当将职业教育教师的培养和培训工作纳入教师队伍建设规划，保证职业教育教师队伍适应职业教育发展的需要。职业学校和职业培训机构可以聘请专业技术人员、有特殊技能的人员和其他教育机构的教师担任兼职教师。有关部门和单位应当提供方便。

第三十七条 国务院有关部门、县级以上地方各级人民政府以及举办职业学校、职业培训机构的组织、公民个人，应当加强职业教育生产实习基地的建设。企业、事业组织应当接纳职业学校和职业培训机构的学生和教师实习；对上岗实习的，应当给予适当的劳动报酬。

第三十八条 县级以上各级人民政府和有关部门应当建立、健全职业教育服务体系，加强职业教育教材的编辑、出版和发行工作。

第五章 附 则

第三十九条 在职业教育活动中违反教育法规定的，应当依照教育法的有关规定给予处罚。

第四十条 本法自一九九六年九月一日起施行。

9. 《关于实施〈职业教育法〉加快发展职业教育的若干意见》（1998年3月16日）

Title: Some Advice on Implementing the Law of Vocational Education to Accelerate the Development of Vocational Education (The Ministry of Education, The Commission of Economy and Trade, & The Ministry of Labor, 1998)

Source: December 19, 2007 from http://www.hnedu.cn/fagui/Law/17/law_17_1044.htm

为贯彻落实党的十五大精神，贯彻落实《职业教育法》，加快职业教育的发展与改革，特提出以下意见：

一、进一步提高认识，加强领导，落实职业教育的重要地位

（一）改革开放以来，党和国家采取一系列措施大力发展职业教育，取得了显著成绩。到1996年，中等职业学校的招生数和在校生数已达415万和1010万人，分别占高中阶段学生总数的57.4%和56.8%，中等教育结构单一的局面发生了根本性变化；初等和高等职业教育有了一定发展；职业培训规模日益扩大，年培训量达数千万人次；积极探索符合国情的职教发展路子，职业教育的各项改革逐步深化；努力提高教育质量和办学效益，建设了675所国家级重点学校和1964所省部级重点学校。职业教育培养的人才在社会主义现代化建设事业中发挥了重要作用。同时也要清醒地认识到，在职业教育的进程中还存在不少突出的困难和问题。一些地方和部门对职业教育的认识还没有达到应有的高度；社会各方面兴办职业教育的职责义务需要进一步明确和落实；职业教育的办学与管理体制、运行机制和层次结构等还不能适应建立社会主义市场经济体制的要求和经济社会发展、劳动就业的需要；职业教育的整体基础还相对薄弱，东西部之间、城乡之间、产业之间还有较大差距；职业教育的教育质量和办学效益还有待进一步提高等。对此，必须加以重视，逐步解决，保证职业教育的巩固和持续发展。

（二）发展职业教育是促进经济、社会发展和劳动就业的重要途径，不仅关系着经济发展的速度、产品的质量和服务水平，关系着劳动力资源的优化配置，而且关系着社会稳定和社会主义精神文明建设。职业教育作为我国教育事业的重要组成部分，对调整教育结构、广开成才之路，对促进义务教育的普及、提高教育整体效益，对全面落实教育方针、增进教育与经济的结合都具有重要的作用。当前，加快改革开放和现代化建设步伐、实行两个根本性转变和教育的两个重要转变、实施科教兴国战略的新形势，对职业教育提出了更迫切的需求。未来五年和十五年，职业教育改革、发展和提高的任务相当艰巨。全社会都要从国家发展的战略和全局出发，进一步提高思想认识，关心和支持职业教育；各级政府和有关部门要进一步加强职业教育工作的领导，落实职业教育的重要战略地位，把调整教育结构、发展职业教育摆到突出位置，抓住机遇，开创我国职业教育工作的新局面。

二、努力实现跨世纪发展职业教育的奋斗目标

（一）根据我国社会主义现代化建设的迫切需要和《职业教育法》、《中国教育改革和发展纲要》提出的要求，本世纪末到下世纪初，我国职业教育工作的主要奋斗目标和任务是：

1、进一步调整结构，推进以初中后为重点的不同阶段的教育分流，建立、健全职业学校教育与职业培训并举，并与其他教育相互沟通、协调发展的职业教育体系。到2000年，使各类中等职业学校招生数和在校生数占高中阶段学生数的比例全国平均达到60%左右，普及高中阶段教育的城市可达到70%；积极发展高等职业教育；通过多种形式，因地制宜地发展初等职业教育；普通中学普遍增加职业教育内容；在全国范围内有计划、有步骤地实施劳动预备制度，广泛开展各种形式的转业、转岗培训，使大多数新增劳动力上岗

前和失业、转业、转岗人员再就业前都得到必需的职业训练。到2010年,使中等、高等职业教育和各级各类职业培训的规模 and 水平进一步提高,职业教育的结构更加合理,体系进一步健全。

2、进一步深化办学体制和管理体制改革,逐步建立、健全有中国特色的、适应社会主义市场经济和社会进步需要的职业教育制度和有效的运行机制。要依法落实政府、行业、企业和社会各方面兴办职业教育的职责和义务,落实各部门对职业教育的管理职责分工,建立起稳定的、多渠道筹集职业教育经费的保障体系以及适应社会主义市场经济体制的招生和毕业生就业制度、学生缴费制度,建立和完善学历证书、培训证书以及职业资格证书制度。

3、进一步加强职业教育内部建设,改善职业教育的整体基础和管理水平,提高教育质量和办学效益。到2000年,中心城市的各个大的行业及每个县都要建设一至两所骨干职业学校、职业培训机构,并使之相互沟通,努力巩固并提高已建国家和省部级重点职业学校的办学水平;中专学校的教师要基本达到任职资格标准,职业中学、技工学校教师的达标率也要有明显提高。到2010年,进一步发展职教特色明显、能起骨干示范作用的国家级和省部级重点职业学校的数量,并进一步提高质量;各类职业学校教师都要基本达到任职资格标准,使我国职业教育的水平登上一个新的台阶。

(二)为了实现我国跨世纪发展职业教育的奋斗目标,职业教育工作必须遵循大力发展、深化改革、优化结构、提高水平、分类指导、依法治教的指导方针。要认真贯彻党和国家有关教育工作的各项方针政策,贯彻实施《职业教育法》,正确处理好发展、改革与提高的关系。要进一步强化政府统筹职能,积极鼓励社会各方面兴办职业教育;要坚持按需施教,采取灵活多样的办学形式;要搞好产教结合,大力扶持和发展校办产业;要实行分区规划,特别重视农业和艰苦行业以及中西部地区职业教育的发展;要深化教学改革,努力探索职业教育办学规律,办出职业教育特色。

三、建立、健全职业教育体系

(一)各地要根据社会对人才的需求和教育普及的程度,因地制宜地实行以初中后分流为重点的小学后、初中后、高中后教育分流。在部分农村地区,特别是边远、贫困地区,应通过发展“三加一”(在初中三年基础上再加一段职业教育)、初二分流、四年制初中(其中安排一年左右的时间进行职业教育)以及其它多种形式,加强初中阶段的职业教育。在城市和有条件的农村,也可适量举办初中阶段的职业学校;大部分地区以初中后分流为主,大力发展中等职业教育。同时,随着经济的发展,还应积极地逐步推进高中后分流,发展多种形式的高中后职业教育。

(二)职业培训是职业教育的重要组成部分,也是促进劳动就业的重要手段,对提高劳动者的就业能力和工作能力发挥着直接有效的作用,要高度重视。要加强职业培训机构的建设,各级各类职业学校也应根据需要,开展多种形式的职业培训。要把职业培训与充分利用我国丰富的劳动力资源和自然资源紧密结合,建立与劳动力市场需求相适应的灵活办学机制,扩大培训规模,提高培训质量。在培训层次上,应根据培养目标和用人单位的要求,灵活确定培训专业和期限,使初、中、高级职业培训协调合理地发展;在培训内容上,要适应经济建设和生产经营的需要,突出操作技能培训,搞好生产实训基地建设;要结合实施劳动预备制度、“再就业工程”和“农村劳动力跨地区流动有序化工程”,大力开展对未升学的初、高中毕业生、失业人员和企业富余人员的转业、转岗培训和直接为农村经济服务的职业培训;要结合建立现代企业制度,指导企业建立和完善职工培训制度;要加强调查研究,改革学徒培训制度,探索建立具有中国特色的新型学徒培训模式。逐步形成根据经济发展和就业需要,覆盖城乡的职业培训网络。

（三）高等职业教育是高等教育的组成部分。要根据需要，积极地有步骤地发展高等职业教育。发展高等职业教育，要坚持统筹规划、合理布局、面向基层、办出特色、积极试点、逐步规范的原则。要充分利用现有的教育资源，主要通过对现有高等专科学校、职业大学、独立设置的成人高校改革办学模式、调整专业方向和培养目标以及改组、改制来发展高等职业学校教育。在尚不能满足对高职人才的需求时，根据地方和行业的需求和学校的办学条件，经国家教委审批，可以利用重点中专学校举办高职班或转制来补充。今后，国家每年新增的高校招生计划指标应主要用于发展高等职业学校教育。各类教育机构举办高等职业学校教育按国家教委有关规定审核批准。地方和部门要加强统筹规划，采取积极措施推动高等职业教育发展。

（四）要逐步规范和理顺职业学校教育的学制。初等职业学校教育招收小学毕业生，学习期限为三至四年；中等职业学校教育主要招收完成初中阶段教育的毕业生，学习期限一般为三年，有些可为两年和四年；高等职业学校教育招收中等职业学校和普通高中毕业生及有同等学力的人员，专科层次的学习期限为二至三年，少数经批准的学校，招初中毕业生，学习期限为五年。今后，除一些特殊专业（工种）外，要逐步实现中等职业学校不再招收高中毕业生。

要加强职业教育与其他教育的相互沟通与衔接。各地要采取措施，统一政策，加强中等职业学校与成人中等学校的沟通与结合；各地在发展普通高中时，要与发展职业学校统筹规划。要研究和采取一些具体办法，使中等职业学校毕业生有继续深造的机会。对这类学生的考试，要研究改革招生考试办法，突出对职业知识和职业技能的考核。

四、推动农业、艰苦行业和中西部地区职业教育的发展

（一）在职业教育发展中必须把办好农业职业教育放在重要位置。农村职业学校应坚持面向农村、面向农业、面向农民为主的办学指导思想，努力为发展高产、优质、高效农业服务，为农民脱贫致富服务，为农村产业结构调整服务。要围绕当地农业资源开发设置专业，教学内容要注重科学技术的实际应用，适当拓宽学生的专业知识面。农业职业教育的办学形式和学制应更加灵活多样，入学条件可适当放宽，有条件的地方可以凭初中毕业证书免试入学。各地应采取保护性政策，促进农业职业教育的发展。各级政府和有关部门要增加对农业职业教育的投入；各级政府用于农村科技开发、技术推广的经费，应适当安排用于农村职业培训。对志愿学农的学生可减免学费、给予专业奖学金；在农村要逐步推行“绿色证书”制度；对回乡务农的职业学校毕业生提供生产开发贷款并在承包土地、提供良种、化肥、农药等方面给予优惠。

（二）各地和各有关部门要采取保护性政策和措施，扶持办好面向苦、脏、累、险等艰苦行业（专业或工种）的职业教育。对这类专业，在招生上可适当放宽入学条件，经批准还可跨省市招生。有些可以实行易地培养。政府和主管部门也可通过实行奖学金、贷学金、减免学费等措施鼓励学生报考、就学。对开设这类专业的职业学校应在资金、设备等方面予以重点扶持。

（三）要采取措施加快中西部地区、少数民族地区职业教育的发展。中西部地区、少数民族地区的各级政府和有关部门要充分认识到职业教育对于振兴经济和保持社会安定的重要性。为加快经济振兴的步伐，应推进实行就业前上岗前必须经过相应职业教育的制度；要加强政府统筹，农科教结合，协调和组织各方面力量兴办职业教育；要下决心建设一批起示范作用的职业学校和职业培训机构。要从当地实际出发，确定职业教育的层次结构和发展模式，办出自己的特色。要把教学与农业开发、农业技术推广和帮助农民脱贫致富紧密结合。要加强东部地区与中西部地区的交流与合作，鼓励东部地区对中西部地区职业教

育的发展给予多方面的支持和帮助。国家应采取必要的倾斜政策,通过扩大投入、培训师资、组织对口帮助等形式扶持中西部地区、少数民族地区职业教育的发展。

五、推进办学体制改革,加强部门分工协作

(一)县级以上地方各级政府对所辖行政区域内职业教育的发展负有主要领导责任。地方各级政府应当把职业教育纳入当地经济和社会发展规划,在国家方针、政策指导下,地方政府应在制定职业教育发展规划,组织各方面力量办学,配置教育资源,安排招生就业工作等方面加强统筹领导,使各部门分工合作。上级各业务主管部门要大力支持地方政府的统筹和决策。县级以上地方各级政府要负责办好起骨干和示范作用的职业学校和职业培训机构;对企业事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人办学要给予必要的扶持。

(二)行业主管部门、行业组织应依法举办或与其他方面联合举办本行业的职业学校和职业培训机构。企业组织应依法建立职工培训制度,对本单位职工进行培训,并根据企业发展的长远需要和《职业教育法》的要求,承担对准备录用的人员实施职业教育的义务。企业组织可以单独或联合举办职业学校或职业培训机构,也可以委托学校、职业培训机构或通过社会统筹举办。所有企业应按照《职业教育法》的要求和省级人民政府或国务院有关部门制定的具体办法承担职业教育费用。有条件的企业应积极为职业教育提供教师、接纳职业教育学生和教师实习,按照国家有关规定和劳动人事制度改革的要求,录用职业学校和职业培训机构的毕、结业生等。各部门和行业组织在继续办好所属职业学校和职业培训机构的同时,还应对本系统、本行业的职业教育加强组织、协调和业务指导。

(三)实行多种形式的联合办学是我国发展职业教育的一条成功经验。要大力倡导联合办学并促进其向深层次发展,使合作各方均成为办学主体。合作办学的各方,应当签定正式办学合同,按合同承担经费、师资、设施等义务,享有参与学校决策和管理、优先录用毕业生等权利。部门办的中等职业学校应积极与地方联合办学,在保证部门人才需要的同时,发挥办学潜力,培养地方所需人才。联合举办的职业学校可由主管部门和办学各方的代表组成校董会以研究决定学校的重大事项。

(四)国家大力倡导和支持发展多种形式的民办职业教育,鼓励事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人依法举办职业学校和职业培训机构;欢迎国外、境外组织和个人依照我国法律同我国境内职业教育机构和其他社会组织联合举办职业学校或职业培训机构。对事业组织、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人举办、联合举办的职业学校和职业培训机构,各级政府和有关部门应在划拨土地、补助基建、调配教师等方面提供优惠条件,并在教师职务评聘、证书考核发放、招生和毕业生就业、发展校办产业等方面执行国家统一政策,与政府举办的学校一视同仁。

(五)要从有利于事业发展的前提出发,进一步改革职业教育的管理体制。要坚持在政府领导下,教育部门统筹协调,各有关部门分工协作,使各类职业教育能在统一、协调的政策下健康发展。

技工学校是中等职业学校教育的重要组成部分,按照国务院确定的职责分工,在国家有关职业教育的方针、政策和规划的指导下仍由国务院劳动部门管理。

要统一和协调对各类中等职业学校的政策。今后,不论是在教育方面还是劳动就业方面,调整现行政策和制定出台新的政策,都应统筹考虑各类职业学校。

六、贯彻产教结合的原则

（一）贯彻产教结合的原则，首先要进一步加强职业教育与经济的结合，增强职业学校和职业培训机构与企业的联系与合作。企业要依法承担实施职业教育的义务，积极关心和支持职业教育。职业学校和职业培训机构要坚持为经济建设和社会发展服务的办学方向，积极聘请相关经济、产业界人士参加校董会或其他形式的决策、咨询组织，共同研究专业设置、培养目标、教学内容、经费筹措等重要事项。贯彻产教结合的原则，要在实施职业教育的过程中，坚持教学与生产劳动相结合，切实加强生产实习、职业技能训练和实践性教学环节，使培养的人才更加适合企业与社会需要。

（二）贯彻产教结合原则，要支持职业学校和职业培训机构发展校办产业。这既是提高教育质量的需要，也是增强学校自我发展能力的需要。举办校办产业和从事社会服务的收入，主要用于发展职业教育，同时要为产业的扩大再生产服务。发展校办产业，要符合国家有关政策，要结合当地资源情况和产业结构特点，运用职业学校在人才、技术和信息等方面的优势，不断增加产品的科技含量，提高产品质量和服务水平。职业学校之间、学校与社会之间可以组建生产经营联合体，各地应积极组建为校办产业服务的机构。

七、加快招生和毕业生就业制度改革，推行两种证书制度

（一）进一步加快职业学校招生和毕业生就业制度的改革。要积极推进中等专业学校招生、收费并轨改革，实行缴费上学，1998年绝大多数省、自治区、直辖市要实行并轨，2000年基本完成新旧体制转轨。随着劳动力市场的完善，所有职业学校和职业培训机构的毕（结）业生的就业应逐步转到面向社会、进入市场、公平竞争、自主择业的轨道。部门、地区或企事业单位可以通过设立定向奖学金、承担培养费用等与学校及学生签订培养培训合同，学生毕（结）业后按合同到指定单位完成规定服务年限。毕业生就业制度的改革必须与劳动人事制度的改革相配套，保证各类中等职业学校毕业生就业政策的统一与协调。各地要进一步深化劳动人事制度改革，切实实行劳动者就业或者上岗前接受必要的职业教育的制度。要做好人才、劳动力市场需求预测工作，通过人才中介和职业介绍机构，为各类职业学校和职业培训机构提供需求信息。职业学校和职业培训机构及社会有关机构要加强对学生的职业指导，做好就业咨询和推荐工作。

（二）要逐步推行学历证书或培训证书和职业资格证书两种证书制度。接受职业学校教育的学生，经所在学校考核合格，按照国家有关规定，发给学历证书；接受职业培训的学生，经所在职业培训机构或职业学校考核合格，按照国家有关规定，发给培训证书。对职业学校和职业培训机构毕（结）业生，要按照国家制定的职业分类和职业等级、职业技能标准，开展职业技能考核鉴定，考核合格的，按照国家有关规定，发给职业资格证书。学历证书、培训证书和职业资格证书做为从事相应职业的凭证。从事国家规定的技术工种、特种作业的，应取得相应学历证书或培训证书，并取得相应职业资格证书。同层次、同培养目标的职业学校毕业生有相同的考证资格。

八、加强职业教育内部改革和建设

（一）要本着适应社会需要，办出职教特色，提高质量和效益的原则，进一步深化教育教学改革。各地应进一步调整学校（专业）布局结构，充分利用已有教育资源，努力扩大学校招生规模，走内涵发展为主的道路。职业学校和职业培训机构在教育教学中，要根据地方和行业、企业的需求，并按照与国家制定的职业分类、职业技能等级标准相适应的原则设置专业（工种），确定培养目标和教学要求，进行课程开发，改革教学方式和方法，加强实践性教学环节和职业技能训练，增强职业教育的适应性、实用性和灵活性。要积极学习和借鉴国内外职业教育的先进经验，努力探索有中国特色的职业教育教学模式。要注意及时把先进、实用的科学技术引入教学内容，积极采取现代化教学手段，加速

提高我国职业教育的教学水平。

(二) 要按照《教师法》、《教师职业资格条例》和国家其他有关规定的要求以及职业教育的实际情况加快师资队伍建设的步伐。要加快建立和完善稳定的师资来源渠道。培养培训中等及中等以下职业学校教师的主要责任在地方、部门和行业。地方、部门和行业要根据需要统筹确定一批普通高等学校承担为本地区、本行业职业学校培养教师的任务,确定一批重点中等职业学校承担培养实习指导教师的任务。国家也要建立少量教师培训中心,逐步形成教师培养培训网络。地方、部门行业要保证相关招生计划的完成。根据需要,有些可实行单独招生。职业学校教师队伍实行专兼结合的方针,要开拓从专业技术人员 and 高级技术工人、技师、高级技师中聘任专兼职教师的渠道。要加速对现有学历不合格教师的培训工作,建立职业教育教师进修制度。普通高等学校举办的成人教育、独立设置的成人高等学校特别是广播电视大学和自学考试管理部门在制定招生计划和考试办法时,应把解决职业学校教师学历达标当成一项重要任务。要依托高校、部分中等职业学校、高级职业培训机构和有条件的企业建立一批职业学校教师的技能培训基地,使教师不断更新知识,提高技能水平。县级以上各级政府和有关部门要把职业教育教师的培养和培训工作纳入教师队伍建设的规划,落实目标、机构、责任和专项经费。行业组织、企业事业组织应在为职业学校选送教师、提高教师技能水平方面发挥积极作用。各级政府和劳动、人事、财政等有关部门要在执行国家有关政策的前提下,根据职业教育教师工作任务和特点制定优惠政策,重视解决教师的工资福利、职务评聘中的问题,重视解决教师的住房、医疗等实际问题,提高教师待遇,稳定教师队伍。职业学校的专业课教师及实习指导教师可以评聘教师职务,也可以参评其他专业技术职务任职资格,学校可对具有双职务资格的教师在待遇上从优。

(三) 加强职业教育服务体系建设。要切实加强教材建设,解决教材急需问题并不断提高教材质量。国家鼓励部门、行业组织、企业事业组织、科研机构和学校参与编写教材和编写补充教材,有关部门要做好组织工作,落实教材发展专项经费。要逐步完善教材信息服务体系,健全教材供应渠道。要着手研究高等职业教育教材建设工作,加强引进国外职教优秀教材的工作。要加强职业教育的研究工作。各级政府和各有关主管部门要采取措施,充分发挥研究部门的作用;省地教育行政部门要有专门机构负责职业教育研究工作,并保障必要的经费投入;提倡职业学校、职业培训机构、广大职教工作者及其他各方面力量积极开展职教研究。职教研究工作的重点是加强教学研究、比较研究和政策研究。开展职教研究工作,要面向 21 世纪,积极借鉴其他国家的经验,要注重与职业教育实际相结合,加强对教育教学工作的科学指导。

(四) 地方各级教育行政部门、劳动行政部门要根据职责分工加强教学管理,逐步对职业学校和职业培训机构设置专业和教学计划的完成等进行规范和监督。要逐步建立和完善专业目录、实验仪器设备的配套标准、实习场地的建设标准和考试考核的程序方法等。职业学校和职业培训机构,在政府宏观管理下,可依照国家有关法律法规的规定,自主进行内部管理,自主开展教学和生产经营活动。要进一步深化内部管理改革,实施校长负责制、教师聘任制和目标责任制等,更好地调动广大教职员工的积极性。各地要加强校长和职教管理干部的培训工作,提高干部素质,逐步健全各项规章制度,使职业教育步入科学、严格管理的轨道。

九、加强和改进德育工作

(一) 各级各类职业学校要认真贯彻《中共中央关于加强社会主义精神文明建设若干重要问题的决议》、《中共中央关于进一步加强和改进学校德育工作的若干意见》和《爱国主义教育实施纲要》的精神,切实加强和改进职业学校的德育工作。要根据新时期的要求,认真对学生进行马列主义、毛泽东思想、邓小平理论和党的基本路线的教育,爱国主

义、集体主义和社会主义思想的教育和国情教育，中华民族优良传统道德教育和民主法制等方面的教育，特别要加强职业道德教育，要教育和引导学生树立为人民服务的思想，增强敬业意识，养成良好的道德品质并能自觉遵守职业纪律。要根据新时期德育工作的新特点，改革政治课教学和德育工作的方式方法，努力拓宽德育的途径。

（二）各级党委、政府和有关部门要加强对职业教育德育工作的领导。学校党委或支部的书记与校长要负责领导学校德育工作。中等职业学校应当设置班主任。要加强学校德育工作队伍建设，积极创造条件组织政治课教师参加社会实践和业务进修培训，不断提高其政治思想水平和业务素质。各级政府和有关部门要采取措施，保证德育活动经费，解决好德育教师的职务评聘和其他待遇问题，为学校德育工作创造良好的环境和氛围，建设各种形式的德育基地。

十、多渠道筹集职业教育经费

（一）职业教育经费应通过各级政府财政拨款，行业组织、企事业组织及其他用人单位合理承担，举办者自筹，受教育者缴费等多渠道筹集。各级政府和有关业务主管部门应保证用于举办职业教育的财政拨款逐年增长。各级政府每年可安排一定数额的职业教育专款，专项用于扶持职业教育的发展。

（二）各省、自治区、直辖市政府和国务院有关部门应根据《职业教育法》“职业教育的保障条件”一章中的有关规定，制定执行相应条款的具体办法并加以检查、落实。

（三）职业学校和职业培训机构可按生均培养成本的一定比例，对接受中等以上职业学校教育和接受职业培训的学生收取学费。收费项目、标准和管理办法由省、自治区、直辖市政府制定。对家庭确有困难的学生、残疾学生，以及农业专业或毕业后从事艰苦行业工作的学生应酌情减免学费，或提供贷学金。对成绩优异的学生，可提供奖学金。

（四）国家鼓励职业学校兴办校办产业，对校办产业实行税收优惠政策；国家提倡和支持金融机构为职业教育提供贷款，并应安排一定数额的政策性贷款；欢迎国外、境外友好组织和人士对职业教育进行资助和捐赠；鼓励企业事业组织、社会团体和公民个人捐资助学。

10. 《中华人民共和国高等教育法》(1998年8月29日)

Title: The Law of Higher Education of the People's Republic of China (1998)

Source: Retrieved August 24, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/26/info1426.htm>

第一章 总则

第一条 为了发展高等教育事业,实施科教兴国战略,促进社会主义物质文明和精神文明法,根据宪法和教育法,制定本法。

第二条 在中华人民共和国境内从事高等教育活动,适用本法。

本法所称高等教育,是指在完成高级中等教育基础上实施的教育。

第三条 国家坚持以马克思列宁主义、毛泽东思想、邓小平理论为指导,遵循宪法确定的基本原则,发展社会主义的高等教育事业。

第四条 高等教育必须贯彻国家的教育方针,为社会主义现代化建设服务,与生产劳动相结合,使受教育者成为德、智、体等方面全面发展的社会主义事业的建设者和接班人。

第五条 高等教育的任务是培养具有创新精神和实践能力的高级专门人才,发展科学技术文化,促进社会主义现代化建设。

第六条 国家根据经济建设和社会发展的需要,制定高等教育发展规划,举办高等学校,并采取多种形式积极发展高等教育事业。

国家鼓励企业事业组织、社会团体及其他社会组织和公民等社会力量依法举办高等学校,参与和支持高等教育事业的改革和发展。

第七条 国家按照社会主义现代化建设和发展社会主义市场经济的需要,根据不同类型、不同层次高等学校的实际,推进高等教育体制改革和高等教育教学改革,优化高等教育结构和资源配置,提高高等教育的质量和效益。

第八条 国家根据少数民族的特点和需要,帮助和支持少数民族地区发展高等教育事业,为少数民族培养高级专门人才。

第九条 公民依法享有接受高等教育的权利。

国家采取措施,帮助少数民族学生和经济困难的学生接受高等教育。

高等学校必须招收符合国家规定的录取标准的残疾学生入学,不得因其残疾拒绝招收。

第十条 国家依法保障高等学校中的科学研究、文学艺术创作和其他文化活动的自由。在高等学校中从事科学研究、文学艺术创作和其他文化活动,应当遵守法律。

第十一条 高等学校应当面向社会,依法自主办学,实行民主管理。

第十二条 国家鼓励高等学校之间、高等学校与科研机构以及企业事业组织之间开展协作,实行优势互补,提高教育资源的使用效益。

国家鼓励和支持高等教育事业的国际交流与合作。

第十三条 国务院统一领导和管理全国高等教育事业。省、自治区、直辖市人民政府统筹协调本行政区域内的高等教育事业，管理主要为地方培养人才和国务院授权管理的高等学校。

第十四条 国务院教育行政部门主管全国高等教育工作，管理由国务院确定的主要为全国培养人才的高等学校。国务院其他有关部门在国务院规定的职责范围内，负责有关的高等教育工作。

第二章 高等教育基本制度

第十五条 高等教育包括学历教育和非学历教育。

高等教育采用全日制和非全日制教育形式。

国家支持采用广播、电视、函授及其他远程教育方式实施高等教育。

第十六条 高等学历教育分为专科教育、本科教育和研究生教育。

高等学历教育应当符合下列学业标准：

（一） 专科教育应当使学生掌握本专业必备的基础理论、专门知识，具有从事本专业实际工作的基本技能和初步能力；

（二） 本科教育应当使学生比较系统地掌握本学科、专业必需的基础理论、基本知识，掌握本专业必要的基本技能、方法和相关知识，具有从事本专业实际工作和研究工作的初步能力；

（三） 硕士研究生教育应当使学生掌握本学科坚实的基础理论、系统的专业知识，掌握相应的技能、方法和相关知识，具有从事本专业实际工作和科学研究工作的能力。博士研究生教育应当使学生掌握本学科坚实宽广的基础理论、系统深入的专业知识、相应的技能和方法，具有独立从事本学科创造性科学研究工作和实际工作的能力。

第十七条 专科教育的基本修业年限为二至三年，本科教育的基本修业年限为四至五年，硕士研究生教育的基本修业年限为二至三年，博士研究生教育的基本修业年限为三至四年。非全日制高等学历教育的修业年限应当适当延长。高等学校根据实际需要，报主管的教育行政部门批准，可以对本学校的修业年限作出调整。

第十八条 高等教育由高等学校和其他高等教育机构实施。

大学、独立设置的学院主要实施本科及本科以上教育。高等专科学校实施专科教育。经国务院教育行政部门批准，科研机构可以承担研究生教育的任务。

其他高等教育机构实施非学历高等教育。

第十九条 高级中等教育毕业或者具有同等学历的，经考试合格，由实施相应学历教育的高等学校录取，取得专科生或者本科生入学资格。

本科毕业或者具有同等学力的，经考试合格，由实施相应学历教育的高等学校或者经批准承担研究生教育任务的科研机构录取，取得硕士研究生入学资格。

硕士研究生或者具有同等学历的，经考试合格，由实施相应学历教育的高等学校或者经批准承担研究生教育任务的科学研究机构录取，取得博士研究生入学资格。

允许特定学科和专业的本科毕业生直接取得博士研究生入学资格，具体办法由国务院教育行政部门规定。

第二十条 接受高等学历教育的学生，由所在高等学校或者经批准承担研究生教育任务的科学研究机构根据其修业年限、学业成绩等，按照国家有关规定，发给相应的学历证书或者其他学业证书。

接受非学历高等教育的学生，由所在高等学校或者其他高等教育机构发给相应的结业证书。结业证书应当载明修业年限和学业内容。

第二十一条 国家实行高等教育自学考试制度，经考试合格的，发给相应的学历证书或者其他学业证书。

第二十二条 国家实行学位制度。学位分为学士、硕士和博士。

公民通过接受高等教育或者自学，其学业水平达到国家规定的学位标准，可以向学位授予单位申请授予相应的学位。

第二十三条 高等学校和其他高等教育机构应当根据社会需要和自身办学条件，承担实施继续教育的工作。

第三章 高等学校的设立

第二十四条 设立高等学校，应当符合国家高等教育发展规划，符合国家利益和社会公共利益，不得以营利为目的。

第二十五条 设立高等学校，应当具备教育法规定的基本条件。

大学或者独立设置的学院还应当具有较强的教学、科学研究力量，较高的教学、科学研究水平和相应规模，能够实施本科及本科以上教育。大学还必须设有三个以上国家规定的学科门类为主要学科。设立高等学校的具体标准由国务院制定。

设立其他高等教育机构的具体标准，由国务院授权的有关部门或者省、自治区、直辖市人民政府根据国务院规定的原则制定。

第二十六条 设立高等学校，应当根据其层次、类型、所设学科类别、规模、教学和科学研究水平，使用相应的名称。

第二十七条 申请设立高等学校的，应当向审批机关提交下列材料：

- （一）申办报告；
- （二）可行性论证材料；
- （三）章程；
- （四）审批机关依照本法规定要求提供的其他材料。

第二十八条 高等学校的章程应当规定以下事项：

- （一）学校名称、校址；

- (二) 办学宗旨;
- (三) 办学规模;
- (四) 学科门类的设置;
- (五) 教育形式;
- (六) 内部管理体制;
- (七) 经费来源、财产和财务制度;
- (八) 举办者与学校之间的权利、义务;
- (九) 章程修改程序;
- (十) 其他必须由章程规定的事项。

第二十九条 设立高等学校由国务院教育行政部门审批, 其中设立实施专科教育的高等学校, 经国务院授权, 也可以由省、自治区、直辖市人民政府审批。对不符合规定条件审批设立的高等学校和其他高等教育机构, 国务院教育行政部门有权予以撤销。

审批高等学校的设立, 应当聘请由专家组成的评议机构评议。

高等学校和其他高等教育机构分立、合并、终止, 变更名称、类别和其他重要事项, 由原审批机关审批; 章程的修改, 应当报原审批机关核准。

第四章 高等学校的组织和活动

第三十条 高等学校自批准设立之日起取得法人资格。高等学校的校长为高等学校的法定代表人。

高等学校在民事活动中依法享有民事权利, 承担民事责任。

第三十一条 高等学校应当以培养人才为中心, 开展教学、科学研究和社会服务, 保证教育教学质量达到国家规定的标准。

第三十二条 高等学校根据社会需求、办学条件和国家核定的办学规模, 制定招生方案, 自主调节系科招生比例。

第三十三条 高等学校依法自主设置和调整学科、专业。

第三十四条 高等学校根据教学需要, 自主制定教学计划、选编教材、组织实施教学活动。

第三十五条 高等学校根据自身条件, 自主开展科学研究、技术开发和社会服务。

国家鼓励高等学校同企业事业组织、社会团体及其他社会组织在科学研究、技术开发和推广等方面进行多种形式的合作。

国家支持具备条件的高等学校成为国家科学研究基地。

第三十六条 高等学校按照国家有关规定, 自主开展与境外高等学校之间的科学技术文化交流与合作。

第三十七条 高等学校根据实际需要和精简、效能的原则，自主确定教学、科学研究、行政职能部门等内部组织机构的设置和人员配备；按照国家有关规定，评聘教师和其他专业技术人员的职务，调整津贴及工资分配。

第三十八条 高等学校对举办者提供的财产、国家财政性资助、受捐赠财产依法自主管理和使用。高等学校不得将用于教学和科学研究活动的财产挪作它用。

第三十九条 国家举办的高等学校实行中国共产党高等学校基层委员会领导下的校长负责制。中国共产党高等学校基层委员会按照中国共产党章程和有关规定，统一领导学校工作，支持校长独立负责地行使职权，其领导职责主要是：执行中国共产党的路线、方针、政策，坚持社会主义办学方向，领导学校的思想政治工作和德育工作，讨论决定学校内部组织机构的设置和内部组织机构负责人的人选，讨论决定学校的改革、发展和基本管理制度等重大事项，保证以培养人才为中心的各项任务的完成。

社会力量举办的高等学校的内部管理体制按照国家有关社会力量办学的规定确定。

第四十条 高等学校的校长，由符合教育法规定的任职条件的公民担任。

高等学校的校长、副校长按照国家有关规定任免。

第四十一条 高等学校的校长全面负责本学校的教学、科学研究和其他行政管理工作，行使下列职权：

- （一）拟订发展规划，制定具体规章制度和年度工作计划并组织实施；
- （二）组织教学活动、科学研究和思想品德教育；
- （三）拟订内部组织机构的设置方案，推荐副校长人选，任免内部组织机构的负责人；
- （四）聘任与解聘教师以及内部其他工作人员，对学生进行学籍管理并实施奖励或者处分；
- （五）拟订和执行年度经费预算方案，保护和管理校产，维护学校的合法权益；
- （六）章程规定的其他职权。

高等学校和校长办公会议或者校务会议，处理前款规定的有关事项。

第四十二条 高等学校设立学术委员会，审议学科、专业的设置，教学、科学研究计划方案，评定教学、科学研究成果等有关学术事项。

第四十三条 高等学校通过以教师为主体的教职工代表大会等组织形式，依法保障教职工参与民主管理和监督，维护教职工合法权益。

第四十四条 高等学校的办学水平、教育质量，接受教育行政部门的监督和由其组织的评估。

第五章 高等学校教师和其他教育工作者

第四十五条 高等学校的教师及其他教育工作者享有法律规定的权利，履行法律规定的义务，忠诚于人民的教育事业。

第四十六条 高等学校实行教师资格制度。中国公民凡遵守宪法和法律，热爱教育事业，具有良好的思想品德，具备研究生或者大学本科毕业学历，有相应的教育教学能力，经认定合格，可以取得高等学校教师资格。不具备研究生或者大学本科毕业学历的公民，学有所长，通过国家教师资格考试，经认定合格，也可以取得高等学校教师资格。

第四十七条 高等学校实行教师职务制度。高等学校教师职务根据学校所承担的教学、科学研究等任务的需要设置，教师职务设助教、讲师、副教授、教授。

高等学校的教师取得前款规定的职务应当具备下列基本条件：

- （一）取得高等学校教师资格；
- （二）系统地掌握本学科的基础理论；
- （三）具备相应职务的教育教学能力和科学研究能力；
- （四）承担相应职务的课程和规定课时的教学任务。

教授、副教授除应当具备以上基本任职条件外，还应当对本学科具有系统而坚实的基础理论和比较丰富的教学、科学研究经验，教学成绩显著，论文或者著作达到较高水平或者有突出的教学、科学研究成果。

高等学校教师职务的具体任职条件由国务院规定。

第四十八条 高等学校实行教师聘任制。教师以评定具备任职条件的，由高等学校按照教师职务的职责、条件和任期聘任。

高等学校的教师的聘任，应当遵循双方平等自愿的原则，由高等学校校长与受聘教师签订聘任合同。

第四十九条 高等学校的管理人员，实行教育职员制度。高等学校的教学辅助人员及其他专业技术人员，实行专业技术职务聘任制度。

第五十条 国家保护高等学校教师及其他教育工作者的合法权益，采取措施改善高等学校教师及其他教育工作者的工作条件和生活条件。

第五十一条 高等学校应当为教师参加培训、开展科学研究和进行学术交流提供便利条件。

高等学校应当对教师、管理人员和教学辅助人员及其他专业技术人员的思想政治表现、职业道德、业务水平和工作实绩进行考核，考核结果作为聘任或者解聘、晋升、奖励或者处分的依据。

第五十二条 高等学校应当为教师、管理人员和教学辅助人员及其他专业技术人员，应当以教学和培养人才为中心做好本职工作。

第六章 高等学校的学生

第五十三条 高等学校的学生应当遵守法律、法规，遵守学生行为规范和学校的各项管理制度，尊敬师长，刻苦学习，增强体质，树立爱国主义、集体主义和社会主义思想，努力学习马克思列宁主义、毛泽东思想、邓小平理论，具有良好的思想品德，掌握较高的科学文化知识和专业技能。

高等学校学生的合法权益，受法律保护。

第五十四条 高等学校的学生应当按照国家规定缴纳学费。

家庭经济困难的学生，可以申请补助或者减免学费。

第五十五条 国家设立奖学金，并鼓励高等学校、企业事业组织、社会团体以及其他社会组织和个人按照国家有关规定设立各种形式的奖学金，对品学兼优的学生、国家规定的专业的学生以及到国家规定的地区工作的学生给予奖励。

国家设立高等学校学生勤工助学基金和贷学金，并鼓励高等学校、企业事业组织、社会团体以及其他社会组织和个人设立各种形式的助学金，对家庭经济困难的学生提供帮助。

获得贷学金及助学金的学生，应当履行相应的义务。

第五十六条 高等学校的学生在课余时间可以参加社会服务和勤工助学活动，但不得影响学业任务的完成。

高等学校应当对学生的社会服务和勤工助学活动给予鼓励和支持，并进行引导和管理。

第五十七条 高等学校的学生，可以在校内组织学生团体。学生团体在法律、法规规定的范围内活动，服从学校的领导和管理。

第五十八条 高等学校的学生思想品德合格，在规定的修业年限内学完规定的课程，成绩合格或者修满相应的学分，准予毕业。

第五十九条 高等学校应当为毕业生、毕业生提供就业指导和服务。

国家鼓励高等学校毕业生到边远、艰苦地区工作。

第七章 高等教育投入和条件保障

第六十条 国家建立以财政拨款为主、其他多种渠道筹措高等教育经费为辅的体制，使高等教育事业的发展同经济、社会发展的水平相适应。

国务院和省、自治区、直辖市人民政府依照教育法第五十五条的规定，保证国家兴办的高等教育的经费逐步增长。

国家鼓励企业事业组织、社会团体及其他社会组织和个人向高等教育投入。

第六十一条 高等学校的举办者应当保证稳定的办学经费来源，不得抽回其投入的办学资金。

第六十二条 国务院教育行政部门会同国务院其他有关部门根据在校学生年人均教育成本，规定高等学校年经费开支标准和筹措的基本原则；省、自治区、直辖市人民政府教育行政部门会同有关部门制订本行政区域内高等学校年经费开支标准和筹措办法，作为举办者和高等学校筹措办学经费的基本依据。

