



## **VET trainers in public and private training institutions**

### **Final report**

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### Studies on Trainers in Vocational Education and Training – key actors to make life-long learning a reality in Europe

#### LOT 2

**Instructors and trainers working in labour market training institutions supported by governments and public authorities, often with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competences;**

**Instructors and trainers working in employers' organisations, such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and providers that focus on upgrading of technical competences, training in communication skills, etc.**

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## Foreword

Research voor Beleid and PLATO herewith present the final report with the results of the Europe-wide study on Trainers in Vocational Education and Training (VET). The study concerns a part of this field of study. The focus has been on:

- *Instructors and trainers* working in (labour market) training institutions supported by governments and public authorities, often with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competences;
- *Instructors and trainers* working in other organisations, such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and providers that focus on upgrading technical competences, training in communication skills and so forth.

The study embraces a segment of the total group of vocational trainers and instructors. The reader should keep this in mind when reading this report, and the annexes.

The aim of this study is to provide an overview of this area of VET, which until now has not been researched as such. The findings are used to identify key issues and problems as well as areas where action is most urgently needed to make working in this specific field of VET more attractive.

VET staff play a key role in making lifelong learning a reality. They are the ones who transfer knowledge, competences and skills to the learners. However, not a lot is known about this particular group of practitioners. At European level, there is a lack of information about various aspects of the profession, such as how staff members are recruited, what competences /skills / qualifications they are expected or required to possess, what their specific roles and tasks are, what their employment status is, how their professional development is organised, how staff are assessed and how attractive the profession is.

To improve the body of knowledge concerning this field of activity the European Commission commissioned a study on Trainers in VET in Europe. This study has been executed by Research voor Beleid in partnership with PLATO (University of Leiden), both established in Leiden in the Netherlands. For the execution of the country studies and the composition of the country reports the research team made use of cluster / country experts. Overall, the research team's opinion is that this study has triggered an intensive and stimulating professional debate. It has allowed us to gain an insight into ways of stimulating Vocational Education and Training and it has strengthened the bonds within an incomplete professional network.

This study would not have been possible without the cooperation of actors in the field of VET. Therefore the research team would like to thank all the respondents around Europe for their willingness to cooperate in this study.

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## Executive Summary

To improve the body of knowledge in this field, the European Commission commissioned a study on Trainers in VET in Europe. This study has been executed by Research voor Beleid in partnership with PLATO (University of Leiden), both established in Leiden in the Netherlands. The research team used of cluster / country experts to prepare the country studies and compile the country reports.

### Focus of the study

This study focuses on:

- *Instructors and trainers* working in (labour market) training institutions supported by governments and public authorities, often with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competences;
- *Instructors and trainers* working in other organisations, such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and providers that focus on upgrading technical competences, training in communication skills and so forth.

The study embraces a segment of the total group of vocational trainers and instructors.

The field studied can be best described by what it *doesn't* comprise. The study does *not* encompass regular vocational education or training provided in schools for vocational training as part of the regular vocational school system or corporate education and training provided by corporate trainers working within organisations. The subject matter of the report is the education and training provided by institutions other than one's own organisation or company which are not part of the regular (vocational) school curriculum

### Aims and goals of the study

VET staff play a key role in making lifelong learning a reality. They are the ones who transfer knowledge, competences and skills to the learners. However, little is known about this particular group of practitioners. At European level, there is a lack of information about various aspects of the profession, such as:

- how staff members are recruited,
- what competences /skills / qualifications they are expected or required to possess,
- what their specific roles and tasks are,
- what their employment status is,
- how their professional development is organised,
- how staff are assessed,
- and how attractive the profession is.

The aim of this study is to provide an overview of a specific area of VET that has not been studied thus far. The findings are used to identify key issues and problems as well as areas where action is most urgently needed to make working in the identified field of VET more attractive.

## Research methods

The project was carried out in three phases during the period between December 2006 and November 2007. After the inception phase, the team gathered secondary data and analysed these as far as possible at country level. A quick scan of the current situation for trainers in VET was organised in the 32 countries covered in this study. During the quick scan relevant secondary data was collected at national level. The third phase consisted of in-depth studies in 15<sup>1</sup> countries, during which additional information was added from literature, statistics, interviews and a survey of VET providers in selected countries. The selected countries were chosen in consultation with the European Commission and with a view to maintaining a broad (Europe-wide) perspective, both geographically and with regard to differences in societal organisation.

### *Expert support group and expert meetings*

In order to cover all 32 countries in this study, the research team employed the services of experts. Every cluster expert worked according to a format which was developed by the research team. Ten clusters were formed in all on the basis of linguistic as well as territorial criteria. An expert in the field of adult education was appointed as co-ordinator for each cluster. These experts had a two-fold role in the project:

- to execute / coordinate the research activities at national level;
- to consult the core team with regard to the methodology and content of the study.

Two meetings were organised with the cluster experts, and additional experts in the field to discuss the descriptive and analytic results, and to discuss conclusions and relevant recommendations.

## Key findings

### ***VET in the knowledge society***

Europe has declared lifelong learning to be a top priority. The country reports, which are the basis of this study, show that life long learning is also a priority in many of the member states, and lead to changes in the Vet system. Policies to stimulate learning, and especially work-related learning are in place. Particularly in the new member states of the European Union the development of the VET sector, as studied in this project, indicate an increase in the number of learners. This may mean that the number of educators needed will also rise. The importance of lifelong learning implies that learning can no longer simply be left to schools and institutes of initial education. The education landscape is becoming far more diverse.

The study has revealed a growing variety of educational practices as a result of new theoretical views on learning and teaching as well as developments in the media, tools and equipment available for education. Education is no longer just a matter of teaching or training. Educators have a far wider range of tasks and roles nowadays. Further diversification of the roles and tasks identified in this study can also be expected in future.

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<sup>1</sup> Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

### ***Europe has many educational landscapes***

The characteristics of countries and subsets of countries in the EU are highly diverse. With the available data and findings from case studies it is impossible to describe the differences precisely. Any conclusions would lack sufficient empirical basis and would probably lead to caricatures and stereotypes. However, it is possible to identify the principal dimensions in which the systems and the structures we studied differ.

#### ■ *Centralised versus decentralised*

Some countries or areas display a high degree of centralisation. This is the case in southern European countries as well as the Nordic countries. The Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands have a more market-oriented system with a higher level of decentralisation.

#### ■ *Knowledge transfer versus empowerment*

The central European countries (the new member states, but also Germany) have a more knowledge-oriented structure, in which the teachers and trainers act as experts who transfer knowledge to learners. The Nordic countries have opted far more for an empowering approach in which learners are encouraged to initiate and organise their own learning. In the Latin and southern countries the focus seems to be far more on taking care of the socially disadvantaged and the unemployed.

#### *Integration versus fragmentation*

In some areas we found there was an emphasis on subject matter, while in others we saw a more competence- and work-oriented style of education. This relates to whether the approach is more supply-driven or demand-driven and is often also related to how initiatives are financed.

#### ■ *Economy versus personal development*

Systems and organisations differ in the extent to which their priority is to serve economic goals or the more client-centred goals of personal development and growth. Depending on the focus, the providers relate more closely to the educational system and the ministry of education on the one hand, or the economy and the ministries of economic affairs and trade on the other.

#### ■ *Small-scale versus large-scale initiatives or provision*

In some countries we encountered huge educational structures with thousands of educators serving massive audiences throughout the country. In others we found far more locally-oriented structures with scope for diversity and fine-tuning of supply to local needs.

### ***The participants in VET in private and public institution***

The majority of the participants seem to have a higher education. This by no means corresponds with society as a whole, so this can be regarded as an imbalance. Participants at the secondary and primary education level together represent only slightly more than half of the participants, although they form the large majority in society.

Another remarkable outcome is that 41 percent of the participants are said to be unemployed. This means that the group of unemployed is substantially over-represented in this sector of VET. Although it is a good thing that so much effort is being invested to help the unemployed find their way back into employment, in a knowledge society the learning processes of the employed are increasingly important so greater participation by them may be desirable.

Only 12 percent of the participants are over the age of fifty. This means that an age group that may greatly need to learn in order to keep up with developments is under-

represented. It is a well-known fact that workers at the end of their career tend to remain in their jobs for longer. Unlike younger workers, they are inclined to keep their positions rather than change. It is therefore even more important for employers to invest in these people and their learning.

Only one-third of the teaching and training provided is referred to as continuing education. Most of the training appears to be either initial or specialist training. This may need to change in view of the growing importance of in-service learning and work-related training in this rapidly changing and competitive world. Continuous updating and upgrading of knowledge and competences is of vital importance for achieving Europe's aspiration of becoming a leading player in the world economy.

#### ***The composition of the supply side: public and private training institutions***

Apart from variety in the content of education, we also found a wide variety of service providers in the VET market. We found that there is insufficient data about the exact composition of the market in terms of relative positions in it or the turnover. Nevertheless, there was evidence that the sector we studied, encompassing the range of institutions described above, is an important player in the educational field and serves massive audiences in every sector of society. The VET sector employs many thousands of professionals in every country in Europe. The scope and the size of the organisations that provide VET differ tremendously.

The majority of organisations providing VET are publicly funded. Just over one-third of the funding is raised by employers and participants, although the figures vary considerably from one country to another.

#### ***The quality of VET in private and public training institutions***

First of all, selection and training are applied as means of guaranteeing quality. Accreditation, monitoring and evaluation were also mentioned. A striking number of different measures are said to be applied to promote quality in the organisations we studied. Nevertheless, the conclusion to be drawn is that, as in the teaching itself, there is also some traditionalism in professional development. In other words, training courses, selection and evaluation are more often chosen to enhance quality than policies and actions to promote continuing professional learning. There is a lot to be gained by organisations turning into learning environments for teachers as well as for learners.

#### ***The VET practitioners***

There are slightly more women than men working in the sector, although it is not as heavily dominated by women as other educational sectors. The composition of the sector's workforce is balanced. The VET practitioners are usually people with work experience who enter the VET profession at a later stage of their career, most of them between 30 and 50 years of age. Despite the fact that it is often said that training positions are a good career choice for elderly employees since they can pass on their expertise to the younger generation, the 50 and over age group is slightly under-represented in the population of VET practitioners.

### ***The background of the VET practitioners***

The majority of VET practitioners working in the organisations we studied have a higher education degree (87%). Most of them also have additional qualifications in terms of work experience or pedagogical training. 41% have specific training in the didactics of adult education. Although the practitioners possess these backgrounds they not always formally required. The overall picture is that the qualifications exceed the requirements. It is therefore questionable whether further regulation wouldn't be counter-productive.

### ***New tasks and new roles***

New views have brought new requirements to teaching and educating. Educators have to support active, constructive and interactive learning processes, often in work-learning settings. This has given rise to new positions, such as coaches, mentors, tutors, supervisors, e-coaches, buddies, fellow-members of study circles, guides, etc.

As may have become obvious from the examples given, many of these new roles and positions are also related to the new media and tools available to educators and learners. ICT is having a tremendous influence on learning. New media and technologies facilitate alternative forms of communication to which both educators and learners have to adapt. On the other hand, the introduction and development of ICT has influenced the conceptualisation of learning and teaching as such. Many ICT notions have found their ways into models and theories of learning. Concepts such as working memory, networking, connectionism and connectivism are examples of such influences implying that the collision between ICT and learning theories has been a fruitful and creative one. Both education and ICT are evolving in a mutually beneficial way.

### ***Contracts and appointments***

Half of the practitioners in VET are employed full-time. A fairly substantial proportion are employed part-time, while some devote barely 10% of their working time to VET. This can be seen from different perspectives. If the training is part of a larger job, the training may add to the work relevance of the offer. However, if the part-time job is the practitioner's only work it may be a threat to the quality of the training offered. In this study we found no reason to believe that there is an imbalance in this regard. The part-timers often combine their VET work with another position, including either a regular teaching job or a job in another profession or another training job in the same sector as their main or subsidiary jobs.

### ***The attractiveness of the profession***

The profession is viewed as moderately attractive. A majority of the respondents said its practitioners enjoyed working conditions equal to those provided by employers to other professionals. Almost one-third of the respondents feel the sector offers better conditions. Only a few think they are worse. These differences probably relate to the respondents' involvement in different sub-sectors. The work is perceived as highly attractive by almost forty percent of the respondents, whereas the rest rate its attractiveness as average. These results suggest there is no reason for panic, but nevertheless the supply of qualified educators is not adequate to meet the demand. More than 40 % of the respondents report a shortage of qualified staff so some mild panic may be in its place.

### ***Few facts available***

In studying the countries of Europe we were confronted with a serious lack of data for analysis. There were consequently blanks in the information provided in many of the case studies provided by our correspondents. As a result, the kinds of education more closely related to formal school education tend to be over-represented. Other less formalised kinds of VET tend to be less well documented. Neither national nor European databases and statistics agencies have sufficient data to allow for systematic analysis. In this study we gathered data from experts from a variety of providers throughout Europe. The number of people included in our sample was far smaller than we intended, but since each of them represents an organisation with an average of more than fifty practitioners we feel that together they represent quite a substantial fraction of the European VET practice.

The Internet survey of respondents produced some additional data to the case studies included in this project.

### **Key recommendations**

In general, it is recommended that policies or actions are to be developed to support these sub-fields according to their distinctive features and bearing in mind the importance of staying in line with the current policies in the adjacent or similar fields.

Also, the study shows that it is time to redefine the sector, identify new positions and tasks, establish adequate educational training paths to prepare people for these new educational positions and establish structures and schemes that fully recognise such people as peer professionals in this widening field of VET.

Concerning recruitment of practitioners it is recommended that professional support or training should be made available for VET practitioners to introduce them to the field of adult lifelong learning and the methods needed for it. Since most educators only enter the profession after a number of years of professional experience this may be a better solution than the solution of integrating teacher education in initial teacher training programmes.

Both in the approaches of the target groups and in the conceptualisation of their own professional learning processes we see a tendency to think in terms of teaching and schooling rather than in terms of learning, sharing, developing, knowledge management or knowledge productivity. The recommendation is to promote these modern ways of learning using modern methods of education such as networking, e-learning, virtual reality, video conferencing, multimedia education, etc. This aspect of VET needs a boost. Policymakers could support and facilitate such initiatives.

The practitioners studied have a broad range of tasks and roles. The range of tasks seems too wide for practitioners to be optimally productive. For the system to work in this configuration every practitioner has to be a multi-tasking jack-of-all-trades. A greater differentiation of tasks is recommended so that people can fill the particular roles they excel at.

Job security can lead to situations where people end up with permanent full-time appointments hence negating the advantages of staff flexibility. A secure employment situation for staff does have the advantage of continuity and it reduces the investments in preparatory training of new practitioners. On the other hand, the combined work situations in which VET practitioners combine their VET practice with work or related educational practice has a dis-

tinct advantage as well. The recommendation is to develop a system of so-called flexicurity, which optimally combines the benefits of flexible structures with the social security of the practitioners.

A discipline that wishes to be perceived as a high-quality work domain needs proper programmes for initial and continuing professional training and development. However, top-down developments that are compulsory and prescriptive tend to frustrate professionalism. Professionalism calls for professional autonomy combined with accountability, which forces the professionals to perform optimally between freedom and the constraints of public control. A system for professional training and development is recommended, that is flexible, client-centred and challenging rather than prescriptive.

Finally, practitioners perform at a higher level if they understand the dynamics of their work in terms of its content and its methods. That is why for decades the concept of reflective practitioners is being promoted. The concept implies that through self-evaluation and active research these practitioners will organise their personal and collective professional development and learning. By doing so, they serve the quality of their work, their organisations and their profession. Recommended is that the concept of self-evaluation is be strongly promoted in the VET sector.

Practitioners could organise themselves into professional organisations. They could initiate methods of self-evaluation. They can engage in cross-organisational, cross-sectoral or transnational projects. EU funds must allow them to participate in international projects and exchanges.



# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background of the study

### 1.1.1 “Lisbon” and lifelong learning

The Lisbon European Council presidency conclusions of March 2000 laid down strategic goals for the European Union in terms of strengthening employment, economic reform and social cohesion as part of a knowledge-based economy by 2010. With this declaration, the European Union accepted the challenges of the knowledge society. One major theme was a new approach to education and training called *Education and training for living and working in the knowledge society*. Europe's education and training systems need to adapt to the demands of the knowledge society by providing lifelong learning and improving the level and quality of employment. They have to offer learning and training opportunities tailored to target groups at different stages of their lives: young people, unemployed adults and those in employment who are at risk of seeing their skills overtaken by rapid change. The following general objectives for education and training were identified:

1. Improving the quality and effectiveness of education and training in the EU in light of the new requirements of the knowledge society and the changing patterns of teaching and learning
2. Facilitating the access of all to education and training systems, in light of the guiding principle of lifelong learning, fostering employability and career development as well as active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion
3. Opening up education and training systems to the wider world, in light of the fundamental need to foster their relevance for work and society and to meet challenges resulting from globalisation.<sup>1</sup>

### 1.1.2 “Copenhagen” and the role of VET

Vocational Education and Training (VET) plays an important role in the context of lifelong learning. The Commission recognised the importance of VET in the Copenhagen Declaration (2002), which defines the contribution of VET to achieving the Lisbon goal. The declaration identifies several concrete actions associated with four priorities for enhanced cooperation in VET across Europe:

1. Strengthening the European dimension: Each of the identified concrete actions is intended to contribute to this priority
2. Improving transparency, information and guidance systems: the associated actions are implementing Europass and strengthening policies, systems and practices for lifelong guidance

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<sup>1</sup> Council of the European Union, 2001

3. Recognition of competences and qualifications: the associated actions are developing common principles for validation of non-formal and informal learning (European system of credit transfer for VET; development of qualifications and competences at a sectoral level)
4. Promoting quality assurance: the actions here are developing common criteria and principles for quality in VET. The Copenhagen Declaration identifies a second action in this respect: to give attention to the learning needs of teachers and trainers in all forms of VET.

### **1.1.3 “Maastricht”/“Helsinki” and improving the quality of trainers**

The quality of training and education systems is closely linked to the quality of the staff (quality and relevance of their initial education, continuous professional development, attractiveness of the professions). For the European Commission, therefore, it is very important to ensure that teachers and trainers always remain highly competent, motivated and committed to mastering their increasingly complex tasks<sup>1</sup>. Furthermore, teachers must be helped in making their profession more attractive, for example through continuous updating of their professional skills, as stated in the Maastricht Communiqué (2004). The Helsinki Communiqué (2006) underlines the importance of “highly qualified teachers and trainers who undertake continuous professional development” for improving the attractiveness and quality of VET.

In the context of the Education and Training work programme the European Commission established a working group within the Education and Training 2010 programme. This working group has addressed the issue of how to improve the education of teachers and trainers and has identified the following key issues:

1. Identifying the skills needed by teachers and trainers given their changing roles in the knowledge society;
2. Providing the conditions that adequately support teachers and trainers as they respond to the challenges of the knowledge society, including thorough initial and in-service training in the context of lifelong learning;
3. Securing a sufficient level of entry to the teaching profession, across all subjects and levels, as well as providing for the long-term needs of the profession by making teaching and training even more attractive;
4. Attracting recruits to teaching and training with professional experience in other fields.

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<sup>1</sup> The importance of improving the quality of teachers was stressed in the “Education and Training 2010” work programme as well in the 2004 and 2006 Joint Interim Report of the Council and the Commission on progress of the Education and Training 2010 work programme.

## 1.2 The need for more information on trainers in public and private training providers

Despite the increasing importance of teachers and trainers in vocational education and training, there appears to be insufficient information about trainers in VET. Most of the research done in the last few years has focused on teachers in general education and initial vocational education.

There could be several reasons for this lack of information. One possible explanation is that there has been no need for a comprehensive overview of the supply of trainers. Training is a market-driven activity and is far less regulated than formal education. Another reason might be the diversity of activities defined as training, which diminishes the drive to investigate the training market in Europe as a whole. However, in several European countries there are concerns about the profession of teachers and trainers.

### One study out of three

In 2006, the European Commission's DG Education and Culture commissioned three studies to find out more about VET trainers. One of the studies was to focus on trainers in enterprises (Lot 1) and the second study was to address trainers in private and public institutions (Lot 2). Together, the aim of the two studies was to:

- assess developments and progress being made in the area of VET trainers;
- formulate guidelines for providing better support for this target group in their work;
- make the profession of trainer more visible and attractive.

The Commission also commissioned another study into non-vocational adult learning providers in Europe. Together these three studies can be regarded as components of a European overview of educational practices in lifelong learning in Europe, and more specifically of the practitioners in this field.

This report describes the approach taken, the findings, the analysis and the recommendations of the **Lot 2** study focusing on:

- *Instructors and trainers* working in (labour market) training institutions supported by governments and public authorities, often with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competences;
- *Instructors and trainers* working in other organisations, such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and providers that focus on upgrading technical competences, training in communication skills and so on.

### **1.3 Outline of the report**

This report provides an overview of the outcomes of the study on Trainers in Vocational Education and Training.

Chapter 2 describes the scope of the study and the approach taken. Chapter 3 examines the context of VET and the market in which providers operate. In chapter 4 we delve deeper into the kinds of VET providers encountered in our study, followed in chapter 5 by the VET practitioners. In chapters 6, 7 and 8 we successively describe and analyse the data provided in the areas of requirements and recruitment, quality management and the attractiveness of the professions.

In chapter 9 we present our general analysis and recommendations.

A number of annexes are attached to the report. Together these attachments give an overview of the instruments, the statistical data, the experts consulted, and the country studies conducted. The formatted reports of the quick scans and the country studies are compiled in two separate documents (Annexes 6 and 7).

## 2 Scope of the Study

### 2.1 Focus of the study

As mentioned in the previous chapter this study focuses on:

- *Instructors and trainers* working in (labour market) training institutions supported by governments and public authorities, often with a strong focus on social inclusion and basic occupational competences;
- *Instructors and trainers* working in other organisations, such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and providers that focus on upgrading technical competences, training in communication skills and so on.

The object of study is a part of the total group of vocational trainers and instructors. The reader should keep this in mind. The field studied can best be described by what it *doesn't* comprise. The study does *not* concern regular vocational education or training as provided in schools for vocational training as part of the regular vocational school system or corporate education and training as provided by corporate trainers working within organisations. The subject matter of the study is the education and training provided by institutions other than one's own organisation or company which is not part of the regular (vocational) school curriculum<sup>1</sup>.

There are different models for the provision of vocational education and training. They encompass a broad range of actors, from public agencies to private companies to non-governmental organisations. Some provide training opportunities, others focus more on vocational training, while yet others are concerned with basic literacy or other learning needs. A study of the provision of vocational education and training across Europe reveals a quite complex system of training suppliers with a relatively diverse range of institutions – private, including the enterprise, and public – and different patterns of cooperation which make systems quite opaque. In Europe there is a tendency for private providers to assume the training of the higher skilled (companies for in-house training and commercial learning institutes) and to leave it government to provide adult basic education and train disadvantaged groups.

In this study data was gathered on VET trainers and instructors ('practitioners') working in labour market training institutions supported by government and public authorities as well as on employers' organisations such as chambers of commerce, sectoral training institutions or privately-run training companies and other providers concerned mainly with upgrading technical competences, training in communication skills etc. Data were also gathered on practitioners in private training organisations, since private commercial organisations are becoming increasingly important players in vocational education and training. In various countries private providers can benefit from public financial assistance in different ways. VET training has also been introduced by temporary employment agencies. Other principal players include vocational training centres (like regional and sectoral training

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<sup>1</sup> However "regular" vocational schools can provide such services on a sort of "contract basis", regular (vocational) school curriculum.

centres), non-profit or community-based organisations and institutions that offer distance and virtual learning.

## 2.2 Aims of the study, research questions and methodology

### 2.2.1 Aims of the study

The main objective of this study is to gain an insight into the current situation with regard to educational staff in VET in Europe. The study covers 32 European countries: the 27 EU member states, the candidate countries (Turkey and Croatia) and the three countries of the European Economic Area (Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein). The study's aim therefore is to provide a broad impression of trainers in VET in Europe. It should be noted that our goal was *not* to compare individual countries but to 'paint a picture of the European situation'.

The focus is on the practitioners and their working conditions: the recruitment of training staff, the (social) status of trainers, the quality of training and the professional development of trainers.

To understand this, additional data were gathered about the types of organisation that provide vocational education and training and the markets in which they operate.

The specific research questions that led the project are described below, as well as the methodology of the data collection. The analytical framework that was used to get a clear picture and arrive at valid conclusions and recommendations is explained in section 2.3.

### 2.2.2 Research questions

The research team was guided during the project by the following research questions:

#### *Organisational background:*

- What kinds of institutions provide vocational education and training
- Scope of the organisations content-wise and geographically
- How many people are employed and on what basis
- Common organisational structures
- Modes of funding
- Societal links
- Turnover

#### *Market:*

- Roughly how is the market composed?
- What is the weight of the training market in relation to a country's GDP
- Is the market expanding /declining?
- What kind of training do these organisations provide, e.g. initial, continuing, specialist training etc.

#### *The different kinds of VET practitioners:*

- What are the professional backgrounds of practitioners?
- What role do practitioners play to support learning processes?
- At what stage do practitioners support learning processes?

*Recruitment:*

- How are trainers recruited by training institutions?
- Which competences/skills are they expected to have?
- Do they need to have particular qualifications?
- Do national/regional/sectoral standards exist?
- Does a subject-specific competence suffice or do trainers need other (pedagogical) qualifications?
- Do specific quality requirements exist for specific sectors? Is there a difference in quality standards of trainers compared to those of teachers?

*Status:*

- Are trainers employees of the relevant organisations or are they self-employed (freelancers) who work on a project or contract basis for the organisation?
- In the latter case, how do training institutions or enterprises select their freelance trainers?

*Quality of training:*

- What mechanisms are there to measure the quality of a trainer or of the training provided?
- Are trainers regularly assessed? If so, by whom and how?

*Professional development:*

- What career prospects do training institutions offer to their trainers?
- Do trainers update their knowledge, skills and competences?
- Are they engaged in lifelong learning?
- Is this on a voluntary/personal basis or are there certain incentives/obligations?
- Do organisations actively support the lifelong learning of their trainers? What measures are in place to enable them to remain in contact with their subject area or trade/sector?

*Attractiveness of the profession:*

- Is there a need to raise the attractiveness of the career of trainer;
- Which practices exist to raise the attractiveness of the profession (salary increases; tax rebates/incentives; validation of prior learning; career perspectives; ...)?
- What are the main factors that motivate a person to become a trainer?

### **2.2.3 Methodological approach**

The activities in the research project were carried out in three phases in the period between December 2006 and November 2007:

An *inception phase (December– January)*, during which the research design was amended and optimised. During this phase the research team spoke to a number of people working in various organisations involved with vocational education and training in Europe. The European Commission's DG Education and Culture, Cedefop, ITB Bremen, the European Vocational Training Association (EVTA) and Eurostat were consulted.

An *interim phase (February – June)*, when secondary data was gathered and analysed at country level. During quick scans of the situation regarding trainers in VET in all 32 countries, relevant secondary data available at national level was gathered.

On May 3<sup>rd</sup> the research team organised a workshop in Brussels to discuss the data collected during the inception and interim phases. The workshop was attended by representatives of the following groups:

- Representatives of the Commission;
- Representatives of the LOT 1 project (ITB Bremen)
- The members of the research team (Plato and Research voor Beleid)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports for Lot 2;
- A selection of European experts invited by the European Commission (researchers, managers of training companies, members of the focus group).

During the workshop, the initial findings of the study were discussed and the participants provided input for the following phase of the study.

An *in-depth phase (July – November)* covering 15<sup>1</sup> countries, during which secondary data was supplemented with additional information from literature, statistics, interviews and a survey of VET providers in a group of selected countries. The selected countries were approved by the European Commission and were intended to represent a broad (Europe-wide) perspective, both geographically and in terms of differences in societal organisation. In this phase additional literature was gathered, in-depth interviews were held with representatives of training organisations, policy experts and academic experts and a web-based survey was held among a selection of training providers in the selected countries.

On October 24 and 25 2007 a 1½-day meeting was held in Leiden. The meeting was attended by representatives of the following groups:

- Representatives of the Commission;
- Representatives of the LOT 1 project (ITB Bremen)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports for Lot 1;
- The members of the research team (Plato and Research voor Beleid)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports for Lot 2;
- A selection of European experts invited by the European Commission (researchers, managers of training companies, members of the focus group).
- A selection of local experts invited by the research partners of both the Lot 1 and Lot 2 projects.

In the meeting these experts discussed the preliminary findings of the study and input was provided for recommendations derived from the study.

In [annex 2](#) the methodology and the resulting activities are described in detail.

### 2.3 Analytical framework

The research team used the analytical framework described in this paragraph to design the study and analyse the data. As described above, to be able to focus on the right group of VET-practitioners we had to make an inventory of the educational markets and of the organisational structures of VET. This enabled us to define the object of our study, and examine its relevant features, more precisely.

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<sup>1</sup> Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

### 2.3.1 Analytical framework of the VET market

The players active in the working environments that are the subject of this study are either providing the education or they are the ones being educated. The environment can be regarded as a market in which we distinguish between the providers and recipients, between supply and demand, between educators and learners.

These systems of supply and demand can again be distinguished at the two levels indicated above:

- A. the supply and demand system in which the workers operate, learn and develop;
- B. the system in which the educators themselves operate, learn and develop

In the following section we discuss with each layer separately.

#### A. Vocational education and training

This model includes the education offered and the needs it is supposed to be meeting as well as the content and the methods by which it does so.

Expertise	Content	Needs
	Subject matter, New technology, Work competence, Age-related training, Health education, Communication	
<b>Supply/Offer</b> By employers organisation, unions, Chambers of commerce, private agencies, Sectoral or branch organisations, etc.	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p><b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Training</li> <li>Coaching</li> <li>Supervision</li> <li>Mentoring</li> <li>Manuals</li> <li>Open and distant education</li> <li>Counselling</li> <li>Virtual learning environment</li> <li>Course ware</li> <li>Recognition of formerly acquired competences</li> </ul> <p><b>SUPPLY/OFFER</b></p> </div> <div style="width: 10%; text-align: center;"> </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p><b>DEMAND</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Initial training</li> <li>Introduction in new jobs</li> <li>Induction of newly qualified staff</li> <li>In-service training</li> <li>Career development</li> <li>Organisational re-structuring</li> <li>Re-training/schooling</li> <li>Personal empowerment</li> <li>Specialisation</li> <li>Special skills training</li> <li>Mobility</li> </ul> <p><b>DEMAND</b></p> </div> </div>	<b>Demand</b> Unemployed people, re-entering professionals, members of unions, associations or groups of employees, special groups,
Provision	Lectures, workshops, training sessions, demonstrations, conferences, group work, projects, assignments, simulations etc.	Goals
	<b>Methods</b>	

On the left-hand side of this figure are some of the potential suppliers of vocational education and training. The figure also shows some of the types of training that may be available to potential participants. On the right-hand side of the figure there is a list of potential “clients” and some of their possible needs or expectations. At the top of the figure there is the content and at the bottom the methods or formats that could serve as examples of the kinds of training or education demanded. In the corners of the figure we have inserted four

different but related aspects one can think of when exploring the field of vocational education and training. VET initiatives may be characterised in terms of the expertise involved, the needs met, the goals set and the format of provision chosen. This model is intended to show the elements that ought to be included in the study and helps to generate a clear understanding of the market and the sector that VET practitioners work in. Hence the model served as a basis for the development of instruments in this exploratory study.

### B. Educating the vocational educators and trainers

We explored the Vocational Education and Training market to identify who the providers are and precisely what they provide. We then shifted our focus to the practitioners that work in the VET providers as educators or trainers and identified how they are trained as well as how they keep their knowledge and competences up to date and maintain their standard. That brings us to the next model.

