Vanna Boffo
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Educational Jobs: Youth and Employability in the Social Economy

Investigations in Italy, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Spain, United Kingdom

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FOREWORD

Vanna Boffo, Paolo Federighi, Francesca Torlone

This study has been carried out to understand the priority initiatives that can be undertaken by the social economy organizations themselves and the institutions with educational tasks (university, secondary schools, training centres) to foster the meeting of the supply and employment demand for qualified young people.

The importance of the social economy for youth employment has grown in the recession years. While many enterprises were closing down or reducing staff numbers, many cooperatives and social enterprises increased their employees by as much as 2% per year, and in this study we even see cases where in the five-year period from 2008 to 2012 employment doubled. That big world of the social and solidaristic economy, consisting of non-profit enterprises, associations, mutual foundations and ethical finance, etc. gives work to 14.5 million people in Europe. It has never been considered an economic element, but rather a social component. Over the last decades, it has proven to be an important actor in responding to the need to expand youth employment. «The social economy […] increased more than proportionately between 2002–03 and 2009-10, increasing from 6% to 6.5% of total European paid employment and from 11 million to 14.5 million jobs» (European Commission, 2013c: 45).

With this study, we intended to focus our attention on the impact that the social economy has on the employment of young people and, in particular, on how to scale down the barriers and obstacles that produce the *mismatch* between employment supply and demand, both in terms of the competences required by the labour market and produced by the training curricula, and of the ends and sense of the training courses and the need to prepare young people to enter and, above all, stay in the labour market. Hence, from all the material gathered, we have chosen to report and analyse the empirical material on 52 case studies relating to organizations operating in sectors with a hypothetically high potential for the expansion of employment among young people with or without suitable levels of education.

Also coming about to aid the employment of *non-skilled workers*, the social economy has been characterized by a demand for competences

that do not necessarily require a high level of qualifications. However, today, faced with the evolution in requirements from the population and institutions, it has ventured into areas and sectors that require growing levels of qualifications and specializations. The study of the employment trends in the sample in question provides a clear indication that the increase in employment demand is mainly for young people with high skill levels.

Starting from these premises, we tried to analyse and investigate some features of the demand for competences in the most important sectors of the social economy which, more than others, absorb the supply of workers with qualifications in the educational, training and social sectors. The aim of studying the demand was to draw indications on ways to build initial training curricula for some of the professional families required by this specific sector of the labour market. As a whole, the investigation is all the richer thanks to its comparative dimension, since it is based on findings from the SALM project and takes into consideration the cases of organizations working in Portugal, Malta, Romania, Scotland, Spain and Tuscany.

The work carried out enabled us to begin to gain a clearer definition of the access to a specific labour market, which is nevertheless of central importance for the sustainability of services for citizens. Where in Europe, until two or three decades ago, support for the educational/training/social care of the human person was theorized through state intervention and only possible in the most economically advanced countries, at present we are in a time, accelerated by the world crisis of 2007–2008, in which these educational, cultural, social and care services are managed by forms of a different economy from that of the nation–state. In this sense, it is important and strategic to understand the link between building *employability* for young people who want to enter this specific labour market and the requests for competences coming from the employers and the users of these markets, for the future of the educational professions, for the improvement of service quality standards, and for the personal and social well-being of all the actors who can and want to help innovate and transfer ideas and measures for the future of our societies. In relation to this, given that measures are required to accompany young people in their integration in the labour market, we have developed, albeit not at a comparative level, applied research activities in the sphere of *placement* and *job 'formation'* in the educational and care professions. In addition, we have studied and tested a toolkit to improve the young people's competences and employability, as well as their self-employment and entrepreneurship.

The research methodology has an empirical nature and the tools used to find the data – case studies and focus groups – were shared by all the

countries involved. The comparison enabled by adopting the same technique, which was defined by distributing a questionnaire, is a strong point of the shared work. First of all, we made a survey among the companies in the sample using qualitative and quantitative interviews. Then we focused on a total of 52 case studies which gave the scientific material and hence the evidence on the mismatch between supply and demand, the definition of competences, the tools to build *employability*, the bond with the educational curricula, the request for high-level professional profiles by the sectors investigated, and the extensive job opportunities, despite the crisis.

The chapters in the volume start by framing the problem and defining the relationship between young people, labour market and educational and training pathways (chapters 1 and 2).

Chapter 3 deals with the methodological issues of the research carried out in the different European countries, focusing on the qualitative and quantitative tools such as the case study and the focus group and the technique of interviewing with a questionnaire, also put together to find quantitative and qualitative data.

The results are analysed in chapter 4, while chapter 5 deals with the interpretative dimensions, providing evidence to resolve the problem of the mismatch on one hand, and taking a closer look at various professional profiles that emerge from the innovative world of social economy work on the other.

Chapter 6 tackles the topic of *employability/placement* from the viewpoint of higher education training courses and chapter 7 describes an operational tool to build competences for the social economy.

Lastly, chapter 7 makes an evaluation of the research process and provides a concluding reflection on the proposal made to the scientific community by the study and all its methods, data and analysis.

The papers featured are based on preliminary studies that examined issues surrounding youth employment, focusing on the policies devoted to ensuring that young workers are adequately skilled to gain opportunities within today's labour markets, and on 'demand-side issues' such as job creation strategies and the development of better quality employment. In this publication we present just one of the studies carried out, devoted to examining the balance between demand and supply policies in Scotland.

It was possible to perform and collect these studies thanks to the precious work carried out by Roberto Carneiro of Universidade Católica Portuguesa – CEPCEP – Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa in coordinating the SALM project – *Skills and Labour Market to Raise Youth Employment*.

Taking part in the study group were:

Paolo Federighi, Coeditor, Università degli Studi di Firenze (Italy); Simone Baglioni, Glasgow Caledonian University (United Kingdom); Vanna Boffo, Coeditor, Università degli Studi di Firenze (Italy); Roberto Carneiro, Universidade Católica Portuguesa–Faculdade de Ciências Humanas, Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP (Portugal); Fernando Chau, Universidade Católica Portuguesa–Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP (Portugal); Cristina Dugan, SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL (Romania); Alexandru Dumitru, SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL (Romania); Luis García, Fundación Ronsel (Spain); Alexander Krauß, ISOB–Institut für sozialwissenschaftliche Beratung GmbH (Germany), George Mangion, Institute of Tourism Studies (Malta); Rachael MacLeod, Glasgow Caledonian University (United Kingdom); Gabriele Marchl, ISOB–Institut für sozialwissenschaftliche Beratung GmbH (Germany); Alina Marinoiu, SC Global Commercium Development SRL (Romania); Micaela Mazzei, Glasgow Caledonian University (United Kingdom); Maressa McConkey, ISOB–Institut für sozialwissenschaftliche Beratung GmbH (Germany); Tom Montgomery, Glasgow Caledonian University (United Kingdom); Patricia Mouro, Fundación Ronsel (Spain); Cristina Partal, SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL (Romania); Cândida Soares, Universidade Católica Portuguesa–Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP (Portugal); José António Sousa Fialho, Universidade Catolica Portuguesa–Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP (Portugal); Gerhard Stark, ISOB–Institut für sozialwissenschaftliche Beratung GmbH (Germany); Francesca Torlone, Coeditor – Università degli Studi di Firenze (Italy); Rafael Vázquez, Fundación Ronsel (Spain); Vanda Vieira, Centro de Formação Profissional para o Comércio e Afins (Portugal); Roxana Weiss-Anton, SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL (Romania); Mario Zammit, Institute of Tourism Studies (Malta).

The research in Tuscany was performed thanks to the involvement of students enrolled in the 2013–2014 academic year of the University of Florence masters course in *Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science*. The following students materially performed the field interviews while frequenting the *Foundations of Adult Education* course held by Prof. Paolo Federighi and the *Research Methodology: Basic and Applied to Education and Training* course held by Prof. Vanna Boffo:

Simone Abbate, Elisa Barni, Gabriele Biagini, Anna Burchietti, Federica Caciolli, Rosa Cagnazzo, Giulia Calcagno, Elena Carradori, Elisa Cerbai, Valentina Chianura, Francesco de Maria, Francesca de Palma,

Matilde Emiliani, Giacomo Fabbri, Alessandra Fuso, Denise Girardi, Ilaria La Peruta, Giulia Lorenzini, Tiziana Mammoliti, Barbara Mari, Lucilla Martellini o Nocentini, Giulia Mazzolani, Maria Rita Meloni, Serena Morelli, Clara Morieri, Barbara Ninci, Matilde Sinisgalli, Carlo Terzaroli and Mariana Vuckovic.

Florence, 30th March 2015

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION. THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

*Roberto Carneiro, Fernando Chau, Candida Soares,
José António Sousa Fialho*

1. Youth and the Labour Market

In Europe, since 2008, youth unemployment has been one of the most pressing political, economic and social issues confronting the majority of the EU member states. The high levels of youth unemployment observed in many EU countries are a waste of human potential, and an important barrier to a flourishing society supported by lifelong learning policies. It also raises the risk of social stress by creating a disaffected 'lost generation', an easy target for criminal or extremist movements[1]. Lifelong learning strategies play an important role in enhancing our societies' sustainable future as they enable learners to obtain the knowledge and understanding, skills and competences, and attitudes and values needed for their personal development, which are, as many SALM research stakeholders argue, main assets to help young people in the transition to a productive and meaningful life. This is so as they promote positive attitudes in young people towards the challenges of cooperation, (self-) employment and entrepreneurship.

Young people entering the job market today are at high risk of unemployment or of precarious job contracts. Some youth who are neither working nor studying or in vocational training – the so-called NEETs (not in education, employment or training) – are effectively cut off from improving their skills and learning and, marginalized from the labour market, risk becoming socially excluded; ultimately, they may turn to anti-social behaviour.

Sharp increases in youth unemployment and underemployment have added to long-standing structural obstacles, preventing many young people in EU countries from either developing the skills they need or being able to use them in an effective way through a successful transition from school to the labour market. Econometric evidence presented in Hobijn

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[1] According to press reports, the number of young Europeans that recently joined extremist (and barbarous) groups in the Middle East is in the thousands.

and Şahin (2012)[2] shows that the recent increase in unemployment in the US, Portugal, Spain and UK can be attributed to a skill mismatch. Direct feedback from employers provides an interesting perspective on the types of skills valued in the workplace. A fairly typical finding is that employers, aside from formal educational or technical qualifications, also place a high value on attitudes and behaviours. For example, in some surveys, employers place a high value on their employees' ability to work independently, communicate, solve problems, and be effective in teamwork and time management.

Employers using new technologies need to base hiring decisions not just on the potential workers' education, but also on non-cognitive skills that allow some people to excel at learning on the job; they need to design pay structures to retain workers who do learn, yet not encumber employee mobility and knowledge sharing, which are often key to informal learning; and they need to design business models that enable workers to learn effectively on the job.

The skills gap remains an important topic of academic research. Researchers have not reached a consensus, as the measurement of this gap remains elusive. However, new technologies frequently require specific new skills that businesses find hard to fill. For example, since IT has radically changed a lot of work over the last couple of decades, employers face persistent difficulties in finding workers who can make the most of these new technologies.

The process of ageing in our societies will increase demand for elderly care services as well as senior tourism, among others. The latest Eurostat population projection exercise up to 2060 was analyzed by the Commission in *The 2015 Ageing Report* (2014b). This report sees no changes in the major trends of progressive ageing in the European Union; one of the driving forces of this phenomenon has been the fall in total fertility rates[3] in the member states for many decades and, despite a recent rebound in many countries, they remain below the replacement level[4] in most EU countries; increasing life expectancy, a welcome sign of social and science progress, also 'contributes' to the ageing process (Eurostat, 2012).

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[2] «We find that the skill mismatch, resulting from a housing bust and a disproportionate decline in construction employment, is likely to be the main cause of the shifts in Portugal, Spain, and the UK» (Hobijn, Şahin, 2012: 3).

[3] The total fertility rate represents the number of children that would be born to a woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years and bear children in accordance with current age-specific fertility rates (see http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.TFRT.IN, 03/2015).

[4] The fertility 'replacement level' is defined as the cohort fertility rate of 2.1 children per woman, which would ensure the replacement of the previous generation, and therefore population stability, assuming no net migration and no change in mortality rates (OECD, 2012).

Furthermore, family structure and size have changed over the past few decades in most EU countries, towards smaller units, away from the extensive family type. These developments have significant impacts on (current and future) informal family support networks; they are coming under pressure as the declining number of children will lead to a reduction of future informal carers for the elderly population. Our societies are introducing innovative ways to help informal carers (Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa, 2012).

The Cedefop report (2008) predicts that by the year 2020 almost three quarters of jobs in the EU-25 will be in services; employment in non-market services (and especially healthcare and the social service sector) is expected to increase by slightly more than 4.7 million. According to Eurostat data, in 2010 social services employed about 10% and in 2014 close to 11% of the total workforce. There is, therefore, real need to provide NEETs and young people in general with the right skills to get a job and labour market experience in these sectors. For the number of employees, in 2014 the three NACE activities[5] accounted for about 22/23 million jobs in the EU, ranging from 4.6 to 4.9 million in Germany, 3.7 to 3.9 million in UK, 3.3 to 3.7 million in France, 1.6 to 1.8 million in Italy, 1.4 million in Spain and in the Netherlands, 370 thousand in Romania and Portugal and 16 thousand in Malta.

According to the *Most New Jobs* report by the US Bureau of Labor Statistics (published on 8 January 2014[6]), personal care aide is the occupation with the highest number of new jobs projected for the period 2012-2022 (580.8 thousand). An opinion published in the Portuguese newspaper *Público* (29 December 2013), entitled *Saúde pode criar milhares de postos de trabalho*[7], indicated that Portugal should explore health tourism (Mendes *et al.*, 2015), which is expected to grow strongly in the future. Mendes (2012) explores potential new jobs for senior tourism in the Portuguese good practice case of INATEL. There is, therefore, real demand for employing NEETs and young people in general with the right skills and labour market experience in these sectors.

Lastly, there is also the issue of an awareness gap: young people have insufficient information about job prospects in the social services and senior tourism sectors. Moreover, counsellors need support and networking with entrepreneurs in these sectors to get their job done.

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[5] NACE 86-Human health activities; NACE 87-Residential care activities; NACE 88-Social work activities without accommodation – activities covering (formal) social sector services. Eurostat database [lfsq_egan22d & lfsa_epgn62], downloaded on 20 April 2015.

[6] http://www.bls.gov/ooh/most-new-jobs.htm (03/2015).

[7] http://www.publico.pt/sociedade/noticia/saude-pode-criar-milhares-de-postos-de-trabalho-1617752 (03/2015).

All these issues impact upon public policy and the roles stakeholders play in reinforcing youth participation in lifelong learning and reducing youth unemployment. Policy makers also need to think differently about skills, encouraging attractive and inclusive European VET systems (main strategic objectives of the Bruges Communiqué[8]), as well as high quality initial VET (IVET), easily accessible and career-oriented continuing VET (CVET) and flexible systems of VET based on a learning outcomes approach.

Other key transversal objectives are related to the greater involvement of VET stakeholders and increased cooperation between VET policy and other policy areas.

2. Challenges and Solutions to Youth Employment. The Demand and Supply Sides (Overview)

In the research we have mapped trends in youth (un)employment as well as policies and specific programmes that governments – at various levels – have deployed to foster youth employment.

Challenges to reduce youth employment have been detected on both the supply and the demand sides.

On the *supply side*, the most salient challenges to youth employment consists of:
- young people's demotivation and disengagement (due to the lack of work opportunities) which keeps them from actively seeking a job or even from re-engaging with studying;
- early school leaving;
- poor educational attainment;
- social class bias and similar socio-cultural features (ethnic minorities, migrants, women) or issues of physical and intellectual capability (disabled people).

On the *demand side*, the most salient challenges to youth employment consist of:
- economic circumstances limiting the capacities of the private and public sector to create jobs;
- lack of entrepreneurial skills and capabilities;
- young people's lack of work readiness (young people are often seen as overeducated but under-skilled);
- business preference for flexible and non-standard working contracts.

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[8] Final step of the Copenhagen Process launched in 2002.

In Portugal, the *Impulso Jovem*[9] programme includes measures to help young people find a job, to further (or return to) education and training, and to find paid internships. It provides subsidies for six months or longer to private companies who hire individuals registered in the IEFP database or at professional training centres and establishes mandatory training in the workplace, which is expected to be provided by the hiring companies. At the end of December 2014[10], there were 70,498 internships in Portugal managed by the IEFP (Portuguese Public Employment Services). Targeted at NEETs in Portugal, the Active Youth Employment (*Emprego Jovem Activo*) programme was launched in July 2014. The programme's mandate is to facilitate the social insertion of young people who have not completed compulsory education (12 years). Under the supervision of higher-qualified individuals, selected low-qualified young people are invited to contribute to a six-month project in an environment of peer learning in order to develop professional, social and emotional skills, such as the ability to meet deadlines, collaborate with others and work autonomously.

In order to raise the responsiveness and adaptability of VET systems to emerging needs, Portugal's National Catalogue of Qualifications[11] constitutes an important management tool; it is a repository of strategic and relevant qualifications for the country's economic and social development (by ANQEP[12], 2014). The catalogue includes alternative responses to sectoral, regional and even local specificities with the creation of different sets of optional Short Duration Training Units, which are designed to meet local and regional needs. Updating qualifications in the catalogue mainly lies with the Sector Councils for Qualifications and the entities of the National Qualifications System, through the Open Model of Consultation (*Modelo Aberto de Consulta*) created by ANQEP.

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[9] Created by the *Resolução do Conselho de Ministros* n. 36/2013, of 4 June (Portuguese Government Resolution n. 36/2013), https://www.garantiajovem.pt/ (03/2015). Public Employment service centres in major towns and cities in Portugal (IEFP-*Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional,* Portuguese Public Employment Services), local NGOs or schools and *Gabinete de Inserção Profissional* from local council services provide the physical locations to implement the measures of Garantia Jovem.

[10] IEFP (2014), *Relatório de Execução Física e Financeira* (Dezembro), p. 13, Inserção Profissional, htttp://portal.iefp.pt (03/2015).

[11] Portugal set up the National Qualifications System (NQS) in 2007, a framework for relationships and linkages between education, professional training and employment. It has also created new organizational structures and instruments, namely ANQEP; the National Catalogue of Qualifications (NCQ), the training providers' network; the CQEP network; and the Sector Councils for Qualification (CSQ).

[12] Agência Nacional para a Qualificação e o Ensino Profissional – National Agency for Qualification and Vocational Education and Training.

Recent active youth employment and training policies are *Opportunities for All* as well as *The Glasgow Youth Employment Partnership*[13] in Scotland, *Job Experience Scheme* in Malta, *Giovani Sì* in Tuscany and *Empreendimento y auto empleo* in Spain.

On the demand side, the following policies were enacted recently to reduce youth unemployment and raise training: tax incentives (Portugal, Tuscany), salary compensations (Portugal, Tuscany, Malta), *Estímulo 13* (Portugal), micro-credit (Portugal, Scotland, Tuscany), third sector – social economy (Portugal, Spain, Scotland, Tuscany), and work readiness programmes (Malta, Portugal, Scotland).

The following table summarizes the major youth employment and training challenges and policies in the countries involved in the research.

Table 1 – Challenges and policies for youth employment: the demand and the supply sides (an overview).

	Supply-side	Demand-side
Challenges	• Disengagement due to long-term unemployment and under-employment and biographical circumstances • Early school leaving • Lack of education and/or skills and attitudes • Lack of work experience	• Lack of opportunities for job creation • If new jobs are created, permanent positions are avoided in favour of atypical or fixed-term contracts • Young people are not 'ready for work', better to hire experienced workers • Young people are overeducated but under-skilled
Examples of Policies	• Impulso Jovem (Portugal) • Opportunities for All (Scotland) • Certification for Work Readiness (Scotland) • Job Experience Scheme (Malta) • Giovani Sì (Tuscany) • Empreendimento y auto empleo (Spain)	• Tax incentives (Portugal, Tuscany) • Salary compensations (Portugal, Tuscany, Malta) • Estímulo 13 (Portugal) • Micro-credit (Portugal, Scotland, Tuscany) • Third sector – social economy (Portugal, Spain, Scotland, Tuscany) • Work readiness programmes (Malta, Portugal, Scotland)

Source: SALM Good Practices Synthesis Report (2014)[14]

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[13] Drawn up on the piloting of the Scottish Activity Agreements programme to meet the needs of young people identified as at risk in their penultimate year of compulsory education. The programme provides coaches who work with the young people on a one-to-one basis. The feedback and results of this initiative in Glasgow have been encouraging. The national evaluation of the pilots shows that the city has undertaken more agreements than any other area and with a higher rate of success – 48% of the city's 601 participants have achieved positive outcomes as a result. OECD (2014), *Job Creation and Local Economic Development*, Oecd Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264215009-en (03/2015).

[14] Working document (not published).

In the context of VET initiatives, the *European Alliance for Apprentice-ships* (EafA) needs to be mentioned. It is jointly coordinated by the European Commission's Directorate General for Education and Culture and the Directorate–General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion, with the aim of bringing together public authorities, businesses, social partners, VET providers, youth representatives, and other key actors in order to promote apprenticeship schemes and initiatives across Europe (for example, Germany, with successful experiences in VET, supports efforts in Greece, Italy, Latvia, Portugal, Slovakia and Spain on VET reform).

3. The Aims of the Study

The SALM research aimed to contribute to the development of innovative approaches and specific instruments to reduce youth unemployment, equipping young people with the right skills for employment, which is considered crucial for the 2020 Strategy employment target and better social inclusion, and for the effective participation in lifelong learning. In particular, the focus was on the lack of competences and skills, and the opportunities generated by the needs of the market in social economy sectors[15], considering for instance senior tourism and social services.

The aim of the research was to develop vocational skills by considering labour market needs, in line with the improvement of sectoral identification and anticipation of skill and competence needs.

Indeed, empirical analyses show that youth employability does not only depend on the acquisition of technical skills. Cognitive and noncognitive skills (such as, literacy and numeracy for the former, self–control and discipline for the latter), in part acquired in early childhood and during basic and secondary schooling, are also important determinants of lifelong employment dynamics and earnings.

The specific objectives of the research were:
- to deepen the knowledge of policies and practices to raise youth employment in partner countries;
- to develop a comparative analysis at sectoral level of existing policies and practices;
- to identify the effectiveness of the different measures and practices adopted to fight the mismatches in competences in social economy sectors (like social services and senior tourism);

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[15] For a definition of the social economy see chapter 5 in this book. Paolo Federighi analyzes and proposes a definition of the social economy from the international scientific literature. For a discussion on senior tourism see Bernardo R. (2012), *Sénior, o Turista do Futuro: Um Estudo Abrangente do Turista Sénior Português,* Tese de Mestrado em Turismo do Esteril, http://comum.rcaap.pt/handle/123456789/4438 (03/2015).

- to build toolkits (for young people, employers and job counsellors) to improve the young people's competences and employability, as well as their self-employment and entrepreneurship;
- to strengthen the role of different stakeholders in order to find new approaches to solve the mismatch problems.

4. The Research Issues

The main issues the research wanted to investigate are listed below.
- Is there any evidence of the effectiveness of the policies and measures taken and implemented by governments and stakeholders to decrease the mismatches existing in the labour market and tackle the problem of youth unemployment?
- To what extent are actors, young job seekers, young entrepreneurs, employers and social partners of the social economy (i.e. senior tourism and social services) with job potentialities committed to being part of the solution to the problem?
- How far do governments rely on impact assessments, evaluations of previous measures or policy results for future decisions?
- How committed are governments and stakeholders to tackling the problem of anticipating future skill needs in the investigated social economy sectors?

CHAPTER 2

SKILLS AND EDUCATION FOR YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IN
SCOTLAND: A CRITICAL DISCUSSION

Tom Montgomery, Simone Baglioni

1. Introduction

Issues surrounding youth employment have become the focus of attention for policymakers across Europe and Scotland is no different. In line with their contemporaries, policymakers in Scotland and the UK have focused upon the need to ensure that young workers are adequately skilled to gain opportunities within today's labour markets and have therefore engaged in a number of programmes and initiatives designed to ensure that young workers are 'job ready'. This approach, whilst understandable, nevertheless requires greater scrutiny due to the risk of an imbalanced approach to youth employment which valorizes 'supply-side issues' such as skills, training and qualifications over 'demand-side issues' such as job creation strategies and the development of better quality employment. This chapter focuses on efforts in Scotland and asks whether a more integrated, balanced approach to youth employment issues may be possible.

2. Policy Context

The analysis of measures taken to address youth employment issues meets a policy landscape in flux when focusing upon the Scottish context. At the time of writing policymakers in Scotland are still coming to terms with the aftermath of the independence referendum and the debate surrounding which level of governance should preside over key policy areas remains open and fractious. Nevertheless, despite the transformed political landscape, the issues confronting young people in Scotland do not differ substantially from elsewhere in the United Kingdom, or indeed from those issues experienced by their peers in other European countries.

A starting point for our analysis is the context within which employment issues are tackled and it is crucial to acknowledge immediately the complexity and blurred lines which exists when discussing the impact of policy upon the support available to young people and the discourses that

affect the debate surrounding potential solutions to youth employment issues. An indication of this complexity emerges from the constitutional settlement currently in place for Scotland which sees responsibility for skills and employability devolved to the Scottish Parliament but primary responsibility for employment policy and welfare reserved to Westminster. Therefore a thorough analysis of the measures being implemented in Scotland in order to address youth employment issues cannot be fully dislocated from the United Kingdom policy context which, following Thatcherism and subsequent neoliberal policies, has led to a labour market environment which Jessop (2003: 10-11) describes as follows.

i.   Deindustrialization, with a consequent weakening of the strongest and most militant trade unions.
ii. Legislation directed at trade unions' capacity to engage in strike action and collective bargaining, and to represent their members in other respects.
iii. General de-legitimization of corporatism and tripartism as means of co-making and co-implementing economic, social and political policy.
iv. Flexibilization and de-regulation of labour markets.
v.   Development of neo-liberal 'welfare-to-work' strategies.

Indeed in an analysis of the policies of the current UK Government, a coalition of the Conservatives and centrist Liberal Democrats, Newman (2011) asserts that unless there is a refocus on demand side issues, particularly employment security, low wages and lack of opportunities for progression, then work will fail to offer the unemployed the sustainable route out of poverty that is so often claimed by policymakers. The consequences of failing to address demand side issues are therefore central to Newman's portent conclusion that «poverty wages are becoming as much a problem as unemployment; that tackling the supply side of the labour market through active labour market policies without linking this to the demand for jobs results in deadweight and displacement» (2011: 103).

Nevertheless, the focus on supply side issues in UK employment policymaking has been identified for some time. Jessop (1994) finds that the globalized nature of the latter era of Fordism along with the emphasis of post-Fordism on flexible production processes has resulted in state prioritisation of supply-side issues such as global competition and recasting the welfare state towards greater labour flexibility. He concludes that the British state is not acquiring the features of a post-Fordist welfare state, rather it is moving from flawed Fordism to flawed post-Fordism, with negative economic consequences and a transition «from a defective KWS [Keynesian Welfare State] to an ineffective SWS [Schumpeterian Workfare State]» (Jessop 1994: 34). Thus young people confronted with employment issues in Scotland find themselves enmeshed in a UK labour

market policy context shaped by successive neoliberal policy interventions which have resulted in «the replacement of a "maternalistic" welfare state with a "paternalistic" punitive state» (Wacquant, 1999: 335). This has included the transfer of policies and from the United States (Dolowitz, 1997) leading to the discourses concerning employment issues shifting away from being centred upon demand side deficiencies to a debate focused upon the supposed deficiencies of the individual worker and often the young worker in particular.

One possible consequence of the current devolved settlement in Scotland has been the development of a lopsided approach to addressing youth employment issues due to a constitutionally ingrained emphasis on employability at the expense of a mutually reinforcing range of complementary measures in the areas of employment and welfare policy. The energy expended by the Scottish Government on employability has sought to resolve both real and perceived issues whilst simultaneously demonstrating to the Scottish electorate the effectiveness of their devolved administration. The result of this approach has been a heightened emphasis on supply side issues. As a consequence, should further devolution be enacted or an independent Scotland eventually emerge, the legacy of the current devolution settlement may prove to be a major impediment towards rebalancing employment policy in a way that recognises the importance of demand side issues.

The difficulties associated with the blurring of competences of these closely related policy areas have been raised by an influential report from the Commission on the Future Delivery of Public Services (or the 'Christie Report') which recommends as a remedy, «the full devolution of competence for job search and support to the Scottish Parliament to achieve the integration of service provision in the area of employability» (2011: 58). One of the consequences of this complexity is that although there may be expressions of desired policy divergence from the Scottish Government in relation to employment and welfare policies pursued by the UK Government, these expressions remain largely rhetorical given the lack of competency which exists in the Scottish Parliament over these matters.

Indeed, even if competency for such policy areas is realised in the next few years via further devolution or independence, the capacity of the current or any future Scottish Government to pursue significantly different approaches to youth employment issues could be curtailed by the legacy of previous policies enacted at a UK level. This landscape is changing fast and following the independence referendum there has been a promise of more powers to Scotland, via the 'Smith Commission' the recommendations of which, if implemented, will involve a further reconfiguration of this complex policy environment in which policymakers are attempting to grapple with a range of youth employment issues which have scarred a number of communities across Scotland for decades.

2.1 Labour Markets in Scotland

Scotland shares many European countries specific youth employment issues: for example, young people are likely to be more exposed to unemployment than their older compatriots; young people from ethnic minorities, young people with disabilities and those with low educational qualifications are more likely to be unemployed than, respectively, white Scots, able bodied young people, and those young people with higher educational achievements. Therefore, as with other European countries, unemployment is not equally distributed, instead its impact has been more severe in specific local areas which have experienced at least two decades of deprivation and underdevelopment.

Many communities across Scotland are still dealing with the ramifications of shifting from a labour market centred around heavy industry to one focused upon other sectors. Those heavily industrialised sectors that once employed large number of workers, such as in the manufacturing industry, have drastically diminished in their capacity to provide employment, whilst other sectors, such as social care or health, have increased their potential, although they still remain far below the capacity of what used to be traditional sectors in offering employment opportunities. This legacy of deindustrialization has contributed towards a lack of security and crises of occupational identity which are now the inheritance of Scotland's young workforce.

