

THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION REGIME: PRINCIPLES AND NORMS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

This paper analyzes the content of the international consensus on Vocational Education, presenting this type of education as important in the agenda of debates on the socioeconomic development of nations. To this end, it seeks to identify the principles and norms of vocational education existing in the International Education Regime, based on the content analysis of the recommendations of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco).

Keywords: Vocational Education. International Education Regime. Technical and Vocational Education.

1. Introduction

In the international scenario, from the end of the 1980s, vocational education gained space and importance, being the object of several debates in congresses and conferences. In 1987, in Berlin, took place the first international congress in Technical and Vocational Education (TVET) – a nomenclature that designates the modality of vocational education in the international context. As a result of the congress held in Paris in 1989, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco), the main organizer of the congress, approved the first international convention strictly dedicated to the theme of vocational education (UNESCO, 1989).

Ten years later, in 1999, the 2nd TVET International Congress was held in Seoul. The consensus produced by the Congress were systematized in the Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education document, published by Unesco in 2001. This text, considered one of the main normative documents of professional and technological

education in the international scenario, aims to guide the member countries in the reform of TVET systems, adapting them to the demands of the contemporary world and to the labor market.

The analysis of document content in the template proposed by Bardin (2009) is the methodological basis used in this research. The concept of an international regime developed by Krasner (1983) is presented below, as well as the three classic chains of analysis about the concept. The subsequent part is dedicated to the principles and norms of vocational education existing in the International Regime of Education from the document's content analysis.

In this way, the objective of this work is to analyze the content of the international consensus on vocational education, presenting this type of education as a subject of great importance in the agenda of debates about the socioeconomic development of nations. In order to do so, it uses the theory of "International Regimes" (KRASNER, 1983), seeking to identify the principles and norms of vocational education present in the International Regime of Education, based on the content analysis of the document *Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education* (UNESCO, 2001).

2. The concept of an international regime

According to Amaral (2010), currently, in social sciences, the term "regime" has different understandings; however, all approach the idea of a set of governing rules

and principles that control a particular field of action. Thus, according to the author, regimes are regulatory structures that are somewhat independent of their participants, with dynamic forms of social organization based on both formal and informal elements and are permeated by a complex network of interested agents. Amaral (2010) defends that the theory of regimes must be seen in the context of the discussions about governance, since both concepts share their research object, that is, "both focus on the different conceptions of how the processes of socio-political regulation are coordinated between the various agents, public and private" (AMARAL, 2010, p.42). The author states that:

The concepts of international governance and regime refer to principles and rules of collective decision-making in contexts where there is a plurality of agents or constellation of agents (states, international bodies, etc.) and where there is no strict formal system of control capable of dictating the rules of the game between them, as it is the case with the international dimension of public education policies (AMARAL, 2010, p. 42).

Stephen Krasner (1983) elaborated the classic definition of international regimes widely used today: "Set of implicit or explicit principles, norms, rules and decision-making procedures around which each actor converges his expectations into

The theory of regimes must be seen in the context of the discussions about governance

a given area of international relations "(Krasner, 1983, p. 2). Krasner uses this definition as a starting point for discussions about the concept of an international regime. The author presents three chains of analysis about the concept present in the book: (1) conventional structural guidelines that downgrade regimes as ineffective or non-existent; (2) Grotian orientations, which see regimes as inherent elements of the international System; and (3) the modified structuralist perspective, which admits the existence of regimes under certain restricted conditions, and can be considered as a conciliatory position between the realistic and institutionalist perspective of international relations. The author points out the articles by Young (1983) and Puchala and Hopkins (1983) as examples of the Grotian orientation. The text by Strange (1982) is representative of the traditional structuralist view. However, most of the texts in the book can be classified as modified structuralist, since they accept the basic analytical assumptions of realistic structuralism but sustain that the international regimes can have a significant impact, under certain conditions, even in an anarchic world. For this last chain, the author identifies, mainly, the work of Keohane (1983) as a great contribution.

