



Mapping opportunities and constraints for affirming the Social Solidarity Economy in Initial Vocational Education and Training curricula

This document is a research report resulting from the collection and analysis of information and data related to SSE in IVET curricula in order to "map" the existing situation in Europe. It is an intellectual output resulting from the project "*Social and Solidarity Economy in Europe: affirming a new paradigm through IVET curricula innovation*" (September 2016 – August 2018), co-funded by the Erasmus+ programme.

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Introduction

The **Social Solidarity Economy (SEE)** increasingly asserts itself as a vibrant and promising socio-economic model in the EU and in various parts of the world. Although it is not easy to find a common definition of SSE throughout Europe, this survey asserts SSE as a transformative approach towards all socio-economic activities, which promotes democracy at work and in the community, social justice in the benefits distribution (both in terms of positive impact and surplus) and ecological awareness of the planet's limits, intelligent use of natural resources, and limiting or not permitting the private exploitation of common goods.

SSE is a modality of practising (economic) exchanges and not a confined sector of economy. It is rooted in inclusive values and practices, and comprises organisations of the Third (citizen's) Sector, as social enterprises, social movements and citizens who develop alternatives to the multi-layered crisis that we face today (greater inequality, lower levels of democracy, increased structural unemployment, loss of social cohesion, environmental challenges, forced migrations, dismantling of welfare states, etc.). SSE is an alternative to the current economic paradigm which is no longer providing answers to the deep aspirations of the people and the planet. SSE provides a sustainable model that highlights local communities' social bonds and emancipatory relationships, in a reciprocity and solidarity basis. It is based on shared values and principles, from cooperative, democratic, mutualistic and ecological dimensions to fairness, open knowledge and non-discriminatory rights in all domains.

A change in paradigm requires a change in consciousness. This is why education and training are a fundamental piece of this process – and particularly **Initial Vocational and Educational Training (IVET)** with its great potential to transform younger generations into citizens and professionals who are more knowledgeable and aware, as well as more able to deal with current societal challenges. SSE stakeholders are developing specific economic mechanisms, based on cooperation, equity and solidarity in labour organisation, inclusive and sustainable development regarding the sectors organisation, the distribution of wealth and the assessment of value, instruments and partnerships organising the co-designing and co-building of public policies aiming at general interest and a solidarity bond between generations. In all those perspectives, pioneers and active successors keep building innovation knowledge and know-how, via peer-to-peer learning and taking into consideration the great deal of transmission and dissemination. To do so, and on a regular basis, they have to build their own tools out of the usual management box, tailored to the local issues but yet informed and infused by global challenges. They also usually work jointly with academics to design and document their effort, innovation and implementation. Thus, the professional path in SSE is naturally embedded in an on-going learning and sharing process, focused on innovation and progress-making approaches. To that significant extent, IVET is one of the key factor of transformation, as SSE curricula would also mean a switch in the way education and training is conceived nowadays, especially at European level. From a labour market focus to a personal and professional development, inclusive regarding the professional circumstances of the workers, this redirection would be a major opportunity for re-adjusting the education system to the societal cohesive role it should play.

Therefore, **this report aims at identifying the opportunities and constraints in the countries involved to achieve this goal of including SSE in IVET national curricula**, adding some transversal insights to the depiction of each country situation. It is the result of a research through a common template to collect information and data related to SSE in IVET curricula in different European countries involved in the project, in order to “map” the existing situation. The questions that have been addressed explore the various aspects, both in terms of context (historical, normative, social, political) and of content, that lead to assert, through comparative methodology, the need to develop a common set of IVET training modules on SSE. The countries directly involved in the project are the following: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Greece, Germany, Italy, Portugal, and Romania. As we will see, there are many differences in the way IVET has been developed in each country, and in the presence of SSE elements in the existing curricula. But there are also commonalities and similar issues, which allow us to find out where there are opportunities or constraints that need to be addressed. The information and subsequent analysis is also useful for the next parts of the project and in particular to advocate for the

inclusion of SSE IVET training modules in IVET curricula at European and national levels.

About (I)VET and curricula

We will consider several aspects that are important to contextualise, document and evaluate trends and policies, in order to open a discussion that allows to introduce and strengthen the Social Solidarity Economy approach in the curricula and in the methodology of teaching, having in mind the different target groups we are addressing. For this, it is useful to read what Cedefop, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training¹ has written in a European report on the subject matter²:

“Curriculum is increasingly seen by stakeholders as a dynamic framework guiding teaching and learning processes and as a steering mechanism for quality. It features in key European policy documents as a new consensus for contributing to Europe 2020, the European strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Findings of empirical research widely recognise that curriculum relevance is a condition sine qua non, not only for improving the human capital potential of education and training graduates but also for retaining learners in education and training systems. [...] Adopting a learning outcomes approach when developing curricula, valuing what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process – irrespective of how, when and where this learning takes place – is seen by many European countries as an effective way to avoid such potential mismatches and promote active learning and inclusive teaching.

For **VET providers and employers**, outcome-oriented curricula can offer a valuable platform for bridging the worlds of education, training and work, providing a common language between competences acquired in learning and the needs of occupations and the labour market.

For **teachers**, a curriculum built on knowledge, skills and competences that learners can acquire through an interdisciplinary approach, is more challenging than traditional approaches but also more flexible in designing learning programmes tailored to the needs of learners and applying innovative pedagogies and assessment procedures.

For **learners**, an outcome-based curriculum is potentially user-friendly, allowing them to clarify the purpose of learning and giving them more opportunities for active learning, progression in education and training or integration in the labour market.

However, **curricula based on learning outcomes are not automatically learner-centred, nor guaranteed to benefit learners**. As this study shows, the relationship between outcome-based curricula and learner-centeredness depends on many factors, including how curricula are being delivered in learning environments”

Another fundamental reference, which has useful documentation about VET relative to several countries, is the REFERNET network of CEDEFOP³.

There is already structured research on IVET systems (though at different levels and detail in every country, depending on the development and integration of the education policies and different actors), but there is a lack of documentation and information on the SSE approach in training and education, which is a general issue in most if not all countries. This is due to the fact that SSE is a recent development which is still only partially recognized at the institutional levels and has a legal framework only in some countries. At the same time, it is rooted in historical social movements and practices and is spreading fast across Europe and the world, with high levels of social innovation and is being researched and studied at the academic level in several Universities (see the work of the Inter-University Network for SSE, RIUESS), but much less in the lower educational levels.

¹ CEDEFOP (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/>)

² Learning outcomes approaches in VET curricula, A comparative analysis of nine European countries, European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, research paper No 6, 2010 (www.cedefop.europa.eu/files/5506_en.pdf)

³ ReferNet (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/events-and-projects/networks/refernet>) is a network of institutions created by Cedefop in 2002 to provide information on national vocational education and training (VET) systems and policies in the EU Member States, Iceland and Norway. Each national partner is a key organisation involved in VET in the country it represents. Therefore, all partners are particularly well-placed to offer first-hand information on VET's role, purpose, governance and structure, insights into developments and trends in VET policies, and in-depth analysis of how each country is progressing in its implementation of common European policy objectives.

Therefore, the purpose of this report is to:

- **Map and trace a picture of what already exists in terms of IVET and SSE;**
- Exchange experiences and practices that emerge from the research;
- **Provide relevant information to feed the following project outputs**, namely the ones regarding curricula innovation and advocacy purpose.

We divided the document in 4 parts, in order to be able to have all the relevant information needed to respond to the above objectives. These parts are:

PART A: Political tendencies regarding SSE in IVET

PART B: Structure of the IVET system in each country

PART C: Situation of SSE in existing IVET curricula

PART D: Opportunities and proposals to affirm and improve the SSE approach in IVET

PART A:

Political tendencies regarding SSE in IVET

In this section we will look at the different ways in which Social Solidarity Economy, with its evolving, diverse meaning and application in the different national, historical and cultural context, has been promoted (or hindered) by policies, norms, regulations and other forms of institutional recognition. We have looked at different aspects, from the legal form of organisations and enterprises, to the way less formal practices are considered as part of the economic system. As a matter of fact, the mainstream “third sector appellation” identified at a European level tends to be widely inclusive, while reducing SSE to a sectoral vision, not taking into consideration the transformative effort and societal trends active in SSE as a movement. As we will see, the willingness to foster a self-organised civil society through enhancing SSE development can vary from one country to another, as well as the relation of SSE to the goods and services market, the labour market, or the notion of profit. So, as much as the rules and regulation in each country are significant to better identify SSE building opportunities, for they set an institutional framework that must be taken into consideration, yet a closer look at the cultural and political tendencies helps to better understand the aspiration that might gear SSE development in the future. Again, depending on the shared vision of stakeholders in the countries involved, and their capacity to be represented as such at an institutional level, the implementation and the development of SSE activities, as well as the specificity of professional path for the workers involved, may vary from one country to another.

Similarly, we have made an excursus through the national approaches towards IVET, different forms of regulation and implementation of educational policies, vocational and training centres and their relation with the existing labour market, as well as the mapping of stakeholders, decision makers and of evaluation criteria. While the definition of IVET is shared by all countries for the post-compulsory school part (upper secondary education, age bracket 16-24 mainly), and when it comes down to professional qualification objectives, there has been an on-going reform movement regarding IVET in European countries, including it in the general and thus national educational system. Therefore, the national level of decision making seems to be the more relevant to discuss and advocate for the SSE skills and competences to be included in the IVET system. In the same time, one of the main concern would be to recognize the capacity for trainers, and the trainees themselves, to build more tailored path inside the curricula itself, from secondary school to IVET, as well as from the training to professional life. Safe institutional bridges between different level and condition of education could also mean better opportunities to offer attractive alternative to most at risk population regarding the dropping school rates. In that perspective, dual apprenticeship and hybrid curricula are observed as an interesting experimentation.

In order to have a closer look to national opportunities on those matters, the questions addressed in this chapter were designed to help us frame the overall tendencies at the public policy level, in order to understand what already exists and is applied in the countries that are examined in this project, for in many cases we can extend the results to most European countries. We have also been looking at what is missing or has not yet been developed sufficiently mostly in the IVET system as a specific part of education, as well as regarding how SSE may or may not be taken as a professional specific perspective, thus needing to be implemented as such.

1) How is SSE defined in different national contexts?

A unique definition of the term “Social Solidarity Economy” doesn't exist at the European level, and a common terminology is also missing, one that can be used by the institutional actors and beyond those who practice social economy. In many countries, the concepts of social economy and solidarity economy coexist with others, such as the “non-profit sector”, “volunteers sector” and “social enterprises”; while there is some overlap in these domains, they are not the same thing and should not be confused. It also means also that the normative

framework has a variety of laws that govern the different organisations of Social Solidarity Economy from country to country.

Moreover, in most countries, the classical definition of Third Sector is often used to include and frame all those entities – such as cooperatives, non-profit organisations and mutual societies - that cannot be easily classified in neither the private nor the public sector (Defourny, 2001). The term itself is widely accepted by a rich array of theoretical approaches (Moulaert and Ailenei, 2005) and emerges in many EU policy documents. As such, it seems plausible to use it as a starting point in order to delineate other concepts in use, namely solidarity economy, social economy, and the non-profit sector. The following table describes the terminological pluralism which underlines diverse theoretical approaches and historical trajectories.

Solidarity Economy	Social Economy	Non Profit Sector
Includes all economic activities which aim at the economic democratization on the basis of citizen participation. They involve a triple perspective: an economic perspective because they attempt to create economic relations based on reciprocity while making use of resources from the market and welfare state redistribution, a social perspective as solidarity economy aims to promote a cultural change and a social/societal mobilization, and a political perspective in the attempt to create autonomous public spaces and open up discussions.	Includes all economic activities undertaken by enterprises, mainly cooperatives, associations and mutual societies, which adhere to the following principles: providing members or the community a service rather than generating profit, independent management, democratic decision-making, and priority given to persons and communities, and work over capital in the distribution of income.	Includes all non-profit organisations with the following characteristics: legal entities, institutionalized to some meaningful extent, private, institutionally separate from government, non-profit-distributing, not returning profits generated to their owners or directors, self-governing, equipped to control their own activities, voluntary, i.e., involving some meaningful degree of voluntary participation.

Table 1: The terminological ambiguity of the Third sector⁴

We can look at the different levels of institutional recognition, norming and regulation, though in some countries, as we will see, there is no specific framework and the SSE is fragmented in many separate parts or with sectoral approaches. Another way to understand the SSE is to see it as an economic system besides and beyond the private, public and third sectors' economics division. In the SSE, social and cooperative enterprises promote and produce products and services for their members and the wider community, connecting and including different stakeholders, at times with mixed legal forms. For example, producer-consumer cooperatives (above all in agriculture and energy, but now they are raising up in other sector too as in telecommunications), public-community enterprises, multi-stakeholder consortia, etc. The traditional Third Sector identification of SSE is now being challenged by the emergence of new practices, initiatives and ways of re-organising economic circuits.

In Germany (although a similar division could apply in most countries in Europe), the types of organisations, enterprises and initiatives of SSE can be divided in two main groups:

⁴ Source: Sofia Adam, in *Child Poverty, Youth (un) employment and Social Inclusion*, edited by Maria Petmesidou, CROP 2015

The 'old' social economy...	... and the 'young' social solidarity economy
1. Co-operatives (" <i>Genossenschaften</i> ")	7. Self-managed enterprises of the alternative, women's and environmental movements (" <i>selbstverwaltete Betriebe</i> ")
2. Charities (" <i>Wohlfahrtsorganisationen</i> ")	8. Self-help initiatives (" <i>Selbsthilfebewegung</i> ")
3. Foundations (" <i>Stiftungen</i> ")	9. Socio-cultural enterprises (" <i>sozio-kulturelle Zentren</i> ")
4. Traditional associations (" <i>ideelle Vereinigungen</i> ")	10. Work integration enterprises (" <i>Beschäftigungs- und Qualifizierungsgesellschaften</i> ")
5. Integration / insertion enterprises for and/or of disadvantaged groups (" <i>Integrationsbetriebe</i> ")	11. Local exchange and trading systems (" <i>Tauschsysteme auf Gegenseitigkeit</i> ")
6. Volunteer services and agencies (" <i>Freiwilligendienste und -agenturen</i> ")	12. Neighbourhood and/or community economy initiatives (" <i>Nachbarschafts- und Gemeinwesenökonomieinitiativen</i> ")

Table 2: Legal forms of SSE organisations in Germany

1.1. Constitutional recognition

Only a few countries have references in their Constitution to the principles of SSE, such as mutualism, cooperation, self-management, social and solidarity inclusion, etc. in a way that can be linked to SSE.

Portugal

The 1976 **Portuguese Constitution** (written after the Carnation Revolution on 25th of April of 1974 which ended the dictatorship period) seems visionary in predicting the existence of a social and cooperative sector beyond the State and the market: article 82 of the Constitution of the Portuguese Republic foresees the "principle of coexistence of the three sectors" (Parente, 2014). In fact, in this version of the Constitution, this third sector covered only the cooperative aspect, being designated only by cooperative sector. In the 1989 revision, it was designated as the 'cooperative and social sector', including in the social dimension the self-managed and community sub-sectors. Finally, in the 1997 Constitutional revision the social dimension also started to cover the solidarity sub-sector.

Italy

Cooperativism is recognised by **art. 45 of the Italian Constitution**: "The Republic recognises the social function of cooperativism, with its mutualistic and non for private speculation character. The law promotes and favours its growth with the most appropriate means and verifies, with control procedures, its [non-profit] character and objectives".

According to the Constitution, the Regions in Italy have exclusive competence in the field of vocational education and training and also carry on transferring functions and delegating tasks to the Provinces. The state remains the determination of the essential levels of services that ensure the equal enjoyment of civil and social rights for citizens throughout the national territory.

Germany

In Germany, the social market economy as economic politics was introduced after World War II by the State in order to harness capitalist activities by social norms. But since the welfare system has been partially dismantled, the SSE (which is something totally different than the social market economy system), becomes more and more important as an economic actor to meet needs that neither the private nor the public sector address, though it is not recognized in the constitution at all.

1.2. Normative recognition

Bulgaria

In Bulgaria, social enterprises are developed in a specific local context and are the main economic entity of social economy. Social enterprises are located between the traditional private and public sectors. Their key characteristics are social goals combined with the entrepreneurial potential of private sector. Social enterprises determine their activities and reinvest their profit so as to achieve a public, respectively social goal for the benefit of both their members and a larger scope of people. They could be:

SME (Small Medium Enterprises) – Most social enterprises are SME and fall within the scope of the Regulation on the small and medium business in Europe and of all EU programmes intended for small enterprises.

Non-governmental organisations performing economic activities having markedly social effects on people from vulnerable groups in the widest sense: improving their living standards, providing employment, providing services and/or other forms of direct support, with the final goal being their active inclusion.

Cooperative registered under the Act on Cooperatives (Promulgated State Gazette No. 113/28.12.1999) that meets social enterprise standards.

The main legal framework in Bulgaria is the National Social Economy Concept (Ministry of Labour and Social Policy – Republic of Bulgaria) of 2012⁵, an attempt of harmonization of national social policies with good practices of European origin. It is linked to all of the 3 priorities, 4 objectives and 7 leading initiatives of the 13 July 2010 accepted strategy "Europe 2020" and is aimed to turn into practice the provisions of the 27.10.2010 Communication of the Commission "Towards a Single Market Act – For a highly competitive social market economy". The objectives of the Concept are:

To enable introduction of indicators for identification of SE entities;

To serve as a source of norms, supporting SE development and helping stake-holders to widespread and apply the spirit of social economy.

To be a ground for streamlining legal and administrative environment for development of SE entities (access to financing, social provisions in public procurement, tax-alleviation, etc.)

Czech Republic

While there is still no legal recognition of SSE as such, the legal form of a social cooperative has been recently included in the legislation (Law No. 90/2012). Moreover, the Agency for Social Inclusion has promoted socially sensitive public procurement among municipalities – about sixty of them included some of its elements in their strategic documents and a few actually included the employment of people with disabilities as one of the evaluation criteria.

Social entrepreneurship is not defined in national legislation and there is no specific policy document or public body officially designed to deal with it. The inclusion of social entrepreneurship in the national legislation is, however, being discussed.

Greece

Notwithstanding a rich and deep social economy past, with most of the conventional social economy organisations being prominently active into the nation-building processes of the 19th and the social development visions of the 20th century, even social economy has only recently been institutionally recognized, initially in an extremely inadequate and vague manner, inconsistent with the European conceptual tradition and just in 2016 with a more comprehensive law on Social and Solidarity Economy (law n. 4430, October 31st 2016). The Law 4019/2011 on 'Social Economy and Social enterprises' introduced the "new" Social cooperative which includes the "engagement in three fields: i) work integration; ii) social care; iii) provision of services that satisfy collective needs/local development". So in all the economic/management/entrepreneurial courses this new legal

⁵ See: <http://seconomy.mlsp.government.bg/en/page.php?c=1&d=54>

type of enterprise is described.

Germany

There are no laws in Germany concerning social enterprises or the SSE at the whole but there are laws for the regulation of co-operatives (*Genossenschaftsgesetz - GenG*), a law concerning associations (§ 21 in the civil law code) and tax regulations for associations for charitable organisations by law.

Although, all in all, at least 2.5 million people are employed in the registered German SSE organisations, there is no common institutional definition of the SSE in the country. In short, the SSE in Germany is existing in many ways but not formalized as an economic sector and not visible as such. There is no accepted common definition of SSE. In Germany, neither the SSE actors themselves nor the governments provide a definition. Therefore, there is no legal framework as well. The only acknowledgement one could detect is that the Federal Ministry responsible for Volunteer and Social Enterprise matters (*Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend / BMFSFJ*, Federal Ministry for Families, Elderly, Women and Youth) has set up a programme financially supporting social enterprises.

Italy

The main norm regarding the sector has been recently approved: Law n. 106, 6 June 2016 “Reform of the Third Sector, Social Enterprise and Universal civic service”, which defines in art. 1 the “complex of private entities which are constituted for civic, solidaristic and social utility objectives, as non-profits, and which, by enacting the subsidiarity principle and in coherence with their statutes and articles of association, promote and realise activities in the general interest, through voluntary and free forms of actions, or through mutuality or production and exchange of goods and services. Political parties, workers unions and professional associations representing economic categories are not part of the Third Sector.

Italy is still far from having a framework and supportive economy organic nationwide legislation. Within the Italian Solidarity Economy Network, a working group is discussing on this direction. Nevertheless, there are some laws at the regional level (Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Emilia-Romagna, Trentino-Alto Adige), approved after a process of collaboration between institutions and solidarity economy actors. Others, previously approved, are not in fact being enforced, as they are not funded or not politically supported by the current local governments (Lazio, Liguria, Marche).

Portugal

In 2013 the *Lei de Bases da Economia Social* [Social Economy Framework Law] (Law no. 30/2013, 8th May) was created to establish the general basis of the legal system of the social economy, as well as measures to stimulate its activity. The social economy is understood as the set of economic activities, carried out in the pursuit of the general interest of society by the following organisations: a) Cooperatives; b) Mutual associations; c) *Misericórdias* (Catholic church related organisations); d) Foundations; e) Other private social solidarity institutions; f) Associations with altruistic purposes that act in cultural, recreational, sport and local development; g) the entities covered by the community and self-managed sub-sectors integrated under the Constitution in the cooperative and social sector; h) Other entities with legal personality, that respect the guiding principles of social economy (Article no. 2 and 4).

Romania

In 2015, the Law of the social economy (Law 219/2015) was adopted in Romania, but the Methodological Norms were published only in 2016 (Government Decision no. 585/2016, 10th August 2016). The law defines the main actors recognized in the sector of social economy, operating principles and objectives of the sector.

Social economy actors recognized by the law of social economy are:

- a) Cooperative (degree 1);
- b) Associations and foundations;
- c) Credit unions of employees,
- d) Credit unions of pensioners;
- e) Agricultural associations;

f) Any other organisation, which respects cumulatively social economy definition and principles stipulated in this law.

Actors involved in the field of social economy underlined the lack of relevance for the article f), which should open the possibility for any juridical form of organisation to be recognized as an actor of social economy sector. The law differentiates social enterprises and working integration social enterprises (or WISE; in Romania they are called *întreprinderi sociale de inserție*). The interested organisations can apply to obtain the public recognition as social enterprise or WISE.

1.3. Broader cultural and political definition

Beyond the institutional recognition and legal definitions of SSE, there is a much wider understanding of Social Solidarity Economy, with its historical, social and cultural contexts.