To tackle these youth employment issues, the Scottish Government has formulated and implemented a dedicated 'youth employment strategy' which focuses upon: modern apprenticeships to ease transition from school to work; the involvement of private and public actors, including the voluntary sector, in the creation of training opportunities; making youth employment a cross-cutting priority in overall Governmental activities; reforming the post–16 education system; and continuing with the 'no tuition fees' policy for Scottish students in higher education. Furthermore, a recently published strategy now includes a commitment of «reducing 2014 levels of youth unemployment by 40 per cent by 2021» (Scottish Government, 2014a: III) amongst a number of other 'key performance indicators' for that same year, ranging from targets to increase the number of school leavers with vocational qualifications to the objective of being one of the top five performing countries in the EU for youth unemployment. Despite these existing measures and their strategic objectives, critics of the Scottish Government point out that the strategy's decision to focus so heavily upon unemployment neglects the multiple problems arising from precarity and underemployment (where workers would work more hours if it was possible) which characterize contemporary labour markets for young people in Scotland as well as many other European countries.

Concerns over the increasing levels of insecure work being experienced by workers in Scotland have been expressed in a recent report on underemployment by the Scottish Parliament's Economy, Energy and Tourism Committee. The report highlights that women and young people in particular are experiencing increasingly high rates of underemployment and concludes that, «the Committee is particularly concerned by the higher levels of underemployment experienced by young people. Not only does underemployment inhibit young people's capacity to be independent, but it has a long-term effect on employment prospects» (Economy, Energy and Tourism Committee-EETC, 2013: 17).

Indeed, recent figures from the Office of National Statistics, which reveal that one in five 16-24 year olds in the UK are underemployed, more than double the figures for any other age group, reinforces the point that underemployment is a problem skewed heavily towards younger workers. Nevertheless despite these concerns, the youth employment strategy in Scotland does not yet seem to have fully absorbed the impact of these factors on the lives of young workers.

2.2 Youth Unemployment in Scotland: Figures and Trends

Scotland has not been immune from the international economic and financial crisis that has hit the global economy from 2008 onwards. In fact, since the beginning of the downturn in early 2008 the number of youth (16-24 years old) being jobless rose from 49,000 to a peak of 113,000 reached in the summer 2011 (The Scottish Government 2012: 3). Youth unemployment figures have since then remained at a medium level, e.g. in the period April 2011 to March 2012 the number of young unemployed was 88,000 while in the last available figures (September 2014) they were 70,000 (Office for National Statistics, 2014). In terms of percentage points, in the period July 2013 to June 2014 Scotland had an ILO youth unemployment rate of 19.8%, slightly higher than the UK rate of 18.6%[1]. Figures 1 and 2 provide an overview of youth unemployment and employment rates for Scotland and the UK from October 2005 until September 2014.

Figure 1 shows how unemployment has started increasing since 2008 and has only begun decreasing in March 2012 with the partial recovery

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[1] These data refers to the Annual Population Survey (APS), whereas another source, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) provides slightly better results for Scotland as it estimates that in December 2014 Scotland had a youth unemployment rate of 15.9% (while the UK was at 17.6%). According to LFS data, the unemployment rate in Scotland decreased by 5.1% over the last year (compared to a decrease of the 3.9% in the UK). However, we prefer using the APS as a primary source of reference here because it is considered a more reliable source for employment/unemployment data due to its larger sample size and the fact that it's not affected by seasonality.

of the Scottish and global economy. Figure 2 shows the declining employment rate effect of the crisis which has not yet reversed its trend. Table 1 reveals that the legacy of deindustrialization becomes ever clearer when looking at the figures for the 'claimant count' by local authority area which demonstrate higher proportions of 16-24 year olds claiming out of work benefits in those former heavily industrialised areas such as the former coal mining communities in Ayrshire and as well as the Clydeside areas which used to be renowned for shipbuilding such as West Dumbartonshire.

Figure 1 – Youth unemployment rate (Scotland and the UK).
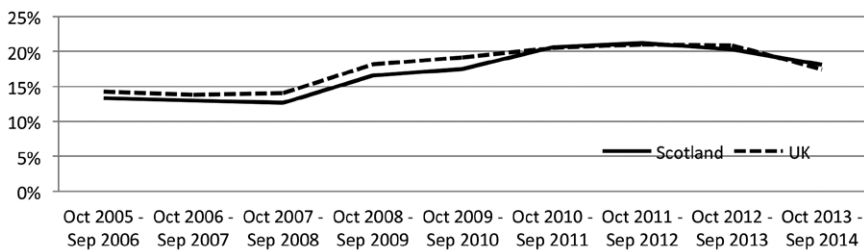
Source: Annual Population Survey, ONS (Scottish Government Labour Market Briefing – Jan 2015)

Figure 2 – Youth employment rate (Scotland and the UK).
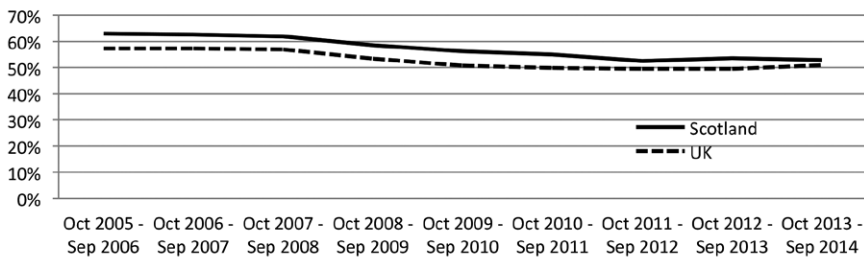
Source: Annual Population Survey, ONS (Scottish Government Labour Market Briefing – Jan 2015)

Moreover, the declining rate of youth employment is also due to more young people having opted to remain in full time education, many of whom will be hoping for a recovery of the economy in the near future. In fact, in the period 2009-2014 the proportion of young people aged 16-24 engaged in full time education has grown from 40% to 45% (Office for National Statistics-ONS, 2014). Analysis by MacDonald (2011) of the labour market experiences of young people in the UK highlights

Table 1 – Claimant Count levels for 16–24 age group by local authority (Dec. 2014).

	Level		Rate	
	December 2014	Change on year	December 2014	Change on year (%pts)
Scotland	**17,790**	**–8,830**	**2.8**	**–1.5**
Local Authority Area				
Aberdeen City	250	–190	0.7	–0.6
Aberdeenshire	190	–125	0.7	–0.5
Angus	350	–90	3.0	–0.8
Argyll & Bute	225	–110	2.5	–1.3
Clackmannanshire	260	–165	4.8	–3.2
Dumfries & Galloway	405	–270	2.8	–1.9
Dundee City	755	–275	3.1	–1.2
East Ayrshire	690	–335	5.2	–2.5
East Dunbartonshire	205	–80	1.8	–0.7
East Lothian	315	–160	2.9	–1.5
East Renfrewshire	150	–105	1.5	–1.0
Edinburgh, City of	1,165	–655	1.7	–0.9
Eilean Siar	50	–20	2.0	–0.9
Falkirk	550	–380	3.4	–2.3
Fife	1,405	–645	3.3	–1.5
Glasgow City	3,090	–1,090	3.6	–1.3
Highland	360	–235	1.6	–1.1
Inverclyde	350	–5	3.9	–0.1
Midlothian	260	–220	2.9	–2.5
Moray	190	–75	1.9	–0.7
North Ayrshire	755	–360	5.1	–2.4
North Lanarkshire	1,595	–750	4.2	–2.0
Orkney Islands	20	–15	0.8	–0.8
Perth & Kinross	280	–165	1.9	–1.1
Renfrewshire	590	–495	3.1	–2.6
Scottish Borders	300	–160	2.9	–1.5
Shetland Islands	15	–15	0.6	–0.6
South Ayrshire	430	–240	3.8	–2.2
South Lanarkshire	1,280	–625	3.9	–1.9
Stirling	250	–155	1.9	–1.2
West Dunbartonshire	520	–265	5.1	–2.6
West Lothian	540	–355	2.8	–1.9

Source: Claimant count (NOMIS), ONS (Scottish Government Labour Market Briefing – Jan 2015)

similarities between the contemporary experiences of young people in higher education and research examining youth unemployment in the 1980s (Roberts and Parsell, 1992) which suggests that the true extent of the problems young people were confronting at that time were being hidden through youth training initiatives, leading MacDonald to ask if the same assessment can be made of the expansion of higher education, which may help contextualize the increased numbers of young people continuing in full time education in Scotland.

3. Youth Employment Initiatives in Scotland[2]

Initiatives to tackle youth employment issues are operated in Scotland at different levels of governance. One example are local authorities who are given responsibility to promote youth employment at a local level through 'local employability partnerships' which have the task of not only enabling the matching between local employers' needs and ready to work youth, but also serve to provide opportunities which are not yet offered by the policymakers in the Scottish and UK governments. Local authorities have also been working in partnership with the Scottish Government in delivering the Youth Employment Scotland Fund, a programme which provides incentives (including wage subsidies) to employers to recruit young workers. At another level of governance is the Youth Contract and the Work Programme which were put in place by the UK Government in April 2012 with the aim of offering work experience to young people. The Scottish Government have called for responsibility for such initiatives to be fully devolved to Scotland, arguing that these would be better implemented if integrated with existing services (Scottish Government, 2012), whilst raising concerns that work experience needs to be meaningful and lead to employment.

The commitment of the Scottish Government in creating employment opportunities for young people is realized by adopting a cross-sector or cross-policy strategy. Scotland has a variety of different local contexts with specific needs and problems in terms of employment. Although urban areas suffer from the higher percentages of youth unemployment, rural regions are hardly immune from youth employment issues. Indeed, as in many other countries, young people living in rural areas are pulled to-

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[2] This section draws upon two key documents; Scottish Government, 2012, *Action for Jobs – Supporting Young Scots Into Work: Scotland's Youth Employment Strategy*, http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2012/06/9210 (03/2015); Scottish Government, 2014a, *Developing the Young Workforce, Scotland's Youth Employment Strategy: Implementing the Recommendations of the Commission for Developing Scotland's Young Workforce*, http://www.gov.scot/Resource/0046/00466386.pdf (03/2015).

wards urban centres with the hope of finding employment, which serves to increase the pressure on urban labour markets which are already incapable of absorbing local needs.

The Scottish Government have therefore focused upon creating employment opportunities in rural areas in particular through developing low carbon economy initiatives and supporting the renewables industry through initiatives such as the Energy Skills Investment Plan which creates training opportunities for young people to enter the industry. At the same time, the Scottish Government has maintained its incentives for potential employment in traditionally job creating sectors in rural areas such as oil and gas but also food, drink and farming.

As is the case with many other governments, the Scottish Government uses its resources for public sector procurement to create jobs. For example, in some of these investments in infrastructure, this has involved the use of 'community benefit clauses' to enable a proportion of the jobs being created to be allocated towards recruiting and training young people and requesting that those fulfilling public service contracts produce plans for training and apprenticeships. Moreover, the Scottish Government has also introduced a Sustainable Procurement Bill involving the systematic use of community benefit clauses within public procurement which target job creation towards young people. The Scottish Government's agencies and public bodies have also been encouraged to implement policies which advance the employability of young people either through the direct creation of jobs or apprenticeships or offering work experience. All Government bodies are required to support the youth employment agenda, these include the National Health Service (NHS) in Scotland, cultural and heritage organizations which are in receipt of public funding such as Historic Scotland, National Records of Scotland and Creative Scotland as well as legacy projects emanating from the hosting of large sporting events such as the Commonwealth Games and Ryder Cup. Indeed, even money recovered by the Scottish legal system through the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002 is directed towards the youth employment agenda via the 'Cashback for Communities' programme.

3.1 Enhancing Support for Young People

The youth employment agenda in Scotland has become increasingly focused upon young people who are still at school. The Scottish Government's flagship education programme, Curriculum for Excellence, has emphasised the inclusion of employers at this level of education in order to focus learning upon those areas which will enhance the employability of young people. For those young people who are 16–19 year olds, the Scottish Government has since April 2012 operated the 'Opportunities for All' programme which focuses upon those in that age group

who are not in work, education nor training and as such are at greatest risk of becoming long term unemployed. The programme commits to providing a place for young people in learning and training to keep them 'employable'. Moreover, in terms of the method of training and employability, the Scottish Government have intensified their focus on the role of apprenticeships.

Of particular importance to the Scottish Government has been, and continues to be, an emphasis on 'Modern Apprenticeships'. Indeed, strategic plans now exists for the expansion of apprenticeships over the course of the next few years (Scottish Government, 2014b), plans which include foundational apprenticeships in schools, targets to increase the uptake of apprenticeships amongst young women and young people who are from ethnic minority backgrounds, the establishment of a Modern Apprenticeship Supervisory Board to enhance the matching of skills with available employment and a 'pre-apprenticeship' pilot programme aimed at those furthest from the labour market. The task of differentiating between those young people who require varied types of support does present some challenges and this is where stakeholders across a range of sectors in Scotland rely upon the 'skills and employability pipeline' in order to provide a reference point to coordinate approaches and identify the needs of young people.

3.2 The Skills and Employability Pipeline

The skills and employability pipeline in Scotland is organized across five stages (summarised in Figure 3). Although there is flexibility regarding the progression of individuals across the pipeline and also concerning the stage at which young people enter or leave it, the Scottish Government and its partners consider this 'pipeline' approach to be a useful model to tackle youth employment issues. The varied support available across the pipeline begins from supporting those who are assessed to not yet be 'job ready' to assistance that is offered whilst in employment. The support offered to young people is provided by a number of agencies including the Scottish Government's agency, Skills Development Scotland.

Figure 3 – The Skills and Employability Pipeline.
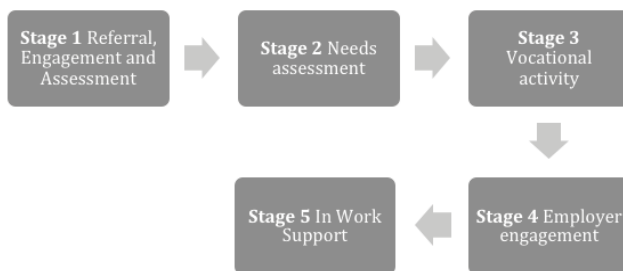
Those young people who are furthest from engagement with the labour market and who are thus deemed to not yet be 'job ready' are the focus of Stage 1 which focuses upon changing attitudes and outreach activities. Stage 2 seeks to identify barriers to employment and may entail financial advice, mentoring and careers advice. For those young people who are assessed as being 'job ready', Stage 3 of the pipeline offers opportunities for work experience, volunteering as well as employability training which is validated through the 'Certificate of Work Readiness'. At Stage 4 of the pipeline, the focus is on matching job-ready young people with employment opportunities and offering support to young people considering self-employment.

For those young people who are in work, assistance is also provided by Stage 5 in areas such as advice on occupational health, job retention and redundancy support. Of course, this type of support can only be effectively delivered with the active participation of the employer and the Modern Apprenticeship programme occupies a core place in this stage of the pipeline. The pipeline therefore highlights the wide range of initiatives aimed at improving the employability of young people in Scotland who are confronting a variety of barriers. These initiatives are either delivered by or involve the engagement of a similarly wide range of agencies and sectors, therefore to better understand how this is operationalised we can look more closely at one particular strand: the role of the third sector and social enterprise.

3.3 The Third Sector, Social Enterprise and Employability in Scotland

One characteristic of the complex landscape of employability support in Scotland is the prominence of the third sector and social enterprise in the delivery of services and in providing placement and training opportunities. Indeed, such is the proliferation of these organizations engaged in the field of employment that mapping them and their support organizations is beyond the scope of this chapter. What is clear however is that the involvement of these organizations has been an objective of different parties of government in the Scottish Parliament since the onset of devolution in Scotland and the current administration has been consistent with this trend asserting that, «the third sector is key to the Scottish Government's response to rising youth unemployment and very well placed to work with young people at all stages of their journey into employment» (Scottish Government, 2012: 11). A core example of this partnership is the Community Jobs Scotland programme.

Community Jobs Scotland (CJS) is a youth employment initiative funded by the Scottish Government and coordinated by the Scottish Council for Voluntary Organisations (SCVO). It is now entering its fourth phase and provides up to £5000 of funding for each job created by an

employer to assist with wages, national insurance contributions, training and support. Young people engaged in the programme are equipped with new skills and many have moved into employment where before they had none, as Table 2 displaying the results of evaluations from Phase 1 and Phase 2 demonstrates:

Table 2 – Community Jobs Scotland (CJS).

CJS Phase 1 (2011/2012)	CJS Phase 2 (2012/2013)
40% entered employment	39% entered employment
4% entered further education or training	9% entered further education or training
7% engaged in volunteering	6% engaged in volunteering
43% returned to unemployment	27% returned to unemployment
Destinations of 6% were unknown	Destinations of 19% were unknown

Sources: McTier, Clelland, McGregor (2012); McTier, McGregor (2013)

Given the statistics from Table 2, the Community Jobs Scotland programme has clearly been achieving some success and has provided a number of young people with opportunities for employment which were non-existent before the programme was implemented. Nevertheless, one of the immediate issues which the CJS programme raises is the minimum number of hours worked. Although the evaluations reveal that some employers had indeed offered further hours to CJS participants, this did not extend to all (McTier, Clelland, McGregor, 2012; McTier, McGregor, 2013). Given the pernicious effects that precarity and underemployment can have upon young people, the fact that third sector and social enterprise organizations are now engaged in programmes which come with this insecurity 'built-in', begs the question of whether or not such initiatives serve to normalize insecurity and simultaneously contribute towards entrenching some of the most pressing contemporary youth employment issues.

The fundamental structure of the jobs which are created via CJS underlines the degree to which third sector and social enterprise organizations have accepted rather than challenged those processes which result in young people finding themselves in a «low pay, no pay cycle» (Shildrick *et al.*, 2012). Indeed, this lack of awareness towards precarious employment patterns becomes apparent in the evaluations of CJS. For example, in the evaluation of Phase 1 it is revealed that when young people were asked to rate the support that they received, the lowest rating recorded was for support to find another job, in fact 20% of young people reported that no support was made available by the CJS employer to find another job (McTier, Clelland, McGregor, 2012). Perhaps more worryingly, the feedback received from young people engaged in Phase 2 of CJS revealed similar dissatisfaction with such support but this time 40%

of young people reported receiving no help from their CJS employer in finding another job (McTier, McGregor, 2013).

This lack of responsiveness to demand side issues seems surprising but less so when we consider the focus of UK level policymakers which is heavily centred upon supply side issues and a Scottish Government whose remit extends only to skills and employability, enabling rhetorical opposition but not policy divergence, meaning that many young people may fall in between the cracks which are created by increasingly insecure labour markets and a disintegrated policy approach to employment and skills.

Community Jobs Scotland is only one fragment of a larger mosaic of intense support concentrated upon the development of the employability of young people across the employability pipeline, however without similar intensity being placed upon demand side issues, the pipeline further reinforces the perception that the solution young people will benefit from most profoundly when addressing employment issues is some form of intervention to address their deficiencies in being 'ready' to enter the labour market, an approach which seems to jar with a report from the UK Commission for Employment and Skills which has concluded that, «most establishments recruiting leavers from Scottish education find them to be well prepared for work, and […] among secondary school leavers there has been a slight upward trend over the last three surveys towards being more prepared» (UK Commission for Employment and Skills–UKCES, 2011: 13).

This is not to suggest that the Scottish Government are misguided in providing employability support for young people, on the contrary. However we must critically assess the hypothesis that in contemporary labour markets, increasingly skilled workers will make a smooth transition into secure and well paid employment.

4. The Changing Nature of the Labour Market

The enduring emphasis placed by policymakers on the skills shortages of young people attracts further scrutiny from research conducted by MacDonald (2011) indicating that the supply of highly skilled young workers is simply not being matched by demand. MacDonald makes specific reference to the promise of social mobility offered to young people through the widening of access to higher education and argues that this has in fact been met by increasing graduate unemployment and underemployment. MacDonald explains that such issues cannot be attributed to the economic crisis but instead, «rising graduate unemployment and the falling graduate premium are outcomes of longer-term structural labour market changes» (2011: 434). Comparisons are drawn by MacDonald between contemporary experiences of young people in higher

education and research examining youth unemployment in the 1980s (Roberts and Parsell, 1992) which suggests that the true extent of the problems young people were confronting were being hidden through youth training initiatives, leading MacDonald to ask if the same assessment can be made of the expansion of higher education.

If this is the case, then it is a phenomena that has witnessed significant growth in the last few decades when considering a report from the ONS revealing that the number of people in the UK aged 16 to 24 in full-time education has more than doubled over the last 30 years and the proportion of those young people undertaking work alongside full-time study has been falling since the year 2000 (Office for National Statistics–ONS, 2014). This is a trend which is quite clear in Scotland, with a significant rise since the beginning of the recession in 2008 of students who are 'economically inactive'. In fact the only 'economically inactive' group larger than students in Scotland were the long term sick (Scottish Government, 2015).

These figures do not undermine the obvious necessity that young people will require education and skills training, nevertheless a more realistic reflection of young people's contemporary experience in the labour market would perhaps best be represented by a cycle where young people gain skills which they use in the short term, but through *lack of demand*, find themselves having to retrain and once again find work. Although there is some emphasis on 'job retention' in the employability pipeline, there is perhaps an imbalance which highlights a failure to fully recognize the diminishing control young people have over their employment security. Indeed, critics of such supply side heavy approaches have highlighted the difficulties contemporary labour markets present to policymakers, leading some to conclude that, «a certificate in "employability" is an oxymoron. There can be no formal or static definition given the vicissitudes of a market that workers must remain adaptive to» (Cremin, 2010: 133). In defence of the approach taken by policymakers such as the Scottish Government, they could claim that they are simply trying to match young people to the demands set by employers.

Nevertheless, the conclusion reached by Cremin alerts us to the non-stop treadmill of evidence young people must now provide to employers in order to prove they are 'job ready'. Indeed there are some comparisons to be drawn with the analysis undertaken by Guy Standing who asserts that, «today's youth are not offered a reasonable bargain. Many enter temporary jobs that stretch well beyond what could be required to establish "employability"» (2011: 65). Morevoer, Standing's thesis contends that a new class of worker, the precariat, have now emerged as a consequence of the forces of insecurity which now characterise labour markets across the globe.

Indeed, an important dimension of the changing employment landscape in Scotland and the UK has been the proliferation of more 'flexible' and

precarious working conditions which condemns young people to a cycle consisting of a «longitudinal pattern of employment instability and movement between low-paid jobs and unemployment, usually accompanied by claiming of welfare benefits» (Shildrick *et al.*, 2012: 18). An accurate estimate for the number of Scots working on flexible 'zero hour contracts' (which provide no guaranteed working hours and few conditions) does not currently exist, however given that the employment framework which enables such contracts to proliferate remains a UK policy area, we can hypothesise with some confidence that the growth in such contracts witnessed across the UK (CIPD, 2013) has also been mirrored in Scotland.

Therefore many young Scots will have been exposed to increasingly non-standard forms of employment with lower wages than previous generations and thus find themselves «encountering a process by which less advantaged positions in the labour market are made even more precarious through various policy and regulatory processes» (Furlong and Kelly, 2005: 223). Such experieces are revelaed in existing research such as a study undertaken by Furlong and Cartmel (2004) involving in-depth interviews with 32 young men across the west of Scotland who had suffered a period of long term unemployment. The researchers investigated the experiences of these young men with employers, training schemes and the help offered to them by other professionals. Their findings suggested that most of the young men could not find *secure* employment and that the main problem they were experiencing was not actually finding a job, it was escaping the cycle of precarious work and unemployment. In another piece of research, Furlong (2006) critiques the NEET (not in employment, education or training) definition of young people which has been used continuously by policymakers in Scotland, a definition which reinforces to some extent a simplistic and binary approach to the precarity young people are confronting in the labour market. Thus a more balanced approach to the employment issues with which young people are coping, should involve a more intense focus on the problem of employment insecurity which reflects the conclusion reached by Furlong that, «the growth of the precarious sector of the labour market and the increase in temporary and casual forms of employment perhaps challenges the traditional focus on unemployment as the measure par excellence of labour market disadvantage» (2006: 567).

Consequently, the 'headline' statistics referring to youth unemployment in Scotland may mask the equally significant labour market disadvantage of being in precarious employment which often comes with low pay and poor conditions. This then leads us to the question: how could we begin designing and implementing a more balanced approach to youth employment issues in Scotland? One potential response to this question emerges from a report published during the recent independence referendum.

The political milieu existing within Scotland as a consequence of the constitutional debate has opened up a space for some to begin discussing alternative visions for policymaking including in the world of work. One example is the Working Together review conducted by Duffy *et al.* (2013) which sets out a somewhat divergent employment policy trajectory from that pursued by policymakers at the UK level, arguing that «a slavish approach to markets will not, and cannot, produce the wholesome version of sustainable economic growth in which all citizens are given the opportunity to flourish» (2014: 12). Such conclusions perhaps indicate not only ideological divergence but also indicate the potential for a more plural era of policy learning in Scotland where the genesis of ideas is not monopolized by highly neoliberalized employment and welfare contexts such as the United States which for some time have been a source of inspiration for UK policymakers.

The Working Together review reinforces the argument that with the relevant powers at its disposal, the Scottish Parliament could construct the policymaking architecture necessary to transform the political context in which the employee/employer relationship takes place and thus create the fertile conditions for greater equality between both parties. A step in this direction may involve a new era of policy learning which shifts away from the importation of policies of sanctions and workfare from the United States and towards more democratic forms of industrial relations such as the co-operation committees in Denmark and the work councils found in Germany (Duffy, Gall, Mother, 2013). However, the incentive for either the current or any future Scottish Government to expand the pool of exemplars to be drawn upon is substantially diminished by the absence of control over employment policy and also welfare policy which can be used to counteract the more pernicious outcomes of labour markets which are characterised by low pay, underemployment and precarity and which present significant challenges for young people entering the world of work.

5. Conclusions

During the process of researching the labour market situation of young people in Scotland, it becomes clear that there have been a number of policy interventions across previous administrations to provide young people with the necessary skills and attributes to obtain employment. This trajectory has been continued by the current Scottish Government which has dedicated rhetoric and resources towards solving the 'youth unemployment issue'. Their efforts in recent years have included the appointment of a dedicated Youth Employment Minister (a responsibility now absorbed by the new portfolio of the Minister for Fair Work, Skills

and Training) which coincided with the publishing of the original Youth Employment Strategy in 2012.

However, as some critics have pointed out (Cook, 2012), such a strategy does little to address another very important concern about youth employment: its changed nature. Work, in fact, has changed not only in terms of sectors of activity but also in terms of rights, entitlements, career perspectives and wages. Following a typical path of economic development at the time of globalization and post-Fordism, sectors that used to employ large number of workers, such as manufacturing, have drastically diminished in their capacity for job creation, while others, such as social care or health, have increased their potential although they remain far below the capacity of what used to be the traditional sectors. Furthermore, work has become, in Scotland as in Europe, more 'flexible' and precarious, and as a consequence, young Scots are employed more and more using non-standard forms of employment which result in lower wages and poorer conditions than those experienced by previous generations.

Therefore, in order to develop policies which effectively address youth employment issues such as low pay, underemployment or precarity, the Scottish Government would perhaps benefit from positioning these issues more centrally within its youth employment strategy. As has been highlighted by McQuaid and Lindsay, «the long-term employability of job seekers and labour market programme participants is unlikely to be improved by training schemes that only consider employers' demands for competencies specific to their own immediate-term needs» (2005: 214).

Therefore, a much greater emphasis on the needs of young workers – better pay, conditions and security could result in a more balanced strategy as the current approach leans heavily towards supply side issues and employer's needs. As we have already highlighted, this may be attributed at least in part, to the current devolution arrangements, however this does not prevent a more balanced strategy to be formulated which recognizes the critical importance of demand side issues and thus may lead to a more informed debate in terms of effective solutions to youth employment issues.

The disintegrated approach to addressing employment issues therefore presents a substantial barrier to achieving sustainable solutions and may instead simply lead to a situation where young people increase their potential employability without the available corresponding employment (Peck, Theodore, 2000). Competence over employment and welfare policy may therefore redress the imbalance which has emerged between addressing supply side and demand side issues.

However, for this rebalancing to be achieved what must also be evident alongside political power is political will. A combination of the competence over employment and welfare along with the political will to pursue alternative policies may in the long term deliver the type of

transformation outlined in reports such as the Working Together Review. Although a recent strategy published by the Scottish Government does make a brief reference to the Working Together review in respect to building better workplace relations, there is little detail provided in terms of how this is envisioned or will be operationalized. The development of a strategy which integrates supply side and demand side issues more comprehensively could provide the basis not only for a more informed debate around youth employment issues in Scotland, it may also provide the basis for the development of a more effective policymaking infrastructure which meets the needs of future generations.

CHAPTER 3

THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH ADOPTED
IN THE RESEARCH

Vanna Boffo, Francesca Torlone, Vanda Vieira[1]

1. Introduction

The SALM project: (1) investigated the new occupations in the senior tourism and social services sectors; (2) dealt with how to bridge the information gap (young people lack information concerning the job potential in these sectors); (3) tested the youth skills gap; (4) collected evidence on entrepreneurs' needs and their recruitment and internship policies; (5) tested counsellors' needs and role in introducing young people to job prospects in these sectors; and (6) collected evidence from pilot projects to check and improve the tools proposed in the project.

It is necessary to distinguish two phases in the approach of the SALM research model. The first phase of the research consisted of interviews, focus groups and case studies. The second concerned the construction of a tool kit which was tested as a pilot proposal by four partners, in Portugal, Scotland, Malta and Spain.

The SALM approach focused on:
• detecting mismatches through the application of case studies in some sectors with significant job creation potentialities (senior tourism and social services);
• detecting the best engagement between employers and the skills systems to align the provision of competences to those sectors' needs;
• focus groups, with the involvement of different stakeholders, namely actors and social partners connected with the school/training entities and entrepreneurs, in line with lifelong learning to forecast future competence requirements.

On a practical level, the project developed toolkits: (i) for employers to diagnose the new skills needed in the social services and senior tour-

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[1] The chapter is the result of the joint work of the three authors, but paragraphs 2, 3, 10 were edited by Vanna Boffo, paragraphs 4, 6, 7, 8, 9 by Vanda Vieira, paragraph 1 by both, and paragraph 5 by Francesca Torlone.

ism; and (ii) a self-diagnostic tool for young people to check their skills; furthermore, (iii) a dissemination tool for (job) counsellors to help young unemployed or NEETs (not in employment, education or training) to acquire fundamental skills to raise their employability in those sectors.