第六十三条 国家对高等学校进口图书资料、教学科研设备以及校办产业实行优惠政策。高等学校所办产业或者转让知识产权以及其他科学技术成果获得的收益，用于高等学校办学。

第六十四条 高等学校收取的学费应当按照国家有关规定管理和使用，其他任何组织和个人不得挪用。

第六十五条 高等学校应当依法建立、健全财务管理制度，合理使用、严格管理教育经费，提高教育投资效益。

高等学校的财务活动应当依法接受监督。

第八章 附 则

第六十六条 对高等教育活动中违反教育法规定的，依照教育法的有关规定给予处罚。

第六十七条 中国境外个人符合国家规定的条件并办理有关手续后，可以进入中国境内高等学校学习、研究、进行学术交流或者任教，其合法权益受国家保护。

第六十八条 本法所称高等学校是指大学、独立设置的学院和高等专科学校，其中包括高等职业学校和成人高等学校。

本法所称其他高等教育机构是指除高等学校和经批准承担研究生教育任务的科学研究机构以外的从事高等教育活动的组织。

本法有关高等学校的规定适用于其他高等教育机构和经批准承担研究生教育任务的科学研究机构，但是对高等学位专门适用的规定除外。

第六十九条 本法自 1999 年 1 月 1 日起施行。

11. 《面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划》(1998 年 12 月 24 日)

Title: Action Plan for Invigorating Education in the 21st Century (The Ministry of Education, 1998)

Source: Retrieved on December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/level3.jsp?tablename=208&infoid=3337>

中国共产党第十五次全国代表大会提出了跨世纪社会主义现代化建设的宏伟目标与任务,对落实科教兴国战略做出了全面部署。为了实现党的十五大所确定的目标与任务,落实科教兴国战略,全面推进教育的改革和发展,提高全民族的素质和创新能力,特制定本行动计划。

在改革开放和现代化建设新时期,邓小平同志反复强调,实现社会主义现代化,科技是关键,教育是基础。在世纪之交的重要时刻,江泽民同志又深刻指出,“当今世界,以信息技术为主要标志的科技进步日新月异,高科技成果向现实生产力的转化越来越快,初见端倪的知识经济预示人类的经济社会生活将发生新的巨大变化。”在即将到来的 21 世纪,以高新技术为核心的知识经济将占主导地位,国家的综合国力和国际竞争能力将越来越取决于教育发展、科学技术和知识创新的水平,教育将始终处于优先发展的战略地位,现代信息技术在教育中广泛应用并导致教育系统发生深刻的变化,终身教育将是教育发展与社会进步的共同要求。当前,许多国家政府都把振兴教育作为面向新世纪的基本国策,这些动向预示未来教育将发生深刻的变革,我们应当及早准备,迎接新的挑战。

党的十一届三中全会以来,我国的教育事业取得了显著成就,普及九年义务教育和扫除青壮年文盲的工作取得历史性进展;职业教育和成人教育迅速发展;高等教育规模稳步扩大;教育体制和教学改革逐步深化,办学条件和教育质量有了提高;教育法规体系基本框架已初步形成,所有这些为 21 世纪教育事业的振兴奠定了坚实基础。但是,我国教育发展水平仍然偏低,教育结构和体制、教育观念和方法以及人才培养模式尚不能适应现代化建设的需要。在当前及今后一个时期,缺少具有国际领先水平的创造性人才,已经成为制约我国创新能力和竞争能力的主要因素之一。因此,顺应时代要求,振兴我国教育事业,是实现社会主义现代化目标和中华民族伟大复兴的客观需要。我们要高举邓小平理论伟大旗帜,认真遵循邓小平同志关于“教育要面向现代化,面向世界,面向未来”的战略指导方针,抓住机遇,深化改革,锐意进取,把充满生机活力的中国教育推向 21 世纪。

《面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划》,是在贯彻落实《教育法》及《中国教育改革和发展纲要》的基础上提出的跨世纪教育改革的施工蓝图。要全面规划,突出重点,抓住关键,重在落实。行动计划的主要目标是:到 2000 年,全国基本普及九年义务教育,基本扫除青壮年文盲,大力推进素质教育;完善职业教育培训和继续教育制度,城乡新增劳动力和在职人员能够普遍接受各种层次和形式的教育与培训;积极稳步发展高等教育,高等教育入学率达到 11%左右;瞄准国家创新体系的目标,培养造就一批高水平的具有创新能力的人才;加强科学研究并使高校高新技术产业为培育经济发展新的增长点做贡献;深化改革,建立起教育新体制的基本框架,主动适应经济社会发展。到 2010 年,在全面实现“两基”目标的基础上,城市和经济发达地区有步骤地普及高中阶段教育,全国人口受教育年限达到发展中国家的先进水平;高等教育规模有较大扩展,入学率接近 15%,若干所高校和一批重点学科进入或接近世界一流水平;基本建立起终身学习体系,为国家知识创新体系以及现代化建设提供充足的人才支持和知识贡献。

一、实施“跨世纪素质教育工程”,提高国民素质

1. 2000年如期实现基本普及九年义务教育、基本扫除青壮年文盲的目标,是全国教育工作的“重中之重”。“两基”已进入攻坚阶段,要确保全国目标的实现。普及义务教育工作的重点和难点在中西部地区,在“十五”计划期间继续实施“国家贫困地区义务教育工程”,重点放在山区、牧区和边境地区。

进一步加强教育督导工作,健全督导机构,完善督导制度,保证“两基”的质量和素质教育的顺利实施。

2. 实施“跨世纪素质教育工程”,整体推进素质教育,全面提高国民素质和民族创新能力。改革课程体系和评价制度,2000年初步形成现代化基础教育课程框架和课程标准,改革教育内容和教学方法,推行新的评价制度,开展教师培训,启动新课程的实验。争取经过10年左右的实验,在全国推行21世纪基础教育课程教材体系。

3. 加强和改进学校的德育工作。继续加强爱国主义、集体主义、社会主义理想教育,遵纪守法和社会公德教育,进行中华民族优秀传统文化和革命传统教育,实施劳动技能教育以及心理健康教育,培养学生具有良好的道德、健康的心理和高尚的情操。

4. 体育和美育是素质教育的重要组成部分,要加强体育和美育工作。要使学生有健强体魄。美育不仅能培养学生有高尚情操,还能激发学生学习活力,促进智力的开发,培养学生创新能力。到2001年,通过颁布《学校艺术教育工作条例》、深化教育改革和器材配备等工作,初步建立大中小学相互衔接的、较为科学合理的体育、艺术教育体系,保证学校体育和艺术教育教师的数量和质量,提高教学水平。

5. 实施素质教育,要从幼儿阶段抓起,要用科学的方法启迪和开发幼儿的智力,培养幼儿健康的体质、良好的生活习惯、活泼开朗的性格与求知的欲望。

重视特殊教育,努力为广大残疾少年儿童提供受教育的机会,培养他们自主自强的精神和生存发展的能力。

6. 继续扩大内地学校培养少数民族学生的规模,促进各民族素质的共同提高。基础教育阶段,要继续办好内地为边疆少数民族举办的教学班(校),适当扩大培养规模。内地高等学校要为培养少数民族的优秀专门人才做出更多贡献。要重视加强民族地区“双语”教育教学和师资培养培训工作。

7. 建立和完善有关语言文字工作的法规体系,全面推进学校语言文字工作,各级各类学校特别是中小学、师范院校要继续把说好普通话、写好规范字、提高语言文字能力作为素质教育的重要内容。加强汉语言文字和少数民族语言文字信息处理的宏观管理,依法努力提高全社会的语言文字规范化意识,到2010年在全国实现文字应用基本规范化,使我国语言文字的应用更加适应社会主义经济、政治和建设的需要。

二、实施“跨世纪园丁工程”,大力提高教师队伍素质

8. 大力提高教师队伍的整体素质,特别要加强师德建设。3年内,以不同方式对现有中小学校长和专任教师进行全员培训和继续教育,巩固和完善中小学校长岗位培训和持证上岗制度。加强中小学教师继续教育的教材建设。中小学专任教师及师范学校在校生都要接受计算机基础知识培训。2010年前后,具备条件的地区力争使小学和初中专任教师的学历分别提升到专科和本科层次,经济发达地区高中专任教师和校长中获硕士学位者应达到

一定比例。要加强和改革师范教育,提高新师资的培养质量。实力较强的高等学校要在新师资培养以及教师培训中做出贡献。

9. 重点加强中小学骨干教师队伍建设。1999年、2000年,在全国选培10万名中小学及职业学校骨干教师(其中1万名由教育部组织重点培训)。通过开展本校教学改革试验、巡回讲学、研讨培训和接受外校教师观摩进修等活动,发挥骨干教师在当地教学改革中的带动和辐射作用。

10. 实行教师聘任制和全员聘用制,加强考核,竞争上岗,优化教师队伍。2000年前后,要通过提高生师(包括职工)比、下岗、分流富余人员等途径,优化中小学教职工队伍,提高办学效益。同时,要拓宽教师来源渠道,向社会招聘具有教师资格的非师范类高等学校优秀毕业生到中小学任教,改善教师队伍结构。认真解决边远山区和贫困地区中小学教师短缺问题。要进一步完善师范毕业生的定期服务制度,对高校毕业生(包括非师范类)到边远贫困的农村地区任教,采取定期轮换制度,并享受国家规定的工资倾斜政策。鼓励各级政府机关公务员到中小学任教。

三、实施“高层次创造性人才工程”,加强高等学校科研工作,积极参与国家创新体系建设

11. 高等学校要跟踪国际学术发展前沿,成为知识创新和高层次创造性人才培养的基地。要重视培养高层次创造性人才的团结、协作和奉献的精神。要从国内外吸引一批能够领导本学科进入国际先进水平的优秀学术带头人。按照“选到一个聘任一个”的原则,国家给予重点资助,学术带头人在国家政策允许的范围内享有人员聘用和经费使用的自主权。

12. 造就一批具有世界先进水平的中青年学术攻坚人才,使高等学校知识和技术创新基地尽快取得创新成果。从1998年起,在全国高等学校的重点学科中,设立一批特聘教授岗位,面向国内外公开招聘特别优秀的中青年学者进入岗位,设立专项奖金并鼓励地方政府和学校相应设岗奖励。

13. 全国高等学校以竞争择优方式分批精选万名骨干教师,采取国家拨款与自筹经费相结合的办法增强科研经费支持力度,提高科研、教学质量及设备装备水平。

设立高等学校优秀青年教师科研和教学奖励基金。从1999年起每年评选百名35岁以下取得重大科研和教学成果的青年教师,连续5年加大支持其科研和教学工作的力度。

14. 高等学校实行国家重点实验室和开放实验室访问学者制度,实现重点学科的开放效益,提高师资队伍的整体水平。国家设立专项基金,用于实验室业务费用。

15. 进一步提高高等学校博士生培养质量,增设博士专项奖学金。从1999年开始,每年评选百篇具有创新水平的优秀博士论文。对于获奖后留在高等学校工作的博士,连续5年支持其科研、教学工作。要稳妥扩大高等学校博士后流动站的数量和规模。

16. 加强国际学术交流。除按现有留学基金制度继续派遣短期访问学者外,由国家资助,选拔大学系主任和研究所、实验室骨干作为高级访问学者,有针对性地到国外一流大学进行研修交流。邀请海外知名学者特别是世界一流大学的教授任国内大学客座教授,来华进行短期讲学和研究。还要采取各种措施,鼓励留学人员回国服务,或以其他方式为提高我国高等学校的教学质量和科学水平贡献力量。

四、继续并加快进行“211工程”建设，大力提高高等学校的知识创新能力

17. 1995年启动的“211工程”，重点建设一批高等学校和一批学科，已经为我国创新人才的培养和国家创新体系的建设奠定了重要基础。“九五”期间，进入实质性建设阶段。要保证2000年切实完成“211工程”首期计划并在此基础上启动二期计划，以进一步提高高校知识创新能力和科学研究水平。

“211工程”二期计划建设资金仍采取国家、部门、地方和高等学校共同筹集的方式。其中，中央专项投入部分的力度至少与首期计划持平，主要用于加大已立项的重点学科建设力度。同时加强项目管理，提高资金使用效益。

五、创建若干所具有世界先进水平的一流大学和一批一流学科

18. 建设世界一流大学，具有重大的战略意义。按照江泽民同志在北京大学百年校庆大会上讲话的精神，“为了实现现代化，我国要有若干所具有世界先进水平的一流大学。”经过长期的建设和积累，我国少数大学在少数学科和高新技术领域已达到和接近国际先进水平，拥有一批高水平的教授，尤其是本科生培养质量较高，为创建世界一流大学创造了条件。

19. 国际上一流大学都是经过长期的建设形成的。一流大学建设要有政府的支持、资金的投入，但更重要的是学校领导、教师、学生长年累月辛勤奋斗的结果。特别是学生毕业以后在国家的各个建设岗位上乃至在国际上体现出了公认的信誉。同时这种学校集中有一大批知名的学者教授。因此，办成一流的大学，需要有一定的历史过程，要经过社会实践的考验。对此，既要有雄心壮志，又必须脚踏实地。要相对集中国家有限财力，调动多方面积极性，从重点学科建设入手，加大投入力度，对于若干所高等学校和已经接近并有条件达到国际先进水平的学科进行重点建设。今后10~20年，争取若干所大学和一批重点学科进入世界一流水平。

六、实施“现代远程教育工程”，形成开放式教育网络，构建终身学习体系

20. 现代远程教育是随着现代信息技术的发展而产生的一种新型教育方式。它是构筑知识经济时代人们终身学习体系的主要手段。充分利用现代信息技术，在原有远程教育的基础上，实施“现代远程教育工程”，可以有效地发挥现有各种教育资源的优势，符合世界科技教育发展的潮流，是在我国教育资源短缺的条件下办好教育的战略措施，要作为重要的基础设施加大建设力度。

21. 以现有的中国教育科研网(CERNET)示范网和卫星视频传输系统为基础，提高主干网传输速率，充分利用国家已有的通信资源，进一步扩大中国教育科研网的传输容量和联网规模。2000年，全国全部本科高等学校和千所以上中等学校入网，并争取计算机网络进入5万名高校教授家中。利用中国教育科研网建立全国大学生招生远程录取、计算机学籍管理、毕业生远程就业服务一体化的信息系统。

22. 继续发挥卫星电视教育在现代远程教育中的作用，改造现有广播电视教育传输网络，建设中央站，并与中国教育科研网进行高速连接，进行部分远程办学点的联网改造。2000年，争取使全国农村绝大多数中小学都能收看教育电视节目。要运用优秀师资力量和现代教育手段，把教育电视节目办好，重点满足边远、海岛、深山、林牧等地区的教育需求。

23. 改变落后、低水平重复的远程教育软件开发制作模式，发挥政府宏观调控作用，利用各级各类学校教育资源的优势，通过竞争和市场运作机制，开发高质量的教育软件。要重点建设全国远程教育资源库和若干个教育软件开发生产基地。同时注意引进国外优秀现代远程教育软件。

24. 教育部对全国现代远程教育工作实行归口管理，负责组织制订全国“现代远程教育发展规划”并组织实施。“现代远程教育工程”将实行短期国家支持、长期自力运行的发展策略。采用先进的信息技术手段，结合中国的实际情况，不断提高现代远程教育的水平。

为推动现代远程教育的发展，按国际惯例对现代远程教育网络运行费用实行优惠，并依法对境外捐赠设备、进口设备的关税给予减免。

25. 建立和完善继续教育制度，适应终身学习和知识更新的需要。有条件的高等学校要开设继续教育课程，建设继续教育基地。要依托现代远程教育网络开设高质量的网络课程，组织全国一流水平的师资进行讲授，实现跨越时空的教育资源共享，向各行业的管理人员和专业人员提供多种继续教育课程。要发挥高等教育和中等专业教育自学考试制度的优势，不断扩大社会成员的受教育机会。

七、实施“高校高新技术产业化工程”，带动国家高新技术产业的发展，为培育经济新的增长点做贡献

26. 高等学校要在国家创新工程中充分发挥自身优势，努力推动知识创新和技术创新，加快技术开发，围绕经济建设中的共性关键技术开展科技攻关，为改造传统产业、调整产业结构、加强农业和农村工作、培育国家经济发展新的增长点服务。

加强产学研合作，鼓励高等学校与科研院所开展多种形式的联合、合作，优势互补，讲求实效。促进高等学校、科研院所和企业在技术创新和发展高科技产业中的结合。鼓励企业在高等学校建立工程研究中心、生产力促进中心等技术集成与扩散的示范中心，开发高新技术产品。鼓励高等学校向企业转让技术，或利用现有中小企业兴办高新技术企业，探索企业与高校从立项到投产“一条龙”的全面合作。

27. 在高校周围形成高新技术企业群已成为知识经济发展的成功经验。要创造条件在高等学校周围，特别是高等学校集中的地区建立高新技术产业化基地，发展科技园区，成为有目的地吸引国外高新技术企业、引进国外高新技术最新成果的窗口，并发挥科技开发“孵化器”的作用。加强对教师和学生的创业教育，采取措施鼓励他们自主创办高新技术企业。

28. 高等学校兴办高新技术企业，对于带动高新技术产业的发展，形成新的经济增长点，发挥了重要的动力和辐射源的作用，成为培养创新人才的实践基地，也为社会提供了新的就业机会。今后，要按照现代企业制度方式，组建一批以高校为依托的高科技产业集团。

29. 建立健全高等学校高新技术产业化的保障机制。教育部成立高校科技产业发展资助机构，用于资助高校有开发前景的重大科技项目。通过控股、参股和信贷等方式，重点支持包括高校在内的科技产业和科技开发活动。同时，尽快组建一批专门为高校科技成果转化服务的中介机构。允许技术生产要素参与收益分配，对科技成果转让的收益应依据国

家有关规定提取一定部分，按贡献大小分配给有关研制开发人员。要研究建立创业投资基金，鼓励符合条件的高科技企业上市，促进高新技术产业的发展。

八、贯彻《高等教育法》，积极稳步发展高等教育，加快高等教育改革步伐，提高教育质量和办学效益

30. 切实落实《高等教育法》关于“高等学校应当面向社会，依法自主办学，实行民主管理。”的规定，扩大高校办学自主权。为使更多的高中毕业生有接受高等教育的机会，根据各地的需求和经费投入及师资条件的可能，在采用新的机制和模式的前提下，2000年高等教育本专科在校生总数将达到660万人。招生计划的增量将主要用于地方发展高等职业教育，研究生在校生规模应有较大的增长。高等教育入学率由1997年的9.1%（新口径），提高到2000年的11%左右。普通高等学校生师比由1997年的10:1提高到2000年的12:1，独立设置的普通高校平均在校生规模达到4000人左右。

31. 加快高等教育体制改革步伐，深化高等教育改革。继续实行“共建、调整、合作、合并”的方针，今后3~5年，基本形成中央和省级政府两级管理、分工负责，在国家宏观政策指导下，以省级政府统筹为主的条块有机结合的新体制。除少数关系国家发展全局以及行业性很强需由国家有关部门直接管理的高等学校外，其他绝大多数高等学校由省级政府管理或者以地方为主与国家共建。中央财政继续拨款鼓励和推进管理体制变革，调整和优化高等学校布局。鼓励和支持社会力量办学。

32. 积极发展高等职业教育，是提高国民科技文化素质、推迟就业以及发展国民经济的迫切要求。对于学历高等职业教育，除对现有高等专科学校、职业大学和独立设置的成人高校进行改革、改组和改制，并选择部分符合条件的中专改办（简称“三改一补”）发展高等职业教育之外，部分本科院校可以设立高等职业技术学院，基本不搞新建。挑选30所现有学校建设示范性职业技术学院。发展非学历高等职业教育，主要进行职业资格证书教育。要逐步研究建立普通高等教育与职业技术教育之间的立交桥，允许职业技术学院的毕业生经过考试接受高一级学历教育。

高等职业教育必须面向地区经济建设和社会发展，适应就业市场的实际需要，培养生产、服务、管理第一线需要的实用人才，真正办出特色。主动适应农村工作和农业发展的新形势，培养农村现代化需要的各类人才。要通过试点逐步把高等职业教育的招生计划、入学考试和文凭发放等方面的责权放给省级人民政府和学校，省级人民政府在国家宏观指导下，对本地区高等职业教育的现有资源进行统筹。加快发展高等职业教育的步伐，探索多种招生方法，中等职业学校毕业生中有一定比例（近期3%左右）可进入高等职业学校学习；普通高中毕业生除进入普通高等学校外，多数应接受多种形式的高等职业教育，提高素质。

33. 加大招生和毕业生就业制度改革力度，有计划、有步骤地推进高等学校招生考试制度的改革。要从有利于中小学实施素质教育、高等学校公平选拔合格人才、扩大高等学校办学自主权和社会稳定的原则出发，进行高考科目、内容、方法和制度的改革试点，增加对学生能力和综合素质的考核分量，探索适合不同地区和学校特点的高等学校招生、考试、评价的方法和制度。进行高等职业教育“学校面向市场自主办学，学生自谋职业”的试点。到2000年左右，建立起比较完善的由学校 and 有关部门推荐、学生和用人单位在国家政策指导下通过人才劳务市场双向选择、自主择业的毕业生就业制度。要通过多种形式对高校特困生给予资助，保证经高考录取和已在校的家境贫寒的学生不因经济困难而辍学。国家继续安排资金资助特困生，地方财政和学校相应配套资助。同时，积极开展高校学生

贷学金等多种助学制度的试点工作，探索社会主义市场经济条件下资助经济困难学生的有效途径。

34. 积极推进高等学校的教学改革，改革教育思想、观念、内容和方法。要大力推进高等专科教育的人才培养模式的改革，特别是改革课程结构，加强实践教学基地和“双师”型教师队伍建设。本科教育要拓宽专业口径，增强适应性，今后3~5年，将专业由200多种调整到100多种。继续推进“面向21世纪教学内容和课程体系改革计划”，并建成200个文、理科基础性人才培养基地、100个各科类基础课程教学基地和20个大学生文化素质培养基地，使之成为具有国内先进水平的教学示范基地。积极稳步发展专业学位研究生教育，进一步完善专业学位体系，培养大批高层次应用性人才。

35. 大力推进高等学校内部管理体制改革的。逐步推行聘任制，减少冗员，精简高校职工队伍，使学生与教职员之比、学生与职工之比、专任教师与职工之比均有较大提高；加速学校后勤工作社会化改革，精简分流富余人员。高等学校招生计划的扩大要同学校后勤工作社会化的进度挂钩。选择若干条件较好的城市组建企业化经营管理的高校后勤生活服务集团公司，从事学生公寓物业管理以及学校后勤生活服务。争取3~5年内，大部分地区实现高校后勤工作社会化。

九、积极发展职业教育和成人教育，培养大批高素质劳动者和初中级人才，尤其要加大教育为农业和农村工作服务的力度

36. 依据《教育法》和《职业教育法》，要努力建立符合我国国情特点的职前与职后教育培训相互贯通的体系，使初等、中等和高等职业教育与培训相互衔接，并与普通教育、成人教育相互沟通、协调发展。设立职业教育课程改革和教材建设基金，实施课程改革和教材建设规划。依托普通高等学校和高等职业技术学院，重点建设50个职业教育专业教师和实习指导教师培养培训基地，地方也要加强职业教育师资培训基地建设。

继续实施初中后教育的分流，从各地实际出发，积极发展中等职业教育。全国高中阶段职业教育与普通教育之间应保持现有比例，努力达到《中国教育改革和发展纲要》提出的目标。极少数尚未普及九年义务教育的地区，对不能升入初中的小学毕业生应实行职业技术培训；高中阶段教育结构已基本合理的地区，要把职业教育工作重点放到提高质量和效益上来。经济比较发达的地区可发展部分综合高中，推迟到高三年级分流。要对中等职业教育的社会需求进行科学预测，按照“先培训，后上岗”的原则，对各类新就业人员进行时限和形式不同的职业教育和培训。中等职业教育要改革专业和课程结构，实行弹性选课制度，提高培养质量，使毕业生能够适应未来社会产业结构和就业市场变化的需要，努力在各地办出一批有较高社会声誉的职业技术学校。

37. 成人教育要以岗位培训和继续教育为重点，通过建立现代企业教育制度和职业资格证书制度，采取灵活多样的办学形式，使各类下岗和转岗人员都能接受不同层次和年限的职业培训或正规教育，为再就业工程服务，并使之规范化、制度化。积极为企业经营管理和财务管理人员进行在职培训。促进企业、学校与政府其他业务部门之间的合作。开展社区教育的实验工作，逐步建立和完善终身教育体系，努力提高全民素质。

根据不同学科、专业和行业发展趋势，加强专业技术人员继续教育工作，健全教育、考核、使用相结合的制度，建立继续教育基金，促进继续教育基地和网络的建设。还要加强公务员培训教育，健全培训机制，建设高素质的专业化的国家行政管理干部队伍。

38. 加大职业教育与成人教育办学体制、管理体制、运行机制及招生就业制度改革的力度。适应社会主义市场经济体制的建立和发展,鼓励社会力量在政府的指导下举办各种形式的职业教育和成人教育。职业教育和成人教育要走产教结合的道路,调整学校布局,优化资源配置,加强创业教育和职业道德教育,实行更加灵活的教学模式,努力办出特色,更好地为地区经济和社会发展服务。

认真贯彻党的十五届三中全会精神,深化农科教相结合和各类教育统筹的综合改革,促进农村普通教育、成人教育和职业教育的协调发展,充分发挥农村教育在农村现代化建设中的积极作用。扫盲工作要与农村实用技术培训相结合,切实巩固脱盲的成效,把脱盲与脱贫结合起来。今后3~5年,使全国大多数农村地区义务教育阶段的毕业生或肄业生能够在从业前后接受一定方式的职业技术培训,包括“绿色证书”培训,使一部分人掌握一两项生产致富的实用技术,适应农村经济社会发展和农民致富奔小康的需要,特别要采取多种教育和培训形式,为乡镇企业和农村产业升级提供充足的、适用的技术和管理人才。

十、深化办学体制改革,调动各方面发展教育事业的积极性

39. 认真贯彻国务院对于社会力量办学实行“积极鼓励,大力支持,正确引导,加强管理”的方针,今后3~5年,基本形成以政府办学为主体、社会各界共同参与、公办学校和民办学校共同发展的办学体制。

要制定有利于吸纳社会资金办教育和民办学校发展的优惠政策。民办学校的教师和学生,在评定职称、业务培训、升学考试、社会活动等方面享有与公办学校教师、学生的同等待遇。国家设立社会力量办学表彰奖励基金,对有突出贡献的集体和个人给予表彰。

40. 社会力量办学要纳入依法办学、依法管理的轨道。社会力量办学不以营利为目的,鼓励滚动发展。要完善法规建设,充实学校设置标准,健全管理体制,加强校容管理,严格财务审计,不断提高教育和管理水平,鼓励现有学校发挥规模效益。

要保证社会力量举办的教育机构自主办学的法人地位,高等教育机构可面向社会自主招生,依法自主颁发非学历教育学生的结业证书,也可组织学生参加国家举办的自学考试或学历文凭考试,取得国家承认的学历证书。

41. 公办学校办学体制改革,要在政府教育行政部门的指导下进行试点。基础教育阶段要与改造薄弱学校相结合,高等教育阶段主要以地方高校和成人高校为对象,探索多种形式的办学模式。在推进办学体制改革中,按照教育法律法规,学校产权必须明晰,国有教育设施不得挪作他用,国有和公有资产不得流失。

十一、依法保证教育经费的“三个增长”,切实增加教育的有效投入

42. 落实科教兴国战略,必须转变把教育投资作为消费性投资的观念,要切实把发展教育作为基础设施建设,把教育投资作为一种基础性的投资,千方百计增加教育投入。各级财政要认真落实已出台的筹措教育经费的各项法律规定和政策,特别是要保证做到《教育法》规定的教育经费的“三个增长”(即各级政府教育财政拨款的增长要高于同级财政经常性收入的增长,在校学生人均教育经费逐步增长,教师工资和学生人均公用经费逐步增长)。要按照《教育法》和《中国教育改革和发展纲要》的规定,逐步提高国家财政性教育经费占国内生产总值的比例,努力实现4%的目标。

逐步提高中央本级和省级财政支出中教育经费支出所占的比例。自 1998 年起，中央本级财政按同口径每年提高 1 个百分点，2000 年，将此比例提高 3 个百分点左右，除按原有政策保留目前每年由中央安排的教育专项外，上述增量部分主要用于振兴行动计划中中央财政支持和资助的项目。同时，各省、自治区、直辖市财政支出中教育经费所占的比例，也应根据各地实际每年提高 1~2 个百分点。

认真贯彻《国务院办公厅转发财政部关于进一步做好教育科技经费预算安排和确保教师工资按时发放通知的通知》（国办发〔1998〕23 号）的精神，从 1998 年起，各级财政每年超收部分和财政预算外收入，应按不低于年初确定的教育经费占财政支出的比例用于教育。

加强对城、乡教育费附加的征管工作，以确保足额征收并由教育行政部门商财政部门统筹安排使用。积极支持勤工俭学、校办产业的发展，并对其继续实行税收优惠政策。

在中国中小学幼儿教师奖励基金会的基础上，建立中华教育发展基金会，多渠道筹集教育经费。

43. 加快高校筒子楼建设和危房的改造，争取到 2000 年基本解决高校青年教师住房困难。中央部委所属高校此项工程所需资金，中央财政予以专项支持，其余部分由学校及其主管部门分担，改造后的筒子楼作为高校的公寓和周转用房。

44. 利用银行贷款，进一步加快中央部委高校的教职工住房建设。为解决高校教师住房困难、稳定高校教师队伍，在 2000 年前建设银行基础设施贷款中，安排一部分用于中央部委所属高校住房建设，以支持利用学校自用土地，加快新建“经济适用型”住房，资金不足部分，应多渠道筹措解决。同时，要切实加强中小学教师的“安居工程”的建设。

45. 各级教育部门必须采取各种措施深化教育改革，完善拨款制度，精简机构和冗员，提高经费使用效益。同时，加强对教育经费的审计与监督。

十二、高举邓小平理论的伟大旗帜，加强高等学校党的建设和思想政治工作，把高等学校建设成为社会主义精神文明建设的重要阵地

46. 高等学校的德育工作要以马列主义、毛泽东思想和邓小平理论为指导，按照江泽民同志对全国青年和大学生提出的坚持“学习科学文化与加强思想修养的统一、学习书本知识与投身社会实践的统一、实现自身价值与服务祖国人民的统一、树立远大理想与进行艰苦奋斗的统一”的要求，贯彻落实《中共中央关于进一步加强和改进学校德育工作的若干意见》，坚持社会主义办学方向，完善德育工作体系，教育引导大学生坚定政治信念，加强思想修养，树立远大理想，投身社会实践，自觉艰苦奋斗，立志振兴中华，把培养“四有”新人的战略任务落到实处。

47. 认真组织实施普通高等学校公共马克思主义理论课和思想品德课（简称“两课”）课程设置新方案，加快邓小平理论“进教材、进课堂、进学生头脑”工作的步伐，用邓小平理论武装大学生。要加强“两课”课程体系和教材建设的研究，把理论研究基地建设好。加强“两课”教师的培训工作，提高他们的政治和业务水平，提高思想理论教育的实效。

48. 加强高等学校中华民族优秀传统文化教育和革命传统教育、人文科学教育和艺术教育，通过增设选修课、举办专题讲座和各种知识性、文艺性业余活动等多种方式，提高学生的文化素质。

49. 加强高等学校的哲学社会科学研究。要在马克思列宁主义、毛泽东思想和邓小平理论的指导下，紧密结合国民经济和社会发展的重大理论和实践问题组织研究，发挥高等学校“思想库”、“人才库”的优势。要进一步加大高校哲学社会科学研究的投入，设立理论研究和教学优秀成果奖，提高高等学校哲学社会科学的研究水平和参与重大决策的能力。

加强教育科学研究。要统筹规划，突出重点，促进研究成果向实际应用的转化，为教育宏观决策科学化、民主化服务，为教育改革的实践服务，为繁荣教育科学服务。

50. 高等学校党组织要切实加强党的建设，加强和改进党对思想政治工作的领导。要在党委的统一部署下，建立和完善校长及行政系统为主实施的德育管理体制，加强高等学校思想政治工作队伍的建设，使高等学校在社会主义精神文明建设，维护生动活泼、安定团结的政治局面中发挥重要作用。

12. 《试行按新的管理模式和运行机制举办高等职业技术教育的实施意见》（1999年1月11日）

Title: Advice on Running HVE on a Trial Basis via a New Management and Operation System (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Planning, 1999)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007 from
http://gov.hnedu.cn/fagui/Law/12/law_12_1386.htm

为了贯彻落实“科教兴国”战略，加快高等教育的改革和发展，积极探索以多种途径发展高等职业技术教育，决定在1999年普通高等教育年度招生计划中，安排10万人专门用于部分省（市）试行与现行办法有所不同的管理模式和运行机制举办高等职业技术教育。

一、目的

按新的管理模式和运行机制举办高等职业技术教育的目的是：1、促进我国高等教育更好地适应经济建设和社会发展需要，加快培养面向基层，面向生产、服务和管理第一线职业岗位的实用型、技能型专门人才的速度，缓解应届高中毕业生的升学压力；2、积极探索以多种形式、多种途径和多种机制发展高等职业技术教育；3、按照《中国教育改革和发展纲要》及其实施意见精神，进一步扩大省级政府对发展高等教育的决策权和统筹权。

二、管理职责

按新的管理模式和运行机制举办的高等职业技术教育为专科层次学历教育，其招生计划为指导性计划，教育事业费以学生缴费为主，政府补贴为辅。毕业生不包分配，不再使用《普通高等学校毕业生就业派遣报到证》，由举办学校颁发毕业证书，与其他普通高校毕业生一样实行学校推荐、自主择业。

国家主要负责高等职业技术教育的统筹规划、综合协调和宏观管理，制订基本统一的质量标准、管理办法，编制年度指导性计划，审定举办学校的资格，以及对试办情况进行监督检查。对这部分高等职业技术教育，国家不再统一印制毕业证书内芯。

在国家宏观政策的指导下，省级政府根据本地区经济和社会发展的实际需要、产业结构特点、招生能力、就业状况和国家下达的指导性计划等综合情况，确定年度招生计划、招生办法、专业设置、收费标准和户籍管理，监督检查学业证书发放，指导毕业生就业，确定生均教育事业费的补贴标准等，并同时负有保证教学质量、规范办学秩序和改善办学条件的职责。

举办学校应根据社会需求和自身办学条件的可能，编制年度招生计划，并按高等职业技术教育的特点，认真组织教学，保证教学质量。举办学校除按国家有关规定进行学籍管理外，还应就毕业证书的发放、办学秩序的稳定制定严格的管理措施，同时负责毕业生的就业指导和服务。

三、举办学校

为积极探索按新管理模式和运行机制发展高等职业技术教育的途径，可由下列符合《高等教育法》和《职业教育法》的规定，并达到相应的国家规定标准的高等教育机构承担：

1、短期职业大学、职业技术学院、具有高等学历教育资格的民办高校。上述学校原则上须承担此项试办任务。

2、普通高等专科学校。

3、本科院校内设立的高等职业教育机构（二级学院）。

4、作为过渡措施，经教育部批准的极少数国家级重点中等专业学校，改为既从事高等职业教育，又从事中等职业教育双重任务的学校（限于骨干专业举办高等职业教育）。

5、办学条件达到国家规定合格标准的成人高校。但须视办学条件状况，相应调整成人脱产学历教育的培养规模。

凡承担此项试办任务的上述各类学校，不得安排常规的普通高等学历教育的招生。

四、招生对象及办法

招生对象主要面向当年参加全国普通高等学校统一招生考试的考生，也可招收少量的中等职业学校应届毕业生。由省招办统一择优录取。

对招收相关或相近专业的少量的中等职业学校应届毕业生，其文化课和职业技能水平应由省级招生部门单独组织考试，并确定具体的录取标准。

五、教学管理

按社会需要调整专业设置和培养目标，教学计划和课程设置按适应职业岗位群的职业能力的要求来确定。强调理论教学与实践训练并重，毕业生具有直接上岗工作的能力。加强与有关部门合作，按劳动和社会保障部门有关职业技能考核标准，对学生实施职业技能考核鉴定，使学生毕业时能同时获得相应的学业证书和职业资格证书。

在校生的管理按《普通高等学校学生管理规定》执行。

六、试办范围及招生规模

根据“两基”普及情况、人均国内生产总值、高校办学条件、普通高中升学压力和就业状况等综合考虑，1999年确定北京、天津、河北、辽宁、黑龙江、上海、江苏、浙江、福建、山东、河南、湖北、湖南、广东等省（市）试办。

试办省（市）的招生规模一般控制在3000—10000人之间，试办省（市）要千方百计增加投入、挖掘办学潜力、优化资源配置，并根据规模服从条件，数量服从质量的原则，统筹安排本省范围内高校年度招生规模。此次试办工作不以国务院有关部委和计划单列市为单位进行。对中央部委驻试办省（市）的高等院校，若需参与此项工作，应由学校在1999年1月20日前提出申请，经主管部门同意后，报由试办省（市）统筹安排与管理。

试办学校不得跨省招生。

七、操作程序

各试办省（市）根据本文的要求，研究提出试办的总体方案，以省级人民政府的名义于1999年1月30日前上报教育部。教育部会同国家计委对国家负责管理的事项进行审核。总体方案中应包含以下基本内容：1、试办总规模；2、试办学校、试办规模及其基本办学情况（按附件要求填报）；3、教学质量、办学秩序和办学条件改善、教育事业费补贴保证措施；4、管理办法。经国家审核的试办学校，其招生计划将于1999年4月随普通高校本专科招生计划一并下达执行。

八、加强领导

以新的管理模式和运行机制发展高等职业技术教育是一项重大的制度性创新，涉及办学体制、办学机制、经费投入、计划管理、就业等多方面的深刻变革。鉴于此项工作涉及面广，政策性极强，希望各试办省（市）切实负起责任，加强领导，做到统筹规划，精心组织。在试办过程中，既要积极，又要稳妥，要正确处理好改革、发展与稳定、需要与可能、数量与质量的关系，确实保证人才培养的质量，办成真正的高等职业技术教育，维护高等职业技术教育的声誉。

教育部会同国家计委将加强对试办工作的监督与检查，对于组织不得力，管理混乱的省（市）将停止其继续举办的资格。

13. 《关于深化教育改革，全面推进素质教育的决定》（1999年6月13日）

Title: Resolution on Deepening Education Reform and Fully Promoting Quality Education (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/level3.jsp?tablename=208&infoid=3314>

当今世界，科学技术突飞猛进，知识经济已见端倪，国力竞争日趋激烈。教育在综合国力的形成中处于基础地位，国力的强弱越来越取决于劳动者的素质，取决于各类人才的质量和数量，这对于培养和造就我国二十一世纪的一代新人提出了更加迫切的要求。我国正处在建立社会主义市场经济体制和实现现代化建设战略目标的关键时期。新中国成立50年来特别是改革开放以来，教育事业的改革与发展取得了令人瞩目的巨大成就。但面对新的形势，由于主观和客观等方面的原因，我们的教育观念、教育体制、教育结构、人才培养模式、教育内容和教学方法相对滞后，影响了青少年的全面发展，不能适应提高国民素质的需要。全党、全社会必须从我国社会主义事业兴旺发达和中华民族伟大复兴的大局出发，以邓小平理论为指导，全面贯彻落实党的十五大精神，深化教育改革，全面推进素质教育，构建一个充满生机的有中国特色社会主义教育体系，为实施科教兴国战略奠定坚实的人才和知识基础。

一、全面推进素质教育，培养适应二十一世纪现代化建设需要的社会主义新人

1. 实施素质教育，就是全面贯彻党的教育方针，以提高国民素质为根本宗旨，以培养学生的创新精神和实践能力为重点，造就“有理想、有道德、有文化、有纪律”的、德智体美等全面发展的社会主义事业建设者和接班人。

全面推进素质教育，要面向现代化、面向世界、面向未来，使受教育者坚持学习科学文化与加强思想修养的统一，坚持学习书本知识与投身社会实践的统一，坚持实现自身价值与服务祖国人民的统一，坚持树立远大理想与进行艰苦奋斗的统一。

全面推进素质教育，要坚持面向全体学生，为学生的全面发展创造相应的条件，依法保障适龄儿童和青少年学习的基本权利，尊重学生身心发展特点和教育规律，使学生生动活泼、积极主动地得到发展。

2. 实施素质教育应当贯穿于幼儿教育、中小学教育、职业教育、成人教育、高等教育等各级各类教育，应当贯穿于学校教育、家庭教育和社会教育等各个方面。在不同阶段和不同方面应当有不同的内容和重点，相互配合，全面推进。在不同地区还应体现地区特点，尤其是少数民族地区的特点。

实施素质教育，必须把德育、智育、体育、美育等有机地统一在教育活动的各个环节中。学校教育不仅要抓好智育，更要重视德育，还要加强体育、美育、劳动技术教育和社会实践，使诸方面教育相互渗透、协调发展，促进学生的全面发展和健康成长。

3. 各级各类学校必须更加重视德育工作，以马克思列宁主义、毛泽东思想和邓小平理论为指导，按照德育总体目标和学生成长规律，确定不同学段阶段的德育内容和要求，在培养学生的思想品德和行为规范方面，要形成一定的目标递进层次。要加强辩证唯物主义和历史唯物主义教育，使学生树立科学的世界观和人生观。要有针对性地开展爱国主义、集体主义和社会主义教育，中华民族优秀传统文化和革命传统教育，理想、伦理道德以及文明习惯养成教育，中国近现代史、基本国情、国内外形势教育和民主法制教育。把发扬

