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Masterarbeit

Business model adaption of the inter-company vocational training institution UeBZO in China and Lao PDR according to intercultural matters

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Abstract

The UeBZO is a private company based in Weiherhammer, Germany, offering training services. One core area is the provision of inter-company training towards German companies. As part of the company's internationalization strategy, vocational training projects with other stakeholders have been established in China and Lao PDR. This thesis examines, if inter-company training institutions could be established in both domestic vocational training systems. An analysis of the Chinese and Lao vocational training system shows that the formal conditions exist, to do so. Furthermore, the thesis applies the cultural dimensions of the GLOBE study (2004) for China and Lao PDR onto the business model adaption process by Hilbig (2019). By doing so, adaptions according to specific intercultural matters are derived, which are summarized in one Business Model Canvas for an inter-company training institution for China and one for Lao PDR. The analysis shows that adaptions along those aspects can enhance the service quality and contribute to a unique market position of the UeBZO in both countries. The approach developed for China and Lao PDR is then generalized in a blueprint, making it possible to apply it in other countries, too.

Das ÜBZO ist ein privater Bildungsdienstleister aus Weiherhammer, Deutschland. Ein zentraler Geschäftsbereich ist die überbetriebliche Ausbildung für deutsche Firmen. Als Teil der Internationalisierungsstrategie des ÜBZO wurden in Kooperation mit anderen Organisationen Berufsbildungsprojekte in China und Laos aufgebaut. Diese Thesis untersucht, ob überbetriebliche Ausbildungsunternehmen in den beiden nationalen Berufsbildungssystemen etabliert werden können. Die Analyse des chinesischen und laotischen Berufsbildungssystems zeigt dabei, dass die formellen Voraussetzungen hierfür gegeben sind. Darauf aufbauend, werden die *cultural dimensions* der GLOBE Studie (2004) für China und Laos auf den Innovationsprozess für Geschäftsmodelle von Hilbig (2019) angewandt. Hieraus lassen sich Anpassungen nach interkulturellen Aspekten ableiten, welche jeweils in ein Business Model Canvas eines überbetrieblichen Ausbildungsunternehmens in China und Laos zusammengefasst werden. Diese Analyse zeigt, dass derartige Anpassungen die Dienstleistungsqualität in den jeweiligen Ländern erhöhen kann und daraus eine einzigartige Marktposition für das ÜBZO dort entstehen kann. Der Ansatz wird als Blaupause allgemein abgeleitet, wodurch das Konzept auch auf andere Länder angewandt werden kann.

Table of Contents

List of figures

List of tables

List of abbreviations

AEVO ..... *Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude (Ausbildereignungsverordnung)*

ASEAN ..... *Association of Southeast Asian Nations*

BBiG ..... *Vocational Training Act (Berufsbildungsgesetz)*

BIBB ..... *German Federal Institute for Vocational Education (Bundesinstitut fuer Berufsbildung)*

BMBF .. *Bundesministerium fuer Bildung und Forschung (Federal Ministry of Research and Development)*

BMC..... *Business Model Canvas*

CCA ..... *Chamber of Commerce Abroad (Aussenhandelskammer)*

CCI..... *Chambers of Industry and Commerce (Industrie und Handelskammer)*

CIVTE..... *Central Institute for Vocational and Technical Education (China)*

CoH ..... *Chambers of Handicrafts (Handwerkskammer)*

DCT ..... *Dual Cooperative Training (Lao PDR)*

EDP ..... *Education Development Plan*

GDP ..... *Gross Domestic Product*

GiZ ..... *Gesellschaft fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit*

HWO ..... *Crafts Code (Handwerksordnung)*

JNPI ..... *Jiaxing Nanyang Polytechnic Institute*

KMK ..... *Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (Kultusministerkonferenz)*

Lao PDR ..... *Lao People's Democratic Republic*

LDC ..... *Least Developed Countries*

LGTC ..... *Lao-German Technical College*

LNCCI ..... *Lao National Chamber of Commerce and Industry*

MoE ..... *Ministry of Education (China)*

MoES ..... *Ministry of Education and Sports (Lao PDR)*

MoHRSS ..... *Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security (China)*

NICVET..... *National Industrial Committee for Vocational Education and Teaching (China)*

NTC ..... *National Training Council (Lao PDR)*

NVQF..... *National Vocational Qualification Framework (Lao PDR)*

OSTA ..... *Occupational Skill Testing Authority (China)*

QA..... *Quality Assurance*

RLG .....*Royal Lao Government*

RTP ..... *Recruitment and Training Programme*

SEA-VET.net.....*Southeast Asian Vocational Education and Training Network*

SEZ .....*Special Economic Zones*

SME ..... *Small and Medium Enterprises*

TVET ..... *Technical Vocational Education and Training*

TWG .....*Trade Working Group (Lao PDR)*

UeBZO.....*Ueberbetriebliches Bildungszentrum in Ostbayern (Inter-company training centre in Eastern Bavaria)*

VEDI..... *Vocational Education Development Institute (Lao PDR)*

VEFF.....*Vocational Education Financing Facility (Lao PDR)*

VTC .....*Vocational Technical College (China)*

1. Introduction

The Ueberbetriebliches Bildungszentrum in Ostbayern (Inter-company training centre in Eastern Bavaria, short UeBZO) is a private provider of training services from Weiherhammer, Germany and specialized on delivering inter-company training services for German companies. As part of the UeBZO's internationalization strategy, the company has been involved in Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) projects abroad for several years. In China together with BHS Corrugated Machinery (Shanghai) Co. Ltd. and the An Ke Li Institute and in Lao PDR with BHS Corrugated Maschinen und Anlagenbau GmbH and the Lao-German Technical College (LGTC). Though the projects have already been established, yet the UeBZO did not try to fully establish the inter-company training model in those countries. Furthermore, the local projects have not been systematically adapted towards the culture of the host country. Inter-company training institutions are relatively unique stakeholders in the German TVET system, which are not or only partly present in the Chinese and Lao TVET systems. Though China and Lao PDR seek to strengthen their national TVET systems, especially oriented towards the German role model (Stockmann 2017, p. 70, MoES 2015, p. 61), the UeBZO's business model cannot just be copied into the Chinese or Lao context. Therefore, three research issues will be elaborated in this thesis:

- Can inter-company training institutions be established in China and Lao PDR?
- How can the inter-company training business model be adapted in China and Lao PDR along intercultural aspects to increase the local effectiveness and acceptance?
- How can the findings on the adaption process in China and Lao PDR be generalized as a blueprint?

Furthermore, the thesis aims to enhance the knowledge of the UeBZO and its international partners in China and Lao PDR on the national TVET systems of each country. The thesis builds up on the study "International business models of vocational training service providers. Business model innovation based upon the Dynamic Capabilities" (German title: "Internationale Geschäftsmodelle von Berufsbildungsdienstleistern. Geschäftsmodellinnovationen unter Berücksichtigung der Dynamic Capabilities", English translation by the author) by Romy Hilbig (2019) and the study "Culture, Leadership and Organizations. The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies" published by Robert House et al. (2004). The theoretical framework for the business model adaption, the linkage with cultural aspects and an approach to assess those cultural aspects will be elaborated in chapter 2. The Seizing Capability and especially the "recombination of material and immaterial resources"

(Hilbig 2019, p. 149) concept will be laid out in chapter 2.1. as the framework for the adaptation process. After a brief introduction in culture, intercultural competences and the most recent studies to operationalize culture, the GLOBE study (House et al. 2004) is further examined in chapter 2.3.. As for Lao PDR the GLOBE study does not provide a data set, the author conducted a non-representative data collection in Lao PDR. Chapter 3 provides a comprehensive insight into the TVET systems of Germany, China, and Lao PDR. As an institution within the German TVET system, the UeBZO and its' business model in Germany will be introduced in chapter 3.2.. For each country, the historical development of the formalized TVET system, current legal stakeholders, and the current state of inter-company training will be displayed. Along characteristics of the domestic TVET systems the current performance of those systems will be examined. The research is focused on the relevant formal level for the UeBZO in each country, which are introduced at the beginning of each chapter on the domestic TVET stakeholders and legal frameworks. Chapter 4 combines the Seizing Capability process (Hilbig 2019, p. 149) with the cultural dimensions displaying cultural differences among countries of the GLOBE study (House et al. 2004). Oriented along the four sub-categories of the Seizing Capabilities and upon the current state of the TVET systems from chapter 3, the starting points for adapting the current projects of the UeBZO in China and Lao PDR along the cultural dimensions will be identified and briefly elaborated. The derived adaptions are rather general, to provide a broad scope for interpreting them. Chapter 4.1.5. for China and chapter 4.2.5. for Lao PDR outlines suggestions how these adaptions could be put into action within the UeBZO's current projects in China and Lao PDR. These adaptions are summarized into a Business Model Canvas (BMC) for each country in these chapters, too. Chapter 4.3. summarizes the approach made for China and Lao PDR into a general blueprint, how to apply the business model adaption process along intercultural matters also in other countries. Chapter 5.1. picks up onto the three research issues and displays the conclusion of the thesis on each one. The thesis closes with a summary and draws up opportunities for further research.

2. Theoretical approach

2.1. Business model adaption

2.1.1. Hilbig's (2019) study on international business model innovation processes of German TVET providers

There are many publications on internationalization processes of German vocational training providers and adaptations of the German dual training system in countries around the world. There are studies comparing human resource development models of large multinational companies that are headquartered in Germany with their subsidiaries abroad, e.g. in the automotive sector (Wiemann et al. 2019b, Krzywdzinsk/Jürgens 2019, Pilz/Li 2019). Furthermore, there are studies on the implementation of (parts of) the German dual training system in other countries (Schreier 2015, DLR-PT 2019). German initiatives, such as iMove or the Federal Ministry of Research and Development (BMBF), provide publications on business model development and best practice country studies. The same has been done by Romy Hilbig (2019) when she examined business model development processes, both qualitatively and quantitatively. The focus of her research was based on German providers of vocational training services with existing operations abroad. In contrast to former studies Hilbig (2019) solely investigated the provision of vocational training services. Therefore, the author chose her business model adaption guideline for the analysis. Additionally, her research was conducted very recently and is based upon former research of the Fraunhofer Centre for International Management and Knowledge Economy. Hilbig (2019) examined strategies and business models of German vocational training providers abroad. Within two data collection phases, she collected the experiences of training providers in the industrial and business administration sector. In the first study, she interviewed employees and managers of 31 German training providers with existing operations abroad (18 from the industrial sector, 13 from the business administration sector) and conducted further literature review (Hilbig 2019, p. 59-60). Based on the qualitative findings, a five-parted model was created (value proposition, value delivery, value communication, value creation, value capture) with a total of 42 sub-categories. Manifestations of the concrete characteristics of each sub-category are summed up and the user just needs to pick the suitable one(s) for his/her use case. The construction kit can also be used to illustrate the concrete business model of the respective company out of 10 archetypes (e.g. Franchising, Licensing etc.) (Hilbig 2019, p. XVI). Hilbig's (2019) second study is focused on the innovation processes certain training providers used for the adaption abroad, theoretically oriented along the Dynamic Capabilities

concept by David J. Teece (1997). She selected seven business cases of German training providers abroad, conducted 43 interviews with employees and managers of these seven corporations and did further desk research. Derived from the Dynamic Capabilities concept, she displays three core capabilities (Sensing, Seizing, Transforming) assessing the stages of the business model adaption process abroad (Hilbig 2019, p. XVI). The Sensing Capability includes all processes necessary to identify new business opportunities, (new) technologies, markets, customers, and the ability to recognize alternative business models (Hilbig 2019, p. 143-144). The Seizing Capability outlines the processes necessary to design a concrete business model abroad based upon the Sensing Capabilities - e.g. focused on the adaptions in terms of language or cultural issues (Hilbig 2019, p. 235). The findings from these two phases come into action in the third phase, the Transforming Capability. After assessing the market and designing the business model, it needs to be implemented in the respective country, where, for instance, the right partners and adapted quality management systems are necessary (Hilbig 2019, p. 238). Altogether, the Dynamic Capabilities describe the abilities of companies to meaningfully assess new opportunities abroad, take relevant aspects into account when designing their business model and successfully implement it abroad. The UeBZO already went through the Sensing, Seizing and Transforming Capabilities when the project in China was established in 2016 and in Lao PDR in 2015. To improve these projects, this thesis analyses the four Seizing Capabilities processes taking cultural aspects in all processes into account – not only for the recombination of resources. To do so, concepts of culture and cultural dimensions to assess culture will be investigated in chapter 2.2..

2.1.2. Culture affects vocational training business models

From her research findings, Hilbig (2019) deducted four processes within the Seizing Capability:

- Developing training services / developing a concept
- Recombining resources (material and immaterial)
- Pilot testing in the market abroad
- Establishing willingness to cooperate / loyal partnership (Hilbig 2019, p. 235)

The higher the Seizing Capability of a company, the more likely it is that the adapted international business model fits into the new market abroad (Hilbig 2019, p. 238). Establishing new operations always requires assessing the situation, planning, and beginning to implement it. A vocational training provider from the South of Germany must do

that when the company wants to establish a subsidiary in the North. The customer demands may be different and the cooperation with relevant stakeholders may be different, too. But the administrative and legal system, the language, the cultural understanding and the overall environment will be more or less the same. Though there are differences between Northern and Southern Germany, these differences are rather small when one compares them with Lao PDR or China. Adapting a general training plan for in-company training from the original German one to one to be used in China or Lao PDR may still be quite easy. One just has to observe the work that is done in the companies and assess the technical demands. Such issues lie on the surface and can be seen. Cultural aspects (see chapter 2.3.) influencing business operations in a respective country on the other hand are not fully or always visible for a person coming from another country. National culture is therefore often visualized as an Iceberg model – visible artefacts such as buildings, language, science etc. lie on the surface and can be seen. Nevertheless, those visible aspects only account for a small part to the whole Iceberg, as societal norms, values, and basic assumptions lie beneath the water level and cannot be observed (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 21). Although recent publications emphasized the importance of a (socio)-cultural adaption in TVET (Wiemann et al. 2019a, p.17, Posselt et al. 2019, p. 188), assessing those differences is often missed out in guidelines outlining how operations abroad need to be adapted. In Hilbig's (2019) research, the process "recombination of material and immaterial resources" (Hilbig 2019, p. 149) focuses on the cultural adaption of the training services. As an immaterial resource concerning cultural aspects, she sums up "cultural adaption of trainings due to skills/experiences of trainers" (Hilbig 2019, p. 167) and "developers and trainers develop intercultural competences" (Hilbig 2019, p. 167). She outlines feedback from the training providers she interviewed on the importance of adapting the operations where cultural differences exist, but does not examine a concrete guideline for how this can be done systematically (Hilbig 2019, p. 130-131, 166-167, 188, 203). As culture is an immanent thing which influences the thinking and actions of people, those influences are also present in vocational education. Concrete political, economic, and cultural circumstances influence national TVET systems (see chapter 3). Though German providers of training services can tie onto the international appreciation of "Made in Germany" in the market positioning process, that kind of value proposition becomes outdated once there are more German actors present in the market. In that momentum, services adapted to the cultural aspects of the abroad market ensure a unique value proposition among the other competitors (Posselt et al. 2019, p. 181-182).

2.2. Defining culture, intercultural competencies, and cultural dimensions

2.2.1. Concept of culture: values, norms, and principles

The English word *culture* is derived from the Latin *cultura*, which was used to describe human intervention in agriculture - the soil cultivation, the caretaking for the stocks and husbandry in general (Piller 2017, p. 14). Though one may not think of this meaning when hearing the word *culture* today, it is still used in a similar sense e.g. when speaking of *bacterial cultures* or *tissue cultures* in biology and chemistry (Bennett 2005, p. 65). The word *culture* itself was adopted into the English language from French and Latin during the 15th century in the original meaning of the Latin word *cultura*. From the 16th century on, the word was further adapted to signify human growth in terms of spiritual and intellectual development of mankind. This resulted in an increasingly abstract understanding of the word, especially during the 19th and 20th century. Culture was slowly seen as an index of development and a set of higher standards, distinguishing civilisation from wilderness (Piller 2017, p. 15). Cultural institutions such as museums, public libraries, concert halls and art galleries were founded in Europe and America to support the process of cultural development (Bennett 2005, p. 66). Derived from the belief of a superior culture over savages, culture was also used as one source of legitimacy for colonialism within the process of European Imperialism during that time. Early scholars, like Edward B. Tylor (1832-1917), the first professor for anthropology at Oxford University argued that culture can be displayed as a linear development, from savagery to civilisation. According to Tylor, cultures could be measured and compared to each other. In the Eurocentric worldview of that time, societies such as Aboriginals in Australia or Tahitians were considered the earliest stage of culture, a "primitive culture" (Piller 2017, p. 15-16). Over the decades the term evolved. Table 1: Culture definitions sums up culture definitions from anthropology, psychology, and business administration:

Table 1: Culture definitions from anthropology, psychology, and business administration

Author (year)	**Definition of culture**
Edward B. Tylor (1874)	"The complex whole which includes knowledge beliefs, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society." (Tylor 1874, cited in Bennett 2005, p. 67)

Clyde Kluckhohn (1951)	"Collection of beliefs, values, behaviours, customs and attitudes, that distinguish the people of one society from others." (Steers/Nardon /Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 74-75)
Clifford Geertz (1973)	"The means people use to communicate, perpetuate and develop their knowledge about attitudes of life." (Steers/Nardon /Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 74-75)
Ann Swidler (1986)	"A toolkit of symbols, stories, rituals and worldviews that help members of one culture to survive and succeed." (Steers/Nardon /Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 74-75)
Fons Trompenaars (1993)	"The way in which a group of people solve problems and reconcile dilemmas." (Steers/Nardon /Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 74-75)
Geert Hofstede (2001)	"Collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others." (Hofstede/Hofstede/Minkov 2010³, p. 6)
GLOBE study (2004)	"Shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations." (House/Javidan 2004, p. 15)

Source: own summary

Most of these definitions have a few things in common – certain people doing certain activities and/or developing certain concepts together, which brings them closer together as a group or collective. Though only the GLOBE study draws up a rough timeframe of "shared matters [….] transmitted toward other generations" (House/Javidan 2004, p. 15), it is more or less understood that culture develops due to long-term processes and that it is not based upon single events. The plain term culture is a very general word and some scholars argue that breaking it down into its sub-categories (like beliefs, traditions and ideas) and combining them to a wider field of culture makes more sense (Bennett 2005, p. 63). This issue becomes clearer when looking at the many usages of culture today. Terms such as folk culture, mass culture, popular culture, street culture or media culture became part of the academic discussion on culture. The different usages show that there are many ways of assessing, breaking down and understanding culture (Bennett 2005, p. 63-64). As this thesis aims to elaborate on intercultural differences in a business environment, the GLOBE definition has been chosen as the underlying understanding of culture:

"Shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House/Javidan 2004, p. 15). The definition is based upon the research of the GLOBE study on cultural differences affecting business operation and has been validated and revised during further research of the study team (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 91). Like Kluckhohn's definition (1951), GLOBE's also elaborates on the methods and forms through which culture is transmitted. Furthermore, the GLOBE research findings will be the basis for the cultural deviations to adapt the vocational training business model in chapter 4.

2.2.2. Intercultural competencies: being able to adapt to different cultural environments

The overall concept of intercultural communication and the research on it can vary significantly. Intercultural competencies cannot be measured in total, but rather specific goals and measurable objectives based on the definitions. In the handbook of intercultural competencies from 2009, more than 20 different definitions and frameworks of intercultural competencies were discussed. Furthermore, the term(s) can be assessed with more than 100 different tools (Deardorff 2016, p. 121). Interculturality describes the overlapping of cultures between individuals or social groups. Therefore, individuals or social groups from different cultures must meet, to create interculturality. The outlandish must become relevant for the self, to create reciprocal relationships (Lang/Baldauf 2016, p. 16). Woodin (2016) summarizes research on the *Intercultural* as "examining patterns of behaviour when two or more cultural groups interact" (Woodin 2016, p. 104). The intensity of interculturality is dependent on structural and situational variables e.g. the social climate of the surrounding (e.g. within a certain organization), the kind of contact (time, intensity, mandatory or voluntarily), the relations with sub-groups (vocation, educational level, organisational culture etc.) or the current interests of groups/individuals (Schroll-Machl 2007, p. 31). To be able to cope with interculturality, intercultural competencies are necessary. Deardorff (2016) defines intercultural competencies as "communication and behaviour that is both effective and appropriate in intercultural interactions, with *effectiveness* referring to the degree to which the individual's goals were achieved while *appropriateness* refers to the manner and context in which those goals were achieved" (Deardorff 2016, p. 121). The thesis uses Deardorff's (2016) definition of intercultural competencies, as the two crucial pillars effectiveness and appropriateness match into the business context. She also refers to the fact that many publications on intercultural

competencies are written from a Western perspective, which begs the question, "Intercultural competencies according to whom and to what degree?" (Deardorff 2016, p. 121), as e.g. Asian viewpoints on the matter may be focused more on a relational definition of the concept (Deardorff 2016, p. 121). A foreign enterprise needs to act appropriately, according to the local culture, to achieve effectiveness. This understanding also matches the culture definition of the GLOBE study as enterprises need to bear the "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, […] of members of collectives" (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 3) in mind when starting business operations. If it does not put local circumstances into account e.g. when designing an *appropriate* product or service portfolio, it is very likely that sales are not *effective*. Meta research findings of Stehr, Dziatzko and Struve (2019) on the necessary individual competencies for successful expatriation processes of employees emphasize, what competencies are relevant for effective and appropriate behaviour. Nineteen out of 29 different studies conducted between 1960 and 2009 found that intercultural sensibility and its sub-constructs have a positive influence on the success of the expatriation process, which makes it the most common competency within the 29 studies. Intercultural sensibility is followed by competency flexibility (identified in 15 out of 29 studies), openness (identified in 13 out of 29 studies) and communication competence (identified in 10 out of 29 studies), while foreign language skills were only identified as positive competencies in 7 out of 29 studies (Stehr/Dziatzko/Struve 2019, p. 37-38). Language fluency is a necessary part of the process of gaining intercultural competencies, but not sufficient to achieving intercultural competencies (Deardorff 2016, p. 121).

2.2.3. Operationalizing culture with cultural dimensions

Researchers developed cultural dimensions to assess the differences between cultures. Steers, Nardon and Sanchez-Runde (2013²) refer to a metaphor from the anthropologist Edward Hall, that "[…] the analysis of culture could be likened to the task of identifying mushrooms. Because of the nature of the mushrooms, no two experts describe them in precisely the same way, which creates a problem for the rest of us when we are trying to decide whether the specimen in our hands is edible." (Steers/Nardon/Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 78). Applying Hall's metaphor on the cultural dimensions, managers need to decide which mushrooms are edible and which are not. He/she must decide, which model is helpful to assess cultural differences for his/her use case and what managerial implications this causes. Although cultural dimensions may sound helpful, they are not without criticism. Critics argue that reducing the complexity of cultures is often too general, as

culture is influenced by many sources. In particular, the reduction of cultures bound to national states is seen as questionable by some critics, as people may be citizens of a certain state but are not or are only part of the predominant national culture there to a certain degree (Piller 2017, p. 123, Haller/Naegele/Bergler 2019, p. 76). This problem can be seen in Lao PDR for instance. With a population of approximately 7.2 million inhabitants, the country is rather small and has a low population density of only 30,6 inhabitants per square kilometre (Central Intelligence Agency 2020). The modern national state is rather young and was only founded in 1954, when the country gained its independence from colonial power France. Due to its mountainous and densely wooded areas, many different ethnic groups evolved in the areas of todays' national state territory. Therefore, only two-thirds of the Lao citizens are also by ethnicity Laotians with the Lao language as their mother tongue. Though the other one-thirds are also Lao citizens, they are members of different ethnic groups with a different culture and the Lao language may not be their mother tongue (Vorapheth 2015, p. 370). On the contrary, even if one breaks down culture e.g. to a very small ethnic group, people will also act differently from what is considered "their" culturally determined behaviour as they, of course, also act individualistic and follow their personal imprint (Steers/Nardon/Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 91). It is very unlikely that neither members of a small ethnic group in Lao PDR nor 1,4 billion Chinese citizens only behave in one way that is considered as their specific cultural imprint according to a cultural dimension tool. Furthermore, culture is also not steady but rather dynamic and changes constantly. But measuring culture with cultural dimension takes place during a specific time frame, which means that it only displays culture to a certain glimpse of history. One also must consider differences in culture between urban and rural areas, differences between countries which are considered as classic immigration countries and countries with a rather homogenous population, differences between religious affiliations in one country and differences between age and sexes etc. A summary of some of the most comprehensive studies on cultural dimensions of the past decades and their respective methodologies can be found in the annex (Table 7: Summary of cultural dimension methodologies). Due to the surveyed population and their methodology the different studies are also suitable for different target groups or use cases. As the participants in the study of Schwartz (1994) have been surveyed without a concrete connection to an organisation, they are often used for consumer and marketing studies. The study by Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner (2012) focused on the high management level and is therefore suited for assessing the actions of high managers. When assessing intercultural matters within organisations, the GLOBE study (2004) and the study of Hofstede

(2010) proved to be most suitable (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 91). After comparing the most recognized cultural dimension tools, the author chose the cultural dimensions of the GLOBE study published in 2004 as the "edible mushroom" (Steers/Nardon/Sanchez-Runde 2013², p. 78) for the use case of this thesis, due to the following reasons:

- The GLOBE research team consisted and consists of researchers from all nations surveyed in the study, to ensure a cultural fitting of the standardized questionnaire within the countries to be surveyed. The local researchers and/or professional translators translated and back translated the standardized English questionnaire into their native languages to avoid an inherent systematic bias (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008b, p. 19). Scholars often criticised the ethnocentric research design and approach of many cultural studies. Due to their multinational team, GLOBE managed the issue of ethnocentric research design, as it mediates input from scholars from all around the world.
- Each one of the cultural dimensions is subdivided into practices and values within the country displayed, which opens broader insight into the specific culture. Due to the values, tendencies of future development can be derived, and the specific culture can be assessed more holistically. Though Hofstede criticised this methodology and doubted its validity, further studies validated the subdivision into practices and values (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 89).
- Though the number of participants in the survey may not have been that high in numbers compared to the studies of Hofstede (2010) and Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner (2012), the composition provides relevant informational value. To ensure a homogenous survey population worldwide, the GLOBE study only asked middle managers from domestic enterprises of three sectors (food processing, finance, telecommunication) in each country surveyed. As these sectors are found within all countries, they increase the study's internal validity (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 10). Though reasonable criticism has been expressed that this survey population creates difficulties in deriving conclusions for the general national culture, for this thesis, the stronger focus on the business sector is an advantage (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 89).
- Like the studies of Hall (1990), Hofstede (2010) and Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner (2012), the GLOBE study was further developed (further publications in 2007 and 2014) since the initial study was published in 2004. In 2020, a comprehensive data collection from 159 countries was conducted by 366 local researchers based upon the findings from the prior completed studies (GLOBE 2020c). Given the fact that the

UeBZO wants to use this thesis as a blueprint for other countries and the fact that the studies took several years, the next GLOBE study will likely provide a comprehensive and more up-to-date data basis for the next decade or even longer for a very high number of cultures. Though the initial data of the GLOBE study used for this thesis was collected between 1995 and 1997, it still makes sense to develop the blueprint based upon the GLOBE cultural dimensions, as new data from the GLOBE study are to be expected. Though the studies of Hofstede (2010) and Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner (2012) are more recent, it needs to be mentioned that much of their data still comes from their initial studies (Hofstede from 1980 and Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner from 1993) (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 56, Hofstede Insights 2020).

One general aspect, which was criticised often, is that culture is operationalized as equal to nation. One specific country is the level on which culture is displayed, though one country does not necessarily represent one culture (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 90). The Lao PDR example mentioned above emphasizes this issue. To cope with this issue, some studies segregated certain countries into sub-groups. Hofstede (2010) segregated some countries (e.g. Belgium in a Dutch and French speaking sample, Switzerland in German and French speaking sample) and so did the GLOBE study (2004) (e.g. Germany in Eastern and Western sample, South Africa in White and Black sample), but that kind of segregation within the studies is rather the exception than the rule (Hofstede/Hofstede/Minkov 2010[3], p. 36, House/Javidan 2004, p. 12). For the use case of this thesis, this limitation may be partly outweighed by the fact that the intercultural analysis for the business model adaption in the TVET sector is closely connected with the concrete administrative, legal, and political frameworks of one certain country or national state. Finally, one crucial limitation of all studies for this use case needs to be mentioned – the Lao PDR as a culture is not part of any survey, neither the GLOBE study (2004), the recent Hofstede (2010) study nor the research by Trompenaars/Hampden-Turner (2012). Unfortunately, the Lao PDR is also not part of the recent GLOBE study (2020). The author therefore decided to adapt the GLOBE methodology and conduct a not representative form of data collection in Lao PDR himself.

2.3. The GLOBE study (2004)

2.3.1. Research design

The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) project or GLOBE study is an ongoing research project, which was initiated in 1991 by Robert J. House, an American professor for Organization Studies. His initial idea was to conduct a

cross-cultural study of 20 culturally diverse societies to test the generalizability of charismatic leadership within organisations. Based upon former research - especially Hofstedes' (1980) widely recognized publication "Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values"- House further developed that concept and began to gather co-researchers from societal and management studies for the GLOBE project from 1992 on. As more and more local researchers joined the multinational GLOBE study, the team was able to develop a very culture sensitive methodology and research design. The GLOBE Coordinating Team consisted of 11 scholars from the U.S., Canada, Germany, Sweden, South Africa, and Columbia. The team was responsible for the overall coordination with the local researchers in the participating countries and held meetings on a regular basis. In August 1994, all local researchers were invited to a workshop in Canada. Fifty-four researchers representing 38 cultures attended the workshop, during which they agreed on a joint definition of leadership and culture, as well as the final research design for GLOBE (House 2004, p. xxi-xxii). At this point the study aimed to examine the "interrelationships between societal culture, societal effectiveness and organizational leadership" (GLOBE 2020a). The research design was based on an integration of well-founded theories on implicit leadership (Lord/Mahler 1991), the value-belief theory of culture (Hofstede 1980/Triandis 1995), implicit motivation theory (McClelland 1985), and the structural contingency theory of organizational form and effectiveness (Donaldson 1993/Hickson, Hinings/McMillan/Schwitter 1974) (House/Javidan 2004, p. 16). It was proposed that the data collection mainly would be done with two types of questionnaires: version Alpha asking 75 questions (items) on organizational culture and version Beta asking 78 questions (items) on societal culture. Both questionnaires also contained 112 items on leadership attributes. The 75 and 78 items of the questionnaire versions Alpha and Beta were condensed to the nine cultural dimensions; each dimension (construct) is a sample of three to five items. After the GLOBE project team agreed on the final versions of both questionnaires in English, the local researchers and/or professional translators translated them into their native language. To avoid an inherent systematic bias, all questionnaires have been retranslated into English by other translators and compared to the original English draft. Within two prior pilot studies (phase 1), the local researchers conducted one study in 28 countries with 877 participants and a second study in 15 countries with 1,066 participants. Based upon the findings from both pilot studies, nine dimensions could be identified via psychometric analysis. Also, GLOBE was able to refine the research design (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008b, p. 19-20). Following the pilot phase, the main data collection (phase 2) took place with 15,427 middle managers

from different organizations completing the questionnaires. Together with the data from phase 1, 17,370 middle managers from 951 different organizations completed the questionnaires between late 1994 and August 1997 and provided the data set for 62 societies for the GLOBE study. 175 researchers and coinvestigators in those 62 countries were involved in the data collection process (House 2004, p. xxv, House/Hanges 2004, p. 98-99). A middle manager was defined as, "[…] one who had at least two levels above and at least two levels below him or her in an organization. In the case of very small organizations, a middle manager was defined as one who reported directly to the CEO of the organization or had at least one level below him or her in their organization […]" (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008b, p. 21). Twenty-five percent of the middle managers in the study were female. On average all middle managers had full-time work experience of 19,2 years and 10,5 years working on the management level. On average, there were 251 respondents from each country. Furthermore, demographic data of 8,000 respondents has been collected, which was used for further research. The sampling of the study's participants followed a stringent selection process. Only participants from corporations headquartered in the host culture were included in the sample to exclude foreign multinational corporations, which would not have been indicative of the respective culture (House/Hanges 2004, p. 96). To increase the international validity with an internally homogenous analysis unit, only corporations from the food processing, financial services and telecommunication service sectors were selected for the sample, as these industries were present within all nations (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 10). Half of the surveyed participants from an organization completed the questionnaire version Alpha (organizational culture) and the other half version Beta (societal culture). By administering both questionnaire versions to separate samples of participants from the same organization or society, the common source response bias concerning both levels was minimized (House/Hanges 2004, p. 96). Due to this and the application of other statistical methods, the GLOBE team was able to indicate that the responses from the middle managers reflect the broader culture in which they live and not just the culture of middle managers alone (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 10).