In the structuralist tradition, the work of Strange (1982), is considered an important synthesis of the critical analysis of the concept of the international regime. The author promotes a number of criticisms in the field of international regimes. She argues that the concept is pernicious because it overshadows and obscures the relations between power and interests, which are not only the most important but also especially the fundamental causes of states' behavior in the international system. The author analyzes the origin of field studies, situating it in the United States of the 1970s. According to Strange, the study of international regimes is a North American interest aiming to remain as hegemonic in the system. With the problems faced by the United States in the decade in which the first articles about the term arise, it would be a mechanism found to minimize the national and international difficulties of the country. So, it is important to note that Strange starts from the idea that the USA, as the largest world power, would be able to condition the action of international actors according to their interests.

On the other side of the discussion, the Grotian tradition, which sees the regimes as widespread phenomena in all political systems, with fundamental impact on the actions of nation-states. Young (1983) disagrees with the analysis by Susan Strange, who sees international regimes as impartial academic fads. Young argues that international regimes are institutional arrangements that help to explain and even determine the behavior of international actors. In this view, Puchala and Hopkins state that:

Regimes exist in all thematic areas, even in those where there is a great competition for power, traditionally seen as clear examples of anarchy. Statesmen almost always feel constrained by principles, norms, and rules that prescribe and proscribe different behaviors (PUCHALA; HOPKINS, 1983, p. 270).

For the authors of this chain, the role of the development of a world culture is essential to reach a more appropriate analytical theory of international relations, because, in the way they argue, the international system should not be understood only as consisting of sovereign states that seek for their survival as their only goal. Young argues that the relationship between agents on the international scenario inevitably generates convergent expectations, thus generating recognized standards within an international regime, which in its turn accentuates the agents' behavior. This dialectical relationship is understood as inherent in the political life of states, and therefore, these authors defend the existence of regimes in all fields of political action.

Finally, as a conciliation between the two aspects presented, Robert Keohane's (1983) vision emerges among the most important of the chain called "modified structuralism". Despite starting from the conventional structuralist realist view, i.e., a world of sovereign states seeking to maximize their interests and powers, for this author, the concept of "international regime" should not be denied by structuralists authors. According to his vision, the regimes arise from voluntary agreements between legally equal actors as groups of governance arrangements that include networks of rules, norms, and procedures responsible for regulating the behavior of their members. Thus, in a world of sovereign states, the basic function of regimes is to coordinate the behavior of states in particular areas of interest in which the international cooperation helps each member to achieve the desired results.

At this moment, for the purposes of this article, it is important to point out two notes, namely: (1) justify principles, norms, rules and procedures for decision-making; and (2) differentiate the terms "international regime" and "international bodies". Recovering Krasner's definition, the author explains that:

Principles are beliefs in facts, causes, and moral issues. Norms are defined as standards of behavior in terms of rights and obligations. Rules are orders and prohibitions for action. Decision-making procedures are prevailing practices for making or implementing collective choice (KRASNER, 1983, pp. 2-3).

According to Krasner (1983), it is necessary to carry out a differentiation between principles and norms, on the one hand; and rules and procedures on the other. According to the author, principles and norms provide the basic defining characteristics of a regime. Any changes made to this primary basis of regimes should be understood as a regime change. However, different rules and procedures for decision-making may be compatible with the same principles and norms, so that any change in these elements of a regime should be interpreted as an internal change in the regime. According to Krasner (1983), the most fundamental political arguments are more related to norms and principles than to rules and procedures. It is also important to note that for Krasner (1983), if the principles, norms, rules, and procedures of a regime's decision-making become less coherent, then that regime has weakened. The solidity of a regime is due precisely to the maintenance of its principles and norms, and to the consistency of these with the rules and procedures adopted.

