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APPLICATION OF APPRENTICESHIP IN THE VOCATIONAL INTEGRATION OF THE SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED YOUTH

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REPORT ON ANALYSIS OF THE MEASURES AND APPROACHES OF VOCATIONAL INTEGRATION OF SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED YOUTH IN SPAIN

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1. Understanding of the concept “socially disadvantaged youth” in Spain:

- Which definitions of “socially disadvantaged youth” exist?

The Spanish educational system has a white middle class structure. Therefore, the first indicator about disadvantage points to those who do not share such features, even if article 27 of the Spanish Constitution is clear about the right to basic education which has to be compulsory and therefore free.

Among all the definitions available, we have chosen the following three:

One of the main researchers about schooling and social disadvantage, Escudero (2012), claims that students should abandon compulsory schooling sufficiently equipped with an education enabling them to follow up studies and to enter the labour market with a decent transition. But he has been denouncing, together with others, that school failure affects around a third of the students. He has tried to define school failure in a way that provides an appropriate picture of socially disadvantaged youth:

- Low school performance
- Personal and social behaviour that school, families and teachers consider unsatisfactory or inappropriate
- Absenteeism
- Formal retention even if effectively and affectively detached from school
- Early school leaving
- Affected by negative assessment: retaking courses
- Institutional and teacher unease

Fundación Adsis (2013) has just released a picture of at risk youth in secondary schools with a trust level of 95,5% where almost a fifth of the sample was people in severe deprivation after the AROPE index (no holidays, families that cannot face unforeseen payments, fish or meat no more than three meals a week, no car ...). 60% of these students live in homes where none of their parents work; less than 50% live with both parents. They find less recognition in their parents and in their teachers than their classmates. They have the same views about the future but less optimistic than their classmates. More than a third feel they won't reach their expectations. Their education in languages and IT is worse than that of their classmates, and they have less access to extracurricular activities.

And just before the financial crisis, Martínez *et. al.* (2004) described these youth in the following dimensions:

1. Personal and social: possible health problems, physical or mental illnesses, malnutrition, bad housing conditions, minority origin, low income families, poverty, lack of resources at home
2. Family: low cohesion, addictions, low expectations particularly about school
3. Peer influence: pressure against school performance and success, anti-school culture
4. Community: poverty in the social environment, risk behaviours, vandalism, rurality, alcoholism, unemployment, low cultural level, dependency upon the protection system, economic decline

All of these has to be seen in the context of low school performance of the country, as has been pointed out by PISA in each of their studies (Guío and Choi, 2013).

- *To which extent do these definitions play a role in practice?*

We find a series of programmes in secondary school that are specifically addressed to these youth, and they allow room for different practice. However, both the institutions (schools) as well as the teachers are the same, and this institutional framework makes it hard to provide different practices.

Among the teachers serving the needs of these students, we find two kinds, both in ordinary schools as well as in ghettoized schools where a significant amount of these youth concentrate. There are those teachers that can be labelled as vocational in terms of their will to serve the particular educational and social needs of these students. But there are also the novel teachers or newcomers that land in those schools and that do not remain in them for longer than two years, with the result that they often lack both experience in these educational contexts as well as commitment with the educational project of the school.

There is literature about the problem of school failure, early school leaving and low performance at school, but most of it is written from a sociological or political perspective, and there are hardly any well-known resources addressed to improve the educational practice in such contexts. There are though a few exceptions¹ among which the one explained by Escuela Xavó-Xaví (2000) is worth considering.

- *Are there other understandings that are not explicitly formulated but steer practice?*

The definitions provided above are basically academic and some of them driven by the institutions themselves that work, out of the school, with youth at risk, as is the case of ADSIS. There has been a debate in recent years about how to name the problem and how to measure it, but this has been driven by policymakers rather than by practitioners (Vélaz de Medrano y de Paz, 2010;). This debate affected in a clear way the development of the Network Against Early School Leaving sponsored by the Administration Unit of the Social European Fund in Spain between 2010 and 2012 and where policymakers and practitioners from different parts of the country took part and tried to agree on specific measures for almost three years, highly influenced by the political confrontation in the country (http://www.empleo.gob.es/uafse/es/novedades/novedad_0041.html).