2.3.2. The GLOBE cultural dimensions

Based on the data collected in phase 1 and 2, the GLOBE team was able to display the nine independent variables of culture – the cultural dimensions – for practices ("as is in the culture") and values ("as should be in the culture") for each country in the study. Widely considered as the attributes of culture, values sum up the schemas, beliefs and

theories that are common within a culture on both the societal and organizational level. On the other hand, culture can be observed and findings from cultures are reported as practices of entities within a culture such as organizations, schools, families, the legal system and so on. In the questionnaires, the values were expressed by the participants as judgements of what should be, whereas the practices were expressed as the current common behaviour that is within the respective culture (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 3). Both the practices and values for a certain country within the nine dimensions were quantified as scores ranging from 1 (not distinct) and 7 (strongly distinct) (Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 8, 12). Statistical analysis on the generalisability of the cultural dimensions proved that they could be used to measure cultural variables on the organisational and societal level (House/Javidan 2004, p. 20). The author summarized descriptions of the nine cultural dimensions from the GLOBE study to give the reader a brief, but decisive, insight on the explanatory power of each dimension (see annex: Table 8: Description of GLOBE cultural dimensions). As each GLOBE cultural dimension is a construct consisting of several items, the plain definition of the cultural dimensions does not always fully explain what it really means. Therefore, the author gathered the definition of the cultural dimension, a few short parts from the chapter on each cultural dimension describing it and a summary of real-life manifestations of the cultural dimension within a culture. The manifestations sum up the aspects that societies tend to when they score very high or very low within the respective cultural dimension – e.g. societies scoring high on the future orientation cultural dimension tend to have organizations with a longer strategic orientation etc. (Ashkanasy et al. 2004, p. 302). All information gathered for the cultural dimension summaries were parts directly adopted from the chapters of the GLOBE study (2004) and from the GLOBE website (GLOBE 2020a). For each society surveyed in the GLOBE study the scores for each cultural dimension, segregated in practices and values, have been gathered within the study's data evaluation process. The scores, questionnaires in different languages, the item list and contact to the local researchers are fully accessible on the GLOBE website (GLOBE 2020a).

2.3.3. The GLOBE cultural dimensions - adaption process for data collection in Lao PDR

Due to GLOBE's comprehensive data collection and evaluation process as described in the former chapter, it was not possible to gather the data for Lao PDR in this way. Adapted toward the needs of this thesis and with his available capacities, the author created a questionnaire that provides the participant an insight into the concrete practices and values of

certain countries of the 2004 GLOBE study. The participants needed to rank his/her own country – the Lao PDR – compared to those countries on a scale with one decimal place. Cultural dimensions have been described using the summary created by the author (see annex: Table 8: Description of GLOBE cultural dimensions). Based upon the raw data from the GLOBE study (2004), the author then created two charts for each cultural dimension (one practice chart, one value chart) for Germany (West), China, Thailand, Japan, and South Korea including the concrete score of each country. The raw data for the charts has been downloaded as an Excel file from the GLOBE website (GLOBE 2020a). The approach as the baseline scenario for the data collection on Lao PDR was as follows: when reading the description of each cultural dimension and seeing the concrete scores (practices and values) of certain cultures the participant is familiar with, one should roughly be able to estimate a concrete score (practices and values, submitted as numerical value with one decimal place) of his/her own society. Having finished the summaries and the charts, the author conducted a pre-test workshop with two Lao nationals living in Germany. He then updated the summaries and asked a Lao colleague to have relevant parts of the summary of the cultural dimensions translated into Lao language. The colleague is fluent in English and has several years of experience in Lao-English translations. She also adjusted the translation with another Lao colleague with a similar professional background. Having finished the Lao translation, the author created an online questionnaire on the polling website lamapoll.de. After finishing the first questionnaire draft on lamapoll.de the Lao colleague proofread it and adapted certain parts. The final questionnaire was published on 24 July and sent to approximately 50 Lao nationals, who are personal contacts of the author. He selected them according to their experiences abroad and/or international cooperation activities, which qualified them, in his opinion, to assess cultural differences in a more comprehensive way and to have a reflective point of view on their own country. The author also asked the participants to forward the questionnaire link to other such qualified persons. Table 2: Adaption process for GLOBE data collection in Lao PDR provides an insight into the work process and the timeline of the questionnaire. Due to the nature of the data collection, it needs to be stated that it can only provide a reference point for the use case of this thesis and that it does not provide any general validity or a general representation of the population. The selection of the participants did not follow the GLOBE approach (selection of middle managers from food processing, finance, and telecommunications sector). As the participants got to see the scores of other countries first and were then asked to estimate the score for Lao PDR, a certain bias was likely to happen and has been expected by the author. Additionally, the participants were

selected by the author himself. Also, while in the original GLOBE study the scale only offered answers on the integer, the Lao sample could answer more exactly to one decimal number. Furthermore, the cultural dimension has directly been measured with one question and has not been a construct consisting of several items as in the original GLOBE study. Therefore, the data is to be seen sceptical and only as an improvised assessment of the situation in Lao PDR for the very specific use case of this thesis.

Table 2: Adaption process for GLOBE data collection in Lao PDR

Time	**Step**	**Participants**	**Outcome**
February 2020	Assessing the GLOBE study (2004), summarizing the nine cultural dimensions.	The author.	Short and information densely description of each cultural dimension.
March 2020	Pre-test workshop to try out the improvised data collection concept on 08 March 2020.	Two Lao living in Germany, the author.	Rough estimation of scores on practices and values of Lao PDR, adaption of concept.
April – May 2020	Updating the summary, integrating the charts (practices and values) for Germany (West), China, Thailand, Japan, and South Korea.	The author.	Three documents: Guideline on the methodology of the GLOBE study, sample summary of content how one cultural dimension could be assessed, summary of the nine GLOBE dimensions.
June 2020	Translation process of descriptions and characteristics of each cultural dimension into Lao language.	Lao colleague of the author.	One consecutive summary of the nine cultural dimensions in Lao language, score charts (practices and values) for Germany (West), China, Thailand, Japan, and South Korea in Lao language.

July 2020	Drafting an online questionnaire with the Lao text, alternating update, and finishing of the draft.	Lao colleague of the author, the author.	Online questionnaire in Lao language, published on 24 July and sent to Lao partners, colleagues and friends of the author.
August 2020	Closing the survey, data evaluation.	The author.	Online questionnaire closed on 17 August, data processing and illustration of charts.

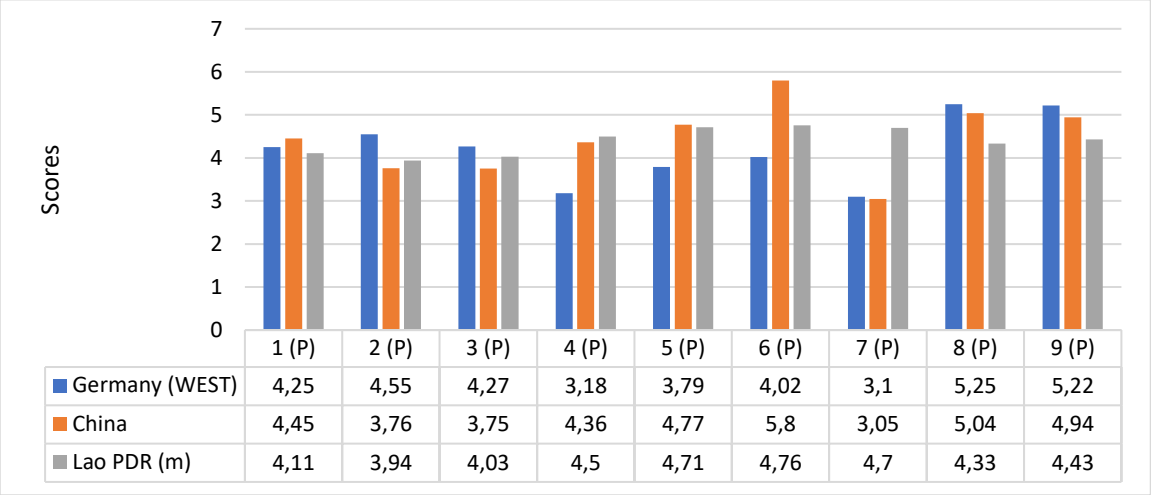
Source: own summary

2.3.4 Data evaluation and display

When the summary was closed on 17 August 2020, 213 participants had started it. 41% of those (n=87) completed the questionnaire. The author analysed the raw data in Excel and prepared it (see raw data set in annex: Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire). The Lao colleague estimated that in average a participant would need at least four minutes for the whole questionnaire. Therefore, a minimum questionnaire duration of four minutes (240 seconds) has been chosen as one selection criterium in the raw data. After applying this criterium, 23 participants have been rejected from the sample (ID 63, 76, 195, 95, 68, 180, 107, 82, 126, 202, 57, 203, 99, 134, 189, 184, 177, 65, 187, 125, 165, 158, 103). Participants who needed more than 20 minutes for the questionnaire have also been analysed (ID 38, 13, 157, 26, 39, 8, 44, 28, 21, 213, 183, 20, 14). When analysing the time the participants needed for the individual questions, it became obvious that most of those participants halted the questionnaire at one point and continued after some time, as only one question took them very long (ID 157, 26, 39, 8, 44, 28, 21, 213, 183, 20, 14). The duration for each question of the remaining two participants (ID 38, 13) indicates that they were slower readers than the others and thus needed more than 20 minutes (ID 38 in average 118 seconds per question, ID 13 126 seconds per question). This is more than twice the time for one question a participant needed (n=51, duration four to 20 minutes, in average 51 seconds per question). Taking more than 20 minutes to finish the questionnaire was therefore not considered as an exclusion criterium. The author then analysed the remaining participants (n=64), regarding to only submitting extreme scores, e.g. only very high or low scores all the time. One participant (ID 116) submitted the score 0,5 in all 18 items, which indicates that the participant did not participate conscientious. This participant was rejected from the sample, too. In the remaining sample, no further

anomalies have been found. The final sample consisted of 63 participants. From their individual scores for each cultural dimension (practices and values) the mean value (m) and the standard deviation (s) have been calculated, rounded on two decimal places. Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m) displays the cultural dimension practices. The data for Germany (West) and China have been derived from the GLOBE study (2004) raw data, the data for Lao PDR is derived from the author's data collection. Underneath the graphic the standard deviation for the data from Lao PDR is summed up in Table 3: Standard deviation of cultural dimensions (practices) for Lao PDR. Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m) displays the cultural dimension values, Table 4: Standard deviation of cultural dimensions (values) for Lao PDR underneath the standard deviation for the data.

Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)



	1 (P)	2 (P)	3 (P)	4 (P)	5 (P)	6 (P)	7 (P)	8 (P)	9 (P)
Germany (WEST)	4,25	4,55	4,27	3,18	3,79	4,02	3,1	5,25	5,22
China	4,45	3,76	3,75	4,36	4,77	5,8	3,05	5,04	4,94
Lao PDR (m)	4,11	3,94	4,03	4,5	4,71	4,76	4,7	4,33	4,43

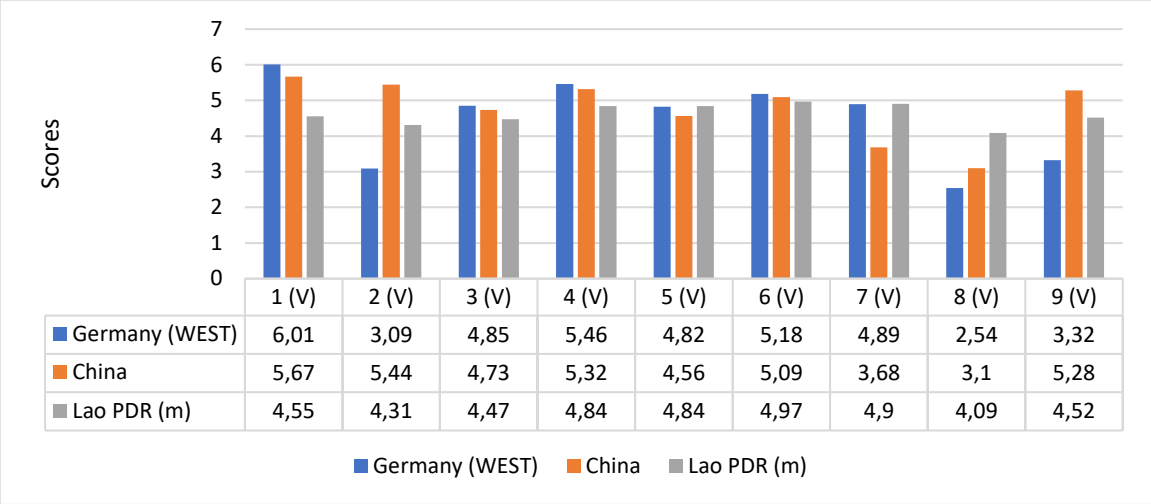
1 = Performance Orientation, 2 = Assertiveness Societal, 3 = Future Orientation, 4 = Humane Orientation, 5 = Institutional Collectivism, 6 = In-group Collectivism, 7 = Gender Egalitarianism, 8 = Power Distance, 9 = Uncertainty Avoidance. Source: GLOBE 2020d, data evaluation of raw data collection for Lao PDR (see Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire)

Table 3: Standard deviation of cultural dimensions (practices) for Lao PDR

Cult. Dim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Lao PDR (s)	1,12	1,31	1,19	1,44	1,28	1,38	1,25	1,76	1,29

1 = Performance Orientation, 2 = Assertiveness Societal, 3 = Future Orientation, 4 = Humane Orientation, 5 = Institutional Collectivism, 6 = In-group Collectivism, 7 = Gender Egalitarianism, 8 = Power Distance, 9 = Uncertainty Avoidance. Source: GLOBE 2020d, data evaluation of raw data collection for Lao PDR (see Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire)

Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)



	1 (V)	2 (V)	3 (V)	4 (V)	5 (V)	6 (V)	7 (V)	8 (V)	9 (V)
Germany (WEST)	6,01	3,09	4,85	5,46	4,82	5,18	4,89	2,54	3,32
China	5,67	5,44	4,73	5,32	4,56	5,09	3,68	3,1	5,28
Lao PDR (m)	4,55	4,31	4,47	4,84	4,84	4,97	4,9	4,09	4,52

1 = Performance Orientation, 2 = Assertiveness Societal, 3 = Future Orientation, 4 = Humane Orientation, 5 = Institutional Collectivism, 6 = In-group Collectivism, 7 = Gender Egalitarianism, 8 = Power Distance, 9 = Uncertainty Avoidance. Source: GLOBE 2020d, data evaluation of raw data collection for Lao PDR (see Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire)

Table 4: Standard deviation of cultural dimensions (values) for Lao PDR

Cult. Dim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Lao PDR (s)	1,09	1,17	1,13	1,35	1,34	1,36	1,43	1,66	1,40

1 = Performance Orientation, 2 = Assertiveness Societal, 3 = Future Orientation, 4 = Humane Orientation, 5 = Institutional Collectivism, 6 = In-group Collectivism, 7 = Gender Egalitarianism, 8 = Power Distance, 9 = Uncertainty Avoidance. Source: GLOBE 2020d, data evaluation of raw data collection for Lao PDR (see Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire)

3. Analysis of TVET systems

3.1. Vocational training in Germany

3.1.1. Historical development

The Gothic era in Central Europe (12-16th century) is a central root of the German TVET system. New architectural styles evolved at that time, which required science-based knowledge. The practical knowledge, which was in most cases only forwarded by speech, was not enough anymore to cope with the technical requirements and static calculations to build cathedrals, for instance. The architects and stone masons of that era saw the necessity to combine the old experience and practice-based knowledge with new theoretical knowledge. New organizations evolved in the construction huts of the Medieval building sites, which were the keepers of this knowledge – the guilds. The guilds consisted of a three-step qualification structure, from trainees over journeymen to masters. A transparent catalogue of requirements for each development stage broke ground for a formal further qualification process. Similar processes also started in other trades, where craftsmen formed corporations (BIBB 2017, p. 10). The concept of work and learning place separation was developed, which led to the establishment of early vocational schools. The guilds and corporations were for centuries the determining economic groups in the Middle and New Age in Central Europe. But certain internal (strong isolationism) and external factors (new products and techniques from the Americas, French revolution 1789) led to a rapid downgrade in the 18th century (Frommberger 2019, p. 300). In Prussia, the freedom of trade was declared in 1813 which abolished the rigid medieval system (Lipsmeier 2014, p. 26-27, Wolf 2019, p. 558). Until that time, vocational training was only carried out by the various guilds and corporations and was de-centralized. At the same time the industrialization started in many European countries, and new forms of economical and societal organization were developed. Manufactories turned into factories, where steam machines replaced human labour and made manufacturing processes more efficient. This ongoing technical development led to the necessity for new skills and trades, as products and manufacturing methods got more complex in a short time (Frommberger 2019, p. 299). In the early stages of the industrialization, factory workers were recruited from handicraft organizations. But the required skills in handicraft and industrial work became more diverse over time. Manufacturing methods such as working in assembly lines only evolved in the industrial field and were never used in the traditional handicrafts (Zinke 2008, p. 13). To act on this, the Prussian state started a governmental program to support industrial development by connecting the governmental education with the private manufacturing sector

(Wolf 2019, p. 558-559). One slogan in that program was “business development through education” (Lundgreen/Grelon 1994, cited in Wolf 2019, p. 559). Specialized schools for technical advisors and governmental officials for the construction and mining sector existed in Prussia since the late 18th century. Within the business development initiative, schools in other sectors were built up and the steering process was further centralized by the state (Wolf 2019, p. 559-560). With the establishment of the German empire in 1870/71 under Prussian leadership, the new-born German national state became the centralized steering institution to cope with the new developments by standardizing vocational education. Standardized job profiles, learning strategies, laws and regulations for companies and vocational schools were developed over time in close cooperation with the industry. The establishment of the vocational training theory dates to this time, too (Lipsmeier 2014, p. 28). In Germany certain groups in the society e.g. industrial and engineering associations and many unions argued to further continue the duality of the handicrafts code also in the industry, with a strong focus on the in-company training part. Those groups also participated in the further development of formalized structures to supervise and standardize the training programs (Frommberger 2019, p. 302). Though the guilds and corporations did not play an important role anymore in this process, the new concepts were based upon their traditions, such as the separation between work and learning sites or the qualification stages trainee - journeyman - master (Lipsmeier 2014, p. 28). In other European countries such as France, Sweden or the Netherlands, the state focused mainly on the school as the main actor for vocational training or shifted the responsibility towards the companies, e.g. in England (Frommberger 2019, p. 302, Euler 2019, p. 323). Another reason for the strong focus on the duality in Germany was that the German empire saw it as a tool for the integration of primarily young men from the working class into the monarchist society. As primary education was very basic in these times, state vocational schools were first needed to foster the basic education of the trainees. On the other hand, the rebellious potential of the youth was to be tamed and disciplined in these institutions, too. Therefore, vocational training in Germany was not only seen as an economic issue, but also always as an educational and socio-political issue (Zimpelmann 2019, p. 3-4). The dual vocational training system with different learning sites is based on a long-term history. The legal basis for the system, as it is still present in Germany now, was paved between the 1950s and 1970s (BIBB 2017, p. 8). Compared to many other countries, the standardization and stratification of vocational training programs in Germany is very high, with a focus on the demand-orientation learning process especially in the in-company training (Pilz/Junmin 2019, p. 335).

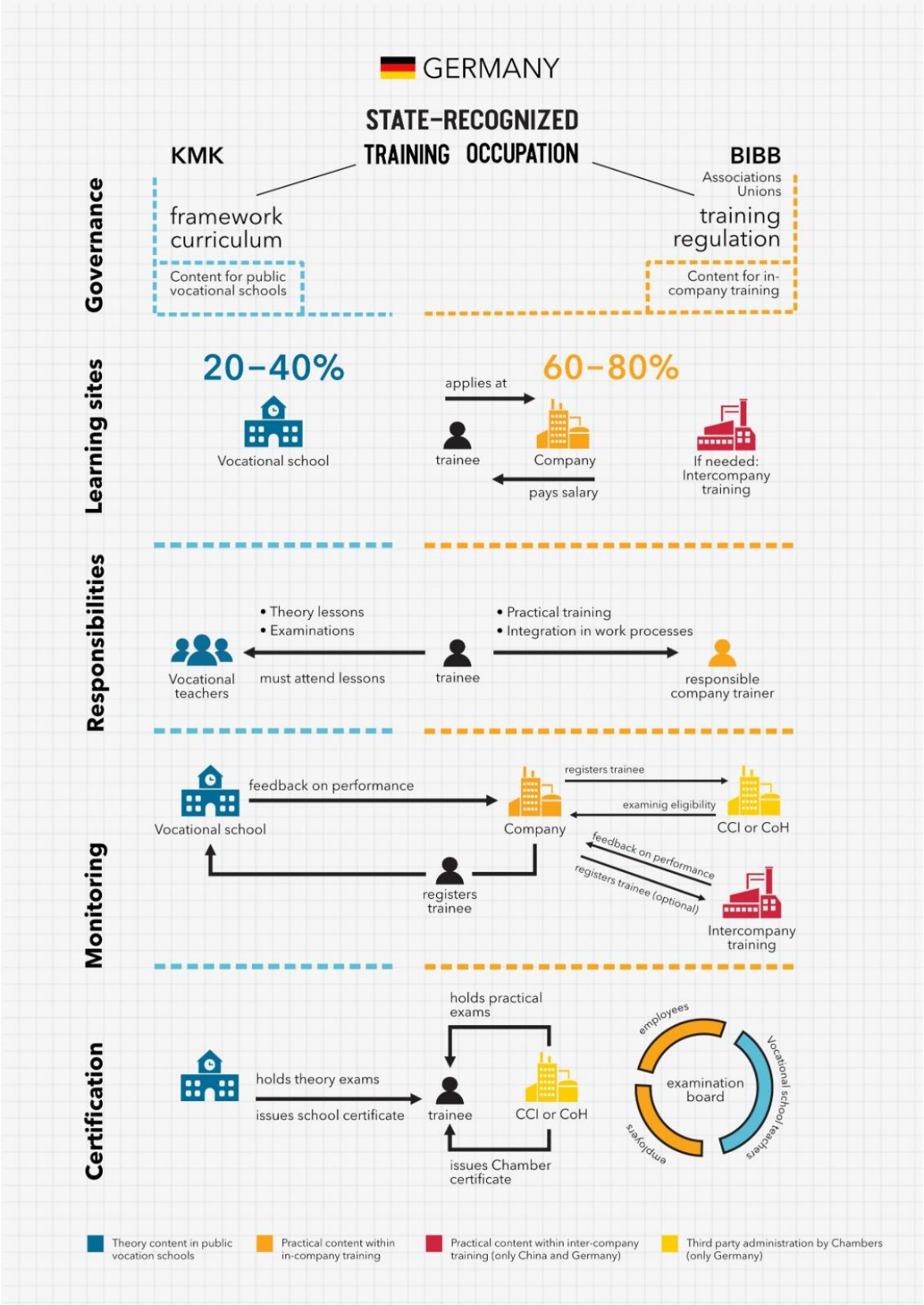
3.1.2. Legal structure and stakeholders

These are the formal focus areas relevant for the UeBZO within the German TVET system: Vocational training for skilled workers in the industry and handicrafts sector (excluding for instance social trades etc.) (Minimum entrance level: lower secondary graduation: 9 years compulsory schooling; TVET duration 2-3,5 years).

Vocational training in Germany is mainly regulated by two laws for companies and one law for vocational schools. Besides these laws regulating the content of the training, further laws regulate social security issues or minimum wages (GOVET 2019c, p. 6). For companies in the industry and the service sector, the Vocational Training Act (BBiG) issued in 1969 and revised in 2005 draws the legal guideline for the training (Batzel 2017, p. 14) and the Crafts Code (HWO) issued in 1953 and revised in 2010 for the handicraft trades (Batzel 2017, p. 25, GOVET 2019c, p. 15). Derived from these federal laws the German Federal Institute for Vocational Education (BIBB) formulates for each state-recognised training occupation a training regulation (BIBB 2017, p. 6, 8). These training regulations are the guidelines how the companies must conduct the in-company training. The training regulations contain the concrete name of the occupation, the duration of the training, a summary of the competencies and skills for the occupation, the general training plan for the in-company training and the requirements for the examinations (BIBB 2017, p. 12). Stakeholders from the private sector, e.g. industrial or employer associations, are mostly the drivers for updating and revising these training regulations. Expert groups based in the BIBB, consisting of members of the public and private sector lead the process (BIBB 2017, 24, GOVET 2019d, p. 13). The BBiG, the HWO and the training regulations are federal laws, as they affect the private sector countrywide (Sekretariat der KMK 2018, p. 6). As public education in the Federal Republic of Germany is a policy matter of the 16 federal states, the theoretical education in the state vocational schools must be regulated in the education laws of the 16 federal states. Therefore, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) of those federal states is responsible to create the so- called framework curricula for every state-recognized training occupation (GOVET 2019a, p. 17, Sekretariat der KMK 2018, p. 6, 10). Each framework curriculum contains preliminary notes on legal matters, the educational tasks for the vocational schools, teaching principles, notes on the specific training occupation, defined learning areas in which a rough time frame on the distribution of the content on the duration of the training is drawn and further references for the teaching staff (Sekretariat der KMK 2018, p. 12-21). By incorporating the jointly set framework curricula in the 16

federal education laws, a nationwide standard should be ensured. Besides the companies and the vocational schools as the pillars of the dual system, third parties such as the regional Chambers of Industry and Commerce (CCI) or the Chambers of Handicrafts (CoH) play an important role monitoring the training and examination (GOVET 2019d, p. 17). The 79 regional CCIs and the 53 regional CoHs together with their central associations are the lobby groups of companies in industry, commerce, and handicrafts. The CCIs and CoHs are involved in regional economic policies, offer consulting services e.g. on tax issues or foreign trade, and they monitor in-company training. Every company registered in these fields of business must become a compulsory member of the respective regional CoH or CCI and must pay membership fees according to the size of the enterprise. By doing so, all kinds of businesses no matter the size or professional focus should be incorporated and due to the diverse income streams, an independent role of the Chambers should be ensured (DIHK 2020b, ZDH 2020). When a company wants to hire trainees and conduct in-company training, the company must apply to the respective regional Chamber. The Chamber examines if the company is eligible to conduct in-company training according to the BBiG or the HWO (DIHK 2020a). Traineeship contracts for one of the state-recognised training occupations between the company and the trainee must also be registered at the Chambers before the training starts. By doing so the Chamber receives the information on the trainee and his/her concrete training program, the duration of the training, his/her responsible in-company trainer and which state vocational school he/she visits, so that it can closely monitor the training process (GOVET 2019c, p. 12). The Chamber organizes the final examinations in each state-recognised training occupation by setting up an examination board which contains at least three representatives from each stakeholder – employer, employees and vocational school teachers. This board sets the examination questions following national standards, conducts and evaluates the examinations and in case the trainee passed these examinations, the respective Chamber issues the dual vocational education certificate (GOVET 2019d, p. 19). Figure 3: Visualization of the German TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO) displays the stakeholder interactions on respective formal levels and outlines the position of inter-company training institutions (see chapter 3.1.4.) within the German TVET system.

Figure 3: Visualization of the German TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO)



Source: Own graphic illustration based upon chapter 3.1.2. and chapter 3.1.4.

3.1.3. Core principles of todays' vocational training structures

The German Federal Government summarized five core principles of the German vocational training system in a strategy paper: a) cooperation between social partners, economic organisations and the government, b) learning within the working process, c) acceptance of national standards, d) qualified vocational training personnel and e) institutionalized research and consulting on vocational training (Deutscher Bundestag 2013, p. 3).

a) Cooperation between social partners, economic organisations, and the government

As examined in the previous chapter, the German vocational training system is based on organically grown structures with several social partners. The CCIs and CoHs, the trade unions, the ministries of education, the BIBB, the state vocational schools and of course the companies are key stakeholders. The differentiated structures in the labour and industrial associations and the consensus-based decision-making processes provide a broad field for those actors. This ensures the acceptance, especially for companies running in-company training programs and state vocational schools (Jax 2012, p. 32-34). It is also crucial to mention that graduates who want to enter vocational training do not apply at a vocational school, but at a company. The company enters a vocational training contract with the trainee, must pay a training allowance to the trainee and needs to release him/her from work to visit the theory lessons in the state vocational school. The training contract must also be registered at the responsible CCI or CoH (GOVET 2019a, p. 6, 9). Social partners such as unions, chambers, and vocational schools therefore play an important role right at the beginning of the training process. Therefore, also the training costs are split up between the private and public sector - the company pays an allowance to the trainee and invests in in-company training while the state vocational schools offer theory lessons free of charge to the trainee (GOVET 2019b, p. 6). Due to this differentiated structure in which different stakeholders take over different tasks within the process, vocational training becomes demand-oriented, flexible, and especially accepted among the stakeholders (GOVET 2020a).

b) Learning within the working process

The central goal in the German vocational training system is the mediation of occupational competence towards the trainees especially in the working process (Gerlach/Reinhold 2008, p. 183). By doing so, trainees shall become able to work independently and solution oriented. The experiences gained in the working process also support their

personal and social competences. Combined with the theory lessons in the state vocational school the trainee therefore develops diverse practical, social, and methodological skills (GOVET 2020c). During the training process, a trainee has to become able to inform him/herself on relevant content regarding the work process, be able to plan it, make decisions during it, carry out the work process, steer and control it and in the end, evaluate the outcome. Therefore, he/she needs a broad set of skills, which can be divided into the professional competence containing practical skills as well as theoretical knowledge, and into personnel competence, which includes self-sufficiency and social competence (BIBB 2017, p. 22-23). The focus in the German vocational training system has always been laid on the acquisition of broad-based knowledge and general techniques, rather than on a company-centred over-specialisation of skills (Harris 2019, p. 350). This general set of skills shall not only qualify the trainee to carry out tasks in his/her occupational field during and after the training, but also to develop willingness in this person to continuously educate him/herself further. Due to the rapid changes in working environments, practical skills and knowledge can become outdated in quite a short time. Trainees leaving vocational education therefore need the personal competence to be prepared for further education and for the ongoing transformation of many businesses towards a stronger service orientation (BIBB 2017, p. 21). A close coordination between the KMK and the BIBB for the (further) development of state-recognised training occupations shall ensure these needs by updating the framework curricula for the state vocational schools and the training regulations for the in-company training (Deutscher Bundestag 2013, p. 3).

c) Acceptance of national standards

Occupational standards for the state-recognised training occupations are set by federal institutions such as the BIBB or the KMK to ensure one nationwide standard for each specific occupation (Deutscher Bundestag 2013, p. 3). Companies, which carry out in-company training programs, must follow the training regulations by the BIBB, which is supervised by the regional CCI or CoH. State vocational schools must teach according to the framework curricula issued by the KMK, which is supervised by the state ministries of education (Jax 2012, p. 32). Those quality control mechanisms date back to the establishment of the BBiG in 1969, the BIBB in 1970 and the funding of inter-company training institutions from that time on (Lipsmeier 2014, p. 31-32). The corporately shaped mediation process to set standards for the vocational training between the stakeholders and the ongoing cooperation between the social partners aim to open a broad consensus. Binding training regulations countrywide ensure that qualifications of a certain graduate

in the North and South of Germany meet the same standards (BIBB 2018, p. 129). Standardized training and examination requirements ensure a high quality in vocational training and a benefit to every stakeholder involved. For employers, employees and graduates likewise, it ensures transparency on skills and requirements. Employers can be sure that the respective graduate received a standardized training program according to the standards his/her company also follows. Furthermore, these standards are crucial for recruiting and human resource development strategies as they provide a standardized guideline for the occupations (GOVET 2020b). The same goes for the graduates, as they are aware of their current position and further possibilities in the labour market. This transparency and the equal opportunities evolving from them can lead to a high labour mobility, as companies in Northern and Southern Germany will have a very similar set of requirements for his/her occupation (GOVET 2020b). The achieved skills and their transparency are a great benefit for employers, when hiring graduates or when employing their own trainees after their graduation. These may be major reasons why Germany has the second lowest youth unemployment rate among the 27 member states of the European Union, with 5,6% in January 2020 in Germany compared to an average of 14,9% among the 27 member states, as the transition from TVET into the labour market is very smooth (Wiemann et al. 2019b, p. 360, Eurostat 2020, p. 2).

d) Qualified vocational training personnel

Qualified personnel is essential to provide quality training. As described previously, vocational training has always been closely connected with pedagogy in Germany. During the 19th century, the vocational training theory was created and further developed until present days. The current concept focuses on a symbiosis of the content-related skills and pedagogical skills for both teaching and training personnel – in-company trainers and teachers in state vocational schools (GOVET 2020d). Therefore, vocational pedagogy is the baseline for all teaching and learning processes and closely oriented towards the mediation of occupational competence, subdivided in the technical, economic, and social aspects. As shown in chapter 3.1.2., companies which want to run vocational training programs must apply to the respective CCI or CoH, which investigates the eligibility of the company to do so. One key aspect of this examination is that the company has to have at least one certified in-company trainer according to the Ordinance on Trainer Aptitude (AEVO) ("train-the-trainer") issued by a CCI or CoH (Batzel 2017, p. 8). Of course, in-company trainers need to have completed a vocational training program in their respective field themselves and gained work experience in the company. Therefore, the Chambers

only acknowledge in-company trainers who have both practical experience and pedagogical skills to pass their knowledge on in an adequate way (GOVET 2019e, p. 7). Vocational school teachers at state schools need to have completed both Bachelor and Master courses of study in their respective field, including a focus on vocational pedagogy at an institute of higher education. Those teachers need to collect in general 300 Credit Points according to the European Credit system and receive in general the title Master of Education (M.Ed.). After graduation, they become trainee teachers for one to two years depending on the federal state they work (Jenewein/Wengemuth 2015, p. 10). During that time, they are closely guided by experienced vocational school teachers before becoming full-time vocational teachers themselves (GOVET 2019e, p. 11). The standards for the study courses are set by the KMK and implemented by the federal states (Jenewein/Wengemuth 2015, p. 10).

e) Institutionalized research and consulting on vocational training

Being able to make demand-oriented decisions requires the relevant data to assess the current situation and prospective data on the future situation. This is one of the main tasks of the BIBB, being an academic partner for the relevant stakeholders and social partners as well as for the Federal Government of Germany. Central publications of the BIBB are for instance the annual report on vocational training in Germany and the directory of the state-recognised training occupations (BIBB 2017, p. 10-11). But as vocational training is embedded in a various field of economic, social and labour market issues, other research partners such as the Federal Employment Agency or the Federal Agency for occupational safety and medicine to only name a few, play an important role, too (BIBB 2019b, p. 3). As shown in this chapter, the dual vocational training in Germany is based on a corporately system which involves many different institutions such as companies, state vocational schools, the chamber organisations CCI and CoH, federal and state ministries of education, and employer and employee organisations. Occupational qualification is a task shared between the public and private sector (Hilbig 2019, p. 7). This very brief and broken-down summary of the vocational training system shall make one thing clear – the system is an organically grown system which has been shaped mainly since the industrial revolution in the 19th century. It was developed in Germany, which means that it was set-up and adapted according to the political, economic, and social environments in this long period of time (Euler 2019, p. 321-322). The system is continuously kept alive by the commitment the actors involved provide towards it. Though the word

"dual" might give the impression that the two actors company and vocational school are sufficient, there are more crucial actors than only these two.