Bulgaria

The policy framework for social economy is set out in the National Social Economy Concept. This is accompanied by the Action Plan and sets out a series of priority actions aimed at facilitating the development of social economy (including social enterprises) in Bulgaria. In a concept paper published in 2011, the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour and Social Policy refers to social enterprises as the “main economic entities of the social economy”. The **National Social Economy Concept** – which represents the Government’s commitment to and a vision for the development of the social economy in Bulgaria – defines the term ‘social economy’ as being part of both the private as well as the public sector, where volunteer associations or other organised entities (i.e. social enterprises) perform economic activities for the benefit of society and reinvest their profit towards the achievement of social goals.

Czech Republic

The Thematic Network of Social Economy (TESSEA)⁶ has developed a definition of “social enterprise” that is accepted by a broad range of stakeholders in the **Czech Republic**, including the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), Agency for Social Integration, Association of Czech and Moravian cooperatives and others. Given the importance of WISE in Czech circumstances, TESSEA also provides a definition aimed specifically at this type of social enterprise. Currently the TESSEA definitions serve as a guidance when identifying social enterprises. They are not included in any legal framework, nor is there a specific body responsible for monitoring of compliance.

Germany

The SSE in Germany is existing in many ways but not formalized and not visible as such. There is no accepted common definition of SSE. In Germany, neither the sector itself nor the governments provide a definition. In line with European institutions, the Social Solidarity Economy can be seen as the social enterprise entities and their Intermediary support organisations (ISO). Their characteristics are the following:

- 1) They seek to tackle specific social aims by engaging in economic and trading activities.
- 2) They are not-for-profit-organisations, in the sense that all surplus profits generated are either re-invested in the economic activities of the enterprise or are used in other ways to tackle the stated social aims of the enterprise.
- 3) Their legal structures are such that all the assets and accumulated wealth of the enterprise do not belong to any individuals but are held in trust to be used for the benefit of these persons or areas who are intended beneficiaries of the enterprise's social aims.
- 4) Their organisational structures are such that the full participation of all members is encouraged on a co-operative basis with equal rights accorded to all members.

⁶ TESSEA is the leading opinion platform about social enterprises in Czech Republic. It was founded in 2009 and currently includes over 350 legal and physical persons from business.

Greece

Social and solidarity economy is adopted in the public policy agenda from a variety of actors including the European Commission, the Greek government but also grass-roots movements in crisis-ridden Greece. As it was expected, it affected some aspects of learning activities. The term "Social Economy" is presented as a new economic way in Entrepreneurship courses. Notwithstanding many administrative and legal deficiencies, social economy in Greece today at least possesses firm ground to surpass long standing underdevelopment and proceed to meet future challenges, now heavily burdened by the dramatic financial crisis erupted in 2010.

Italy

Some of the actors and areas in which the Third sector is active in Italy constitute grounds for "borders" and connection between the social economy and the solidarity economy. The latter, whose inspirations and practices are becoming increasingly distanced from the traditional culture expressed by the market economy, accentuates the values and principles of "another globalization". The experience of the alter-economic "movement of movements", has collected instances of the different movements expressed by the civil society and has found expression in the world with the convening of the various "Counter-summits" in the 90's and the World Social Forums (from Porto Alegre in 2001 until today). The international experience of the Social Forum (global and local), with the principles and solidarity economy practices in the countries of the global South, have been widely received in Italy, proposing a transformation of the economic model as well as the cultural and social one. The solidarity economy approach in Italy is aimed at promoting civil and social citizenship of the weakest groups, at risk of exclusion and poverty, both economic and educational and thus favours popular education, participatory processes, peer-to-peer exchanges, research and intervention, co-social planning and active citizenship.

Practically they are enacted through the construction of networks and solidarity economy districts (RES and DES), to joint purchasing groups (GAS), ethical finance and responsible tourism, budgets of justice and recovered factories, and many other practices, which have some fragmented institutional recognition.

Portugal

The previously mentioned constitutional and normative definitions contrast with a more transformative agenda of the Solidarity Economy in Portugal, which only finds echo in some fairly recent civil society mobilization. The Portuguese Network of Solidarity Economy (RedPES) was formally created in Feb. 2016 and is still in the process of stimulating a well-established network at a grass-root level, as well as affirming its social recognition at institutional and political levels. RedPES aims to bring together organisations, institutions, informal groups and individuals, which identify themselves with the concept and practices of Solidarity Economy, which is understood as the formal or informal processes of production, exchange, consumption, distribution, income generation, savings and investment, which combine Economy with Solidarity, Ecological Perspective, Cultural Diversity, Critical Reflection, Participatory Democracy and Local Development.

Romania

In Romania, the sector of social economy is much linked with the objective of social inclusion and the aspects of social justice, participative management, democracy, active citizenship are not so well reflected. The declared institutional objectives of the social economy sector are strengthening economic and social cohesion; employment creation; development of social services.

The main principles recognized in the social economy are: priority for people and social objectives instead of profit; solidarity and collective responsibility; the convergence between the interest of associated members and the general interest and / or the interest of a collectivity; democratic control by the members; voluntary and free of association; juridical structure, autonomous management and independence from public authorities; allocation of the profit to the social objective (Methodological Norms set minimum percentage of 90% of the profit to be allocated to social purpose or statutory reserve).

2) How is Vocational Education and Training (and particularly Initial VET) defined in the general education policies?

VET has been introduced, re-introduced or reformed in many countries quite recently as an integral part of the education system. While all countries have a similar definition of the Vocational Education and Training in terms of its post-compulsory school (upper secondary education, age bracket 16-24, with some exceptions ranging from 13 to 19) and professional qualification objectives, the way Initial VET is organised varies in many ways, depending on the organisation of the school system, the definition of qualification levels, the integration with the labour market, the public and private agencies who provide the trainings and who are recognised by the State or by some lower institutional level (e.g. at regional level).

The dual apprenticeship system (or “dual system” in short), which combines work-based learning with part-time schooling, has been experimented in Germany and German-speaking countries for many decades, and is now taken as an example of hybridization by many other countries⁷. It has been formally integrated in the last years in most of the countries of this project, with the exceptions of Bulgaria and the Czech Republic (though experimentation is being done there as well).

How does this hybrid system work? “Dual apprenticeship training distinguishes itself from vocational training in most other European countries as it integrates training in schools and companies on the basis of extensive mediation and coordination between the state, employers, and labour representatives. In this “dual corporatist” model, practical vocational training plays a more dominant role than academic, general education – at least when compared to the two others “classic” training models, the “liberal market economy” model (e.g., in the United Kingdom) and the “state-regulated bureaucratic” model (e.g., in France)”⁸

This “dual corporatist” model does pose some issues as it views VET exclusively as functional for the labour market (versus the Higher Education model), but could potentially be a good system if adapted in the direction of the Social Solidarity Economy approach, allowing young people exiting from traditional school systems to experience more cooperative and socially oriented entrepreneurial environments.

Bulgaria

The Initial vocational training at the lowest level of education is provided for students in lower secondary education and for individuals aged 16+, who have successfully completed the primary stage of lower secondary education or a literacy course. The Programme has seven versions, depending on the required minimum entry education level and the attainment of a specified exit education and qualification level.

The entry education level at school age can be successfully completed from 6th, 7th or 8th grade onwards and the course of study could be respectively three, two or one year. The normal school age at which initial vocational education at lower secondary stage of the lower secondary education level is delivered is 13 – 16 years. The exit educational and qualification level to be attained at the end of training is lower secondary education or completed 9th grade and first degree of vocational qualification.

The option after completing the 7th grade with third level of qualification is quite popular in Bulgaria, due to the intensive studying of a foreign language in parallel with compulsory general subject matters. In their first year of training, students do not study vocational subjects; they only study general subjects and languages. School-based vocational education is organised in successive grades and the common age of students receiving initial vocational education in the upper secondary phase of the secondary education level is 13 – 19 years.

⁷ “Big German companies like AEG, Bosch and Miele introduced the dual vocational training system in Portugal” and are exporting it in many other European countries (see: “Dual vocational training in Europe: an export winner made in Germany”, in <https://www.goethe.de/en/kul/ges/20368521.html>).

⁸ Greinert, W.-D. (2005) Mass Vocational Education and Training in Europe. CEDEFOP Panorama Series, 118.

Czech Republic

Compulsory education lasts nine years. Usually pupils complete it in general schools (either in a basic school for 6-15 year olds or in more prestigious gymnázia "gymnasium" programmes from the age of 12-14). At the age of 15, the pupils finishing the basic school choose between general education (four year gymnázia "gymnasium" programme) and IVET. After upper secondary education (either general or IVET) most graduates can choose an appropriate path to proceed to higher levels.

At upper and post-secondary levels IVET is provided by secondary vocational schools (*střední odborná učiliště – SOU*) and secondary technical schools (*střední odborné školy – SOŠ*); at tertiary level – by tertiary professional schools (*VOŠ – vyšší odborné školy*) and higher education institutions (*VŠ – vysoké školy*). Higher educational institutions (*VŠ*) constitute a self-governed system regulated by the Higher Education Act. Secondary vocational and technical schools are often integrated in one legal entity (a school), thus, providing more diverse study opportunities under 'one roof'. Rarely tertiary professional schools (*VOŠ*) are integrated with secondary schools. A less common study path is provided by conservatoires that offer education in the field of arts (music, dance or drama) at lower and/or upper secondary level.

All secondary schools can be set up specifically for pupils with special educational needs depending on the type of disability. Secondary vocational schools (*SOU*) may open lower secondary programmes (ISCED 2C) aimed at learners over 15 years old with learning difficulties.

There is no apprenticeship system (or 'dual system') in the country. IVET is mostly school-based. However, mandatory practical work-based training and work placement are integrated into IVET.

Greece

Students enter upper secondary school at the age of 15 and graduate at 18. In the first year the programme is general, while in the second and third years students take both general education and special orientation subjects. The choice of subjects is informed by educational or vocational guidance offered through the decentralised structures of the Ministry of Education's Vocational Orientation Guidance and Educational Activities Directorate (SEPED). Those who graduate from a general upper secondary school can sit the national examinations for admission to a tertiary education programme. According to the new law regulating secondary education (Law 4186/2013), which aims among other things to attract more students into VET, students now have the following options in addition to the general upper secondary school:

- (a) **initial vocational education within the formal education system** in the second cycle of secondary education at a vocational upper secondary school (day or evening school);
- (b) **initial vocational training outside the formal education system** (referred to as non-formal) in vocational training schools (*SEK*), vocational training institutes (*IEK*), centres for lifelong learning and colleges.

In Greece, in this context, 'initial vocational training' refers to the training that provides basic knowledge, abilities and skills in trades and specialties, targeting the integration, reintegration, job mobility and enhancement of human resources in the labour market, as well as professional and personal development.

Germany

A formal 3 years *Berufsausbildung* in special schools (*Berufsfachschulen*), often combined with 2-3 days practical work in enterprises, leads to a certificate in exactly defined professions (a list of them registered in the Chambers). This system is called the dual system (*Duale Ausbildung*).

A law (the *Berufsausbildungsgesetz*) was passed in 1969 which regulated and unified the vocational training system and codified the shared responsibility of the state, the unions, associations and chambers of trade and industry (*Industrie- und Handelskammer etc*). In 2001, two-thirds of young people aged under 22 began an apprenticeship, and 78% of them completed it, meaning that approximately 51% of all young people under 22 have completed an apprenticeship. Only one in three companies offered apprenticeships in 2003; in 2004 the government signed a pledge with industrial unions that all companies except very small ones must take on

apprentices.

In the Duales Ausbildungssystem, young German people can learn one of ca 350 apprenticeship occupations (Ausbildungsberufe), such as Doctor's Assistant, Dispensing Optician or Oven Builder. The precise skills and theory taught are strictly regulated and defined by national standards: an *Industriekaufmann* (Industrial Manager) in Germany has always acquired the same skills and taken the same courses in production planning, accounting and controlling, marketing, HR management, trade laws, etc., in whatever region or institution it takes place.

Italy

At the end of the compulsory school period (up to 16 year old), after passing a state exam and obtaining a first diploma, pupils are required to continue the training process (second cycle) as part of upper secondary education, in IVET (IeFP – Istruzione e Formazione Professionale) or through apprenticeship in order to obtain the qualification and professional degree. The latter is valid only for trainees over 15 years old and attending a number of hours of training. The paths of Education and Vocational Training (IeFP), therefore, constitute a valid alternative channel to the school for the completion of their education.

With the agreement signed in the State-Regions Conference of 27 July 2011, some important systemic elements have been introduced:

- training standards for basic skills;
- minimum educational standards for technical and professional skills related to the profiles included in the National Qualifications Repertoire;
- qualifications and diplomas have national validity.

The National Qualifications Repertoire lists the 22 qualifications provided for in the third year end and 21 degrees at the conclusion of the year quarters, although it is up to the regions to define additional standards than the minimum for the completion of training paths.

Portugal

It was only at the beginning of the 21st century that VET was embedded in the education and training system in Portugal and learners at secondary (and basic) school level were offered this choice between a general/academic path (leading to further or higher education) and a VET path (leading to the labour market, further or higher education). Efforts have been made to ensure permeability between general/academic paths (mainly leading to further studies) and VET paths (leading to the labour market). This means that young people can choose different types of VET programme if they meet admission requirements in terms of age and educational background:

- **VET programmes at basic education level** (VET programmes for young people: *cursos de educação e formação de jovens* (CEF)) are school-based and include work-based learning (WBL, referred to as 'practical training' in the national context). Learners need to be over 15 and should have completed the first cycle of basic education (four years). They are designed for young people at risk of leaving school early or who have already left the school system before completing their compulsory education. Traditionally VET programmes were an option only after the age of 15. In the academic year 2012/13, vocational programmes for youngsters aged 13 or older were introduced at the 3rd cycle of basic education as pilot projects.
- **VET programmes at secondary education level** (vocational programmes, CEF and art education programmes) are school-based and include WBL, except for some art education programmes. Learners need to be over 15 and should have completed basic education.
- **Apprenticeship programmes** include 40% workplace training. A contract between the enterprise and the apprentice is compulsory. Access is possible for learners below 25 who have completed basic education. Courses are specifically designed to help young people enter the labour market, although they also allow further studies in higher education.
- **Programmes at post-secondary non-tertiary level** combine general, scientific and technological training in school with work-based learning. WBL is 30 to 46% in technological specialisation programmes (TSP) and 18% in post-secondary CEF. Learners need to be over 18, have acquired EQF level 4 or be in the last year of

secondary education or have a higher education diploma.

In this Portuguese context, Initial Vocational and Educational Training (IVET) refers to certified education and training whose purpose is to enable people to acquire the knowledge, know-how, skills and abilities they need to begin performing one or more occupational activities. It comprises all the 4 dimensions of VET mentioned above. By definition IVET contrasts with what is called Continuing Training (CVET) which refers to education and training undertaken after leaving the education system or after entry onto the labour market, enabling people to improve their occupational and social skills with a view to performing one or more occupational activities, keeping up to date with technological and organisational change, or enhancing their employability.

Romania

Until 1990, vocational schools and technology high-schools functioned in a system of double subordination, to the Ministry of Education, but also to the relevant ministries of economy. Between schools and economic units there were schooling contracts that provided students with jobs for a limited period of time. After 1990, many economic units were privatized, many workers were laid off, and schooling contracts disappeared.

Thus, vocational schools have gradually lost their relevance to the demands of a changing labour market. Furthermore, TVET (Technical and Vocational Education and Training) has been permanently fuelled by the less performed 8th grade graduates. There were some more important moments in the evolution of TVET system in Romania after 1990:

2003 – the five-year School of Arts and Crafts is being set up. This represents the progressive high school route, for grades IX-XIII. On this route, were particularly involved students with low school results, but with great learning tasks because they had to acquire general ***theoretical curricula*** (mathematics, physics, history, etc.), ***theoretical technical culture*** (material resistance, measuring and control devices, metal structures, etc.), but also ***practical training***. To ease the school tasks, the curriculum was sacrificed, practical training were reduced from 2-3 days a week to 2-3 hours a week. Under these circumstances, the School of Arts and Crafts became the longer version of the high school, with students having the opportunity to take the baccalaureate exam and then to attend a college. The consequences were very serious:

- according to the National Institute of Statistics, in 2010 only 26.2% of the students of Arts and Crafts Schools were able to complete their studies;
- these schools have prepared 4 times less qualified labour than the labour market demands; market demanded;
- increased disinterest among young people towards vocational and technical schools.

In 2013, the Ministry of National Education published a decree (3136/2013) by which, starting with the academic year 2014-2015, vocational education training for a period of 3 years after completing eighth grade was introduced. The schools have to develop partnerships with local companies for apprenticeship (the contract of practical training for each student is a prerequisite for approving school offer).

2014 (Government Emergency Ordinance 94/2014) introduces in the national pre-university education system the dual-training professional training, starting with the school year 2015-2016.

The Minister of National Education and Scientific Research declared the year 2017 "Year of vocational and technical education in Romania". An information and awareness campaign on the role of TVET and dual education is planned. It aims to change the perception of TVET and attract a large number of students and companies. One of the activities is to organise an event addressed to class 8 students, "Occupation Week", in order to explain the dual education system and the main benefits.

3) What is the relevance of IVET with regards to the labour market and to employment policies?

Is the general objective of Vocational Education and Training the preparation of a workforce for the demands of the Market? Or are there other general objectives that can be singled out? These questions are at the core of our enquiry, since the Social Solidarity Economy approach to work and the “labour market” is quite different from the Market economy approach. Rather than servicing the market labour demands (which are in any case decreasing in most countries, due to the changes introduced with the automated industry, de-localisations of production in many sectors and shift towards the knowledge and service economy), IVET should prepare young citizens to find their vocational area, building their skills as well as deepening their critical thinking and learning, and experience collaborative forms of work, while re-localising sustainable production – distribution chains and improving their local communities.

The situation in each of the project partner countries is different, as we can see in the following parts, which try to summarize the situation by pointing out the main trends existing today.

Bulgaria

A better understanding of the supply and demand of labour with specific qualifications is of a significant importance in the current structural changes within the economics and the labour markets. In this context, matching the knowledge and skills with the labour market demands was recognized as one of the main priorities in the National Reform Programme of the Republic of Bulgaria 2010-2013. The Enhancement of the Flexibility and Efficiency of the Labour Market scheme is implemented within the framework of the Operational programme “Human Resource Development through the active work of social partners”. The implementation is assigned to the national representative organisations of the social parts. Representatives from the national organisations of employers, workers and employees participate in the management board and the expert committees of the National Agency for Vocational Education and Training.

Czech Republic

The National Institute for Education, Education Counselling Centre and Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (NÚV) ensures the monitoring of the labour market needs and provides thus a needed feedback to both the initial and adult education as well. The NÚV offers, within the Information System on the Labour Market Success of School-Leavers⁹, statistics from the sphere of the labour market and the education to following recipients: the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, regional authorities, labour offices of the Czech Republic, schools, pupils and their parents or employers. NÚV develops analytical documents for the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports on the coordination of the education and the labour market needs as a supportive document for the conceptual and strategic decision making.

Schools and employers cooperate at the institutional level, thus the quality and the form of the cooperation depends on the attitudes of those who are responsible for the cooperation. An important prerequisite for a successful cooperation is a mutual trust among all involved partners. Both cooperating partners have different starting points; schools are subordinated to legislative norms and to other rules set by the statutory authority. The employers should react based on the current capacity, business strategy and economic stability of the enterprise.

There are different instruments strengthening the mutual institutional cooperation. At the regional level, the following measures are being used: employment pacts, incentives for pupils, centres serving as meeting points for both schools and enterprises. The State is supporting this cooperation by setting out a new legislation aimed at the possibility to apply tax reductions for employers. The cooperation between secondary schools and employers was supported by the national project called Pospolu (Together, 2012-2015). The main goal of the project was to suggest legislative and system changes that could enhance effective and easier cooperation.

⁹ Available in Czech at www.infoabslovent.cz

Based on the discussions with the social partners, a conceptual study with recommendations was developed, that was pilot tested by a network of 38 schools and 115 employers, enterprises and further subjects in practice. [See the national report for more details]

Greece

Greek society has always been characterised by a strong demand for general education and university studies. VET held little appeal for young people and was associated with ‘laborious’ and ‘inferior’ manual labour. On the contrary, general education is associated with expectations of improved social standing. Today, young people continue to see vocational education as a last resort, despite unceasing efforts by the authorities to present it as an alternative of equal value with general education. The statistics show that those with technical and vocational qualifications have less trouble finding jobs than those with general education. A crucial issue for the attractiveness of vocational education, both generally and in relation to specific specialities, concerns occupational rights. While the construction sector, to take one example, grew considerably, related specialities in vocational upper secondary schools have seen low participation. This is because there are no established occupational rights for technicians with low or intermediate level qualifications, even though these trades demand enhanced knowledge and skills (such as iron workers, builders, aluminium technicians, metal structure technicians, carpenters, cabinet makers, etc.). In several other occupations, rights have not been secured, such as bakers, confectioners, butchers, cooks and tourism workers; needs are met chiefly by workers trained on the job. By contrast, establishing occupational rights in sectors such as plumbing and hairdressing has led to strong demand for related educational services¹⁰.

The new law on the restructuring of secondary – including vocational – education (Law 4186/2013), which came into effect in September 2013, opens the VET system to the economy and the job market and attempts to regulate the field from the perspective of lifelong learning. Nevertheless, the major issues facing the Greek VET system persist: closer links with the job market and economy, more vigorous involvement of the social partners, sense of social co-responsibility and consensus on vocational training matters, decentralisation and greater school autonomy, attracting more young people into vocational training, improving the quality of initial vocational training and linking it more closely to continued vocational training (Ioannidou and Stavrou, 2013).

Germany

Whereas some general subjects are also part of the curricula, normally the general objective is to make trainees employable as workforces. This is particularly guaranteed by the fact that they learn by direct experience in the enterprises, through the dual apprenticeship system. Moreover, in Germany, young people prefer a general education, leading for example to a university access, rather than a vocational training. Whereas in former times (from the end of the 1960s until end of the 1980s), many pupils leaving school and looking for a vocational training in an enterprise could not find it, the situation now is the other way round: enterprises now look eagerly for young vocational trainees, but there is not enough supply of them. There are many vocations where there is a high demand, particularly in the social or health sectors, but also in several technical professions.

Italy

All vocational training and, in particular, the initial one is strongly oriented to the labour market and to provide qualifications and diplomas that support young people (starting with the IeFP) and other population groups to integrate or re-integrate into work activities. It is important that such inclusion has a more solid basis as possible from an educational point of view, especially with regards to the younger age groups.

To facilitate the connection between training activities and work, the public institutions are widening and strengthening tools that simultaneously provide for the qualification of young people and their integration into the labour market. In this regard, even in Italy the experimenting of the dual system has begun; the MOUs provide the possibility to create 6 types of courses, through 3 different modes of implementation.