中华民族优良传统同积极学习世界上一切优秀文明成果结合起来。高等学校要进一步加强邓小平理论“进教材、进课堂、进学生头脑”工作。职业学校要加强职业道德教育。

进一步改进德育工作的方式方法，寓德育于各学科教学之中，加强学校德育与学生生活和社会实践的联系，讲究实际效果，克服形式主义倾向。针对新形势下青少年成长的特点，加强学生的心理健康教育，培养学生坚韧不拔的意志、艰苦奋斗的精神，增强青少年适应社会生活的能力。加强民族团结教育，规范国防教育，提高学生的国家安全意识，继续搞好军训工作并使之制度化。加强校园的精神文明建设，严禁一切封建迷信和其他有害于学生身心健康的活动及物品传入校园。加强共青团、少先队和学生会工作，在培养和提高学生素质方面发挥更大的作用。社会各方面要为青少年提供优秀的精神文化产品和德育活动基地，形成学校、家庭和社会共同参与德育工作的新格局。

4. 智育工作要转变教育观念，改革人才培养模式，积极实行启发式和讨论式教学，激发学生独立思考和创新的意识，切实提高教学质量。要让学生感受、理解知识产生和发展的过程，培养学生的科学精神和创新思维习惯，重视培养学生收集处理信息的能力、获取新知识的能力、分析和解决问题的能力、语言文字表达能力以及团结协作和社会活动的能力。高等教育要重视培养大学生的创新能力、实践能力和创业精神，普遍提高大学生的人文素养和科学素质。职业教育和成人教育要使学生在掌握必需的文化知识的同时，具有熟练的职业技能和适应职业变化的能力。减轻中小学生课业负担已成为推行素质教育中刻不容缓的问题，要切实认真加以解决。各级政府都要建立健全减轻学生课业负担的监督检查机制。要重视婴幼儿的身体发育和智力开发，普及婴幼儿早期教育的科学知识和方法。

5. 健康体魄是青少年为祖国和人民服务的基本前提，是中华民族旺盛生命力的体现。学校教育要树立健康第一的指导思想，切实加强体育工作，使学生掌握基本的运动技能，养成坚持锻炼身体的良好习惯。确保学生体育课程和课外体育活动时间，不准挤占体育活动时间 and 场所。举办多种多样的群体性体育活动，培养学生的竞争意识、合作精神和坚强毅力。地方各级人民政府要统筹规划，为学校开展体育活动提供必要条件。培养学生的良好卫生习惯，了解科学营养知识。根据农村的实际条件和需要，有针对性地加强农村学校的体育和卫生工作。

6. 美育不仅能陶冶情操、提高素养，而且有助于开发智力，对于促进学生全面发展具有不可替代的作用。要尽快改变学校美育工作薄弱的状况，将美育融入学校教育全过程。中小学要加强音乐、美术课堂教学，高等学校应要求学生选修一定学时的包括艺术在内的人文学科课程。开展丰富多采的课外文化艺术活动，增强学生的美感体验，培养学生欣赏美和创造美的能力。地方各级人民政府和各有关部门要为学校美育工作创造条件，继续完善文化经济政策，各类文化场所（博物馆、科技馆、文化馆、纪念馆等）要向学生免费或优惠开放，鼓励文化艺术团体到学校演出高雅健康的节目。农村中小学也要充分利用当地文化资源，因地制宜地开展美育活动。

7. 教育与生产劳动相结合是培养全面发展人才的重要途径。各级各类学校要从实际出发，加强和改进对学生的生产劳动和实践教育，使其接触自然、了解社会，培养热爱劳动的习惯和艰苦奋斗的精神。建立青少年参与社区服务和社区建设的制度。中小学要鼓励学生积极参加形式多样的课外实践活动，培养动手能力；职业学校要实行产教结合，鼓励学生在实践中掌握职业技能；高等学校要加强社会实践，组织学生参加科学研究、技术开发和推广活动以及社会服务活动。利用假期组织志愿者到城乡支工、支农、支医和支教。社

会各方面要为学校开展生产劳动、科技活动和其他社会实践活动提供必要的条件，同时要加强学生校外劳动和社会实践基地的建设。

二、深化教育改革，为实施素质教育创造条件

8. 基本普及九年义务教育和基本扫除青壮年文盲（简称“两基”），是全面推进素质教育的基础。地方各级人民政府要继续将“两基”作为教育工作的“重中之重”，确保2000年“两基”目标的实现和达标后的巩固与提高。各地要从实际出发，改造薄弱学校，提高义务教育阶段的整体办学水平。2000年后要继续实施“国家贫困地区义务教育工程”，加大对贫困地区和少数民族地区的扶持力度，继续加强发达地区对少数民族贫困地区的教育对口支援工作，切实解决农村初中辍学率偏高的问题，同时大力提高义务教育阶段残疾儿童少年的入学率。

9. 调整现有教育体系结构，扩大高中阶段教育和高等教育的规模，拓宽人才成长的道路，减缓升学压力。通过多种形式积极发展高等教育，到2010年，我国同龄人口的高等教育入学率要从现在的百分之九提高到百分之十五左右。要在确保“两基”的前提下，积极发展包括普通教育和职业教育在内的高中阶段教育，为初中毕业生提供多种形式的学习机会。在城市和经济发达地区要有步骤地普及高中阶段教育。

高等职业教育是高等教育的重要组成部分。要大力发展高等职业教育，培养一大批具有必要的理论知识和较强实践能力，生产、建设、管理、服务第一线 and 农村急需的专门人才。现有的职业大学、独立设置的成人高校和部分高等专科学校要通过改革、改组和改制，逐步调整为职业技术学院（或职业学院）。支持本科高等学校举办或与企业合作举办职业技术学院（或职业学院）。省、自治区、直辖市人民政府在对当地教育资源的统筹下，可以举办综合性、社区性的职业技术学院（或职业学院）。

10. 构建与社会主义市场经济体制和教育内在规律相适应、不同类型教育相互沟通相互衔接的教育体制，为学校毕业生提供继续学习深造的机会。职业技术学院（或职业学院）可采取多种方式招收普通高中毕业生和中等职业学校毕业生。职业技术学院（或职业学院）毕业生经过一定选拔程序可以进入本科高等学校继续学习。

高等学校和中等职业学校要创造条件实行弹性的学习制度，放宽招生和入学的年龄限制，允许分阶段完成学业。大力发展现代远程教育、职业资格证书教育和其他继续教育。完善自学考试制度，形成社会化、开放式的教育网络，为适应多层次、多形式的教育需求开辟更为广阔的途径，逐渐完善终身学习体系。

11. 进一步简政放权，加大省级人民政府发展和管理本地区教育的权力以及统筹力度，促进教育与当地经济社会发展紧密结合。今后3年，继续按照“共建、调整、合作、合并”的方式，基本完成高等教育管理体制和布局结构的调整，形成中央和省级人民政府两级管理、以省级人民政府管理为主的新体制，合理配置教育资源，提高教育质量和办学效益。经国务院授权，把发展高等职业教育和大部分高等专科学校教育的权力以及责任交给省级人民政府，省级人民政府依法管理职业技术学院（或职业学院）和高等专科学校。高等职业教育（包括高等专科学校）的招生计划改由省级人民政府制定，其招生考试事宜由省级人民政府自行确定。

继续完善基础教育主要由地方负责、分级管理的体制。根据各地实际，加大县级人民政府对教育经费、教师管理和校长任免等方面的统筹权。地方各级人民政府要加强对职业教育和成人教育的统筹。学历教育由教育行政部门负责管理。在高中及其以上教育的办学

水平评估、人力资源预测和毕业生就业指导等方面，进一步发挥非政府的行业协会组织和社会中介机构的作用。

按照《中华人民共和国高等教育法》的规定，切实落实和扩大高等学校的办学自主权，增强学校适应当地经济社会发展的活力。加强对高等学校的监督和办学质量检查，逐步形成对学校办学行为和教育质量的社会监督机制以及评价体系，完善高等学校自我约束、自我管理机制。进一步扩大高等学校招生、专业设置等自主权，高等学校可以到外地合作办学。深化学校内部管理体制的改革，进一步精简机构，减员增效。改革分配和奖励制度，实行多劳多得、优劳优酬。加大学校后勤改革力度，逐步剥离学校后勤系统，推动后勤工作社会化，鼓励社会力量为学校提供后勤服务，发展教育产业。

12. 进一步解放思想、转变观念，积极鼓励和支持社会力量以多种形式办学，满足人民群众日益增长的教育需求，形成以政府办学为主体、公办学校和民办学校共同发展的格局。凡符合国家有关法律法规的办学形式，均可大胆试验。在发展民办教育方面迈出更大的步伐。鼓励社会力量以各种方式举办高中阶段和高等职业教育。经国家教育行政主管部门批准，可以举办民办普通高等学校。在保证适龄儿童、少年均能就近进入公办小学和初中的前提下，可允许设立少数民办小学和初中，在这个范围内提供择校机会，但不搞“一校两制”。积极发展以社区为依托的、公办与民办相结合的幼儿教育。要因地制宜地制定优惠政策（如土地优惠使用、免征配套费等），支持社会力量办学。

各级人民政府要加强对民办教育的管理、引导和监督，国家要加快民办教育的立法，促进民办教育的健康发展。各级各类民办学校都要依法办学，不断提高办学水平。

13. 加快改革招生考试和评价制度，改变“一次考试定终身”的状况。改革高考制度是推进中小学全面实施素质教育的重要措施，按照有助于高等学校选拔人才、中小学实施素质教育和扩大高等学校办学自主权的原则，积极推进高考制度改革。进行每年举办两次高等学校招生考试的试点。高考科目设置和内容的改革应进一步突出对能力和综合素质的考查。鼓励有条件的省级人民政府进行多种形式的高考制度改革试验，扩大学校的招生自主权和考生的选择机会。逐步建立具有多种选择的、更加科学和公正的高等学校招生选拔制度。

在普及九年义务教育的地区，实行小学毕业生免试就近升学的办法。鼓励各地中小学自行组织毕业考试，采取多种形式改革高中阶段学校的招生办法，改革高中会考制度。建立符合素质教育要求的对学校、教师和学生的评价机制。地方各级人民政府不得下达升学指标，不得以升学率作为评价学校工作的标准。鼓励社会各界、家长和学生以适当方式参与对学校工作的评价。

14. 调整 and 改革课程体系、结构、内容，建立新的基础教育课程体系，试行国家课程、地方课程和学校课程。改变课程过分强调学科体系、脱离时代和社会发展以及学生实际的状况。抓紧建立更新教学内容的机制，加强课程的综合性和实践性，重视实验课教学，培养学生实际操作能力。要增强农村特别是贫困地区义务教育的课程、教材与当地经济社会发展的适应性。促进教材的多样化，进一步完善国家对基础教育教材的评审制度。积极推进教学改革，提高课堂教学的质量，国家和地方要奖励并推广符合素质教育要求的优秀教学成果。

职业教育要增强专业的适用性，开发和编写体现新知识、新技术、新工艺和新方法的具有职业教育特色的课程及教材。高等教育要加快课程改革和教学改革，继续调整专业结

构和设置,使学生尽早地参与科技研究开发和创新活动,鼓励跨学科选修课程,培养基础扎实、知识面宽、具有创新能力的高素质专门人才。

15. 大力提高教育技术手段的现代化水平和教育信息化程度。国家支持建设以中国教育科研网和卫星视频系统为基础的现代远程教育网络,加强经济实用型终端平台系统和校园网络或局域网络的建设,充分利用现有资源和各种音像手段,继续搞好多样化的电化教育和计算机辅助教学。在高中阶段的学校和有条件的初中、小学普及计算机操作和信息技术教育,使教育科研网络进入全部高等学校和骨干中等职业学校,逐步进入中小学。采取有效措施,大力开发优秀的教育教学软件。运用现代远程教育网络为社会成员提供终身学习的机会,为农村和边远地区提供适合当地需要的教育。

16. 努力改变教育与经济、科技相脱节的状况,促进教育和经济、科技的密切结合。高等教育实施素质教育,要加强产学研结合,大力推进高等学校和产业界以及科研院所的合作,鼓励有条件的高等学校建立科技企业,企业在高等学校建立研究机构,高等学校在企业建立实习基地。采用多种形式,使高等学校科研机构进入企业,提高高等学校科技成果的转化率,加快实用科技成果向企业的转移,增强企业的技术创新能力,培育新的经济增长点。要创建若干所具有世界先进水平的一流大学和一批一流学科,在高等学校建设一批既出人才、又出成果的基础研究和应用研究基地,为国家创新体系建设和现代化建设作出贡献。继续推进城市教育综合改革。职业教育和成人教育要通过多种方式,为加快提高劳动者素质,为转岗、分流、下岗职工再就业提供教育和培训。

进一步推进农科教结合,全面推进农村教育综合改革,促进农村普通教育、成人教育和职业教育的统筹协调发展,使农村教育切实转变到主要为农村经济和社会发展服务上来。要把文化知识教育和扫除青壮年文盲与实用生产技术培训结合起来,与农民脱贫致富结合起来。要采取灵活多样的教育培训形式,抓紧培养一大批农村急需的实用技术推广人才、乡镇企业管理人才和医疗卫生人才。

三、优化结构,建设全面推进素质教育的高质量的教师队伍

17. 建设高质量的教师队伍,是全面推进素质教育的基本保证。教师要热爱党,热爱社会主义祖国,忠诚于人民的教育事业;要树立正确的教育观、质量观和人才观,增强实施素质教育的自觉性;要不断提高思想政治素质和业务素质,教书育人,为人师表,敬业爱生;要有宽广厚实的业务知识和终身学习的自觉性,掌握必要的现代教育技术手段;要遵循教育规律,积极参与教学科研,在工作中勇于探索创新;要与学生平等相处,尊重学生人格,因材施教,保护学生的合法权益。

18. 把提高教师实施素质教育的能力和水平作为师资培养、培训的重点。加强和改革师范教育,大力提高师资培养质量。调整师范学校的层次和布局,鼓励综合性高等学校和非师范类高等学校参与培养、培训中小学教师的工作,探索在有条件的综合性高等学校中试办师范学院。2010年前后,具备条件的地区力争使小学和初中阶段教育的专任教师的学历分别提升到专科和本科层次,经济发达地区高中阶段教育的专任教师和校长中获硕士学位者应达到一定比例。提高高等学校教师中具有博士学位教师的比例。

开展以培训全体教师为目标、骨干教师为重点的继续教育,使中小学教师的整体素质明显提高。中小学专任教师以及师范学校在校生都要接受计算机基础知识和技能培训。注意吸收企业优秀工程技术和管理人员到职业学校任教,加快建设兼有教师资格和其他专业技术职务的“双师型”教师队伍。地方各级人民政府要多渠道筹资设立骨干教师专项资

金，在大中小学培养一批高水平的学科带头人和有较大影响的教书育人专家，造就一支符合时代要求、能发挥示范作用的骨干教师队伍。

19. 建立优化教师队伍的有效机制，提高教师队伍的整体素质。全面实施教师资格制度，开展面向社会认定教师资格工作，拓宽教师来源渠道，引入竞争机制，完善教师职务聘任制，提高教育质量和办学效益。中小学根据学校编制聘用教师，可面向社会公开招聘，经县级以上教育行政部门审批；高等学校依法自主聘任教师，吸引优秀人才从教。继续关心和改善教师的工作条件和生活待遇。

加强编制管理，精简富余人员，富余人员原则上在教育系统内部进行培训和安排。各地要认真做好各级各类学校转岗教师的管理服务工作，进一步建立和完善人才流动的社会化服务体系，搞好人才供求信息的收集和发布工作，开展转岗前职业培训，协调和促进教师的合理流动。地方各级人民政府的人事、劳动和社会保障、财政部门要提供必要的政策指导和经费支持。

20. 合理配置教师资源。各地要制定政策，鼓励大中城市骨干教师到基础薄弱学校任教或兼职，中小城市（镇）学校教师以各种方式到农村缺编学校任教，加强农村与薄弱学校教师队伍建设。城镇中小学教师原则上要有一年以上在薄弱学校或农村学校任教经历，才可聘为高级教师职务。采取优惠政策，吸引和鼓励教师到经济不发达地区、边远地区和少数民族地区任教。经济发达地区和城市也要采取多种形式，帮助少数民族地区和农村提高教师队伍水平。

21. 努力造就能够带领广大教师和教育工作者积极实施素质教育的学校领导以及管理干部队伍。学校校长在推进素质教育中具有特殊作用，要率先转变教育观念，把领导教职工创造性地实施素质教育作为重要职责。要继续巩固和完善中小学校长岗位培训和持证上岗制度，试行校长职级制，逐步完善校长选拔和任用制度，鼓励优秀校长到薄弱学校任职。对于富余的学校管理人员要转岗分流。

四、加强领导，全党、全社会共同努力开创素质教育的新局面

22. 全面推进素质教育，必须切实加强党和政府的领导。邓小平同志指出：“我们要千方百计，在别的方面忍耐一些，甚至于牺牲一点速度，把教育问题解决好。”各级党委和人民政府要切实落实教育优先发展的战略地位。全面推进素质教育是党和政府的重要职责，各级领导干部要转变观念，充分认识素质教育的重要性和紧迫性，把思想统一到中央的决定上来，认真贯彻落实。建立自上而下的素质教育评估检查体系，逐级考核省、市、县、乡各级党委和政府及其主要领导干部抓素质教育工作的情况。各级党委和政府及其有关部门要通力协作，为实施素质教育创造良好的政策环境，注意研究新情况和新问题，鼓励大胆实践，尊重群众的首创精神。重视和加强教育科学研究，提高政府决策和管理的科学性。

23. 全面推进素质教育，根本上要靠法治、靠制度保障。各级人民政府和各部门要切实做到依法行政，保证教育方针的全面贯彻执行。各级党政领导和广大教育工作者要深入进行教育法律法规的学习、宣传活动，提高法律意识，严格履行保护少年儿童和学生身心健康发展的法律责任，坚决制止侵犯学生合法权益的行为，抵制妨碍学生健康成长的各种社会不良影响。各地要依法保障教师的合法权益，不得拖欠教师工资。要整治校园内部和周边环境，维护学校正常秩序。

继续完善国家教育立法，加大教育执法力度，加强教育法制机构和队伍建设，完善教育行政执法监督机制。制定有关素质教育的制度和法规，逐步实现素质教育制度化、法制化。

进一步健全教育督导机构，完善教育督导制度，在继续进行“两基”督导检查的同时，把保障实施素质教育作为教育督导工作的重要任务。

24. 努力采取有效措施，切实加大教育投入，逐步实现国家财政性教育经费支出占国民生产总值百分之四的目标。各级人民政府必须按照《中华人民共和国教育法》的规定，确保教育经费有较大增长。中央决定，自1998年起至2002年的5年中，提高中央本级财政支出中教育经费所占的比例，每年提高1个百分点。各省、自治区、直辖市人民政府也要根据本地实际，增加本级财政中教育经费的支出。要进一步依法加强城乡教育费附加的征收和管理，农村教育费附加实行乡征、县管、乡用，确保完全用于教育。

进一步完善教育经费拨款办法，充分发挥教育拨款在宏观调控中的作用，不断提高教育经费的使用效益。政府的教育拨款主要用于保证普及义务教育和承担普通高等教育的大部分经费。地方各级人民政府要确保义务教育的资金投入并做到专款专用。在非义务教育阶段，要适当增加学费在培养成本中的比例，逐步建立符合社会主义市场经济体制以及政府公共财政体制的财政教育拨款政策和成本分担机制。加强教育经费的管理，严格禁止乱收费。认真组织实施教育储蓄、教育保险和助学贷款制度，完善奖学金制度。积极运用财政、金融和税收政策，继续鼓励社会、个人和企业投资办学和捐（集）资助学，不断完善多渠道筹措教育经费的体制。

25. 社会用人制度对于实施素质教育有着重要的导向作用，改革用人制度是全面推进素质教育的当务之急。要依法抓紧制定国家职业（技能）标准，明确对各类劳动者的岗位要求，积极推行劳动预备制度，坚持实行“先培训、后上岗”的就业制度，继续改革大中专毕业生就业制度，使学生树立正确的择业观。地方政府教育部门要与人事、劳动和社会保障部门共同协调，在全社会实行学业证书、职业资格证书并重的制度。转变传统的人才观念，形成使用人才重素质、重实际能力的良好风气。

26. 全面推进素质教育，是我国教育事业的一场深刻变革，是一项事关全局、影响深远和涉及社会各方面的系统工程。要进一步加强学校党的工作，充分发挥党员在实施素质教育中的模范带头作用。要通过新闻媒体的正确舆论导向，深入动员社会各界关心、支持和投身素质教育。学校、家庭和社会要互相沟通、积极配合，共同开创素质教育工作的新局面。

要继续认真落实国务院批转的《面向二十一世纪教育振兴行动计划》。全面推进素质教育，是党中央和国务院为加快实施科教兴国战略作出的又一重大决策，各级党委和人民政府要结合本地实际情况，创造性地把素质教育落到实处，在以江泽民同志为核心的党中央的领导下，高举邓小平理论伟大旗帜，为实现社会主义现代化建设宏伟目标和中华民族伟大复兴作出更大的贡献。

军队系统学校如何落实本文件精神，由中央军委作出决定。

Appendix C HVE-Related Policies (2000-2005)

14. 《关于加强高职高专教育人才培养工作的意见》(2000年1月17日)

Title: Advice on Strengthening the Human Resource Supply by Higher Vocational Education and Junior College Education (The Ministry of Education, 2000)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007 from

<http://www.lcvc.cn/office/Article/ArticleShow.asp?ArticleID=5257>

90年代以来,我国高等专科教育、高等职业教育和成人高等教育(以下简称高职高专教育)有了很大的发展,为社会主义现代化建设事业培养了大批急需的各类专门人才,提高了劳动者的素质,对于建设社会主义精神文明,促进社会进步和经济发展起到了重要作用。同时,涌现出一批教学改革成效较大、办学特色较鲜明、办学实力较强的高专学校、高等职业学校和成人高等学校。但从高职高专教育人才培养工作的全局看,发展还很不平衡,还存在着办学特色不甚鲜明、教学基本建设薄弱、课程和教学内容体系亟待改革等问题。

当前,高职高专教育成为社会关注的热点,面临大好的发展机遇。同时,经济、科技和社会发展也对高职高专教育人才培养工作提出了许多新的、更高的要求。因此,高职高专教育要全面贯彻第三次全国教育工作会议和《中共中央、国务院关于深化教育改革全面推进素质教育的决定》精神,抓住机遇,开拓前进。今后一段时期,高职高专教育人才培养工作的基本思路是:以教育思想、观念改革为先导,以教学改革为核心,以教学基本建设为重点,注重提高质量,努力办出特色。力争经过几年的努力,形成能主动适应经济社会发展需要、特色鲜明、高水平的高职高专教育人才培养模式。现就加强高职高专教育(不含师范)人才培养工作提出以下意见:

一、高职高专教育是我国高等教育的重要组成部分,培养拥护党的基本路线,适应生产、建设、管理、服务第一线需要的,德、智、体、美等方面全面发展的高等技术应用性专门人才;学生应在具有必备的基础理论知识和专门知识的基础上,重点掌握从事本专业领域实际工作的基本能力和基本技能,具有良好的职业道德和敬业精神。

二、高职高专教育人才培养模式的基本特征是:以培养高等技术应用性专门人才为根本任务;以适应社会需要为目标、以培养技术应用能力为主线设计学生的知识、能力、素质结构和培养方案,毕业生应具有基础理论知识适度、技术应用能力强、知识面较宽、素质高等特点。;以“应用”为主旨和特征构建课程和教学内容体系;实践教学的主要目的是培养学生的技术应用能力,并在教学计划中占有较大比重;“双师型”(既是教师,又是工程师、会计师等)教师队伍建设是提高高职高专教育教学质量的关键;学校与社会用人部门结合、师生与实际劳动者结合、理论与实践结合是人才培养的基本途径。高职高专不同类型的院校都要按照培养高等技术应用性专门人才的共同宗旨和上述特征,相互学习、共同提高、协作攻关、各创特色。

三、在各类高职高专院校中,培养人才是根本任务,教学工作是中心工作,教学改革是各项改革的核心,提高质量是永恒的主题。各级教育行政部门及高职高专院校都要根据形势的发展变化和本地区、学校的实际情况,不断明确办学指导思想。当前,特别要处理好数量与质量、改革与建设、教学工作与其它工作的关系。越是在事业规模发展较快的时期,越要重视和加强人才培养工作,积极推进教学改革,不断提高教育质量。

加强教学基本建设是保证教学质量的前提条件。各级教育行政部门要增加对高职高专院校教学经费的投入，高职高专院校也要通过多种渠道积极筹措教学经费，充分利用社会教育资源为学校教育教学服务。

四、高职高专教育的教学建设与改革，必须以改革教育思想和教育观念为先导。要在教学建设与改革的过程中，逐步探索建立适应我国社会主义现代化建设需要，能顺利实现高职高专人才培养目标的高职高专教育思想和教育观念，并使之系统化，促进高职高专教育的建设与改革。要主动适应社会经济发展对高职高专教育的需要，全面推进素质教育，树立科学的人才观、质量观和教学观。各地方教育行政部门、高职高专院校要结合教学建设与改革实践中出现的新情况、新问题，深入开展教育思想和教育观念的讨论，促进这些问题的解决和教育思想、教育观念的更新。

要将素质教育贯穿于高职高专教育人才培养工作的始终。学校在全面推进素质教育的过程中，要以素质教育的思想和观念为指导，推动人才培养模式的改革，使学生既具有较强的业务工作能力，又具有爱岗敬业、踏实肯干、谦虚好学和与人合作的精神，安心在生产、建设、管理和服务第一线工作。

五、专业设置是社会需求与高职高专实际教学工作紧密结合的纽带。专业建设是学校教学工作主动、灵活地适应社会需求的关键环节。要根据高职高专教育的培养目标，针对地区、行业经济和社会发展的需要，按照技术领域和职业岗位（群）的实际要求设置和调整专业。专业口径可宽可窄，宽窄并存。同时，要妥善处理好社会需求的多样性、多变性与学校教学工作相对稳定性的关系。尽快组织制订《高职高专教育专业设置指南》，指导高职高专院校的专业设置工作。要尽快组织高职高专教育各大类专业教学指导委员会，指导有关专业的教学工作；要以人才培养模式改革为重点，开展高职高专专业教学改革试点工作。

专业人才培养方案是人才培养工作的总体设计和实施蓝图。在制订高职高专教育人才培养方案的过程中，要遵循教育教学规律，处理好社会需求与实际教学工作的关系，广泛开展社会调查，并尽可能请社会用人单位参与专业培养计划的制订工作；要处理好知识、能力与素质的关系，以适应社会需求为目标、以培养专业技术能力为主线来设计培养方案；要处理好基础理论知识与专业知识的关系，既要突出人才培养的针对性和应用性，又要让学生具备一定的可持续发展能力；要处理好教师与学生的关系，在发挥教师在教学工作中主导作用的同时，突出学生的主体作用，调动学生的学习积极性。针对高职高专教育学生来源多样化的趋势，要研究制订适应不同生源实际状况的培养方案，或在同一培养方案的实施过程中充分考虑不同生源的实际需要。

六、课程和教学内容体系改革是高职高专教学改革的重点和难点。要按照突出应用性、实践性的原则重组课程结构，更新教学内容。要注重人文社会科学与技术教育相结合，教学内容改革与教学方法、手段改革相结合。教学内容要突出基础理论知识的应用和实践能力培养，基础理论教学要以应用为目的，以必需、够用为度；专业课教学要加强针对性和实用性。

要切实做好高职高专教育教材的建设规划，加强文字教材、实物教材、电子网络教材的建设和出版发行工作。经过5年时间的努力，编写、出版500种左右高职高专规划教材。教材建设工作将分两步实施：先用2至3年时间，在继承原有教材建设成果的基础上，充分汲取高职高专教育近几年在教材建设方面取得的成功经验，解决好新形势下高职高专教育教材的有无问题。然后，再用2至3年时间，在深化改革，深入研究的基础上，大胆创新，推出一批具有我国高职高专教育特色的高质量教材，并形成优化配套的高职高专教育教材体系。在此基础上，开展优秀教材的评介工作。

七、实践教学要改变过分依附理论教学的状况，探索建立相对独立的实践教学体系。实践教学在教学计划中应占有较大比重，要及时吸收科学技术和社会发展的最新成果，要改革实验教学内容，减少演示性、验证性实验，增加工艺性、设计性、综合性实验，逐步形成基本实践能力与操作技能、专业技术应用能力与专业技能、综合实践能力与综合技能有机结合的实践教学体系。

要加强校内实验室和实习、实训基地建设。根据高职高专教育教学特点，不断更新教学仪器设备，提高仪器设备的现代科技含量，形成教学、科研、生产相结合的多功能实验室和实习、实训基地。同时要建设好相对稳定的校外实习、实训基地。尽快组织制订加强高职高专教育实验室和实习、实训基地建设的有关文件，指导和规范建设工作，创建 100 个左右高水平的高职高专院校实践教学基地。

八、改革教学方法和考试方法，引入现代教育技术，是提高教学质量的重要手段。要因材施教，积极实行启发式、讨论式教学，鼓励学生独立思考，激发学习的主动性，培养学生的科学精神和创新意识。理论教学要在讲清概念的基础上，强化应用。要改革考试方法，除笔试外，还可以采取口试、答辩和现场测试、操作等多种考试形式，着重考核学生综合运用所学知识、解决实际问题的能力，通过改革教学方法和考试方法，促进学生个性与能力的全面发展。

学校要加强对现代教育技术、手段的研究和应用，加快计算机辅助教学软件的研究开发和推广使用，要做好现代远程教育的试点工作，加速实现教学技术和手段的现代化，使之在提高整体教学水平中发挥越来越重要的作用。

九、要十分重视师资队伍的建设。抓好“双师型”教师的培养，努力提高中、青年教师的技术应用能力和实践能力，使他们既具备扎实的基础理论知识和较高的教学水平，又具有较强的专业实践能力和丰富的实际工作经验；积极从企事业单位聘请兼职教师，实行专兼结合，改善学校师资结构，适应专业变化的要求；要淡化基础课教师和专业课教师的界限，逐步实现教师一专多能。尽快组织制订加强高职高专教育师资队伍建设的有关文件，进一步推动和指导各地区、各校教师队伍的建设工作。要加强高职高专院校教师的培训工作，委托若干有条件的省市重点建设一批高职高专师资培训基地。同时，根据高职高专教育特点和有关规定，制订适合高职高专教师工作特点的教师职务评审办法，为中、青年教师营造良好的成长环境。

十、教学与生产、科技工作以及社会实践相结合是培养高等技术应用性专门人才的基本途径。要加强学校与社会、教学与生产、教学与科技工作的紧密结合，邀请企事业单位的专家、技术人员承担学校的教学任务和教学质量的评价工作。同时，要积极开展科技工作，以科技成果推广、生产技术服务、科技咨询和科技开发等为主要内容，积极参与社会服务活动。要注意用科技工作的成果丰富或更新教学内容，在科技工作实践中不断提高教师的学术水平和专业实践能力。

十一、加强教学管理，改进管理方法，使管理工作科学、规范。地方教育行政部门和学校要参照我部印发的《高等专科学校、高等职业学校和成人高等学校教学管理要点》等文件的要求，制订一整套科学、规范的规章制度，依法管理，依法治教，保证稳定有序的教学秩序，形成良好的运行机制。地方教育行政部门要根据国家有关法规，加强宏观管理，建立教学质量监控体系和教学评价制度，促使学校加强教学管理，提高教学质量。我部将于近期开展教学工作优秀学校评价工作。

十二、广播电视大学、函授教育和自学考试要根据各自办学形式的特点，按照本文件的有关精神，加强教学基本建设，认真开展教学改革，不断提高教学质量，努力办出自身特色。尤其是要注意发挥所在地区普通高校现有试验室和实习、实训基地的作用，加强实践性教学环节，培养高等技术应用性专门人才。要促进广播电视大学、函授教育和自学考试的相互沟通，加快现代远程教育资源建设，要运用现代教育技术改进教学方法，逐步建立高职高专教育现代远程教学网络。

十三、为整体推进高职高专教学建设与改革，决定组织实施《21 世纪高职高专教育人才培养模式和教学内容体系改革与建设项目计划》（另行发文）。着重在人才培养模式、课程和教学内容体系等方面立项，开展课题研究、改革、实践与相关建设工作，并编写、出版一批《21 世纪高职高专课程教材》。各级教育行政部门和学校应当积极参加并做好此项工作，加强领导，协作攻关，力争经过 5 年的努力，初步形成与社会主义现代化建设事业相适应的、具有中国特色的高职高专教育人才培养模式及课程和教学内容体系。

15. 《关于大力推进职业教育改革与发展的决定》（2002年8月24日）

Title: Resolution on Vigorously Promoting the Development and Reform of Vocational Education (The State Council, 2002)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007, from

http://www.gov.cn/gongbao/content/2002/content_61755.htm

各省、自治区、直辖市人民政府，国务院各部委、各直属机构：

改革开放以来，我国职业教育事业有了很大发展，各级各类职业学校教育和职业培训取得显著成绩，为社会主义现代化建设培养了大量高素质劳动者和实用人才。但是，职业教育的改革与发展也面临一些问题，一些地方对发展职业教育的重要性缺乏足够的认识；投入不足，基础薄弱，办学条件较差；管理体制、办学体制、教育教学质量不适应经济建设和社会发展的需要；就业准入制度没有得到有效执行，影响了受教育者的积极性；地区之间、城乡之间发展不平衡。为了进一步贯彻落实《中华人民共和国职业教育法》和《中华人民共和国劳动法》，实施科教兴国战略，大力推进职业教育的改革与发展，特作如下决定：

一、深刻认识职业教育在社会主义现代化建设中的重要地位，明确“十五”期间职业教育改革与发展的目标

1. 职业教育为初、高中毕业生和城乡新增劳动者、下岗失业人员、在职人员、农村劳动者及其他社会成员提供多种形式、多种层次的职业学校教育和职业培训，是我国教育体系的重要组成部分，是国民经济和社会发展的基础。推进职业教育的改革与发展是实施科教兴国战略、促进经济和社会可持续发展、提高国际竞争力的重要途径，是调整经济结构、提高劳动者素质、加快人力资源开发的必然要求，是拓宽就业渠道、促进劳动就业和再就业的重要举措。在我国加入世界贸易组织和经济全球化迅速发展的新形势下，要狠抓职业教育，抓出成效。

2. 大力推进职业教育的改革与发展，要以邓小平理论和江泽民同志“三个代表”重要思想为指导，坚持体制创新、制度创新和深化教育教学改革，为经济结构调整和技术进步服务，为促进就业和再就业服务，为农业、农村和农民服务，为推进西部大开发服务，力争在“十五”期间初步建立起适应社会主义市场经济体制，与市场需求和劳动就业紧密结合，结构合理、灵活开放、特色鲜明、自主发展的现代职业教育体系。

要以中等职业教育为重点，保持中等职业教育与普通高中教育的比例大体相当，扩大高等职业教育的规模。职业学校和职业培训机构要进一步适应经济和社会发展以及劳动力市场需求，增强自主发展能力，改善办学条件，全面提高教育质量和效益。“十五”期间，职业教育要为社会输送 2200 多万名中等职业学校毕业生，800 多万名高等职业学校毕业生。

要广泛开展各级各类职业培训，“十五”期间每年培训城镇职工 5000 万人次，培训农村劳动力 1.5 亿人次；积极实施国家再就业培训计划，每年为 300 多万名下岗失业人员提供再就业培训。

从实际出发，因地制宜，分区规划，分类指导，把农村和西部地区作为工作重点。“十五”期末，中等职业学校面向农村的年招生规模要达到 350 万人，面向西部地区的年招生规模要达到 120 万人，为农村和西部地区培养留得住、用得上的实用人才。大中城市和经济发达地区要在继续发展中等职业教育和职业培训的同时，积极发展高等职业教育，有条件的市（地）可以举办综合性、社区性的职业技术学院。

二、推进管理体制和办学体制改革，促进职业教育与经济建设、社会发展紧密结合

3. 推进职业教育管理体制, 建立并逐步完善在国务院领导下, 分级管理、地方为主、政府统筹、社会参与的职业教育管理体制。

在国务院领导下, 建立职业教育工作部际联席会议制度, 研究解决职业教育工作中的重大问题。国务院教育行政部门负责职业教育工作的统筹规划、综合协调、宏观管理, 劳动保障部门和其他有关部门在各自职责范围内, 负责职业教育的有关工作。

发展职业教育的主要责任在地方。县级以上地方各级人民政府要加强对本行政区域内职业教育工作的领导和统筹协调, 结合当地经济建设和社会发展实际, 制定促进职业教育发展的政策和措施, 研究解决工作中的实际问题; 各级教育行政部门会同劳动保障等有关部门管理本行政区域内各有关职业学校的教育业务工作。要依法严格审批程序, 规范职业学校和培训机构的办学行为。

4. 强化市(地)级人民政府在统筹职业教育发展方面的责任。市(地)级人民政府要统筹规划, 促进本行政区域内职业教育与其他各类教育协调发展, 建立多渠道筹措职业教育经费的机制, 组织动员社会力量举办职业教育; 要整合和充分利用现有各种职业教育资源, 打破部门界限和学校类型界限, 积极发挥市场机制的作用, 提高办学效益, 优化职业学校布局结构, 防止职业教育资源流失。省(自治区、直辖市)所属中等和高等职业学校可以由省级有关部门与职业学校所在市(地)联合共建、共管, 增强其为区域经济服务的功能。

5. 深化职业教育办学体制改革, 形成政府主导、依靠企业、充分发挥行业作用、社会力量积极参与的多元办学格局。

县级以上地方各级人民政府要在发展职业教育中发挥主导作用, 重点办好起骨干和示范作用的职业学校和职业培训机构, 组织、指导并支持企业、行业和社会力量举办职业学校和职业培训机构。要规范中等和高等职业学校的名称, 并体现职业特点。实施高中阶段学历教育的各类职业学校统一规范为“××职业技术学校”, 高等专科学校和成人高等学校要逐步统一规范为“××职业技术学院”。

要充分依靠企业举办职业教育。企业要根据实际需要举办职业学校和职业培训机构, 强化自主培训功能, 加强对职工特别是一线职工、转岗职工的教育和培训, 形成职工在岗和轮岗培训的制度, 实行培训、考核、使用、待遇相统一的政策。企业要和职业学校加强合作, 实行多种形式联合办学, 开展“订单”培训, 并积极为职业学校提供兼职教师、实习场所和设备, 也可在职业学校建立研究开发机构和实验中心。有条件的大型企业可以单独举办或与高等学校联合举办职业技术学院。中小企业应依托职业学校和职业培训机构进行职工培训和后备职工培养。企业举办的职业学校和职业培训机构应积极面向社会开展职业教育和培训。

行业主管部门要对行业职业教育进行协调和业务指导, 继续办好职业学校和培训机构。行业组织受政府主管部门委托, 开展行业人力资源预测、制定行业职业教育和培训规划、指导行业职业教育、职工培训和职业技能鉴定、参与相关专业的课程教材建设和教师培训等工作, 也可以举办职业学校或职业培训机构。

鼓励和支持民办职业教育的发展。非营利性的民办职业学校, 享受举办社会公益事业的有关优惠政策。地方人民政府和其他单位, 可以采取出租闲置的国有、集体资产等措施, 对民办职业学校予以扶持。民办职业学校教师、学生享有与公办职业学校教师、学生同等义务与权利。对举办民办职业教育有突出贡献的单位和个人予以表彰奖励。鼓励公办学校引入民办机制。

积极引进国(境)外优质职业教育资源。鼓励国(境)外组织和个人依照我国法律和办学资格要求,同我国境内职业教育机构和其他社会组织,合作举办高水平的职业学校或职业培训机构。努力拓展职业学校毕业生国(境)外就业市场。

6. 扩大职业学校的办学自主权,增强其自主办学和自主发展的能力。要依法保障职业学校在专业设置、招生规模确定、学籍管理、教师聘用及经费使用等方面享有充分的自主权。有条件的职业学校可以跨区域招生,可以与本地、异地职业学校联合办学。职业学校要建立由企业、行业等社会各界人士参加的咨询委员会或理事会,为学校重大问题提供咨询或参与决策。

三、深化教育教学改革,适应社会和企业需求

7. 认真贯彻党的教育方针,全面实施素质教育。要加强“爱岗敬业、诚实守信、办事公道、服务群众、奉献社会”的职业道德教育,加强文化基础教育、职业能力教育和身心健康教育,注重培养受教育者的专业技能、钻研精神、务实精神、创新精神和创业能力,培养一大批生产、服务第一线的高素质劳动者和实用人才。

8. 职业学校和职业培训机构要适应经济结构调整、技术进步和劳动力市场变化,及时调整专业设置,积极发展面向新兴产业和现代服务业的专业,增强专业适应性,努力办出特色。要大力加强技术工人尤其是高级技术工人和技师的培养和培训。积极推进课程和教材改革,开发和编写反映新知识、新技术、新工艺和新方法、具有职业教育特色的课程和教材。加强职业学校与企业、行业等用人单位的联系,建立职业学校与劳动力市场密切联系的机制。

