



Education and Culture

**Leonardo da Vinci**

**INCLUSIVE MODULES  
MOVING YOUNG PEOPLE ON**



**MODULE**

**OVERVIEW OF VET IN  
GERMANY, BELGIUM, DENMARK,  
GREECE, PORTUGAL, ROMANIA AND  
UNITED KINGDOM**

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## **1 Introduction**

The terminology and conceptual definitions related to various types of so-called ‘pre-vocational’ training for young people, especially disadvantaged ones, have been open to debate and interpretation among researchers and practitioners. It has been noted that the terms ‘vocational’ and ‘prevocational’ education are often used loosely and interchangeably. What is more, educational initiatives for disadvantaged young people and adults have been referred to in various ways, from Vocational Preparation Movement (Bates et al, 1984); Vocational Education and Training (VET) (Ainley, 1990); or the ‘life preparation tradition’ (Pring, 1995). It is generally accepted that the broad aims of such kinds of initiative should include preparing young people to enter the world of paid employment or vocational education and to participate in society.

Under this conceptual framework each country report contains an overview of the different vocational and training systems as well as an outline of prevocational education and training, if appropriate. In this context the role of modularisation and its role in the vocational or prevocational education and training as well as the type and procedures for accreditation have been analyzed. Commonalities and differences have been depicted as the educational policies that either have a different stage in the modularisation development and implementation or a very specific history in its integration in the educational system.

The overviews and surveys presented in this report are an excellent source for further analyses and interpretation. There are examples specific to Germany, United Kingdom, Denmark, Belgium, Greece, Portugal and Romania, described in detail.

## **2 Germany**

### **2.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System**

The German VET system provides general education combined with professional or skilled occupational training. It is called a ‘dual’ system as it combines practical training in an economic enterprise with education in a vocational school. The dual system is a socialisation process as much as a training programme: an individual acquires the skills and knowledge necessary for employment while developing personal skills and the work ethic needed for future success in the workforce.

The German vocational system includes some 400 occupations offering apprenticeships and is structured around nationally standardised curricula and examinations administered by external bodies such as chambers of crafts. The dual system does not have any formal admission prerequisites: by law, all school leavers, regardless of what school-leaving certificates they have, can learn any recognised occupation that requires formal training. In reality, however,

opportunities for admission and the actual numbers of people who enter certain occupations depend on pre-qualification.

Under the dual system vocational schools and companies have a joint educational responsibility. Trainees spend about 20-30% of their training in a vocational school and 70-80% in their company. A combination of learning and working provides the basis for teaching vocational skills. The system seeks to teach theory and practice and to pass on structured knowledge and active competence in their proper contexts. The different learning sites involved, the company and the vocational school, interact in keeping with their different emphases, but their tasks are not rigidly divided: school is not reserved solely for teaching theory, and in-company training involves more than simply practice.

Another important function of this VET system is to ensure social inclusion. Wages are regulated by tariffs and those who successfully finished an apprenticeship are entitled to earn the proper wages. The dual system also plays an important role if it comes to social status. Those who have completed a vocational training are considered a valuable part of society in contrast to those who have not managed to accomplish this.

## **2.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System**

The term “disadvantaged” is used to denote those young people who have completed their mandatory schooling but have not (yet) the maturity or basic education necessary for successfully completing a course of vocational training. In many cases, they do not have sufficient “occupational competence” – in other words, the ability to cope with and solve tasks and problems independently, properly and professionally, assuming their own responsibility and also building goal-oriented (occupational) prospects for themselves.

Pre-vocational training serves both to ease this young person’s entry into training and a career after attending a general secondary school and to help meet the relevant entry requirements if this was not achieved during schooling to-date. Priority is given to gaining admission to a vocational training course since a qualified person will be more likely to be permanently integrated in the employment market. Pre-vocational training can be both school-based and in the form of a pre-vocational training programme supported by the *Federal Office of Employment*.

The aim of pre-vocational training programmes is to facilitate the entry of young people into training and employment and particularly to enable vocational training. A range of differentiated programmes exists to suit individual support requirements. These programmes are generally designed to provide basic qualifications and knowledge in various fields of employment, support teaching and intensive social educational supervision. Work placements are an integral part of the programmes. Participants also attend a vocational school. The aim and concept of these programmes should be oriented towards the specific circumstances and educational needs of the particular target group.

Depending on individual needs, this complex set of support programmes aims to provide pre-vocational training and career orientation. The combination and weighing of the various

elements available is flexible and depending on the support requirements: e.g. theoretical and practical basic qualifications, general education courses, insight into different fields of employment, social educational support training to foster personality stabilisation, preparation for the school leavers' certificate (external examination), language training for young immigrants and assistance in finding training or employment. The teaching and supervision is provided by trainers, teaching staff, social workers and social education workers.

Pre-vocational training is also offered in vocational schools. Examples of these include training preparation, the *pre-vocational training year* and the *basic vocational training year*. Differences in the way this training is regulated exist, depending upon the individual state's legislation.

### **New Structure for Assisting Young People Requiring Special Support Programme**

A new structure for providing assistance for vocational preparation activities has been developed and tested in a series of projects that are being conducted in conjunction with the Federal Employment Agency under the umbrella of the Development Initiative: New Structure for Assisting Young People Requiring Special Support Programme. This new structure is meant to bring greater transparency and efficiency to Germany's system for integrating young people into the working world.

The Federal Employment Agency's new specification of services for vocational preparation schemes has already been released. Key elements of the efforts being undertaken to recast this system include a preliminary aptitude analysis that is used as the basis for planning a successful course of training. Other key elements are organising subject content according to training level, the provision of flanking support, job and training place acquisition as well as placement and training agreements.

This new structure has been subject to a lot of criticism out of several reasons: The length of pre-vocational training has been reduced to eleven month maximum, which is not enough for a number of individuals. Financial restrictions are severe and providers are selected according to the less expensive offer. As a result quality standards suffer a lot and providers have in many cases to declare their bankruptcy.

## **2.3 Role of Modularisation**

### **2.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

Modules don't play a significant role in German VET system yet. Apart from few training sequences, which are imbedded into the existing apprenticeships within the dual system, there are no modules in VET.

There is currently a debate on modularisation in Germany. In fact modularisation is highly rejected for VET by some stakeholders, especially the unions. The reason for this rejection is the fear that modularisation would allow a greater degree of flexibility in the ways in which qualification is obtained. It might therefore lead to the partial abandonment of the dual system and its functions and result in less restricted employment prospects.

### **2.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

While modules are used rarely in VET, they are a wide spread practice in PET. In fact most training schemes for disadvantaged young people have been working with modules for many years. They are meant to lead young people step by step to formal training or employment. Due to lack of any regulations in this field, practitioners working in re-integration courses made up the modules themselves. As a result there existed – and still exists – a wide variety of modules with no transparency at all.

Official bodies (The *Central Chamber of Crafts* and the *Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training*) reacted to this situation and developed the concept of “qualification bricks” which includes, that the modules have to be structured and carried out in a certain way. “Qualification bricks” are used in schemes to prepare individuals for vocational education and training and contain parts of the technical training offered for recognised occupations. These modules are used to teach occupational competence and are organised into learning units that:

- enable the individual to participate in a particular job or practice of a particular occupation;
- draw on the framework curriculum;
- comprise 140 - 420 full hours of instruction;
- include a documentation of the individual’s performance.

Training module providers can develop “qualification bricks” themselves following the provisions on so-called skill profiles outlined in the concerned paragraph of the Vocational Training Act.

Young people who are willing to undergo vocational training can sign an agreement with a company. This agreement provides the framework for teaching the industrial skills and knowledge necessary for a particular occupation. As a result, participants are incorporated into operational practice early on, making it possible for them to experience training and work first-hand. For the companies involved, this process offers the opportunity to conduct an intensive “preliminary screening” of potential trainees in the course of this newly designed learning process for technical skills and knowledge.

Currently the concept is not widely practiced yet. In all involved parties the opinion is widely spread that “qualification bricks” are too specifically structured to be manageable. Many practitioners think they are too long and complex for the target group whereas vocational schools can’t cope with the work load involved: ideally each student should receive his or her own lesson especially designed for the “qualification brick” he or she is doing. Finally especially smaller and medium businesses don’t see themselves in the positions to carry out modules with such a specific content. Therefore the acceptance of “qualification bricks” is still rather low.

### **2.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules**

With “qualification bricks”, the individual starts acquiring skills for which he or she receives written documentation and a reference on their performance during the courses. The

“qualification bricks” don’t end with an official examination but the participants receive a standardised reference stating that they participated “with success” or “with considerable success” as well as a description of the tasks they performed. This is meant to facilitate access to the training or job market because it gives companies that will potentially provide the individual’s vocational training a picture of what he or she can do.

## 3 Belgium

### 3.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System<sup>1</sup>

#### General overview of the Flemish educational system

In Belgium, a federated state, the responsibility for education lies with the communities. Therefore the Flemish Community<sup>2</sup> has its own educational system. The Flemish Minister of Education and Training is responsible for almost every aspect of the education policy, from nursery schools to higher education. Some aspects, such as the definition of the start and the end of compulsory education and the minimum conditions for obtaining a diploma, are outside the competence of the Flemish Minister and are within the responsibility of the federal authorities.

The right to education, as written in the Belgian constitution, is guaranteed by compulsory education for all children and young people from six to eighteen. In practice, most young people go to school for at least 12 full school years. But from the age of 15 or 16, compulsory education is only applicable part-time, but the option of part-time education only exists in vocational education. Basically, pupils who choose this possibility are expected to combine learning with working.

The first level of the educational system consists of nursery schools (for children between two and a half and six years old; not compulsory) and primary education. Primary education takes six years and is meant for children between six and twelve years old.

The second level is secondary education, meant for pupils between twelve and eighteen years old and consisting of six consecutive years of education (divided in three stages of two school years). In general pupils choose a specific type of education between the age of 12 and 14. Four types of education are distinguished:

- general secondary education: emphasises broad general education and prepares pupils for higher education (39.1% of the pupils);
- technical secondary education: emphasises general and technical theoretical subjects and prepares pupils for a profession and for higher education (31.7% of the pupils);

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<sup>1</sup> More information on the Flemish educational system can be found in the brochure ‘Education in Flanders. A broad view of the Flemish educational landscape’ (2005). See <http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/english/>.

<sup>2</sup> The other two communities are the French-speaking community and the German-speaking community.

- secondary art education: combines general education with art education (1.9% of the pupils) and prepares pupils for a profession or for higher education;
- vocational secondary education: aims at learning young people a profession in a practical way in combination with general subjects (27.2% of the pupils). (If a seventh year, which is not compulsory, is accomplished, the pupil receives a diploma that gives access to higher education as well.)

All forms of nursery, primary and secondary education have an equivalent in special education.

Every school or centre for vocational education belongs to one of the three educational networks:

- the network of community education ('gemeenschapsonderwijs'): education organised by the public body 'Flemish Community education' under the authority of the Flemish Community;
- the network of subsidised publicly run schools ('officieel gesubsidieerd onderwijs'): education organised by municipalities and by the Flemish provinces, under the authority of two umbrella organisations;
- the network of subsidised privately run schools ('vrij gesubsidieerd onderwijs'): education organised by private organisations (mainly catholic), mostly under the authority of a non-profitmaking organisation. The catholic schools are represented by an umbrella organisation.

Very important to know with regard to our project is that the government has given autonomy to the educational network for several responsibilities, such as the elaboration of the curriculum and the development of timetables. The government on the other hand defines what pupils should have learned at each stage in the educational system.

## **Vocational education and training in Flanders**

### **Structure and content**

In full-time vocational education, pupils follow courses until the age of 18 (which leads to a certificate, not to a diploma). They can complete their education with an additional year for specialisation or with additional vocational education during three years (but this only exists for nursing and dressmaking). Both lead to a diploma giving access to higher education.

At the age of 15 or 16 (or later), pupils can opt for part-time education instead of full-time education. Two systems exist: part-time vocational secondary education and entrepreneurship training. Part-time vocational secondary education is organised in a centre for part-time education where pupils follow courses during 15 hours (2 days) a week. In principle, the training in the centre should be combined with a job that corresponds with the training, but that is not compulsory. (It falls outside the scope of education as education is only compulsory part-time; as soon as pupils go to the training centre two days a week they do what the law prescribes. Of course it is one of the main tasks of the centre to guide the pupils

into the labour market and to support them.) Entrepreneurship training is meant for pupils who wish to be trained for a self-employed profession. These pupils follow courses in a specific training centre during one day a week and receive training on the job four days a week (in a small or medium enterprise or with a self-employed person). In our project, the focus will be on part-time vocational education and not on the entrepreneurship training as the entrepreneurship training is not included in the modularisation experiment of the government.

### **Specific problems**

The so-called ‘waterfall system’ is typical for Flemish education. General education is considered to be better than technical education, technical better than vocational and full-time vocational education better than part-time vocational education. This is deeply rooted in the organisational structure, in the labour market and in the minds of most people (teachers, parents, pupils, employers, etc.). Because of this, vocational training is not chosen for its particular characteristics but because the level of the pupil is not high enough (regarded from a general perspective) or because all other options have proven not to be suitable for the pupil, and this holds even more for part-time vocational education. The consequence is that the pupils in part-time vocational education are often difficult to work with: they are tired of going to school, have negative school experiences and, often, a very difficult school career.

Although the system of part-time secondary vocational education was installed specifically for those young people who prefer to work or who prefer to learn on the job, almost half of them don’t have a job. This huge unemployment is mainly caused by the characteristics of the young people. These often make it difficult to find and keep a job. A lot of them lack the necessary attitudes to work and are not enough motivated. (A very important difference between the two systems of part-time vocational education is that in part-time vocational secondary education having a job is not compulsory, whereas it is compulsory in the entrepreneurship training.) Another problem is the enormous prevalence of playing truant. It does not come as a surprise, considering all the aforementioned problems, associated with unqualified school-leaver.

For the young people who do not have a job, because of their lack of motivation, their underdeveloped attitudes or competencies, a prevocational education and training system has been developed (See section 1.2).

## **3.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System**

Because of the huge amount of unemployed young people in part-time secondary vocational education, prevocational education and training has been developed. The target group are the young people who do not have the necessary attitudes and/or motivation to enter the labour market<sup>3</sup>. There are two systems: bridging projects (‘brugprojecten’) and ‘pre-paths’ (‘voortrajecten’).

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<sup>3</sup> This implies that prevocational training is not meant for young people who possess the necessary attitudes and who are motivated enough to work. This group of youngsters should be guided by the counselors in the centre for part-time education itself.

## **Bridging projects**

Bridging projects are meant for young people in part-time vocational secondary education who do not succeed in finding jobs in the regular labour market, not even with the guidance and support from the centre for part-time vocational education. Very often, these youngsters do not possess the essential and basic attitudes to maintain their position in the production process. Besides guidance and support they need a structured individual approach to be activated and motivated. These young people often dropped out of full-time education after the second year. The target group encompasses the young people who are employable in the short term.

The structured individual guidance and support is offered in a more protective but meaningful environment (e.g. in social economy enterprises), outside the regular labour market, but on the job (during 20 hours a week), above the programme in the centre for part-time education.

The duration of a bridging project is at least two months but can not exceed nine months. The employing organisation commits itself to support 6 up to 15 youngsters.

The work experience is meant to

- impart general attitudes that are indispensable in the labour process, such as precision, punctuality, hygiene, keeping up the pace, to work independently, perseverance, etc.;
- give the young people the opportunity to obtain a qualification by acquiring working methods and competencies, by preference in a job that is related with the training in the centre for part-time education;
- build up a concrete, realistic and positive image of the self.

When the bridging project is completed, intensive guidance to the regular labour market is provided by the centre for part-time education or by the local Flemish employment agency.

## **Pre-paths**

Experience shows that for many youngsters, even bridging projects are too demanding. Bridging projects are not appropriate for youngsters who lack basic attitudes, who are not motivated to work, who experience difficulties in making choices and who are confronted with multiple problems (social, familial, financial, ....)<sup>4</sup>.

Pre-paths are meant to:

- impart basic attitudes and competencies to the youngsters;
- help them with getting insight into their own qualities and competencies;
- assist them with making career choices.

Pre-paths are exploratory and activating. To reach the aims, a variety of structured activities is available. They can be situated on a continuum between leisure activities and labour. But even participation in activities that are more related to leisure is not free of engagement. Playing a

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<sup>4</sup> Of course, within the bounds of possibility, problems that are too complex should be dealt with by specialised organisations.

game should at the same time develop, for instance, a collaborative attitude. All activities should be related in one way or another with integration in the labour market.

Pre-paths are reserved for (smaller) groups, but individual approaches are certainly used. The duration of the pre-path is limited. The content and structure of pre-paths can vary according to the centre that provides the pre-path.

Pre-paths are mainly provided by centres for out-of-school education, which are used to work with disadvantaged youth and adults. These centres have been collaborating with centres for part-time education for many years and therefore, they are aware of the difficulties of the youngsters in part-time education very well.

Upon completion of the pre-path, young people can start in a bridging project, can do volunteer work or start with another type of training. A pre-path certainly cannot be viewed apart: it is a phase in a trajectory leading to the labour market.

### **3.3 Role of Modularisation**

#### **3.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

##### **Background and scope of modularisation**

Two issues receive particular attention in vocational education and training: unqualified school-leaving and young people's prospects in the labour market. As these issues are most urgent in vocational education, the scope of the modularisation experiment encompasses full-time and part-time compulsory vocational education. It was introduced in the school year 2000-2001 by the Flemish government (department of education) as an experiment. In 2007, it will be decided whether the experiment will be prolonged and generalised or not. This implies that the government sets the aims of modularisation, defines the concept and tells schools and centres how to build up modules.

##### **Aims of modularisation:**

The following aims are central in the experimental modularisation:

- to decrease the number of unqualified school-leavers;
- to adjust vocational education to the labour market in a more flexible way: modularisation should increase the responsiveness of the educational system to the demands of the labour market;
- to stimulate lifelong and life-wide learning;
- to enhance the well-being of pupils by giving them regularly the experience of success;
- to make vocational education more transparent;
- to introduce educational and didactical innovations (individual treatment of pupils' learning deficits, coaching as a teaching style, self-conducted learning etc.).

## Concept

The Flemish concept of modularisation reorganises the existing qualifications in initial vocational education within a modular system. All necessary components (modules) lead to an overall qualification. Overall qualifications are definitely marketable as the content of the vocational training where an overall qualification is obtained, is based on the matching vocational profile, made up by the social partners (Social and Economic Council of Flanders, SERV).

A vocational training is divided into smaller parts: the modules, which are assessed and credited individually. The school or centre may decide to break up a module into smaller parts ('learning units'), if desirable.