#### Pre- and in-service training and learning of trainers in VET

Expertise	Content	Needs																																							
	Subject matter, Education and training methods, New technology, Trainers competences, Communication, Curriculum development, Assessment, Evaluation																																								
<b>Supply/Offer</b> By teacher training colleges, employers organisation, private agencies, educational institutes, etc.	<table border="0" style="width: 100%; background-color: #ffffcc;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"><b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b></td> <td style="text-align: center;"></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><b>DEMAND</b></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Training</td> <td></td> <td>Initial teacher training</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Coaching</td> <td></td> <td>Introduction in training jobs</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Supervision</td> <td></td> <td>Induction of newly qualified staff</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Mentoring</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Programme materials</td> <td></td> <td>In-service education of</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Open and distant education</td> <td></td> <td>Career development</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Counselling</td> <td></td> <td>Organisational restructuring</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Virtual learning environment</td> <td></td> <td>Re-training/schooling</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Course ware</td> <td></td> <td>Personal empowerment</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Recognition of formerly acquired competences</td> <td></td> <td>Specialisation</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Special skills training</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"><b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b></td> <td></td> <td style="text-align: center;"><b>DEMAND</b></td> </tr> </table>	<b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b>		<b>DEMAND</b>	Training		Initial teacher training	Coaching		Introduction in training jobs	Supervision		Induction of newly qualified staff	Mentoring			Programme materials		In-service education of	Open and distant education		Career development	Counselling		Organisational restructuring	Virtual learning environment		Re-training/schooling	Course ware		Personal empowerment	Recognition of formerly acquired competences		Specialisation			Special skills training	<b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b>		<b>DEMAND</b>	<b>Demand</b> New individual educators and trainers, re-entering professionals, companies, unions, associations/groups
<b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b>		<b>DEMAND</b>																																							
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<b>SUPPLY/ OFFER</b>		<b>DEMAND</b>																																							
Provision	Lectures, workshops, training sessions, demonstrations, teaching practice; trainee-ship, conferences, group work, projects, assignments, simulations etc. <b>Methods</b>	Goals																																							

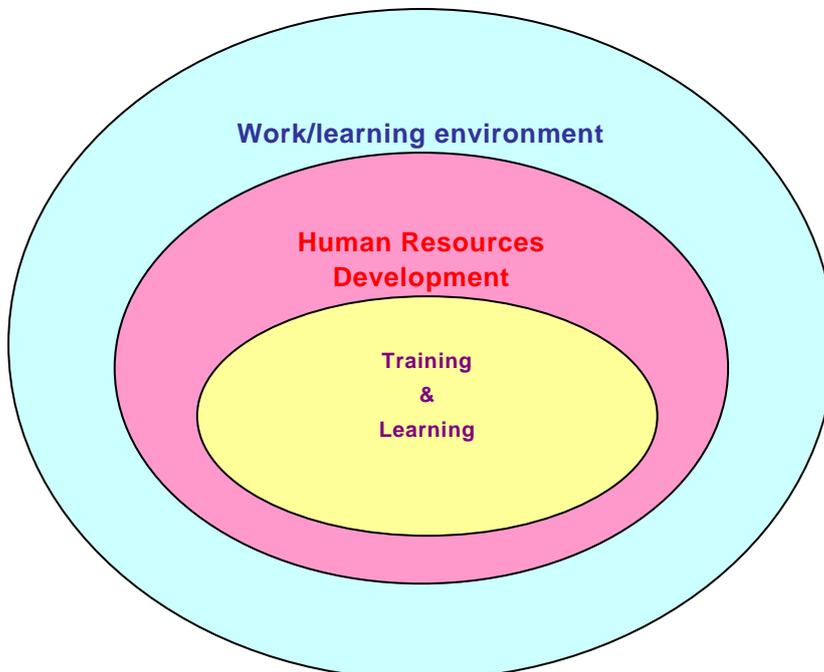
### 2.3.2 Working-learning environments: practical models

#### *Workers learn*

To update and upgrade their competence throughout their working life professionals in every field of work need a learning environment in which they can learn and develop. To some extent, the work itself will provide them with a suitable environment. Many empirical studies support the assumption that working conditions that provide motivation and opportunities for learning and in which professionals receive feedback about their performance function as powerful learning environments. If people are challenged and invited to learn, if there is a lot to be experienced and explored, if there are plenty of opportunities to try new things, see how they work and discuss them, then people are bound to learn.

Within such working environments, some elements explicitly focus on learning and professional development. Activities such as coaching, mentoring, supervision, peer consultation and evaluations are good examples. Even more common are activities that explicitly focus on learning, i.e. training, instruction or education. Examples of these include training courses given to staff members in organisations, which may consist of elements such as lectures, workshops, assignments, etc.

The following model illustrates the distinction made. The core shows the genuine training activities; the second layer shows the activities and structures specifically designed to help people learn, but organised in a slightly more indirect manner. The third layer is the working environment which may unintentionally serve as a learning environment and in which learning is merely experiential.

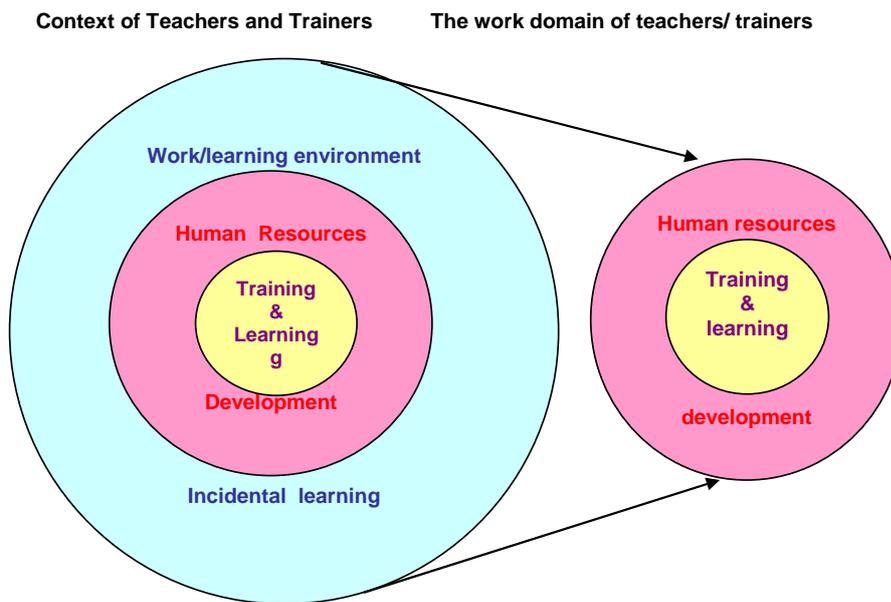


In our study of vocational education and training the research team concentrated mainly on the inner two layers of the model. We fully explored the innermost layer, which includes initial and in-service training and instruction. We also gathered some information about other policies for increasing professionalism within organisations and on those who imple-

ment such policies, such as mentors and supervisors. Accordingly, we encroached into parts of the second layer, Human Resources Development (HRD).

***Educators learn***

For the educators we widened the scope so that the study would reveal what educators’ and trainers’ organisations do to enhance the quality of these practitioners. To that end, it was important to review the entire professional learning environment of trainers and educators.



The circles on the left show the contexts of teachers, trainers or educators that we included in our study. These circles represent the specific learning and education activities (the inner circle), the indirect measures take within their organisations to enhance their work and their development (HRD, the middle circle) and the supra-organisational layer that helps the practitioners develop their professionalism.

The circles on the right represent the education and learning in which the target group is engaged. Specific training course are in the inner circle, while the outer circle embraces more indirect measures such as coaching.

***Learning educators make workers learn***

The arrows indicate that the assumed learning and development processes of the practitioners lead to better education and teaching, and hence to learning and development of the workers, which will be reflected in better performance. *This better performance is needed to reach the lifelong Learning goals set by the European Commission.*

The models outlined so far are based on the following assumptions:

*The assumptions in our analysis in a nutshell:*

- better trained educators learn better,
- better learning educators perform better,
- better performance by educators means better education.
- better education makes workers learn better.
- better learning helps them to perform better.
- better performing workers are a better workforce
- a better workforce will help Europe to be a competitive knowledge economy.

The implications for this study are:

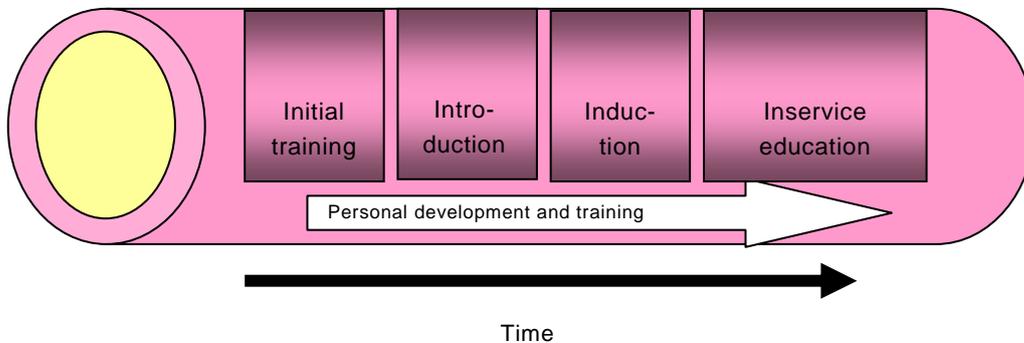
- Vocational education is regarded as a genuine desire to instruct, teach, educate or train employees or future employees.
- The intentional but slightly more indirect activities aimed at professional development and learning, such as coaching, tutoring, mentoring, supervision are also included.
- Other activities in which learning is only a side-effect are excluded.
- For the educational practitioners who are the focus of our study, their work-learning environment in the widest sense of the word is identified, that is to say including initial and continuing education as well as professional networks and associations.

### 2.3.3 Work-learning environments over time and throughout the career

So far we have described a model that postulates that workers and trainers operate in what we refer to as a work-learning environment. We have to add a time dimension. Both workers and their educators go through consecutive career phases in which their learning and development processes assume different forms. These phases are described and visualised below.

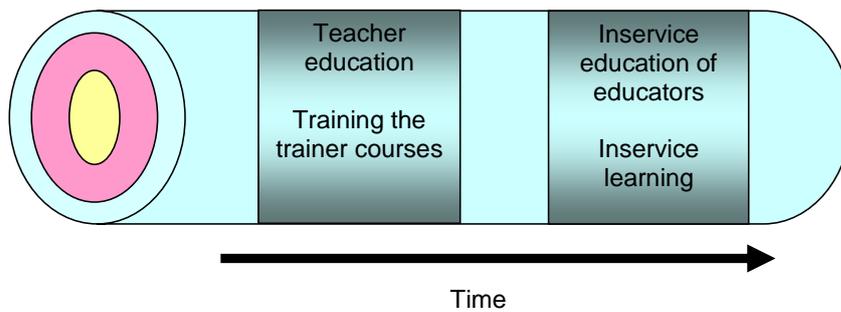
#### A. Educational career of employees/workers

- Initial training
- Introduction
- Induction
- In-service education, or continuing professional education and learning;
- Personal development and training



*B. Educational career of practitioners: educators, teacher and trainers*

- Teacher education
- Training the trainer courses
- In-service education of educators
- In-service learning



The models presented above show how the workers and their educators are embedded in working environments in which their learning and their development is evoked and promoted by various parties at different stages of their careers. They also structure the possible career paths and the environment(s) in which the trainers/teachers/educators operate.

### **2.3.4 The uses of the analytical framework in this study**

In this study we have made an inventory of vocational education practices in a particular sub-domain of this field. We did so in order to acquire a general overview but also in order to analyse the field and the practitioners within it so that we could formulate recommendations. At two stages in the study we needed a frame of reference. The first was the stage of developing instruments. Given the terms of reference we couldn't start formulating questions without first creating a coherent and consistent model embracing the aspects that together cover our field of study. Thus the models were meant to help us develop the instruments for:

1. The study of literature;
2. The country quick scans;
3. The in-depth country studies; and
4. The survey.

Apart from merely conceptualising the field of study, the models also had a kind of evaluative function. The models contain the set of assumptions in this study. They show how the research team thinks an educator's working environment affects the quality of the education and eventually of the work itself, both individually and collectively.

Thus the models were again called on at the stage of analysis, conclusions and recommendation of this study to help the research team identify which of the conditions assumed to be beneficial had been observed and which had not. This gave us an insight into possible ways of strengthening the working-learning environments of both workers and educators and eventually helped us to arrive at recommendations for eliminating the gaps that had been identified between the actual and the desired situation. This process was not fully linear. In the course of the research the models were updated and further refined. The final models were improved and allowed us to tighten the focus of our recommendations,

thereby enhancing both the analysis of the practice as well as the recommendations for potential improvements.

*The assumptions revisited:*

- Better models allow for better instruments
- Better instruments generate better data
- Better data allow better analyses
- Better analyses lead to better recommendations
- Better recommendations have more impact on teachers and/or learners
- Better trained educators learn better,
- Better learning educators perform better,
- Better performance by educators means better education.
- Better education makes workers learn better.
- Better learning helps them to perform better.
- Better performing workers are a better workforce
- A better workforce will help Europe to be a competitive knowledge economy.



## 3 Developments in the market for VET and in VET systems

### 3.1 Introduction: Composition and weight of the market for C-VET

In the course of the study the research team and country coordinators were confronted with a lack of quantitative data (including 'softer' estimates) on vocational education and training outside formal education *as a whole* at a country level. Where there were statistics, they usually covered the entire VET sector (including formal school-based VET) or just (a part of) publicly-funded organisations. It is interesting to note that even persons who are considered to be experts in the field in their country appeared to be unable to provide us with an overarching view. Because of the limitations in the available data, the following sections can only give an indication on the composition of the defined field of VET based on the country reports and the web survey among VET providers.

Furthermore, because of the limitations in the data themselves and the comparability of the data between countries, we feel it is unwarranted to draw firm conclusions from the data.

#### 3.1.1 Composition

The overview below shows a great number of different providers in the market. They include public institutions, private institutions and other bodies of various sizes and kinds, including schools, centres, foundations, chambers of commerce, charitable organisations and many small private firms and agencies in fields ranging from economics to agriculture and from pedagogy to health. We often found that there are partnerships between parties, as in the Netherlands. A typical feature of the Dutch social system is that the so-called social partners, the employers and trade unions, work intensively with the government in a whole series of public bodies, also in the field of VET.

Another typical trend is exemplified in Romania, for instance. In the last few years, Romania has hosted an emerging training market, stimulated most of all by the various European programmes but also by an increasing number of e-learning and distance learning programmes in what is a fairly deregulated market.

The market composition on the supply side is no more homogeneous. The German report shows a distribution which is found in a number of other countries as well.

With regard to the volume of participation, private institutes (15%) and chambers of commerce(11%) are the main organisers of VET activities, together with companies (35%), Trade associations (4%), adult education centres (3%), employers' associations (2%), professional associations (1%), trade unions (1%) and charitable institutions have smaller shares (figures for 2003).

We are seeing growth in the number of private institutions in many of the countries. In the Netherlands, the number of these agencies has increased from 2520 in 1996 to 9840 in 2006. Of these 9840 agencies, 7930 are businesses run by self-employed individuals and 1415 have 1 to 5 employees, so there are 495 agencies with more than five employees. More generally, and as suggested in the UK report, the types of Private Training Organisations (PTOs) involved in work-based learning can be classified as:

- Large national providers covering the whole country and a range of subject areas. A large provider may have between 2-10k or more learners, 40-80 offices and over 200 assessors/verifiers with a case load of between 40-50 learners.
- Sector-specific national providers, including providers in the 'not for profit' sector
- Large regional providers, again including providers in the 'not for profit' sector, or
- Niche local providers, some purely commercial and some charitable organisations (voluntary and community organisations and group training associations).

**Table 3.1** Composition of the VET-market in the study

UK	In the National Register: 16,814 unique providers: 859 statutory bodies; 6762 community, independent, foundation schools; 850 registered companies; 386 registered charities; and 1306 sole traders
NI	3000 providers of HRD services, 131 CWIs, 650 reintegration agencies
Ger	About 18,800 institutions and organisations involved in further education in the external advanced education: private institutes (15%), chambers of commerce (11%), companies (35%), trade associations (4%), education centres (3%), employer's associations (2%), professional associations (1%)
Est	67 VET institutions (46 public, 3 municipal, and 18 private)
Pol	500-1000 organisations
Czc	1500-1800 training institutions
Rom	13 national training centres, 6 regional training centres, other providers unknown
Gre	448 schools for VET (both private and governmental), 300 education centres, 52 apprenticeship technical vocational schools, 577 CVET centres, 40 social and vocational integration centres
Ita	9,500 accredited providers; 4,300 not (yet) accredited
Fra	42,900 training organisations
Spa	4.000 private vocational training organisations in the free market
Swe	221 educational organisers: 50% municipalities & county councils; 38% private organisations; 4% different universities; 8% non-profit organisations
Aus	1755 organisations: 47.6% charitable organisations; 2.1% public bodies; 37.1% private institutions.
Bel	358 certified organisations
Cyp	State Institutes of Further Education; Adult Education Centres; Evening Technical Classes; Industrial Training Authority; Cyprus Productivity Centre; Cyprus Pedagogical Institute
Den	140 schools: AMU centres, vocational schools, trade schools, social and health schools; agricultural schools; pedagogic seminars; private assigners

The organisations listed above cater for a wide variety of target groups. The Vet providers in our survey sample further state than on average about a quarter of their clients can be regarded as members of a disadvantaged group. They include (as can be gathered from the country reports): formal school drop-outs, people with health constraints, people with disabilities, the unemployed, elderly people, (ex-) prisoners, drug addicts. For a description of the variety of target groups see section 4.3: 'The demand side of the VET market'.

### 3.1.2 Weight

Only a few country reports contain information about the national turnover in this field of VET. As already mentioned, the difficulty is that the field of VET covered in this study is not generally documented as a separate entity. A lot of organisations, mainly private, are also very circumspect with the information they publish since it can harm their market position.

There is also scarcely any data available on the relative investment in this kind of VET in relation to the gross national/domestic product (see table below).

Finally, little is known about the trends in the size of C-VET, especially with regard to the subject matter of this study, C-Vet outside of schools and of companies. Where a trend has been reported, most country reports mention an increase in VET. Only in Germany was a recent decrease reported. There is currently a serious lack of data in this statistical domain. However, within a few years a lot more will be known about this specific field since the intention to reorganise the databases and to intensify the data collection can be observed in many of the EU initiatives and tenders.

**Table 3.2** Trends in investment in VET per country

UK	Static, with some pockets of growth
Ger	Increase in the last two decades, decrease in last three years
Czc	Increasing
Rom	Increasing, stimulated above all by the various European programmes but also by an increasing number of e-learning and distance learning programmes.
Ita	Increasing
Bel	Increasing
Cyp	Increasing
Hun	Increasing
Tur	Increasing

## 3.2 Societal links and modes of funding

### 3.2.1 Societal links

VET providers tend to be embedded in a network of links with other entities in society. The variety of these links can be seen from the following indicative list of links.

**Table 3.3** Societal links as reported per country

Institute for certification/accreditation	Nl, Est, Gre
Trade unions/ social partners	Nl, Est, Gre, Rom, Ita, Cyp, Cro, Hun, Ice, Lat, Lith, Por, Tur
Local / regional authorities	Nl, Czc, Bel, Nor
Employment agency/ labour office	Nl, Ger, Czc, Slo, Gre, Lat
Employers Association/organisations	Nl, Est, Rom, Cro, Lat, Lich, Lith, Por, Tur,
Chambers of Commerce/Trade/Industry/etc.	Nl, Slo, Rom, Fra, Spa, Cro, Lith, Tur
Community centres	Nl
Ministerial department / National Government	Nl, Est, Czc, Slo, Gre, Bul, Ita, Fra, Bel, Ire, Lat, Lich, Lith, Mal, Nor, Por, Svk, Tur
NGOs	Est, Rom, Bul, Fra, Lat, Lith, Tur
Union/association of trainers	Est, Slo, Spa, Lith
National board/institute/agency/council	Slo, Rom, Gre, Cyp, Lat, Lith, Svk, Tur

By definition VET is work and occupation related. The impact of VET on work practices or on re-entry to work processes will depend on the way it is embedded in a network of actors and stakeholders active in the vocational domain.

It seems promising to see that so many actors and stakeholders were mentioned by so many reporters. Links most commonly mentioned were to government, employers, employees' organisations and NGOs. As the data on sources of funding showed (see paragraph 3.2.2), the proportion of public funding is by far the highest. The links mentioned reflect this public orientation. The use of private resources is less prevalent and leaves a lot of room for growth. It seems that some increase of involvement could be promoted in this regard. The data also show that European funding, in particular through the ESF, plays a prominent role, especially in the new member states. This implies a societal link at the European level.

A distinction can be made between two types of links: one with other agencies and another with organisations representing the target groups. Other types of agencies with which there are links include funding agencies, certifying and accrediting bodies and employers, employment agencies, movements, teacher training institutions and NGOs. The teacher-training institutions were not often mentioned as societal links, but this link was shown to exist in practically every EU country in the answers to other research questions.

Within the type of links with target groups we see links with stakeholders and the community and trade unions. There seems to be no need to promote more links or to create a better balance of links.

It is interesting to note that links with media, Internet providers, TV, educational support organisations or other advisory bodies are not mentioned very often. Presumably there is still a lot to be gained in terms of finding new kinds of effective e-learning or blended learning.

### 3.2.2 Modes of funding

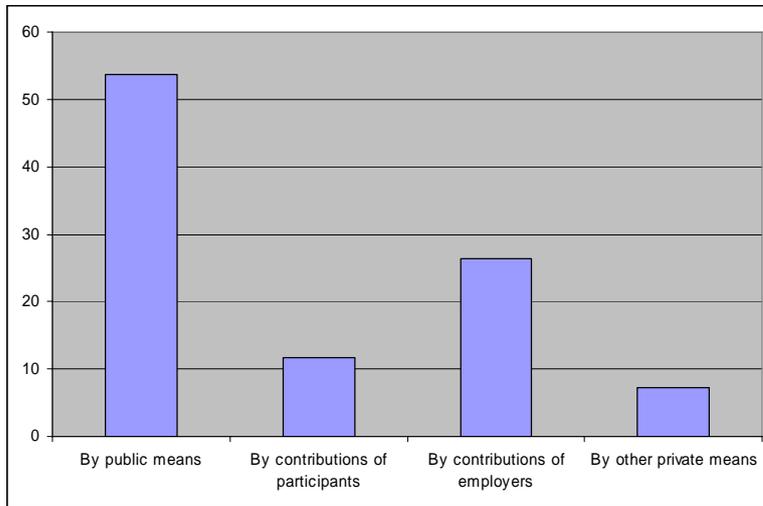
The funds for VET come from various sources, including taxes, European subsidies, private funding and contributions from participants in VET. The last category is in turn often paid by employers, unions, sponsors or from EU or other funds, etc. The actual situation is therefore a little vague. Nevertheless, the following data are available on the modes of funding common in European countries.

**Table 3.4** Modes of Funding as reported per country

EU funds (i.e. ESF)	Pol, Rom, Gre, Bul, Ita, Aus, Lat, Por, Tur
National/public funding (incl. funding by national agencies or institutes)	Czc, Rom, Gre, Bul, Ita, Fra, Swe, Fin, Aus, Cyp, Den, Hun, Ice, Lat, Lich, Lith, Mal, Nor, Por, Svk, Tur
Labour/employment office	Ger, Czc, Swe, Svk
Participants' fees	Czc, Rom, Gre, Fra, Aus, Cyp, Den, Lat, Nor, Svk
Private investment (companies, employers, enterprises)	Czc, Bul, Ita, Fra, Cyp, Den, Hun, Lat, Lich, Por, Svk, Tur
Social partners	Czc, Cyp,
Sponsorship	Bul, Svk
Local/Regional government	Ita, Fra, Lat, Nor, Svk

In Europe as a whole, public funds seem to be the dominant source of financing for the kind of VET covered in this study (see figure below). However, the number of privately offered and sponsored activities and activities paid for by participants seems to be increasing throughout Europe. The in-depth studies made it clear that especially in the new member states, but also in Italy and Spain, the largest contribution in relative terms to the funding of VET comes from the European Social Fund. This money has obviously provided VET with an enormous impulse. On the other hand, in countries such as the UK, the Netherlands and Germany we observed a slight decline in VET. Throughout Europe we are seeing an increase in private initiatives but the relative investment is still very low.

**Figure 3.1** How are the educational activities of the organisation funded?



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=84)

### 3.3 Drivers of change in the system

VET is again becoming increasingly important in many European countries. For instance, the *UK country report* mentions a 'considerable concern about the UK's position in an increasingly competitive global market, and the country's knowledge and skills base has been viewed as inadequate when benchmarked against other countries in the OECD'. These concerns are strong drivers for the improvement of the VET systems, as is the notion of the importance of lifelong learning programmes to support national policies in the area of innovation in the economy. As the *French country report* states, the new economy strengthens the demand for specialised and high-level qualifications and the necessity of frequent updating of knowledge and skills. This is mainly due to the increasing use of ICT, change within organisations and in working methods, diversification and personalisation of products and services, globalisation of the economy and competition from emerging countries. These transformations are especially important in the new technology industries and in services (bank, insurance, health sector). The skills required extend not only to knowledge and technical competence, but also social and emotional (relational) skills, such as initiative, responsibility, team work and flexibility.

Other factors that strengthen the import of VET are social inclusion and equity. In many European countries, the drop-out rate is a major problem in every form of education from primary to university level. Too many young people fail to complete courses and lack a basic qualification for participation in economic life. Minority groups especially suffer from these problems. Discrimination in the labour market also hits these groups. Furthermore, although in *the Netherlands* for instance women have made up the arrears in employment participation during recent decades the possibilities for career development among women still lag behind in many sectors.

Employment participation among the over-55s is less than 50%.

The *Romanian report* mentions another important driver of the reforms of VET systems. As with other Central and Eastern European countries, the report says that Romania has undergone fundamental social and economic changes over the last 10 years that have created the need for important reforms in the system of education and professional training. Structural changes were required to reorganise the system on the basis of levels and channels of education and training that would be better suited to the new socio-economic context. The reappraisal of the curricula and professional training standards, as well as the founding of social partnership structures, represented the priorities of the reform programmes of the 1990s. Simultaneously, measures to modernise the infrastructure and training equipment as well as training programmes for trainers and managers have been implemented. Since 2000, the policies implemented through CVT's policies in Romania have contributed to the orientation of the measures and programmes towards a long-term vision for the future. A new law was adopted on the professional training of adults and the National Adult Training Board, a tripartite body with a consultative role in the elaboration of CVT policies in Romania, was founded. Lately, the principal initiatives in the CVT domain have concerned the accreditation of professional training providers and the development of the CVT partnership through the constitution of sector committees for the improvement of occupational standards. The interest in quality assurance for the training provided also raised the issue of the status of trainers.

To sum up, in the present decade many countries have realised the need for changes in existing educational systems. A special aspect of the reforms in C-VET is the need to bridge the gaps that still exist between regular education and professional practice. In general, governments, civil society (unions, employers' organisations and so on) and many individuals feel the need for lifelong learning and keeping up competences in a knowledge society. A wide range of activities in the field of vocational education and training respond to this need.

Noticeable trends include:

- the creation of programmes of educational reform in a number of countries;
- a movement towards a 'parity of esteem' between academic and vocational education;
- the use of various types of accreditation system, such as the British attempt to incorporate all accredited VET within a single unified National Qualifications Framework (NQF) consisting of eight levels (QCA 2004);
- the emergence or growth of private training institutions in many countries in Europe;
- a particular concern about unemployment and moving the long-term unemployed into work and off benefit dependency; the strengthening of attempts to use VET to improve social inclusion and equity, often with a focus on the unequal distribution of opportunities to those from lower socio-economic groups and certain ethnic minority backgrounds.

Other interesting initiatives are also described in the country reports. In *Germany*, for instance, the report mentions the introduction of a so-called education voucher in 2003. Interested persons can choose an offer within an educational area that offers good prospects in the labour market. Basically, the scheme is intended to help employees facing the loss of their job (especially those without a vocational qualification) by offering them further education. Employers can obtain financial assistance if they allow employees without a vocational qualification to participate in further education or if they guarantee participation in further education by job rotation and at the same time take on an unemployed person.

The government and the unions differ in their views regarding the effectiveness of this instrument.

The country reports show that the changes at the macro level coincide with, or sometimes lead to, changes at the micro level of workers in the VET system and at the meso level of the organisations and the market. We will describe the most important trends here and provide a more detailed description and analysis in the following chapters.

### **3.4 Changing roles and forms in VET**

#### **European developments**

The expansion of the number of member states of the European Union has created new opportunities and new situations. Mobility of workers has increased, while companies and other organisations are confronted with the effects of internationalisation even if they only serve their national market. Multicultural composition of their staff is a new challenge. The growing economy of the last few years has created new jobs and made it necessary to involve more people in work. This led to an increasing number of people re-entering their professions. The focus of vocational education and training therefore shifted from the initial training of younger people to encompass education for people entering a profession or switching professions later in their lives. Studies refer to these categories of offer as re-integration, lateral access or re-entry.

#### **Trends in learning theories**

Learning used to be directly associated with teaching. Increasingly, however, experts in learning and education emphasise the necessity and the advantages of work learning, contextual learning, self-regulated learning, experiential learning and collective and organisational learning. These theories are partly a reflection of changes that have already taken place in education and work, but partly they evoke new practices of a more varied nature in which working and learning, learning and being taught, learning in groups or through distance education are mixed into what is referred to as blended learning.

#### **Education and learning in more complex structures**

A trend in VET education is that more and more partnerships are being formed. Learning is taking place within partnerships of employers, educators, sponsors, stakeholders, etc. The reality is that a trainer no longer provides either on-the-job training or training in a specific training centre or department. The reality has become far more complex.

Training is now often a mixture of traditional training, on-the-job training, guided work practice and follow-up activities. This new reality involves many more partners with many more needs and preferences. Trainers and teachers operating in this far more dynamic environment have to be able to deal with these dynamics professionally. This calls for new competences. Training the trainer initiatives seem to be vital for mastering these new competences.

### **More complex didactical strategies of training**

The new era of the knowledge society gave rise to new approaches to teaching/training and learning. Competence-oriented teaching and training demand new competences from learners as well as from teachers and trainers. This implies that not only future teachers and trainers but also practising teachers and trainers need to upgrade and update their skills. Their work is affected by changes within society as well as within the enterprises in which they function. Learning is seen as an answer, and to some extent, perhaps even a large extent, various kinds of training come with it.

### **Changing role of instructors and trainers in public and private training institutions**

The role of instructors and trainers in public and private training institutions has been analysed in the context of changes in the demands of vocational education and training. Some of these developments call for new approaches from teaching and teachers, which in turn demand new qualities.

### **New roles of educators**

Educators in the field of VET must perform an expanding range of tasks. The tasks and roles of VET practitioners identified by our experts reveal that it is questionable whether VET practitioner can really be described as a distinct profession, even though VET practitioners obviously perform a series of interconnected tasks. The following tasks were mentioned in our study:

**Table 3.5** Tasks of practitioners

<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Teaching general subjects</li><li>■ Teaching technical and practical subjects</li><li>■ Instructing people on concrete tasks</li><li>■ Skills training</li><li>■ Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development</li><li>■ Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes</li><li>■ Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning</li><li>■ Offering guidance and advice to people at their request on career subjects</li><li>■ Assessing the vocational or educational development of individuals</li><li>■ Developing educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Developing material or methods for educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Developing ICT material for educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Evaluating educational activities</li><li>■ Consultancy to help improve (the learning potential of) organisations</li></ul>
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In addition to those listed above, a number of additional roles and tasks were mentioned that had not already been included in our model. Among others, we identified the following relevant categories:

- Train the trainer activities
- Supervisory tasks
- Open and distance tutoring
- Educational design activities
- Supporting the implementation of innovation and change processes

Apart from these roles, we came across a number of management, planning and coordinating positions. Relevant as they may be we decided to exclude them from this study in view of the Commission's request that we focus on practitioners actually working with vocational learners.

In summary, we see an expanding number of roles and positions. Many of these roles differ from traditional teaching or training. They include coaching, mentoring, tutoring, guidance etc. In addition, we also identified many roles related to distance education and assessment. Finally, we found there were a number of tasks that encroached into the area of educational and organisation consultancy. More information on these roles of the practitioners will be included in the following chapters.

### **3.5 Concluding remarks**

#### **Trends**

In the present decade many countries have realised the need for changes in existing educational systems. A special aspect of the reforms in C-VET is the need to bridge the gaps that still exist between regular education and professional practice. In general, governments, civil society (unions, employers' organisations and so on) and many individuals feel the need for lifelong learning and keeping up competences in a knowledge society. A wide range of activities in the field of vocational education and training respond to this need.

In a European context there are a number of trends in vocational education. For example, new member states have joined the EU and their economies have grown over the last few years. Consequently, a growing number of people have to be educated. Where a trend has been reported, most country reports mention an increase in VET. Only Germany reports a small decrease.

Noticeable trends include:

- the creation of programmes of educational reform in a number of countries;
- a movement towards a 'parity of esteem' between academic and vocational education;
- the use of various types of accreditation system, such as the British attempt to incorporate all accredited VET within a single unified National Qualifications Framework (NQF) consisting of eight levels (QCA 2004);
- the emergence or growth of private training institutions in many countries in Europe;
- a particular concern about unemployment and moving the long-term unemployed into work and off benefit dependency; the strengthening of attempts to use VET to improve social inclusion and equity, often with a focus on the unequal distribution of opportunities to those from lower socio-economic groups and certain ethnic minority backgrounds.

#### **A diverse landscape**

The market in vocational education and training is complex. There are many distinct providers and beneficiaries. Although employed persons form the majority of the participants in the VET sector we investigated, the relative participation of the unemployed is remarkable. Learners are served at every stage of their lives or careers.