3.1.4. Inter-company training

Inter-company training institutions supplement the dual training structure in Germany by adding a third institution into the training process. Inter-company training activities date back to the industrialization in the 19th century. They have been standardized after the Second World War and the concept of inter-company training was officially implemented in the HWO in 1953 and in the BBIG in 1969 (Gerlach/Reinhold 2008, p. 176). Their role is defined by law as a supplement learning site in the vocational training system (§ 5 Abs. 2 Nr. 6 BBiG and § 26 Abs. 2 Nr. 6 HWO) (BIBB 2020). Inter-company training institutions were broadly established in the 1970s mostly by the CCIs and CoHs with the intention to support companies that are not able to provide all training content necessary to fulfil the requirements according to the training regulations (Gerlach/Reinhold 2008, p. 178). From 1973, on the BMBF continuously provided funding towards these inter-company institutions. As shown in the previous chapters, the training profiles are designed to broadly qualify the trainee in his or her respective trade. Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) are often very specialized on certain technical content and therefore may lack resources, such as qualified trainers, equipment and the knowledge on the respective content to offer all training content (Zinke 2008, p. 15-16, Zedler 1981, p. 289). Therefore, inter-company training institutions ensure the SMEs ability to run in-company training programs (Pfeifer/Koehlmann-Eckel 2018, p. 20). Another advantage of such institutions is that they provide a regular training site or workshop to trainees in occupations, where the in-company training does not take place at a central workshop or occupations depending on the seasons, e.g. in the construction business (Howe/Jarosch/Zinke 2008, p. 5, BMBF 2001, p. 5, Zedler 1981, p. 285-286). The mission of inter-company training institutions is defined by the BIBB as follows: providing the possibility for SMEs to run in-company training programs, quality assurance in vocational training, assurance of skilled labour and supporting the competitiveness of SMEs due to the provision of demand-oriented vocational training and further education services (BIBB 2020). By extending vocational training models with an inter-company training institution, the dual system actually becomes a triple system as the trainee participates in training activities at three learning sites – in-company training in his/her company, theory lessons in the vocational school and practical training in an inter-company training institution (iMove 2013, p. 29). Over the time, more and more independent providers of inter-company training services were established (Franke/Koehlmann-Eckel 2015, p. 40). Companies can decide if they

are able and willing to provide all training content according to the state-recognised training occupation of the trainees themselves or if they want to send their trainees to inter-company training institutions for certain training modules. Great emphasis lies on the flexibility of the system of inter-company training. Setting up such models does not necessarily require a separate "physical" learning site, other than vocational schools. For instance, regional cooperation models especially in the handicraft sector can be seen. State vocational schools provide workshops and training equipment to inter-company trainers of the respective associations, who then provide the inter-company training in the state vocational school (Marwede/Stolley 2012, p. 6). Until the beginning of the 21st century, the inter-company training institutions' portfolio and their performance grew significantly (BMBF 2001, p. 14, Koehlmann-Eckel 2015, p. 19). Digitalization and the further individualisation of customer demands led to the need for a stronger service-orientation of inter-company training institutions (BMBF 2019, p. 3, Dechert/Jakobi 2008, p. 287, Pfeifer-Koehlmann-Eckel 2018, p. 21). Besides their core business, most of these institutions began offering training services for other target groups too, e.g. further education courses for employees, qualification seminars for unemployed people and vocational orientation seminars for secondary school students (Koehlmann-Eckel 2015, p. 19-20). The BMBF recognized this development process and began to further fund selected inter-company training institutions to become competence centres for specialized training sectors from 2000 on (Franke/Koehlmann-Eckel 2015, p. 42). As a central partner in the training process and due to their intermediate function between many stakeholders, the competence centres shall serve as transfer partners for new technologies and techniques (Gerwin/Kupfer/Meerten 2005, p. 55). Central for the competence centre status is a close customer-orientation and a lighthouse function towards other inter-company training institutions (Koch 2008, p. 87, Pfeifer/Koehlmann-Eckel 2018, p. 21). They shall also develop market push-strategies by identifying new technologies and techniques to be integrated in vocational training profiles, keeping them up to date. Each competence centre is responsible to monitor their respective sector and is urged to set up a cooperation network with research partners and production companies in the sector on which the centre is focuses on (Koch 2008, p. 95, 97). Therefore, they are also a crucial stakeholder in the adaption of existing and drafting of new vocational training profiles and training schedules (Schreier 2017, p. 39).

3.2. The UeBZO: a private provider of inter-company training services

3.2.1. Historical development

The UeBZO is a private company based in Weiherhammer, Germany, offering training services. The company was founded in 2003 as a subsidiary company of the machine and plant engineering company BHS Corrugated, also located in Weiherhammer. At that time, another industrial company located in Weiherhammer asked BHS Corrugated to join forces in vocational training, as they did not have enough personnel and equipment anymore, to conduct the training programs on their own according to the training regulations. The investment the company would have had to make was too high at that time. Though BHS Corrugated was able to continue its in-company training program on their own, they saw the possible savings in a joint program. Both companies therefore agreed on combining their in-company training programs in a separate inter-company training institution. Two trainers and one administrative employee set up the UebZO on the premises of BHS Corrugated in Weiherhammer. They began to provide parts of the in-company training in mechanical and electrical trades according to the nationwide training regulations to trainees of BHS Corrugated and the second partner company. Soon this business case developed on and the UeBZO was able to acquire further companies in the region as customers. New business areas such as further training programs for employees were integrated in the UebZO over the time and cooperation projects with local universities, the federal employment agency and secondary schools in the region began. A big step was made, when the UeBZO received the status as a competence centre for production technology in 2019 by the BIBB, as the first privately held institution. This step also emphasizes the development that was made over time by bringing together vocational training, further education, and academic education in one organisation (ÜBZO 2019, p. 10). In 2019, the UeBZO became an independent company with 50 employees serving more than 250 regional company customers and an international network (ÜBZO 2020b, p.3, ÜBZO 2019, p. 11). Projects in China, Lao PDR and South Africa, a stringent focus on digitalization, new learning techniques and innovative learning environments are current focus areas. Nevertheless, inter-company training services in the mechanical, electrical, and business administration field are still the crucial pillar of the UeBZO. As a non-profit private limited company, the UeBZO needs to reinvest all profits made during one fiscal year. The UeBZO only offers services of their own and not product training courses for external companies.

3.2.2. Business model of the UeBZO in Germany

The UeBZO is focused on three core areas:

1. Vocational training: Companies can book certain vocational training modules or the whole vocational training for their trainees in the UeBZO. Trainees acquire practical and theoretical skills in the UeBZO which they can apply in their company. The companies therefore do not have to invest (much) themselves in in-company vocational training structures to fulfil the nationwide in-company training standards.
2. Further training: Companies and organisations can book further training courses for their staff according to a catalogue or ask for individual courses. Further training courses are offered in the electrical and mechanical field, but also for IT-knowledge, managerial skills, or soft skills.
3. Research and International Affairs: In cooperation with partner companies, the UeBZO implements dual vocational training structures abroad to meet growing international demands. Furthermore, the UeBZO supports German companies to draft funding proposals e.g. for national or EU-wide research calls (ÜBZO 2020b, p. 6).

In this thesis, the focus lies on the first core area. Vocational training services are split up in two different models that are offered to the customers of the UeBZO:

- Model 1: The UeBZO is responsible for parts of the practical training. The UeBZO serves as a third learning site for trainees who are sent by their training company for selected training modules (e.g. specific technical courses, preparation for exams etc.) to the UeBZO.
- Model 2: The UeBZO is responsible for the whole practical training. Though the trainee signed his/her training contract with the training company, the company engages the UeBZO for the complete practical training.

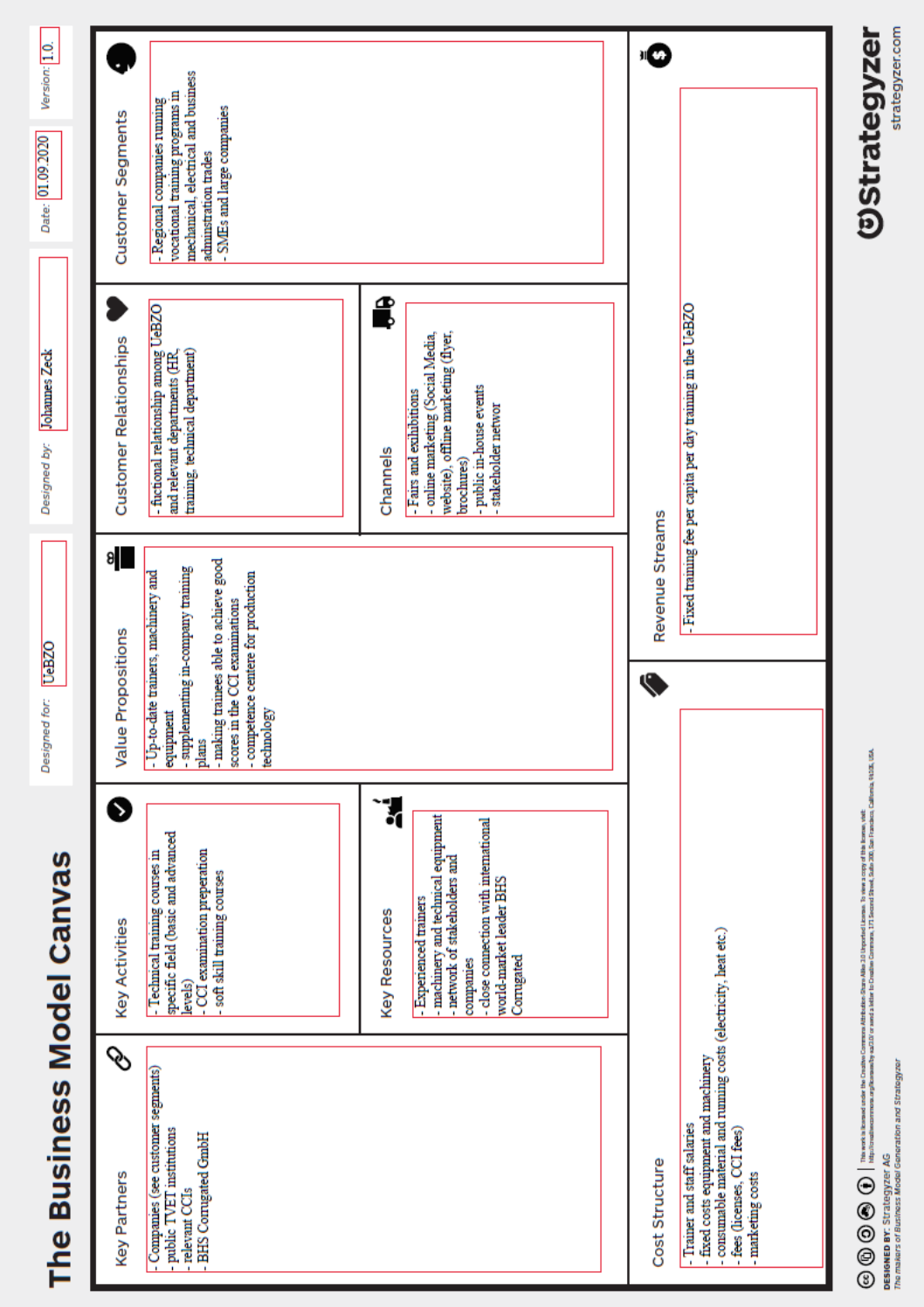
Figure 4: BMC of the UeBZO in Germany for vocational training services displays the UeBZO's business model in the BMC scheme. The BMC is a tool used to develop and visualize business models. It can be used to design a new business model or to improve an existing one. In contrast to a detailed business plan within a rigid time frame, the BMC is a very flexible tool focused on a changing environment. The BMC consists of nine segments representing four clusters of the business (market, revenue streams, infrastructure, cost structure). The segments are displayed on one layer which represents the interdependencies each segment has with the other ones (Samulat 2017, p. 81). According to a pregiven sequence, each segment needs to be filled out:

Table 5: BMC segments and description

No.	Segment	Description
1	Customer Segments	Target group which benefits from product / service
2	Value Propositions	Problems which are solved by product / service
3	Channels	How customers get to know about product / service
4	Customer Relationships	Kind of customer interaction
5	Revenue streams	How revenues are generated
6	Key Resources	Crucial material and immaterial resources
7	Key Activities	Crucial activities to keep the business model running
8	Key Partnerships	Crucial partners for the business model
9	Cost Structure	Crucial business expenses

Source: Samulat 2017, p. 83-84, summary in own table

Figure 4: BMC of the UeBZO in Germany for vocational training services



Source: Own summary, template from Strategyzer 2020

3.3. Vocational training in China

3.3.1. Historical development

Education in China has a long-standing history and was strongly influenced by Confucian principles. Kong Fu Zu (renamed by Jesuit missionaries to Confucius) was a civil servant and influential social philosopher in ancient China around 500 BC. His teachings shaped many societal and political developments in China and up until today, his principles have strong influence on education (Javidan 2004, p. 241). Individuals are urged to strongly focus on their studies, to develop oneself above being a common man and attaining an ideal life. Hard (self-)study, restraint and sincerity were expected from the individual, and to spread the benefits of these processes (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 434-435). Focused on the moral accountability, Confucianism lies great importance on the theories of governmental practices, great harmony among members of society and a hierarchical set of five relationships among those members (Carl/Gupta/Javidan 2004, p. 518, 523). Due to the strong emphasis laid on classical rather than technical/hands-on education, vocational training played a minor role, as working with one's hands was not the ideal sought on the development stages of man – a fact that still has a strong influence on the present TVET system (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 435). In traditional apprenticeships, knowledge and skills were passed on within the family or apprentices would go to skilled workers outside the family. These traditions were formalized during the Sui dynasty (581-618 AD) and the Tang dynasty (618-907 AD), when the imperial government established craft enterprises. The teaching was segregated into four models: teaching by word and example, mental teaching/learning, on-site teaching, and the master-apprentice relationship (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 600). Interactions between teachers and learners were based on the Confucian principles of senior – junior relationships, in which the apprentice was holistically guided by the master craftsman (Carl/Gupta/Javidan 2004, p. 518). Master craftsmen were to be honoured by the apprentices as the title was a respectful form of address for skilled workers who shared their knowledge with others. Apprentices would often live with the family of their master craftsman and were urged to work for the master also in not-occupation related fields. Even after graduation, many former apprentices had to stay with the master to make sure that the specific skills would stay within this family and secrets of their trade would not be spread. Though the craft enterprises were established by the imperial government for the whole country, they did not result in a systematic vocational education structure, and the curricular education was rather broad (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 600). Large change processes only happened with the conclusion of the Opium War in 1860 and the opening of China to Western powers. During the

second half of the 19th century, the need for reform processes in education arose among Chinese scholars. Focusing on science and industrialization processes, turning away from rigid Confucian education structures, and introducing Western education models were seen as ways to save the country from colonization and yet profit from the worldwide modernization processes. Picking up the influences from domestic scholars and ideas from Germany and Japan, the ruling Quing dynasty established a reformist TVET system in 1903 (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 435). Various industrial schools for skilled workers in the growing Chinese industry were first established in Shanghai, mostly on the secondary level and specialized in telecommunications, manufacturing, or commerce. Vocational education was considered to contribute to the national development by spreading technical skills and knowledge. The formalized system should contribute to the integration and education of social classes, which did not had access to education so far (Harbrecht 2018, p. 32). Despite those ambitious goals, the TVET system showed a rather slow development until the Communist revolution in 1949 (Li 2018, p. 199). With the establishment of the Chinese People's Democratic Republic in that year, education and vocational training played important roles in the development of the country and the political system towards a communist society (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 438). The first five-year plan announced in 1950 drew a very precisive need for skilled workers in many different technical areas. Standardization processes in education and the improvement of schools, curricula and management structures were implemented to increase the output in terms of skilled workers. Oriented towards the Soviet Union's planned economy, China began implementing a close integration of vocational schools into state-owned companies (Postiglione/Tang 2019, p. 131). Under Mao Zedong, hard labour, productive work, moral and political education were the drivers for building a proletarian society, which was to be achieved by combing theoretical knowledge and practical skills. The focus therefore was laid on a specialized workforce rather than university graduates (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 438). But despite the high relevance for China's development, vocational education was still considered as an inferior form of education among the society and had a low status compared to university education (Harbrecht 2018, p. 33). During the Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976, the TVET system phased a decline, as education was not considered important as part of the great societal changes of that time. Many vocational schools were closed or turned into factories (Harbrecht 2018, p. 33). Due to the rapid economic development caused by the policy reforms under Deng Xiaoping from 1976 on, a strong focus was laid again on TVET for national development. The initiation of large-scale international cooperation programs led to a variety of

influences into the Chinese TVET system from other countries such as Australia, the United Kingdom, the USA, and Germany (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 601). Influences especially from the Anglo-American countries led to general changes in the TVET landscape. The Chinese TVET system was aligned towards the Soviet model mainly in the 1950s and 1960s with a strong focus on vocationalism in specialized undergraduate TVET institutions. The TVET reforms during the 1980ies focused on academization processes aligned towards the American model. Many of these specialized undergraduate TVET institutions were merged into comprehensive universities on the tertiary level, with fewer elements of practice-oriented vocational training (Xiong 2011, p. 504-505). From the mid-1980s, on a stronger focus was laid on TVET for social development rather than shaping a communist society. The newly established social market economy created the need for a stronger demand oriented TVET system. To define the role of TVET contributing towards the economic development, the Vocational Education Act was announced in 1996. It mediated communist ideals with market forces and Confucian traditions (Schmidtke/Chen 2012, p. 440-441).

3.3.2. Legal structure and stakeholders

These are the formal focus areas relevant for the UeBZO within the Chinese TVET system: Higher vocational education (gao deng zhi ye pei xun) in public Higher Technical Colleges (gao deng zhi ye ji shu xue yuan) (Minimum entrance level: senior secondary graduation (9 years junior secondary compulsory schooling and 3 years senior secondary schooling; TVET duration 3-4 years).

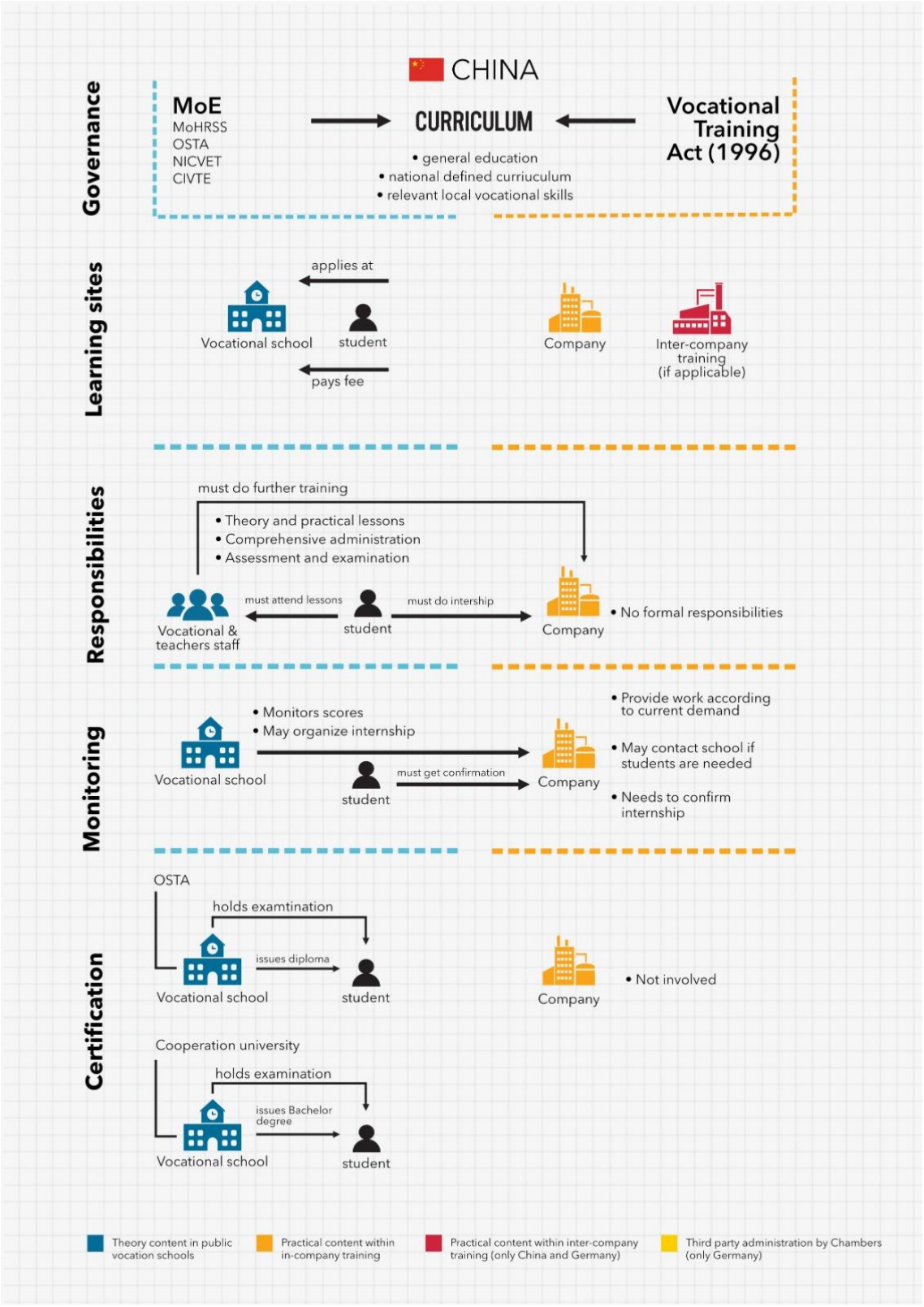
TVET in China is regulated under the Vocational Training Act, drafted by the Standing Committee of the Eighth National People's Congress and issued by the President of the People's Republic of China in 1996. The Act draws up the stakeholders in the TVET processes, regulates formal responsibilities, defines the educational levels on which TVET is provided, roughly outlines a financing concept for TVET and announces qualification standards. On the macro-level, the education administrative department of the State Council is responsible for the coordination with other sectors (MoE 1996). The responsibility for formal TVET in China lies with the Ministry of Education (MoE), which was announced as the central body for TVET by the State Council in 2005 (Yang 2014, p. 3). Furthermore, the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security (MoHRSS) is responsible for non-formal TVET and shares certain responsibilities with the MoE (UNEVOC 2018, p. 8). Though the overall responsibility for TVET lies with the MoE, which defines the general content of the education policies and curricula, the MoHRSS is

responsible for designing subject-specific content of the curricula and matching them with labour market demands. TVET is mainly based on the school level and combined with a variety of in-company training models. In contrast to the centralized steering of the TVET areas, the financing of the TVET institutions is rather decentralized. Approximately 40% of the TVET institutions' budget comes from the MoE, while the rest is split up between the provincial governments, the municipalities, towns and, in addition, comes from tuition fees (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 45-46, Li 2017, p. 206). After six years of primary education, students can continue the compulsory three years lower secondary education either in junior secondary schools in the general education branch or attend junior secondary technical vocational schools (Wiemann 2020, p. 148-149). Above the lower secondary level, graduates can choose between general senior secondary education for another three years or senior secondary vocational education between two to four years (Stockmann/Mayer 2017, p. 43-44). After graduating from senior secondary education, students who want to continue with higher education need to take part in the national entrance exams for higher education (*gao kao*). Regarding their score in this exam, they get up to four higher education options to choose from, one of them being the Vocational Technical College (VTC). When accepting the placement at a VTC, students must pay annual school fees (Harbrecht 2018, p. 21). Though the VTCs are part of the higher education system, in general they do not issue academic certificates. The training lasts in average three years and graduates receive a diploma. In some cases, VTCs cooperate with universities and offer training programs of four years, for which graduates are awarded with a Bachelor certificate, too (Stockmann/Mayer 2017, p. 45). In 2018 there were 10,300 vocational schools on the secondary level and 1,418 VTCs, altogether with nearly 27 million registered students (MoE 2019). Curricula in VTCs are split up in three parts: general education content, national defined vocational skills, and relevant local vocational skills (Harbrecht 2018, p. 31). The department for higher education of the MoE is responsible for the general education content within those schools. The MoHRSS and its' suborganization Occupational Skill Testing Authority (OSTA) are responsible for the national defined vocational skills, defining occupational standards, organizing examinations and issuing the respective diplomas for the graduates along the National Vocational Qualification Framework (NVQF) (Li 2017, p. 205, UNEVOC 2018, p. 9-10). In coordination with relevant stakeholders, the VTCs set the relevant local vocational skills and are responsible to recruit vocational teachers. Most of the vocational teachers are graduates from general academic universities, they are required to hold at least a Bachelor degree and have to participate each year for one month in in-company training

(Liu/Liu/Hariyanto 2020, p. 2). In certain areas such as Shanghai, VTCs also follow a dual-certified teaching system – teachers who also gained vocational skills in companies as the main vocational teachers and employing skilled workers from companies as part time vocational teachers (Harbrecht 2018, p. 31). Focus areas for the further development of TVET are centrally planned by the Communist Party Congress and issued within the National Medium- and Long-Term Plan for Education Reform and Development (currently 2010-2020) (UNEVOC 2018, p. 9). In line with the announcement of the Vocational Training Act, the Chinese government began to open the TVET sector for non-state-owned providers of vocational education, another aspect of the liberalization processes which began in the late 1970ies (Yang 2014, p. 32). A stronger cooperation between TVET in school and in-company training and a stronger commitment from the private sector has been requested by the Chinese government. Companies are urged to participate in the formal TVET process, e.g. by providing internship placements or in-company training for vocational school teachers. Still, the major stakeholder in the TVET process is the (governmental) vocational school. Due to the size and the diverse conditions throughout the country, a few different cooperation and in-company training mechanisms evolved in China. Many of these mechanisms follow foreign models (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 605). The most common one in the upper secondary TVET system is the 2+1 system – students receive training for two years in the vocational school and then do an internship of one year in a company (Harbrecht 2018, p. 31). During that time, the teachers are required to monitor the internship, ensuring a matching of the content at both learning sites (Yi et al. 2018, p. 212). The "front factory and back shop" (Xu 2019, p. 1340) model integrates production processes directly into the VTCs and they become companies on their own. Large international companies sometimes follow the training order model, in which they select students and let the teachers at the VTC train them following a prescribed schedule of their own. The VTC receives payment for this service from the company (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 601). Order-based training mechanisms are based on a joint agreement between a company and a VTCs. Goals are set and training assignments for the students at both learning sites are defined. These examples and the current project of the UeBZO (see chapter 3.3.3.) emphasize the great diversity in private sector cooperation mechanisms and the certain amount of flexibility the vocational institutions are granted. Due to the great variety of cooperation mechanisms between the VTCs and the private sector, the influence of companies on the student's performance assessments and in the end the influence on his/her diploma or Bachelor degree also varies. As this approach is rather de-centralized, some of the labour market research is

directly conducted in these institutions, too. The relevant local economic circumstances are considered, trying to adapt training models to strengthen the cooperation with the private sector in the long-term (Xu 2019, p. 1340). On the macro-level, the MoHRSS is responsible for collecting labour market information and deriving measures for and with the OSTA, e.g. for adapting the specialist content of the training in the VTCs and the occupational profiles. Furthermore, the Central Institute for Vocational and Technical Education (CIVTE) of the MoE is responsible for conducting research on vocational training, initiate pilot projects such as new industry cooperation mechanisms and draft reforms towards the MoE. The CIVTE has been established in 1990 as part of the Sino-German TVET cooperation and was thought to follow the BiBB role model as a think tank for TVET – another example of the various international influences in the Chinese TVET system (BiBB 2013, p. 30). Figure 5: Visualization of the Chinese TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO) displays the stakeholder interactions on respective formal levels and outlines the position of inter-company training institutions (see chapter 3.3.5.) within the Chinese TVET system.

Figure 5: Visualization of the Chinese TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO)



Source: Own graphic illustration based upon chapter 3.3.2. and chapter 3.3.5..

3.3.3. Current UeBZO TVET project in China

In 2016, BHS Corrugated Shanghai decided to implement a dual vocational training system to cope with the growing demand for skilled workers. The engineering company recognized a growing skills demand for electrical and mechanical workers in the production and assembly lines. Due to the long-term relationship of the mother company BHS Corrugated in Weiherhammer, Germany with the UeBZO, the decision was made to install the UeBZO as a consulting stakeholder in that process. A cooperation with the Jiaxing Nanyang Polytechnic Institute (JNPI), located on the outskirts of Shanghai, was set up and a three-year mechatronics class was installed. Entry requirement for the school is a senior secondary school graduation (nine compulsory years junior, three years senior secondary). BHS Corrugated Shanghai and four other local companies selected students at the JNPI and grouped them into the newly established mechatronics class. Every two months, the students switched between theoretical education in the school and applying their skills in their host company. At BHS Corrugated Shanghai, they were placed in the assembly lines and got either electrical or mechanical tasks. After their first year of general training as mechatronics, each one had to choose either electrical or mechanical specialisation. Employees in the assembly lines were assigned the task of their coach, integrating them into the work processes. When graduating, the students receive a governmental diploma from the school and a certificate from BHS Corrugated Shanghai. The UeBZO acted as consultant throughout the whole process e.g. by providing in-company training concepts, setting up the stakeholder networks or providing German trainers for technical and pedagogical trainings (mostly for trainers and vocational school teachers). In 2019 detailed plans were made to install an inter-company training workshop at BHS Corrugated Shanghai to further professionalize the in-company training. Unfortunately, these plans had to be put off due to the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020. Parallel to the project development in Shanghai attempts to spread out the concept were made in 2018. As many other companies in China face the issue of skills shortage, the management decided to combine the own needs with that business opportunity and offer vocational training programs for other companies. The UeBZO's development in Germany served as a guideline for the approach – the experiences of BHS Corrugated Shanghai's project should contribute to a vocational training service portfolio to be offered in other regions in China, too. To do so, the An Ke Li Institute has been founded to transfer the approach as part of a franchise model. Of particular interest as customers are German companies with subsidiaries in China. Cooperation projects have been set up with a Technical College in Shenzhen and Bengbu to acquire companies for joint vocational training programs. Some of

the in-company coaches from BHS Corrugated Shanghai shall become trainers to offer certain training programs for the An Ke Li Institute in its partner companies or partner colleges. Currently, plans are made with the Technical College in Bengbu to install an inter-company training workshop within the College's premises. An Ke Li trainers could then use the infrastructure there to conduct practical training.