9. 加强实践教学,提高受教育者的职业能力。职业学校要把教学活动与生产实践、社会服务、技术推广及技术开发紧密结合起来,把职业能力培养与职业道德培养紧密结合起来,保证实践教学时间,严格要求,培养学生的实践能力、专业技能、敬业精神和严谨求实作风。改善教学条件,加强校内外实验实习基地建设。职业学校要加强与相关企事业单位的共建和合作,利用其设施、设备等条件开展实践教学。职业学校相对集中的地区应建设一批可共享的实验和训练基地。加强职业教育信息化建设,推进现代信息技术在教育教学中的应用。积极发展现代远程职业教育,开发职业教育资源库和多媒体教育软件,为职业学校和学生提供优质教育资源。

10. 加强职业教育教师队伍建设。要积极开展以骨干教师为重点的全员培训,提高教师的职业道德、实践能力和教学水平,培养一批高水平的骨干教师和专业带头人。鼓励职业学校教师在职攻读相关专业学位、提高学历层次。要有计划地安排教师到企事业单位进行专业实践和考察,提高教师的专业水平。广泛吸引和鼓励企事业单位工程技术人员、管理人员和有特殊技能的人员到职业学校担任专、兼职教师,提高具有相关专业技术职务资格教师的比例。深化职业学校人事制度改革,在职业学校推行教师全员聘任制和管理人员公开选拔、竞争上岗和职务聘任制度,建立健全激励和约束机制。职业学校教师职务资格评审要突出职业教育特点,改进评审办法。重视职业学校校长培训工作,逐步实行校长持证上岗的制度。加强职业教育师资培养培训基地建设,逐步完善职业教育师资培养培训网络。

11. 坚持学历教育与职业培训并重,实行灵活的办学模式和学习制度。职业学校要实行学历教育与职业培训相结合、全日制与部分时间制相结合、职前教育与职后教育相结合,努力办成面向社会的、开放的、多功能的教育和培训中心。要根据不同专业、不同教育培訓项目和学习者的实际需要,实行灵活的学制和学习方式,推行学分制等弹性学习制度,为学生半工半读、工学交替、分阶段完成学业等创造条件。

12. 加强中等职业教育与高等职业教育, 职业教育与普通教育、成人教育的衔接与沟通, 建立人才成长“立交桥”。扩大中等职业学校毕业生进入高等学校尤其是进入高等职业学校继续学习的比例, 适当增加高等职业教育专科毕业生接受本科教育的比例。适度发展初中后五年制高等职业教育; 在高中阶段开展职业教育与普通教育相沟通的综合课程教育试验, 建立中等职业教育与高等职业教育相衔接的课程体系; 高等职业学校可单独组织对口招生考试, 优先招收中等职业学校优秀毕业生; 注重专业知识、职业技能的考核, 对取得相应中级职业资格证书的中等职业学校毕业生, 可以免除技能考核。

四、采取切实措施, 加快农村和西部地区职业教育发展

13. 农村和西部地区职业教育是今后一段时期职业教育发展的重点。要根据现代农业发展和经济结构调整的需要, 继续推进农科教结合和基础教育、职业教育、成人教育的“三教统筹”。农村职业学校要加强与企业、农业科研和科技推广单位的合作, 发挥专业优势, 实行学校、公司、农户相结合, 推动农业产业化发展。推行“绿色证书”教育, 培养一大批科技示范户和致富带头人。国家采取措施, 扶持农村地区、西部地区、少数民族地区和贫困地区职业教育的发展, 办好一批骨干职业学校。建立县、乡、村三级实用型、开放型的农民文化科技教育培训体系, 把职业学校和成人学校办成人力资源开发、技术培训与推广、劳动力转移培训和扶贫开发服务的基地。

14. 加强东部地区和西部地区、大中城市和农村的学校对口支援工作。东部地区和大中城市要为西部地区和农村的职业学校培养培训骨干教师, 帮助改善办学条件。推动东部地区与西部地区、大中城市与农村开展合作办学, 鼓励东部地区和大中城市职业学校的校长和教师到西部地区和农村职业学校任职和办学。东部地区和中西部地区大中城市要面向西部地区和农村招生, 对家庭经济困难学生应适当减免学费。现代远程教育和培训以及自学考试等要积极向广大农村和西部地区延伸。

五、严格实施就业准入制度, 加强职业教育与劳动就业的联系

15. 大力推行劳动预备制度, 严格执行就业准入制度。用人单位招收、录用职工, 属于国家规定实行就业准入控制的职业(工种), 必须从取得相应学历证书或职业培训合格证书并获得相应职业资格证书的人员中录用; 属于一般职业(工种), 必须从取得相应的职业学校学历证书、职业培训合格证书的人员中优先录用。从事个体工商经营的, 也必须接受职业教育和培训。劳动保障、人事等部门要加大对就业准入制度执行情况的监察力度, 加强监督管理, 对违反规定, 随意招收未经职业教育或培训人员就业的要责其纠正并给予处罚。

16. 完善学历证书、培训证书和职业资格证书制度。职业学校毕业生申请与所学专业相关的中级以下(含中级)职业技能鉴定时, 只进行操作技能考核。部分教学质量高、社会声誉好的中等职业学校和高等职业学校开设的主体专业, 经劳动保障和教育行政部门认定, 其毕业生在获得学历证书的同时, 可视同职业技能鉴定合格, 取得相应的职业资格证书。经人事、教育行政和相关行业主管部门认定的职业学校相关专业的毕业生, 不受工作年限的限制, 可直接申请参加专业技术从业资格考试, 并免试部分科目。各地劳动保障、人事或相关部门要统筹规划, 注意发挥和利用职业学校的优势, 优先在具备条件的职业学校设立职业技能鉴定站(所)或职业资格考试机构。

17. 加强职业指导和就业服务, 拓宽毕业生就业渠道。职业学校要加强职业指导工作, 引导学生转变就业观念, 开展创业教育, 鼓励毕业生到中小企业、小城镇、农村就业或自主创业。地方人民政府要利用社会就业服务体系或建立职业学校毕业生就业服务机构, 为职业学校毕业生在本地或异地就业提供信息、咨询服务和便利条件。工商、税务部门要研究制定优惠政策, 适当减免有关税费, 支持职业学校毕业生自主创业或从事个体经营, 金融机构

要为符合贷款条件的提供贷款。对外经济贸易部门、劳动保障部门、教育行政部门要创造条件,积极协助符合条件的职业学校毕业生到国(境)外就业。

六、多渠道筹集资金,增加职业教育经费投入

18. 各级人民政府要加大对职业教育的经费投入。省级人民政府要制定本地区职业学校生均经费标准,并依法督促各类职业学校举办者足额拨付职业教育经费。县级以上地方各级人民政府和国务院有关部门用于举办职业学校和职业培训机构的财政性经费应当逐步增长,确保公办职业学校教师工资按时足额发放,并监督民办职业教育机构按时足额发放教师工资。城市教育费附加安排用于职业教育的比例不低于 15%,已经普及九年义务教育的地区不低于 20%,主要用于职业学校实验实习设备的更新和办学条件的改善。各级人民政府在安排使用农村科技开发经费、技术推广经费和扶贫资金时,要安排一部分农村劳动力培训经费;安排农业基础设施建设投资时,要安排一部分农村职业学校和成人学校的建设经费。

中央财政增加职业教育专项经费,重点用于补助农村和中西部地区加强职业教育师资培训、课程教材开发和多媒体教育资源建设以及骨干和示范职业学校建设。地方人民政府也要增加职业教育专项经费。

19. 各类企业要按《中华人民共和国职业教育法》的规定实施职业教育和职工培训,承担相应的费用。一般企业按照职工工资总额的 1.5% 足额提取教育培训经费,从业人员技术素质要求高、培训任务重、经济效益较好的企业可按 2.5% 提取,列入成本开支。要保证经费专项用于职工特别是一线职工的教育和培训,严禁挪作他用。企业技术改造和项目引进,都应按规定比例安排资金用于职工技术培训。对不按规定实施职工职业教育和培训,经责令改正而拒不改正的企业,县级以上地方各级人民政府可以收取其应当承担的职业教育经费,用于本地区的职业教育。

20. 利用金融、税收以及社会捐助等手段支持职业教育的发展。县级以上各级人民政府应支持企事业单位、社会团体、其他社会组织及公民个人按照国家有关规定设立职业教育奖学金,奖励学习成绩优秀的学生,资助经济困难的学生。金融机构要为家庭经济困难学生接受职业教育提供助学贷款,优先为符合贷款条件的农村职业学校毕业生开展生产经营提供小额贷款。认真执行国家对教育的税收优惠政策,支持职业学校办好实习基地、发展校办产业和开展社会服务。鼓励社会各界及公民个人对职业教育提供资助和捐赠,企业和个人通过政府部门或社会中介机构对职业教育的资助和捐赠,可在应纳税所得额中全额扣除。

21. 加强职业教育经费管理。省级教育行政部门、劳动保障部门要会同价格主管部门合理确定职业学校和职业培训机构的学费标准,并向社会公布。职业学校按规定收取的学费实行收支两条线管理,地方各级财政部门要确保全额返还职业学校,不得冲抵财政拨款,任何部门不得截留或挪作他用。严禁向职业学校乱收费。要严格执行财务管理和审计制度,提高职业教育经费的使用效益。

七、加强领导,推动职业教育持续健康发展

22. 各级人民政府要加强对职业教育工作的领导,把职业教育工作纳入当地经济和社会发展的总体规划,列入政府重要议事日程,帮助职业学校和职业培训机构解决实际困难和问题。调动和保护社会各个方面兴办职业教育的积极性,充分发挥行业、企业、社会中介组织和人民团体在发展职业教育中的作用。加强职业教育理论研究和政策研究,健全科学研究和教学研究机构,为职业教育宏观决策和职业学校改革与发展服务。

23. 依法治教、依法办学、依法管理。各级人民政府和有关部门要认真贯彻《中华人民共和国职业教育法》和《中华人民共和国劳动法》等有关法律法规,加强职业教育和就业准入的法制建设,完善执法监督机制,加大执法力度,提高依法治教的水平。要加强对职业教育的督导检查,各级人民政府的教育督导部门要把职业教育作为教育督导的重要内容。加强和改进对职业教育的评估,积极探索发挥市场作用和社会参与的职业教育评估方式。

24. 营造有利于职业教育改革与发展的社会氛围。要大力宣传职业教育和高素质劳动者在社会主义现代化建设中的重要作用,在全社会弘扬“三百六十行,行行出状元”的风尚。企业要根据经济效益情况逐步提高生产、服务一线高素质劳动者特别是高级技工和技师的经济收入。要积极开展各种职业技能、技术竞赛活动,表彰职业教育的先进单位和个人,在全社会形成重视、支持职业教育的浓厚氛围。

16. 《关于加强我国高技能人才队伍建设的情况和建议》(2003 年 12 月 1 日)

Title: Information and Advice on Strengthening Team Building of High-Level Skilled Manpower (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2003)

Source: April 10, 2010, retrieved from <http://law.148365.com/38518.html>

高技能人才是我国技术工人队伍的技术骨干,是推动技术创新和实现科技成果转化不可缺少的重要力量。当前,我国经济的快速发展和技术的巨大进步,对高技能人才提出了强劲的需求。我们必须从国家经济发展战略出发,从生产力发展的客观规律出发,在提高亿万劳动者整体素质的同时,大力加强高技能人才队伍的建设,多渠道、多形式地培养成千上万适应现代化生产和建设需要的高技能人才。

一、我国高技能人才队伍建设的基本情况。

高技能人才是在生产、运输和服务等领域岗位一线的从业者中,熟练掌握专门知识和技术,具备精湛的操作技能,并在工作实践中能够解决关键技术和工艺的操作性难题的人员。主要包括技术技能劳动者中取得高级技工、技师和高级技师职业资格及相应职级的人员。如:高级车工、高级模具钳工、汽车维修技师、火箭装配技师、加工中心操作技师、烹饪高级技师、高级美容师等。职业领域涉及商业、服务业人员和生产、运输设备操作人员等职业(《中华人民共和国职业分类大典》中第三至第六大类)。目前,我国技术技能劳动者有 7000 多万人。其中,初级技工 4200 多万,占 60%,中级技工 2520 多万,占 36%,高级以上技工,包括技师、高级技师 280 多万,占 4%。

近年来,根据中央关于加强人力资源能力建设,加快职业教育培训改革的总体要求,劳动保障部会同有关部门对高级技能人才培养工作进行了认真研究,并制定了相应的政策措施,推动这方面工作的开展。

(一)发挥高级技工学校 and 技师学院培养基地的重要作用,实施国家高技能人才培训工程,加大高技能人才培养力度。为适应培养后备高技能人才的需要,近年来,各地在技工学校(以培养中级技工为主)的基础上组建了一批高级技工学校和技师学院。这些学校改革传统学历教育的模式,招收具有中级以上职业资格的在职职工和中等职业学校毕业生培养高级技工,招收具有高级职业资格的在职职工培养技师。以学校教育与企业生产实际结合的方式,通过课堂传授专业理论知识,生产实习车间和企业现场进行操作技能训练,培养既掌握高超技艺、技能,又掌握现代科学知识和前沿技术的技能加智能的复合型人才,体现了职业教育鲜明的“职业”特色。目前全国高级技工学校和技师学院达到 266 所,在校学生中接受高级技能培训的达到 10 万人,其毕业生受到企业普遍欢迎,就业率近 100%。

2002 年,劳动保障部联合机械工业联合会和航空、航天、兵器、船舶、机车车辆等十大企业集团以及信息产业部、中国电力企业联合会等开始实施“国家高技能人才培训工程”。工程紧密结合企业生产发展、技术更新、产品升级的要求,充分依靠行业和企业,广泛动员全社会的教育培训资源开展高技能培训,重点在部分工业集中的城市和大中型企业,通过企业培训与学校培养相结合、在职培训与脱产学习相结合、个人自学提高与企业、社会支持相结合等方式,加快高技能人才的培养。截止 2003 年上半年,已有 10 万人参加了数控机床加工、模具制造等职业(工种)的高级技能培训。

(二)推行职业资格证书制度,开展技师、高级技师评聘考核,初步建立高技能人才的评价和考核体系。自 1994 年起,在全国普遍开展了职业技能鉴定工作。职业资格证书作为劳动者职业能力水平的鉴定书和市场就业的通行证,已经得到广大用人单位和劳动者的认可。目前取得职业资格证书的人员已达 4500 万人次,其中,取得技师和高级技师职业资格证书的已达 70 多万人。2000 年,劳动保障部对技师、高级技师制度进行改革试点,主要是运用与生产紧密结合的科学评价体系和考核办法,实行评聘分开、考评结合的社会化考核方式,拓宽了高技能人才的成长通道,特别是为帮助青年技能人才尽快成长奠定了基础。

(三)探索运用政策引导和提高待遇水平,努力推动高技能人才的合理使用。目前,许多企业都在探索实施有效的激励机制,根据职工的职业资格和技术技能水平确定工作岗位,结合职工的技术技能运用和实际贡献确定相应的工资和福利待遇。山东省政府明确规定,技师和高级技师分别享受中级和高级专业技术职称有关待遇。航空、航天等行业集团指导企业结合劳动组织管理和收入分配制度的改革,加大技能因素在按贡献参与薪酬分配的比重,并在薪酬、福利、培训等方面向关键技术岗位高技能人才倾斜。在一些地方,政府还采取了对高技能人才实行政府津贴等鼓励政策。如江苏省政府明确规定,每年评选百名有突出贡献的技师和高级技师,享受每月100元的政府津贴。新疆劳动保障厅等6部门出台了技术技能型人才待遇及表彰奖励办法。广州市推出高级蓝领培训工程,加强培养,改善待遇,提高高技能人才的待遇。这些措施,充分调动了高技能人才的积极性,使他们得到合理使用,做出更大贡献。

(四)建立技能人才表彰制度,开展职业技能竞赛活动,努力创造良好的社会环境。目前,我国设立了“中华技能大奖”、“全国技术能手”的政府奖项,地方和行业设有“技术能手”和“行业技能大奖”等奖项。对技术技能人才的评选表彰,已初步形成制度。到2002年,共举行了六届“中华技能大奖”和“全国技术能手”表彰活动。评出中华技能大奖获得者60名,全国技术能手600多名以及数千名省级技术能手和行业技能大奖获得者。党和国家领导高度重视这项活动,多次接见获奖的同志。同时,一些地区和行业每年举行职业技能竞赛,企业开展岗位练兵活动,并对在职业技能竞赛取得优秀成绩的选手给予相应的奖励。通过表彰和技能竞赛活动,不仅使一批高技能人才脱颖而出,而且也促进了全社会重视技能人才观念的形成。

二、高技能人才队伍建设存在的主要问题

目前,我国高技能人才队伍建设存在的问题主要有以下两个方面:

(一)数量短缺,不能满足经济发展需要。据测算,到“十五”末,我国技能劳动者需求总量将增长20%-25%,其中,高级以上技能劳动者所占比例预计增长15-20个百分点,特别是技师、高级技师的需求将翻一番。而目前,全国高级技工、技师、高级技师只占技术工人总量的4%左右,缺口巨大,供给不足,且存在断档。据对全国90个城市2003年前三个季度劳动力市场职业供求状况的统计,总的求人倍率(需求人数/求职人数)均小于1,呈现供大于求的状况,但对技工,特别是高级工、技师、高级技师求人倍率均大于1,呈供不应求的局面。很多企业有大量“定单”,却缺乏有技能的工人。仅数控加工操作工全国就缺60万人。

(二)年龄偏高,技师、高级技师面临断档。据2001年有关部门对2000多家国有企业抽样调查显示,企业技师、高级技师年龄偏高,46岁以上的占40%多,青年高级技能人才严重短缺。随着老一代高技能人才的逐渐退休,许多企业原本就奇缺的高技能人才将后继乏人,有的已出现断档。

造成上述问题的主要原因:一是全社会还没有形成重视技能,尊重技能人才的社会氛围。人们普遍存在着看重学历文凭,轻视职业技能的传统观念。二是对高技能人才的培养没有形成系统工程,缺乏过硬措施。尽管以培养后备高技能人才为主要目标的只有200多所高级技工学校 and 技师学院,但每年培养的高级技工只有10万人。高级技工学校和技师学院由于经费不足,规模有限,设备设施老化,毕业生待遇未得到很好解决,难以在短期内迅速培养出大批高技能人才。一些企业转换经营机制后,存在着急功近利的短期行为,忽视职工培训,其职工培训责任主体的作用没有得到很好发挥。以上情况导致企业急需的高技能人才不能更多更快地培养出来,与生产发展的需求差距极大。三是对高技能人才的使

用缺乏强有力的激励机制,未能很好地激发技能人才的积极性和创造性。近年来,尽管一些地方和部门,对高技能人才使用采取了一些激励政策,但大多数地方和部门还没有将高技能人才队伍建设纳入地方或部门人才队伍建设总体规划,无论在政策措施上,还是舆论导向上,也没有给予足够的重视,缺乏强有力的激励措施。多数企业尚没有形成鼓励生产操作一线技能劳动者钻研技术业务,努力提高自身素质的机制。

三、加强高级技能人才队伍建设的建议

针对存在的问题,必须采取强有力措施,加快培养,优化环境,促进高技能人才队伍建设。

(一)切实把高技能人才队伍建设作为人才工作的重要任务,抓紧抓好。各地区、各部门应制定高技能人才队伍建设规划,并将其纳入本地区、本部门人才队伍建设总体规划,加强统筹指导,推进全面实施。对高技能人才队伍建设,要实行“加强规划指导,完善政策措施,加快培养提高,充分合理使用,提升社会地位,促进岗位成才”的原则,并采取切实有效的措施,力争通过3—5年的努力,形成在党的领导下,政府指导,企业主抓,行业配合,社会支持,个人努力的技能人才队伍建设新格局,建立起与企业需求紧密联系的培养快、使用好、待遇高的技能人才成长机制。将高技能人才的培养和使用提高到一个新水平。

(二)广泛动员社会各方面力量,加快高技能人才培养。结合经济结构调整需要和劳动力市场需求,在现代化建设,特别是高新技术产业领域,普遍开展技能振兴行动,实施国家高技能人才培训工程。按照“需求定向,企业主导,行业参与,政策支持”的原则,组织实施机电、信息产业、电力等高级技工培训项目,并逐步在制造、加工、能源、环保等传统领域和信息通信等新技术产业领域实施高级技工培训工作。

依托规模较大、技术先进、管理规范 and 效益较好、知名度高的企业和高级技工学校、技师学院以及实习设备先进和师资力量较强的高等工科院校、高职院校,建立相应的高技能人才培养基地,逐步形成高技能人才培养体系,不断扩大培养培训规模。强化师资特别是生产实习指导教师队伍建设,重点培养具有高级以上职业资格的专业理论和生产实习“一体化”教师。培训中注重开发、推广应用仿真模拟技术和多媒体技术。广泛运用现代远程技术、信息技术和卫星数据传输技术,开展远程职业培训。加强教材建设,积极开发反映新知识、新技术、新工艺和新方法的实用技能训练教材。充分利用大、中型企业培训机构,开展新技术、新工艺、新设备、新材料相关内容和高级技能培训。推动中小型企业与大、中型企业培训机构、社会教育培训机构建立合作伙伴关系,培养急需的高技能人才。

多渠道筹措资金,努力增加对高技能人才培养的投入,主要用于经济发展急需的高技能人才培养的补贴、特殊贡献高技能人才津贴等。有条件的地方,应划拨专项经费,对劳动力市场紧缺、企业生产急需的职业(工种)培训,提供相应的补贴。各地职业教育经费应划拨一定比例用于高技能人才培养。引导企业确保职工教育经费一定比例用于高技能人才培养。

(三)完善职业资格证书制度,推动高技能人才队伍建设。抓紧完善以职业活动为核心,以职业技能为导向的国家职业标准体系,加快国家职业标准的制定工作。逐步扩大职业资格证书在全社会的覆盖范围。根据企业、职业院校和社会人员的不同特点,探索实施不同的职业技能鉴定工作模式。在技术技能含量高、通用性强的职业中,大力推行就业准入制度。加大技师、高级技师考核与评聘制度改革工作力度,按照“统一标准、自主申报、社会考核、企业聘任”的原则,进一步扩大考评范围,完善高技能人才评价办法。积极创造条件,充分发挥技师、高级技师在技术攻关、解决生产操作难题以及技能培训等方

面的重要作用。注意挖掘和整理他们在生产加工过程中积累的技能技巧和绝招绝技，使其发扬光大。

(四)健全激励机制，切实提高高技能人才待遇水平。指导企业逐步建立以岗位工资为主的薪酬分配制度，在确定岗位薪酬中，充分考虑技能因素。鼓励用人单位对作出贡献的高技能人才实行股权和期权激励。鼓励高级技工岗位成材，总结和推广一些地方和企业采取的高级工、技师、高级技师分别享受助理工程师、工程师、高级工程师同等福利待遇；取得高级职业资格证书的高级技工学校毕业生与大专学历人员同等对待的做法。建立高技能人才津贴制度，对做出突出贡献的技师、高级技师以及“中华技能大奖”获得者进行奖励。鼓励企业为高技能人才建立企业年金和补充医疗保险。注重选拔和使用技术技能带头人，探索在关键职业(工种)、关键岗位、关键工序设立“首席工人”的做法。大力开展多种形式的职业技能竞赛、岗位练兵和技术创新活动，为技术技能劳动者岗位成材创造条件。

(五)营造高技能人才成长的良好氛围。充分利用广播、电视、报刊、网络等多种新闻媒体和宣传途径，营造利于技能人才成长的社会氛围。大力宣传高技能人才在国家经济建设中的重要作用和贡献。宣传技能人才培养使用的政策措施，宣传优秀技术工人的典型事迹，在全社会弘扬“三百六十行，行行出状元”的风尚，形成尊重技能人才、争当技能人才的社会风尚。加强对高技能人才成长规律的研究，为高技能人才队伍建设奠定理论基础。

17. 《教育部等六部门联合启动“制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”》
(2003 年 12 月 3 日)

Title: Six Ministries and Commissions Including the Ministry of Education Jointly Initiating the Project of Supplying Skilled Manpower in a Time of Severe Shortage for the Industry of Manufacturing and Modern Service (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003)

Source: Retrieved August 24, 2008, from <http://www.tech.net.cn/info/hotspot/6114.shtml>

日前,教育部、劳动保障部、国防科工委、信息产业部、交通部、卫生部等六部门联合印发了《关于实施职业院校制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程的通知》,教育部已分别会同有关部委或行业组织印发了相关专业领域技能型紧缺人才培养培训指导方案,并公布了参加此项工程的职业院校和合作企事业单位的名单。

2月23日,“制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”新闻发布会,教育部副部长吴启迪介绍了“工程”的背景、目标任务和推进“工程”的机制和措施;劳动保障部、国防科工委、信息产业部、交通部、卫生部等有关部门负责同志出席了新闻发布会并回答了记者的提问;参与“工程”的企事业单位代表和职业院校的代表在发言中表示要发挥各自优势,实行产教结合和校企合作,共同培养制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才。

党的十六大提出要走新型工业化道路,坚持以信息化带动工业化,以工业化促进信息化,加快发展现代服务业,全面建设小康社会。走新型工业化的道路,不仅需要一大批拔尖创新人才,也需要数以千万计的专门人才和数以亿计的高素质劳动者。技术、技能型人才是人才队伍重要的组成部分。最近一个时期以来,劳动力市场出现技能型人才短缺问题,引起中央领导和社会各界广泛关注,新闻媒体不断呼吁“高薪难聘高素质技术工人”。职业教育承担着培养技术、技能型人才的重要责任,是我国教育中与经济发展联系最紧密、最直接的部分。劳动力市场上技能型人才的紧缺状况给职业教育的改革与发展带来了机遇和挑战。

为了抓住机遇、迎接挑战,从2003年初开始,教育部紧密联系有关部门和行业组织,认真组织有关行业部门、企业和职业院校的专家,对我国制造业和现代服务业发展对技术、技能型人才的实际需要进行了专题调研。调研结果表明,我国要成为“世界工厂”,就需要造就和培训数十万数控技术应用领域的操作人员、编程人员和维修人员;在推进国民经济信息化中,全国计算机应用专业人才的需求每年将增加百万人左右;随着汽车保有量的大幅度上升,全国汽车维修行业每年需要新增近三十万从业人员;在医疗服务领域,我国医生与护士的比例为1:0.61,而世界平均比例为1:2.7。按照到2015年我国的医护比例达到1:1进行预测和规划,我国每年需要培养各层次护士十五万人。调研结果还表明,我国技能型人才的培养模式相对落后,迫切需要提高职业教育的培训的针对性和适应性。

根据上述调查研究和行业人力资源需求的分析预测,教育部等六部门提出优先在数控技术应用、计算机应用与软件技术、汽车运用与维修、护理等四个专业领域实施“制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”。这项“工程”的目标任务是,在全国确定500多所(其中高职院校250多所,中职学校340多所)职业院校作为技能型紧缺人才示范性培养培训基地,建立校企合作进行人才培养的新模式,有效加强相关职业院校与各地推荐的1400多个企事业单位的合作,不断加强基地建设,扩大基地培养培训能力,2003~2007年相关专业领域共输送毕业生100万人,在相关专业领域共提供短期技能提高培训300万人次,缓解劳动力市场上技能型人才的紧缺状况。发挥技能型紧缺人才培养培训基

地在探索新的培养培训模式、优化教学与训练过程等方面的示范作用，提高职业教育对社会和企业需求的反应能力，促进整个职业教育事业的改革与发展。

随着社会主义市场经济体制的建立，市场将在人力资源配置中发挥更加重要的作用，职业教育必须面向市场，坚持以就业为导向，建立新的机制和办学模式。这项工程的实施中，职业院校将解放思想，更新观念，采取以下四个方面的新机制：

（1）建立院校与企事业单位合作进行人才培养的机制，实行根据企事业用人“订单”进行教育与培训的新模式。行业企业的发展离不开职业教育，职业教育的改革与发展离不开行业企业，技能型人才的培养培训必须走产教结合、校企合作的路子。参与合作的企事业单位依托职业院校进行新职工的培养和在职职工的培训提高，与院校签订人才培养培训合同，优先录用合作院校的毕业生，并要积极参与职业院校的教育与培训活动，在根据市场需求确定培养目标、人才规格、知识技能结构、课程设置、教学内容和学习成果评估等各方面发挥主导作用。企事业单位有责任为合作院校提供专业师资、实训设备，并接受教师和学生进行见习和实习。教育部门和职业技术学院关注企业需求变化，调整专业方向，确定培养培训规模，开发、设计实施性教育与培训方案。

（2）优化教学过程，采用先进的教学模式，重视学生职业道德和职业能力的培养。职业院校按照企业对技能型人才的实际要求来安排文化基础课程，防止盲目加大文化基础课程的比重，削弱职业技能训练，片面追求对口升学考试的做法。地方教育行政部门与院校主管部门按照有利于满足就业需要，有利于提高学生职业能力，有利于办出专业特色的原则，完善对职业院校相关专业教育教学质量的评估机制，要把毕业生专业基本对口的就业率作为衡量教学质量和办学效益的主要依据。在“工程”的实施中，高等职业教育的基本学制将由现行的三年逐步调整为二年。

（3）实行灵活的学籍管理和教学管理制度，扩大相关院校的自主权。支持承担技能型紧缺人才培养培训任务的院校推行学分制等更加灵活的学籍管理、教学组织和教学管理制度，支持院校针对生源状况和工作实际需要，实行分层教学、分专业方向教学和分阶段教育。职业院校要努力扩大专业教育资源的服务范围，及时把相关专业领域中的核心教学与训练项目用于企业在职职工、转岗职工的知识更新和技能提高培训以及下岗失业人员的再就业培训。

（4）实行学历教育与职业培训相结合。技能型紧缺人才的培养和培训实行学历证书、培训证书和职业资格证书相结合，加强学历教育与职业培训的沟通。要建立学分转换等相应的机制，把学历教育中的专业能力要求与国家职业标准以及相关行业和合作企业的用人要求结合起来。在学历教育的课程结构、教学内容和教学进度安排等方面为学生获得培训证书和职业资格证书提供方便，使学生在取得学历证书的同时，按照国家有关规定获得用人单位认可程度高、对学生就业有实际帮助的相应的培训证书和职业资格证书，提高学生的就业能力。

教育部等有关部门将不断创造有利条件，保障“工程”顺利推进：

（1）加强领导，促进“工程”顺利实施。我们将发挥专家咨询组织的作用，开展相关领域人力资源需求的调研，指导专业课程和教材的开发，保证各相关专业领域技能型紧缺人才培养培训的质量。各地要充分认识加强技能型人才培养对于促进我国制造业和现代服务业发展的重要意义，相关部门要密切合作，切实加强对“工程”实施的协调和领导，加强对当地相关院校和专业的宣传，支持和安排相关专业优先招生，并要加强对毕业生的就业指导和服务。

(2) 加大对技能型紧缺人才培养培训工作的经费投入。我们将争取中央财政的支持，为“职业院校制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”的实施提供必要的经费。地方政府增加经费投入，改善承担技能型紧缺人才培养培训任务的职业院校相关专业的教学和训练条件、支持教师培训和课程教材开发等工作。企业按照国家规定提取的教育和培训经费，应安排一定比例用于支持相关职业院校培养培训技能型紧缺人才。社会对职业教育的资助和捐赠等，在经费安排上要向承担技能型紧缺人才培养培训任务的职业院校和专业倾斜。

(3) 加强示范性职业院校和专业的建设。结合“工程”的实施，我们将有针对性地加强示范性中等职业学校、高等职业院校以及示范专业的建设。教育部即将公布经过重新调整和认定的一千多所国家级重点中等职业学校。教育部已于近期正式启动了35所示范性软件职业技术学院的建设工作。其目的是经过3~5年的努力，建成一批能够培养大量高质量实用型软件专业技术人才的基地，以适应我国信息产业发展的需要。这批示范性软件职业技术学院还将在学制、办学体制、人才培养模式等方面进行较大的改革，探索高等职业教育改革与发展的新道路。

(4) 切实加强相关专业师资队伍、实验实习基地建设和课程教材建设。根据技能型紧缺人才培养培训专业领域知识、技术更新快的特点，建立专业教师定期轮训制度，支持教师到企业和其他用人单位进行见习和工作实践，重点提高教师的专业能力和教育教学能力。聘请生产和服务一线技术人员担任兼职教师，努力形成具有“双师”素质的师资队伍。委托国家重点建设的职业教育师资培训基地及国家级示范性职业培训教师培训基地，与相关行业的骨干企业和单位合作，在2004年将相关院校技能型紧缺人才培养培训专业领域的骨干教师轮训一遍。积极创造条件，选拔和组织相关专业领域的骨干教师出国进修。要建立和完善教育教学条件，建设符合教育教学需要的专业教室和实训基地。组织开发和编写技能型紧缺人才培养培训教材，建立具有明显特色的教材体系。

目前，全国职业教育系统正在深入贯彻《国务院关于大力推进职业教育改革与发展的决定》精神，全国职业教育保持健康发展的良好势头。有关部门相信，“制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”的实施有利于缓解劳动力市场上相关专业领域技能型人才的紧缺状况，也有利于促进职业教育走产教结合、校企合作的路子，进一步提高职业教育服务社会主义现代化建设的能力。

18. 《关于进一步加强人才工作的决定》(2003 年 12 月 26 日)

Title: Resolution on Further Enhancing the Work of Human Resources (The State Council, 2003)

Source: Retrieved August 24, 2009, from http://news.xinhuanet.com/zhengfu/2003-12/31/content_1256161.htm

为实现党的十六大提出的全面建设小康社会宏伟目标,大力实施人才强国战略,建设宏大的高素质人才队伍,现就进一步加强人才工作作出如下决定。

一、实施人才强国战略是党和国家一项重大而紧迫的任务

1. 人才问题是关系党和国家事业发展的关键问题。当今世界,多极化趋势曲折发展,经济全球化不断深入,科技进步日新月异,人才资源已成为最重要的战略资源,人才在综合国力竞争中越来越具有决定性意义。本世纪头 20 年是我国全面建设小康社会、开创中国特色社会主义事业新局面重要战略机遇期。小康大业,人才为本。适应国内外形势的发展变化,完善社会主义市场经济体制,提高党的领导水平和执政水平,牢牢掌握加快发展的主动权,关键在人才。必须把人才工作纳入国家经济和社会发展的总体规划,大力开发人才资源,走人才强国之路。

党和国家历来十分重视人才工作,特别是改革开放以来,培养造就了各个领域的大批优秀人才,为推动社会主义现代化建设事业发挥了重要作用。进入新世纪新阶段,党中央、国务院认真分析国际国内形势,全面贯彻“三个代表”重要思想,提出了人才强国战略,确立了新的历史条件下人才工作的基本思路和宏观布局,人才工作取得了显著成绩。但是,人才的总量、结构和素质还不能适应经济社会发展的需要,特别是现代化建设急需的高层次、高技能和复合型人才短缺;市场配置人才资源的基础性作用发挥不够,人才流动的体制性障碍尚未消除,人尽其才的用人机制有待完善。我国人才工作正处于需要进一步整合力量、全面推进的重要阶段。必须深刻认识人才工作的极端重要性和紧迫性,切实加强和改进党对人才工作的领导,紧紧抓住机遇,积极应对挑战,努力使人才工作迈上新的台阶。

2. 新世纪新阶段人才工作的根本任务是实施人才强国战略。在建设中国特色社会主义伟大事业中,要把人才作为推进事业发展的关键因素,努力造就数以亿计的高素质劳动者、数以千万计的专门人才和一大批拔尖创新人才,建设规模宏大、结构合理、素质较高的人才队伍,开创人才辈出、人尽其才的新局面,把我国由人口大国转化为人才资源强国,大力提升国家核心竞争力和综合国力,完成全面建设小康社会的历史任务,实现中华民族的伟大复兴。

实施人才强国战略,必须以邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想为指导,贯彻落实十六大精神,根据人才资源是第一资源的科学判断,坚持党管人才原则,坚持以人为本,充分开发国内国际两种人才资源,紧紧抓住培养、吸引、用好人才三个环节,大力加强以党政人才、企业经营管理人才和专业技术人才为主体的人才队伍建设,努力把各类优秀人才集聚到党和国家各项事业中来,为全面建设小康社会提供坚强的人才保证和广泛的智力支持。实施人才强国战略的基本要求是:

——用“三个代表”重要思想统领人才工作。“三个代表”重要思想是推进新世纪新阶段人才工作的根本指针。按照发展先进生产力、先进文化和实现最广大人民群众根本利益的要求,坚决贯彻尊重劳动、尊重知识、尊重人才、尊重创造的方针,把“三个代表”重要思想贯穿于人才工作的全过程,努力开创人才工作新局面。

——把促进发展作为人才工作的根本出发点。发展是我们党执政兴国的第一要务。树立全面、协调、可持续的发展观，促进经济社会和人的全面发展。人才工作的目标任务要围绕发展来确立，人才工作的政策措施要根据发展来制定，人才工作的成效要用发展来检验。

——树立科学的人才观。人才存在于人民群众之中。只要具有一定的知识或技能，能够进行创造性劳动，为推进社会主义物质文明、政治文明、精神文明建设，在建设中国特色社会主义伟大事业中作出积极贡献，都是党和国家需要的人才。要坚持德才兼备原则，把品德、知识、能力和业绩作为衡量人才的主要标准，不唯学历、不唯职称、不唯资历、不唯身份，不拘一格选人才。鼓励人人都作贡献，人人都能成才。

——加强人才资源能力建设。坚持把能力建设作为人才资源开发的主题。加大对人才工作的投入，优先发展科学教育事业，努力把人口压力转变为人力资源优势，为各类人才不断涌现和充分发挥作用奠定坚实基础。

——坚持三支人才队伍建设一起抓。党政人才、企业经营管理人才和专业技术人才是我国人才队伍的主体，必须坚持分类指导，整体推进。着重培养造就大批适应改革开放和社会主义现代化建设的高层次和高技能人才，带动整个人才队伍建设。

——推进人才结构调整。按照统筹城乡发展、统筹区域发展、统筹经济社会发展、统筹人与自然和谐发展、统筹国内发展和对外开放的要求，加快人才结构调整，优化人才资源配置，促进人才合理分布，发挥人才队伍的整体功能。

——创新人才工作机制和优化环境。人才的活力取决于机制和环境。遵循人才资源开发规律，坚持市场配置人才资源的改革取向，加强和改善宏观调控，建立充满生机与活力的人才工作机制。着力营造有利于优秀人才大量涌现、健康成长的良好氛围，形成鼓励人才干事业、支持人才干成事业、帮助人才干好事业的社会环境。

二、以能力建设为核心，大力加强人才培养工作

3. 人才资源能力建设是人才培养的核心。树立大教育、大培训观念，在提高全民思想道德素质、科学文化素质和健康素质的基础上，重点培养人的学习能力、实践能力，着力提高人的创新能力。围绕创新能力建设，根据各类人才的特点，研究制定人才资源能力建设标准。改革教育培训的机制、内容和方法，加大教育培训力度。坚持学习与实践相结合、培养与使用相结合，促进人才在实践中不断增长知识，提升能力。加强爱国主义、集体主义、社会主义教育，树立正确的世界观、人生观、价值观，发扬拼搏奉献精神、艰苦创业精神、团结协作精神和诚实守信精神，促进各类人才的全面发展。

4. 加快构建现代国民教育体系，更好地为经济社会全面发展培养人才。教育是培养人才的基础。按照面向现代化、面向世界、面向未来的要求，坚持教育为社会主义现代化建设服务，为人民服务，以社会需求为导向，大力推进教育创新，提高教育质量和管理水平。统筹城乡教育，进一步加强农村教育。全面普及九年义务教育，积极发展高中阶段教育，全面推进素质教育。着眼国家发展和战略需要，深化高等教育体制改革，加强高等教育与经济社会的紧密结合，调整学科和专业结构，创新人才培养模式，建立教育培养与人才需求结构相适应的有效机制。加快建设若干所世界一流大学、一批高水平大学与重点学科。加强高校领导班子和师资队伍建设，充分发挥高校的人才培养重要基地作用。适应走新型工业化道路和优化产业结构的要求，大力推进职业教育的改革和发展。

5. 加快构建终身教育体系，促进学习型社会的形成。在全社会进一步树立全民学习、终身学习理念，鼓励人们通过多种形式和渠道参与终身学习，积极推动学习型组织和学习型社区建设。加强终身教育的规划和协调，优化整合各种教育培训资源，综合运用社会的

学习资源、文化资源和教育资源，完善广覆盖、多层次的教育培训网络，构建中国特色的终身教育体系。进一步改革和发展成人教育。加强各类人才的培训和继续教育工作。继续做好选派各类人才出国（境）培训工作。强化用人单位在人才培养中的主体地位，鼓励在职自学，完善带薪学习制度。制定科学规范的质量评估和监督办法，提高教育培训成效。

三、坚持改革创新，努力形成科学的人才评价和使用机制

6. 建立以能力和业绩为导向、科学的社会化的人才评价机制。坚持走群众路线，注重通过实践检验人才。完善人才评价标准，克服人才评价中重学历、资历，轻能力、业绩的倾向。根据德才兼备的要求，从规范职位分类与职业标准入手，建立以业绩为依据，由品德、知识、能力等要素构成的各类人才评价指标体系。改革各类人才评价方式，积极探索主体明确、各具特色的评价方法。完善人才评价手段，大力开发应用现代人才测评技术，努力提高人才评价的科学水平。