We conclude on the basis of the country reports that the private institutes (15%) and chambers of commerce (11%) are the main organisers of VET activities, together with companies (35%), Trade associations (4%), adult education centres (3%), employers' associa-

tions (2%), professional associations (1%), trade unions (1%) and charitable institutions have smaller shares.

There are also enormous differences between European countries in the amount of money invested in the VET sector. VET furthermore enjoys a variety of societal links to other organisations and bodies. As far as funding is concerned, the sector relies heavily on public money. ESF money plays a large role in some countries. However, it is not clear whether the use of ESF funds is structural or incidental, i.e. for the duration of the funding period.

### **Too few facts and figures**

The overall picture is not very clear because of the scarcity of statistical data. It is impossible to distinguish between different regions of Europe with the available data. If further progress is to be made in the analysis of the European situation, investment will have to be made in more advanced methods of registering and storing data and in the analysis of such data.



## 4 Characteristics of VET providers

This chapter provides information about the supply side of the VET market. First we describe the types of organisation that provide VET, then the types of service they offer and, finally, their clients.

### 4.1 The providing organisations

In order to identify the categories of practitioners working in our field of study we made an inventory of the types of institutions active in this domain. We further listed the kinds of training offered in each country to gain an overview of the scope of the Europe-wide supply. We analysed the scope of what is on offer in terms of both content and geographic spread.

To start with, the table below summarises some of the raw data gathered on each of the relevant research questions. We can conclude from this summary that vocational schools and institutions, sometimes specialising in C-VET, are very important providers, immediately followed by various kinds of private agencies and colleges (sometimes with affiliated training companies). The next most important providers are public organisations, chambers of commerce and employment offices. In many countries universities also play a role in this VET market.

**Table 4.1** Types of providers as reported by more than one country

Sectoral organisations	Bel, Ire
Regional centres / upper secondary ed.	NL, Cyp, Ire, Lat
Universities, business schools and tertiary education in general	NL, Pol, Swe, Lat, Mal, Tur, Ita, UK, Cyp, Lat, Mal, Nor, Spa, Rom, Fra
Private agencies / colleges	NL, Ire, UK, Pol, Czc, Rom, Gre, Bel, Tur, Bul, Cyp, Den, Hun, Lich, Mal, Svk
Chambers of commerce	Ger, Slo, Rom, Gre, Spa, Cro, Hun, Lich, Lux, Ire, Pol, Bul
Trade unions	Ger, Rom, Spa, Lith, Ire, Por
Vocational schools and institutions	Lith, Lich, Est, Czc, Gre, Spa, Fin, Cyp, Nor, Por, Svk, Hun, Tur, Ger, Aus, Ita, Slo, Fra, Den
Employment office	Es, Rom, Bul, Spa, Cro, Lux, Ire, Por
CPL health education	Est, Hun
Colleges	Pol, NL, Mal
CVET institutions	Czc, Swe, Cyp, Hun, Lat, Por
Chambers of craft	Slo, Fra, Aus Cro, Hun
Employers organisations	Rom, Ire, Lith, Lux, Ire, Por
NGOs	Rom, Por, Swe, Ita
Municipalities	Bul, Swe
Social partner organisations	Bul, Spa, Lith
Professional associations	Spa, Cro

The list is impressive, and becomes ever longer as one goes through the country reports. Some illustrative examples:

A brief description in the UK report states that the full scope of what is available comprises:

- commercial and publicly-funded work-based learning through higher education institutions and their business schools
- commercial and publicly-funded work-based learning provided by further education colleges on their own or on employers' premises
- work-based learning in community settings, particularly that funded directly or indirectly through public funding bodies
- work-based learning delivered by or through independent learning providers on a commercial basis
- corporate training provided by companies in their own premises, whether internally by their own staff or by external contractors.

The WSF poll (2005, summary) in Germany indicated that there are about 18,800 institutions and organisations involved in further education in the external advanced education system in Germany. Approximately 1.6 million persons are employed on a full-time, part-time or voluntary basis. Estimates (Kohsiek, 2002) suggest that there are about 30,000 responsible bodies in Germany, and approximately 1,000 in Berlin alone, in the non-transparent market, including the smallest enterprises.

The German Federal Employment Agency (BA), with its head office in Nurnberg, is divided into 10 regional head offices, 178 employment agencies and about 660 offices. KURS, its database for VET, gives information about approximately 460,000 courses provided by about 12,500 educational institutions.

In 2005, the Chambers of Industry and Commerce (IHK) carried out 67,196 IHK VET examinations in total, of which 41,147 concerned business, 14,695 industry and technology, 1,171 IT and media and 10,173 cross-section subjects. In the same year, 161,534 participants were enrolled in the aforementioned fields in the following distribution: 70,278 (business); 14,649 (industry and technology); 11,889 (IT); 64,618 (cross-section).

The German Employees Academy (DAA) has over 200 client centres at 126 locations throughout Germany, which are attended annually by about 120,000 participants within the context of approximately 6,000 DAA seminars and courses.

The bfw group has over 200 educational institutions and 30 offices at its disposal. One of the institutions is the Educational Institution for VET of the German Federation of Trade Unions (bfw), which is, with 37 offices, an important, non-state-owned educational institution in Germany. It supports subsidiaries (.bfw.de). In 2002, it had 74,000 participants.

The European Association for Vocational and Social Education (EBG) operates as a provider of further education in 35 education centres in seven federal states (see .egb.de). The working group "German vocational promotion institutes" amalgamates 28 vocational promotion institutes.

The supply of "Work and Life" is provided by the organisations in the individual federal states and 150 local and regional institutions throughout Germany, reaching about 300,000 youngsters and adults in the process (see [.arbeitundleben.de](http://arbeitundleben.de)).

Another example of the structure of the supply side is presented in the Polish report:

The important players in the training market are universities and colleges (or special companies created as "sisters" or "daughters" of universities). Other actors in the training market are different types of development agencies run by the state, local authorities, or associations and cultural institutions. They provide a wide spectrum of services, also including consultancy and advisory services for business. Other significant participants in the VET training market are private institutions, which are often run by just a few people or even a single person. These private organisations can be various forms of legal entity, for example a limited partnership or a business like "educational centres" or consultancy firms.

There are also organisations of international / foreign origin, a small number have been established by chambers of commerce and there are no signs of voluntary organisations sharing knowledge, skills and competencies.

And, finally, an interesting situation (Greece):

By law any federation, chamber, trade union or private firm wishing to offer non-formal continuing vocational education and training (CVET) **must have an organised legal entity that is accredited by EKEPIS**. This entity consists of a vocational education and training centre (KEK). Private KEKs may offer continuing vocational education and training to employees and workers of all kinds once they are accredited.

The number of private training institutions varies significantly between regions and for different occupations. In general, privately-owned training institutions are concentrated in the larger cities of Greece, while public ones are more evenly spread across the whole country. Initial formal school-based VET is offered by Technical Vocational Schools (TEEs), which provide vocational training and education in 42 distinct areas of specialisation in 14 fields. The number of departments and specialisations at any TEE depends on local socio-economic conditions and needs as well as the number of pupils and their preferences.

The organisations mentioned operate in a variety of content domains (subjects, vocational fields, themes, issues).

To give an impression of the size of the organisations, it is important to note that within the wide range of providers we see practitioners working as private consultants or trainers, but we also see organisations that cover a whole country and have millions of learners and thousands of staff. The quantitative data from this study give us the figures presented below.

**Table 4.2** Size of the organisation

	Mean	N
Number of staff involved in educational activities	53.4	83
Annual number of participants	2361.2	80

*Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)*

**Table 4.3** Number of staff

	Mean	N
Teachers	12.5	79
Trainers	22.2	79
Coaches	44.1	79
Consultants	12.9	79

*Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)*

On average we are dealing with quite substantial organisations. We learn that on average the providing organisations have a mean of over 50 staff members involved with educational activities and close to 2,500 learners annually. This figure may be slightly distorted since the survey was aimed at prominent organisations. Regardless, 18% of the respondents worked in an organisation with an educational staff of five or fewer members. This is parallel to the data showing that a lot of the VET on offer is still provided by publicly-funded school-like establishments. Market-driven systems with a lot of players, as is the case in the Netherlands, where more than 10,000 individuals are registered as coaches, are rare in Europe.

As far as organisational structures are concerned, we distinguish between the structure in which organisations are embedded and the structures within organisations. As for the external structures, we see that the majority of providers operate in publicly funded, often national, frameworks.

This is true for the new member states, the Latin countries and the Nordic countries.

The Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands have more complex arrangements with more players in the arena. These differences seem to be profound and have a cultural or traditional background. The search for optimal structures will have to take that into account and solutions may be quite different for the different parts of Europe.

## **4.2 The education provided**

The variety in the range of providers is echoed in the education they provide.

Reports on individual countries include examples of many different content domains, work areas and focuses.

**Table 4.4** Education provided

General education
Vocational education
ICT / EDP
Academic skills
Work / life preparation
Engineering
Manufacturing
Retail
Commerce
Arts
Travel
Tourism
Basic education
Language (second language)
Organisational development
Entrepreneurial education
Occupational training
Economics
Health education
Specialisation
Mechanics
Physical education
Management
Accounting
Crafts
Technique
Construction and architecture
Technology
Farming, Fishery, Forestry
Office jobs education
Communication
Starters training
(re)integration
Economy
Public administration

Of these, 'general vocational education' and occupational training are frequently mentioned, as is ICT training. Other topics are distributed more evenly.

A closer look at the above list makes it clear that the education provided covers a broad range of subjects and domains including:

- Content relating to particular fields of work (such as commerce, health care, crafts, manufacturing, tourism, technology, entrepreneurship, metal, textile, farming, forestry, fisheries, woodwork, welding, public administration)
- Content focused on re-entry and reintegration in work situations (e.g. starters courses, reintegration)
- Content relating to particular roles in organisations (e.g. management, organisation development, social security).

For example, the Polish report says:

The three main streams of vocational training offered on the market are: 1) preparation for a particular occupation (for those who want to transfer or change their specialisation), 2) support in professional development in the area in which participants are already specialised, 3) courses that award certificates allowing recipients to work in particular positions.

The type of activity conducted during training usually depends on the target group – the lower the educational status of the participant, the more general the training that is offered. A typical phrase in the description of this kind of training would be: active counteracting of unemployment through support during restructuring, increasing entrepreneurship, increasing mobility. The next category of training would be the type designed to gain new qualifications and basic skills required to change occupation. This type of training is targeted at those who are in danger of losing their job. The level of generality is usually quite high, as is reflected in the description of the training: encouraging a more active approach to the labour market (that usually means communication skills) and sometimes focused on very specific skills (for example, operation of a mechanical device or fitness instructions). A third category is the teaching of professional knowledge and skills designed for highly educated and experienced people who need to update or improve their skills. This is achieved through workshops on new technology, software or procedures that have been introduced later (very often new trends in management).

And the Italian situation:

According to the ISFOL report 2006 and comments made in interviews, most VET activities are focused on initial vocational and training activities: out of a total of 75,704 courses held in 2004/05, 38% were devoted to IVET. According to the ISFOL Report 2006, in 2004/05 around 76,000 training courses were given for a total of 921,175 people. The regions in northern Italy accounted for 74% of the learners, whereas learners in central and southern Italy represented only 36%.

Courses in mechanics, metallurgy and office jobs were predominant, followed by social services, ITC, marketing and electronics courses. However, training varies according to the needs of the local area: whereas mechanics, metallurgy and services for office jobs are dominant in northern Italy, in central Italy social services and services for office jobs are the prevalent subjects of training courses and in southern Italy ITC courses are the most popular. Generally speaking, a demand-driven learning model is now (finally) prevailing. At every local level, training needs assessments have been conducted by bilateral entities with a view to designing and strategically planning local training systems. Guidelines for training are drafted by regional commissions for monitoring, updating and if necessary re-designing the local training system according to the actual needs of the territory. Nevertheless, some Italian Regions are testing innovative activities and pilot projects to improve and enhance their local VET systems due to the lack of investment in and demand for VET activities (among them Emilia-Romagna, Piemonte, Tuscany and Veneto are the most active).

And France:

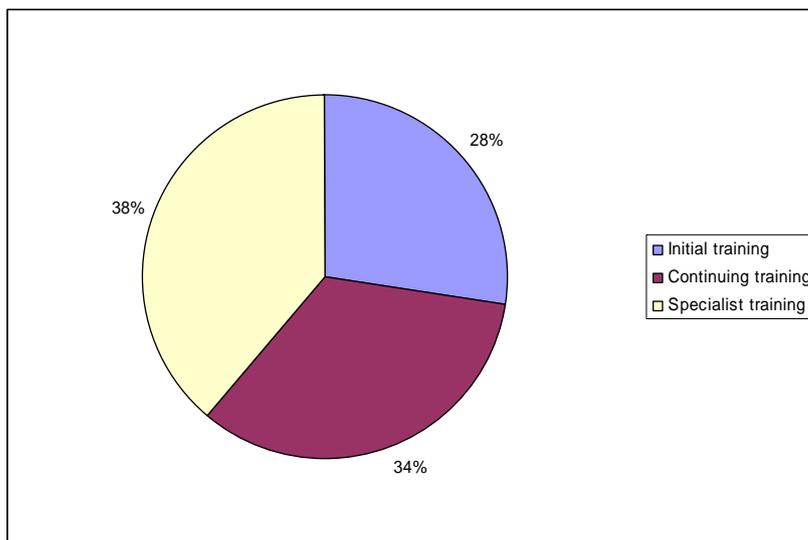
Most training activities, whether for employed or unemployed persons, are centred on vocational competencies that are immediately useful in the labour market. The training courses targeted at employees (*formation professionnelle continue*) are often very short (from 1 to 5 days) and specialised. The course intended for unemployed persons are generally based on standards of competencies related to job descriptions and are longer (3 months to one year). These courses are regarded as initial vocational training when they are targeted at young unskilled people. Some of these courses allow people to obtain certification, but most of them are regarded as informal.

The courses concerned with general continuing education or personal development are less numerous, are often organised outside working hours and are paid by the participants themselves.

The companies issue calls for tender and training organisations respond by offering training courses. Public authorities (state, regions) also issue calls for tender based on surveys of the training needs in a territory or an economic sector.

### 4.3 Types of training and didactic formats

Figure 4.1 Type of training offered



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=90)

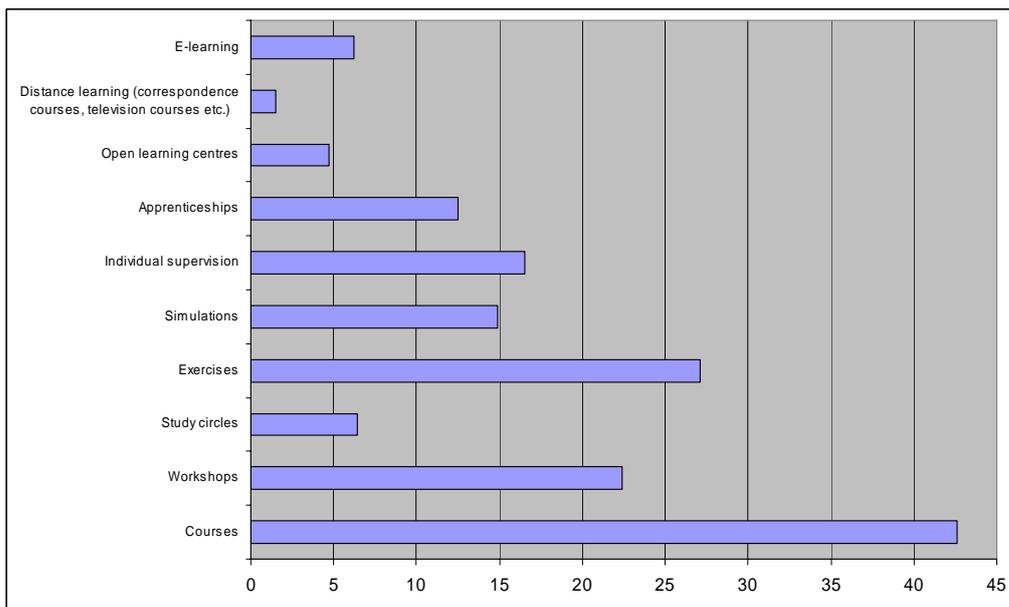
Figure 4.1 shows no significant differences in types of training offered. Specialist training may be a bit more common, but the differences measured are too little to draw firm conclusions.

This could mean that continuing training is under-represented or it could mean that in-service training has already been transformed into in-service learning and as such has shifted towards the work place rather than to educational settings. In general, one could argue that in a knowledge society that has to adapt to, or steer the future, there is a need

for in-service learning. This would point more in the direction of continuing education than of specialisation.

The education provided by organisations is not only determined by the kind of training outlined above; it also depends on the didactic formats used. The survey produced the picture shown below.

**Figure 4.2** What didactic formats are used in the educational activities provided by your organisation?

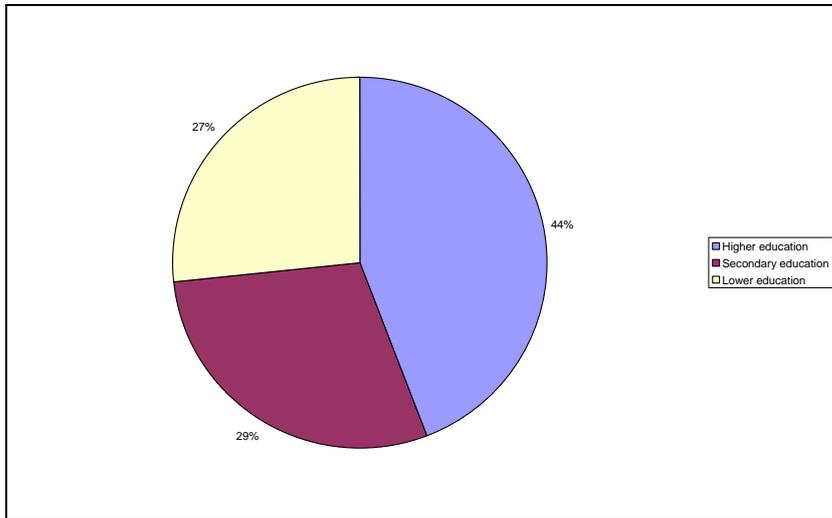


Courses, workshops, exercises and individual supervision are the dominant formats. Here we see that open and distance learning are not mentioned very often, nor are the self-regulated methods of learning such as study circles and open learning centres. Nevertheless, research shows that among the didactical approaches these methods appear to have more impact than traditional teaching arrangements, even when enriched with assignments and follow-up activities. Self-regulated and work-related learning, preferably in the work situation itself, reduce the transfer problems that often occur within traditional training settings.

#### 4.4 The demand side of the VET market

Having described the subject matter covered in the education, we now turn to the target groups. In the quick scan as well as in the interviews and the in-depth country studies we inventoried the target groups. The survey conducted in the final part of the study gave us an impression of the relative participation rates of various groups of participants/learners.

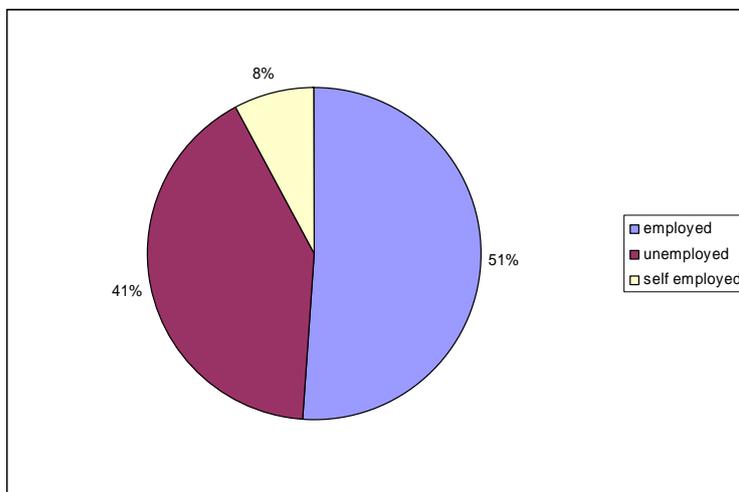
**Figure 4.3** Level of education of participants



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=90)

The proportion of participants with a higher education background in the VET segment investigated in this study is relatively high. The percentages of participants with a secondary or lower level of education are almost equal. This shows that the lower educated participants are reached, which is helpful in attaining the European policy goal of reaching those people who are at risk of losing touch with the knowledge society.

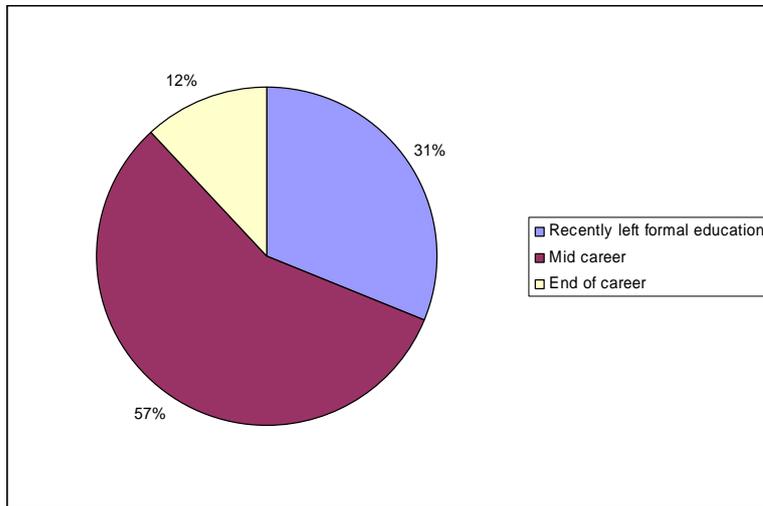
**Figure 4.4** Employment status of participants



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=90)

The employed outnumber the unemployed as 'consumers' of VET. However, there are fewer unemployed persons in society than employed. This implies that they are relatively well represented in VET. This again supports the EU goals on this issue, which state that in order to achieve the Lisbon goals education will have to promote participation in work of the groups of people that did not have equal opportunities up to now.

**Figure 4.5** Stage of career of participants



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=90)

The largest group consists of the 'mid career' people. This is consistent with the earlier observation (figure 4.1), that C-VET is more often used for continuing education than for specialist training.

## 4.5 Conclusions

### Variety of providers

The European VET arena embraces a variety of providers. Many of them are large organisations. Besides the bigger institutions, we also see a large number of individual practitioners and small enterprises. There appears to be a significant difference between the larger (often school-like) establishments and the more market-oriented private bodies.

However, the differences need to be qualified. Some organisations, although private, serve a public cause, while others that are publicly funded do the opposite. In discussing the issue of public versus private we have to consider not only the private or public legal status and sources of funding, but also the cause the organisation serves. Both aspects determine to a large extent the culture and the tradition in which practitioners work.

As far as organisational structures are concerned, we distinguish between the structure in which organisations are embedded and the structures within organisations. As for the external structures, we see that the majority of providers operate in publicly funded, often national, frameworks. We find this especially in the new member states, the Latin countries and the Nordic countries. The Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands have more complex arrangements with more players in the arena.

The providers also have different organisational structures ranging from schools to vocational organisations and government bodies and from employers' and employees' organisations to churches, movements, charities and private agencies or firms.

We observe that educators are often performing various roles and cover various content areas. The field is very diverse and it may be necessary that subfields have to be distinguished in the future, to be able to create clear pictures.

### **Variety of services**

The providers also offer a wide variety of services. The data encompass an overwhelming range of content areas. In general, we can distinguish between:

- work-focused offers,
- role-focused offers and
- entry or re-entry focused offers.

The field of VET covered in this study ranges from subject-oriented, school-like activities to staff development training courses, management seminars and e-learning through open and distance education.

### **Different offers to different audiences**

A somewhat surprising finding is that many providers say that the majority of their services involve specialist training. In their view, participants are apparently seeking to learn something new rather than for reasons of upgrading, refreshing or adapting their competences. At the same time, we found evidence of the relative importance of C-VET for people in the midst of their career. This indicates the importance for training as continuing education as well.

The elderly are only a minor proportion of the participants. Also, the proportion of self-employed is low.

Providers state that relatively many participants have a higher education. This is not exactly what is intended by the lifelong learning policies, and policies maybe needed to see to an increase of participants with a lower type of initial education.

Although lower in absolute terms, the participation of unemployed persons is relatively high. This supports a growing influx of new workers into the labour market. The VET area studied thus appears to contribute to achieving the EU goals as set out in the Lisbon agreement to promote learning related to work and employment.

### **Schooling versus learning**

Learner-centred or learner-initiated arrangements are less common than the more traditional offers such as training courses, exercises and workshops. The VET sector thus seems to be very much still a sector of schooling rather than of learning. In line with what was stated above, that may be one of the explanations for the fact that so many people say that the purpose of training is specialisation rather than enhancing what they already know or do.



## 5 The VET-practitioners

### 5.1 Introduction: positions of practitioners

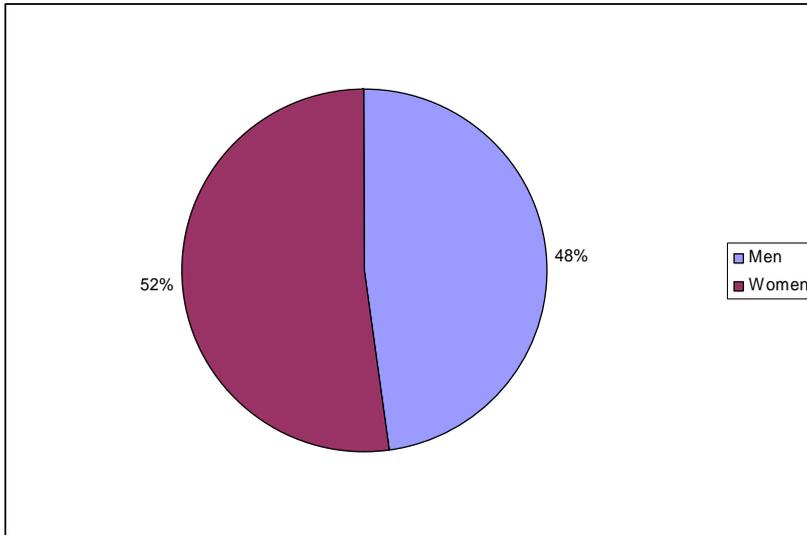
Before going into detail about the requirements, recruitment policies and labour market in this field of VET, we feel it is necessary to summarise who the practitioners are. How do people refer to them? What are their job titles? The list seems endless, but is included here because it illustrates the breadth of the field.

**Table 5.1** Positions in the studied field of VET

<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ lecturer</li><li>▪ teacher</li><li>▪ trainer</li><li>▪ instructor</li><li>▪ coach</li><li>▪ advisor</li><li>▪ counsellor</li><li>▪ employee in AE</li><li>▪ employee in FE</li><li>▪ pedagogical employee</li><li>▪ education manager</li><li>▪ FE instructor</li><li>▪ course leader</li><li>▪ consultant</li><li>▪ presenters</li><li>▪ learning companions</li><li>▪ vocational pedagogue</li><li>▪ operational pedagogue</li><li>▪ evaluators</li><li>▪ implementers of innovations</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ media pedagogue</li><li>▪ vocational teachers</li><li>▪ tutor</li><li>▪ mentor</li><li>▪ adult instructor</li><li>▪ developer</li><li>▪ assessor</li><li>▪ facilitator</li><li>▪ specialist</li><li>▪ supervisor</li><li>▪ monitor</li><li>▪ designer</li><li>▪ master crafts</li><li>▪ HRD manager</li><li>▪ formator</li><li>▪ professor</li><li>▪ mediator</li><li>▪ project managers</li><li>▪ project administrators</li><li>▪ educational designers</li></ul>
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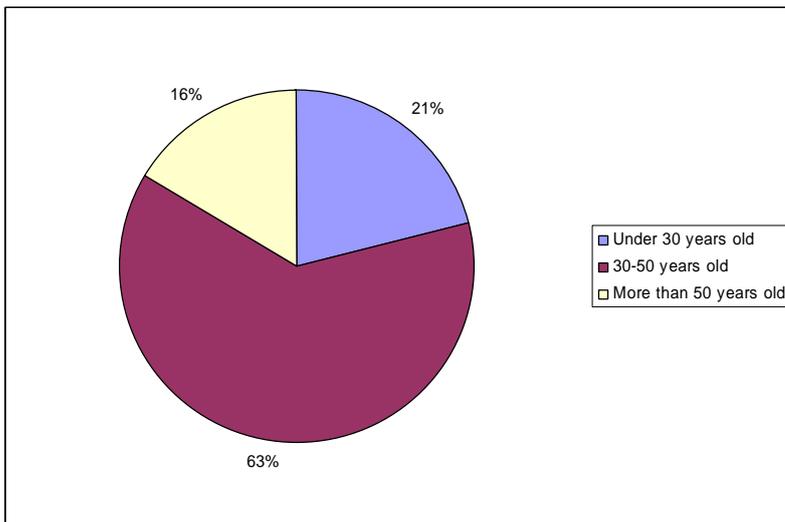
As the figures 5.1 en 5.2, below, express, there does not appear to be a disproportionate representation of either gender in the profession. In terms of age, most practitioners are in the middle of their working careers.

**Figure 5.1** Composition of VET practitioners in terms of gender



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=69)

**Figure 5.2** Composition of VET practitioners in terms of age



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=68)

## 5.2 Roles played in the learning process

As shown by the previous list of professional positions, the educational practitioners active in this field of VET play many roles. The country reports refer to the following types of activity:

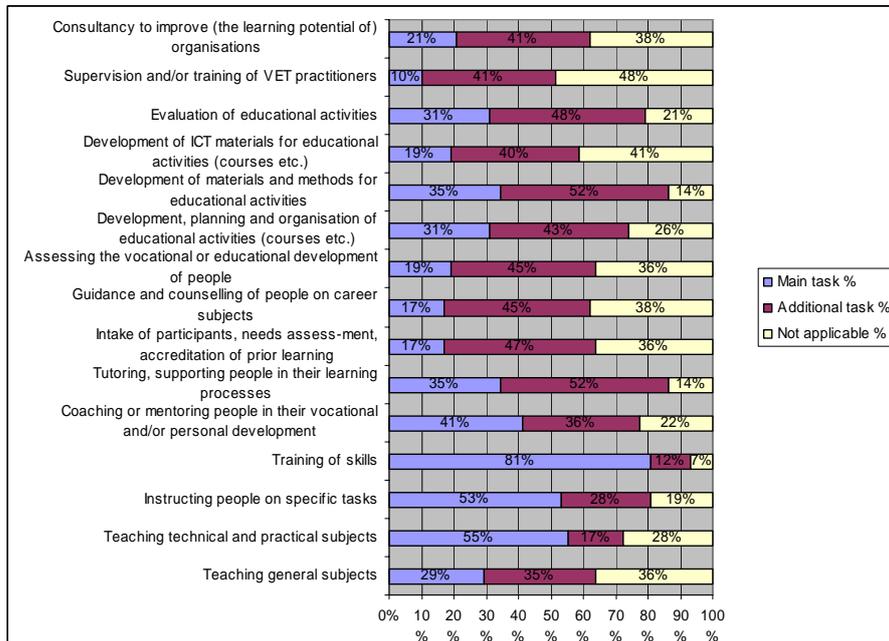
**Table 5.2** Types of practitioners' tasks

- |   |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>■ Teaching general subjects</li><li>■ Teaching technical and practical subjects</li><li>■ Instructing people on concrete tasks</li><li>■ Skills training</li><li>■ Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development</li><li>■ Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes</li><li>■ Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning</li><li>■ Offering guidance and advice to people at their request on career subjects</li><li>■ Assessing the vocational or educational development of individuals</li><li>■ Developing educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Developing material or methods for educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Developing ICT material for educational activities (courses etc.)</li><li>■ Evaluating educational activities</li><li>■ Implementing and evaluating innovation and change processes</li><li>■ Consultancy to help improve (the learning potential of) organisations</li></ul> |
|---|

The educators/practitioners mentioned above do their work for various purposes. The functions of the training are different. Among the examples mentioned we find vocational adaptation, familiarisation, re-training, occupational advancement, vocational rehabilitation, development, optimisation of e-learning processes, transfer of knowledge, facilitating learning. Nevertheless, it is obvious from the data that teaching, training and instruction are the most common forms of education. In addition, an increasing number of agencies include tutoring, mentoring and coaching among their services. Although the volume of these types of service is also growing, they still represent a relatively small proportion of the whole realm of education on offer.

The following figures 5.3 to 5.6 provide an overview of the tasks performed by the various kinds of practitioners covered by the study. They show for each category what the respondents feel are the principal or subsidiary tasks of the practitioners concerned.