The measures adopted in practice have evolved since the Compensatory Programmes in the early 1980s to the first Social Guarantee Schemes in the mid 1990s and the Initial Qualification Programmes since 2007 and most of the teachers that are vocational about this problem have developed their practice all throughout these programmes.

¹ <http://fundacionlaboraldelmetal.com/>
<http://www.iniciativessolidaries.com/publicaciones/materiales-didacticos-de-formacion-para-personas-adultas-en-e-s-o/>
<http://www.fundacionadsis.org/es/page.asp?id=1>
<http://www.asociacion-semilla.org/>
http://www.tomillo.org/v_portal/apartados/apartado.asp
http://dim.pangea.org/libro1/menosfracasoescolar_p18.pdf
<http://www.ugr.es/~recfpro/rev153ART8.pdf>

- *How are these understandings reflected in the social and political attitudes and positions of policy makers (Government, regional authorities) and different stakeholders (employers, trade unions, professional organizations, education institutions)?*

As pointed above, the very way of defining and naming the problem is a matter of political discussion. National, regional and local governments, influenced by the political positions, debate at different levels: how to improve the education performance of students in international studies or even how to make those data not so controversial for the country. Regional governments agree or disagree with national government according to the political party governing each.

Employers demand a proper qualification from the educational system but with such large data of unemployment (table 1) they have a wide labour market where they can choose their labour force. Therefore, disadvantaged youth not a relevant issue. Trade unions (De la Cruz and Recio, 2011), the Youth Institute (*Instituto de la Juventud*, 2013; Navarrete, 2007), the Social and Economic Council (CES, 2009, 2013) as well as some professional organizations (Fundación Laboral del Metal, Fundación Laboral de la Construcción), particularly those where there is a shortage of vocational qualified workforce, show greater concern.

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	8,03	11,33	17,93	19,79	21,52	25,02	25,98
< 25	17,95	24,23	38,61	40,73	45,84	52,34	54,39

Table 1. Unemployment rate in the third quarter of each year in Spain (source: INE, 2013)

2. Short overview on the current state of vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth consisting of:

2.1. Statistical data on the number of socially disadvantaged youth without vocational qualifications facing difficulties in accessing initial VET and employment.

- *What are the main trends of change of this number in the recent 10 years?*

In table 2 we read the number of early school leavers where we appreciate the high percentage, which grew between 2000 and 2009 due to the fast growing economy particularly in the sectors of construction and tourism where companies were eager to hire non-qualified youth with low incomes, even if that meant that they had to drop off the school or VET systems a few months before accomplishing their degrees. The percentage did only start to reduce due to the financial crisis and the fast growing unemployment rate as shown in table 1.