In sum, the project jointly addressed the micro level of how employers are facing up to the future labour market needs/competences and the meso level, investigating the actual or potential role of the national qualification frameworks as well as the role of new actors (companies and social partners) in promoting the young people's employability.

2. The Glance at the Research Methodology

From the viewpoint of the work methodology used, each phase of the research in the SALM project was built through empirical investigations supported by evidence. Hence, we can confirm that we are dealing with an *evidence-based* research methodology.

The paradigm in question is naturalistic (Bateson, 1972), in the sense that the research is performed in a natural context in the place where young people look for work to build their future (Mortari, 2007: 61). As Mortari states: «The reason for locating the research in a natural setting lies in the fact that any phenomenon subject to study acquires meaning with relation to the context in which it takes place. It is the context that fixes the meaning» (Mortari, 2007: 61). By accounting for the tools, techniques and methods used, as researchers we can further investigate the sense of the process developed by the project. Naturally, a scientific system has to start from some initial hypotheses, but it is also true that it must be open to all the necessary modifications, and all the more so in contexts of educational and social research where the work to collect the data is in itself research *within* the research. We could state that the research is defined and evolves during the investigation itself and hence all the actors in the process are considered researchers who have a hand in changing and transforming the pathway. Nevertheless, those who take part in the interviews or focus groups also join a process of modification and self-reflexivity.

From the sociological point of view, there are data, findings and scientific publications that have dealt with the various topics investigated. However, these have been from the point of view of specific and sectoral knowledge of the social economy. Hence, the research presents original aspects of cognitive importance for the educational, training, socio-cultural and social assistance professions. From the quantitative point of view, the surveys were devised by the statistical research institutes in the various European countries. For example, with regard to the Italian graduates' entry to the labour market, a valid example is the Consorzio Alma Laurea. In the same way, information was taken from European Com-

mission documents (Eurostat, 2015) which report the levels of transition of young graduates towards the labour market and indicate flows, quantities, orientations and rates of work entry. What is more difficult for us to find out and investigate relates to the meanings of the paths followed by the young people and the competences requested in order to get a job. Equally as interesting was the field investigation which enabled us to identify the viewpoints of the employers and companies.

In a European labour market where the variability of the percentage estimates of entry to work in a year is so high, from 75% in regions such as the Netherlands, to 38% in states such as Greece (Eurostat, 2015), understanding the subjective dynamics, also of large groups, is a specific and significant route to the possibility of planning youth work policies. Indeed, we could state that, ultimately, the knowledge that the SALM research allows us to begin to focus on offers some cues for reflection and future prospects for the development of policy learning. The research definitely has the merit of verifying the evidence, already known, of a mismatch between the world of work and that of education and training. Nevertheless, other aspects proved to be equally important at the macro level:

- gaining understanding from within a labour market such as that of the social economy;
- identifying the necessity in the research countries to map out the old and new professions in the social economy;
- understanding what the social economy is today;
- mapping out the competences needed to work in this specific production fabric;
- specifying the most appropriate training courses to achieve the baggage of knowledge required.

The study enabled us to begin to reflect on the choice of measures to adopt in the places of youth training and in the university curricula, at both the levels of learning and learning methods. This has a central influence, not just on work entry policies, but also on training policies, which have direct consequences in determining the quality indicators for schools, professional courses, university courses and higher education curricula.

At the meso level, the research offered significant cues at the methodological level in particular. It is not usual to be able to have feedback on the scientific field in question, that is, the set of stakeholders interviewed and the companies contacted, the set of educators and trainers as well as the group of young people who took part in the pilot project in the countries in question. Some meso aspects can be considered:

- highlighting the use of evidence-based techniques for socio-educational research;
- using qualitative and quantitative methods in close connection with each other;

- verifying tools of quantitative investigation, such as focus groups and case studies;
- drawing up a pilot project as an effective test with comparable results.

Some results were achieved at the micro level, we could say at the level of the single states that took part in the research, starting from the collaboration created between the work groups. Particularly worthy of note is the Italian case, in which the research produced reflection on the university training courses for the area of Educational Science. The micro aspects to be underlined are:
- building a virtuous link between training courses and social economy companies at the local level;
- understanding the roots of the social economy in the local traditions of regions and cities;
- getting to know the social economy companies;
- identifying the problematic issues with the training and learning courses.

The results obtained are highlighted by what is offered to the international community on one hand, but also by the changes that are already in operation in terms of the training courses on offer. For example, as already highlighted the reflection on the mismatch has already begun to produce some changes in study programmes for the degree courses in the area of Educational Science at the University of Florence. In this sense, the meaning of the research is taken on and shared at the social level so as to provide the basis for the transformation in education and training (Merriam, 2001). Since we are dealing with a naturalistic type of research «which is based on the constructionist precondition according to which the value of a scientific product is measured on the basis of the system of concepts shared by a research community» (Mortari, 2007: 67)[2], it satisfies the knowledge criteria of *credibility*, namely the results are shared by the participants in the research; *dependability*, namely the research knowledge is not definite but can be applied in other contexts; *transferability*, namely the research has produced transferrable knowledge; and *confirmability*, namely the research has given rise to evidence that has been developed by the subjects of the research itself (Mortari, 2007: 67).

3. The Research Tools

The investigation followed a qualitative method, with a particular slant towards grasping the phenomenon to study according to a map that

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[2] Own Translation.

was not preset but in constant adjustment, as happens when the work perspective falls into a context of pedagogical and educational research also with socio–anthropological characteristics. The Grounded Theory provides the most appropriate context for a suitable research style that is adapted inductively and not deductively (Glaser, 1992).

The aim of the first part of the research work is to identify the best practices emerging from a survey on companies in the social economy in the countries taking part in the project. Therefore, the research strategy used was the case study. This provided precise indications on the procedures to follow to conduct the investigation process (Mortari, 2007). The case study was prompted by the best practices identified in the interviews with the employers. The investigation technique, that is the data collection tool, was the focus group in the first instance, followed by an in–depth interview. Indeed, both the focus group and the interview had the role of guiding the researchers towards the best practices.

The semi–structured interviews were conducted using a questionnaire consisting of four sections. The first and second sections were aimed at finding out the most technical data concerning the companies, organizations and cooperatives interviewed. They revealed figures on the number of employees, their average age, their qualifications, and the amount and quality of services provided as well as the numbers of users. The third section rebuilt the make–up of the employees, in terms of their qualifications, education, and those skills that are both ascertained and difficult to pinpoint. The fourth section dealt with investigating the future prospects of the company, namely its expansion capacity, its request for additional and innovative competences for the future of the labour market and the characteristics of the professional profiles of the future.

The interview, which enabled us to collect a sizeable amount of data, was followed by the focus group with the selected companies. The interviews had a central role in permitting contact and communication between the researchers, the project and the entrepreneurial fabric of the social economy, but they also had the merit of bringing together, in Tuscany for example, the employers and the workers. Indeed, the researchers who materially carried out and collected the interviews were 29 students from the Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science study course. In this way, in Tuscany a virtuous circle was created between the interviewees/employers and the interviewers/ potential workers. The semi–structured interview is a technique that creates reflexivity and stimulates the metacognitive capabilities. This self-reflexive communication enabled the circulation of innovative ideas for the research and training of students on the University of Florence courses in Educational Science.

The focus group, the second research technique, followed the interview. The focus groups of company managers and project leaders/

members had the task of prompting a dialogical debate on the contents of SALM and enabled us to identify the case studies. The focus group is a dialogical-conversational technique. Through no longer singular, but interactive and comparative dialogue, it stimulates further metacognitive performances and presents the differences and similarities of an economic fabric which, otherwise, it would not be possible to highlight.

Lastly, the case study enabled the identification, investigation and collection of best practices. Where virtuous examples were identified, the researchers went back to interview them, to investigate and better understand the relationship between supply and demand, between social fabric, economic crisis and survival of the company, and also between the quality/quantity of competences/capabilities that enabled the best entry to work and the best economic, human and social results.

The research methodology therefore comprised several phases which, strictly followed, gave a clear and complex research design within an evidence-based ecological-naturalistic matrix in which methods, strategies and investigation techniques were integrated and coherently developed. In this context, the use of quantitative and qualitative indicators, and a sociological and pedagogical, as well as a psychological and economic acceptation, enabled a work methodology with a useful range of methods. Hence, it gave rise to a transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary, or multi-inter-transdisciplinary style, providing a multifaceted investigation which can be used for political ends, in the sense that the perspectives of investigation give a global approach to man.

4. *The Sample Selected in the SALM Research*

The sample includes 52 organizations selected from the areas involved in the study (Malta, Portugal, Romania, Scotland, Spain and Tuscany). They are presented in the following table according to the sectors they work in, with priority given to those establishments that deal mainly and on a stable basis with social assistance services and activities.

The sectors under consideration are (see table 1):
- Social assistance services;
- Education and training;
- Culture and recreation;
- Work integration, employment;
- Economic, social and community development;
- Housing;
- Health care and medical services;
- Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism;
- Law, advocacy, politics.

Table 1 – The sample selected in the SALM research.

ES sectors/ Institutions	Social assistance services	Education and training	Culture and recreation	Work integration, employment	Economic, social and community development	Housing	Health care and medical services	Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism	Law, advocacy, politics
INATEL Foundation (PT)	X		X		X			X	
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Chaves– SCMCH (PT)	X	X	X	X			X		
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Alcácer do Sal– SCMAS (PT)	X						X		
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Amadora– SCMA (PT)	X	X		X		X	X		
Directia Generala de Asistenta Sociala si Protectia Copilului (DGASPC) (RO)	X			X	X		X		
Federaţia Filantropia (RO)	X	X			X		X		
The Princess Margareta of Romania Foundation (RO)	X	X		X	X		X		
Unity Enterprise (UK)	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Elite Care at Home (UK)	X		X				X	X	
Coalition of Care and Support Providers (CCSP) (UK)	X								X

ES sectors/ Institutions	Social assistance services	Education and training	Culture and recreation	Work integration, employment	Economic, social and community development	Housing	Health care and medical services	Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism	Law, advocacy, politics
Care Malta Group (MT)	X	X					X		
C.A.T. Cooperative (IT)	X	X		X	X				
Agape Cooperative (IT)	X	X	X				X	X	
Il Girasole Social Cooperative (IT)	X		X	X			X		
Arcacoop. (IT)	X	X	X	X			X		
Alice Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise) (IT)	X	X	X	X		X	X		
Arké Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise) (IT)	X	X	X	X		X		X	
San Tommaso D'Aquino Cooperative (IT)	X	X							
Pane&Rose Cooperative (IT)	X	X	X			X			
Paim Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise) (IT)	X								

Giovani Valdarno Social Cooperative Enterprise (IT)	X	X	X			X	X
Colori Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise) (IT)	X	X	X			X	X
Il Cenacolo Social Cooperative (IT)	X	X	X				
G. Di Vittorio Social Cooperative (IT)	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Eskimo Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise) (IT)	X	X					
Coop.21 Social Cooperative (IT)	X	X	X				X
Solidarietà Social Cooperative	X					X	
Metropoli Consortium Social Cooperative Onlus Enterprise (IT), non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Co&So Cooperative for Cooperation and Solidarity (IT)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Zenit Consortium (IT)	X	X	X		X	X	
Irecoop Toscana Consortium (IT)	X	X	X	X			
Pegaso Consortium (IT)	X	X	X				

ES sectors/ Institutions	Social assistance services	Education and training	Culture and recreation	Work integration, employment	Economic, social and community development	Housing	Health care and medical services	Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism	Law, advocacy, politics
Astir Consortium (IT)	X	X		X				X	
Margherita Fasolo School (IT)	X	X							
Kindergarten srl (IT)	X	X							
Gaetano Barbieri Cooperative	X	X	X						
Instituto de Mayores y Servicios Sociales (IM-SERSO) [Institute for Social Services for Elderly and Dependent Persons] (ES)	X							X	
Asociación de ayuda al drogodependiente [Association for Aid to Drug Dependent Persons] (ACLAD) (ES)	X			X			X		
Institución Benéfico Social Padre Rubinos (ES)	X								

COSPE – Cooperazione per lo Sviluppo dei Paesi Emergenti [Cooperative for the Development of Emerging Countries] (IT)	X		X				X
Scottish Care (UK)	X			X	X		X
Athenaeum Musicale (IT)	X	X					
Câmara Municipal de Loures (PT)	X	X		X	X		X
Escola de Hotelaria e Turismo de Lisboa (PT)	X		X	X		X	
Scottish Social Services Council (SSSC) (UK)	X						X
ReteSviluppo Cooperative (IT)			X				
Hotel–Resort Sarata Monteoru (RO)					X	X	
Hotel House of Dracula (RO)						X	
Romaris Travel Agency (RO)						X	
Malta Tourism Authority (MT)						X	
Falcon Travel (ES)						X	
Witericus (ES)						X	

Hence, we can note that alongside the historically typical sectors of social entrepreneurship (in particular social assistance services, health care and medical services), the sectors of involvement extend to 'new' fields of action (e.g. creation of new employment, social inclusion, etc.).

Alongside institutions and organizations with a range of legal forms – mainly cooperatives (documented in Spain and Italy), foundations, NGOs, associations, non-profit institutions (documented in Spain) – the research also considered 'non-profit institutions serving social economy entities' (consortia of cooperatives). This category does not refer to a particular a sector, but a type of activity which prevalently provides services to members.

As far as the distribution of organizations according to sector of involvement is concerned, in most cases the activities performed touch on several sectors. In this connection, it is necessary to remember that the data provides a reflection of multifunctional organizations, hence it shows the organizations' prevalent functions.

The sample distribution by sector is shown in table 2.

Table 2 – Social economy sectors represented in the SALM research.

Sectors represented in the research sample	Number of institutions represented by sector
Social assistance services	41
Education and training	33
Culture and recreation	21
Work integration, employment	22
Economic, social and community development	13
Housing	11
Health care and medical services	22
Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, costruction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism	19
Law, advocacy, politics	6

The research highlights that – in the sample under examination - the most popular functions are social assistance services, education and training services, work integration, employment, and health care and medical services.

As well as operating in a variety of sectors (see table 1), the social economy organizations considered are also diverse in terms of their age. Their age refers to the date of the institution's formal date of establishment. As seen in other more wide-ranging research (OECD, 2013), the sample that we have taken into consideration also shows that those organizations in territories where the social economy concept has been es-

tablished for a longer period of time (such as Italy, Spain and Portugal) would appear to be older than the average. This is confirmed by the case of Tuscany, where the date of establishment of most of the institutions in the sample is after the 1980s, namely following the approval of law n° 381, which established the social cooperatives, on 8 November 1991. In recent years, the set of social economy bodies has continued to grow quite strongly, despite the serious economic crisis, confirming their position as significant players in the entrepreneurial fabric. Some centuries–old institutions are present in the Portuguese sample, organizations which are rooted in a tradition of a religious mould (see table 3)[3].

Table 3 – SALM sampe per year of formation.

SALM social economy organization	Year of formation
Santa Casa da Misericórdia de Chaves (SCMCH)	1516
Santa Casa da Misericórdia de Alcácer do Sal (SCMAS)	1530
Câmara Municipal de Loures (CML)	1886
Institución Benéfico Social Padre Rubinos	1918
INATEL Foundation	1935
Escola de Hotelaria e Turismo de Lisboa	1957
Margherita Fasolo Scuola per l'infanzia	1965
Kindergarten	1973
G. Di Vittorio Social Cooperative	1977
Giovani Valdarno Social Cooperative	1978
IMSERSO	
Asociación Ciudadana de Lucha contra la Droga (ACLAD)	1979
Alice Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	
Arca Social Cooperative	
Colori Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	1983
COSPE	
Elite Care at Home	1984
C.A.T. Cooperative	1985

[3] Table 3 only includes those concerns whose prevalent and legally established mission is to put together solidarity and social integration operations and initiatives. Hence, Hotel-Resort Sarata Monteoru, Hotel House of Dracula, Romaris Travel Agency, Falcon Travel and Witericus are not included.

SALM social economy organization	Year of formation
Santa Casa da Misericórdia da Amadora (SCMA)	1986
Unity Enterprise	1989
G. Barbieri Social Cooperative	1990
The Princess Margarita of Romania Foundation (FPMR)	
Il Cenacolo Social Cooperative	1991
Care Malta Group	1993
Agape Cooperative	1994
Consorzio Astir	
Irecoop Toscana Consorzio	1995
Solidarietà Social Cooperative	
Co&So Consorzio per la Cooperazione e la Solidarietà	1998
Pane&Rose Cooperative	
Pegaso Consortium	
Paim Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	
Malta Tourism Authority	1999
Il Girasole Cooperative	
Metropoli Consortium	
Zenit Consortium	2000
Scottish Care	
Scottish Social Services Council (SSSC)	2001
Eskimo Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	2002
Athenaenum Musicale	2003
General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection Sector 1	
Coalition of Care and Support Providers (CCSP)	2005
Arké Social Cooperative Onlus, non–profit social cooperative (enterprise)	2007
Federaţia Filantropia	
ReteSviluppo Social Cooperative	2008
San Tommaso D'Aquino Cooperative	n.a.
Coop.21 Social Cooperative	n.a.

5. The Action Research and Pilot Project

The research activity was divided into the following specific tasks.

1. Development of a research methodology for the collection and analysis of data, plus the identification and synthesis of factors and drivers, at the micro, meso and macro levels.

2. Inventory of relevant policies and measures developed in partner countries and their evaluation in the field of reducing youth unemployment.

3. Field research, including interviews with relevant stakeholders, entrepreneurs, knowledgeable people and experts, aimed at complementing desk research and identifying how labour market needs are changing, young people's competences and the mismatches between the two. The interviews also enabled the identification of good practices and potential case studies were investigated.

The partners carried out transnational research, exploring, analysing and comparing existing approaches to combating the phenomenon of young people not in employment, education or training (NEETs) across the different countries. The goal was to identify key dimensions and related elements of success and good practices in promoting youth employment. There is a problem of a mismatch in both the youths' lack of information and the competences needed for jobs in the social sector and senior tourism. Skills mismatches in SALM labour markets have been growing and these mismatches have different origins such as:

- The composition of skills emerging from EU universities and training systems does not fully support a truly innovation-driven economy;
- Imperfect information and structural rigidities, on the one hand, and workers are not provided with the right level of skills in the right areas, which damages the competitiveness in particular of smaller enterprises;
- The educational and professional choices of young men and women continue to be influenced by traditional gender paths, contributing to skills shortages, for example in technical and managerial occupations.

These issues require better cooperation between educational institutions and employers from the social and tourism sectors . However, educators and job counsellors need also a practical toolkit to improve young people's competences as well as self-employment and entrepreneurship. In particular, the toolkits were designed for young people, employers and also employment and training counsellors, providing a diagnostic tool for the new and basic skills required for jobs in the two sectors; furthermore, for the educators and training counsellors, several tools were developed by the consortium for conducting their counselling with young people and employers and other entrepreneurs.

We consider that young people also need access to good quality information about career options, the skills they need to be successful in the workplace, and the different educational pathways and where they lead. This includes not only information about likely labour market demand but also 'reality check' information about what different jobs actually involve. Therefore, the SALM model was built on the basis of the results from the partners' analysis of the situation and youth employment measures, the case studies and focus group activities, feedback from national advisory board contributions, and the results of good practices and application of the pilot project, namely the business gain from using internships, internal training and developing information activities such as branding.

6. Identifying Competence Requirements

The specific tasks included:
- from the selection of a sample of organizations (case studies) the consortium detected the main mismatches in both sectors and the main reasons for this;
- through the focus group approach, the consortium detected the future competences for the young people to respond to labour market needs in both social economy sectors as well as the existing gaps in each national qualification framework;
- the consortium developed a model – based on the results of the case studies, focus group and good practices selected – containing the strong points and the factors to successfully know and start gaining the knowledge skills and competences needed by the labour market.

The results from the case studies and focus groups[4] showed that soft skills were considered core skills for professionals working in senior tourism and social services[5]. In particular, personal qualities/attributes (self-control, assertiveness, initiative, responsibility, etc.), communication skills (referred to as strategic) and human relations and interpersonal skills (coaching, dealing with conflicts, interaction and collaboration

[4] The main participants in the focus group were: employment services experts, education and vocational training experts, labour agency experts, target group associations, social partners, tourism experts, social services experts, local authorities, trainers and social service entrepreneurs, youth associations, counsellors and policy makers.

[5] According to the OECD (2015), social and emotional skills, such as self-control and self-motivation, have an impact on earnings, health, engagement in violence and many other life outcomes. The importance of soft skills, namely, the skills such as learning to learn, initiative and entrepreneurship, is in line with the European Key Competences Framework.

with peers, cooperation and team working, sharing of information) are skills and competences whose acquisition and development is essential within any learning pathway (formal/non–formal) leading to social services and senior tourism qualifications (Portugal).

Soft skills, like communication, teamwork, bearing responsibility and time management, are considered key features which young people lack (Scotland, UK). Moreover, young people are also considered to be missing specific skills that are deemed essential requisites to work in the social care sector. For example, competences to deal with psychologically frail individuals, or to manage highly risky situations.

The activities aimed to identify good practices in the partner countries in the field of the integration of young people in the social economy labour market through case studies, focus groups, and conclusions from existing research and projects. The specific tasks included:
• development of the methodology to collect and analyse good practices;
• collection of good practices in social economy sectors related to social services and senior tourism, the competence approaches/national qualification frameworks and gender approach;
• good practice analysis on the basis of the methodology developed;
• comparative analysis and identification of the SALM model success factors.


7. Model Building and Toolkits

From the selection of national good practices and the feedback from the national advisory board contributions, the consortium developed a pilot project based on the SALM model, which contains the strong points and the factors to successfully know and gain the skills needed in the senior tourism and social services sectors, and the methodology and toolkits for the training entities for the success of those good practices. In addition to what emerged from the case studies and focus groups, we also considered that young people need access to good quality information about career options, the skills they need to be successful in the workplace, and different education and training pathways. It includes not only information about labour market demand but also 'reality check' information about what different jobs actually involve. The SALM research adopted an innovative systemic approach, jointly addressing the micro level of how employers are facing up to the future labour market needs/competences and the meso level investigating the actual or potential role of the national qualification frameworks as well as the role of new actors (companies, social partners, non–governmental organizations, foundations, public entities, etc.) in promoting the employability of young people.

The model concerned the integration of young people in the labour market through the improvement of their competences in line with the labour market needs and the qualification framework, ensuring the early involvement of target groups and key stakeholders in order to increase future sustainability.

The SALM model and its specific tools were built based on the comparative analysis of the experiences, approaches and practices contributed by each country (Portugal, Spain, Romania, Malta, Italy-Tuscany, United Kingdom-Scotland and Germany) in the field of fighting youth unemployment in light of the specificities of each qualification system and innovative practices to motivate the young people to improve their participation in lifelong learning and thus raise their employability, self-employment and entrepreneurship activities.

The model was based on key success factors, different methods and phases, according to the different target groups identified, as presented in table 4.

The *SALM model integrates the following phases*: Screening Phase, Awareness Phase, Matching Phase and Evaluation Phase, targeted at young people, employers and educators and employment and training counsellors (3 target groups).

| Screening of young people | Awareness actions | Matching phase | Evaluation phase |
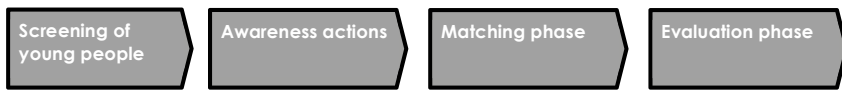
The contents of the phases are detailed in the table below:

Table 4 – Model Proposal-Main Contents.

Method	Phases	Target groups		
		Young people	Employers	Educators, employment and training counsellors
Diagnosis	Screening phase	To select and screen VET and/or higher education students with profiles to work in the social services and senior tourism sectors.	To reflect with employers and entrepreneurs regarding young staff profiles, having a focus on soft skills to work in the social services and senior tourism sector.	To reflect with educators, employment and training counsellors regarding the concept of self-employment and entrepreneurship in the social economy sectors. To organize a preparatory seminar addressed to organizations in the social services/senior tourism sectors on their employment opportunities.

Method	Phases	Target groups		
		Young people	Employers	Educators, employment and training counsellors
Intervention	Awareness phase	To raise awareness of the best profile of young people to work in social economy organizations: 'how young people perceive seniors' and 'how young people perceive job opportunities in the social services and senior tourism sectors.	To be aware of how to attract students to the social services and senior tourism sectors. To be aware of how to optimize businesses to become more attractive for young people.	To be aware of how educators, employment and training counsellors can support young people searching for a job in the social economy sector. To be aware of suitable training and university curricula to solve the mismatch between supply and demand.
	Matching phase	To match student profiles with the competences needed by the social services and senior tourism sectors and 'how to prepare young people to work in the social services and senior tourism areas'.	To organize events in companies with students, with the aim of integrating and retaining young people for voluntary or/ and paid work, such as: 'shadowing and volunteer programmes, visits to companies and organizing internships'.	To match students and companies in the social services and senior tourism sectors. To guide young people in further studies for the field of social services and senior tourism sectors.
Evaluation	Guidance phase	To evaluate how students perceive the added value of the SALM initiative and reflect about the outcomes of their participation in the initiative.	To evaluate how employers and entrepreneurs / managers perceive the added value of the SALM initiative.	To evaluate how educators, employment and training counsellors evaluate the level of satisfaction with the preparatory seminar and perceive the added value of the SALM initiative.

Specific tools – the toolkits – supported the application of the SALM model in real tests; the toolkits were designed for each target group in the intervention, namely, the young people, counsellors and entrepreneurs. The toolkits were developed by one of the Portuguese partners (CECOA), interacting with many others; the preliminary version of the toolkits was tested on employment counsellors in Fundación Ronsel (Es).

The toolkits were designed for employers, young people and job counsellors; for the first two stakeholders, a diagnostic tool was proposed for the new and basic skills required/needed. The tool was meant to check competence needs and was developed for employers in the two sectors (social services and senior tourism).

The toolkits for young people, employers and job counsellors aimed to support the improvement of young people's competences and employability as well as their self-employment and entrepreneurship skills for the social economy sectors investigated.

The toolkits were aimed at defining a set of instruments supporting the development of a model for the integration of young people in the labour market through the improvement of their competences in line with labour market needs and the qualification frameworks.

The toolkits have a common framework consisting of three points:
- the description of the different situations in terms of the unemployed young people's competences and the mismatches related to labour market needs;
- the description of the methods of diagnosis, intervention and evaluation of results;
- in addition to the description, a set of indicators in each of the phases (diagnosis, intervention, evaluation/impact of results) was arranged.

The toolkits served to achieve the following:
- *at micro level*: raising awareness regarding the employment potential in the social services and senior tourism for young people, employers and employment and training counsellors;
- *at meso level*: guiding young people to the labour market by reducing skills mismatches in the social services and senior tourism sectors; supporting employers in attracting and maintaining young people motivated to work in social services and senior tourism and giving some tools to guide employment and training counsellors in social services and senior tourism careers.

Who should use the toolkits, who are the target groups?
- young people;
- employers and entrepreneurs (social enterprises, NGOs, foundations, etc.) from the social services and senior tourism sectors;
- educators, employment and training counsellors coming from guidance services offered by VET providers/employment services/universities (these services, depending on the countries and situations, can be provided by counsellors, trainers, teachers or experts).

How can the toolkits support entry to work?
- by providing a reference manual and a set of tools;
- the toolkit consists of a guide and tools to support professionals working in youth guidance, with employers, educators, employment and training counsellors, in particular offering tools to lead towards the employability of young people in the social services and senior tourism sectors.

The toolkit for the *young people* includes:
- a diagnostic tool;
- a supportive instrument for the collection of evidence;

- a framework on successful training, namely through a work context environment.

The toolkit for *entrepreneurs* includes:
- a diagnostic tool;
- a support instrument (manual) to detect the new competences needed by organizations.

The toolkit for *employment counsellors for training and labour integration* includes:
- methodological guidelines for new competences and self–employment as well as entrepreneurship competences;
- a support tool for the counsellors' role in facilitating new job opportunities for the young people.

In total, the SALM model of intervention was supported by seven specific toolkits. The toolkits supported the model–intervention concerning the integration of young people in the labour market through the improvement of their competences to fit labour market needs and the qualification frameworks for the social services and senior tourism sectors. The toolkits were elaborated in close cooperation with the partners and included their feedback. The feedback from the stakeholders was positive (advisory boards set up in all of the partner countries).

The methods included the following steps.

Diagnosis: screening tools and supportive instruments to collect evidence from young people and potential employers, and a reflexive tool used with educators, employment and training counsellors to explore employment and training opportunities.

Intervention: a set of awareness sessions and short training sessions, coaching and mentoring events with young people, potential employers and educators, employment and training counsellors.

Evaluation: to get a reaction and evaluation of the added value of applying the methodology; to get feedback from an advisory board panel (composed of external evaluators) and to find the impact of results (by applying a SWOT analysis to the beneficiaries).
- Strengths: characteristics of the intervention that gave it an advantage over the others;
- Weaknesses: characteristics that place the intervention at a disadvantage relative to the others;
- Opportunities: elements that the intervention could exploit to its advantage;
- Threats: elements in the environment that could cause troubles to the SALM model.

The model phases were:
- the *Screening Phase*, the main goal was to select trainees/students as well as potential employers for the programme/intervention. The screening tool was used to appraise soft skills in social services and senior tourism. Regarding educators, employment and training counsellors, the main goal was to reflect with them about self-employment and entrepreneurship in social services and senior tourism;
- the *Awareness Phase*, the main goal was to raise the target groups' ability to perceive, feel, or be conscious of job opportunities in social services and senior tourism. The level of consciousness was obtained through the end users' involvement in possible problem-solving solutions and strategies;
- the *Matching Phase*, the main goal was to help match the young people's profiles with social services and senior tourism sector demands, as well to learn what employers can do to attract and retain young people in the two social economy sectors; and how educators, employment and training counsellors can guide young people to further studies in those two sectors;
- the *Guidance Phase*, the main goal was to counsel students to choose the social services and senior tourism sectors; to support employers in their proactive approaches towards young people and advise counsellors on how to sell the benefits of the sectors; and to evaluate how users perceive the added value from the overall intervention of the SALM project.

Indicators of Diagnosis, Intervention, Evaluation/Impact of Results

Indicators of Diagnosis: they represented the number of soft skills identified before the intervention as well as the number of soft skills identified after the intervention; the number of persons (young people, employers and entrepreneurs, educators, employment and training counsellors) who participated in the diagnosis.