**Figure 5.3 Tasks of trainers**

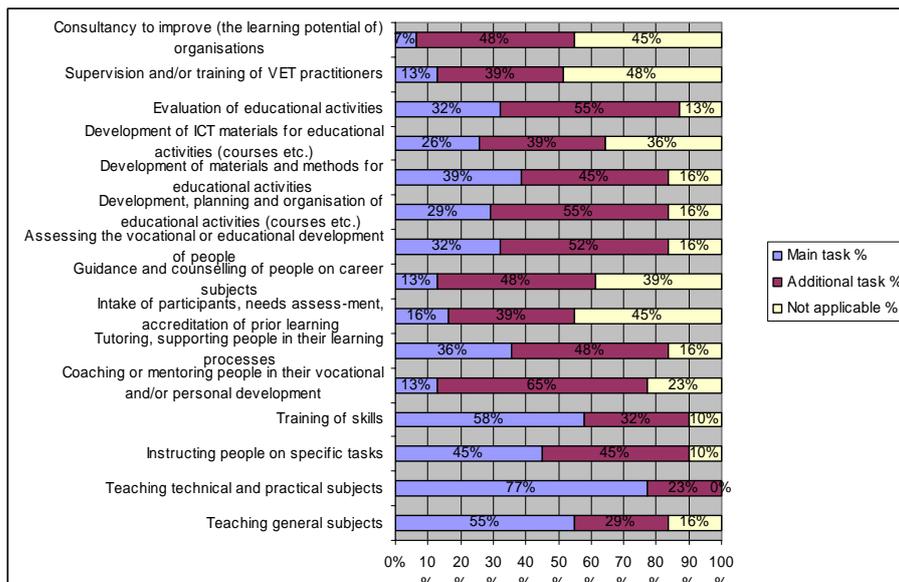


Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

The main task of trainers is training of skills, directly followed by teaching technical and practical subjects and instructing people on specific tasks. This again shows an emphasis on specialisation.

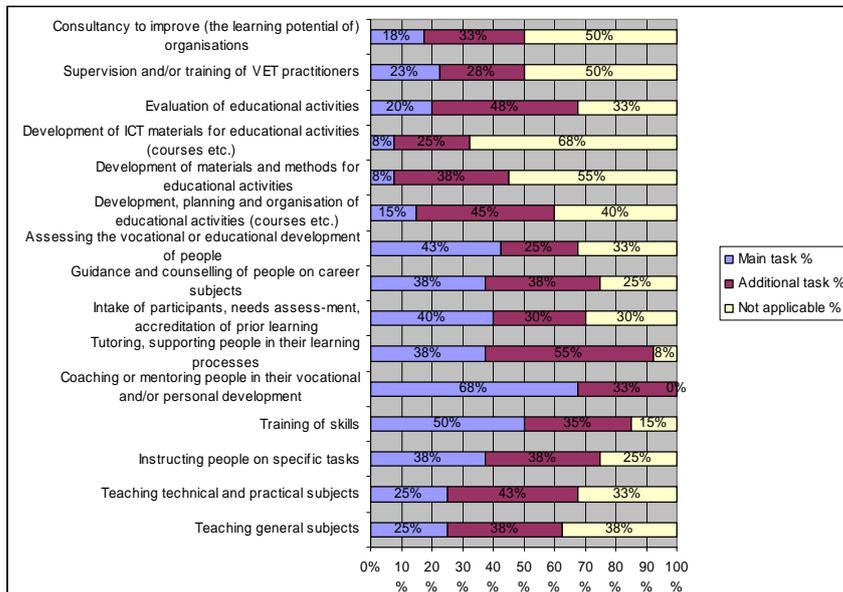
Roughly the same is the case for teachers (figure 5.4). Here 'teaching general subjects' is added to the core tasks.

**Figure 5.4 Tasks of teachers**



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

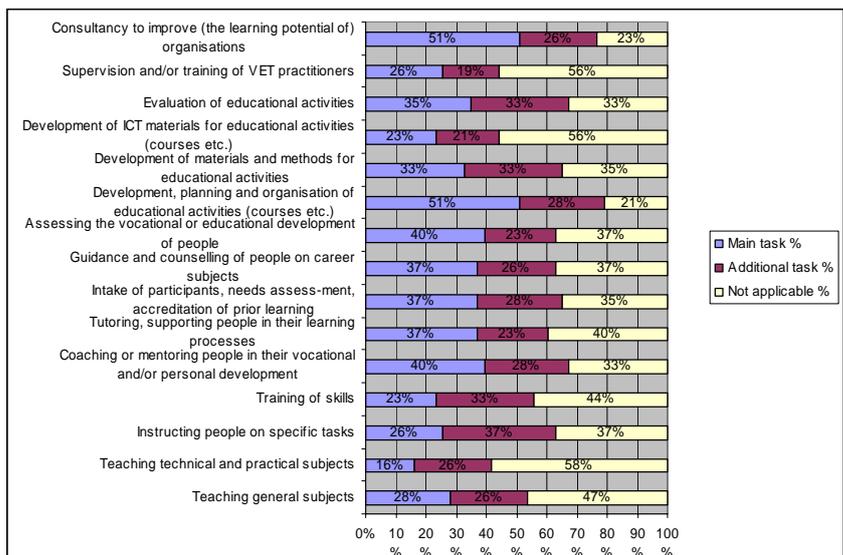
**Figure 5.5 Tasks of coaches**



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

The emphasis in the tasks of coaches is, indeed, coaching. Also, training of skills still is an important task, followed by assessment, guidance and instruction. The role of the consultants is of a more general nature. All of the tasks mentioned in the questionnaire for the web-survey are part of their jobs.

**Figure 5.6 Tasks of consultants**



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

Analysis of these figures leads to the conclusion that trainers, teachers, coaches, consultants and others all have very extensive packages of tasks. It seems as though the tasks are quite mixed. The consultants' position seems to implicate the job with the broadest range of duties. The other, however, also carry quite a broad spectrum of tasks.

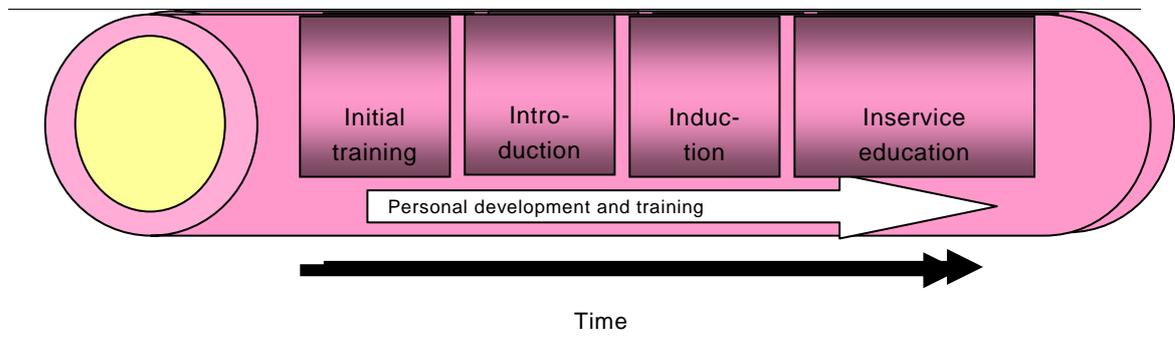
From the data it appears that besides the obvious main tasks there is a differentiated set of additional tasks. The question is whether this is due to the fact that these tasks are spread over the same population or that separate individuals have overlapping tasks. In a similar study of adult education and learning the differences appeared to be relatively greater. The question is whether we see it as an advantage because it implies high employability and makes co-operation easier or as a disadvantage because it requires a wide set of competences not many people will possess and may therefore lead to underperformance. We are inclined to say that the range of tasks is too broad. A slightly greater differentiation would probably lead to an enhanced level of performance.

### 5.3 Stages at which practitioners support the learning processes

The practitioners mentioned above play a role at various stages of the professional careers of workers, from initial training to in-service education and right up to end-of-career support.

Our original model was as follows.

**Figure 5.7** Model



Now the following contributions at various stages are mentioned:

- Initial training
- Assessment
- Introduction courses
- Introduction of new employees, or newly qualified staff
- Induction
- In-service education
- Wider HRD support
- Further education
- Re-orientation

- Specialisation
- Re- entry after unemployment

These contributions fit well into the original model included in the inception report. Assessment and re-entry after unemployment can now be added as categories. These categories apply only to the later stages as shown in the model.

## 5.4 Concluding remarks

### Age and gender of practitioners

In terms of age, most practitioners are in the middle of their working careers. Elderly trainers are underrepresented. This needs further attention since here may be chance for involving elderly employees in training jobs and thus contribute to their end of career development by offering them this perspective and by allowing young employees to benefit from their experience.

Unlike in other educational branches and sectors we see a gender balance in this sector of VET. This may be because such a balance exists, or because as argued above the extremes compensate each other. Further research may reveal that the balance shows great differences in the sub sectors (Private versus public; school education versus work based education)

### Positions and tasks

Practitioners hold various positions which encompass of a wide variety of tasks and roles. They teach, coach, guide, develop, advise, stimulate, assess, and so on. They are "jacks of all trades". The VET practitioners serve audiences of various ages at every phase of their professional lives and in a wide variety of content domains or areas of expertise and competence.

In addition to the educational positions and roles identified in the inception phase we came across two more positions that may require extra attention. One category is the re-entry facilitator or educator. These practitioners have jobs that go beyond teaching in the sense that they include a lot of counselling and coaching to help people overcome lack of self esteem or remorse of lost chances in former jobs. This is an important category of professionals. They are the oil in national and international employment and mobility mechanisms. A second category is the assessor, who is involved in processes of accreditation of prior learning and experience. Increasingly positions are found that mix this assessing task and an educative task. The assessment is perceived and used as a kind of formative educative setting to help people make a move forward. They learn by being assessed and as a consequence of this learning they eventually meet the requirements.

Within their jobs the practitioners have so many tasks and roles at the same time that one might wonder whether anyone can excel at all of those tasks. Maybe it is a sign of the still underdeveloped professionalism in the field that there has not been a further differentiation so that each task is performed by those that are good at them. Further differentiation may enhance efficiency and efficacy.



## 6 Requirements and recruitment

### 6.1 Introduction

The Maastricht and Helsinki Communiqués underlined the close link between the quality of training and education systems and the quality of the education and training staff (the quality and relevance of their initial education, continuous professional development and the attractiveness of the professions). Accordingly, improvements in the quality of vocational education and training are sought in the improvement of those working as VET practitioners.

In this chapter we focus on the standards and requirements for VET practitioners that are set by European/ national governments, sectoral organisations, recruiters and employers: What initial education and competences are new staff members expected to have?

After describing the data on entry requirements, we will discuss the required and desired skills and competences and the question of how new staff members are recruited and whether there are enough potential employees available on the labour market. This subject is related to information in other chapters. In chapter 4 we discussed the various distinct categories of adult learning staff and the work activities associated with each position.

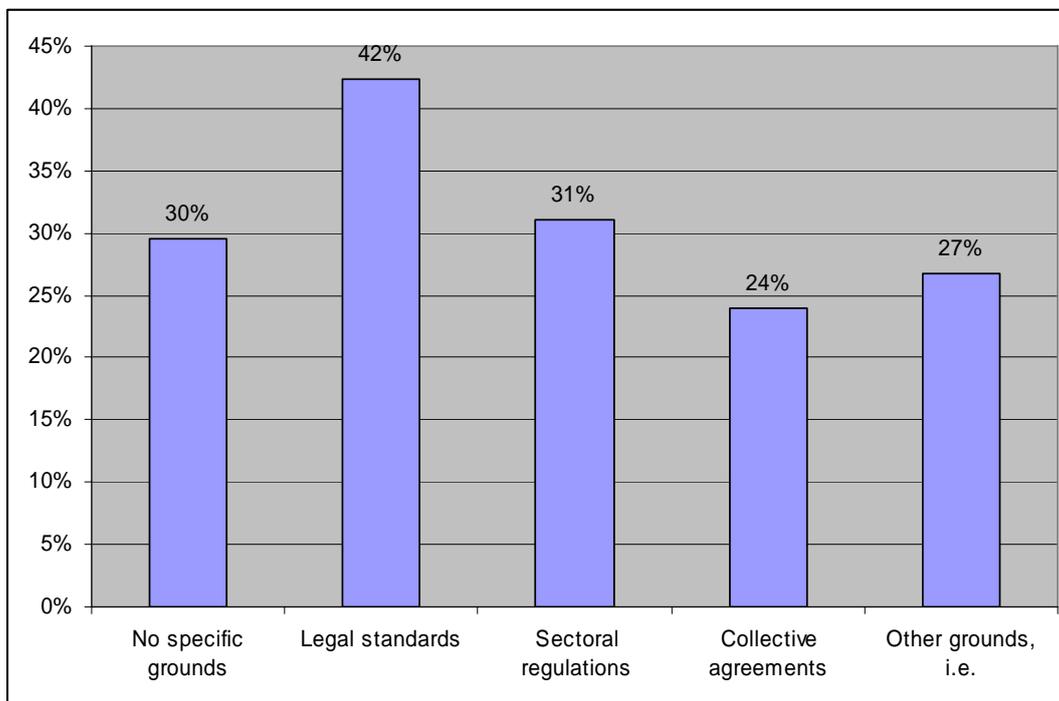
In executing this study the research team was confronted with a lack of structured information regarding the practitioners in the identified field of VET. Most of the data available at country level relates to formal school-based VET or exclusively publicly-financed forms within our identified field of VET. Because of those 'blind spots', our findings are based primarily on the interviews conducted and the responses to our web survey.

### 6.2 Grounds for entry requirements

In many countries and settings no particular initial qualifications are required to become a VET practitioner. Most countries have no formal requirements for the majority of VET practitioners. In the majority of countries it is not always clear what qualifications are required and in some cases, or rather in some countries or for some positions, no qualifications are needed at all.

Based on the data derived from the interviews with the providers we see the following division between the different possible grounds for requirements:

**Figure 6.1** Grounds for the requirement of qualifications<sup>1</sup>



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

In the cases *where specific prior training or experience is required*, over 40% of respondents in our survey sample revealed that the grounds for those requirements are legal standards. The legal situation is not always the ground for imposing quality requirements. Other grounds are sectoral regulations and collective agreements. Sectoral regulations apply when the sector itself develops competency profiles. By contrast with legal regulations, sectoral regulations say more about the actual qualifications and skills one needs to have in order to work in the sector.

The collective agreements are concluded between the employers and the employees. They contain job descriptions and salary scales linked to skills, the work performed and educational level. These collective agreements can therefore provide a firm basis for requiring qualifications. In slightly fewer than a third of the cases there are no specific grounds for requirements and in about one quarter of the cases requirements are based on 'other grounds'. In those cases, the grounds are most often self-imposed, for example in company regulations. One reason why providers may institute specific initial requirements for their personnel may be competition with other providers. High standards enhance their reputations.

Not all national policies cover the entire VET sector. The teachers in formal second-chance education do generally have to meet the same criteria as teachers in regular / initial education. One exception though is the further education sector and other parts of lifelong learn-

<sup>1</sup> The percentages in this figure amount to over 100%. This is because respondents could give multiple answers. The percentages are calculated over the number of respondents.

ing in Adult and Community Learning in the UK, where teachers have to meet specific standards set by Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK), a sector skills organisation for lifelong learning. In chapter 7 we will go deeper into this example.

A distinction can be noted between two kinds of providers: the strong private companies and the publicly and privately-funded institutions that serve a public cause.

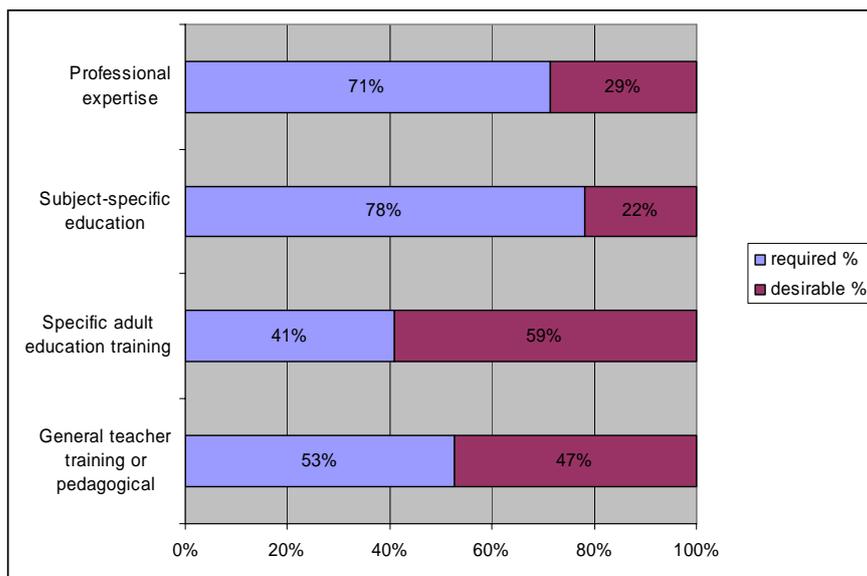
*The Netherlands:* The structure of VET activities tends to replicate the division in formal education and the labour market between privileged and underprivileged. Sectoral training institutions maintain the knowledge and competences of personnel in the branches concerned at a high level. Private institutions serve the growing number of higher-educated professionals who benefit from their strong position in the labour market. Subsidised institutions try to offer a safety net to casual labourers who have difficulties in keeping up in a knowledge economy

### 6.3 Required and desired skills, competences and qualifications

As we saw in the last paragraph, there are various grounds on which qualifications can be demanded by the provider. On the other hand, and more often, no skills and competences are required to get into the VET sector but additional or desired skills and competences are the basis for appointing someone as a trainer or teacher. These desired competences and skills can be clustered in four categories:

- 1) professional expertise,
- 2) subject-specific education,
- 3) specific adult education training,
- 4) general teaching, training or pedagogical competences.

**Figure 6.2** Requirements regarding qualification of practitioners of those possessing the qualification



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007)

The interviews with providers showed that almost 80 % of all providers require their staff to have subject-specific knowledge, and in many cases professional expertise (70%). Besides subject-specific knowledge, teaching staff should also possess general didactical skills. Although specific training in adult education is desirable, it is only a requirement in the minority of cases (see figure 6.2).

The following examples are an illustration of this finding.

*The Netherlands:* VET practitioners are appointed on the basis of their expert knowledge and competence rather than having the right educational qualifications. As far as the qualifications and competences of VET practitioners are concerned, 'knowledge of the labour market, organisational sensitivity, networking, acquisition and seeking opportunities are more prominent than didactic qualifications.

The importance of formal teaching qualifications is declining. Even in the associated field of formal education, e.g in the Regional Education and Training Centres (ROCs), a formal teaching qualification is no longer a strict requirement. Mobility from formal education to the field of intermediate VET is less common than it used to be. In that respect, there is a trend towards deformalisation of VET.

*Romania:* Different types of VET practitioners with various roles could also be found in companies or in employers' organisations or trade unions. Each company might have its own requirements and tasks for VET practitioners.

*Sweden:* Most of the teachers in KY come from the working community and they often base their education and teaching on problem-based learning with examples from real working life. For the Swedish Agency for Advanced Vocational Education and the institutions and companies that provide KY the requirement that the teachers in KY come from working life is the most important factor. There are no formal requirements for pedagogic education or pedagogic skills for teachers in the KY.

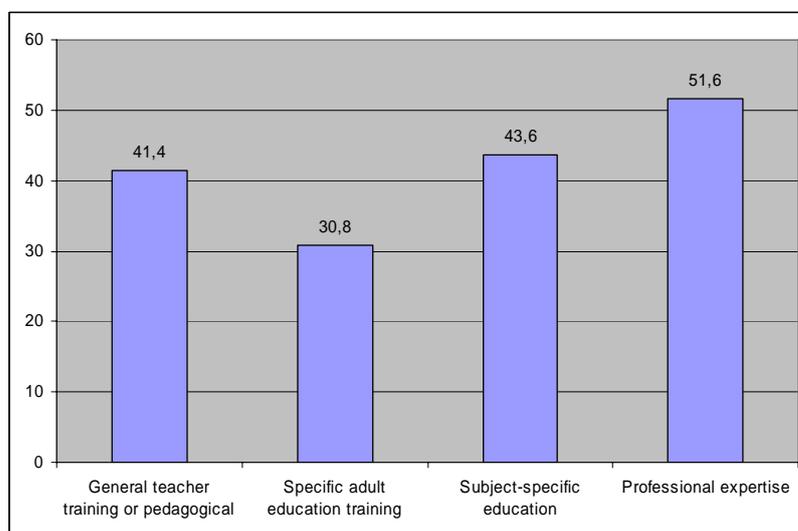
A pedagogical background is often not required for practitioners. For example, in *Malta* there are generally no formal qualification requirements for VET teachers and trainers at the admission stage. Those employed to deliver basic courses in trade skills are required to demonstrate the necessary level of experience. Trainers with pedagogical training are preferred but it is not always specifically required. VET teachers and trainers in Malta develop their pedagogical skills through in-service training or on-the-job experience. In *Sweden* it is considered crucial that those who teach in VET are competent and experts in the subject rather than trained pedagogues. In *Hungary*, according to research carried out in 2001 (Fehérvári, 2001), high level professional skills and professional experience are the fundamental requirements for instructors working in adult training offered outside the school system. Employers in regional training centres and training companies consider several aspects when selecting instructors: relevant school education, professional experience and practical experience gained in enterprises. Institutions may also consider other aspects (e.g. some institutions prefer teacher/ trainer experience and younger instructors). Pedagogical qualifications are less significant and employers usually do not require them. The Dutch country study shows an interesting process of deformalisation of requirements for VET practitioners in the Netherlands.

We see the opposite in Estonia, Czech Republic, Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Slovakia, where requirements are imposed regarding the pedagogical background of VET practitioners.

Differences also exist between different sub-sectors. Generally speaking, in situations where our specified field of VET is closely tied to the formal school system the requirements for pedagogical experience are stricter than in situations where non-formal VET is more visible as a 'separate' sector.

The interviews with the providers give an indication of the types of qualifications possessed by staff members (see figure 6.3)

**Figure 6.3** Percentage of VET practitioners that possess different qualifications<sup>1</sup>.



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=69)

The interviewees indicate that more than 40% of practitioners actually possess the required or desired general didactical qualifications. 30% of them say practitioners have the required or desired training in adult education, 43% are said to be educated in the specific subject they teach and 51% of the staff have the right professional expertise.

It could therefore be argued that the practitioners are better trained than strictly required at a pedagogical level. It is conceivable that this "over-qualification" with regard to pedagogical skills is due to the large number of (former) secondary school teachers who (also) work as VET practitioners. For example, in Estonia, Poland, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg and Bulgaria, among others, the positions of VET practitioners are often filled by persons who work or have worked as a secondary school teacher or in formal VET schools where those qualifications *are* required. Still, the overall impression remains that only a minority meet the desirable requirements of being trained in a particular subject, possessing work-related knowledge, teaching and the specifics of the didactics of adult learning.

<sup>1</sup> Percentages amount to more than 100% since practitioners can possess more than one type of expertise and/or training.

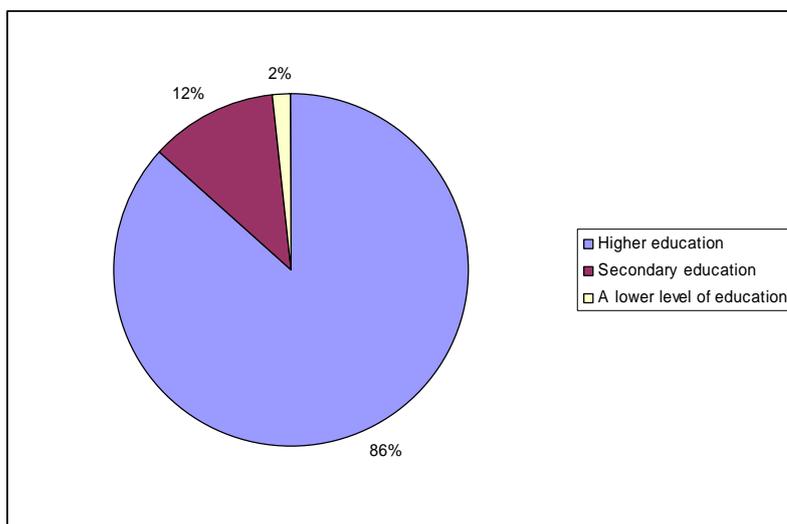
### Level of education

The requirements are not always formalised or strictly enforced, and are sometimes even non-existent. It is difficult to set standards because there is no single higher education or university course people can take to become a VET practitioner. Consequently, VET practitioners possess a wide variety of educational backgrounds and no clear picture can be drawn of the educational pathways along which practitioners enter their profession. The spectrum of initial training backgrounds represented in VET is very wide and ranges from all sorts of academic backgrounds to work experience to qualifications as project managers, accountants, nurses, IT professionals or, in the case of language education, simply native speakers.

The fact that most educators have a higher education degree does not necessarily mean that the degree is in the subject they teach. The data indicate, however, that most staff members do indeed teach the subject in which they have a degree.

Although differences exist between sectors and between VET providers, we gathered from the interviews with experts and providers in the identified field of VET as well as the survey data (see figure 6.4 below) that the large majority of VET practitioners have a higher education degree. This feature of a high level of education among VET practitioners could be found in almost all country studies.

**Figure 6.4** Level of education of VET practitioners



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=72)

There is, however, little support of the educational needs of trainers since there are no train the trainer programmes in most countries. This hampers the development of a professional attitude and the establishment of a distinctive career path towards and within the VET sector, as the case of Bulgaria illustrates:

*Bulgaria:* Considering the trainers' specific educational needs and their role in the training process, the lack of a comprehensive system for training adult trainers is a problem. The institutions that prepare teachers have to develop a training system for the teachers in VET that corresponds with the specific features of the profession, the teachers' personal interests and skills and the ages of the learners (children or adults). On the other hand, the employers must give teachers a chance to introduce them to novelties in the branch by ensuring work places, issuing invitations to participate in seminars, etc. It is necessary to reduce the restrictive regime in the ordinance on career growth of the teachers and to ease the requirements for labour practice in transition from one degree or professional qualification to another<sup>1</sup>.

### **The importance of pedagogical training**

Leney (2004)<sup>2</sup> mentions some particular aspects of recruiting and training teachers in VET which differ from teacher recruitment and education for general secondary school subjects. For instance, as opposed to general education there is no clearly-defined subject matter for VET professionals. The content of vocational learning depends to a large extent on and is focussed on the contexts of work, education and technology. Some teacher recruitment and training policies therefore favour educational background over work or technological experience, and vice versa.

This picture can be seen in our study as well: while the large majority of VET practitioners have obtained a higher level of education, a pedagogical degree is less prevalent among them. Judging from the VET providers in our sample, on average less than 50% of VET practitioners have had general teacher or pedagogical training, while less than a third of training staff have specific adult education training. Professional experience is the most common 'qualification'.

This absence of a pedagogical background is however not in itself felt to be a problem. In fact, the qualification is not even a (formal) requirement for most of the practitioners who possess it. For those with general teacher or pedagogical training it is a formal requirement in fewer than half of the cases. For specific adult education training the figure is slightly over 50%. Additionally, the figure below shows that the qualification that is most often required by the training provider is subject-specific education, closely followed by professional expertise.

### **Professional experience**

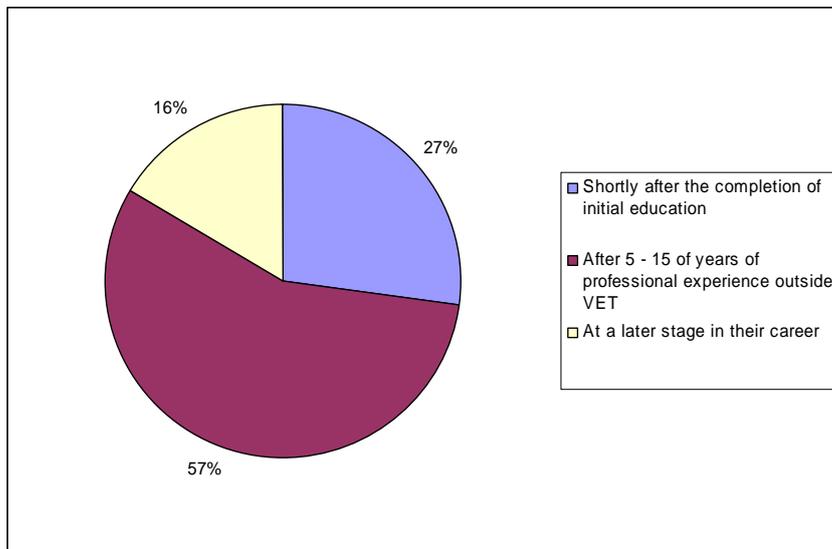
Professional experience is considered to be almost more important than pedagogical qualifications as can be seen in the country study from the Netherlands. In contrast to teaching staff in formal education, a relatively large proportion of VET practitioners enter the job after gaining a number of years of professional experience outside the field of VET. Among the VET providers in our survey, on average only about a quarter of VET practitioners entered their job shortly after completing initial education. Most practitioners enter the job with between 5 and 15 years of professional experience, while 16% enter the job after spending more than 15 years working outside the VET field. It is important to bear in mind that many VET practitioners have a second job besides their work as trainer. In those

<sup>1</sup> According to the 2005 'Education and Training 2010', Commission Report.

<sup>2</sup> Leney, T. (2004). *Achieving the Lisbon goal: the contribution of VET*. London: Tinsel Media.

cases, the commencement of a job as VET practitioner doesn't mean an exit from their 'regular' job.

**Figure 6.5** Stage of their career at which VET practitioners enter their job



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=70)

## 6.4 Recruitment and labour market

The necessary and desirable competences play an important role in an organisation's recruitment and selection policies. There may be quantitative and qualitative discrepancies between the supply of and the demand for qualified personnel. First we take a look at the recruitment procedures, and then the supply of and demand for personnel.

### 6.4.1 Recruitment procedures

The country studies do not all contain data on the recruitment policies applied in the VET sector. Generally speaking, the policy depends on the kind of provider and its connection with the formal vocational education system.

*Poland:* There is no such thing as a typical recruitment model and the rules, customs and practices of recruitment vary according to the type of institution leading the non-formal education initiative. For example, private institutions for teaching and learning foreign languages, especially those that provide exams and certificates recognised for professional development purposes, would be expected to document a higher education background in languages. Those institutions that have rights to conduct any kind of examinations or in-service certification processes usually have more rigorous safety rules linked to the professionalisation of the teaching staff and pedagogical preparations but they work more as a formal minimum than a real security gate.

*Slovenia:* The recruitment and status of VET practitioners depends on the provider and the field of education. The teachers in regular employment with providers, freelancers and other contractual practitioners are generally hired through official advertisements and on the basis of their work references (practical experience, Master's).

*Romania:* The public training providers usually have a permanent staff, including a pool of trainers who generally have a university background or are recognised specialists in different training fields. They normally don't possess specific qualifications for adult education and their status is equated with that of teachers.

Proven previous experience and successful collaboration in the past are important selection criteria. That is why some recognised trainers can be recruited by more than one training provider at the same time, professional mobility being seen by the trainers as a good opportunity for personal development through interaction with different types of organisational ethos, different types of participants and different subjects.

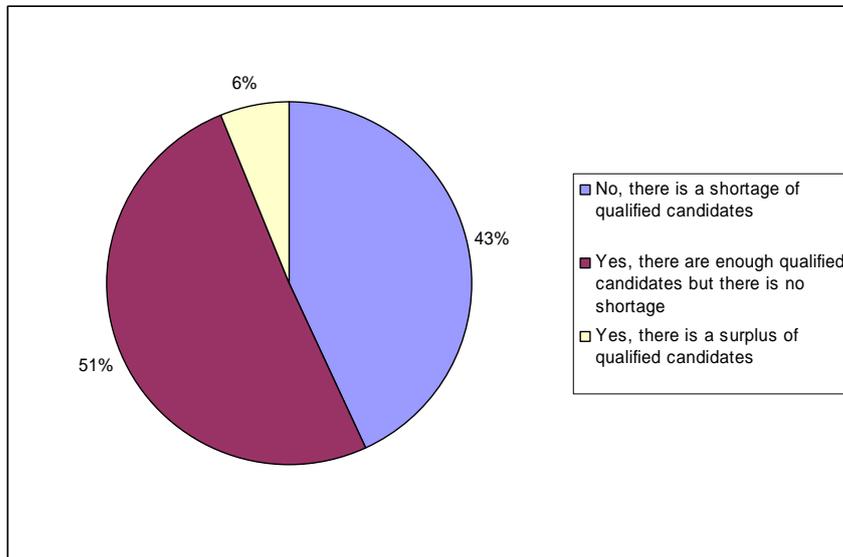
Equally, no general picture can be given for the selection processes since no general formal policies exist. Staff members often have a degree in higher education, and sometimes a pedagogical degree, but often this is not a formal selection criterion.