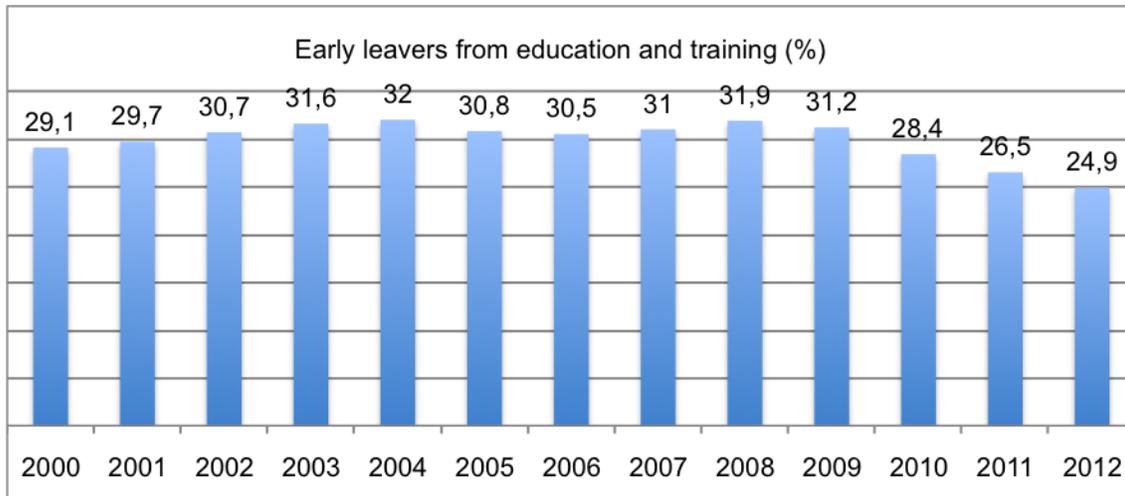


Table 2. Early leavers² from education and training (source: Eurostat, 2013)

- *How many socially disadvantaged young people are enrolled in the initial VET programmes?*

Access to formal Vocational Education is only possible for those who have obtained the Certificate in Secondary Education during compulsory education (ESO in table 3). Therefore, the only chances for those not achieving it to enroll in post-compulsory education are either to do a low level 1 non-formal vocational education (PCPI in table 3) or to enroll in adult education once they are 18. The data below show the poor achievement rate in either way, particularly with PCPI. The numbers, however, correspond with the tiny offer that students have, given the great demand that one might expect as shown in table 2 above.

	2010-11	2009-10	2008-09	2007-08	2006-07	2005-06	2004-05	2003-04	2002-03	2001-02	2000-01
TOTAL	387308	377795	360970	340310	325823	324214	326777	334247	332900	332529	341930
ESO	315667	317723	321195	311922	303685	304157	309637	316970	319396	323167	341930
PCPI	11178	8627	653	459							
ADULT EDUCATION	60463	51445	39122	27929	22138	20057	17140	17277	13504	9362	

Table 3. Students who obtained Secondary Certificate by type of program (MEC, 2013)

We can see in contrast the enrolment numbers in formal VET (level 2 = CFGM) as well as in both non-formal VET level 1 (PCPI and, prior to the 2006 education law, PGS or Social Guarantee Schemes). If we compare numbers for PCPI in table 3 (certification of achievement) and in table 4 (enrolment) we realize that the success rate is less than a sixth in the best of cases.

	2012-13	2011-12	2010-11	2009-10	2008-09	2007-08	2006-07	2005-06	2004-05	2003-04	2002-03	2001-02	2000-01
TOTAL	401953	386662	371349	346915	304420	283462	278577	275101	277416	274904	270767	254666	233006

² Early leaver from education and training, previously named early school leaver, generally refers to a person aged 18 to 24 who has finished no more than a lower secondary education and is not involved in further education or training; their number can be expressed as a percentage of the total population aged 18 to 24. http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:Early_leaver_from_education_and_training

CFGM	317656	302445	289568	271990	249506	236489	232653	230174	231365	229005	224486	210750	191456
PCPI	84297	84217	81775	74715	51659	459							
PGS			6	210	3255	46514	45924	44927	46051	45899	46281	43916	41550

Table 4. VET students by type of programme (source: MEC, 2013)

- *How many of them graduate initial VET establishments and get employed?*

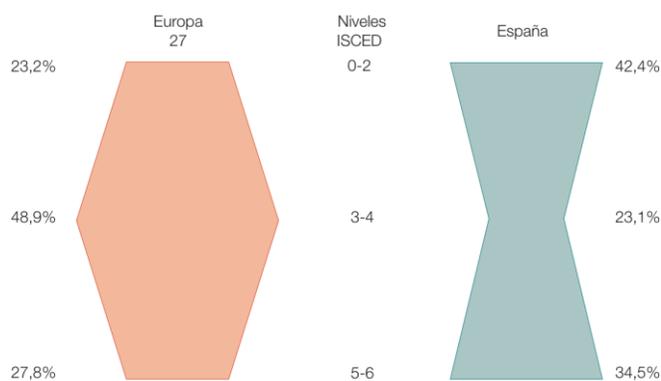
The relation between VET qualification and a corresponding job position in Spain has been very loose along history. The isolation suffered during the dictatorship between 1939 and 1975 caused a late economic development as well as a very late massive schooling: only by year 1982 was compulsory school successfully achieved as a matter of fact. The consequence was that many non-qualified people have been employed in the labour market while many young people were overqualified for the positions they were offered. Over qualification has also caused a displacement, where university degrees got VET-qualified jobs and VET-qualified students had to take lower qualified positions or even non-qualified jobs.