When proposing the idea of an international education regime, Amaral (2010) identifies some of the principles and norms concerning education on the international scenario, but mainly presents his assumptions about the type of regime, its formation, and its members. For the author, principles are to interpret the reality in which problems and conflicts will be solved cooperatively by a regime. The principles incorporate basic concepts, and in the case of the international education regime, Amaral signals in advance at least two fundamental principles: the first would be that derived from the conception of human being of Enlightenment thought, which extends to all the capacity to learn, requiring education for their individual development. The second, taken as a consequence of the first one, highlights the socioeconomic returns that education can benefit, especially in relation to social inclusion and economic growth. As for the norms, understood as general instructive directives, the author emphasizes the human rights function, especially the right to education as the most recognized norm in modern societies – and the norm of compulsory education.

The case of the international education regime can be considered a process of self-generation

When pointing out that such principles and norms were of paramount importance for the emergence of the international education regime, more precisely, from the second half of the 20th century, Amaral (2010) approaches the conception of an international regime presented by Grotian authors, once they comprised the possibility of forming an international regime from the construction of basic ideals, such these ones described here. According to the author, the case of the international education regime can be considered a process of self-generation, based on the convergence of participants' expectations, and is therefore not something negotiated or imposed. It is in this sense that the author highlights the mutual understandings that are being built internationally on "what education is" or "what education should be", present in several comparative initiatives, such as international exams and evaluation programs, or conferences and world congresses in education.

The second point is the distinction between the terms "international regime" and "international bodies". Amaral (2010) argues that, although a large part of the studies focuses on the actions of states in the regimes, it is essential to emphasize that, increasingly, the diversity and complexity of actors in the international scenario intensifies, especially with the entry of the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). This statement is of great importance for this work because it indicates that international regimes should not be confused with international bodies, as would be the case, for example, in the case of this work, if the objective were to interpret Unesco itself as the international education regime. Despite finding in a Unesco document the possibility of recognizing principles and norms, this does not mean that the international organization represents the whole regime. Therefore, the object of study is not Unesco, but the international education regime, its principles and rules concerning TVET.

3. Principles and standards of vocational education

In this section, the objective is to identify the existing principles and norms in the International Education Regime focused on the theme of TVET, based on the content analysis of the document *Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education* (UNESCO, 2001), having by methodology the analysis of contents in the mold proposed by Bardin (2009) in the book *L'analyse de contenu*, of 1977. According to the author, the content analysis is a set of techniques of analysis of communications through systematic procedures that allow regrouping the contents issued by the messages from new categories of analysis, which must arise from the crossing of the theoretical references with the data collected. The analysis of Bardin's contents presumes that the elaboration of three distinct stages, which can be developed concomitantly in certain moments: the pre-analysis, the exploitation of the material and the management of the results. In the pre-analysis, it is up to the researcher to organize the material, defining the research *corpus*, i.e., the main documents that should be analyzed, as well as the secondary documents that should be used as support.

The selection of the document published by Unesco, *Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education*, for the purposes of this work, is justified by some arguments. Firstly, it is a document designed to review the recommendations of the international community regarding the functioning of national systems of vocational education, and which has been directly built up from the discussions and consensus reached after the 2nd International Congress of TVET, held in Seoul in 1999. When it is understood, therefore, that this is the product of a "decision-making procedure", it is possible to affirm that it represents the consensus regarding vocational education in the International Education Regime. The document aims to guide a new orientation on TVET in the construction of national education systems, according to the demands of the 21st century and with the objective of contributing to the strengthening of a culture of peace, sustainable development, social cohesion, and world citizenship.

However, before precisely entering into the analysis of the data of the document, it is important to note that it fits into a Unesco tradition of producing recommendations on important topics, through a process of international discussion, in the form of congresses and several preparatory events. In the case of TVET, the first version of the recommendations document was published by Unesco in 1962 and revised in 1974 and 2001.