党政人才的评价重在群众认可。树立科学的发展观和正确的政绩观，坚持群众公认、注重实绩的原则。进一步完善民主推荐、民主测评、民主评议制度，把群众的意见作为考核评价党政人才的重要尺度。制定不同层次、不同类型党政人才的岗位职责规范，建立符合科学发展观要求的干部政绩考核体系和考核评价标准。完善定期考核和日常考核制度，改进考核方法。建立健全考核工作责任制。

企业经营管理人才的评价重在市场和出资人认可。发展企业经营管理人才评价机构，探索社会化的职业经理人资质评价制度。完善反映经营业绩的财务指标和反映综合管理能力等非财务指标相结合的企业经营管理人才评价体系，积极开发适应不同类型企业经营管理人才的考核测评技术。改进国有资产出资人对国有企业经营管理者考核评价工作，围绕任期制和任期目标责任制，突出对经营业绩和综合素质的考核。

专业技术人才的评价重在社会和业内认可。以打破专业技术职务终身制为重点，研究制定深化职称制度改革的指导意见。全面推行专业技术职业资格制度，加快执业资格制度建设。积极探索资格考试、考核和同行评议相结合的专业技术人才评价方法。发展和规范人才评价中介组织，在政府宏观指导下，开展以岗位要求为基础、社会化的专业技术人才评价工作。积极推进专业技术人才执业资格国际互认。

7. 建立以公开、平等、竞争、择优为导向，有利于优秀人才脱颖而出、充分施展才能的选人用人机制。

以扩大民主、加强监督为重点，进一步深化党政干部选拔任用制度改革，不断提高科学化、民主化、制度化水平。完善选任制，改进委任制，规范考任制，推行聘任制。改进公开选拔、竞争上岗的办法。加大选拔任用优秀年轻干部的力度，为他们的成长提供“快车道”。逐步推行党政领导干部职务任期制，建立和完善干部正常退出机制，实行优胜劣汰，增强干部队伍活力。

以推进企业经营管理者市场化、职业化为重点，坚持市场配置、组织选拔和依法管理相结合，改革和完善国有企业经营管理人才选拔任用方式。对国有资产出资人代表依法实行派出制或选举制。对经理人推行聘任制，实行契约化管理。按照企业发展战略和市场取向，拓宽选人视野，吸引国际国内一流人才到企业任职。大力扶持能够整合生产要素、利用社会资源和聚集各类人才积极创业的经营管理人才。

以推行聘用制和岗位管理制度为重点，深化事业单位人事制度改革。按照政事职责分开、单位自主用人、个人自主择业、政府依法监管的要求，建立符合各类事业单位特点的用人制度。推行聘用制和岗位管理制度，促进由固定用人向合同用人、由身份管理向岗位

管理的转变。研究制定事业单位人事管理条例,规范按需设岗、竞聘上岗、以岗定酬、合同管理等管理环节,逐步做到人员能进能出,职务能上能下,待遇能高能低。

四、建立和完善人才市场体系,促进人才合理流动

8. 建立和完善人才市场体系。根据完善社会主义市场经济体制的要求,全面推进机制健全、运行规范、服务周到、指导监督有力的人才市场体系建设,进一步发挥市场在人才资源配置中的基础性作用。建立和完善人才市场机制。遵循市场规律,进一步发挥用人单位和人才的市场主体作用,促进企事业单位通过市场自主择人和人才进入市场自主择业。针对人才资源的特殊性,按照人才的市场供求关系,通过实现人才自身价值与满足社会需求相结合,有效解决人才供求矛盾。推进政府部门所属人才服务机构的体制改革,实现管办分离、政事分开。引导国有企事业单位转换用人机制,积极参与市场竞争。努力形成政府部门宏观调控、市场主体公平竞争、行业协会严格自律、中介组织提供服务的运行格局。消除人才市场发展的体制性障碍,使现有各类人才和劳动力市场实现联网贯通,加快建设统一的人才市场。健全专业化、信息化、产业化、国际化的人才市场服务体系。

9. 促进人才合理流动。进一步消除人才流动中的城乡、区域、部门、行业、身份、所有制等限制,疏通三支队伍之间、公有制与非公有制组织之间、不同地区之间的人才流动渠道。发展人事代理业务,改革户籍、人事档案管理制度,放宽户籍准入政策,推广以引进人才为主导的工作居住证制度,探索建立社会化的人才档案公共管理服务系统。鼓励专业技术人才通过兼职、定期服务、技术开发、项目引进、科技咨询等方式进行流动。加强对人才流动的宏观调控,采取有效措施,引导人才向西部地区、基层和艰苦地区等社会最需要的地方流动,鼓励人才安心基层工作。制定人才流动和人才市场管理的法律法规,完善人事争议仲裁制度。加强人才流动中国家秘密和商业秘密的保护,依法维护用人单位和各类人才的合法权益,保证人才流动的开放性和有序性。

五、以鼓励劳动和创造为根本目的,加大对人才的有效激励和保障

10. 完善分配激励机制。完善按劳分配为主体、多种分配方式并存的分配制度,坚持效率优先、兼顾公平,各种生产要素按贡献参与分配。针对各类人才的特点,建立健全与社会主义市场经济体制相适应、与工作业绩紧密联系、鼓励人才创新创造的分配制度和激励机制。加强对收入分配的宏观管理,整顿和规范分配秩序。

结合完善国家公务员制度,逐步建立综合体现工作职责、能力、业绩、年功等因素,职务与职级相结合的公务员工资制度。适当拉开不同职务和职级之间的收入差距,增强职级的激励功能。建立公务员工资与国民经济发展相协调、与社会进步相适应、与企业相当人员平均工资大体持平的工资水平决定机制。完善艰苦边远地区津贴制度,实施中央政府统一调控下分级管理的地区附加津贴制度。对国家机关特殊专门人才,实行特殊的工资、津贴政策。

结合事业单位体制改革和人事制度改革,逐步建立符合各种类型事业单位特点、体现岗位绩效和分级分类管理的事业单位薪酬制度。收入分配政策向关键岗位和优秀人才倾斜。指导事业单位积极探索生产要素按贡献参与分配的实现形式和办法。加大对基础教育、基础研究、战略高技术研究、重要公益研究等事业单位的分配政策扶持力度。制定完善专业技术人员兼职兼薪的管理办法。

结合深化国有资产管理体制改革和建立现代企业制度,逐步建立市场机制调节、企业自主分配、职工民主参与、政府监控指导的企业薪酬制度。坚持按劳分配与按生产要素分配相结合、短期激励与中长期激励相结合、激励和约束相结合的原则,将经营者薪酬与其责任、风险和经营业绩直接挂钩。不断改善收入结构,逐步建立与市场价格接轨、合理有效的激励机制。在分类指导、分步实施的基础上,进一步完善国有企业经营者年薪制。

建立健全现代产权制度，探索产权激励机制。鼓励有条件的企业对作出突出贡献的经营管理人才、专业技术人才实行期权、股权激励。依法保护知识产权。探索建立人才资本及科研成果有偿转移制度。

1 1. 建立规范有效的人才奖励制度。坚持精神奖励和物质奖励相结合的原则，建立以政府奖励为导向、用人单位和社会力量奖励为主体的人才奖励体系，充分发挥经济利益和社会荣誉双重激励作用。建立国家功勋奖励制度，对为国家和社会发展作出杰出贡献的各类人才给予崇高荣誉并实行重奖。进一步规范各类人才奖项。坚持奖励与惩戒相结合，做到奖惩分明，实现有效激励。

1 2. 建立健全人才保障制度。积极探索机关和事业单位社会保障制度改革，进一步完善企业社会保障制度，为推进人才工作深入发展提供保障。根据各类人才的特点和需要，采用多种形式，逐步建立重要人才国家投保制度。完善机关、企业、事业单位人才流动中的社会保险衔接办法。加快福利制度改革，逐步实现福利货币化，不断改善各类人才的生活待遇。

六、突出重点，切实加强高层次人才队伍建设

1 3. 把高层次人才队伍建设摆上重要位置。中高级领导干部、优秀企业家和各领域高级专家等高层次人才，是人才队伍建设的重点。实施国家高层次人才培养工程，制定符合我国国情和国际化要求的培养规划，针对不同特点，实行分类培养。不断推进制度创新，形成有利于高层次人才成长的机制和环境。

以加强思想政治建设和执政能力建设为核心，培养造就一批忠诚实践“三个代表”重要思想、善于治党治国治军的政治家。强化理论武装和实践锻炼，坚持立党为公、执政为民，着力解决领导干部理想信念、政治方向、政治纪律、宗旨观念等根本问题。大力提高中高级领导干部科学判断形势的能力、驾驭市场经济的能力、应对复杂局面的能力、依法执政的能力和总揽全局的能力。

以提高战略开拓能力和现代化经营管理水平为核心，加快培养造就一批熟悉国际国内市场、具有国际先进水平的优秀企业家。遵循企业家成长规律，培养企业家职业精神，提高企业家职业化水平。建立完善企业家激励约束机制，调动和保护企业家勇于竞争和持续创业的热情。实施“走出去”战略，发展具有国际竞争力的大公司、大企业集团，鼓励企业家在更大范围、更广领域和更高层次上参与国际经济技术合作和竞争。加快建立健全现代企业制度，完善公司法人治理结构，为企业家的成长和创业提供广阔的空间和舞台。

以提高创新能力和弘扬科学精神为核心，加快培养造就一批具有世界前沿水平的高级专家。坚持自然科学和社会科学并重，基础研究与应用研究并重，依托新世纪百千万人才工程等国家重大人才培养计划、重大科研和建设项目、重点学科和科研基地以及国际学术交流与合作项目，积极推进创新团队建设，加大学科带头人的培养力度。建立开放、流动、竞争、协作的科学研究机制，进一步破除科学研究中的论资排辈和急功近利现象，抓紧培养造就一批中青年高级专家。坚持“双百”方针，形成鼓励创新、鼓励探索的良好氛围。努力改善工作条件，大力营造激发创新活力的工作环境。弘扬爱国主义精神，提高科学道德水平，激励各领域专家奋力攻关，勇攀事业高峰。重视加强国防科技高层次人才队伍建设。注意发挥老专家、老教授的作用。改进和完善院士制度、政府特殊津贴制度、博士后制度以及其他高层次人才培养制度，进一步形成培养选拔高级专家的制度体系。

中央和省部两级要着眼于党和国家各项事业长远发展的需要，建设一支数量充足、素质优良、门类齐全、结构合理的省部级和地厅级后备干部队伍。同时，建立高层次人才库，直接联系一批优秀企业家和各类高级专家。设立和调整高层次人才专项资金，鼓励用

人单位和社会各界在工作上、生活上为高层次人才提供保障，激发他们的贡献热情和创造潜能，充分发挥他们在人才队伍建设中的示范带动作用。

1 4. 加大吸引留学和海外高层次人才工作力度。继续贯彻支持留学、鼓励回国、来去自由的方针，鼓励留学人员以不同方式为祖国服务。按照拓宽留学渠道、吸引人才回国、支持创新创业、鼓励为国服务的要求，制定和实施留学人才回归计划，重点吸引高层次人才和紧缺人才。采取团队引进、核心人才带动引进、高新技术项目开发引进等方式，建立符合留学人员特点的引才机制。建立全国统一的留学人才信息系统和留学人才库，完善留学人才的评价认定制度，提高吸引高层次人才留学人才工作的针对性和实效性。加大对高层次人才留学人才的回国资助力度，切实解决留学回国人员的实际困难和问题。制定鼓励和支持留学人员回国创业政策，大力加强留学人员创业基地建设。健全留学人才为国服务的政策措施，鼓励他们以多种形式为国家建设作贡献。

坚持以我为主、按需引进、突出重点、讲求实效的方针，积极引进海外人才和智力。制定和实施国家引进海外人才规划，建立海外人才评价和准入制度。重点引进高新技术、金融、法律、贸易、管理等方面的高级人才以及基础研究方面的紧缺人才。按照国际惯例和市场规则，抓紧制定投资移民法、技术移民法和海外高级人才招聘管理办法。研究制定聘用海外高级人才从事公务工作的办法。对引进的海外高级人才实行在华长期居留或永久居留制度。鼓励和吸引海外华人华侨专家为我国现代化建设服务。建立和完善国际人才市场，发展和规范引进海外人才中介组织，保护应聘海外人才和聘用单位的合法权益。

1 5. 加强和改进国家重要人才安全工作。高度重视和充分信任国家重要人才。通过立法维护国家重要人才安全，有效防止重要人才流失。制定政策法规，提高重要人才待遇，保障重要人才权益，规范重要人才流动。建立国家重要人才的信息档案，实施动态管理。

七、推进人才资源整体开发，实现人才工作协调发展

1 6. 坚持人才资源开发与经济社会发展相协调。把人才工作作为制定国民经济和社会发展规划的重要内容，建立健全人才资源开发宏观调控体系。适应经济社会发展对人才总量、结构和素质的需求，有效盘活人才存量，大幅度提高人才增量，不断提升人才素质，调整和优化人才结构。紧密配合国家重大发展战略的实施，开发和配置人才资源。采取有力措施，促进人才在城乡、区域、产业、行业 and 不同所有制之间的合理分布。推进人才资源整体开发，抓紧培养各类紧缺人才。重视培养妇女人才、少数民族人才和党外人才。注意发挥离退休人才的作用。积极做好在振兴东北地区等老工业基地中的人才工作。不断扩大人才工作覆盖面，实现各类人才队伍建设的协调发展。

1 7. 进一步做好西部和民族地区人才工作。西部大开发和民族地区建设，人才是关键。要树立正确的用人观念，制定灵活的用人政策，创造良好的用人机制和环境，稳定和用好现有人才，重视开发少数民族人才，积极引进急需人才。大力发展西部教育事业，强化职业教育，加大培养和培训工作力度，壮大人才队伍。逐步提高西部地区各类人才的收入水平，制定鼓励人才到西部地区工作特别是长期工作的优惠政策。坚持产业聚才，项目引才，积极构建吸引各类人才到西部建功立业的事业平台。采取灵活多样的人才柔性流动政策，支持大中城市专业技术人员到西部地区基层提供服务，把引进人才与引进智力结合起来。进一步加强对西部和民族地区人才工作的支持，完善中央国家机关、东中部地区与西部和民族地区干部交流机制，加大县处级以上党政主要领导干部的交流力度。继续做好对口支援西藏、新疆以及其他地区的工作。加强贫困地区人才队伍建设。

1 8. 重视非公有制经济组织和社会组织人才工作。非公有制经济组织和社会组织中汇集着越来越多的人才，是我国人才队伍的重要组成部分。要把新的社会阶层中的各类人才纳入党和政府的工作范围，努力形成与社会主义初级阶段基本经济制度相适应的人才思想观念和人才创业机制。要消除体制和政策障碍，在政治上对非公有制经济组织和社会组织

人才一视同仁，在政府奖励、职称评定等人才政策上统一安排，在面向社会的资助、基金、培训项目、人才信息库等公共资源运用上平等开放，在改善创业环境和工作生活条件上积极提供服务。

19. 加强高技能人才和农村实用人才队伍建设。工人队伍中的高技能人才，是推动技术创新和实现科技成果转化不可缺少的重要力量。实施国家高技能人才培训工程和技能振兴行动，通过学校教育培养、企业岗位培训、个人自学提高等方式，加快高技能人才的培养。充分发挥高等职业院校和高级技工学校、技师学院的培训基地作用，扩大培训规模，提高培训质量。充分发挥企业的主体作用，强化岗位培训，组织技术革新和攻关，改进技能传授方式，促进岗位成才。完善技能人才的职业资格证书制度，推进技师考评制度改革，实行培训、考核、使用和待遇相结合，逐步建立统一标准、自主申报、社会考核、企业聘用的高技能人才成长机制。进一步提高高技能人才的社会地位，优化高技能人才成长的社会环境。

根据推动农村经济社会发展和城乡协调发展的需要，大力加强农村科技、教育、文化、卫生和经营管理等实用人才队伍建设。继续实施县乡村实用人才工程和农民教育培训工程。充分发挥农村职业学校、成人文化技术学校、农村现代远程教育网络和各种农业技术推广培训机构的作用，加快农业科技示范园区和先进适用技术推广相关基础设施建设，实行农科教相结合，努力提高广大农村劳动者的素质，激励农村实用人才快速成长。高度重视农村富余劳动力资源的开发，加强农村劳动力转移就业培训工作。加强人才和智力扶贫。建立健全农村人才服务体系。

20. 大力抓好青年人才队伍建设。培养造就一大批素质优良、勇于创新的青年人才，是实现人才工作可持续发展的迫切需要。建立和完善各类青年人才工作制度，支持优秀青年人才脱颖而出。加强以爱国主义为核心的民族精神教育，引导青年人才把个人成长与全面建设小康社会的伟大事业紧密结合起来，鼓励他们在艰苦复杂的环境和丰富的社会实践中锻炼成长。在重大科研和工程项目实施中要把培养青年人才作为一项重要任务。高校毕业生是国家十分宝贵的人才资源，是青年人才的重要来源。各级党委和政府要高度重视，坚持以社会需求为导向，建立和完善高校毕业生就业工作机制，切实使用好这一宝贵资源。

八、坚持党管人才原则，努力开创人才工作新局面

21. 大力实施人才强国战略，必须坚持党管人才原则。坚持党管人才原则，是我们党适应全面建设小康社会的新任务，按照完善社会主义市场经济体制的新要求，根据党所处历史方位的新变化，着眼于改革和完善党的领导方式和执政方式、提高党的执政能力作出的重大决策，是人才工作沿着正确方向前进的根本保证。各级党委和政府要把人才工作作为一项重大而紧迫的战略任务，切实抓紧抓好。坚持党总揽全局、协调各方的原则，充分发挥党的思想政治优势、组织优势和密切联系群众的优势，发挥党委领导核心作用，形成党委统一领导，组织部门牵头抓总，有关部门各司其职、密切配合，社会力量广泛参与的人才工作新格局。要把人才工作纳入各级党政领导班子工作目标责任制，定期进行考核。各级党政主要负责同志对于做好人才工作负有重要责任，要树立强烈的人才意识，善于发现人才、培养人才、集聚人才、服务人才，做到知人善任、唯才是举、广纳群贤。

做好人才工作是加强和改进党的建设的重要内容。各级党组织要加强对党员的教育培养，努力使广大党员成为学习的模范、劳动的模范、创新的模范、贡献的模范，在成才的道路上发挥带头作用。要注重从各类优秀人才中发展党员和培养党的各级干部，把更多的优秀人才集聚到党的各级组织中来。

22. 党管人才主要是管宏观，管政策，管协调，管服务。各级党委要按照管好用活的要求，搞好统筹规划，制定人才工作重大方针政策，明确发展目标，推进各类人才队伍建设

设协调发展；坚持分类指导，针对各类人才的不同特点和成长规律，创新人才工作理论、体制和方法，使人才各得其所、各尽其能；注重整合力量，建立统分结合、协调高效的工作机制，充分调动一切积极因素，形成人才工作合力；积极提供服务，通过政策支持、精神激励和环境保障，不断改善各类人才的工作与生活条件，以感情和人格的力量，提高对人才的吸引力和感召力；实行依法管理，加快推进人才工作法制化建设，增强工作的规范性和有效性。要用事业造就人才，用环境凝聚人才，用机制激励人才，用法制保障人才，把全社会人才的积极性和创造性引导好、保护好、发挥好。努力把人才优势转化为知识优势、科技优势和产业优势，使一切劳动、知识、技术、管理和资本的活力竞相迸发，一切创造社会财富的源泉充分涌流。

2 3. 全面贯彻党管人才原则，必须动员和组织全社会力量，加大投入，完善法制，优化环境。牢固树立人才投入是效益最大的投入的观念，不断加大对人才工作的投入力度。健全政府、社会、用人单位和个人多元人才投入机制。中央及地方各级政府要根据人才工作实际需要，在财政预算中安排必要的资金，用于高层次人才培养、紧缺人才引进、西部人才开发、公派留学生等工作。在重大建设和科研项目经费中，要划出一定份额用于人才开发。加强对人才投入资金使用的监督管理，切实提高人才投入效益。加大人才工作立法力度，围绕人才培养、吸引、使用等基本环节，建立健全中国特色人才工作法律法规体系。积极运用现代科技手段，加强人才信息网络建设。充分发挥工会、共青团、妇联等人民团体在人才工作中的重要作用。大力加强舆论宣传，为人才竞相成才和充分施展才能创造良好的社会环境。

时代呼唤人才，人才推进事业。全党和全国各族人民紧密团结在以胡锦涛同志为总书记的党中央周围，在马克思列宁主义、毛泽东思想、邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想指引下，全面贯彻十六大精神，大力实施人才强国战略，关心人才工作，研究人才工作，宣传人才工作，做好人才工作，为全面建设小康社会、实现中华民族的伟大复兴而努力奋斗！（完）

19. 《三年五十万新技师培养计划》（2004 年 01 月）

Title: The Plan of Training 500,000 New Technicians in Three Years (The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2004)

Source: Retrieved August 24, 2008 from <http://www.tech.net.cn/info/oth/6018.shtml>

为贯彻落实《中共中央国务院关于进一步加强人才工作的决定》（中发[2003] 号）精神，加快高技能人才队伍建设，我部决定在全面实施国家高技能人才培训工程的基础上，从 2004 年到 2006 年的三年内，在全国开展“三年五十万新技师培养计划”。

一、目标任务

（一）以实施“人才强国”战略为指导，适应经济发展和技术进步的要求，从 2004 年至 2006 年的三年内，在制造业、服务业及有关行业技能含量较高的职业中，实施 50 万新技师（包括技师、高级技师和其他高等级职业资格人才）培养计划，通过企业岗位培训、学校教育培养、个人岗位提高相结合的方式，加快培养企业急需的技术技能型、复合技能型人才，以及高新技术产业发展需要的知识技能型人才，并以此推动技能人才队伍的整体建设，带动各类高、中、初级技能人员梯次发展，形成“培养快、使用好、待遇高”的高技能人才培养与使用的激励机制。其中，2004 年培养 10 万名新技师，2005 年培养 15 万名新技师，2006 年培养 25 万名新技师。

二、主要内容

（二）鼓励各类企业结合生产实际，开展技能提升和岗位培训，做到按需施教，学用结合。指导企业高技能人才培训基地开展技师培训，建立高技能人才业务进修和培训制度，采取集中与分散相结合的方式，不断提高他们专业理论知识和技术技能水平。完善推广名师带徒的措施，开展技术攻关、创新创效、拜师学艺、观摩研讨和技能交流等活动。行业组织和企业集团要结合行业企业发展，制定技师培养规划，总结技师成长规律，推广技师培养经验，逐步做到制度化和规范化。

（三）推动高级技工学校、技师学院以及高等职业院校改革，完善教学方法，突出专业技能训练，强化新知识、新技术、新工艺、新方法的内容，充分发挥高技能人才培训基地的作用，采取校企合作、定单培养等方式，开展后备青年技师的培养工作。整合社会培训资源，搭建多功能、高层次的技师培训平台。有条件的城市，可建立高技能人才实习训练基地。

（四）改革技师考评办法，畅通高技能人才成长通道。按照“统一标准、自主申报、社会考核、企业聘任”的原则，全面推进技师考评制度改革。取消技师报考的比例限额，凡符合技师申报条件的各类人员均可自愿申请参加技师资格鉴定。打破资历限定，对掌握高技能、复合技能且有突出贡献的人员可适当放宽技师申报条件。突破年龄限制，鼓励更多具备高超技能的青年职工参加技师考评。打破身份限制，鼓励不同所有制企业的职工参加技师资格鉴定。对专业技术人员和生产管理人员参加技师考核的办法，可由各地结合实际先行试点。

建立和完善以能力评价和业绩考核相结合的技师评价体系和评价方法。考评内容采取技能鉴定和综合评审相结合。技能鉴定按照技师资格标准，重点考核专业知识和操作技能；综合评审突出技能运用及所做贡献，重点考核工作业绩、技术革新、传授技艺及职业道德等。评聘方式实行资格认定与聘任分开，对取得技师资格的人员，由用人单位根据生产实际需要进行聘任。企业可在关键岗位、工序设立首席职位，发挥技师的技能领头人作用。

（五）广泛开展技能竞赛和评选表彰活动，创造技师成长的良好社会环境。注重在不同行业和职业领域中发现和选拔具有高超技艺、突出业绩的技能人才。扩大技能竞赛奖励范围，从 2004 年起，对各省级和大型企业集团开展的技能竞赛中获各工种决赛第 1 名的选手，可授予全国技术能手荣誉称号。进一步做好评选表彰工作，对做出突出贡献的技能人才给予相应的奖励，并可晋升为技师或高级技师。要提升技师的社会地位，营造尊重技能人才、争当技师的良好氛围。

（六）提高技师的待遇水平，建立高技能人才开发交流机制。引导企业建立“使用与培训考核相结合，待遇与业绩贡献相联系”激励机制，大力推广技师、高级技师与相应专业技术人员在工资福利方面享受同等待遇的做法。积极争取当地政府建立技师津贴制度，提高其待遇水平。在各地、各行业创建的技师工作站中，建立技能人才、技能成果信息库，开展科技成果转让、绝招绝技展示以及创新创业等活动。同时，要发挥各地、各行业技师协会的作用，定期组织同业技能交流活动，做好技术攻关、传授技艺、传播技能等工作。

三、保障措施

（七）加强基础建设和技术支持。根据市场需求和职业发展趋势，按照培养技术技能型、知识技能型和复合技能型人才的要求，充实和完善国家职业标准和国家题库。积极开展远程培训和仿真模拟教学训练。编写和出版一批突出技师培养特色的实用教材。

（八）积极筹措资金，确保经费的落实。各省、自治区、直辖市和重点城市劳动保障部门要向当地政府争取专项经费，用于本计划的组织推动和基础工作开发。行业、企业应从职工教育经费（占职工工资总额的 1.5-2.5%）中落实技师培训经费。教育培训机构可按照物价部门核定的标准向学员收取一定的培训费用。

四、组织领导

（九）各地区、各行业部门要加强对这项工作的统筹规划和组织领导。劳动保障部高技能人才办公室负责本计划的总体规划和组织推动。各地劳动保障部门指定专门人员和机构组成的高技能人才办公室负责制定本地区计划并组织实施。行业部门和企业要做好技师培养的具体组织实施工作。

20. 《2003-2007 教育振兴行动计划》（2004 年 2 月 10 日）

Title: Action Plan for Invigorating Education Between 2003 and 2007 (The Ministry of Education, 2004a)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007 from

http://news.xinhuanet.com/zhengfu/2004-03/31/content_1393111.htm

百年大计，教育为本。要实现全面建设小康社会和中华民族伟大复兴的宏伟目标，必须坚持实施科教兴国战略和人才强国战略，把教育摆在现代化建设优先发展的战略地位。近年来，在党中央、国务院的正确领导下，教育事业实现了跨越式发展，教育改革取得了突破性进展，国民受教育程度逐步提高。但是，教育面临的挑战依然十分严峻，整体水平离实现全面建设小康社会目标还有很大差距。为了贯彻党的十六大精神，在顺利实施《面向 21 世纪教育振兴行动计划》的基础上，特制定本行动计划。

今后几年，我们要高举邓小平理论伟大旗帜，以“三个代表”重要思想为指导，坚持教育为人民服务的宗旨，巩固成果，深化改革，提高质量，持续发展，办好让人民满意的教育。努力实现党的十六大提出的历史性任务，构建中国特色社会主义现代化教育体系，为建立全民学习、终身学习的学习型社会奠定基础；培养数以亿计的高素质劳动者、数以千万计的专门人才和一大批拔尖创新人才，把巨大的人口压力转化为丰富的人力资源优势；加强教育同科技与经济、同文化与社会相结合，为现代化建设提供更大的智力支持和知识贡献。

一、重点推进农村教育发展与改革

全面贯彻《国务院关于加强农村教育工作的决定》（国发〔2003〕19 号），坚持把农村教育摆在重中之重的地位，加快农村教育发展，深化农村教育改革，促进农村经济社会发展和城乡协调发展。

1. 努力提高普及九年义务教育的水平和质量，为 2010 年全面普及九年义务教育和全面提高义务教育质量打好基础。

实施国家西部地区“两基”攻坚计划。到 2007 年底，力争使西部地区普及九年义务教育人口覆盖率达到 85% 以上，青壮年文盲率下降到 5% 以下。以实施“农村寄宿制学校建设工程”为突破口，加强西部农村初中、小学建设。西部各省、自治区、直辖市及新疆生产建设兵团要分别实现各自的“两基”目标。要将“两基”攻坚作为西部大开发的一项重要任务，精心组织实施。继续实施“国家贫困地区义务教育工程”和“中小学危房改造工程”。中部地区未实现“两基”目标的县也要集中力量打好攻坚战。

已经实现“两基”目标的地区特别是中部和西部地区，要巩固成果、提高质量，千方百计改善学校的办学条件，全面提高教师和校长素质。经济发达的农村地区要实现高水平、高质量“普九”目标。

2. 深化农村教育改革，发展农村职业教育和成人教育，推进“三教统筹”和“农科教结合”。

加强新形势下的基础教育、职业教育和成人教育“三教统筹”，有效整合教育资源，充分发挥农村学校的综合功能。继续开展“绿色证书”教育，积极推进农村中小学课程和教学改革，在实现国家规定的基础教育基本要求时，紧密联系农村实际，在农村初、高中适当增加职业教育内容。

大力发展农村职业教育。农村职业教育要以就业为导向,实行灵活的教学和学籍管理制度,方便工学交替、半工半读、城乡分段和职前职后分段完成学业。重点建设好地(市)、县级骨干职业学校和培训机构,面向农村扩大招生规模。实施“农村劳动力转移培训计划”,对进城务工农民进行职业教育和培训。

开展农村成人教育,促进“农科教”结合。农村成人教育要以农民实用技术培训和农村实用人才培养为重点。充分发挥农村成人学校和培训机构的作用。农村中小学可实行一校挂两牌,日校办夜校,成为乡村基层的文化、科技和教育活动基地。充分发挥高等农林学校的作用,建设“高等学校农业科技教育网络联盟”,推进“一村一名大学生计划”,为农业科技推广、农村教育培训作出贡献。

3. 落实“以县为主”的农村义务教育管理体制,加大投入,完善保障机制。

进一步落实“在国务院领导下,由地方政府负责、分级管理、以县为主”的农村义务教育管理体制。县级政府要切实担负起对本地教育发展规划、经费安排使用、教师和校长人事等方面进行统筹管理的责任。明确各级政府保障农村义务教育投入的责任;中央、省和地(市)级政府通过增加转移支付,增强财政困难县义务教育经费的保障能力。建立和完善农村中小学投入保障机制,确保农村中小学教职工工资按时足额发放,确保农村中小学校舍的维护、改造和建设,确保维持学校正常运转的基本支出需要。

4. 建立和健全助学制度,扶持农村家庭经济困难学生接受义务教育。

继续设立中小学助学金,重点放在中西部农村地区;对家庭经济困难学生,逐步扩大免费发放教科书的范围,逐步免除杂费,为寄宿学生提供必要的生活补助;通过给学校划拨少量土地或提供劳动实践场所,帮助学生勤工助学并改善生活;广泛动员和鼓励机关、团体、企事业单位和公民捐资助学。到2007年,争取全国农村义务教育阶段家庭经济困难学生都能享受到“两免一补”(免杂费、免书本费、补助寄宿生生活费),努力做到不让学生因家庭经济困难而失学。

5. 加快推进农村中小学教师队伍建设。

加强农村中小学编制管理,全面推行教师聘任制,依法实施教师资格制度。严格掌握校长任职条件,积极推行校长聘任制。积极引导和鼓励教师及其他具备教师资格的人员到乡村中小学任教,建立城镇中小学教师到乡村任教服务期制度。加强农村教师和校长的教育培训工作。

6. 实施“农村中小学现代远程教育计划”。

按照“总体规划、先行试点、重点突破、分步实施”的原则,争取用五年左右时间,使农村初中基本具备计算机教室,农村小学基本具备数字电视教学收视系统,农村小学教学点具备教学光盘播放设备和光盘资源,并初步建立远程教育系统运行管理保障机制。农村中小学现代远程教育计划要以地方投入为主,多渠道筹集经费,中央对中西部地区重点支持。

加强农村中小学现代远程教育,要致力于提高教育质量和效益。初步形成农村教育信息化的环境,持续向农村中小学提供优质教育教学资源,不断加强教师培训;整合农村各类资源,发挥农村学校作为当地文化中心和信息传播中心的作用,为“三教统筹”、农村科技推广和农村党员干部现代远程教育服务。

二、重点推进高水平大学和重点学科建设

建设世界一流大学和高水平大学是党和国家的重大决策，对于增强高等教育综合实力，提高我国国际竞争力具有重要的战略意义。今后五年要充分集成各方面资源，统筹协调学科建设、人才培养、科技创新、队伍建设和国际合作等各方面工作，深化改革，开拓创新，使重点建设高等学校和重点学科的水平显著提高，带动全国高等教育持续健康协调快速发展。

7. 继续实施“9 8 5 工程”和“2 1 1 工程”，努力建设一批高水平大学和重点学科。

继续实施“9 8 5 工程”，努力建设若干所世界一流大学和一批国际知名的高水平研究型大学。紧密结合国家创新体系建设，集成优质资源，创建一批高水平、开放式、国际化的科技创新平台和人文社会科学研究基地，造就学术大师和创新团队，使之在国际上占有一席之地，促进资源共享，为国家现代化建设作出重大贡献，全面提高学校的整体水平和综合实力。

继续实施“2 1 1 工程”，进一步以学科建设为核心，凝炼学科方向，汇聚学科队伍，构筑学科基地。提高重点建设高等学校的人才培养质量、科学研究水平和社会服务能力，成为国家和地方解决经济、科技和社会发展重大问题的基地。在全国范围内逐步形成布局合理、各具特色和优势的重点学科体系，使一批重点学科尽快达到国际先进水平。

8. 加大实施“高层次创造性人才计划”力度。

以“长江学者奖励计划”和“高等学校创新团队计划”为重点，实施“高层次创造性人才计划”，扶持创新团队的建设，加大对中青年学科带头人和学术骨干的培养力度，鼓励和支持优秀人才和优秀群体健康成长、建功立业。要善于利用国际国内两种人才资源，特别要面向世界积极引进优秀拔尖人才。高等学校要大力推进“人才强校”战略，制定和完善人才建设计划；积极营造更加有利的政策环境，努力构建吸引、培养和用好高层次创新人才的支持体系；探索人才组织新模式，以学科带头人核心凝聚学术队伍，紧密结合关键领域的前沿学科研究和国家重大现实问题研究，促进学科综合，开发配置人才资源。

9. 推进“研究生教育创新计划”。

推动研究生教育观念、体制和运行机制的创新，改革研究生选拔制度，推进学分制并调整修业年限，推行研究生培养导师负责制和研究生助研、助教和助管岗位制，推进培养成本分担制度改革。采取评选优秀博士学位论文、举办博士生学术论坛等各项措施，鼓励并资助研究生科研创新，促进研究生教育与生产劳动和社会实践紧密结合，提高研究生培养质量，促使拔尖创新人才脱颖而出。

10. 启动“高等学校科技创新计划”。

按照国家创新体系的总体布局，坚持面向科技前沿和现代化建设需要，加强科技创新平台建设。建设一批具有世界一流水平的国家实验室和国家技术创新中心，强化和新建一批重点实验室和军工科研基地。加大对重大科技项目的培植，加强自由探索和交叉学科研究。

坚持“发展高科技，实现产业化”的方针，强化和新建一批工程研究中心和高新技术产业化基地；完善大学科技园孵化功能及其支撑和服务体系；推进产学研紧密结合，增进高等学校与科研院所、企业的合作；着力解决关系国民经济、社会发展和国家安全的重大科技问题，加速科技成果向现实生产力的转化。

11. 实施“高等学校哲学社会科学繁荣计划”。

哲学社会科学研究对于建设社会主义物质文明、政治文明和精神文明具有重要意义。要加强新世纪学术带头人和学术新人的扶持培养。组织重大课题攻关,力争取得一批具有重大学术价值和社会影响的标志性成果。继续加强人文社会科学重点课程教材和研究基地建设。重点建设一批哲学社会科学实验室,积极培育学术精品和名刊,奖励具有重大学术价值和社会影响的基础研究成果和解决重大现实问题的应用研究成果。

三、实施“新世纪素质教育工程”

全面贯彻党的教育方针,以培养德智体美等全面发展的一代新人为根本宗旨,以培养学生的创新精神和实践能力为重点,继续全面实施素质教育。

1 2. 加强和改进学校德育工作。

要把弘扬和培育民族精神作为重要任务,纳入国民教育全过程。制定《弘扬和培育民族精神教育实施纲要》,深入开展爱国主义、集体主义和社会主义教育;贯彻《公民道德建设实施纲要》,加强诚信教育,落实中小学德育大纲、学生守则和日常行为规范。加强和改进中小学思想、政治、品德课程,促进学校教育、社会教育和家庭教育的有机结合,切实增强德育的实效性和感染力。加强维护国家统一和民族团结的教育,提高法制教育和国防教育的实效。加强各级各类学校的校园及周边环境综合治理,创建安全文明校园。

1 3. 深化基础教育课程改革。

基础教育课程改革是全面实施素质教育的核心环节。构建和完善新世纪基础教育课程体系,全面实施义务教育新课程,逐步推进普通高中新课程。深化中小学教学内容和教学方法改革,积极推进校本教研制度建设,加强中小学实验教学改革和技术课程实践基地的建设,充分发挥现代教育技术的作用;深化教材管理体制,完善中小学教材审查制度和教材选用监管制度;建立国家和省两级新课程的跟踪、监测、评估、反馈机制,加强对基础教育质量的监测。

1 4. 以全面推进素质教育为目标,加快考试评价制度改革。

完善小学升初中就近免试入学制度;积极探索以初中毕业生学业考试为基础、综合评价相结合的高中阶段招生办法改革;结合新课程的全面推进,深化高考内容改革;推进高考制度改革,进一步建立以统一考试为主、多元化考试和多样化选拔录取相结合,学校自我约束、政府宏观指导、社会有效监督的高等学校招生制度。完善高等学校招生网上远程录取系统和网上阅卷系统,建设招生信息化管理与服务平台。

1 5. 积极推进普通高中、学前教育和特殊教育的改革与发展。

多种形式积极发展普通高中教育,扩大规模,提高质量。加大对农村高中发展的支持力度,引导示范性高中建设,加快基础薄弱校的建设,扩大高中优质教育资源供给能力。

多渠道、多形式地发展幼儿教育,逐步建立以社区为基础的学前教育服务网络,加强幼儿教师队伍建设,提高幼儿教育质量。

积极发展特殊教育,切实依法保障残疾适龄人口的受教育权利。

1 6. 加强和改进学校体育和美育工作。

坚持健康第一的指导思想,在教育系统广泛深入开展群众性体育活动,大力增强青少年学生的体质、意志力和终生锻炼的自觉意识。推广《学生体质健康标准》,提高体育课程和课外活动的质量,建立学生体质健康监测体系。建立学校卫生安全责任制与监

测机制,做好饮食卫生管理与卫生防病工作。切实加强心理健康教育和青春期健康教育,加强学生安全教育、预防艾滋病教育和毒品预防教育。大力加强学校美育工作,优化学校艺术教育环境,提高艺术教育课程开课率和教学质量。

1 7. 加强语言文字规范化工作,优化国家通用语言文字的应用环境。

建设面向现代教育体系和社会语言文字应用的语言文字规范标准,加快国家通用语言文字和少数民族语言文字规范标准的制订、修订和测查认证工作,搭建高水平的语言文字基础平台,加强语言文字生活监测和社会咨询服务。依法加强语言文字评估、测试和推广工作,推进学校和社会语言文字应用的规范化。加强重点方言地区的普通话推广普及,强化少数民族汉语师资培训,加大对西部地区国家通用语言文字培训工作的扶持力度。

四、实施“职业教育与培训创新工程”

1 8. 大力发展职业教育,大量培养高素质的技能型人才特别是高技能人才。

技能型人才是推动技术创新和实现科技成果转化的重要力量。要加强高等职业技术学院和中等职业技术学校的建设,广泛开展岗位技能培训。要适应走新型工业化道路的要求,实施“制造业和现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训计划”,根据区域经济发展和劳动力市场的实际需要,促进产学紧密结合,共同建立技能型紧缺人才培养培训基地,加快培养大批现代化建设急需的技能型人才及软件产业实用型人才,特别是各级各类高技能人才。

1 9. 以就业为导向,大力推动职业教育转变办学模式。

以促进就业为目标,进一步转变高等职业技术学院和中等职业技术学校的办学指导思想,实行多样、灵活、开放的人才培养模式,把教育教学与生产实践、社会服务、技术推广结合起来,加强实践教学和就业能力的培养。加强与行业、企业、科研和技术推广单位的合作,推广“订单式”、“模块式”培养模式;探索针对岗位群需要的、以能力为本位的教学模式;面向市场,不断开发新专业,改革课程设置,调整教学内容;加强职业道德教育;大力加强“双师型”教师队伍建设,鼓励企事业单位专业技术、管理和有特殊技能的人员担任专任教师。推动就业准入制度和职业资格证书制度的实施,继续建设和培育一批示范性职业技术学校,建设大批实用高效的实习训练基地,开发大批精品专业和课程。