¹⁰ See Pedagogical Institute, 2006, p. 150

The types are:

- the four annual instalments of IeFP (IVET) paths
- IFTS (Higher Technical Education Institutes) courses
- modular training programmes for young NEETs participating in the programme through the Youth Guarantee validation service of the skills acquired in formal and non-formal contexts

The trial of the dual system is intended to facilitate the proximity between the qualified students and graduates of IeFP (IVET) and IFTS (Higher Technical Education Institutes) and enterprises, enabling young people to get out of the training programme with even more robust skills. As already noted by many, the greatest risk is the uneven distribution of enterprises throughout the country. This could take the form of supply disparity between young people who are in areas with high concentration of enterprises and those (especially in the South and Islands in Italy) who live in regions where there are few companies in a position to take on apprentices or host substantial numbers of interns, even with the tax benefits provided by the legislation.

The recent Law n. 107 of 13 July 2015 on the general reform of the education and training system has also led to a thorough review in relation to new forms of knowledge, teaching methods and school organisation. Among the many new possibilities, there is also the alternation between school and work. The reform requires that from the third year of high school onwards, students must spend 400 hours per year in work placements for those attending technical and vocational schools, and 200 hours for high school students. Guidance on how to achieve it are outlined in the Operations Guide on the School and Work Alternation (October 2015), a document that defines, among other things, the time-frame to realize it and provides a charter of rights and duties of the students and a national register of companies willing to welcome them.

Portugal

The general approach framing education and VET policies in Portugal is a comprehensive one. It is focused on economic prosperity and competitiveness and, in parallel, on the promotion of social inclusion, active citizenship and the personal and occupational fulfilment of citizens who live and work in an increasingly knowledge-based economy (Afonso, 2007). This is in line with the SSE IVET project inspirational basis which sees IVET as a tool for social change, with a potential to transform younger generations into citizens and professionals who more able to deal with current societal challenges.

Although this vast and integrated perspective underlies the policy approach to education and training, in more specific terms (focusing specifically in IVET and in more operational policy programmes) the main emphasis is in fact at the level of labour market demands. There is a transversal effort to ensure permeability between VET paths and the pursue of further education with the aim of improving the population qualifications. In the last decade, Governments have prioritised actions to tackle low education attainment (among young and adult population) and early school leaving and to improve the quality of secondary education and vocational education and training, with a view to increasing efficiency in the education sector, raising the quality of human capital and facilitating matching labour market needs.

As stated in the ReferNet Report VET in Portugal 2014¹¹, the on-going work on modernising VET implies the challenge to bridge the gap between the traditional view (VET conceived as to prepare people for technical, manual or crafts occupations) and the modernised view (VET conceived as to respond to skills challenges within the current national reforms of economic and welfare/employment policies). In 2011, a study (Pedroso, 2011 *cit in* DGERT, 2014) analysed the evolution of the sectors in Portugal and approached the issue of matching VET provision and labour market needs.

One of the main conclusion pointed out a significant mismatch between training supply and labour market demand in different sectors: (a) an oversupply of courses leading to professions such as medium skilled technicians for informatics and for commerce (with 66% of VET learners) for a low demand of the labour market;

¹¹ See DGERT, 2014

(b) a high demand for qualified workers in such areas as food services, construction and industrial production which rank low in VET provision. To tackle the issues identified by the analysis, further action was recommended, e.g. (a) development of strategies to support VET providers in redirecting/ updating their supply towards the more demanded areas in the labour market; (b) further analysis of those sectors where there are discrepancies between individuals' competences and the jobs they are performing. This sectoral approach could also be interesting in redirecting the IVET approach to meet the dynamics of the SSE. Training challenges high on the national policy agenda and demand for policy responses include organising IVET (and CVET) provision more in line with present and future labour market requirements and the needs of emerging economic sectors¹².

Romania

The National Strategy for Education and Training 2016-2020¹³ states that the objective of education and training system in Romania is to give everyone the opportunity to acquire high-level skills relevant to the labour market and to the society. The Education and training system will ensure increased visibility of skills and better use of them on the labour market, relying on anticipating skills needs and trends in the labour market (Article 47 of the National Strategy). The aim of the National Strategy is the development of an education and training system adapted to labour market needs and to **the needs of direct beneficiaries** (Article 48), but it does not specify them sufficiently. The Strategy defines several lines of action which aim to increase the **relevance of vocational training systems for the labour market**: Updating tools for description of occupations and qualifications, including new curriculum; develop better mechanisms for anticipating skills required in the labour market; monitoring the employability of graduates of training programmes; improving workplace learning; improving public and private financing mechanisms for education; increasing the involvement of social partners in the development of vocational training.

4) What are the learning outcomes and evaluation criteria that are requested?

In order to better understand what the goals of the IVET systems are in each country, we have examined the stated learning objectives and expected outcomes, as well as the main criteria used to evaluate the results. Most countries have established National Qualification Systems (some quite recent and still experimental), based on criteria regarding skills, competences and acquired knowledge, in which the learning outcomes and the evaluations systems are spelt out (see next chapter). Nevertheless, the disparity among the different systems makes it difficult to establish common criteria at a super-national level. There is a whole window of opportunity here to contribute to a more socially oriented, peer learning methodology that allows for the development of soft skills alongside the more professional ones.

Bulgaria

Social benefits are measured with the employment of disadvantaged people, with the contribution to the process of social inclusion and with the creation of a social capital. The most important economic indicator of social economy benefits are the public funds spared for social welfare on the one hand, and extra funds to compensate for the social cost of long-term unemployment, on the other hand. At the same time, the newly-created value of social economy is also a significant economic benefit. Another economic effect that this type of organisation has is its flexibility and ability to mobilize resources of various origins –market and non-market resources, voluntary labour and social support.

Czech Republic

Learning outcomes for all levels below tertiary are set out in national core curricula. These were introduced into the Czech educational system by the Act on Preschool, Elementary, Secondary and Tertiary Vocational and Other Education (the Education Act) and have been gradually implemented since 2006. The ideological starting point of the core curricula is pedagogical constructivism. The core curricula emphasize active teaching and turn their

¹² See Cedefop report, 2014

¹³ Romania National Strategy for Education and Training 2016-2020

attention to students. They also provide space for additional development by individual schools to cater to the needs of their students. Core curricula set out learning outcomes which students should attain by the end of the corresponding level of education. These learning outcomes are formulated actively, e.g. a student should “demonstrate a familiarity with current international issues”.

In addition to learning outcomes, the core curricula list content necessary for their attainment. Core curricula establish a clear hierarchy between knowledge and skills. By knowledge what is meant is a system of facts and theories which students acquire by being taught. Knowledge forms the foundation of education. By skills is meant the ability to perform certain tasks. For many skills, appropriate knowledge is a prerequisite. Nonetheless, the core curricula implicitly place skills above knowledge and treat the two categories as relatively autonomous, which gives the impression that skills can exist without knowledge. This impression is strengthened by the fact that learning outcomes are formulated in terms of skills and the relation between the two categories is not made explicit in the core curricula.

Learning outcomes in tertiary education are used in a different sense. Distinctions are made among professional knowledge, professional skills and general competences. Knowledge and skills are tied to a particular subject, while competences are of a more general character. Knowledge and skills are explicitly tied. By skills one means the use of theoretical and factual knowledge in the given field. Skills without knowledge are therefore impossible, in contrast to the interpretation in the core curricula. The use of professional knowledge and skills in a particular context, subject to the degree of autonomy and responsibility, is described as competence. Competences include judgment, communicative ability, including in foreign languages, preparation for continuing learning, etc.

The interpretation of learning outcomes described above is not yet universal in tertiary education. However, this is changing. The rules of the Accreditation Commission require non-vocational tertiary institutions to describe their programmes in terms of general characteristics and in terms of programme descriptions (Graduate Profiles). The Commission in its Standards for the Assessment of Applications for Accreditation, Broadening an Accreditation and Extending the Validity of Accreditation of Study Programmes and Study Fields last updated in 2010, recommends the division of the learning outcomes in of programme descriptions (Graduate Profiles) and programme goals into knowledge, skills and competences. The National Qualifications Framework for Tertiary Education, which is currently being pilot tested for certain fields, particularly in the tertiary institutions, works with the categories knowledge, skills and competences. It is intended that after testing and implementation the National Qualifications Framework for Tertiary Education can be used in the accreditation process. One subject of controversy is whether the narrower professional learning outcomes will compromise the educational culture¹⁴.

Greece

The development of Greece’s national qualifications framework (NQF), which was instituted with the enactment of the law on lifelong learning (Law 3879/2010), is expected to be an important factor in the shaping of qualifications, the adaptation of programmes and the promotion of learning outcomes. The object of the NQF is to recognize and correlate the learning outcomes of all forms of formal and non-formal education and informal learning, so that they can be certified and classified and referenced to the levels of the European qualifications framework (Article 16). The establishment of the NQF has brought about two main changes in the Greek education and training system: (a) the ‘learning-outcome’ approach has been officially adopted as a necessary condition for granting a qualification and/or designing new ones and (b) the possibility of checking and assuring the quality of all qualifications granted has been improved.

Germany

Learning outcomes are different depending on the final vocational qualification. In the case of manufacturing, it is connected with a practical product (like a table, f.i. as a proof for a joiner’s examination). The exams are made and certificates are handed out by the Chambers of Commerce, Industry or of Manufacturing (*Industrie- und*

¹⁴ Source: National Referencing Report on the Czech Republic (<http://www.nuov.cz>)

Handelskammer, Handwerkskammer etc).

In 2013, a German Qualification Framework (DQR) was introduced on the basis of a common decision of the Federal Ministries of Training and Research, of Economy and Energy, of Culture, and the Conference of economic ministries of the German Lander. It was developed in order to make the German vocational system more transparent and to compare the qualifications with other European certificates. The learning outcomes are differentiated into 8 levels of qualifications. They imply what learners know, understand and are able to do after the finalization of the learning process. Thus, the mobility of learners and employees can be facilitated in a smarter way.

The DQR also is intended to improve access to higher careers and to secure more quality in the education system. It includes not only informal and formal qualifications but also general education, training, and tertiary level education, or further training and education.

Italy

The State-Regions Agreement July 27, 2011 established the National Directory of the Education and Vocational Training offer, which is composed of professional qualifications such as Operator (associated with three year training programmes) and diplomas of Technician (associated with four-year courses); within it is contained an explicit indication of conceptual coherence of the national reference standard descriptors for both the basic skills and the professional and technical ones of the EQF (European Qualifications Framework) descriptors.

As for the evaluation criteria are concerned, there is an ongoing experimentation about an integrated assessment system of learning in different education and training systems for the issuing of certification of skills in different contexts (formal, non-formal and informal). It arises from the need to configure the evaluation as a training tool that takes into account cultural axes, professional areas, skills.

After the launch of the new National Evaluation System (*SNV Sistema di Valutazione Nazionale*), established by Presidential Decree 80 of 28 March 2013, and with the enactment of the relevant Regulations (September 2014), the processes and the school self-evaluation procedures, initially planned for state schools and private ones, will gradually involve the institutions of Education and Vocational Training (IeFP), as an integral part of the public educational system in Italy.

Portugal

According to the European Inventory on National Qualification Framework 2012 Portugal (Cedefop, 2012) the **learning outcomes approach** plays an important role in reforming Portuguese education and training. There is a diversity of approaches and concepts and the level of implementation varies across education and training subsystems. Fine-tuning learning outcomes in qualifications design with the National Qualification Framework level descriptors is a challenging task and is work in progress (e.g. in upgrading not only the national qualifications catalogue but also for qualifications in general education). In VET, reforms concentrate on the learning outcomes dimension of developing qualifications standards and curriculum development. The qualifications obtained in VET subsystems are organised by the standards included in the national qualifications catalogue.

These are some of the **tools and structures** created to support the SNQ which can be relevant for IVET purposes:

- *Quadro Nacional das Qualificações* [National Qualifications Framework] (QNQ) – designed in line with the European Qualification Framework, it has eight levels and a set of descriptors specifying learning outcomes at different qualification levels;
- *Catálogo Nacional das Qualificações* [National Catalogue of Qualifications] (CNQ) – designed in line with the QNQ) is a strategic tool to manage and regulate all qualifications, except those at higher level. The purpose of the catalogue is to: – develop competence-based qualifications, to regulate double certification, and to aid designing learning programmes; – promote the transparency of qualifications to learners and employers; – promote efficiency of public funding; – modularise the training offer.

- The Individual Portfolio of Competences – an official document used to register the competences acquired throughout life, those within and outside the CNQ. It gives employers an instrument to assess the competences of the candidates for jobs.
- The *Conselhos Sectoriais para a Qualificação* [Sectorial Councils for Qualification] (CSQ) – are technical and consultative working groups that seek to identify the needs to update the CNQ, taking into account the changes in the different sectors of society. These councils include, among others, the experts indicated by: the ministries relevant to the sector(s) of activity covered by each Sectorial Council; Social partners; Companies; Training institutions of diverse nature (public, private and cooperative schools, vocational schools, public managed training centres, certified private training centres); Technological centres; Competent authorities that regulate access to professions, and independent experts. These councils present proposals for the creation of new qualifications and / or updating and / or exclusion of qualifications from the CNQ.

Romania

The learning outcomes and evaluation criteria are defined for each specialization. There are required also general and specific competences, according with the qualification. TVET is ending with a final exam, Level 3 in the context of National Qualifications Framework. Graduated receive a professional qualification certificate, a Descriptive Europass format, attesting to the acquisition of skills specific to a professional qualification.

The professional qualification certificate allows to make an application for a job. The graduated could also continue the studies in class XI of high school and finish with the Baccalaureate.

5) How are the national qualification frameworks defined?

A Qualifications Framework is an instrument for the development, classification and recognition of skills, knowledge and competencies along a continuum of agreed levels. It is a way of structuring existing and new qualifications, which are defined by learning outcomes, i.e. clear statements of what the learner must know or be able to do whether learned in a classroom, on-the-job, or less formally. The Qualifications Framework indicates the comparability of different qualifications and how one can progress from one level to another.

National qualifications framework means an instrument for the classification of qualifications according to a set of criteria for specified levels of learning achieved, which aims to integrate and coordinate national qualifications subsystems and improve the transparency, access, progression and quality of qualifications in relation to the labour market and civil society.

The distinction between a qualifications 'framework' and a qualifications 'system' is important. A qualification 'system' is broader, including all activities that result in the recognition of learning, such as the means of developing and operationalising policy on qualifications, along with institutional arrangements, quality assurance, assessment and awarding processes, etc.

The value of an NQF lies in its potential to contribute to policy goals such as lifelong learning, recognition of skills, or improving the quality of education and training. Therefore, its design should relate to the goals which it is intended to support and to the context in which it will operate. The most effective approach to build an NQF is to start with clear policy aims, rather than with a set idea about specific characteristics it should have.

The national NQFs relate their qualification levels to the levels set out in the European Qualification Framework. This helps to improve the transparency and recognition of qualifications in Europe; supports the mobility of learners and workers; encourages the achievement of unified training quality criteria; and facilitates the validation and transfer of non-formal and informal learning outcomes.

Bulgaria

The National Qualification Framework of Bulgaria encompasses the whole education system and all its qualifications. It includes nine levels, including level zero (preparatory level). Levels 1 to 4 correspond to the stages of education and qualification acquisition within the systems of general and vocational education and training. Level 5 includes training at a vocational college for acquisition of the fourth level of vocational qualification after the completion of secondary education. Levels 6 to 8 relate to qualifications acquired in the higher education system: 'bachelor', 'master' and 'doctorate'. The separate levels are defined on the basis of a learning outcomes-oriented approach. They are described in terms of knowledge (theoretical and/or practical) and competences (personal and professional).

Competencies are described in terms of the level of responsibility and autonomy, and separated into four main groups:

- Autonomy and responsibility;
- Learning Competences;
- Communication and social competencies;
- Professional competencies;

Skills are considered as cognitive (involving the use of logical, intuitive and creative thinking) and practical (involving techniques and the use of methods, materials, tools and instruments). Following a government decision, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science has been designated as the competent body for supporting and updating the National Qualification Framework.

Czech Republic

The National Register of Vocational Qualifications (NSK) is a publicly accessible register of all vocational and complete vocational qualifications and their qualification and assessment standards. The National Register of Qualifications defines what is needed to pursue the occupation (or a segment of an occupation). Part of the NSK is a system of qualification levels corresponding to the eight levels of the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). It is a nationwide, state-guaranteed system defining all requirements on competences for specific qualifications irrespective of the way they were achieved.

This system is underpinned by the act 179/2006 on Recognition and Validation of continuing education results as amended. The NSK consists of qualifications (qualification standards) grouped into particular levels. The NSK is a common framework for initial and adult education and for the recognition of learning outcomes. The NSK enables to compare qualifications recognised in the Czech Republic with qualifications recognised in other European states.

The Czech Republic did not yet decide whether it will develop a comprehensive NQF, but discussions and surveys conducted so far conclude that establishing an NQF could be an important mean for better coordination and communication among sectors of education and other stakeholders.

It requires inclusion of the broadest circle of experts and public possible, with representation of all relevant stakeholders. Only then can be the NQF used and respected by all sectors and social partners and the sense of ownership among them can develop. A comprehensive NQF could be potentially a very useful and important instrument for further development in education, especially because of its learning outcomes approach and cooperation among educational sectors that the NQF promotes.

Greece

The development of Greece's national qualifications framework (NQF), which was instituted with the enactment of the law on lifelong learning (Law 3879/2010), is expected to be an important factor in the shaping of qualifications, the adaptation of programmes and the promotion of learning outcomes. The object of the NQF is to recognize and correlate the learning outcomes of all forms of formal and non-formal education and informal learning, so that they can be certified and classified and referenced to the levels of the European qualifications framework (Article 16). The establishment of the NQF has brought about two main changes in the Greek

education and training system: (a) the 'learning-outcome' approach has been officially adopted as a necessary condition for granting a qualification and/or designing new ones and (b) the possibility of checking and assuring the quality of all qualifications granted has been improved.

Already a host of Greek (public and private) and foreign entities have registered as providers of educational services and have been granted the right to issue awards. With the work on the NQF Greece has for the first time undertaken to systematize recognition of the titles granted by these entities and organise them into a unified framework. The initial phase covers the integration of the titles awarded by the formal education system into the NQF; the final target, however, is to bring all the certificates of education or training awarded in the country within the NQF (Eoppep, 2013).

Germany

The national qualification frameworks are defined by the Chambers in so-called *Ausbildungsordnungen*, agreed by the Länder and in the framework of a national law (BBiG) (see above).

Italy

With the completion of compulsory education, which is usually at the end of the first two years of the secondary education programme grade II and those of vocational education and training, a specific and formal certification is issued, attesting the knowledge and basic skills acquisition for the compulsory education. Such certification was introduced since the school year 2010-11 and is issued at the request of the beneficiary for young people who have reached eighteen years of age.

At the end of four-year and three-year courses of vocational education and training, after passing a final examination under the rules which are specific to each Region (but which refer to the National Directory of the offer for Education and Vocational Training), they release the following qualifications:

- Qualification certificate of a professional operator: after the conclusion of three-year educational courses and training, it gives an indication of the national figure of reference and the regional profile in addition to the name of the acquired qualification
- Technical Vocational Diploma: after the conclusion of four-year educational programmes and trainings and gives an indication of the national figure of reference and regional address in addition to the name of the acquired qualification.

Portugal

Since 2000 there is a process to reform the VET system bridging the traditional gap between education and training in the national context. The reform was intended to tackle the qualification deficit and the high rate of early leaving from education and training. A qualification strategy was designed: (a) to promote the attainment of upper secondary education (considered as the basis to develop a knowledge-based economy) by both young people and adults; (b) to expand IVET paths and provide flexible paths to adults leading to the acquisition of certified competences. These priorities were operationalised by reviewing the education and training system which led to the design of a new architecture of IVET and CVET and the development of new instruments.

In this context the *Sistema Nacional das Qualificações* (SNQ) [National System of Qualifications] was established in 2007. It constitutes a milestone in the development of the education and training system and an attempt to get aligned with the EU policies. The SNQ framework is based on a structured relationship between VET within the educational system and VET in the labour market. It establishes common objectives, instruments, and complementary tools and structures to sustain the implementation of the policy. These are reference frameworks used to help policy developers, learners, teachers/trainers, employers and society at large in understanding how the system functions and, more importantly, its benefits.

Romania

National Qualifications Framework sets out eight levels of qualification that can be acquired through the formal education and training and through the recognition of learning outcomes achieved through non-formal and

informal learning contexts. The NQF is defined by Decision 918/2013 regarding the approval of National Qualifications Framework.

6) Who and where are the decision makers who orient the policies?

In this part we look at the way decisions are taken at different levels, orienting and changing national or regional policies that inform and promote the IVET system and the SSE. These range from policy makers at national governmental level, to entrepreneurial institutions, juridical entities, research institutions, social enterprises.

Bulgaria

The key actors which are involved in the social enterprise ecosystem in Bulgaria and have influence also on the IVET policies, range from institutions, civil society initiatives or other social enterprises promoting social entrepreneurship education and training, and presenting role models (such as *Central Cooperative Union (CCU)*, *Bulgarian Centre for Non-profit Law (BCNL)*, *Centre for Entrepreneurship and Executive Development (CEED)*, *Veliko Tarnovo University*); Organisations that have the capacity act as an observatory and to monitor the development and to assess needs and opportunities of social entrepreneurs/social enterprises (e.g. *ESC*, *BCNL*, *Labour Confederation Podkrepa*); Providers of social enterprise start up and development support services and facilities (such as *incubators and BCNL*); business support providers in terms of training (e.g. *BCNL*, *CEED*); social enterprise support networks, associations (e.g. *CCU*, *National Federation of Employers of Disabled People*, *National Union of Worker Producers Cooperatives*); Research institutions (e.g. *Bulgarian Academy of Science (BAS)*, *University of Veliko Tarnovo – major Entrepreneurship in the social sphere*).

Alongside these are of course the public institutions, such as Governmental departments or institutions designing or implementing policy, support instruments and measures for social enterprises and infrastructures (such as the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (MLSP), Ministry of Economy and Energy (MEE), Agency for *Social Assistance*) and the Local authorities and municipalities.

Czech Republic

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MEYS, in Czech MŠMT) determines national education policy and the long-term policy objectives that guide the system and all education levels.

The following bodies also help shape education policy:

The Czech School Inspectorate (CSI) monitors and analyses the education system and its quality, excluding higher education institutions.

The National Institute of Education (NUV), established in 2011, is responsible for developing information on issues pertaining to pre-primary through to upper secondary education, vocational and technical education, and education guidance and counselling. It is also responsible for formulating the framework of the education programmes and for guiding the development of schools education programmes.