Since the version of the document analyzed here comes from the contributions of the 2nd International Congress, held in Seoul, 1999, it is important to highlight some points related to the context of the discussions. The Congress, which had as its motto *Lifelong learning and training: the bridge to the future*, aimed at building new international standards (standard settings) in light of the perception of the new socio-economic context of the final years of the 20th century. The context of

the Congress' discussions is presented in the first article of the document, which refers to the creation of a global information society generated by information and communication technologies, which modifies learning and working, while increase awareness that the socioeconomic development level is unsustainable due to its harmful degree to the environment (INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1999, art.1).

Scientific and technological development, changes in work settings, and increased awareness of the impact of socioeconomic development on living and environment conditions are noted as the main elements that lead to the discussion of a new paradigm of development. In light of this, the document defends that TVET must assume a new perspective of performance. As it is shown in the excerpt from the tenth article, which highlights the need for lifelong learning to be tailored to the needs of the students, workers and employers with pieces of training that consider the judicious use of natural resources (INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1999, art. 10).

Faced with this challenge, the event was attended by more than 700 people from 130 countries, including 40 education ministers, three agencies of the United Nations (UN) and 29 intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations to discuss how TVET should adapt taking into account the challenges of the working world in the 21st century (UNESCO, 1999). The Congress' discussions had six key themes: (1) The new demands of the 21st century: challenges for technical and vocational education; (2) Improving education systems or lifelong learning; (3) Innovating education and the training process; (4) TVET for all; (5) Changing government and other stakeholder roles in TVET; (6) Strengthening international cooperation in TVET (UNESCO, 1999, p. 2).

TVET must assume a new perspective of performance

According to the document, the following stand out among the results of the Congress debates: (I) Recognition of the importance of TVET as an instrument of social cohesion and empowerment of young people and adults; (II) the understanding of the need for articulation with non-formal TVET; (III) the consideration of TVET according to the term "education for all throughout life"; (IV) recognition of the need for favoring the entry of minority groups, ethnic groups, traditional communities, refugees and former war veterans into TVET programs and courses; (V) the stimuli to overcoming gender stereotypes in TVET; (VI) the defense of the adoption of flexible programs and courses, based on the use of communication and information technologies, especially for the service to remote areas; (VII) the recognition of the need for stimulating the adoption of TVET models based on the idea of sustainable development.

At the end of the 1999 Congress, it was up to Unesco to construct a new version of the recommendations document, based on the results achieved. Approved on November 2nd, 2001, at a plenary session of Unesco's General Conference, the normative document *Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and*

Vocational Education summarizes in 100 articles¹ the consensus produced during the discussions related to the Congress, dealing with a wide range of topics, such as the design and objectives of TVET, the rationale of the term, as well as guidelines on the elaboration of public policies, curriculum, vocational guidance, working conditions, and especially TVET's relationship with basic education within the perspective of continuing education. The document presents a self-conception in its 4th article, emphasizing that if the recommendations should be applied by each country according to their socioeconomic needs, with a view also to improve the technical and vocational education (UNESCO, 2001, art. 4).

When establishing principles, goals, and guidelines, the document seeks to define technical and vocational education as a process that involves, besides the general education, the study of relevant technologies and sciences, as well as the acquisition of practical skills and knowledge related to occupations in several economic and social sectors. The document also highlights that vocational education is a method to facilitate poverty reduction (UNESCO, 2001, art. 2).

The analysis of the material was made through an analytical description capable of constructing a framework of references from the categories of "principles" – beliefs in facts, causes and moral issues; and "norms" – defined standards of behavior in terms of rights and obligations under the International Education Regime. From the recognition of the textual elements, according to the definitions mentioned, it is possible to verify at least four principles and five norms, on which the whole international consensus on Vocational Education is built, as it is described below.

3.1 Principle of the contribution of vocational education to individual development

This principle is directly related to the one presented by Amaral (2010) about the international education regime in general: the belief in the fact that every human being is able to learn and produce knowledge through his/her mental and physical abilities. This principle, originated in the Enlightenment thought, continues to guide all understanding about the human condition in international documents. From this understanding of the human being, the document presents TVET as a form of education capable of contributing strongly to the development of the potential of all individuals. The document emphasizes that vocational education should lead people to have a critical view of the political, social and environmental consequences of contemporary scientific and technological changes (UNESCO, 2001, art. 5b).