The figures corresponding to low qualified youth entering active population can be seen in table 5.

WSTATUS/TIME	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Active persons	54,5	56,6	56,0	54,2	53,6	54,4	55,5	55,5	53,8	52,6	52,2
Employed persons	54,4	55,9	55,5	52,8	52,4	52,9	51,8	49,3	46,5	46,0	44,7
Employees	54,0	54,8	54,7	52,3	51,8	52,1	51,0	48,7	45,8	45,2	43,5
Employed persons except employees	61,3	69,3	64,9	58,2	58,5	62,5	61,8	57,8	54,6	56,1	56,2
Unemployed persons	54,7	59,1	57,9	60,1	59,2	61,1	67,1	65,5	64,2	60,3	58,8
Inactive persons	50,1	51,7	52,8	53,3	54,0	54,5	55,0	56,4	54,9	54,1	54,2

Table 5. People between 15 and 24 with pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2) and labour status (source: Eurostat, 2013)

As a result of the previous explanation, in graph 1 we may see the distorted image of the active population in Spain in relation to Europe in year 2007:



Graph 1. Percentage of the occupied population between 25 and 64 after ISCED levels in Europe (left figure) and in Spain (right figure) in 2007, according to the Labour Force Survey (Homs, 2008, 127).

2.2. Overview of the main institutions providing support for socially disadvantaged youth and their role in the field of vocational integration of this target group.

- *What are the main public institutions responsible for provision of support in vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth and what kind of support they provide?*

Formal VET may be offered only in schools, and there are three categories of these: public schools³, private schools publicly funded and private VET schools, of which there are very few in the country. Furthermore, municipalities are also able to offer non-formal VET level 1, so to say PCPI (and formerly PGS). These municipalities also offer non-formal VET in other forms⁴ of either lower qualification or in shorter modules, under the form of workshops of different kinds (TFIL –*talleres de formación e inserción laboral*-, TE –*talleres de empleo*-, Escuelas Taller –*Workshop schools*-, Casas de Oficios –*Trade workshops*-) and vocational short-term courses (FPE –*formación para el empleo*-).

- *What are the main private or independent bodies and stakeholders involved in the provision of support in vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth and what kind of support they provide?*

There are three types of private bodies or stakeholders involved in the provision of non-formal vocational integration measures for socially disadvantaged youth. First, non-governmental organizations which have developed since the early 1980s, some of them before that date, addressed to do social work and provide education to young people out of schools. A few well-known examples are named in footnote 1 (*Fundación Adsis, Asociación Semilla, Fundación Tomillo, Asociación Iniciativas Solidàries*). A second type of stakeholders is trade unions and professional bodies (such as *Fundación Laboral del Metal* or *Fundación Laboral de la Construcción, FOREM* or *IFES*) which started being involved in continuing training as soon as the early 1990s and that afterwards joined the field of initial VET, among which they have some offer for socially disadvantaged youth. A third type of stakeholders are private institutions, most of which evolved in the early 1980s as private academies where non-formal VET was a choice particularly in those occupational fields where there was no official VET at the time, either for the low qualification or for the recently recognition of the occupation. These institutions always saw part of their business in offering non-formal VET for young people that had dropped off the system and whose training was paid by the public administration as part of the dole.

- *Where are the programmes and measures of vocational integration of youth implemented and applied – in the initial VET schools or enterprises? Who is responsible for the teaching and training of these young people – teachers, trainers or masters and supervisors of enterprises? Do teachers and trainers in VET schools, as well as masters and supervisors in the enterprises have sufficient pedagogical competences and specific pedagogical skills to work with socially disadvantaged youth groups? How can they acquire these competences and skills?*

³ <http://www.todofp.es/>

⁴ http://www.sepe.es/contenido/empleo_formacion/formacion/formacion_para_el_empleo/formacion_profesional_para_el_empleo/

Enterprises on their own hardly offer any measure for the vocational integration of disadvantaged youth, except in those cases where there is a shortage of low skilled workforce. It is more the shape of professional or occupational bodies that offer initial VET for such youth or, as said above, NGOs and municipalities together with some VET schools that are part of the system.