Modules are self-contained units and are designed to integrate competencies and knowledge. Each module contains basic competencies, auxiliary basic education and key competencies. These concepts are defined by the government, as follows (Servicebundel Modulair onderwijs<sup>5</sup>, DBO):

- *Basic competencies*: aims are related to skills, specific knowledge, insights and attitudes the pupil should possess, in order to start with further education or to start as a professional. Examples: to pour concrete, to serve at table, to operate a machine, etc.
- *Auxiliary basic education* comprises elements of basic education (= general education necessary to perform in our society and to construct one's own life) that support the acquisition of basic competencies. Examples: reading comprehension, rule of three, communication, etc.
- *Key competencies* are cognitive, psychomotor or affective skills that are essential to practise a profession successfully, that can also be used in other professions and that contribute to personal development.

Basic competencies, auxiliary basic education and key competencies are defined by the government, but it is up to the schools and centres to concretise them in objectives and learning contents. The objectives state concretely which observable 'behaviour' the pupil is expected to display. The learning content has to be meaningful as part of a learning process.

What has to be accomplished by the end of a module is defined by the government, but it is up to the schools and centres for part-time vocational education to make the learning programme, to choose the teaching and evaluation methods, to choose the didactical material, etc. The government can give ideas, provide examples, but can not make decisions. .

The duration of the modules is fixed in full-time education. In part-time vocational education the duration of modules is variable according to the pupil's progress.

The freedom to combine modules is restricted. One has to choose modules offered within the chosen learning trajectory; for some modules entrance is restricted to pupils who have obtained part-qualification related with other modules. Modules can not be taken up

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<sup>5</sup> <http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/dbo/projecten/modularisering/servicebundel%20versie%202004.pdf>

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simultaneously. Modules can be used for different qualifications within the same occupational area.

### **Concretisation of modularisation in part-time vocational education**

As explained in section 1.1, part-time vocational education comprises 15 hours of compulsory classes a week. Six hours have to be spent on general subjects, six hours on technical or practical subjects, three hours can be spent on subjects according to the centre's decision.

The six hours of technical or practical subjects have to be used for modular education (possibly supplemented with the three 'free' hours). The six hours set aside for general subjects might be partly used for the auxiliary basic education.

This means that there is no specific modular system for the young people in pre-vocational education (bridging projects and pre-paths). These youngsters are, just like the others, expected to spend two days a week in the centre for part-time education. A bridging project or pre-path doesn't replace this.

### **3.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

As the pupils who are in prevocational education and training are obliged to follow training in the centre for part-time education, modularisation has the same role for them as in vocational education and training.

### **3.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules**

Modules are assessed and credited individually. The assessment is made by the teachers in the schools or centres for part-time education. Mixed methods are used: self-evaluation, discussion of cases, practical tests, etc. The assessment lies within the responsibility of the school or centre.

A positive assessment of a module leads to a part-qualification, a positive assessment for all the modules belonging to the same learning trajectory leads to an overall qualification. Both part-qualifications and overall qualifications are recognised and ratified by the Flemish government. It is important to note that the part-qualifications and overall qualifications obtained in part-time vocational education and those obtained in full-time vocational education are regarded equally. In part-time education it is also possible to give the pupil a certificate of acquired competencies ('attest van verworven competenties') when the pupil does not qualify. The certificate states which competencies the pupil has acquired.

Even though every module is credited, the marketability of the credit is questionable. To be marketable, a credited module has to have a real value in the labour market. As long as employers do not attach much value to these qualifications, the marketability is low. But even when credited modules would be marketable, they do not have the same value as an overall qualification. First of all, partial qualifications say the pupil does not meet all the requirements of the vocational profile, which means that a partial qualification has less value than an overall qualification. Second, compulsory education is meant to give pupils a

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complete programme; it is not meant to make pupils leave school before they have their overall qualification. This issue has to be discussed further in Flanders.

## 4 Denmark

The aim of this report is to provide an overview of the Danish VET system with a specific focus on modularisation and how this concept is transformed in a Danish practice.

### 4.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System

The Danish VET system has three defining characteristics:

1. it is a dual VET system based on a combination of school-based and work-based training. In general, a VET programme lasts 3 ½ years of which work-based training makes up 2/3 of the duration. On completion of a programme, the participant has achieved a skilled worker qualification e.g. baker, carpenter, clerk, electrician and is fully qualified to work within his/her field of expertise. Compared to the German dual training system, the school-based periods in the Danish system are of a longer duration and in general the cooperation between vocational colleges and enterprises with the aim of creating coherence between school-based and work-based learning periods is stronger and more institutionalised. Søren P. Nielsen has defined the Danish VET system as a “bridge between school systems of vocational education in Scandinavia and the dual system of vocational training<sup>6</sup>”.
2. it is a “tripartite” system i.e. the social partners play an important role in defining VET programmes, laying down the structure and contents, describing vocational qualifications, approving companies as practical training places, carrying out journeymen’s tests, etc.
3. it is a decentralised system when it comes to the autonomy of the individual vocational college and to the advisory councils established with the aim of ensuring the coherence between VET provision and VET demand. The curricula are laid down at national level, however as a framework within which the local college and local training committee can adapt the curriculum to local needs and particularities.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, the system has gone through a number of major reforms introducing elements of New Public Management: decentralisation, greater individual choice, quality assurance and development, increased focus on outcome (competences), etc.

The Reform 2000, introduced modularisation in the Danish VET programmes with the aim of increasing flexibility and hereby individual choice and pathways through the system; reducing drop-out; and increasing the overall attractiveness of the programmes vis-à-vis the more academic oriented upper secondary education programmes.

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<sup>6</sup> Nielsen, Søren P.: *New Structure of the Danish VET system*, the Danish Ministry of Education, 1999.

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Modularisation in Denmark has been adapted to the Danish VET system and the values inherent in this system. It is still regarded as an important parameter to ensure systematic progression and coherence within the VET programmes. The modules take form of “learning activities” which are to cover different objectives regarding the development of specific competences (broad competence concept encompassing personal, social, vocational, and general competences). A learning activity can be a thematic course, a project, or a subject and lasts 5 weeks and in general, the basic course in the VET programmes last 20 weeks i.e. 4 modules/learning activities.

The modularised basic course could be as follows for a student entering VET through one of the 6 technical broad entrances:

Upon entrance, the student’s prior learning is assessed and students who have taken part in a general upper secondary education programme can be exempted from all/some of the basic subjects. Students who have practical experience can be exempted from parts of the workshop instruction. In co-operation with a contact teacher, the student draws up an educational plan in which the objectives for his/her education and training are described and an outline for how to achieve these objectives are described.

For every five weeks the student has to choose among different modules, e.g.:

Weeks 0 to 5: choice among 3 modules comprising basic subjects (Danish, foreign languages, math) toned according to the VET entrance;

Weeks 5 – 10: choice among 3 modules comprising area subjects i.e. subjects that introduce elements which are common to two or more VET programmes;

Weeks 10 – 15: choice among 4 modules comprising area/special subjects which are specific to a single VET qualification;

Weeks 15 – 20: choice among 3 modules comprising special subjects which are specific to a single VET qualification.

In the modules, optional subjects and additional subjects may also be included.

After the completion of each module, the progress of the student is assessed and a score-card is drawn up on the basis of the educational plan. In this way, the student (and the teacher) is able to see how far he/she has come in regard to the overall objectives laid down in his/her educational plan. The testing in between modules is first and foremost formative and serves the purpose of ensuring that the student has achieved the competences described for each module. In case, the student lacks of achievement, the module can be prolonged. The basic course can be prolonged up to 60 weeks.

At the end of the 20 weeks, the average student is able to continue in the main course (provided that a training contract has been entered with an enterprise). During the main course, the student can choose to add to his/her VET programme in order to achieve study competence. The main course is not modularised, but alternates between work-based training and school-based education and training.

## 4.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System

A prevocational VET system does not officially exist in Denmark. There are a number of schemes which may serve as an entry to the ordinary system or to the labour market. These schemes are targeted to different groups of young people: young people who are unresolved in their educational choice, young people who have learning disabilities, young people who have social or personal problems, young people who are tired of school, etc. These schemes include the following:

- bridge building in the voluntary 10<sup>th</sup> grade of the Danish *folkeskole* (basic schooling), during the 10<sup>th</sup> grade the pupils have the possibility of trying out different youth education programmes in order to decide where to continue after completion of basic schooling;
- the basic vocational training programme (*erhvervsgrunduddannelsen – egu*) is targeted to young people who are tired of going to school and who often have other problems than being unresolved. The programme is individualised and includes both, theoretical instruction and practical work in a company. The participants have a personal guidance counsellor who functions as a key contact person. The aim of the programme is to motivate these young people to enter a VET programme or to ensure that they acquire minimum qualifications for getting a job;
- vocational preparation courses target young unemployed people with a low level of educational attainments. The courses are provided by production schools and are primarily practical in scope. The courses last up to a year and many production schools co-operate with vocational colleges in order to ensure a smooth transition from the production school to the ordinary VET system.

Besides these three schemes, young people in Denmark also have the possibility of attending courses at folk high schools or non-residential folk high schools as part of a personal development process and bridge building process to either the ordinary education system (not only VET) or the labour market.

## 4.3 Role of Modularisation

### 4.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training

Modularisation was introduced in the Danish VET system in order to create greater flexibility for the individual participant within the system. The modularisation is primarily introduced in the school-based parts of the VET system and has different functions:

- In the basic course, modularisation functions as a broad entry (orientation function) for unresolved students in the VET system. The basic course is highly flexible and may last from 10 weeks (for those who know what they want) to 60 weeks (for those who are unresolved and/or may need extra time to acquire the necessary qualifications to continue in the main course). The modules offer the students the possibility of trying out different VET programmes hereby avoiding that the students drop out of *one* programme just to start in another – perhaps – related programme.

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- During the entire VET programme, the student may choose to follow subjects at a higher level (e.g. at the vocationally oriented higher examination programmes) hereby adding to their VET degree and opening up their possibilities of pursuing education at tertiary level.
  - Finally, the possibility of a partial qualification has been introduced in some VET programmes. This opens up for young people completing part of a VET programme and then returning to the VET system later when they are more motivated for learning. The partial qualifications are based on existing qualifications and have been drawn up by the social partners in co-operation.

In the Danish conception of modularisation, the ideal of progression and coherence is sought to be maintained even though teaching is broken into modularised learning activities<sup>7</sup> and the individual made responsible for building his/her own VET programme on the basis of learning activities on offer by the vocational colleges<sup>8</sup>. The Danish VET programmes are part of the youth education system and general education and citizenship are elements which also have to be included in the programmes so that a certain breadth can be ensured.

#### **4.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

In the schemes described as “prevocational”, modularisation does not play a significant role. The schemes are primarily aimed to ensure the transition from basic schooling into the youth education system. Although, the young people attending these schemes may acquire vocational competence (e.g. at the production schools), these competences are not assessed within the schemes themselves. When they enter a VET programme, however, their prior learning (be it formal, non-formal, informal) is assessed and recognised, and may lead to exemption of parts of a VET programme and/or modules of additional qualifications.

#### **4.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules**

After completion of a 5 week module, the student is assessed and the objectives achieved are described in the educational plan. For each student, a personal score-card is drawn up so that the student is able to see how far he/she is from achieving the overall objectives laid down in the educational plan. The testing is both, formative, i.e. a dialogue between the student and his/her contact teacher and summative, i.e. testing at the end of the module. The aim is to ensure that the student is able to continue in the next module. The results of the testing are entered into the electronic *Elevplan* so that the students are able to monitor their own achievements and progress.

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<sup>7</sup> A learning activity includes the development of different kinds of competences (vocational, personal, social) by designing cross-disciplinary teaching and project work. The duration of a learning activity is approx. 5 weeks.

<sup>8</sup> In Denmark, an on-line database has been established, in which each student in a VET program has an educational plan. In the “*Elevplan*” (Student Plan), the objectives/competences to be acquired are described

## 4.4 Conclusion

In the process of drawing up this report, I became aware of the fact that modularisation is a concept for which the definition and conceptual content varies from country to country. From studies of literature (see e.g. Ertl, 2000), I recognised that there are different stages and forms of modularisation to be identified in the European VET systems.

In the Danish case, three forms of modularisation can be described:

- prevocational or “bridge building” modules aimed at undecided or disadvantaged young people;
- broad orientation modules (at the beginning of a VET programme) aimed at clarifying the choice of young people. The broad modules provide possibilities of “trying” out different related occupations within specific sectors;
- additional modules aimed at providing young people skills for further and higher studies.

In these cases, modularisation is restricted to specific parts of a VET programme, often the school-based parts whereas in-company training is not modularised. The first attempts to modularise in-company training are the partial qualifications where a recognised VET qualification has been broken into two parts: a partial qualification recognised by the labour market but where the student has limited employment possibilities and a full qualification. The introduction of the partial qualifications caused resistance among the social partners and approximately 50 partial qualifications have been established – under pressure from the Ministry of Education. Politically, the answer to this resistance has been to establish a number of new short VET programmes of a duration of 1 ½ to 2 ½ years instead of re-organising existing VET programmes.

In the most recent policy paper on *Fremtidssikring af Erhvervsuddannelserne* (Modernisation of the Vocational Education and Training Programmes), it is anticipated that modularisation in the future will be more flexible than it is the case today. VET students are to be able to choose modules from different VET programmes and customise their training more flexible. However, it is also anticipated that the vast majority of VET students will enter rather fixed routes through the VET system, and that the far-reaching modularisation is primarily for either disadvantaged students or strong students. So on the one hand, a trend towards greater flexibility and individualisation through modularisation, and on the other hand, a realisation that the majority of students will need fixed pathways through the system.

The case of Denmark, may serve as an example of the fact that modularisation can be adapted and is transformed by different educational values, beliefs and traditions. In our project, we have to take into consideration how modularisation can be adapted to fit the requirements of different systems, and how different objectives may be acquired through modularisation.

## 5 Greece

### History and Characteristics of the Greek Occupational System

**The Greek occupational structure**, having skipped the industrialisation era, had remained until recently heavily agricultural, consisting of small pieces of land, and employing 40.6 per cent of the population, until a sharp drop down to 15.8% in the last 30 years, which created a great degree of frustration in the periphery, who, seeing their incomes decreasing, clamouring for protectionist measures.

Industrial development has been exceptionally low in Greece, with employment figures constituting only 15% of the population. It is now going through a drastic restructuring process and further shrinking, driving numerous industrial workers to unemployment.

The service sector, with an emphasis on tourism, trade, and public sector employed 69.2% of the Greek workforce. Still, it is going through severe restructuring, since the small units, which mainly characterise its development and function cannot compete with powerful newcomers.

**The public sector** has a characteristically excessive size, spawned by the undertaking capital entrepreneurial activities. The State is the owner and manager of public utilities, and important business such as hotel chains, oil refineries, shipyards, textiles, banks, etc. However, its inefficiency in running the businesses, that occurs mainly due to ineffectiveness and corruption, has often been observed (Patiniotis and Stavroulakis, 1997).

**The private business**, on the other hand, consists predominantly of small-size, family-owned enterprises. The business decisions rely heavily on emotional criteria such as intuition and instinct, instead of management models for decision-making. Most of entrepreneurs are reluctant to embark on business expansion, at least without the state support, and they largely see their business as a temporary occupation.

As described above, an important role in the economical landscape is played by the **Greek family**, which constitutes the nucleus of the Greek society; its importance becomes apparent in the absence of the voluntary citizens' welfare associations in acting as intermediate protective layers between family and state (Maratou-Alipranti, 1995). Hence, the family absorbs all vibrations caused by the state bureaucracy or the working environment. As Tsoukalas (1986) points out, Greek households are characterised by an *educational fetishism*, which is admittedly unjustifiable considering the low level of economic development. As a consequence, there has been an enormous increase of the annual higher-education intake, which has almost tripled in the last 30 years. It is a fact that, compared to other EU countries, Greece shows, the highest rate (62%) of students aged 18-24 who are currently in tertiary education (TEI – AEI). The university certificate is widely accepted as the secure path to a successful career, mostly associated with professions such as doctors, engineers, and lawyers. It is important to refer to the fact that the higher education degree moderates extreme class differences, giving equal opportunities to all higher-education incomers for a career.

A last remark, which is worth-mentioning, is the inconsistency between the developments in higher education and the economic sphere. It is demonstrated by the high number of university graduates and their limited opportunities to enter the labour market. It appears that Greek businesses prefer or need unskilled or low-skilled cheap labour. Work experience is more important than academic knowledge – however, although employers are eager to employ qualified individuals for these positions they offer them salaries of unskilled labour. The phenomenon calls for restructuring the education system in order to meet the labour market demands in skills -this point will be taken up further below. Here it is fair to say that even though this phenomenon becomes ever more obvious, demonstrated by the high percentage of graduate unemployment, the general attitudes towards Vocational Education have always been negative. VET has always been considered a bad alternative to the university education.

Three more traits characterise the occupational patterns in Greece: hetero-employment, unstratified employment, and multi-employment.

**Hetero-employment** refers to the widespread tendency of following a vocational path away from the qualifications and specialisation one has acquired. This phenomenon became even more acute in the latest years, due to the high unemployment and insecurity of vocational settlement. This situation forces individuals to apply for any vacant position, regardless of their specialisation. It should be noted here that due to the high unemployment, university graduates face tough competition in the job market; the young unemployed are forced to stick with low-skilled jobs (e.g. waiters, sales people) until they find a position according to their qualifications. This waiting time used to be a few months and lately it can even extend to years.

**Unstratified employment** refers to the phenomenon, where two individuals coming from a stratified educational level practice the same occupation (e.g. accounts having graduate from post-secondary and third level education). This situation is characterised by the high status of seniority and experience in the Greek labour market, and results in cases when older people occupy more senior positions and supervise younger, but sometimes better qualified personnel. This is due to the fact that in the Greek context most tasks, even those requiring formal advanced qualifications, are carried out by empirical methods, and require competences gained in a brief period of on the job training. As a result businesses prefer to recruit people with previous workplace experiences rather than newly qualified young people, thus trying to minimise training costs. Because of this situation young individuals tend to hide those parts of their formal qualifications that could intimidate prospective employers.

**Multi-employment** concerns the situation where an individual occupies more than one jobs, which are not only unrelated between them, but also characterise different social strata (e.g. a school teacher delivers private tuition in the evenings, and at the same time he runs an agricultural property and lets rooms to tourists in the summer). The causes of the phenomenon are attributed to the unstable conditions of the labour market, low wages, and the uncertainty about future employment, which make individuals seek stability and certainty in unrelated economic spheres (Patiniotis et al. 1997)

## 5.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System

The Greek educational system has historically been a subject to foreign influences, attempting to apply ready-made systems and ignoring the needs of the Greek context and culture. For example, the development of the Foundations of Higher Vocational Education and Training has been influenced by the World Bank's recommendations, and Apprenticeship Schools have derived from the German paradigm. The foreign interventions often aim at promoting the respective cultures, instead of responding to the actual educational needs of the Greek context. As a result of the uncritical acceptance of these interventions, the Greek VET turned into a mosaic of coexisting patterns from various origins that promoted different educational goals.