The contributions of TVET to individuals are even clearer in 8th article, which also highlights its role in developing decision-making capacities in teamwork and community leadership as a whole (UNESCO, 2001, art. 8).

The principle of contribution to the individual is the origin of defending the implantation of TVET systems in all nations

Throughout the document, the principle of contribution to the individual is the origin of defending the implantation of TVET systems in all nations of the world. Thus, the size of the set of contributions presented indicates a fundamental pillar of the understanding of TVET in the contemporary world.

3.2 Principle of TVET's contribution to social development

In most of the document, the second principle is presented as a direct consequence of individual development for the social progress of nations. In this sense, the text defends that TVET systems should be directed towards improving the quality of life through a culture of learning that allows individuals to expand their intellectual horizons, acquiring professional skills that allow them to become positively involved in society (UNESCO, 2001, art. 6b).

Thus, it is known that investments in the creation and maintenance of TVET systems assume significant returns, including workers well-being, productivity, and international competitiveness. Thus, the government should provide adequate financial incentives and, in the least developed countries, seek cooperation from bilateral and multilateral training (UNESCO, 2001, art. 9c). It is also noteworthy that the document presents the defense of the use of TVET for greater democratization (UNESCO, 2001, art. 5a).

Also in relation to this principle, another point still can be signaled in the interpretation of the text. It is about the understanding that TVET can help to develop programs for preparing people for social services from a community or family care perspective, such as “nursing and paramedical professions, nutrition and food technology, home economics, and improving the environment” (UNESCO, 2001, art. 44, our translation).

3.3 Principle of TVET as an integral part of basic education

In the issues raised by the document presented above, the text raises the issue of integration into basic education to the condition of a fundamental principle of TVET. According to the text, such integration must take place with the abolition of barriers between levels and areas of education, between education and the world of work and between school and society (UNESCO, 2001, art. 6 °).

Also in the sense of integration with basic education, the 7th article further states that TVET systems must be elaborated as an integral part of the basic education of every individual, as a way of initiating technology, the world of work and the human values of responsibility (UNESCO, 2001, art. 7 °).

The issue of the relationship with basic education remains in chapter IV of the document, entitled “Technical and vocational aspects of education in general”. It contains the description of the three functions of TVET in basic education: the first thought as an enrichment of the teaching-learning processes through the

introduction into the world of work and technology, the second as a vocational guidance action that favors the decision-making of young people in relation to their work activities, and the third as a training action that allows access to work and career for young learners.

3.4 Principle of lifelong learning

The last principle appears gradually in several points of the text, however, is better identified in chapter VI, entitled “Technical and Vocational Education as Continuing Education.” It is about the defense of the construction of educational systems that allow the continuous formation of all the citizens of a nation, in a constant process of updating, including, considering the care of people of advanced ages. The document says that lifelong education should be created through

open, flexible and complementary structures of education, training, and professional school guidance, considering the provisions of modern information technology in education, regardless of whether these activities occur inside or outside the formal education system (UNESCO, 2001, art. 13, our translation).

More precisely, the document demonstrates how the principle of lifelong learning should be understood in TVET in Article 46. Continued education should offer flexible possibilities of education to all, enabling the permanent professional updating and adaptation to new technologies. That said, we now treat the TVET standards identified in the document under review.

3.5 Norm No. 1: Access and Democratization

The general guiding definition, namely “defined standards of behavior in terms of rights and obligations” (KRASNER, 1983, p.42) also refers to a scenario linked to international law. Most of the norms are derived from human rights, precisely, the Right to Education and Labor Law, and also linked to conventions, such as the Access and Democratization norm, which can be referred to the Convention against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960).

During the work of identifying standards, the idea of behavior patterns prevailed. Then, it was possible to identify several articles that sought to guide the practical actions of the TVET systems, in some cases, with substantial content and detail.