It is mainly trainers and sometimes teachers that are involved in such measures, usually together with social care professionals (social educators, social workers, pedagogues, psychologists and others) that work in those institutions and who are the people with the professional capabilities to address the particular educational needs of these young people that left the school with no success and a bad record of educational support.

3. Critical analysis of the social and educational policies directed to vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth.

Questions of analysis:

- *What are the most important social and educational policies directed to vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth?*

These policies are ruled by either the Department of Education (PCPI, Formación Profesional Básica) or the Department of Employment (Escuelas Taller, Casas de Oficio, Cursos de formación para el empleo, TFIL). In the case of Education, the legislation is nation-wide and it is adapted differently in each of the 17 regions. In the case of Employment, there is no nation-wide legislation about vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth, and each of the regions states its own ones, which are however pretty similar. Let us have a look at the most relevant:

A. *Programas de Cualificación Profesional Inicial (PCPI)*⁵.

Initial Vocational Qualification Programmes were ruled in 2006, evolving from a previous figure that existed since 1990 and that have been the most well-known measure within the education system even if in its margins allowing for vocational qualification at lower levels. They are addressed to young people between 16 and 21 and must take into account a qualification with level 1.

Secondary schools, municipalities and non-profit organizations serving the needs of particular groups of young people may provide it, always in connection with a school, which is the one able to guarantee the accreditation of the knowledge acquired.

B. *Formación Profesional Básica (FPB)*⁶.

Basic Vocational Training is still a project included in the recently approved Law on Education⁷ (as recently as December 10th 2013) and that is attempted to replace PCPIs. Its regulation is still under draft versions and it will be developed in the coming months. One of its most relevant features is that it will be offered from the age of 15, hence introducing a segregated pathway in compulsory schooling.

C. *Escuelas Taller, Casas de Oficio and Talleres de Empleo*⁸.

⁵ <http://www.todofp.es/todofp/formacion/que-y-como-estudiar/pcpis/pcpi.html>

⁶ <http://www.todofp.es/todofp/formacion/que-y-como-estudiar/fp-basica.html>

⁷ https://www.boe.es/diario_boe/txt.php?id=BOE-A-2013-12886

⁸ <http://www.sepe.es/LegislativaWeb/buscarInformacionLeg.do?tipo=espESC>

Workshop schools and Trade Workshops are the oldest non-formal initial VET provision in Spain, which started as early as 1982, with the first training programmes against unemployment. They can be considered as the 'crown's jewels', for they entail the best practices in many ways: Serving the needs of the young people attending them, combination of on-the-job with theoretical learning, combination of education and employment, social value of the training and local development through the works performed by the young people and which are in benefit of the local community.

Even if they have lost some of their best features along the years, they are still very good though minority practices: The extension of these measures has shortened, the working conditions have worsened and the model is limited in that local maintenance of the municipal properties is limited.

Employment Workshops are a third version, more recently developed, which tries to comprise the good features of the previous two but very limited in time and scope. They prove much cheaper and have therefore expanded rapidly, even if there is no social added value to them.

D. *Cursos de formación para el empleo*⁹.

These are initial non-formal VET courses offered by different kinds of institutions and that operate as theoretical training, even if work placements are a usual part of them.

E. *Contratos para la formación y el aprendizaje*^{10 11}.

This is the last measure we will refer to. It is a measure written in the Statute of Workers¹² itself since the early 1980s. In fact, it is the apprenticeship contract that has existed in Spain along all of these years but which has not been applied in an intensive manner and, when it has been used, the formative dimension has been often neglected (Chisvert and Marhuenda, 2013; Marhuenda, 2000).