### National Education Policy

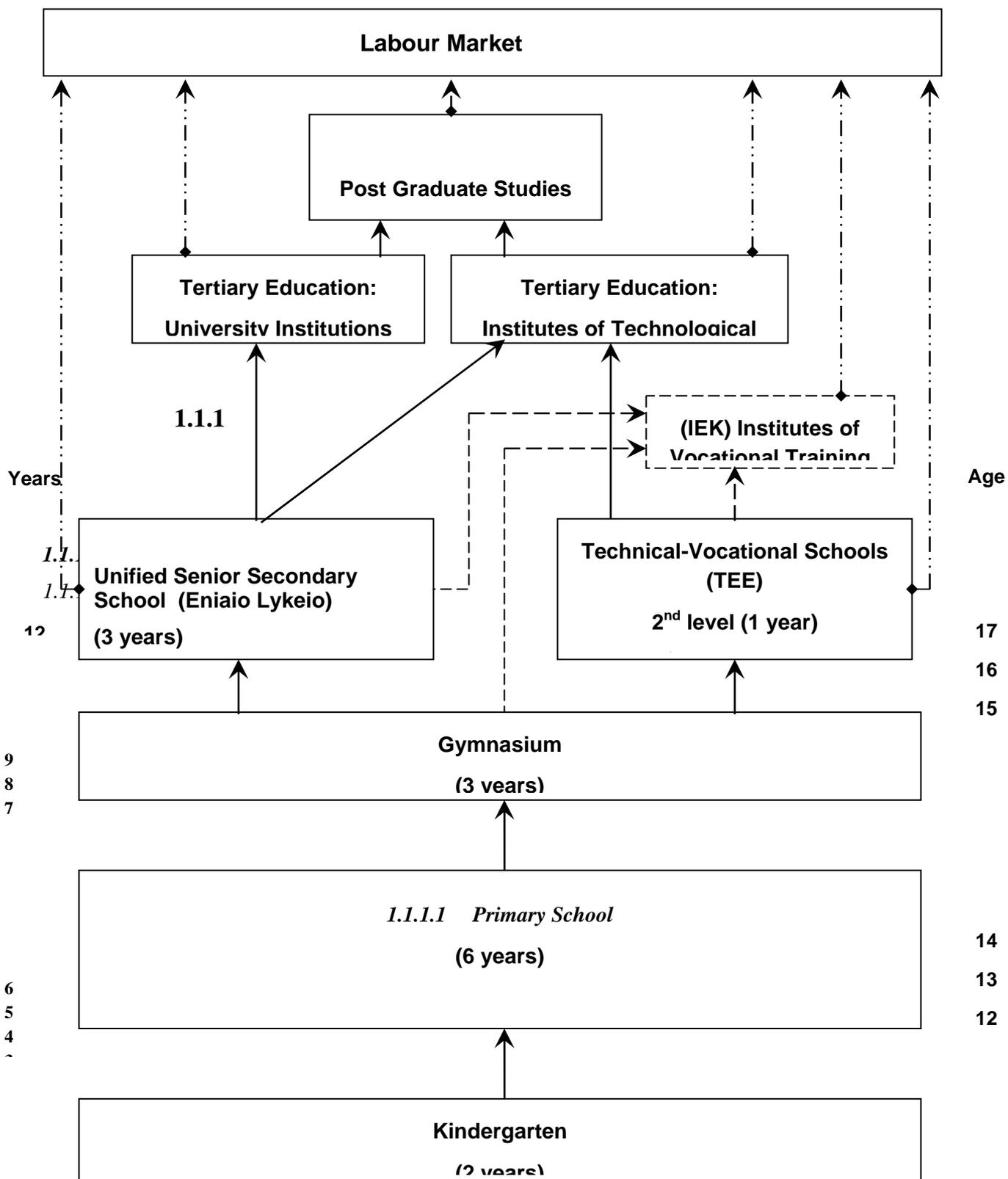
Based on the relevant legislation, the State seeks to democratise education (1) by decentralising; (2) by ensuring the participation of those directly involved in the educational process; (3) by upgrading the quality of the services provided; and (4) by applying meritocracy in the selection of administrative staff for education. Two significant laws (2525/1997 and 2640/1998) have introduced reforms and changes in the Greek educational system (RESCU project, 2001).

The basic changes are related to the following fields:

- The Unified Senior Secondary School (*Eniaio Lykeio*) has been established and it is gradually replacing all previous types of senior secondary school.
- The admission procedure for enrolment in higher education has been modified: emphasis is now on assessing their performance in six particular subjects that have been selected by pupils during their 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade of Senior Secondary School (Lykeio).
- The creation of a unified system in technical and vocational education has been initiated through the institution of Technical and Vocational Schools of Secondary Education (*TEE*).

According to the 1997-98 reform, education is structured in levels as can be seen in the Diagram 1.

The Structure of the formal Greek Education System



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r  
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E  
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c

According to the legislative framework prevailing in Greece, education is compulsory until the age of sixteen (primary and junior secondary education) and any person who has guardianship of a minor and fails to register and send him/her to school is committing an offence. Nevertheless, at present, it is not common that legal action is taken against parents and guardians whose children do not attend school regularly.

After compulsory education, i.e. after Gymnasium, those who want to continue studying can either enter the Unified Lyceum (3 years) or the Technical-Vocational Lyceum. Informal vocational training (leading to no qualification) is offered by “Institutes for Vocational Training” (KEK) which run training schemes subsidised by the Ministry of Employment and European Social Funds.

## 5.2 VET System

Due to certain historical and economical characteristics of Greece [i.e. the industry has not been developed to the extent it has in other countries, which indicates a small demand for technical jobs], Vocational Education has traditionally been considered a second best choice for the youngsters; on the other hand, the Greek education system has focused on providing general knowledge, leaving little alternatives for those who preferred a technical career through higher education. VET has been criticised as not corresponding to the labour market demands, since the training programmes and provided skills do not meet the actual requirements of the economy. A public authority representative commented during our interview:

*‘Vocational Education and Training does not contribute to the economy, as it could and should do –I don’t think it plays a substantial role, because it is not provided as it should be, the philosophy and culture is not supportive; and this is not only school to blame, but the whole system, the employers, the school, the Greek family and the dominant mentality regarding education –the issue is much deeper than it seems; whereas Vocational Education and Training in other countries is a key-force, in Greece it is perceived as the path for the children of a lesser god to have a chance in the labour market’.*

It appears then, that, in the Greek context of vocational education and training, it makes no sense to ask for specific policies for re-integration of socially disadvantaged groups, since the whole VET system has been oriented towards this purpose, i.e. it attempts to re-integrate into the labour market the youngsters who failed to enter into higher education institutions by teaching them technical skills. To put it simply, Vocational Education does not appear as an option, but as the only option available for those who fail to enter into a Higher Education Institution.

### Formal VET system

The formal VET system provides education at second, post-second and third (higher) level and is regulated and supervised by the Ministry of Education, with the exception of certain

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Vocational Schools (e.g. Apprenticeship Schools, Military Schools, Master-mariner Schools, etc) which fall under the jurisdiction of the equivalent Ministry.

**VET at the secondary level** consists in Technical Vocational Schools (TEE); TEE require 3 years of studies, which are split in 2 cycles, the first lasting for 2 years and the final for 1 year. The institutions provide vocational education after the compulsory secondary education in gymnasiums. A further reform is scheduled to take place in 2006, when two new agents should be introduced: the Unified Technical Vocational Lyceum (ETEL), where studies would last for 4 years, and the Unified Technical Vocational School (ETES), where studies would last for 2 years.

**At the post-secondary level VET** is provided in the Institutes of Vocational Training (IEK), which can be either public or private. IEK provide cheap, specialised labour that is generally welcomed by the employers, however the latter has the option to employ tertiary level graduates for the same jobs and with the same minimum wages. In order to enrol the student has to be lyceum graduate. The studies last from one to four semesters, plus a six month work experience placement. The Ministry is responsible for developing and approving training programmes, assuring shared content among training agents. However, the system has been criticised for the dominant ‘school mentality’ –mostly due to the secondary school teachers employed by VET institutions who do not welcome new pedagogical methods. In addition, the training courses are characterised by out-dated content; thus, IEKs role have been reduced from vocational training institutions to a low-quality post-school experience.

The responsible body for accreditation of certificates and qualifications from TEE and IEK is *OEEK (Organisation for Vocational Education and Training)*, which falls under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education. OEEK also determines the vocational rights of graduates from VET of all levels, in collaboration with the respective ministers and social partners. The accredited certificate is a formal qualification for employment in the public sector.

**Tertiary level education** is provided by universities and by Technical Education Institutes (TEI). The students need to take entrance exams and the studies last for 8 semesters for the former, and 6 plus one given over internship for the latter. One of the major issues facing the third-level education institutes is the decrease in the training quality, due to the large number of students, in proportion to the infrastructure and the teaching personnel. The degrees and certificates from the third level education institutes enable the graduates to take employment in the public sector. The graduates can also register with their respective professional chamber or vocational association, and apply for the right to work in the chosen profession.

It is worth mentioning here that the public sector is the major employer of graduates from the formal VET system. The businesses, on the other hand use different criteria for recruitment, apart from the formal qualifications and certifications, such as the trust in the candidate’s personal references, and the latter’s acceptance of the offered work package and conditions.

### **Non-formal VET**

Non-formal vocational education in Greece is regulated and supervised by the Ministry of Employment, and has been conducted in various forms and by numerous foundations often

with overlapping responsibilities; the main weakness of the structure is that it remains poorly coordinated, despite the need for regulating the funds coming from the EU. It has been claimed that the structure, is more flexible compared to the formal VET specifically in responding to the new demands and changes of the labour market, as well as providing easier access to gain some vocational qualifications to unskilled individuals (especially aiming at disadvantaged groups and communities with high level of unemployment). In addition, non-formal VET was a response to European mandates and the ample funds which became available for its support, while it provides a legitimate way for decreasing unemployment rates, since participants in the programmes are temporarily removed from the lists of unemployed population.

Unfortunately, with the exception of some public utilities, the majority of businesses remained indifferent to the opportunities offered in planning training programmes. An increase in interest indicated lately is attributed to the financial compensation of the participants (offered to both the trainees and the businesses, which offer them short apprenticeships), whereas the main disadvantages are still the poor co-ordination of activities, the poor information regarding the available training programmes and participation criteria, and the lack of provision of a formal qualification title. Especially, the subsidised character of the training programmes and the lack of a structure for accrediting certification for acquired qualifications [together with the lack of knowing-how to do so] are obstructions in engaging the target groups in participating in the labour market. The 2003 Report of National Certification Centre (EKEPIS) underscores these limitations, addressing strongly the need for more applied research and development of tools, which would enable the quality assurance of VET structures and programmes, and eventually lead to providing participants with formal qualification certificates.

## **Foundations**

The main foundation in non-formal VET is the *General Secretariat for Adult Education (G.S.A.E)*, responsible for designing, coordinating and supporting activities in the area of lifelong learning and training. Under its authority there are 300 Training Centres, which fall under 54 Prefecture Councils for People Training (NELE). A second agent of G.S.A.E is the Centre for Adult Education (KEE), which provides immigrants with training in basic skills, social skills, and learning of Greek as a second language. G.S.A.E targets mainly disaffected groups, such as unemployed, illiterate, women, minority groups, ex-convicts, ex-drug addicts, etc.

*The Greek Manpower Employment Organisation (OAED)* is the main body for taking further the governmental policies on employment; it co-ordinates programmes for continuous education, which take place at the Centres for Vocational Training of OAED all around Greece. The programmes target mainly unemployed individuals, either unskilled or semi-skilled, by providing further training and specialisation courses, which potentially will increase the participants' opportunities for a career. OAED, in an effort to link vocational training programmes with the economy, created two affiliated organisations: Vocational Training S.A, and Employment Observatory Research and Informatics S.A (PAEP). PAEP

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conducts research on current and actual employment issues, and provides Vocational Training S.A. with the results of their work, in order to embed them in further actions. Vocational Training S.A. is responsible for Lifelong Learning and Continuous Vocational Training. Finally, Centres for Promoting Employment are part of OAED structure, and they are responsible for recording unemployed people and providing counselling services on how to find a job. This service involves an individualised interview with an unemployed person. On the basis of these interviews, the consultant tries to build the interviewee profile, and match their competences and interests with jobs and available training seminar. In reality though, more often than not the service works as a self-service: the unemployed fills in the relevant documents on their own, and decide ‘on their own free-will’ how they can further their career.

*Various Ministries, through their Directorates of Education,* are also active in planning and initiating training programmes that target both unemployed individuals and their own personnel in various departments, in areas relevant to their respective objects of activity.

*Other training programmes* are organised and run by the big public utilities (DEH, OTE, ELTA, OSE, etc) as well as by businesses in the private sector (e.g. banks), and organisations such as Chambers, Professional Associations, Trade Unions, etc, which, through their education departments or appropriate training structures, provide the employees with the knowledge and skills required in specific jobs.

Recently, main agents for non-formal VET have been the private-owned *Foundations of Vocational Training (KEK)*, which are evaluated, certified and supervised by the National Accreditation Centre (EKEPIS). KEK gets funds from both the government and the EU for the operation of their programmes, and provide training both for unemployed and for business staff. KEKs are largely involved in developing and conducting training programmes, which target socially disadvantaged groups, responding to the relevant calls announced by the Ministry of Employment. The training programme proposals can be submitted in collaboration with the business, universities, or research institutes. EKEPIS regulates the quality of the offered infrastructures (e.g. facilities, technologies) and the trainers’ formal qualifications. However, the content and the quality of the offered course rely on each foundation – the consequences of this process will be discussed below.

Finally, in Greece there are also “*Laboratories for Studies*”; these are private institutions providing post-secondary education. Some of these work in some form of collaboration with foreign universities, and offer a degree from the foreign institutions. These degrees provide a valid proof of vocational qualifications in the labour market, however, it is still not formally acknowledged by the State as an equivalent to the Greek certificates of third level education.

It is important to note here that the certificates provided by non-formal VET agents have no formal (i.e. by the State) recognition as a proof of qualifications, hence based on this only, no place in the public sector can be pursued –with the exception of training programmes run by some organisations, e.g. ministries, banks, etc, which are acknowledged within the same organisation. Nevertheless, the businesses accept these certificates as sufficient proof of qualifications in the recruiting process.

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## **Trainers**

Admittedly, the instructors' level of qualifications have increased recently; the phenomenon is related to high unemployment, which affects the young university graduates –as explained above- and leads individuals to seek employment in education system. However, the same effect is the main cause for the deterioration of instructors' economic and social status, since it created a major surplus of labour in the education sector. Job insecurity, low wages, and poorly equipped classrooms, as a result of the cost-cutting policy applied in the education, have lead many instructors to view their vocation as something temporary, until they settle in a more secure job. The recent turn towards supporting Vocational Training and the numerous training centres (IEK and KEK, public and private) has opened up opportunities for the instructors to add some extra money in their income, by teaching part-time at these institutions.

Formal VET institutions require (for their instructors) at least a university degree or a third level technical education certificate. Especially for IEK, since many of the modules they teach do not necessitate strong theoretical basis (e.g. gardening, plumbing) instructor may be anyone who has a proven expertise in the area. Currently, half of the trainers are professional educators/teachers, and the other half consists of practitioners. For the majority of these people (around 80%) being a trainer is their second part-time job.

Informal VET trainers have to fulfil the requirements regarding academic qualifications and teaching experience as set down by EKEPIS and be a member of the EKEPIS register (OAED Vocational Training S.A keeps a separate register for their own instructors). There are about 15.000 qualified instructors registered with EKEPIS and it has now started their training in teaching adults. EKEPIS intends to assure this way the quality of staff teaching in informal vocational education without submit them in a rigid system of continuous evaluation –a practice which is mistrusted and generally avoided after the suspension of the former evaluation system in formal education system, since the early '80s, for its extensive discrimination on the basis of political beliefs and gender, instructors.

## **Trainees**

It would be a mistake to consider trainees a solid group of people, who participate for the benefit of acquiring knowledge and skills. 'Trainees' tend to be very diversified, with different motives for and expectations from participating in VET structures; besides, the VET itself, as described above, is very heterogeneous.

In formal VET structures, participants at large expect, apart of the obvious benefit of learning vocational skills and competences, the benefits from acquiring a formal certificate of qualifications or a degree in the case of university. The degree is allegedly associated with occupations of higher status, whereas both degrees and certificates are associated with secure jobs, better salaries, and bonuses according to the occupation, at least in the public sector. However, as discussed above, the private sector is reluctant to recruit qualified employees, preferring those with practical experience. Consequently, high unemployment leads many individuals from this group to seek further training in one of the informal VET structures.

Informal VET structures have been developed to address different needs for further training. Their various programmes are addressed to employed, unemployed and people from disadvantaged groups, and receive affluent funding from E.U.

Already employed individuals prefer to participate in in-house training programmes: according to EKEPIS report (2003) a 79% believe that through these programmes they acquire skills and competences that are valuable for the company, whereas a great percentage believe that these skills improves their employability in the labour market. A 54% believes that, by participating in these programmes, they improve their job security and opportunities for development. There has also been an increase in the number of employed individuals, who participate in other informal VET programmes, mainly seeking to acquire or update their vocational knowledge and skills, or pursuing a change in their vocational career.

Nevertheless, the large number of informal VET programmes are addressed to unemployed individuals and allegedly aim at providing vocational skills relevant to the needs of the business, and improve their employability; this group includes individuals with formal qualifications, who are currently unemployed, and individuals from disadvantaged groups (i.e. women, disabled, ex-drug addicts, ex-convicts, cultural minorities, expatriates, school leavers, etc), in other words, those individuals who suffer the marginalisation from the labour market, and also from society.

EU has put these people at the focus of VET plans and policies; however in Greece the numbers show a negative picture. A study conducted in KEKs run by OAED (EKEPIS, 2003) reports 39% of those who participated in a vocational programme were employed 6 months after the end of the programme [note here that businesses receive subsidies for offering apprenticeships to participants for a short time, however the report does not elaborate on this factor], and only 40% in an area relevant to the training they had receive. The programmes have not been very effective in substantially improving employability, and indeed they do not enjoy a high status among businesses either, which report that the training provided is not flexible enough to meet the robust technological changes and business needs in technical skills –an argument, which indeed surprises, since in Greece most businesses are small-sized and use low level technologies. It emerges then, that the key motive for participation in these programmes is the received subsidies, especially for those participants who do not receive unemployment benefits, whereas expectations for improving employability and finding a job come second. As an experienced instructor has pointed out during our interview:

*‘I have numerous cases of individuals who I keep on meeting in different training programmes, obviously, they don’t come because they have an interest in the subject, but for the subsidies.’*

### **5.3 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System**

Prevocational Education and Training does not exist in Greece in the form of a systematic structure as in other countries (Brynnner J., Evans K. 1990); until recently, there has not been an official government policy dealing with youth disaffection and phenomena such as school dropout, and the few programmes that run occasionally in high-risk areas have an

experimental and local nature. This is probably related to the fact that the rates are not alarming (about 10%), but it is also related to the fact that the national educational system has been greatly centralised and, thus, it is not easy either for public schools to develop and adapt strategies which are not in the Ministry's agenda, or for other organisations to take initiatives on school matters. Consequently, the structures for their re-integration through vocational education and training are common for all age groups. Hence, when youngsters wish to learn a vocation and enter the labour market have the same options and attend the same courses as the rest of the population, not specifically targeted courses.