The National Institute for Further Education focuses on in-service teacher training.

The Centre for Higher Education Studies develops policy and strategy for higher education.

Other ministries, such as the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, collaborate with MEYS on issues of labour market and vocational guidance.

Consultation with advisory bodies (e.g. teachers' professional associations and employers' associations) is required for certain actions, such as negotiation of the national educational programme or the frameworks educational programmes, and also on long-term policy objectives at national and regional levels.

Municipalities are responsible for organising pre-primary and compulsory education (ages 6 to 15). Schools can be established by ministries, regions, municipalities, religious societies or churches, or other legal entities. Fourteen regional governments steer education and its objectives within their region for upper secondary and tertiary professional schools.

Since 2003, schools have autonomy to make many decisions: 68% of the decisions are made at the school level while 28% are taken at the local or regional level and 4% are taken at the central level (see Figure 7). School leaders have key responsibilities, and school boards must be established to allow participation of parents, students, education staff, and the public. Higher education institutions are autonomous, accredited by the Accreditation Commission and represented at the national level by the Council of Higher Education Institutions and the Czech Rectors' Conference¹⁵.

Greece

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the overall supervision and operation of the NQF and the coordination of the bodies involved. In particular, it is responsible for:

- developing the NQF and referencing it to the European qualifications framework;
- recognizing outcomes of non-formal education and informal learning;
- referencing the qualifications gained via formal education, non-formal education and informal learning to the NQF levels;
- creating sectoral descriptors in the form of the knowledge, skills and competence that correspond to the levels of the NQF.

Germany

It is mainly the Chambers and politicians (at both Länder and federal levels) who decide on the development of the IVET. The decision-makers influencing these policies are experts from the profession's federations (Fachverbände), of the employers and trade unions or the Federal Institute for Vocational Education (Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung). At the end, the competent Federal Ministry decides on the implementation, after consultation with the Länder.

Italy

The actors involved in the governance framework of the education and training system in Italy may be so represented:

- the Ministry of Education, University and Research has the task of defining the general principles and the basic level of the education system;
- the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy defines and guarantees the basic level of benefits relating to the system of vocational training;
- Regions and Autonomous Provinces have exclusive jurisdiction on education and vocational training both in programming that the management and disbursement training supply;
- the social partners help to define and implement active labour market policies, especially regarding the field of vocational training.

The Constitutional Law no. 3 of 2001 entrusted the State exclusive competence to define general standards in education. The overall responsibility lies with the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR), which operates at the central level, while at the local level, there are the Regional School Offices (USR) and Provincial (USP). The Regions and Autonomous Provinces have expertise in programming offer education and training, school network planning, based on provincial plans, determining the school calendar, contributions to non-state schools. According to the Constitution, the Regions have exclusive competence in the field of vocational education and training and also carry on transferring functions and delegating tasks to the Provinces. The state remains the determination of the essential levels of services that ensure the equal enjoyment of civil and social rights for citizens throughout the national territory.

The Permanent Conference for relations between the state, the regions and the autonomous provinces of Trento and Bolzano is the "privileged place" in the political negotiations between the central government and the system of regional autonomy. The agreement, reached unanimously, is the instrument by which the Government, Regions and Autonomous Provinces coordinate the exercise of their respective powers and the performance of

¹⁵ Source: www.oecd.org (Education Policy outlook: Czech Republic)

activities of public interest in the implementation of the principle of sincere cooperation. The Regions operate in the field of vocational training by defining supply plans with the involvement of the social partners, within moments of consultation and / or consultation offices.

Portugal

The central government has overall responsibility for the education and training system. The *Ministério da Educação* [Ministry of Education] (ME) is traditionally responsible for the educational sector (pre-primary education, basic education, secondary education, school based training and higher education). The *Ministério do Trabalho, Solidariedade e Segurança Social* [Ministry of Labour, Solidarity, and Social Security] (MTSSS) – particularly the *Instituto para o Emprego e Formação Profissional* [Institute for Employment and Vocational Training] (IEFP) – is traditionally responsible for training (IVET, CVET, apprenticeship and Active Labour Market Policies). Overall responsibility for the education and training services lies with central departments of both Ministries that are the key bodies in implementing policy. The two Ministries share the responsibility for *Agência Nacional para a Qualificação e o Ensino Profissional* (ANQEP - National Agency for Qualification and VET). This National Agency is responsible for coordinating the implementation of youth and adult education and vocational training policies.

Non-higher education regional authorities and VET regional authorities (respectively, under the coordination of the ME and MTSSS) are responsible for the implementation of policies at **local level**. The main stakeholders for VET are: (a) internal stakeholders: ANQEP and IEFP, schools and IEFP training centres, certified VET providers, learners, teachers/trainers; (b) external stakeholders: social partners, including confederations of both employers' associations and trade unions that participate in the VET advisory bodies.

At each level of the education and training system several **advisory bodies**, including social partners, deliver views and recommendations. The following two might be relevant for IVET purposes: *Conselho Nacional de Formação Profissional* [National Council for Professional Training]; *Conselho Geral da Agência Nacional de Qualificação e Ensino Profissional* [General Council of the National Agency for Qualifications and VET].

As far as **SSE organisations** are concerned:

The *Cooperativa António Sérgio para a Economia Social* [António Sérgio Cooperative for the Social Economy] (CASES) was created in 2010 (in substitution of the António Sérgio Institute of the Cooperative Sector (INSCOOP) created in 1976) with the main mission to recognize, promote, strengthen and qualify the social economy sector. It is based on a partnership between the State and representative/umbrella organisations of the social economy sector. Its aim is to promote the strengthening of the social economy sector by deepening cooperation between the State and its member organisations. These members include representatives from several families of the social economy (local development organisations, cooperatives, mutual associations, private social solidarity institutions, and Catholic Church organisations) at the same time leaving out others (such as culture, recreation and sports popular associations and non-governmental organisations for development and cooperation).

The *Conselho para a Economia Social* [Council for the Social Economy] is an advisory, evaluation and monitoring body at the level of strategies and policy proposals on issues related to the dynamisation and growth of the social economy. It gathers representatives from the Government, from social economy umbrella organisations, experts on social economy and the president of the CASES.

Romania

At the level of Ministry of Education operates as a specialized body the CNDIPT, National Centre for Development of Vocational and Technical Education. The offer of professional qualifications for TVET is established on the medium and long term and it is adjusted annually based on a model of strategic planning. The decision making is based on decentralization principles and it is distributed between different levels: national, regional, county and local.

Strategic planning is a participatory exercise based on collective action of multiple economic and social partners representing the interests of employers, professional associations, employees / unions, government, relevant

government organisations and other civil society organisations. The social partners mentioned are organised in different structures at regional and county level – Regional/County Consortium and Local Committees for the Development of Social Partnership. According with these 3 types of structure, there are 3 different strategic planning documents: Regional Action Plan for Education – PRAI, Local Action Plan for Education – LEAP, School Action Plan – PAS.

Transversal analysis: constraints, opportunities and perspectives

From more classical forms of SSE (such as cooperatives, associations, integration or insertion enterprises, foundations and charities, credit union, etc.) to contemporary developments (such as self-managed enterprises and the renewal of cooperatives, self-help initiatives, socio-cultural enterprises, ethical finances, local exchanges and trading systems, neighbourhood and/or community economy initiatives, etc.) there is a general movement of institutional recognition, if not at a constitutional level, of SSE initiatives. The classical economy only relying on for-profit private or strictly public management – from an institutional point of view as well as from a societal one – seems no more to be the alpha and omega for management and regulation of the economy. To a significant extent, the recognition of those diverse forms gives the priority to social goals, the criteria of a more open or a democratic governance, or even self-organised collectives, voluntary and free association aiming at common and general interest, building independence or a more balanced relation with the public or for-profit sector. All those aspects bring in many new considerations in the public debate. If there is still a lack of visibility when it comes to SSE as a transformative movement, there is a strong dynamics shared by every country involved, and a clear evolution or shift in how economy as a social fact – and not a mathematical one – is discussed.

Regarding IVET, it seems to be no longer “under-appreciated” as a professional and social path. Its integration in the national educational system is achieving institutional recognition. IVET curricula is linked to the labour market, and as such, it is now seen as an opportunity to improve socially inclusive mechanisms in the educational system. At the same time, the socially embedded vision of SSE seems to echo the emergency to face the social and financial crisis, and built resilience mechanisms – for which education and training are unmissable tools. In that perspective, the design and implementation of national curricula for IVET is understood as a useful tool to discuss professional path opportunities while building a more inclusive society. On both ends, the opportunities to include SSE skills and competences, as well as specific professional path, in IVET curricula are to be build. This will bring technicalities: the different SSE dynamics at play in the European countries will have to build together a common understanding of skills and competences, transversal enough to fit the variety of their initiatives and institutional forms.

In order to better understand the constraints and opportunities for the development of IVET SSE programmes at a European level, we have gathered in the board below the main tendencies shared by the countries involved, regarding the issues examined in this first part.

	Constraints / difficulties	Opportunities / perspectives
SSE definition in different national contexts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → lack of visibility and understanding of what is SSE – confusion between a sector and the civil society movements → unwelcoming or unprepared environment (social and/or institutional) when it comes to help the development of new forms of self-organised initiatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → strengthen the civil society legitimacy to take part to more democratic economic movement – helping share SSE development with a peer to peer approach as well as in an institutional dialogue → harness the economy to stronger social regulation by including SSE references in the law and regulation body – thus strengthening advocacy in any related matter

Vocational Education and Training (and particularly Initial VET) in the general education policies	<p>→ views of IVET exclusively as functional for the labour market (versus the Higher Education model)</p>	<p>→ development of quality hybrid systems such as dual apprenticeship through SSE networks – supported and monitored at European level (for example by gathering networks and umbrella organisations)</p> <p>→ include in training and education social achievement stated by SSE such as integration, reintegration professional and personal development, professional mobility and emancipation</p>
Relevance of IVET with regards to the labour market and to employment policies	<p>→ only considering classical economy tools to measure the success or “social impact” of SSE initiatives</p> <p>→ only targeting the employment rate – not taking into consideration the development of a stronger worker community, outside the “labour market”</p>	<p>→ development of stronger professional path by preparing young citizens to find their vocational area, building their skills, critical thinking and learning, and experience collaborative forms of work, while taking a significant part in their local communities.</p> <p>→ better matching of professional skills with the evolution of concerned sectors (digital influence, mechanical evolution, etc.) and giving SSE a poignant role via its innovative capacities</p> <p>→ SSE taking part as such in institutional cooperation and strategic development at a local and national level, including through a broaden gathering of professional partners</p>
Learning outcomes and evaluation criteria that are requested?	<p>→ designing a division of skills on one hand and knowledge on the other, implying a hierarchic relation between them</p> <p>→ ignorance of less formal competences, especially regarding the cooperation, solidarity and reciprocity dimensions of SSE between workers (as opposed to competition on a labour market)</p>	<p>→ contribute to a more socially oriented, peer learning methodology in SSE IVET programme</p> <p>→ to recognize and correlate the learning outcomes in formal and non-formal education and informal learning, valuing workers experiences and R&D SSE experimentation outcomes</p> <p>→ develop a more open-source educational system, using SSE cooperation mechanism to better share experimentation in learning methodologies through learning outcomes processes</p> <p>→ strengthen traversal skills helping workers mobility considering their aspiration as well as their personal & professional circumstances (aiming at a better “work/life balance”)</p>
National qualification frameworks	<p>→ Restrict and reduce SSE skills to the one designed in some sectors traditionally identified as SSE one (health, social inclusion, etc.)</p>	<p>→ help develop a comprehensive NQF, building bridges and opportunity to join training from one sector to another through SSE transversal skills as well as building a quality reference framework identifying some SSE specifics</p> <p>→ join the national and European conversation on the development of quality work enhancing and implementation</p>

<p>Who and where are the decision makers orienting the policies</p>	<p>→ representation centred on traditional forms or representation of social partners and chambers of industry or economy → SSE being represented as a classic professional sector with classic professional organisation, endangered by isomorphic mechanism</p>	<p>→ SSE stakeholders building a positive dialogue both with other actors of the economy, and with public authorities at every level almost. → strengthen the coordination and confederation mechanism for the recognition, promotion, development and qualification of SSE both at a national and European level</p>
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PART B:

Structure of the IVET system in each country

In the 1990s, several factors contributed to the emergence of the third sector in the national political and academic agendas, inspired by international and European tendencies. In Portugal, a new legislative cycle, led by the socialist party, implemented “a new generation of social policies” as one of the flags of its political programme, where the third sector and the social and solidarity economy performed as new and diffuse concepts. Similar reforms have been made in other countries represented in this project, from Italy to Greece, with the new access countries in the EU joining in a second moment.

In the years following 2000, the Europe 2020 Strategy (COM, 2010) was drafted with a vision for Europe's social market economy for the next decade, based on three interdependent and mutually reinforcing priority areas: smart growth (developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation); sustainable growth (promoting a low-carbon, resource-efficient and competitive economy); and inclusive growth (promoting a high employment rate economy that ensures social and territorial cohesion).

Within the strategy, the objectives set are being assessed through the following targets, taking into account the different starting points in each Member State:

- 75% of the population between the ages of 20 and 64 must be employed;
- 3% of EU GDP should be invested in research and development;
- Meeting the 20/20/20 climate / energy targets;
- Early school leaving rate should be less than 10% and at least 40% of the younger generation must have a higher education diploma;
- 20 million people should no longer be at risk of poverty.

This strategy was created after the financial crisis of 2007-08, which was considered the key factor for the current global recession triggering off the European sovereign-debt crises. In Portugal, the ever-rising interest rates and the weak growth prospects led to a deep recession with high unemployment from 2009 onwards (DGERT, 2014).

All of this has somehow been reflected in the design and implementation of national curricula for IVET, which is the object of our project as far as the introduction of SSE is concerned.

Before we look at the opportunities and constraints of the IVET curricula, we need to have an updated knowledge on the different structures and systems for IVET existing in each of the partners' countries, as well as the general European situation. Partners have been asked to answer the following questions to provide **contextual elements** (from national or European statistical agencies and other sources) at national level.

7) What is the percentage of students who drop out of school?

The first relevant information is about school drop outs, as they are the ones that could most benefit from IVET paths. The population target is young adults from 18 to 25 years who have left the school system without any diploma. In general, this situation is socially stigmatised as a being a handicap to find a job. In each country, the rate of school dropouts has declined between 2008 and 2013 (latest available data). In that perspective, students dropping school might reach the “NEET” situation described below.

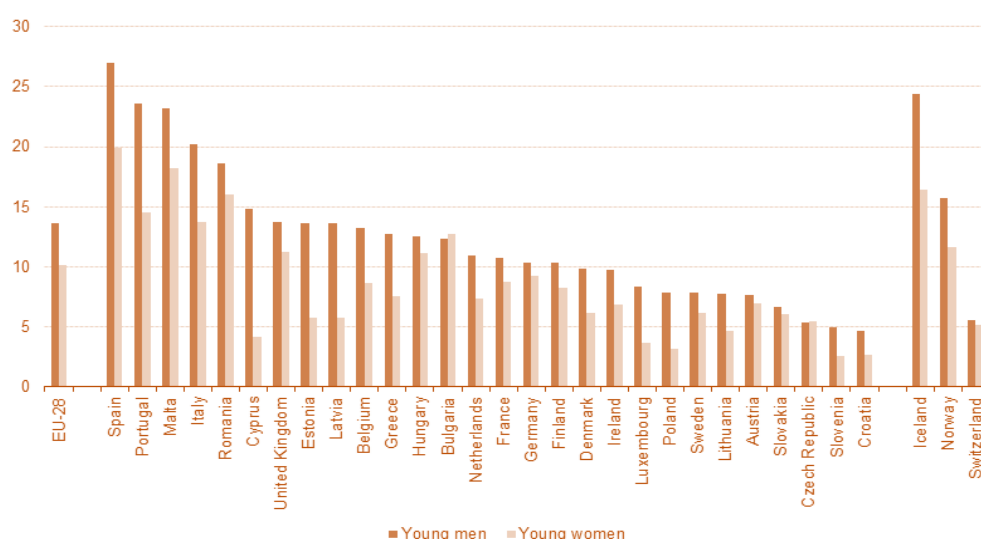
The table below shows some significant difference between low rates of school drop outs (Germany, Czech Republic, 6 to 7%) versus countries with high rates (Italy, Portugal, Bulgaria, 13 to 15 %) to dramatically high (Greece, Romania, up to 20%). When available, the data show a gap between male and female: young men leave

school more than young women. Alleged reasons (Romania) are “most frequently precarious economic situation, disorganised family, parents working abroad, lack of attractive jobs for young people, consumerist models”. In Greece it has to do with “the ongoing economic crisis (...) Most of the kids forced to drop out of high school come from extremely poor families, and the choice to leave school in order to seek work is one, based on pure survival needs”. This is coherent with what Germany’s data show: “in the Eastern Länder it is considerably higher” (...) the worst being “the Mecklenburg-Pomerania (16.2%), in particular the city of Wismar, where one in four students does not finish high school (Rheinisch-Westfälisches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung, 2016)”.

Percentage of students who drop out of school (early leavers) ¹⁶				
EU (2013)	Average rate 11%		Highest rate	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Germany	7.2%		9.40% to 16.2%	
Czech Republic	6.20%			
	6.4%	6.00%		
Portugal	13.70%			
	16.40%	11.00%		
Greece	>20%			
Bulgaria	13.40%			
Romania	19.1% ¹⁷			
Italy	15,00%			
	17.7%	12.2%		

(Note: all the data are not issued from the same source and might not refer to the same year)

For some comparison see the following figures:



Early leavers (%) from education and training aged 18 to 24, 2008 and 2013¹⁸

¹⁶ Source: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Being_young_in_Europe_today_-_education#Main_tables

¹⁷ Monitorul educației și formării 2016 Educație și formare România (https://ec.europa.eu/education/sites/education/files/monitor2016-ro_ro.pdf)

¹⁸ Source: Eurostat (edat_ifse_14)

8) What is the percentage of NEETs (Not in Education, Employment or Training)?

Most data available focused on young adults, 15 to 24 year old, who meet the following two conditions (Czech Republic, Romania definition): (a) they are not employed (i.e. unemployed or inactive according to the International Labour Organisation definition) and (b) they have not received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey. Data are expressed as a percentage of the total population in the same age group and sex, excluding the respondents who have not answered the question "participation to education and training".

According to a 2014 OECD report, some 60% of the 15-29 year-olds NEETs in Germany did not participate in the labour force in 2012 and 40% were unemployed (the OECD averages, excluding Chile and Japan, are 56% and 44%, respectively).¹⁹ Portugal indicates that the increasing rate of NEET people has boosted the will to organise adjusted means to meet the problem.

Percentage of NEETs (Not in Education, Employment or Training)		
UE	Average rate: 16.1%	
Germany	10% (15-29) (2012)	Decrease since the economic crisis
Czech Republic	7.50%	
Portugal	12.6% (2006) to 17.5% (2015)	Increase/ mostly women
Greece	20-25 %	Issued from UE labour survey
Bulgaria	25.6%	Eurostat 2016
Romania	16.5%	
Italy	20.9% (3 rd trimester of 2016) - increase from 19% in 2010	21.2% female and 20.5% male

Moreover, young foreign-born residents in the EU also have a higher tendency to abandon formal education prematurely. In the EU, the share of early leavers among migrants in 2015 was almost twice as high as for natives (19.0% compared with 10.1%)²⁰. Language difficulties, leading to underachievement and lack of motivation, are one possible reason. Increased risk of social exclusion due to lower socioeconomic status is another. Educational systems may also exacerbate these circumstances if they are not set up to respond to the special needs of pupils from vulnerable groups.

9) What are the unemployment levels (by age/sector)?

The next information we looked at was about unemployment, as registered by statistics addressing the traditional labour market. The data below are issued from the very last publication of Eurostat available for this research²¹. According to Eurostat (December 2016), 20 065 thousand people were unemployed in Europe in November 2016 (8.3% of working population), with 15 898 thousand inside the Euro zone (9.8%). In September 2016, the unemployment rate had gone below the symbolic stage of 10% in the zone, for the first time since April 2011. Though it's still high, the rate has declined between December 2015 and November 2016 (minus 970 000 people)²².

¹⁹ OECD Report 2014.

²⁰ Eurostat – Europe 2020 indicators (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Europe_2020_indicators_-_education#cite_note-3)

²¹ Sources: Le taux de chômage dans l'Union européenne – Eurostat, Le taux de chômage des jeunes dans l'Union européenne - Eurostat - décembre 2016

²² <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/2995521/7844069/3-31012017-CP-EN.pdf/f7a98d76-13bc-4586-9e25-9e206e9b6f02>

Unemployment levels (as of November 2016)		
	General rate of unemployment	Rate of unemployed young people (under 25)
EU	9.80%	
Germany	4.10%	6.9%
Czech Republic	3.70%	10.7%
Portugal	10.80%	28.9%
Greece	23.40%	46.5%
Bulgaria	7.10%	14.5%
Romania	5.80%	20.4%
Italy	11.60%	36.4%

As can be seen in the table above, an amplitude of 20 points separates extremes between the lowest group, the Czech Republic (3.7 %), Germany, (4.7 %) and the highest in Greece (23.4 %). In October 2016, 4,169 million of young people under 25 years were unemployed in UE, a rate of 18.4%, with 2,939 million in the euro zone. Germany is the only country where the rate of youth unemployment is under 10% (6.9%), *but there are high regional differences between Southern and Eastern / Northern Länder, and sectors. For example, in the hairdressers' jobs, for young painters and for chefs, the unemployment rate of young people was 20% each in 2011.* Higher levels are to be found in Czech Republic (10.7%), and then Bulgaria (14.5%).

The level of unemployment is related to the level of qualification, as shown by the Bulgarian report where the rate of unqualified unemployed people goes to 56.4 % and supposedly are among the long term unemployed for more than one year (31.6%). The highest are in Greece (46.5%), Italy (36.4%), and Portugal (28.9%). In Portugal, "youth unemployment skyrocketed from 13.3% in the second quarter of 2008 to 34.3% in the same quarter of 2013". In Greece, "the rate of unemployment of young women is even bigger than the standard rate".

10) What are the self-employment trends (by age/sector)?

What the unemployment statistics only partially capture is a trend towards self-managed work activities, in forms that are either freelancing or, in most cases, precarious. Here again, it is quite difficult to agglomerate the data from the different country reports. In order to get a comparative scheme, we have used one unique reference that is *Self-employment in Europe (January 2015)*²³. Two countries are missing in this report, so we used the information of their reports, which were not expressed in percentage for the Bulgarian one.