- *What are the main goals of these policies?*

Three types of goals are devised in most of these measures:

- A. The provision of a vocational preparation leading to a vocational qualification, at least to the acknowledgement of an accredited part of the qualification.
- B. A compensatory role, trying to provide and/or reinforce the instrumental subjects leading to the minimum cultural platform that compulsory education is supposed to provide.
- C. To provide chances for a proper personal development and identity formation as adolescents, something that the school could not achieve and that is considered a dimension as relevant as the previous two. This personal development comprises also the opportunity to provide a social dimension to this development, either by equipping them with a social reference through the occupation they are training for or also for disciplining them in the world of work in a rudimentary industrial yet effective way.

- *What measures are applied to achieve these policy goals?*

⁹ http://www.sepe.es/contenido/empleo_formacion/formacion/formacion_para_el_empleo/formacion_profesional_para_el_empleo/index.html

¹⁰ <http://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-2012-13846>

¹¹ http://www.sepe.es/contenido/eu/empleo_formacion/empresas/pdf/Contrato_Formacion_y_aprendizaje.pdf

¹² <https://www.boe.es/buscar/act.php?id=BOE-A-1995-7730>

We can identify three main measures that have been developed to achieve these goals. The first one is the flexibilization and modularisation of the curriculum. An integrated curriculum is possible, in contrast with the juxtaposed curriculum in secondary schools. This comes in two ways: First, the very modular aspect of the VET curriculum in Spain since 1990. Second, the integration of basic subjects into large domains (social and technological) around which contents of academic kind are provided in a meaningful way to students. This contributes to the compensatory goal of these measures.

The second measure is the introduction of work experience in all of these measures, even if in different kinds, depending upon the differential features of each of the programmes. Be they 'on-the-job training' (*Formación en Centros de Trabajo*, FCT is the Spanish acronym) or 'work experience schemes' (*Prácticas no laborales*, PNL is the Spanish acronym), both contribute to provide a practical core to this training. The role they play in facilitating the acquisition of vocational competencies is indeed relevant, even if the model remains one under which the rationale is the practical application of the theoretical knowledge previously acquired.

The third measure is the introduction of tutorial modules together with complementary activities (sports, leisure, personal issues, cultural activities) that facilitate both dealing with relevant issues for the trainees in either a collective or an individualized manner as well as contribute to a positive socialisation that schools are not able to provide, not to all students. No doubt that this support activities and accompanying measures are key elements in the processes of identity formation of these people in their late adolescence as well as contribute to their exploratory processes leading to their transitions not just into the labour market but into the adult life as a whole. These issues get different meaning when we consider that there are young parents among these trainees, experiences of small offenses, perhaps drug consumption or gender violence, to give a few examples.

- *To what extent these measures concern or target VET curriculum design, organization and provision of training, assessment and recognition of learning outcomes?*

VET curriculum design happens according to the National Vocational Qualification Framework¹³, which includes all of the approved and ruled qualifications; and these are used either as full qualifications other as units of competence belonging to a qualification. The social agents and the administrations of Education and Employment have agreed the design of these qualifications.

Assessment and recognition of learning outcomes is not a formal part of non-formal VET but it is a requirement in PCPIs. However, in order to achieve a qualification, either in full or partially, assessment has to take place. The procedures for this have been set as late as 2009¹⁴ but they have been hardly developed. And young people may only enter them after a training period for they lack the sufficient experience, due to the features of the labour market, in order to prove they have achieved the necessary knowledge.

¹³ http://www.educacion.gob.es/educa/incual/ice_catalogoWeb_ing.html
<https://www.educacion.gob.es/iceextranet/bdqAction.do>

¹⁴ <https://www.boe.es/buscar/doc.php?id=BOE-A-2009-13781>
http://www.educacion.gob.es/educa/incual/pdf/2/dossier_acreditat.pdf

- *What mechanisms of the vocational integration provide these policy measures?*
 - *Adaptation of the existing initial VET curricula, training processes and instruments to the needs and possibilities of socially disadvantaged youth. What are the features of this adaptation? In what ways the VET curricula, training processes and instruments are adapted?*

VET curricula are themselves considered as the relevant adaptation for socially disadvantaged students. One of the most relevant reforms introduced in autumn 2013 is the introduction of the Basic Vocational Education within the compulsory curriculum as a segregated pathway for non-academic students; breaking down the comprehensivity that secondary school enjoyed since 1990.