3.3.4. Core principles of todays' vocational training structures

The six development sectors of the Chinese strategy paper of the MoE "Modern Vocational Education Development Strategy 2014 – 2020" published by the State Council of the People's Republic of China elaborate the characteristics of the Chinese TVET system. According to this policy, the Chinese TVET system follows these aspects: round off general TVET framework on the macro-level, a) harmonize the combination of education and production / skills application (dual track), b) harmonize transition from secondary to vocational education, c) foster TVET standards, d) enhance the quality of the TVET output, e) improve TVET school capacities and infrastructure (State Council of the People's Republic of China 2014). In the analysis of the Chinese TVET system, the first aspect "round off general TVET framework on the macro-level" will be left out, as it is primarily focused on the highest policy making level and it is left open what exactly is meant.

a) Harmonize the combination of education and production/skills application (dual track)

As described in the former chapter, there is currently a wide range of dual track TVET models in place in China. This is not a disadvantage but a necessary element of the TVET system to cope with the sheer size of China and its heterogenous local circumstances (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 603). Articles 20, 21 and 22 of the Chinese TVET Act urge companies to provide in-company training sites for TVET students (MoE 1996). However, especially on the higher vocational education level, there is still a lack of internship placements provided by companies. Often contact between students and companies is made by the TVET teacher. This indicates that many companies do not recognize the TVET institutions as a source for their employees. Otherwise, more companies would make the first step themselves (Xu 2019, p. 1340). The order-based training model emphasizes a certain lack of quality in the general TVET programs. Especially international companies choose this model to have a stronger influence on the output. Companies order a certain level of quality by paying fees to the school, which they do not get within the regular cooperation models (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 601). One reason is that TVET teachers lack practical skills and therefore can qualify their students only to a certain

level. Due to the academization of the TVET teacher training, based upon fundamental reforms in the 1990s, TVET teachers nowadays are academic university graduates who generally had very little practical experiences. An analysis of the World Bank Group found that, on average only 35% of the teachers and staff members in public vocational schools in China are having industry experience (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 37). A further quality decrease over the next years is likely, as TVET teachers with a practical background trained before those reforms will retire in the next decade or so. The current mix of "old" practitioners and "young" academically trained TVET teachers will therefore become off-balance (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 59, 63). Though the Education Development Plan (EDP) orders TVET teachers to receive workplace experience on a regular basis (at least two months practice training within a period of two years) (Harbrecht 2018, p. 34), TVET teachers lack support from their TVET school, e.g. when they are not being released from their teaching obligations for further training (Liu/Liu/Hariyanto 2020, p. 2, 5). Though the TVET Act from 1996 already drew up the need for companies to participate in the TVET process, there is still a great lack of general training plans for the students' internships. Companies can decide on their own what TVET students must do during their time of the internship – a fact which still leads to the issue of students being used as cheap laborers for simple work or in non-occupational related fields. That, of course, has a very negative influence on the students' motivation, also resulting in TVET dropouts. As there are no advantages for companies running in-company training programs (e.g. tax incentives), the motivation for companies to improve and/or invest in cooperation programs with TVET institutions is often still low (Yi et al. 2018, p. 212, 214, Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 61, 65). Another recent study showed that in many cases the in-company trainers of companies who cooperate with TVET schools have no pedagogical skills. The companies' skilled workers are expected to deliver the training (Liu et al. 2019, p. 158-159). According to the UeBZO's experiences, those assignments often lead to unsatisfying outcomes, as the assigned trainers still must fulfil their regular tasks. They seldom have extra time training the students to become part of the work process. Thus, students are often used for menial tasks and can hardly develop their practical skills further (Interview 2, 2020). To cope with that issue, TVET institutions have the responsibility to supervise TVET students during their internship in the company. Yet, a recent study showed that this only happened in 60% of the internships (Yi et al. 2018, p. 212).

b) Harmonize transition from secondary to vocational education

TVET has a low reputation within the Chinese society. TVET students are often seen as the losers within the school system who did not make it into an academic university. After completing senior secondary education, young men and women wanting to enter the tertiary education system need to take part in the national college *gao kao* entrance exams. The higher students score in the *gao kao* exams, the more education possibilities are open for them. Within the societal ranking of the tertiary education institutions, the VTCs come last. Therefore, it is clear to everyone that students in the VTCs scored low in the *gao kao* exams and therefore only had the chance to attend these TVET institutions instead of an academic institution (Yi et al. 2018, p. 7-8). This aspect is deeply rooted in the Chinese society and is based upon Confucian principles, in which head work is superior to hand work. A university degree is seen as the ideal educational career, measuring the worth of a person and an aspiration for others to achieve that, too (Harbrecht 2018, p. 27). In 2002, a new mechanism was inaugurated, allowing graduates of VTCs to attend the *gao kao* examinations a second time. If they achieve the relevant score, they can re-enter general academic education. Though it aimed to enhance the permeability of the education system, this mechanism also resulted in the usage of VTCs as the springboard into general academic education. The motivation and general interest in practical work of the students has been decreasing over the years. The CIVTE estimated that 50% of the VTCs graduates from TVET institutions in Central and Western China proceed into academic education, in Eastern China 20% of the graduates take that path. In a qualitative study, the director of one TVET institution even admitted that the school reduced the amount of practical content in the classes, as most students just want to go to a university after graduating (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 58). Due to the prestige students get when scoring high in the *gao kao* exams, Chinese families also invest a lot into their children's education. Children from poorer families, especially from rural areas, are clearly disadvantaged compared to those from urban areas, which is why most students in China's key universities are locals from the big first tier cities. A study conducted in 2012 revealed that 82% of all national TVET students came from rural areas, 70% of them from Central and Western China (in comparison: in 2017, 57,9% of the Chinese population accounted to urban population) (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 15). Many rural children "end" up in VTCs and many want to use them as a second chance to get back on an academic track. Furthermore, TVET programs are considerably cheaper in terms of student fees than academic study courses. As a matter of fact, TVET students are considered as poor and problematic, as

weak performers and of low societal value. Those ascriptions of course have a negative impact on the students' self-esteem and thus may cause "problematic" expressions (Harbrecht 2018, p. 28, 37). This aspect is one of the issues causing relatively high dropout rates during the first in TVET programs, between 10,7-22 % according to a study from 2015 (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 54). The UeBZO made similar experiences - dropout rates at BHS Corrugated Shanghai were also high and students lacked motivation. Some reported to be unsatisfied about the fact to not have the possibility to submit improvement suggestions on the training process (Interview 2, 2020). One may consider that there is a smooth transition from secondary to tertiary TVET education, due to the many TVET institutions on primary and especially secondary level. However, 90% of the TVET graduates on the secondary level enter the workforce and less than 10% of the graduates move on to VTCs. Therefore, most of the students in these institutions come from general senior secondary schools with no vocational focus and the VTCs can hardly build up their courses on previous technical knowledge (Li/Tang 2016, p. 173).

c) Foster TVET standards

TVET curricula in China consist of three levels: a national curriculum, a regional curriculum, and a school-specific curriculum. Different stakeholders are involved in the curricula development process, namely the central and regional governments with their relevant sub-organisations and the respective schools. Key competencies define the output of the training processes, which is the basis for the curricula development (Harbrecht 2018, p. 23). On the national level, the MoE develops and updates the TVET curricula in collaboration with the National Industrial Committee for Vocational Education and Teaching (NICVET). This committee consists of representatives from relevant government authorities and industries and is the steering organization on the macro-level, together with the Curriculum Teaching and Research Center of the CIVTE (UNEVOC 2018, p. 10). Underneath the NICVET, 61 sub-organizations exist, the industrial advisory committees. These committees cover the relevant business sectors, representing 95% of the majors taught in secondary and higher vocational education institutions in China (Liu 2019, p. 21). Despite the combination of different stakeholders, the CIVTE states that curricula development and adaption processes are still too rigid and slow and do not go in line with the speed of the economic development (Liu 2019, p. 19). The fragmented governance of the TVET system made it less efficient managing the current labour market needs (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 38-39). Another issue causing this aspect is probably the low accountability of vocational schooling due to inadequate assessment mechanisms. As

elaborated previously, the Chinese education system is highly competitive and to a high stake focused on theoretical content. Exams are the major basis for assessing the performance of an education institution and often incentives for staff members are tied to students' performance. A recent study revealed inappropriate evaluation methods in curricula revision processes, making it difficult even for teachers to understand what kind of content is relevant (Chen/Tyler/Bagnall 2018, p. 73). Therefore, there is a low accountability on the concrete practical skills of a TVET graduate (Yi et al. 2018, p. 218). In 2018, 40,05 % of all students in the tertiary education system were registered in VTCs, 11,33 million students in total (MoE 2019). The rising number of VTCs over the last years indicates a constant growth also in student numbers. It can be assumed that especially the VTCs issuing Bachelor certificates are of the highest interest for students in tertiary TVET education. Therefore, even in vocational education, Bachelor degrees become more and more common, causing a "diploma inflation". Following the societal expectations, many companies tend to expect Bachelor degrees even for simple jobs. But due to the great focus on theoretical content in the VTCs, there is still a great gap between the graduates' skills and the companies demands (Liu 2019, p. 17). The MoE states, that in 2017 92,1% graduates of Higher Vocational Education institutions found a job within six months after graduation (MoE 2019). Other studies estimate the unemployment rate within six months after graduation of all tertiary graduates to be between 15 to 30% (Harbrecht 2018, p. 30). Unfortunately, both studies did not investigate the type of employment. Nevertheless, it emphasizes that despite the societal expectations, tertiary degrees do not guarantee employment. In the case of TVET graduations, students clearly lack relevant practical skills due to theoretical nature of the training programs, and especially graduates with a Bachelor degree do not want to work in so-called blue-collar professions (Harbrecht 2018, p. 30).

d) Enhance the quality of the TVET output

The Chinese TVET system was influenced by the Soviet TVET system during the 1950s and 1960s. One characteristic of that system, especially in the heavy industries and construction sectors, was the integration of vocational schools into state-owned factories or vice versa. Though the Chinese government privatised many of its state-owned companies from the 1990s on, some are still active and some still run that kind of training model. A recent study found those TVET programs to be very effective as the curricula are closely linked to the practice (Stewart 2015, p. 25, 28). This conclusion is not very surprising, but as these models nowadays tend to be the exception rather than the rule, it also

emphasizes again the dissatisfying output of the other TVET programs. Many employers in China therefore criticize the gap between the skills TVET graduates have and their demand (Li 2017, p. 209). The generally weak links between TVET institutions and enterprises are by the nature of the Soviet model very strong, and thus also the output (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 57). General vocational training programs are often very narrow and focused on very specific skills, leaving out training in general skills. Especially in the rapidly changing Chinese economy, methods to assess and gain new skills are essential for the individuals' long-term performance in the labour market (Yi et al. 2018, p. 212). In such an environment, lifelong learning becomes crucial. But many TVET programs are focused primarily on the skills, fresh graduates need for their entry into the labour market, thus neglecting the individual's potential and possibility to move on during his/her career (Stewart 2015, p. 18). Companies often report that skills of fresh graduates are partly outdated, and they need to conduct on-the-job training. In a study of the Shanghai Education Commission conducted in 2014, 79% of the employers expressed their wish for better vocational accomplishment of the graduates (Harbrecht 2018, p. 36). Vocational accomplishment is not only focused on technical skills, but also on abilities such as teamwork and independent problem-solving skills. As mentioned above, those abilities are closely linked to life-long learning and the further development of ones' (professional) skills. Due to the strong focus on theoretical knowledge in the TVET institutions, it is often hard for graduates to effectively apply that knowledge in the world of work (Stewart 2020, p. 20). This is often caused by teacher-focused teaching methods, which do not focus on the students' occupational competence (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 60). A "chalk-and-talk" teaching model is frequently found in East Asian countries. Though studies found students in these systems to be good performers in subjects such as mathematics and physics compared to Western countries, they lack skills in creative thinking and independent work (Morgan 2014). These soft skills will become more important as the Chinese economy moves away from cheap mass production towards quality products (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 49). Altogether, that kind of output in terms of respective graduates' skills is often unsatisfying for the employer side, thus resulting in a low motivation to get engaged in formal TVET.

e) Improve TVET school capacities and infrastructure

TVET financing is split up between the central and local governmental level as well as among other stakeholders. Generally, 40% of the TVET institution's budget comes from the central government, school fees cover approximately 30% of the budget and the rest

comes from the local towns, municipalities, or companies (Wiemann 2020, p. 147). This decentralized funding concept makes it hard to foster a TVET system with a homogenous level countrywide – rather the contrary is the current status-quo. As there are differences in the economic development pace among the rural areas in Central and Western China and the urban, coastal areas of the East, the local TVET institutions differ in their stage of development, too. As a matter of fact, the TVET institutions in rural areas lack funding from their local government due to lesser financial resources and they lack funding from the private sector, too (Li 2017, p. 206-207). That may also be one reason why the Chinese government urges companies and other stakeholders to not only get involved in the TVET system but also to run TVET institutions on their own (Education Development Plan 2010, p. 17). Despite the importance of TVET often mentioned in the governmental policies, the second-tier role of TVET among the society seems to be present in the policy-making, too. An OECD study analysed the Chinese governmental spending on TVET in 2011. Compared to the number of students, universities received twice the budget per capita than the TVET institutions, although they generally have higher fixed costs per capita (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 55). This trend seems to have continued, as another study investigating the TVET budgets for vocational schools between 2008 and 2015 found it even decreasing while the public spending for regular schools increased (Chen/Fen/Pan 2019, p. 28). Already mentioned in the TVET law from 1996 (article 33), vocational schools should generate income by running enterprises on their own or by delivering services. Those incomes shall be used to develop vocational education (MoE 1996). The comparably decreasing budget for TVET institutions may be a mechanism of the central government to put pressure on the TVET institutions seeking additional income sources.

3.3.5. Inter-company training

As described in chapter 3.1.4., inter-company training is characterized as follows:

- Inter-company training institutions are separate learning sites from vocational schools and host companies of the apprentices (but not necessarily separate physical learning sites).
- Inter-company training institutions are mostly run by employer or business associations, e.g. chambers of commerce and industry, and provide training services for apprentices (mostly of their members).

- Inter-company training is particularly attractive for SMEs, as it ensures their possibility to run in-company training programs even if they do not have many employees (especially in the handicraft trades).

First attempts towards inter-company training models were made in the 1990s, when the so-called vocational education groups were set up to achieve a learning site cooperation model. This platform model connects TVET institutions and companies to join forces in the training, e.g. by sharing machinery or developing courses. The vocational training group is based on voluntary commitment and is not legally binding. Therefore, the concept evolved very heterogenous throughout the country due to great regional differences (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 602-604). This heterogeneity, which is also based on the decentralized TVET financing structure, motivated the government to further urge enterprises getting involved in the TVET system. Private TVET provision is a growing niche in China. In 2015, there were 310 private VTCs, compared to 1,341 state VTCs. Between 2009 and in 2015, the number of students in the private institutions rose by 20% (Xiuyun/Guangyi 2019, p. 134-136). The current EDP draws up the benefits private TVET provision brings from the government's point of view: "[…] enterprises and professional associations to participate in operating vocational schools […] Pilot programs shall be carried out to run tailor-made training programs for employers. To experiment with work-study integration, flexible schooling, and modular teaching […]" (Education Development Plan 2010, p. 46). There are two Chinese cooperation models, which are very similar to the German inter-company training concept:

- Sector-led model: Especially SMEs join forces and form a training platform with a TVET institution in which they provide internships, in-company training and employees as part-time teachers in occupation-related courses.
- Training order model: In this model mainly used by large international companies, the employer selects several students from a TVET institution. The company pays fees to the TVET institution for training the students according to their internal demands (Liu/Schuppener 2019, p. 601)

Approximately 10% of Chinese TVET students (secondary and tertiary level) are enrolled in private TVET institutions (Xiuyun/Guangyi 2019, p. 147). A recent study found that private TVET institutions are stronger correlated to vocational skills at the end of the academic year, compared to public TVET institutions (Yi et al. 2018, p. 7). The MoE's Modern Vocational Education Development Strategy 2014 – 2020 seems to have

recognized these developments, as this policy paper provides further business opportunities for private institutions in the TVET sector. Companies and associations can even buy or rent low performing public TVET institutions, set up customized curricula and new cooperation models with public institutions. Furthermore, TVET shall be de-centralized and by the end of 2020, 80% of the large and medium sized Chinese enterprises shall be providers of TVET in some way (Liu 2014, p. 3-4). Therefore, the formal requirements to set up inter-company training institutions in the Chinese TVET system are given. The current scope of the UeBZO's project in China further emphasizes the possibility to establish such institution. Designing own courses, e.g. in the sector-led model, and the fact that the general cooperation programs such as the "2+1" model (see chapter 3.1.2.) do not contain in-company general training plans opens the opportunity to create tailor-measured courses by the inter-company training institution. According to the UeBZOs' experiences, the governmental Chinese partners show great interest in private sector initiatives and are open towards new input (Interview 2, 2020).

3.4. Vocational training in Lao PDR

3.4.1. Historical development

Traditionally education in Laos was based in the Buddhist temples. Lao boys could receive education free of charge for an undefined period, from a few months to several years by the monks. Though it was accessible to young men at any time, it was no instrument of mass education and not a formalized education system (Noonan 2014, p. 158). The lessons were focused on Buddha's teachings and how they could be incorporated into everyday life. The young novices also had the chance to learn handicraft skills such as casting and painting (Khammounty 2011, p. 30). Outside the temples, in the villages, education for artisanal activities was deeply rooted in the community. Handicraft skills were segregated into male (e.g. jewellery and metal works), female (e.g. sewing and weaving) and unisex skills (e.g. physicians) and were passed on mainly within the family, from one generation to another. The elder person would be called *ajan* by the student, which literally translated means master with a great emphasis on the respect the *ajan* receives by the student. The *ajans* would pass over their skills to family members, they selected to be eligible as their students (Khammounty 2011, p. 30). During the 61 years of their colonial rule from 1893 on, the French established formalized education structures in a few urban areas after a French role model for a relatively small target group – mainly for the children of Lao nationals and Vietnamese migrants working in the colonial

administration (Zeck 2016). This issue is illustrated by the fact that in 1954 the gross enrolment rate in primary education was only 3 percent (Noonan 2014, p. 159). After its independence, Laos was lacking a countrywide formalized system of education (Halpern/Tinsman 1966, p. 501). The Royal Lao Government (RLG) began incorporating the traditional temple schooling system in the national school system from that time on (Faming 2008, p. 23-24). During the 1960s broad measures were undertaken to foster secular primary school structures in Laos (Zeck 2017). But due to the great lack of infrastructure, governmental measures on a national level were very ineffective. This matter is displayed by the fact that a public poll conducted in the mid-1950s suggested that less than 50% of the population even knew the name of the Lao king and the country they were living in (Halpern/Tinsman 1966, p. 499). Furthermore, a report in 1966 stated that more than 90% of the Lao population mostly relied on subsistence agriculture for a living and that domestic industry and commerce were not of any relevance. Due to these circumstances, a formalized TVET system was of low priority. The French only established the Pakpasak vocational school as the first formal vocational school of the country in the Lao capital Vientiane in 1936 (Khammounty 2011, p. 32). After the independence in 1954, three other vocational schools were established by the RLG in the major urban areas of the country and in 1964 a second vocational school in Vientiane (Leuang 2016, p. 22). Concrete numbers are not available, but the fact that only 300 students were enrolled in the Pakpasak vocational school in Vientiane and in the vocational school Savannakhet between 1955 and 1965 indicates the sectors' low priority (Faming 2008, p. 31). In fact, the army probably provided the most important environment for technical training towards young men until the 1970s (Halpern/Tinsman 1966, p. 502). After the communist revolution and the establishment of the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) in 1975, the new government aimed to re-shape the domestic society and economy according to the Vietnamese-Soviet role model following Marxist-Leninist principles. Private corporations and most of the private property were nationalized, in 1978 measures towards national collectivisation of agriculture were implemented and in 1981 the first five-year plan was published (Croissant 2016, p. 204). The educational system was sought to play a crucial role to "civilisation or to 'reach socialism' as the ultimate goal" (cited in Faming 2008, p. 22) and schools were seen as "the tool of the dictatorship of the proletariat" (cited in Faming 2008, p. 34). The TVET system was urged to produce revolutionary skilled workers to contribute to a science-technological development of the country and its industry. Due to the abolishment of the private sector and the strong emphasis on the political agenda of the central government, vocational training was only based in the

governmental vocational schools (Faming 2008, p. 35). As part of the socialist cooperation among brother states, several thousand Lao high school graduates were also sent abroad for vocational training to countries such as the Soviet Union or the former German Democratic Republic. This cooperation also illustrates the strong alignment of the Lao PDR towards the Eastern bloc countries. In 1986, foreign aid accounted 26,5% to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 64% of that from the Soviet Union alone (Worner 1989, p. 192). Oriented towards the Soviet *Perestroika*, the Lao PDR also launched the *New Economic Mechanism* in 1986, inaugurating a market-oriented economy, re-privatising most of the state companies and approving foreign investment (Croissant 2016, p. 205). In the TVET system a stronger focus was laid on demand-oriented training for the newly established labour market. Another aim was (and still is) diversifying the national economy and fostering the industry, mainly the manufacturing sector. In 1986, the industrial sector only contributed 10% to the national GDP (a very low share even compared to other developing countries at that time), whereas 60% of that share only resulted from revenues of electricity exports, a non-labour intensive business sector (Worner 1989, p. 190, 195). A real boost for the domestic economy and the TVET sector only happened when the Lao PDR ended its international isolationism with the collapse of the Soviet Union from 1990 on. Private enterprises and foreign investment grew from that time on. The Lao government pragmatized its policies by slightly turning the focus on education to contribute towards human development and inclusion rather than dogmatic ideologies, supported by new national and multinational donors (Faming 2008, p. 52-53). Especially Germany supported the TVET sector development in Lao PDR (BIBB 2019a). Nowadays, the main goal of the TVET system is to contribute to the country's socio-economic development to emerge from the group of Least Developed Countries (LDC) at the end of 2020. This shall be achieved by expanding TVET institutions in terms of quality and quantity, enhancing the enrolment rate of female students and minorities, improving the interlinking of TVET with secondary education and the transition of graduates into the labour market (SEA VET 2020b).

3.4.2. Legal structure and stakeholders

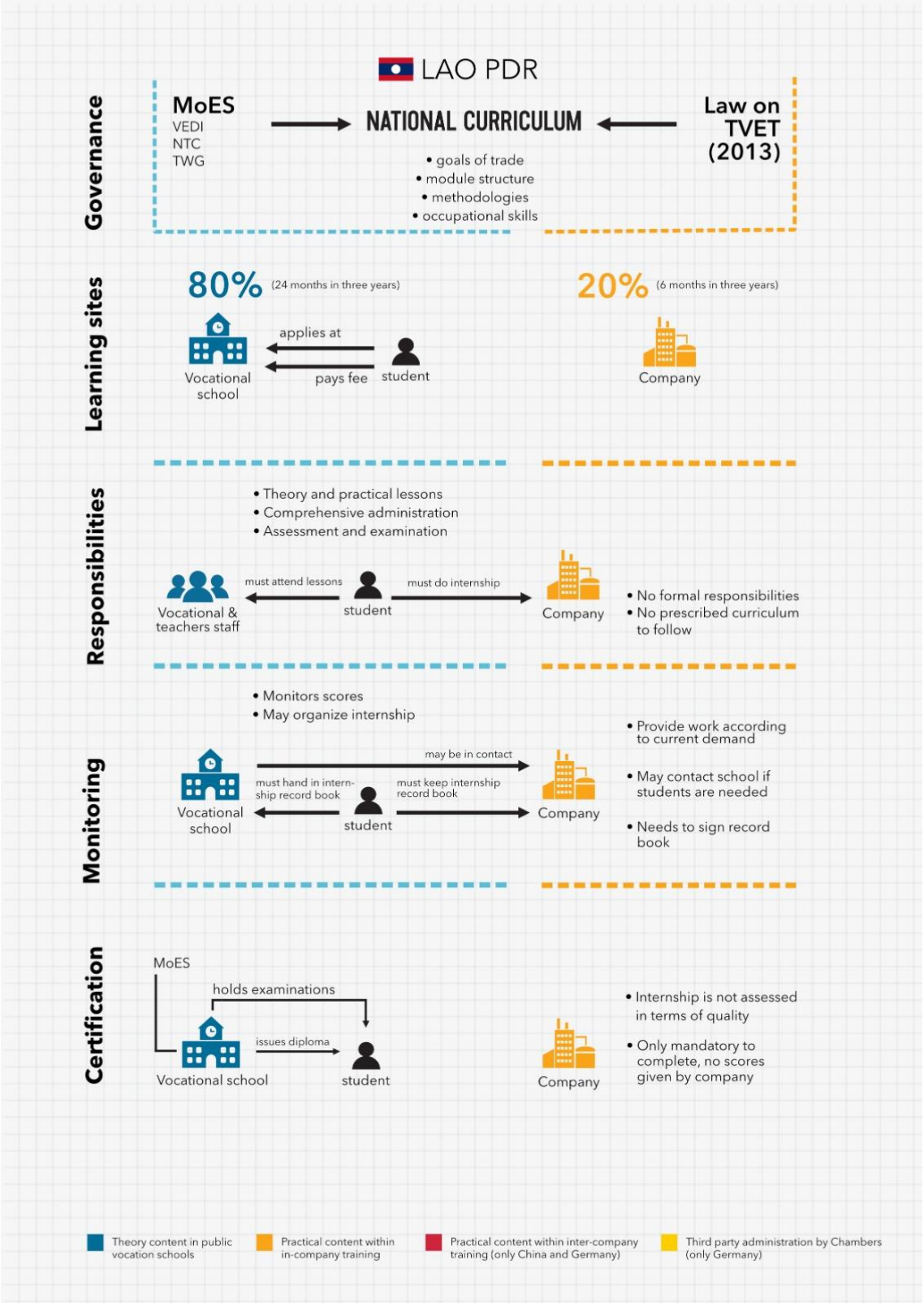
These are the formal focus areas relevant for the UeBZO within the Lao TVET system: Vocational training on 9+3 diploma level in public vocational schools of the MoES (Minimum entrance level: lower secondary graduation (9 years compulsory schooling; TVET duration 3 years).

Vocational training in Lao PDR is regulated by the Law on TVET issued by the National President on behalf of the National Assembly in 2013. The Law on TVET regulates the legal and formal framework on TVET in Lao PDR, the roles and responsibilities of personnel and stakeholders and defines quality assurance processes. Furthermore, it states that TVET facilities must conform to the Law on Education issued in 2007, other relevant laws and relevant regulations on education by the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) (NA 2013, p. 12). Formal TVET in Lao PDR begins on the upper secondary level, after students finished nine years of compulsory education, five years primary and four years lower secondary education. In 2015, there were 23 TVET institutions under the MoES and 23 under other Lao ministries such as the Ministries of Health, Finance or Agriculture (MoES 2015, p. 61). Furthermore, there is also a growing number of private TVET institutions accredited by the MoES, mostly for subjects such as business administration, IT and English (UNESCO 2013, p. 42). The TVET institutions (mostly vocational schools) of the MoES are managed by the Department of TVET in partnership with relevant other organisations such as governmental unions and youth organisations (SEA VET 2020b). TVET schools are the main stakeholders in the formal vocational education process. Graduates from primary (short term courses for school dropouts), lower secondary and high schools can receive vocational training in a technical trade ranging from six months to three years. The TVET institutions are ranked according to the highest examination offered at the institution. Vocational training is mostly based in these TVET schools, only in some cases work experience in *labor units* (private sector organisations) is part of the training program (NA 2013, p. 7, 9). The Strategic Plan for the Development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (currently 2016 – 2020), the Education and Sports Sector Development Plan (currently 2016 – 2020) and the TVET Strategic Plan (currently 2006-2020) by the MoES are the central policy papers on TVET (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 39). Through these specific plans, general objectives of the Lao Five-Year National Socio-Economic Development Plan (currently 2016 – 2020) are broken down to the TVET sector (MoES 2015, p. i). With these governance tools, the Lao government centrally advises the TVET schools to implement measures such as increasing the private sector commitment, increasing access to TVET for disadvantaged groups etc. (Phoumilay 2019, p. 87-88). The training, both practical and theoretical, is conducted by governmental teachers. If secondary education graduates want to enter vocational training, they need to take part in entrance exams organized annually by the vocational schools on behalf of the MoES. Once accepted, students must pay annual fees to the vocational school for the time of their training. After finishing a vocational training

course, the participant receives a governmental certificate issued by the TVET school. In some cases, practical examinations from in-company trainings are considered when collecting the total score (ILO 2019, p. 14). The Vocational Education Development Institute (VEDI) in Vientiane is responsible for TVET teacher training (Bohlmann 2013, p. 2). Currently graduates with a two or three years TVET diploma can enter a two-year higher diploma study course at the VEDI, which qualifies them to become TVET teachers. Graduates with a higher diploma qualification can enter a two-year Bachelor study course. Both courses require educational internship(s) for a total of 16 weeks and in-company internship(s) for a total of 12 weeks (Euler 2018, p. 62, SEA VET 2020b). As many current in-service TVET teachers only completed a vocational training program before becoming teachers themselves, the VEDI also offers further education courses on a higher diploma level for their formal post-qualification (Khammounty 2011, p. 44-45). In 2004, a five-year Bachelor study course for high school graduates to become TVET teachers was established at the National University of Laos in Vientiane (Khammounty 2011, p. 48-49). But as graduate numbers from those programs are still too low, the MoES has authorized other TVET institutions such as vocational schools to train TVET teachers on Bachelor level, too (Bohlmann 2013, p. 2). It is the responsibility of the respective vocational school to decide if a TVET teacher training graduate is eligible. The only formal requirement is that the respective teacher must have a certificate at least one level higher than the level of the curricula he/she needs to teach there (Euler 2018, p. 28). National curricula contain the specific goals of the trade, a structure according to modules, learning, teaching and evaluation methodologies and the occupational skills students shall gather during the training program (NA 2013, p. 13). When applied in vocational schools, 80% of the total content needs to be in line with the national curriculum and 20% can be adapted to local needs (UNESCO 2013, p. 37). The VEDI is responsible for the national curricula, together with TVET institutions and the private sector represented by the National Training Council (NTC) and the associated Trade Working Groups (TWG) (MoES 2007, p. 7, UNESCO 2013, p. 37). The NTC was established in 2002 as an advisory board for TVET skills development and for the coordination between the private and public sector. The NTC consists of 35 representatives from ministries, governmental unions, youth and labour organisations and employers. Joint Vice-Chairpersons are the Deputy Minister of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare and the Chairperson of the Lao National Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LNCCI) (SEA VET 2020b, UNESCO 2013, p. 31, 33). Currently there are 12 TWGs for certain business sectors, such as carpentry or for the garment industry. Each TWG consists of 11 to 15 members of which

approximately 60% are from the industry and approximately 40% representatives of the national TVET institutions (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 40). Though the formal links between the labour market and the TVET system exist, it is not a demand-driven vocational education system, as up to date information on the occupational skills demand are rarely collected and curricula and adaption processes therefore rarely take place, too (Soysouvanh 2013, p. 24). In general, information on the labour market are collected on an ad-hoc basis by or financed by different organisations, such as ministries or foreign donors, which don't necessarily follow a consistent focus and timeline in the long-term (El Achkar Hilal 2016, p. 20). As mentioned above, according to the TVET law vocational training can also take place in labour units besides the training in the vocational school. This specific form of vocational training at two learning sites is called Dual Cooperative Training (DCT) and was initially inaugurated in Lao PDR in 2016. Currently six out of 23 vocational schools under the MoES offer such DCT programs among their general vocational training programs in cooperation with more than 50 companies (Lao News Agency 2019, Vientiane Times 2020). To enter a DCT cooperation, the vocational school and the respective corporation sign an agreement, jointly develop a curriculum, occupational standards, and teaching material. The training is then individually spilt up between the vocational school and the company. Furthermore, joint training of vocational school teachers and trainers of the corporation(s) is required, as well as a joint selection process of students for the course, the ongoing teaching of them and the monitoring of the program (Wangyeng/Utakrit/Utakrit 2018, p. 561, 564, VEFF 2020b). Though DCT is a formalized mechanism combining school and work-based learning, DCT programs only make up a very low share out of all vocational training programs of the MoES. Figure 6: Visualization of the Lao TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO) displays the stakeholder interactions on respective formal levels within the Lao TVET system.