## **5.4 Role of Modularisation**

### **5.4.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

Modularisation is a new trend in educational reform policies in Europe, which have admittedly created a great debate around it. Commonly, modules are defined "as self-contained units of learning, with at least three characteristics: they are short, they may be combined in different ways to form programmes of study; they are separately and concurrently assessed" (Raffe, 1994:7, 9). The advocates argue among others for the benefits of flexibility, continuous learning, responsiveness to environmental changes, and collaboration between vocational education and businesses, and emphasise the need for pedagogical change (Ertl, 2000; Ertl 2002; Gonon 1998; Kloas 1997; Euler, Dehnbostel 1998). The latter appeals to a student-centred approach, which empowers learners by emphasising participative and active learning (Hoffmann and Evans, 2004). In practice, projects and tasks are used to encourage 'learning to learn' and to develop transferable skills (personal autonomy, responsibility, decision-making, etc) and disadvantaged groups are targeted to participate in modular programmes designed to develop social, linguistic and basic skills (Raffe, 1992). Opponents object that it is only another way to cut costs or to break employee's solidarity; some countries (e.g. Germany) are concerned with the consequences modularisation will have upon the concept of vocation, worker identity, and labour structure.

The concept is so broad and vaguely defined that it makes arguments and practices hard to contrast and compare. It appears that various countries have embark on reforming their education policies towards modularisation, however, the cultural context, the existing VET structures and agendas are very different to come to definitive conclusions. Nevertheless, modularisation seems to be a key-element of European mandates for integration of skills and qualifications, and labour mobility, hence it is important to try and learn from each other's experiences.

Ertl (2002), reflecting on the German experience, and the centrality of the concept of vocation in VET and society, suggests that a modular structure should be developed in compatibility with the national vocational concept, and he goes on to discussing three different concepts of modularisation and their potentials: the expansion concept, the differentiation concept, and the fragmentation concept.

- The *expansion concept* assumes the function of coherent and self-contained part-qualification on top of the ‘normal’ qualification, in other words, it expands the initial education with further training. This potential can be attractive to people with university qualifications, which see the opportunity to attain practical skills and training, which are valued by the businesses in short time. There are two possible structures for this:
  - The consecutive model, where initial teaching and further training remain separated, i.e. they are undertaken by different institutions – however, this structure faces the issue of incoherence of teaching styles, learning objectives, and pedagogic methodologies. This structure exists in small scale in Greece, encountered in training courses run by some corporates, banks, or Chambers, most of the times in collaboration with a VET Foundation (e.g. KEK, IEK), or in the independent participation of individuals, who have an interest in further training in a specific area, and enrol on a course run by a VET foundation.
  - The integrative concept, which addresses the problems of the previous structure by integrating the content of the initial and further training and by requiring the close collaboration of the involved institutions. This is also encountered in Greece, though in a limited scale, in institutions, which offer initial vocational training and further training for executives (e.g. ALBA, Alpine), often tailored to the company-client’s needs.

In both cases, the regulative framework of initial training remains unaffected by economic and technical changes, whereas the additional parts are adapted accordingly, if required. In other words, the concept allegedly secures that the VET structures are flexible and adaptable to businesses needs. Even though the Greek experience shows that this may not always be the case –we remind here that businesses still complain about the low relevance of the available programmes to the actual business needs. Nevertheless, the situation demonstrates clearly, the individuals’ ability to build their curriculum throughout their working life, to develop their personalities, and to improve their employability, by choosing and participating in the available structure.

- The *differentiation concept* suggests the reorganisation of existing qualifications acquired through initial training into a modular system; the aim is to create self-contained elements, which are marketable when combined with other necessary components leading to an overall qualification. Hence the rigidity of an overall qualification breaks down, since sets of modules which it contains, can be used for different qualification within one occupational area. In the English context, this procedure is known as ‘accreditation of prior learning’ (APL). The obvious advantage of the concept is the use of existing qualifications, the opportunities for flexible and individualised routes to qualifications, and the increased efficiency, resulting from the multiple relevance of modules. It is important to emphasise the central role of an instrument for recording successfully completed modules. Criticism of the concept stresses that the concept would establish a level of qualification below the existing system. There is also the danger, that, once vocational qualification confers the right to study to university, academic teaching styles and methods would be simply transferred to provisions in VET.

In Greece there is currently no modular programme adopted by a vocational training structure; it appears that the system as it is now allows no space for a modular programme. A KEK Director of Training Programmes commented:

*'In a total of for example 400 hours a training programme is planned to last, 280 hours are normally dedicated to theory, -these hours include about 40 hours compulsory teaching of Health and Safety issues, Job Hunting techniques, basic principles of employment law, evaluation of the programme, etc- and 120 hours of practice. Obviously the time left to focus on in-depth issues and hence develop a modular programme is very limited'*

However, the concept has attracted great interest among VET social partners, in an attempt to amend identified weaknesses of the structures. EKEPIS, responding to the call for integration of initial and continuous VET, has conducted a social dialogue, which lasted for one year, and resulted in a shared framework on how to define vocation profiles (note here that in Greece there are no systematically registered vocational profiles). On the basis of these profiles, the training programmes in the initial and continuous VET system will be re-engineered, making sure on the one hand that there are no duplications while the individual receives training throughout their life, and on the other hand, that the trainees receive accredited and certified knowledge. This is assured by involving the social partners in all the stages throughout the process, from the early stage of devising the vocational profiles, until the accreditation stage. Modularisation in this process is intended to be the method for developing the training programmes so much in initial as much as in continuous VET. This operation will be implemented initially as a pilot programme for two years, covering 70 vocations, and after having made the necessary amendments, will proceed to the rest of vocations.

The key question which emerges in the beginning of the process is who determines what a vocation is about. The approach taken by EKEPIS is that the market determines the criteria, with a market including both the businesses, and the workers confederations, vocation societies and trade unions – depending on the type of vocation each time. The dialogue will determine the knowledge and skills that are essential for performing the vocation, as well as the structures through which the trainee has to go through to acquire the related skills and knowledge.

The call for developing a systematic Vocational Qualifications Framework is not only generated internally in an effort to link first the fragmented initial and continuous vocational training, and then with the labour market, but it also represents a European trend; following a European mandate, the activities of many social partners are focussing on developing European Qualifications Framework. In essence it suggests the development of a meta-framework at a cross-European level, which would act as a point of reference in order to match with the national vocational qualifications. The framework would include 8 levels of vocational qualifications, without questioning the educational path (formal, informal, non-formal) through which qualifications have been acquired. Hence the European committee expects relevant actions to focus on: quality assurance, vocational counselling and guidance, redefinition of the basic skills, and accreditation of informal knowledge –this last dimension

has been neglected so far by Greek initiatives. In support of the European Qualifications Framework, the committee has developed some aid-tools, e.g. Europass, Ploteus.eu.in, and suggests the adoption of credits in vocational training. A member of an institution involved in the initiatives explains:

*‘to make this initiative [i.e. vocational profile framework] work, it takes a change in the way the training seminars are developed, i.e. it asks for the adoption of units and modules, but based on a different approach than what it is the case so far; in other words, the focus of the training programme will be on the results and the acquired competences, i.e. what the person can do after the completion of the training course, rather than on the knowledge provided during the programme.’*

- The third concept is the fragmentation, wherein modules are self-contained, can be assessed and credited individually, and are marketable outside an overall qualification. In this case, modules are combined freely, without the restriction to fit in a defined qualification –it is the trainee who defines the qualification. This concept gives the trainee the greatest degree of flexibility and empowerment, giving each individual the sole responsibility for their employability. Advocates of the concept argue for the flexibility it provides in adjusting the curriculum to market changes and requirements, integrating initial and further training, and providing lifelong learning and opportunities for career changes. On the other hand, training companies will have the opportunity to provide tailor-made training courses to clients, and up-to-date modules. Opponents claim that the concept confers a whole system which lacks cohesion, and could lead to difficulties in marketing the qualifications – i.e. the exact opposite of what it aspires. Nevertheless, due to its flexibility and potential benefits, it is this concept that is commonly used in the modularisation debate.

In Greece however, this concept is hardly discussed; in fact, the concept has been applied almost strictly in teaching and accrediting IT skills, which have become a prerequisite for any job application. Modules, in this case, are not linked with a specific vocational profile, but a complement to any vocation, probably as a response to the high IT illiteracy rate, which characterises the Greek population. Exceptionally compared to certificates provided by non-formal VET, the IT certificate accredited when one passes the exams for a set of modules, is recognised as a typical qualification. It is worth pointing out here, that this modular system has been devised and run by agents of the private sector. However, as discussed above, various initiatives are currently developing by public authorities in order to bring cohesion to the already fragmented and dysfunctional VET system by promoting precisely the opposite, i.e. the identification of modules with vocational profiles, hence the endorsement of such a concept, bearing the acknowledged dangers, does not appear as a viable option; furthermore, in an economy where unskilled and cheap labour is preferred over qualified professionals, the danger that the adoption of this concept would reflect negatively on VET is quite real.

#### **5.4.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

It does not apply

### 5.4.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules

In the debate on accrediting knowledge, there are two dimensions: one is the accreditation of theoretical knowledge gained through participating in training programmes, and second, the accreditation of practical experience gained through the work-placement. As for accreditation of knowledge gained in formal VET structures, OEEK is the responsible body for accrediting knowledge of IEK graduates, subject to passing written examinations. The successful completion of the examination is the licence to practise the vocation –with the relevant vocational rights.

However, a similar structure does not exist for non-formal VET training programmes; the certificate of participation sets the title and length (in hours) of seminars, and the completion of the programme does not lead to any formal examination; hence, the certificate cannot be accepted as a proof of knowledge. Various providers, both Greek and foreign, offer accreditation in the areas of IT and foreign languages. These certificates are not connected with a specific vocation beyond the skills for which they stand, however, they are considered prerequisite of the Public Sector’s recruitment procedure, and thus they bear formal recognition. Hence, there are modular training programmes, which eventually lead to a certification according to ECDL, Microsoft, velum, etc., or programmes where one can take accreditation for specific modules, i.e. Delphi, Sab, and Oracle. It is worth noting here, that the same bodies through the same examinations accredit informal knowledge, as well – i.e. the participation in the examination process is independent of the route through which the knowledge is gained. As mentioned, there are also certifications provided by international bodies, however, these are not accredited – i.e. they have no formal recognition. Clearly, accreditation of modules has been undertaken by the private sector, and public agents play the role of accrediting the agents who accredit knowledge.

The question that rises here is the credibility of the criteria set to this game, and the comparability of the accredited certificates. A Director of Training Programmes of a KEK comments:

*‘Who accredits knowledge, after all –it’s the guru; and who is this guru –the one who is the most influential... I wouldn’t like to go into this, but it appears that this is the case. Who can accredit knowledge? The omniscient. And who is this omniscient? OEEK? OAED? And then, what are the processes this guru uses to accredit knowledge? Are they acceptable and acknowledged by others? This part, I told you before, is a paradox –a paradox and difficult to implement in Greece...’*

If the situation is so obscure in accrediting theoretical knowledge gained through non-formal VET programmes, it needs to be stressed that the current system provides no recognition of any kind of practical knowledge and specialisation gained through training programmes –e.g. through work placement, etc- which is not even acknowledged by a simple certificate of attendance, as it at least happens with participation in the theoretical part of the seminars.

In summary, in the current mode, the accreditation and certificate provided by VET providers are not perceived as a reliable proof of knowledge by the employers. Hence, the quality

standards which set the education process until this point are not reflected anywhere, in a way that the trainee can benefit from their participation in these structures.

As discussed above, in order to amend the incoherent situation in formal and non-formal VET, which is also reflected in the accreditation and certification of knowledge and skills, and responding to the call for a central body for accrediting knowledge, public authorities and social partners are in the process of developing vocational profiles, a move, which is expected to transform vocational training into modular. The new system aims at accrediting knowledge regardless of how the knowledge has been acquired. This may mean knowledge and skills acquired through teaching or practising a vocation, as well as other ways in which a person may develop competences.

It has also been pointed out that accreditation and certification of modules may increase the individual's employability, though this is perceived as related to vocational rights, and to higher expectations regarding remuneration –a situation which is not expected to be welcomed by employers. The EKEPIS representative commented during our interview:

*'Vocational rights are currently determined via two-party discussions, and worse, agreements are hardly kept. When the employee has a vocational certification, then the debate on vocational rights will be broached.'*

It is worth noting here, that even though there is pressure from the social partners to resolve the issue of vocational rights, employers are reluctant to discuss it, since they may lose the option of employing unskilled people for technically low-level jobs; hence it has been agreed, the discussion at this initial stage on vocational profiles will focus on determining the relevant knowledge and competences and possible ways to accredit them.

## **6 Portugal**

### **6.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System**

In Portugal, the available training offer includes different types, modalities and professional areas that intend to give adaptable answers to the characteristics and competences of each person. The course types which are presented in this report are those aimed at the target group of the Module Project: disadvantaged young people.

#### **Courses for Young people**

There are training courses, named "Education and Training for Young People" which aim to regain educational and professional competences and deficits of the young people through the acquisition of educational, technical, social and related competences which allows a more qualified access to professional careers.

The Educational system has the following structure:

Education	Levels	Years
Basic Education	1 <sup>st</sup> Basic (Primary Education)	1 <sup>st</sup> to 4 <sup>th</sup> year
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Basic (Middle Education)	5 <sup>th</sup> to 6 <sup>th</sup> year
	3 <sup>rd</sup> Basic (Middle Education)	7 <sup>th</sup> to 9 <sup>th</sup> year (Compulsory Education)
Secondary Education	Secondary	10 <sup>th</sup> to 12 <sup>th</sup> year
Higher Education	Higher	

The target group are people who are looking for their first job or a new job, who are between 15 and 25 years old and who left the regular educational system. The required educational qualification of these young people must be between the 4<sup>th</sup> year (Primary Education completed) and the 12<sup>th</sup> year (Secondary Education completed).

### Course Types

Educational Level required	Type of courses		Educational Equivalence	Professional Certification (UE levels)
	Designation	Duration (hours)		
Less than 4 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 1-A	1910	6 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 1
4 <sup>th</sup> or 5 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 1-B	1155	6 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 1
6 <sup>th</sup> or 7 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 2	2976 to 3271	9 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 2
8 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 3	2085 to 2380	9 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 2
9 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 4	2105 to 2400	-	Level 2
10 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 5	3030 to 3465	12 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 3
11 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 6	2150 to 2785	12 <sup>th</sup> year	Level 3
12 <sup>th</sup> year	Type 7	2085 to 2720	-	Level 3

### Professional Courses-study plan

Training Components	Competences Areas	Training Domains
SOCIOCULTURAL	Language, Culture and Communication	Portuguese
		Foreign Language
		ICT (Information and Communication Technology)

	Citizen and Society	Citizenship and Society
		Hygiene, Health and Security at Work
		Physical Education
<b>CIENTIFIC</b>	Applied Sciences	Applied Mathematic
		Specific discipline 2
<b>TECNOLOGICAL</b>	Specific Technologies	Unities of each training course area
<b>PRACTICE</b>	Training in Work Context	

### Areas of Training Courses

Graphical finish
Educational Action
Familiar and Community Support
Plumbing
Carpentry
Kitchen
Aesthetic and hare care
Draw assisted by computer / Civil construction
Wiring Electricity
Photography
Catering and Restoration
Installation and Informatic Systems Operation
Computers Installation and Reparation
Green Spaces Gardening
Logistic and Store
Gardens and lawn Maintenance
Catering Maintenance
Machine- Tool
Carpentry
Car Mechanics
Motorcycle Mechanics
Slight vehicle Mechanics
Environmental Systems Operation
Confectionary / Bakery
Civil Construction Painting
Vehicle Painting
Technical-Commercial Practices
Refrigeration, Conditional Air and acclimatisation / Domestic and Commercial Services
Bodywork Repair
Locksmithery
Mechanical Locksmithery
Floor Services in Hotels
Bar Services
Table Service

## **Educational and Professional Certification**

At the end of the training process, the trainees get a professional certification of level 1, 2 or 3, associated with an educational progression, with equivalence to the 6th, 9th or 12th year of the educational system level. They are also encouraged to attend another training course of a next level or to return to regular education.

## **Articulation Education- Training- Work**

The strategy measures to improve the employability conditions and the active life transition are put in action through different types of training courses which in most cases are developed by the Institute of Employment and Vocational Training. While promoting different educational and qualification levels, these courses might be an alternative to the regular education system,

## **Courses for other Groups with insertion difficulties (Note: these courses are for people of all ages, not for young people specifically)**

There is some kind of special professional training that distinguishes itself from the common professional training because it includes not only training aspects but also socio-professional aspects of insertion. It also aims at a population segment with great training difficulties and difficulties in problem resolutions.

These courses aim to promote the qualification and socio-professional integration, giving special attention to the programmatic contents, training levels, educational methods, rhythms and daily duration, as well as the articulation with local action initiatives.

This training defines itself by the conjugated existence of different characteristics, from which we point out the development of a training integrated process, with relation to complementary training modalities that include intervention areas such as:

- information and professional orientation and psycho-educational attendance;
- socio-educational training;
- active life process;
- articulation with social action initiatives.

Target Group:

- Persons with economical and social lack, dysfunction and marginalisation;
- Persons that do not have the compulsory education and show evidence of learning or integration in society difficulties;
- Persons that belong to specific groups, like:
  - Long term unemployed;
  - Ethnic minorities;
  - Immigrants;
  - Recluses and ex-recluses;

- Drug addicts or ex drug addicts.

All courses that have been explained can be provided by the IEFP (Institute of Employment and Vocational Training) or by private companies.

There is an institution called “Casa Pia” that is the main Portuguese institution which is responsible for about 4700 children and young people. It is dedicated to the shelter, education, learning and social insertion of children and young people without normal family support or who are confronted with social exclusion risks. The “Casa Pia” is both a social action institution and a global school where the young people are prepared to be reintegrated into society.

The young people, who live in Casa Pia can attend a regular education or a training course, even though the training courses in this institution are guided by the same parameters as the “Young People Education and Training” as referred above.

The “Casa Pia” also offers specific courses for “Disabled Young People” namely for deaf and deaf-blind ones, aiming to facilitate the world-children relation, promoting their global development through actions and minds which can facilitate their integration.