### **6.2.1. Labour market**

Most of the teachers in all the country studies appear to meet the criteria of the providers: they have a HE degree and quite often also some knowledge of pedagogic and didactical methods. It must be noted, however, that the qualifications differ per subject: the level of subject/didactical qualifications expected in the case of languages is considerably higher than for other subjects.

A finding from our study is that, while most of the organisations are able to find enough good candidates (or even have a surplus), almost half of the organisations in our survey sample indicated they were suffering from a shortage of qualified candidates (see figure 6.6).

**Figure 6.6** Is the organisation able to find enough qualified staff members?



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

The interviews with providers indicate that more than 50% have no problems finding qualified personnel, while 6% actually said there is a surplus of qualified personnel available. However, 43% also said there is a shortage on the labour market and that they experience difficulties finding the right people.

#### 6.4.2 Employment situation

The general consensus concerning the employment situation is that the quality of working life is higher in cases where workers are employed full-time, on permanent contracts and with a high level of job security. In that case there's a clear mutual commitment between employers and employees. However, that doesn't mean that a situation where such a permanent relationship is lacking must automatically be seen as undesirable. The picture that emerges from our study is of a fairly flexible relationship between providers and practitioners.

It is worth noting that very few countries are able to provide complete statistical data on the employment situation of VET practitioners. In many cases, most of the available data concern the formal VET system and not (exclusively) our identified field of study. Given this 'blind spot' in the data we will not present the statistical data as 'facts' but rather base the findings on our interviews and illustrate these findings with the results of the web-based survey among training providers.

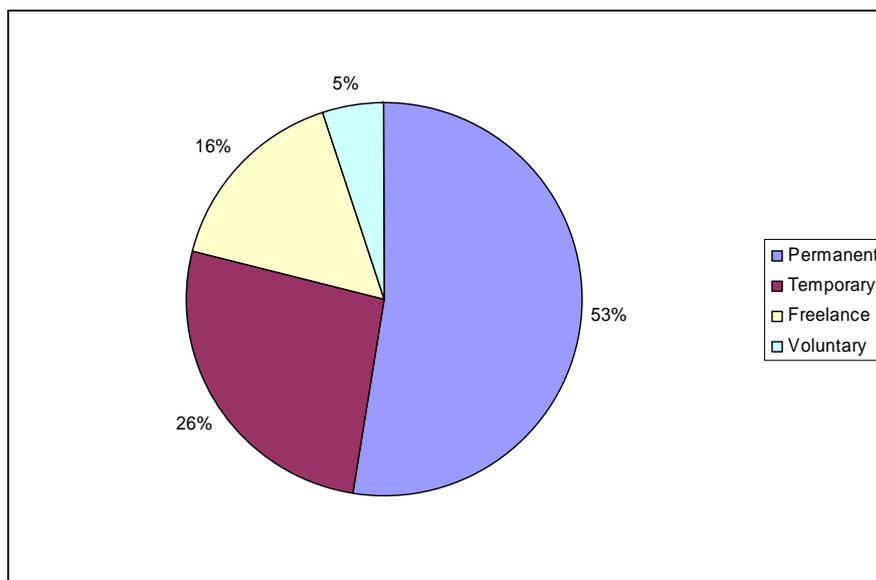
When examining the data, one thing that catches the eye is the relatively large number of staff members that are employed without a permanent contract and/or on a part-time basis. This characteristic is noticeable all over Europe and appears not to be limited to specific national contexts.

Interviews with representatives of training providers in Europe made it clear that they either wish or need to maintain flexibility in the employment of “their” staff. For example, in *Greece* the absence of permanently employed teachers makes the system more flexible for providers since it allows them to select the appropriate teachers for each subject separately and to cancel training courses in case of local saturation of certain occupations. The *Swedish situation* also illustrates this. Some VET courses tend to have a rather short life. It is not possible to continue running a specific education programme once the need for it has vanished. In *Germany*, the identified field of VET is seen as depending on freelancers for whom no social security contributions have to be paid and who can be made redundant at short notice.

The tendency for VET practitioners to work part-time for the organisation is also directly related to this wish or need on the part of providers to remain flexible. When demand for training is high trainers can work more hours, whereas in times of low demand trainers can work fewer hours. All the while, their contracts can be continuously adapted to the new circumstances and demands. The main reason for the large number of part-timers is that the jobs themselves are small. There is often not enough demand for a specific type of training/course to allow for the appointment of a full-time VET practitioner with a specific skill set.

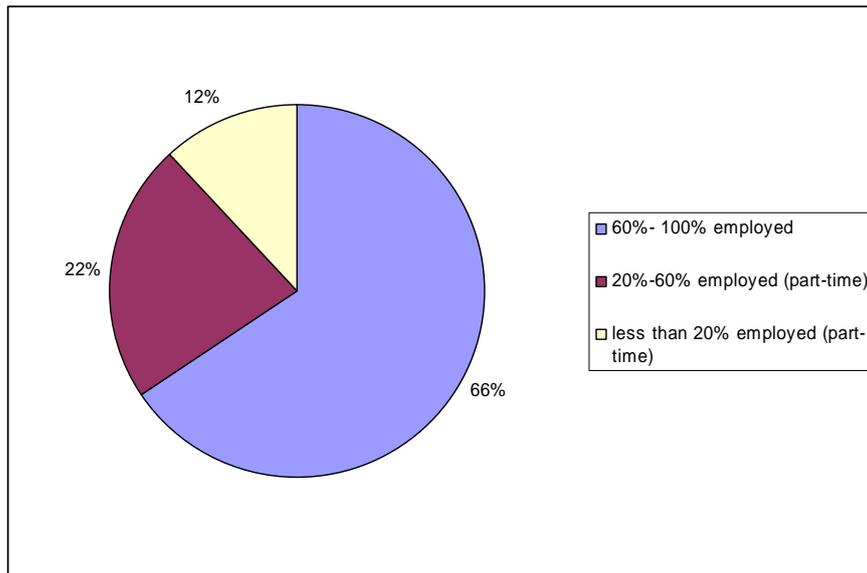
The survey results (figure 6.7 and 6.8 below) illustrate the proportion of non-permanent and part-time staff within the selected sample. The figure also shows a relatively substantial group of volunteers. However, volunteers were scarcely ever mentioned in the interviews as an important group of practitioners. One explanation for this is that little is known about the position of volunteers. Another possible explanation is that although their numbers may be relatively large, they play a minor role in the organisation.

**Figure 6.7** Composition of VET practitioners in terms of type of appointment



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=68)

**Figure 6.8** Composition of VET practitioners in terms of working hours



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

In figure 6.8 we see that 66% of the VET practitioners are employed for between 60% and 100%. The VET sector accounts for substantial part of their working time and they can be regarded as full-time employees. 22% work part-time (20-60%) and 12 % is employed for less than 20% of their working time.

By contrast with VET practitioners, their colleagues in management and administration within the training providers are usually employed full-time (or close to it) and have fixed contracts. For example, in *Germany* the full-timers rarely teach (especially in larger organisations). These management and administrative positions are far less affected by local and temporary demand for specific skills in the labour market. When the demand for a specific type of training decreases, (the skills of) administrative staff and management will still be needed whereas the teachers no longer will be.

All in all, the relationship between VET practitioners and the training provider appears to be somewhat flexible.

The question is whether the practitioners experience this flexible relationship with the provider as a problem. When answering this question it is important to realise that most VET practitioners who are not employed full-time hold more than one job. They often combine their work as a VET practitioner with a job as a teacher in formal (vocational) education. This feature is especially noticeable in new member states, where the defined field of VET is closely linked to the formal educational system. For example, in *Poland* working as a VET practitioner offers opportunities to earn additional income, to acquire additional professional development and to gain practical experience. The majority of the teaching staff in the non-formal sector treat it as a second job. Often their "regular" job is in an institution in the formal system (mainly in schools or colleges). This is particularly true in the case of experts in a particular professional/vocational field, for whom the work is often an extension of their work in the school (in another branch or in a project). In *Poland* it is almost impossible to make a clear division between the market of trainers in the non-formal system and the market of those involved in formal education. This situation is mirrored in the

*Czech Republic.* Interviews with representatives of VET providers in *Estonia* show that the same teachers are responsible for teaching both IVET and CVET courses in VET institutions and that here too the distinction between formal school-based VET and our identified field of VET is very hard to make.

A second combination of different jobs performed by VET practitioners is the work in their profession with work as a trainer in the same sector. This combination enables them not only to earn additional income but also gives them status (as someone who is very knowledgeable in the profession) and enables them to reflect very deeply on their own functioning as a professional. This feature can be found in Romania, Sweden, Germany (in the case of commercial further education) and Italy.

A third combination of jobs is that of a VET-practitioner who works for a number of different providers. This is often the case for freelance staff in the identified field of VET. In the *UK and Germany* it is not uncommon for freelancers to have jobs at different institutions. Also in *Romania* highly regarded trainers can be recruited by more than one training provider at the same time. In this case professional mobility is seen by the trainers as a good opportunity for personal development, to interact with different types of organisational ethos and to encounter different types of participants and subjects. In Sweden, practitioners that teach general topics may also teach in different organisations. This is the case particularly in larger where the practitioners have multiple VET providers to choose from.

*Sweden:* In KY there is a mix of employees and freelancers. The trend is that there are more and more freelancers, while the number of VET practitioners in full-time employment is decreasing. One reason for this is that this form of education may be rather short-lived since it is impossible to continue running a specific course when the demand from the labour market is gone. The organisation cannot remain intact permanently.

Opinions differ on whether the flexible relationship between practitioners and providers should be regarded as a problem depending on whom you ask. For instance, in *Germany* it is questionable whether a VET practitioner working as a full-time freelancer within professional further education is able to make provision for illness and old age apart from his direct life assurance from his salary. The teachers' representatives have a clear opinion on the matter: for them, the conditions for self-employed teachers are "antisocial". With a relatively low income they are barely able to earn enough money and it is conceivable that many full-time teachers do without social security as a consequence. This is less of an issue for VET practitioners for whom the salary they earn in VET is additional to their "regular" income from another job.

## 6.5 Concluding remarks

### **The professional group of VET practitioners**

The composition of the professional group of VET practitioners as a whole is quite balanced in terms of age and gender. Practitioners are highly educated. Most have a higher education degree. However, their education usually qualifies them in terms of content but less so as a teacher or as an educator. Particularly in adult learning and education, the competence and experience of practitioners is sometimes under-developed. Practitioners are often more highly qualified than strictly required.

### **Entry requirements**

In many countries and settings no particular initial qualifications are required to become a VET practitioner. Most countries have no formal requirements for the majority of VET practitioners. In almost 30% of the cases investigated we found that no requirements at all apply. The qualities that VET practitioners need for their jobs appear to be negotiable. This is particularly true in the private sector. In that sector salaries seem to be better, while the position of practitioners is less stable. It is in many ways a different world, often with a more business-like culture.

In the cases where specific prior training or experience is required, over 40% of respondents stated that the grounds for those requirements are legal standards. The legal situation is not always the ground for imposing quality requirements. Other grounds are sectoral regulations and collective agreements. Sectoral regulations apply when the sector itself develops competency profiles. By contrast with legal regulations, sectoral regulations say more about the actual qualifications and skills one needs to have in order to work in the sector.

### **Required and desired skills**

The interviews with providers showed that almost 80 % of all providers require their staff to have subject-specific knowledge, and in many cases professional expertise (70%). Besides subject-specific knowledge, teaching staff should also possess general didactical skills. Specific training in adult education is desirable, but it is only a requirement in the minority of cases.

The least attention is in most of the countries devoted to the adult life long learning requirements of practitioners, shortly followed by the requirement in pedagogy or didactics. Apparently the emphasis is on working experience and subject knowledge. In no way one can argue that those kinds of expertise wouldn't be important, but it shows an unbalance in the spectrum of capabilities of trainers. Indeed we see the opposite in Estonia, Czech Republic, Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Slovakia, where requirements are imposed regarding the pedagogical background of VET practitioners.

### **Labour market and employment situation**

The interviews with providers indicate that more than 50% have no problems finding qualified personnel, while 6% actually said there is a surplus of qualified personnel available. However, 43% also said there is a shortage on the labour market and that they experience difficulties finding the right people.

We have seen that 66% of the VET practitioners are employed for between 60% and 100%. The VET sector accounts for substantial part of their working time and they can be regarded as full-time employees. 22% work part-time (20-60%) and 12 % is employed for less than 20% of their working time. Managers and members of staff tend to have more stable positions than the educators. There is a significant degree of flexibility in the field, especially in the private organisations. The VET practitioners employed often hold down a combination of positions. Three types of combinations were identified.

- People working in VET and in formal initial VET
- People working in VET and in another profession
- People working in VET for a variety of providers

The combination of positions most probably adds to the relevance, the applicability and the transferability of the education offered.

The terms of employment of VET practitioners need to be improved, although this is less of a problem for VET practitioners whose VET job is a side job. For those whose VET position is their main job the working conditions, salary and legal position are often relatively poor. The situation does differ from country to country but in general improvements are needed.



## 7 Quality assurance management

### 7.1 Introduction

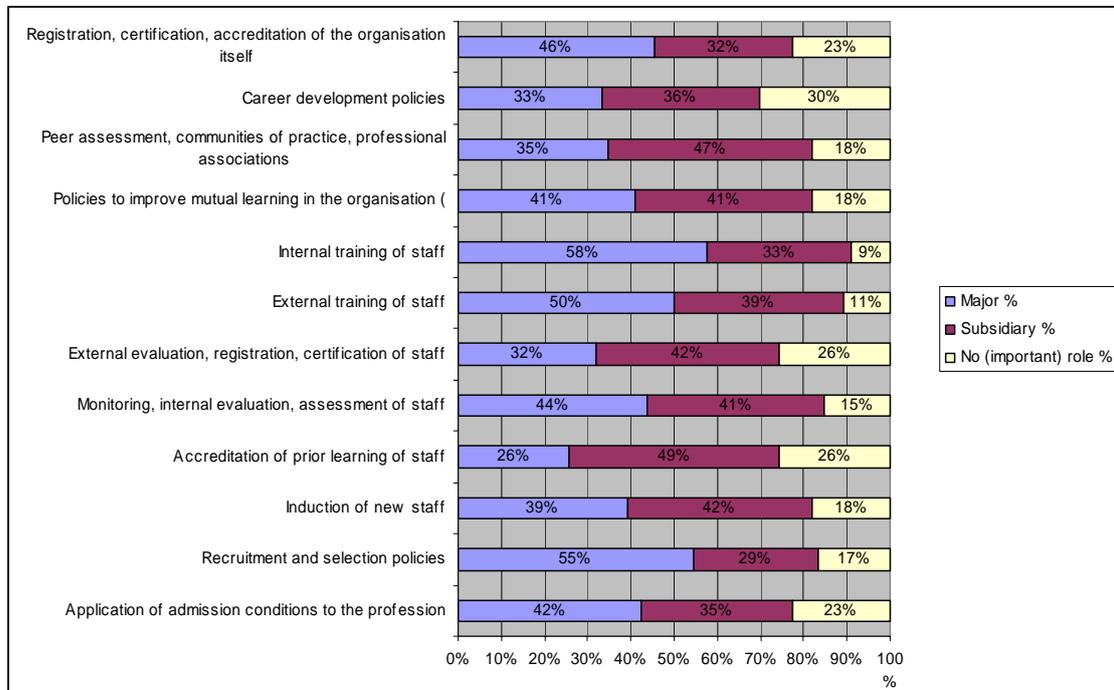
Quality management is indispensable for the further professionalisation of the VET sector. The manner and the extent of the professionalisation of the sector must however be in harmony with what suits the sector. This applies to all potential measures of quality described in this chapter.

Quality assurance for teaching within the VET sector is the responsibility of different actors at different levels. Five areas of responsibility can be distinguished, each beginning with "pro":

- **Programme.** The quality of programmes offered
- **Procedures.** This includes the structure of the work processes and their monitoring within the providing organisations (intake procedure, procedure for dealing with complaints, professional codes of conduct etc.)
- **Providers.** The organisations have to meet quality standards as regards their accommodation, their policies and their organisation
- **Profession.** This includes measures to guarantee the professional quality, for instance with theoretical and empirical underpinning of teaching content and methodology and proper training of newly recruited staff.
- **Product.** The outcomes, the achievements, the effects and the impact of training.

The relative importance of each of these areas for actions to promote the quality of adult education provided is summarised in figure 7.1 below:

**Figure 7.1** What kinds of actions does your organisation take to ensure and/or to improve the professional development of the VET practitioners and/or the quality of the educational activities



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET in-depth phase (2007)

The figure above shows that selection and training are the most common methods of professionalisation, immediately followed by accreditation, monitoring and evaluation. It is interesting to note however that almost none of the measures described have a really low percentage. This implies that the environment for learning is very rich. Nevertheless, the impression created is that the more traditional approaches to professional development such as training are dominant. Practices that support self-regulated and experiential learning are less common. Such approaches may be found in actions such as APL and communities of practice. However, the overall picture suggests a good balance.

In this chapter we discuss several measures taken with respect to quality assurance in more detail. Three clusters of measures are separated:

- 1) Entry requirements, such as recruitment and selection criteria
- 2) Continuous education and on-the-job learning
- 3) Controlling the level of qualifications

As in chapter 6, we will see that the sector lacks firm and formal regulations. This point can be illustrated by the country study of Bulgaria.

*Bulgaria:* In terms of HRD and HRM initiatives, it should be noted that the system for enhancing teacher qualifications is based on the principle of voluntary participation. Teachers can take part in the different qualification processes at will or on the recommendation of their employers (the head teacher of the school) or Regional Inspectors.

We asked providers to indicate whether a particular measure actually plays an important, subsidiary or unimportant role in the institute.

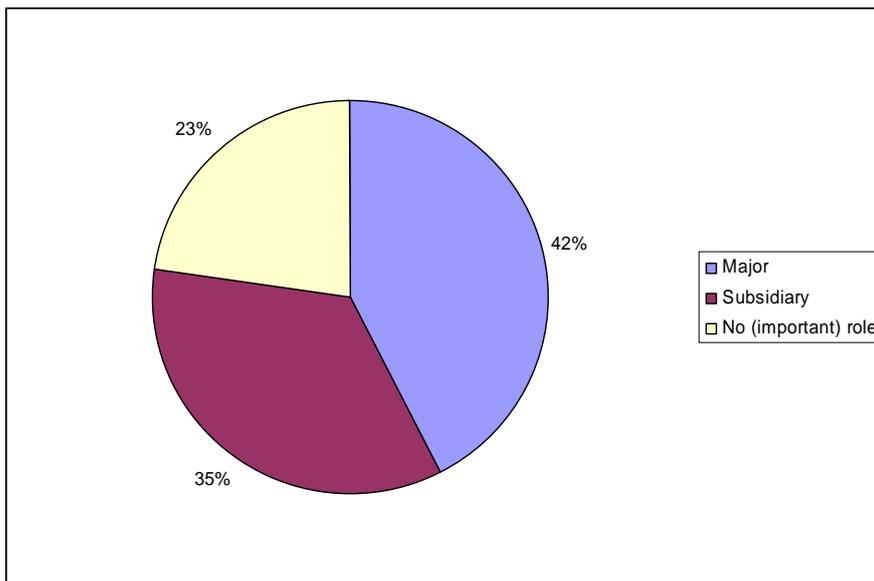
## 7.2 Entry requirements

In chapter 6 we discussed the grounds for imposing requirements on VET practitioners. Where regulations exist, the emphasis is on legislative measures and national policies concerning the initial entry qualifications of practitioners.

In this section we discuss whether the entry requirements are taken seriously and whether they play an important role in the quality assurance of the institutions.

Official entry qualifications are required not only for the teaching staff but also for other positions such as management and administrative staff positions. The most common requirement is a degree in higher education; a second major requirement is a degree in pedagogy; a third is working experience in (adult) education. The interview data produce the picture shown in figure 7.2.

**Figure 7.2** Application of conditions for admission to the profession



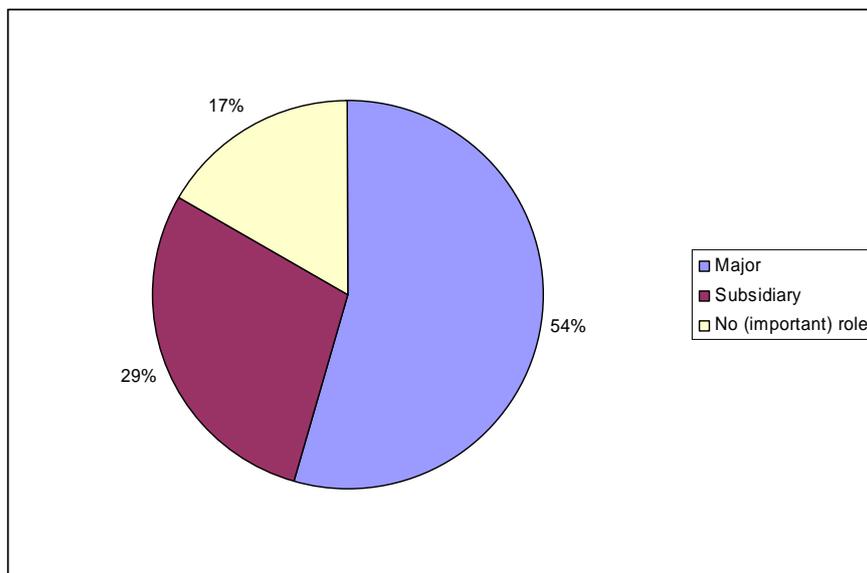
Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

42% of the interviewed providers state that "application of conditions for admission to the profession" plays a major role as a measure of quality assurance in their institutes. Initial training of practitioners is a crucial factor in the quality of adult learning. VET practitioners, however, appear to have very different professional and initial training backgrounds and often enter the professional field of adult learning later in their careers as we saw in chapter 6. The gap between initial training and professional development in adult learning is therefore relatively wide. Besides the 42% who stated that it plays a major role, 23% of the providers said that it does not play a role of any importance. One-third only assigned a subsidiary role to this measure of quality. The relatively low percentage of providers attrib-

uting a major role to this factor might suggest that the quality of the VET staff is relatively high. This conclusion is supported by the other findings from the survey of providers (see chapter 6, Educational level of practitioners) However, a discrepancy may arise between the current high quality of VET staff and the reported shortage of sufficient qualified personnel (also described in chapter 6).

The interviewees gave the following answers to the question about the relative importance of the role recruitment and selection criteria play in maintaining or enhancing the quality of the VET sector. This question refers not only to the official requirements but also covers the specific demands of a particular sector or of the providers. The quality concerns both the requirements and the skills demanded by the providers.

**Figure 7.3** Recruitment and selection policies



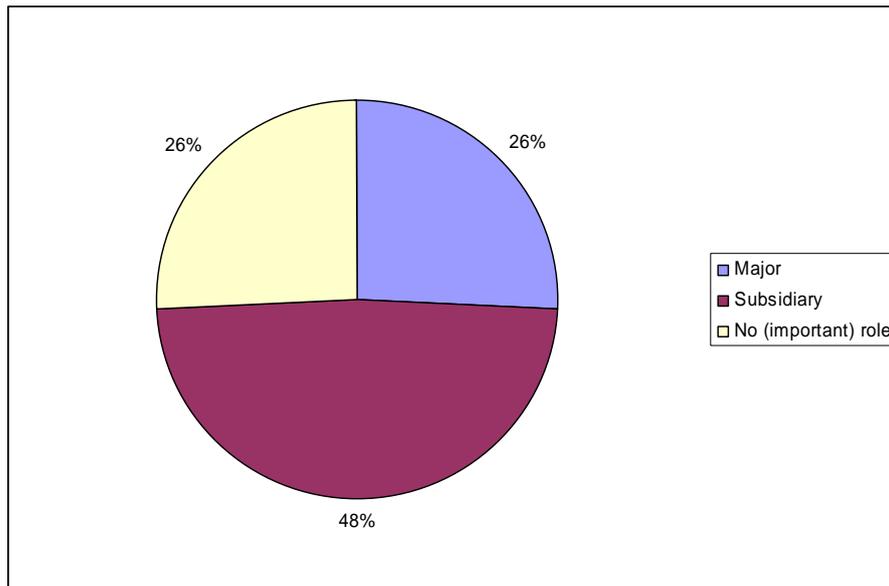
Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

We have already seen that the country studies say little about recruitment and selection policies. The picture that emerges is of a structure that is not very formalised. However, in the interviews with providers we found that more than 50% of them felt that recruitment and selection policies play an important role in the institute's quality assurance. Only 17% said that selection was not important. This finding indicates that the grounds for imposing requirements are relatively unclear and that no formal recruitment procedures have been developed. Providers use their own methods to recruit and select their personnel. Their selection may be based on the skills required, but also on desired competences and social skills.

Another way to manage the qualifications of the staff is to accredit the previous experience and learning of staff members. Since practitioners usually enter the job after several years of work elsewhere, in education or otherwise, they are in fact experienced workers and possess a lot of knowledge, especially in the subject of their profession. They have gained a certain amount of knowledge on the subject of teaching. As we have seen in chapter 6, the VET practitioners also have knowledge of pedagogy, which may have been acquired by fol-

lowing a study programme. However, many practitioners possess teaching skills without having acquired a certificate (especially in adult education). If prior learning and experience is acknowledged the quality of the staff will become manifest. More adult learners will have demonstrable knowledge of didactics and of their subject matter. Registration, certification and accreditation of prior learning (APL) of adult learning practitioners contributes to the recognition and status of the profession.

**Figure 7.4** Accreditation of prior learning (APL) of staff



*Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)*

Only about 26% of the providers stated that this measure plays a major role. Almost half of the providers said that APL plays a subsidiary role. In the other institutes it is said not to play an important role.

Essential in the management of qualifications is the organisation's own system of registration, certification and accreditation. The provider is responsible for the services it provides. Whether it is teaching, counselling, coaching or managing, in a professional organisation all activities should be executed at a high quality level. As a proof of professionalism organisations could be registered in (sectoral) databases and certified for the quality of the services provided. This measure affects the quality of the staff at a higher level by managing the qualifications of the organisation as a whole.

An interesting practice is to be found in Greece:

*Greece:* EKEPIS established systems of specifications, inspection and evaluation, which incorporate modern views, experiences and new technologies. It implements transparent procedures and draws on social dialogue with the stakeholders.

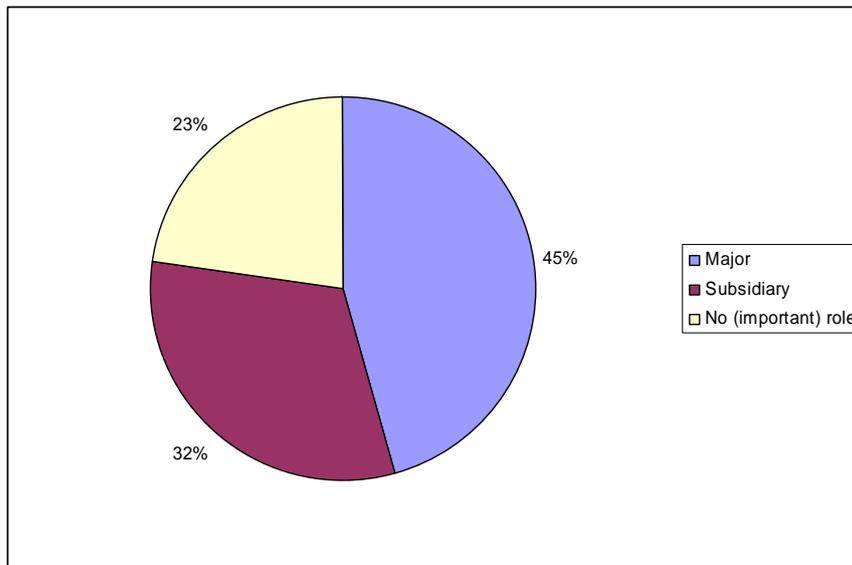
In the EKEPIS registry potential trainers may register:

- For theory, graduates of AEIs in all disciplines.
- For practical aspects, graduates of anything from primary education to IEKs.
- For basic information technology skills, graduates in Information Technology.

Recent experience in the profession and experience in teaching adults are requirements for inclusion in the registry. All teachers, apart from graduates of ASPAITE and the teaching staff of AEIs and TEIs, must have attended a teacher training course.

The following picture emerged from the interviews with providers.

**Figure 7.5** Registration, certification, accreditation of the organisation itself



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

Though this measure is of particular relevance, according to the interviews with the providers only 45% say it actually plays an important role in their organisation. For more than 20% it does not play any role at all.

When we take another look at the country studies we find that the quality of the VET provided can be improved in many ways. Here is a summary of the approaches reported.

**Table 7.1** Quality measures in the area of entry requirements as reported per country

UK	By requiring QTLS standards
Pol	Accreditation by regional, branch or labour organisations or ministries
Slove	National occupational standards
Rom	Occupational standards also for teachers
Spa	Instructional accreditation National catalogue of qualifications
Den	Quality control by ministry
Hun	Ethical codex + voluntary qualification system
Lith	Certification of teachers
Nor	Quality assurance & accreditation. Also validation
Svk	Accreditation commission & re-training. Current development and INSET (ICT, languages, entrepreneurship and work learning)
Tur	TT (student-oriented methodology, best practices documented and HRD + INSET)
Ge	A lot of certificates exist but there is a lack of standardisation.
CZC	There is the intention to implement an act on the verification and recognition of continuing education outcomes. There is no current system of quality control.
GR	There is a national accreditation centre of vocational training and support services issuing certificates for training centres and trainers of various kinds. It is an example of a national quality policy in vocational education.
Bul	In Bulgaria we see a national agency (NAVET) that issues accreditations and licenses

A relevant development in quality management is reported in the country report of the United Kingdom:

*Quality management in the United Kingdom*

In 2004 the UK government asked Lifelong Learning UK (LLUK) to develop new professional teaching standards for the whole further education system, as announced in *Equipping our Teachers for the Future*. These new professional standards for teacher/tutor/ trainer education in the lifelong learning sector have recently been published. They identify the components of an initial teaching award (Passport); qualifications leading to Qualified Teacher, Learning and Skills (QTLS) status; and other intermediate and advanced teaching qualifications. This provision will be accompanied by a new Continuing Professional Development (CPD) expectation of teachers and trainers of at least 30 hours per year. Leadership training will be based on new revised standards for leadership and management within the sector and principals' qualifications will be introduced. These activities will be supported by new Centres for Excellence in Teacher Training (CETTS) from April 2007. Role specifications are expressed in terms of units of assessment, which set out the learning outcomes and assessment criteria that teachers, tutors and trainers are expected to achieve. Units will be grouped together to make up the named qualifications for specific teacher roles, based on rules of combination determined by LLUK. Some units within these qualifications will be mandatory and others optional, to allow for tailoring of qualifications to suit specific teacher roles.

LLUK has identified *teacher* roles and *teacher-related* roles. There are two distinct teacher roles in the sector beyond the 'Preparing to Teach' initial award: a role which contains limited teaching responsibilities and a role which represents the full range of responsibilities performed by those who are expected to attain the status of Qualified Teacher, Learning and Skills (QTLS). Qualifications for both distinct *teacher* roles will be in place from September 2007.

Within the FE sector qualifications to teach have not historically been mandatory, but it is now the case in England that all new entry-level trainee FE teachers will be required to attain QTLS status and all FE teachers will have to achieve such status by 2010. Norrington (2007) of City and Guilds (one of the key Awarding Bodies) points out that while there is support for the professionalisation of staff there are a number of implementation issues. Inevitably there will be a funding issue as FE Colleges have no ring-fenced funding for supporting staff in gaining the qualifications. She notes the disparity of the staff who will be following these courses and thus the appropriateness of the curriculum and the level for differing VET practitioners (public/private sector; different vocational area; different work experiences etc). The numbers involved may outweigh the current availability of courses and therefore it is likely that there will need to be changes. This is yet to become embedded in the system and therefore we do not yet know the impact it will have on the VET profession or how it will be evaluated.

The report from *Poland* contains the following statement:

The Ministry of Education describes conditions and procedures of the accreditation process for non-formal vocational education organizations but has no authority to forced anyone to enter this process. So, those who take part in the accreditation process are only those organizations that apply for public money, organize vocational exams or want to issue officially recognized certificates. This custom is like a kind of an umbrella opened over the sector that nevertheless does not cover the whole field only may shelter some parts. And of course this considers organizations not individuals. During the process of the accreditation there are questions about employees and their characteristics but this is rather blurred and not clear situation in this matter. As it was stated by the ministry representative there are not visible and well known quality policies (although there is a document called "Standards for vocational qualifications – minimum requirements"). However, situation is not so simple but quite diverse. Besides the lack of the recognition on the ministry level there are diverse attempts for a quality assurance system building and other initiatives.