Self-employment trends		
UE	13.50%	32.5 million self-employed
Germany	10.30%	Heterogeneous as it comprises self-employed workers from the liberal professions, persons who are pursuing freelance activities as well as others engaging in low-paid professions. The number of self-employed workers has risen steadily in the last couple of years but only until 2010. Germany has seen jobs growth of 1.5 million since 2010, all of which has occurred in employee (but also precarious) jobs. In fact, there are now fewer self-employed workers in Germany than there were in 2010.

²³ Self-employment in Europe, Institute for Public Policy Research Izzy Hatfield, January 2015 (http://www.ippr.org/files/publications/pdf/self-employment-Europe_Jan2015.pdf?noredirect=1)

Czech Republic	17.1%	Since 2005, the number of own-account workers showed the highest growth, by over one fourth
Portugal	15.3%	Decreasing. 21.7%, the value of 2013 and the lowest rate since 1990. Portugal is the European Union (EU) country with the highest percentage of self-employed in the agricultural sector.
Greece	30.40%	Stressed at being one if not the only way to create one's own salary, although they are mostly precarious. Highest rate of SE in agriculture
Bulgaria	NA	Out of 943 109 self-employed people, the main areas are the following: 553 609 are in agriculture and forestry, 193 365 in wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; transportation and storage; accommodation and food service activities, 55 798 mining and quarrying; manufacturing; electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities, 42 522 professional, scientific and technical activities; administrative and support service activities.
Romania	18.9%	self-employed and member of agricultural society or cooperative (24.3% men and 12.3% women), unpaid family worker (7.0% men and 19.5% women) and owner (1.6% men and 0.8% women) The number of young entrepreneurs who own companies in the IT sector has grown since then of 53.4%, while in the services for buildings and landscaping it is 51.5% more and 25% in restaurant-related services. The increment in the activities of management of holiday accommodation and short stays is even higher, 55.6%.
Italy	21.9%	According to the research by Censis ²⁴ , in Italy there are 1 155 000 enterprises managed by people under 40 years of age, the highest in Europe. Moreover, in Italy the number of start-ups is growing – in September 2016 there were 6363 more – 70.52% of which is about services for enterprises. Start-ups with a majority of youth (under 35) are 22.4% of the total. ²⁵

The information is very heterogeneous: some include only enterprises owned and managed by a single person, some are focused on farming as well as unpaid family workers. In some countries, the trend is decreasing (Portugal), in others increasing (Greece) as it is seen as the only way to earn a salary.

For example, in Greece 13.7 % of the active population work in agriculture, while in Portugal the percentage is 10.2%, compared to 3% in France, 1.4 % in Germany and 1% in the United Kingdom. In Italy, according to a research by Censis statistical agency and commissioned by Confcooperative in 2016, the youth under 29 y.o. who had an enterprise in their name were 175 thousand. Although since 2009 there has been a decrease in the number of youth-led enterprises, there are sectors which have a very positive trend. The number of young entrepreneurs who own companies in the IT sector has grown since then of 53.4%, while in the services for buildings and landscaping it is 51.5% more and 25% in restaurant-related services. The increment in the activities of management of holiday accommodation and short stays is even higher, 55.6%.

Young business owners are 41.1% in the South of Italy, 40.1% in the North and 18.5% in the centre. Enterprises led by young people represent 9.8% of Italian companies, but the percentage of those opened in the first months of 2016 has grown to 31.1%. According to the research by Censis²⁶, in Italy there are 1155000 enterprises managed by people under 40 years of age, the highest in Europe, in front of UK (990 100), Poland (988 200), Romania (902 200), Spain (691 100), France (568 900) and Germany (511 400). Moreover, in Italy the number of start-ups is growing: in September 2016 there were 6 363 more, 70.52% of which is about services for enterprises. Start-ups, mostly composed by youngsters (under 35) are 22.4% of the total.²⁷

²⁴ Source: www.censis.it

²⁵ Source: Infocamere (www.infocamere.it)

²⁶ Source: www.censis.it

²⁷ Source Infocamere (www.infocamere.it)

11) How many workers are there in SSE enterprises and organisations?

In the Eastern European countries where the SSE model is more recent, it is quite difficult to find information, since most people who actually work in entities that would be included in SSE often do not recognise SSE as such. On the other hand, the way data is collected depends on the acceptance of each entity and of the cultural context. In Portugal, for example, the data shows a high involvement of churches in social organisations. The Czech report underlines that the following legal forms meet the definition of non-profit institutions in the Republic for the year of 2014: Foundations, Endowment Funds, Generally beneficial companies, Institutions, Public universities, School-corporations, Trade unions and employers' organisations, Associations, Political parties, Political movements, Church organisations, Branches of a Company, Professional organisation/chambers, Other chambers (excluding professional ones), Associations of legal persons, Hunting communities.

Germany provides data coming from 2 sources and although it is questionable whether they can be compared, they show a growth of half a million jobs in SSE between 2000 and 2012. Greece gives details on coops, in particular showing that the majority of them are in the agricultural sector (6 376 out of 7 197).

The table below is an attempt to make the information comparable, but as some reports didn't fulfil all the items, it is not easy to find out what are the percentages of the whole workforce involved in SSE in each country. Moreover, the definition of SSE is quite different from one country to another. Here we will have mostly numbers by legal form of the enterprise / organisation. More details are to be found in the countries' reports.

Number of SSE related entities per country (workers in cooperatives, social enterprises, NGOs, non-profit organisations and associations)								
Germany	Source	Coops	Mutuals	Associations	Church orgs.	Foundations	Community Mgmt.	Total
2000	²⁸	466 900	15 000	1 414 937	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2 031 837
2012	²⁹	830 258	86 500	1 541 829	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2 458 587
Czech Republic	Source	Coops	Mutuals	Associations	Church orgs.	Foundations	Community Mgmt.	Total
Workers Volunteers	³⁰	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	107 243 26 414
Portugal	Source	Coops	Mutuals	Associations	Church orgs.	Foundations	Community Mgmt.	Total
Workers Entities	³¹	24 316 2117	4 896 111	140 050 57 196	35 469 389	10 871 578	361 877	215 963 61 268
Greece	Source	Coops	Mutuals	Associations	Church orgs.	Foundations	Community Mgmt.	Total
Workers Entities	³²	14 983 7197	1140 11	100 000 50 000	1000 600	n.a.	n.a.	11 712 000 n.a.
Bulgaria	Source	Coops	NGO's	Coops for	Social	Foundations	Community	Total

²⁸ CIRIEC Report 2000 (http://www.ciriec.ulg.ac.be/en/page_category/studies-reports/)

²⁹ European Economic and Social Affairs Committee 2012

³⁰ Sources: http://apl.czso.cz/pll/rocnka/rocnka.indexnu_sat,
http://apl.czso.cz/pll/rocnka/rocnkavyber.satelit_cas?mylang=CZ&co=supl

³¹ Social Economy Satellite Account (SESA) main figures

³² Eurostat report 2012

				disabled	enterprises		Mgmt.	
Workers Entities	³³	500 000 2 000 ³⁴	35 000	1 200 131	85	n.a.	n.a.	n.a
Romania	Source	Coops	Association Foundation	Unions	Company	Foundations	Community Mgmt.	Total
%	³⁵	6.00%	85.00%	7.00%	2.00%	n.a.	n.a.	131 127
Italy	Source	Coops	Social Coop	Associations	Associations with institutions	Foundations	Other Non-profit	Total
Workers %	³⁶	835 579 46.7%	365 006 20.4%	228 270 12.7%	113 416 6.3%	113 416 6.1%	140 476 7.8%	1 792 703

12) Which are the public institutions who promote, are dedicated to or regulate IVET?

The training mostly takes place at secondary level in school and are under either the State National Education Ministry or Regional decentralized educational structures (or both). But as we have seen, youngsters drop out at this stage, which means that States have to provide other means to educate and train them. In the table below, we have listed the main public authorities and their role in regulating and promoting Vocational Education and Training. Besides the public institutions, there is a variety of different private agencies are involved in IVET, including job agencies, Chambers of commerce, institutes specialized in vocational training and even enterprises. We had no ways to measure the efficiency of such a wide range of providers in terms of coordination and coherence with the policies set out by the public authorities.

Public institutions and IVET		
Country	Authorities	Role
Germany	Landers	The training takes place in the so-called secondary level 2 of education, after the general education primary level 1 and secondary level 1.
	Federal Institute for VET (BIBB)	The dual system integrating work-based and school- based learning to prepare apprentices for a successful transition to full -time employment. Technical schools, in occupational field-or occupational construction schools
Czech Republic	National Institute for Education Education Counselling Centre Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (NÚV) The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MŠMT) Schools' founders (usually municipalities) Czech Chamber of Commerce (section for education)	
Portugal	Ministry of Education (ME)	The national reform of VET in Portugal

³³ Different sources. Here are the numbers issued by the Ministry of Economy and Energy (MEE), which follows the National Social Economy Concept's definition of social enterprises

³⁴ Excluding the social ones

³⁵ Atlas of Social Economy, conducted by the Foundation for Civil Society Development

³⁶ 9° general census of industry and services of 2011, made by the National Statistics Institute (Istat) and analysed by Isfol in 2014

	<p>Ministry of Labour, Solidarity, and Social Security (MTSSS)</p> <p>Directorate-General for Employment and Labour Relations (DGERT)</p> <p>Directorate-General for Innovation and Curricular Development</p> <p>Institute for Employment and Vocational Training] (IEFP) – under MTSSS responsibility</p> <p>Agency for Qualification and VET (ANQEP) – under MTSSS and ME responsibility</p>	<p>(2007) defends a shared governance of the system including all relevant stakeholders</p>
Greece	<p>Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs</p> <p>Decentralised structures of the Ministry of Education's Vocational Orientation Guidance and Educational Activities Directorate (SEPED)</p>	<p>According to the new law regulating secondary education (Law 186/2013), which aims among other things to attract more students into VET, students now have the following options in addition to the general upper secondary school:</p> <p>a) initial vocational education within the formal education system in the second cycle of secondary education at a vocational upper secondary school (day or evening school); (b) initial vocational training outside the formal education system (referred to as non-formal) in vocational training schools (SEK), vocational training institutes (IEK), centres for lifelong learning and colleges.</p>
Bulgaria	<p>The National Assembly</p> <p>Commission in education, science and issues related to children, youth and sports established as part of the Parliament</p> <p>The Council of Ministers</p> <p>The Ministry of Education, Youth and Science manages</p> <p>Ministry of Culture</p> <p>Ministry of Health (MH)</p> <p>The National Agency for Vocational Education and Training (NAVET)</p> <p>Human Resource Development Centre – National Agency,</p>	<p>Implements legislative acts</p> <p>Defines the state policy</p> <p>Coordinates and controls the implementation of the state policy</p> <p>Ratifies the State Educational Requirements (SER) for the acquisition of professional qualification</p> <p>Implements the state policy in art schools.</p> <p>Coordination of the List of Vocational Education and Training Professions</p> <p>Develops the State Educational Requirements for the vocational education and training system and the List of the Vocational Education and Training Professions.</p> <p>Coordinates the management and administration of the Lifelong Learning Programme</p>
Romania	<p>Ministry of Education</p>	<p>Develops strategies and policies, approves curriculum, national standards of assessment</p>

	<p>County School Inspectorates, the representative of the Ministry at county level</p> <p>Ministry of Labour and Social Justice – through its county departments</p> <p>National Agency for Employment (NAE)</p> <p>National Centre for Technical and Vocational Education Development (CNDIPT)</p>	<p>Ensures the policies implementation at regional and local levels, counselling and monitoring VET schools performance responsible for retraining and continuing education of the workforce</p> <p>Implements policies and strategies on employment and training for those seeking a job.</p> <p>Has a major role in ensuring the quality and elaborating the National Quality Assurance Framework (CNAC)</p>
Italy	<p>Regions with delegation to other local authorities the management of some parts</p> <p>State-Region agreement of December 2010 on the “organic collaborations between education and vocational training”</p>	<p>Re-organised around 3 areas, two subsidiarity models.</p> <p>(a) The integrative model: the end of the third year out of the five-year courses of the State professional institutes (IP) acquirement of the title of professional qualification.</p> <p>(b) The complementary one: title of or diploma of professional qualification of IeFP, which is competence of the Regions, through the classes which are activated in the State professional institutes.</p> <p>Intended to combine education with a specific vocational training</p>

13) What are the main norms and regulations on IVET and how are they applied/enforced?

Some countries (Germany, Portugal, and Italy) have a long standing system of vocational training. In others (such as in (Romania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic and Greece), VET and IVET have been more recently implemented. They are all under the responsibility of the Ministry of education, because all the countries provide vocational trainings inside the public school system from the secondary level up to the third and even the fourth. Some other ministries may also be implied (e.g., the Ministry of labour). Aside from the national school system, there are possibilities for private institutions to deliver vocational training, but then they have to comply with the national requirements and approval of their curricula.

The table below shows the laws related to the dimensions they are targeted to. It helps for an overview and comparison of the countries' systems.

Main norms and regulations on IVET		
Country	Law	Target
Germany	Regulated through the BBiG (the National Law regulating the vocational training), there are now 330 <i>Ausbildungsberufe</i> (Apprenticeships) nationwide listed.	In Germany, for most trades, the first examination takes place about half-way through the vocational training and is only to test how well the student is doing so far: the marks do not go towards the final exam. Both exams are organised by the <u>small business</u> trade group and <u>chamber of commerce</u> and industry. Examinations for trained <u>artisans</u> are traditionally known as <u>journeyman's</u> tests (<i>Gesellenprüfung</i>).

Czech Republic	<p>Act on pre-school, basic, secondary, tertiary technical and other education – School Act The Higher Education Act</p> <p>The Act on pedagogical staff</p> <p>The Employment Act</p> <p>The National curricula (or Framework Educational Programmes) incorporated into the education system of the Czech Republic by law No. 561/2004 amended in 2015 by the Decree No. 82/2015.</p>	<p>Vocational education and training up to the level of tertiary professional schools</p> <p>Higher education institutions</p> <p>Definition of the position of pedagogical staff, requirements for the performance of the occupation, continuing training and career system.</p> <p>Training provided within the public employment services</p> <p>The general obligatory framework for creating school curricula (School Educational Programmes) for all fields of study in preschool, basic education, art, language and secondary education. Framework Educational Programmes were Coll. on Preschool, Basic, Secondary, Tertiary Professional and Other Education (the School Act).</p>
	<p>The Framework Educational Programmes determine especially: concrete objectives, forms, length and content of both general and vocational education (based on the field of education), their organisational structure, professional profile, conditions of education and the procedures of the final evaluation, as well as the main principles for the development of the school curricula (School Educational Programmes). Conditions for education of students with special educational needs and the necessary material, personal and organisational conditions, as well as conditions of work safety and protection of health.</p> <p>The Framework Educational Programmes (FEP) must reflect the latest findings in: scientific disciplines whose basic principles and their practical usage are communicated within the curriculum, pedagogy and psychology which focus on effective teaching methods and organisation of the curriculum, while taking into account the student's age.</p> <p>Every school creates its own curriculum – so called School Educational Programme – in accordance with the FEP and the rules which they set up and must work in accordance with the given FEP.</p> <p>Within the context of the school curriculum, the learning content may be offered in coherent blocks of learning, such as subjects or modules.</p> <p>A School Educational Programme for which has not been issued a national curricula yet must determine objectives, length, forms, content and time schedule of its educational programme, the conditions of the applicants' acceptance, the process of final evaluation of education, the conditions for the education of students with special educational needs, as well as the processes for the certification³⁷.</p>	

³⁷ Source: Czech National curricula (<http://www.nuv.cz/our-work/framework>)

Portugal	Vocational Training Reform Agreement (in 2007)	<p>Implementation of the double certification for training courses that are accredited for the purposes of academic and/or vocational certification. It also aimed to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - establish the National System of Qualification; - enhance the reform of the system for the accreditation of training entities; - strengthen the qualifications of trainers and the involvement of social partners in the supervision and encouragement of vocational training for employees.
	DGERT (2014)	<p>The process of education and training certification called double certification: (a) to promote the parity of esteem between general education and VET; (b) to open pathways, either at educational and training levels and, thus, to make VET more attractive for learners.</p>
<p>The training offered by courses leading to a double certification are the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - VET programmes at basic education level. They award qualifications at level 2 of the national (QNQ) and the European qualifications framework (EQF). - VET programmes at secondary education level. Successful learners are granted both a secondary level education certificate and an occupational qualification at EQF level 4, which may lead either to employment or further education, including higher education. - Apprenticeship programmes. Successful learners are granted double certification at EQF level 4. - Programmes at post-secondary non-tertiary level. These programmes award qualifications at EQF level 4 (VET programmes for young people) or 5 (technological specialisation programmes) and a technological specialisation diploma. 		
Greece	Law on secondary education (Law 4186/2013)	<p>Acquisition of certificates recognised nationally by public authorities, and is part of the education ladder. Formal education also includes education for adults. Vocational education is provided by the vocational upper secondary school. These schools (public or private) are founded exclusively by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs and may be day or evening schools. The minimum age for enrolment in a vocational evening school is 16.</p>
	The Lifelong Learning Act (Law 3879/2010)	<p>Defines as 'non-formal' education provided in an organised framework outside the formal education system which can lead to nationally recognized qualifications. It includes initial vocational training, continuous vocational training and adult learning.</p>
	General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning (GSLL) of the Ministry of Education	<p>Supervises providers of vocational training (public or private). Ensures it tends to meet the market jobs needs. Curricula developed and overseen by the GSLL and certified by the Eoppep.</p>
	<p>The public vocational upper secondary schools offer the specialities that are listed in the legislation. The programmes are organised by sector, group and speciality, with most sectors offering two or more such as information science, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering/electronics/automation, construction, environment and natural resources, administration and economics, agronomy-food technology and nutrition, and occupations in the merchant marine (captain, mechanic).</p> <p>For the "apprenticeship year", the responsibility for students' work placements and associated matters is shared by EPAL and OAED. "Apprenticeship year" programmes are financed through national and/or EU funds, with no contribution from the participating enterprises, in contrast to most other European countries that implement apprenticeship systems.</p>	

Bulgaria	Vocational Education and Training Act: - VETA (1999)	Provides for the legislation of the initial vocational education and the continuing vocational education.
	Public Education Act - PEA (1991) The Degree of Education, the General Education Minimum and the Curriculum Act (1999)	Provides for the basic legislation of the education: regulates the right of the citizens continuously to enhance their education and qualification;
	The State Educational Requirements (SER)	The State Educational Requirements for the degree of education, the general education minimum and the curriculum with the system of the public education. Among others, the evaluation system; the vocational education and training; the acquisition of qualification per professions; the teacher's legal capacity and qualification
	The Crafts Act (2001)	Rules and requirements for crafts training
	The Recognition of the Vocational Qualifications Act 2008	Requirements and procedure for recognition of vocational qualifications acquired in other member-states and in third countries
<p>According to the VET Act from 1999 the main objective of initial vocational education and training is acquiring a professional qualification and general education. Several framework programmes approved by the Minister of Education and Science specify age, entry and exit education and qualification level of candidates, content, duration and opportunities for upgrading vocational education and training.</p> <p>The number of class hours for practical training is not less than the number of class hours for theoretical training.</p> <p>To organise practice in real working environment, each school is required to enter an agreement with the respective enterprise.</p>		
Romania	2013 (Order of the Ministry of National Education 3136/2013)	Vocational education training <i>for a period of 3 years after completing eighth grade</i> . Importantly, the contract of practical training for each student is a prerequisite for approving school offer.
	2014 (Government Emergency Ordinance 94/2014)	Introduced technical and professional training organised in a dual system. It combines vocational training organised by an enterprise in collaboration with a school institution. Responsibility for the organisation and operation is shared between the enterprise and the school "(art. 25.4).
	<p>2017-2018 school year will be a pilot project for dual vocational education system in Romania. This type of education can be organised in independent professional schools or technological high schools, accredited. Dual vocational education system targets students who have completed eighth grade. Theoretical training is realized in school and practical stage is organised by the economic operator, partner of the school, as follows:</p> <p>class IX – 20% in enterprise and 80% in training school; class X – 60% in enterprise and 40% in training school; class XI – 70% in enterprise and 30% in training school.</p>	

Italy	<p>Framework law 845/78</p> <p>Law No 53 of March 28, 2003 and subsequent Legislative Decree No. 226 of October 17, 2005</p>	<p>Basic principles / established the regional competence.</p> <p>Relevant references for professional training outline the system of initial vocational training in relation to the secondary school courses (high schools) and the world of work: the alternation between school and work, apprenticeships, the certification of skills acquired with practical activities carried out through internships.</p>
	<p>2011: agreement in the Conference State-Regions and Autonomous Provinces on</p> <p>2011: Legislative Decree No 167</p> <p>2012: Law 92 art. 4,</p> <p>2015: Law 107</p>	<p>Integrated connections between IeFP and vocational education.</p> <p>Consolidated Law on apprenticeships</p> <p>General rules and minimum standards for a national system of certification of skills.</p> <p>Reform of the national system of education and training, revival of the school-work alternation (guidelines October 2015).³⁸</p>

14) What are the access requirements for students/learners?

There is a large variety of prerequisites for young people to be accepted in an initial vocational training school, with a wide difference from country to country. There is no formal condition in Germany, except for the age limits. In the Czech Republic, an entry examination is required. Some permeability between secondary level and vocational training in Portugal is possible. In Romania, a contract is an obligation. In Italy students must have completed the first education cycle.

As most early school leavers have no diploma at all, it would be better not to ask any kind of prerequisite to ensure equal access to a second chance to education.