It is noted the search for the definition of a broad educational service standard, initially placing in the 7th chapter, the issue of gender equity at the same level of importance of the care of several minorities. In articles 27, 28 and 29, again, the issue of equal access for men and women divides space with the recommendation of service to minorities, but for the first time, the document presents the disabled as a public of special interest.

It is possible to recognize the broad set of audiences that must be served by TVET

Article 52, in the chapter on Continuing Education, also refers to the norm of access and democratization of TVET, when proposing that it should focus on special groups: women who need to return to the labor market after maternity leave; older and unemployed workers who need to adapt to new occupations; migrants, refugees, indigenous people and people with disabilities who need to adapt to a new active life; and marginalized groups, such as out-of-school and demobilized youth in post-conflict situations (UNESCO, 2001, art. 52). Thus, it is possible to recognize the broad set of audiences that must be served by TVET.

3.6 Norm No. 2: Planning and Evaluation

The norm identified is largely addressed in Chapter III entitled “Policies, planning, and administration”. According to the content of the chapter, policies in TVET should be formulated based on the principle of social development. And to do so, the document defends a view of TVET as a high priority. Thus, this norm seeks to consolidate a pattern of international behavior that takes TVET as one of the main issues of development agendas. In this sense, article 10 presents some of the practical guidelines that must be met by the nations:

- (a) give high priority to technical and vocational education in national development agendas, as well as in educational reform plans;
- (b) assess short-term and long-term national needs;
- (c) provision of current and future appropriate allocations of financial resources;
- (d) creation of a national body responsible for coordinating planning in technical and vocational education based on analysis of statistical data and projections to facilitate complementarity between employment policy, planning and educational policy (UNESCO, 2001, art. 10, our translation).

At this point, it can be seen the developmental theme of TVET, which is linked to the recommendation to create national bodies responsible for the elaboration of analyzes and research that may contribute to the construction of policies. This establishes a bureaucratic body capable of producing data and knowledge about TVET, considered to be fundamental for a good investment for development.

This standard also includes the recommendation for the establishment of standards for TVET by the responsible national bodies. This is what Article 15 is about: in order to ensure quality, the national authorities in charge should establish criteria and standards, subject to periodic review and evaluation, applying to all aspects of technical and vocational education (UNESCO, 2001, art. 15).

According to the text, the standardization and creation of criteria should be broad in their themes, from the prerequisites of qualifications of the teachers to the physical

facilities in a general way, including the analysis of the quality of curricula and teaching materials.

This norm also includes the defense of the elaboration of evaluation surveys of the TVET systems. From the standards and criteria that should be stipulated, evaluations should favor the process of increasing the quality of TVET programs and courses. Evaluations must be carried out in two distinct ways: on the one hand, research that has as object the student learning or pedagogical issues. On the other hand, those that measure TVET's relationship with the world of work in general, through the analysis of indices and socioeconomic statistics. In the latter sense, it should be noted that statistics considered relevant include those relating to part-time enrollment, placement and abandonment rates, salary and self-employment (UNESCO, 2001, art. 16d).

In this way, it is possible to notice that the document defends a vision of broad planning and evaluation of TVET systems, understanding it as a policy of priority within the international context, based on the principle of social development.

3.7 Norm No. 3: Flexibility

The flexibility norm permeates several moments of the text. However, it is more explicit in the "Organization" section of the fifth chapter, Article 31 provides broad guidance on the organization patterns of TVET, covering the full-time, half-shift and open-distance forms.

According to this article, full-time TVET must include general education. At the mid-shift, three different ways are suggested: launch day, sandwich system and block launch system. The open-distance form covers the uses of correspondence, TV, radio, and internet.

Through all these different possibilities of TVET offerings, which also suggest the adoption of an active stance by employers, the document defends the construction of a behavior pattern of TVET systems based on the idea of the diversification of means and forms, in order to attend all the realities inherent to the nations. Distance learning, understood as a fundamental technology for the democratization of access to TVET, is stimulated by the recommendation of equipment purchases and training of educational centers.