The most popular would be participation in one of the recognized systems of quality management like ISO 9000 or PASE for language institutions. There are regional initiatives by regional branches of the ministry (regional inspectorates) that issue their own accreditation certificates. It is important to mention the different grassroots initiatives focused on creating standards and accreditation. The most important is an initiative established by STOP and partners that is focused on trainers' training. But significant number of institutions implement different elements and procedures of the quality assurance system approach like evaluation, needs assessment, future of the graduates of the courses. The idea of networking as a quality improvement tool is not very popular but is known and used by some.

To conclude this description it is possible to state that both, organizations and individuals (trainers) do not use the opportunity to work on quality improvement and accreditation. This is a serious problem already recognized by some organizations in this field. At least two different approaches to this issue could be noticed: grassroots, self-organized movement towards quality improvement (what is already going on) and created by Ministry or other government branches rules and regulations (imposed from a top). For some experts

the second solution is seen as a tool to secure the high quality of providers of educational services at least in public projects. It is important in the situation when almost no institution uses any kind of certification of the trainers. The other weakness of the non-formal vocational education market might be seen through a lack of transparent and accessible results of evaluation and lack of the professional needs analyses and/or course participants' future careers. On this stage of the market development the main mechanism that regulates it is a price of the course and other educational products.

In conclusion, although there are interesting initiatives the quality management within institutions is not high on the agenda. Setting entry requirements and accreditation of prior learning is not considered to play a very important role either. Recruitment policies however do, despite the fact that they are regularly neither formalised nor made explicit. This indicates that the VET sector assesses the quality of newly recruited personnel by checking some social skills and experience rather than by demanding qualifications. Based on the data as described in chapter 6 the VET practitioners are actually highly educated, so their background level may not be so much of an issue.

### 7.3 Continuing education on the job

Regulations and assessment of entry qualifications is one method of quality management. An alternative, or additional, method is to make sure that the practitioners get in shape and remain in shape to perform the job. This can be done by means of induction of new staff and through in-service training, external training, etc.

Many countries report no initiatives or structural measures to promote lifelong learning among adult educators. Initiatives in this area are usually not structural and are organised as projects. Only a few countries report structural programmes or procedures. Some of these initiatives focus on qualifications, others on the introduction of induction programmes for newly qualified teachers and trainers, while yet others include services such as educational advice, support or coaching. Germany and Ireland report such developments.

Besides such initiatives, there are national organisations and associations of adult educators that provide training for their members, as is the case in *Belgium* and the *UK*. In both of these countries the programmes are carried out by institutes that are linked to the national government and are also funded with public money. They sometimes provide training for adult educators as well.

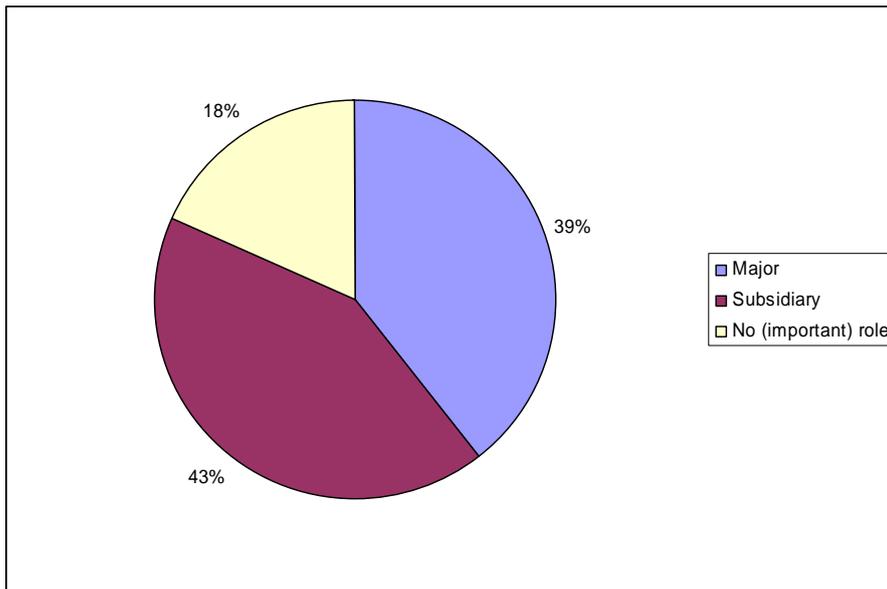
**Table 7.2** Training initiatives reported per country

Nl	By training the staff in service; by certifying private training organisation (CEDEO); by accreditation and quality audits and stamps/marks
Ita	In service (voluntary)
Fra	In service (CPD)
Aus	In service education
Bel	In service periodic CPD
Cro	Curriculum development
Cyp	Pre and in-service
Ire	Pre and in-service + intro (teaching methodology, teaching systems and non-teaching responsibilities)
Lat	In service; accreditation; evaluation

When new staff have been recruited one way to maintain and improve standards is to introduce them into the institutions and to teach them at least the skills needed to perform at a certain acceptable level of quality.

The situation described below emerged from the interviews with providers.

**Figure 7.6** Induction of staff



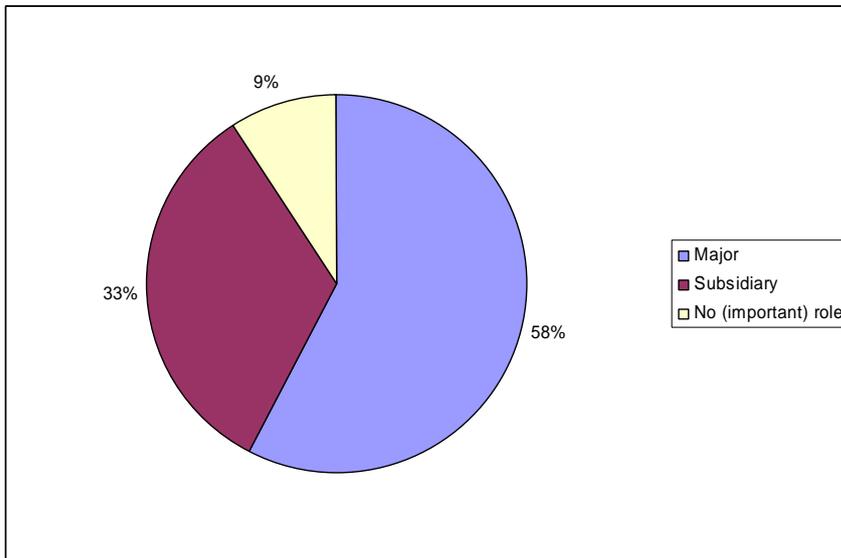
*Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)*

39% of the providers think induction of staff is a major measure in quality assurance. An even larger number of providers say it plays a subsidiary role, while almost 20% stated that this measure does not play much of a role at all. The findings in the interviews support the findings in the country studies, where the induction of staff was also not considered to be of major importance. This can be due to the fact that VET practitioners are selected for their specialist knowledge on a certain topic.

Theoretically, the VET practitioners can also be stimulated to improve their (teaching) skills by further training on the job. Training on the job or in-service education of teachers in adult learning, however, still is underdeveloped. In many countries it is deemed unimportant. In Austria only 30% of the interviewed institutions considered continuous further education of their employees to be an important issue.

The role of in-service education and external training in quality assurance and management is reflected in the following responses of the interviewees among providers.

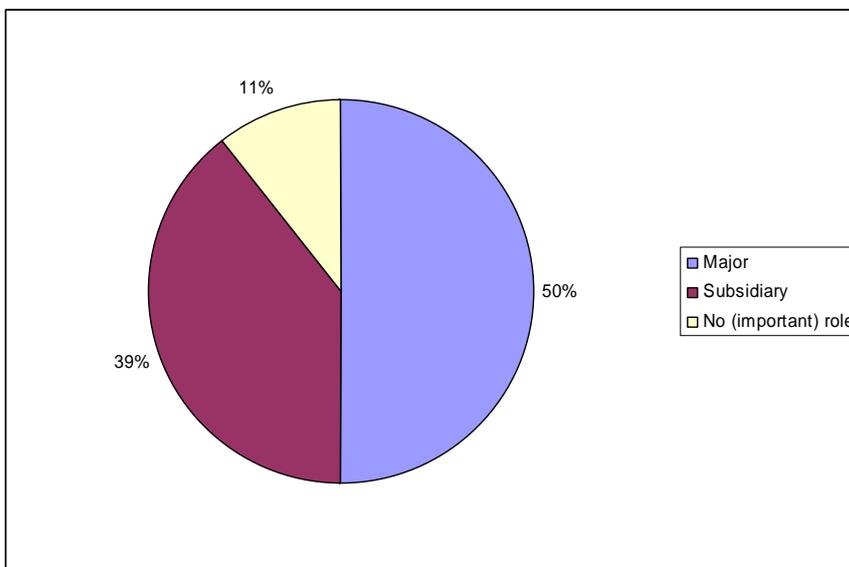
**Figure 7.7** Internal in-service education



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

Among the providers, 58% of the respondents said they considered in-service training a major measure to assure the quality of training and teaching. One-third felt it is a subsidiary measure and only 9% said it played no important role.

**Figure 7.8** External training of staff

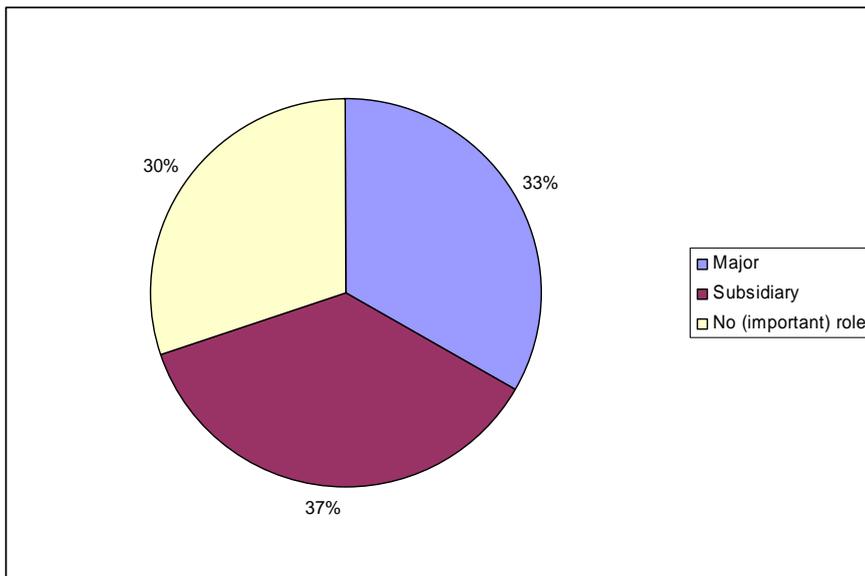


Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

About half of the providers regard external training of staff as a major quality assurance measure. Almost 40% feel it is a subsidiary measure for improving or preserving the quality and 11% said that it is not important. Internal training appears to be regarded as slightly more important by the providers we interviewed.

Employee development encompasses not only the training of staff but also the development of the learning potential of organisations through the application of policies for the professional and career development of the practitioners. That is the theory, but judging by the country reports it is still not the practice. At least it is hardly ever mentioned in the reports. Teaching and training practice in adult learning appears to be highly individualised. The relative importance of career development is estimated as follows:

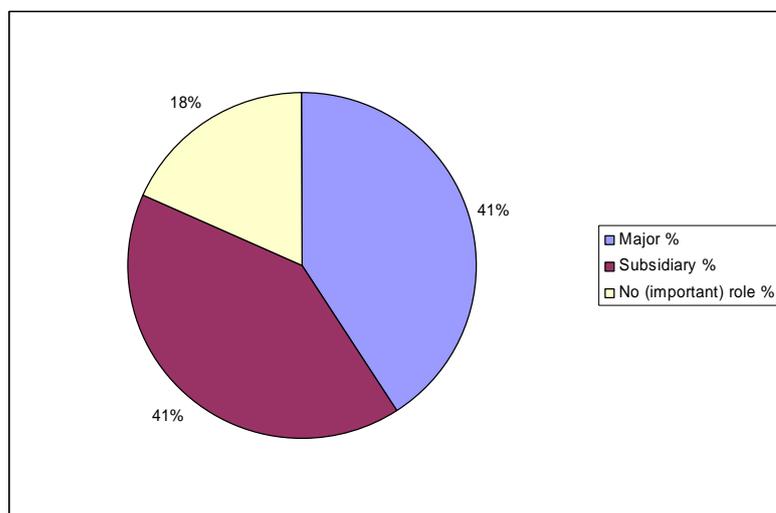
**Figure 7.9** Career development policies



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

Career development policies of VET organisations are absent in most of the quick scans and country studies. The providers indicate that it is not considered to be very important in their organisations. Only one-third of the interviewees said it plays an important role. Career development policies are closely linked with the concept of learning organisations. Learning organisations offer their employees opportunities to develop their careers and in the process the organisation itself improves. However, the career opportunities in VET organisations are very limited. 41% of the interviewees are of the opinion that company policies to improve mutual learning in the organisation ('learning organisation') play an important role, 41% see it as less relevant and 18% said that it plays no role in the organisation.

**Figure 7.10** Policies to improve mutual learning in the organisation ('learning organisation')



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

Some attention is paid to the career prospects of the practitioners in several countries as the following table illustrates.

**Table 7.3** Actions to promote career prospects as reported in some countries

Rom	Qualification framework Profiles of tasks, status and responsibilities are available and many practitioners see international projects as a source of professionalisation
Fra	Career development through INSET With or without certification
Spa	Catalogue of national qualifications, so there are career prospects. HRD and HRM are on the agenda but still need further development
UK	A train the trainer programme is available for upgrading qualifications to a degree. Standards are being defined for various professional positions such as mentors, assessors, and other staff. An emphasis is put on accreditation of prior learning and experience to allow people to meet the standards
Lat	Qualifications for pedagogues
Nl	In the Netherlands various employers'/branch organisations and expertise centres offer didactical training to their practitioners (in-service trainers)
Ger	Advanced train the trainers programmes are believed to be on the increase and need to be increased further
Pol	European Social Fund offers opportunities for professional development. A lot is offered but it is often not used sufficiently
CZC	In-service education is available through many different channels, many of which are private. In volume, however, the government-supported in-service training is the most important
Gre	An in-service offer has been developed nationally to be implemented through distance learning. 250 trainers were trained to disseminate this approach in 2003. In 2005, 14,000 teachers were trained according to the newly developed approach. Additional seminars are being considered in the future.
Bul	The lack of a completed continuing development programme for teachers is a problem
It	In-service training is voluntary and not sufficiently widespread in the country

Alongside all the official measures and institutionalised initiatives, a wide range of measures to increase professionalisation are available in a wide variety of fields. Practitioners using these offers can be regarded as learners of the same kind as the ones served in the field studied in this project. They may attend courses or participate in activities to increase their abilities in teaching, communication, skills, subject knowledge, management, public relations, marketing, languages, ICT, etc.

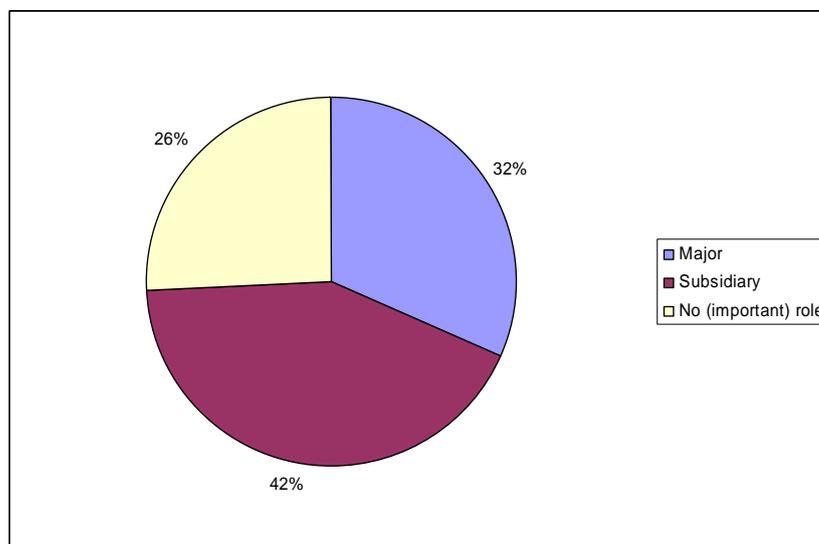
## 7.4 Evaluation

To raise the qualifications of staff and of the organisation itself it is not enough to set entry requirements and to provide training for staff members. It is also important to review current standards by external evaluation, monitoring of staff (self-evaluation) and peer reviews.

There are of course several methods of external evaluation. The registration, certification or accreditation of adult learning organisations is probably the most widespread form of quality assurance.

When asked about the relative importance of external evaluation as an approach to raising the quality of the education provided the following answers were given:

**Figure 7.11** External evaluation, registration, certification of staff

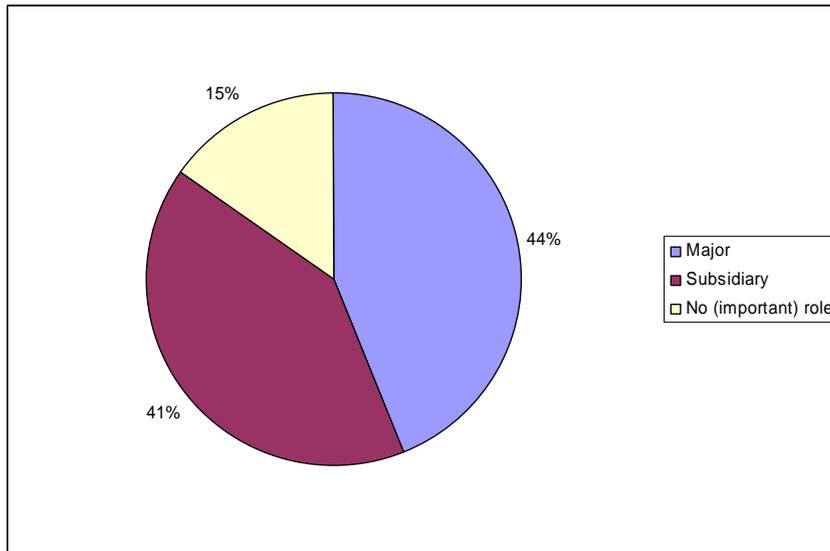


Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

32% of the institutions claim that external evaluation plays a major role in quality assurance. 42% of the interviewees say it plays a subsidiary role. The rest of the providers say it plays no role at all.

Another way to evaluate the organisation is through self-reflection or more or less formalised self-evaluation. Methods in this area include monitoring, internal evaluation and assessment of the performance of adult educators. These are the main elements of continuing professional development. Some country reports mentioned these activities, including those of Slovenia and Greece.

**Figure 7.12** Monitoring, internal evaluation, assessment of staff



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

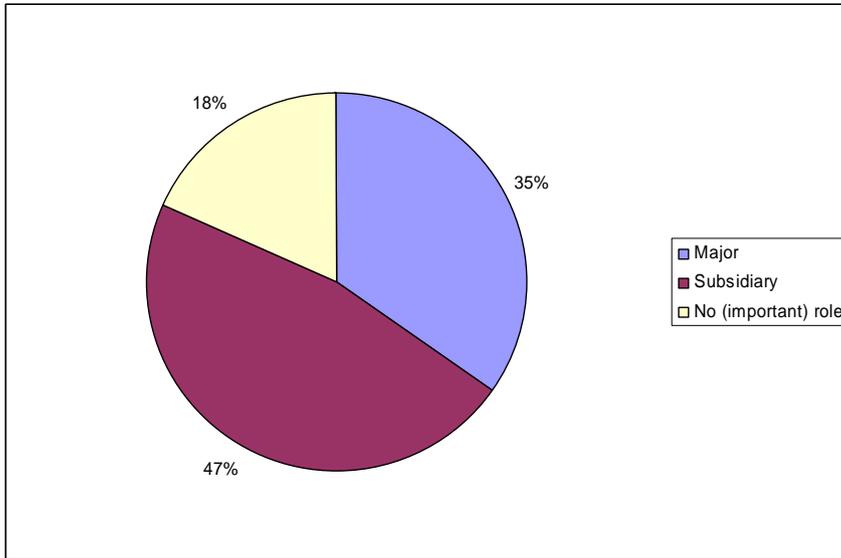
The providers are of the opinion that internal evaluation is far more important than external evaluation. 44% of the providers say it plays an important role in their organisation compared with 32% for external evaluation. The same number of providers regard internal evaluation as being of subsidiary importance (41%) as with external evaluation, while 15% said internal evaluation plays no role.

It is interesting to see that processes of internal evaluation, market evaluation and client evaluation were not mentioned. Nor were levels of professionalisation beyond individual organisations, sectors or branches mentioned. There was no mention of national or international professional platforms, associations or networks. What seems to have become more common for most workers, i.e. work learning, seems to be uncommon for the VET practitioners, or was just not within the scope of the reporters.

Practitioners do not seem to be regularly assessed. Accreditation systems are only in place at institutional level. We do see evaluative practices, particularly external ones, and many forms of initial or in-service teacher training, which can be either compulsory or voluntary and either formalised, leading to a formal qualification, or informal.

Figure 7.13 shows how the respondents estimate the role played by such policies.

**Figure 7.13** Peer assessment, communities of practice, professional associations



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

35% of the providers said they consider peer assessment, communities of practice, professional associations to be of major importance to assure the quality of training and teaching. 47% think it is of minor importance and 18% say it plays no important role.

## 7.5 Concluding remarks

The VET sector implements a lot of measures, and a mix of measures, to promote the continuing professional development of practitioners and the quality of education. In this chapter we see a list of measures organizations of providers can take to enhance the quality of the work of the practitioners they employ. Of each of the items of the list we identified the relative importance as perceived by representatives of the providers, together representing thousands of practitioners. The first and most striking conclusion is that all measures we included in the list, actually are being applied to a substantial extent in many of the providing organizations. As compared to another parallel study in adult education, this situation shows a much more balanced view.

The range of measures to enhance the education does however tend to emphasise training and recruitment. In current theories on human resources development it is often argued that activities that are more activating, that challenge the practitioner/learner to develop and to extend his or her knowledge and competence are far more effective than traditional training activities that mainly transfer knowledge and in which the practitioners are in a more receptive position than an active and constructive one.

On average of all the measures organisations could have taken only between 35 and 40 actually have been taken, Most common were actions in the field of either training or selection; least commons were accreditation of prior learning and career development policies. The bottom line of this all is that even though every thing already is being applied still a most measures may be intensified. In seeking what to intensify the two least used measures may be the first to be considered. They have not only been least developed; they also may compensate best for the somewhat traditionalist approach of professionalisation thus far in this field of VET.



## 8 Attractiveness of working in VET

### 8.1 General description of status and attractiveness

The Helsinki Communiqué emphasised the need for a sharper focus on the attractiveness of the profession. The focus has thus far been on issues relating to quality, transparency and mutual recognition, while no attention has yet been paid to the image and attractiveness of vocational pathways<sup>1</sup>. While the attractiveness for 'learners' is obviously an important issue, the attractiveness of *working as a VET-practitioner* is an important issue in its own right. For the European Commission it is very important to ensure that teachers and trainers are and remain highly competent, motivated and committed if they are to master their increasingly complex tasks<sup>2</sup>.

In this chapter the attractiveness of the profession of VET practitioner will be examined.

The status of adult learning professionals differs greatly from country to country. Completely different pictures emerge from the country studies. In *Turkey*, for example, the profession of VET practitioner is regarded as unattractive because it is low-paid, involves working long hours in different settings and there is a lack of proper training. In *Hungary* the profession of VET practitioner doesn't carry a lot of prestige either, although this is in large part due to the exogenous factor of the rising importance of higher education in Hungary, which makes working in VET less attractive. Factors that make the profession attractive are closely linked to the conditions under which VET practitioners undertake their professional responsibilities and the quality of their working life. The attractiveness of working in VET is therefore related to three main factors, as can be concluded from the country reports

- Overall attractiveness
- Comparative attractiveness
- Labour market

We will go into these issues after an examination of the case studies, which produced a wide spectrum of views and perspectives on the attractiveness of working in VET.

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<sup>1</sup> "Delivering lifelong learning for knowledge, creativity and innovation". Draft 2008 joint progress report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the "Education & Training 2010 Work Programme". COM(2007) 703 final

<sup>2</sup> The importance of improving the quality of teachers was stressed in the "Education and Training 2010" work programme as well in the 2004 and 2006 Joint Interim Report of the Council and the Commission on progress of the Education and Training 2010 work programme.

*Czech Republic:* The number of training institutions is growing and the structure of the market is constantly changing, so the profession itself is more and more recognisable. This strengthens the position of the practitioners but the profession's attractiveness still depends on the field in which they work and on a group that expresses an opinion. If a person works in the business field his or her professionalisation will without doubt be recognised and rewarded (financially) to a larger extent than those who work with the unemployed. The status of the profession is also higher among the people involved in it; teachers respect other teachers who, in addition to teaching at school, teach adults outside the formal structures. It cannot be ignored that the majority of the practitioners have a degree and experience so their clients and other spectators value their educational background. As already mentioned, the attractiveness depends on the field in which the service and training are provided. For those who work in schools as teachers the chance of an additional job in the non-formal sector might be interesting for different reasons: money, professional development, respect, fun, a feeling of influence. Those who work with business are usually highly rewarded in financial terms. And because entire sector is developing (slowly but surely) it will gain in attractiveness in future.

*France:* The attractiveness of the profession is still relatively high because it is often compared with that of teachers and it is regarded as a reference group by those who identify this profession with the status of high level consultants working in the most famous companies.

*The Netherlands:* The conditions of employment of the VET practitioners compare favourably at least with those in formal education: they are in high-level positions, they are well-paid and in permanent employment and generally have a suitable number of working hours. The conditions of employment of the professionals concerned are generally better in private VET organisations than in formal education and compare well with those in the open market. Differences with formal education and the public sphere find expression in a stronger product orientation, higher salaries, more fringe benefits, fewer guarantees and higher mobility. The considerable cultural differences also make the transition from formal education less likely. The number of freelancers in the private sector is high. The number of people in the Netherlands practising as a freelance 'coach' is estimated at 20,000.

*Poland:* In general the status of the profession is high (especially in the eyes of the representatives in the field). This conclusion comes from a quick assessment of the human capital involved: rich experience, broad expertise, very often a university degree, active approach (flexible, independent). All the statistical data show that only taking educational background into account this group is very well prepared. Unfortunately acquiring a university degree is not the only decisive factor for the quality of a trainer (practitioner) in terms of preparation and ability. It is very often impossible to find out, for example, what kind of expertise those practitioners have – if their background really fits or can be adjusted to the particular needs of the field. This is true especially in the non-formal system, which inspires policy experts to suggest improvements in the accreditation system for them (practitioners) as soon as possible.

But what is more critical for the status of the profession (the same situation can be seen here as in the case of the recruitment practices) is that it is determined by the target group (the “clients” of the particular kind of education). Those who train business people will have a higher status than those who teach basic vocational skills. Those who work in projects have special goals that have a significance beyond gaining a new skill (such as programmes for the unemployed in less-developed regions). They also have an understanding of their mission; they have a sense of the importance of the development of civil society (in the providers’ words).

What is difficult to measure is the influence of the style of appointment for the status of the profession. No more than 30% of the workforce have steady and secure contracts; everyone else is part-time, has a contract for a particular task (hired for a project) or is hired as an external freelancer/ consultant. So when one connects these two pieces of information, highly educated and well prepared people working on unstable basis, there are two possible conclusions. One is that they have a strong market position and are able to secure their living without risk, or secondly that there is a surplus of practitioners who compete for those few positions in a market.

The adult vocational trainers are quite highly respected and the profession is quite attractive. However, to understand this phenomenon one needs to be aware of the diverse world of the trainers: there is a huge discrepancy between the person who teaches a course on how to use a certain tool at evening classes in a small town and the person who trains businessmen in negotiating skills. They are different because of the salary, the perception of their students, their educational background and even because of their self-esteem. Certainly both work in the same field, but their working situations are different. And paradoxically both of them (despite the differences) are seen as people working in an attractive profession.

It is usually an additional job for teachers from the formal schooling system, which offers them opportunities to earn additional income (and teachers do not belong to a group that earn good money for their basic services), to make contact with others from different sectors of the society, for additional professional development and to gain experience in their field.

In this area the most innovative individuals are mainly identifiable by their visible orientation towards development based on a quite careful reflection about the state of the modern world: learning is a critical need of society. These individuals decide about human capital in this field, which is seen as valuable, which increases the attractiveness of the profession. Unfortunately, on the other hand the long tradition of competition creates borders in communication and information flow, which is reinforced by unclear rules in the field and a low level of awareness among politicians. We can however hope for a better future while observing the energetic development of grassroots initiatives and the positive impact of external forces (like EU regulations, inspirations and funds). This influences the rise of new opportunities.

*Slovenia:* The attractiveness of the profession depends on the development of VET education as a whole (decline in interest). In general, the demographic trends and labour market needs are leading to fewer young people and a growing number of jobs that require a higher level of education. In that sense the VET system as a whole has to adapt to this situation. The schools are opening up to adults and also provide informal programmes – in the sense of lifelong learning. From this perspective and the perspective of cultural heritage the attractiveness of the VET profession will increase (is increasing).

*Romania:* The attractiveness of the profession varies from sector to sector, according to the importance of training in their human resources development policies, the financial resources available for training and past experience with CVT programmes. The training positions are far more attractive in terms of both status and salaries in the private sector than in the public sector.

The status and profile of trainer should be further addressed in legislation but also at the policy level. Efforts are currently being made to define a National Qualification Framework in Romania, encompassing the status, profile and responsibilities of trainers. The sectoral committees established in the field of education and continuous training are now developing a framework for the trainer status and occupational standards but this will be a rather long and laborious process.

*United Kingdom:* In terms of the attractiveness of the profession the recent FE White Paper (DfES 2006) announced an investment of 11m in new routes into the profession. Three new programmes are looking to attract graduates and people with business backgrounds into FE management positions and people with occupational skills into teaching. LLUK has been running pilot schemes in four regions to study the effectiveness of a scheme to attract people from the construction industry to teach in FE in England. This scheme was launched in November 2006 and attracted over 4600 enquiries, including many from the pilot regions (including Scotland and Wales). LLUK has been processing over 800 expressions of interest, which they hope to convert to 600 recruits to teaching.

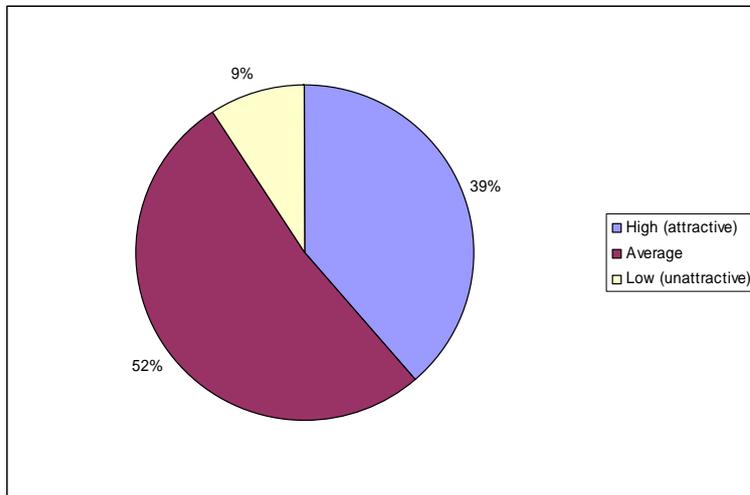
## 8.2 Overall attractiveness

The overview of the country studies leaves the impression that the profession of VET practitioner enjoys a high status. Basically, that status is derived from the high educational level of the practitioners.

The survey of VET providers echoes this conclusion. When asked how the conditions of employment of VET practitioners compare with those of other employees with comparable training and experience, the majority of the respondents in our survey sample said that VET practitioners enjoy equal conditions. Close to 30% say VET practitioners enjoy better conditions, whereas close to 10% of providers think the employees have poorer conditions.

We also asked the providers for their opinion on whether working as an adult learning professional is attractive. Figure 8.1 shows that only a small proportion is of the opinion that the job is not attractive (9%), whereas 39% states that the profession is highly attractive.

**Figure 8.1** How attractive is working as adult learning professional for people with a relevant (educational/ professional) background?



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=65)

The information in the country reports supports the conclusion that emerged from the interviews with providers: working in the sector is generally attractive. These statements do not however contain information on why people feel it is attractive to work as a VET practitioner.

### 8.3 Comparative attractiveness

#### Comparison with the status of regular teachers

As can be seen throughout this study, in some sub-sectors and countries the profession of VET practitioner is hard to distinguish from the regular, school-based teaching profession. In most of those cases, VET practitioners and teachers have had the same training and work in the same organisation. In quite a number of cases, the persons providing VET are in fact regular school teachers. Those persons don't see themselves specifically as VET practitioners and are not regarded as such by society at large. Their status is therefore similar to that of teachers.