Figure 6: Visualization of the Lao TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO)



Source: Own graphic illustration based upon chapter 3.4.2. and chapter 3.4.5.

3.4.3. Current UeBZO TVET project in Lao PDR

In late 2015, BHS Corrugated established a joint vocational training project with the LGTC, a governmental vocational school located in the Lao capital Vientiane. Since 2003, BHS Corrugated has been supporting a German charity organisation, which helps to improve Lao governmental schools. Based on this engagement, the contact to the LGTC has been made. Within the "Recruitment and Training Programme" (RTP), BHS Corrugated offers each year up to 50 scholarships for the vocational training courses "electric technician" and "general mechanic" taking place at the LGTC. Applicants need to have finished at least lower secondary education (nine compulsory years). Both courses last three years and therefore are classified as Lao governmental 9+3 curricula. The RTP is driven by BHS Corrugated's long-term demand for skilled service personnel in the Asia-Pacific region and by the company's social engagement as part of their Corporate Social Responsibility strategy. The training is mainly conducted by the LGTC's vocational school teachers and takes place within the workshops of the school. During the three years training period, split up in six semesters, each student must take part in three company internships. Each internship lasts two months, starting from the fourth semester on. Graduates of the RTP receive a Lao state 9+3 diploma. BHS Corrugated has certain influence on the training at the school. Additional material and tools are provided on a regular basis to enhance the training quality. The UeBZO is BHS Corrugated's contractor to monitor the performance of the project, the students, and the transition of selected graduates into BHS Corrugated's labour force. UeBZO trainers and staff members work at the LGTC on a regular basis, and, for example, jointly conduct technical training courses, examinations with LGTC teachers or student selection processes. LGTC teachers and selected students received training courses of several weeks in the UeBZO in Weiherhammer during the academic holidays. Due to the longstanding cooperation, the RTP shall be upgraded to become an inter-company training institution. In 2020, the LGTC agreed to provide part of an existing workshop on the campus to become the RTP's inter-company training workshop. As a third learning site, the inter-company training workshop shall be established from early 2021 on. Private trainers of the RTP shall then conduct practical training courses towards apprentices of selected companies. A network of local Lao and international companies providing internships already exists and some of them showed their willingness to become partners for this new approach.

3.4.4. Core principles of todays' vocational training structures

The Lao TVET Law draws up six core principles of the Lao TVET: a) follow educational standards and assure occupational quality and standards (Three Characteristics of Education and Five Pillars of Education), b) assurance of matching between theory and practice and lifelong learning, c) usage of appropriate curricula throughout the training, d) assurance of self-sufficient qualification of learners according to domestic and international demands, e) equal access to TVET for all learner groups and f) formal correctness and transparency of TVET processes (NA 2013, p. 5):

a) Follow educational standards and assure occupational quality and standards

The Three Characteristics of Education are a central part of the MoES' Sector Development Plan and are applied as a general direction for all education processes in order to contribute to the country's education vision for 2030 (MoES 2015, p. 6-7). Education processes must be nation oriented (i.e. contributing to national unity), progressive and available to the masses (i.e. to contribute for equity) and scientific and modern (Noonan/Noonan 2020, p. 79). The Three Characteristics of Education emphasize that education shall contribute to the socio-economic development to reduce poverty. The Five Pillars of Education have been published by the MoES in 1991 and are used since then to characterize the nature of education processes: intellectual education (towards intelligence of the learner), moral education (towards the behaviour of the learner), labour education, aesthetic education and physical education (Noonan/Noonan 2020, p. 29). These principles shall contribute to the country's socio-economic development by making learners able to develop cognitive and non-cognitive capacities (MoES 2015, p. 9). The Lao economy shall become further diversified especially in the manufacturing sector and less dependent on the resource-based sectors such as mining and hydropower (KfW 2018, p. 3). Though those sectors caused constant GDP growth rates between 7 to 8% annually in recent years, they are not labour-intensive and often foreign skilled workers are needed to carry out technical tasks (Phoumilay 2019, p. 104, Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 37). As large parts of the governmental tax revenues come from these sectors, the fiscal budget is partly dependent on world-market prices of resources such as gold or copper (The World Bank Group 2017, p. ix). Therefore, the overall goal in the TVET system is to support the further development of the economy, especially domestic SMEs, as most of them do not have enough resources to conduct in-house training themselves. Dependencies of the economy on resource-based industries shall be moderated (KfW 2018, p. 2). The capacities of TVET institutions therefore have been enhanced in terms of quantity

over the last years, and so did the numbers of students (Bohlmann 2013, p. 2, MoES 2018, p. 34). The MoES focused on establishing at least one vocational school in each province, to improve the accessibility to vocational training throughout the country (KfW 2018, p. 2). Developing occupational standards and improving the quality is the task of the NTC, the respective TWGs and the LNCCI as the crucial industry umbrella organization within the NTC. Though already established in 2002, both the NTC and the TWGs are far from being functional. The NTC lacks diligent leadership to fulfil its tasks, due to multiple changes in the leaderships (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 30, 33), and moreover, sufficient resources for the operational work (SEA VET 2020b). These issues have been ever existing since the establishment of the NTC and the TWGs, as one can find similar remarks on this situation in publications over the time. For instance, a report on behalf of the International Labour Organization found that the NTC did not had any meetings for more than two years between 2011 and 2013 (El Achkar Hilal 2016, p. 15-16, 25).

b) Assurance of matching between theory and practice and lifelong learning

As shown in chapter 3.4.2., the Lao TVET system is mainly based on vocational schools. The formal responsibility to ensure matchings between theory and practice on the macro-level lies with the NTC and the TWGs. Targets and missions are derived e.g. from the Five-Year National Socio-Economic Development Plan (currently 2016 – 2020) and further broken down in the MoES's policies (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 39, MoES 2015, p. i). The formal bodies and the legal framework for a TVET system with links to the private sector are present, but the system is characterized by weak coordination processes and the lack of a coherent strategy of the stakeholders (MoES 2015, p. 62). This is mainly caused by a non-lack of strategies and policies of the institutions involved in TVET such as the MoES which alone has three parallel strategy papers on TVET, the ministries of labour and social welfare, justice and finance, to name a few (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 38-39). As the TVET system is supported by many bilateral and multinational donors, such as Germany, South Korea, or the Asian Development Bank, even more and especially external stakeholders are involved in the policy processes (El Achkar Hilal 2016, p. 33). These issues lead to a fragmented vocational training system with relatively weak links on the macro-level to the private sector. Furthermore, on the micro-level, the governmental teachers in the vocational schools lack practical experience and pedagogical skills. Though there are formal qualification standards, each vocational school is responsible itself to set the criteria for recruiting vocational teachers (Euler 2018, p. 28). The biography of a vocational teacher in Lao PDR is very homogenous, as most of them started a

TVET teacher training program after graduating from a vocational school themselves (Khammounty 2011, p. 38). A study among TVET teachers who graduated on Bachelor level from the TVET teacher training course at the National University of Laos showed that even in subjects such as electronic, mechanical and civil engineering, 50% did not gain practical skills in a company internship. Furthermore, 40% did not gain practical teaching skills at a vocational school during the study-course (Bohlmann 2013, p. 10-11). Vocational school teacher students have not had (much) practical experiences when they entered the study-course and are very likely to not gain many in-company experiences and in-service pedagogical skills during the study-course. Thus, when being recruited by a vocational school, the "vicious circle" (Khammounty 2011, p. 38) of lacking practical orientation within the training programs continues. Even though best practice DCT industry cooperation in the Lao TVET is stressed with companies such as Toyota, Phu Bia Mining, Nam Theun 2 Power Company or RMA Ford, two important things need to be taken into account (El Achkar Hilal 2016, p. 23, Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 33). Firstly, these industry cooperations more or less exclusively take place at the LGTC, one school with 1,591 students in the academic year 2017/18 (of which the majority is in a regular stream vocational program and not in a DCT program) out of 23 vocational schools of the MoES with more than 30,000 students in total in 2015 (LGTC 2019, p. 13, Wangyeng/Utakrit/Utakrit 2018, p. 561). The school has been established with support from Germany in 1964 and has been supported since then. In 2010, it has been declared as the flagship college for vocational education in Lao PDR by the MoES (LGTC 2019, p. 4). Secondly, these are cooperation programs between one vocational school with relatively good capacities and large foreign owned companies with much more resources than most domestic companies. Those DCT have a good quality outcome, but they are rather the exception in the Lao TVET system than the rule. In the regular vocational training programs, (non-DCT) student internships (if they are necessary to fulfil the course) are mostly not regulated and happen only on an ad-hoc basis (Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 85). According to the authors experiences, internships in non-DCT programs are organized by students or their TVET teachers. They contact a company before the internship takes place and ask if they can host the student for the time of the internship (in 9+3 diploma courses mostly four months at once in three years or three times two months in three years). As in most cases the placement happens ad-hoc, not much skills specification for the respective company can happen still at the TVET institution. Students with three internships may do their internship three times in the same company or each time in a different company. Companies do not have many responsibilities within the internship,

they do not have to follow a curriculum and they are not required to provide trainers for the students. This often leads to the issue of students being used as temporary workers, e.g. for construction works, as the national minimum wage does not need to be paid to interns. The TVET institution's lack of manpower is another aspect influencing the quality outcome (ILO 2019 p. 23, MoES 2015, p. 62). Acquiring internship placements needs to follow bureaucratic regulations of the MoES, which is time consuming, as most domestic companies can only host a few students. Workplace monitoring and the internship evaluation with students and companies after the internship ends is time consuming, too. Thus, an assurance that the theoretical study at the TVET institution matches the practice in the internship is hardly to realize.

c) Usage of appropriate curricula throughout the training

As described previously, the responsibility for developing and revising curricula and occupational standards lies with the VEDI and the NTC together with the individual TWGs. It has already been stated that the NTC and the TWGs have not been very effective over the years. The author therefore interviewed a Lao curricula expert from a governmental vocational school on the current curricula development process (Interview 1, 2020). Table 6: Curricula development process in Lao PDR displays the current process.

Table 6: Curricula development process in Lao PDR

Step	**Description**	**Remark**
1	TVET institution requests new curriculum at MoES.	Requests come from individual TVET institutions.
2	MoES reviews request, if agreed, places order to VEDI to begin the drafting process.	
3	Drafting process under leadership of the VEDI, coordination with TVET institutions offering subject area and private companies.	Curricula workshops often take place for a few days. Most participants are TVET teachers and staff members.
4	VEDI submits final draft to the MoES, MoES reviews curriculum.	
5	Vice Minister of Education and Sports announces the curriculum for a test period of two years.	Curriculum to be applied in all TVET institutions nationwide offering the respective subject area.

6	Evaluation of the curriculum during the test period, if applicable, the curriculum becomes an official national curriculum.	

Source: own summary according to interview (Interview 1, 2020)

The author himself was involved as a company representative in the revision process of the 9+3 national diploma curriculum "general mechanic" in 2016 and 2017 and took place in a curricula workshop. According to his experiences and the process descriptions of the curricula expert, most of the participants are staff members of the TVET institutions. Companies do not benefit much from sending employees to curricula workshops. Though the Lao curricula expert had heard of the NTC and the TWGs, the expert has not been in contact with them and they are not necessary to create new curricula. It can be stated that the curriculum development process still lacks sufficient input from the private sector (MoES 2007, p. 8, Leuang 2015, p. 5, Lenssen/Trzmiel 2020, p. 40-41). Due to the LDC status, many donor organisations are involved in the Lao TVET system, e.g. in round table meetings and sectoral working groups. Some parts of the TVET sector rely on grants from donors to fulfil the self-defined goals (MoES 2015, p. 62). Though intended to support the development, it has been argued that those initiatives are often donor-led and cause mismatches between policy designs and the actual needs of the people (Soukkaseum 2017, p. 142, 144). The author observed these issues himself. It is often challenging to tightly mesh temporary donor initiatives on the macro-level with the TVET development and processes on the micro-level. As part of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the Lao PDR is also member of the Southeast Asian Vocational Education and Training Network (SEA-VET.net) (SEA VET 2020a). The platform delivers input from neighbouring TVET systems who have been at similar development stages before (such as Malaysia or Thailand) or who are still at similar stages (such as Cambodia or Myanmar). As Germany is a long-term partner in the TVET, the German system is often used as a guideline, too. It can be stated that there are certain mechanisms and initiatives in place to assure a match of national curricula to regional and international curricula and/or standards, mainly in the ASEAN region. According to the authors experiences, it is not an issue of missing possibilities to get links to other curricula, standards, or systems but rather an issue of harmonizing those initiatives with the national TVET system. Still, there are great differences between the domestic TVET institutions. As the TVET institutions still often lack basic infrastructure and enough teachers with sufficient skills, it is challenging to run the general system (MoES 2018, p. 35-36).

d) Assurance of self-sufficient qualification of learners

Students within DCT programs study two to three days a week at the TVET institution and take part in in-company training the other two to three days of the week in their respective company. An evaluation showed that both the TVET institution and the companies found the DCT concept to deliver a positive impact in terms of demand-oriented training (Wangyeng/Utakrit/Utakrit 2018, p. 563, 566). As the student only has one host company during the time of his/her training and as 40-60% of it directly takes place in the company, this is a very likely outcome. Though the DCT programs are very successful in terms of training quality, they only make up a small amount in terms of student numbers compared to the regular vocational training programs. On the contrary, the regular non-DCT training programs face the issue of a less demand-oriented character. Students must keep a daily record book during their internship, which needs to be signed by their in-company superiors on a regular basis. After the internship, they must hand in the book to their TVET institution to get the credit points for the internship. Attempts were made to inaugurate in-company training plans for each company hosting students aligned towards the framework curricula of their trades at their TVET institution. Nevertheless, most of the companies were not able and/or willing to follow those in-company training plans and it was decided to abandon the attempt (Interview 1, 2020). As part of the governmental development cooperation program, the German Gesellschaft fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GiZ) together with the VEDI developed an in-company trainer seminar in 2014, similar to the German AEVO ("train the trainer"). Lao in-company trainers could take part in the two-week course to enhance their pedagogical skills (ETC 2015). The program ended in 2016, and since then, no further trainings took place and the program website is not accessible anymore. According to the authors knowledge, as of now there are no other in-company trainer qualification programs in Lao PDR in place. This indicates that there has not been much interest from private sector getting involved in formal TVET regulations. And as mentioned above, it also refers to the issue of meshing development cooperation projects into the general TVET system especially after the external support ends. Currently no formal regulations on non-DCT internships are in force, the companies are free to decide what the students must do and there are no occupational standards in place regarding the training personnel. Furthermore, there are no governmental incentives such as tax benefits for companies hosting students, which could increase the companies' willingness to focus on improving their in-company training structures. On the other hand, the TVET institutions rely on companies hosting students, as

the internships are necessary for the students to fulfil their credit points. Though the curricula expert interviewed said, many companies would want to support vocational training, many are not satisfied with the mechanisms in place to get involved as governmental processes often take a lot of time and are ineffective (Interview 1, 2020). This is tightly connected with a general trend in developing countries. Formal school based TVET is the less prevalent form of skills transfer than informal apprenticeships are. Informal TVET is often provided by (informal) domestic SMEs, which can be much more beneficial for them than receiving students from the formal TVET sector for internships. Within informal apprenticeships, no formal qualifications need to be met (e.g. time of the internship) and (in)direct costs of formal schooling are avoided (OECD 2018, p. 19).

e) Equal access to TVET for all learner groups

The integration of female students and minorities is one of the sub-goals in the TVET system, contributing towards the country's socio-economic development (SEA VET 2020b). Due to the ethnic, linguistic, and cultural diversity among many Lao citizens and different regional development stages, the government lies a strong focus on providing equal access to collective goods for everyone (Croissant 2016, p. 206, 225). For instance, in the current EDP the MoES set the target to establish at least one technical centre and vocational school in each province and to reach more students who finished general education for vocational training, especially females (MoES 2015, p. 62). The education system has an integration function to lower disparities. Foundations for equal schooling were paved in the general schooling system earlier, when the literacy level for women rose between 1995 and 2012 from 47,9% to 70% (men 73,5% to 85%) (Gillen/Mosel 2013, p. 39). Following this trend, the TVET system showed a constant growth of female students in relative and absolute numbers. In the academic year 2008/9, 39% of the students were female (2,978 out of 7,656) (Gillen/Mosel 2013, p. 43) and 43% in the academic year 2017/18 (15,812 out of 37,005) (MoES 2018, p. 34). In order to provide access to the TVET system for young people from rural communities who often can't afford moving for several years to an urban area for vocational training, the MoES implemented short term courses of three to six months (C1 qualification) and six to twelve months (C2 qualification) (Soukkaseum 2017, p. 137). Furthermore, a stronger focus was laid on the transition process from secondary education into the TVET system during the last years. Like in other Asian countries, there is still a slightly negative image of vocational training in Lao PDR, while academic education is considered to provide better job opportunities (El Achkar Hilal 2016, p. 21). Therefore, the MoES expanded national scholarships for

females and launched several marketing campaigns (MoES 2018, p. 34, 36). Although the opportunities for formal and informal vocational training have been enhanced and absolute student numbers in the MoES' TVET system grew significantly, the number of graduates still does not meet the demand for skilled workers nationwide. Despite the fact, that 73,1% of the Lao workforce are based in the primary sector, the sector only contributes 20,9% to the GDP (CIA 2020). Most farmers practice subsistence farming and often remain poor, as they lack relevant skills to improve farming techniques. On the one hand, there is a lack of skilled workers in those traditional occupations and on the other hand, there is a lack of skilled workers in "non-traditional jobs/trade areas such as automotive, electrics/electronics engineers […] and […] in the industrial sector" (Soukkaseum 2017, p. 134). To make the domestic economy more sustainable, the Lao government has established eleven Special Economic Zones (SEZ) throughout the country to attract foreign investment in industrial production (MPI 2020). Especially manufacturing corporations who open plants in those SEZ cause a high demand of skilled workers in industrial trades, which seldomly are found in domestic enterprises in those quantities (Soukkaseum 2017, p. 134).

f) Formal correctness and transparency of TVET processes

Quality Assurance (QA) in the TVET system is the responsibility of the NTC and the department of TVET of the MoES (Noonan/Noonan 2020, p. 27, 107). The VEDI and the TVET institutions supplement these two central bodies. Standards and guidelines for TVET QA have first been announced in 2011 and revised in 2015, following regional frameworks such as the ASEAN QA Framework (UNESCO 2017, p. 157-159). QA processes are oriented towards the NVQF in Lao PDR, which draws up five qualification levels (C1-C5) and competency and occupational standards (Soukkaseum 2017, p. 56, UNESCO 2017, p. 161). Student assessments must follow the regulations of the respective curricula oriented along those five qualifications levels. The teachers in the respective TVET institutions conduct the exams and skills tests and award the marks, while the administrative sections register the credit points (Euler 2018, p. 16). Compulsory internships are proved by the daily internship record book of the individual student. At the end of the vocational training program, the TVET institution reports the results to the TVET department of the MoES. After approval, the TVET institution issues the certificate towards the student (UNESCO 2017, p. 51). QA on the TVET institution level could be improved by a systematic integration of employers' feedback, but due to the lack of manpower, it is not possible on a regular basis (UNESCO 2017, p. 8). Hence, the assessment of students

solely is be done by the TVET teachers in their school. It has been argued that there is a lack of checks-and-balances within the system and of assessing concrete practical skills rather than memorised facts (Euler 2018, p.16). Therefore, TVET certifications do not necessarily reflect work-place related qualifications of the graduates (UNESCO 2017, p. 24, 51). According to the authors experiences, employers do not take concrete marks in the certification much into account when hiring TVET graduates. They are aware of the little information a TVET certificate provides. Rather their concrete practical skills and their motivation to work are the decisive reasons for hiring young men and women. There often is a high labour turnover among the youth in Lao PDR and many tend to change jobs on a regular basis. Employers therefore put special emphasis on the individual's sense of responsibility for the work (GiZ 2016, p. 44). As they must invest time into the training of the youth, it is crucial for them to be fairly confident about the individual's willingness to stay in the company for more than just a few weeks or months. This interferes with another issue often found in developing countries such as Lao PDR. As employment in the formal sector usually has slow growth rates, informal employment rates are high. Therefore, TVET graduates are sometimes forced to work in informal employment structures, where labour regulations and minimum wages are not necessarily applied (OECD 2018, p. 19).

3.4.5. Inter-company training

As described in chapter 3.1.4., inter-company training is characterized as follows:

- Inter-company training institutions are separate learning sites from vocational schools and host companies of the apprentices (but not necessarily separate physical learning sites).
- Inter-company training institutions are mostly run by employer or business associations, e.g. chambers of commerce and industry, and provide training services for apprentices (mostly of their members).
- Inter-company training is particularly attractive for SMEs, as it ensures their possibility to run in-company training programs even if they do not have many employees (especially in the handicraft trades).

The concept of inter-company training is based upon two separate training schedules, one for the vocational school and one for the in-company training. Inter-company training institutions take over certain parts of the in-company training schedule. In the non-DCT training programs within the Lao TVET system, there is just one training schedule taking

place within the vocational school. As mentioned above, attempts were made to set up in-company training plans during the mandatory internships in companies (once for four month or thrice for two months) but have been abandoned due to the low willingness/possibilities of the companies to follow these plans. Formal skills transfer only takes place in the vocational school following the respective curricula and in non-standardized ways during work-placement in the companies. Since there is just one schedule for the whole training program, there are no inter-company training institutions for non-DCT training programs. The structure of the curricula itself is only focused on training in vocational schools. Due to a clear separation in a framework curriculum taught in the TVET institution and a general training plan conducted in the company, the situation is different within DCT programs (Wangyeng/Utakrit/Utakrit 2018, p. 564). At the LGTC, for instance, the mining company Phu Bia Mining even conducts parts of the in-company training within the school's facilities as there are limited options at the operations site. Within DCT structures, an inter-company training concept is currently elaborated as part of the Vocational Education Financing Facility (VEFF). VEFF is a fonds set up by the German development cooperation and the MoES and aims to improve labour-market relevant TVET services through DCT. Following an official call for applications and the selection of the best initiatives, VEFF provides grant supports to projects consisting of TVET institutions and enterprises, joining forces to set up DCT cooperation models (VEFF 2020a). The author is in contact with staff members of the VEFF program and with one TVET institution involved in a VEFF application. It seems as some of those VEFF initiatives could become inter-company training institutions: several companies in one specific business sector, which alone do not have enough resources, are joining forces to set up a joint training program with a public TVET institution. Jointly they aim to develop specific curricula for their respective field of business and may organize practical trainings for all apprentices of the project with in-company trainers/skilled workers of theirs. Currently this is only at an early planning stage. But the core of those projects and the approach of the individual companies to join forces in the practical training seems to be very similar to the German inter-company training concept. When looking at formal regulations, the Lao TVET Act sums up two different kinds of organisations in which training takes place:

- "Labor Units shall refer to units of production, business, and/or services in any socio-economic area." (NA 2013, p. 4)
- "Training Centers shall refer to research centers, development centers, technical and vocational centers, and testing centers." (NA 2013, p. 4)

Both definitions are very general, especially since training centres are not specifically classified as public or private institutions. Article 23 in the Lao TVET law on TVET diplomas states that "TVET diplomas may be taught and learned and training may take place at TVET centers, schools, colleges, and labor units." (NA 2013, p. 9). The formal possibility, to conduct training not only in governmental TVET institutions but also in the so called labor units, is given. Though article 21 states that "TVET [is] based mainly on the learning taking place at the school" (NA 2013, p. 8), the law does not exclude the possibility to conduct training in more than two learning sites, e.g. vocational schools, companies and other organisations. In fact, inter-company training institutions would be a hybrid of a labor unit and a training center. Following certain regulations and an accreditation process, private TVET providers supplementing governmental TVET programs could be established in Lao PDR. Thus, the formal possibility for private inter-company training institutions seems to be given.

4. Intercultural business model adaption process

4.1. Setting-up intercompany institutions in China

4.1.1. Adapting the UeBZO inter-company training model in China

The Chinese government wants to further integrate the private sector into the TVET system. Increasing opportunities for private organizations and the great variety of in-company training models emphasize this. As shown in chapter 3.3.5., the formal environment exists to set up inter-company training institutions as a third learning site besides public TVET institutions and companies. Private inter-company training institutions can be established, for instance, in or with public TVET institutions and companies could hire them to train their apprentices. Nevertheless, the approach to establish the business should be much different than in Germany. As the provision of training placements or following a general training plan is not necessary for companies in China, neither is it necessary for them to book inter-company training courses. The UeBZO's core argument in Germany – supplementing the in-company training of companies according to the state-recognised training occupation – can therefore not be applied in China as there is no in-company training content prescribed by law that can be supplemented. According to the TVET

system analysis, the author suggests a different value proposition towards Chinese companies and TVET institutions:

- Technical training made in Germany culturally adapted for China.
- Flexible solutions focused on relevant company demands.
- Private sector organisation in an intermediary position between TVET institutions (public) and employers (private).

The inter-company training model should be based on trust and personal relationships among the involved parties and individuals. China is a relationship-based culture, in which a functional value proposition is not (only) sufficient for long-term success (Meyer 2015, p. 170). After the personal relationship has been established, functional aspects of the cooperation should be communicated:

- For companies: The inter-company training institution could be the central contact regarding apprentices. A strong service character could provide value towards the company, as they do not have to handle bureaucratic issues with TVET institutions or other public stakeholders. Communication would then take place between two private parties; it would be the inter-company training institution's job to organize the training.
- For TVET institutions: The network of private cooperation partners could grow, which could enlarge the practical orientation. TVET teachers could find further companies for their mandatory workplace training. As some of the practical training is conducted by trainers of the inter-company training institution, the TVET institution would save human resources. The cooperation could be offered as a pilot project towards the MoE, which could enlarge the TVET institution's perception and may contribute to higher public funds.

4.1.2. Recombining resources: Personnel, infrastructure, and services

- Foster dual-certified teaching system in both ways

Experienced practitioners as trainers for the inter-company training institution would need to be hired from the domestic private sector. But they will probably lack the relevant pedagogical skills. The MoE established the dual-certified teaching system to enhance the practical skills of the TVET teachers on a regular basis. This mechanism should be used to cope with the low pedagogical skills of the trainers and the low practical skills of the teachers. Sharing working and teaching processes could help both groups. TVET

teachers could get new opportunities for their mandatory further training. When working together on a constant basis during the academic year, they may be able to fulfil their mandatory training time in that way instead of doing it at one company for two months straight, which is obviously causing problems.

- Strengthen personal mastery of trainers and establish master craftsmen

Personal mastery is a competency enabling a person to solve problems future-oriented and actively. Transferring responsibility towards a person is a major enabler to foster this competency. Within the TVET context, that responsibility is strongly interlinked with skills and knowledge. Managing the knowledge of an organisation requires responsible employees with relevant skills. Trainers should therefore become individual responsibilities for certain technical aspects (Koch 2008, p. 103). Each one should be responsible to stay up to date within his/her field and update the other ones on a regular basis. Shifting these additional responsibilities towards the Chinese trainers should enhance their formal position which may contribute to higher prestige. As China still has a high power distance practice score (5,04) (GLOBE 2020d), the society perceives someone with a higher rank of higher value. Having additional formal responsibilities could help to foster the hierarchy of a trainer and may be an additional argument for people to become trainers. That could also contribute to a higher company loyalty of existing trainers. Mechanisms should be implemented to enable the individual further education of the trainers in their field of expertise, e.g. by granting budget and release them from the inter-company training institution to visit technical fairs, product training courses or other companies. Referring to the traditional role of a teacher in ancient China as elaborated in chapter 3.3.1., those responsible persons could be titled "master craftsmen" as they become experts in a specific field. The responsibility for self-organized learning should help the trainers to pass the concept of lifelong learning on towards their apprentices.

- Establish the core principle of (lifelong) learning within the working process

Theoretical learning and teaching mechanisms have become more and more outdated. The economic shift away from cheap mass products to a further diversified economy in China, with a greater depth of added value requires more skills from the workforce which then change faster (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 49). Therefore, the ability to acquire new skills during ones' professional career is crucial for the individual and thus the employer, too. The German core principle "learning within the working process" (see chapter 3.1.3.) could serve as a guideline how lifelong learning processes can be established in Chinese TVET programs. Besides the ability to self-sufficiently acquire new skills it would also foster the apprentices' assertiveness. The very high Chinese assertiveness value score

(5,44) (GLOBE 2020d) compared to the low assertiveness practice score (3,76) (GLOBE 2020d) indicates that a success oriented, direct behaviour is seen as a favoured character attribute. Learning to be direct and to the point could be achieved in specific group work, based on the high institutional (4,77) (GLOBE 2020d) and in-group (5,8) (GLOBE 2020d) collectivism practice scores. Within small groups, apprentices could constantly be given the task to evaluate the work process and outcome of their group members objectively and critically. During the whole time of their training program, that mechanism could be extended towards other people involved – trainers, co-workers, or teachers – to train an assertive and reflective attitude.

- Put strong emphasize on the "head work" in TVET

Rooted in the 2,500-year-old Confucian thinking tradition, people working with their hands are considered of less value than people working with their head. With collar jobs are seen superior to blue collar jobs, university degrees are perceived of higher value than non-academic certificates. It is very unlikely to change those assumptions among the society. But the perception of TVET as processes which require hand and head work could be changed as part of a diversified storytelling and marketing. The inter-company training institution should strongly point out specific work processes which require head work during the training such as planning processes, CAD drawing or calculation tasks. Those white collar tasks should be combined with the relevant blue collar tasks in a progressive but transparent and honest way. It should not be communicated in a way as the individuals' next step would be a university education afterwards, as reported from one VTC (Stockmann/Meyer 2017, p. 58).

4.1.3. Pilot testing: Learning by doing in China

- Shifting quickly from plan to do phases

According to the experiences of the UeBZO within the recent project in China, Chinese counterparts want to put things into practice very quick. That sometimes does not correspond with the planning processes of their German counterparts, which are usually longer than the Chinese ones. This aspect symbolizes the differences in Western and East Asian thinking – Westerners tend to focus on the individual objects of an environment while East Asians rather see a holistic environment. Thus, in general, Westerners try to control the environment based on its parts and apply a linear development of things. On the contrary, the world is a highly interlinked place with constant change to East Asians (Nisbett 2019, p. 103, 109). Therefore, the inter-company training institution should be highly flexible, to be able to adapt to its changing environment, shorten planning phases and put

things into practice relatively quick. Even if it does not work out in the first place, doing should help to foster personal relationships with relevant stakeholders. Improved relationships and new networks may be the success factors for a new attempt.

- Visualize communication to establish joint mental models

Individuals often have a different understanding of one term. The higher the cultural and language differences, the higher those differences are. To ensure an effective cooperation, joint mental models should be established – the same understanding of one term (Koch 2008, p. 103). As described previously, East Asian and Western individuals apply different subconscious models how they see and classify their environment. Especially within the TVET system there are many specific terms and concepts which are closely linked with the domestic environment. Aspects, such as the role of an in-company trainer or self-organized learning, are different in both countries. Joint mental models should therefore be based upon visualized communication instead of (only) joint minutes of meetings. By doing so, communication should become less formalized, could easily take an interlinked environment into account, and could be focused on principles. Using tools such as strategy maps, balanced scorecards or visualizing business processes could contribute to joint mental models (Koch 2008, p. 104).

- Choose the right certification(s) for the training

As the inter-company training model in China is in cooperation with a public TVET institution, graduates receive a Chinese diploma at the end of their training. Furthermore, international certificates could be achieved, too. The German Chambers of Commerce Abroad (CCA) offer certification services for companies in specific countries following German standards (A, B and C). Training programs certified according to standard A comply with a domestic German vocational training certificate. (DIHK 2020c). The UeBZO has been in contact with the CCA Shanghai on this service since 2018, but a cooperation has not been achieved yet. Applying the CCA requirements needs a lot of time and meticulous record keeping – aspects of Western working techniques. Though an CCA standard might be a prestigious achievement, one needs to ask if this benefit justifies the required input. Hilbig (2019) showed in her study that domestic companies value a German certificate due to the positive country-of-origin effect (“Made in Germany”). A German certificate expresses the value proposition. Though some training providers in her study cooperated with German CCAs, the key message and value proposition is not “Certification by German CCA” but rather “German certificate”. Understanding the role of the CCA in the certification process requires a central understanding of the whole German TVET system and its details – it is unlikely that many Chinese companies have that

knowledge. However, the UeBZO reported that many companies are aware of the CCIs as the central examination body in Germany and that the companies highly value the CCIs' quality value proposition (Interview 2, 2020). Hilbig (2019) reported that most companies in her study issued certificates on their own – which are perceived as German certificates (Hilbig 2019, p. 76). The inter-company training institution should establish quality mechanism oriented towards the German CCI standards but should focus on own certificates valuing the "Made in Germany" training quality. Those standards should strongly be emphasized towards the Chinese partners, but without making it appear as if a German CCI officially issued the certificate.