Access requirements for students / learners	
Country	Criteria
Germany	Formally no precondition , but due to scarcity of enterprises offers, some selection (level of achievement at school level) ; enterprises poorly willing to run apprenticeships. Companies are often highly specialized and unable to train apprentices in all the required areas.
Czech Republic	For upper secondary level the basic school performance is a principal criterion, while most schools also require to pass an entry examination. A minimum requirement for admission to higher education studies is the completion of secondary education . For Tertiary professional schools, applicants must have completed upper secondary education. Eventually the school director decides for an entrance examination
Portugal	Admission requirements in terms of age and educational background . Permeability is ensured between general and VET programmes. At basic education level : be over 15 and first cycle of basic education completed (four years). At secondary education level : be over 15 and basic education completed. Apprenticeship programmes : be below 25 and basic education completed. Post-secondary non-tertiary level : to be over 18 , have acquired EQF level 4 or be in the last year of secondary education or have a higher education diploma. Vocational programme in basic education, Law nº 85/2009 (Assembleia da República, 2009). In the academic year 2012/13, vocational programmes for youngsters aged 13+ were introduced

³⁸ For more information, cfr. ISFOL, 2016 "XIV Rapporto di monitoraggio delle azioni formative realizzate nell'ambito del diritto-dovere".

	in basic education as a pilot. They were launched in 13 schools and have been gradually extended to schools that gather technical and pedagogical conditions recognised by the <i>Direção-Geral dos Estabelecimentos Escolares</i> [Directorate General for Educational Establishments] (DGEstE), however they do not have a national coverage yet.
Greece	Not available
Bulgaria	<p>There are four degrees of professional qualification and the minimum entry educational level for acquiring the respective degrees of professional qualification varies.</p> <p>First degree – acquiring professional competences for practising professions which include routine activities carried out under permanent conditions: completed 6th grade is required;</p> <p>Second degree – acquiring professional competences for practising professions which include activities of complex nature carried out under changing conditions: completed 7th degree or primary education is required;</p> <p>Third degree – acquiring professional competences for practising professions which include activities of complex nature carried out under changing conditions, as well as assuming responsibility for the work of other persons: completed 7th degree or primary education is required</p> <p>Fourth degree – acquiring professional competences for practising professions which include a wide range of activities of complex nature carried out under changing conditions, as well as assuming managerial responsibilities for the work of other persons and for the allocation of resources: completed secondary education is required.</p>
Romania	<p>Order no. 5068/2016 from 2016 establishes registration only by students who have completed 8th classes.</p> <p>In certain circumstances, the school may organise a pre-selection of candidates or an additional exam.</p> <p><i>Pre-selection</i> can be requested by the company partner for apprenticeship programmes, if the company offers financial support for students. The conditions to organise the preselection have to be approved by the advisory board of school. Additional exam is conducted only if the number of candidates is greater than the number of places offered by the school.</p> <p>The admission procedure is approved by the advisory board of the school and it must include: the methodology to calculate the admission average and the methodology of selecting candidates with equal admission average; study subjects for exam; exam schedule; scales of assessment.</p>
Italy	The only access requirement for students is the possession of the final title of the first education cycle .

15) What are the teacher's requirements to enable them to teach in IVET institutions?

The trainers are mostly qualified as much as teachers: tertiary education and diploma with specialized training such as pedagogy or special matters to be taught. In Greece trainers, can be hired also under their professional competence and are due to work in another job.

Teacher's requirements	
Germany	School teachers are certified at universities for public school training provision, whereas In enterprises, trainers have to be accredited through a qualifying examination at the chambers (<i>Ausbildereignungsprüfung</i>).
Czech Republic	<p>Act 379/2015 Coll. on Pedagogical Staff sets Prerequisites and requirements for performing activities of a pedagogical worker:</p> <p>be fully qualified to carry out direct educational function</p> <p>be without a criminal record, be in appropriate health, prove his/her knowledge of the Czech language, be legally capable</p> <p>A teacher of vocational subjects to be taught at secondary schools shall acquire professional qualifications through higher education by completing an accredited master's study</p>

	<p>programme: in the field of pedagogical sciences or focused on educating teachers of vocational subjects to be taught at secondary schools; or in a field appropriate to the nature of the subject to be taught or by completing a programme of life-long learning organised by a higher education institution, or by studying pedagogy as a major subject at a higher education institution.</p> <p>A teacher of practicum shall acquire professional qualifications through: tertiary professional education by completing an accredited educational programme at a tertiary professional school in a field appropriate to the nature of subjects to be taught in practicum and through higher education by completing an accredited bachelor's study programme in the field of pedagogical sciences focused on educating secondary school teachers, or by completing a life-long learning programme organised by a higher education institution and focused on educating secondary school teachers, or by studying pedagogy.</p>
Portugal	<p>Certification of individual VET trainers and of VET providers is mandatory in the Portuguese VET system and it constitutes one of the foundation stones, among others (e.g. external evaluation studies, audits, regulations), of the mechanism to ensure VET system (DGERT, 2014). Ministry of Labour, Solidarity and Social Security the basic conditions: either a higher education degree or a professional experience and a pedagogical certificate plus knowledge of National Qualifications System] (SNQ), particularly of the different available VET paths. Completion with on-going education and specialized training for teachers based on training courses, training workshops, study circles, short courses, internships and projects.</p>
Greece	<p>Teachers and trainers are mainly tertiary education graduates. In some cases, the bodies are use as trainers, persons that are not tertiary education graduates but have an extensive work experience. A teacher/trainer may work with different providers, work as an employee and/or be self-employed.</p>
Bulgaria	<p>Qualification degree Bachelor or Master in the relevant professional field and acquired professional qualification of "Teacher", acquired during the Bachelor or Master in higher school or after graduation. Regulated by one of the special decrees of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science, in effect since 1997.</p> <p>transition to a higher position after an assessment conducted by a special committee against specified criteria: achieved results during work with students, use of interactive methods and information and communication technologies in training, work with students who have won competitions, work within school projects, support of students at risk of exclusion, work on methodology and assistance to newly appointed teachers, etc.</p>
Romania	No relevant information
Italy	<p>The Regions must ensure that education and training activities are entrusted to qualified teachers to teach and experts who possess documented experience in the professional field of reference developed in at least five years (Legislative Decree No 226/2005). The choice of trainers is up to each educational institution.</p>

16) Are there private or public-private IVET organisations/institutions?

As we've seen, the IVET system can be both public and private, in particular enterprises are particularly used as partners to help find jobs at the end of a training course. More and more internships, or on-the-job trainings are seen as the best way to help students get adjusted to jobs expectations. When private, the agencies have, nevertheless, to comply with the national and /or regional educational framework and get accredited for their courses.

By equipping youth with the skills they need in the labour market, quality apprenticeships can be an effective way of improving employment opportunities and promote a smoother transition from school to formal sector employment. In the first instance, they can provide a learning pathway for youth at risk of dropping out early from initial education. This is particularly important as the lack of a secondary qualification is strongly associated across countries with poor labour market performance. By combining work and study, apprenticeship

programmes can help attract and retain youth who have become disaffected with classroom-based schooling and are better suited to learning on the job.

In addition, apprenticeships provide a good mix of basic competences and job-specific skills, they usually allow participants to earn a wage while studying, and they offer valuable work experience.³⁹

Public-private IVET organisations and accreditation system	
Germany	<p>Most of the training takes place in private enterprises, and additionally in public vocational schools.</p> <p>Some third sector organisations provide training and courses for 2-3 days a week, sometimes in block courses.</p> <p>Although the dual education system is generally considered to be exemplary, an increasing number of young people are taking vocational education and training (VET) courses at training sites and schools rather than in real companies, as for various reasons, companies are becoming less willing to take on apprentices. To counter this, the <u>government</u> considered making it compulsory for firms to take on apprentices. This idea, however, was dropped when the trade associations agreed to a voluntary training pact.</p>
Czech Republic	<p>Majority of IVET organisations are public, however there are also some private or church IVET institutions. Any institution providing the formal education must be accredited by Ministry (MSMT)</p>
Portugal	<p>VET providers include public, technological and professional schools; universities and other tertiary institutions; training centres of direct management and training professional centres of participated management (both related to the Institute for Employment and Vocational Training); private training centres).</p> <p>The accreditation of a VET provider needs:</p> <p>(a) an evaluation of the existing conditions (resources and practices) in relation to the certification reference framework, and (b) a technical assessment of such dimensions as the correlation between training objectives and training content, trainers' professional competences and minimal requirements for buildings and equipment needed for the specific types of training.</p>
Greece	<p>The newly-established SEK which replace the previous EPAS can be public or private and provide initial vocational training to those who have completed compulsory education. The programmes are of three years' duration; there are no tuition fees at public schools. Students who are over 20 or employed attend evening vocational training schools for four years.</p> <p>Public and private institutions that provide initial vocational training mostly for graduates of upper secondary schools, and secondarily to those who have completed a SEK programme, with a view to integrating them into the labour market.</p> <p>In 2012 there were 93 public IEKs in 74 cities and 46 private IEK in 15 cities, with respective student populations of 10.800 and 21.300 trainees</p> <p>At tertiary level by higher professional schools the programmes require at least two years of study and may be as long as five years. In most cases they include a period of practical training in the workplace, and need an entrance examination.</p> <p>College programmes are outside formal education and training, but the diplomas, degrees, certificates, and any other type of attestation awarded by the colleges can be recognized as professionally equivalent to higher education titles awarded in the formal Greek education system.</p>
Bulgaria	<p>The administration of school education in Bulgaria is organised on four levels: national, regional, municipal and school level. Decentralisation and broadening the autonomy of education establishments are major characteristics of school education nowadays.</p> <p>Vocational training in vocational training centres is monitored by the National Agency for</p>

³⁹ https://www.oecd.org/g20/topics/employment-and-social-policy/G20-OECD%20Apprenticeship%20Conference_Issues%20Paper_Final.pdf

	Vocational Education and Training. The art schools are under the authority of the Minister of Culture. The assessment of outcomes and the organisation of examinations are specified in accordance with the State Educational Requirement for the assessment system approved by the Minister of Education
Romania	The private system is not so well developed. Information available about a private institution in IT sector. The students pay no tuition fee; all the costs are covered by IT Company.
Italy	Initial vocational training provided, through the issuance of public calls for proposals, by public institutions or private companies or social enterprises, very often linked and promoted by third sector organisations.

17/18) What is the level of fees required (average annual cost)? Is there State aid towards economically disadvantaged young people; if so what kind?

Training is almost everywhere free of charge, covered by State or regional budgets, some depending on Education Ministry, others such as in Bulgaria depending on which kind of study. Where it's free, there are no supplementary aid except for materials or meals (Portugal). The European Social Fund is also used to finance IVET programmes (e.g. in Greece and Portugal).

Level of fees required (average annual cost)			
	Public	Private	State aid
Germany	No fee	Some private or third sector training schools charge fees	Social transfer money particularly for trainees („Ausbildungsbeihilfe“) is provided by the labour agencies for trainees
Czech Republic	No fee at secondary and tertiary level at tertiary professional schools, 75EUR – 230EUR	Depends on school type, field of study, prestige, but some exceptions.	Scholarship, social support benefits, housing benefits, child benefits, transport benefits, some of benefits are regulated by municipalities or schools (like scholarship)
Portugal	Covered most entirely by State budget, the Social Security Budget and the European Social Fund	n.a.	Some pupils may be eligible for free use of school books and materials as well as for free meals and accommodation, depending on the socio-economic situation of their family.
Greece	n.a	n.a	n.a.
Bulgaria	Budgets of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science, the Ministry of Agriculture and Food, the Ministry of Culture, the Ministry of Physical Education and Sports	Between 1000 to 2 300 leva or 520 to 1176 euro per year, by legal entities	Different programme scheme to help vulnerable people get access to training programmes
Romania	No fee	n.a.	A monthly "professional scholarship" (the amount of this scholarship is 200 RON). The students from disadvantaged backgrounds can also obtain a social grant (this measure is also available for the students included

			in high schools, not only TVET)
Italy	No fee: State funding, almost entirely the responsibility of the Ministry of labour and social policies, and less and less of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR); regional funding (through the regional taxes); the contributions paid by enterprises (0.3% of wages) according to the Revolving Fund for vocational training established by law 845/78 (in the case of continuing education) and, finally, the European Social Fund.	n.a.	No because there is no fee requested

19) Who are the experts who decide on the curricula?

Mostly, the curricula are under the State's responsibility and are framed as the reference for any school or training agency but in some country employers, trade unions are involved (Germany). The trainers are supposed to follow the guidelines of the programmes, but in Italy, for example, the trainers play an important role in the evolution of the pedagogy and the content of their courses.

The experts who decide on the curricula: how they are selected / appointed?	
Germany	A tripartite commission of professional federations, employer federations, and trade unions, designate their deputies for the curricula determinations
Czech Republic	The National Institute for Education, Education Counselling Centre and Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (NÚV), in cooperation with a group of experts, teachers, specialist from the practices, prepares the Framework Educational Programmes.
Portugal	<p>The Ministry of Education is responsible for the development of curricula and programmes. The Directorate-General for Innovation and Curricular Development is responsible for defining study plans and essential curriculum content and objectives and for monitoring and assessing their implementation.</p> <p>The National Agency for Qualification and VET is responsible for promoting research and innovation as regards curricula, teaching methods and resources and for encouraging the dissemination of knowledge by promoting and participating in networks and partnerships in information, experimentation and the transfer of knowledge.</p> <p>The National Catalogue of Qualifications provides curriculum guidelines.</p> <p>Flexibility is allowed to each training entity to formulate their own training programme in order to match their target group and their professional context.</p>
Greece	The Greek General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning develops initial vocational training curricula, supervises all the public and private vocational training providers, certified by the National Organisation for the Certification of Qualifications and Vocational Guidance – Eoppep.
Bulgaria	<p>The State Education Requirement (SER) for acquiring professional qualification is established in cooperation with employers for every profession placed on the List of Professions for Vocational Education and Training which includes all requisites.</p> <p>The general compulsory vocational subjects include training in health and safety at work, economics, entrepreneurship and business communications.</p> <p>The compulsory sector vocational subjects are unified for all professions in a professional sector and taking into account specific competences required for practising particular specialities in a profession.</p>
Romania	The Ministry of Education, Research, Youth and Sport establishes VET policies, strategic planning

	<p>and implementation, curricula development.</p> <p>County School Inspectorates are responsible for VET policies implementation at regional and local levels, supporting (counselling and monitoring) VET schools performance</p> <p>Social partners (professional associations, Sectoral Committees) are in charge of the identification of needs for qualifications and skills, validation of qualification standards</p> <p>Companies are responsible for the identification of skills need, strategic planning of VET offer, development of local curricula, provision of work-based training, participating in certification process.</p>
Italy	<p>Training institutions have an important role in curricular programming. They have the possibility to change, innovate and adapt the training programme to its context, on the different Regions' approaches, including spaces of autonomy in the formulation of the Learning Units, where even the single teacher has the ability to contribute in its definition.</p>

Transversal analysis: constraints, opportunities and perspectives

The Europe 2020 Strategy based on smart, sustainable and inclusive growth seems to extend its influence to the different IVET reforms and the way it is taken into consideration as strategic gear lever to address unemployment and school drop rates, as well as professional mobility. It is now perceived as a good opportunity to tighten the bonds and improve the concordance between sectors evolution and transformation, and the training design for solid professional path. One of the main objectives for the development of SSE IVET programmes are the design and value of specific skills, competences and occupations, and their potential combination with classic economy professional path, in order to reach out to any worker, trainee or learner willing to make a shift in their profession life, willing to engage in a social solidarity professional approach, willing to commit to help building, through its professional practice, a more inclusive, sustainable and fair society – from local to at least a European level. SSE IVET could also be a good opportunity to better address inclusion issues.

Approaches designed as step by step peer learning, valuing workers' experiences and youngsters aspirations/inclinations, informed by solidarity principles and mechanism in the labour organisation, should be considered as crucial regeneration and improvement of both the IVET systems and of labour public policies, at a national and European level. The integration of SSE stakeholders in national and European conversations is at stake: in every sector concerned (virtually, all of them), SSE stakeholders should be able to express the specifics of their training and work organisation. One of the main risk of course is the development of SSE as a specific sector, detached from its grass-roots movements and local communities' aspiration and needs. That would only divide a bit more the society into unconnected interests. But there is nowadays a window of opportunity, especially regarding the post 2020 Europe strategy and the Europe's Response to Sustainability Challenges in its 2030 agenda, for making SSE voice to matter. Integrated advocacy in the development of professional organisation networks, and umbrella organisation could help joining the conversation on labour, education and training at a European level as well as fostering national recognition. The solidarity principles of action and practices in the professional SSE networks are almost at a turning point: there is a challenge to be addressed, that is the expression of specifics yet transversal skills and competences that are, especially through ongoing practices, already advocating for a more sustainable, inclusive and fair society and European community.

In order to better understand the constraints and opportunities for the development of IVET SSE programmes at a European level, we have gathered in the board below the main tendencies shared by the countries involved, regarding the issues examined in this second part.

	Constraints / difficulties	Opportunities / perspectives
At risk population concerned by IVET	→ school dropping and absence of diploma is socially stigmatized and	→ SSE stakeholders can participate in building professional support adjusted to

<p>and SSE path: students who drop out of school (from 18 to 25 years who have left the school system without any diploma) NEETs – <i>Not in Education, Employment or Training</i> long term unemployed population, hit by the systemic crisis → a significant part of the population concerned by Europe 2020 strategy for a more inclusive growth</p>	<p>considered as handicap to find a job: change of collective representation and comprehension are made in the long run, the switch from one vision to another will take time → isolation, social stigmatization and exclusion have long term consequences on people. That should be dealt with through a comprehensive process of professional support, maybe asking for extra investments in support mechanisms → alternative SSE IVET path shouldn't be tainted with lack of credit for addressing people at risk and taking care of actual emancipation rather than statistic impact: it might ask for more investment and a long term strategy to be adjusted to local and national difficulties on a regular basis (again more time and more investments).</p>	<p>local development and take a part in national and European dynamics and strategies. It would enhance its capacity to develop advocacy based on experimentation and implementation of public policies regarding the European agenda. → SSE knowledge and know-how in solidarity mechanism through professional support could be more developed, shared, and documented, in return feeding advocacy for a solidarity economy as a new political paradigm for Europe and European strategies</p>
<p>Situation regarding the labour market / evolution of the labour organisation and professional path</p>	<p>→ blurred vision of certain aspects of the labour organisation, such as self-employment trends and condition of work for the population concerned → systemic and massive unemployment as a macro-economic dynamic demands a wider analysis, beyond education and training; SSE being at risk to be hostage of public policies aiming mainly at quantitative results (quantity of employment/jobs over quality)</p>	<p>→ SSE can add a better understanding in new professional path, local communities aspiration and needs, and thus a fine tuned analysis of labour organisation addressing local, national and European inclusive and fair development → opportunity to develop expertise and analysis, including in joint venture with academics, schools, and education stakeholders, for a better development strategies, including intense R&D experimentation</p>
<p>SSE enterprises and organisations</p>	<p>→ incoherent statistics criteria from one country to another → bad level of information mostly shared through very general statistic → vague information on employment and none regarding the quality of employment and work conditions</p>	<p>→ opportunity to develop a self and shared observation through SSE networks and umbrella SSE organisations, improving both self-recognition, sharing of experiences and structure mechanism at a European level, going beyond statistics in a more detailed and quality way and tools of analysis</p>
<p>Public institutions who promote, are dedicated to or regulate IVET</p>	<p>→ dropout rates shows that IVET path from secondary school on-wards are happening too late, after</p>	<p>→ IVET being integrated in either the State National Education Ministry or Regional decentralised educational structures, it is a</p>

	<p>the youngsters have already left: there is a lack of strategy in the public policy towards the most at risk population</p> <p>→ where SSE is not yet well understood, observed and analysed, and thus promoted and supported, there is a risk for a “social sub-sector” development, replacing national public services for instance, dedicated to social compensation for unfair structural mechanisms in society (symptoms approach instead of dealing with the actual causes of the risk some population have to face). That would endanger the promotion & development of SSE as a transformative movement.</p>	<p>guarantee of quality and coherence, and it potentially bridges with other educational paths. SSE should integrate both IVET and general education, and help building bridges between the two, designing hybrid path inspired by stakeholders and workers active in the grass-root level initiatives.</p> <p>→ SSE stakeholders would participate actively in IVET system mostly coordinated by public authorities, but gathering a wider range of partners for co-designing and co-implementing public policies. As such, it can accelerate the professional organisation and structure of SSE movements. It would also be a significant stand for advocating alternative economy and alternative professional path experienced in it.</p>
<p>Main norms and regulations on IVET and how they are applied / enforced</p> <p>Experts deciding on the curricula</p>	<p>→ national centred approaches might prevent IVET its SSE development from taking into consideration local back-grounds and European perspective of development</p> <p>→ both national and European approach could confine SSE IVET development into a sector, instead of a transversal approach</p> <p>→ rigid pedagogic requirements and process, designed at a European and national level, could prevent SSE tailored process to play their role as in a care approach.</p> <p>→ a labour-market centred approach could tune down “transversal soft” skills and diminish the importance of a citizenship approach in professional support for inclusive and fair development of communities</p> <p>→ a labour-market centred approach could develop under-estimated (socially and more</p>	<p>→ SSE IVET development should be an opportunity to rely to a stronger European inclusive perspective: as the ESCO programme has been on for a few years now (European Skills Competences and Occupations harmonizing and global framework programme developed by the European Commission)⁴⁰ SSE stakeholders should be identified (or ask for joining) in the programme and annual consultation; and take an active role in the acknowledgement and value of SSE approach through every sector concerned (virtually, all of them). The existence of transversal skills in the ESCO programme could be a really good opportunity to implement SSE transversal skills to already built sectors.</p> <p>→ SSE pedagogic care approach could be promoted as a more global care mechanism: taking the person specific experiences as a starting point, and from there developing a balanced professional path, including equity gender consideration, work/life balance issues, geographic position, etc. (we can think of isolated parents, people having to support their family, learning difficulties, transportation issues, etc.)</p> <p>→ SSE experience would help emphasis and develop a set of transversal “soft skills”, understood as more connected to a general perception of workers citizenship and role as inhabitants and participants to communities(local, national, European): civic</p>

⁴⁰ <https://ec.europa.eu/esco/portal/home>

	specifically in their professional field) profiles from IVET and apprenticeship programme – especially if the skills and competences are only design in a short term perspective, a “patch” for full-filling vacant current occupations	attitude, solidarity approach of work and of the development of activities, care approach, etc. → apprenticeship and participation in SSE enterprises would help trainees and learners to connect with welcoming network of workers, taking a part in the community life, and be able to rely on a professional community to build one’s own professional path
Access requirements for students / learners? Level of fees required (average annual cost)	→ although training is almost everywhere free of charge, its comes almost with no supplementary aid and there is a large variety of prerequisites for young people to be accepted in a IVET school, with a wide difference from country to country: age, examination, obligation of a contract, first education cycle required, etc. With every prerequisite and lack of financial support comes a risk for precarious population to be ignored or deprived from an opportunity to build a better professional path → fees might not always be sufficient in order to reach out to most at risk population.	→ in order to keep quality IVET development in general – and thus pre-requisites helping build coherent groups of trainees and learners, SSE stakeholders could suggest previous path of inclusion before accessing IVET programmes. It would help a coherent inclusive and progressive approach to reach out to people at risk of isolation, poverty, suffering from long-term unemployment or being at a turning point of their career. Pre-IVET school could be managed (and developed by them) as peer to peer passages before entering IVET school (some examples exist in the digital field, based on boot-camps framework, equipped with free access to games and online training, gathering of trainees-to-be one or two months before starting). With the help of digital tools, those passages could be accessible on line, helping parents and distant trainees for instance → side support for trainees and learners should be supported in solidarity by a wide range of stakeholders joining forces to help combine social/collective solidarity housing (close to the school or the enterprise); collective catering, help connect with day care for children, and any aspect related to the capacity of anyone to access IVET in a social solidarity perspective.
Teacher's requirements enabling them to teach in IVET institutions	→ connection between IVET systems and professional SSE experimentation & initiatives asks for coordinating committee and R&D gathering of the two worlds: this demands times and resources (building common issues and horizon in order to design coherent curricula)	→ in order to value the professional approach of workers as they would apply or be identified as potential trainees, additional training for trainers could be designed. SSE stakeholders could help building a community of teachers and trainees involved in identifying local resources in SSE professional communities and networks. They could help clarify professional skills at stake for to-be-trainers-workers to teach and share, and pass on pedagogic skills and approaches.