In *the Netherlands*, most VET practitioners can be clearly distinguished from professionals working in formal education. The conditions of employment of the VET practitioners are similar to those in formal education. The differences with formal education and the public sphere find expression in a stronger product orientation, higher salaries, more fringe benefits, fewer guarantees and higher mobility.

#### Differences between economic sectors

The country report for the *UK* shows differences between different economic sectors in terms of the attractiveness of the profession. However these differences are not due to the work of the VET practitioner being less attractive in some sectors than in others, but rather to the attractiveness of a particular sector itself. This makes it hard for VET providers in

some areas to hire good staff. In the UK this is particularly true in the areas of trade, construction, engineering and IT systems and services

In *Romania* the attractiveness of the profession also varies from sector to sector.

### **Private versus public**

In *the Netherlands*, the conditions of employment are generally better for the professionals in private VET organisations than in formal education. The same is true in *Romania*, where training positions in the private sector are far more attractive in terms of both status and salary than in the public sector. The country report for the *UK* also highlights another aspect: on the whole, work-based learning staff in private training organisations in the UK might say that their conditions are worse than those in (publicly financed) Further Education Colleges (less holidays for example). Practitioners in private training organisations also tend to have greater responsibilities than employees of Further Education Colleges with equivalent salaries. However, many practitioners in the private sector relish the responsibility and tend to show greater flexibility.

### **Differences between types of learners**

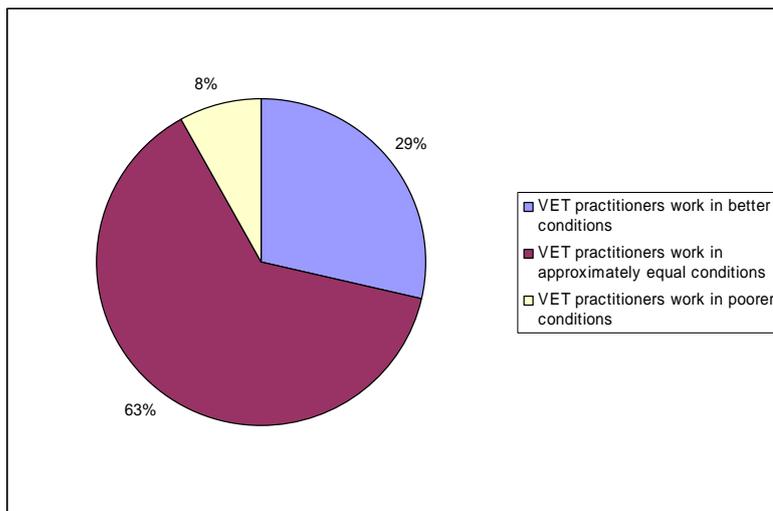
In addition to the differences between economic sectors and between private and public training providers, the attractiveness of the profession is also tied to the form of training and the types of "learners". For example, a VET practitioner who is hired by a large multinational company to provide "time-management training" for managers typically has a higher social status than someone who is, for example, paid by the sector organisation of cleaners, to train the cleaners in the same company in the ergonomic use of cleaning equipment. Country reports from *Poland* and the *Czech Republic* illustrate this point.

In *Poland*, the adult vocational trainers are rather highly respected and the profession is quite attractive. However, one also has to be aware of how diverse the world of the trainers is. There is a huge discrepancy between a person who teaches a course on how to use a particular tool in evening classes in a small town and a person who trains businessmen in negotiating skills. They are different in terms of salary, the perception of their students, their educational background and even their self-esteem. Both of them work in the same field but their working situations are different. In the *Czech Republic*, the position of the practitioners also depends on the field in which they work. A person who works in the business field is certainly recognised as a professional and enjoys greater financial rewards than those who work with unemployed.

## 8.4 Attractiveness and the labour market position

The job is generally considered to be attractive despite the insecure employment conditions. We asked the providers to indicate whether they think employment conditions in the sector are attractive. Is the sector attractive by comparison with other possible fields of work?

**Figure 8.2** How do the conditions of employment (salaries, etc.) of VET practitioners compare with those of employees with comparable training and experience?



Source: Web survey Trainers in VET (2007) (N=63)

Working in the VET sector is not a bad choice as far as employment conditions go. The conditions are seen to be equal to the conditions in other possible fields of work (63%). A lot of providers even think that the conditions are better than in other jobs (29%). Only a small minority is of the opinion that the employment conditions are worse (8%).

The previous paragraphs and chapters showed the flexible relationship between practitioners and providers as well as the relatively high attractiveness of the profession. An additional finding from our study is that while most of the organisations are able to find enough good candidates (or even have a surplus), almost half of the organisations in our survey indicated that they faced a shortage of qualified candidates (see chapter 6).

There are several possible explanations for this finding of a shortage of qualified personnel. The first possible explanation is that there are not enough qualified staff because people who could (theoretically) work as VET practitioners are under-qualified. However, given the finding in this report that the staff are "**over**-qualified", this explanation is not very plausible. A more likely explanation is that although people in the sector have a high regard for working as a VET practitioner, people outside that VET sector (society as a whole) feel otherwise. Another explanation may lie in the recruitment channels used by VET providers. Providers might not always know where to look for qualified practitioners and people working in a particular trade might not always be aware of the option of working as a VET practitioner.

However, further research is needed to generate more evidence for the causes of discrepancies in the VET labour market.

One interesting initiative to raise the profile and attractiveness of the VET sector among professionals can be found in the *United Kingdom*, where Lifelong Learning UK<sup>1</sup> (LLUK) has started a pilot scheme to attract people from the construction industry to teach in further education. This scheme was launched in November 2006 and attracted over 4600 enquiries, including many from the pilot regions (including Scotland and Wales). LLUK has been processing over 800 expressions of interest, which they hope to convert to 600 recruits to teaching.

## 8.5 Conclusions

The attractiveness of the profession varies. On average it is quite good, but in some countries it is sometimes perceived to have a relatively low status. This relates to the sectors studied. In private firms providing training in a business context it is a high status job (management training, staff development, coaching etc.). In school-like contexts it has a similar status to the regular teaching profession. It may be seen as attractive because adult learners are often more motivated. Part of the field is more focused on the unemployed, the second-chance learners and the new citizens trying to enter the labour market. These are the market segments where the status is perceived as slightly different. Nevertheless the majority of providers claim that the positions held by the practitioners are attractive. Measures to promote a more professional organisation of the VET sector need to stress that some conditions, such as the flexible working environment, have a positive impact on the sector's attractiveness. The same applies for quality standards and entry requirements to the profession. There is a danger that by raising the formal standards, you will exclude good trainers and teachers who do not formally meet the standards or are reluctant to try secure the necessary qualifications and the attractiveness of the sector could therefore decline.

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<sup>1</sup>The Sector Skills Council responsible for the professional development of all those working in community learning and development; further education; higher education; libraries, archives and information services; and work-based learning

## 9 Analysis and recommendations

### 9.1 General analysis and conclusions

Europe has declared lifelong learning to be a top priority. The country reports, which are the basis of this study, show that life long learning is also a priority in many of the member states, and lead to changes in the Vet system.

Challenges for VET in the UK, for instance, are summarised in the Leitch Report, which reports that the skills of the UK are not world-class and that there is a risk that this will undermine the UK's long term prosperity. UK productivity continues to trail many of its main international comparators, and much more needs to be done to reduce social disparities, and Leitch has argued that 'improving our skill levels can address all of these problems.' The previously mentioned LSC (2006a) report, *Skills in England*, is of the view that continuing VET to upgrade and re-skill will be an urgent require for two main reasons. Firstly in most occupational areas required skill levels will increase and many current skills will no longer be relevant. Secondly for reasons of demography there will be a declining number of young people entering the workforce from 2010; this means a greater reliance on the current workforce.

The special German development is represented by the Reunification. Within the context of the restructuring of the economy in former East Germany, VET was and still is of great importance. Vocational qualifications had to be completed, adapted or newly acquired. VET was and is important in order to internalise the way of thinking and functioning of a new system (see Thöne, 1994). During the last years, Germany has tried to tackle the constantly high number of (long-term) unemployed and therefore also resorts to the promotion of qualifying measures. Changed qualification structures lead to shifts within VET. An increased demand for top qualifications, technological-communicative knowledge, intercultural competence as well as mobility and flexibility reflects the importance of VET in order to secure the location "Germany" and individual companies within the international competition. The future of the business location Germany is discussed against the setting of the demographical and structural changes towards a higher-qualified service economy. As a country with a low birth rate, Germany faces the problem of an ageing society which shrinks on a long-term basis (see Kremer, 2006). Considering those two mega trends, already today Germany cannot afford to disregard VET of large groups. Besides women, adolescents and young adults, the qualification of the elderly and the migrants as well as the existence of many low qualified becomes the centre of interest. All social actors agree that the participation in further education is to be increased drastically.

These are examples to show that national policies to stimulate learning, and especially work-related learning, are in place or under construction. Particularly, also, in the new member states of the European Union the development of the VET sector, as studied in this project, indicate an increase in the number of learners. This may mean that the number of educators needed will also rise.

The importance of lifelong learning implies that learning can no longer simply be left to schools and institutes of initial education. The education landscape is becoming far more diverse. This study has revealed a growing variety of educational practices as a result of new theoretical views on learning and teaching as well as developments in the media, tools and equipment available for education. Education is no longer just a matter of teaching or training. Educators have a far wider range of tasks and roles nowadays. Further diversification of the roles and tasks identified in this study can also be expected in future.

### **The field of public and private training institutions, and funding**

The field of VET studied in this research project includes education that is provided within the context of continuing vocational education and learning, outsourced forms of corporate education and learning and employment-related lifelong learning.

The content of the education encompasses a wide a variety of clusters of domains including:

- Technical education
- Economic and administrative education
- Agricultural education
- ICT education
- Physical and health education
- Social education
- Recreation and leisure education
- Retail education
- Crafts education
- Cosmetics education

### *Supply*

Besides the variety of content areas, we also found a wide variety of providing bodies active in the VET market. They include organisations such as:

- Schools
- Employers
- Private educational organisations
- Individual providers
- Unions
- Chambers of commerce
- Authorities and government organisations
- Employment agencies
- Vocational or occupational associations and bodies
- Web-based providers

The European VET arena embraces a variety of providers. Many of them are large organisations. Besides the bigger institutions, we also see a large number of individual practitioners and small enterprises. There appears to be a significant difference between the larger (often school-like) establishments and the more market-oriented private bodies.

However, the differences need to be qualified. Some organisations, although private, serve a public cause, while others that are publicly funded do the opposite. In discussing the issue of public versus private we have to consider not only the private or public legal status and sources of funding, but also the cause the organisation serves. Both aspects determine to a large extent the culture and the tradition in which practitioners work.

As far as organisational structures are concerned, we distinguish between the structure in which organisations are embedded and the structures within organisations. As for the external structures, we see that the majority of providers operate in publicly funded, often national, frameworks. We find this especially in the new member states, the Latin countries and the Nordic countries. The Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands have more complex arrangements with more players in the arena.

The majority of organisations providing VET are publicly funded. Slightly more than a third of the funding is raised by employers and participants. These figures vary significantly from one country to another.

We were unable to find sufficient data on the exact composition of the market in terms of the relative positions of the different players or the turnover. Nevertheless, we have evidence that the sector we studied is an important player in the educational field. It covers the range of institutions listed above and serves massive audiences in every sector of society. The sector employs many thousands of professionals in every country in Europe. The organisations that provide VET differ tremendously in their scope and size.

#### *Demand*

The providers also offer a wide variety of services. The data encompass an overwhelming range of content areas. In general, we can distinguish between:

- work-focused offers,
- role-focused offers and
- entry or re-entry focused offers.

The field of VET covered in this study ranges from subject-oriented, school-like activities to staff development training courses, management seminars and e-learning through open and distance education.

A somewhat surprising finding is that many providers say that the majority of their services involve specialist training. In their view, participants are apparently seeking to learn something new rather than for reasons of upgrading, refreshing or adapting their competences. At the same time, we found evidence of the relative importance of C-VET for people in the midst of their career. This indicates the importance for training as continuing education as well.

From the data gathered in this study we see that the majority of the participants seem to have a higher education background. This is by no means representative of society as a whole so it can be regarded as an imbalance. The participants with secondary level of lower together represent only slightly more than half of the participants, while in society they form the large majority.

Another remarkable outcome is that 41 percent of the participants are said to be unemployed. This means that the group of unemployed is greatly over-represented in this sector of VET. That so much effort is invested to help the unemployed find their way back into

employment is positive, but in a knowledge society the learning processes of the employed are increasingly important so an increase in their participation may be desirable.

Only 12 percent of the participants are over the age of fifty. This means an age group that may be in great need for learning in order to keep up with developments is under-represented. It is a well known fact that at the end of their career workers tend to remain in their jobs longer. Unlike younger workers they are inclined to stay in the same position rather than change jobs. It is therefore even more important for employers to invest in these people and in their learning.

Also, the proportion of self-employed is low. Providers state that relatively many participants have a higher education. This is not exactly what is intended by the lifelong learning policies, and policies maybe needed to see to an increase of participants with a lower type of initial education.

### **Trends**

In the present decade many countries have realised the need for changes in existing educational systems. A special aspect of the reforms in C-VET is the need to bridge the gaps that still exist between regular education and professional practice. In general, governments, civil society (unions, employers' organisations and so on) and many individuals feel the need for lifelong learning and keeping up competences in a knowledge society. A wide range of activities in the field of vocational education and training respond to this need.

In a European context there are a number of trends in vocational education. For example, new member states have joined the EU and their economies have grown over the last few years. Consequently, a growing number of people have to be educated. Where a trend has been reported, most country reports mention an increase in VET. Only Germany reports a small decrease.

Noticeable trends include:

- the creation of programmes of educational reform in a number of countries;
- a movement towards a 'parity of esteem' between academic and vocational education;
- the use of various types of accreditation system, such as the British attempt to incorporate all accredited VET within a single unified National Qualifications Framework (NQF) consisting of eight levels (QCA 2004);
- the emergence or growth of private training institutions in many countries in Europe;
- a particular concern about unemployment and moving the long-term unemployed into work and off benefit dependency; the strengthening of attempts to use VET to improve social inclusion and equity, often with a focus on the unequal distribution of opportunities to those from lower socio-economic groups and certain ethnic minority backgrounds.

Learner-centred or learner-initiated arrangements are less common than the more traditional offers such as training courses, exercises and workshops. The VET sector thus seems to be very much still a sector of schooling rather than of learning. This may be one of the explanations for the fact that so many people say that the purpose of training is specialisation rather than enhancing what they already know or do.

### **Europe still has many educational landscapes**

Noticeable trends do not (yet) lead to convergence of systems. Countries and sub-sets of countries in the EU show a great variety of characteristics. Given the available data and case studies, it is not possible to give a precise description of the differences between them. There would be insufficient empirical basis and any attempt would probably produce

caricatures and stereotypes. However, it is possible to identify the main dimensions on which the systems and the structures we studied differ.

■ *Centralised versus de-centralised*

Some countries or areas show a high degree of centralisation. This is the case in southern European countries and in the Nordic countries. The Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands have a more market-oriented system with greater decentralisation. Related to this concept of central or decentralised governance is the phenomenon of autonomy. Systems that give providers more autonomy tend to allow more autonomous learning as well. The choices seem to reflect completely different sets of convictions. Some areas of Europe emphasise a more emancipatory anthropology, while others stress the importance of fostering society and especially helping those that are excluded or at risk of dropping out.

■ *Knowledge transfer versus empowerment*

The structure in the central European countries (the new member states as well as Germany) is more knowledge-oriented, with teachers and trainers playing the role of experts and transferring knowledge to learners. The Nordic countries had adopted a far more empowering approach in which learners are activated to initiate and organise their own learning. In the Latin and southern countries the focus seems to be more on taking care of the socially disadvantaged, the unemployed. We have neither the ability nor the ambition to make precise distinctions. More important are the underlying dimensions (transfer of knowledge, a caring approach or the emancipatory/empowering approach referred to above).

■ *Democracy and participation*

Countries or regions in Europe show differences in the extent to which they invite or allow learners to be self-initiating and self-regulating learners. Depending on the level of involvement countries seek to establish, educational bodies promote active participation in decision-making and in the actual teaching or learning situation. These differences of approach are reflected in the organisational structures, but also the educational settings in which people are educated. The mainstream per country ranges from mainly traditional schooling to more diversified, interactive, any time-any place arrangements.

■ *Integration versus fragmentation*

In some areas we found an emphasis on subject matter, while in others we saw a more competence- and work-oriented form of education. This is related to whether the approach is more supply-driven or demand-driven and is also connected with the way in which initiatives are financed. Schools financed to serve audiences of learners tend to be more subject-oriented and to focus more on the disciplines and less on work competences and forms of work-oriented contextual learning. The competence-oriented types of education tend to be more fragmented, while the more competence-oriented modes tend to be holistic and integrated. Theory and practice are integrated and the subject matter is presented in a multidisciplinary fashion.

■ *Economy versus personal development*

Systems and organisations differ in the emphases they put on either serving economic goals or the more client-centred goals of personal development and growth. Depending on

the focus, the providers relate more closely to the educational system and the ministry of education or to the economy and the ministries of economic affairs and trade.

- *Small-scale versus large-scale initiatives or provision*

In some countries we identified huge educational structures with thousands of educators serving massive audiences throughout the country. In others we found far more locally-oriented structures allowing for diversity fine-tuned to local needs.

### **Few facts available**

In studying the countries of Europe we were confronted with a serious lack of data for analysis. Consequently, there are blanks in the information in many of the case studies provided by our correspondents. As a result, the kinds of education more closely related to formal school education tend to be over-represented. Other less formalised kinds of VET tend to be less well documented. Neither national nor European databases nor statistics agencies have sufficient data to allow for systematic analysis. In this study we collected data from experts in the field with a range of providers throughout Europe. The group of people included in our sample was much smaller than we had intended, but since each of them represents an organisation with an average of more than fifty practitioners we feel that together they represent a quite substantial proportion of the European VET practice. The Internet survey among those respondents yielded further data to supplement the case studies included in this project.

## **9.2 The practitioners and their work**

### **The practice(s)**

The VET activities we studied reveal a wide variety of modes, formats and settings. Without going into details again, we feel the kinds of offers can be clustered as follows:

- Individual versus collective learning models, focussing either on individual learners or on teams of learners and their collective performance. The latter category is often found in outsourced forms of corporate training.
- Transfer models versus constructive models. This difference is often rooted in epistemological traditions.
- Passive versus active learning models. Here again we see cultural and epistemological differences. The more people support a constructivist model of knowledge development and learning the more active the learning processes they try to establish.
- Receptive versus interactive models. Besides constructivism, in some areas of Europe we find support for social models of learning in which interaction is seen as a basic condition of learning.
- Contact models versus distance models. Naturally, in the less densely populated countries distance education tends to be more popular than in countries where the distances to be covered to attend classes or other educational arrangements are smaller.
- Content learning versus contextual learning. Here too we see a difference that may relate to basic views on what knowledge is and how it is acquired. In general, there is a growing interest in work-learning processes and environments. Dual-learning trajectories as well as in-service education or other work-learning arrangements are examples of such approaches.

- Authentic versus simulated learning. Authentic learning takes place in real work settings, while simulated learning occurs in simulated contexts.
- Personalised versus formalised learning. Some emphasise general bodies of knowledge that need to be transferred to those who are supposed to apply that knowledge in work settings, while others see knowledge as a personal construct consisting of personal experiences, convictions and behaviour.

The assumptions and philosophies underlying the dimensions mentioned above are reflected in the many models we identified in the field of VET.

- Skills training
- Competence-oriented education
- Dual education
- Emancipatory education (focused on minorities, re-entering or at-risk groups)
- (Social)needs-oriented learning
- Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL)-based models
- Network learning models
- Open and distance education
- Simulations, exercises and role play
- Action research and action learning

The field of VET in Europe reflects all of these views and philosophies at the same time. Taking a closer look at Europe as a whole, we came to assume that the Nordic countries, the Central European countries, the Anglo-Saxon countries and the Netherlands and the Southern and Latin countries show differences in this respect.

The predominant didactic format used by VET practitioners is courses. The overall picture still shows a certain traditionalism in the sense that the trends towards more active and work-based learning arrangements, often supported by distance learning or on-the-job coaching are still under-developed in relation to contemporary views on learning held experts in this field.

New methodologies are becoming apparent in the roles practitioners have to perform. As described in the previous chapters, they are becoming real jacks-of-all-trades. The fact that practitioners have such a wide variety of tasks to perform raises the question of whether it is ultimately efficient. A further differentiation of tasks could perhaps lead to a better matching of tasks and talents and hence to greater efficacy.

## **The VET practitioners**

### *Age and gender*

VET practitioners include slightly more women than men, but the over-representation of women is certainly not as marked as in other educational sectors. The composition of the workforce is balanced. VET practitioners are generally people with previous work experience who enter the VET educator profession at a later stage of their career, most of them between 30 and 50 years of age. Although it is often said that training positions are a good career opportunity for elderly employees since they can pass on their expertise to the younger generation, the over-50s are slightly under-represented in the population of VET practitioners.

### *The background of the practitioners*

The vast majority of VET practitioners working in the organisations we studied have a higher education degree (87%). Most of them also have additional qualifications in terms of work experience or pedagogical training. 41% have specific training in the didactics of adult education. Although they have these qualifications they are not always formally required. The overall picture is that the level of qualification exceeds the requirements. It is therefore questionable whether further regulation wouldn't have a counterproductive effect.

### *Positions and tasks*

Practitioners hold various positions which encompass of a wide variety of tasks and roles. They teach, coach, guide, develop, advise, stimulate, assess, and so on. They are "jacks of all trades". The VET practitioners serve audiences of various ages at every phase of their professional lives and in a wide variety of content domains or areas of expertise and competence.

In addition to the educational positions and roles identified in the inception phase we came across two more positions that may require extra attention. One category is the re-entry facilitator or educator. These practitioners have jobs that go beyond teaching in the sense that they include a lot of counselling and coaching to help people overcome lack of self esteem or remorse of lost chances in former jobs. This is an important category of professionals. They are the oil in national and international employment and mobility mechanisms. A second category is the assessor, who is involved in processes of accreditation of prior learning and experience. Increasingly positions are found that mix this assessing task and an educative task. The assessment is perceived and used as a kind of formative educative setting to help people make a move forward. They learn by being assessed and as a consequence of this learning they eventually meet the requirements.

Within their jobs the practitioners have so many tasks and roles at the same time that one might wonder whether anyone can excel at all of those tasks. Maybe it is a sign of the still underdeveloped professionalism in the field that there has not been a further differentiation so that each task is performed by those that are good at them. Further differentiation may enhance efficiency and efficacy.

## **The profession and the labour market**

### *Entry requirements*

In many countries and settings no particular initial qualifications are required to become a VET practitioner. Most countries have no formal requirements for the majority of VET practitioners. In almost 30% of the cases investigated we found that no requirements at all apply. The qualities that VET practitioners need for their jobs appear to be negotiable. This is particularly true in the private sector. In that sector salaries seem to be better, while the position of practitioners is less stable. It is in many ways a different world, often with a more business-like culture.

In the cases where specific prior training or experience is required, over 40% of respondents stated that the grounds for those requirements are legal standards. The legal situation is not always the ground for imposing quality requirements. Other grounds are sectoral regulations and collective agreements. Sectoral regulations apply when the sector itself de-

velops competency profiles. By contrast with legal regulations, sectoral regulations say more about the actual qualifications and skills one needs to have in order to work in the sector.

#### *Required and desired skills*

The interviews with providers showed that almost 80 % of all providers require their staff to have subject-specific knowledge, and in many cases professional expertise (70%). Besides subject-specific knowledge, teaching staff should also possess general didactical skills. Specific training in adult education is desirable, but it is only a requirement in the minority of cases.

The least attention is in most of the countries devoted to the adult life long learning requirements of practitioners, shortly followed by the requirement in pedagogy or didactics. Apparently the emphasis is on working experience and subject knowledge. In no way one can argue that those kinds of expertise wouldn't be important, but it shows an unbalance in the spectrum of capabilities of trainers. Indeed we see the opposite in Estonia, Czech Republic, Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Slovakia, where requirements are imposed regarding the pedagogical background of VET practitioners.

#### *Employment and labour conditions*

We have seen that 66% of the VET practitioners are employed for between 60% and 100%. The VET sector accounts for substantial part of their working time and they can be regarded as full-time employees. 22% work part-time (20-60%) and 12 % is employed for less than 20% of their working time.

Managers and members of staff tend to have more stable positions than the educators.

There is a significant degree of flexibility in the field, especially in the private organisations. The VET practitioners employed often hold down a combination of positions. Three types of combinations were identified.

- People working in VET and in formal initial VET
- People working in VET and in another profession
- People working in VET for a variety of providers

The combination of positions most probably adds to the relevance, the applicability and the transferability of the education offered.

Flexibility can be valued in two different ways. Having two jobs, only one of which involves training, may add to the relevance of the training for work. However, if the part-time job is a person's only job there may be a risk to the quality of the offer. In this study we found no reason to believe that an imbalance exists in this respect. The part-timers often combine their VET position with either a regular teaching job, another profession or another training job in the same sector.

The terms of employment of VET practitioners need to be improved, although this is less of a problem for VET practitioners whose VET job is a side job. For those whose VET position is their main job the working conditions, salary and legal position are often relatively poor. The situation does differ from country to country but in general improvements are needed.

### *Labour market*

The interviews with providers indicate that more than 50% have no problems finding qualified personnel, while 6% actually said there is a surplus of qualified personnel available. However, 43% also said there is a shortage on the labour market and that they experience difficulties finding the right people.

### **What is done to sustain or enhance the quality of VET?**

First of all, selection and training are used as a means of guaranteeing quality. Accreditation, monitoring and evaluation were also mentioned. It is striking to see how many different measures to promote quality are said to be applied in the organisations we studied. Most common were actions in the field of either training or selection; least common were accreditation of prior learning and career development policies. The bottom line of this all is that even though every thing already is being applied still a most measures may be intensified. In seeking what to intensify the two least used measures – accreditation of prior learning, and career development planning - may be the first to be considered. They have not only been least developed; they also may compensate best for the somewhat traditionalist approach of professionalisation thus far in this field of VET. A lot could be gained if organisations were to evolve into learning environments for teachers as well as for learners.

### **The attractiveness of the profession**

The attractiveness of the profession varies. On average it is quite good, but in some countries it is sometimes perceived to have a relatively low status. A majority of the respondents in the study claim it provides practitioners with equal working conditions to those provided by other employers to other professionals. Almost one-third of the respondents feel the sector offers better conditions. Only a few think they are worse. These differences are probably connected with the sub-sector a particular respondent works in. The work is perceived as highly attractive by almost forty percent of the respondents, while the rest accord it an average attractiveness.

The differences in judgement relate to the fact that different sectors are involved in the study. In private firms providing training in a business context it is a high status job (management training, staff development, coaching etc.). In school-like contexts it has a similar status to the regular teaching profession. It may be seen as attractive because adult learners are often more motivated. Also, part of the field is more focused on the unemployed, the second-chance learners and the new citizens trying to enter the labour market. These are the market segments where the status is perceived as slightly different. Nevertheless the majority of providers claim that the positions held by the practitioners are attractive.

Measures to promote a more professional organisation of the VET sector need to stress that some conditions, such as the flexible working environment, have a positive impact on the sector's attractiveness. The same applies for quality standards and entry requirements to the profession. There is a danger that by raising the formal standards, you will exclude good trainers and teachers who do not formally meet the standards or are reluctant to try secure the necessary qualifications and the attractiveness of the sector could therefore decline.

### 9.3 Recommendations

The recommendations in this study were arrived at along two paths. First of all, they were derived from the data collected in the 32 country studies and the 15 in-depth country studies. Secondly, the expert meetings in May (Brussels) and October (Leiden) of 2007 provided input for further recommendations.

#### General remarks and recommendations

Before describing the recommendations in further detail, we would like to raise the issue of the extent to which the area studied can be considered a distinct field of VET. For the purposes of this study we treated it as a single field but the only common characteristic shared by the providers is what it is not. It is not regular school education for young people and it is not corporate education provided by organisations to their own staff. It is not adult education of the kind that is more generally oriented and it is not directly work related. So all that unites this field is what it is not. The question is whether that makes it a single field. We think it doesn't. Parts of the VET field we studied focus on learning processes directly related to specific working situations. These may be outsourced corporate education activities and in that sense there does not seem to be much difference between these activities and actual corporate education. Other activities may be more in the nature of schooling. They are either initial training for new jobs or continuing education for current work purposes. Such practices resemble vocational education as provided in regular vocational schools and are often part of the formal education structure, with all the ensuing regulations and requirements. Then there is a third category, the kind of support and education given to those that are unemployed, at risk or in disadvantaged positions. This sub-sector comes much closer to certain types of adult education or social work and could be considered part of that sector.

In general, it is recommended that policies or actions are to be developed to support these sub-fields according to their distinctive features and bearing in mind the importance of staying in line with the current policies in the adjacent or similar fields.

As said, VET as studied in this project should not be regarded as a single field. It embraces employment-related educational services, schooling, in-service activities, professional networks and e-learning. The field itself and the way it is conceptualised and studied, even in this study, still highlight the dominance of the idea that this field is mainly about teaching and training. The reality is that we are seeing enormous growth of other kinds of educational roles and tasks and we expect even more profound growth.

Teachers, trainers, tutors, coaches, developers, designers, supervisors, facilitators, mentors, educational ICT programmers, curriculum and programme developers and assessors should all have distinct and recognisable and acknowledged learning trajectories leading to qualifications. The emphasis should not be on a prescriptive practice but on offering opportunities to participate so that the reputation of the profession will be enhanced and gain in value in the public perception. That is where improvements will emerge.

It is time to redefine the sector, identify new positions and tasks, establish adequate educational training paths to prepare people for these new educational positions and establish structures and schemes that fully recognise such people as peer professionals in this widening field of VET.

### **Recommendations in connection with the research questions**

The research questions underlying this study concern the following topics:

- Recruitment of practitioners,
- Competences, skills and qualifications expected or required,
- Roles and tasks,
- Employment status and attractiveness of the profession,
- Professional development,
- Assessment and qualifications,

Below we will develop our recommendations on the basis of the sources mentioned.

#### *Recruitment of practitioners*

The requirements for becoming a VET practitioner are not particularly tough but this does not seem to be much of a problem since most educators appear to be highly educated anyhow. However, we observed that there is too little emphasis in the qualifications that are required on didactical qualities, and especially the particulars of adult (vocational) education and learning.

It is recommended that professional support or training should be made available for VET practitioners to introduce them to the field of adult lifelong learning and the methods needed for it.

Since most educators only enter the profession after a number of years of professional experience this may be a better solution than the solution of integrating teacher education in initial teacher training programmes.

#### *Competences, skills and qualifications expected or required*

Both in the approaches of the target groups and in the conceptualisation of their own professional learning processes we see a tendency to think in terms of teaching and schooling rather than in terms of learning, sharing, developing, knowledge management or knowledge productivity.

The recommendation is to promote these modern ways of learning using modern methods of education such as networking, e- learning, virtual reality, video conferencing, multimedia education, etc. This aspect of VET needs a boost.

The field will have to organise itself. The establishment of professional associations and networks could help professionals in these processes of collective development. Policymakers at national, international and European level could support and facilitate such initiatives.

#### *Roles and tasks*

The practitioners studied have a broad range of tasks and roles. The range of tasks seems too wide for practitioners to be optimally productive. For the system to work in this configuration every practitioner has to be a multi-tasking jack-of-all-trades.

A greater differentiation of tasks is recommended so that people can fill the particular roles they excel at.

Essentially, this means that VET organisations should adopt a policy on the assignment of tasks supported by a related competence management policy. Task allocation policies are needed at the organisational level. Such policies require overviews of the competences of every staff member. The required competences can be matched to each of the collective set of tasks either in determining the division of tasks or by providing additional training.

#### *Employment status and attractiveness of the profession*

Excessive job security can lead to situations where people end up with permanent full-time appointments hence negating the advantages of staff flexibility. A secure employment situation for staff does have the advantage of continuity and it reduces the investments in preparatory training of new practitioners. On the other hand, the combined work situations in which VET practitioners combine their VET practice with work or related educational practice has a distinct advantage as well. We would call for a system of flexicurity, but one that includes measures that promote combined appointments.

The recommendation is to develop a system of so-called flexicurity, which optimally combines the benefits of flexible structures with the social security of the practitioners.

#### *Professional development*

Most experts have high expectations for the community learning that arises from cross-sectoral and cross-national meetings. They acknowledge the powerful learning environments that may be developed in that way. Professionalism only grows in a sector if people meet and discuss their practices, if they provide and receive peer reviews and if they work together on the standards of good professional practice.