- Establish project-based work within the training process

Project-based work provides high practical relevance and enables joint learning processes. A clearly determined beginning and end of the project provides a frame towards the apprentices to jointly approach the tasks and work as a group. The inter-company training institution should put a strong emphasis on project-based work right from the beginning of the apprentices' training. On the one hand, the high in-group collectivism practice score in China (5,8) (GLOBE 2020d) provides a good precondition for teamwork. On the other hand, will the relatively free working method foster apprentices' assertiveness. As elaborated in chapter 3.3.4., teaching methods in China are very often teacher-focused, which limits the creative thinking and independent work. But these skills are an essential value of skilled workers towards companies. Project-based work would then contribute to the apprentices' individual (soft) skills and it would enhance the willingness for companies to send apprentices to the inter-company training institution. Furthermore, could the outcome of the project-based work – products that have been created by the apprentices – have a positive influence on their self-esteem and their prestige among the society. If they can proof their skills by having something "in hand" which required hand, head, and teamwork, the low value perception of TVET may be reduced - at least in their personal environment.

4.1.4. Establishing a loyal cooperation: Stakeholder and network management in China

- Set up a social partner network based on personal relationships

As elaborated in chapter 4.1.1., trust and personal relationships among the stakeholders are preconditions for sustainable business operations in China. That is illustrated by the very high practice scores for institutional (4,77) (GLOBE 2020d) and in-group collectivism (5,8) (GLOBE 2020d) and the very high value scores for both (institutional 4,56, in-

group 5,09) (GLOBE 2020d). A social partner structure therefore should be established using in-group and institutional collectivism mechanisms rather than using legal obligations or functional arguments. Trust towards the inter-company institution, knowing the respective apprentices at an early stage of their training and regular contact with the decision makers (not only on a functional level) could be success factors. Staying in contact on a regular basis besides work and taking part in private events could be crucial for that.

- Focus on the micro-level instead of focusing on system changes

A recent study on the efficiency of international vocational cooperation projects showed that complex projects focusing on system changes and widespread impact are less sustainable and more likely to fail (Stockmann 2019, p. 122). The UeBZO should not focus on the macro-level, as the high institutional collectivism (practice score 4,77) makes it very hard to access the decision-making networks. Arguments on functional eligibility due to the UeBZO's qualifications are less relevant in relationship-based societies such as China. Business is not (only) business, business is (mostly) people, as personal ties determine the success of business making (Meyer 2015, p. 170). Those ties and personal networks are called *guanxi* in China and they often date back to long-term events such as joint studies. Thus, accessing those networks requires a lot of time and personal investment and so does maintaining them (Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 137). Accordingly, one should rather focus on the microlevel with the UeBZO's core competencies in technical training and should stay within an environment that is controllable.

- Establish a holistic business approach

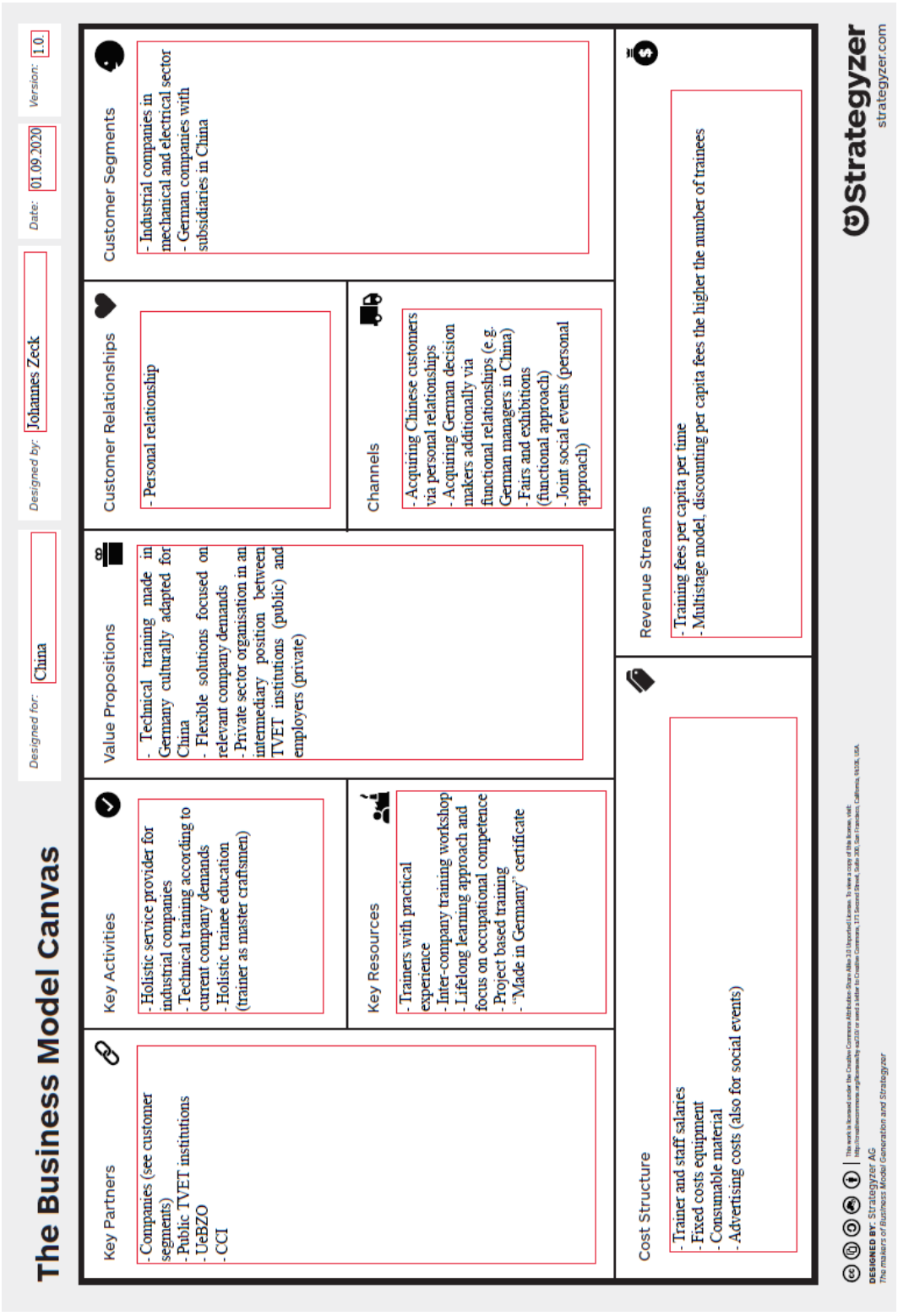
China is a paternalistic society, people in authority are expected to take over a caretaking role like a parent even towards employees (Kabasakal/Bodur 2004, p. 566). China's high scores in humane orientation (practices 4,36, values 5,32) (GLOBE 2020d) emphasize this aspect. In patronage relationship, support is provided informally and the disjuncture between work and private sphere is much lower than in non-paternalistic societies such as Germany (Kabaskal/Bodur 2004, p. 566). Due to the low social esteem of TVET in China and the individual problems arising from that for the apprentices, the inter-company training institution should provide that kind of informal support towards them. Many apprentices come from rural areas and poor families and moved to bigger cities for their education (Chen/Fu/Pan 2019, p. 15). Supporting them and involving a possible employer right from the beginning could lead to a strong personal relationship and thus a long-term company loyalty of the future graduate. The apprentice could become part of an in-group at an early stage.

4.1.5. Suggestions on concrete implementation in China and deriving the BMC

The UeBZO should establish the appropriate relationships with the relevant decision makers in the company target group. Contact with German decision makers should be made with a more functional approach, whereas Chinese decision makers should be approached on a more personal level. Joint mental models on vocational training should be created to be aware on the expectations of those companies. If interested, they should select a number of students as their apprentices. Inter-company trainers should be hired from BHS Corrugated Shanghai's workforce and further trained in vocational pedagogy. They should receive a certain set of responsibilities right from the beginning to make the role more attractive towards them, making it a higher step in the career ladder and not a downgrade to TVET. As master craftsmen, they should be responsible for the training and to be up to date in a respective technical field. Right from the beginning, they should have the opportunity to further educate themselves in that field and to receive pedagogical training, e.g. along the AEVO ("train the trainer") concept. Along the master craftsmen role, the trainers should be kind of role models and contact persons for the apprentices regarding any kind of issue. With those master craftsmen, the relationships with the JNPI and other relevant VTCs should be fostered – they could further educate their TVET teachers in their respective technical field and receive insights in pedagogical processes from the teachers. By establishing this kind of partnership, the JNPI teachers could fulfil their mandatory in-company training which they need to do on a regular basis. Besides the pedagogical and technical training, the inter-company trainers should also receive further training in relevant soft skills. By fostering their ability for creative approaches, they should become facilitators of the life-long learning concept and the occupational competence towards their apprentices. That should also be a manifestation of head work within TVET – a fact that should be strongly emphasized towards the apprentices. As vocational pedagogy, lifelong-learning and occupational competences are crucial parts of the German TVET system, technical and organisational standards from the German CCIs' could be derived, too. The UeBZO should enter a partnership with its' local CCI establishing a pilot project to transfer CCI standards on the concrete action level into the Chinese context. Having a CCI within the process – and not a CCA – the concrete social partner from Germany, would strongly account to the quality perception. By doing so, the value proposition "Technical training made in Germany culturally adapted for China" could be fulfilled and the opportunity for a certificate along those CCI standards could be given. This aspect emphasizes the focus on the micro-level, which should be the guideline for the general business approach. The UeBZO should focus on providing training

services on the action level – the core competency - and not focus on system changes or TVET reforms.

Figure 7: BMC for an inter-company training institution in China



Source: Own summary, template from Strategyzer 2020

4.2. Setting-up intercompany institutions in Lao PDR

4.2.1. Adapting the UeBZO inter-company training model in Lao PDR

As shown in chapter 3.4.5., inter-company training institutions could be established in Lao PDR in theory, supplementing DCT training programs. The recent VEFF project approach emphasizes the MoES‘ interest in diversifying training programs. However, no attempts have been made so far to establish inter-company training institutions. Outside the DCT programs, the connection between TVET institution and companies is very weak, sometimes even direct ties do not exist, e.g. when students organize their mandatory internships on their own. As in those non-DCT programs no in-company general training plans exist, there is no content to be supplemented by an inter-company training institution as it is done by the UeBZO in Germany. Same as in China, companies also have no obligation to provide in-company training placements. According to the Lao TVET system analysis, the author suggests a different value proposition towards Lao companies and TVET institutions:

- Technical training made in Germany culturally adapted for Lao PDR
- Flexible solutions focused on relevant company demands
- Private sector organisation in an intermediary position between TVET institutions (public) and employers (private)

Domestic SMEs often train their own staff in informal apprenticeships, focused on a few specific production tasks taking place in the respective company. TVET institutions are often not perceived as a potential source for skilled workers and public TVET certificates have low explanatory power towards employers. New technologies and machinery therefore requires’ the employer to conduct further training him/herself. This momentum could be the entry opportunity into the market in Lao PDR – offering further training for skilled workers from domestic SMEs as a start. Based upon this relationship, a pilot-type inter-company training model with a TVET institution could be set up, offering win-win pay-offs:

- For companies: The inter-company training institution could become a source for skilled workers. In cooperation with the TVET institution, students could receive a governmental certificate when graduating. The inter-company training institution would be the central contact, handling the communication and bureaucracy between the stakeholders.

- For TVET institutions: The network of private cooperation partners could grow, which could enlarge the practical orientation. As some of the practical training is conducted by trainers of the inter-company training institution, the TVET institution would save human resources. The cooperation could be offered as a pilot project towards the MoES.

The value proposition "Training made in Germany culturally adapted for Lao PDR" could be the anchor to set up the formal structure in cooperation with the TVET institution and the MoES, due to the Lao core principle "The application of National and Local Curricula and consistency with the curricula of the sub-region, region, and the world" (NA 2013, p. 5). Inter-company training institution could offer an environment on the micro-level, trying out new work techniques, curricula, and partner networks. The German competence centre concept (see chapter 3.1.4.) could serve as a guideline towards the MoES, how organisations could become transfer partners onto the macro-level. The long Lao-German cooperation history in the TVET sector could enable a broad understanding for this (LGTC 2019, p. 4).

4.2.2. Recombining resources: Personnel, infrastructure, and services

- Share human resources and foster long-term relationships

Experienced practitioners as trainers for the inter-company training institution should be hired from the domestic private sector. As elaborated, TVET teachers lack those practical skills. On the other hand, the skilled workers from the private sector often lack pedagogical skills, as formalized in-company training is not common. At this point, resources with TVET institutions could be joined – one skilled worker as the trainer and one TVET teacher build one teaching team. A joint agreement with the TVET institution should be set up to conduct training modules together. Pedagogical skills could then be supplemented with practical skills and vice versa. Thus, the TVET institution could profit, too. The traditional understanding of a teacher as an *ajan* should become the overall vision and mission for the inter-company training institution and their trainers.

- Invest in international human resource development

German understanding of quality is perceived as very high, one central value proposition of German training providers (Posselt et al. 2019, p. 181-182). Embedding such an understanding in local trainers, who have only been trained in their domestic environment, will only be possible to a certain point. An inter-company training institution should select some local Lao training graduates and send them to Germany for a domestic German dual training program for several years. As more German companies cannot find enough new

trainees, the UeBZO could approach some of its German customers to hire a Laotian graduate for their domestic vocational training program. The UeBZO could then supplement their training with additional pedagogical modules such as the AEVO ("train-the-trainer") to make them become good trainers on their own. When graduating in Germany, they will have finished one Lao and one German vocational training program. They would be aware of the stakeholders, the business environment and work techniques in both countries. Therefore, they would represent the value proposition "Technical training made in Germany culturally adapted for Lao PDR" in person. Due to the enormous educational opportunity a training program in Germany would be for a Lao graduate, a strong personal relationship could be established between the inter-company training institution and the graduate and future local trainer.

- Establish an innovative performance evaluation

Performance tracking of students mostly takes place on an individual basis. That neglects the strong in-group collectivism scores in Lao PDR, both practice (4,76) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) and values (4,97) (Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)). Societies with high collectivism scores are characterized by "[…] an emphasis on collaboration, cohesiveness, and harmony. […] in-group collectivism represents a strong sense of group identity" (Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 165). Especially societies (still) strongly influenced by agriculture show a high field dependency, which means that objects and people are part of a whole rather than individual things. Goals therefore cannot be achieved without relationships and networks (Nisbett 2019, p. 43). Working and examinations should therefore be much stronger focused on working in groups and examining groups rather than individuals. The lower performance orientation value score (4,55) (Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) of Lao PDR compared to the in-group collectivism value score (4,97) (Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) indicates that even in the future the society will value societal relationships and belonginess higher than individual performance (Javidan 2004, p. 245).

- Teamwork as a value proposition towards graduates and employers

The group orientation should also be used as a new mechanism to place students and graduates towards employers. Rather than placing an individual student for in-company training, placement should be based on small in-groups. Two or more graduates who have formed a small in-group during their vocational training are an experienced team to a certain degree. As the overall educational level is still very basic in Lao PDR, both could

supplement each other in terms of skills and knowledge. That group placement could also contribute to a higher company royalty compared with individual placements. Lao workers tend to change jobs very often – a huge problem for employers (GiZ 2016, p. 44). But when graduates are used to work not as an individual, but in a group of two, individual tendencies to change jobs could be lower - an informal four eye principle. Furthermore, the low self-confidence and shyness of young workers could be reduced when they are not alone in a new environment. Another advantage from the teamwork mechanism for young women could be higher chances to find employment in some sectors. Despite the high gender egalitarianism scores (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)), Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)), outside working sites, especially in rural areas, which require to stay there a few days (e.g. field service technicians) are not considered as save spaces for individual females according to the authors experience. The author knows one case in which a young woman who graduated as an agricultural machinery technician from a DCT program with very good results. Despite her good performance, she was not able to receive a work contract as the company required at least one other female to work with her as a field service technician due to safety reasons.

4.2.3. Pilot testing: Learning by doing in Lao PDR

- Flexible training programs

Also, in Lao PDR, high flexibility and less planning processes are predominant aspects in business compared to Germany. Westerners are sometimes being perceived as too inflexible, as they focus on many details during the planning process which may be irrelevant when it comes to the implementation (Boase 1997, p. 8). Shifting quickly from the planning into the doing phase should be a guiding principle. Things which have already been established should not be seen as a constant but as a variable – adaption processes should be on the mind even for those aspects. A vocational training program as a continuous sequence of training in a fixed time of three years is such an example. Young men and women in LDCs such as Lao PDR often lack financial resources. As annual fees must be paid for the school-based training and companies do not have any obligation to pay salaries during in-company training, many students are dependent on financial support from their family. Events such as death or severe sicknesses within the family could abruptly change the financial support, often leading to dropouts from the TVET system (GiZ 2016, p. 30). The longer a formal TVET training program lasts, the higher the probability for such events. Splitting up three years of formalized training onto several phases of a few months and work placements in companies longer than two months could ease off

this kind of pressure. The inter-company training institution could design a module concept oriented towards an extra-occupational education program rather than a full-time education program. Students could get the chance to earn money and gather practical skills at an early stage. Even if unexpected family events happen, the formal learning duration would not be that long anymore, and they could get by easier.

- Product training courses as additional revenue stream

Despite the high relevance of quality technical education, the willingness of companies in Lao PDR to pay for such services is probably still very low, as industrial development is still at an early stage and often low (unskilled) labour costs lever out skill investment necessities (GiZ 2016, p. 43). Establishing sustainable revenue streams with training services is challenging. The inter-company training institution could offer product training courses, e.g. for tooling machine manufacturers, to diversify the revenue streams. When partnering with local machinery dealers, the trainers could conduct the training courses for the dealers' customers. Besides the additional revenue streams, trainers have access to up to date equipment, thus ensuring their continuous further training.

4.2.4. Establishing a loyal cooperation: Stakeholder and network management

- Provide holistic support towards apprentices and strengthen their character

Same as China, the Lao PDR is a paternalistic society, too. The high practice score (4,5) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) and the high value score (4,84) (Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) in humane orientation for Lao PDR emphasize this aspect. Support is provided informally; work and private life are not that strongly separated. The traditional role of a trainer / teacher as an *ajan*, as a master towards the learner, stands for the holistic approach in vocational training. Similar as in China, the trainers therefore should take care for the apprentices also besides work related issues. The Lao PDR is still an LDC, many young men and women often come from very poor families and rural areas, often must work besides the training and/or have to take care for their family (Interview 1, 2020). Joint social events and the feeling of social support when needed by their trainers could then become a success factor in the apprentice's performance. Together with the other in-group fostering mechanisms, their skills and character should grow in a solid environment. Hence, trainers would ned to find the right balance between social support and still supporting their self-sufficiency and assertiveness. Like the wishes of employers (GiZ 2016, p. 44), the higher assertiveness value score (4,31) (Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)) over the assertiveness practice score (3,94) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany

(West), China and Lao PDR (m)), the Lao society wishes for a higher assertiveness in the future. Besides the technical skills, the *ajan* should strengthen their character, to reduce shyness, foster assertiveness to make them valuable skilled workers for employers.

- Establish a teamwork-based business development approach

The considerably lower power distance practice score for Lao PDR (4,33) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)), indicates that there is a greater openness to share power and decision making than in China (practice: 5,04) (GLOBE 2020d). Together with the high institutional collectivism practice score (4,71) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)), both cultural dimensions could enable a teamwork-based approach for the business development process. The trainers and staff members of the inter-company training institution could develop a joint vision for the further development, integrating the close stakeholders and the apprentices. Official meetings in Lao PDR are seldom used to gather the opinion of all attendants, mediate them, and agree on a consensus. Rather they are used to officially announce what has been negotiated informally beforehand. Open conflict threatening harmony shall be avoided by settling things previously (Boase 1997, p. 8). The inter-company training institution should therefore use joint social events to foster the personal relationship with the other stakeholders and pre-gather their opinion on certain aspects. That feedback should then be mediated by the team internally and announced and slightly discussed at an official meeting. Breaking down the outcome to principles and displaying them within graphical models (e.g. visualizing processes) on which the stakeholders jointly agree should be the outcome of teamwork-based business development approach (Koch 2018, p. 104).

- Communicate in the appropriate way

Due to the low uncertainty avoidance scores (practice: 4,43, value: 4,52) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m), Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)), formalized business communication, e.g. via e-mail, is less common than in Germany or China (practice Germany: 5,22, practice China: 4,94) (GLOBE 2020d). Further are Lao contracts often short and just focused on principles, leaving out details (Boase 1997, p. 8). This is also a common aspect of law and legal systems in Asia – details are not sorted out following a detailed process from the book, the parties rather try to find a joint agreement (Nisbett 2019, p. 75). Therefore, the business communication should be less formalized in terms of the communication medium and regarding a contractual basis. That basis needs to be kept simple and based on principles, leaving out details (Boase 1997, p. 8). In general,

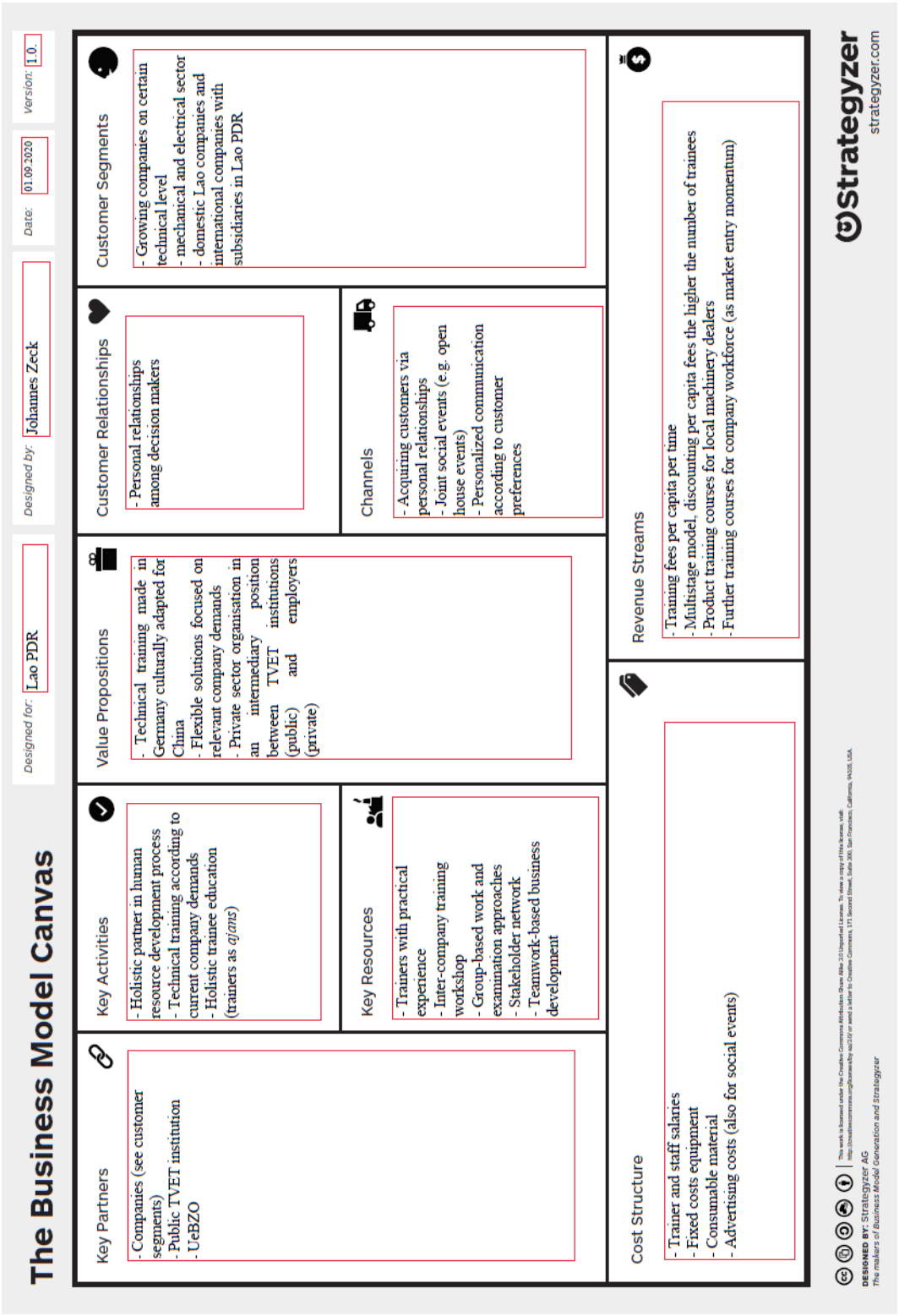
trust-based relationships are of stronger guarantee than contracts due to the high collectivism scores (institutional 4,77, in-group 4,76) (Figure 1: Cultural dimensions (practices) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m), Figure 2: Cultural dimension (values) in Germany (West), China and Lao PDR (m)). SMEs as cooperation partners and TVET institutions may be at different stages of their internal development. At the beginning of the cooperation they should be asked how they wish to handle busines communication (Boase 1997, p. 8). The inter-company training institution then should set up a stakeholder communication system harmonizing the preferred communication channels (e.g. via Whatsapp, Facebook, WeChat, E-Mail etc.).

4.2.5. Suggestions on concrete implementation in Lao PDR and deriving the BMC

The UeBZO should pick up BHS Corrugated's existing company network and approach the relevant decision makers in those companies. Contact should be made regarding TVET, but not focused on details in the first place. Rather should a personal relationship be established. Local trainers for the Lao inter-company training institution should be hired from the industry and they should receive basic pedagogic training, e.g. along the AEVO concept ("train-the-trainer"). To get access to the education market, the UeBZO should offer a short-term training course to further educate selected skilled workers of those companies and TVET teachers of the LGTC. Short-term training courses could be set up relatively quick, after evaluating feedback on the relevant content from the companies. Within the course, the relationship between the UeBZO and those potential partner companies should be fostered and an understanding on the internal development of those companies gained. Furthermore, should the contact be used to introduce the inter-company training concept, for which the graphics on the German TVET system (see Figure 3: Visualization of the German TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO)) and the Lao TVET system (see Figure 6: Visualization of the Lao TVET system (focus on formal levels relevant for the UeBZO)) could be used. If successful, the inter-company training concept should be offered towards those companies. They should select students as their apprentices, who then should receive practical training in the inter-company workshop at the LGTC by the private trainers of the UeBZO and theory classes by the LGTC teachers. The ties between trainers and LGTC teachers should be strengthened by establishing tandem partnerships in which one can benefit from the others' experiences in technical content and pedagogy. In 2018, BHS Corrugated and the UeBZO conducted examinations at the LGTC, aligned towards CCI standards. Due to a lack of infrastructure, students needed to be paired in groups during the examination. That proofed to be very successful in terms of teamwork and the students' performance. Derived from those

experiences, the courses in the inter-company training workshop should be based upon teamwork, and so should the examinations be, too. The trainers as *ajans* should build up a strong relationship with the apprentices and they should be perceived as a person one can go to when having any kind of trouble. An emergency fund should be installed to be able to quickly react on medical emergencies, which strengthens the holistic *ajan* role of the trainers and the organisation itself. That should be fostered on a regular basis with joint social events such as joint physical activities and dinners. An apprentice football team or other sports teams could be a good anchor point to further strengthen the relationship with the companies, too, as employees often organize company football teams. Those events with apprentices, the LGTC and employees of companies could contribute to the joint business development and a strong relationship among the stakeholders. During those events, preferred ways of communication could be assessed and insights on the current busines of the companies gained.

Figure 8: BMC for an inter-company training institution in Lao PDR



Source: Own summary, template from Strategyzer 2020

4.3. Deriving a business model adaption blueprint according to intercultural matters

As the tools and methods to assess the formal conditions and the business model adaption are general, the process outlined in this thesis could also be applied onto other environments, analysing the concrete circumstances, taking cultural aspects into account to derive a BMC. The GLOBE study data (2004) together with Hilbig's (2019) four step Seizing Capability process delivers the conceptual framework, while the UeBZO would need to analyse the TVET system of the respective country. First-hand experiences are very valuable in that case, to get a realistic insight into the TVET system – what is written in reports does not always correspond to reality. Along the authors research findings, the process could be generalized within the following steps:

1. Displaying the practice and value cultural dimension scores from the GLOBE study (2004) for the respective target country (see chapter 2.3.4.).
2. Becoming aware of the market position and areas of activity within the domestic market Germany (see chapter 3.1. and 3.2.).
3. Getting familiar with the historical development of the TVET system in the target country, analysing current legal structures and stakeholders (China: chapter 3.3.1. and 3.3.2., Lao PDR chapter 3.4.1. and 3.4.2.). Analysing the current market position of inter-company training institutions in the domestic TVET system (China: Figure 5, Lao PDR: Figure 6).
4. Choosing the formal TVET level to get involved into (this has already been done for China and Lao PDR, as the UeBZO already established projects there – see formal levels at the beginning of chapter 3.3.2. and chapter 3.4.2.).
5. Analysing the performance and quality output of the TVET system along characteristics announced by a high domestic political body (e.g. national government, Ministry of Education etc. – analysing characteristics defined by those bodies enhances the appropriateness) (China: chapter 3.3.4., Lao PDR: chapter 3.4.4.).
6. Deriving actions along the four process steps of the Seizing Capability (services, resources, pilot testing, stakeholder/network management) to elaborate how individual aspects of the domestic business model can be adapted in the target country along the specific cultural dimensions (see chapter 4.).
7. Summarizing the individual aspects in the BMC (China: chapter 4.1.5., Lao PDR: chapter 4.2.5.)

5. Assessing research questions and further outlook

5.1. Answering the research questions

Implementing inter-company training institutions abroad is slightly different than implementing other kinds of business services abroad. As inter-company training institutions are part of a national TVET system, there is not just one service provider – client relationship, but a few more. Administrative, legal, political, economic, and cultural circumstances have a certain influence on the TVET system and thus the possible market position and areas of activity of an inter-company training institution. By analysing these circumstances, these research questions were addressed in this thesis:

- Can inter-company training institutions be established in China and Lao PDR?
- How can the inter-company training business model be adapted in China and Lao PDR along intercultural aspects to increase the local effectiveness and acceptance?
- How can the findings on the adaption process in China and Lao PDR be generalized as a blueprint?

As shown in chapter 3.3.5. and chapter 3.4.5., the formal conditions exist to establish inter-company training institutions both in China and Lao PDR. Similar organisation forms already exist in China, on which the UeBZO could build up. Though no such organisations exist in Lao PDR yet, the recent VEFF project emphasizes the MoES's interest in establishing such organisations. In both countries, inter-company training institutions could be established as pilot-projects in close cooperation with the relevant public stakeholders, which then can benefit from this special kind of organisation, too. Governmental ambitions, both in China and Lao PDR to further develop the domestic TVET system towards the German TVET system, provide a good environment on the policy level, to implement the German inter-company training approach (Stockmann 2017, p. 70, MoES 2015, p. 61). Chapter 4 displayed how the German inter-company training concept and the UeBZO's domestic business model needs to be adapted in China and Lao PDR. By incorporating the findings on the national TVET systems together with the GLOBE cultural dimensions, adaptions for the business model were derived along the four step Seizing Capability process from Hilbig (2019). With these adaptions, a concrete BMC for the inter-company training concept for China and Lao PDR could be created. Along the general adaptions, concrete suggestions how they can be put into action in the UeBZO's projects in China and Lao PDR were derived. It became clear that a less functional and rather personal approach needs to be applied to create effective and appropriate business operations there. As both countries are strongly relationship-based societies

(Boase 1997, p. 3, Meyer 2015, p. 170) and as the functional German levels of inter-company training does not exist there, the UeBZO would need to approach potential customers, partners, and apprentices in a much different way than in Germany. This kind of joint approach would be based on the management level as well as on the technical training level with the apprentices, e.g. by establishing teamwork-based task assignments in Lao PDR or project-based work in China. Therefore, also the role of the trainer should be another one than in Germany. He/she should be a holistic teacher towards the apprentices, following the master craftsman role in China or the *ajan* role in Lao PDR. Picking up such culturally rooted aspects could contribute in a great way to successful business operations. Chapter 4.3. summarized the adaption process for China and Lao PDR throughout the whole thesis into a general blueprint. By generalizing the approach into a blueprint, it could also be applied onto other countries. With that blueprint, the UeBZO could establish a unique value proposition towards customers in other countries. As elaborated in chapter 2.1.2., the label "Made in Germany" is highly appreciated around the world, not only for products, but also for vocational training services. German vocational training providers already tied onto that label, offering services abroad with that value proposition. By incorporating intercultural matters into the services provided, the UeBZO could set itself apart from that competition. Offering that added value towards the customers abroad, would ensure a unique value proposition (Posselt et al. 2019, p. 181-182).