## **6.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System**

We cannot talk about a prevocational system in Portugal.

There is only one institution providing prevocational training courses in Portugal, which is the Justice Protocol Centre that belongs to the Ministry of Justice. The Justice Protocol Centre offers prevocational training in what we call "Educative Centre". These institutions host young people who committed some kind of crime and are under age. One might say the educative centres are the prison replacement for young people.

The prevocational training is offered to disadvantaged young people, whose qualification level is not high enough to attend vocational training. The idea is to give some kind of occupation to these young people while they are "rested". The prevocational training lasts about a year, although the young people do not attend every workshop because they might leave the education centre before the end of the prevocational course.

The prevocational training has to be adjusted to the educative centre's characteristics: whether the young people are ready to leave the centre or not, if they stay too long or not, etc. There are also a few centres, which do not allow mingling of young people in each system. To conjugate all these variables became quite complicated.

Each educative centre that works with young people must define its formative project for a year, keeping their budget into account: which workshops should be developed, the justification of the pretension to develop those workshops and what is going to be the operational system (if the trainees take part in all workshops or if they stick only to one or two workshops). The workshop timetables and even the curricular programme of each prevocational course (workshop) are presented by its trainer who designs the programme in consideration of the centre and the young people's characteristics.

Around September, the educative centre sends the project to the CPJ, which checks its technical/pedagogical characteristics and elaborate its evaluation. The CPJ then either approves it, or suggests some improvements or, in some cases, requires the project to be reformulated. . After the prevocational training is assured, the CPJ is responsible for the payment of the trainers and the entire technical attendance.

At the end of the prevocational training, the young people do not get a certification, they only receive a declaration that states how many workshops and respectively modules they have attended. However, at the same time these young people, who attend a prevocational training course, are also in the regular education school.

Moreover, the young people do not have a practical training period in work context, because some of them are in internal regime; therefore they cannot leave the institution.

There is another system in Portugal that can be compared to prevocational training courses. It is the PIEF (Education and Training Integrated Programme) courses, whose implementation depends on the partnership of 4 public institutions that collaborate at a regional level:

1. The PETI (Programme for the Prevention and Elimination of the Infantile Exploration and Scholarly Abandonment) – makes all the diagnostic work and prepares the life projects for disadvantaged young people who dropped out of the school;
2. The Regional Direction of Education –these courses take place in the schools and need qualified teachers, who are trained and belong to the pedagogical area of this region. Often, a lot of teachers do not want to teach this particular type of group;
3. The Social Security is the institution which gives (or should give) the social and financial support to the families;
4. The IEFP (Institute of Employment and Vocational Training) develops the practical part of the PIEF courses when it is possible

The young people that attend the PIEF Courses are those who are not old enough to be at school, or do not want to be at school or do not have qualifications which are required to enter a training course. The PIEF courses, as an answer, have the curricular part: Math, Portuguese, English, Nature Sciences and ICT and a more practical component that is the „Vocational Exploration Area“.

The “Vocational Exploration Area” of each PIEF course depends on the choices of the disadvantaged young people and on the available resources in the local area.

Usually the “Vocational Exploration Area” can include (not simultaneously) professional areas like: electronics, mechanics, agriculture or several sub-types, like for example beekeeping, hairdressing, waiters (Bar and Table), veterinary medicine, ICT, military forces (ex: Army, Marine, Police, etc.) and hygiene and security at work (that sometimes can be subject of the theoretic part or can be considered a practical one).

The PIEF Courses are inserted in schools of the Educative System allowing the disadvantaged young people an educational certification. Since these courses have a practical part, they are held in the vocational training centre as often as possible. When there is no space available, it

is tried to arrange some study visits or to integrate them for a certain while in a company or institution.

There are PIEFs that last a year (when it gives equivalence to the 2nd Basic Level- 6<sup>th</sup> year) or 2 years (when it gives equivalence to the 3rd Basic Level- 9<sup>th</sup> year). A PIEF courses are given by a period of learning years and it is possible that a younger can start just in January, and not in the beginning of the school year, which is September.

## **6.3 Role of Modularisation**

### **6.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

According to the “Law of Basis of the Educative System” the vocational training must be structured in modules of variable duration that can be combined to each other. It should allow the construction of individual routes of flexible training, through the appropriate recognition, validation and certification of acquired knowledge and competences, thus enabling young people to obtain relevant qualifications. .

The modules are independent training units that can be combined to constitute a programme adapted to the individual needs, to technical developments or to occupational structure (Inter ministerial Commission to the Employment).

The IEFP (Institute of Employment and Vocational Training) and its modular organisation intend to be an important catalyser of the reform and modernisation of the vocational training system which is under guardianship of several levels. These include the curricula reform of the training methodologies and trainers role; reforms related to moving from the notion of training profiles to facilitating the training rethinking and certification; and reforms associated with the development of a new way of looking at and “working” with the professional competences (ESE:sd).

The modularisation should improve the vocational training system with its greater rationality and flexibility and its potential to increase the adaptability to the economical, technological and social requirements and to reinforce its coherence and efficiency. (ESE:sd).

The competences’ notion of “to know in use” makes a contrast with the trilogy of “to know to know”, “to know to be” and “to know to make”. The modules appear as a didactic solution, which is able to articulate accreditation/training/certification on one hand and to carry out a curricula organisation in terms of competences on the other hand. This enables us to understand why the modules’ notion is associated with an organising principle, and also with autonomous units of education/learning in the IEFP. The modules constitute a didactic option, aiming at professional competence, which proves to be socially recognised and could be certified for the labour market purposes. (ESE: sd).

### **6.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

Despite the non-existence of a PET system, the structure of the Prevocational training courses is constituted by workshops that are structured in modules, like in the VET system. The trainers of the prevocational courses develop the curricula by taking the programmes of the VET system into account. However, the programmes of the prevocational courses do not have the same rigid structure as the vocational courses, even though modularisation plays the same role.

### **6.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules**

In Portugal, there are two types of accreditation:

- The accreditation of the Training Entities - this is a process of formal validation and recognition of the abilities of the training entity to develop training activities in the domains and intervention fields where it proves to have competences, ways, and appropriated resources at several levels: human, technical, instrumental and material. At this level, it is the IQF (Institute for Quality in training) that is responsible for accreditation. The training courses and the prevocational courses are provided by entities which are formally accredited, and there is no distinction between the prevocational courses and the vocational courses.
- The accreditation (or Homologation) of the Courses – this is a process of formal validation and recognition of a training course to the purpose of academic, professional and/or institutional certification. At this level, there are too many training courses that require this accreditation or homologation. However, the prevocational courses do not give any kind of professional certification, so they do not need to be accredited.

At the end of the Prevocational training, young people do not get a certification, only a declaration which states how many workshops they attended.

## **7 Romania**

### **7.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System**

Starting with the school year 2003-2004, the technical and vocational education (TVET) in Romania was restructured from a new perspective in terms of the goals of education and training in view of improving its contribution to a knowledge-based economy development.

#### **The national and European context of the accomplished changes**

The analysis of the education and training system in Romania at the beginning of 2001, corroborated with the strategic development directions in this domain at European level, led essentially to the implementation of a new approach of the education reform in this specific field. According to this approach, between 2001-2004 with a forward planning on 2010

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perspective, the educational policy developed by the Ministry of Education and Research proposed:

- the systemic reform – regarding all the components and aspects, with priority to: quality, equity and efficiency;
- the continuing reform – through capitalisation of the results accomplished by now and assurance of the necessary stability for achieving the established objectives on 2010;
- The self-assumed reform – through determining the strategic partners to become responsible, sharing and assuming the national development programmes in the education and training system, through all the social actors' active and responsible participation.

Special importance is allotted to assuring basic education for everyone. Prospective planning for 2010 refers to one of the basic functions of the education and training system – that of assuring a **minimum education for each person** – child, teenager or adult – according to the **principle of basic education for everyone**.

Romania's accession to the European Union constitutes a major political priority. The approaches to the educational issues were considered through the implications of the educational development in the accession process. Specifically, the Lisbon European Council's conclusion was considered both, to the general established objective (namely: The European Union to become on 2010 perspective "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of durable economic growth, with more and better work places and a greater social cohesion" – Presidency Conclusion – Lisbon European Council, Lisbon, 23-24.03.2000) and to education development on 2010 perspective.

As a result, the European Council in Barcelona, 2002 approved the detailed plan regarding the education and training systems in the European Union between 2001 and 2010. As a response to the invitation addressed by the European Union to the candidate states, the Romanian Government decided to join the member states, in the Barcelona process. This decision was publicly taken by the Ministry of Education and Research at the 6th Conference of the European Ministers of Education (Bratislava, 2002).

The goals, content and structure of the pre-university education are directly correlated with lifelong learning – the basic education assuring the assimilation of the necessary competences for further access to education. The role of the basic education from the lifelong learning perspective is mentioned within the first key-message of the Memorandum regarding the lifelong learning elaborated by the European Commission in 2000. The importance given to basic education in lifelong learning was outlined at national level by all the social actors consulted on the Memorandum – consultations asked by the European Commission (Survey on key messages on lifelong learning – The Institute of Educational Sciences, Bucharest 2001).

The above mentioned premises highlight the necessity of a coherent approach of all the problems related to basic education, with an emphasis on the following goals:

- Quality assurance, equity and efficiency at all education levels and processes of the compulsory education;

- Compatibility of compulsory education goals, content and structure with the European development specified by the European Councils from 2000, 2001 and detailed in 2002.

Considering the new basic education requirements and the European trend for extending the duration of the compulsory education, a new curriculum approach should be taken into account focusing on:

- Students achieving the key competences, including new competences that are required by the knowledge-based economy and society;
- Students' lifelong learning perspective.

These curriculum changes imply modifications on the **compulsory education structure**, especially regarding **its duration**. That is why 8 years of studying are insufficient. At Government proposal, the Romanian Parliament decided the compulsory education extension to 10 years. Generally, the arguments for an extension of the duration of compulsory education are based on the following aspects:

- A higher education level for the entire population;
- A common core of education, provided without discrimination, through an inclusive policy of sustaining the basic education for all;
- A social protection approach through extension of the public efforts to provide education to everybody who might leave prematurely the education and training, because of poverty reasons;
- A system of differentiated and systematic education for a young population profoundly changing (teenagers), sometimes exposed to negative influences;
- A method of reducing the recovery cost by keeping students in the education and training system.

Anyway, in what concerns the initial and continuing vocational training develops, the European context is particularly defined by **The Declaration of the Ministries of Education and Training in Copenhagen**, from November 2002. The signatory states proposed a strengthening of the cooperation (within the process known as the Copenhagen process) at the European level in this field so that the following objectives can be accomplished:

### **European Dimension**

Strengthening the European dimension in vocational education and training with the aim of improving closer cooperation to facilitate and promote mobility and the development of inter-institutional cooperation, partnership and other transnational initiatives, all in order to raise the profile of the European education and training area in an international context so that Europe will be recognised as a world-wide reference for learners.

### **Transparency, Information and Guidance**

Increasing transparency in vocational education and training through the implementation and rationalisation of information tools and networks, including the integration of existing

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instruments such as the European CV, certificate and diploma supplements, the Common European framework of reference for languages and EUROPASS into one single framework.

Strengthening policies, systems and practices that support information, guidance and counselling at all levels of education, training and employment, particularly on issues concerning access to vocational education and training, and the transferability and recognition of competences and qualifications, in order to support occupational and geographical mobility of citizens in Europe.

### **Recognition of competences and qualifications**

Investigating the way in which transparency, comparability, transferability and recognition of competences and/or qualifications, among different countries and at different levels could be promoted by developing reference levels, common principles of certification, and common measures, including a credit transfer system for initial and continuing vocational education and training were considered.

The increasing support of the development of competences and qualifications at sectoral level, is given through a reinforcement of cooperation and co-ordination, especially involving the social partners. Developing a set of common principles regarding the validation of non-formal and informal learning with the aim of ensuring greater compatibility among approaches in different countries and at different levels are also under consideration.

### **Quality assurance**

Promoting cooperation in quality assurance with particular focus on exchange of models and methods, as well as common criteria and principles for quality in vocational initial and continuing education and training were main targets to attain.

Giving attention to the learning needs of the teachers and trainers within all forms of vocational initial and continuing education and training was one commonly accepted way. Corroborating the activities realised as part of the detailed working plan regarding the development in education and training systems in the European Union during 2001-2010 (*the Barcelona process*) and the activities realised as part of *the Copenhagen process* represent a new approach which the European Commission has proposed since 2003. Actually, a new approach at the level of education and training, including the university education (*the Bologna process*) is reflected in the programme “**Education and training 2010**”. **The implementation stage of this programme constituted the subject of the *Joint Report of the European Commission and the European Council of Education presented to the European Council from 26th of February 2004.***

The joint report allows the identification of the European context of developments in education and training, the reference marks for the domain analysis, as well as the Romanian situation, particularly referring to the technical and vocational education

**The national context of vocational training**, initial and continuing, is defined through the programmatic documents referring to the economic and social development at national, regional and local level, namely:

- The Governing Programme 2001-2004
- The National Development Plan 2004-2006
- The National Programme of Accession to the European Union 2002
- The Plan of Priority Measures of European Integration 2003-2004
- Road map elaborated by the European Commission for Romania in 2002
- Romania's Economic Pre-Accession Programme to European Union, 2003
- Romania's Middle-term National Strategy of Economic Development
- The National Plan of Anti-Poverty and Social Inclusion Promoting
- The National Action Plan for Employment 2004-2005
- Joint Assessment Paper on Employment
- The Regional Plans of Economic and Social Development
- The explanatory notes for restructuring of the industrial areas with economic growth potential approved by HG 399/2001
- The Economic and Social Development Strategies of the Counties
- The Forecasted Structure of the Industrial Production at sectoral level, for region, and for county
- Other documents referring to economic and human resources development of locality, county or the region (for example: The Development Plans of Localities included in the programme Local agenda 21, the development plan of the disadvantaged areas, objectives of RICOP project, PHARE programmes objectives of human resources development, ISPA and SAPARD programmes objectives, Valea Jiului development programme, the "industrial parks" programme)
- The employment forecast on middle and long term, elaborated at county level
- Labour market studies realised for localities, areas in a county or region

### **Objectives of technical and vocational education**

The strategic objectives of the technical and vocational education target a consolidated TVET system development in order to:

- respond to the needs of a knowledge-based society;
- increase the employment level and economic development;
- increase the economic and social cohesion level;
- develop democratic citizenship practice.
- The technical and vocational education goals aim at:

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- the assurance of the students personal and professional development so that they are able to become active citizens of their community, to participate to the active, civic and professional life;
  - the assurance of equal chances access to technical and vocational education, as well as professional development of every student, depending on the individual aspirations and learning potential;
  - the assurance of quality standards in terms of organisation and development of management, education and training processes in every school organising technical and vocational education;
  - the assurance of professional development chances for every student to achieve a qualification with employment opportunities in trades or occupations available on the local, county, regional or national labour market, as well as for lifelong learning in order to adapt to the technologic changes specific to the knowledge-based economy.

### **Technical and vocational education - strategic directions**

In general the initial TVET system, also named technical and vocational education, is driven by:

- The need for a national framework;
- Vocational education and training which is competency, not time, based;
- TVET which is mainly demand and not supply prevailing driven;
- Flexible delivery of education and training;
- Continuously developing labour force skills and knowledge;
- Multiple pathways and multiple entry and exit points leading to common competency based outcomes, based on prior learning achievement and facilitating lifelong and life wide learning;
- A commitment to preserving principles of access and equity;
- Quality assurance in VET.

### **The structure of technical and vocational education**

As part of the pre-university education, comprising 10 years of compulsory education, the technical and vocational education is organised on three **educational levels**:

- lower secondary education (the last two study years of the level ISCED 2, part of the compulsory education)
- upper secondary education (ISCED 3)
- higher education (ISCED 4 )

Within the lower and upper secondary education, the technical and vocational education is organised into two educational routes:

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- the high school technologic route, consisting of the lower cycle (2 study years) and the upper cycle (2 study years) of high school – the technologic route
  - the progressive professionalising route, consisting of the trades and arts school (2 study years), the completion year (1 study year) and the upper cycle of high school (2 study years). Arts and Trades Schools (SAM) is the name of the new education level included in the compulsory education, which replaces the apprenticeship school and the vocational school (for which schooling was organised until 2002-2003) in terms of vocational qualification.

From the point of view of the **qualification levels** adopted in Romania according to **the European Council Decision 85-368-EEC**, the pre-university technical and vocational education assures the first 3 qualification levels, as follows:

- qualification level I through the arts and trades school;
- qualification level II through the completion year;
- qualification level III through the upper high school cycle – technologic route and through post-high school education.