<p>Private or public-private IVET organisations / institutions</p>	<p>→ connecting private, or public-private IVET organisations / institutions and IVET public policies to SSE networks is needed, as well as a better common assessment of SSE skills and competences as learning outcomes</p> <p>→ difficulties to find enterprises willing to welcome trainees shouldn't be a point of bargain in order to lower the time spend in education for the trainees (by increasing work hours and/or lowering the management effort of enterprises involved towards trainees)</p>	<p>→ apprenticeships can provide a balanced learning of competences and job-specific skills, usually allowing participants to earn a wage while studying, and offering valuable work experience. SSE networks and cooperative organisation could implement the welcoming of trainees by offering a wider experience in connecting them to local, national and European partners, adding to professional skills a sense of integration in a wider professional and social solidarity community.</p> <p>→ at a European level, monitoring of such competences could be organised in order to share and value such approaches</p>
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PART C:

Situation of SSE in existing IVET curricula

Not surprisingly, this chapter has been the less documented in every country, which shows the weak part of SSE in vocational training, as well as in the compulsory school system. All the contributions show that SSE is hardly present in training curricula. When it is, it is generally at the highest level of studies, in courses which are part of a larger topic such as management, economy or public administration.

Some private entities include seminars or courses on SSE aspects in their curricula, but on a small scale. These assessments meet the general intuition which is at the heart of the project: SSE has to be promoted at all levels of the IVET, starting with the curricular innovation, all the way to informing the national qualification frameworks and the public education and training national and European strategies.

This chapter still deserves some more insights, beyond the lack of data. The major issue regarding the link between labour, general education and IVET approach rely on the perception, comprehension and interpretation of what is labour and its part in the production relations and organisations. As a matter of fact, classic economy only understands it as a market fact and issue. SSE differs from the conventional economic systems in that it saves social costs for the society instead of producing them. By that, it is a societal effective economic system. Connecting with general education and IVET approach is interpreted in conventional economy as an integration issue in the labour market, regarding its need for work forces and its cost. On the opposite, SSE approach stands for democratic, emancipatory goals and principles for organising labour in communities of workers. The advocacy and the societal demands for a fair and inclusive society and labour relations is to be considered as one of the strongest fuel for the progression of SSE approaches, and it comes a long way.

Therefore, the major absence of SSE approach in existing educational system can be interpreted through a European lens, regarding the long-run labour public policies centred on unemployment and classic labour market, which have blindfolded other approaches, more inclusive and dynamic in terms of economic development. Of course, the global competition, the social and fiscal law shopping have been growing tensions in economic balances (both at a national and European level), propagating worker competition mechanisms. Those phenomenon have been the centre of attention. Meanwhile, analysis of labour evolution, its connections to democratic, social and economic issues, have been documented and widely commented. One major work, *Transformation of labour and future of labour law in Europe*, directed by Alain Supiot⁴¹ for the European Commission (1999), could add useful analyses to the reasons why SSE should be an opportunity to put back on the table the democratic issues connected to labour and production organisation and structures:

Diagnosis

The expert group took due note of the proliferation of the production systems that characterises the pattern of European growth at present. In this context, traditional employees and mass production still hold a relatively important place, alongside other types of industrial organisation. From the standpoint of both individual and collective action, this proliferation of options leads to growing uncertainty. The notion of flexibility must be interpreted in this context. Its economic reference is not only the need to optimise market relations (as if the market were the sole model for economic coordination and as such to take the place henceforth of the welfare model). It is first and foremost the need to optimise the numerous production relations, involving security for both workers and companies, the development of individual and collective potential and the building of local production relations based usually on territorial proximity.

⁴¹ *Transformation of labour and future of labour law in Europe Final report*, Supiot, Alain (dir), Employment asocial affairs Industrial relations and industrial change, European Commission, 1999 (<https://bookshop.europa.eu/fr/transformations-du-travail-et-devenir-du-droit-du-travail-en-europe-pbCE1998302/>)

Democratic requirements

Labour law brought specific democratic demands into the socio-economic sphere, and they need to be maintained and reformulated in the light of present circumstances. The group paid particular attention to four of these. Firstly, equality must be maintained, but must incorporate the relatively new issue of gender equality. Secondly, freedom entails maintaining worker protection against dependence. But new forms of such dependence are emerging. Thirdly, individual security, involving a wide range of social rights, must be reconstructed not as security against exceptional risk, but in the light of a ubiquitous risk associated with the inevitable rise in uncertainty. Coping with uncertainty must be made an integral part of the very definition of security. Lastly, collective rights guarantee the actual participation of the people concerned in the definition of the meaning of work, of both the purposes and means of economic development. It is for this reason that they must be maintained and at the same time expanded to take account of new kinds of collective representation, action and bargaining which should not, however, replace former practice altogether."⁴²

SSE rely to the democratic perspectives hereby depicted, and the European environment hasn't been considering it for a long time, pushing forward a very classic interpretation of training and labour issues. As exposed in the introduction and throughout this report, the purpose of developing SSE IVET programme addresses directly the needed shift of interpretation.

20) Is SSE explicitly mentioned in any official document presenting the IVET system in your country?

In almost none of the countries of the project partners, the respondents have found any explicit mention of SSE within the Vocational Training and Education Systems. Not all countries filed this part.

In **Portugal** there is one IVET provider that focuses on the topic of "social economy". It is a cooperative vocational school based in Porto, offering 2 courses which are considered VET programmes at secondary education level. At higher education level: (social) entrepreneurship has been a transversal growing subject at the level of university courses and especially at post graduate and masters level there are courses focusing on the SSE (ex. Master in Social and Solidarity (ISCTE); Post graduation course in Social and Solidarity Economy and Local Development (FCSEA); Post graduation course in Management of Social Economy Organizations (UCP) and Master in Social Economy (UCP)).

In **Greece** vocational training is mainly provided by enterprises and social partners, the state and Europe providing sometimes financing and accreditation of providers and teachers/trainers. The qualifications acquired from this type of training are not recognised by any national authority.

In **Bulgaria** the implementation of social concerns within the training system has improved dramatically. Education in social entrepreneurship is one of the best innovations in higher education. In order to achieve better recognition and visibility of the social economy and social entrepreneurship, the first Bachelor and Master degree in Social entrepreneurship at the University "St. Cyril and St. Methodius" in Veliko Tarnovo was launched. But current professions do not represent the specific nature and contents of social entrepreneurship to the necessary extent. The need for regulating the vocation of "social entrepreneur" is being discussed.

In **Italy**, no institution which has been accredited to do Initial Vocational Education and Training has to date explicitly adopted courses or modules on Social Solidarity Economy. Nevertheless, many training agencies linked to the Third Sector are adopting in an implicit and natural way approaches, thematic, instruments and methodologies which are peculiar to SSE.

⁴² Ibid. p90-91, *Summary*

21) Which are the IVET organisations that have adopted courses or modules related to SSE and in what fields or sectors of study?

This part includes a first panorama of what forms of organisations are promoting SSE trainings, regarding cooperatives' history, governance and structures, how to make a cooperative enterprise, re-localising supply-chains, introducing notions and practices of mutualisation, commoning, peer evaluation, etc.

In **Portugal**, if taken on a broader definition, SSE is present in other educational dimensions such as seminars, events, round-tables, and courses aimed at affirming this theme in the public agenda and at the same time offering new insights and skills to the professionals working in the sector. When universities deliver subjects/modules related to SSE topic (mostly on theoretical and basic level) there is no field of study explicitly dedicated to SSE. These courses / lectures are usually part of studies such as management, economy, public administration, civil sector, social management, social and charity work, social politics and similar.

In **Greece**, the General Confederation of Workers (GSEE) implements vocational training programmes aimed at workers in the private sector, the unemployed, and its own union officials. More specifically, these programmes target sectors like tourism, technical trades and manufacturing/construction, teachers and teacher trainers, commerce, environment, consumer protection, social economy, informatics and economics/administration.

In **Italy**, there is no planned link between the SSE related approaches and topics and the IVET official learning activities.

22) How has the introduction of SSE related approaches and topics affected the definition, design, organisation, planning and implementation of learning activities?

This question was not answered in any of the country reports, since there is still too little information on experiences of training and learning activities in IVET (other than at tertiary levels), which explicitly mention a SSE approach. As the project activities unfold and there will be more exchanges with a larger number of both SSE actors and IVET and professional training institutions, there will be more elements to report on this issue.

23) Do teachers in the IVET system have autonomy in reformulating or adding parts to the curriculum they are teaching?

In a general way, as the curricula are not formatted for the SSE, the teachers apply the directives of the National Education System. However a certain autonomy is possible, to adjust to the training situation.

In **Germany**, the curricula are rather straight, therefore there is little scope for teachers or trainers to reformulate or to add, particularly in publicly run schools. In third sector schools this might be easier.

In the **Czech Republic**, the schools prepare their own School Educational Programme based on the Framework Educational Programmes.

In **Portugal** as part of the national governance structure of the Portuguese VET system, there are currently 16 Sectorial Councils for Qualification (CSQ). These are technical and consultative working groups that seek to identify the needs to update the CNQ, taking into account the changes in the different sectors of society. But there is **no recognition of the SSE in these councils** which are responsible for presenting proposals for the creation of new qualifications and / or updating and / or exclusion of qualifications from the CNQ. Teachers have low autonomy to adapt the curricula as they need to follow the structure and contents approved by the Ministry of Education.

In **Greece** the curriculum that is taught in each educational level is designed by the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. Teachers have to comply with this curriculum. If there are specific needs of the learners they can add some parts. But their autonomy in this matter is relatively small. Both private and public organisations follow the same curricula in the IVET system.

In **Romania** in theory, the teacher could propose parts to the curriculum. This aspect varies from one situation to another.

In **Italy**, the autonomy of the trainers changes according to the context and is also based on the type of training. The most performant teachers use an inductive approach and share with their colleagues in interdisciplinary groups in order to modify the programmes and make them more adjusted to the needs of the training context.

24) If there are private organisations/institutions in the IVET system, do they follow the same curricula as the public system?

Private agencies and organisations generally follow the public system because they must be accredited by the State or the region to deliver recognized diploma. But once again, as there is almost no IVET training curricula, the question is not relevant.

In **Italy** some substantial offer of private training connected to the third sector also exist, delivered by the popular Universities, or of the third age, the free time, the associations of voluntary service, the associations – cultural, social cooperatives, NGO (not governmental organisations), foundations. This offer does not generally concern the IVET system. The structures which operate within the framework of IVET, when they are accredited by their Regions, they operate with the modality of "public national status".

25) Are there cooperative and peer learning methodologies, popular education, and other forms or approaches to teaching that can be associated to SSE?

The answers to this question, regarding the traditional IVET system, are generally negative with some exceptions. In **Italy**, young people who apply for IVET training come from backgrounds where they have had some difficult experience with the school system and, because of that, trainers tend to find new ways of teaching. They move away from frontal approach and content typical of school education to accommodate tools and participatory training methods that involve the students in an educational relationship with the teacher and peer group dynamics. But this is not a systematic approach and it should be much better implemented.

The Portuguese conclusion to this part of the study express a general situation about SSE inclusion in IVET curricula. SSE does not [yet] have a clear influence at the level of:

- a) definition, design, organisation, planning and implementation of learning activities in IVET;
- b) teachers' autonomy to reformulate the curriculum;
- c) differences between public and private curricula;
- d) cooperative and peer learning methodologies.

Transversal analysis: constraints, opportunities and perspectives

Beyond the fact that SSE is rather absent in national IVET systems, there is a dynamic coming both from academic research and the higher education system, as well as from the popular education movement to advocate for its implementation. Key factors (such as trainers and institution capacity to develop innovative approach, as well as capitalizing on SSE transversal courses already existing) could be used as significant lever to promote SSE in the general educational system as well as in the IVET curricula. More open and participative pedagogic methodologies are also to be considered as ground-breaking approaches to better address IVET public, especially regarding the specific issues such dropping-school phenomenon, difficulties in learning, etc.

In order to better understand the constraints and opportunities for the development of IVET SSE programmes at a European level, we have gathered in the board below the main tendencies shared by the countries involved, regarding the issues examined in this third part.

	Constraints / difficulties	Opportunities / perspectives
SSE explicitly mentioned in any official document presenting the IVET system	In almost none of the countries of the project partners, the respondents have found any explicit mention of SSE within the Vocational Training and Education Systems. Not all countries filed this part.	→ advocating for SSE training modules could be part of a broader strategy to join the social partners conversation on analysing and organising labour and training related issues
IVET organisations having adopted courses or modules related to SSE and fields or sectors of study	→ where there is no planned link between the SSE related approaches and topics and the IVET official learning activities, SSE added value will have to be advocated – and thus it demands energy and investment from SSE stakeholders, as well as resources	→ following the example of Portugal, SSE should be present in other educational dimensions such as seminars, events, roundtables, and courses aimed at affirming this theme in the public agenda and at the same time offering new insights and skills to the professionals working in the sector. (management, economy, public administration, civil sector, social management, social and charity work, social politics and similar). → specific curricula, including specific skills and competences as well as specific learning outcome need to be discussed with educational system stakeholders.
Teachers in the IVET system having autonomy in reformulating or adding parts to the curriculum they are teaching	→ in most countries, following curricula is rather mandatory, preventing trainers from adding SSE dimensions in the training modules, even if they could add that perspective from their personal experiences	→ Italy gives a good example of including inductive approach and share with their colleagues in interdisciplinary groups in order to modify the programmes and make them more adjusted to the needs of the training context, that could inform the pedagogic approach for SSE related

		approaches and topics
Private organisations / institutions in the IVET system, do they follow the same curricula as the public system	<p>→ The tight following of curricula is mandatory for delivering a recognized diploma: R&D experimentation in the private sector would be a big risk for the schools, the trainers and the trainees</p>	<p>→ the development of popular universities, connection between seminars analysis and comment on the SSE sector would be useful to add some credit to SSE related content to be added in IVET curricula</p>
Cooperative and peer learning methodologies, popular education, and other forms or approaches to teaching that can be associated to SSE	<p>→ almost non-existing at a national level</p> <p>→ SSE does not [yet] have a clear influence at the level of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) definition, design, organisation, planning and implementation of learning activities in IVET; b) teachers autonomy to reformulate the curriculum; c) differences between public and private curricula; d) cooperative and peer learning methodologies. 	<p>→ the SSE influence should be advocated, gathering the higher education already discussing it and the grass-root movement in a common dynamic to document, experience (especially through cooperative and peer learning methodologies, and popular education) and implement SSE content in IVET curricula</p>

PART D:

Opportunities and proposals to affirm and improve the SSE approach in IVET

While the identification of the different stakeholders is being made by the partners of the project, we have started to identify a series of ideas and topics of discussion, regarding the perspectives to open a national and European debate on the SSE approach in vocational training and IVET in particular.

As we have seen all along this report, advocacy is one main issue to be taken care of, and seeking allies in the academic environment as well as into citizen movements and civil society organisations is one of the main lever to be used. That should also help to build a legitimacy for SSE stakeholders in order for them to take an active part in any sectorial dialogue and consultation, as well as in institutional board in charge of designing education and more especially IVET strategies.

The role of IVET providers as well as trainers and teachers is also crucial in the development of SSE curricula and modules. Raising awareness about the change of paradigm implemented by SSE initiatives is one of the main challenge, by valuing knowledge and know-how developed through SSE professional path, the inherent and thus crucial democratic dimension of SSE, and its capacity to activate dynamics at a local level and still addressing national, European and global issues

The issues identified can be divided in 5 parts or distinct levels (from the point of view of the different stakeholders involved): 1) Public policies on education and SSE, 2) SSE networks and initiatives involvement, 3) Training providers, 4) Teachers and trainers, 5) General awareness raising.

Let's go through each one:

1) Public policies: reframing the system

There is a need for more integrated public policies towards SSE. If the social solidarity economy approach is increasingly seen as a relevant economic and implementing actor in the pursuit of social cohesion and support services, it also needs to be reinforced strategically in other dimensions - such as education and training.

New laws about Social economy and SSE as well as education reforms have been drafted or approved in the last 5-10 years in several countries. But the IVET system seems still to be behind. As it can be understood, with no specialization in "Social Economy" by the **Greek** IVET system, it is not possible to provide a professional internship as part of the course of study. Teachers who teach courses that contain the concept of social solidarity economy have economist background. In general, the theme of social economy is not widespread due to lack of adequate incentives and clear economic and legal frameworks for the establishment of businesses in this area. For example, if the recent change in the law about Social Economy Enterprise will be combined with the education of young people in the field of Social Solidarity Economy (SSE), then there is a possibility of development in this area. Of course, this decision should be taken by the organisations/institutions which are in charge of the IVET system in the country.

2) Involvement of the SSE networks and initiatives and identification of training needs

Consultation within the SSE sector (dialogue, co-decision, mutual exchange of information) would be relevant in order to define specifically what its major training needs are. This would help in having an adequate response

from the IVET system. Or the SSE sector could move towards creating its own training centres, responding to its needs and operating according to the values of the sector (and thus being live laboratories of an alternative way of living by and for the people and the planet).

Depending on the context and historic development in each country, the SSE is mostly actively present in the fields of:

- food and housing,
- decentralised technical systems for energy, transport, water supply and disposal,
- community-oriented social as well as productive services,
- local culture,
- leisure and recreation,
- environmental prevention as well as repair,
- municipal infrastructure.

Besides technical and social knowledge which is equally important for these activities and is provided by some public and third sector organisations, economic and management knowledge concerning social enterprises working in these fields is not available but necessary in Germany as well as in other countries. This represents an incredible opportunity to work on involving SSE initiatives to collaborate at different levels with public and private (possibly non-profit) institutions to develop these educational needs.

In countries where the social (solidarity) economy sector is newly developed, such as in Romania, Bulgaria and the Czech republic, there are limited numbers of social businesses that have survived the test of time. The most persistent are:

- Credit union (which have a long tradition in Romania, for instance)
- Social integration enterprises, working with persons with disabilities (especially because they benefit from specific funding).

A study among experienced social enterprises could be helpful in order to clearly identify training needs.

3) Training providers (public and private institutions)

Directors of IVET organisations (providers) should understand of how SSE can be a relevant field in which to train young people, and how it has a potential for innovation and employment creation.

The quality criteria: a vocational training profoundly finalised to local, social and solidarity development could bring added value in the quality evaluation criteria, not only the evaluation of the products and services themselves, but an evaluation of the processes. This implies not just the training process that is realised inside the Vocational Training Centres, but the **cultural role that the VTC (Vocational Training Centres) can develop** towards both its trainees and other stakeholders of the territory with which the Centre has a networked relationship.

In **Germany**, traditional training courses for operations which lead to certificates for social workers, family or social assistants as well as craft and trade professions etc. in IVET can obviously be used for workers in social enterprises. But there is definitively a gap in the German IVET system concerning special microeconomics for social enterprises, e.g. social economic approaches and social enterprise management.

The same applies for other countries, where the issue of a democratic, inclusive and cooperative management is strongly needed. The IVET system – starting from its providers should develop some specific modules for SSE which address the inclusive insertion of people from disadvantaged groups. In **Romania**, for instance, there are certain areas in which WISE are operating (e.g. food) and it would be necessary to have a supervisor equipped also with inclusive management skills. A similar issue applies for the involvement of volunteers and the distinction of their role in the organisation.

In the experience in **Italy**, there is a proposal to integrate the Vocational Training Centres as parts or nodes of the Social Solidarity Networks or Districts in areas where these exist. From the ISFOL research's results (see Italian report) there is evidence of the “necessity of a paradigm shift, that allows to pass from a traditional model oriented towards job searching, to a model finalised to the creation of opportunities of work (from searching to creating work), in which people can actively and autonomously reach the objectives they are attracted to and are capable of finding the necessary resources to realise their project. [...] This intervention has matured the conditions to become an active space where a pool of experts works with the territorial networks to develop and increment the opportunities of work occupations. [...] Territorial experts are selected through a bottom-up participatory process, work and value sharing and not just an institutional nomination, as should take place in any community of practice. The network promotes the cooperation of individuals and organisations, finalised at giving full value to the local peculiarities, through the use of existing resources, in a vision of sustainability. This way a proximity economy is generated, with the aggregation and multiplying effect of positive practices. The systemic application of the coaching methodology promotes action and responsibility, transforming a (passive) territory into an acting territory. One of the many functions of the network consists in the mapping of competences and talents from the territory and its organisations, in finding the deficit of competences and in supporting with information to make the system of public training and education better. [...] In such a perspective, vocational training could become an efficient action to support the creation of an integrated system that would allow the emergence of existing competences even before the development of new competences tied to the contingent needs of enterprises.”

In such a model, if the subjects in the network would qualify themselves with social and environmental criteria and would go towards the realisation of a Solidarity Economy District or Network (DES or RES), the Vocational Training Centre could fully become one of its nodes.

This would have two main results:

- on one side, the role of the Vocational Training Centre as an economic actor of the territory, contributing, with its procurements and activities, to creating a sustainable and virtuous local development;
- on the other side, the training role of the Vocational Training Centre, able to operate with social and cultural innovation in training professionals and operators who can fully use the resources of the local context (including reuse and recycling circuits, sustainable mobility, renewable energies, etc. as well as cultural, artistic and historic resources), always in a complete sustainability perspective.

4) Teachers and trainers

Teachers/trainers that will implement contents/modules/courses about SSE must also have knowledge about this subject, otherwise unfamiliarity can be an obstacle to adopt it in the classrooms. How is this done?

There is a need to pay attention to **training programmes for trainers**: in compliance with the territorial differences, the mission and *modus operandi* of the different accredited institutions, these programmes should recognize the right / duty for trainers to have access to continuous training updates that:

- support the educational commitment towards young people who often come from difficult social and family contexts and are subject to the risk of school drop-out;
- allow them access to tools and innovative pedagogical methodologies about active and participatory learning;
- offer them the knowledge of social solidarity economy theories and practices so they can be applied by them and integrated in the Learning Unit of their programmes and become explicitly the subject of discussion and planning within the interdisciplinary teaching teams.