3.8 Norm No. 4: Teaching Work

Chapter IX, dedicated to the theme of the TVET professional team, presents, initially, the norm regarding the teaching work in its article 74, in which it is defended the equality of the status of the teacher of TVET in relation to the teachers of the basic education. In relation to TVET teachers:

The Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers adopted by the Special Intergovernmental Conference on the

Status of Teachers on October 5th, 1966 applies to them, especially regarding the provisions relating to the preparation for a profession, continuing education, employment and career, teachers' rights and responsibilities, conditions for effective and apprenticeship education, teachers' salaries and social security (UNESCO, 2001, art. 74a, our translation).

In addition to issues of teachers' rights, the norm in the text deals with the standards of qualifications that cover from professional experience in occupations related to the courses and programs in which they teach, as well as specific knowledge of teaching in TVET. In general, it is expected that the training of teachers of TVET Systems will be broad, avoiding excessive specialization, and focusing on pedagogical issues.

Thus, as can be seen in the reading of article 84, the training of teachers of TVET must have: a) theories of education in general, technique and professional; b) relevant psychology and sociology to the discipline to be taught; c) classroom management, with methods of teaching and assessment of students; d) teaching techniques using information and communication technologies; e) creation and production of modular and computer-aided teaching materials; f) supervised teaching practice prior to the position; (g) school and vocational guidance as well as education management; h) planning, management, and maintenance of school facilities; i) safety training, with emphasis on safe work (UNESCO, 2001, art. 84).

It is expected that the training of teachers of TVET Systems will be broad

It is noticed the centrality of teaching work, a key element in all TVET systems, which must have extensive training, including professional exchange practices with companies in general.

3.9 Norm No. 5: International Cooperation

In the last chapter of the document, entitled "International Cooperation", there are the elements that configure the norm that seeks to guide the cooperative practices of nations in TVET. According to the text, member states should encourage the creation of a favorable environment for international cooperation, through partnerships and teacher exchange programs.

Article 99 encourages countries to exchange experiences around good practices to create international standards and norms for: evaluation systems; scientific and technical symbols; qualification and certification of professionals; equipment and technical standards; information processing; equivalences of qualifications that imply the standardization of curricula and tests, including aptitude tests; safety, including at work, through testing of materials, products and processes; protection and conservation of the environment (UNESCO, 2001, art. 99).

It is noticed the defense of a scenario of intense cooperation among nations about TVET, pointing to a sense of standardization that must be continuously evaluated and compared. Finally, the last article summarizes the purpose of the standard of

international cooperation, which would be the continuous research on its application, for countries to use lifelong technical and vocational education as a mean of reducing disparities between the North and South of the globe so the 21st century can be more prosperous and peaceful (UNESCO, 2001, art. 100).

4. Final considerations

Based on the foundation of the concept of international regime within international relations debates, and after identifying the wide variety of TVET principles and norms contained in the document *Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education*, it was possible to characterize the TVET theme in the international scenario as a subject of great importance within the agenda of debates about the socioeconomic development of nations.

The analysis of the document makes it possible to understand that this type of education is perceived as a powerful tool for individual and social development and that it must, therefore, be understood as an integral part of basic education in order to guarantee access to training for work, but should not be limited to the basic levels of educational systems.

TVET, as the document demonstrates, must be thought of in a flexible way, present at all levels of education and capable of providing the most diverse types of courses and programs for serving a broad audience.

Notas

¹Divided into 10 chapters: I. Scope; II. Technical and vocational education in relation to the educational process: objectives; III. Policy, planning and administration; IV. Technical and vocational aspects of general education; V. Technical and vocational education as preparation for an occupational field; VI. Technical and vocational education as continuing education; VII. Guidance; VIII. The learning process; IX. Staff; X. International cooperation.

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