**THE STRUCTURE OF TVET EDUCATION WITHIN THE ROMANIAN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT**

Age	Class /Group	ISCED	Education level		
>19		6	<b>University education</b>		
		5			
		4	Pre-university post-high school education (Tertiary non-university education)		
18	XIII	3			Technologic high school (upper secondary)
17	XII		Theoretic high school (upper secondary)	High school of arts, sports, theology	
16	XI				
15	X	2	Theoretic school	School of arts, sports, theology	Technologic school
14	IX				
13	VIII		Comprehensive education		
12	VII				
11	VI				
10	V				
9	IV				
8	III	1			
7	II				
6	I				
5	Upper	0	Pre-school education		

## Reform of the TVET system

Classified list of professional qualifications for which education through high schools is provided – 3rd level of qualification High school (lower and higher circle) - technological strand

level	RONVQ descriptors
<b>One</b>	The acquisition of a limited range of basic skills, knowledge and understanding in highly structured and self-referenced contexts which permit the identification of progression from the learner's point of entry to the learning process
<b>Two</b>	The acquisition of a foundation of competences, knowledge and understanding in a limited range of predictable and structured contexts that prepare the learner to progress to further achievements
<b>Three</b>	The acquisition of a broader range of competences, knowledge and understanding which demonstrate the extension of previous abilities in less predictable and structured contexts and prepare the learner to progress to further achievements

The TVET now offers two main pathways. The “technological route” offers a general secondary education with a large vocational component at technical high schools providing a Level 3 qualification. The “vocational route” prepares students for the labour market or further studying in Art and Trade Schools (ATS). At the end of compulsory education (grade IX-X) graduates of ATS can obtain a Level 1 qualification. Level 2 and 3 qualifications that more demanded in the labour market will still need one to three years’ further studies after compulsory education. A level 2 qualification is awarded after grade XI and represents at the same time the “*class de passage*” towards Level 3 for both routes (high school and vocational). Grades XII-XIII provide a Level 3 qualification. The Post High Schools are a specialised technological route of 2 years leading to qualifications at Level 3

**Classified list of professional qualifications for which education through high schools is provided – 3rd level of qualification High school (lower and higher circle) - technological strand**

	Profile	Professional qualification	Duration of studies	
			Day-time courses (2+2)	Evening courses
	<b>Services</b>	Technician in financial and commercial activities	4	5
		Technician in public administration	4	5
		Technician in tourism	4	5
		Technician in postal/mail activities	4	5
	<b>Natural resources and environment protection</b>	Technician in ecology and environment quality protection	4	5
		Technician in hydro-meteorology	4	5
		Technician – laboratory chemist	4	5
		Technician – analysis of food products	4	5
	<b>Technics</b>	Technician operator calculation techniques	4	5
		Technician operator processing text/image	4	5
		Technician drawer for construction and installations	4	5
		Technician mecatronist	4	5
13.		Technician - telecommunications	4	5
14.		Technician designer projectant CAD	4	5
15.		Technician clothing designer	4	5
16.		Technician – glass and ceramics industry	4	5
17.		Technician in electrical installations	4	5
18.		Technician telematics operator	4	5
19.	Technician - automation	4	5	

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## **European arguments for the modernisation of technical and vocational education**

- The extension of compulsory education to 10 years, including the arts and trades school follows the principles of assuring equal chances of education and training, as well as the consolidation of basic competences for all (LLL Memorandum)
- The assurance of qualification transparency for mobility on the European labour market. The technical and vocational education and training system proposed in Romania, redefines the qualifications according to defining systems of qualifications in different EU member states, using classifications as ISCED, ISCO-88-com, the Council's Decision 85/368/EEC.
- Training flexibility, through narrow qualifications delay (for example, the qualification level I certified through SAM, after X grade does not correspond to the old apprenticeship school; it represents a "general training" qualification) and assurance of social competence for 47 qualifications. Besides, the training (vocational qualification), which is not specific to one single occupation, assures higher employment chances since the graduates may practice several occupations. Annually, MoER and the National Agency of Employment will list the occupations that can be practiced after achievement of each qualification, depending on the needs of the labour market. Based on this information the locally developed curriculum component will also be elaborated, so that the chances of employment increase.
- Assurance of chances to continue education through secondary upper education, through professionalising routes with free access, without any differences, offers opportunities contributing to future increase of students' inclusion in upper secondary education. The European Union criterion, decision of the European Council on Education, from 5th of May 2003, concerning the students' inclusion in upper secondary education, is assumed by Romania and implemented through the new structure of the pre-university education system. Assurance of occupation mobility, by introducing a national qualification system, common to initial and continuing training, as well as training consolidation through modularised curriculum (training modules), associated with transferable credits. These system reviews are part of the desiderata of quality assurance in vocational training, objective shared by the Phare multi-annual financing, through Economic and Social Cohesion programmes. This development is included in the recommendations made by the European Commission – The Copenhagen Declaration of the ministers of education and training, on 30th of November 2002

## **Coordination and inter-institutional cooperation in TVET**

The initial TVET strategy should be seen as part of the overall reform consisting of a comprehensive set of changes affecting all aspects of education (aims, management and governance, planning, steering and finance structures, the educational supply structure, curricula, recording of qualifications, linking of training and companies by means of in-house practical training and apprenticeships, linking vocational training and higher education, linking initial training and adult education).

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The Ministry of Education and Research appreciates that the following elements are to be considered as important coordination mechanisms:

- anticipation (Which kinds of activities and mechanisms are in place to monitor the needs for education and training, taking into account the interrelationships of working life and the various changes in society?)
- organisational interests (How are the various actors organised to bring their interests into the coordination process?)
- qualifications and credentials (How is the signalling structure organised, and to which extent does it respond to the needs of the various actors?)
- base of knowledge (To what extent is a system of knowledge production developed, which produces an interrelated knowledge base of the main dimensions of coordination, combining the knowledge about those dimensions?)
- management of the system structure (To what extent do activities and mechanisms exist for systemic management, to bring in line the various sectors of the education and training system?)
- education and training pathways (How are the courses and programmes structured and linked to each other to provide opportunities for access and exit points? To what extent is mobility and flexibility allowed for?)
- curriculum matching (How are the goals for TVET programmes set, worked out, and implemented, taking into account feedback to the changing and conflicting needs of the multitude of actors involved?)
- co-production of skills (Which arrangements are in place for the co-production of skills by actors and/or organisations external to TVET, and to what extent are those arrangements systematically used, e.g. different kinds of work-based learning, interchange with HRD activities?)
- apprenticeship as an institution (Are the elements of apprenticeship as a systematic institutional form of holistic learning in a practical context in contact with a master prevalent and/or developed?)
- internal quality management (How are the activities within the TVET organisations linked to the outcomes and improvement of processes?)
- professional development (How are the people working within TVET supported to fulfil their tasks and responsibilities in a sustainable way?)
- financial mechanisms (How do the financing mechanisms take into account the incentives for the various actors involved?)
- coordination outcomes assessment (How is the information about the outcomes of coordination generated and used, e.g. labour market information?)
- information and guidance (Which activities and mechanisms are in place to provide information and guidance to students and parents? How widespread is the access to

information and guidance provision? To what extent is there a developed and up-to-date knowledge base?)

- transition (How are the transition processes from VET into working life, and through the education and training system managed? Is there a specific emphasis in policy on evaluating and improving transition?)

## 7.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System

Within the Romanian TVET context, the Prevocational Education and Training constitutes the curricular offer ensured by two curricular areas of the National Curriculum<sup>9</sup> in compulsory education (grades I-X):

- Technologies
- Guidance and Counselling

The Romanian policy makers consider that Prevocational Education and Training will be ideally implemented by using the cross-curricular opportunities offered by the National Curriculum Framework: there are not only “subjects” designed to offer an introduction to the world of vocational education and training (in terms of knowledge and skills), but there is also “a space” provided for constructing the adequate attitudes towards the opportunities of choosing among the possibilities of career open to the young adults.

By analysing the National Curriculum for compulsory education, the resulting conclusion is that in Romania prevocational education is not seen as the introduction to a specific trade or occupation, but rather as a type of education that is widening the opportunities of the general education, that it broadly familiarises the student with the requirements of further training (team and group work, project work, adequately using the technologies etc.), that introduces the student to the rigour of work, in general terms.

In compulsory education, the curricular area of **Technologies** includes the following subjects:

- Practical skills (for primary education)
- Technological education (for lower secondary education)
- Optional courses (for primary, lower secondary and upper secondary)

**The Guidance and Counselling** curricular area on the other hand, focuses on the following topics:

- facilitation of participation to the social life of school and local community;
- development of personal strategies to avoid school failure;
- introduction to the job descriptions of some occupations;
- development of attitudes like acceptance of the changes in the political, cultural, economic and social environment in which the future adult will carry on his/her activities;

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<sup>9</sup> *The National Curriculum for Compulsory Education. Framework of Reference.* Bucharest, The National Council of Curriculum, 1998, pp. 36-38. (Romanian version)

- motivated participation in the initiation and conduct of the own, individual learning path/route.

Prevocational education in Romania does not encourage early specialisation in vocational field at the moment, but aims at equipping the student with the needed skills and attitudes in order to make the adequate, informed choices, when specialisation will become necessary. The prevocational education offered by compulsory education is also meant to assist the individual development of appropriate personal and social skills related to future vocational activities or career, such as: attitudes towards work, intensive training; career opportunities and career shift; specific communication a.s.o., in order to construct the right attitudes and beliefs towards the world of technologies and work. On the other hand, there are no recognised prevocational courses for adult education at the moment, according to the website of the National Board for Adult Education.

### **7.3 Role of Modularisation**

#### **7.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

Modularisation constitutes the core concept of the curriculum reform in the field of TVET in Romania. The modules are the building blocks of the TVET curriculum, maximising its flexibility, in the School of Arts and Trades (grades IX-X), in the Completion year (grade XI), and in grades XII-XIII of the vocational route, that is, for all level 1, level 2 and level 3 of vocational qualification in initial vocational training. At the moment, the modules achieved by the student, have a conventional value expressed in credits which are not yet transferable, either to tertiary education, or to adult education. The credit system will probably become functional after the National Qualifications Framework will be functional.

#### **7.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training**

In Prevocational Education and Training offered by compulsory education via the National Curriculum the modules are conceived to cover one semester, or only half of a semester, which leads to two or three modules per school year. For example, in Technological Education, grade V, the first module is Environment, the second module is Technologies and wood materials. In grade VI, there are three modules: Agricultural technologies, Gastronomy, Textiles and technologies. In grade VII there are three modules: Graphic language; Technologies and metalwork; Transportation. Grade VIII is dedicated to: Energy, Electrotechnics, Electronics; Biometrics, Calculus technologies; Vocational fields.

In high school, for non-vocational profiles, the national Curriculum provides various modules for prevocational education like: Production systems; Products design; Quality assurance in grade IX; Communication and Mechatronics in grade X, XI and XII. The optional curriculum (school-based) for these grades covers a larger offer.

The modules are designed to develop student's self awareness related to the vocational field, providing them with knowledge and experiences not necessarily related to a certain

occupation, but aiming at bringing them to understand the function of education and training and the importance of career opportunities during the career decision-making process.

### 7.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules

In compulsory education there is no mechanism of accreditation and certification of separate modules set in place yet. The Certification process functions per qualification level only. Level 1 is the first qualification level possible to be achieved; at the moment only via graduating the School of Arts and Trades. In order to achieve Level 1 certificate one must pass the National Examination for getting Level 1 Certificate (at the end of grade X of the School of Arts and Trades), according to the Ministry of Education and Research and Ministry of Labour Common Examination Methodology. In June 2006, the first national examination for achieving Level 2 Certificate will take place, according to an inter-ministerial methodology. In the case of initial vocational education and training, the awarding body is the Ministry of Education and Research, which is issuing the certificates of vocational competencies for each level, recognised by the Ministry of Labour. In Adult Education the system of recognising courses and modules for credit accumulation is not yet fully functional. The responsible body is The Adult Education National Board.

## 7.4 Part II

The issue under discussion is how much of the concept of modularisation is used for the benefit of disadvantaged people in Romania. Therefore, beyond what is called the vocational and prevocational compulsory educational system in Romania, there is an important project dealing with different activities and modularised training courses for the benefit of disadvantaged students. It is called "**Second Chance Project**". Although it started as a pilot project, it is currently implemented nationwide.

**Historical Background:** The "**Second Chance**" Project is a specific "back to school" type programme in the framework of the Romanian education system. In the pilot phase as part of a three years "*Education 2000+ Project*" it was implemented by *Centre Education 2000+*, member of Soros Open Network (SON). At present the project is continued at national level. It aims at attracting 14-25 year young dropouts of Roma or disadvantaged communities from Romania to complete and graduate their compulsory education, and to attend simultaneously vocational education courses. The compulsory education graduates who pass the final exam have all legal rights to continue their studies and to be involved in a normal social life. The piloting phase was carried out in partnership with the Romanian Ministry of Education and Research (MER). Afterwards, the project was taken over by the Ministry of Education and now an experimental modularised phase is being financed as a Phare programme.

In the SEE countries, Romania included, there is a great number of young people from Roma and non-Roma communities who drop-out from school before completing compulsory education. The reasons for dropping-out are numerous and most of the times combined: repeated school failure, economic problems within the family, lack of trust in educational institutions and in their possibility to offer real opportunities for professional success, fear that

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integration in the educational system endangers traditional values, occupations and customs, in the case of minority groups (Roma). Roma minority has the highest drop-out rate, at least in Romania

In most of the cases the young dropouts are above the legal school age. Statistics show that in the traditional Roma and disadvantaged communities, the situation of girls is much more difficult, as they withdraw in the first school years. Besides these problems that occur at the level of formal education, there is also an evident discrimination on the job market. These two aspects lead to a low percentage of people who have the possibility to earn their living legally. Moreover, the traditional trades (such as those of Roma people) have to fight new technologies and lose their capacity of providing a decent life.

On the other hand, school is not or should not be understood as a “sum of homework”, but as a resource centre for training that aims at placing the young person and his or her family on the specific ways of continuous education. School is not an institution that develops separately from the community; it develops in the context of cultural, economic and social partnership.

These prerequisites should be understood as a rationale for the decision of organising educational programmes for those who could not take advantage of the "first chance" they got by the educational system. Actually the "**Second Chance**" Project is a follow-up of the experimental programme of attracting school older dropouts that has been developed by the Open Society Foundation Romania in April 1999 in the framework of the *Education 2000+ Project*. In the pilot phase the project focused on 350 students from Roma and other communities, situated in disadvantaged urban and rural areas from Romania. It aimed at implementing appropriate models of education for preventing social exclusion at the level of general secondary education. It also intended to develop local implementation models that can be replicated nation-wide. The project ran three years (1999-2000; 2000-2001; 2001-2002). The “first generation” already involved in the project, graduated school in 2002.

The objectives of *the pilot project* were compatible with the objectives Romania, the MER and its partners are pursuing in their attempts of harmonising with the similar policies developed in the European Union. They are:

- Offering remedial and vocational education to older dropouts;
- Teacher training;
- Involving community in school life.

Currently, the **Second Chance Programme** is applied at national level. It develops a strategy for overcoming the problems of marginalisation and social exclusion of the young people who have abandoned school and did not acquire the minimum competencies in order to occupy a workplace. The programme, under the lead of the Minister Nr. 4231 - 18.08.1999 aims at sustaining the teenagers 14+, who did not graduate the compulsory education because of social reasons in order to complete their studies and get prepared to obtain a professional qualification. Schooling in *the Second Chance Programme* covers a period of 4 years, through weekly organised courses that combine theory and practice. The groups of students

joining a class can be of a minimum of 15. With the approval of the Ministry of Education there can be fewer students attending a class.

**Conceptual framework** The programme of studies has as **general objective**, the training of students and the development of their capacities to reflect on the world and to offer the necessary knowledge to act on in accordance to their needs and capacities to identify and solve problems, integrating different domains of knowledge. This objective is attained using a modularised system of teaching. The fundamental principles that oriented the development of *the modularised system* of teaching are:

- The adaptation of a coherent didactic model where the competencies and contents are correlated with the real and immediate needs of the students.
- The diversification of the teaching strategies, educational offers and learning opportunities; their adaptation to the needs of the target group.
- The insurance of the link between the objectives and the finalities of the compulsory education.

**The innovations promoted by *the modularised system* are:**

- Each discipline is organised within flexible modules;
- There have been established standards for each subject;
- Each basic module is sustained by educational materials such as: the student guide and the teachers guide;
- The teaching of Biology, Chemistry and Physics is integrated;
- The modules are designed from an inter and trans-disciplinary perspective around the competencies (general and specific);
- The curriculum is centred on general competencies that are developed by engaging students in cooperative learning activities, real – life oriented tasks that are designed in accordance to their needs and interests;
- The list of values and attitudes in the national curriculum are integrated in the didactic processes involved;
- Each module has a suggestive title;
- The students' previous life experience is considered a resource for the teaching process;
- The individual diversity of the participants , cultural or of other nature is considered a learning resource;
- The approach of the subject matter is practical, functional;
- The school-based curriculum offers new possibilities to meet the diverse learning styles;
- At the end of each module that is centred on a general competence, an evaluation takes place.

The syllabus includes 7 curricular areas that are formed of one or several disciplines.

Each discipline is designed on modules.

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The structure of the modules is:

- Action based
- Final acquisition oriented
- Student - centred

It is centred on competencies; each module is designed to develop a general competency. Each subject is developed around one or several modules. For the development of each competency there has been selected the most relevant content within each module. The teaching strategies are student centred; cross-curricular approaches are very much in favour. The competencies are transferable. They are applicable both in school life and in the socio-professional life of the students.

The following essential principles are recommended in the delivery of each module within each subject:

- Respect for the diversity of student opinions;
- The permanent encouragement of the students;
- Stimulating activities for the involvement of all the students in motivating activities;
- Creativity in approaching the content and usage of the specific methodology;
- Interest for the personal development of the students;
- Solid partnerships with the members of the civil society.

The evaluation is correlated with the type of competency that is developed within each module, specific to the subject under acquisition. The evaluation is student centred, meant to monitor the development of the individuals in their learning process. The performance standards have been established for each subject. They represent a system of reference for all students and criteria for the evaluation of the quality of the learning process; they contain the specificity of the knowledge, intellectual abilities and behavioural competencies acquired by the students; they are simple, easy to be understood by the educational agents and they represent the starting point in the development of the educational standards, the criteria for grading.

Level 1, year 1 is organised on the following principles:

- To ensure the individualised training programme of the students in accordance to their interests and the social-economical needs of the community;
- The certification of the professional competencies acquired.

The individualised professional programme is applied starting with the second year on the following procedure:

- Previously acquired competencies (formal, non-formal, informal channels) will be evaluated in accordance with the requirements in the occupational standards established and approved by the Ministry of Education (Order MECT nr. 3257/19.02.2004).

- In accordance with the results of the evaluation, the student will identify the priority occupations that will be practiced by the graduate together with the school and the social partners;

The professional training in the qualifications corresponding to level 1 takes place in applying the curriculum for the specialty and practical instructions in the curricular area called Technologies, grades IX and X from Arts and Crafts school approved through the order MEC nr. 3451/09.03.2004 adapted by each school unit to accomplish the individualised instruction. The professional development can be applied for the qualifications that correspond to Level 2 of qualification as well.

**The students who graduate year I at graduation obtain:**

- a graduation certificate
- a personal portfolio for continuous education

If after graduation they sustain and promote the exam for the certification of their professional competencies, they get a professional qualification certificate. This category of graduates has the right to continue their studies and attend the higher secondary school.

**In the table below, there is the list of subjects and number of hours compulsory for the Second Chance programme, LEVEL 1.**

COMPETENCIES	YEAR I
<b>1. Communication</b>	<b>6</b>
Romanian Language and Literature	<b>4</b>
Modern Languages	<b>2</b>
<b>2. Mathematics and Sciences</b>	<b>4-5</b>
Mathematics	<b>3</b>

Sciences	1-2
<b>3. Interpersonal and Civic Education</b>	<b>4</b>
History and Geography	2
Civic education	1
Counselling and orientation	1
<b>4. Expressive</b>	<b>3</b>
Arts	2
Physical Education	1
<b>1. Technologies</b>	<b>2</b>
Technological education	2
<b>6. Optional</b>	<b>0-7</b>
Romani culture and language	0-4
<b>7. CDS</b>	0-3 New Integrated Topics of Interest

The curriculum materials, curriculum revision, training programmes for community development, training in inclusive education for school principals, teachers, representatives of

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the community, training for Roma communities have been financed through the Phare Programme: *Access to education for the disadvantaged groups* **RO 2003 005-551.01.02.**

Through this programme some new activities have been piloted, activities for the benefit of the communities and the specificity of the group itself:

- Afternoon programmes with remedial education for the target group;
- Extracurricular activities in the domain of inclusive education;
- A programme entitled "A School for Parents";
- Activities that value the school as the community resource centre;
- Free meals offered to the target group;
- Free transportation for the students where needed.

Besides these:

- There have been trained school mediators for the disadvantaged communities;
- Distance learning for Roma students;
- Creation of resource centres for inclusive education.