2 0. 大力发展多样化的成人教育和继续教育。

鼓励人们通过多种形式和渠道参与终身学习,加强学校教育和继续教育相互结合,进一步改革和发展成人教育,完善广覆盖、多层次的教育培训网络,逐步确立以学习者个人为主体、用人单位支持、政府予以必要资助的继续教育保障机制,建立对各种非全日制教育培训学分的认证及积累制度。

以更新知识和提高技能为重点,开展创建学习型企业、学习型组织、学习型社区和学习型城市的活动。充分发挥行业、企业的作用,加强从业人员、转岗和下岗人员的教育与培训。积极发展多样化的高中后和大学后继续教育,统筹各级各类资源,充分发挥普通高等学校、成人高等学校、广播电视大学和自学考试的作用,积极推进社区教育,形成终身学习的公共资源平台。大力发展现代远程教育,探索开放式的继续教育新模式。

五、实施“高等学校教学质量与教学改革工程”

2 1. 进一步深化高等学校的教学改革。

以提高高等教育人才培养质量为目的,进一步深化高等学校的培养模式、课程体系、教学内容和教学方法改革。改善高等学校基础课程教学,建设精品课程,改造和充实基础课教学实验室,进一步建设全国高等学校数字图书文献保障体系(CALIS)和全国高等学校实验设备与优质资源共享系统。鼓励名师讲授大学基础课程,评选表彰教学名师。建设一批示范教学基地和基础课程实验教学示范中心,强化生产实习、毕业设计等实践教学环节。高等学校应用学科专兼职教师队伍要更多地吸收具有实践经验的专家。改革大学公共英语教学,提高大学生的英语综合运用能力。以管理体制和学制改革为主线,提高我国高等医学教育的办学质量和培养层次。

2.2. 完善高等学校教学质量评估与保障机制。

健全高等学校教学质量保障体系,建立高等学校教学质量评估和咨询机构,实行以五年为一周期的全国高等学校教学质量评估制度。规范和改进学科专业教学质量评估,逐步建立与人才资格认证和职业准入制度挂钩的专业评估制度。加强高等学校教学质量评估信息系统建设,形成评估指标体系,建立教学状态数据统计、分析和定期发布制度。

六、实施“促进毕业生就业工程”

2.3. 健全毕业生就业工作的领导体制、运行机制、政策体系和服务体系。

进一步形成各级领导高度重视、中央有关部门通力合作、省级人民政府统筹协调、高等学校和中等职业技术学校目标责任明确的就业工作领导体制和运行机制。完善有利于毕业生就业和创业的政策框架体系,进一步拓宽就业渠道,推进毕业生就业市场与各类人才市场、劳动力市场的联网贯通,进一步发挥市场在毕业生人才配置中的基础性作用。大力加强毕业生就业服务体系建设,积极发挥社会中介组织的作用。全力建设和用好“就业网”,加速实现毕业生就业服务信息化。建立起更加科学规范的毕业生就业率、待业率公布制度以及相应的就业状况监测制度。

2.4. 面向就业需求,深化教育系统内外的各项改革。

切实将高等学校布局、发展规划、学科专业结构、办学评估、经费投入等方面工作与毕业生就业状况紧密挂钩。把就业率和就业质量作为衡量高等学校办学水平的重要指标之一。使80%以上的职业学校毕业生能够取得相关的职业资格证书,推广东、中、西部地区之间的职业教育合作项目,使培养培训与定向定岗就业紧密相连。各类高等学校和中等职业技术学校都要加强实践教学环节,密切与行业、企业和有关部门的联系,建立一批长期稳定的就业、创业和创新基地。加强对学生的职业指导和就业创业教育,推动就业观念的转变。采取相关政策,积极鼓励毕业生到西部、基层和祖国最需要的地方去建功立业,引导毕业生到中小企业和民营企业就业以及自主创业。

七、实施“教育信息化建设工程”

2.5. 加快教育信息化基础设施、教育信息资源建设和人才培养。

构建教育信息化公共服务体系,建设硬件、软件共享的网络教育公共服务平台。加快中国教育和科研计算机网(CERNET)和中国教育卫星宽带传输网(CEBSat)的升级扩容工程建设,积极参与新一代互联网和网格(China GRID)的建设,强化资源整合,加强地区网络建设和管理,建立健全服务体系及运行机制。加强高等学校校园网建设,创建国家级教育信息化应用支撑平台。加大涵盖各级各类教育的信息资源开发,形成多层次、多功能、交互式的国家教育资源服务体系。大力加强信息技术应用型人才培养,着力改革信息化人才培养模式,扩大培养规模,提高培养质量。

2.6. 全面提高现代信息技术在教育系统的应用水平。

加强信息技术教育,普及信息技术在各级各类学校教学过程中的应用,为全面提高教学和科研水平提供技术支持。建立网络学习与其他学习形式相互沟通的体制,推动高等学校数字化校园建设,推动网络学院的发展。开展高等学校科研基地的信息化建设,研究开发学校数字化实验与虚拟实验系统,创建网上共享实验环境。建立高等学校在校管理信息网络服务体系。

八、实施“高素质教师和管理队伍建设工程”

2 7. 全面推动教师教育创新,构建开放灵活的教师教育体系。

改革教师教育模式,将教师教育逐步纳入高等教育体系,构建以师范大学和其他举办教师教育的高水平大学为先导,专科、本科、研究生三个层次协调发展,职前职后教育相互沟通,学历与非学历教育并举,促进教师专业发展和终身学习的现代教师教育体系。起草《教师教育条例》,制定教师教育机构资质认证标准、课程标准和教师教育质量标准,建立教师教育质量保障制度。

2 8. 完善教师终身学习体系,加快提高教师和管理队伍素质。

实施“全国教师教育网络联盟计划”,促进“人网”、“天网”、“地网”及其他教育资源优化整合,发挥师范大学和其他举办教师教育高等学校的优势,共建共享优质教师教育课程资源,提高教师培训的质量水平。组织实施以新理念、新课程、新技术和师德教育为重点的新一轮教师全员培训,组织优秀教师高层次研修和骨干教师培训,不断提高在职教师的学历、学位层次和实施素质教育的能力。

强化学校管理人员培训,加快培养一大批高素质、高水平的中小学校长、高等学校管理骨干和教育行政领导,全面提高管理干部素质。将干部培训与终身教育结合起来,构建开放灵活的干部培训体系。

2 9. 进一步深化人事制度改革,积极推进全员聘任制度。

加强学校编制管理,按照“精干、高效”的要求,科学设置学校机构和岗位;实施教师资格制度。依照按需设岗、公开招聘、平等竞争、择优聘任、严格考核、合同管理的原则,推行中小学和中等职业学校教职工聘任制度,实行“资格准入、竞争上岗、全员聘任”。大力推进高等学校教师聘任制改革,提高新聘教师学历学位层次。深化学校内部分配制度改革,完善激励和约束机制。加强教师职业道德建设,将教师职业道德修养和教学实绩,作为选聘教师、评定专业技术职务资格和确定待遇的主要依据,实行优秀教师和优秀教学成果奖励制度。

在普通中小学和中等职业技术学校,全面推行校长聘任制和校长负责制,建立公开选拔、竞争上岗、择优聘任的校长选拔任用机制,健全校长考核、培训、激励、监督、流动等相关制度。在高等学校积极推进职员制度改革,建立管理人员职务职级系列,促进管理人员专业化。

九、加强制度创新和依法治教

3 0. 加强和改善教育立法工作,完善中国特色教育法律法规体系。

修订《义务教育法》、《教育法》、《教师法》、《高等教育法》和《学位条例》,适时起草《学校法》、《教育考试法》、《教育投入法》和《终身学习法》,研究制定有关教育行政法规,全面清理、修订教育部部门规章和规范性文件,适时制定符合实践需要的部门规章,积极推动各地制定配套性的教育法规、规章,力争用五至十年的时间形成较为完善的中国特色教育法律法规体系。

3 1. 切实转变政府职能，强化依法行政，促进决策与管理的科学化和民主化。

贯彻《行政许可法》，加快政府职能转变，改革教育行政审批制度，清理教育行政许可项目，建设相关配套制度，建立公共教育管理与服务体系。规范教育行政部门在政策制定、宏观调控和监督指导方面的职能，依法保障地方教育行政部门的教育统筹权和学校办学自主权。推进政务公开工作，加强教育电子政务系统建设。

增强各级教育行政部门依法行政的能力，完善教育行政执法责任制度，加强教育行政执法力度。健全重大决策的规则和程序，加强预案研究、咨询论证、社会公示、公众听证及民主监督的制度化建设，建立科学民主决策机制。加强教育科学研究，为教育改革与发展服务。

3 2. 健全教育督导与评估体系，保障教育发展与改革目标的实现。

坚持督政与督学相结合，实施对不同类型地区教育的分类督导评估，全面推动中等及以下学校的督导评估工作，建立对县级人民政府教育工作的督导评估机制，并将督导评估结果作为考核政绩和表彰奖励的重要依据。加强督导机构与队伍建设，完善督导和监测手段。

3 3. 推进教育管理体制变革，为教育发展提供制度保障。

完善中央和省级人民政府两级管理、以省级人民政府管理为主的高等教育管理体制。继续发挥中央和省级两级政府的积极性，发挥行业和企业积极性，加强高等学校共建工作，巩固结构调整的成果，促进学科的深度融合和优化发展。

逐步完善“在国务院领导下，分级管理、地方为主、政府统筹、社会参与”的职业教育管理体制，实行国务院领导下的职业教育工作部际联席会议制度，强化市（地）级人民政府的统筹责任，促进行业、企业和社会参与宏观管理。

深化和推进高等学校的后勤社会化改革，进一步完善和落实相关政策，理顺关系，强化管理。提高办学设施的使用效益。

3 4. 深化学校内部管理体制改革，探索建立现代学校制度。

继续深化学校内部管理体制改革，完善学校法人制度。高等学校要坚持和完善党委领导下的校长负责制，推进依法办学、民主治校、科学决策，健全学校的领导管理体制和民主监督机制。中小学要实行校长负责、党组织发挥政治核心作用、教代会参与管理与监督的制度。职业学校可建立由行业、企业代表组成的理（董）事会制度。积极推动社区、学生及家长对学校管理的参与和监督。

遵循“从严治教，规范管理”的原则，加强学校制度建设，逐步形成“自主管理、自主发展、自我约束、社会监督”的机制。建设“精简、高效”的学校管理机构，完善校务公开制度，深化人事制度和分配制度改革。

十、大力支持和促进民办教育持续健康协调快速发展

3 5. 认真贯彻《民办教育促进法》，积极鼓励和支持民办教育的发展。

民办教育是社会主义教育事业的组成部分，要遵循“积极鼓励、大力支持、正确引导、依法管理”的方针，依法保障民办学校权益；明确国家对于民办学校的扶持措施，落实相关优惠政策，加强政策引导；促进民办教育扩大办学规模，改善办学条件，提高办学质量，

增强办学实力；表彰奖励成绩突出的民办学校和教育机构；营造有利于民办教育自律、健康发展的环境，形成公办学校和民办学校优势互补、公平竞争、共同发展的格局。

3 6. 注重体制改革和制度创新，多种形式发展民办教育。

按照“积极发展、规范管理、改革创新”的原则，积极探索民办教育的多种实现形式。加强民办教育的规范与管理，建立防范风险机制。鼓励社会力量与普通高等学校按民办机制合作举办独立学院，实现社会创新活力、资金资源与现有优质教育资源的有机结合，有效拓展民办高等教育的发展空间。积极推进各级各类教育的体制改革和制度创新，凡符合国家有关法律法规的办学模式，均可大胆试验，使民办教育发展迈出更大的步伐。

十一、进一步扩大教育对外开放

3 7. 加强全方位、高层次的教育国际合作与交流。

把扩大教育对外开放、加强国际合作与交流作为国家教育战略的关键环节。实行“政府与民间并举、双边与多边并行、兼顾战略平衡、保证重点、注重实效”的方针，推进教育国际合作与交流向全方位、多领域、高层次发展。完善教育涉外政策法规和监管体制。与有关国家建立稳定的工作磋商机制，促进与外国的学历学位互认。进一步推动与境外高水平大学强强合作、强项合作，尤其在科研和高层次人才培养方面的实质性合作，贯彻《中外合作办学条例》，积极引进境外优质教育资源，促进高等教育和职业教育方面的合作办学。继续加强与联合国教科文组织等国际组织的合作。

3 8. 深化留学工作制度改革，扩大国际间高层次学生、学者交流。

进一步改革国家公派出国留学工作制度，紧密配合国家高等教育发展和科技创新，加强与国际上高水平高等学校和科研机构的合作，多方筹集留学基金，加大高层次创新人才和学术带头人的选派工作力度。进一步健全自费留学中介机构的资格认定、管理和监督措施，加强留学预警机制建设，加强对自费出国留学工作的引导和服务。加大“春晖计划”的实施力度，采取灵活多样的形式，吸引和支持优秀留学人才回国工作和为国服务。

实施中国教育品牌战略。按照“扩大规模、提高层次、保证质量、规范管理”的原则，积极创造条件，扩大来华留学生的规模。深化政府奖学金管理制度改革，完善外国留学生教学与生活管理制度。

3 9. 大力推广对外汉语教学，积极开拓国际教育服务市场。

积极实施“汉语桥工程”，加强境外“孔子中文学院”建设，大力推进网络和多媒体汉语教学项目，丰富对外汉语教学资源，全面推广汉语水平考试（HSK），培训对外汉语教学教师，推动各国教育机构开设汉语课程。加强其他中国特色学科和优势学科的对外教学工作，鼓励有条件的教育机构赴境外办学。

十二、改革和完善教育投入体制

4 0. 建立与公共财政体制相适应的教育财政制度，保证经费持续稳定增长。

教育是政府一项最重要的工作，教育投入是公共财政体制的重要内容，必须强化各级政府对教育投入的责任，以更大的精力、更多的财力发展教育。各级人民政府教育财政拨款的增长应当高于财政经常性收入的增长，并使按在校学生人数平均的教育费用逐步增长，保证教师工资和学生人均公用经费逐步增长。义务教育经费由政府承担，适当收取少量杂费；非义务教育的办学经费，以政府为主渠道，由政府、受教育者和社会共同分担。

逐步形成与社会主义市场经济体制相适应的、满足公共教育需求的、稳定和可持续发展的教育投入机制。

4 1. 拓宽经费筹措渠道，建立社会投资、出资和捐资办学的有效激励机制。

在非义务教育阶段，要合理确定政府和受教育者分担办学成本的比例，收费标准要与居民家庭承受能力相适应。要完善企业及公民个人向教育捐赠的税收优惠政策，探索企业合理分担职业教育经费的办法。扶持发展各种形式的公益性教育基金和信托基金，扩大彩票收益用于支持教育的份额。鼓励和支持学校开展勤工俭学、发展校办产业。积极鼓励和引导社会、企业和公民个人捐资助学、出资和投资办学。

4 2. 完善国家和社会资助家庭经济困难学生的制度。

以政府投入为主，进一步健全对家庭经济困难学生的助学体系。对义务教育阶段家庭经济困难的学生，要进一步完善和落实助学政策与措施。在高等学校，切实贯彻国家制定的奖学金、学生贷款、勤工助学、学费减免、特殊困难补助等资助困难学生的政策，大力推进国家助学贷款工作。继续动员和鼓励社会团体和个人对家庭经济困难学生，开展多种形式的资助活动。

4 3. 严格管理，不断提高教育经费的使用效益。

牢固树立勤俭办教育事业的思想和科学、规范的教育经费管理制度，进一步完善、规范各级各类学校收费政策，加强对教育经费的审计与监督，提高使用效益。对于中央本级财政资助的重点建设项目，要强化项目管理制度，建立行政、专家和社会中介机构相结合的项目评价系统。在逐年评价督查的基础上，实行与项目实效挂钩的滚动拨款制度和相应的激励机制。完善地方教育财政拨款制度。

十三、加强党的建设和思想政治工作

4 4. 加强和改进学校党的建设。

努力建设一支忠诚于党的教育事业、德才兼备、结构合理、高素质的高等学校领导干部队伍。加强思想建设、组织建设和作风建设，把高等学校领导班子建设成为坚强的领导集体。深入开展党员先进性教育，加强基层党组织建设。切实加强和改进在高等学校学生和青年教师中发展党员工作。加强学校共青团和少先队的工作。

4 5. 实施高等学校马克思主义理论课和思想品德课建设计划。

提高大学生的理论修养，深入推动邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想进教材、进课堂、进学生头脑。组织开展普通高等学校马克思主义理论课和思想品德课教育教学状况调查研究，更新和完善课程体系、教学内容和教学方法。实施高等学校马克思主义理论课和思想品德课立体化教材建设、优秀拔尖人才培养和骨干教师培训、教学资料信息化建设、社会实践基地建设计划，不断提高教育教学的质量和水平。

4 6. 增强高等学校思想政治工作的针对性、实效性和吸引力、感染力。

扩大高等学校思想政治教育覆盖面，强化对学生课余活动和生活的引导和管理。推进思想政治工作进公寓、进社团、进网络。加强学生素质教育和校园文化建设，提高大学生的思想道德素质、人文素质、科学素质和身体心理素质。深入开展大学生社会实践活动，积极推进大学生文化科技卫生“三下乡”、青年志愿者和社会公益劳动等活动。健全突发事件快速处置机制，维护高等学校稳定。

4 7. 抓好党风廉政及行风建设, 保证教育事业持续健康发展。

认真执行党风廉政建设责任制, 切实抓好教育系统党风廉政建设和反腐败各项任务的落实。坚持“标本兼治、综合治理”的方针, 坚决查处违法违纪案件, 逐步建立教育、制度、监督并重的预防和惩治腐败体系。努力加强教育系统行风建设, 坚决治理教育乱收费, 切实纠正招生、考试等方面的不正之风。

十四、构建和完善中国特色社会主义现代化教育体系

4 8. 努力建设和完善中国特色社会主义现代化教育体系。

中国特色社会主义现代化教育体系是现代国民教育体系和终身教育体系有机组成的整体。到 2020 年, 要全面普及九年义务教育, 基本普及高中阶段教育, 积极发展各类高等教育, 大力发展职业教育和成人教育, 形成体系完整、布局合理、发展均衡的现代国民教育体系和终身教育体系。

各级各类学校要准确定位, 因地制宜地制定学校发展战略规划、学科和师资队伍建设规划、校园规划。要统筹协调社会教育资源, 优化结构, 合理布局, 不断拓宽学校教育的服务功能和范围, 逐步完善有利于终身学习的教育培训制度, 为全民学习、终身学习开辟多种途径, 增强国民的就业能力、创新能力、创业能力。

4 9. 加大对西部地区、少数民族地区、革命老区和东北地区等老工业基地的教育支持力度, 促进东、中、西部地区教育协调发展。

大力发展少数民族地区教育事业。实施少数民族高层次骨干人才培养计划, 支持高等院校扩大定向招收少数民族学生和建设民族预科教育基地。加大经济发达地区和大城市对西部和少数民族地区教育的支援和支持力度, 继续加大“双语”教学及其改革的力度, 继续办好西藏中学班和内地新疆高中班。

在学校发展、财政投入、教师待遇、人才引进等方面向西部地区教育倾斜。继续支持西部每个省、自治区、直辖市重点办好一所较高水平大学, 支持高层次人才向西部地区高等学校流动, 进行合作交流。加强西部地区中小学师资队伍建设, 组织实施“大学生志愿服务西部计划”, 鼓励其他地区的教师和志愿者到西部地区中小学任教和服务。制定并落实教育支持东北地区等老工业基地振兴的政策措施。增强中部地区教育持续发展的能力, 支持东部发达地区率先实现教育现代化, 努力实现东、中、西部地区教育协调发展。

5 0. 立足全面建设小康社会目标, 研究制定《2020 年中国教育发展纲要》。

从全面建设小康社会的奋斗目标出发, 加强教育宏观思考和战略研究。研制《2020 年中国教育发展纲要》, 按照党的十六届三中全会提出的“五个统筹”和“五个坚持”的要求, 结合教育发展和改革的实际, 对重要战略机遇期的教育发展目标 and 改革趋势进行全局性、前瞻性的深入研究, 勾画中国特色社会主义现代化教育体系的蓝图。努力做到发展要有新思路, 改革要有新突破, 开放要有新局面, 各项工作要有新举措。(完)

21. 《教育部关于以就业为导向 深化高等职业教育改革的若干意见》（2004年4月2日）

Title: Some Advice on Further Higher Vocational Education Reform with Employment Purposes (The Ministry of Education, 2004b)

Source: Retrieved October 20, 2009 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/72/info13572.htm>

高等职业教育是我国高等教育体系的重要组成部分，也是我国职业教育体系的重要组成部分。近几年，高等职业教育呈现出前所未有的发展势头，高等职业院校数、在校生数和毕业生人数持续增长，其规模已占普通高等教育的一半左右。以就业为导向，切实深化高等职业教育改革，是满足我国社会发展和经济建设需要、促进高等职业教育持续健康发展、办人民满意教育的关键环节。为贯彻落实党的十六大和中央人才工作会议精神，进一步促进高等职业教育改革的深入开展，现提出以下几点意见：

一、坚持科学定位，明确高等职业院校办学方向。高等职业教育应以服务为宗旨，以就业为导向，走产学研结合的发展道路。高等职业院校要主动适应经济社会发展需要，以就业为导向确定办学目标，找准学校在区域经济和行业发展中的位置，加大人才培养模式的改革力度，坚持培养面向生产、建设、管理、服务第一线需要的“下得去、留得住、用得上”，实践能力强、具有良好职业道德的高技能人才。要扭转目前一些高等职业院校在高等职业教育中过多强调学科性的倾向，扭转一些学校盲目攀高升格倾向。要在全社会倡导并树立不同层次、不同类型学校都能办出一流教育的思想。所谓一流的教育，主要体现在先进的办学理念、先进的管理和服、优质的办学条件和培养出高质量人才上，最根本的标准是要培养出受社会欢迎的各类高质量人才。高等职业院校都应立足高等职业教育领域，以鲜明的办学特色、过硬的人才培养质量和较高的毕业生就业率赢得社会的认可和尊重。

二、紧密结合地方经济和社会需求，科学合理地调整和设置专业。专业设置是社会需求与高等职业教育教学工作紧密结合的纽带，是学校教学工作主动、灵活适应社会需求的关键环节。高等职业院校在调整和设置专业时，要认真开展市场调研，准确把握市场对各类人才的需求情况，根据学校的办学条件有针对性地调整和设置专业。省级教育行政部门应支持学校根据社会需要，按照技术领域和职业岗位（群）的实际要求灵活设置专业；同时，要将就业状况作为专业设置及其结构调整的依据，对就业率连续三年低于全省（自治区、直辖市）平均水平的专业，应减少或停止安排招生计划；对不符合市场和社会需要的专业应予以撤消。

三、以培养高技能人才为目标，加强教学建设和教学改革。培养高技能人才必须有“双师型”教师队伍作支撑，各高等职业院校要采取有效措施，推动学校的教师定期到企业学习和培训，增强实践能力。同时，要积极聘请行业、企业和社会中（含离退休人员）有丰富实践经验的专家或专业技术人员作为兼职教师。各地教育行政部门要根据高等职业教育的特点，在职称评定、教师聘任等方面单独制定适合“双师型”教师发展的评聘制度，为“双师型”教师队伍建设提供政策支持。要根据高技能人才培养的实际需要，借鉴国内外成功的高等职业教育经验，运用现代教育理念，改进理论教学，改革教学方法，重视现场教学和案例教学。学校要将职业道德教育与职业素质教育内容融入课程教学中，加强学生职业能力与职业养成教育。教材内容要紧密结合生产实际，并注意及时跟踪先进技术的发展。要特别重视高等职业院校实习实训条件的建设。各地教育行政部门要根据本地区的实际需要，认真制定本地区高等职业教育实训基地的整体建设规划，并采取有效措施认真落实规划内容。不断更新教学设施和仪器设备，保证学生有足够时间的、高质量的实际动手训练，切实提高学生的职业能力，满足高技能人才培养的需要。要在中心城市或高等职业院校比较集中的地区，创建一批起示范作用的高等职业教育实训基地，实现该地区职业教育的资源共享，担负该地区相应专业学生的实训、教师培养以及职业技能鉴定等任

务。2004年,各地应重点落实教育部等六部委共同启动的“国家技能型紧缺人才培养培训工程”和国家示范性软件职业技术学院建设工作,加快培养社会急需的高技能人才。

四、积极开展订单式培养,建立产学研结合的长效机制。产学研结合是高等职业教育发展的必由之路,要积极探索校企全程合作进行人才培养的途径和方式。高等职业院校要大力开展订单式培养,从专业设置与调整、教学计划制定与修改、教学实施、实习实训直至学生就业等方面,充分发挥企业和用人单位的作用。各省级教育行政部门要积极支持高等职业院校开展订单式培养,重点培育一批与本地支柱产业发展密切相关、在产学研结合方面特色突出、以订单式培养为特色的高等职业院校,每所高等职业院校都要形成一批以订单式培养为特色的专业。要重视地方政府在高等职业教育规划和发展中的统筹、协调等作用,有条件的地区可以根据需要组建机械、电子等不同类别、各具特色的“职教集团”,探索产学研结合发展高等职业教育的新道路。

五、大力推行“双证书”制度,促进人才培养模式创新。各地教育行政部门要主动与当地劳动、人事部门及相关行业厅(局)共同配合,在高等职业院校大力推进职业资格证书制度。认真落实劳动保障部、教育部、人事部《关于进一步推动职业学校实施职业资格证书制度的意见》(劳社部发[2002]21号),选择部分具备条件的高等职业院校的主体专业,推行学生毕业取得学历证书的同时,直接取得职业资格证书的试点工作。高等职业院校必须把培养学生动手能力、实践能力和可持续发展能力放在突出的地位,促进学生技能的培养。要依照国家职业分类标准及对学生就业有实际帮助的相关职业资格证书的要求,调整教学内容和课程体系,把职业资格证书课程纳入教学计划之中,将证书课程考试大纲与专业教学大纲相衔接,改进人才培养方案,创新人才培养模式,强化学生技能训练,使学生在获得学历证书的同时,顺利获得相应的职业资格证书,增强毕业生就业竞争能力。对就业形势不好的专业,学校应在学生毕业前半年,及时为学生调整专业方向,补充相关课程,强化职业技能培训,促进就业。对于毕业时未能落实工作单位的学生,在学生自愿的前提下,学校应在毕业后一段时间内对其组织职业技能培训,使其获得相应的职业资格证书,增强毕业生的就业竞争能力。2004年,各地教育行政部门要与当地劳动保障、人事部门及相关行业厅(局)共同配合,继续实施高等职业院校毕业生职业资格培训工程,力争80%以上有职业资格证书领域的高等职业院校毕业生都能取得“双证书”。2006年,这一比例要达到90%以上。

六、大力推进灵活的教学管理制度,引导学生自主创业。高等职业院校应根据本地区、本行业的人才需求状况以及职业技术与职业岗位的特点,以满足岗位(群)的能力、素质培养要求为标准,在各专业中推行弹性学制和以学分制为主要内容的灵活的教学管理制度。学校应积极开设“辅修专业”、“第二专业”或“双专业”以及系列实用课程等,允许学生在相关专业领域自主选择学习,以灵活的专业和课程设置,培养社会需要的复合型职业技术人才。积极鼓励学生自主创业。学校应开设创业课程,培养学生的创业意识,为学生自主创业提供实际锻炼的平台,并在管理制度等方面创造条件,促进他们成功创业。

七、积极进行高等职业教育两年制学制改革,加快高技能紧缺人才培养。为推动高等职业院校正确定位,加快高技能紧缺人才培养,要把高等职业教育的学制由三年逐步过渡为两年。要通过学制改革推动高等职业教育在课程体系和教学内容等方面的改革,突出职业教育的灵活、快捷和适应性强的特点。国家示范性软件职业技术学院建设单位、参与国家技能型紧缺人才培养工程的院校和中央广播电视大学的相关专业,要从2004年入学的新生开始,实施两年制试点。今后,凡新批准设立的高等职业院校原则上都实行两年学制。各省级教育行政部门也应积极组织开展高等职业教育两年制试点工作,取得经验后逐步推开。

八、以就业为导向,进一步完善高等职业教育人才培养工作水平评估制度。国家将建立五年一轮的评估制度。今后,高等职业院校每五年都要接受一次评估。毕业生的就业状

况将作为检验学校办学水平的核心指标，就业率较低的院校不能被评为良好和优秀。各省级教育行政部门应对办学水平高、评估结论为“优秀”的院校在跨省招生和灵活设置专业等方面给予积极支持，使优质的教育教学资源发挥更大的作用。各省级教育行政部门要认真执行《教育部关于进一步深化教育改革 促进高校毕业生就业工作的若干意见》（教学〔2003〕6号）精神，坚持学校办学“三个适度挂钩”的要求，即将就业工作与院校的事业发展、专业设置、评估结论相挂钩，推动高等职业院校以就业为导向，促进高等职业教育改革和发展。对就业率明显低于全国平均水平的省（自治区、直辖市），我部将在一段时间内对这些省（自治区、直辖市）审批设立的高等职业院校暂缓备案或不予备案，以督促重视对高等职业院校的投入，提高教育质量，促进就业。同时，要加强对高等职业教育的规范管理，特别是对一些非高等职业院校举办的名不符实的高等职业教育要进行整顿和清理。

九、加大宣传力度，在全社会树立高等职业教育主动服务于社会经济发展的良好形象。国家和省级人民政府将要陆续实施一批示范性高等职业院校、精品专业等项目。要加大对这些优秀成果的宣传力度，树立在人才培养和就业工作中的先进典型，以引导全国高等职业教育建设和改革的正确方向，增强社会对高等职业教育的了解和认可，促进高等职业院校毕业生就业。

十、各地教育行政部门要充分认识以就业为导向，深化高等职业教育改革对于促进我国经济和社会发展的重大意义，结合本地实际情况，认真贯彻落实本意见精神，并将改革进展情况及时报我部。

22. 《教育部等七部门关于进一步加强职业教育工作的若干意见》（2004年9月14日）

Title: Resolution on Further Emphasizing Vocational Education by Seven Ministries and Commissions (The Ministry of Education, et al., 2004)

Source: Retrieved December 19, 2007, from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/76/info13576.htm>

各省、自治区、直辖市人民政府，国务院各部委、各直属机构：

为贯彻党的十六大和全国人才工作会议精神，进一步落实《国务院关于大力推进职业教育改革与发展的决定》（国发〔2002〕16号，以下简称《决定》），认真实施国务院批转的《2003-2007年教育振兴行动计划》，更好地适应全面建设小康社会对高素质劳动者和高技能人才的迫切需要，经国务院同意，现对进一步加强职业教育工作提出如下意见。

一、认真实践“三个代表”重要思想，坚持科学发展观，大力推进职业教育快速持续健康发展

《决定》发布以来，各级政府和有关部门加强了对职业教育工作的领导和支持，以就业为导向改革与发展职业教育逐步成为社会共识，高等职业教育得到快速发展，中等职业教育出现逐步回升的良好势头，职业教育主动服务经济社会的意识明显增强。但总体上看，职业教育仍然是我国教育的薄弱环节，一些地方和部门在统筹人力资源开发中仍存在着忽视技能人才培养和使用的倾向，在统筹各类教育发展中仍存在着忽视职业教育的倾向，推进职业教育改革与发展的措施还不够有力。一方面生产服务一线技能人才特别是高技能人才严重短缺，广大劳动者的职业技能和创业能力与劳动力市场需求有较大差距；另一方面职业教育发展面临诸多困难，办学条件比较差，办学机制不够灵活，人才培养的数量、结构和质量还不能很好满足经济建设和社会发展的需要。当前和今后一个时期是职业教育发展的重要战略机遇期，我国全面建设小康社会，走新型工业化道路，推进城镇化，解决“三农”问题，提高产业竞争力，促进就业和再就业，都对提高劳动者素质、加快技能人才培养提出了迫切要求。尽快改变职业教育发展相对滞后的局面，切实发挥职业教育在经济社会发展中的基础作用，是一项具有战略意义的紧迫任务。

进一步加强职业教育工作，加快技能人才培养，全面提高劳动者素质，关系着我国劳动就业和社会保障事业的发展，关系着我国现代化建设的进程，关系着我国国际竞争力的提高，是贯彻“三个代表”重要思想的具体体现，符合最广大人民群众的根本利益。各地各部门要牢固树立科学发展观，认真实施科教兴国和人才强国战略，统筹职业教育与经济建设、劳动就业、人力资源开发协调发展，统筹职业教育与其他各类教育协调发展，统筹职业学校教育与职业培训协调发展，结合本地本部门的实际，因地制宜，采取有力措施，推进职业教育在新形势下快速持续健康发展。

从现在起到2007年，在高中阶段教育中，要加大结构调整工作力度，进一步扩大中等职业教育招生规模，使中等职业教育与普通高中教育的比例保持大体相当，在有条件的地方职业教育所占比例应该更高一些；在高等教育中，高等职业教育招生规模应占一半以上。要巩固和加强现有职业教育资源，促进职业院校办出特色，提高质量，中等职业学校不再升格为高等职业院校或并入高等学校，专科层次的职业院校不再升格为本科院校，教育部暂不再受理与上述意见相悖的职业院校升格的审批和备案。

二、坚持以就业为导向，增强职业教育主动服务经济社会发展的能力

要积极推动职业教育和培训从计划培养向市场驱动转变，从政府直接管理向宏观引导转变，从专业学科本位向职业岗位和就业为本位转变。职业院校要坚持以服务为宗旨，以就业为导向，面向社会、面向市场办学，深化办学模式和人才培养模式改革，努力提高职

业教育的质量和效益。根据社会需求设置专业、开发培训项目,推进精品专业或特色专业、精品课程和精品教材的建设,不断更新教学内容,增强职业教育的针对性和适应性。高等职业教育基本学制逐步以二年制为主,中等职业教育基本学制以三年制为主。积极推行选修制或学分制,逐步建立弹性学习制度。推动产教结合,加强校企合作,积极开展“订单式”培养。坚持以能力为本位,优化教学与训练环节,强化职业能力培养,高等职业教育专业实训时间应不少于半年,中等职业教育应为半年至一年。

职业院校要全面实施素质教育,加强学生思想道德建设。深入开展中华传统美德和革命传统教育,不断培育青少年学生的爱国情感和民族精神。努力把职业道德培养和职业能力培养紧密结合起来,培养学生爱岗敬业、诚实守信、办事公道、服务群众、奉献社会的精神和严谨求实的作风。注重加强德育实践活动,努力提高德育工作的针对性和实效性。加强创业教育和职业指导工作,引导学生转变就业观念,同时也要为学生提供就业服务,把毕业生就业率作为衡量职业院校办学质量和效益的重要指标。

逐步扩大职业院校在办学、招生、专业设置、学籍管理、课程开发与安排、教师聘任、教材选用等方面的自主权,提高其面向市场依法自主办学的活力。要加强人力资源能力建设,更加重视开展在职人员的岗位培训、下岗失业人员再就业培训、农村劳动力培训和各种形式的社会化培训,努力提高广大从业人员的就业能力和创业能力。要积极开展面向残疾人的职业教育和培训。

强化市(地)政府统筹职业教育的作用,整合和充分利用现有各种职业教育资源,打破部门界限和学校类型界限,优化职业院校布局结构。根据区域经济社会发展和教育发展的实际需要,每个县要重点办好一所中等职业技术学校或职业教育中心,并把县级中等职业技术学校或职业教育中心建设放到与普通高中学校建设同等重要的位置;每个市(地)原则上要重点办好一所高等职业技术学院和若干所中等职业技术学校。要充分发挥骨干职业院校的带动作用,探索以骨干职业院校为龙头、带动其他职业学校和培训机构参加的规模化、集团化、连锁式发展模式。

三、切实加快技能人才培养,为新型工业化提供人力资源支持

各地方和行业部门要结合区域、行业发展和劳动力市场的实际需要,制定和实施技能人才培养培训规划。认真实施教育部等六部门推进的“职业院校制造业与现代服务业技能型紧缺人才培养培训计划”,到2007年在数控技术应用、汽车运用与维修、计算机应用与软件技术和护理等四个专业领域共培养毕业生100万人,共提供短期技能提高培训300万人次。认真实施劳动保障部等部门推进的“国家高技能人才培训工程”和“三年五十万新技师培养计划”。

在技能人才的培养培训中,要充分发挥企业、职业院校和各类培训机构的作用,通过职业院校培养、企业岗位培训、名师带徒、个人岗位提高相结合的方式,加快培养企业急需的技术技能型人才、复合技能型人才以及高新技术产业发展需要的知识技能型人才,推动技能人才队伍的整体建设,使技能人才特别是高技能人才的数量和所占比例有较大增加和提高,努力缓解劳动力市场技能人才紧缺状况。

四、大力加强农村职业教育,为解决“三农”问题提供服务

继续推进农科教结合和“三教统筹”。地方政府要加强统筹,促进农业、科技和教育部门发挥各自优势,把农业技术推广、科技开发和教育培训紧密结合起来,积极为农业和农村经济社会发展服务。要统筹农村基础教育、职业教育和成人教育的发展,发挥县级中等职业技术学校或职业教育中心的龙头作用,有效整合并充分利用农村中小学、乡镇成人文化技术学校、农业广播电视学校和农业推广、培训机构资源,大力开展农民实用技术培训。继续组织实施“绿色证书培训工程”和“青年农民科技培训工程”,造就适应农业结

构调整和农业产业化经营需要的新型农民和技术骨干，加快农业科技的进村入户。采取有力措施，加强对少数民族地区、革命老区、边疆地区和特困地区贫困人口的实用技术培训，帮助他们摆脱贫困状况。重视农村基层干部的培养培训工作，依托各类高等院校特别是高等职业院校、广播电视大学以及高等教育自学考试等形式，努力实现村村都有一个大学生的目标。在实施“大学生西部志愿者计划”中，要安排一定比例的名额到西部职业学校任教。

开展农村劳动力转移培训是加快农村劳动力转移、促进农民增收和解决“三农”问题的重要措施。要认真实施国务院办公厅批转的农业部等六部门《2003～2010年全国农民工培训规划》、“农村劳动力转移培训阳光工程”和国务院批转的《2003-2007年教育振兴行动计划》提出的“农村劳动力转移培训计划”，努力做好农村劳动力转移培训工作。进一步扩大职业院校面向农村的招生规模，充分发挥城市对农村、东部对西部的带动和辐射作用，继续加强职业教育对口支援和帮扶工作，做好城市与农村、东部与西部合作办学、联合招生工作，并积极帮助农村和西部地区学生和城市和东部地区就业。有关部门要重点联系一批劳动力输出较多的地区，认真总结并推广典型做法和经验。要加大对农民工的培训力度，支持和鼓励行业企业建立多种形式的农民工学校，同时充分利用社区内各种教育资源，开展面向农民工的教育培训。

各级政府要扶持农村职业教育和成人教育、农村劳动力转移培训、城乡合作与东西部联合办学，特别是对在相关工作中成绩显著的职业院校、职业培训机构和成人学校给予奖励。西部和农村开发建设项目应安排配套资金用于相关领域的人力资源开发。使用农民工的单位负有培训本单位所用农民工的责任，所需经费从职工教育培训经费中列支。

五、深化办学体制改革，促进多元办学格局的形成

各级政府要在发展职业教育中继续发挥主导作用，努力办好公办职业院校。行业企业要继续办好职业学校和培训机构，鼓励行业企业与职业学校实行合作办学，建立行业职业教育咨询、协调机制。强化企业自主培训的功能，努力加强职工在岗培训和下岗失业人员培训。

民办职业教育应该成为我国职业教育体系的重要组成部分。要加快发展民办职业教育，积极吸引民营资本为发展职业教育服务，充分发挥民办职业教育贴近市场、机制灵活和运行高效的特点，促进职业教育观念、体制和机制的创新，更好地满足经济社会发展和人民群众对职业教育多层次、多样化的需求。认真实施《民办教育促进法》，对民办职业学校应当按照公益事业用地及建设的有关规定给予优惠，并保护民办职业学校教职工和学生的合法权利，要在学校评估、实训基地建设等方面与公办职业学校一视同仁。

要深化公办职业院校体制改革，积极推进公办职业院校运行机制创新，真正形成面向社会、面向市场自主办学的实体。鼓励公办职业院校大胆引进竞争机制，推动公办职业院校重组和整合，探索与企事业单位、社会团体、民办职业学校及个人合作方式，实行多元投资并举的办学体制。在推进职业院校的重组和整合中，要防止公办职业教育资源的流失。

积极推进职业教育领域的中外合作办学，认真贯彻《中外合作办学条例》，学习和借鉴国际上发展职业教育的有益经验和办学理念，引进国际优质职业教育资源，拓展国际招生和就业市场，扩大职业教育领域的国际交流与合作。

六、完善就业准入制度和职业资格证书制度，积极推进职业院校学生职业资格认证工作

认真执行《劳动法》和《职业教育法》，坚持“先培训、后就业”、“先培训、后上岗”的原则，进一步完善就业准入制度。各级劳动保障等有关部门要加强劳动执法监察，对违法行为进行纠正并给予处罚。进一步完善国家职业资格证书制度，加快开发国家职业标准，并及时进行调整和更新，形成能够反映经济发展和劳动力市场需要的动态国家职业标准体系。建立职业技能鉴定质量监控制度，加强规范化管理。要根据下岗失业人员、进城就业的农民工的实际需要开展鉴定工作，做好相关服务。