5.2. Closing and opportunities for further research

Being able to systematically consider intercultural aspects in business operations abroad and use them to adapt one's business model is a great value for companies. As shown in chapter 2.2.2., intercultural competencies have a strong influence on the success of expatriation processes. Deardorff's (2016) definition of intercultural competencies emphasizes the relevance of appropriateness in those interactions to achieve effectiveness (Deardorff 2016, p. 121). To do so in business operations abroad, one needs to understand the foreign "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House/Javidan 2004, p. 15) as GLOBE (2004) defined the term culture. Latest, when Hofstede published "Culture's Consequences – International Differences in Work Related Values" in 1980, the proof has been provided that culture affects business operations and that those influences can be measured and displayed. As shown in chapter 3., national TVET systems are strongly interlinked with domestic cultural aspects, as they consist of different stakeholders and the interactions

between them. However, it is surprising that despite the many publications on business model adaption processes for German TVET providers abroad, intercultural aspects are seldom considered in these processes. Though most of the publications (e.g. Wiemann et al. 2019b, Krzywdzinsk/Jürgens 2019, Pilz/Li 2019, Schreier 2015, DLR-PT 2019, Hilbig 2019) somehow mention cultural aspects at some point of the process, no publication draws up a model to holistically take them into account. Many helpful tools are provided to assess technical demands or methods for curricula development. But referring to the Iceberg model from chapter 2.1.2., those are only the artefacts which lie on the surface, whereas the norms, values and basic assumptions of a society form the much bigger part of the Iceberg underneath the surface. Following the approach of this thesis, there are opportunities for future research. As GLOBE currently conducts a data collection in 159 countries, a comprehensive data set for many different societies can be expected within the next years (GLOBE 2020c). The approach can therefore be applied to many more countries, which scores are based upon a homogenous data collection methodology. Furthermore, it would be a great benefit to systematically assess intercultural experiences made by German TVET providers in a foreign TVET system on a broad basis. That could become an extension to Hilbig's (2019) assessment of success factors for German TVET providers abroad and could deliver valuable information, especially to companies which are just about to start entering new markets. First-hand experiences from the micro-level would also help to refine the selection process of individual aspects from chapter 4. in the foreign TVET environment, which one and how they should be adapted. Those first-hand experiences, and especially the personal relationships with individuals and organisations, are crucial for the long-term success of TVET providers. Being open minded on the personal and organisational level ensures a learning environment, in which one can profit from each other. Gaining a better understanding on foreign societies not only helps to enhance the business opportunities, it also helps to get a clearer picture about one's own culture, society and why things are done the way they are done. Though there are sometimes great differences among people, institutions, and societies, they all have things in common. An interviewee in Hilbig's (2019) study expressed that quite clearly: „I have learned places are different, and the people are all the same. People all want the same things. People all want honesty, respect, integrity, the right information" (Hilbig 2019, p 188). Having in mind the things that distinguish people and the things that we all share, ensures an effective, appropriate, and human behaviour in business and private environments.

Annex

Table 7: Summary of cultural dimension methodologies

Authors	Cultural dimensions	Data collection	Participants	Societies	Remark	Source
Hall (1990)	Context, Space, Time, Information flow, Interface	Compilation of research from former observational studies (1966, 1976, 1983, 1987).	-	-	Research not based on theoretical base, as the publication (1990) is derived from observational studies in former research. Not empirical validated.	Hall/Hall 1990, p. 6, 10, 17, Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 25-26, 30, Pauluzzo/Shen 2018, p. 101
Schwartz (1994)	Conservation, Hierarchy, Intellectual Autonomy, Affective autonomy, Competency, Harmony, Egalitarian compromise	Questionnaire in native language of each country consisting of 56 items between 1988 to 1994.	Urban school teachers in most common school type, college students of certain subjects and heterogeneous adult samples in 49 countries.	49	Cultural values are subdivided: Autonomy vs. Conservatism, Hierarchy vs. Egalitarian Commitment, Mastery vs. Harmony	Schwartz 1994, p. 9, 11, Gouveia/Ros 2000, p. 26-27
GLOBE study (2004)	Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, Humane Orientation, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Performance Orientation, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance	Questionnaire in native language of each country consisting of 75/78 items between 1994 to 1997.	17,300 middle managers from 950 domestic enterprises of three business sectors (food processing, finance, telecommunication) in 62 countries.	62	The nine cultural dimensions are split up in practices and values.	Chokar/Brodbeck/House 2008a, p. 3, 10, House/Hanges 2004, p. 98-99, House 2004, p. xxv
Hofstede (2010)	Power distance, Individualism vs. collectivism, Masculinity vs femininity, Uncertainty avoidance, Long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation, Indulgence vs. restraint	Questionnaire in 20 different languages consisting of 27 items between 1967 to 1973. Questionnaire further developed (1994, 2008, 2013) and further data collection in recent publications included.	116,000 IBM employees in 72 different countries (original publication in 1980), subsequent studies validated and supplemented the original data for the following publications.	76	Further development of earlier studies (1980, 1991, 2001, 2005).	Hofstede/Hofstede/Minkov 2010[3], p. xi-xii, 36, Hofstede Insights 2020, Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 31, Hofstede 2001[2], p. 493
Trompenaars, Hampden-Turner (2012)	Universalism vs. particularism, Individualism vs. communitarianism, Neutral vs. emotional, Specific vs. diffuse, Achievement vs. ascription, Sequential vs. synchronic, Internal vs. external control	Data derived from questionnaires and workshops with managers	Approx. 80,000 participants (75% managers, 25% workers) in more than 60 countries, participants from 1,500 intercultural workshops.	?	Further development of earlier studies, enlarging the former database in the current version.	Engelen/Tholen 2014, p. 56
Meyer (2015)	low-context vs. high-context communication, direct negative feedback vs. indirect negative feedback, principles-first vs. application-first persuasion, Leading: egalitarian vs. hierarchical, sensual vs. top-down decisions, task-	Via interviews during a period of 15 years	MBA students of INSEAD business school and attendees of workshops offered by her, concrete number of participants not specified	66	Concrete methodology not transparent	Meyer 2015, pp. 19-21, Meyer 2020, INSEAD 2020

	based vs. relation-ship-based trust, confrontational vs. avoids confronta-tion, linear-time vs. flexible-time scheduling					

Table 8: Description of GLOBE cultural dimensions

Dimension	Description	Reference
1 Performance Orientation	**Definition: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) group members for performance improvement and excellence.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to high religious diversity and a low concentration of the largest religion, indicating a culture that is nondogmatic with a creative orientation. Empirically this attribute of a culture helps economic accomplishments, but people in such cultures do not live as long as they do in some other cultures.		Triandis 2004, p. xvi
Performance Orientation values encourage a preference for challenge and being in control of someone's' destiny. An outcropping of the Performance Orientation dimension, although not explicitly stated, implies a norm of preference for having jobs in which people control what they do and when they do it. Extending the logic, a bit further, it is likely that performance-oriented cultures place a high value on work choice.		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 164
Societies That Score Higher on Performance Orientation, **Tend to**: • Value training and development • Emphasize results more than people • Reward performance • Value assertiveness, competitiveness, and materialism • Expect demanding targets • Believe that individuals are in control • Have a "can-do" attitude	Societies That Score Lower on Performance Orientation, **Tend to**: • Value societal and family relationships • Emphasize loyalty and belongingness • Have high respect for quality of life • Emphasize seniority and experience • Value harmony with the environment rather than control • Have performance appraisal systems that emphasize integrity, loyalty, and cooperative spirit • View feedback and appraisal as judgmental and discomforting	
2 Assertiveness	**Definition: The degree to which individuals are (and should be) assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationship with others**	GLOBE 2020a
Societies high in this attribute do well in global competitiveness but exhibit low levels of psychological health.		Triandis 2004, p. xvi
associated with the following preferences, among others: strong expression, articulation, and communication of one's thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and rights, both in political and social forums. […] An outcropping of the conceptualization of assertiveness is that assertiveness-oriented societies will have a high degree of political activism among their members […] it is suggested that greater political involvement is more frequently found in assertive cultures.		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 164
Broadly speaking, cultural assertiveness reflects beliefs as to whether people are or should be encouraged to be assertive, aggressive, and tough, or nonassertive, nonaggressive, and tender in social relationships. […] An assertive attitude is often seen in business. For instance, "Just do it," the famous Nike slogan, implies valuing such an assertive attitude.		Den Hartog 2004, p. 395
An example of how assertiveness is defined in the **psychological literature** is the following: "Assertion basically involves asking for what one wants, refusing what one doesn't want, and expressing positive and negative messages to others" (Booream & Flowers, 1978, p. 15). Assertive behaviour is explicitly contrasted to passive behaviour (Crawford, 1995). Such passive behaviour is attributed to those who fail to express their true thoughts and feelings, allow themselves to be dominated or humiliated by others, and who comply with requests or demands of others even if they themselves do not want to (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).		Den Hartog 2004, p. 397

For instance, an employee voicing disagreement to his or her boss is an accepted and positively evaluated manner of expressing oneself in some cultures but may be unacceptable in others. Whether and how such assertive responding is done and how it is valued depends on societal norms regarding such behaviour. Such norms describe the degree to which people in organizations or societies are (or should be) assertive in social relationships.		Den Hartog 2004, p. 399
showing one's emotions—in laughter, gesture, as well as heated debate—is the norm. For instance, in Latin American and Southern European countries (such as Spain and Italy) people openly show emotions. In more neutral cultures, people tend to keep their emotions in check. In such cultures, keeping a subdued manner, maintaining self-possessed conduct, and not openly showing emotion is the norm. For instance, in Scandinavian and many Asian countries, people tend to show less emotion in public. In highly assertive and direct societies, communication is also likely to be more emotionally expressive.		Den Hartog 2004, p. 404
Societies That Score Higher on Assertiveness, **Tend to**: • Value assertive, dominant, and tough behavior for everyone in society • Have sympathy for the strong • Value competition • Believe that anyone can succeed if he or she tries hard enough • Value success and progress • Value direct and unambiguous communication • Value being explicit and to the point in communications • Value expressiveness and revealing thoughts and feelings	Societies That Score Lower on Assertiveness, **Tend to**: • View assertiveness as socially unacceptable and value modesty and tenderness • Have sympathy for the weak • Value cooperation • Associate competition with defeat and punishment • Value people and warm relationships • Speak indirectly and emphasize "face-saving" • Value ambiguity and subtlety in language and communications • Value detached and self-possessed conduct	
3 Future Orientation	**Definition: The extent to which individuals engage (and should engage) in future-oriented behaviours such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to a large number of trademarks per capita. In countries high on this attribute people do not visit spontaneously but call before they visit. Many people use English as a way to advance in their career. People enjoy economic prosperity, and there is scientific advancement, democracy, gender equality, and social health.		Triandis 2004, p. xvi
It is also associated with the distinction between materialistic versus spiritual orientation (Cervantes & Ramirez, 1992). Spiritual orientation is an outcropping of GLOBE's conceptualization of future orientation. In future-oriented cultures, the material and spiritual realms are more integrated		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 164
Cultures with low future orientation, or high present orientation, show the capability to enjoy the moment and be spontaneous. They are free of past worries or future anxieties, but at the same time may seek hedonistic pleasures. They may show incapacity or unwillingness to plan a sequence to realize their desired goals, and may not appreciate the warning signals that their current behaviour negatively influences realization of their goals in the future (Keough et al., 1999). In contrast, cultures with high future orientation have a strong capability and willingness to imagine future contingencies, formulate future goal states, and seek to achieve goals and develop strategies for meeting their future aspirations. However, they may lack a solid appreciation of situational realities because of a neglect of their present personal and social relationships and interactions (Keough et al., 1999). In summary, as a result, future-oriented individuals and cultures have a capacity to enrich their lives and maintain self-control, whereas present-oriented individuals and cultures strive to simplify their lives and rely more on others.		Ashkanasy et al. 2004, p. 285

Societies That Score Higher on Future Orientation, **Tend to**: • Achieve economic success • Have a propensity to save for the future • Have individuals who are psychologically healthy and socially well adjusted • Have individuals who are more intrinsically motivated • Have organizations with a longer strategic orientation • Have flexible and adaptive organizations and managers	Societies That Score Lower on Future Orientation, **Tend to**: • Have lower levels of economic success • Have a propensity to spend now, rather than to save for the future • Have individuals who are psychologically unhealthy and socially maladjusted • Have individuals who are less intrinsically motivated • Have organizations with a shorter strategic orientation • Have inflexible and maladaptive organizations and managers	
4 Humane Orientation	**Definition: The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to few retail outlets per capita. People who live in such cultures tend to use extended, warm greetings. Hospitality is very important. People show empathy and are very high in satisfaction.		Triandis 2004, p. xvi
The norms of societies valuing humane orientation are concerned with improvement of the human condition. One of the distinguishing norms of humane-oriented societies is public morality (Kurtz, 2001). Public morality is expressed through laws and norms that emphasize and reinforce moral behaviour. Thus, we would expect a sense of public morality to be stronger and more frequently found in humane-oriented cultures.		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 165
the degree to which an organization or society encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others (House et al., 1999). This dimension is manifested in the way people treat one another and in the social programs institutionalized within each society.		Kabasakal/Bodur 2004, 569
In highly humane-oriented societies, central norms and values are altruism, benevolence, kindness, love, and generosity that also have high priority as dominant motivating factors. Family, friends, and others in the close circle as well as strangers are important, and relations with these parties induce protection for the individuals in highly humane societies. […] As far as family practices are concerned, in some strongly humane-oriented societies, parents closely control their children and expect them to be obedient and to participate in the labour force to help their families. [….] For organizations, connotations and variations of societal Humane Orientation cover bureaucratic versus organic designs, employee relations, and relationships to stakeholders. In highly humane-oriented societies social control is based on shared values and norms, practices reflect individualized consideration, and informal relationships provide development opportunities to employees. On the other hand, in the less humane-oriented societies, social control is based on bureaucratic practices; formal relationships and standardized consideration such as formalized procedures are common. Furthermore, in the less humane-oriented societies, organizations are trusted less by their members, and mechanisms of control are established by legislation, unionization, and state interventions.		Kabasakal/Bodur 2004, 596
High Humane Orientation Societies • Others are important (i.e. family, friends, community, strangers). • Fewer psychological and pathological problems.	Low Humane Orientation Societies • Self-interest is important. • More psychological and pathological problems. • Values of pleasure, comfort, self-enjoyment have high priority. • Power and material possessions motivate people.	

• Values of altruism, benevolence, kindness, love, and generosity have high priority. • Need for belonging and affiliation motivate people. • Personal and family relationships induce protection for the individuals. • Close circle receives material, financial, and social support; concern extends to all people and nature. • Members of society are responsible for promoting well-being of others: The state is not actively involved.	• Welfare state guarantees social and economic protection of individuals. • Lack of support for others; predominance of self-enhancement. • State provides social and economic support for individuals' well-being.	
5 Institutional Collectivism	**Definition: The degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) collective distribution of resources and collective action.**	GLOBE 2020a
an attribute that is especially high in Confucian Asia cultures. These are societies that are less segmented than in other parts of the world.		Triandis 2004, p. xvi
laws, social programs, or institutional practices designed to encourage collective behaviour.		(House/Javidar 2004, p. 13)
Institutional collectivism emphasizes shared objectives, interchangeable interests, and respect for socially legitimated institutions […] In organizations, institutional collectivism likely takes the form of strong team orientation and development. To the extent possible, tasks are likely to be based on group rather than individual performance. Personal independence has low priority in institutionally oriented collective societies […] Societies characterized by lower institutional collectivism tend to embrace a preoccupation with self-reliance and independent personality (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler, & Tipton, 1985). A common guiding principle in Asian societies that score high on institutional collectivism is that "The nail that sticks out gets pounded down"; in the Netherlands, a common idiom is, "The head that rises above the ditch gets shot off."		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 165
was measured through a set of four questions that were focused on the degree to which institutional practices at the societal level encourage and reward collective action. Specifically, the questions assessed whether group loyalty is emphasized at the expense of individual goals, whether the economic system emphasizes individual or collective interests, whether being accepted by other group members is important, and whether individualism or group cohesion is valued more in the society		Gelfand 2004, p. 463
Organizations That Score High on Collectivism • Members assume that they are highly interdependent with the organization and believe it is important to make personal sacrifices to fulfill their organizational obligations	Organizations That Score High on Individualism • Members assume that they are independent of the organization and believe it is important to bring their unique skills and abilities to the organization • Employees develop short-term relationships, and change companies at their own discretion	

• Employees tend to develop long-term relationship with employers from recruitment to retirement • Organizations take responsibility for employee welfare • Important decisions tend to be made by groups • Selection can focus on relational attributes of employees • Jobs are designed in groups to maximize the social and technical aspects of the job	• Organizations are primarily interested in the work that employees perform and not their personal or family welfare • Important decisions tend to be made by individuals • Selection focuses primarily on employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities • Jobs are designed individually to maximize autonomy	
6 In-Group Collectivism	**Definition: The degree to which individuals express (and should express) pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to low divorce rates and poor due process, suggesting emphasis on the family.		Triandis 2004, p. xvii
In strong in-group collectivistic societies, there is an emphasis on collaboration, cohesiveness, and harmony. Responsibility and identification with the group begins with the immediate group, and then gradually extends externally. Put differently, in-group collectivism represents a strong sense of group identity and may extend to the national level		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 165-166
construct was also operationalized by a set of four questions that assessed the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and interdependence in their families. The items specifically measured whether children take pride in the individual accomplishments of their parents and vice versa, whether aging parents live at home with their children, and whether children live at home with their parents until they get married		Gelfand 2004, p. 463
Features of Cultures That Score High on Collectivism • Individuals are integrated into strong cohesive groups • The self is viewed as interdependent with groups • Group goals take precedence over individual goals • Duties and obligations are important determinants of social behavior • People emphasize relatedness with groups • Ecologies are agricultural, and countries are often developing • There is a slower pace of life • There are lower heart-attack rates	Features of Cultures That Score High on Individualism • Individuals look after themselves or their immediate families • The self is viewed as autonomous and independent of groups • Individual goals take precedence over group goals • Attitudes and personal needs are important determinants of behavior • People emphasize rationality • Ecologies are hunting and gathering, or industrial and wealthy • There is a faster pace of life	
7 Gender Egalitarianism	**Definition: The degree to which a collective minimizes (and should minimize) gender inequality.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to a high proportion of women earning an income. Women have access to resources. It is positively correlated with longevity		Triandis 2004, p. xvii
reflects the degree to which men and women perform common tasks and are treated equally with respect to status, privilege, and rewards[..]Further, greater gender egalitarian societies tend to advocate the notion of unity in diversity.[…] Members of societies characterized by higher gender egalitarianism not only tolerate diversity, but emphasize understanding, respect, and the nurturing of diversity in their communities through sustained committed efforts		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 166

societies' beliefs about whether members' biological sex should determine the roles that they play in their homes, business organizations, and communities. Societies with greater gender egalitarianism rely less on biological sex to determine the allocation of roles between the sexes.		Emrich/Denmark/Den Hartog 2004, p. 347
the way in which societies divide roles between women and men. The more gender egalitarian a society, the less it relies on biology to determine women's and men's social roles. This construct varies along a continuum in that societies can be rated as more or less gender egalitarian relative to other societies in the same study. More gender egalitarian societies believe that men and women are suited for similar roles, whereas less gender egalitarian societies believe that men and women should assume different roles. [….] Beliefs about what is possible or appropriate for women and men affect their treatment and roles in homes, workplaces, and societies. Any gender discrimination and inequality that results serves to reinforce individuals' stereotypes and ideologies,		Emrich/Denmark/Den Hartog 2004, p. 386
Societies That Score Higher on Gender Egalitarianism Tend to: • Have more women in positions of authority • Accord women a higher status in society • Afford women a greater role in community decision making • Have a higher percentage of women participating in the labor force • Have less occupational sex segregation	Societies That Score Lower on Gender Egalitarianism Tend to: • Have fewer women in positions of authority • Accord women a lower status in society • Afford women no or a smaller role in community decision making • Have a lower percentage of women participating in the labor force • Have more occupational sex segregation	
8 Power Distance	**Definition: The extent to which the community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to a limited number of scientists per unit of gross national product. These are societies in which the rich differ from the poor, and thus economic growth often results in unemployment and, instead of helping the poor, makes their position even less satisfactory. Empirically, there is low societal health and little human development (e.g., education).		Triandis 2004, p. xvii
the extent to which members of a culture expect and agree that power should be shared unequally […] One manifestation of the value placed on power distance concerns monopolistic orientation. In high power distance societies, power holders are granted greater status, privileges, and material rewards than those without power. In high power distance societies, one would theoretically expect there to be higher acceptance of monopolistic practices by power holders.		Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 166
In high power distance cultures such as France, some individuals are perceived to have a higher overall rank whose power is unquestionable and virtually unattainable by those with lower power. In low power distance countries such as Scandinavia and the Netherlands, each individual is respected and appreciated for what that person has to offer, and people expect access to upward mobility in both their class and their jobs. Within low power distance cultures, the distaste for large power differentials is often based on the beliefs that power corrupts, and that excessive power results in the abuse of power, from which people in less powerful positions have no recourse.		Carl/Gupta/Javidan 2004, p. 518

538 • EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Table 17.3c Power Distance: Organization Practices (As Is)

1. In this organization, subordinates are expected to: (reverse scored)

Obey their boss without question						Question their boss when in disagreement
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. In this organization, a person's influence is based primarily on:

One's ability and contribution to the organization						The authority of one's position
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Carl/Gupta/Javidan 2004, p. 538

Higher Power Distance **Social inequities:** Society differentiated into classes on several criteria **Power bases:** Power bases are stable and scarce (e.g., land ownership) **Role of power:** Power is seen as providing social order, relational harmony, and role stability **Social mobility:** Limited upward social mobility **Resources and capabilities:** Only a few people have access to resources, skills, and capabilities, contributing to low human development and life expectancies	Lower Power Distance **Social inequities:** Society has large middle class **Power bases:** Power bases are transient and sharable (e.g., skill, knowledge) **Role of power:** Power is seen as a source of corruption, coercion, and dominance **Social mobility:** High upward social mobility **Resources and capabilities:** Mass availability of tools, resources, and capabilities for independent and entrepreneurial initiatives, as reflected in wide educational enrolment

9 Uncertainty Avoidance	**Definition: The extent to which a society, organization, or group relies (and should rely) on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events. The greater the desire to avoid uncertainty, the more people seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formal procedures, and laws to cover situations in their daily lives.**	GLOBE 2020a
related to a high share of home corporations in national research and development. In such cultures there is an extensive, modern telecommunication system. There is scientific progress and the government supports economic activities.		Triandis 2004, p. xvii
Most individuals in high uncertainty avoidance cultures have a strong tendency toward formalizing their interactions with others, documenting agreements in legal contracts, being orderly, keeping meticulous records, documenting conclusions drawn in meetings, formalizing policies and procedures, establishing and following rules, verifying verbal communications in writing, and taking moderate calculated risks. In contrast, most individuals in low uncertainty avoidance cultures tend to exhibit the following traits and practices: they are more informal; rely on the word of others they trust rather than contractual arrangements; are less concerned with orderliness		House 2004, p. 6

and the maintenance of records; do not document the conclusions drawn in meetings; rely on informal interactions and informal norms rather than formalized policies, procedures, and rules; and tend to be less calculating when taking risks.	
People in high uncertainty avoidance cultures actively seek to decrease the probability of unpredictable future events that could adversely affect the operation of an organization or society and remedy the success of such adverse effects.	House/Javidan 2004, p. 12
the extent to which people seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures, and laws to deal with naturally occurring uncertainty as well as important events in their daily lives […]It is linked to the use of procedures, such as standardized decision rules, that can minimize the need to predict uncertain events in the future	Gupta/De Luque/House 2004, p. 166-167
Uncertainty avoidance involves the extent to which ambiguous situations are threatening to individuals, to which rules and order are preferred, and to which uncertainty is tolerated in a society.	De Luque/Javidan 2004, p. 602
Societies That Score Higher on Uncertainty Avoidance **Tend to**: • Have a tendency toward formalizing their interactions with others • Document agreements in legal contracts • Be orderly, keeping meticulous records, documenting conclusions drawn in meetings • Rely on formalized policies and procedures, establishing and following rules, verifying communications in writing • Take more moderate calculated risks • Show stronger desire to establish rules allowing predictability of behavior • Show less tolerance for breaking rules	Societies That Score Lower on Uncertainty Avoidance **Tend to**: • Have a tendency to be more informal in their interactions with others • Rely on the word of others they trust rather than contractual arrangements • Be less concerned with orderliness and the maintenance of records, often do not document the conclusions drawn in meetings • Rely on informal interactions and informal norms rather than formalized policies, procedures and rules • Be less calculating when taking risks • Show less desire to establish rules to dictate behavior • Show more tolerance for breaking rules

1. ການກ້າວເຂົ້າສູ່ການປະຕິບັດວຽກງານ

ນິຍາມ: ຊຸກຍູ້ສົ່ງເສີມ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຜົນຕອບແທນ ແກ່ພະນັກງານຜູ້ທີ່ມີຄວາມຊ່ຽວຊານສາມາດ ເພື່ອການປັບປຸງ ແລະ ການເ
ວຽກທ່ຽງມີປະສິດທິພາບທີ່ດີ
ລັກສະນະຈຳເປັນ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສົ່ງທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງໃນການກ້າວເຂົ້າສູ່ການປະຕິບັດວຽກງານນີ:

- ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າໃນການຝຶກອົບຮົມ ແລະ ການພັດທະນາ
- ເປັນຫນັງສືຜົນຕອບແທນຫລາຍກ່ວາຄົນ
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນໃນຄວາມຄິດສ້າງສັນ, ຄວາມສາມາດໃນການແຂ່ງຂັນ ແລະ ວັດຖຸນິຍົມ

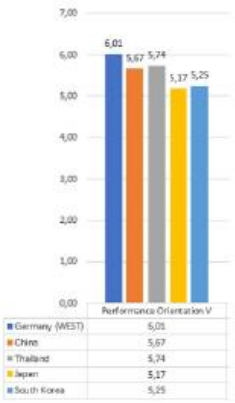
ລັກສະນະຂອງສົ່ງທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳໃນການກ້າວເຂົ້າສູ່ການປະຕິບັດວຽກງານນີ:

- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນກັບສົ່ງຄົ້ນ ແລະ ຄອບຄົວ
- ເປັນຫນັງສືຖືຄວາມຈົ່ງຮັກພັກດີ ແລະ ການຄອບຄອງ
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຜູ້ທີ່ອາວຸໂສ ແລະ ມີປະສົບການ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າທ່ຳທີ່ຄວນ:



★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກ້າວເຂົ້າສູ່ການປະຕິບັດງານທ່ຳໃດ?**

1a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

1b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

2. ຄວາມກ້າວະເດຍອອກ

ນິຍາມ: ຄົນທີ່ມີຄວາມຄ້ຽວຄ່ຽວ, ກ້າປະເຊີນໜ້າ ແລະ ມີຄວາມໝັ້ນໃຈຕົວເອງສູງບໍ່ຄ່ຳບຶ້ງເຖິງຜູ້ອື່ນ
ລັກສະນະຈຳເປັນ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສົ່ງທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງດ້ານຄວາມກ້າສະເດຍອອກ:

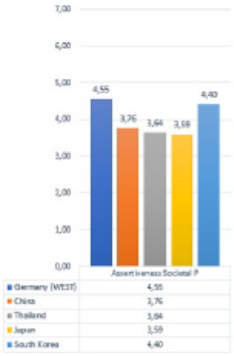
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນໃນການແຂ່ງຂັນ
- ເຊື່ອຫມັ້ນວ່າທຸກຄົນຈະປະສົບຜົນສຳເລັດຖ້າເຈົ້າມີຄວາມພະຍາຍາມພ
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳຜົນສຳເລັດ ແລະ ຄວາມກ້າຫນ້າ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສົ່ງທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳດ້ານຄວາມກ້າສະເດຍອອກ:

- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນກັບການຮ່ວມມື
- ບໍ່ປະສົບຜົນສຳເລັດ ແລະ ຖືກຕ້ານ
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນກັບຄົນ ແລະ ຄວາມສຳພັນທີ່ອົບອຸ່ນ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:



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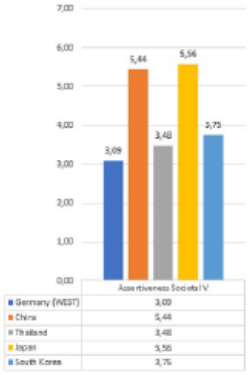


★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ຄວາມກ້າສະເດຍອອກທ່ຳໃດ?**

2a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

2b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

Figure 9: Questionnaire on Lao cultural dimensions in Lao language

4. ມະນຸດສະທຳ

ນິຍາມ: ການຊຸກຍູ້ສົ່ງເສີມ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຜົນຕອບແທນແກ່ຄົນໃນອົງກອນ ຫລື ສັງຄົມທີ່ຍຸດຕິທຳເຫັນຜົນປະໂຫຍດສ່ວນລວມ ຫລາຍກວ່າຜົນປະໂຫຍດສ່ວນຕົວ, ມີມິດຕະພາບ, ເຫັນອົກເຫັນໃຈ, ໃສ່ໃຈ ແລະ ມີນ້ຳໃຈຕໍ່ຄົນອື່ນ.
ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ຄັ້ນນຍນຸດສະທຳສູງມີ:

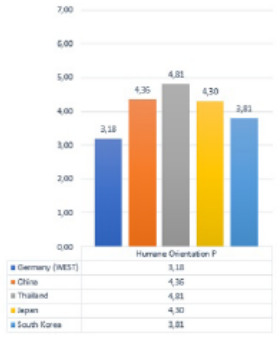
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນກັບຄົນອ້ອມຂ້າງ (ຕົວຢ່າງ: ຄອບຄົວ, ໝູ່, ສັງຄົມ ແລະ ຄົນອື່ນ)
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳຜົນປະໂຫຍດສ່ວນລວມ, ຄວາມເມດຕາປານີ, ຄວາມຮັກ ແລະ ເອື້ອເຟື້ອເຜື່ອແຜ່ເປັນອັນດັບຫນຶ່ງ.
- ສະມາຊິກໃນອົງກອນສະຫນັບສະຫນຸນຊຸກຍູ້ສົ່ງເສີມໃນການເລືອນຊັ້ນຕຳແໜ່ງໂດຍທີ່ຄົນເຫຼົ່ານັ້ນບໍ່ມີສ່ວນ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ຄັ້ນນຍນຸດສະທຳຕ່ຳມີ:

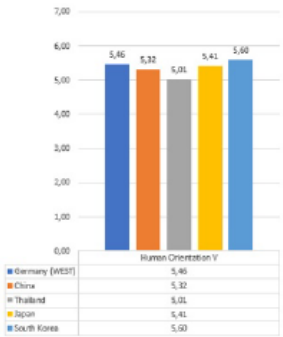
- ເຫັນແກ່ຜົນປະໂຫຍດສ່ວນຕົວ
- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນກັບຄວາມສຸກ, ຄວາມສະບາຍ ແລະ ຜົນປະໂຫຍດຕົນເອງເປັນອັນດັບຫນຶ່ງ.
- ຂັ້ນເທິງໃຫ້ທິດຊີ້ນຳສະຫນັບສະຫນຸນບຸກຄົນນັ້ນ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:



ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າທ່ຳທີ່ຄວນ:



★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການຄ້ຳບົດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານທ່ຳໃດ?**

4a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

4b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

Umfrage erstellt mit
LamaPoll

3. ການກ້ຳບົດວາງແຜນໃນອະນາຄົດ

ນິຍາມ: ການກ້ຳບົດວາງແຜນທີ່ຄັ້ນໃສ່ອະນາຄົດຊ່ຶ້ນ: ວາງແຜນການລົງທຶນເພື່ອອະນາຄົດ ແລະ ຜົນສ້ຳເລັດທີ່ຕ້ອງໃຊ້ ເວລາ.
ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສ້ຳຄັນສູງໃນການກ້ຳບົດວາງແຜນໃນອະນາຄົດມີ:

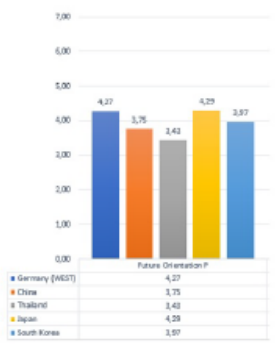
- ມີຄວາມປະສົບຜົນສ້ຳເລັດດ້ານເສດຖະກິດ
- ມີການຕັ້ບອອມເພື່ອອະນາຄົດ
- ມີອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ແລະ ຜູ້ຈັດການທີ່ມີຄວາມສາມາດແລະໄວ້ເນື້ອເຊື່ອໃຈໄດ້ດີ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສ້ຳຄັນຕ່ຳໃນການກ້ຳບົດວາງແຜນໃນອະນາຄົດມີ:

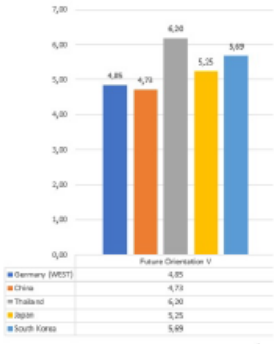
- ມີຄວາມປະສົບຜົນສ້ຳເລັດດ້ານເສດຖະກິດຕ່ຳ
- ມີການໃຊ້ຈ່າຍຫລາຍກ່ວາທີ່ຈະເກັບອອມເພື່ອອະນາຄົດ
- ມີອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ແລະ ຜູ້ຈັດການທີ່ບໍ່ມີປະສິດທິພາບ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:



ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າທ່ຳທີ່ຄວນ:



★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກ້ຳບົດວາງແຜນໃນອະນາຄົດທ່ຳໃດ?**

3a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

3b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

6. ຄວາມສາມັກຄີພາຍໃນກຸ່ມ

ນິຍາມ: ບຸກຄົນທີ່ສະແດງຄວາມພາກພູມໃຈ, ຄວາມຈົງຮັກພັກດີ ແລະ ຄວາມສາມັກຄີໃນອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ຫຼື ຄອບຄົວຂອງພວກເຂົາ

ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ:

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງດ້ານຄວາມສາມັກຄີໃນພາຍໃນກຸ່ມມີ:

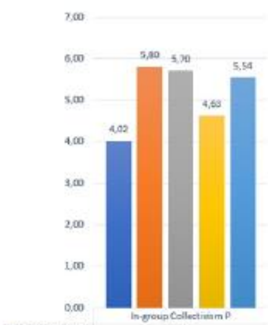
- ເຂົ້າຮ່ວມໃນກຸ່ມທີ່ເກົ່ງ
- ຄົນໃນກຸ່ມເພິ່ງພາອາໄສກັນເຊິ່ງກັນ ແລະ ກັນ
- ເປົ້າໝາຍຂອງກຸ່ມແມ່ນສຳຄັນກວ່າເປົ້າໝາຍຂອງບຸກຄົນ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳດ້ານຄວາມສາມັກຄີພາຍໃນກຸ່ມມີ:

- ໃຫ້ຄວາມສົນໃຈແຕ່ຕົນເອງ ແລະ ຄອບຄົວ
- ຖືຕົນເອງເປັນເອກະລາດ ແລະ ບໍ່ຂຶ້ນກັບກຸ່ມ
- ເປົ້າໝາຍຂອງບຸກຄົນແມ່ນສຳຄັນກວ່າເປົ້າໝາຍຂອງກຸ່ມ

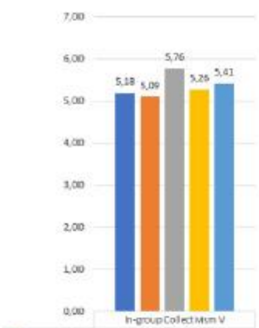
ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:



	In-group Collectivism P
Germany (WEST)	4,02
China	5,80
Thailand	5,70
Japan	4,63
South Korea	5,54

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າເທົ່າທີ່ຄວນ:



	In-group Collectivism V
Germany (WEST)	5,18
China	5,09
Thailand	5,76
Japan	5,26
South Korea	5,41

★ ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກຳນົດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານເທົ່າໃດ?