Indicators of Intervention: they represented the number of beneficiaries (young people, employers, entrepreneurs, educators, employment and training counsellors) who were involved in the awareness and matching sessions; the number of experiences exchanged among young people, employers, entrepreneurs and educators, and employment and training counsellors in the intervention phase.

Indicators of Evaluation/Impact: they were the reaction evaluation report (satisfaction level) and perception of the added value of the intervention; beneficiaries' overall impact evaluation (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats); stakeholders' evaluation (advisory boards' evaluation).

8. Pilot Testing, Validation and Awareness

The consortium developed a pilot project in four of the partner countries, based on good practices selected from the case studies and focus groups, containing the strong points and the factors to successfully know and gain the competences needed for the transition into the labour market. The SALM model developed by the consortium was validated by the following activities in Portugal, Scotland-UK, Malta and Spain:
- presentation and discussion of the SALM products with the advisory boards in the member countries;
- use of the toolkit by a group of young people;
- use of the toolkit by a group of employers;
- use of the toolkit by a group of employment counsellors.

The most useful results of this concept – the piloting – were that they showed the importance of experimental-based innovation.
The specific tasks included:
- the definition of criteria for the selection of the pilot project from the good practices in key competences for lifelong learning (feedback from employers);
- application of the pilot project in four partner countries and the respective evaluation;
- definition of outcome indicators to compare the impact in decreasing the mismatches and level of youth unemployment in the partner countries involved.

Awareness actions concerning skill gaps and competences were carried out targeting:
- young public to raise their employability and participation in lifelong learning;
- employers to increase participation in updating the national qualification framework;
- public entities to increase the quality of education and training systems.

Concerning testing, the partners undertook the following:
- testing of the model in four partner countries and collection of relevant feedback to fine-tune it in the light of emerging problems and specific needs;
- definition of a strategic plan for the transferability and extension of results and the viable options to implement them, through public/ private cooperation.

The SALM partners implemented the main phases identified by the model (screening, awareness, matching and guidance), while taking in-

to consideration the specific experience of the organization and also the main trends in youth unemployment:

- Glasgow Caledonian University (Scotland–United Kingdom) focused the research on screening and awareness-raising among young people, involving employers from the social care sector;
- Fundación Ronsel (Spain) and the Spanish experts started by approaching the topic from the point of view of employment counsellors. The Spanish approach was based on the direct contact of professionals with young people who are trying to get into the labour market for the first time or who are trying to return after a period of training or unemployment;
- the Institute of Tourism Studies (Malta) had an approach based on youth employability starting from a *horizon projection of what the situation might be within five years in the two sectors*. Malta dealt with young people's vulnerabilities in the labour market due to their lack of experience. ITS (the Maltese partner) also considered that youth mobility and intergenerational solidarity are two sides of the same coin. Nevertheless, young people often face issues related to securing decent affordable accommodation and gaining access to health and social care. The topic is very important at the moment in the country and the University of Malta is conducting a new study on social tourism in Malta together with other European universities;
- in the Centro de Formação Profissional para o Comércio e Afins (CE-COA, Portugal), young students, employers and educators, and employment and training counsellors were involved in the pilot phase. The young people taking part in the pilot phase were VET students from the apprenticeship system, from two editions of the 'technical commercial' training course (mainly retail salespeople).

9. Toolkit Guidelines and Quality of the Tools

By analysing factors of change at the micro and meso levels concerning the competences needed and the role of the actors involved in the social economy areas (such as social services and senior tourism), the partners aimed to provide an innovative and comprehensive paradigm of learning. The latter supported them in investigating the skills match and the competences required by the labour market as resulting from the focus group sessions carried out in the research.

As said, the SALM pilot phase followed in four countries was based on a selection of good practices made considering the strong points and the factors to successfully know and gain the competences needed by the labour market. On the other hand, the evaluation of the pilot project through agreed outcome indicators enabled the consor-

tium to build a model with the key success factors in decreasing youth unemployment.

The toolkit addressed to the *young people* aimed to explore their potential and discover new job opportunities in social economy sectors like social services and senior tourism, as well as to make hidden competences emerge, to facilitate contact with future employers and to be aware of the best education and training pathways to get and maintain a position in the social economy fields.

The young people's toolkit explored how:
- to obtain the soft skills for a job in the social economy sectors (i.e. social services and senior tourism);
- to achieve the most relevant self-employment strategies and entrepreneurship competences;
- to find the most suitable training pathway to work in the sector;
- to get in contact with the best mentor or the social entrepreneurs' network itself.

The toolkit addressed to the *employers* from the social economy areas (i.e. social services and senior tourism) aimed to improve their profile to attract young people and to organize shadowing and volunteer programmes, visits to companies and internships.

The employers' toolkit explored how:
- to reflect on the main challenges for the organizations;
- to improve the employers' image in the (social) market;
- to be a (social) entrepreneur/social value organization;
- to find new young human capital for their organization;
- to make the social services and senior tourism areas more attractive for young people.

The toolkit addressed to *educators, employment and training counsellors* aimed to facilitate a better matching process between potential employees and employers in the social services and senior tourism sectors, as well as to acquire new methodologies to match competences, job profiles and recruitment.

The educators, employment and training counsellors' toolkit explored how:
- to match young people with entrepreneurs from the social services and senior tourism;
- to get tips and guidelines for (social) organizations to attract young people;
- to promote the preliminary contact between (social) organizations and young people;

- to provide the best career strategies for young people;
- to screen and make the selected young people aware of the social economy sector and prepare them adequately.

Following the use of the SALM toolkits we can draw up the following conclusions:
- Soft skills (as mentioned above, i.e. self-control, assertiveness, etc.) were referred to as core skills for professionals working in the social economy sectors, specifically in the social services and senior tourism areas.
- Increasing young people's competences through innovative training approaches leads to a high range of employment opportunities. Innovative training approaches must be cost- effective, motivating, reward-driven and focused on relevant contents. It is important to define more flexible training curricula, in particular those which give students experience and more contact with employers, in order to facilitate their transition into the labour market.
- Initiatives like shadowing and volunteer programmes, visits to companies and internships are a win-win situation since young people get in contact with the market earlier in their lifecycle and when they are still in the VET system. On the other hand, self-employed young people generally find their own work rather than being provided with work by an employer, earning income from a trade or business that they operate. Moreover, young self-employment can generate more young employment.
- Entrepreneurship is a key factor in reducing unemployment. Entrepreneurs want to engage in establishing new businesses. In order to do this, they need particular and distinctive set of personal qualities and skills, as mentioned above. Being entrepreneurial seems to involve many of the enterprise skills, but also something extra – the ability to generate creative ideas, take risks in implementing them and be motivated to get them off the ground.

10. Conclusions

The steps illustrated above sum up the methodological potentials of the investigation carried out. The qualitative methodology enabled a work model to be built that highlighted important data for the development of the social economy. Thanks to the naturalistic paradigm, specific to the socio-educational and socio-formative sectors, the researchers were able to follow an inductive and deductive process in their scientific work to put together the pieces of the research. In this work, they were always in strict contact with the sphere of reference and always suitably open to a change of perspective. The tools and techniques guaranteed that the

data could be transferred, compared and constantly monitored and given a final assessment. The second part of the project, with the construction of the toolkit and the pilot project, rounded off a coherent and harmonious methodological path, which more than ever highlighted the need to work closely with the theoretical hypotheses, empirical findings and *experimentally* proven evidence.

CHAPTER 4

THE DEMAND FOR COMPETENCES IN SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANIZATIONS. ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY PERFORMED IN MALTA, PORTUGAL, ROMANIA, SCOTLAND, SPAIN, AND TUSCANY

Francesca Torlone[1]

1. Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to analyzing the results of the study performed in the framework of the SALM international research project. In it we analyze the materials gathered in the two years of research into social economy contexts at national level (Malta, Portugal, Romania and Spain) and local level (Scotland for the United Kingdom, Tuscany for Italy).

The selected sample (see ch. 3, § 4) is random and hence our analysis does not aim to result in generalizations. We set out to use the empirical material available in order to enrich our knowledge of some organizations operating in sectors of the social economy which are potentially capable of fostering qualified youth employment.

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[1] This chapter is based on SALM Survey results. Texts on SALM empirical data and related Boxes are by partners own representatives as listed below: Simone Baglioni (Glasgow Caledonian University, United Kingdom), Vanna Boffo (University of Firenze, Italy), Roberto Carneiro (Universidade Católica Portuguesa-Faculdade de Ciências Humanas, Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP, Portugal), Fernando Chau (Universidade Católica Portuguesa-Faculdade de Ciências Humanas, Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP, Portugal), Cristina Dugan (SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL, Romania), Alexandru Dumitru (SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL, Romania), Luis García (Fundación Ronsel, Spain), George Mangion (Institute of Tourism Studies, Malta), Rachael MacLeod (Glasgow Caledonian University, United Kingdom), Alina Marinoiu (SC Global Commercium Development SRL, Romania), Micaela Mazzei (Glasgow Caledonian University, United Kingdom), Tom Montgomery (Glasgow Caledonian University, United Kingdom), Patricia Mouro (Fundación Ronsel, Spain), Cristina Partal (SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL, Romania), Cândida Soares (Universidade Católica Portuguesa–Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP, Portugal), José António Sousa Fialho (Universidade Católica Portuguesa–Centro de Estudos dos Povos e Culturas de Expressão Portuguesa CEPCEP, Portugal), Rafael Vázquez (Fundación Ronsel, Spain), Vanda Vieira (Centro de Formação Profissional para o Comércio e Afins, Portugal), Roxana Weiss-Anton (SC Labour Market Strategies Consulting SRL, Romania), Mario Zammit (Institute of Tourism Studies, Malta).

The central purpose of this study is to analyze how to encourage labour supply and demand to meet in some sectors of the social economy.

2. Social Economy Organizations

In this section, we set out to illustrate some elements characterizing the selected social economy organizations, and to give a description of their characteristics and of how they operate. This will serve as an introduction to the analysis of the demand for training the personnel employed in the sector (§ 4).

2.1 The Characteristics

The significance of the local contexts
The bodies studied take on a different appearance depending on the local contexts and the development of the welfare system, civil society, role of the family, social finance market and dedicated public policies in those territories. We also consider the different degree of development – including laws – of the social economy sector (in Romania, for example, recent efforts to create a law on the social economy have generated awareness and stimulated debate on the concept and the way it is operationalized). However, awareness and understanding of the concept of social enterprise generally remains low and no policy framework encourages or supports the creation and development of social enterprises (European Commission, 2015). This impacts the various business areas covered in the social economy and the operations of the organizations working there.
The results of the study confirm that the birth and expansion of the social economy is closely linked to the type of development of social policies: the more state and market struggle to give responses to citizens' social needs (also owing to the financial unsustainability of the welfare system), the stronger the initiative of the private sector to activate processes to de-institutionalize the social inclusion and welfare of disadvantaged categories of the population. Thanks to the initiative of independent entrepreneurs, citizens self-organize to satisfy social needs, at times regardless of the buying power of those in need[2]. It is the evolution of the welfare state into a welfare society: namely, the collectivity, through its own private organizations, takes on management of the whole welfare system according to rules dictated by the state. It is a con-

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[2] Concept functional to public interest theories according to which the public interest can be pursued by public or private entities.

tradictory tendency, not without its problems, but one that can be seen in the analysed cases. In some situations, over the years of the economic crisis, the state's presence in support of the social economy organizations has progressively reduced, driving the latter to define their own spheres and methods of intervention.

Among the establishments identified, in our analysis we shall favour those whose *main* and *continuing* objective, as per the articles of association, is mutual or public benefit. The organizations prove to be strongly rooted in the local area – in many cases in connection with local cultural traditions – which highlights the proximity between the provider of the service and the beneficiary, so that the specific needs of the latter can be taken into account.

Therefore, we shall not consider hotel or hospitality facilities (included in the Romanian and Spanish samples) which in recent years have strengthened their offer of tourism services for the elderly (over-65) or social tourism within a profit-based organizational model, but do not have solidarity and social purposes as the institution's mission.

2.2 Participation Model

The services managed by the social economy (care, education, recreation, support for entering the world of work, etc.) are characterized as intangible goods. Their production requires the presence of a relational system involving a variety of subjects assigned different roles: those who produce the good or service, those who directly 'consume' it or indirectly benefit from it, those who finance its production, those who foster its use, etc. Use of the services does not exclusively benefit the direct addressees, since wider groups of people and communities indirectly draw benefits from them, in terms of a better quality of life, greater social cohesion, greater professionalization, greater security and well-being, etc.

This is why in the social economy forms of participation between producers and financers of goods and services, and between producers and (direct and indirect) consumers are quite widespread, the latter also being involved as members of the social enterprise despite not being an active part of the production process.

What results is that the relationality element is a characteristic content of social enterprises, which helps to build their specific identity. In terms of operations, this translates into a pronounced capacity to build bonds and make networks between different players, both inside and outside the organizational structure (International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization, 2011; Noya, 2009). We are referring, in particular, to relations with other institutions, based on economic aspects, collaboration, programming and governance, also «to gain recognition for their specific characteristics and their contributions

to development» (International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization, 2011: 54).

In this connection, on the basis of the material gathered and analysis of the distinct and complex elements of the sector, we shall try to isolate the relational models at the basis of the entrepreneurial action of the organizations under examination, which mainly correspond to the various types of funding, dealt with later on (see table 1).

Table 1 – Public-private relational models.

Public-private relational models	Economic and collaborative relations	Substitutive model with public support
		Participative model
		Management outsourcing model
	Consultation, programming and governance relations	Policy-making initiative management model
		Advocacy development model

In terms of economic and collaborative relations, the models found are:
- *Substitutive* model but with public support (e.g. through participation in public tenders[3], donations and subsidies from public institutions, public foundations) which we find in the Tuscan, Portuguese and Romanian enterprises involved in the research, where most of the services delivered – like social assistance, health and medical services – are largely supported by public funding. This model jeopardizes the continuity of the production processes and the maintenance of hybrid resources supporting production, owing to the public budget situations.
- *Participative* model aimed at developing genuine partnerships between the public and private sector for the common management of facilities (e.g. nursing homes, home care, etc.) or programme initiatives that are identified as being in line with public objectives (for example, projects for disabled people) through mixed companies, agreements, conventions, etc. In this case they are initiatives of public outsourcing which aim to go beyond traditional forms of outsourcing public services (i.e. the substitutive model). Instead, they foster the adoption of new devices to regulate relations that – on one hand – emphasize the subsidiary role of the public institution and – on the other hand – support greater autonomy for the social economy entities. We may cite the case of the Care Malta Group, the first private company to closely collaborate with the government in developing Malta's first public-private partnership (PPP) in older persons care. This PPP re-

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[3] In Scotland it is worth to mention the *Community Benefit Clause* (Scottish Government, 2008) that is included in the public competitions in order to promote cooperation between the social economy and for-profit organizations.

lationship has continued to develop very successfully, so much so that Care Malta today operates two other government-owned facilities at Cospicua and Mellieha.

In Romania the participative model is mixed, insofar as the interventions fielded by the Princess Margareta of Romania Foundation benefit from the support of local authorities and institutions, the business sector, schools, churches and civil society.

- *Management outsourcing* model promoted by the public institutions for the management of activities and services by social economy players, above all to promote work integration for disadvantaged categories.

With regard to consultation, programming and governance relations, we can single out two models.

- Model for the *management of policy-making initiatives*, mainly in specific sectors and areas. In this case, the concrete result is bargaining practices and social and local labour policy programming tables, in which increasingly often social enterprises are called upon to interact with the public authorities to define strategic goals and policies for implementation. This is also motivated by the proximity, vicinity and bond with users and territory which makes the social economy organizations a privileged interlocutor in the issue-making phase of the policy-making process[4]. Thanks to this model, the services and products made available to the users (to individuals and the collectivity) are not the upshot of market research 'from above', nor planning implemented by the public authorities (Borzaga and Defourny, 2001b). Rather they are the pertinent response to the varied demand for services in a given area. The model can result in initiatives aimed, for example, at promoting the efficiency of the system of services or the creation of networks. The reference here is to Scottish Care, which is at the forefront of the national policy agenda. It is ideally placed to put forward not just the views of its members but also those of the whole care sector. Scottish Care is represented on key government and regulatory policy groups, it receives copies of all relevant sector consultation documents, and can actively take part in the institutional consultation process with political ends.
- Model for the *development of advocacy functions*, that is, the promotion and protection of rights and, in general, of the values and mission that drive the sector. In this case, the target is the decision makers. They are acted upon to influence their behaviour or change their perception and

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[4] Anderson (1997: 39-41) recognizes five stages in the policy-making process: problem identification and agenda setting, formulation, adoption, implementation and evaluation.

understanding of a given issue that is to be promoted: for example, in Scotland this model was used with regard to the issue of the integration of health and social care in order to challenge policies or practices that inhibit or undermine the sector's ability to provide quality care and support. It was promoted by the Coalition of Care and Support Providers-CCSP[5]. In Romania, Federaţia Filantropia aims to elaborate and implement common strategies and programmes in the fields of social services, medical services, education and community development.

Outside participative models, we can highlight how social economy organizations are also able to act autonomously on the market, without any type of relationship with public entities. In this case, services – like work integration, education and training, cleaning, etc. – are provided thanks to the production of goods and services that are traded on the market following market rules.

2.3 Legal Nature and Funding

The sample of social economy bodies examined in the SALM research is mainly composed of private entities, as given in table 2.

Table 2 – Juridical nature of the SALM sample.

Territory surveyed in the frame of the SALM survey	Private nature	Public/Semi–public nature
Tuscany	28	0
Romania	5	1
Spain	3	2
Scotland	4	1
Portugal	1	3
Malta	1	1
Total	**42**	**8**

The presence of public (or semi–public) bodies bears witness to the diversity of the players in the field (Spain, Portugal). In our sample they are especially present in contexts in which the social economy is still struggling to become fully established and independent (Romania), or where the public sector is heavily involved in important projects for some sectors of the social

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[5] Its mission is to identify, represent, promote and safeguard the interests of third sector and not-for-profit social care and support providers in Scotland, so that they can maximize the impact they have on meeting social need.

economy (Malta)[6]. In other words, in Europe we are seeing the presence of public bodies with remarkably complex and diverse institutional and organizational, management and operational models in the social economy sector too. The definition of the legal status of a social economy body as 'public' cannot be considered to have either an unambiguous or single meaning. The reasons for building these 'mixed' institutions are varied:

- services of public utility outsourced for principles of effectiveness, efficiency and cost reduction;
- to be released from public administration laws and avoid the rigidity of public regulations (e.g. with regard to access, controls, procedures, etc.);
- for political manoeuvrability, as in some cases the top bodies are appointed by the government (at the different government levels);
- to extend discretional choices, not possible in the framework of public institutional rules.

For the purpose of our research, we consider public or semi–public those organizations with a public legal status that is different from the set-up of state, regional or local public institutions and services. However, they are connected to public institutions owing to operational provisions and/or rules. We do not consider the public nature of the funds financing activities and services provided by the institution to be sufficient to qualify as such.

Among these we have also included an organization that performs functions of political representation and strategic positioning in the social economy sector (Scottish Social Services Council).

On the whole, as already pointed out, they are institutions that involve several types of stakeholder (from the volunteers to the funders) in the ownership and management and maintain strong links with the institutions and social players in the local communities where they operate. It is owing to the close connection between their legal status and sources of funding that we now direct our analysis to these sources. In this connection, social economy organizations are characterized by the variety of these sources. Our sample, moreover, highlighted a change in the nature of the revenues. It seems particularly significant to us that the sizeable drop in funding from the public administration, which varied depending on the spheres of intervention, but was present in all the situations under consideration, did not mean an overall reduction in income for all. This did not happen where the organizations fielded new

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[6] The Malta Tourism Authority is involved in the management of the Calypso project which is significant for the social economy sector as it aims to develop a 'Social Tourism Network' for disadvantaged groups of citizens.

fundraising initiatives to develop more diverse and sustainable resource bases, facilitating complementarity between different income sources. If they failed in this and were reliant on single income sources (like government funding), they could lose autonomy and position in the market.

In particular, the social economy activities and services are financed by a variety of sources and complex and diverse forms of exchange which vary depending on the specific objectives pursued and the services provided. Also in the cases we have taken into consideration, we see three main revenue resources (OECD, 2013).

- *Income generating activities*, including fees for services, sales, membership fees, rents, investments, business ventures, etc. Fee income from the public administration may take the form of voucher schemes, where the public administration (being a third party) pays for the individual's use of a particular service (very common in health and education services).

  Various organizations earn a substantial proportion of their income[7] through producing and trading goods and services of general and social interest to their members or community (including employment opportunities). In the goals of general interest we include basic infrastucture, key sectors (like health and education, care and social services) and other services (i.e. tourism). In some cases, the socially useful goods and services – which the law requires for recognition of the legal status as institution operating in the social economy – are indicated *ex lege* (e.g. art. 2 of Italian legislative decree n° 155/2006 for the Italian social enterprises)[8].

- *(Central or local) Government funding*, referring to:
  - public contracts/procurement, involving organizations required to bid for contracts to deliver particular services, which are allocated on a competitive basis;
  - grants, awarded for a specific project that is in line with government strategies and objectives;

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[7] The benchmark sometimes used for a social enterprise is that at least 50% of its turnover is earned income, although opinions and regulations vary on what the best threshold would be (in Italy, pursuant to art. 3 of Italian legislative decree n° 155/2006, the main activity is the one carried out by the social enterprise that accounts for seventy per cent of the overall revenue).

[8] They are learning, education and training services (also out-of-school services for the prevention of early school leaving and the successful completion of school and training), protection of the environment and ecosystem, enhancement of the cultural heritage, social tourism, university and post-university education, research and provision of cultural services, services to social enterprises provided by institutions with a stake of over seventy per cent held by organizations that exercise a social enterprise and social, health and welfare assistance. Whether or not they exercise services of social utility as set out by the law, organizations can be classed as a social enterprise if they carry out business activities to aid entry to work for disadvantaged and disabled workers.

- subsidies, allocated to organizations in order to support their activities more generally;
- tax benefits as a form of indirect government funding (i.e. exemptions from taxes on profits or donations). In Italy and Romania there is a 'percentage mechanism', which allows taxpayers to allocate a proportion of the tax they pay to specific organizations of their choice.
- *Philanthropy* (including financial donations from public and private entities, like in the case of associations, charities, foundations, in-kind support, membership fees, donation of time and other in-kind resources, through voluntary work for instance).

In our survey, organizations have a diverse mix of funding sources. Nonetheless, in our sample certain resources are more important in some territories than others: in Malta, Scotland, Spain and Tuscany government funding and income-generating activities prevail, whilst Portugal and Romania also show considerable use of resources linked to philanthropic ends.

The following summary table shows some elements characterising the organizations under investigation (mission, target, nature). Once again the table is ordered according to the stability and prevalence of social assistance activities and services.

Table 3 – Main features of SALM sample (mission, target, nature)

NAME OF THE SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANIZATION	MISSION	TARGET	NATURE
INATEL Foundation	To promote the best conditions for the leisure time of young people, workers and seniors, by developing and enhancing social tourism, cultural creation and enjoyment, physical activity and sport, as well as the promotion of inclusion and social solidarity.	Young people. Workers. Seniors.	Public
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Chaves–SCMCH (including the Agricultural School of Arts and Crafts in Chaves and CATL–Centre for Free Time Activities)	To assist needy people of different ages. To provide support in the area of the elderly, dependent households, day care and home care. To house boys aged 6–20 to start vocational training, integration and reintegration of youth into society and into the labour market. To support the elderly through home and day centres. To support children and youth in the respective childcare services, kindergarten and free time activities.	People in need of different ages. Elderly. Young people aged 6–20.	Private

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Alcácer do Sal- SCMAS	To manage care services, home and day centres, the youth office and hemodialysis centre.	Children at risk. People in need.	Public
Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Amadora- SCMA	To help poor people to overcome the difficulties of everyday life.	The poor, different age populations. Children, youth, elderly.	Association of public utility*
Directia Generala de Asistenta Sociala si Protectia Copilului (DGASPC) – Sector 1 [General Directorate of Social Assistance and Child Protection Sector 1–Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Protection]	To ensure a range of social care system. To ensure the local implementation of policies and strategies of social assistance.	Children. Family. Single persons. Elderly persons. Disabled persons. Any other persons in need.	Public
Federaţia Filantropia [Filantropia Federation]	To increase the impact and efficiency of the social actions of the member or partner organizations and of the social concerns of the Romanian Orthodox Church. To become the tool by which the church implements its social action strategy, its arm of action in the field of social work. To support the Romanian Orthodox Church in its social and philanthropic work for the people and their communities, in the spirit of the Christian faith. To elaborate and implement common strategies and programmes in the fields of social services, medical services, education and community development.	Children. Elderly. Disabled. Victims of domestic violence. Victims of human trafficking. Drug addiction. Detainees and former detainees.	Private
The Princess Margareta of Romania Foundation–FPMR	To improve the living conditions of children and young people, families at risk and the elderly. To stimulate intergenerational solidarity and create bridges of communication between the young and the elderly. To contribute to the institutional development of NGOs working with children and seniors. To foster local creativity and talent.	Children from disadvantaged families. Disadvantaged young people. Elderly people living alone and/ or in vulnerable situations.	Private

* Recognized by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

NAME OF THE SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANIZATION	MISSION	TARGET	NATURE
Unity Enterprise	To promote the ability of people for full cultural, social and economic inclusion within their community.	Young people. Adults experiencing disabilities and/or social disadvantages.	Private
Elite care at home	To provide high-quality home care services for the Fife, Tayside and Perthshire regions of East Scotland.	Adults of all ages. Clients recovering from surgery or illness. Clients with disability/disabilities. Elderly (couples) clients. Clients with mobility difficulties. Clients with mental health issues.	Private
Coalition of Care and Support Providers (CCSP)	To identify, represent, promote and safeguard the interests of third sector and not-for-profit social care. To support providers in Scotland, so that they can maximize the impact they have on meeting social need.	All its members. *Members*: Older people, youth and criminal justice, addictions, homelessness and children.	Private
Care Malta Group	To maintain a safe, comfortable and efficient environment recreating a home-like atmosphere. To encourage independence where appropriate and provide sufficient privacy to maintain individual dignity. To promote social interchange at all times between residents and staff. To continuously train and support the physical and emotional wellbeing of residents.	Older persons.	Private
C.A.T. Cooperative	To offer its members employment opportunities. To promote a culture of social work.	Immigrants. Drug addicts. Minors and youths. Detainees.	Private
Agape Cooperative	To promote social inclusion of citizens through the planning and management of social, health and educational services.	Minors, early childhood, adolescents. Young people. Disabled. Elderly. Immigrants.	Private

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Il Girasole Social Cooperative	To offer housing support to those who live in disadvantaged situations and have no family or whose family cannot deal with and support the hardship alone. To offer awareness-raising activities and local community activities. To provide individualized educational projects. To create opportunities for socialization to foster the integration of people through a network of lasting human relationships, affections and friendship.	Elderly. Disabled, mentally disabled and/ or psyhiatric patients. Detainees. .	Private
Arcacoop.	To prevent and remove conditions of hardship.	Elderly. Minors. Disabled and people with pscychiatric problems. Drug addicts. Early childhood.	Private
Alice Social Cooperative Onlus, non-profit social cooperative (enterprise)	To create quality employment and promote quality in work, both with regard to employees and service management.	Elderly, disabled, mentally fragile people, women, minors, children.	Private
Arké Social Cooperative Onlus, non-profit social cooperative (enterprise)	To promote the social integration of citizens through management of interventions and health and welfare, education and training services aimed at disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged people.	Childhood, adolescents. Young people, adults. Disabled.	Private
San Tommaso D'Aquino Cooperative	To promote early childhood, primary school and secondary school services.	Childhood, adolescents.	Private
Pane&Rose Cooperative	To promote and manage services for people with educational, cultural, teaching, training, social and welfare purposes.	Children, adolescents. Young people, adults. Elderly. Disabled. Foreigners. Families.	Private
Paim Social Cooperative	To support the development of social assistance policies in response to citizens' individual needs.	Early and later childhood. Disabled. Elderly. Refugees and migrants.	Private

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Giovani Valdarno Social Cooperative	To promote welfare and foster social integration and employment for disadvantaged brackets of the population.	Elderly. Minors. Disabled.	Private
Colori Social Cooperative Onlus, non-profit social cooperative (enterprise)	To manage educational projects. To promote social inclusion and employment for disadvantaged people and services for the disabled.	Minors. Disabled. Elderly.	Private
Il Cenacolo Social Cooperative	To design and implement services that foster the construction of educational pathways and training for minors and young people, also at risk of social exclusion, aimed at promoting inclusion and integration. To design and manage services aimed at promoting the well-being of families and the community through listening, support and aid actions. To implement and manage services aimed at promoting leisure activities and socialization in the areas of reference. To provide training and employment advice.	Minors, young people. Adults in conditions of social hardship.	Private
G. Di Vittorio Social Cooperative	To actively help to develop a new community welfare with a high social value, based on principles of prevention, mutual aid, integration with the public and economic sustainability.	Minors, Elderly. Disabled. Adults in conditions of marginality and with addictions.	Private
Eskimo Social Cooperative Onlus, non-profit social cooperative (enterprise)	To help people by recognizing their rights and opportunities, the possibility to fulfil themselves in their private and working lives, regardless of their social background, gender or nationality. To support and accompany the family so that it can be the first point of reference for children and teenagers, by conveying the value of diversity and others and self-esteem. To guarantee children and teenagers their rights and needs, to consider them as individuals and support them so they can best express their potentials and have trust in their future and in others.	Childhood and minors. Elderly. Disabled.	Private

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Coop.21 Social Cooperative	To provide a high-standard response to social, educational and training problems and requirements. To promote the comfort and well–being of the person and groups through preventive, active involvement and goal-sharing actions.	Minors and adolescents. Young people. Elderly.	Private
Solidarietà Social Cooperative	To pursue general interest in promoting human relationships and citizen integration. To promote services for health, care and home help. To promote and boost institutions' commitment towards weak and disadvantaged people and assert their rights.	Minors, adolescents, young people. Adults. Elderly. Disabled.	Private
Metropoli Consortium Social Cooperative Onlus, non-profit social cooperative (enterprise)	To promote the member cooperatives, plan and manage activities for people's integration, inclusion and growth.	Early childhood, minors, young people. Disabled. Elderly. Immigrants. Drug addicts. Women in situations of social hardship. Detainees.	Private
Co&So Consortium for Cooperation and Solidarity	To pursue the general interest of the community, human promotion and social integration of citizens, with an eye to development and innovation.	Disabled. Elderly. Childhood, minors, young people. Immigrants.	Private
Zenit Consortium	To design, plan, organize, implement and manage – in the name and on behalf of the members – their own services and educational, training, health and social assistance interventions.	Disabled. Elderly. Childhood, minors, young people. Immigrants.	Private
Irecoop Toscana Consortium	To provide citizens with education, training and work integration services.	Private and public bodies. All citizens.	Private
Pegaso Consortium	To enhance and consolidate the wealth of know-how possessed by the Tuscan cooperatives. To build community welfare strategies linked to the local area.	Disabled. Persons in situations of hardship.	Private

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Astir Consortium	To enhance the resources present in the member cooperatives. To implement new initiatives in response to local needs (found by the member cooperatives)	Elderly. Physically and mentally disabled. Minors, adolescents. Immigrants.	Private
Margherita Fasolo School	To test innovative forms of education centred around the child's well-being.	Childhood, children. Disabled.	Private
Kindergarten srl	To design educational pathways, also at an international level, for very young children.	Childhood, children.	Private
G. Barbieri Social Cooperative	To provide social, cultural and educational services aimed at society in the sphere of the target users in question.	Childhood, children, adolescents. Young people. Disabled. Foreigners. Persons in situations of hardship.	Private
Instituto de Mayores y Servicios Sociales (IMSERSO) [Institute for Social Services for Elderly and Dependent]	To promote active ageing. To support social participation of old persons in society. To foster a healthy, active and independent life for the elderly.	Physically disabled people (i.e. with Alzheimers or other dementia diseases, serious mental disorder). Older persons. Persons with disability. Deaf or hearing and/or speech impaired.	Public
Asociación de ayuda al drogodependiente (ACLAD) [Association for Aid to Drug Dependent Persons]	To promote biological, mental and social health of individuals. To develop sustainable education and lifelong learning programmes.	Detainees. Drug addicts. Minors. Disadvantaged young people.	Association of public utility
Institución Benéfico Social Padre Rubinos	To support disadvantaged people begging for money around Communitat La Coruña.	Elderly.	Private**

** Association of public utility.

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
COSPE–Cooperazione per lo Sviluppo dei Paesi Emergenti	To help to build a world in which diversity is considered a value, and where getting to know others provides enrichment.	All citizens. Citizens in particular need in some countries where international cooperation is the key for human, educational development.	Private
Scottish Care	To develop a positive partnership with key stakeholders. To support members in key areas of business and professional activity. To effectively lobby, negotiate and represent the sector. To ensure providers' ability to develop and deliver quality care services. To promote and protect high standards for all care providers.	All its members. *Members*: Older people and those with long term conditions, learning disabilities, physical disabilities, dementia or mental health problems.	Private
Athenaenum Musicale	To design and manage musical performances in hospitals and care institutions. To train professional musicians to perform in health care and welfare situations. To promote and manage musical performances.	Children, minors, young people adolescents. Elderly. Disabled.	Private
Câmara Municipal de Loures (CML) [City Hall of Loures]	To pursue the interests of the population. Specifically, amongst others: To promote socio-economic development. To promote and support employability, entrepreneurship, vocational training. To encourage the establishment of companies.	Population in need of different ages.	Public
Escola de Hotelaria e Turismo de Lisboa [School of Hospitality and Tourism of Lisbon]	To foster the development of Portuguese tourism. To promote research and advanced training in the field of tourism. To promote training in various tourism areas. To prepare young people for their first job and enable professionals to increase skills, gain certificates and obtain qualifications in this area.	Youth. Tourism professionals.	Public[***]

[***] Under the Ministry of Economy, Innovation and Development.