要充分发挥职业院校在实施职业资格证书制度中的作用，积极推进职业院校学生职业资格认证工作。按照统筹规划、合理布局、发挥优势的原则，各地要新确定一批具备条件的职业院校建立职业技能鉴定所（站）。劳动保障、人事、教育以及有关部门要在各自职责范围内，对职业院校毕业生取得相关职业资格证书工作加强指导、提供方便。要做好职业资格认证与职业院校专业设置的对接服务，加强专业教育相关课程内容与职业标准的相互沟通与衔接，教学内容能够覆盖国家职业资格标准要求的专业，学生技能鉴定可与学校教学考核结合起来，避免重复考核。国家级重点职业学校以及少数教学质量高、社会声誉好的省级重点中等职业学校和高等职业学校的主体专业，经相关部门认定，其毕业生参加理论和技能操作考核合格并取得职业学校学历证书者，可视同职业技能鉴定合格，取得相应的职业资格证书。有关部门要按照《决定》的要求，抓紧组织对职业学校主体专业的认定工作。要根据中外合资企业、外资企业劳动用工和国际劳务市场的要求，积极引进国内急需、在国际上广泛认可的职业资格证书以及课程体系。

七、加快职业教育实训基地建设，切实提高学生职业技能

加强职业教育实训基地建设是提高职业教育质量、解决技能人才培养“瓶颈”的关键措施。认真落实教育部、财政部关于加强职业教育实训基地建设的意见，切实改善职业院校的实训条件，力争到2007年，分期分批在重点专业领域建成一批条件较好、专业种类齐全、适应技能人才培养需要的实训基地。实训设备的配置要与企业生产技术水平相适应，以通用、实用为原则，重点解决好数量不足、实习工位短缺等问题，为学生提供足够时间的高质量的实际动手训练机会。要不断提高职业教育装备水平和现代教育技术水平，促进职业教育的现代化建设。

职业教育实训基地建设要统筹规划，合理布局，重视发挥现有职业教育资源的作用，与近年来中央财政支持的示范性职业院校建设相结合，使前期投入发挥更大效益，要努力实现区域内中、高等职业院校和培训机构对实训基地的共享。实训基地要建立自主发展的新机制，不仅完成教学实训任务，还应主动面向市场开展培训和技术服务。实训基地建设中要注意发挥市场机制的作用，调动社会各方面力量共同参与，多渠道筹集建设经费，实行政府、企业、院校和社会培训机构共建共管。

八、深化职业院校人事制度改革，加强“双师型”教师队伍建设

深化职业院校人事制度改革，积极推进教师及其他专业技术人员、管理人员、工勤人员的聘用（任）制度，促进人才合理流动，优化教师队伍。有关部门要按照国务院办公厅转发中央编办、教育部、财政部《关于制定中小学教职工编制标准的意见》（国办发〔2001〕74号），抓紧制定和实施职业学校和成人学校教职工编制标准。人事、劳动保障部门要积极为职业院校招聘人才提供服务，通过实行固定岗位与流动岗位相结合、专职与兼职相结合的设岗和用人办法，指导和支持职业院校，面向社会公开招聘具有丰富实践经验的专业技术人员和高技能人才，担任专业教师和实习指导教师。对于到职业院校担任教师的专业技术人员、高级工和技师可按照相关专业技术职务条例的要求评聘教师职务，实行聘任制度和合同管理，享受合同规定的相关待遇。地方人事、教育、劳动保障等有关部门要按照相关教师职务试行条例的要求，制定符合实际需要的各类职业院校教师职务评聘办法。职业院校中专业实践性较强的专业教师，可按照相应的专业技术职务系列条例的规

定,再评聘第二个专业技术资格,也可根据有关规定取得相应的职业资格证书,促进“双师型”教师队伍建设。要深化职业院校教职工分配制度改革,把教职工收入与学校发展、所聘岗位以及个人工作绩效挂钩,调动教职工积极性。

要建立符合职业教育特点的教师继续教育进修和企业实践制度。职业院校专业教师每年脱产接受继续教育的时间应不少于规定的学时数,每两年必须有两个月以上时间到企业或生产服务一线进行实践,并作为教师提职、晋级的必要条件,其他教师和管理人员也应定期到企业或生产服务一线进行实践和调研。要加强职业教育师资培养培训基地建设,扩大专业教师培训和在职攻读硕士和博士学位的规模。各级教育行政部门要会同相关部门制定本地区职业教育师资队伍建设的整体规划和相关配套措施。

九、多渠道增加投入,为职业教育的改革与发展提供坚实的条件保障

认真落实《职业教育法》和《决定》中对增加职业教育经费投入的要求,逐步建立政府、受教育者、用人单位和社会共同分担、多种所有制并存和多渠道增加职业教育经费投入的新机制。各级政府要增加用于发展职业教育的投入,确保公办职业学校教师工资按时足额发放,并鼓励职业院校更新实习设备、改善教学实验设施,特别是加强职业院校共享平台的建设和重点专业的建设。省级政府要制定本地区职业院校学生生均经费标准,并督促职业院校举办者按标准投入经费。金融机构要以信贷方式支持发展职业教育,政府部门根据需要可以为职业院校提供贷款贴息。要进一步落实《决定》中关于按照企业职工工资总额的1.5%~2.5%足额提取教育培训经费的规定,保证经费专项用于职工特别是一线职工的教育和培训。在政府增加职业教育经费投入的同时,受教育者也要承担一定比例的教育费用。职业院校的学费收入要全额用于院校的发展,各有关部门不得用其冲抵正常的拨款,也不得以任何理由进行截留、调拨或划转。要积极探索吸收国(境)外资金和民间资本发展职业教育和培训的途径和机制。

中央财政安排职业教育专项经费,主要通过“以奖代补”等方式引导和支持实训基地建设。国家发展改革委员会根据职业教育发展实际需要,统筹安排资金继续支持职业教育发展,重点支持中西部地区市(地级)、县级中等职业技术学校或职业教育中心的建设。国家和地方安排的扶贫资金都要不断加大对贫困地区农村劳动力培训的投入力度。地方各级财政要增加职业教育专项经费,在安排农村科技开发经费和技术推广经费要安排一部分农村劳动力培训经费。职业教育的专项经费投入,主要采取奖励、直接补助和资助学生等方式。加强对经费使用的管理,提高资金的使用效益。各级政府要通过奖学金、助学金、贷学金和培训费补贴等多种形式,对家庭经济困难群体及其子女接受职业教育和培训提供帮助,鼓励行业企业、社会团体和公民个人捐资助学。

十、加强领导,营造发展职业教育的良好社会氛围

各级政府要进一步加强对职业教育工作的领导,切实承担起发展职业教育的责任,统筹规划,分类指导,依法推进职业教育的改革与发展。国务院批准建立的职业教育工作部际联席会议制度,统筹协调全国职业教育工作,研究解决职业教育工作中的重大问题。县级以上地方人民政府也要建立相应的职业教育部门联席会议制度,形成有关部门分工协作、齐抓共管的工作机制。各级政府要把职业教育工作列入年度工作报告的重要内容,向人大、政协报告职业教育工作,并接受检查和指导。要把发展职业教育列入政府业绩考核重要内容,政府教育督导部门要加强对职业教育工作的督导。要加强对职业院校和培训机构的评估检查。

提高生产服务一线技能人才特别是高技能人才的经济收入。建立优秀技能人才政府津贴制度,将技能人才与科学和工程技术人才同等对待,提高其社会地位和待遇。要定期开展职业技能竞赛活动,对优胜者给予相应的奖励,认定其相应的职业资格。各级政府应对职业教育工作成绩突出的单位和优秀教师,按有关规定进行奖励表彰。大力宣传优秀技能

人才和高素质劳动者在社会主义现代化建设中的重要贡献，大力宣传职业教育的先进典型和先进人物，在全社会弘扬“三百六十行、行行出状元”的风尚，营造有利于职业教育发展和技能人才培养与使用的良好环境。

教育部
人事部

国家发展改革委
劳动保障部

财政部
农业部
国务院扶贫办

二〇〇四年九月十四日

23. 《关于大力发展职业教育的决定》（2005 年 10 月 28 日）

Title: Resolution on Energetically Developing Vocational Education (The State Council, 2005)

Source: Retrieved August 24, 2008, from http://www.gov.cn/zwgg/2005-11/09/content_94296.htm

各省、自治区、直辖市人民政府，国务院各部委、各直属机构：

2002 年全国职业教育工作会议以来，各地区、各部门认真贯彻《国务院关于大力推进职业教育改革与发展的决定》（国发[2002]16 号），加强了对职业教育工作的领导和支持，以就业为导向改革与发展职业教育逐步成为社会共识，职业教育规模进一步扩大，服务经济社会的能力明显增强。但从总体上看，职业教育仍然是我国教育事业的薄弱环节，发展不平衡，投入不足，办学条件比较差，办学机制以及人才培养的规模、结构、质量还不能适应经济社会发展的需要。为了进一步贯彻落实《中华人民共和国职业教育法》和《中华人民共和国劳动法》，适应全面建设小康社会对高素质劳动者和技能型人才的迫切要求，促进社会主义和谐社会建设，现就大力发展职业教育作出如下决定：

一、落实科学发展观，把发展职业教育作为经济社会发展的重要基础和教育工作的战略重点

（一）大力发展职业教育，加快人力资源开发，是落实科教兴国战略和人才强国战略，推进我国走新型工业化道路、解决“三农”问题、促进就业再就业的重大举措；是全面提高国民素质，把我国巨大人口压力转化为人力资源优势，提升我国综合国力、构建和谐社会的的重要途径；是贯彻党的教育方针，遵循教育规律，实现教育事业全面协调可持续发展的必然要求。在新形势下，各级人民政府要以邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想为指导，落实科学发展观，把加快职业教育、特别是加快中等职业教育发展与繁荣经济、促进就业、消除贫困、维护稳定、建设先进文化紧密结合起来，增强紧迫感和使命感，采取强有力措施，大力推动职业教育快速健康发展。

（二）明确职业教育改革发展的目标。进一步建立和完善适应社会主义市场经济体制，满足人民群众终身学习需要，与市场需求和劳动就业紧密结合，校企合作、工学结合，结构合理、形式多样，灵活开放、自主发展，有中国特色的现代职业教育体系。

“十一五”期间，继续完善“政府主导、依靠企业、充分发挥行业作用、社会力量积极参与，公办与民办共同发展”的多元办学格局和“在国务院领导下，分级管理、地方为主、政府统筹、社会参与”的管理体制。

到 2010 年，中等职业教育招生规模达到 800 万人，与普通高中招生规模大体相当；高等职业教育招生规模占高等教育招生规模的一半以上。“十一五”期间，为社会输送 2500 多万名中等职业学校毕业生，1100 多万名高等职业院校毕业生。各种形式的职业培训进一步发展，每年培训城乡劳动者上亿人次，使我国劳动者的素质得到明显提高。职业教育办学条件普遍改善，师资队伍建设进一步加强，质量效益明显提高。

二、以服务社会主义现代化建设为宗旨，培养数以亿计的高素质劳动者和数以千万计的高技能专门人才

（三）职业教育要为我国走新型工业化道路，调整经济结构和转变增长方式服务。实施国家技能型人才培养培训工程，加快生产、服务一线急需的技能型人才的培养，特别是现代制造业、现代服务业紧缺的高素质高技能专门人才的培养。各地区、各部门要根据区域经济和行业发展需要，制订地方和行业技能型人才培养规划。

（四）职业教育要为农村劳动力转移服务。实施国家农村劳动力转移培训工程，促进农村劳动力合理有序转移和农民脱贫致富，提高进城农民工的职业技能，帮助他们在城镇稳定就业。

（五）职业教育要为建设社会主义新农村服务。继续强化农村“三教”统筹，促进“农科教”结合。实施农村实用人才培训工程，充分发挥农村各类职业学校、成人文化技术学校以及各种农业技术推广培训机构的作用，大范围培养农村实用型人才和技能型人才，大面积普及农业先进实用技术，大力提高农民思想道德和科学文化素质。

（六）职业教育要为提高劳动者素质特别是职业能力服务。实施以提高职业技能为重点的成人继续教育和再就业培训工程，在企业中建立工学结合的职工教育和培训体系，面向在职职工开展普遍的、持续的文化教育和技术培训，加快培养高级工和技师，建设学习型企业。职业院校和培训机构要为就业再就业服务，面向初高中毕业生、城镇失业人员、农村转移劳动力，开展各种形式的职业技能培训和创业培训，提高他们的就业能力、工作能力、职业转换能力以及创业能力。大力发展社区教育、远程教育，通过自学考试和举办夜校、周末学校等多种形式满足人民群众多样化的学习需求。建立职业教育与其他教育相互沟通和衔接的“立交桥”，使职业教育成为终身教育体系的重要环节，促进学习型社会建立。

三、坚持以就业为导向，深化职业教育教学改革

（七）推进职业教育办学思想的转变。坚持“以服务为宗旨、以就业为导向”的职业教育办学方针，积极推动职业教育从计划培养向市场驱动转变，从政府直接管理向宏观引导转变，从传统的升学导向向就业导向转变。促进职业教育教学与生产实践、技术推广、社会服务紧密结合，积极开展订单培养，加强职业指导和创业教育，建立和完善职业院校毕业生就业和创业服务体系，推动职业院校更好地面向社会、面向市场办学。

（八）进一步深化教育教学改革。根据市场和社会需要，不断更新教学内容，改进教学方法。合理调整专业结构，大力发展面向新兴产业和现代服务业的专业，大力推进精品专业、精品课程和教材建设。加快建立弹性学习制度，逐步推行学分制和选修制。加强职业教育信息化建设，推进现代教育技术在教育教学中的应用。把学生的职业道德、职业能力和就业率作为考核职业院校教育教学工作的重要指标。逐步建立有别于普通教育的，具有职业教育特点的人才培养、选拔与评价的标准和制度。

（九）加强职业院校学生实践能力和职业技能的培养。高度重视实践和实训环节教学，继续实施职业教育实训基地建设计划，在重点专业领域建成 2000 个专业门类齐全、装备水平较高、优质资源共享的职业教育实训基地。中央财政职业教育专项资金，以奖励等方式支持市场需求大、机制灵活、效益突出的实训基地建设。进一步推进学生获取职业资格证书工作。取得职业院校学历证书毕业生，参加与所学专业相关的中级职业技能鉴定时，免除理论考核，操作技能考核合格者可获得相应的职业资格证书。到 2010 年，省级以上重点中等职业学校和有条件的高等职业院校都要建立职业技能鉴定机构，开展职业技能鉴定工作，其学生考核合格后，可同时获得学历证书和相应的职业资格证书。

（十）大力推行工学结合、校企合作的培养模式。与企业紧密联系，加强学生的生产实习和社会实践，改革以学校和课堂为中心的传统人才培养模式。中等职业学校在校学生最后一年要到企业等用人单位顶岗实习，高等职业院校学生实习实训时间不少于半年。建立企业接收职业院校学生实习的制度。实习期间，企业要与学校共同组织好学生的相关专业理论教学和技能实训工作，做好学生实习中的劳动保护、安全等工作，为顶岗实习的学

生支付合理报酬。逐步建立和完善半工半读制度,在部分职业院校中开展学生通过半工半读实现免费接受职业教育的试点,取得经验后逐步推广。

(十一)积极开展城市对农村、东部对西部职业教育对口支援工作。要把发展职业教育作为城市与农村、东部与西部对口支援工作的重要内容。各地区要加强统筹协调,把职业教育对口支援工作与农村劳动力转移、教育扶贫、促进就业紧密结合起来。要充分利用东部地区和城市优质职业教育资源和就业市场,进一步推进东西部之间、城乡之间职业院校的联合招生、合作办学。实行更加灵活的学制,有条件地方的职业学校可以采取分阶段、分地区的办学模式,学生前1至2年在西部地区和农村学习,其余时间在东部地区和城市学习。鼓励东部和城市对西部和农村的学生跨地区学习减免学费,并提供就业帮助。

(十二)把德育工作放在首位,全面推进素质教育。坚持育人为本,突出以诚信、敬业为重点的职业道德教育。确定一批职业教育德育工作基地,选聘一批劳动模范、技术能手作为德育辅导员。加强职业院校党团组织建设,积极发展学生党团员。要发挥学校教育、家庭教育和社会教育的作用,为学生健康成长创造良好社会环境。

四、加强基础能力建设,努力提高职业院校的办学水平和质量

(十三)建立和完善遍布城乡、灵活开放的职业教育和培训网络。在合理规划布局、整合现有资源的基础上,每个市(地)都要重点建设一所高等职业技术学院和若干所中等职业学校。每个县(市、区)都要重点办好一所起骨干示范作用的职教中心(中等职业学校)。乡镇要依托中小学、农民文化技术学校及其他培训机构开展职业教育和培训。社区要大力开展职业教育和培训服务。企业要建立健全现代企业培训制度。

(十四)加强县级职教中心建设。继续实施县级职教中心专项建设计划,国家重点扶持建设1000个县级职教中心,使其成为人力资源开发、农村劳动力转移培训、技术培训与推广、扶贫开发 and 普及高中阶段教育的重要基地。各地区要安排资金改善县级职教中心办学条件。

(十五)加强示范性职业院校建设。实施职业教育示范性院校建设计划,在整合资源、深化改革、创新机制的基础上,重点建设高水平的培养高素质技能型人才的1000所示范性中等职业学校和100所示范性高等职业院校。大力提升这些学校培养高素质技能型人才的能力,促进他们在深化改革、创新体制和机制中起到示范作用,带动全国职业院校办出特色,提高水平。2010年以前,原则上中等职业学校不升格为高等职业院校或并入高等学校,专科层次的职业院校不升格为本科院校。

(十六)加强师资队伍建设。实施职业院校教师素质提高计划,地方各级财政要继续支持职业教育师资培养培训基地建设和师资培训工作。建立职业教育教师到企业实践制度,专业教师每两年必须有两个月到企业或生产服务一线实践。制定和完善职业教育兼职教师聘用政策,支持职业院校面向社会聘用工程技术人员、高技能人才担任专业课教师或实习指导教师。加强“双师型”教师队伍建设,职业院校中实践性较强的专业教师,可按照相应专业技术职务试行条例的规定,申请评定第二个专业技术资格,也可根据有关规定申请取得相应的职业资格证书。

五、积极推进体制改革与创新,增强职业教育发展活力

(十七)推动公办职业学校办学体制改革与创新。公办职业学校要积极吸纳民间资本和境外资金,探索以公有制为主导、产权明晰、多种所有制并存的办学体制。推动公办职业学校与企业合作办学,形成前校后厂(场)、校企合一的办学实体。推动公办职业学校资

源整合和重组，走规模化、集团化、连锁化办学的路子。要发挥公办职业学校在职业教育中的主力军作用。

（十八）深化公办职业学校以人事分配制度改革为重点的内部管理体制的改革。进一步落实职业院校的办学自主权。中等职业学校实行校长负责制和聘任制，高等职业院校实行党委领导下的校长负责制和任期制。全面推行教职工全员聘用制和岗位管理制度，建立能够吸引人才、稳定人才、合理流动的制度。深化内部收入分配改革，将教职工收入与学校发展、所聘岗位及个人贡献挂钩，调动教职工积极性。

（十九）大力发展民办职业教育。贯彻落实《中华人民共和国民办教育促进法》及其实施条例，把民办职业教育纳入职业教育发展的总体规划。加大对民办职业教育的支持力度，制定和完善民办学校建设用地、资金筹集的相关政策和措施。在师资队伍建设、招生和学生待遇等方面对民办职业院校与公办学校要一视同仁。依法加强对民办职业院校的管理，规范其办学行为。扩大职业教育对外开放，借鉴国外有益经验，积极引进优质资源，推进职业教育领域中外合作办学，努力开拓职业院校毕业生国（境）外就业市场。

六、依靠行业企业发展职业教育，推动职业院校与企业的密切结合

（二十）企业要强化职工培训，提高职工素质。要继续办好已有职业院校，企业可以联合举办职业院校，也可以与职业院校合作办学。企业有责任接受职业院校学生实习和教师实践。对支付实习学生报酬的企业，给予相应税收优惠。

（二十一）要认真落实“一般企业按照职工工资总额的1.5%足额提取教育培训经费，从业人员技术要求高、培训任务重、经济效益较好的企业，可按2.5%提取”的规定，足额提取教育培训经费，主要用于企业职工特别是一线职工的教育和培训。企业新上项目都要安排员工技术培训经费。

（二十二）行业主管部门和行业协会要在国家教育方针和政策指导下，开展本行业人才需求预测，制订教育培训规划，组织和指导行业职业教育与培训工作；参与制订本行业特有工种职业资格标准、职业技能鉴定和证书颁发工作；参与制订培训机构资质标准和从业人员资格标准；参与国家对职业院校的教育教学评估和相关管理工作。

七、严格实行就业准入制度，完善职业资格证书制度

（二十三）用人单位招录职工必须严格执行“先培训、后就业”、“先培训、后上岗”的规定，从取得职业学校学历证书、职业资格证书和职业培训合格证书的人员中优先录用。要进一步完善涉及人民生命财产安全的相关职业的准入办法。劳动保障、人事和工商等部门要加大对就业准入制度执行情况的监察力度。对违反规定、随意招录未经职业教育或培训人员的用人单位给予处罚，并责令其限期对相关人员进行培训。有关部门要抓紧制定完善就业准入的法规和政策。

（二十四）全面推进和规范职业资格证书制度。加强对职业技能鉴定、专业技术人员职业资格评价、职业资格证书颁发工作的指导与管理。要尽快建立能够反映经济发展和劳动力市场需要的职业资格标准体系。

八、多渠道增加经费投入，建立职业教育学生资助制度

（二十五）各级人民政府要加大对职业教育的支持力度，逐步增加公共财政对职业教育的投入。各级财政安排的职业教育专项经费，重点支持技能型紧缺人才专业建设，职业

教育师资培养培训,农业和地矿等艰苦行业、中西部农村地区和少数民族地区的职业教育和成人教育发展。省级政府应当制订本地区职业院校学生人数平均经费标准。

(二十六)要进一步落实城市教育费附加用于职业教育的政策。从2006年起,城市教育费附加安排用于职业教育的比例,一般地区不低于20%,已经普及九年义务教育的地区不低于30%。农村科学技术开发、技术推广的经费可适当用于农村职业培训。职业院校和培训机构开展的下岗失业人员再就业培训可按规定享受再就业培训补贴。国家和地方安排的扶贫和移民安置资金要加大对贫困地区农村劳动力培训的投入力度。国家鼓励企事业单位、社会团体和公民个人捐资助学,对通过政府部门或非赢利组织向职业教育的资助和捐赠,按规定享受税收优惠政策。要合理确定职业院校的学费标准,确保学费收入全额用于学校发展。要加强对职业教育经费的使用管理,提高资金的使用效益。

(二十七)建立职业教育贫困家庭学生助学制度。中央和地方财政要安排经费,资助接受中等职业教育的农村贫困家庭和城镇低收入家庭子女。中等职业学校要从学校收入中安排一定比例用于奖、助学金和学费减免,并把组织学生参加勤工俭学和半工半读作为助学的重要途径。金融机构要为贫困家庭学生接受职业教育提供助学贷款,各地区要把接受职业教育的贫困家庭学生纳入国家助学贷款资助范围。要通过助学金、奖学金、贷学金等多种形式,对贫困家庭学生和选学农业及地矿等艰苦行业职业教育的学生实行学费减、免和生活费补贴。对高等职业院校学生的资助,按国家有关高等学校学生资助政策执行。

九、切实加强领导,动员全社会关心支持职业教育发展

(二十八)各级人民政府要加强对职业教育发展规划、资源配置、条件保障、政策措施的统筹管理,为职业教育提供强有力的公共服务和良好的发展环境。要从严治教,规范管理,引导职业教育健康协调可持续发展。要充分发挥职业教育工作部际联席会议的作用,统筹协调全国职业教育工作,研究解决重大问题。国务院教育行政部门负责职业教育工作的统筹规划、综合协调、宏观管理,劳动保障部门和其他有关部门在各自职责范围内,负责职业教育的有关工作。县级以上地方政府也要建立职业教育工作部门联席会议制度。

(二十九)各级人民政府要切实加强对职业教育工作的领导,把职业教育工作纳入目标管理,作为对主要领导干部进行政绩考核的重要指标,并接受人大、政协的检查和指导。建立职业教育工作定期巡视检查制度,把职业教育督导作为教育督导的重要内容,加强对职业教育的评估检查。加强职业教育科学研究工作,充分发挥社会团体和中介服务机构的作用,为职业教育宏观管理和职业院校改革与发展服务。

(三十)逐步提高生产服务一线技能人才、特别是高技能人才的社会地位和经济收入,实行优秀技能人才特殊奖励政策和激励办法。定期开展全国性的职业技能竞赛活动,对优胜者给予表彰奖励。大力表彰职业教育工作先进单位与先进个人。广泛宣传职业教育的重要地位和作用,宣传优秀技能人才和高素质劳动者在社会主义现代化建设中的重要贡献,提高全社会对职业教育的认识,形成全社会关心、重视和支持职业教育的良好氛围。

Appendix D HVE-Related Policies (2006-2007)

24. 《关于编报 2006 年普通高等教育分学校分专业招生计划的通知》(2006 年 1 月 24 日)

Title: Notice of Compiling and Submitting Regular Higher Education Recruitment Plans Based on Institutions and Disciplines in 2006 (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006)

Source: Retrieved December 26, 2008 from
<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/45/info23545.htm>

各省、自治区、直辖市教育厅（教委）、发展改革委（计委），计划单列市教育局、发展改革委（计委），新疆生产建设兵团教育局、发展改革委，有关部门（单位）教育局（局）：

2006 年是“十一五”开局之年。按照党的十六届五中全会精神，各地、各部门必须全面落实科学发展观，认真贯彻中央提出的提高高等教育质量的要求，切实把握发展节奏，调整优化结构，确保高等教育稳步、协调、健康发展。根据国民经济与社会发展计划草案（发改综合〔2006〕1 号附件六），现将 2006 年普通高等学校招生计划印发给你们，请据此编报分学校分专业招生计划，并将有关注意事项通知如下：

一、分学校分专业招生计划的安排要与高校办学条件、毕业生就业和招生计划执行等实际情况紧密挂钩。积极扩大经济建设和社会发展急需的学科专业的招生规模，坚决调减或停止社会需求不足、毕业生就业困难的长线专业的招生。

二、各地、各部门要加大投入，改善高等学校办学条件，切实保证正常教学运转所需。对近年来招生增长过快，办学经费投入不足，办学条件趋于紧张的高校，要严格控制其招生规模；对因办学条件不达标被确定为“黄”牌的普通高等学校，各地、各部门必须严格审定其招生规模。届时教育部将组织专门力量对招生计划安排情况进行监督检查。

三、鉴于目前普通本科院校基本办学条件趋于紧张的实际情况，各地、各部门在安排 2006 年计划时要从严控制和逐步压缩本科院校的高职（专科）招生规模，以保证本科院校各项办学条件得以改善。

四、为鼓励民办高等教育发展，在基本办学条件许可的情况下，计划增量部分尽可能向民办高校、独立学院倾斜。同时各地要进一步加强对社会力量办学的管理和指导，使其规范办学、有序发展。

五、为规范普通高校办学秩序和办学行为，严格实行高校招生资格、招生计划与学生学籍电子注册和网上毕业证书查询相挂钩，切实维护招生计划管理的严肃性。各地、各部门不得擅自扩大招生规模，也不得跨隶属关系下达和调整年度本科、高职（专科）招生计划。高等学校不得借联合办学的名义，设立分校、校外办学点或将高层次学历教育安排在低层次学历教育学校进行教学活动。

六、各地要加强对试办的普通高等教育专科层次起点本科教育（以下简称“普通专升本”）的管理，从 2006 年起，严格招生计划、收费标准和选拔录取程序。各地普通专升本教育的招生规模要严格控制当年省属高校高职（专科）应届毕业生的 5% 以内，并纳入国家下达的普通本科总规模内；严格普通专升本学生的学费标准，各高校不得借专升本的名义进行高收费、乱收费；普通专升本的招生录取要坚持公开、公正的原则，逐步完善选拔录取程序，普通专升本学生毕业证书的发放要按照教育部的有关规定执行。“985 工程”和“211 工程”重点建设的高校、独立学院和民办院校原则上不举办普通专升本教育。

七、各地要根据《国务院关于大力发展职业教育的决定》和全国职业教育工作会议精神，规范现行的高职院校对口招收中等职业学校应届毕业生工作，以促进中等职业教育的改革与发展，把握好高等教育的发展节奏。为此，各地安排高职院校对口招收中等职业教育应届毕业生的规模不得超过当年本省（区、市）中等职业学校应届毕业生的5%。

八、认真贯彻落实《教育部关于进一步办好五年制高等职业技术教育的几点意见》（教职成〔2002〕2号）中关于五年制高职以独立设置的职业技术学院为主要办学主体的精神，自2006年起：各类中等职业学校不得单独举办五年制高职教育；各省（区、市）五年制高职招收初中毕业生的招生规模不得超过当年本省（区、市）高职（专科）招生计划的5%。五年制高职教育进入高等教育阶段（第四年）的学生规模应纳入国家确定的各省（区、市）当年高职（专科）招生计划内。

九、自2006年起，未经教育部和总政治部批准，任何军事院校不得面向地方招收无军籍学生开展普通或成人高等教育，各地教育行政部门也不得向军事院校下达招生计划。对擅自违规招收的学生，教育部将不予承认，也不予学籍电子注册。

十、招收参加普通高考的考生进行高等职业技术教育培养的成人高校，其基本办学条件必须达到《教育部关于印发〈普通高等学校基本办学条件指标（试行）〉的通知》（教发〔2004〕2号）中的有关规定要求。招生资格实行年审制，由主管部门报教育部审定。

十一、普通高等学校举办的少数民族预科班招生计划需报经教育部审批。经审批同意的少数民族预科班招生计划，随国家确定的普通高等学校招生计划一并下达。未经教育部批准，任何高校禁止举办非少数民族预科班。

十二、本科、高职专业设置和调整须按教育部有关文件规定执行。未经教育部备案或批准的专业不得安排招生。

十三、编制2006年普通高等教育分学校分专业招生计划，继续统一使用普通高等教育招生计划计算机管理系统软件。请各地、各部门于2006年2月15日前，将用上述软件编制的分学校、第二学士学位和少数民族预科招生计划报送教育部发展规划司，并通过电子邮件将电子版发送至 jhc@moe.edu.cn；同时分学校招生计划报送国家发展改革委社会发展司，第二学士学位招生计划报送教育部高等教育司，少数民族预科招生计划报送教育部民族教育司。分专业招生计划于2006年4月10日前分别报送教育部发展规划司、高等教育司。有关部门（单位）、计划单列市教育局在上报教育部、国家发展改革委的同时，抄送学校所在的省（自治区、直辖市）教育厅（教委）。

25. 《关于实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划加快高等职业教育改革与发展的意见》
(2006 年 11 月 3 日)

Title: Advice on Accelerating the Development and Reform of Higher Vocational Education by Implementing the Project of Building (100) Nationwide Model Vocational and Technical Colleges (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Finance, 2006)
Source: Retrieved July 9, 2009, from <http://www.tech.net.cn/info/sfyx/zczd/12419.shtml>

各省（自治区、直辖市、计划单列市）教育厅（局，教委）、财政厅（局），新疆生产建设兵团教育局、财务局：

为贯彻落实《国务院关于大力发展职业教育的决定》（国发[2005]35 号）精神，提高高等职业教育质量，增强高等职业院校服务经济社会发展的能力，现就实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划，加快高等职业教育改革与发展提出如下意见。

一、充分认识实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划的重大意义

近年来，党中央、国务院高度重视高等职业教育事业发展，高等职业教育规模进一步扩大，服务经济社会的能力有了较大提高，对完善我国高等教育结构，实现高等教育大众化发挥了积极作用。但是，必须清醒地认识到，目前我国高等职业院校办学条件相对较差，“双师型”专业教师数量不足，质量保障体系不够完善，办学机制改革有待突破，等等，严重制约了高等职业教育的健康发展。因此，高等职业教育必须主动适应社会需求，以加强基础能力建设为切入点，切实把改革与发展的重点放到加强内涵建设和提高教育质量上来，增强培养面向先进制造业、现代农业和现代服务业高技能人才的能力。

根据《国务院关于大力发展职业教育的决定》要求，为在全国高等职业院校中树立改革示范，经国务院同意，在“十一五”期间实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划。该计划将按照地方为主、中央引导、突出重点、协调发展的原则，选择办学定位准确、产学研结合紧密、改革成绩突出、制度环境良好、辐射能力较强的高等职业院校，进行重点支持，带动全国高等职业院校办出特色，提高水平。

二、国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划的目标任务和主要内容

实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划，以邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想为指导，全面落实科学发展观，全面贯彻党的教育方针，坚持“以服务为宗旨，以就业为导向，走产学研结合的发展道路”的办学方针，坚持导向性、协调性、效益性、创新性的原则，中央引导、地方为主、行业企业参与、院校具体实施，重点支持 100 所国家示范性高等职业院校（以下简称示范院校）。

（一）目标任务

总体目标：通过实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划，使示范院校在办学实力、教学质量、管理水平、办学效益和辐射能力等方面有较大提高，特别是在深化教育教学改革、创新人才培养模式、建设高水平专兼结合专业教学团队、提高社会服务能力和创建办学特色等方面取得明显进展。发挥示范院校的示范作用，带动高等职业教育加快改革与发展，逐步形成结构合理、功能完善、质量优良的高等职业教育体系，更好地为经济建设和社会发展服务。

具体任务：支持 100 所高水平示范院校建设，60 万以上在校生直接受益，为社会提供各类培训 200 万人次；重点建成 500 个左右产业覆盖广、办学条件好、产学研结合紧密、人才培养质量高的特色专业群；培养和引进高素质“双师型”专业带头人和骨干教师，聘请企业行业技术骨干与能工巧匠，专兼结合的专业教师队伍建设取得明显成效；建成 4000 门左右优质专业核心课程，1500 种特色教材和教学课件，每个专业带动区域和行业 3 个以

上相关专业主干课程水平的提高,教学质量显著提升;围绕国家重点支持发展的产业领域,研制并推广共享型教学资源库,为学生自主学习提供优质服务;运用现代信息手段,搭建公共服务平台,为共享优质教学资源提供技术支撑;推动示范院校与经济欠发达地区的对口支援,与区域内中高等职业院校的对口交流,促进高等职业教育整体质量的提升。

（二）主要内容

提高示范院校整体水平。省级有关部门和院校举办者,要努力提高示范院校基本建设和教学基础设施建设水平,改善教学、实训条件;制定“双师型”教师培养和专兼结合专业教师队伍建设的政策支持与办法,聘请一批精通企业行业工作程序的技术骨干和能工巧匠兼职,促进高水平“双师”素质与“双师”结构教师队伍建设;密切与行业企业在人才培养、技术开发应用等领域的合作,广泛吸纳社会各方资金、物质与人力资源参与学校建设;加强国际交流与合作,扩大我国高等职业教育的国际影响。

推进教学建设和教学改革。省级教育行政部门和示范院校,要根据经济社会发展需要,建立专业设置、招生规模的计划与调整机制;坚持育人为本、德育为先,突出职业道德教育,促进学生健康成才;改进人才培养方案,创新人才培养模式,探索职业岗位要求与专业教学计划有机结合的途径和方式;根据高技能人才培养的实际需要,改革课程教学内容、教学方法、教学手段和评价方式,建成一大批体现岗位技能要求、促进学生实践操作能力培养的优质核心课程;统筹规划和建设紧密结合生产实际,具有高职特色的教材体系,规范教材评价选用机制,确保高质量教材进课堂。

加强重点专业领域建设。中央在100所示范院校中,选择500个左右办学理念先进、产学结合紧密、特色鲜明、就业率高的专业进行重点支持。造就一批基础理论扎实、教学实践能力突出的专业带头人和教学骨干;建设一批融教学、培训、职业技能鉴定和技术研发功能于一体的实训基地或车间;合作开发一批体现工学结合特色的课程体系,形成500个以重点建设专业为龙头、相关专业为支撑的重点建设专业群,提高示范院校对经济社会发展的服务能力。

增强社会服务能力。示范院校要积极为社会提供技术开发与服务,大力开展职业技能培训,努力为提高劳动者素质、促进就业,以及转移农村劳动力提供服务;积极开展地区之间、城乡之间的对口支援与交流,主动为区域内职业院校培训师资,促进地区职业教育的协调发展。

创建共享型专业教学资源库。对需求量大、覆盖面广的专业,中央财政安排经费支持研制共享型专业教学资源库,主要包括专业教学目标与标准、精品课程体系、教学内容、实验实训、教学指导、学习评价等要素,以规范专业教学基本要求,共享优质教学资源;针对职业岗位要求,强化就业能力培养,为实施“双证书”制度构建专业认证体系;开放教学资源环境,满足学生自主学习需要,为高技能人才的培养和构建终身学习体系搭建公共平台。

三、完善政策,明确责任,加强管理,确保落实

（一）坚持地方为主,落实分担责任,吸引企业参与,强化资金管理。建设计划的实施,以地方投入为主,积极吸纳社会、企业资金,中央财政进行引导和推动。“十一五”期间,中央财政安排专项资金,主要支持示范院校改善教学实验实训条件,兼顾专业带头人和骨干教师培养、课程体系改革,共享型专业教学资源库建设等。各地要将示范院校建设纳入本地区经济社会发展规划,优化发展环境;加大对示范院校的支持力度,逐年提高示范院校的生均经费标准,到“十一五”末,保证示范院校的生均预算内拨款标准达到本地区同等类型普通本科院校的生均预算内经费标准,并根据当地情况,适当降低示范院校的收费标准;督促示范院校的举办方筹措经费,满足示范院校的教学实训基础设施基本建

设、“双师型”专业教师队伍建设、专业和课程建设等建设内容的需要。各地要充分调动行业企业和院校的积极性，广泛吸纳社会资金，多渠道筹措经费，保证地方资金的足额到位。

（二）完善政策措施，支持示范院校的改革试点工作。各地要制定相关政策，优先安排招生录取批次，鼓励开展单独招生试点，保证生源质量。支持示范院校根据经济社会发展需要灵活设置专业，逐步扩大跨省招生规模，示范院校跨省招生比例不低于 30%，中部和东部地区示范院校对西部地区的招生比例不低于 10%，提高服务社会的能力。加大对贫困家庭学生的助学力度，优先落实国家奖助学金资助政策。示范院校要广泛吸引企业和社会机构共同建设实训基地，建立产学研结合的长效机制；2010 年，有条件的示范院校都要建立职业技能鉴定机构，其学生考核合格后可同时获得学历证书和职业资格证书；在示范院校开展教师专业技术职务评聘改革试点，加强专兼结合专业教师队伍建设；鼓励示范院校与其他院校以及行业企业之间加强合作，统筹办学资源，实现优势互补；扩大国际交流与合作，引进优质教育资源；对建设计划实施成效显著的示范院校负责人，要给予表彰和奖励。

（三）改革示范院校办学机制，创新高等职业教育人才培养模式。各地要引导示范院校科学合理地调整和设置专业，改革课程体系和教学内容，将职业岗位所需的关键能力培养融入专业教学体系，增强毕业生就业竞争能力；积极改革以课堂和教师为中心的传统教学组织形式，将理论知识学习、实践能力和综合素质提高三者紧密结合起来，提高学生就业能力；根据区域和行业人才需求状况以及职业技术与职业岗位的特点，积极探索弹性学制和以学分制为主要内容的灵活的教学管理制度，加快区域和行业高技能紧缺人才培养。

（四）加强管理，创造高等职业教育改革与发展的良好氛围。建设公共管理平台，健全组织机构，建立信息采集与绩效监控系统，保证示范院校的改革试点取得实效，提高资金使用效益。针对高等职业教育改革与发展的热点难点问题，开展战略性研究，为高等职业教育加强内涵建设、提高教育教学质量提供决策咨询。通过建设计划的实施，推动区域高等职业教育深化改革与健康发展，形成高等职业教育与经济社会发展紧密联系、相互促进的和谐局面，使高等职业教育真正成为区域经济社会发展的有力支撑。

四、实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划的具体步骤

国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划，采取地方部门推荐、专家评审立项、年度绩效考核、分期安排经费的方式，按照预审申报、评审立项、验收挂牌的操作程序，分年度、分步骤实施。

（一）示范院校的入选条件

各地推荐示范院校应为独立设置的高职高专院校，并具备以下基本条件：

领导能力领先。学校领导班子办学理念先进，具有战略思维、科学决策能力和较强的资源整合能力。

综合水平领先。学校办学定位准确，具备较好的师资、设备、经费等条件，教学质量好，就业率高，有较高的社会认可度。

教育教学改革领先。与区域经济社会发展联系紧密，形成产学研结合的长效机制，以就业为导向，人才培养模式改革成效显著。

专业建设领先。专业建设理念先进，特色鲜明，在教师队伍建设、实习实训基地建设、推行“双证书”制度、课程和教材建设等方面取得明显进展。

社会服务领先。积极承担面向区域产业发展的社会培训，主动为行业企业提供应用技术开发等科技服务，在区域高等职业教育发展中具有明显的带动作用。

（二）建设计划的实施步骤

国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划从 2006 年-2010 年实施，按年度、分地区分批推进，稳步发展。中央财政对入选示范院校实行经费一次确定、三年到位，项目逐年考核、适时调整的做法。对年度绩效考核不合格的院校，终止立项和支持。中央财政预留部分资金，对项目执行情况好的院校实行奖励。