**Starting with the school year 2005-2006 the Second Chance Project** started an experimental phase and according to the Order of the Minister of Education it is applied in all counties where the Phare Project "*Access to Education for the Disadvantaged Groups*" has been applied. At the request of other counties, *the Second Chance Programme* can be started even if they are not in the Phare Project.

According to the new educational interventions, *the Second Chance Programme* is addressed to the students aged 14 and above who have graduated from primary school. There is no age limit. Other potential participants are those who have partially graduated from lower secondary school and abandoned school their legal age limit being no longer valid. Schooling in this programme takes place on a standard duration of 4 years. The courses are being organised on a weekly base, combining general education courses with the training to obtain a vocational qualification. The pilot programme is modular; therefore it has a flexible duration. Each module has a specific number of hours and credits and they can be accomplished on an individualised route.

The year 2005-2006 is experimental. It is monitored and evaluated so that afterwards it will be revised and in the year 2006-2007 when it is extended to the national level it should be well standardised.

The Order of the Minister number 44296 issued on the 25th of October 2005 makes references to the way the pilot programme should be applied. Following specifications have been made:

- For Primary School education, the general primary school curriculum is applied.
- For the Lower Secondary School meetings will be organised to analyze the methodology, curriculum and the educational materials. (Jan. 2005 - Jan. 2006)

- In February 2006, the first year of study will be implemented. The 2nd, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4th year is applied according to the methodology approved by the Ministry of Education.

## **7.5 Summary of the Methodology Piloted in 2005-2006.**

*The Second Chance Programme in Primary School* has the main objective to help the children/youngsters/adults to from graduate primary school. It is open to all candidates who have not finalised this cycle of studies yet and who are four years older than required by the regular school system. In order to function, these classes should have a minimum of 8 maximum of 15 students. Since the age level is different, the teaching methodology used is close to the one used in simultaneous classes. The programme can take place in the national minority languages if there are at least 8 requests for this. The organisational form can be on a daily bases, evening courses, and weekend intense courses, while the duration of the programme is flexible as well. It depends on the needs of the students and the decision of the school management and on the competencies proved in basic education. The organisation of the educational process has the following structure:

- Semester 1: 16 weeks
- Semester 2: 17 weeks

Each study level includes a number of optional and compulsory modules adapted to the needs of students to facilitate trans-disciplinary education. If one student has proved that he or she has graduated certain modules in the initial evaluation at the beginning of the programme they do not have to attend those classes. At the graduation of each module a certificate of graduation is issued. At the graduation of a level of studies they get a certification of completion. If they graduate year 4 in primary school, they have the same rights as any other primary school graduate. As the programme has just started to be piloted in the school year 2005-2006 it is difficult to have any retrospective analyses or accountable feed-back.

*The Second Chance Programme in Lower Secondary School* As main objective, the programme supported the young people aged over 14 who because of social reasons did not finalise the lower secondary compulsory education and who did not accomplish at least a level 1 qualification in a certain domain. In the year 2005-2006 the project was experimental and has been applied with the financial support of the counties where the Phare project is developed. On the bases of the experience gained, the results of the evaluation and monitoring process will be revised and then extended at national level starting in the year 2006-2007.

The programme has a standard duration of 4 years with courses organised on a weekly base combining theory and practice just like in the previous intervention stage (1999-2003).

The first type of programme lasted 3 years and a half, where in the final half year the students performed only practical activities at companies that basically hired them afterwards. Presently the programme has changed. The first generation of students graduated high-school. Therefore a lot of feed-back was collected both from the rate of employability and from practitioners.

In this experimental phase the modularisation is focussed much better. Although the duration is of a standard 4 years, it can be accomplished in a flexible way. The duration can be shorter if the students go through the modules in a more rapid individual rhythm. **The principles** that organise the basic education and the vocational qualification are the following:

- The insurance of an individualised professional route, both for basic education and for vocational education in accordance to the needs and aspirations of the students.
- The recognition of previously acquired competencies-formal, non-formal, informal) in accordance to the standard requirements approved through the order of the Minister nr.3257/19.02.04.
- The certification of the professional competencies gained, according to national norms.
- The programme is applied for basic education starting with the year I and vocational qualification starting with the second year of the programme.
- The professional qualification offer includes the qualifications of level 1 listed by the Order of the Romanian Government nr. 1144/2005.

**The Educational Programme** It is structured in 4 years that equal the four classes (V-VIII) in compulsory education and the two (IX-X) in vocational education. In year I, they study the subjects that belong to general education (modules) and in years II-IV the vocational education modules are added. Each year of study has 34 weeks out of which:

- a maximum of 6 weeks is allotted to evaluation at the end of each module
- 1 week for the initiation courses
- Courses for the development and current evaluation of each module.

The courses start either in October or in the third week of February. They can be planned during the week, in the evenings and during the week-end.

**Evaluation and Credit System** The evaluation process aims at recognising acquired competences. The entire programme is equalled with 60 credits, 30 credits for the general education modules and 30 credits for the vocational modules. For the students who graduated year 1 in the school year 2004-2005 the recognised number of credits is 10.

In the case of general education, the allocation of credits is as follows: if the student has a certificate of the graduation of 5 grades, he or she gets a number of 5 credits; for 6 grades, 10 credits, 7 classes, 15 credits. For the graduates of year I the number of credits is 10. The total number of credits they need to sum up for graduating the general education modules is 30. If there is proof that the individual students have different starting points after the initial evaluation, they do not need to complete the modules for the 30 modules; but to sum up only those courses they do not get initial accreditation for, they need to complete. The vocational modules get the same number of credits: 30. The number of credits allotted for each module depends on the number of hours the module is structured on. This is the way the transferable credits function.

The credit system reflects the way in which the modularised programme is evaluated. The curriculum for the Second Chance Programme is structured on two components:

1. Core curriculum
2. School-based curriculum

The Core Curriculum includes the educational offer that is common for all vocational qualifications and it has the same subject and number of lessons. The core curriculum is compulsory. The subjects are grouped in 7 curricular areas:

- Language and communication
- Mathematics and Sciences
- Man and Society
- Arts
- Physical Education and Sports
- Technologies
- Counselling and Orientation

Each curricular area has several subjects that are modularised. Each module had been given a number of credits (see table below). The School-based Curriculum represents the sum of learning experiences that each school proposes directly to its students through a specific curricula offer. This educational offer is flexible and differentiated in accordance to the aspiration and the learning potential of each student in the **Second Chance Programme**.

## **8 United Kingdom**

This report presents an overview of the vocational education and training system in England. It is intended to provide an essential background context for the purpose of the ‘modules’ project.

### **8.1 Brief Overview of Vocational Education and Training System: UK context<sup>10</sup>**

Vocational learning has been and continues to be a term that is open to wide interpretation (Stasz et al, 2004). Definitions and terminology related to the main types of vocational education vary from study to study, including terms such as ‘Initial Vocational Education and Training’, ‘post-16 education’, ‘Continuing Vocational Education and Training’, ‘adult education’ and ‘lifelong learning’. In this report we will distinguish between two main types of post-compulsory learning by referring to them as follows:

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<sup>10</sup> There are some notable differences between the systems of Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and England. For the purpose of this project this overview will focus on the English vocational education and training system. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the development of vocational education and training in England and Wales.

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- 14–19 education and training at the secondary level (including post-compulsory provision); and
  - adult (post-19) further education.

For the purpose of this study our main focus will be on the 14–19 education sector as it corresponds to the project’s aims and objectives.

During recent years a number of reforms and initiatives have been launched with the purpose of improving VET for young people and adults and to make it more responsive to the needs of both employers and individuals. As Miller (2005) notes, ‘the UK has moved away from a provider driven and technical view of vocational education and training to a system where employers and employees lead the way in skills development’. Factors such as low levels of productivity in the UK (linked to low levels of skill in the workforce), low levels of participation in training, and high differentials between social groups prompted the newly elected Labour Government in 1997 to develop strategy focused on (1) raising standards and (2) inclusion (Leney et al, 2004). A recent LSRC report (Stasz et al, 2004) stressed that Government policy for vocational learning has been directed towards two broad purposes. The first is economic. Policy-makers believe that higher levels of skill will lead to national economic growth, increased productivity for companies, and higher earnings for the individual. The second purpose is social. Vocational learning policy seeks to develop occupationally relevant skills at a number of levels. However, it is sometimes explicitly aimed at, and often seems to have a greater impact on, those individuals who are not succeeding at school or at work, or whose skills do not meet the needs of the economy and therefore hamper their ability to reap society’s rewards. Individuals with low skill levels are more likely to be unemployed or in insecure, underpaid employment. Stasz et al (2004) further stress, however, that the current reforms in England are driven primarily by economic purposes and less by the need to address the problem of social exclusion.

### **Current opportunities for 14–19 year olds**

#### **14-16 education**

The 14–16 education and training agenda has emphasised the need to provide diverse and accessible vocational education at this level. Both the introduction of General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs)<sup>11</sup> in 1993 and more recent reforms for 14–16 provision (e.g. the introduction of applied GCSEs, the Increased Flexibility Programme (IFP), and the statutory requirement for work-related learning from September 2004) contributed to creating more opportunities for 14–16 year olds (Stasz et al, 2004). From autumn 2004, secondary schools were offered greater flexibility in the curriculum for 14–16 year olds. Subjects such

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<sup>11</sup> The GNVQ qualifications are being withdrawn in three stages from 2005 to 2007. In most vocational areas, alternative provision has been identified. Centres need to explore which alternatives will best meet their needs, and plan for their introduction. For more info please see [http://www.gnvqwithdrawals.com/gnvq\\_timescales.htm](http://www.gnvqwithdrawals.com/gnvq_timescales.htm)

as Design and Technology or modern foreign languages are no longer compulsory. At the same time, work-related learning became a requirement for all students, while collaboration between schools and colleges was encouraged to broaden access to suitable vocational courses, including the Young Apprenticeship Programme.

The Increased Flexibility Plan for 14–16 Year Olds programme has created partnerships between FE (Further Education) colleges, schools and training providers to enhance work-related learning opportunities for local 14–16 year olds. Government intends to expand this programme (Leney et al, 2004).

A range of vocational opportunities for this age group includes the following:

- Formal programmes and schemes leading to a qualification (e.g. GCSEs in vocational subjects, GNVQs, Young Enterprise programmes, etc);
- In addition to these programmes, young people can engage in vocational learning through the statutory requirement for work-related learning, disapplication of the National Curriculum or through participation in the IFP. From September 2004 all young people at Key Stage 4 will be required to meet the statutory requirement for work-related learning, and disapplication of the National Curriculum will be discontinued (Stasz et al, 2004).

Research conducted by McCrone and Morris (2004) observed that pre-16 vocational courses have been associated with a variety of purposes, such as to (1) widen young people's experiences pre-16, (2) act as a motivational tool, and (3) aid progression on to post-16 studies. Furthermore, work-related learning for this age group could potentially (1) improve motivation and attainment, (2) improve attendance and behaviour, (3) improve self-confidence, and (4) positively influence young people's choices of post-16 courses. The success of this agenda for pre-16 year olds may vary from context to context and depends largely on a number of external and internal factors such as teachers' competence and support for students, students' attitudes, individual biographies, financial and social set-up, etc.

### **16–19 education and training**

A wide range of vocational opportunities is available for learners at the end of compulsory education (from the age of 16), including:

- qualifications within the National Qualifications Framework;
- other qualifications outside the NQF (e.g. RSA or City & Guilds, vendor qualifications offered by Microsoft and others)
- short training courses (not necessarily leading to a qualification);
- publicly funded work-based training: e.g. Modern Apprenticeships (MA) (Foundation MAs at Level 2, Advanced MAs at Level 3).

The MA, introduced in 1994, is a government-supported work-based learning (WBL) programme. 16–24 year olds are currently eligible, but an extension of the programme to individuals aged 25 and above was announced in the Skills Strategy (DfES, 2003). The programme was first introduced at Level 3 only, but in 2001, was split into two phases – the Foundation Modern Apprenticeship (FMA) leading to NVQ Level 2, and the Advanced

Modern Apprenticeship (AMA) leading to NVQ Level 3. For the majority, learning takes place both in the workplace and off-site through day or block release at an FE college or with a private training provider, although some apprentices receive no off-the-job training (Stasz et al, 2004). The revised Modern Apprenticeships are a mixture of work-based training and education, which include the following basic elements:

- A National Vocational Qualification (NVQ)
- Key Skills, e.g. communication and application of number
- A technical certificate
- Other mandatory or optional elements as specified by the particular occupation.

### **National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs)**

NVQs are work-related, competence-based qualifications. They are based on national occupational standards which cover all the main aspects of an occupation, including current best practice, the ability to adapt to future requirements, and the knowledge and understanding that underpin competent performance. NVQs assess the skills and knowledge people need to do their jobs effectively. NVQs are modular, work-based and able to recognise prior achievements. They can be introduced into any organisation. NVQs give people opportunity to prove their competence in their work and gain official recognition for this. NVQs are divided into five levels. These are work-related levels of competence, which are defined as such:

- Level 1 - Foundation skills in occupations. Competence which involves the application of knowledge in the performance of a range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine and predictable.
- Level 2 - Operative or semi-skilled occupations. Competence which involves the application of knowledge in a significant range of varied work activities, performed in a variety of contexts. Some of these activities are complex or non-routine and there is some individual responsibility or autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement.
- Level 3 - Technician, craft, skilled and supervisory occupations. Competences which involve the application of knowledge in a broad range of varied work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts, most of which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy and control or guidance of others is often required.
- Level 4 - Technical and junior management occupations. Competence which involves the application of knowledge in a broad range of complex, technical or professional work activities performed in a variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility and autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present.
- Level 5 - Chartered, professional and senior management occupations. Competence which involves the application of a range of fundamental principles across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant

responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of substantial resources features strongly, as do personal accountabilities for analysis, diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation.

### **Key Skills offered as part of all post-16 curricula**

The Key Skills Qualification assesses achievement in Communication, Application of Number and Information Technology at one of Levels 1, 2 or 3. Each key skill is now separately assessed and certificated, and can be taken as a stand-alone qualification or as part of other vocational programmes.

### **Vocationally-related qualifications**

Vocational A levels (AVCEs) have replaced Advanced GNVQs and can be taken on a single-subject basis. Vocational A levels emphasise knowledge, skills and understanding in broad vocational areas and focus on investigative work and assignment writing. They also foster links with employers. Most students undertake work experience. Two-thirds of the work is internally assessed and externally moderated. The basic qualification is the 6-unit Vocational A level, equivalent to one GCE A level. There is also a 12-unit double award, equivalent to two A levels, and a 3-unit award equivalent to an AS in a limited number of subjects. AVCE and A level grades are aligned in terms of grading.

### **Other taught courses**

A range of other taught courses are available with varied provenance ranging from the Certificate in Ear Piercing offered by the Vocational Training Charitable Trust, through the Awarding Body Consortium's Certificate in Cake Decoration to the Certificate in Employment Skills awarded by the Northern Council for Further Education.

Learning contexts may be diverse, including sixth-form colleges and FE colleges, classrooms in schools, facilities offered by workplaces or training providers. Some programmes, e.g. Modern Apprenticeships, involve both on-the-job training and learning taking place in a college of further education.

A number of policy concerns associated with 16–19 VET have been summarised by Leney et al (2004) as follows:

- Participation and qualification levels lag behind those found in other advanced economies; social inequality in achievement of qualifications remains marked;
- Vocational courses have low status compared with general qualifications;
- 16–19 year olds in the UK study fewer subjects than in most other European countries, and this makes it difficult for the learner to acquire a broad, balanced and coherent range of knowledge and skills. However, in Scotland, pupils have traditionally studied a broader-based curriculum;
- A persistent systems issue is that 16–19 education is driven more by qualification and assessment issues than by learning needs.

Another issue of concern is linked to the question of confusion over a wide range of different qualifications or the “jungle-like landscape or post-compulsory training in the UK” (Unwin, 1999). In all there are 2015 different vocational qualifications approved for use by those under 18. Of these, some 1000 are NVQs which are not intended for full-time delivery in college and a further 200 are Key Skills qualifications. Leaving these aside we have 42 Vocational A levels, 39 of which can be taken as a double award and 12 of which can be taken in the half award format of an AS. There are 27 GCSEs in vocational subjects, with 77 GNVQs at Foundation and Intermediate levels. In addition there are 130 qualifications classed as General/Vocationally Relevant and 441 as Vocationally Related. These latter are offered by a total of 45 different awarding bodies. It would be fair to say that not only all sectors, but also virtually all lengths of course and styles of assessment are represented (West and Steedman, 2003). Furthermore, West and Steedman (2003) observe that one of the effects of the fragmentation of qualifications is that it is easy for young people to enter the wrong one, not just in terms of the occupation in question, but also in terms of level of difficulty and style of learning. Payne (2001) found very high levels of non-completion of post-16 qualifications, but in many cases apparently unsuccessful students had switched to a different qualification and had successfully completed this (sometimes moving up a level, rather than down):

A further, and very damaging, feature of the fragmented and turbulent vocational scene is that employers have little confidence – or indeed knowledge – of the awards whose main purpose is to prepare young people for entry to their businesses. Except for certain professional qualifications such as nurses and accountants, a scan of job advertisements rarely, if ever, reveals reference to recognised vocational qualifications. This is understandable when we reflect on how frequently English qualifications have been subject to change of name, change of awarding body, and so on.

### **Recent developments: White Paper 14-19 2005**

With regard to 14–19 education and training, the most important recent government publications include:

- The report of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) commissioned but independent Working groups on 14–19 Reform, chaired by Mike Tomlinson (2004);
- DfES White paper 14–19 Education and Skills (2005); and
- DfES Green paper Youth Matters (2005).

One of the key proposals of the report chaired by Mike Tomlinson (‘Tomlinson Report’) called for an introduction of a unified system of multi-level diplomas to replace all existing qualifications for 14–19 year olds. Although the report received widespread support from those working in the education sector (Hayward et al, 2005; Hodgson & Spours, 2005), its main proposal has not been included in the White Paper 14–19 Education and Skills published in 2005:

*The White Paper [...] argued for a stronger foundation at Key Stage (KS) 3 and a strong core 14–19 and new system of diplomas. It was seen by most commentators as a*

*deep disappointment. By insisting upon the preservation of the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) and the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at Advanced Level (A Level) as independent awards in their present form, the government would seem to have rejected the idea of a unified system of qualifications. Furthermore, most commentators interpreted the creation of separate vocational routes from the age of 14 leading to specialised diplomas as a reinforcement of a divided system (Hayward et al, 2005, p. 17).*

Hodgson and Spours (2005b) summarise the main points of the White paper as follows:

- a review of Key Stage 3, building on the Key Stage 3 Strategy and with a focus on ‘catch-up’ in the basics;
- GCSEs to be retained with a review of the role and nature of coursework;
- A Levels to be ‘strengthened’ by the introduction of harder questions, but to be designed around four rather than six units, with universities gaining access to marks as well as grades (A Levels will be reviewed in 2008);
- a separately accredited extended project at Level 3 to be introduced;
- specialised diplomas, at Levels 1-3, to be gradually phased in across 14 broad vocational ‘lines’ and delivered primarily in FE Centres of Vocational Excellence (COVEs) and newly-created Sector Skills Academies;
- a General Diploma to recognise the achievement of 5 A\*-C GCSE grades (or equivalent) including maths and English – this to become the new Level 2 benchmark for performance tables at 16;
- the development of units in functional maths and English, separately accredited for those who cannot achieve GCSE;
- an emphasis on collaboration in which schools, colleges and work-based providers work with Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and LSCs to develop a joint prospectus for an area.