Name of the social economy organization	Mission	Target	Nature
Scottish Social Services Council (SSSC)	To register and regulate key groups of social service workers. To promote and regulate education and training. To raise the standards of practice by social service workers. To be influential in policy-making in the social services sector.	Social services workers.	Public
ReteSviluppo società cooperativa	To promote research activities in socio-economic fields.	Public and private bodies.	Private
Hotel–Resort Sarata Monteoru	To promote health and recovery.	Persons with occupational illnesses. Seniors recovering after trauma, labour accidents, etc.	Private
Hotel House of Dracula	To promote equality and health in combination with tourism activities.	Foreign tourists with an interest in hiking, wandering, ecotourism activities and leisure activities	Private
Romaris Travel Agency	To promote travelling, pilgrimages, senior tourism	Men, women, children, young people. Elderly at any age.	Private
Malta Tourism Authority	To promote and advance Malta as a tourism destination. To advise government on tourism operations and to issue licences under the Act. To contribute towards the improvement of the level of human resources in the tourism industry. To advise government on the planning and development of the tourism industry as well as on the infrastructure supporting the industry. To promote tourism for some disadvantaged groups of the population.	As for some national/EU initiatives (like Calypso) specific disadvantaged target groups including people with disability, low income families, senior/retired citizens and disadvantaged youths aged 18-30.	Public
Falcon Travel	To promote social tourism.	Elderly.	Private
Witericus	To promote social and rural tourism.	All people.	Private

The Organizations' Mission

The mission is an important component of all social economy organizations and is strongly imbued with ethical principles and the provisions of services and philanthropy.

From the cases studied, we have put together the following classification:
- assistance for the needy;
- rehabilitation of the deserving;
- integration in the labour market;
- creation of employment and promotion of specific services;
- promotion of equality, inclusion in the community and society, social justice;
- promotion of prevention;
- promotion of people's and family well-being, and community welfare;
- guarantee of services for the quality of activities on offer from social economy bodies (research, training, standards, selection);
- care of lobbying, representation and strategy-drafting services for organizations in the sector.

If it is true that the mission corresponds to a declaration of intents, it is also true that by reducing the different positions to 9, the proposed classification gives the picture of a world in which the principles and values of the first historical forms of the social economy coexist with new and specific ones. All this maximizes the social outcome, generates social changes and brings benefits to the community.

Assistance for the needy, the *rehabilitation of deserving young people*, their *introduction to work* are values that have been part of the social economy since the appearance of the first charity organizations. The same can be said for the pronunciations of principles and values that refer to the *creation of employment* and the *promotion of equality and social justice*, through mutuality and solidarity. Obviously, the intention of these observations is not just to state the ongoing existence of old cultures in the social economy. That these principles and values continue is justified not only by the underlying ideologies, but also by the persistence of extreme living conditions, old and new forms of poverty, the reproduction of situations of hardship and neediness among increasingly wide brackets of the population, and the insufficiency of the services available in response to the existent demand.

But the analysis of the various declarations also demonstrates the appearance of new concepts. The declaration of the desire to promote prevention goes hand in hand with the extension of the services not just to the needy, but to new brackets of the population: to those at risk, but to others too. The promotion of people's and the family's well-being, and community welfare shows the extension of the attention to a wide bracket of social classes

and, therefore, the propensity of the social economy organizations to operate in all spheres and for all those citizens requiring services. The target in question is extending and so are the types of services and activities offered.

This tendency in some cases combines with policies to use the social economy in order to cover the inability of public services to ensure suitable services for the new demand. Moreover, it combines well with the necessity of the organizations in question to be sure of a market that can invest to acquire their services, also in the case of reductions in public investment. Furthermore, this tendency is associated with the evolution of some organizations which have progressively gone from being voluntary to acquiring the identity of a social enterprise, and also with the birth of social enterprises to create work for types of professional figures originally involved in volunteering or in public services.

The presence of bodies specialized in ensuring interventions to support the quality of social economy organizations (as seen in Scotland for example)[9] attests to the profound process of professionalization that has concerned many of these organizations and that was originally driven by public policies requiring the assurance of minimum quality standards for public funding. At the same time, the appearance and extension of second-level organizations, namely which operate in the business-to-business field (lobbies, representation, etc.) testifies to the existence of a sector which is in a phase of great evolution and which is building its own – political as well as economic – identity.

All this shows the existence of a highly complex world, also in terms of the types of benchmark values, values which can be significant for the employment prospects of young people.

The Target Groups

The vision within which the mission of the social economy organizations is framed also marks out some target groups. In this connection, it seems possible to group the different positions expressed in a classification built according to a criterion that aims to identify some tendencies in line with their mission and which refer to their public. These are:
1. people in need
   a. the poorest brackets of the population, the disadvantaged;
   b. victims of various types of violence;
   c. people with occupational illnesses, physical and psycho-social disabilities;
   d. detainees, elderly people living alone, immigrants, drug addicts;

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[9] In Scotland, in order to access to social care professions it is necessary to be registered in 'professional registers', in line with other protected professions, to guarantee professional quality standards (http://www.sssc.uk.com/registration/what-does-registration-mean/search-the-register, 03/2015).

2. people at risk
   a. young people, minors, adolescents, adults in situations of marginality and addiction;
   b. low income families;
3. general target
   a. all brackets of the population in general;
   b. particular brackets of the population (children, minors, etc.);
   c. public and private bodies.

In the event that the organization's target group consists of individuals or groups of population in need, the main attention is towards their immediate necessities for support or to come out of or lessen their situation of need. In this case, they are organizations that mainly address their public by offering immediate responses to elementary and basic, existential needs. This type of approach can, but does not necessarily have to, correspond to attention towards freeing from need and full integration in society and employment.

When the reference is to all those subjects at risk, a preventive approach prevails and, therefore, also considers people in terms of developing their potentials. This favours a more complex approach to the potential demand for people's growth and, therefore, to the types of educational action and support that are to be implemented, in addition to responding to existential needs.

When referring to the population in general, at times only identified by belonging to a particular age group, we are dealing with a type of organization – at times multi-purpose – whose main attention is the enterprise's capacity to implement services for all types of public. Among these we also have social enterprises highly specialized in providing specific services for early childhood, the elderly and so on.

3. The Services offered

Now we shall try to briefly describe the type of services provided by each of the categories mentioned in order to provide a detailed panorama of the social economy's activities. This will help us to understand the professional profiles requested by this portion of the labour market.

3.1 Social Assistance Services

Among the social assistance services we include:
- services for preventing and dealing with addiction;
- early childhood and school services;
- immigrant aid services;

- services for the social inclusion of users in particular situations of hardship;
- services to support the elderly.

These services can be offered on a residential, semi–residential and local basis, depending on the provider.

Services for Preventing and Dealing with Addiction

Among the interventions that we find present in the organizations under examination, the main ones are:
- interventions on extreme marginality, on homeless drug addicts;
- interventions to prevent and reduce risks linked to the consumption of legal and illegal substances (for example in the main nighttime venues for young people and entertainment venues, such as nightclubs, private clubs, pubs, the street);
- interventions to reduce the risks connected to substance abuse and sexually transmitted diseases among the population of drug addicts and/or marginalized people (or at risk of marginalization).

The facilities for this purpose are, for example, therapeutic-rehabilitation communities, hosting facilities.

Early Childhood and School Services

This is an area that has been greatly affected by the crisis in public welfare. Indeed, many services are funded by the private sector (parents, companies) and provided in agreement with school institutions. The mass presence of these services among those offered by the organizations under examination shows the great attention towards the problems of early childhood and the early education of children.

In the sphere of early childhood and school services (12-36 month age range) we include:
- management of summer camps[10], recreational services, crèches, company crèches, playgroups – also in intercultural form –, youth centres, at-home babysitting services, entertainment services, organization of children's parties and events;

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[10] Summer camps offer a response to the recreational needs of children and teenagers (as a rule between the ages of 3 and 15) who do not go away in the summer. In addition, they help with families' organizational requirements. They are services with educational, social and recreational ends, where the children can share experiences in a protected environment.

- support for parents in various forms such as creative workshops and parental training courses, child management support for separated couples;
- school, after-school support and organization of studies, school guidance, study motivation (also through exchanges between different generations in facilities that host users of various ages);
- individual educational services for minors and families with socio-relational difficulties, lack of schooling and relational difficulties in the family;
- cultural and workshop activities (e.g music therapy, psychomotor therapy and bodily expression, yoga theatre, workshops in exhibitions and fairs);
- class management for classes with disabled pupils to foster relational processes and the integration and socialization of minors in a school environment, and to improve levels of personal autonomy.

The services are mainly in the afternoon and summer, to provide educational support and boost personal autonomy.

It is an area in which many facilities have greatly expanded over time, as a result extending the target groups (minors, adolescents, parents, private companies) and the type of services offered.

Immigrant Aid Services

In this case the services are aimed at promoting not just material integration (documents, health care, housing and work), but also and above all social integration, in order to prevent discrimination and all forms of exploitation.

The spheres of intervention for immigrants are:
- information and administrative support for foreign citizens;
- support in carrying out the necessary bureaucratic and administrative procedures for their stay in Italy;
- psycho-social assistance;
- linguistic and cultural mediation and guidance services;
- projects and interventions for the integration of particular populations (e.g. Roms, gypsies, Chinese);
- language workshops (in the host country's language);
- psychological counselling activities for the integration and success at school of foreign minors in situations of hardship;
- interventions on prostitution and human trafficking (e.g. preventive measures for health, relations with foreign persons in conditions of coercion and exploitation)[11];

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[11] Prostitution is just one of the many aspects of the various forms of exploiting human beings. Other forms of exploitation concern the work environment (in building,

- projects and services offering linguistic–cultural mediation for integrated intervention models in situations of marginality (some organizations concentrate on prostitution and trafficking);
- interventions to prevent the consumption of psychoactive substances and to promote health in the population of young immigrants (e.g. Roms);
- school support and remedial schooling for immigrant pupils in schools.

Services for the Social Inclusion of People in Particular Situations of Hardship

With this area we associate actions, interventions and projects aimed at all those who have never been given or have missed opportunities (weak categories such as detainees, ex–drug addicts, people excluded from the labour market) and users with specific difficulties.

In this case, there are a variety of services on offer which include:
- workshop activities (music, theatre, etc.);
- educational–training activities aimed at work integration (see below);
- help in the home;
- completion of administrative practices;
- personal hygiene or accompaniment to health appointments;
- meals on wheels;
- services to overcome architectural barriers;
- intergenerational socialization services (e.g. the Generations Community Center run by The Princess Margareta of Romania Foundation). The intergenerational approach aims to stimulate solidarity and interaction between generations, the exchange of values and knowledge between the young and the elderly;
- companionship in the evening.

Services to Support the Elderly

In addition to the health care and welfare services – dealt with in the health care and medical services section – the organizations run recreational activities for the elderly, sleepover nights, sit-over nights, shopping, visits to friends or relatives, theatre or cinema visits, housekeeping and domestic services.

3.2 Education and Training

In this sector we include organizations that provide education and training to population target groups such as the disabled, homeless, youth

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farming, catering, domestic work and care work), forced begging, illegal activities (e.g. burglaries and drug dealing for third parties, arranged and forced marriages, etc.).

at risk of poverty, ex-offenders, and dropouts. In view of geting (back) into work, the social economy institutions offer training courses to provide qualifications and work integration, tutoring and mentoring services, aimed at minors and disadvantaged people. The facilities made available are, for example, educational communities for minors. Furthermore, in terms of professionalization, we also see interventions for talented young people coming from disadvantaged backgrounds, consisting of individual scholarships, mentorship programmes designed for them and marketing young talents. This is the case of the 'Young Talent Programme' run and promoted by FPMR (Romania) aimed at supporting and promoting talented young artists (aged between 14 and 24) from families with low incomes, who cannot develop their talent and potential because of material and financial problems.

This type of service also fields actions and specialization courses for aspiring social workers and social economy sector professionals, volunteers, teachers and educators for specific target groups.

3.3 Culture and Recreation

Music, video, theatre, graffiti, sport, religious activities and reading are fundamental educational and training activities, because they help to reflect on oneself and find the way to express thoughts and emotions.

Many organizations use artistic expression to work with young people, adults and the elderly (e.g. musical interventions in care situations) and more and more pathways are being designed – such as music courses, workshops, etc. – to use it as a tool for the growth and training of marginal groups and workers. In this case, there are a variety of facilities:

- workshops and socialization and integration centres;
- cultural and museum centres;
- centres with library and archive services;
- centres with communication services;
- centres for promoting the arts;
- centres for museum teaching;
- reading education centres.

In this connection, innovative potential can be seen in terms of new services in partnership and collaboration with existent (internal and external) networks – above all for large organizations such as consortia and groups of enterprises – to promote the birth of multi-purpose centres combining library services (IT) and *edutainment* (educational and teaching courses, artistic performances, slow food, commercial spaces, etc.).

3.4 Work Integration, Employment

In this sector we include organizations that provide:
- work integration programmes and direct employment for vulnerable groups such as the disabled, homeless, youths at risk of poverty, ex-offenders, Roms and immigrants;
- job centres and employment advice.

The work integration services can include: waste collection and disposal, catering, tourism, setting up fairs, gardening, car park management, porter services, bicycle hire and repairs, information and administration services, laundry services, billboard operators, building and plumbing maintenance, surveillance, concierge services, back office and document management, etc.

Most of the work integration opportunities derive from the system of tenders from public institutions or from direct public allocation procedures. There are no lack of work integration opportunities on the free market through strategies for private companies to outsource services (e.g. back office, document management, mechanical workshops, transport, separate waste collection, cleaning, gardening, bricklaying, billboards).

3.5 Economic, Social and Community Development

The activities that fall into this category specifically regard research activities and information campaigns on various topics, such as consumption and at-risk behaviour connected to spreading the HIV virus or STDs; immigration; social mediation of conflict; exploitation at work, etc.

3.6 Housing

In this sector of intervention we include organizations that offer:
- affordable housing so that various socially disadvantaged people can obtain housing;
- private houses that host several users followed by educational and welfare staff;
- temporary housing for the homeless, ex-drug addicts who have completed a rehabilitation programme or nevertheless are no longer involved with the substances;
- housing services, lodgings, shelters for weaker categories of the population such as women victim to maltreatment and/or rape, young people, low income families, the elderly, immigrants, people in conditions of social hardship;
- sheltered apartments for self-sufficient elderly people, with technological facilities so they can be remotely monitored thanks to the in-

stallation of domestic robotics. The goal is to create an intelligent environment that can record every event inside the room, thus improving the life quality of the people involved.

3.7 Health Care and Medical Services

For the purposes of our study, we consider health care and medical services including hospital activities, post-hospital care, medical practice activities, and other human health activities[12]. Particularly, residential care includes residential nursing activities, residential care activities for mental retardation, mental health and substance abuse, and residential care activities for the elderly and disabled. Additionally, we refer to health care and medical services as social work activities including those without accommodation (for the elderly and disabled, and other beneficiaries).

In particular, these are residential and semi-residential services offering hospitality and welfare throughout the day and all year round, or daytime only, or on some days of the weeks or periods of the year.

Depending on the needs of the users in question, the residential services include:
• socio-health services;
• therapeutic-rehabilitation activities;
• socio-rehabilitation activities.

The facilities can therefore be:
• nursing homes (e.g. the RSA/*Residenze Sanitarie Assistenziali* – health and welfare residences – in Italy for non self-sufficient elderly people who cannot remain in their homes owing to health or lack of autonomy) and for the disabled;
• therapeutic-rehabilitation residences;
• socio-rehabilitation residences;
• psychiatric foster homes;
• hospices (offering palliative and terminal care);
• residential care facilities.

For the semi-residential services, the facilities are psychiatric day centres, day centres for the elderly, socialization centres, care facilities that the users (the elderly, disabled, young people adults) only attend for some days or for some hours a week. Here they follow specific activities aimed at regaining social and work skills, also with the possibility of insertion in the social network and/or work environment.

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[12] Based on definitions provided by the Statistical Classification of Economic Activities (NACE) under Rev. 2.

In the social work activities without accommodation we include lo-cal or at-home services, namely services that generally take place in the user's home or at local facilities (in some cases also in the form of tele-assistance)[13]. They take the shape of at-home aid (e.g. for sufferers of Alzheimers or senile dementia, the disabled who are in such physical, mental and familial conditions that they cannot conduct a sufficiently autonomous life), personal aid (e.g. physiotherapy, psychomotor therapy, nursing care), or consultancy.

3.8 Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, Cleaning, Maintenance, Construction, Energy, Water, Manifacturing, Retail Trading, Tourism

These are varied services that concern people in hardship. Their common purpose is social utility for the beneficiaries. Among others, we also consider:
• transport services to meet different types of needs and requests from (public and private) subjects (taxi services for groups of up to 16 tour-ists or school children; school bus services, taxi services for disabled people who have to go to medical appointments or rehabilitation cen-tres, day centres, school);
• premises maintenance services and supplies for residential services;
• catering premises management and maintenance services with disa-bled people and people in conditions of hardship supported by edu-cators, professional workers and volunteers. The goal is to promote work experience in protected situations and to overcome conditions of marginalization linked to the inability to work.

Here we examine the social tourism sector. The beneficiaries of so-cial tourism can be, depending on the countries, the elderly population, people and families on low incomes and in conditions of hardship or handicapped people.
Social tourism acquires different dimensions depending on the context in question: in some it appears of little significance, also for employment policies (Tuscany[14] and Scotland), in others the sector appears important

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[13] With a small remote control linked by telephone to the user's home, in the event of difficulty it links immediately to the service's operating centre, which is on call 24 hours a day. The tele-assistance service can also provide for the safekeeping of the user's house keys in order to guarantee access in the event of need.

[14] In Tuscany, social tourism is not highly considered, even though institutions have invested in the private management of accommodation in seaside resorts, in the moun-tains and in the countryside to offer hotel and hospitality services ('holiday homes') and organize catering services for poorer sections of the population.

and in a phase of development (Spain[15], Malta and Portugal). The key issue related to social tourism in Spain and Malta is its seasonality[16]. In others still, it is associated with facilities devoted to general tourist services (Romania and Malta). These also offer care services among other things, and do not only cater for the weaker categories (e.g. resorts, spas, etc.). They are private enterprises, which at times cannot be called social enterprises or social economy organizations (e.g. Hotel-Resort Sarata Monteoru[17], Hotel House of Dracula).

The tendency to develop 'social' forms of tourism is particularly significant in economies that are very dependent on tourism (i.e. in Malta 27% of the Maltese GDP comes from this sector) and are interested in the further development of the field, either as a way to increase the flow of tourists and boost off-season tourism, or as a way to provide the less fortunate societal groups with the possibility to go on holiday.

Box 1

On the effects of senior tourism on the industry, these tourists (inbound) are important for the low season as they come for long stays and increase the hotel occupancy figures in many hotels. Senior tourism is essential to these hotels to minimize operational losses and retain full-time staff. Around 14% of tourist arrivals to Malta are seniors (65yrs+). This is a significant figure considering also that most seniors come over for long winter stays to avoid the harsh North European climatic conditions.
SALM Focus Group Report, Malta[18]

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[15] Spain has a long tradition of social tourism for the elderly. Among the most significant experiences in the sector, we may mention IMSERSO which for the past 25 years has run a programme that mobilizes more than one million seniors per year during the low season. The programme is highly popular, very positively valued and satisfactory at all levels, and IMSERSO-INATEL, promoting reciprocal exchange between Spain and Portugal, has been working as a bilateral transnational agreement since 1999. Each country selects the participants through its public institutions (IMSERSO for Spain and INATEL for Portugal) which manage the exchange and finance the transport to destination, as well as the accommodation and maintenance of those travelling. Both were included in the SALM survey.

[16] In Spain tourism is characterized by a strong seasonal component, being concentrated mainly between July and September. This affects employment stability as more than 30% of jobs are lost at the end of every summer period, especially on the coast. This can affect social tourism as well (the demand for social tourism for seniors is mainly concentrated in November and April).

[17] The hotel-resort opened with spa facilities customized for neurological and rheumatic treatment, occupational illness treatment and recovery after accidents and trauma. The hotel-resort has been in existence since 1895 due to the natural curative factors found there, such as salty waters with a high composition of iron, calcium, magnesium and sulfur, together with the air quality.

[18] Working document (not published).

In addition, in Spain *religious tourism* is also on the increase (the number of pilgrims on the route of Santiago di Compostela means good development potential for accommodation and hospitality facilities), also concentrated in some periods of the year. Both inbound and outbound religious tourism associated with seniors is increasing in Malta as well[19].

Therefore, with the exception of Malta, Spain and in part Portugal, the common trend in the other contexts is to consider social tourism a not particularly growing sector that is not attractive for potential young workers either.

Box 2

According to this interview and to related documentary analysis, employment opportunities created through tourism are mainly small scale, and this is even more true for senior tourism.
Scotland Summary-WP3 SALM Report[20]
The youth use the tourism sector as an area to gain employment during summer months when they are out of education, and in the youth perspectives, general employment in the sector is not considered conducive to a proper career and is primarily reserved for persons with low education and skills.
Scotland Summary-WP3 SALM Report[21]

3.9 Law, Advocacy, Politics

In this area we include organizations that represent the sector (i.e. health and social care for Scottish Care), which are in the front line for acknowledging the quality, efficacy and transparency of the sector. In some cases they also have consultancy functions for programme documents. Being in contact with government, regulation and commissioning, they are also able to lobby and influence views at the highest level (e.g. Scottish Care). Some organizations also set out regulations and rules for the education, training and standards of social services workers (Scottish Social Services Council)[22].

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[19] SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014:16) – Working document (not published).

[20] Working document (not published).

[21] Working document (not published).

[22] For example, the SSSC Codes for Workers and Employers in the Social Service Sector.

4. The Meeting of Supply and Demand for Skills

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter we analyse the supply and demand for skills, with reference to the personnel employed in the organizations under consideration, in particular paid staff. This analysis is preceded by some data on young employees and volunteers in the same organizations aged under 25[23]. We have chosen to deal with the data collected on the senior tourism sphere separately since it seems to us that the sector, which is growing, also deserves attention in view of future developments connected to demographic changes.

In the concluding paragraphs, we will analyse the demand for skills, qualifications and professional profiles emerging from the empirical data found in the research, in light of the existent training on offer.

4.2 Young Workers in the Social Economy

The Sector's Appeal for Young Employees

The percentage of young workers – namely aged under 25 (30 in Tuscany) – is as a rule 10% higher than the total number of employees. If we consider that around three quarters of the studied organizations were established after 1980, we can suppose that those young people who initially applied for jobs there will have occupied nearly all the positions in the past decades and that the people employed since then have not yet reached retirement age. Any staff turnover is hence essentially due to the personnel's mobility towards other organizations (but the phenomenon of outplacement of the over 40s, in times of crisis, does not seem to be particularly widespread in these sectors of the social economy). As a result, there is necessarily an imbalance in the employee age pyramid in favour of the over-40 age groups. This means that a percentage of around 10% of young people in the sector is nonetheless significant.

This piece of data, as shown by the studies quoted below, can also be interpreted in relation to other qualitative factors.

- *Intrinsic motivations and individual behaviour*: these factors drive young workers to participate in the sector under examination «as they have a greater awareness of social and environmental issues and are generally more willing to engage in responsible behaviour and community-oriented activities» (European Commission, 2013c: 60). In

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[23] For the Tuscan sample, the figure is of young people aged under 30.

individual behaviour we include on the one hand increased willing-ness to work for organizations that serve people's communities and promote social inclusion, and on the other hand the choice of career paths that pursue social – and not just economic – goals[24] (table 4). This has been confirmed by a series of research studies (i.e. Mirvis and Hackett, 1983; Mirvis, 1992; Preston, 1990; 1994; 1996; Onyx and Maclean, 1996; Borzaga, 2000; Depedri *et al.*, 2012) which hi-glight how, among those employed in spheres of the social economy, job satisfaction and loyalty to the organization is greater than that of workers in the public and for-profit sector, despite having on average lower salaries. In other words, job satisfaction and loyalty prove to be strongly connected to intrinsic motivations (above all to sharing common ideas and values). This will guide the process to select in-trinsically motivated people as they tend to be satisfied with their job even when their wages are quite low. The risk that they will search for another job might be lower than for people with high extrinsic motivations and with an instrumental orientation to work.

Table 4 – Work and motivations in the social economy: Insights from recent research (Depedri *et al.* 2012, quoted in European Commission, 2013c: 60-61).

	Average (1–12)	Percent of scores 10 to 12
Altruistic motivations		
Helping disadvantaged people	9.48	62.3
Relatedness on the job	9.50	61.3
Relatedness with people outside the job	8.73	52.0
Intrinsic motivations		
Autonomy, variety and creativity of the job	8.48	45.6
Job coherent with individual training	7.06	33.0
Social visibility of the job	7.20	32.5
Physical working environment	7.44	38.4
Sharing common ideals and values	8.77	52.5

[24] Careers that pursue social goals refer to those connected to the provision of goods and services (including employment opportunities) to the members of the social economy organization or community and the pursuit of general interest goals (i.e. activities that benefit society at large, like the provision of services of general interest). General interest services cover a wide range of activities that have a strong impact on the well-being and quality of life of a society at large. They range from basic in-frastructure (energy and water supply, transportation, postal services, waste manage-ment) to key sectors such as health and education, care and social services (European Commission, 2013c: 21).

	Average (1–12)	Percent of scores 10 to 12
Extrinsic motivations		
Flexibility of working hours	8.00	37.4
Wages and economic incentives	8.63	49.2
Self–realization and career prospects	8.38	44.8
Job stability	9.52	61.9

Therefore, the more social enterprises prove to be capable of – only or prevalently – selecting workers who are motivated to produce quality services and to encourage their use through different forms of remuneration to money (e.g. affiliation to the institution's values and beliefs, better interpersonal relationships, greater flexibility and autonomy in carrying out activities, training – especially within the organization – and professionalization possibilities), the greater the reduction in labour costs and the productivity levels. Through intrinsic and relational motivations, young workers are attracted and often retained in an economic sector that actively involves them in the enterprise's mission (also through democratic and participative management)[25]. Salary is a (not always determining) component of the workplace value proposition that the social economy organization makes available to the worker. This happens when the organization can identify and implement corporate policies involving the workers that improve the work relationship, manage remuneration and make the professional experience gratifying (it is known that the crisis in the public sector is also linked to the bad management of relations with workers).

- *Young NEETs attracted by the sector*: social economy bodies prove to be sources of employment, also of young people, both in the case of new start–ups, and in the case of the conversion of existing corporations at risk of closure into social economy corporations (primarily worker cooperatives). Those who benefit most from this conversion are people who have a harder time accessing work in the rest of the economy (e.g. women, NEETs, young people and immigrants). This mainly happens in cooperatives created especially to create employment in any production sector.