6a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

6b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

Umfrage erstellt mit LamaPoll

5. ຄວາມສາມັກຄີໃນສະຖາບັນ

ນິຍາມ: ອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ແລະ ສະຖາບັນທີ່ຊຸກຍູ້ສົ່ງເສີມ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຜົນຕອບແທນໃນຄວາມສາມັກຄີ ແລະ ການຮ່ວມແຮງຮ່ວມໃຈກັນເຮັດວຽກ

ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ:

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງດ້ານຄວາມສາມັກຄີມີ:

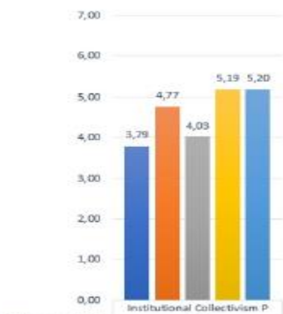
- ສະມາຊິກມີຄວາມເຫັນວ່າພວກເຂົາແມ່ນໄດ້ເພິ່ງພາອາໄສອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ແລະ ເຊື່ອວ່າມັນເປັນສິ່ງສຳຄັນທີ່ຈະເສຍສະລະຕົນເອງເພື່ອອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ
- ພະນັກງານມີແນວໂນ້ມທີ່ຈະພັດທະນາຄວາມສຳພັນກັບອົງກອນແບບຍາວນານໄປຈົນເຖິງບຳນານ
- ການຕັດສິນໃຈເລື່ອງທີ່ສຳຄັນແມ່ນຂຶ້ນກັບສຽງສ່ວນຫລາຍ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງຕໍ່ຕົນເອງມີ:

- ສະມາຊິກເຊື່ອໝັ້ນວ່າພວກເຂົາບໍ່ໄດ້ເພິ່ງພາອາໄສອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ ແລະ ເຊື່ອວ່າສິ່ງສຳຄັນຄືນຳເອົາທັກສະ ແລະ ຄວາມສາມາດມາສູ່ອົງກອນ
- ພະນັກງານບໍ່ມີຄວາມສຳພັນ ແລະ ປ່ຽນບ່ອນເຮັດວຽກຕາມໃຈຕົນເອງ
- ການຕັດສິນໃຈໃນເລື່ອງສຳຄັນແມ່ນມາຈາກຄົນໆດຽວ

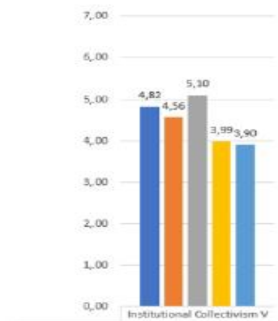
ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:



	Institutional Collectivism P
Germany (WEST)	3,79
China	4,77
Thailand	4,03
Japan	5,19
South Korea	5,20

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າເທົ່າທີ່ຄວນ:



	Institutional Collectivism V
Germany (WEST)	4,82
China	4,56
Thailand	5,10
Japan	3,99
South Korea	3,90

★ ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກຳນົດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານເທົ່າໃດ?

5a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

5b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

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8. ອຳນາດ

ເຂດທີ່ຊຸມຊົນຍອມຮັບ ແລະ ຮັບຮອງ ສິດອຳນາດ, ຄວາມແຕກຕ່າງດ້ານອຳນາດ ແລະ ສິດທິພິເສດ.

ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ມີຄວາມແຕກຕ່າງດ້ານອຳນາດສູງ:
ຄວາມບໍ່ເທົ່າທຽມກັນໃນສັງຄົມ: ສັງຄົມແຕກຕ່າງກັນໄປຕັ້ນຫຼາຍຊົ້ນຊັ້ນຕາມມາດຖານ
ພາລະບົດບາດ: ໄດ້ເຫັນວ່າອຳນາດແມ່ນການສ້າງຄວາມເປັນລະບຽບຮຽບຮ້ອຍທາງສັງຄົມ, ຄວາມກົມກຽວກັນ ແລະ ຄວາມໝັ້ນຄົງ
ການເຄື່ອນໄຫວທາງສັງຄົມ: ການເຄື່ອນໄຫວທາງດ້ານສັງຄົມມີຂີດຈຳກັດ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ມີຄວາມແຕກຕ່າງດ້ານອຳນາດຕ່ຳ:
ຄວາມບໍ່ເທົ່າທຽມກັນໃນສັງຄົມ: ສັງຄົມມີຊົ້ນຊັ້ນທີ່ເທົ່າທຽມກັນເປັນວົງກ້ວາງ
ພາລະບົດບາດ: ໄດ້ເຫັນວ່າອຳນາດແມ່ນໜ້ຽວຂອງການສໍ້ລາດບັງຫຼວງ, ການບັງຄັບ ແລະ ການຄອບງຳ
ການເຄື່ອນໄຫວທາງສັງຄົມ: ມີການເຄື່ອນໄຫວທາງດ້ານສັງຄົມສູງ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າເທົ່າທີ່ຄວນ:

★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກຳນົດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານເທົ່າໃດ?**

8a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

8b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

7. ຄວາມສະເໝີພາບທາງເພດ

ນິຍາມ: ຫຼຸດຜ່ອນຄວາມບໍ່ເທົ່າທຽມທາງເພດ
ລັກສະນະຈາກຊີວິດຈິງ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນສູງດ້ານຄວາມສະເໝີພາບທາງເພດນີ:

- ຜູ້ຍິງຈຳນວນຫລາຍຢູ່ໃນຕຳແໜ່ງທີ່ມີສິດອຳນາດ
- ຜູ້ຍິງມີບົດບາດຫຼາຍຂຶ້ນໃນການຕັດສິນໃຈ
- ມີການແບ່ງແຍກເພດຄວາມຮຸນແຮງໜ້ອຍ

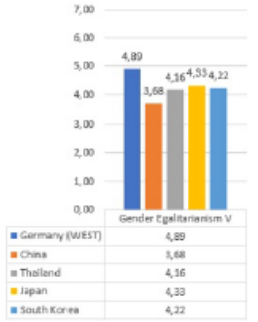
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມສຳຄັນຕ່ຳດ້ານຄວາມສະເໝີພາບທາງເພດນີ:

- ຜູ້ຍິງຈຳນວນບໍ່ຫລາຍຢູ່ໃນຕຳແໜ່ງທີ່ມີສິດອຳນາດ
- ຜູ້ຍິງບໍ່ມີບົດບາດຫຼາຍໃນການຕັດສິນໃຈ
- ມີການແບ່ງແຍກເພດຄວາມຮຸນແຮງຫຼາຍ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າເທົ່າທີ່ຄວນ:



★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນເຈົ້າຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກຳນົດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານເທົ່າໃດ?**

7a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

7b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

9. ການຫຼີກລ້ຽງຄວາມບໍ່ແນ່ນອນ

ນິຍາມ: ອົງການຈັດຕັ້ງ, ສັງຄົມ ຫຼື ກຸ່ມຂອງໃສທີ່ອີງໃສ່ບັນຫັດຖານທາງສັງຄົມ, ກົດລະບຽບ ແລະ ຂັ້ນຕອນຕ່າງໆເພື່ອຫຼຸດຜ່ອນຄວາມບໍ່ແນ່ນອນທີ່ຈະເກີດໃນອະນາຄົດ.
ລັກສະນະຈຸດປະສົງ:
ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ມີການຫຼີກລ້ຽງຄວາມບໍ່ແນ່ນອນສູງ:

- ລັກສະນະການພົວພັນບໍ່ເປັນທາງການ
- ການຕົກລົງເຫັນດີແມ່ນອີງໃສ່ສັນຍາທີ່ຖືກຕ້ອງຕາມກົດໝາຍ
- ເປັນລະບຽບ, ພິທີພິຖຸນໃນການບັນທຶກ ແລະ ມີການສະຫຼຸບເນື້ອໃນກອງປະຊຸມ
- ລະເມີດກົດລະບຽບຫນ້ອຍ

ລັກສະນະຂອງສັງຄົມທີ່ມີການຫຼີກລ້ຽງຄວາມບໍ່ແນ່ນອນຕ່ຳ:

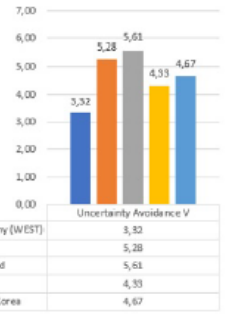
- ການພົວພັນທາງກາບໍ່ເປັນລັກສະນະທາງການ
- ການຕົກລົງເຫັນດີແມ່ນອີງໃສ່ຄ່ານິຍົມຄວາມເຊື່ອເນື້ອໃຈຫລາຍກວ່າ
- ບໍ່ຍຶດໃຈກັບຄວາມເປັນລະບຽບຮຽບຮ້ອຍ ແລະ ການບັນທຶກ ແລະ ບໍ່ມີການສະຫຼຸບເນື້ອໃນກອງປະຊຸມ
- ລະເມີດກົດລະບຽບຫລາຍ

ຍົກຕົວຢ່າງ:

ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ:

Germany (WEST)	5,22
China	4,94
Thailand	3,93
Japan	4,07
South Korea	3,55

ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າທົ່ວທີ່ຄວນ:



Germany (WEST)	3,32
China	5,28
Thailand	5,61
Japan	4,33
South Korea	4,67

★ **ປຽບທຽບກັບປະເທດອື່ນຄ້ຳຄິດວ່າປະເທດລາວ ປະຕິບັດ ແລະ ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ ການກ່ຳກັດທິດທາງການປະຕິບັດງານທ່ຳໃດ?**

9a) ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງ (min. 0, max. 7):

9b) ໃຫ້ຄຸນຄ່າ (min. 0, max. 7):

Table 9: Raw data of cultural dimensions data collection for Lao PDR (n=87, only participants who finished the questionnaire)

ID	Date	1a	1b	2a	2b	3a	3b	4a	4b	5a	5b	6a	6b	7a	7b	8a	8b	9a	9b	Dauer gesamt (in s)	t S1	t S2	t S3	t S4	t S5	t S6	t S7	t S8	t S9	t S10	t S11
1	24.07.2020	5,5	4,5	5	6,5	4,5	6	6	6	7	7	5,5	6,8	7	7	5,6	6	6,3	6,5	589,34	64	160	59	49	23	54	48	31	37	50	14
4	25.07.2020	4	4	3	3,5	3,5	3,5	4	4	5,5	5,5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3,5	3,5	800,46	76	377	70	35	42	26	22	16	70	61	4
7	27.07.2020	3,6	4,4	3,7	4	3,4	5,5	4,1	5	3,9	5	5,2	5,5	3,6	4,2	5,2	2,4	4	5,5	824,95	59	429	48	64	34	25	33	30	43	28	33
8	25.07.2020	2	4,5	2,5	2	3,5	4,5	1,5	4,5	1,5	3,5	2,5	1	3,5	0,5	2,5	1,5	4,5	2,5	1428,55	81	375	262	103	85	97	78	84	136	118	10
9	25.07.2020	5	6	4	5	4	5	5	6	6	7	6	7	5	5	6	4	5	5	645,65	41	171	132	86	70	25	17	23	36	35	9
10	25.07.2020	2,8	3,7	3,3	6,1	4	4,3	4,9	4,1	5,3	5,4	6,2	6,5	6,6	5,5	5,3	5,3	4,6	5	482,72	108	0	49	44	72	35	27	35	67	34	13
11	25.07.2020	2	2	1	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	3,5	3,5	5,5	5,5	6	6	478,82	73	215	26	17	14	19	23	18	22	40	12
12	25.07.2020	4	6	4,5	5,2	4	4	6	7	6	7	6	7	4	6	6	6,7	5	5	534,76	20	181	81	30	21	40	17	22	48	42	32
13	25.07.2020	3,9	4,5	3	3	3,5	3	3,5	7	3,9	6,9	3,9	6,9	3,9	6,9	4,9	6,9	2,9	6,9	1306,91	107	193	116	91	240	194	62	74	112	73	45
14	25.07.2020	5,9	6,4	3,8	4,5	4,6	5,3	4,7	5,5	5,9	6	3,5	3,7	3,1	3,2	3,34	2,9	3,26	3,59	3650,74	91	2431	290	102	74	110	111	61	174	175	30
16	25.07.2020	4,2	5	3	3,3	4,5	4,9	4,8	5	5,5	5,9	5,2	5,8	5,2	5,7	4	3,1	3	3	727,78	65	160	70	49	74	63	42	52	88	54	11
17	25.07.2020	4	5	5	5	5	6	5	6	4	6	5	5	5	6	4	6	5	6	715,26	70	113	65	54	81	96	52	56	66	49	11
18	26.07.2020	5	5	6	4	5	5	5	6	4	6	4	6	4	6	5	5	6	5	403,8	59	129	35	34	27	27	27	19	18	21	8
20	26.07.2020	3	5,5	2,8	5	3,7	6,5	3	6,5	4	7	3	7	3	6	3,5	3	2,5	4	3157,11	76	224	91	828	60	232	28	44	109	1437	26
21	27.07.2020	5	4,5	5	4,9	5,2	4,6	5,1	4,8	5,2	5	5,5	5	6	6,2	5,2	5,5	4,5	5,2	2009,69	99	1038	173	310	66	78	53	37	103	42	10
22	27.07.2020	3,5	3,5	3	3	3,8	4	3,5	3,5	3,8	4	4,3	4,3	4,5	4,5	5,3	2,3	5,5	5,5	804,78	12	281	133	49	46	19	37	14	127	81	8
26	28.07.2020	3,9	5,9	5,9	4,9	6,9	4,9	6,9	5,9	4,9	6,9	6,9	4,9	4,9	5,9	6,9	5,9	5,9	5,9	1343,7	176	778	161	95	16	22	17	36	24	16	4
28	28.07.2020	4,5	6	6	4	4	7	5	6	6	4	4	6	6	5	5	6	6	5	1791,54	57	479	252	328	153	167	79	53	123	100	0
29	28.07.2020	5,3	3,6	6	7	5	4,2	6,2	6,5	7	7	7	0	4	6,4	6	3,2	5,3	5	660,75	93	134	88	75	73	81	30	44	19	13	10
33	02.08.2020	4,5	4	4	4,5	3,5	3,5	5,5	5,5	5,5	5,5	6	5,5	6	6	3,5	3,5	3,8	3,9	597,06	13	144	58	51	48	68	40	56	53	56	9
34	02.08.2020	3,9	5	3,6	4,5	3,3	5,5	4,2	5,2	4,1	4,3	5	4,9	2,9	3,9	5,3	3	4	4,7	1137,67	53	209	102	71	133	174	72	71	81	77	94
38	04.08.2020	6,5	6,5	5,5	3,9	5,5	4,9	6,5	5,5	5,5	3,9	4,5	4,5	4,5	4,5	4,5	4,5	5,5	5,5	1301,54	135	323	212	114	119	172	59	42	68	57	0
39	07.08.2020	3,5	3	2,5	3	3,2	6,5	5	5,5	3,5	3	4	4,5	3,4	3,6	6	4	4	4,2	1405,03	51	289	44	204	202	126	44	208	181	44	12
42	09.08.2020	3,5	4	2,5	2	3,6	3	5,7	4,5	5,5	4,7	6,1	5	3,4	3	3,4	3	3,7	4	346,38	90	45	36	47	25	19	26	12	20	15	10
44	10.08.2020	3,8	4	3,9	5	3,5	4,5	3	5	4,5	5	4	4,5	4	6	4,5	5,5	3,7	4,3	1790,53	1252	148	112	77	93	26	17	11	27	20	8
45	11.08.2020	3	2	4	5	5	4	6	6	6	7	5	6	5	4	3	2	5	4	825,16	64	187	85	53	62	85	51	61	118	28	31
47	12.08.2020	2	3	2	2	4	3	2	2	5	4	4,3	5,1	3	3	2	2	3,5	3	935,83	16	156	92	53	73	95	166	53	117	114	0
54	15.08.2020	4	4	3,6	3,6	3,7	3,7	3,9	3,9	3,9	3,9	4	4	4,2	4,2	4,5	4,5	3,9	3,9	779,08	76	243	63	25	58	103	27	27	106	39	12
55	15.08.2020	4	4	4	4	3,5	3,5	3,6	3,6	5	5	4,5	4,5	4,7	5	4	3,7	3,6	3,6	308,75	15	88	19	26	19	37	23	51	23	8	0
57	15.08.2020	3	4	3,6	3,6	3,7	4	3,4	3,9	4	4,2	3,6	3,6	3,4	3	4,6	4,1	3,9	3,9	150,49	7	66	7	6	10	16	10	6	13	7	3
60	15.08.2020	5	5	3	5	5	5	4	4	4	6	4	2	4	3	3	4	6	6	370,38	18	142	22	26	9	11	97	11	12	11	9
61	15.08.2020	4,9	4,9	4,9	4,9	4,6	4,7	4,3	4,5	4,9	4,9	4,9	4,9	3,7	3,9	4,3	4,9	5,3	4,9	953,82	132	148	178	81	77	42	142	33	44	73	3
63	15.08.2020	3,9	1,8	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	0,1	3,6	3,6	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,7	80,95	7	25	4	5	4	8	7	4	4	7	5
65	15.08.2020	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,5	7	3,5	2	3,5	5	3	5	3,5	3,5	3,5	7	4	2	3	212,28	25	76	22	19	13	13	10	12	9	9	4
66	15.08.2020	2	3	0,1	3,6	2	2,4	7	7	1	2	2	5	5	5	7	4	1	1	297,71	79	50	50	27	13	16	12	12	16	19	4
68	15.08.2020	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	6	5	5	6	5	111,71	10	28	17	8	8	7	7	6	9	8	3
76	15.08.2020	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	91,59	8	21	13	6	6	8	5	6	8	5	5
80	15.08.2020	3,5	3,5	4	4	4,2	4,3	4	4	3,8	3,9	3,4	3,4	6	5	3,6	3,4	4	4	768,13	39	536	31	28	46	16	11	20	11	22	7
82	15.08.2020	5	6	7	5	5	7	6	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	6	5	7	134,42	5	22	22	19	9	11	9	8	16	11	4
83	15.08.2020	5	5,5	5	5,5	5	5,5	5	5,5	5	5,5	5	5,5	5,5	6	6	5,5	5	5,5	414,62	47	144	33	20	19	15	10	51	19	53	3
85	15.08.2020	5	4	3	3	4	3	3	2	5	6	6	6	4	1	1	1	4	4	269,33	42	48	35	34	25	16	14	17	18	18	3
86	15.08.2020	2,3	3,3	4,4	4,4	1,2	2,3	1,2	1,2	3,3	3,3	2,2	2,2	7	7	2	3	4	5	711,43	58	206	83	67	49	63	40	77	29	34	5
87	16.08.2020	2,3	3,5	2,9	3,6	3,8	3,4	3,6	3,8	3,6	3,4	2,8	3,6	2,8	3,7	1,5	2	2,5	3	425,73	96	92	48	25	19	12	17	19	41	29	28
89	15.08.2020	4	5	2	3	2	6	2	7	5	4	6	6	6	5	4	6	6	5	816,65	72	140	45	96	74	87	75	38	91	72	27
91	15.08.2020	2,9	4,1	2,5	4	1,2	3,6	2	4,4	2,5	4,3	2	4,2	2,7	4	0,7	4	2,2	5,7	381,45	54	149	40	33	12	10	9	26	24	20	4
95	15.08.2020	3,6	3,6	3,6	4	3,6	3,6	4	3,6	3,4	3,6	3,4	4	3,6	3,6	4	3,6	3,4	4	104,33	9	17	19	8	15	5	7	6	6	7	5
99	15.08.2020	5	5	2	2	5	5	4	2	5	5	5	4	5	6	1	1	2	2	204,22	38	85	13	8	8	8	8	7	11	11	6
100	15.08.2020	4,8	5,6	5,9	5,9	4,9	4,8	5,9	5,7	6,9	5,8	6,9	5,8	6,9	5,8	6,9	6,7	5,7	4,9	477,83	116	80	55	31	48	22	47	32	22	18	7
103	15.08.2020	4,4	4	4	3,5	3,5	3,5	5	4,3	5,5	4,5	7	6	5	4	4	4	4	3,5	232,81	51	73	10	10	26	25	9	7	9	10	2
107	15.08.2020	3	2,7	2,5	2,5	2,5	2,7	2,5	2,4	2,5	2,5	2,9	3	2,7	2,7	2,9	2,4	2,5	2,6	128,46	27	19	9	9	14	10	8	10	10	9	4
115	15.08.2020	4,5	6,5	3	6,5	2	6	1	7	5,5	6	6	6	3	7	6,5	5,5	3	7	575,67	68	117	60	111	42	33	33	24	48	37	4
116	15.08.2020	0,3	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	279,58	30	87	37	16	20	31	15	12	16	11	4
124	15.08.2020	3	4	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	2	4	5	5	4	0	0	1	1	362,92	87	71	31	14	12	22	13	18	71	12	11
125	15.08.2020	3,1	3,2	3,7	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,4	3,5	3,6	3,6	3,8	3,7	3,2	3,6	3,5	3,5	3,4	3,4	225,53	11	47	26	24	21	14	10	38	24	7	3
126	15.08.2020	4,5	4,5	4,9	3,8	4,1	4,4	4,6	4,3	4,6	4,6	4,1	4,1	4,5	4,1	4,2	3,9	3,7	4,3	141,03	12	23	23	10	14	12	13	13	9	8	4
128	15.08.2020	3,7	4	5,3	6,4	6,4	6,5	4,5	5,4	6,4	4,4	6,4	5,7	6,7	6,7	4,6	4,5	6,7	7	968,12	172	309	153	53	85	55	24	28	38	43	10
129	15.08.2020	5	5	4,5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5,5	5	6	4,5	5,5	5	6	6,5	7	265,74	9	70	40	19	14	17	22	23	10	38	5
133	15.08.2020	5,5	4,5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5,5	5,5	5,9	5,9	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,5	3,5	499,93	38	272	36	14	14	21	22	32	22	25	3
134	15.08.2020	1,5	2	1	2	4	6	6	5	4	4	3	4	4	3,6	4	6	5	6	204,26	29	56	10	22	12	24	11	16	11	7	7
136	15.08.2020	6	6	5	6	5	5	4	4	4	4	6	6	4	4	5	5	4	4	340,16	7	209	18	11	23	12	10	13	16	16	4
138	15.08.2020	5	6	4	5	6	6	5	5	3	3	5	5	5	7	4	4	3	4	515,87	8	371	26	26	12	12	11	20	14	8	8
146	15.08.2020	5,8	5	5	4	6	6	5	5,4	7	6	7	6	7	6	5	3,4	5	5	281,42	9	44	37	33	30	20	22	16	41	25	5
147	15.08.2020	4,9	4,9	5	4,9	3,9	4,7	7	3,2	5	4	4,9	4,8	5	4,8	3,2	3,1	4,5	4,6	602,11	85	105	72	54	65	62	39	26	39	47	8
148	15.08.2020	5,6	6,1	4,2	3,9	3,5	3,4	4,7	5,2	5,1	4,5	6,3	5,8	4,5	3,9	6,1	3,4	5,7	5,3	414,79	62	73	96	26	33	19	40	28	21	14	3
156	15.08.2020	3,5	4,5	3,6	4,2	4,2	3,6	6,8	5,5	6,5	5,5	5,8	5,9	5,1	4,5	5,9	4,9	6,5	5,5	555,25	124	153	32	24	69	21	56	29	24	19	4
157	15.08.2020	5	6	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	6	5	5	5	6	6	6	5	6	1343,6	105	264	57	97	386	142	22	111	17	135	6
158	15.08.2020	6,5	5	4,1	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	3	3	5	5	4	4	4	5	231,7	25	90	13	22	10	15	11	9	8	9	19
165	15.08.2020	3	3,4	3,1	3,4	5	2,2	3,9	3,7	3,4	3,3	4	3,7	5	5	2	3	4	5	226,92	10	87	14	40	9	10	14	14	13	11	4
171	15.08.2020	4,5	3,5	3,5	3,3	3,5	3,3	3,2	3,3	3,3	1,4	0,4	3,6	3,7	3,6	2,1	3,6	3,7	1,5	354,25	12	129	34	41	17	34	18	16	23	22	7
177	16.08.2020	4	5	3	5	7	7	7	7	3	4	3	3	3	5	7	4	3	5	210,25	13	37	65	17	8	11	8	9	14	26	3
180	16.08.2020	6	6	7	7	6	6	7	7	6	6	6	6	7	7	6	6	7	7	115,97	8	28	13	9	8	14	7	9	8	10	3
181	16.08.2020	3,5	4,5	4,2	4,8	3,2	4,5	3,6	4,2	4,7	3,9	4,5	4,2	3,8	3,8	4,2	3,7	4,7	3,9	373,63	34	78	38	36	54	29	23	14	26	19	24
182	16.08.2020	5	5	3	3	4	4	5	5	4,2	3,4	5	5	6	6	6	6	4	4	344,7	55	75	19	22	28	48	19	22	32	21	4
183	16.08.2020	3,9	3,9	4,9	3,6	5,1	4,7	6,2	3,4	6,6	3,9	4,8	5,1	6,2	7	2,5	3,1	3,2	3,2	2800,62	17	1898	41	20	560	114	13	77	31	6	22
184	16.08.2020	4	3,7	4	3,9	4,1	3,7	4,5	4,3	4,7	4,5	3,7	3,8	3,9	4	3,8	3,9	4,2	3,8	204,91	13	26	19	15	12	46	32	9	6	25	4
187	16.08.2020	5	4	3	3	5	5	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	6	6	5	5	212,61	5	77	35	20	10	11	12	19	12	10	0
188	16.08.2020	5	5	6	6	6	3,9	7	7	7	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	5	5	315,5	43	67	46	20	19	22	27	20	17	22	13
189	16.08.2020	4	5	5	5,1	3,8	4,1	5	6,9	4,2	3,8	7	7	4,1	4,6	4,5	4,2	6	6	204,27	19	29	33	14	29	14	17	15	13	16	5
192	16.08.2020	4	4	5,5	5,5	6,2	5,8	4,9	4,8	5,3	5,6	5,1	4,3	6,3	6,1	6,7	5,5	6,8	6,1	494,23	48	106	57	36	28	29	21	61	60	35	13
195	16.08.2020	3,4	3,4	3,4	3,4	3,3	3,3	3,1	3,1	3,4	3,4	3,4	0,1	3,4	3,4	3,6	3,4	3,9	3,7	97,28	13	30	5	11	5	4	11	5	4	7	3
198	17.08.2020	3,5	4,1	4,1	4,1	4,1	5,2	7	7	3,7	3,6	3,4	3,4	6,1	6,1	0,1	0,1	4	4,1	683,8	69	159	55	74	26	52	14	42	143	37	12
202	16.08.2020	4	4	3	4	3,5	3,9	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	142,58	11	35	11	15	9	10	9	17	13	8	5
203	16.08.2020	4	6	3	4	5	5	4	3,5	4	4	5	3	5	7	4	5	3	4	156,01	11	44	13	11	14	11	15	10	12	10	5
204	16.08.2020	5,9	6,9	6,9	5,9	2,9	3,9	4,9	3,9	3,9	3,9	6,9	6,9	5,9	4,9	5,9	4,9	5,9	3,9	461,8	39	60	40	46	41	77	74	23	14	15	31
210	17.08.2020	1,5	3,5	2,4	3	1,5	2,3	3,8	3,8	3,8	5,1	2,8	4,4	2,7	2,7	0,1	0,1	3,6	3,6	761,8	91	102	23	68	29	35	71	136	93	20	94
211	17.08.2020	3,2	3,1	3,6	3,8	3,8	3,8	3,6	3,9	3,7	3,9	3,6	3,8	4	4	4,6	4,6	4,7	4,7	497,89	17	35	373	12	8	10	8	12	11	9	4
213	17.08.2020	3,7	3,5	3,6	3,4	3,6	3,6	3,7	3,6	3,7	3,6	3,7	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,4	3,7	0,4	2486,83	25	133	2243	7	6	31	6	6	5	21	5

Figure 10: Summary of Interview 1

Interview on curricula development processes in Lao PDR

Date and time: 15 May 2020, 8:30 am – 10:00 am

Interviewer: Johannes Zeck

Interviewed person: Ms. Ketsana Siphonephath, Academic Affairs Section, Lao-German Technical College, Vientiane, Lao PDR

Topics: Formal curricula development processes with VEDI, internship monitoring of students, score evaluation in TVET processes

Cited in thesis as: Interview 1, 2020

Figure 11: Summary of Interview 2

Interview on UeBZO's projects in China

Date and time: 02 August 2020, 1:00 – 2:15 pm

Interviewer: Johannes Zeck

Interviewed person: Ms. Sonja Pruell, Head of University - Research - International affairs section, UeBZO

Topics: Background of the projects, scope of the training programs, roles and responsibilities of involved stakeholders, further expansion in China, societal and cultural aspects in TVET

Cited in thesis as: Interview 2, 2020

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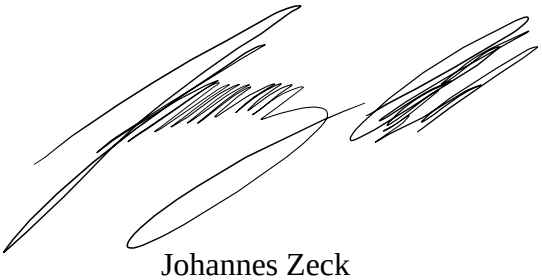

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