2006 年，制订建设项目总体规划和管理办法，启动第一批 30 所左右示范院校的项目建设。中央财政根据项目建设进度安排资金，地方财政按职责划分对示范院校项目进行重点支持。

2007 年，启动第二批 40 所左右示范院校的项目建设；启动中央级共享型专业教学资源库建设并完成公共管理平台建设。继续执行首批示范院校的项目建设。中央财政根据项目建设进度安排资金，地方财政按职责划分对示范院校项目进行重点支持。

2008 年，启动第三批 30 所左右示范院校的项目建设。完成首批示范院校的项目建设并进行验收，继续执行第二批示范院校的项目建设。中央财政根据项目建设进度安排资金，地方财政按职责划分对示范院校项目进行重点支持。

2009 年，继续执行第三批示范院校的项目建设，完成第二批示范院校的项目建设并进行验收。中央财政根据项目建设进度安排资金，地方财政按职责划分对示范院校项目进行重点支持。

2010 年，完成第三批示范院校的项目建设并进行验收。对因考核不合格而淘汰院校的空缺数额进行滚动补充，安排预留经费对项目执行情况突出的院校进行支持和奖励。

实施国家示范性高等职业院校建设计划，是加快高等职业教育改革与发展的重要战略举措。各地要充分认识建设计划实施的重大意义，高度重视国家示范性高等职业院校建设，纳入规划，统筹管理，确保落实改革的各项政策、措施，全面推动高等职业教育健康、快速发展。

26. 《关于全面提高高等职业教育教学质量的若干意见》(2006年11月16日)

Title: Some Advice on Fully Improving the Quality of HVE (The Ministry of Education, 2006a)

Source: Retrieved November 25, 2009 from

<http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/23/info27723.htm>

在贯彻党的十六届六中全会精神、努力构建社会主义和谐社会的新形势下,为进一步落实《国务院关于大力发展职业教育的决定》精神,以科学发展观为指导,促进高等职业教育健康发展,现就全面提高高等职业教育教学质量提出如下意见。

一、深刻认识高等职业教育全面提高教学质量的重要性和紧迫性

近年来,我国高等职业教育蓬勃发展,为现代化建设培养了大量高素质技能型专门人才,对高等教育大众化作出了重要贡献;丰富了高等教育体系结构,形成了高等职业教育体系框架;顺应了人民群众接受高等教育的强烈需求。高等职业教育作为高等教育发展中的一个类型,肩负着培养面向生产、建设、服务和管理第一线需要的高技能人才的使命,在我国加快推进社会主义现代化建设进程中具有不可替代的作用。随着我国走新型工业化道路、建设社会主义新农村和创新型国家对高技能人才要求的不断提高,高等职业教育既面临着极好的发展机遇,也面临着严峻的挑战。

各级教育行政部门和高等职业院校要深刻认识全面提高教学质量是实施科教兴国战略的必然要求,也是高等职业教育自身发展的客观要求。要认真贯彻国务院关于提高高等教育质量的要求,适当控制高等职业院校招生增长幅度,相对稳定招生规模,切实把工作重点放在提高质量上。要全面贯彻党的教育方针,以服务为宗旨,以就业为导向,走产学结合发展道路,为社会主义现代化建设培养千百万高素质技能型专门人才,为全面建设小康社会、构建社会主义和谐社会作出应有的贡献。

二、加强素质教育,强化职业道德,明确培养目标

高等职业院校要坚持育人为本,德育为先,把立德树人作为根本任务。要以《中共中央 国务院关于进一步加强和改进大学生思想政治教育的意见》(中发〔2004〕16号)为指导,进一步加强思想政治教育,把社会主义核心价值体系融入到高等职业教育人才培养的全过程。要高度重视学生的职业道德教育和法制教育,重视培养学生的诚信品质、敬业精神和责任意识、遵纪守法意识,培养出一批高素质的技能性人才。要加强辅导员和班主任队伍建设,倡导选聘劳动模范、技术能手作为德育辅导员;加强高等职业院校党团组织建设,积极发展学生党团员。要针对高等职业院校学生的特点,培养学生的社会适应性,教育学生树立终身学习理念,提高学习能力,学会交流沟通和团队协作,提高学生的实践能力、创造能力、就业能力和创业能力,培养德智体美全面发展的社会主义建设者和接班人。

三、服务区域经济社会发展,以就业为导向,加快专业改革与建设

针对区域经济发展的要求,灵活调整和设置专业,是高等职业教育的一个重要特色。各级教育行政部门要及时发布各专业人才培养规模变化、就业状况和供求情况,调控与优化专业结构布局。高等职业院校要及时跟踪市场需求的变化,主动适应区域、行业经济和社会发展的需要,根据学校的办学条件,有针对性地调整和设置专业。要根据市场需求与专业设置情况,建立以重点专业为龙头、相关专业为支撑的专业群,辐射服务面向的区域、行业、企业和农村,增强学生的就业能力。“十一五”期间,国家将选择一批基础条件好、特色鲜明、办学水平和就业率高的专业点进行重点建设,优先支持在工学结合等方面优势凸显以及培养高技能紧缺人才的专业点;鼓励地方和学校共同努力,形成国家、地

方(省级)、学校三级重点专业建设体系,推动专业建设与发展。发挥行业企业和专业教学指导委员会的作用,加强专业教学标准建设。逐步构建专业认证体系,与劳动、人事及相关行业部门密切合作,使有条件的高等职业院校都建立职业技能鉴定机构,开展职业技能鉴定工作,推行“双证书”制度,强化学生职业能力的培养,使有职业资格证书专业的毕业生取得“双证书”的人数达到80%以上。

四、加大课程建设与改革的力度,增强学生的职业能力

课程建设与改革是提高教学质量的核心,也是教学改革的重点和难点。高等职业院校要积极与行业企业合作开发课程,根据技术领域和职业岗位(群)的任职要求,参照相关的职业资格标准,改革课程体系和教学内容。建立突出职业能力培养的课程标准,规范课程教学的基本要求,提高课程教学质量。“十一五”期间,国家将启动1000门工学结合的精品课程建设,带动地方和学校加强课程建设。改革教学方法和手段,融“教、学、做”为一体,强化学生能力的培养。加强教材建设,重点建设好3000种左右国家规划教材,与行业企业共同开发紧密结合生产实际的实训教材,并确保优质教材进课堂。重视优质教学资源和网络信息资源的利用,把现代信息技术作为提高教学质量的重要手段,不断推进教学资源的共建共享,提高优质教学资源的使用效率,扩大受益面。

五、大力推行工学结合,突出实践能力培养,改革人才培养模式

要积极推行与生产劳动和社会实践相结合的学习模式,把工学结合作为高等职业教育人才培养模式改革的重要切入点,带动专业调整与建设,引导课程设置、教学内容和教学方法改革。人才培养模式改革的重点是教学过程的实践性、开放性和职业性,实验、实训、实习是三个关键环节。要重视学生校内学习与实际工作的一致性,校内成绩考核与企业实践考核相结合,探索课堂与实习地点的一体化;积极推行订单培养,探索工学交替、任务驱动、项目导向、顶岗实习等有利于增强学生能力的教学模式;引导建立企业接收高等职业院校学生实习的制度,加强学生的生产实习和社会实践,高等职业院校要保证在校生至少有半年时间到企业等用人单位顶岗实习。工学结合的本质是教育通过企业与社会需求紧密结合,高等职业院校要按照企业需要开展企业员工的职业培训,与企业合作开展应用研究和技术开发,使企业在分享学校资源优势的同时,参与学校的改革与发展,使学校在校企合作中创新人才培养模式。

六、校企合作,加强实训、实习基地建设

加强实训、实习基地建设是高等职业院校改善办学条件、彰显办学特色、提高教学质量的重点。高等职业院校要按照教育规律和市场规则,本着建设主体多元化的原则,多渠道、多形式筹措资金;要紧密联系行业企业,厂校合作,不断改善实训、实习基地条件。要积极探索校内生产性实训基地建设的校企组合新模式,由学校提供场地和管理,企业提供设备、技术和师资支持,以企业为主组织实训;加强和推进校外顶岗实习力度,使校内生产性实训、校外顶岗实习比例逐步加大,提高学生的实际动手能力。要充分利用现代信息技术,开发虚拟工厂、虚拟车间、虚拟工艺、虚拟实验。“十一五”期间,国家将在重点专业领域选择市场需求大、机制灵活、效益突出的实训基地进行支持与建设,形成一批教育改革力度大、装备水平高、优质资源共享的高水平高等职业教育校内生产性实训基地。

七、注重教师队伍的“双师”结构,改革人事分配和管理制度,加强专兼结合的专业教学团队建设

高等职业院校教师队伍建设要适应人才培养模式改革的需要,按照开放性和职业性的内在要求,根据国家人事分配制度改革的总体部署,改革人事分配和管理制度。要增加专业教师中具有企业工作经历的教师比例,安排专业教师到企业顶岗实践,积累实际工作经

历，提高实践教学能力。同时要大量聘请行业企业的专业人才和能工巧匠到学校担任兼职教师，逐步加大兼职教师的比例，逐步形成实践技能课程主要由具有相应高技能水平的兼职教师讲授的机制。重视教师的职业道德、工作学习经历和科技开发服务能力，引导教师为企业和社区服务。逐步建立“双师型”教师资格认证体系，研究制订高等职业院校教师任职标准和准入制度。重视中青年教师的培养和教师的继续教育，提高教师的综合素质与教学能力。“十一五”期间，国家将加强骨干教师与教学管理人员的培训，建设一批优秀教学团队、表彰一批在高职教育领域作出突出贡献的专业带头人和骨干教师，提高教师队伍整体水平。

八、加强教学评估，完善教学质量保障体系

高等职业院校要强化质量意识，尤其要加强质量管理体系建设，重视过程监控，吸收用人单位参与教学质量评价，逐步完善以学校为核心、教育行政部门引导、社会参与的教学质量保障体系。各地教育行政部门要完善5年一轮的高等职业院校人才培养工作水平评估体系，在评估过程中要将毕业生就业率与就业质量、“双证书”获取率与获取质量、职业素质养成、生产性实训基地建设、顶岗实习落实情况以及专兼结合专业教学团队建设等方面作为重要考核指标。

九、切实加强领导，规范管理，保证高等职业教育持续健康发展

国家将实施示范性高等职业院校建设计划，重点支持建设100所示范性院校，引领全国高等职业院校与经济社会发展紧密结合，强化办学特色，全面提高教学质量，推动高等职业教育持续健康发展。各地要加强对高等职业教育的统筹管理，加大经费投入，制定政策措施，引导高等职业院校主动服务社会，鼓励行业企业积极参与院校办学，促进高等职业院校整体办学水平的提升，逐步形成结构合理、功能完善、质量优良、特色鲜明的高等职业教育体系。重视高等职业教育理论研究和实践总结，加强对高等职业教育改革和发展成果的宣传，增强社会对高等职业教育的了解，提高社会认可度。要高度重视高等职业院校领导班子的能力建设，建立轮训制度，引导学校领导更新理念，拓宽视野，增强战略思维和科学决策能力，要把人才培养质量作为考核学校领导班子的重要指标。高等职业院校党政领导班子要树立科学的人才观和质量观，把学校的发展重心放到内涵建设、提高质量上来，确保教学工作的中心地位。要从严治教，规范管理，特别是规范办学行为，严格招生管理。建立健全各种规章制度，完善运行机制，维护稳定，保障高等职业教育持续健康发展。

27. 《关于进一步加强高技能人才工作的意见》(2006 年 12 月 26 日)

Title: Advice on Further Strengthening the Work of High-Level Skilled Manpower (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 2006)

Source: Retrieved November 7, 2007, from http://news.xinhuanet.com/newscenter/2006-06/11/content_4679446.htm

为贯彻落实《中共中央、国务院关于进一步加强人才工作的决定》和《中共中央、国务院关于实施科技规划纲要增强自主创新能力的决定》精神,加快高技能人才队伍建设,充分发挥高技能人才在国家经济社会发展中的重要作用,现就进一步加强高技能人才工作提出如下意见。

一、加快推进人才强国战略,切实把加强高技能人才工作作为推动经济社会发展的一项重大任务来抓

(一)充分认识做好高技能人才工作的重要性和紧迫性。高技能人才是我国人才队伍的重要组成部分,是各行各业产业大军的优秀代表,是技术工人队伍的核心骨干,在加快产业优化升级、提高企业竞争力、推动技术创新和科技成果转化等方面具有不可替代的重要作用。改革开放以来,我国高技能人才工作取得了显著成绩,人才队伍不断壮大。但是,随着经济全球化趋势深入发展,科技进步日新月异,我国经济结构调整不断加快,人力资源能力建设要求不断提高,高技能人才工作也面临严峻挑战。从总体上看,高技能人才工作基础薄弱,培养体系不完善,评价、激励、保障机制不健全,轻视技能劳动和技能劳动者的传统观念仍然存在。当前,高技能人才的总量、结构和素质还不能适应经济社会发展的需要,特别是在制造、加工、建筑、能源、环保等传统产业和电子信息、航空航天等高新技术产业以及现代服务业领域,高技能人才严重短缺,已成为制约经济社会持续发展和阻碍产业升级的“瓶颈”。

本世纪头 20 年,是我国全面建设小康社会、开创中国特色社会主义事业新局面的重要战略机遇期。加快推进人才强国战略,大力加强高技能人才工作,培养造就一大批具有高超技艺和精湛技能的高技能人才,稳步提升我国产业工人队伍的整体素质,是增强我国核心竞争力和自主创新能力、建设创新型国家的重要举措,是在新的历史条件下巩固和发展工人阶级先进性、增强党的阶级基础的必然要求,对于促进人的全面发展,营造人才辈出、人尽其才的社会氛围,对于全面贯彻落实科学发展观、构建社会主义和谐社会,具有重大而深远的意义。各级党委和政府要进一步提高认识,坚决贯彻尊重劳动、尊重知识、尊重人才、尊重创造的方针,牢固树立科学的人才观,不断增强做好高技能人才工作的责任感和紧迫感,把高技能人才工作作为加快推进人才强国战略的重要内容,努力开创高技能人才队伍建设的新局面。

(二)高技能人才工作的指导思想和目标任务。高技能人才工作的指导思想是,以邓小平理论和“三个代表”重要思想为指导,全面贯彻落实科学发展观,大力实施人才强国战略,坚持党管人才原则,以职业能力建设为核心,紧紧抓住技能培养、考核评价、岗位使用、竞赛选拔、技术交流、表彰激励、合理流动、社会保障等环节,进一步更新观念,完善政策,创新机制,充分发挥市场在高技能人才资源开发和配置中的基础性作用,健全和完善企业培养、选拔、使用、激励高技能人才的工作体系,形成有利于高技能人才成长和发挥作用的制度环境和社会氛围,带动技能劳动者队伍整体素质的提高和发展壮大。

当前和今后一个时期,高技能人才工作的目标任务是,加快培养一大批数量充足、结构合理、素质优良的技术技能型、复合技能型和知识技能型高技能人才,建立培养体系完善、评价和使用机制科学、激励和保障措施健全的高技能人才工作新机制,逐步形成与经济社会发展相适应的高、中、初级技能劳动者比例结构基本合理的格局。到“十一五”期

末,高级技工水平以上的高技能人才占技能劳动者的比例达到25%以上,其中技师、高级技师占技能劳动者的比例达到5%以上,并带动中、初级技能劳动者队伍梯次发展。力争到2020年,使我国高、中、初级技能劳动者的比例达到中等发达国家水平,形成与经济社会和谐发展的格局。

二、完善高技能人才培养体系,大力加强高技能人才培养工作

(三)动员社会各方面力量开展高技能人才培养工作。针对经济社会发展实际需要,健全和完善以企业行业为主体、职业院校为基础、学校教育与企业培养紧密联系、政府推动与社会支持相互结合的高技能人才培养体系。在国家发展职业教育、实施国家技能型人才培养培训工程中,突出高技能人才培养工作。充分发挥高等职业院校和高级技工学校、技师学院的培训基地作用。大力发展民办职业教育和培训,充分发挥各类社会团体在高技能人才培养中的作用。建立现代企业职工培训制度和高技能人才校企合作培养制度,加快高技能人才培养步伐。结合国家重大工程和重大科技计划项目的实施,以及重大技术和重大装备的引进消化吸收再创新培养高技能人才。结合产业结构调整,加大对包括农民工在内的新产业工人中高技能人才的培养力度。

(四)以企业行业为主体,开辟高技能人才培养的多种途径。行业主管部门和行业组织要结合本行业生产、技术发展趋势以及高技能人才队伍现状,做好需求预测和培养规划,提出本行业高技能人才合理配置标准,指导本行业开展高技能人才培养工作。

增强企业对高技能人才培养工作重要性的认识,充分发挥企业培养高技能人才的主体作用。各类企业特别是大型企业(集团),应结合企业生产发展和技术创新需要制定高技能人才培养规划,并纳入企业发展总体规划。企业应依法建立和完善职工培训制度,加强上岗培训和岗位技能培训,可采取自办培训学校和机构,与职业院校和培训机构联合办学、委托培养等方式,加快培养高技能人才。鼓励企业推行企业培训师制度和名师带徒制度,建立技师研修制度,并通过技术交流等活动促进高技能人才成长。鼓励企业依托车间班组,通过岗位练兵、岗位培训、技术比赛等形式,促进职工在岗位实践中成才。鼓励企业结合技术创新、技术改造和技术项目引进,利用国内、国际两种资源,开展新技术、新工艺、新材料等相关知识和技能培训,并通过研发攻关等活动,促进高技能人才培养。国有和国有控股企业要将高技能人才培养规划的制定和实施情况作为企业经营管理业绩考核的内容之一,定期向职工代表大会报告。积极支持、推动和引导非公有制企业开展高技能人才培养工作。

机关事业单位也要结合各自实际,做好本部门本单位的高技能人才培养工作。

(五)建立高技能人才校企合作培养制度。各地要建立高技能人才校企合作培养制度,可由政府及有关部门负责人、企业行业和职业院校代表,以及有关方面专家组成高技能人才校企合作培养协调指导委员会,研究制定校企合作培养高技能人才的发展规划,确定培养方向和目标,指导和协调学校与企业开展合作。

进一步调整教育结构,对承担高技能人才培养任务的各类职业院校,要规范办学方向和培养标准。职业院校应以市场需求为导向,深化教学改革,紧密结合企业技能岗位的要求,对照国家职业标准,确定和调整各专业的培养目标和课程设置,与合作企业共同制定实训方案,采取全日制与非全日制、导师制等多种方式实施培养。对积极运用市场机制开展校企合作、实施产学研结合,并在高技能人才培养方面作出突出成绩的职业院校,中央财政在实训基地建设等方面给予支持和奖励。鼓励普通高校毕业生参加职业技能培训。

企业应结合对高技能人才的实际需求,与职业院校联合制定培养计划,提供实习场地,选派实习指导教师,组织学员参与技术攻关。支持企业为职业院校建立学生实习实训

基地。实行校企合作的定向培训费用可从企业职工教育经费中列支。对积极开展校企合作承担实习见习任务、培训成效显著的企业，由当地政府给予适当奖励。

（六）支持和鼓励职工参加职业技能培训。鼓励广大职工学习新知识和新技术，钻研岗位技能，积极参与技术革新和攻关项目，不断提高运用新知识解决新问题、运用新技术创造新财富的能力。鼓励并支持企业通过出国培训（研修）和引进国外先进培训资源等方式培养高技能人才。职工经单位同意参加脱产或半脱产培训，用人单位要按国家有关规定制定参加培训人员的薪酬制度和激励办法。对参加当地紧缺职业（工种）高级技能以上培训，获得相应职业资格且被企业聘用的人员，企业可给予一定的培训和鉴定补贴。

（七）加强高技能人才培训基地建设。充分发挥现有教育培训资源的作用，依托大型骨干企业（集团）、重点职业院校和培训机构，建设一批示范性国家级高技能人才培训基地。有条件的城市，可多方筹集资金，根据本地区支柱产业需求，建立布局合理、技能含量高、面向社会提供技能培训和技能鉴定服务的公共实训基地。

三、以能力和业绩为导向，建立和完善高技能人才考核评价、竞赛选拔和技术交流机制

（八）健全和完善高技能人才考核评价制度。大力加强职业技能鉴定工作，积极推行职业资格证书制度，进一步突破年龄、资历、身份和比例限制，加快建立以职业能力为导向、以工作业绩为重点，注重职业道德和职业知识水平的高技能人才评价体系。要结合生产和服务岗位要求，强化标准，健全程序，坚持公开、公平、公正的原则，进一步完善符合高技能人才特点的业绩考核内容和评价方式，反对和防止高技能人才考评中的不正之风。对在技能岗位工作并掌握高超技能、作出重大贡献的骨干人才，可进一步突破工作年限和职业资格等级的要求，允许他们破格或越级参加技师、高级技师考评。

积极探索高技能人才多元评价机制，逐步完善社会化职业技能鉴定、企业技能人才评价、院校职业资格认证和专项职业能力考核的实施办法。依托具备条件的大型企业，逐步开展高技能人才评价改革试点。试点企业可按规定，结合企业生产和科研活动实际，开展技师、高级技师考核鉴定工作。在职业院校开展职业技能鉴定工作，大力推行职业资格证书制度，努力使学生在获得学历证书的同时，取得相应的职业资格证书。开发与后备高技能人才评价要求相适应的课程标准。选择部分职业院校进行预备技师考核试点，取得预备技师资格的毕业生在相应职业岗位工作满两年后，经单位认可，可申报参加技师考评。推行专项职业能力考核制度，为劳动者提供专项职业能力公共认证服务。

（九）广泛开展职业技能竞赛活动。引导社会各方面力量，开展各种形式的岗位练兵和职业技能竞赛等活动，为发现和选拔高技能人才创造条件。对职业技能竞赛中涌现出来的优秀技能人才，在给予精神和物质奖励的同时，可按有关规定直接晋升职业资格或优先参加技师、高级技师考评。

（十）积极组织高技能人才技术交流活动。依托公共职业介绍机构、人才交流机构或有条件的大型企业（集团）、行业组织、职业院校，或通过科技协会、技师协会、职工技术协会、职业教育培训协会以及高技能人才工作室等，举办各种形式的高技能人才主题活动，为高技能人才参与高新技术开发、同业技术交流以及与科技人才交流、绝招绝技和技能成果展示等创造条件。挖掘和保护具有民族特色的民间传统技艺，实现代际传承，使之发扬光大。鼓励和支持高技能人才参与国际间职业技能交流活动。

四、建立高技能人才岗位使用和表彰激励机制，激发高技能人才的创新创造活力

（十一）健全高技能人才岗位使用机制。进一步推行技师、高级技师聘任制度。充分发挥技师、高级技师在技能岗位的关键作用，以及在解决技术难题、实施精品工程项目和

带徒传技等方面的重要作用。鼓励企业根据自身发展需要,探索建立高技能人才带头人制度,在进行重大生产决策、组织重大技术革新和技术攻关项目时,要充分发挥高技能人才带头人的作用,并给予经费等方面的支持。高技能人才配置状况应作为生产经营性企业及实体等参加重大工程项目招投标、评优和资质评估的必要条件。

(十二)进一步完善高技能人才激励机制。引导和鼓励用人单位完善培训、考核、使用与待遇相结合的激励机制。引导和督促企业根据市场需求和经营情况,完善对高技能人才的激励办法,对优秀高技能人才实行特殊奖励政策。允许国有高新技术企业探索实施有利于鼓励优秀高技能人才创新创造的收入分配制度。企业应对高技能人才在聘任、工资、带薪学习、培训、休假、出国进修等方面,制定相应的鼓励办法;对到企业技能岗位工作的各类职业院校毕业生,应合理确定工资待遇;对参加科技攻关和技术革新,并作出突出贡献的高技能人才,可从成果转化所得收益中,通过奖金等多种形式给予相应奖励。

(十三)表彰和奖励作出突出贡献的高技能人才。以政府奖励为导向,企业奖励为主体,辅以必要的社会奖励,对作出突出贡献的高技能人才进行表彰和奖励。对为国家和社会发展作出杰出贡献的高技能人才给予崇高荣誉并实行重奖。进一步完善国家技能人才评选表彰制度,对中华技能大奖获得者和全国技术能手给予奖励,并通过企业支持、社会赞助等多种方式筹集经费,鼓励他们参加培训深造、带徒传技、同业交流、技术创新等活动。省、自治区、直辖市人民政府应对作出突出贡献的高技能人才进行奖励,并参照高层次人才有关政策确定相应待遇。

五、完善高技能人才合理流动和社会保障机制,提高高技能人才配置和保障水平

(十四)引导高技能人才按需合理流动。坚持以市场为导向,依法维护用人单位和高技能人才的合法权益,保证人才流动的规范性和有序性。建立健全高技能人才柔性流动和区域合作机制,鼓励高技能人才通过兼职、服务、技术攻关、项目引进等多种方式发挥作用。加强对高技能人才流动的宏观调控,采取有效措施,鼓励和引导高技能人才面向西部地区重点建设项目流动。建立健全高技能人才流动服务体系,完善高技能人才信息发布制度,定期发布高技能人才供求信息 and 工资指导价位信息,引导高技能人才遵循市场规律合理流动。探索引进国内紧缺、企业急需的海外高技能人才。在公共职业介绍机构开设专门窗口,为高技能人才提供职业介绍、职业培训、劳动合同鉴证、社会保险关系办理、代存档案等“一站式”服务。鼓励人才交流和社会各类职业中介机构为高技能人才提供相应服务。

(十五)完善高技能人才社会保障制度。在进一步落实好高技能人才社会保障权益的同时,做好高技能人才在不同所有制单位、不同性质单位、不同行业和跨地区流动中社会保险关系的接续工作,逐步突破部门、行业、地域和所有制限制。高技能人才跨统筹地区流动,基本养老保险个人账户基金按规定转移。具备条件的企业,应积极探索为包括生产、服务一线的高技能人才在内的各类人才建立企业年金制度和补充医疗保险。

六、加大资金投入,做好高技能人才基础工作

(十六)加大资金投入力度,建立政府、企业、社会多渠道筹措的高技能人才投入机制。各级政府要根据高技能人才工作需要,对高技能人才的评选、表彰、师资培训、教材开发等工作经费给予必要的支持。地方各级政府要按规定合理安排城市教育费附加的使用,对高技能人才培养给予支持。要从国家安排的职业教育基础设施建设专项经费中,择优支持高技能人才培养成效显著的职业院校。将高技能人才实训基地建设纳入国家支持职业教育发展的规划。

企业应按规定提取职工教育经费(职工工资总额的1.5%—2.5%),加大高技能人才培养投入。企业进行技术改造和项目引进,应按相关规定提取职工技术培训经费,

重点保证高技能人才培养的需要。对自身没有能力开展职工培训，以及未开展高技能人才培养的企业，县级以上地方人民政府可依法对其职工教育经费实行统筹，由劳动保障等部门统一组织培训服务。机关事业单位要积极探索符合自身特点的高技能人才培养经费投入机制。

鼓励社会各界和海外人士对高技能人才培养提供捐赠和其他培训服务。企业和个人对高技能人才培养进行捐赠，按有关规定享受优惠政策。鼓励金融机构为公共实训基地建设和参与校企合作培养高技能人才的职业院校提供融资服务。各类职业院校可按照高技能人才实际培养成本提出收费标准，经物价部门核定后向学员收取培训费用。

（十七）做好高技能人才基础性工作。加强高技能人才相关理论研究，加快高技能人才法制建设。做好高技能人才调查统计和需求预测工作。完善国家高技能人才信息交流平台，开发高技能人才信息库和技能成果信息库。加强适用于高技能人才的远程培训和现代培训技术的开发和应用。加快编制、修订技师和高级技师国家职业标准，加强职业技能鉴定题库开发，健全职业技能鉴定质量督导制度。组织开发反映企业岗位需求、符合高技能人才培养特点的教材及教学辅助材料。加强高技能人才师资队伍建设，不断提高师资队伍水平。

七、加强领导，营造有利于高技能人才成长的良好氛围

（十八）切实加强对高技能人才工作的领导。各地区各部门要根据经济社会发展需要制定高技能人才队伍建设规划，并纳入经济社会发展规划和人才队伍建设规划。各级党委和政府要将高技能人才工作作为人才工作的一项重要内容，列入重要议事日程，定期研究解决工作中存在的主要问题。要建立由组织、劳动保障、发展改革、教育、科技、国防科工、财政、人事、国资等部门以及工会、共青团、妇联等人民团体参加的高技能人才工作协调机制，负责对高技能人才工作的宏观指导、政策协调和组织推动。在党委和政府统一领导下，组织部门要加强宏观指导，劳动保障部门要进行统筹协调，有关部门要各司其职、密切配合，并动员社会各方面力量广泛参与，共同做好高技能人才工作。

（十九）加强舆论宣传，营造尊重劳动、崇尚技能、鼓励创造的良好氛围。充分发挥报刊、广播、电视、网络等多种媒体的作用，组织开展形式多样的宣传活动，大力宣传党和国家关于高技能人才工作的方针政策，大力宣传高技能人才在经济建设和社会发展中的重要作用和突出贡献，树立一批高技能人才的先进典型，提高高技能人才的社会地位。动员全社会都来关心高技能人才队伍建设，努力营造有利于高技能人才成长的良好氛围。

（完）

28. 《关于建立健全普通本科高校、高等职业学校和中等职业学校家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系的意见》（2007年5月13日）

Title: Advice on Establishing and Improving Policy Systems of Financial Assistance for Low-Income Students at Universities, HVE Institutions, and Secondary Vocational Schools (The Ministry of Finance, The Ministry of Education, & The Center for National Student Assistance Administration, 2007)

Source: Retrieved January 15, 2010 from <http://www.moe.edu.cn/edoas/website18/43/info28243.htm>

5月13日，国务院发出《关于建立健全普通本科高校、高等职业学校和中等职业学校家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系的意见》（以下简称《意见》），决定从2007年秋季学期开学起，进一步建立健全我国家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系。

党中央、国务院历来高度重视家庭经济困难学生资助工作。近年来，为保证家庭经济困难学生顺利完成学业，中央和地方各级政府采取了一系列措施，对农村义务教育阶段学生全部免除学杂费，并为家庭经济困难学生免费提供教科书、寄宿生补助生活费，建立中等职业学校国家助学金制度，在高等教育阶段初步建立“奖、贷、助、补、减”有机结合的高校家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系。经过各有关方面的共同努力，义务教育阶段家庭经济困难学生的上学问题已经得到较好解决，非义务教育阶段家庭经济困难学生学习和生活困难问题也在一定程度上得到了缓解。但是，目前我国的家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系还不够完善，尤其是普通本科高校、高等职业学校和中等职业学校面临的问题比较突出，这同当前经济社会发展形势和人民群众对教育的需求不相适应，在一定程度上也制约着教育事业的持续健康发展，亟待进一步改革和完善。

新的家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系，将按照加大财政投入、经费合理分担、政策导向明确、多元混合资助、各方责任清晰的基本原则，通过加大财政投入，落实各项助学政策，扩大受助学生比例，提高资助水平，从制度上基本解决家庭经济困难学生的就学问题。同时，进一步优化教育结构，维护教育公平，促进教育持续健康发展。主要内容包

括：

（一）完善国家奖学金制度。中央继续设立国家奖学金，用于奖励普通本科高校和高等职业学校全日制本专科在校生中特别优秀的学生，每年奖励5万名，奖励标准为每生每年8000元，所需资金由中央负担。

中央与地方共同设立国家励志奖学金，用于奖励资助普通本科高校和高等职业学校全日制本专科在校生中品学兼优的家庭经济困难学生，资助面平均约占全国高校在校生总数的3%，资助标准为每生每年5000元。国家励志奖学金适当向国家最需要的农林水地矿油核等专业的学生倾斜。

（二）完善国家助学金制度。中央与地方共同设立国家助学金，用于资助普通本科高校、高等职业学校全日制本专科在校生中家庭经济困难学生和中等职业学校所有全日制在校农村学生和城市家庭经济困难学生。

普通本科高校和高等职业学校国家助学金的资助面平均约占全国普通本科高校和高等职业学校在校生总数的20%。财政部、教育部根据生源情况、平均生活费用、院校类别等因素综合确定各省资助面。平均资助标准为每生每年2000元，具体标准由各地根据实际情况在每生每年1000-3000元范围内确定，可以分为2-3档。

中等职业学校国家助学金资助所有全日制在校农村学生和城市家庭经济困难学生。资助标准为每生每年1500元，国家资助两年，第三年实行学生工学结合、顶岗实习。

（三）进一步完善和落实国家助学贷款政策。大力开展生源地信用助学贷款。生源地信用助学贷款与高校国家助学贷款享有同等优惠政策。同时，要进一步完善和落实现行国家助学贷款政策，制定与贷款风险和管理成本挂钩的国家助学贷款风险补偿金使用管理办法，相关金融机构要完善内部考核体系，采取更加积极有效措施，调动各级经办机构工作积极性，确保应贷尽贷。

对普通本科高校和高等职业学校全日制专科生，在校期间获得国家助学贷款，毕业后自愿到艰苦地区基层单位从事第一线工作且服务达到一定年限的，国家实行国家助学贷款代偿政策。

（四）从 2007 年秋季开学起，对教育部直属师范大学新招收的师范生，实行免费教育。

（五）学校要按照国家有关规定从事业收入中足额提取一定比例的经费，用于学费减免、国家助学贷款风险补偿、勤工助学、校内无息借款、校内奖助学金和特殊困难补助等方面的开支。

进一步落实、完善鼓励捐资助学的相关优惠政策措施，充分发挥中国教育发展基金会等非营利组织的作用，积极引导和鼓励各地方政府、企业和社会团体等面向各级各类学校设立奖学金、助学金。

建立健全家庭经济困难学生资助政策体系，是党中央、国务院总揽全局、高瞻远瞩、审时度势，根据新形势新任务要求，及时作出的一项造福当代、惠及子孙、影响深远的重大决策，是继农村义务教育经费保障机制改革之后，以科学发展观为统领，促进教育公平的又一件大事，是构建社会主义和谐社会的基本要求，是保证教育事业持续协调健康发展的重要举措，是落实科教兴国战略，为建设创新型国家提供人才支撑的客观要求，是履行政府公共财政职能的重要措施。充分体现了发展为了人民、发展依靠人民、发展成果由人民共享的重要原则，充分体现了党和政府对生活困难群众关心，也充分体现了社会主义制度的优越性。

新的资助政策体系建立后，中央和地方财政 2007 年上半年投入的经费将达到 154 亿元左右，其中，中央财政投入 95 亿元，地方财政投入约 59 亿元左右。2008 年全年，中央和地方财政投入将在此基础上翻一番，达到 308 亿元左右。这是自建国以来中央和地方财政安排助学经费数量最多、力度最大的一次。新的资助政策体系中各项政策和措施都真正落实到位后，每年用于助学的财政投入、助学贷款和学校安排的助学经费将达 500 亿元，约 1800 所高校的 400 万学生和 1.5 万所中等职业学校的 1600 万学生将获得资助。

Appendix E Samples of Document Translation from Chinese into English

Chinese Text 1

社会主义现代化建设不但需要高级科学技术专家，而且迫切需要千百万受过良好职业技术教育的中、初级技术人员、管理人员、技工和其他受过良好职业培训的城乡劳动者。没有这样一支劳动技术大军，先进的科学技术和先进的设备就不能成为现实的社会生产力。但是，职业技术教育恰恰是当前我国整个教育事业最薄弱的环节。一定要采取切实可行的措施改变这种状况，力争职业技术教育有一个大的发展(中共中央, 1985, 第 20 自然段)。

English Version

The construction of socialist modernization is crying for millions of skilled manpower produced by vocational education. Without a skilled workforce, advanced technology and equipment could not be transformed into efficient productive forces. However, vocational education is just the weakest part in current Chinese education systems. In order to make a great leap in developing vocational education, we must take efficient actions to change the vulnerable situation of vocational education (The Central Committee of the CPC, 1985, para.20).

Chinese Text 2

当前，我国改革开放和现代化建设事业进入了一个新阶段。建立社会主义市场经济体制，加快改革开放和现代化建设步伐，进一步解放和发展生产力，使国民经济整体素质和综合国力都迈上一个新台阶。这对教育工作既是难得的机遇，又提出了新的任务和要求。(中共中央，国务院, 1985, 第 2 自然段)

English Version

Currently, China's reform and opening-up and modernization have entered a new phase. National economy and overall strength have been improved to a new level by establishing a socialist market economy, picking up the speed of reform and opening-up and modernization, and further freeing and developing productive forces. While providing opportunities, these situations have proposed new tasks and requirements for education. (The Central Committee of CPC & The State Council, 1993, para. 2)

Chinese Text 3

第十三条职业学校教育分为初等、中等、高等职业学校教育。初等、中等职业学校教育分别由初等、中等职业学校实施；高等职业学校教育根据条件和条件由高等职业学校实施，或者由普通高等学校实施。(中华人民共和国职业教育法, 1996, 第 13 自然段)

English Version

The Thirteenth Article: School vocational education is addressed at three levels—junior vocational education, secondary vocational education, and higher vocational education (HVE). Junior and secondary vocational education are addressed by corresponding vocational junior high schools and vocational senior high schools. HVE is mainly addressed by HVE institutions. In addition to HVE institutions, regular higher education institutions can provide HVE as well. (Law of Vocational Education of the People's Republic of China, 1996, para. 13)

Chinese Text 4

新中国成立 50 年来特别是改革开放以来, 教育事业的改革与发展取得了令人瞩目的巨大成就。但面对新的形势, 由于主观和客观等方面的原因, 我们的教育观念、教育体制、教育结构、人才培养模式、教育内容和教学方法相对滞后, 影响了青少年的全面发展, 不能适应提高国民素质的需要。(中共中央, 国务院, 1999, 第 1 自然段)

English Version

Since the founding of the People's Republic of China, and especially since the implementation of reform and opening-up policy, education reform and development has resulted in tremendous achievements. However, education does not fit the new context due to inferior ideas, systems/structures, graduate supply patterns, teaching content and approaches, which do not meet the demand of improving the quality of citizens. (The Central Committee of the CPC & The State Council, 1999, para. 1)

Chinese Text 5

推进职业教育的改革与发展是实施科教兴国战略、促进经济和社会可持续发展、提高国际竞争力的重要途径, 是调整经济结构、提高劳动者素质、加快人力资源开发的必然要求, 是拓宽就业渠道、促进劳动就业和再就业的重要举措。在我国加入世界贸易组织和经济全球化迅速发展的新形势下, 要狠抓职业教育, 抓出成效。(国务院, 2002, 第 2 自然段)

English Version

Promoting the reform and development of vocational education is an important means of implementing the strategy of invigorating China with science-technology and education, promoting sustainable economic and social development, and improving international competitiveness. Moreover, promoting the reform and development of vocational education is an inevitable demand of restructuring the economy, improving the quality of labor, and accelerating human resource development. Furthermore, promoting the reform and development of vocational

education is an important measure for expanding employment opportunities and promoting employment and reemployment. In response to the new situation of China's entry into the WTO and economic globalization, vocational education needs to be strengthened to achieve substantial results. (The State Council, 2002, para. 2)

Chinese Text 6

随着社会主义市场经济体制的建立，市场将在人力资源配置中发挥更加重要的作用，职业教育必须面向市场，坚持以就业为导向，建立新的机制和办学模式。(教育部、劳动保障部等，2003，第6自然段)

English Version

With the establishment of the socialist market economy, the market will play a more important role in human resource deployment. Meeting the market's demand, vocational education needs to be employment oriented and needs to establish new mechanisms and models of school provision and talent education. (The Ministry of Education & The Ministry of Labor and Social Security, et al., 2003, para. 6)

Chinese Text 7

从2006年起，严格招生计划、收费标准和选拔录取程序。各地普通专升本教育的招生规模要严格控制，在当年省属高校高职（专科）应届毕业生的5%以内，并纳入国家下达的普通本科总规模内。(教育部、国家发展和改革委员会，2006，第8自然段)

English Version

From the year 2006, recruitment plans, fee scales, and selection procedures of undergraduate education based on upgrading examinations shall be strictly supervised. The number of students recruited to undergraduate institutions via the upgrading examination shall be controlled to less than 5% of newly graduated students from HVE institutions administered by provincial governments, which comprises a part of the whole recruitment plan of undergraduate education. (The Ministry of Education & The Commission of Development and Reform, 2006, para. 8)

Chinese Text 8

课程建设与改革是提高教学质量的核心，也是教学改革的重点和难点。高等职业院校要积极与行业企业合作开发课程，根据技术领域和职业岗位(群)的任职要求，参照相关的职业资格标准，改革课程体系和教学内容。建立突出职业能力培养的课程标准，规范课程教学的基本要求，提高课程教学质量。(教育部，2006，第8自然段)

English Version

As foci and difficulties in teaching reform, curriculum construction and reform are at the center of improving teaching quality. HVE institutions need to cooperate with industries and enterprises in curriculum development and reform curriculum structure and teaching content according to occupational requirements and occupational qualification standards. In order to improve teaching quality, curriculum standards should focus on occupational competence and basic requirements for curriculum teaching need to be standardized. (The Ministry of Education, 2006, para. 8)