This training of trainers will be carried out in collaboration with the realities of the social solidarity economy operating at national or local level and carrying out training and research activities. Innovative (or renovated) methodologies to help trainers in their role, such as the ones offered by the Simulated Training Enterprise project

(IFS in Italy), which was founded with the goal of operating in accordance with the criteria of learning by doing, that is, to foster learning in an operational context. Through the IFS system students can in fact work in school as they would in a real company: the class in a laboratory environment simulates the creation and then the management of a virtual enterprise.

The current model may be connected, using less "virtual" methods and outcomes, with local networks of Social Solidarity Economy and offer students that are in alternating school-work programmes such as IVET (400 hours) or other high schools (200 hours) a formative accompaniment that is not limited to a enterprise mentor (if available in their territory), but by the different entities that are part of the local social solidarity economy collaborative network. The business simulation would not take place just in the classroom environment, but in the actual process of development / implementation of a project idea through context analysis, design, and search for economic and other resources, prototyping, building a sustainable business plan.

This methodology would allow young people:

- to develop a proactive attitude towards the labour market, seeking opportunities otherwise undetectable and non-transferable as demand for employment;
- to develop skills and competences related to the creation of self-employment;
- to try and use resources (financial and other) of a territory, even those which might otherwise be marginal;
- to add skills in the curricula of formal education, drawn from informal and non-formal learning;
- to develop relational capacities, ways of working in group and in a network.

The role of trainers should be, in this case, mainly to help prepare and facilitate the work of those who already have a project and finalize it, taking into account the analysis of the contexts and the needs of the territories and citizens (before those of the enterprises themselves).

5) General awareness raising on the SSE and its approach

The whole society needs more awareness of the SSE (it is still an unknown or blurred concept for most citizens). People, organisations and movements (even public authorities) involved in SSE have to emphasize a pedagogical and advocacy approach - informing the public about existing initiatives and sharing results and dilemmas in current construction of alternatives.

Other levels of education (upstream and downstream from IVET) also need to make progress in this field, allowing young people to receive congruent stimulus - to be curious about SSE - along their educational path.

At the centre of all the proposals advanced so far, there is a significant theme regarding the so called "soft skills", i.e. those transversal competences that are not acquired through technical training, but can and must be cultivated through active and participative methodologies, inclusively through non formal education and training programmes⁴³ and practices⁴⁴.

The training, in all its different forms, needs to provide expertise, designed as "proven ability to use, in work and study situations or in professional and personal development, a structured set of knowledge and skills". The skills that the non-formal education allows to acquire, are also identified in the decree of the Italian Minister of Education of August 22, 2007 n. 139 as key skills of citizenship, as following⁴⁵:

⁴³ The recognition of non-formal education, which is part of the wider recognition of life-long learning, assumes a legislative nature with the Council of the European Union Recommendation on the validation of non-formal and informal education on December 20, 2012, which states that it can "... play an important role in improving employability and mobility, as well as in increasing motivation for lifelong learning, particularly in the case of socially and economically disadvantaged or less qualified people". This process, which involves the powers of the regions, in Italy as in other European countries should be completed by the end of 2018, as set by the Recommendation.

⁴⁴ See also the Youth Pass model (<https://www.youthpass.eu/downloads/13-62-98/Youthpass%20Guide%20IT.pdf>)

⁴⁵ See also: Cavallaro C.-Manuguerra E. "La formazione non formale" in Cavallaro C. (a cura di), "Progettare Esperienze e Risorse Culturali

- Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship: the skills of a person to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives.
- Social and civic competences: they are personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence that enable people to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life, and to resolve conflict where necessary.
- Cultural awareness and expression: creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions in a range of media, including music, performing arts, literature and the visual arts.
- Communication in the mother tongue and in foreign languages: ability to express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts and opinions in different cultural and social contexts.
- Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology: understanding which skills to develop and apply a logical and spatial thinking, the body of knowledge and methodologies possessed, to solve several problems and construct the objective and the service that responds to the desires or needs identified.
- Digital competence: confident and critical use of information society technologies (IST).
- Learning to learn: the ability to pursue and persist in learning, to organise their own learning, including through effective management of time and information, both individually and in groups. In all cases, participants have to organise autonomously working times (or research of work), study and personal life with the times of the classroom and with the times required by group work and the construction of the experiment.

The oriented training for the development of these key skills seems very appropriate to the training of personality development, appropriate for the boys and girls in the age of IVET and suitable to develop the flexibility to work in contexts and cultural paradigms which are continuously being better defined, such as those related to the social solidarity economy. For this reason, we also think that the enhancement and strengthening of soft-skills does not concern only the IVET students, but also the trainings for trainers.

Specialist SSE Microeconomics can be a cross-cutting theme which could be developed and taught, leading to a new job description and professional profile (e.g. 'community economic worker' or 'social enterprise business administration'), including the following subject matters:

- 1) Setting up Social Enterprises and Developing a Social Enterprise Plan
- 2) Building and Investing Social Capital
- 3) Implementing Social Management
- 4) Developing Social Marketing
- 5) Implementing Social Accounting and Auditing
- 6) Developing Alternative Financial Instruments

In general we also feel the need to learn more about our national reality and how this works in other countries in order to advocate nationally for the inclusion of SSE in IVET, which is actually at the root of the current project.

Transversal analysis: constraints, opportunities and perspectives

From public policies to IVET providers, teachers and trainers, to trainees, citizen and inhabitants, there is a wide range of actors involved at a local, national, European and global level who need to be considered as crucial spokespersons and potential supporters to develop SSE as a transformative movement. Sector mechanism such as SSE IVET curricula and innovation in pedagogic methods will make a significant difference both by promoting action and responsibility, and by turning local level scenery into an acting territory. SSE stakeholders now need to gather all the willingness and effort to organise the convergence of voices and practices into shared analysis processes, participant observation, quality evaluation and progress-making approach in order to highlight the potential change of paradigm to be achieved through its implementation.

Orientate a Sviluppare Innovazione". Publication of results of the P.E.R.C.O.R.S.I. project (La Spezia, 2016).

In order to better understand the constraints and opportunities for the development of IVET SSE programmes at a European level, we have gathered in the board below the main tendencies shared by the countries involved, regarding the issues examined in this fourth part.

	Constraints / difficulties	Opportunities / perspectives
Public policies: re-framing the system	<p>→ there is a need for more integrated public policies towards SSE – especially when it comes to education and training. But the current economic dominant paradigm is still centred on the labour market seen as the only way of organising more inclusive economic development</p> <p>→ there is a lack of documentation, self and shared participant observation methods and dynamics helping to highlight SSE specific mechanisms and their positive consequences as well as SSE political dimension</p> <p>→ SSE representative are not included in many dialogue and co-designing process for building public policies</p>	<p>Reaching and building new opportunities requires several converging dynamics:</p> <p>→ working on convergence of advocacy issued from the different SSE stakeholders – especially considering emerging form of SSE organisation (from a legal, means of production and labour organisation point of view) standing for SSE as transformative movement</p> <p>→ demanding that SSE could take part to sectoral discussion to add insights and specifics when needed</p> <p>→ experimenting and documenting</p> <p>→ make sure to include general education and IVET specific integration as a strategic dimension in the development of SSE considered as a credible economic paradigm</p> <p>→ the 2030 European agenda includes a lot of goal that SSE initiatives are aiming at: this could be an opportunity to enter the conversation at a European level through a diversity of topics and issues</p> <p>→ following main fields of action and sectors should include SSE representatives and SSE networks:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – food and housing, – decentralised technical systems for energy, transport, water supply and disposal, – community-oriented social as well as productive services, – local culture, – leisure and recreation, – environmental prevention as well as repair, – municipal infrastructure.
Involvement of the SSE networks and initiatives and identification of training needs	<p>→ there is a lack of representation of SSE networks and umbrella organisation involved in co-designing and discussing public policy in the different field in which SSE approaches are developed. As such, SSE is also under represented in education dialogues and consultation at a national and European level regarding those different sector</p>	<p>→ SSE stakeholders could create training centres, responding to needs and operating according to the values of their developments, being live laboratories of an alternative way of living by and for the people and the planet</p> <p>→ R&D experimentation could include in a more systemic way perspectives on learning outcomes for SSE education by identifying more clearly knowledge and know-how developed during the experimentation</p>

	<p>→ there is lack of economic and management knowledge identified as learning outcomes tailored to SSE approaches</p>	<p>→ peer to peer learning and sharing between SSE initiative could help them to better secure their development</p> <p>→ programmes designed to support SSE development should include knowledge and know-how learning outcomes in a systemic way, in order to include long-life learning processes</p>
<p>Training providers (public and private institutions) roles</p>	<p>Opportunities / perspectives</p> <p>→ advocacy toward IVET providers should raise awareness on SSE a potential for innovation and employment creation, emphasizing the quality criteria centred not only on the evaluation of the products and services themselves, but an evaluation of the processes. This implies not just the training process that is realised inside the Vocational Training Centres, but the cultural role that the VTC can develop towards both its trainees and other stakeholders of the territory with which the Centre has a networked relationship.</p> <p>→ a democratic, inclusive and cooperative management programme is strongly needed</p> <p>→ inclusive insertion of people from disadvantaged groups and volunteers should bring specific SSE IVET modules</p> <p>→ SSE networks could set up pool of experts, selected through a bottom-up participatory process, work and value sharing, working with the territorial networks to develop and increment the opportunities of work occupations (see Italy experience)</p> <p>→ bottom-up mapping of competences and talents from the territory and its organisations, processes could help finding the deficit of competences and in supporting with information to make the system of public training and education better. Vocational training could become an efficient action to support the creation of an integrated system at a local level.</p> <p>→ develop the role of the Vocational Training Centre as an economic actor of the territory, contributing to creating a sustainable and virtuous local development; and its ability to operate with social and cultural innovation in training professionals and operators who can fully use the resources of the local context (including reuse and recycling circuits, sustainable mobility, renewable energies, etc. as well as cultural, artistic and historic resources), always in a complete sustainability perspective.</p>	
<p>Teachers and trainers</p>	<p>→ teachers/trainers must have knowledge about SSE, otherwise unfamiliarity can be an obstacle of the implementation of SSE trainings</p> <p>→ frontal and classic pedagogic methods can confront the emancipatory goals of SSE training – there is a need for new methods and practices</p> <p>→ limitation in strict mandatory national curricula should be overcome by giving trainers opportunity to develop experimentation modules</p>	<p>→ SSE stakeholders should concentrate also on training programmes for trainers: in compliance with the territorial differences, the mission and modus operandi of the different accredited institutions, these programmes should recognize the right / duty for trainers to have access to continuous training updates that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - support the educational commitment towards young people who often come from difficult social and family contexts and are subject to the risk of school drop-out; - allow them access to tools and innovative pedagogical methodologies about active and participatory learning; - offer them the knowledge of social solidarity economy theories and practices so they can be applied by them and integrated in the Learning Unit of their programmes and become explicitly the subject of discussion and planning within the interdisciplinary teaching teams.

		<p>→ new teaching and training methods should be implemented, such as Simulated Training Enterprise project (ex. Italy), operating in accordance with the criteria of learning by doing, that is, to foster learning in an operational context</p> <p>→ SSE IVET could welcome and help nurturing trainees professional projects, developing skills and competences related to the creation of self-employment related to SSE social and labour mechanisms</p>
<p>General awareness raising on the SSE and its approach</p>	<p>Opportunities / perspectives</p> <p>There is a significant theme regarding the so called "soft skills" and transversal competences that must be cultivated through active and participative methodologies, inclusively through non formal education and training programmes, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship (turning ideas into actions, including creativity, innovation and risk taking, ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives). - Social and civic competences: personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence that enable people to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life, and to resolve conflict where necessary. - Cultural awareness and expression: creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions in a range of media, including music, performing arts, literature and the visual arts. - Communication in the mother tongue and in foreign languages: ability to express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts and opinions in different cultural and social contexts. - Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology: understanding which skills to develop and apply a logical and spatial thinking, the body of knowledge and methodologies possessed, to solve several problems and construct the objective and the service that responds to the desires or needs identified. - Digital competence: confident and critical use of information society technologies (IST). - Learning to learn: the ability to pursue and persist in learning, to organise their own learning, including through effective management of time and information, both individually and in groups. In all cases, participants have to organise autonomously working times (or research of work), study and personal life with the times of the classroom and with the times required by group work and the construction of the experiment. <p>SSE Microeconomics can be a cross-cutting theme which could be developed and taught, leading to a new job description and professional profile, including the following subject matters:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Setting up Social Enterprises and Developing a Social Enterprise Plan 2. Building and Investing Social Capital 3. Implementing Social Management 4. Developing Social Marketing 5. Implementing Social Accounting and Auditing 6. Developing Alternative Financial Instruments 	

Abstract

This report is the result of a research collecting information and data related to SSE in IVET curricula in order to “map” the existing situation in Europe, the countries directly involved in the project being: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Greece, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Romania. The common template explores various aspects, both in terms of context (historical, normative, social, political) and of content, that lead to assert, through comparative methodology, the need to develop a common set of IVET training modules on SSE.

The Social Solidarity Economy asserts itself and is increasingly understood as a promising socio-economic model in the EU and in various parts of the world. There is no common definition of SSE throughout Europe, only a few countries have references in their Constitution to the principles of SSE, and laws and regulations relate to SSE through a variety of approaches such as mutualism, cooperation, self-management, social and solidarity inclusion, etc. – with different legal, social, and political degrees of awareness, understanding and acceptance. But beyond the institutional recognition and legal definitions of SSE, there is a much wider understanding and practice of Social Solidarity Economy, with its historical, social and cultural contexts, not only confining SSE as a sector of economy. This survey asserts SSE as a movement gathering inclusive values and practices, a transformative approach towards all socio-economic activities, promoting democracy at work and in the community, social justice and ecological awareness of the planet's limits. SSE is an alternative to the current economic paradigm which is no longer providing answers to the people's deep aspirations and the planet.

Education and training are fundamental factors for this change of paradigm. Predominantly, outcome-oriented curricula can then offer a valuable platform for bringing closer the worlds of education, training and work – and particularly IVET (Initial Vocational Education and Training) and VET – with a great potential to transform younger generations into citizens and professionals more knowledgeable, aware, and capable to address societal challenges. In that perspective, **the combination of IVET and curricula is central in this study, in the perspective of developing a comprehensive learning environment enhancing the SSE as well as benefiting the learners at all ages, meeting the need of the more at risk population.** The Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training)⁴⁶ underlines it⁴⁷: *“curriculum relevance is a condition sine qua non, not only for improving the human capital potential of education and training graduates but also for retaining learners in education and training systems.”* Thus in the years following 2000, the Europe 2020 Strategy (COM, 2010) for smart growth (developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation); sustainable growth (promoting a low-carbon, resource-efficient and competitive economy); and inclusive growth (promoting a high employment rate economy that ensures social and territorial cohesion) has somehow been reflected in the design and implementation of national curricula for IVET. The opportunities to include SSE skills and competences, as well as specific professional path, in IVET curricula are to be build. This will bring technicalities: the different SSE dynamics at play in the European countries will have to build together a common understanding of skills and competences, transversal enough to fit the variety of their initiatives and institutional forms.

First, this survey provides a **panorama of the education systems philosophy and organisations**, giving perspective through comparison. Mostly, the curricula are under the State's responsibility and are framed as the reference for any school or training agency, although in some country employers, trade unions are involved (Germany and Bulgaria, Romania). They are based on a combination of skills, competences and acquired knowledge articulated in learning outcomes and including a content necessary for their attainment, and evaluations systems. Most countries have established **National Qualification Systems**, relating their

⁴⁶ “Learning outcomes approaches in VET curricula: a comparative analysis of nine European countries”, CEDEFOP (<http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/>)

⁴⁷ “Learning outcomes approaches in VET curricula”, Cedefop – Europa.eu (2010b)

qualification levels to those of the European Qualification Framework, improving the transparency, recognition of qualifications and thus potential mobility in Europe for learners and workers. VET and IVET are no exception, especially because in many countries it is considered as an integral part of the education system. Some countries (Germany, Portugal, Italy) have a long standing system of vocational training where in others (such as in Romania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic and Greece), it has been more recently implemented.

All the countries provide vocational trainings inside the public school system, under the responsibility of the Ministries of Education (State National or Regional decentralized educational structures, or both), from the secondary level up to the third and even the fourth. Some other Ministry may also be implied, e.g. the Ministry of Labour. Aside from the national public school system, but bound to the national/regional requirements and approval of their curricula, a variety of private agencies are involved in IVET, including Chambers of commerce, institutes specialized in vocational training, job agencies, and even enterprises. The latter are particularly used as partners to help find jobs at the end of a training course. Internships or on-the-job trainings are increasingly seen as the best way to help students get adjusted to jobs expectations. When it comes to orienting and changing national or regional policies that inform and promote the IVET system and potentially SSE, entrepreneurial institutions, unions and professional organisations, juridical entities, research institutions, and social enterprises can be involved.

While all countries have a similar definition of the Vocational Education and Training as post-compulsory school (upper secondary education, age bracket 16-24, with some exceptions ranging from 13 to 19) and in professional qualification objectives, the way Initial VET is organised varies. The training mostly takes place at secondary level in school. **Although training is almost everywhere free of charge, its comes almost with no supplementary aid (except for Germany where enterprises are paying the students they train) and there is a large variety of prerequisites** for young people to be accepted in an initial vocational training school, with a wide difference from country to country (age, examination, obligation of a contract, first education cycle required, etc.). **Those basic conditions of accessibility are utterly important considering the fact that the lack of a secondary qualification is strongly associated across countries with high unemployment and school drop outs rates** (high rates country being Italy, Portugal, Bulgaria with 13 to 15%, dramatically high being Greece, Romania, up to 20%). Alleged reasons are *"most frequently precarious economic situation, disorganised families, parents working abroad, lack of attractive jobs for young people, consumerist models"* (Romania), while in Greece it has to do with *"the ongoing economic crisis (...) the choice to leave school in order to seek work is one based on pure survival needs"*.

On a broader scope, the NEETs⁴⁸ could be one of the main population benefiting from the implementation and fostering of IVET. According to a 2014 OECD report for instance, Portugal indicates that the increasing rate of NEET people has boosted the will to organise adjusted means to meet the problem. Alongside VET and IVET, **quality apprenticeships** can be considered an effective learning pathway as a smoother transition from school to employment for youth at risk of dropping out early, by combining work and study. Apprenticeships usually allow participants to earn a wage while studying, and offer valuable work experience. It has been formally integrated in the last years in most of the countries of this project (Bulgaria and the Czech Republic excepted). Nonetheless, this "dual corporatist" needs to be re-tailored for SSE, to be less labour market centred, thus offering young people at risk to experience more cooperative and socially oriented entrepreneurial environments.

The general diagnosis strikingly highlights that SSE is hardly present in training curricula, with no explicit mention of SSE in most, if not all, countries within the IVET systems, due to the fact that SSE is a recent development and only partially recognized. When it is, it is generally at the highest level of studies, of social innovation and in courses which are part of a larger topic such as management, economy or public administration. Some private entities include seminars or courses on SSE aspects in their curricula, but on a small

⁴⁸ 15 to 24 year olds who are not employed (International Labour Organisation definition) and who have not received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey.

scale. It is emerging though, as it is expanding from movements and practices spreading fast across Europe and the world, it is being studied at the academic level in several Universities. If taken on a broader definition, SSE is also present in other educational dimensions such as seminars, events, popular Universities, delivered by NGOs, foundations, etc. They aim at stating a public agenda and give new insights and skills to the professionals working in the sector. **One of the main conclusions is that the SSE needs to foster a pedagogical and advocacy approach towards IVET as well as other levels of education**, from downstream all the way up to the national qualification frameworks and European strategies, starting with the curricular innovation, providing young people better understanding and detecting potential disposition for SSE processes and careers. At the centre of all the proposals advanced so far, there is a significant theme regarding the so called **"soft skills", transversal competences** that are not acquired through technical training, but can and must be cultivated through active and participative methodologies, inclusively through non formal education and training. Economic and management knowledge concerning social enterprises also represents a strong opportunity to work on involving SSE initiatives to collaborate at different levels with public and private (possibly non-profit) institutions to develop these educational needs. Thus, the solidarity principles and practices in the professional SSE networks are challenged to be able to express **specifics yet transversal skills and competences that are, especially through ongoing practices, already advocating for a more sustainable, inclusive and fair society and European community**. Furthermore, as the report shows, mostly, the trainers are expected to follow the guidelines of the programmes, so there are perspectives of improving the pedagogy by combining an outcome-based curricula and a learner-centred approach through examples like in Italy where the trainers play an important role in the evolution of the pedagogy and the content of their courses, or in Greece, where trainers can be hired also under their professional competence.

Finally, training programmes for trainers should also be developed in compliance with the territorial differences as well as the different accredited institutions. Trainers should be granted the right/duty to access **continuous training updates** (tools and innovative pedagogical methodologies about active and participatory learning, SSE theories and practices to be integrated in the learning units of their programmes, etc.). The Portuguese general conclusion expresses some development perspectives, SSE not [yet] having a clear influence at the level of: a) definition, design, organisation, planning and implementation of learning activities in IVET; b) teachers autonomy to reformulate the curriculum; c) differences between public and private curricula; d) cooperative and peer learning methodologies. Regarding those different issues, **integrated advocacy in the development of professional organisation networks**, and umbrella organisation could help **joining the conversation on labour, education and training at a European level** as well as **fostering national recognition**.

Consultation within the SSE field (dialogue, co-decision, mutual exchange of information) is necessary to define the major training needs and **help foster an adequate response from the IVET system**. In countries where the social (solidarity) economy field is newly developed (Romania, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic), a limited number of social businesses have survived (Credit union, Social integration enterprises mainly). **A study among experienced social enterprises** could help identify training needs. IVET organisations should have an understanding of how SSE can be a relevant field in which to train young people, and how it has a potential for innovation and employment creation: vocational training centres could develop towards both trainees and local stakeholders of the territory. In Italy, there is a proposal – richly detailed in this report – to integrate the **Vocational Training Centres as parts or nodes of the SSE Networks or Districts**, both as a local economic actor and as a *social and cultural innovation synergy operator*. The final purpose being to pass from a labour market and job searching vision *"to a model finalised to the creation of opportunities of work (from searching to creating work), in which people can actively and autonomously reach the objectives they are attracted to and are capable of finding the necessary resources to realise their project."* SSE stakeholders now need to gather all the willingness and effort to organise the convergence of voices and practices into shared analysis processes, participant observation, quality evaluation and progress-making approach in order to highlight the potential change of paradigm to be achieved through SSE IVET implementation.