A discipline that wishes to be perceived as a high-quality work domain needs proper programmes for initial and continuing professional training and development. However, top-down developments that are compulsory and prescriptive tend to frustrate professionalism. Professionalism calls for professional autonomy combined with accountability, which forces the professionals to perform optimally between freedom and the constraints of public control.

A system for professional training and development is recommended, that is flexible, client-centred and challenging rather than prescriptive.

#### *Assessment and qualifications*

Practitioners perform at a higher level if they understand the dynamics of their work in terms of its content and its methods. That is why for decades the concept of reflective practitioners is being promoted. The concept implies that through self-evaluation and active research these practitioners will organise their personal and collective professional development and learning. By doing so, they serve the quality of their work, their organisations and their profession.

Recommended is that the concept of self-evaluation is be strongly promoted in the VET sector.

Practitioners could organise themselves into professional organisations. They could initiate methods of self-evaluation. They can engage in cross-organisational, cross-sectoral or transnational projects. EU funds allow them to participate in international projects and exchanges. Practitioners can take a stand for better employment conditions. They can create their own centres of expertise, for example to carry out research or share experiences. They can participate in projects, activities or organisations aimed at developing the databases allowing for evidence-based work. They can take part in the governance of their own providing organisation and their professional bodies and in the political arena.

## **Annex 1 The research team and cluster coordinators**

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## Annex 2 Detailed description of methodological approach

This annex describes the chosen methodological approach in detail.

### Inception phase

To gain a better understanding of the field of study, in the inception phase the research team spoke to a number of people working in various organisations active in the field of vocational education and training in Europe. Among those consulted were members or representatives of

- European Commission, DG Education and Culture
- Cedefop
- Institut für Technik und Bildung in Bremen
- EVTA
- International Organisation of Employers
- Eurostat

### Establishment of network of researchers throughout Europe

In order to cover all 32 countries in this study, for efficiency and managerial reasons 10 country clusters were established on the basis of linguistic as well as territorial criteria (see table below). For each cluster, an expert in VET / researcher from our network was selected as coordinator<sup>1</sup>.

Cluster	Countries
Scandinavia	Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Iceland
North West Europe	Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands, UK, Ireland
West Central Europe	Austria, Germany, Lichtenstein
Baltic states	Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania
East Central Europe 1	Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia
Western Balkan	Slovenia, Croatia
East Central Europe 2	Romania, Hungary
South East Europe	Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Turkey
Central South Europe	Italy, Malta
South West Europe	France, Portugal, Spain

### Quickscan by country cluster coordinators

During the months of February and April 2007 a quick scan was carried out by the cluster coordinators in the 32 countries in order to generate an overview of the actual situation and the strategies being developed and implemented. To this end a format for collecting and representing country data was developed by the research team.

The network partners gathered the country information in their cluster based on secondary data. Key issues, problems, main trends and areas where action is most urgently needed were identified and reported upon in the form of country reports.

<sup>1</sup> In the execution of research activities a split in the cluster North West Europe was made between Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands on the one hand, and UK and Ireland on the other. Also, for practical reasons in the South West Europe cluster the research for France, Portugal and Spain was conducted by three different 'native' researchers.

### Workshop in Brussels

On May 3<sup>rd</sup> the research team organised a workshop in Brussels to discuss the data collected during the inception and interim phases. The workshop was attended by representatives of the following groups:

- Representatives of the Commission;
- The members of the research team (Plato and Research voor Beleid)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports – 10 people in all;
- Representatives of the LOT 1 project (ITB Bremen)
- A selection of European experts invited by the European Commission (researchers, managers of training companies).

During the workshop, the initial findings of the study were discussed and the participants provided input for the following phase of the study.

### Selection of 15 countries for in-depth study

To gain more in-depth insight into Trainers in VET in Europe within the (time, budgetary) constraints of the project 15 countries were selected to be studied in more detail. The selection was made in consultation with the Commission and additional input was derived from the May 3<sup>rd</sup> workshop. In the selection of these countries we strived to maintain a broad cross-section of countries, both geographically and with regard to differences in societal organisation. The table below shows the selection made.

Cluster	Selected countries
Scandinavia	Sweden, Finland
North West Europe	Netherlands, UK
West Central Europe	Germany
Baltic states	Estonia
East central Europe 1	Czech Republic, Poland
Western Balkan	Slovenia
East central Europe 2	Romania
South East Europe	Bulgaria, Greece
Central South Europe	Italy
South West Europe	France, Spain

### Interviews with 5 experts per selected country

For the in-depth research the country experts held interviews (5 per country) with one expert involved in policymaking on VET and one expert from the academic world specialising in the subject of VET for each of their 'assigned' countries. The purpose of these interviews was to verify and amend the information gathered during the quick scan and to define three important sub-sectors in our field of study for their countries. Guided by the identification by the experts of the most relevant sub-sectors, the researchers held interviews with three representatives of the identified sectors. These representatives could be members of umbrella organisations of the sectors, but also (when such organisations did not exist) training providers themselves. The consultation with the representatives was designed:

1. to identify relevant types of organisations in the sub-area concerned.
2. to explore the structure of these sub-areas and the characteristics of the organisations that are active in it.

3. to review qualitative and quantitative information on the human resources of these organisations.
4. to gather the names and addresses of contact persons in 10 to 15 organisations for each sub-area to be invited to participate in a web survey<sup>1</sup>.

The table below shows the number of interviews conducted for each country

Country	Number of interviews conducted
Bulgaria	4
Czech Republic	3
Estonia	5
Finland	NA
France	NA
Germany	5
Greece	4
Italy	2
The Netherlands	6
Poland	5
Romania	5
Slovenia	6
Spain	5
Sweden	3
United Kingdom	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>58</b>

### Web survey among training providers in Europe

The last data-collection phase of the project consisted of a web-based survey among selected training providers in the selected countries. The questionnaire used is added in Annex 3. The total number of complete responses for this survey was 74. The table below shows the distribution of respondents per country.

	Addresses for web survey	Complete responses
01 UK	56	1
02 NL	108	20
03 GER	33	10
04 EST	42	4
05 POL	29	1
06 CZC	16	1
07 SLOVE	21	8
08 ROM	45	11
09 GRE	13	0
10 BUL	36	0
11 ITA	20	3
12 FRA	32	1
13 SPA	40	9
14 SWE	18	5
15 FIN	NA	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>509</b>	<b>74</b>

<sup>1</sup> In some cases the representatives were unable to provide the number of addresses strived for. In those cases fewer members of the identified sub-sectors were invited for the survey.

A number of measures were taken to maximise the response:

- The survey was opened to invitees at the end of August and remained open until the end of November. During this three-month period several reminders were sent to respondents asking them to participate in the survey. Able and willing respondents had ample time to participate.
- The survey was written in English and translated into German, French and Italian. The e-mail text was written in English, French, German, Dutch and Italian. An introductory text (to the English message) was added in the native language for Estonia and Slovenia as well.
- In most cases, the respondent's name was inserted in the e-mail text to make the invitation more personal and in the survey all known information about the organisation was filled in in advance to shorten the time needed for respondents to complete the survey, while at the same time leaving room for additions/corrections.
- At a later stage the research team and some country coordinators approached respondents by telephone to persuade them to participate.
- Additional sources were consulted to gain more addresses of respondents.

#### **Meeting in Leiden**

On October 24 and 25 2007 a 1½-day meeting was held in Leiden. The meeting was attended by representatives of the following groups:

- Representatives of the Commission;
- Representatives of the LOT 1 project (ITB Bremen)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports for Lot 1;
- The members of the research team (Plato and Research voor Beleid)
- The research partners who were responsible for the country reports for Lot 2;
- A selection of European experts invited by the European Commission (researchers, managers of training companies, members of the focus group).
- A selection of local experts invited by the research partners of both the Lot 1 and Lot 2 projects.

In the meeting these experts discussed the preliminary findings of the study and input was provided for recommendations derived from the study.

## Annex 3 Questionnaire for providers (English)

Research voor Beleid and PLATO are leading a European group of experts in a **study of Trainers in Vocational Education and Training (VET)** in Europe. The study was commissioned by the European Commission. Its aim is to provide a deeper understanding of the state of professionalisation and professional development of VET practitioners across Europe. We want to gain an overview and an understanding of the types of organisation in which these VET practitioners operate, the market covered by these organisations, the recruitment of practitioners, their status, the quality of their work, their professional development and the attractiveness of their profession.

The research team will use this information to identify key issues and problems as well as areas where action is most urgently needed.

This study concerns Trainers in Vocational Education and Training (VET). We define VET activities as **all educational activities that help people to develop competences for participation in economic life**. The formal education system – the school - lays an important foundation for the development of these competences. Private companies, public institutions and other organisations also make a serious effort to contribute to employee development through 'corporate education'.

Between these two domains of school-based education and corporate education, a third category of VET activities is evolving. These 'intermediate' VET activities are provided by public and private bodies, such as employers' organisations, private agencies, trade unions, chambers of commerce, sector organisations, etc. **This study focuses on these 'intermediate' VET activities, and more specifically on the 'VET practitioners' working in and for the organisations in this intermediate field: the teachers, trainers, coaches, instructors, tutors and so on who help people to develop competences for participation in economic life**

This study started with a quick scan in all of the EU Member States. For the quick scans, available and relevant secondary data (statistics, descriptions, analyses) were gathered and analysed at national level. Based on this information we selected 15 countries for an in-depth analysis of the situation of these VET practitioners. Yours is one of the countries selected. We started the in-depth study by interviewing several stakeholders in your country. We are now distributing a questionnaire to respondents in the field of Vocational Education and Training. Your name was mentioned and we hope that you will take the time to participate in this survey. We designed the questionnaire in such a way as to limit the time it will take to complete..

We greatly appreciate your cooperation in this survey. We can promise to send you the research report when it is finalised, probably in November of this year. If you would like to receive it, please give us your e-mail address.

On behalf of the research team,

Anton Nijssen, project manager

**A. Description of the kind of organisation and profession (by 'organisation' is meant any kind of cooperative in the field)**

5. Details of the organisation:

- a. Name of organisation .....
- b. Address of organisation .....

6. Which of the following characteristics apply to the target group(s) of your organisation?  
(please estimate the percentage for each of the following categories)

a. Level of education of participants	Higher education	..... %
	Secondary education	..... %
	Lower level of education	..... %
b. Employment status of participants	Employed	..... %
	Unemployed	..... %
	Self employed	..... %
c. Stage of career of participants	Recently left formal education	..... %
	Mid career	..... %
	End of career	..... %
d. Type of training offered	Initial training	..... %
	Continuing training	..... %
	Specialist training	..... %
e. Social position of participants	Disadvantaged social position, for example migrants, formal education drop-outs, etc	..... %

Please specify the main disadvantaged group(s), for example migrants, formal education drop-outs, etc)

.....

7. How are the educational activities of the organisation funded?  
(please estimate percentage)

- a. By public means ..... %
- b. By contributions of participants ..... %
- c. By contributions of employers ..... %
- d. By other private means ..... %

Are there other forms of funding not mentioned above?

- a. No
- b. Yes, please fill in the form(s) of funding and the percentage(s) .....

8. Indicators of the size of the organisation  
(If you don't know exactly, please give us an estimate)
- a. Number of staff involved in educational activities .....
  - b. Annual number of participants .....

**B. Professional profile of VET practitioners**

9. The term 'VET practitioner' is a very general one. We want to know the composition of the professional profile of these practitioners. First, we would like to know which types of VET practitioner are active in your organisation and how many of each type of practitioner are active in your organisation.

(Please give us the estimated number of practitioners)

- a. Teachers .....
- b. Trainers .....
- c. Coaches .....
- d. Consultants .....

Are there other type(s) of VET practitioners active in your organisation not mentioned above

- a. No
- b. Yes, please give us the type(s) and estimated number of practitioners .....

10. Please state for each activity whether it is a main task (M) or an additional task (A) for the specific category of staff. If the activity is not applicable for the practitioner concerned, please select N.A.

Activities	Practitioner				
	Teachers	Trainers	Coaches	Consultants	Others
Teaching general subjects	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Teaching technical and practical subjects	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Instructing people on specific tasks	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Training of skills	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Evaluation of educational activities	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.	M/A/N.A.

11. Are there other tasks that are not specified above which are regarded as main tasks of VET practitioners?

- a. No
- b. Yes, i.e. (description of task and type of practitioner) .....

12. What didactic formats are used in the educational activities provided by your organisation? Please indicate the extent (as a percentage) to which the following formats are used (since multiple formats may be used in an activity a total over 100 is possible); other formats may be added.

Format	Percentage
Courses	..... %
Workshops	..... %
Study circles	..... %
Exercises	..... %
Simulations	..... %
Individual supervision	..... %
Apprenticeships	..... %
Open learning centres	..... %
Distance learning (correspondence courses, television courses etc.)	..... %
E-learning	..... %

Are there any other didactic formats used, not mentioned above?

- a. No
- b. Yes, please fill in the formats, and the extent in percentage .....

13. Please specify up to three of the most important competences that staff members need to fulfil their tasks.

- 1. ....
- 2. ....
- 3. ....

14. If you would like to make any additional remarks about part B, "Professional profile of the VET practitioners involved", please write them here.

.....  
 .....  
 .....

**C. Qualifications and background of VET practitioners**

15. General level of qualification of the VET practitioners  
(the percentage of staff to whom the description applies):

- a. Higher education ..... %
- b. Secondary education ..... %
- c. A lower level of education ..... %

16. What types of qualification do these VET practitioners possess?

Please give an estimate of the percentage of VET practitioners that possess the qualification and whether the qualification is required or desirable for them.

Qualification	% possessing qualification	Required or Desirable
General teacher training or pedagogical	..... %	R/D
Specific adult education training	..... %	R/D
Subject-specific education	..... %	R/D
Professional expertise	..... %	R/D

Are there any other kinds of qualifications (required or desirable) not mentioned above?

- a. No
- b. Yes, please fill in the qualifications, percent possessing qualification and if it is required or desirable .....

17. What are the grounds for the requirement of qualifications?

(check all that apply)

- a. No specific grounds
- b. Legal standards
- c. Sectoral regulations
- d. Collective agreements
- e. Other grounds, i.e. ....

18. At what stage of their career do VET practitioners enter their job?

(the percentage of staff to whom the description applies)

- a. Shortly after the completion of initial education ..... %
- b. After 5 - 15 of years of professional experience outside VET ..... %
- c. At a later stage in their career ..... %

19. If you would like to make any additional remarks on part C, "Qualifications and background of VET practitioners", please write them here.

.....

.....

.....

.....

**D. General characteristics, employment situation and status of VET practitioners**

In the following questions, please give the percentage of VET practitioners concerned.

20. What is the composition of VET practitioners in your organisation in terms of **gender**?  
*(the percentage of VET practitioners concerned)*

- a. Men ..... %
- b. Women ..... %

21. What is the composition of VET practitioners in your organisation in terms of **age**?  
*(the percentage of VET practitioners concerned)*

- a. Under 30 years old ..... %
- b. 30-50 years old ..... %
- c. More than 50 years old ..... %

22. What is the composition of VET practitioners in your organisation in terms of **type of appointment**?  
*(the percentage of VET practitioners concerned)*

- a. Permanent ..... %
- b. Temporary ..... %
- c. Freelance ..... %
- d. Voluntary ..... %

Are there any other types of appointment(s) not mentioned above?

- a. No
- b. Yes, please fill in the type(s) of appointments and the percentage(s) VET practitioners concerned .....

23. What is the composition of VET practitioners in your organisation in terms of **working hours**?  
*(the percentage of VET practitioners concerned)*

- a. 60%- 100% employed (full-time) ..... %
- b. 20%-60% employed (part-time) ..... %
- c. less than 20% employed (part-time) ..... %

24. How do the conditions of employment (salaries, etc.) of VET practitioners compare with those of employees with comparable training and experience?  
*(the percentage of VET practitioners concerned)*

- a. VET practitioners work in better conditions ..... %
- b. VET practitioners work in approximately equal conditions ..... %
- c. VET practitioners work in poorer conditions ..... %

25. Is the organisation able to find enough qualified staff members?
- No, there is a shortage of qualified candidates
  - Yes, there are enough qualified candidates but there is no surplus
  - Yes, there is a surplus of qualified candidates
26. How attractive is working as a VET practitioner for people with a relevant (educational/ professional) background?
- High (attractive)
  - Average
  - Low (unattractive)
27. If you would like to make any additional remarks about part D, "General characteristics, employment situation and status of VET practitioners", please write them here.
- .....

**E. Quality management in the organisation**

28. What kinds of actions does your organisation take to ensure and/or to improve the professional development of the VET practitioners and/or the quality of the educational activities? Please indicate whether the following forms of quality policy play a **major role**, a **subsidiary role** or **no (important) role**:

Forms of quality policy	Role		
	Major	Subsidiary	No (important) role
Application of admission conditions to the profession			
Recruitment and selection policies			
Induction of new staff			
Accreditation of prior learning of staff			
Monitoring, internal evaluation, assessment of staff			
External evaluation, registration, certification of staff			
External training of staff			
Internal training of staff			
Policies to improve mutual learning in the organisation ('learning organisation')			
Peer assessment, communities of practice, professional associations			
Career development policies			
Registration, certification, accreditation of the organisation itself			

29. Are there any other actions (not specified above) that **play a major role** in ensuring and/or improving the professional development of the VET practitioners and/or the quality of the educational activities?

- a. No
- b. Yes, i.e. ....

30. If you would like to make any additional remarks about part E, "Quality management of the organisation", please write them here.

.....  
.....  
.....

31. We can promise to send you the research report when it is finalised, probably in November of this year. If you would like to receive it, please give us your e-mail address and name.

- a. Name of respondent .....
- b. E-mail address of contact person .....

**END**

Thank you for your contribution to this study.

## Annex 4 List of consulted experts

Name	Organisation	Country
Mr. Boštjan Zgonc	Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport (Ministry of Education and Sport)	Slovenia
dr. Miroljub Ignjatovič	Fakulteta za družbene vede, Univerza v Ljubljani (Faculty of Social Studies, University of Ljubljana)	Slovenia
Ms. Anica Justinek	Center RS za poklicno izobraževanje (National Institute for Vocational Education and Training)	Slovenia
Ms. Irena Kuntarič	Center za poslovno usposabljanje, Gospodarska zbornica Slovenije (Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Slovenia, Educational and training department)	Slovenia
Ms. Helena Vogrinec	DOBA, Evropsko poslovno izobraževalno središče	Slovenia
Mr. Fehrudin Rizvanovič	Srednja gostinska in turistična šola Radovljica (Secondary school for Catering and Tourism Radovljica)	Slovenia

MR. Luciano Gonzalez	President of Fundación Globalia	Spain
Dr. Isabel Perez Torres	Teacher of English as second language/ Trainer of teachers	Spain
Mrs. Nuria Martinez Chicón	Municipality of Granada Institute for Training and Employment.	Spain
Mrs. M. Teresa Arias	CEMER	Spain
Mr. Jose Ramón Arroyo Sánchez Chiquito	Junta de Andalusia	Spain

Dr Natalia Kalendarova	Associate Prof. St. Clement University of Sofia	Bulgaria
Mrs Svetlana Nikolova	National Agency for Vocational Education and Training-NAVET, Direction "Vocational Qualification and Licensing"	Bulgaria
Mr Stoyko Atanasov	Workers Federations & Trade Unions - Confederation of Labour-PODKREPA	Bulgaria
Mrs Maria Kalendarova c/o Mr Emil Dimitrov	Workers Federations & Trade Unions - Confederation of Labour-PODKREPA	Bulgaria

Petr Novotny	Masaryk University, Brno	Czech republic
Marta Novakova	NGO from Brno (computer skills), coordinator for European Union project at Komensky Academy	Czech republic
Svatopluk Svarc	independent consultant, (professional development of practitioners), Brno	Czech republic

Name	Organisation	Country
Ms. Külli All	Estonian Ministry of Education and Research (policy expert)	Estonia
Ms. Krista Loogma	Institute of Educational Research in Tallinn University (expert from the academic world)	Estonia
Mr. Tõnis Arvisto, Ms. Evelin Silla	The Foundation for Lifelong Learning Development "Innove"	Estonia
Ms. Sirje Plaks	Association of Estonian Adult Educators "Andras"	Estonia
Ms. Maaaja-Katrin Kerem	The Estonian Qualification Authority	Estonia

Prof. Dr. Rita Meyer	University of Trier	Germany
Prof. Dr. Jens Klusmeyer	University of Duisburg-Essen	Germany
Mr. Herold Gross	Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training	Germany
Mr. Andre Jünger	Jünger Verlagsgruppe	Germany
Mr. Erwin Böning	Bildungswerk der Niedersächsischen Wirtschaft	Germany

Dr Zoi Papanou	Prof. Aristotle University of Thessaloniki	Greece
Mrs M. Stavropoulou	National Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training-EKEPIS Executive	Greece
Mr Spyros Papaioannou	National Accreditation Centre for Continuing Vocational Training-Dept. of Trainers' Licensing	Greece
Mrs Panitsidou Eugenia	KEK & IEK Trainer	Greece

Ms. Paola Mengoli	Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini	Italy
Mr. Stefano Panzarani	AIF Lazio – Associazione Italiana Formatori Regione Lazio	Italy

Drs. P.M. Esveld	CEDEO (Centre for the documentation and evaluation of private training institutions)	The Netherlands
Drs. W. Houtkoop	Max Goote Kenniscentrum (Expertise centre for vocational and adult education, University of Amsterdam)	The Netherlands
Drs. T. Janssen	Common department learning and working, Ministries of Education and Social Affairs	The Netherlands
T. de Kok	BOABOREA (Branch organisation for reintegration and occupational health agencies)	The Netherlands
Drs. J. Oudejans	COLO (Common body of expertise centres for vocational education and business)	The Netherlands
Drs. R. Swager	ECABO (Expertise centre for economic and administrative occupations)	The Netherlands

<b>Name</b>	<b>Organisation</b>	<b>Country</b>
T. Bartosiak	Ministry of Education, Department of permanent education	Poland
Jan Łuczyński	Jagiellonian University	Poland
Katarzyna Sekutowicz	BORIS: Biuro Obsługi Ruchu Inicjatyw Społecznych (Organisation supporting movement of the social initiatives)	Poland
Radosława Biernacka	Szkoła Języków Obcych Deutsch (Deutsch: School of Foreign Languages)	Poland
Katarzyna Czayka-Chelmińska	Association of the Trainers for Non-governmental Organisations (STOP Stowarzyszenie Trenerów Organizacji Pozarządowych)	Poland

Eugen Preda	National Agency for Employment	Romania
Ana-Elena Costin	National Adult Training Board	Romania
Elisabeta Mitroi	Sectoral Committee Construction	Romania
Liliana Voicu	National Adult Training Board	Romania
Simona Pascariu	free-lance expert and trainer	Romania

Mona Thuresson	Swedish Agency for Advanced Vocational Education	Sweden
Anna-Karin Härd	provider organisation for Advanced Vocational Education	Sweden
Kent Gunnarsson	Swedish Agency for Advanced Vocational Education	Sweden

Mr. Jon Collis	Operations Director at National Training Resources Ltd	United Kingdom
Ms. Judith Norrington	Chief Officer with the Awarding Body, City and Guilds.	United Kingdom
Ms. Maggie Scott	Director of Learning and Quality at the Association of Colleges	United Kingdom
Mr. Mark Kaczmarek	FE Workforce and Leadership Improvement Group, DIUS	United Kingdom
Mr. Bill Bailey	formerly Principal Lecturer at the University of Greenwich	United Kingdom



## Annex 5 Statistical data from the survey

Country name	Number of complete responses
Czech Republic	1
Estonia	4
France	1
Germany	10
Italy	3
Poland	1
Romania	11
Slovenia	7
Spain	8
Sweden	5
The Netherlands	20
The United Kingdom	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>72</b>

Country name	Status		Total
	complete response	answered first questions, but stopped	
Czech Republic	1	0	1
Deutschland	10	1	11
Estonia	4	2	6
France	1	1	2
Greece	1	2	3
Italy	3	0	3
Poland	1	1	2
Romania	11	3	14
Slovenia	7	0	7
Spain	8	2	10
Sweden	5	1	6
The Netherlands	21	3	24
The United Kingdom	1	0	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>90</b>

### Education level of participants

	Mean	N
Higher education	44,2	90
Secondary education	27,9	90
Lower education	25,8	90

### Employment situation of participants

	Mean	N
Employed	47,9	90
Unemployed	38,4	90
Self employed	7,2	90

### Stage of career of participants

	Mean	N
Recently left formal education	28,4	90
Mid career	51,6	90
End of career	10,9	90

### Type of training offered

	Mean	N
Initial training	26,7	90
Continuing training	32,5	90
Specialist training	37,5	90

### Social position of participants

	Mean	N
Disadvantaged social position	24,4	90

### How are the educational activities of the organisation funded?

	Mean	N
By public means	53,6	84
By contributions of participants	11,7	84
By contributions of employers	26,4	84
By other private means	7,3	84

### Size of the organisation

	Mean	N
Number of staff involved in educational activities	53,4	83
Annual number of participants	2361,2	80

### Number of staff

	Mean	N
Teachers	12,5	79
Trainers	22,2	79
Coaches	44,1	79
Consultants	12,9	79

## Tasks of teachers

	Main task	Additional task	Not applicable	Total
	%	%	%	%
Teaching general subjects	55%	29%	16%	100%
Teaching technical and practical subjects	77%	23%	0%	100%
Instructing people on specific tasks	45%	45%	10%	100%
Training of skills	58%	32%	10%	100%
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	13%	65%	23%	100%
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	36%	48%	16%	100%
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	16%	39%	45%	100%
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	13%	48%	39%	100%
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	32%	52%	16%	100%
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	29%	55%	16%	100%
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	39%	45%	16%	100%
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	26%	39%	36%	100%
Evaluation of educational activities	32%	55%	13%	100%
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	13%	39%	48%	100%
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	7%	48%	45%	100%

## Tasks of trainers

	Main task	Additional task	Not applicable	Total
	%	%	%	%
Teaching general subjects	29%	35%	36%	100%
Teaching technical and practical subjects	55%	17%	28%	100%
Instructing people on specific tasks	53%	28%	19%	100%
Training of skills	81%	12%	7%	100%
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	41%	36%	22%	100%
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	35%	52%	14%	100%
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	17%	47%	36%	100%
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	17%	45%	38%	100%
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	19%	45%	36%	100%
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	31%	43%	26%	100%
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	35%	52%	14%	100%
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	19%	40%	41%	100%
Evaluation of educational activities	31%	48%	21%	100%
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	10%	41%	48%	100%
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	21%	41%	38%	100%

## Tasks of coaches

	Main task	Additional task	Not applicable	Total
	%	%	%	%
Teaching general subjects	25%	38%	38%	100%
Teaching technical and practical subjects	25%	43%	33%	100%
Instructing people on specific tasks	38%	38%	25%	100%
Training of skills	50%	35%	15%	100%
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	68%	33%	0%	100%
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	38%	55%	8%	100%
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	40%	30%	30%	100%
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	38%	38%	25%	100%
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	43%	25%	33%	100%
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	15%	45%	40%	100%
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	8%	38%	55%	100%
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	8%	25%	68%	100%
Evaluation of educational activities	20%	48%	33%	100%
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	23%	28%	50%	100%
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	18%	33%	50%	100%

## Tasks of consultants

	Main task	Additional task	Not applicable	Total
	%	%	%	%
Teaching general subjects	28%	26%	47%	100%
Teaching technical and practical subjects	16%	26%	58%	100%
Instructing people on specific tasks	26%	37%	37%	100%
Training of skills	23%	33%	44%	100%
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	40%	28%	33%	100%
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	37%	23%	40%	100%
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	37%	28%	35%	100%
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	37%	26%	37%	100%
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	40%	23%	37%	100%
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	51%	28%	21%	100%
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	33%	33%	35%	100%
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	23%	21%	56%	100%
Evaluation of educational activities	35%	33%	33%	100%
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	26%	19%	56%	100%
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	51%	26%	23%	100%

## Tasks of others

	Main task	Additional task	Not applicable	Total
	%	%	%	%
Teaching general subjects	8%	31%	62%	100%
Teaching technical and practical subjects	15%	23%	62%	100%
Instructing people on specific tasks	23%	39%	39%	100%
Training of skills	23%	15%	62%	100%
Coaching or mentoring people in their vocational and/or personal development	23%	31%	46%	100%
Tutoring, supporting people in their learning processes	15%	46%	39%	100%
Intake of participants, needs assessment, accreditation of prior learning	15%	39%	46%	100%
Guidance and counselling of people on career subjects	15%	15%	69%	100%
Assessing the vocational or educational development of people	23%	15%	62%	100%
Development, planning and organisation of educational activities (courses etc.)	31%	8%	62%	100%
Development of materials and methods for educational activities	23%	8%	69%	100%
Development of ICT materials for educational activities (courses etc.)	0%	31%	69%	100%
Evaluation of educational activities	15%	31%	54%	100%
Supervision and/or training of VET practitioners	8%	23%	69%	100%
Consultancy to improve (the learning potential of) organisations	8%	31%	62%	100%

## What didactic formats are used in the educational activities provided by your organisation?

	Mean	N
Courses	42,6	77
Workshops	22,4	77
Study circles	6,4	77
Exercises	27,1	77
Simulations	14,9	77
Individual supervision	16,5	77
Apprenticeships	12,5	77
Open learning centres	4,7	77
Distance learning (correspondence courses, television courses etc.)	1,5	77
E-learning	6,2	77

## General level of qualification of the VET practitioners

	Mean	N
Higher education	87,4	72
Secondary education	11,7	72
A lower level of education	1,8	72

### Percentage of VET practitioners that possess the qualification

	Mean	N
Professional expertise	41,4	69
Subject-specific education	30,8	69
General teacher or pedagogical training	43,6	69
Specific adult education training	51,6	69

	required %	desirable %	Total %
Specific adult education training	53%	47%	100%
General teacher training or pedagogical	41%	59%	100%
Professional expertise	78%	22%	100%
Subject-specific education	71%	29%	100%

### What are the grounds for the requirement of qualifications?

	N	%
No specific grounds	21	30%
Legal standards	30	42%
Sectoral regulations	22	31%
Collective agreements	17	24%
Other grounds	19	27%

### At what stage of their career do VET practitioners enter their job

	Mean	N
Shortly after the completion of initial education	27,2	70
After 5 - 15 of years of professional experience outside VET	56,1	70
At a later stage in their career	16,4	70

### Composition of VET practitioners in terms of gender

	Mean	N
Men	47,8	69
Women	52,2	69

### Composition of VET practitioners in terms of age

	Mean	N
Under 30 years old	20,1	68
30-50 years old	60,1	68
More than 50 years old	15,6	68

#### Composition of VET practitioners in terms of type of appointment

	Mean	N
Permanent	49	68
Temporary	24,5	68
Freelance	15,2	68
Voluntary	4,6	68

#### Composition of VET practitioners in terms of working hours

	Mean	N
60%- 100% employed	64,1	65
20%-60% employed (part-time)	21,8	65
less than 20% employed (part-time)	11,7	65

How do the conditions of employment (salaries, etc.) of VET practitioners compare with those of employees with comparable training and experience?

	Mean	N
VET practitioners work in better conditions	28,4	63
VET practitioners work in approximately equal cond	63,3	63
VET practitioners work in poorer conditions	7,9	63

Is the organisation able to find enough qualified staff members?

	N	%
No, there is a shortage of qualified candidates	28	43%
Yes, there are enough qualified candidates but there is no shortage	33	51%
Yes, there is a surplus of qualified candidates	4	6%
Total	65	100%

How attractive is working as a VET practitioner for people with a relevant (educational/ professional) background?

	N	%
High (attractive)	25	39%
Average	34	52%
Low (unattractive)	6	9%
Total	65	100%

What kinds of actions does your organisation take to ensure and/or to improve the professional development of the VET practitioners and/or the quality of the educational activities

	Major	Sub- sidiary	No (im- portant) role	Total
	%	%	%	%
Application of admission conditions to the profession	42%	35%	23%	100%
Recruitment and selection policies	55%	29%	17%	100%
Induction of new staff	39%	42%	18%	100%
Accreditation of prior learning of staff	26%	49%	26%	100%
Monitoring, internal evaluation, assessment of staff	44%	41%	15%	100%
External evaluation, registration, certification of staff	32%	42%	26%	100%
External training of staff	50%	39%	11%	100%
Internal training of staff	58%	33%	9%	100%
Policies to improve mutual learning in the organisation	41%	41%	18%	100%
Peer assessment, communities of practice, professional associations	35%	47%	18%	100%
Career development policies	33%	36%	30%	100%
Registration, certification, accreditation of the organisation itself	46%	32%	23%	100%

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