Hodgson and Spours (2005b), however note that despite a broad professional consensus for radical long-term reform, the White Paper signals that little is likely to change in the foreseeable future. There are still GCSEs and A Levels as the ‘cornerstones’ of the ‘new system’; as well as performance tables based on qualifications at 16, albeit slightly broadened to include vocational awards. Hodgson and Spours (2005b) argue that the divided view of education that underpins the 14-19 White Paper 2005 stands in marked contrast to the unified and inclusive system outlined in the Tomlinson

## **8.2 Brief Overview of Prevocational Education and Training System**

### **Definitions and concepts**

The terminology and conceptual definitions related to various types of so-called ‘pre-vocational’ training for young people, especially disadvantaged ones, have been open to debate and interpretation among researchers and practitioners. It has been noted that the terms

‘vocational’ and ‘prevocational’ education are often used loosely and interchangeably (Ainley, 1990). What is more, as Loo (2001) observes, educational initiatives for disadvantaged young people and adults have been referred to in various ways, such as Vocational Preparation Movement (Bates et al, 1984); Vocational Education and Training (VET) (Ainley, 1990); or the ‘life preparation tradition’ (Pring, 1995).

Nevertheless it seems to be generally accepted that the broad aims of such kinds of initiative should include preparing young people to (1) enter the world of paid employment or vocational education and (2) participate in society (Ainley, 1990; Winch, 2003; Levy et al, 1989; Davies, 2003). Within the context of this study we draw on definitions given by Levy et al (1989) that provide a good basic insight into the nature of the terms ‘pre-vocational education’ and ‘vocational preparation’:

*Prevocational education refers primarily to educational provision for young people prior to their entry into the labour market or into vocational education. Prevocational education aims to provide access to the world of work by means which include work experience, but in the context of sampling or ‘tasting’ a range of jobs for purposes of informing choice and extending general education (p. 57).*

Building on a definition given by the Further Education Unit (FEU) (1987), Levy et al (1989, p. 57) define vocational preparation as

*The supportive process of education/training, relevant to the aspirations and potential of individuals, necessary to accompany vocational and/or occupational change (FEU, 1987).*

Levy et al (1989) argue that the two terms have similar aims such as developing the skills and competences applicable to adult life or building on learners’ education and training. For simplification and consistency we will refer to both terms as pre-vocational education/training.

Building on the research by Levey et al (1989) Ainley (1990) and Davies (2003), we consider pre-vocational education as a type of training that gives learners an opportunity to make an easier transition from school to work or further vocational training. In this sense, pre-vocational training would be what we define as an ‘orientation stage’ for those learners who do not have clear aims and would benefit from (1) learning about the world of employment or vocational training; (2) developing or building on various skills (including technical skills as well as personal and employability competences); and (3) tasting or sampling a range of vocational types of training. As Evans (1987) notes, such kinds of training seek to delay labour market entry while motivating young adults through ‘vocational relevance’ and the prospect of improved opportunities of obtaining employment at a later stage. In addition, as Pring (1995) argues, pre-vocational courses should be based on the needs of young people themselves and of the society into which they are entering.

## Social exclusion: target groups

Over the last decades, the topic of unemployment and social exclusion of young people and adults has become one of the significant areas of concern for both practitioners and policy-makers. A recent DfEE report observes that

*Certain groups amongst the long term unemployed are recognised as suffering from multiple disadvantages which have not only prevented them from participating effectively in the labour market, but have also acted as a barrier to participation in training schemes that may help them into employment. Such disadvantages may include personal and occupational skills, a lack of self-confidence or relevant work experience, or past experiences (such as mental illness or criminal activity) that may make them unattractive to employers (DfEE, 2001).*

Research undertaken by Atkinson and Kersley (1998) suggests that these target groups may experience the following common types of disadvantages:

- suffering from some kind of disability or long-term illness
- experiencing deficiency in basic skills, and as well as lacking in life skills
- being economically inactive
- experiencing lack of self-confidence (the major factor that was significantly holding them back in getting a job)
- experiencing lack of formal qualifications.

Golden et al (2002) have observed that disaffection and disengagement could stem from various factors that are related to social exclusion:

*Disaffection and disengagement amongst young people takes many forms but is usually associated with a lack of involvement and achievement in education, training or employment. Young people who are likely to become disaffected and disengaged include: those who have been excluded from school, care leavers, teenage parents, young offenders and young people with alcohol/drug dependency problems.*

Similar factors have been identified by a recent Social Exclusion Unit Report published in November 2005:

*Some young people suffer disproportionately from different types of disadvantage. These include homelessness, worklessness, lack of training or education and poor health (in particular, mental and sexual health). Young people are also at risk of becoming involved in anti-social behaviour, drug use and crime (SEU, 2005).*

What is more, the statistics provided by the SEU 2005 report demonstrate that the following problems contribute tremendously to the issues of social exclusion as well as disaffection and disengagement of young people:

- Over 1 million people in Great Britain aged between 16 and 24 are not in education, employment or training.

- Young men are the most likely victims of violent crime. They are also the most likely perpetrators of crime.
- It is estimated that nearly half of all 16–24 year olds in England and Wales have used illicit drugs. Reported Class A drug use among 20–24 year olds is three times higher than that in the general population.
- Suicide is the cause of a quarter of the deaths among 16–24-year-old men.

### **Political context and historical background**

In the last decades there have been numerous attempts to introduce programmes to address the problems of youth unemployment and social disintegration. The important milestone that facilitated the great debate in the education sector was James Callaghan's famous speech at Ruskin College (Oxford) when he emphasised the demand for the creation of a National Curriculum and commented on poor preparation of learners for the world of employment. Political and economic factors encouraged the implementation of various pre-vocational training initiatives that have been shaped since the 1970s (Evans, 1991). As Pring (1995) notes:

*In the mid seventies many young people remained in full-time education, not because they wanted to, but because there was nowhere else for them to go. [...] They had no clear picture of a vocational route into training and employment. Normally such students would have proceeded straight from school to work, often with no further education or training. But the country was then beginning to suffer a level unemployment that hit hard the young school leaver without qualification or useful skills (pp. 59–60).*

Three major policy problems included (1) steady growth in youth unemployment; (2) widespread demands for education to become more relevant to the demands of an advanced industrial nation; and (3) the poor record of British industry (Evans, 1991, p. 54).

'A Basis for Choice', published by the FEU in 1979, became an important policy paper in this context (FEU, 1982). The document proposed a framework of general education within which there would be sufficient orientation to enable students to choose more intelligently their routes into the adult world, particularly that of employment. Such courses would provide a basis for choice (Pring, 1995). *A Basis for Choice* also stressed the importance of developing learners' transferable skills 'to ensure that options can be kept open for students' (FEU, 1982). Furthermore, a review of course conducted on behalf of the Further Education Unit (Pratley, 1982) identified that the student on such programmes is likely to need help such areas as (1) general education, particularly language and numeracy; (2) job-finding skills; (3) particular knowledge and abilities relating to one or more areas of employment; and (4) personal development.

Through the Manpower Services Commission<sup>12</sup> (MSC) some important programmes were initiated in the 1970s to develop schemes for unemployed young people, such as the Job

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<sup>12</sup> Later succeeded by the Training Agency

Creation Programme (JCP) and Work Experience Programme (WEP), later succeeded by the Youth Opportunities Scheme. The scheme introduced a six-month ‘employment programme’ – work experience, training and work preparation courses for unemployed school leavers. The programme, however, did not prove to be successful in terms of solving the problems of either unemployment or social exclusion. An additional concern with these programmes was related to the widespread abuses by employers who often saw these schemes as a source of cheap labour (Evans, 1991).

These rather ineffective initiatives were replaced by the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) in 1983. It was intended to be a modernised apprenticeship for everybody, committed to providing places for all 16- and 17-year-old school-leavers who were out of work in order to enhance their ‘employability’ (Lucas, 2001). The four-year Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) and the one-year Certificate in Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) were introduced in 1983 and 1986, respectively. TVEI was introduced to offer full-time students aged 14–18 ‘a four year course combining general with technical and vocational education’ in schools. The primary aim of this initiative was to make what was taught in schools be relevant to the world of work. The CPVE included common core options for developing skills in selected occupational areas, ‘job seeking and enterprise skills’, and local employers. As Evans (1989) notes, the initiatives introduced in the 1980s

*[...] presented a confusing array of possible pathways to young people as well as to teachers, counsellors and parents who seek to guide them and the companies who might offer them employment (pp. 55–56).*

Taking the CPVE initiative further, General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) were introduced at three levels (Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced). They were aimed at young people who wanted to keep their career options open and so were not ready to embark on specific NVQs.

During the 1980s further education colleges played an important role in providing ‘new vocational’ or ‘pre-vocational’ programmes by offering a range of courses which emphasised preparation for work in general, not for specific jobs (Lucas, 2001). In 1990 Youth Training replaced the Youth Training Scheme and became a significant programme for unemployed 16- and 17-year-olds until April 1998 when it was replaced by Work Based Training for Young People. Youth Training was delivered by training providers under contract to the local Training and Enterprise Council. Work Based Training for Young People has retained most of the main characteristics of Youth Training.

The introduction in the mid 1990s of GNVQs to be taken by 14- to 16-year-olds and, more recently, GCSEs in applied subjects, means that aspects of a 14- to 16-year-old’s programme of studies may be vocationally related, providing what Pring (1995) defined as ‘the prevocational context’. As has been considered above, the developments in pre-vocational education and training include both government initiatives (e.g. Work based Training for Young People) and training provided by colleges of further education and secondary schools. Below is an example of how one of the colleges of further education (Bournemouth & Poole College) defines the aims and objectives of its pre-vocational training course:

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*The major emphasis of the programme is on the identification of existing and potential abilities of individual students and the development in order to maximise their present and future quality of life. It focuses on vocational studies, life and basic skills and the promotion of independent living to enable progress to further study, training or employment. Our Pre-Vocational programme includes work experience and work related short courses. (The Bournemouth & Poole College Prospectus, 2006).*

In addition, a range of pre-vocational training may be provided by private companies and voluntary non-profit organisations.

With all the variety of pre-vocational training courses that could be offered in different contexts (e.g. college or workplace), there are certain common features of this type of learning, such as incorporation of vocational relevance, providing opportunities for sampling or ‘tasting’ a range of jobs for purposes of informing choice; taking into account individual needs and circumstances of young people. Pring (1995) emphasises that the main stress of pre-vocational training should be upon the processes (no outputs) that embrace characteristics such as a more experienced and practical mode of learning; the utilisation of the community, including the world of work; reflection upon personal and social relevance, requiring guidance and counselling; personal learning agendas, requiring the negotiation of learning objectives and the capacity to work and communicate with others.

The next section will demonstrate the way the modularisation of both vocational and pre-vocational education may facilitate further engagement and positive learning outcomes of young people.

## **8.3 Role of Modularisation**

### **8.3.1 Role of Modularisation in Vocational Education and Training**

Within the context of VET the term modularisation has often been related to opportunities to reform vocational education and renew its curriculum at all levels (Sellin, 1994). Modularisation has been seen as a challenging and innovative strategy for creating a more flexible curriculum (Young, 1994; Sellin, 1995; Hodgson and Spours, 1997). In the literature, modules have been defined as self-contained units of learning (Badley and Marshall, 1995; Raffe, 1994) ‘with at least three distinctive characteristics: they are short; they may be combined in different ways to form programmes of study; and [...] they are separately and concurrently assessed’ (Raffe, 1994). The question of whether modules are valuable as basically free-standing or if they would make sense only in the context of the wider structure of qualifications has been raised by Ertl (2000). He draws on research undertaken by Sloane (1997) that emphasises the twofold character of modules regarding them as wholes in themselves but also stressing that the modules need to be embedded into a bigger whole. Another area of discussion picked up on by Ertl (2000) has to do with the lack of clarity in the use of the terms ‘module’ and ‘unit’, which are often being used either interchangeably or to mark a difference. Within the UK context, the FEU (1995) describes units as coherent and

explicit sets of learning outcomes. Module is defined as a sub-set of learning programmes. The FEU (1995) further stresses that:

*The analysis of intended achievements into coherent groups of learning outcomes or 'units' makes modular delivery easier to implement [...].*

In the UK context, modularisation was first introduced as a series of local initiatives developed by a group of teachers in the early 1980s (Young, 1994). Prior to the introduction of the National Curriculum and GCSEs, modularisation was seen as a tool for redesigning the curriculum, particularly in secondary schools, in order to provide a structure, delivery models and accreditation for learning which fell outside the formal qualification system (Hodgson and Spours, 1997). Since the mid 1980s and throughout the 1990s, educational development in England has been characterised by the growing role of modularisation in the 14–19+ curriculum. Modularisation has been associated with both subject-based and vocational qualifications through modular GCSEs and A Levels and 'unitised' GNVQs (Richardson et al, 1995). Hodgson and Spours (1997) observe that even where schools and colleges have not taken up a modular syllabus, there has been the spread of 'informal internal modularisation' (e.g. within linear GCSE syllabuses this refers to the emphasis on more frequent and earlier formative assessment) (p. 109). Further education colleges have expressed not only an interest in modular syllabuses but have also used unitisation of learning outcomes as a tool for increasing curriculum flexibility (Hodgson and Spours, 1997). Ainley (1990) notes that in further education colleges, profiling and modular assessments were introduced both (1) as a way to break down old courses into digestible units and to increase learners' motivation and (2) to establish flexible control over a fluid situation.

The adoption of government policies centred on competence-based strategies like the YTS has provided further impetus for the development and implementation of modular on a national scale (Ertl, 2000). In addition to the national qualifications, private providers of education (e.g. The Business and Technology Education Council, City and Guilds of London Institute and Royal Society of Arts) follow their own modular strategies (Ertl, 2000).

### **Modularisation in NVQs**

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) are work-related, competence-based qualifications. They reflect the skills and knowledge needed to do a job effectively, and show that a candidate is competent in the area of work the NVQ represents. The qualifications are characterised by their modular structure: they are formed by a specified number of learning units which correspond closely to the skills and knowledge required for a certain occupation (Ertl, 2000). A unit comprises a coherent and explicit set of learning outcomes, such as the elements of competence in an NVQ (Richardson et al, 1995). An *element of competence* and its associated *performance criteria* and *range of statements* are referred to as occupational standards (Ertl, 2000). Ertl (2000) further notes that within the NVQ system each element of competence has to be accompanied by knowledge specifications (what knowledge is considered necessary) and evidence requirements (the minimum performance evidence acceptable; the quantity of particular types of evidence and evidence gathering methods). One or more elements of competence and the associated performance criteria and range of

statement form a unit of competence. The units are grouped to form an overall qualification. This structure provides a considerable degree of flexibility to the way in which NVQs can be built up through credit accumulation over time and in different locations (Ertl, 2000).

### 8.3.2 Role of Modularisation in Prevocational Education and Training

#### Potential benefits of modularisation in pre-vocational education and training.

Within the UK pre-vocational/vocational context, modularisation has been seen as a positive development that can ‘not only respond to changing patterns of participation but as a means of developing a more flexible, unified and coherent education system’ (Hodgson and Spours, 1997, p. 105). Research undertaken by Raffe (1994, pp. 9–10) summarises a number of potential benefits of modularisation. First he highlights the issue of *individual differentiation* stressing that a combination of modules in a programme of study can be chosen to take account of individual needs, interests, circumstances, past training and skills already acquired; the place, timing and method of learning within a module may be varied to suit individual needs. Another positive development (Raffe, 1994, pp. 9–10) is associated with credit *accumulation and transfer which means that*

- individuals receive credit for small units of learning;
- short-term targets provide an additional incentive to train;
- future course choices are flexible and students can re-orient, extend or update their skills.

In addition, modules may enhance students’ motivation and provide curriculum ‘breadth’ meaning that they can be used to develop transferable skills or as a basis for integrating different curriculum elements. The organisation of vocational training in modules means that the training offer can be tailored to individual needs in line with (1) prior learning and/or occupational experience of the participants; and (2) the time (s)he has available during employment or other working situations (Sellin, 1995). Hodgson (1994) also notes that modularisation of the curriculum is perceived as an attractive development strategy as ‘it is immediately understandable, offers tangible outcomes and initially appears manageable and workable’ (p. 23).

#### Modularisation in GNVQs

GNVQ currently exists at foundation and intermediate levels (Levels 1 and 2). The GNVQ is a suite of general vocational qualifications, providing an introduction to a broad vocational area. It is available in 14 titles and offers progression to training for employment and further study at levels 2 and 3. It is primarily delivered in further education institutions to post-16 students on programmes that normally last one or two years. Each GNVQ consists of six units; four are assessed internally by a portfolio of coursework and two are externally assessed. Ertl (2000) describes the unitised structure of GNVQs as corresponding to the NVQ model:

*Elements of achievements and associated performance criteria, range of statements and evidence indicators are grouped into units which are in turn grouped into the full*

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*qualification[...]* GNVQ units are defined in terms of outcomes which the students must achieve (p. 58)

As in NVQs units in GNVQs can be assessed and certificated separately and can be grouped in to the full qualification.

### **8.3.3 Accreditation and Certification of Modules**

See also chapter 2.6

Modules are usually linked one to another to compose a combination of skills and qualifications. To achieve a certificate or to gain qualification candidates must gain credits by completing certain challenges/tasks and provide an evidence to demonstrate skills development in chosen areas at the appropriate level.

For example in order to achieve a Certificate of Personal Effectiveness which one of ASDANs programmes (see the next chapter for more info about ASDAN) candidates will need to:

- complete a number of activities or challenges to develop skills in six areas and achieve a required number of credits. These challenges are organised into a broad range of modules which comprise the core curriculum;
- produce an action plan, record achievements and review progress on challenges with a tutor;
- present an organised Portfolio of Evidence;
- complete the Assessment checklist (provided by the tutor/assessor, which cross-reference evidence to meet the requirement of the qualification.

To demonstrate working at the appropriate level, candidates are required to use the Evidence Proforma provided by ASDAN which supports the consistent production of evidence. These are Plan/Do/Review documents; Evidence Sheets; Observation Checklists.

Candidates who do not achieve the full qualification requirement of six units will receive certification for units successfully achieved.

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