- *Availability of measures and facilitations for the work integration of young people*: like in other sectors of the civil economy, we are referring, for

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[25] This aspect is found more in work contexts in which cooperation, relationships and trust are very important.

example, to atypical or quasi-subordinate forms of work[26] and measures to promote the entry of young people to the labour market. Nevertheless, their use depends on organizational choices, contractual regulations and legislative restrictions, which differ according to the contexts of reference. Hence, all generalizations in this connection would be misleading.

• *Transcience towards other occupations to pursue career path*: for many young workers, a temporary work experience in social economy bodies is a step in their integration into work and transition towards the labour market.

Furthermore, the sector features a *high presence of women* (table 5) (also confirmed by the data from the SALM research in Tuscany and Scotland). This may be because of the types of services under consideration, the high degree of flexibility and autonomy of the work, but also the low salaries and diffusion of part-time work contracts. This type of contract is more widespread where the presence of women is greater.

Table 5 – Number of employees.

SALM Country	Total number of employees in the organizations	Employees < 25 years			
		Total number of young employees	Percentage of women	Percentage of full time workers	Percentage of part time/sporadic workers
Portugal	732	108	78,7%	74,1%	25,9%
Romania	2.357	131	67,9%	100,0%	0%
Tuscany (Italy)	3.451	380*	83,9%	41,9%*	58,1%*
Scotland (United Kingdom)	110	24	81,8%	45,6%	54,4%
Malta	703	245	65%	78%	22%
Spain	102	59	57,8%	100,0%	0%

Source: SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report, 2014: 8[27]
* In the case of Tuscany, they are young people under the age of 30. The percentages refer to a population of 296 youths. In addition to these, there would also be 80 young workers, however, the cooperatives in question did not give any information about their type of work contract. Interns and volunteers were not considered among the sporadic workers.

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[26] In Italy, frequent use can be seen of so-called atypical contracts, with, for example, contingent workers, workers employed on a continued and coordinated and continuative basis, VAT number holders, etc. (prior to the Jobs Act).
[27] Working document (not published).

It is interesting to note that in 2008-2012 the impact of the crisis on employment in Europe was generally more moderate in the social economy than in traditional private companies, notwithstanding the large disparities between sectors[28] and countries[29] (Ciriec, 2012). In general, employment in the social economy withstood the first stage of the crisis (2008-2010) better than traditional private sector employment, although later, as a result of the depth of the depression, social economy enterprises also suffered net job losses (e.g. in 2008-2012, in the Portuguese organizations Inatel Foundation and Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Amadora, a drop was seen of −5.1% and −1% respectively)[30].

The study by Zevi *et al.* (2011) shows, with international examples (mostly from France, Italy and Spain), how cooperatives generally avoided the short-term effects of the crisis more efficiently than most traditional private companies, and have been better at maintaining employment levels (see box 3 below).

As said previously, in some cases this is associated with *non-market competitive salaries and job contracts*, owing to the necessity to cover vacant positions in various services for just a few hours a week. The fact that the young workers accept limited wages, linked to the number of working hours, could be due to the lack of alternative work, above all in areas where the density of youth unemployment is higher. Those empirical analyses that explain the presence of negative causes at the basis of the

[28] The sectors linked to social and health care are those that have best stood up to the crisis and consequent unemployment. In 2013, the number of workers in this sector aged between 15 and 64 stood at 22.8 million, i.e. 10.7% of the total in all sectors. Unlike the economy as a whole, in this sector the number of workers has steadily grown, showing an increase even during the crisis, with the net creation of 1.3 million jobs between 2009 and 2013 (European Commission, 2014a: 4).

For the relationship of the financial sector of the social economy with the crisis see Birchall and Hammond (2009). The sector has borne less of the impact of the financial crisis, at least initially, as its financial institutions are less exposed to the classes of financial asset that caused the crisis and are more connected with economic activities that are tied to the local level. In the end, what has affected the financial sector of the social economy has been the length of the crisis and the credit crunch (Palomo *et al.*, 2010 quoted in Ciriec, 2012: 86).

[29] For instance, in Italy in 2013 only 27% of social enterprises experienced a decrease in turnover, and in most cases this was nevertheless not great. In the rest of the economy, this rate reached 41%. Moreover, employment levels in the social economy as a whole continued to rise in 2010 and 2011. The rises were especially significant in the largest companies: the 106 biggest Italian social cooperatives grew from 75,828 employees in 2008 to 81,156 in 2009 and 84,243 in 2010.

In Spain, the European country with the highest unemployment rate, employment in cooperatives fell by 9% between 2008 and 2012 while salaried employment in the private sector as a whole fell by 19%, over twice as much (Ciriec, 2012).

In 2013 Malta and Portugal reported the highest rate of youth employment (over 20%) in the human health and social sector (European Commission, 2014a: 4-5).

[30] SALM Synthesis Report-WP4 (2014) – Working document (not published).

differences in salary compared to other types of organization (for-prof-it and public) are quite scarce and of little significance, and cannot be considered so solid as to attribute the low remuneration in the sector to inefficient internal management. Here, we will just acknowledge that the existent salary levels are low, while interpreting this in an optimis-tic view (Borzaga, 2000): the social economy organizations' capacity to attract young workers using non-economic levers associated with satisfaction and motivation (also linked to the social utility generated by their work), sociality and attachment to work, and development of their human capital. This capacity of appeal is confirmed by the data from the SALM research in the sample organizations in Tuscany, Malta and Romania.

Box 3

In the last two years, in a sort of countertrend, we have restabilized the number of employees and increased the turnover, because, as we deal with immigration and marginalized persons, we cover sectors that other social cooperatives often do not engage in. […] The outlook is for growth, for the next couple of years at least.
SALM Social Economy Organization 6

The lack of research on the characteristics of social economy sector workers, their role, their specific skills and their motivations, makes it difficult to verify the sector's capacity to attract a qualified workforce in spite of the limited salaries compared to those offered by other sec-tors (for-profit, public and non-profit). This assumption is nevertheless based on the objective economic growth of the sector at international level[31]. Despite the scarcity of research on the matter[32], there are some surveys that some decades ago were already putting doubt on the ca-pacity of said bodies to maintain their appeal and motivation capacity over time, and to select workers with strong intrinsic motivations. This is research performed in countries where there has been an evolution in the social economy towards forms similar to for-profit organizations,

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[31] This growth is also linked to socio-demographic phenomena, such as the ageing of the population, breakdown of the traditional family which has ceased to provide for people's care and welfare, and increasing immigration flows.

[32] Some only investigated some of the mentioned aspects (e.g. choice of work and organization: Borzaga, 2000).

thereby reducing the significance of the workers' altruistic behaviour and interest in the social utility of the work performed (Mirvis, 1992).

In any case, it seems that we can associate – at least in some sectors of the social economy – low salary levels with the lesser importance of pay compared to other components of the value employment proposition given to workers (affiliation, work contents, non-economic benefits, Lucy *et al.*, 2006). This would explain the high loyalty to the organization seen in some research (Borzaga, 2000). The choice confirmed by the workers seems to be to swap extrinsic incentives (salaries, job security) for the non-material incentives we have been talking about (see table 10), thus favouring the creation of an efficient and competitive relational network[33] (Mirvis, 1992; Borzaga, 2000).

Full-time work contracts are very widespread in Romania and Spain, and prevalent in Malta and Portugal, that is, in all the countries where the sample includes at least one public organization.

The use of flexible forms of work (part-time, contingent, etc.) by social economy organizations (particularly evident in Scotland and Tuscany) is a widely used solution, aimed at satisfying the needs of some categories of workers (e.g. young people, disadvantaged people, women) who need to reconcile working hours with study or family time[34] or time for other activities. Nevertheless, in the social economy too, part-time is nevertheless a tool that may support staff flexibility but leads to new organizational problems in the management of employee motivation and their sense of belonging. This is distributed among various distinct groups of employees, not in relation to the functions performed, but to the type of work contract.

The Professionalization of the Young Workers

In the organizations considered, the employees present a wide variety of professional profiles and levels of professionalization. This allows the social economy sector to address its appeal to workers to a wide variety of people. Take, for example, the experience in Malta and the promotional campaign to recruit staff to organizations for the management of social tourism, catering and reception services.

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[33] This network, if suitably built and maintained, strengthens the social economy bodies' position on the labour market (by reducing staff turnover) and on the services market (by stabilizing a good qualitative and quantitative offer).

[34] When returning from maternity leave, most women ask for a part-time contract or flexible hours so that they can deal with family commitments. They are unlikely to return to the hours worked prior to having children.

Box 4

The government [in Malta] is committed to investing in our younger gen-eration through an educational campaign on tourism, through increasing awareness of job and career prospects in tourism and changing the pre-vailing perception that hospitality and service are jobs for low-skilled and less educated workers, students or foreigners or a last-resort job when no alternative is found.
SALM Focus Group-Malta (2014)[35]

Depending on the type of organizations considered, we can see a high capacity to absorb a young workforce with low levels of education (table 6). This occurs in particular in the case of organizations that per-form work integration services for disadvantaged users, or operative ser-vices (e.g. accommodation, catering, transport, cleaning, logistics, etc.).

Table 6 – Employees (< 25 years) by ISCED Level – 2012.

ISCED Level	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
SALM Country			
Portugal			
Total	75	24	9
	69,4%	22,2%	8,4%
Women	46	15	3
Romania			
Total	7	62	62
	5,3%	47,3%	47,4%
Women	4	43	42
Tuscany (Italy)			
Total	28	157	115
	9,3%	52,4%	38,3%
Women	*not available*	*not available*	*not available*
Scotland (United Kingdom)			
Total	8	3	11
Women	2	0	–

[35] Working document (not published).

ISCED Level	ISCED 0–2	ISCED 3–4	ISCED 5–6
SALM Country			
Malta			
Total	64	153	28
	26%	62%	11%
Women	40	98	21
Spain			
Total		**2**	**5**
Women		2	4

Source: Salm Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014)[36]

Nevertheless, in the sector the prevalent demand is for staff with average levels of education and professionalization. In particular, workers in the human health and social work sector often have a medium (upper secondary and post–secondary non–tertiary education) or high level of education (tertiary education)[37].

The figure accounts for a sector occupied principally by operational and executive, albeit specialist figures (e.g. in Tuscany in the health and medical care sector there is a sizeable presence of figures such as social and health workers and social and health assistants, most of whom require professional qualifications). These profiles are very requested within organizations devoted to care, welfare, integration of people in need, some types of services (cleaning, catering, transport, porter services, etc.).

The presence of young people with high levels of education and professionalization is widespread everywhere, albeit to a definitely smaller extent. This is the case of organizations working in the health and welfare sector, ICT and advanced services, commerce, culture and recreation (e.g. medium–high level entertainment professions such as composers, musicians, designers, graphic designers, etc., Unioncamere–Camere di Commercio d'Italia, 2014a: 21), environment and alternative energies sectors.

Volunteer Work as an Important Production Factor

One of the most important characteristics of the social economy is its capacity to attract volunteers. The use of volunteers is not in itself anything new, but it plays a considerable role in the evolution process of the sector because it enables the production of goods and services which in

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[36] Working document (not published).
[37] Employees in this sector are better skilled than the EU economy average (European Commission, 2014a: 11).

the past were not available or only were with the work of paid staff. The very figure of the volunteer seems to have evolved, having a less 'militant' character than in the past, with more attention to their work, and to the quality of the service in terms of 'humanizing' the services provided.

Depending on the type of organizations, the presence of volunteers assumes great importance. In this connection, it must be said that in the sample of social economy organizations taken into consideration, none of the bodies runs prevalently on volunteers. Nevertheless, all the organizations are characterized by the joint presence of professionals and volunteers, albeit in different numbers. Even in the cases when there are more volunteers, the provision of services is ensured by the employed personnel. The joint presence of volunteers and paid workers can be considered an innovative production factor (which, among other things, requires specific skills in the sphere of human resource management). Volunteer work can facilitate access to a paid work position and form the first step in accessing the ranks of an organization.

The data on the volunteers' levels of education displays the significant prevalence of people with middle-high levels of education, which is therefore higher than the sector average (table 7). This does not necessarily mean that they possess a suitable level of professionalization in the fields of the services provided by the organizations in question. This data should be subject to further, specific investigation with relation, for example, to the volunteers' age and occupation. In the case of the presence of young people in search of employment, it could be hypothesized that this phenomenon also corresponds to a selection and recruitment channel.

Table 7 – Number of volunteers (< 25 years) in the social economy entities surveyed (2012).

SALM Country	Total	Women	ISCED LEVEL
Portugal	8	87,5%	100% (ISCED 5–6)
Romania	1.450	62,8%	82,8% (ISCED 3–4)
Tuscany (Italy)	4*	not available	not available
Scotland (United Kingdom)	6	50%	54,5% (ISCED 5–6)
Malta	–	–	–
Spain	106(20*)	86%	not available

Source: SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014)[38]
*< 30 anni

[38] Working document (not published).

Malta is the only country with no volunteer workers.

Box 5

Voluntary work is not relevant for Malta as every student is given a stipend (allowance) during the training/study period. However, there are voluntary NGOs that provide services to social institutions, but not to gain experience or for future employment.
SALM Case Studies Report-Malta (2014)[39]

In Scotland, over time the reduction in public funding and standards of practice (in use for social service workers) have extended and increased the use of large amounts of unpaid professional work (e.g. in Scotland in Unity Enterprise[40], the figures for 2012 show the presence of volunteers for the first time since collection began in 2008)[41]. In the sample bodies working in the social services in Portugal, the absolute value of volunteers with a higher level of education rose from 5 in 2008 to 8 in 2012. They are mainly personnel employed in religious bodies, presumibly with high service quality standards.

4.3 Some Separate Data for the Senior Social Tourism Sector

In four of the six countries considered[42], social tourism for the elderly appears as a niche service within the social economy (see classification in Chapter 5), of importance in the spheres of health, leisure, religion and culture. The population of over 65s is the primary target for this sector. With regard to this target, at European level, a drop is seen in the use of tourist services compared with the other age groups of the EU population (see figure 1). Financial resources, health problems and no motivation to travel are the main reasons causing this phenomenon (see figure 1 below).

In general terms, this tendency is also confirmed by the SALM research. Nevertheless, this sector appears to be growing in some countries in the survey (Spain and Malta, in particular religious tourism) which struggle with the phenomenon of seasonality (see box 6 below).
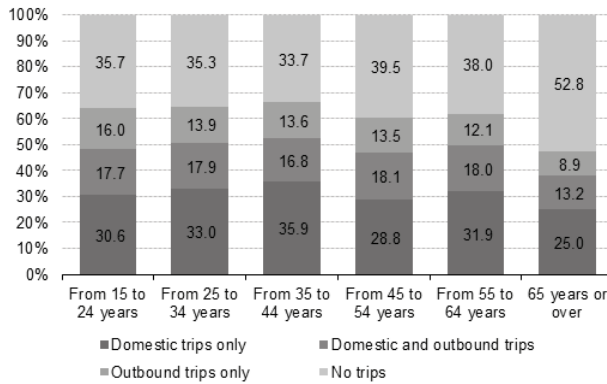
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[39] Working document (not published).
[40] Scottish inter-church charity.
[41] Unity Enterprise-SALM Interview (Working document-not published).
[42] Tuscany and Scotland are excluded.

Figure 1 – Share of the EU population participating to tourism, by age group and destination, EU-28, 2013.

(*) EU-28 aggregate estimated for this publication, not including Sweden, including 2012 data for the United Kingdom.

Source: Eurostat (tour_dem_toage), (demo_pjangroup), http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/ statistics-explained/index.php/Tourism_statistics_-_participation_in_tourism (03/2015).

Box 6

Religious tourism which is more associated with seniors is on the increase in Malta, both inbound and outbound.
SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014) [43]

Most of the tour operators and travel agencies operate regular religious tours mainly in the low season, targeted at pensioners. These organized packaged holidays are very popular with the older generation (65 years +) who have a lot of 'free' time. These senior citizen 'excursions' could be considered as 'parochial' services provided either by the church and/or local councils in conjunction with travel agents.
SALM Focus Group Report-Malta (2014) [44]

The demographic group in question (over 65s) includes people with buying power and free time (especially in retirement) and presents notable market potential.

[43] Working document (not published).
[44] Working document (not published).

One element to underline concerns the prevalance of full-time con-
tracts (table 8).

Table 8 – Number of employees.

SALM Country	Total number of employees in the organizations	Total number of young employees	Employees < 25 years		
			Total number of women	Total number of full time workers	Total number of part time/ sporadic workers
Portugal	3.037	146	104	104	42
Romania	93	24	16	16	8
Tuscany (Italy)					not available
Scotland (United Kingdom)					not available
Malta	5	2	2	2	0
Spain⋆	7	7	6	0	0

Source: SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014) [45]
⋆Facts Falcon Travel branch in the town of La Coruña, nationwide the company has around
2,000 employees where 75% are women

In this sector the demand for personnel with medium-high levels of
education appears very strong (table 9). We think that this is due to the
type of activities at the destinations, which need to be planned and organ-
ized within the service, as well as the chance to undertake further study/
training during the off-season and to experience temporary placements
in other roles (see table 9 below).

Social tourism, in particular for the elderly, can offer educational and
cultural activities and experiences, or encourage relationships, solidarity
and sociability. Beyond the economic aspects and the type of final users
(not very used to having this type of experience, also for economic reasons,
e.g. in Malta and Romania), we think that an element characterizing this
type of service is that they are multifaceted and concern different sectors.
This mixture means that the service designers, proposers and managers
have to have a solid knowledge of the facilities operating in the various
sectors at international level, possess language skills, need to manage tour-
ist resource networks, have solid organizational capacities, pay attention
to protecting the landscape, respect the environment, enhance culture,
etc. (to quote just some of the intrinsic motivations characterizing this
sub-sector of the social economy). Hence, the services organized for sen-
ior users (and others) take the form of educational farm holidays, ethical
holidays, cultural holidays and exploration of traditions (see box 7 below).

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[45] Working document (not published).

Table 9 − Percentage (%) Employees (< 25 years) in the senior tourism sector by ISCED Level − 2012.

ISCED Level	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
SALM Country			
Portugal			
Total	16,8	50,3	32,9
Di cui Women	32,4	63,0	100
Romania			
Total	12,5	62,5	25
Di cui Women	100	66,6	50
Malta			
Total	0	50	50
Di cui Women	0	100	100
Spain			
Total	0	28,6	71,4
Di cui Women	0	100	80

Source: SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report (2014)[46]

Box 7

It is a tourism that in some way helps to maintain skills: in the case of the elderly, for example, art, cultural or nature tourism. Today seniors should go on holiday to cities of art or natural places, where culture is rediscovered or kept alive. I think that we will increasingly head towards a different type of holiday, with the desire to discover new things.
SALM Social Economy Organization 19

In conclusion and in light of the studies by the World Tourism Organization[47], the sector of social tourism for the elderly can be deemed to be growing, with a great increase in new jobs in the sector forecast for 2020. Along with the challenge in terms of innovating tourism products, services and activities (linked to demand and travel behaviour), demographic change[48] will also bring new opportunities for the senior tourism sector.

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[46] Working document (not published).

[47] http://www2.unwto.org (03/2015).

[48] «In 2015, there are 901 million people aged 60 or over, comprising 12 per cent of the global population. The population aged 60 or above is growing at a rate of 3.26 per cent per year. Currently, Europe has the greatest percentage of its population aged 60 or over (24 per cent), but rapid ageing will occur in other parts of the world as well, so that,

4.4 The Future Demand for Qualifications and Professional Profiles

The Organizations' Demand for Qualifications and Functions

The demand for professional profiles and workers' competences is conditioned by the basic functions performed by the organization in question. The basic functions can be distinguished depending on whether the social economy organization operates in a completely autonomous way, is involved in managing a network of enterprises, or is involved in guaranteeing services in the capacity of the lead concern in a consortium (figure 2).

Figure 2 – Integrated entrepreneurial system in the social economy sector.
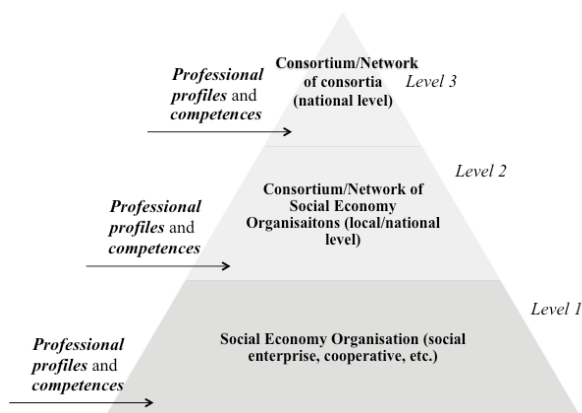
- *First level*: single body (cooperative, association, foundation, social enterprise, etc.).
- *Second level*: consortia/networks of bodies at local or national scale. The consortia come about in response to the increase in demand for services: the aim is towards specialization rather than economies of scale[49].

by 2050, all major areas of the world except Africa will have nearly a quarter or more of their populations aged 60 or over. The number of older persons in the world is projected to be 1.4 billion by 2030 and 2.1 billion by 2050, and could rise to 3.2 billion in 2100. In the short-to-medium term, higher numbers of older population are inevitable, given that the relevant cohorts are already alive» (United Nations-Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015: 13).

[49] The general contractor in public bids is the 'mother organization' (the consortium). The consortium concludes agreements for the supply of services to public administrations on behalf of its members. This allows small organizations to access procurement opportunities which include requirements that individual organizations would not be able to satisfy due, for example, to the limited size of the enterprise, or to the absence of the skills or capacity required. The consortia may even act as guarantors for bank loans or for contract delivery.

The consortia also deal with development, administrative consultancy, training and development of human resoures, organizational and management consultancy, also in favour of the associated enterprises.
• *Third level*: assembles the consortia in a national structure which deals with strategic tasks, also in the long term (e.g. training managers and trainers of local consortia, consultancy, development).

Corresponding to each of these levels is a specific demand for professional profiles and competences depending on the projects, services and activities that the member institution or organization (at the level of organizations and consortia) provides.

The demand first of all concerns social economy values, whose intrinsic motivations we have already talked about: the organizations seek personnel who see and identify themselves in the values and principles of solidarity, sharing and implementation of the institution's mission, also from a participative point of view (at every organizational level).

Other research also bears witness to the existence of social enterprise networks or umbrella organizations playing an important role in terms of supporting social enterprises, particularly in countries where there is limited or no publically funded support initiatives. Such networks and umbrella organizations are emerging across Europe and exist in almost all countries, with the exception of Bulgaria, Latvia and Slovakia (European Commission, 2015). These networks often exist at both the national level and the regional/ local level. Examples of such networks and mutual support mechanisms include: the Social Enterprise Network in Denmark, Estonia Social Enterprise Network (ESEN), the Social Enterprise Coalition in Finland, the Irish Social Enterprise Network, Social Enterprise in the Netherlands, Social Enterprise UK (SEUK) and TESSEA in the Czech Republic. In Italy, social cooperatives often group together in consortia to be effective in the market place. The consortia play a fundamental role in the development of social cooperatives, supporting, advising and sometimes directly participating in the development of new business opportunities.

The consortia are in turn linked together in national federative bodies[50].

The Future Demand for Qualifications and Professional Profiles According to the Sector of Activity

The indications gathered on the future demand for professional profiles by social economy organizations can be read according to three different types of professional families, distinguished on the basis of their main functions:

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[50] The most significant of these is called Gruppo Cooperativo CGM, which brings together 78 territorial consortia, involving over 1,000 individual social cooperatives.

- *strategic*, involved in drawing up strategies and policies for the growth and well–being of the human resources, taking both the organization and the area (national, regional, municipal, district, etc.) in question as a reference[51];
- *managerial*, involved in managing the various parts of the organiza- tions in question, the territorial networks, services and personnel;
- *operative*, involved in specialist functions (for details see the table 10). Everywhere, the work demand concerns all three types of functions and varies depending on the basic tasks performed by the organization in question (as just shown). All the organizations under consideration request strategic and managerial profiles, which is probably linked to forecasts of organizational development, greater company structuring, looking for new market sectors and, therefore, innovations to introduce in terms of the services provided, the users and the internal processes.

The demand for operative profiles varies greatly and is mainly con- nected to the type of services provided and the associated quality level. Table 16 gives a detailed picture of the operating profiles and professional qualifications which the interviewees predict will be needed in the near future in the most important sectors.

Table 10 – The demand for professional operative profiles and qualifications according to services[52].

Social assistance services	• Vocational advisers, especially for the disabled • Counsellors for families at risk and child-parent relationship • Social mediators • Language and cultural mediators • Health rehabilitation professions • Psychologists • Animators • Figures specialized in treating some types of users (e.g. deaf and dumb, dyslexics) • Professional educators • Social and health workers • Family assistants or live-in carers • Service coordinators • Home help professionals • Carers • Credit experts

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[51] E.g. network development manager (this figure is seen in significant experiences, such as the Scottish Social Enterprises Networks-SEN, that is, self-managed networks of social enterprises, and refers to profiles that can develop interconnected networks of relationships and define sectorial policies), community health and care governance managers, etc.

[52] SALM WP3 Report and SALM interviews (2013-2014) – Working documents (not published). We considered the sectors with a great demand for professional profiles and qualifications during the SALM research.

Education and training services	• Experts in training marketing[*] • Trainers • Service coordinators • Tutors • Credit experts
Health care and medical services	• Assistants and home carers • Nurses • Trained geriatric nurses • Healthcare assistants • Nutritionists • Psychologists • Neuropsychiatrists • Health educators • Physiotherapists, speech therapists, operational therapists • Credit experts
Work integration, employment services	• Language and cultural mediators • Credit experts • Experts in job mediation for disadvantaged categories
Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manifacturing, retail trading, tourism services	• Cleaning service professionals • Kitchen staff specialized in preparing menus for the elderly • Hairdressers/barbers • Specialized tour operators, tour guides and insurance agents[**] • Cooks • Entertainers for the elderly • Credit experts

[*] This competence is linked to the necessity to develop appeal for users interested in educational and training services. In this field, where profit and non-profit organizations coexist, there is great competition between local offers: «We could do with a figure specialized in educational marketing. This is because training is a service that you have to sell, just like all the others, but there are lots of entities and great fragmentation among the agencies, so the users, not knowing what to choose, find themselves lost because no one manages to give them what they really need» (SALM Social Economy Organization 15).
[**] The sample organizations in the research in Romania higlighted the need to develop these workers' language skills for the development of the social and senior tourism sector.

Also worth pointing out is the attention that has emerged among social economy concerns towards *profiles belonging to the administrative and accounting area*, who are particularly requested in consideration of both the type of services provided (in response to tenders in which the competition very often depends on the economic offer made), and the importance of capacities in budgeting and programming spending levels, debt payment, cost reduction, and selecting suppliers. The capacity to draw up sustainable economic plans at the same time not at risk of losses is of vital importance for concerns called upon to guarantee quality services for the care, welfare and integration of individuals.

This is accompanied by the need for profiles that know the credit and credit access mechanisms and the rules that govern the management of social capital, for starting up and developing the social economy system.

Box 8

We are making quite an important investment in personnel in the economic-administrative sphere by tightening our belt on other things: we have tried to equip ourselves as best possible to obtain financial statement figures, budget forecasts, end-of-year figures, which can allow us to plan more prudently, because if that is lacking it becomes an element of fragility. We have also focused greatly on this aspect in order to balance our tenders better.
SALM Social Economy Organization 21

Furthermore, it is also necessary to underline the attention towards highly skilled figures expressed by the *educational sector* (managerial, scientific and highly specialized, including technical, professions), while the majority professional group required by both sectors (social services and senior tourism) appears to be intermediate clerk figures (executive professions) and qualified service professions (e.g. personal assistance workers – social assistance workers, social health workers, childminders, waiters and similar professions, secretarial workers, etc.).

On the whole, it seems to us that we can make out a trend towards a greater request for qualified figures and towards the construction of a managerial class in view of the sector's growth. The attention towards topics in the human resources area seems to denote an awareness of the importance of internal policies for the professionalization and growth of the organization, above all in concerns of a medium to large size.

With regard to non-qualified personnel, the main request is for cleaners and care professionals.

The topic of *selecting personnel* is an aspect common to many enterprises, also connected to the sector's appeal. To this we can also add *human resource planning*. These are profiles tasked – on one hand – with recruiting new personnel on the basis of know-how of the organization's (current and future) needs, and – on the other hand – with planning the organization's needs by considering:
• workers who are leaving for retirement or other reasons,
• new hirings,
• changes in required skills,

and analysing changes in the organization (including production processes), market demand, the workforce and technology. In this connection, the availability of qualified personnel is even more important in periods of cuts in public spending, which impose a high degree of professionalization in order to guarantee that the services can offer suitable quality standards.

Box 9

We struggle to select candidates, we could do with a specialized person who deals with job interviews.
SALM Social Economy Organization 2

We're missing that figure who says «So let's work in this sector because there are some possibilities here; we find this worker, train them if needed and speak to the other enterprises».
SALM Social Economy Organization 8

If we compare the number of social workers to the population, Romania has a ratio of 1 social worker to every 4,024 inhabitants, which is less than any other European countries, such as Sweden (1/300), the United Kingdom (1/600) or Italy (1/1,600). In prisons, there is only one social assistant for every 800 inmates. The social mediator, in schools, is an optional staff member, instead of being mandatory, as in most member states. Those employed in the social services do not have the required level of qualifications, especially in rural areas.
The real issue is changing the attitude of the young generations towards the social services and senior tourism.
SALM Focus Group Report-Romania (2014)[53]

Selecting staff for key professions and, in more complex organizations (consortia), for top positions can prove to be particularly complex.

Box 10

The planner is a key figure but it is very difficult for us to select them: the planner we want has worked in the field, therefore they must also have been a service coordinator or the director of a cooperative. Which guarantees that the projects fit into the situation as well as possible. We don't so much need a pure planner who has studied a lot but has an approach that is too academic to manage the services.
SALM Social Economy Organizations 5, 7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 20, 24, 31

In our consortium we are fundamentally looking for directors, that is, people who know how to manage a business plan, who are able to relate with organizations, public institutions, who also know the services. This figure is not easy to find.
SALM Social Economy Organizations 11

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[53] Working document (not published).

Both of these areas raise concerns for all sorts of organizations (for-profit, public, non-profit and social economy). The issue is of concern not only to employers but also to the four generations of workers who are rubbing shoulders in the workplace[54]. The social economy sector is particularly exposed to different generations of the workforce (paid and not paid), which permits the promotion of forms of capitalization and the development of internal competences and knowledge, professional practices, efficient ways of working, sharing the organization's history and the transmission of values and mission (organizational culture) through internal training programmes. These are the on-the-job training contents and processes most used in the social economy organizations as many experienced workers are interested in coaching and mentoring younger workers, who in turn show a strong interest in intergenerational learning and knowledge transfer.