- *Increasing and strengthening of capacities of socially disadvantaged youth to enable them to integrate in the “normal” pathways of initial VET. What are the instruments of these capacity building measures (e.g. specific preparatory courses, specific education of trainers/teachers)?*

None. Not even a preparatory content to help trainees prepare the access exams to enter formal VET level 2, which is the main chance they have to re-enter the school system and to start a vocational career.

Furthermore, the chances to register for an adult education provider helping them obtain the Certificate of Secondary Education are reduced, for the calendar set up by the Department of Education is as rigid as two registration periods all throughout the year.

- *The combination of the adaptation and capacity building approaches.*

Adaptations are available whenever the cause of the disadvantage is a type of disability, be it physical or mental. But no adaptation is previewed for social disadvantage, which tends to be consider as something either behavioral or attitudinal.

- *What are the main factors that facilitate effectiveness of these policies in the field of vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth¹⁵?*

One very relevant factor for effective VET provision is the possibility that young people attend VET measures, be they non-formal or PCPIs, out of school, out of school buildings. The rejection to school is so strong that the chance to attend a different location is already an attractive feature of these programmes, even if there are other students who do not mind to remain in schools.

The fact that different actors provide the same programmes is also relevant, for this allows for different uses of the same structure, for different educational qualities, for different purposes. Which implies, in fact, that the same programme provided by different actors, covering the same occupation and perhaps in the same city, will serve the needs of different groups of young people, of young people with different expectations, capacities and needs.

¹⁵ The answer to this question summarizes what has been explained in Marhuenda (2006).

A second variable is the ratio students/trainers, which in these measures is much smaller as in secondary education, 15 trainees in almost all cases, while it used to be 25 in secondary schools, now 30 as the result of budgetary cuts after the financial crisis.

A third issue is the number of teachers or trainers, also much smaller: in third year of secondary school students may have 10 different teachers, while in these measures it is usually two of them. This allows for a closer relationship, more hours they share as well as, given the ratio, the chances increase to develop a personal relation. The conditions are appropriate for the trainers to become relevant positive adults to which the trainees may relate.

Not only that, and this is a fourth feature; these two trainers may adapt the timetable and rearrange time with trainees in a more effective way, searching for a different organization that is also relevant in terms of the curriculum: This is integrated for the number of subjects is reduced and they are focused around practical activities, therefore becoming more meaningful.

Finally, all of the previous facilitates space for personal and social development in a confident and inclusive atmosphere, which is improved by the fact that evaluation can be formative not only a reward/penalty system: the chances for the trainers to follow-up the trainees increase and the pressure upon punctual evaluation diminish.

- *What are the main problems and obstacles that decrease effectiveness of these measures in vocational integration of socially disadvantaged youth?*

The main obstacle is undoubtedly the lack of planning in the VET offer. Each of the different policy programmes is run according to different calendars. Each of them has a different duration. Each of them is referred to the same qualification framework but does not go beyond level 1 of qualification in most cases. This implies that a young person attending several of these measures might have to learn the same modules.

Furthermore, the lack of planning is a very serious obstacle when it comes to guidance policies. No guidance is possible if there is no information about the VET offer all through a year. No effective guidance is possible if VET providers can only assure their current training provision but are not able to guarantee which will be available by the end of this one, as they are pending of either calls or resolutions about these calls, or even both.

Funding of non-formal VET as well as PCPIs and vocational guidance (out of the school system) is based upon subsidized systems. These are run on a yearly-based call, each of them. Therefore, no mid-term planning applies. As a result of this, many professionals in these measures switch among organizations and change jobs, which hinders the establishment of long-term positive relations with the young persons. In other cases, these professionals keep holding those relations beyond their contracts, which means that they do accompanying educational work on a free voluntary basis. Due to the financial crisis affecting the country, another effect is that most training providers have run programmes in 2011 and 2012, which have not been paid by the administration subsidizing them yet.

Lack of planning is indeed the source of all other obstacles.

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