In this framework, we must also consider the widespread necessity to re-train personnel as some profiles are no longer requested by the market (e.g. porters in public facilities, front office staff). This circumstance makes it necessary for new professionalization, accompanied by motivation-boosting activities above all for senior workers.

Box 11

These people must be requalified and do training to be oriented towards new professions. They have to understand that they have to do training, even at the age of 50.
SALM Social Economy Organization 9

4.5 The Demand for Competences

4.5.1 The Future Demand for Transversal Competences

Attention towards the demand for the competences needed to conduct social activities is an aspect that has featured in recent studies and research on the third sector (e.g. Unioncamere-Camere di Commercio d'Italia, 2014a, 2014b; OECD, 2013). The attention towards this topic serves to define the contents of the professional profiles and to even out the mismatch that inevitably exists between the supply and demand

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[54] They are baby boomers (born between 1946 and1964); generation X (born between 1965 and 1980); generation Y (millennials, born between 1981 and 2000); and generation Z (born after 2000).

for labour in the sector under examination, also by setting out training courses with innovative methods and contents that take into consideration the specific nature of the context in which the social economy workers operate: type of users, values and principles characterizing the sector and that guide the professionals' work at every level, etc.. This requirement is dealt with in numerous studies (see among others Borzaga and Defourny, 2001a). Nevertheless, we also need to note that a perfect synchrony between initial training and competences as requested by the social economy organizations – in this case – is difficult to achieve. A step in this direction can be provided by dual university training models. However, it is also necessary to consider the possibility that training can be inspired by research into the professions and services that anticipates the times and indicates new development possibilities. Besides, the present labour market trend, also in some sectors of the social economy, is so intense that it cannot be directly supported by initial training subject to standards and slow rates of innovation. For this reason too, the paradigm of 'basic and transversal competences' is continually used as a point of reference, and given the capacity to develop transferrable skills in people. Owing to their distance from specific disciplinary and professional contents and from precise work contexts, the training has to operate in a 'not situated' way. Nevertheless, in spite of these limits, it is useful to refer to this concept with regard to the need to develop possible responses to the demand for skills expressed by social economy organizations.

The demand for transversal competences and soft skills corresponds to the social economy organizations' necessity to avail of professionals capable of exercising technical skills within specific relational and valorial contexts. In smaller organizations, it is probably also connected to the prospect of using the personnel in a flexible way, in multiple roles also exposed to a process of continual evolution. Obviously, they are competences deriving both from initial training and, to a large extent, from work experience.

Box 12

At entry level, most providers indicated a preference for softer, value-based attributes and life experience than educational qualifications. […] The values and personal attributes that are required to work in the social care sector include empathy, understanding and all that is expected of people with a genuine interest in working with vulnerable individuals.
SALM Report WP6-8:4 (2014)[55]

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[55] Working document (not published).

One of the interviewees, a care company working with young people in extremely vulnerable situations (i.e. young people suffering from abuse or substance dependence) said that a young employee would not possess the competence to deal with psychologically frail individuals, and they would also lack the competence to manage highly risky situations. This aspect related to psychological capacity/competence was also mentioned by a relatively young (in her 30s) social care worker who was interviewed and stressed how psychological challenging social care work is (workers are confronted with sick bodies and even with death).
SALM Synthesis Report on Empirical Data-Scotland (2014)[56]

In general terms, Table 11 sets out the competences required and for the social economy workers to develop, to put to the service of the organizations' mission and values.

Table 11 – The demand for soft skills for the future that emerged in the SALM research.

Demand for soft skills for the future	Portugal	Romania	Tuscany	Scotland*	Malta	Spain
Personal qualities						
Responsibility and assertiveness	X	X		X	X	X
Self-control, Assertiveness and empathy towards beneficiaries	X	X		X		X
Self-management, Self-control, Sense of responsibility, Adaptability, Initiative, Emergency management, Being patient			X		X	
Strategy-based initiative		X	X			X
Communication skills**						
Communication within the organization, with team members, as well as empathetic communication with beneficiaries		X		X	X	X

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[56] Working document (not published).

Demand for soft skills for the future	Portugal	Romania	Tuscany	Scotland*	Malta	Spain
Initiative in communication and expressing complex and complete opinions in an assertive manner	X	X			X	
Written and oral communication	X					X
Transmissibility, Expressivity, Empathy, Communication of the organization's mission towards external environment			X		X	
Human relations and interpersonal skills						
Team work	X	X	X	X	X	X
Team work as well as accepting to work within a hierarchy		X				X
Personal development		X		X	X	X
Coaching	X		X	X		
Conflict management, Peer cooperation			X		X	X

Source: SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report–WP3, 2014[57]
* Social care sector requires skills (mainly soft ones) which young people do not possess: these are both 'soft' and 'hard' or, specific, skills. Soft skills, like communication, team work, bearing responsibility, time management, are considered key features which young people lack. Moreover, young people are also considered to be missing specific skills that are considered essential requisites to work in the social care sector.
** Communication skills also need to be separated depending on the sector and organization worked in and the users managed: «When you go into a hospital ward, most of the time if you knock and ask to play some music they answer that it's not the right time. Words are dangerous. Instead, if you go in playing music directly, they're faced with the act itself. And the communication happens. A situation is created in which the illness loses importance» (SALM Social Organization 8).

In some cases, there is also the demand for competences linked to particular contexts and development goals defined by the single organizations. For example, consider the cases of the organizations in Romania (see chapter 3, table 1)[58]. In terms of new competences needed for the social services and senior tourism labour market, they expressed the following indications:

[57] Working document (not published).
[58] SALM Case Studies Synthesis Report–WP3 (2014) – Working document (not published).

- entrepreneurial skills – needed in both sectors in order to create more jobs;
- socio-civic skills – to increase the number of volunteers in the social service field;
- foreign languages – in order to become a competitive country in attracting foreign tourists;
- ICT – for a higher quality of services as well as promoting senior tourism.

4.5.2 The Demand for Competences According to the Organizations' Main Functions

Now we will try to analyse the demand for competences that emerged according to the main function performed by the organizations (independent organizations, consortia, networks of consortia) for the strategic, managerial and operative profiles. We will also distinguish whether they are competences requested for the planning and management of services aimed at internal clients or final users.

The Demand for Competences for the Performance of Functions with Internal Clients/Stakeholder and External Clients

The Strategic Profiles
In organizations with highly complex structures in terms of the number of bodies in the consortia and types of activities and users managed, in addition to the capacity to contextualize all the know-how possessed on the organization they work in, the requirements of high skilled workers with executive tasks are:
A. Strategic competences and capacities
- Concerning business strategies for the growth, development and sustainability of the enterprise. In substance, it is the capacity to identify:
  – new business areas and new markets;
  – sectors requiring priority interventions;
  – evolving social needs.
- Strategic planning.
- Strategic decision-making, to help the managerial class to manage the institutions' complex decision-making processes effectively.
- For the construction of a negotiated and shared system in the social economy's spheres of operation (social, health, welfare, education, training, work integration, etc.) in view of adding to the services (local and non-local) to satisfy the complex and varied demand from the final users.
B. Managerial competences
- Leadership.
- Organizational analysis to define and monitor the production processes.

- Lobbying, networking, marketing, communication aimed at legitimizing the bodies themselves in the eyes of the political decision-makers and at developing a social identity in the civil society.
- Recruitment, management and setting value by the human resources.
C. Administrative and financial competences, namely managerial practices suited and oriented towards efficiency as well as effectiveness and finding resources (donations, volunteers).

The Managerial Profiles

Reflections on the competences of the managerial profiles in non-profit organizations often focus on fundraising and social networking tasks. These competences must be integrated with attention to the efficiency levels that the social economy services (first of all those for individuals' care and welfare) have to achieve.

These competences have been broken up as follows.

A. Strategy execution competences
B. Organizational and product/service competences and capacities
- Communication capacities to consolidate the mission (set of short-term organizational aims) and long-term vision. Managers must be able to draw up communication plans with events, conventions, professionalization pathways, etc.
- Management of organizational change processes.
- Monitoring the quality of the products and services provided, in order to remain competitive on the market compared to the various competitors (for-profit, non-profit, other social economy enterprises) and to satisfy customers, for greater operational efficiency.
C. Administrative and financial capacities
- Fundraising capacities. These involve the ability to identify (public and private) institutions who are potentially interested in funding the body and entertaining relations so as to come up with business plans. Associated with these are skills in lobbying, negotiation, complex bargaining, communication and professional standing.
D. Managerial competences
- Service management. This refers to the coordination of services and workers within their institution and associated institutions in the event of more complex structures.
- Exercising leadership and monitoring the organization's values.
- Managing decision-making processes.
- Managing human resources, with particular emphasis on:
  – selection and recruitment of human resources. In line with the specific nature of the organization, the managers must accurately define the services provided and the area in which they operate, the professional profiles needed for the growth and development of the organization (including volunteers);

- personal and professional growth of their collaborators (through regular development talks, individual coaching activities, implicit or non-implicit management of collaborators' learning processes, assignment of challenging tasks, use of – not only economic – motivation tools, insertion in shared training pathways and instrumental to the organization's needs), also aimed at promoting their creativity (instrumental to innovating services)[59];
- setting value by human resources both from a technical-specialist and a transversal point of view and in order to retain them. These capacities prove to be particularly important in a growing sector such as that under examination, in which – furthermore – experiences, skills and motivation are elements driving the organization. With the passing of time, the most capable and competent workers – initially retained owing to their intrinsic motivations – could be attracted by positions that are better paid in other sectors (public or private for-profit), owing to needs and expectations that change with age. In this connection, the young workforce is a highly significant resource, as has emerged in the previous pages;
- definition of an organization value proposition policy for the integration and retention of workers, considering the specific nature of the sector (e.g. training and professional growth, visibility and constant sharing of the social mission, workers' participation in the management of the organization, autonomy and exercising of powers delegated to the workers, etc.);
- career planning, in consideration of changes in the workers' expectations and motivations. Managers have to define if, to what extent and how to leave more room to extrinsic types of gratifications in order to retain the most deserving staff members, in view of the organization's growth, also in competitive terms. Unlike young workers, a more mature workforce can have different needs and assess the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic incentives differently.
- Communication and conflict management. The highly skilled professions are required to communicate internally with influence, authority, clarity, effectiveness, also in order to *create trust and loyalty with and among the workers.*

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[59] «What we want is to make sure that those working in the services ask themselves: "what other needs can I respond to? What can I come up with? If I think of mums who leave their children at nursery, who are in a rush and can't buy nappies, what comes to mind? For example, can I also sell nappies so she doesn't have to buy them and they might also cost less, because the nursery can get a better price?". This type of farsightedness can help modern families a lot. Everyone has to do their bit and not just work to get paid at the end of the month» (SALM Social Organization 11).

With regard to external interlocutors, the communicative capacity of those who direct social economy bodies is moulded above all by the values and mission of their organization, as indicated in the respective articles of association and deeds of establishment (solidarity, equity, mutuality, tolerance, inclusion, social cohesion, etc.). Communication skills are also important for tasks of advocacy, lobbying, representation, marketing and promotion, in particular for figures operating in consortium structures and networks of consortia.

For the *strategic and managerial* profiles, it is necessary to refer to a specific social economy management model, which can be adopted by the managers of these organizations (depending on their functions). This should also take into consideration future generational changes and innovation processes (with respect to services and users). In Spain, for example, a significant number of non-lucrative sector organizations are run on a non-professional basis and managers often lack key managerial skills[60].

To date the managers and directors of single organizations or consortium members have been involved in legitimizing their organizations with financers and the relevant stakeholders, and trying to create an environment favourable to their development. This is also because of the limits deriving from the insufficient institutional legitimization that has been weighing down on them for decades (Scott, 1998; Suchman, 1995) and by attempted boycotts by (public and private) competitors, while internal management has been totally neglected. It is the latter that requires particular attention in defining the ad hoc professional profiles, since it is thanks to them that the social economy bodies can refine and increase their competitive edge. In particular, some significant components of the social economy employee value proposition must be underlined, because as yet these are not very developed. In this regard, the managers and human resource directors are called upon to implement effective actions, with a suitable investment of time and resources in order to improve: cooptation, hiring, assessment, ethical and material well-being, professional growth, career planning and workers' pay.

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[60] It is true especially as far as the economic and the communication fields are concerned (Vernis-Domènech, 2005). This is also because before the crisis Spain was dealing with a high level of school drop-outs. According to a CCOO-Confederacion Sindincal de Comisiones Obreras study the dropout rates have lowered: for 18 year olds it went down from 25.5% to 15.7% between 2008 and 2012, and for 24 year olds, it went from 34.3% to 31.2%. Therefore, more and more centres for employment and training were opened.

The Operative Profiles

The demand for *transversal* competences among those who work in social economy services and facilities is particularly widespread. We are referring in particular to:

- Computer skills. In this connection, may we point out some research conducted by McKinsey (2012) identifying the value that social technology can have for the social economy sector in terms of collecting information and insights (gathering information and crowdsourcing resources and solutions), mobilizing resources (including fundraising, creation and expansion of volunteer and personnel networks, support retention), executing the mission (educating the public on the sector and engaging supporters), working organization-wide levers (improving collaboration and communication, rapid organization)[61].
- Service marketing skills, also through social networks. They are becoming increasingly significant, above all in this period of crisis with the reduction of public funds to finance the sector under examination.
- Teamworking skills, above all for the service and commercial professions (at all levels). We link this type of demand for competences to the fact that professional services in the sector under examiantion are – more and more compared to the past – specialized and often in order to perform them it is necessary to integrate know-how, competences and knowledge. The latter, albeit differing according to the profiles in question, all go to satisfy the users' increasingly complex and varied demand (for care, assistance, increasing skills, social integration, etc.). They require a range of services and interventions, within teams consisting of different professions where different specialized knowledge can slot together (hence the regulations on the integration of services and interventions, for example in the social and health field). The best outcome for the user is no longer only played out on the ex-

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[61] «I am a community worker and I work in a facility that houses severely disabled people. My first point of reference in carrying out my professional tasks is the educator. After that, there's all the work to do with the team because it's me, the team leader (educator), nurses (one always present 24 hours a day), the social and health workers. So there's all the team work to do constantly, and it's quite difficult. But we have to all work together» (*SALM Social Economy Organization 21*).

«Computer skills and knowing how to use the devices is very important. The people working with old people are women aged 40-50 and they need to be updated on how to deal with the users' digital folders. Nearly all the present staff left school at 14 and have work experience as social assistance workers or technical-teaching assistants» (*SALM Social Organization 10*).

«We definintely need transversal and technological competences and skills: often it is the clients themselves who require computer control systems and electronic social and health records to be used. These days computers also impact the documentation and monitoring services, hence these skills are a must. In some job specifications, the allocation of the service hinges around requests for knowledge of particular software» (*SALM Social Organization 21*).

cellence of the single professional/worker, but on the combination of different expertise, various profiles which must be identified and put together to respond to the person's needs. The leader who is responsible for the services is called upon to assemble (internal and external) professional profiles and competences in a balanced, effective and non-conflictual manner within tight-knit and efficient work teams.
- Competences linked to the organizational sphere. These refer to knowledge of the enterprise's procedural and administrative mechanisms, knowledge of organizational procedures and rules, acceptance of professional hierarchies, subscription to the institution's values, mission and purpose. As said before, affiliation and the relationship between enterprise and worker is an element that characterizes the social economy more than other sectors. It represents the greatest motivator for performing exceptionally well, accepting an offer of employment, or staying with the company for the longer term. Often affiliation appears more important than salary.

In addition to these are the technical and specialist competences linked to the single professional profiles.

4.5.3 The Demand for Competences for the Services offered to the End Users

What emerged in particular in this connection was the demand for relational skills. These are fundamental in managing the relationship with the user in care, education and training, guidance and work integration facilities, etc. because they activate the person's involvement in accepting, living with and dealing with their condition (e.g. as a person with an illness, etc.) and in building empowerment pathways aimed at promoting their participation in care and integration processes. The skills in question are empathetic listening, communication, emotion management, emotional intelligence, etc.

Box 13

You gain certain skills as you work. If you are a humble person and you can see how the others work, you learn a lot of things. For example, two years ago A., a difficult boy who had attended a lot of facilities, came to us. A. is a bit violent. The first period was difficult for us too, then slowly the educator found the right way to interact with him. The nurses who didn't follow the educator's instructions had difficulty in relating with A.. Instead we workers watched the educator and learned to work with A.
SALM Social Economy Organization 21

4.6 The Training offered in the Social Economy Sector

In most countries, specialist education and training support for social enterprises is largely absent and, where it exists, it is limited and fragmented, as well as with little context with regard to the social economy sector.

Box 14

There is no real correlation between the curriculum and labour market needs. Also the public learning system is rigid, and fails to adapt the curriculum, because of the fear of losing certain teaching positions or less students enrolling.
In 2012, 300 employees attended mostly social service management, volunteer management and trainer training courses. All of the employees have specific training in the field of social services.
SALM Social Organization 28

Currently the Faculty of Social Assistance produces overqualified social workers that have a difficult time finding a job in this field of expertise. The fact that graduated students lack actual work experience is due to the limited number of internship positions and the educational system's lack of interest. Moreover, the profession is not very well defined in terms of competences, which is another factor that contributes to the low rate of youth employment in the sector.
SALM Focus Group Report-Romania[62]

Nevertheless, some significant experiences can be seen as starting points for beginning to build a customized offer for the sector. In particular, the training on offer seen during the SALM research refers to:
• university and post-graduate training;
• training outside organizations;
• internal on-the-job training;
• internships and work experience.

4.6.1 University and Post-Graduate Training

In some countries there are some *universities* that have begun to offer masters or post-graduate courses for the social economy sector. We are referring, for example, to the Faculty of Economy of the University of

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[62] Working document (not published).

Coimbra which has a centre specifically dedicated to the social economy, the *Centro de Estudos Cooperativos e da Economia Social* (CECES) offering a post–graduate course on the social economy[63]; the IUDESCOOP, the only public research institute specialized in social enterprises and social economy at the University of Valencia having an official doctorate programme and an official masters on the social economy. Moreover, the University of Barcelona offers a specific masters on the social economy within their Research Centre for Society and Economy; the University of Trento-Department of Economics and Management organizes a masters in social enterprise management similar to the SDA Bocconi–School of Management; strategic social innovation is the focus of the masters from the Ca' Foscari University in Venice, to quote just some.

In this case, the programmes are directed towards forming high-level profiles who can develop competences in the management and general management sphere of social enterprises. They aim to strengthen the areas of financing, marketing and strategy, governance and human resource management, as well as capacities linked to the creation of multi-stakeholder partnerships. The goal is to form qualified managers with suitable capacities and economic and managerial competences. The training contents range from an in–depth look at topics regarding the social economy sector, to subjects and disciplines within the same context. Here are some of the training contents available on the European market:

- Contextual elements: historical evolution and current role, economic theory, role with the public and private market, governance models;
- Legal knowledge useful for social economy workers: civil law (contracts), labour law, corporate and EU law, corporate governance;
- HR management in the social economy: policies and tools for the management of human resources, selection, systems and schemes to encourage individual and collective responsibility, systems to involve workers, vision and mission in the management of a social economy organization, etc.;
- Business studies: management tools for the social enterprise, tax and levy obligations, accounting and management control, financial tools for the social enterprise;
- General management: leadership, change management, business strategy and strategy execution;
- Marketing: business plans, fundraising, communication, social innovation to create ideas for innovative business and ways of business, drivers of social innovation, resistance to social innovation and facilitative factors;
- Stakeholder engagement: stakeholder theory and engagement;

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[63] http://www.uc.pt/feuc/ceces/pg (03/2015).

- Social innovation and economic and banking institutions: ethical finance, strategic policies of economic and financial institutes, economic, environmental and social sustainability.

Furthermore, universities remain the main supplier of training for young people employed in the social economy. Nevertheless, the interviewees underlined the necessity to promote a stronger and more radical link between university training and actual work, perhaps also by increasing work experience.

Box 15

Work experience must be longer and boost skills more. There must be more communication between university and the world of work. The little experience gained by graduates discredits the universities.
Young graduates tackling the organizational context are very difficult to deal with at the start because they are completely lacking practical and work experience.
SALM Social Economy Organization 1, 10, 14, 18, 19

4.6.2 Training Outside the Organizations

The social economy workers are mainly involved in *obligatory continuing training* and *themed seminars* chosen by the organization on the basis of the internal demand. These interventions are not always structured, and left up to their free initiative.

Box 16

We attended all the obligatory courses such as: first aid course, HACCP, fire prevention course, a course on aspects of psychopathology with regard to minors, crisis and urgent contexts, coming out of prison and going back into the community, course for entertainers for the elderly.
SALM Social Economy Organization 1

Everyone has the autonomy to grow professionally by attending other courses as we are always given 150 hours of study permits.
The obligatory training includes safety in the workplace, HACCP, first aid, in some cases also BLSD courses.
SALM Social Economy Organization 2

As we have a quality certificate (according to regulation UNI EN ISO 9001 – 2008), the heads of the various services update the training programme every year. They single out the main shortcomings in each service. The employees' training programmes generally cover 200-300-400 hours each year. Therefore, training is continuous.
SALM Social Economy Organization 6

We all do the obligatory training (e.g. on safety topics). Then, depending on needs, we do training on topics of interest to us: for example, last year there was a series of seminars on autism with a university lecturer, another is planned on treatments and drugs with a psychiatrist.
SALM Social Economy Organization 20

For the consortia and medium and large companies, the practice, quite widespread in Italy, is to have *internal training agencies*, which are responsible for grasping the training demand and putting it into context within the sector and local area. In this way, training provided by the market (e.g. accredited agencies, training institutions) is entirely replaced.

Box 17

The refresher courses are provided by the training agency which is part of the consortium that we operate in.
SALM Social Economy Organization 2

There is no difficulty in finding qualified and skilled people because we have our training agency that finds them for us.
SALM Social Economy Organization 3

We are part of a consortium that is a training agency and we operate throughout the region. Our personnel are trained, exclusively I'd say, through the consortium.
SALM Social Economy Organization 16

In addition, there is a growth in *seminars, conferences and fora* in the area of social entrepreneurship and the social economy in general, at local, national and international level. The occasions for institutional figures and professionals in the sector to get together and reflect on various topics of the social economy have recently increased.

4.6.3 Internal on-the-Job Training

In the organizations considered, *on-the-job training* takes place through participation in work activities (meetings with clients or suppliers, team meetings, tasks linked to the provision of a service, relations with end users, insertion in team challenges or enriching experiences, etc.). Most of those interviewed considered this type of training 'the best' (interviewees in Romania, Portugal and Italy).

Box 18

I (the chairman) perform a lot of the training myself.
SALM Social Economy Organization 8

The social workers train in the field. A person with a degree as a Social Assistant works as a simple educator and in the end it is the experience in the field that counts.
SALM Social Economy Organization 20

4.6.4 Internships and Work Experience

The practice of internships and work experience (as part of a course curriculum or not), which also have the function of giving an on-the-job assessment of candidates to potentially insert in the organization at the end of the period, is also widespread. Nevertheless, it is worth highlighting that the effectiveness of work experience depends on its duration. This consideration pushes towards adopting alternating curricula models, where theory and practice are considered of the same educational level and quality.

Box 19

There are internal courses in which some of our tutors shadow the new people, to train and educate them internally.
SALM Social Economy Organization 2

Alongside the university and theoretical training, it is fundamental to have contact and direct experience with the services and users. Work experience is useful if it allows professional educators to experience and find them-

selves in work situations which in our field are different, each one with its own particular aspects and difficulties
SALM Social Economy Organization 21

In conclusion, serious reflection is needed on the various facets and spheres of intervention of the social economy in order to shake up the professional qualifications and training for entry and continuation in the sector. This is above all in consideration of the potential for development shown by many of the sectors of activities.

CHAPTER 5

HOW TO SOLVE THE ISSUE ON MISMATCH BETWEEN
DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF COMPETENCES. HIGHER
EDUCATION OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
PROFESSIONALS IN THE SOCIAL ECONOMY

Paolo Federighi

1. Education Services in the Framework of the Social Economy

Education and training are one of the main fields of social economy organizations. Many of them are involved in «reducing early school-leaving and promoting equal access to good-quality early-childhood, primary and secondary education» (Barco Serrano *et al.* 2012: 33), in «improving the quality, efficiency and openness of tertiary and equivalent education with a view to increasing participation and attainment levels» (Barco Serrano *et al.*, 2012: 34) and in «enhancing access to lifelong learning, upgrading the skills and competences of the workforce and increasing the labour market relevance of education and training systems» (Barco Serrano *et al.*, 2012: 35).

But training is also fundamental for social enterprises because

> the lack of cooperative education is the main source of infidelity and opportunism of cooperative problems, which lead to lack of income, indebtedness, capitalization and even undermine the sustainability of the cooperative, [hence] we can conclude that education is an indispensable factor for the performance of this type of organization (Nagao Menezes, Gonçalves, 2013: 17).

Despite the centrality of education in the social economy, studies on the training of the workers specialized in the provision of educational goods and services are rare. The problems of the mismatch between the supply and demand for skills among young graduates entering social enterprises can also be explained by the absence of solid reflection on the matter and the lack of basic shared standards at national and international level.

In order to help fill this gap, in this section I shall attempt to focus my attention on the relationship between social economy and the further education of education and training professionals. In this connection, the first issue to tackle is to identify which spheres we are dealing with: are they only those areas pertaining to the types of activity indi-

cated at the beginning (education and access to lifelong learning) or do they extend to other fields?

In order to answer this question, we need to go through some definitions of the topic. First of all, we need to identify the boundaries, contents and sense of the social economy. As far as boundaries and contents are concerned, we can refer to the definitions adopted by the European institutions.

For the European Commission,

> the term 'social economy' is used to define a specific part of the economy: a set of organizations (historically, grouped into four major categories: cooperatives, mutuals, associations, and, more recently, foundations) that primarily pursue social aims and are characterised by participative governance systems. For close to two centuries, these organizations have engaged in the production of goods and services alongside the Market (i.e. private corporations) and the State (i.e. public sector institutions) (European Commission, 2013c: 12).

The social economy (SE) is a *pole of social utility* composed of a great plurality of actors.

> Old and new social needs all constitute the sphere of action of the SE. These needs can be met by the persons affected through a business operating on the market, where almost all the cooperatives and mutual societies obtain the majority of their resources, or by associations and foundations, almost all of which supply non-market services to individuals, households or families and usually obtain most of their resources from donations, membership fees, subsidies, etc. (CIRIEC-International Centre of Research and Information on the Public, Social and Cooperative Economy, 2012: 29).

The social economy can be divided into two main spheres: the market or business sub-sector and the non-market sub-sector.

This distinction helps to identify the sectors that display a greater demand for qualified workers.

> For instance, volunteers are mainly found in the organizations of the non-market sub-sector (mostly associations and foundations), while the market sub-sector of the SE (cooperatives, mutual societies and similar companies) has practically no volunteers except in social enterprises; these are a clear example of a hybrid of market and non-market with a wide diversity of resources (revenue from the market, public subsidies and voluntary work) and of agents within the organization (members, employees, volunteers, companies and public bodies) (CIRIEC-International Centre of Research and Information on the Public, Social and Cooperative Economy, 2012: 29)

The market or business sub–sector of the social economy – according to the classifications adopted by the European Commission (2011a) and also taken up by CIRIEC (2012) – consists of:

A. Cooperatives

Depending on the country, they may be considered commercial companies, a specific type of company, civil associations or organizations that are difficult to categorize.

B. Mutual societies

Their main activity is covering the health and social welfare risks of individuals and mutual insurance. «Mutualist organizations are also present in the training sector» (Chantier de l'économie sociale, 2014: 5).

C. Social economy business groups

Companies or coalitions of companies or any other social economy organizations setting up and controlling a business group to improve the delivery of their objectives for the benefit of their rank and file members (these groups are engaged in agri–food, industrial, distribution and retail, social welfare and other activities).

D. Social enterprises

Enterprises

whose main objective is to have a social impact rather than make a profit for their owners or shareholders. [They operate] by providing goods and services for the market in an entrepreneurial and innovative fashion and [use their] profits primarily to achieve social objectives. [They are] managed in an open and responsible manner and, in particular, involve employees, consumers and stakeholders affected by [their] commercial activities » (European Commission, 2011a: 2).

E. Other social economy companies

Non–financial corporations set up in order to create or maintain stable employment for their members, organized on a workers' self–management basis, the majority of whose shares are owned by the workers, who also control the governing bodies.

F. Non-profit institutions serving social economy entities

The only non–profit institutions serving companies in the social economy.

Within the market or business sub–sector of the social economy, the organizations that have shown a higher potential to attract young people with high levels of competence in the field of education and training are social enterprises, also of a cooperative nature, including non–profit institutions serving social economy entities.

Different research classifies their main sectors of intervention in different ways (see, for example: Selusi, 2010 and OECD, 2013). All, however, agree in attributing to the following sectors – listed in order of importance – coverage of at least 75% of the social economy services:

- Social assistance services (e.g. childcare, eldercare, disability support);
- Education and training;
- Culture and recreation;
- Work integration, employment;
- Economic, social and community development.

The sectors covering the remaining 25% consist of:
- Housing;
- Healthcare and medical services;
- Agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, construction, energy, water, manufacturing, retail trading, tourism;
- Law, advocacy, politics.

The most significant sectors are those instinctively associated with the presence of education and training professionals. Nevertheless, the demand for educational skills is potentially present, albeit in a different way, in the other sectors too.

The social economy is characteristically inspired by principles of reciprocity and solidarity. Hence its attention towards vulnerable groups (the unemployed, migrants, elderly, poor, disabled, etc.). With regard to these brackets of the population, social enterprises operate «as training providers, as employment providers, or as support providers to those furthest from the labour market» (OECD, 2013: 51).

The creation of jobs for vulnerable workers, with low levels of education and professional qualifications is one of the reasons underlying the birth of social enterprises. The same International Labour Office, in its 'ILO reader' on the topic of the *Social and Solidarity Economy: Our Common Road towards Decent Work*, claims that social enterprises play an important role in «creating greater income and employment opportunities for all» (International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization, 2011: 89), and it states that «social enterprises have emerged as innovative institutional solutions for supported employment favouring those workers who are discriminated against by conventional enterprises» (International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization, 2011: 90).

This type of enterprise often uses work as a tool for social inclusion and, from the educational point of view, these organizations are mainly characterized by forms of work-based learning (also for re-education). The sectors of production activity are agriculture, forestry, fishing, cleaning, maintenance, etc., but the true corporate mission is to include workers employed in forms of work that are assisted and guided by tutors and mentors. As a result, we can look at the whole social economy as a sphere of employment for education and training professionals.

2. Education and Training Professionals in the Social Economy

Education and training professionals involved in the social economy preside over specialist services aimed at boosting the knowledge, competences and capacities of both the people to whom the services are aimed, and the people who operate within the social enterprises. In the enterprises that manage services to citizens they have to perform both tasks, while in the other types of enterprise the tasks are mainly limited to taking care of the employees' personal and professional growth.

Obviously, this definition does not mean that all the social economy workers can be placed in the family of education and training professionals. More simply, it implies that a type of workers who do not necessarily possess an initial training – or identity – that fits with these functions can be seen as having educational functions (either prevalently or in addition to other roles). But, as is known, the current state of things is the result of a lengthy process whose roots can be found in the historical mutual and solidaristic basis of the social movements. The culture of voluntary organizations is based on people's ability to learn through mutual teaching and social practice.

In a modern organization operating in the social economy sector, the education and training professionals are those workers with the capacities needed to imagine, lead and manage the different types of high-quality educational actions that the service provides. At the same time, the enterprise's possibility to constantly enrich its know-how on products, services, processes and clients also depends on them.

From this point of view, all those workers who are involved in a *motivated activity directed at an object* (Engeström, 2005) and with the goal of people's growth are called upon to make use of educational skills. Here is a summary of the different instances and types of this kind of educational action:

1. Educational event, the specific, educational action carried out by the worker in the form of a lesson, a meeting or the combination of different specific events aimed at creating a complex and long-term training programme consisting of courses, coaching, mentoring, etc.;
2. Educational service, the action to provide different types of services in accompaniment to training such as information, guidance, motivation and placements;
3. Organization, the action to define education and training devices inside all kinds of organizations, that is, the explicit and implicit rules and regulations behind the development of individual and organizational learning in a workplace;
4. Training systems, the action to build systems in any type of organization, that is, corporate training systems or local systems for the provision of particular training programmes;

5. Training policies, the actions to devise, guide and manage the process to build and implement public and private training policies at local, regional, national and international level, as well as at the level of every single organization or enterprise;
6. Training strategies, the action to set and choose the goals for an organization, a system or an institutional entity to pursue, along with establishing the routes to follow and therefore the tasks to attribute to the different policies.

At each of these levels, figures operate who make use of specialist training skills which differ depending on the degree of complexity. The mix and types of skills vary depending on the type of training action, the professional's role, the organizational context worked in, and the sector of the social economy in question.

This is why studies of social economy demand for educational skills for the ongoing improvement of service quality cannot be limited to the sectors of strictly educational pertinence (education and training), but must extend to the multitude of spheres providing 'educational actions' for people's growth (customers and social enterprise workers).

The fact that at present this type of action is entrusted to professionals who have trained on the ground does not mean that this is the only possible way of doing things and that it has to continue thus for the rest of the century. It is the result of the history and origins of an economic sector generated by citizens' voluntary involvement. It is also the consequence of the lag in the universities and research centres' dealing with the task of providing the social economy with competent personnel.

3. Characteristics of Social Enterprises[1]

The definition of social enterprise adopted by the European Commission, which I referred to previously, is similar to others agreed on at international level. See, for example, the one proposed by Mendell and Nogales and taken up by the OECD:

> a private and autonomous organisation providing goods or services with an explicit aim to benefit the community, owned or managed by a group of citizens in which the material interest of investors is subject to limits. Attention to a broad or distributed democratic governance structure and multi-stakeholder participation is also important (Mendell, Nogales, 2009: 94).

[1] Henceforth, I shall use this expression, whose concept includes the group of organizations belonging to the market or business sub-sector of the social economy.

The definition put forward in the volume edited by Noya is even more specific (2009: 13):

> In Europe social entrepreneurship and social enterprises are very often seen as a 'different way' of doing business (entreprendre autrement) and are usually located in the third sector. To grasp the dynamic of social enterprises, a list of criteria have been developed which includes: the continuity of the production of goods and services; autonomy; economic risk; an explicit aim to benefit the community; a decision making power not based on capital ownership, and; [*sic*] a limited profit distribution. Attention to a broad, or distributed democratic governance structure and multi–stakeholder participation is also important.

The proximity of the definitions and the similarity of the historical roots are based on some traits common to all social enterprises or, at least, to the way they portray themselves. Research around the recurrent elements characterizing social enterprises shows how, despite their differences, it is possible to highlight some common traits. It seems that in our line of reflection we can share and confirm the results of the study carried out by Janel Smith and Annie McKitrick (2010). Hence, below I set out the eight definitional indicators proposed in their report where they highlight the elements common to all social enterprises. They are divided into benchmark values or the companies' basic characteristics.

Values
1. Service to Community / Primacy of Persons over Profit: the service to community and primacy of persons over profit indicator implies that the provision of goods and services by a social economy organization is done so in the interests of the public or its members and not solely in the service of capital or for individual profit maximisation.
2. Empowerment: the empowerment indicator alludes to the transformation of individuals or communities to become more invested with power, access and authority, and increase their spiritual, cultural, social, political and economic strength and capacity – though not necessarily at the expense of another. Importantly, it also involves developing and encouraging greater self- sufficiency.
3. Civic Engagement / Active Citizenry / Volunteer Association: This indicator describes the acts associated with the exercise of 'rights' enshrined in a democracy, including: equality before the law, upholding civil liberties, freedom of speech, and freedom of political expression among others, as well as investing (non–monetarily) and actively participating in one's community.
4. Economic and Social Values and Mission: economic and social values relate to the set of economic and social values in addition to the overarching purpose of social economy practitioner/actors and organiza-

tions. Ultimately, this indicator is perhaps best thought of as existing along a spectrum, in that even though the authors differ in the extent to which social values and mission define a social economy organization, they all assert that to some degree social economy organizations must possess a social purpose.

Structure/Characteristics

5. Profit (Re)distribution: the profit redistribution indicator is defined by the (re)investment of profits back into the social economy organization and the limited, or prohibited distribution of profits to members of the organization. It is further defined by limited return on capital, and by the stipulation that shares of the organization are not publicly traded or available for purchase on the financial market.

6. Autonomous Management / Collective Ownership: autonomous management and collective ownership refers to the self-management of social economy organizations by members or the public/community, and by the fact that no one individual possesses ownership of the organization.

7. Democracy, Democratic Governance and Decision-making: this indicator refers theoretically to the democratic principles of majority rule, of 'one member, one vote' not 'one share, one vote', as well as ensuring that all those not invested with the power to govern have equal access to power within the organization.

8. 'Third sector': describes a social economy that represents a 'middle way', a sector in its own right that is distinct from both the public and private sectors. In some instances, the term solidarity economy is also used to describe the efforts of social economy practitioners/acteurs that work between and within the public, private and non-profit sectors (Smith, McKitrick, 2010: 19-25).

4. Specific Characteristics of Education and Training Professionals in the Social Economy

My reflection mainly centres round analyzing the labour demand for education and training professionals with an academic degree. This demand has undergone a rapid evolution over the last decades and is continuing to change owing to factors connected to the policies and market of reference.

In this sector too, «the social economy is characterized by poor working conditions, short-term contracts and marginal rates of pay» (OECD, 2013: 22).

> The short-term nature of government contracts and unpredictable revenue from sales of goods and services in a challenging economic environment [make] it difficult to offer longer term positions to employees' and also to take care of 'work / life balance issues, equality of pay and a safe working environment (OECD, 2013: 59).

The financial imperative to bring in funding to pay wages in many cases prevails over the aspect of the quality of work conditions.

Nevertheless, the demand from social enterprises for qualified workers seems to be accompanied by a progressive improvement in work conditions. This trend varies depending on the type of organization under consideration (size, goods sector that it operates in, market position, level of modernization, organizational culture). This means that the processes of change and evolution – also prompted by the quality standards required by public regulations – have not had the same type of impact on all of the existent enterprises. This phenomenon is due to the progressive – but not yet complete – professionalization of the staff working within the social enterprises. Over the last decades, processes have come about that have had different effects on the social enterprises.

While risking oversimplifying matters, a distinction could nevertheless be made between the following periods and enterprises:

- in a first instance or initial phase, volunteers form the main part of the workers present in the organizations; the different types of processes and activities present within them are entirely entrusted to volunteers, who have mainly trained on the ground and through their experience in the association;
- in a second instance/stage, the importance of the presence of volunteers decreases and some technical direction and management functions are entrusted to professionals and employees. The use of qualified education professionals mainly occurs in enterprises that provide specialised services;
- in a third instance/stage, educational services are provided on a stable basis without the use of personnel with specialist qualifications. The achievement of suitable levels of professionalism is entrusted to on-the-job training;
- in a more advanced stage, we see the start of qualification requirements and structured human resource policies and management processes in response to the need for personnel of the quality expected for the services provided. In this instance, internal processes start to be implemented (no longer imposed by the funding parties' standards) for selection, career development, and the education professionals' appraisal.

The attention towards the education professionals' qualifications goes beyond Human Resources management and arises in response to forecasts of labour demand for the social economy and, therefore, future needs for the training institutions to offer skills.

The picture that emerges from our study shows the distribution of the organizations considered in each of the five instances/stages of develop-

ment set out above. This distribution does not necessarily correspond to a scale of assessment, but rather to a different level of structuring and of economic and entrepreneurial growth.

In seeking to improve the correspondence between the supply and demand for education and training professionals, it is necessary to take into account the processes of evolution of the social enterprises and the specific working conditions in which the various professional figures are employed. The existence of poor working conditions, short-term contracts and marginal rates of pay is not just typical of the social economy, nor of all social enterprises, nor of all the job descriptions. In terms of the workers' further education, these context-based elements need to be taken into account and the people need to develop skills to deal with the negative effects that working conditions can have on individual growth prospects.

At the same time, there are other working conditions that characterise the role of education and training professional in social enterprises and that put the skills they own to the test. In particular, I am referring to:

- relationships with the local area and local networks, which makes it necessary and opportune to know how to read and be constantly open to what is happening in the society and institutions outside the enterprise. Public policies are a source for new intervention opportunities. Social phenomena give rise to new challenges. Different social actors, competitors and potential partners become a resource to improve the quality of day-to-day work;
- the tendency to fairly distribute the enterprise's profits. This may reduce the competitive drive, but it enhances the cooperative dimension in the workplace, the quality of relationships and teamwork. Cooperating and working together as a team in order to achieve results in the provision of services is a fundamental aspect for social enterprise workers;
- the entrepreneurial responsibility that gives each worker an ethical and economic role. Each worker shares the collective moral responsibility for all arrangements to address any harm and wrongdoing associated with the actions of groups acting inside the social enterprise. Each worker also shares the responsibility of knowing how to attract new resources and optimize results in terms of the times, costs and performance of the single activities provided;
- involvement in managing democratic dynamics and in governance of the social enterprise. The governance structure of social enterprises

  is characterized by democratic rules. The system sees decision-making power decentralized across the organization's membership to avoid the emergence of controlling single members. At the same time, particular attention is given to ensuring that a plurality of interests is represent-

ed within the governance structure of the organization. The decision-making process is still substantially governed by the 'one member, one vote rule', which breaks the correlation between capital investment and control, which generally characterises for-profit corporations. [...] The multi-stakeholder nature of the governance structures of social enterprises may increase transaction costs and instability but these issues are often counterbalanced by a more structured and less market-oriented system of governance (Noya, 2009: 33).

Working in a context regulated by a similar governance model requires the education and training professionals to know the rules and methods for governing a social enterprise and the specific decision-making processes.

5. Contradictory Trends

A further influence on the evolution of the demand and the identity of the education professionals is the capacity of some professional groups to activate protectionist mechanisms and to have the public authorities issue regulations relating to quality standards and requirements, connected not so much to the competences effectively possessed, but to their qualifications. They are negative trends because they tend to create hierarchies and privileges inspired by 'credentialism'.

Guaranteeing an adequate skill supply means ensuring that the actors on the job market know 'who knows what', i.e. having a system to know what skills, and not just qualifications, are actually possessed. Research (Collins, 1979) has shown how qualification systems can be more of a barrier for the admission of a social class than a function for identifying actual skills. The main purpose of high qualifications is not necessarily related to the acquired skills, but rather to the selection of new members with the aim of limiting access to some specific professions. Since what unites the components of a social class is a common culture, education plays a considerable role in transmitting and consolidating this culture, regardless of the professional capabilities transmitted.

«The existence of jobs with higher level qualifications can lead to a *credentialism* rather than a more skilled work force» (Dockery, Miller, 2012: 5). All this has happened and is happening through the establishment of professional associations that aspire to work like professional orders. They do not deal with the cultural and moral protection and control of their members' activities, but rather introduce forms of monopoly over slices of the labour market and professions. In order to obtain this result, they tend to exalt and enhance some clinical functions to the detriment of the educational function. In this piece, I prefer not to deal with this phenomenon, in absolute countertendency to the Bolkestein Directive

(«In order to create a real internal services market, the Services Directive aims to facilitate freedom of establishment for providers in other Member States and the freedom of provision of services between Member States»). The directive on services in the internal market (commonly referred to as the Bolkestein Directive) is an EU law aiming at establishing a single market for services within the European Union. It sets out to promote a more open market, which is, however, accompanied in parallel by an improvement in public services and respect for consumers' rights to a high quality of services.

Moreover, Weber also defined this phenomenon well when he stated:

The freedom of the market is typically limited by sacred taboos or through monopolistic consociations of status groups which render exchange with outsiders impossible. Directed against these limitations we find the continuous onslaught of the market community, whose very existence constitutes a temptation to share in the opportunities for gain.

And then:

All other appropriations, especially those of customers or those of monopolies by status groups, are destroyed. This state of affairs, which we call free competition, lasts until it is replaced by new, this time capitalistic, monopolies, which are acquired in the market through the power of property.

And lastly:

The sacred, status and merely traditional bonds, which have gradually come to be eliminated, constituted restrictions on the formation of rational market prices; the purely economically conditioned monopolies are, on the other hand, their ultimate consequence. The beneficiary of a monopoly by a status group restricts, and maintains his power against, the market, while the rationalist-economic rules through the market. We shall designate those interest groups which are enabled by formal market freedom to achieve power, as market-interest groups (Weber, 1961: 638 ff.).

6. *The Vocational Family of Education and Training Professionals*

Today past, present and future coexist within the myriad of organizations that operate in the social economy. We find a sector of the labour market that is highly diversified and in a phase of rapid change. Nevertheless, the process of professionalisation underway in the world of the social economy has led to the appearance of some main sets of professional roles, with clear elements distinguishing them.

What unites the family of education and training professionals is the function of providing services and education and training opportunities to increase people's skills in various moments of their lives and to develop the organizations' possessed knowledge.

Four main vocational roles can be distinguished within the family, depending on whether they are oriented towards:

- provision of educational activities (for example: crèches, training for immigrants, training for the disabled in production cooperatives);
- management of educational services (for example: residential care for persons at risk, career guidance services);
- strategic conceptualisation and HR planning (for example: consortia HR management office, HR officer, HR executive, HRD specialist, learning and development manager, organization development specialist, HRD director);
- planning, research, development and implementation of the social enterprise's training policies (for example: workforce development policy analyst, research officer, programme manager, accreditation manager, career development facilitator, workforce development specialist, research associate, continuing education and training specialist, career development specialist, deputy workforce development director, research fellow, workforce development director).

This first classification only (table 1) provides an initial approximation. In each of these spheres, a range of roles can be identified which vary depending on whether they operate at a:

- strategic level, with tasks to direct and put together activities and services;
- management level, with specialist functions to orientate programmes and projects, or with functions to implement programmes, projects and activities;
- operational level, with purely executive and support functions.

This distinction can also serve to define the professionals' initial training pathway.

Table 1 – Roles of education and training professionals in the social economy according to level.

Levels	Educators	Service Managers	Human Resources Managers	Organizational and Human Resources Development
Strategic				
Management				
Operational				

The combination of vocational spheres and levels gives a sort of map of professions and sets them out according to possible vertical or horizontal career paths.

These possibilities exist the more evolved and structured the organization in question is. With regard to recognising the educational role of the different profiles, a determining factor is the training culture present within the organizations and the local, regional and national systems. In each of the four vocational spheres under consideration, the specific educational aspect is the result of a slow and hindered evolution. The obstacles derive from multiple factors, amongst which:

- prevalence of a welfare rather than educational culture;
- scarcity of workers with suitable levels of professionalisation and consequent need to turn to the skills available on the market;
- strong pressure to limit the organization's costs, presence of unsuitable work conditions and a weakened ability to attract the best professionals.

7. A Model for the Education and Training Professionals' Initial Training

Starting from the map of educational professions present in the social economy, we can therefore distinguish between four different types of training pathways depending on whether they are aimed at figures employed as: training providers (formal, non-formal and informal), accompanying/complementary service providers (from career guidance, to information, coaching, etc.), HR managers or organizational development managers.

By identifying a hierarchy of four vocational spheres it is easier to define the specific knowledge and skills for the different professional figures. This knowledge and these competences make it possible to set out the basic professional profile, but do not help to identify the skills needed to work in the organizational contexts of the social economy: we know what a crèche worker has to know, but not which skills are needed to be able to act in the particular contexts of the social economy (which we outlined in the previous sections). Hence, alongside the specialist skills, it is necessary to identify both a personal and a context-related skillset.

The model adopted by the Singapore Government Institute for Adult Learning provides a useful reference for education and training professionals in the social economy to be integrated with the various context-related values and elements characterizing the social economy organizations.

The model is represented in the following diagram:

Figure 1 – Model adopted by the Singapore Government Institute for Adult Learning.
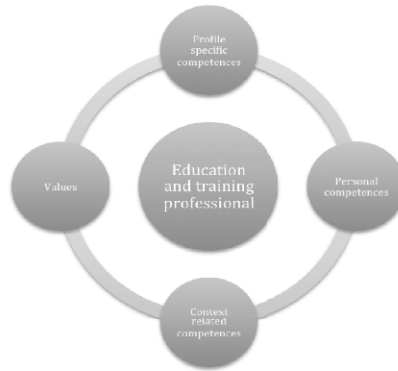
Below is a description of the contents of the various competence areas.

a. Competences specific to the professional figure
The figure of education and training professional involves a skillset with common functions relating to:
• analysis of training needs of customers and in organizational settings;
• delivery of educational and training interventions;
• design of learning programmes;
• development of learning programmes;
• assessment of learners and evaluation of educational and training interventions.

The figure of accompanying/complementary service provider involves a skillset with common functions relating to:
• curriculum and programme management to ensure their effectiveness in developing and evaluating learners' competence;
• management of quality of education and training system and processes to ensure consistent delivery of training products and services, meet accreditation, compliance, benchmark/standards and seek continuous improvements;
• administration of training operations, manpower and resources, from pre- to post-training activities, to facilitate the conduct of training and/or assessment;
• management and use of technology to enhance the effectiveness of training delivery and efficiency of training processes and procedures;
• leadership and management aspects of running a training organization to ensure its sustainability and growth as a business entity.

The figure of HR manager involves a skillset with common functions relating to:

- planning and execution of cross-functional human resource development work;
- development of employees' capabilities, skills and knowledge to meet business, organizational and personal goals;
- organizational development. This functional area covers processes involving enterprise-wide efforts to enhance organization effectiveness through productivity gain and return on investments of human capital-related initiatives;
- design and implementation of integrated strategies, systems or programmes that facilitate the identification, development and management of talents across the organization.

The figure of organizational development manager involves a skillset with common functions relating to:
- enforcement of quality assurance mechanism to support quality delivery of continuing education and training (CET) programmes to the workforce which may include accreditation of organization's system/courseware to meet national, industrial, sectoral or professional group level requirements;
- employment facilitation services offered to any individual or group of any age, of diverse backgrounds, at any point of their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their continuing professional development (CPD) and career development;
- use of workforce development research and analysis results to (a) inform policy and system design and development as well as (b) evaluate systems and policies;
- conduct of workforce development research and analysis to inform policy development and decision-making;
- creation of workforce development structures and professional documents under the national or sectoral frameworks as instruments for human capital development;
- implementation of programmes or initiatives, aligned to CET policy direction, to facilitate workforce capability development through close partnerships with industry stakeholders at the industry or national levels.

b. Personal competences for holistic development
The competences at the basis of the professionalism of the family of education and training professionals and which enable horizontal mobility are:
- aspiring to be continuously involved in meaningful and gainful employment;
- having mutual respect for different people groups while understanding their various backgrounds and unique perspectives in a globalized setting;

- being committed to meeting current and future needs of the evolving marketplace;
- being evolutionary in improving and renewing personal skills, abilities and attitudes and in building a network of contacts that will facilitate professional practice, and encourage growth and best practices in individual areas of expertise;
- being innovative in adopting and adapting new and innovative ideas that will increase performance quality;
- being principled, with highest standards of integrity and objectivity, providing reliable, clear and relevant information.

c. Values

The values at the basis of the professionalism of the family of education and training professionals in social enterprises can be listed as follows:
- service to community / primacy of persons over profit;
- empowerment and transformation of individuals or communities to become more invested with power, access and authority;
- civic engagement / active citizenry / volunteering;
- economic and social values and mission as overarching purpose of the social economy;
- profit (re)distribution by the (re)investment of profits back into the social economy organization;
- autonomous management / collective ownership and self-management of social economy organizations;
- democracy, democratic governance and decision–making, equal access to power within the organization;
- 'third sector' and culture of solidarity.

d. Context-related competences

To exercise the profession of trainer in social economy contexts, as has been said, competences are needed that foster:
- relationships with the local area and local networks;
- cooperative dimension of the work environment, quality of relationships and teamwork;
- shared entrepreneurial responsibility;
- commitment to managing democratic dynamics and governance of the social enterprise and knowledge of rules and methods for the governance of a social enterprise and specific features of the decision-making processes.

The division into four areas does not necessarily mean that different training modules are needed. The most effective training is that which combines the various technical–professional, personal, ethical and context–related dimensions.

8. The Limits of Continuing Training

This type of challenge cannot be dealt with by the continuing training of the personnel in service in the social economy.

Continuing training is performing a strategic role in responding to the demand to bring competences up to standard in a sector in which numerous enterprises, in the past, would employ staff without considering skills, or simply on the basis of European Qualification Framework-EQF 5 or lower professional qualifications. The study promoted by the Scottish Qualification Authority shows how the demand for continuing training has already been a matter for the attention of social enterprises for over a decade:

> In 81% of organisations, employees/volunteers undertake training to comply with statutory obligations, 69% undertake training related to organisational capacity and development, and 75% undertake training related to service delivery. Approximately a sixth of respondents stated that their employees/volunteers undertake 'other' types of training, and when asked to specify further, the following types emerged from 18 respondents:
> • Personal development skills (5 respondents)
> • Building basic employability skills, confidence building, stress management
> • Assessor and verifier awards
> • British sign language and deaf awareness
> • IT skills
> • Management skills
> • Qualifications required to comply with regulation/legislation.
> • (BiGGAR Economics, Training Activities and Engagement with Qualifications in the Social Economy: A Summary, Glasgow, SQA-Scottish Qualifications Authority, 2006: 11).

Continuing training, as shown by the topics dealt with and the limited amount of time invested by the single employees, can perform a role in the person's growth, but, as a rule, it does not replace basic further education. It can help to support development by expanding areas of competence. For specialist competences, the efficacy of the continuing training is conditioned by the learning outcomes of the initial training.

9. Professionals for HR Growth and Development in Social Enterprises

Before concluding, I would like to devote my attention to two professional figures who are fundamental for the development of the social economy: the HR growth and development officers and the directors or managers. It is on these figures that the atmosphere, culture and de-

velopment outlook of both the enterprise and the people depend. With the increase in the size of the social enterprises and the quality of the services provided, processes have begun to create structured policies for human resource management and development. Social enterprises now count more qualified and salaried professionals, obliging them first of all to observe their labour rights and then, in a more advanced phase, to deal with their growth and development (Giraud, Leclair, 2015). It is a process that is still in the initial stages, and it is hindered by an only partially structured organizational culture, inspired by self-management in an informal economy framework. The challenges posed by the growth in turnovers, staff numbers and programmes make organized management of the human resources indispensable for the life and identity of the social enterprises to evolve in a congruent and effective manner.

There are some basic functions that require close monitoring.

- Distinction of roles between those who have the task of 'social entrepreneur' and those who pay attention to respecting the rules of labour law. The two roles are not always in harmony, above all in a work-intensive economic sector with a widespread presence of 'unpaid' forms of work. The continuance of unfavourable work conditions for workers generates conflicts and undermines the quality of the services provided. The human resources manager is the main guarantor that decent working conditions exist. On the other hand, the entrepreneur is exposed to contradictory pressures.
- Selection and recruitment of workers. In complex organizations this requires professionalism and the knowledge of suitable processes and methods. It must be possible to base the hirings on solid analyses of mid-term developmental needs and not on giving jobs to unemployed people. Staff selection must be based on structured processes, mainly driven by the objective assessment of the candidates' qualities. The entrepreneurs do not have the skills to fill this function alone.
- Management of induction programmes (tutoring, mentoring, placement interviews, development pathways, etc.). This enables rapid integration of the employees, reducing the time required by the new staff to achieve full autonomy and boosting their motivation. If this process is not well monitored, this can negatively affect their insertion in the group, sharing of values, culture, how the organization works and can lead to high staff turnover.
- Management of growth and professional development interviews and then staff training courses. These form the main incentive – together with the system of financial rewards – to keep the best employees and ensure improvements among the poor performers.
- Career development. This is a stimulus that is as important as it is difficult to manage in small social enterprises that are not part of networks or consortia. Taking care of prospects for professional development

allows staff motivation to remain high and to reduce turnover and the loss of skills. This can be done through careful management of the single people, by acting on their tasks and working conditions and helping them build and develop a project for their personal growth and development.

- Management of organizational change and the clear definition of roles. This is a vital factor for growing enterprises. This problem is posed by increased participation in joint ventures, and partnerships created for project management. It requires constant monitoring and transparent organizational models and role distribution.
- Working hours management and resource planning. This has become imperative following the reduction in public spending on the social economy sector. It guarantees the maintenance of suitable service quality levels.
- Management of staff turnover and transmission of key competences belonging to each social enterprise. Preventive management is needed in order to avoid staff turnover which leads to the organization's loss of know-how. HR planning helps to prevent this and it can also prepare professional development pathways by defining know-how development, replacement, and transmission monitoring strategies. HR planning also studies changes in social and institutional demand and translates this into business plans to supply the necessary skills in the short- and mid-term.

These basic functions must be allocated to the Human Resources Manager. If monitored by the General Manager or the CEO of the social enterprise, this leads to a hybrid figure that can only be justified in emergency situations and in small-size undertakings. This does not mean that the CEO does not deal with the people's growth. On the contrary, he or she is responsible for defining the growth strategies, but not the measures for their implementation. The glossary by Sybille Mertens and Charlotte Moreau contains the following definition:

> […] the manager is the person who is in charge of others and is responsible for the timely and correct execution of actions. He (or she) works with and through other people, allocating resources, in the effort to achieve goals […]. It is a person with an executive or supervisory function within an organization. In a social enterprise, the manager is the person who is paid to manage the social enterprise; he (or she) is usually not the elected representative […].

10. Training Managers in the Social Economy

The managerial training of social entrepreneurs is an area that is now subject to more attention from both the public and private sectors. The

training activities are aimed at young people who have already finished a higher education programme and their objective is to add elements of knowledge and competences pertaining to the social economy sector. There now seem to be more structured interventions in this field. Most management schools (Harvard Business School, Oxford-Saïd Business School, Cambridge-Judge Business School, Duke-Fuqua School of Business, HEC-Paris, ESSEC-Paris, HEC-ULg in Belgium, the University of Trento Masters in Social Enterprise Management) offer training programmes on the management of social enterprises.

The HEC-ULg specialist course on the *Management of Social Enterprises*, for example, gives students:

- an *analysis and management capacity*: to manage the major functions of an enterprise, understand the various forms of economic organizations and their roles and specificity, analyse and anticipate societal challenges;
- *operational tools*: to know the (economic, political, legal) environment in which enterprises operate (be it at the regional, national or European level), learn managerial practices of social entrepreneurship, master the tools designed to take into account social and environmental concerns;
- a *relational network*: to meet the main actors of social entrepreneurship, network with similar experiences in Europe and elsewhere.

In the case of the Trento Masters in Social Enterprise Management[2], the course contents deal with governance, management and planning, related to the specific context of the social enterprise.

The assumption that managing a social enterprise draws on specific competences is responded to by training that combines social objectives and economic constraint.

However, there is an aspect that must be strengthened through training too, namely, the manager's capacities to promote social innovation through the evolution of social enterprises. Social innovation is a central task for the manager of social enterprises. The sense of the social enterprise's existence derives from the capacity to constantly interpret social dissatisfaction (Mulgan, 2006) and to transform it into soft and hard solutions that improve people's daily lives, and in particular those of the less favoured sectors of the population. This involves innovation in the processes, products, market and organization, which the manager has to be able to sense, encourage and develop. They are capacities that have given rise to micro-credit projects, social start-ups linked to new technologies, crowdfunding, even Wikipedia. The study by the Mercator

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[2] GIS Master-Gestione di Imprese Sociali, http://www.unitn.it/ateneo/852/master-gis-master-in-gestione-di-imprese-sociali (03/2015).

Forscherverbund (2012) shows how social entrepreneurs often launch promising innovations. These innovations emerge not only as start-ups (social entrepreneurs), but also as well-established entities such as welfare organizations (social intrapreneurs). In Germany, examples of these quasi-markets are the care system, youth welfare services and the health system.

Responsibility for the social enterprise's innovative strategies lies with its directors, precisely because innovation depends on their entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial capacities.

Innovation is the product of the absorption of external knowledge originating from customers, competitors and providers. However, it is also generated by the creation of new knowledge, processes which are produced within the organizations and promoted by their intrapreneurs. Thanks to the training potential of living and workplaces, individuals and groups can participate in training actions that foster the production of new knowledge. Research has shown that

> learning-intensive forms of work organisation and workplace learning – in addition to other, more formal modes of learning – correlate with the innovation performance of countries, based on the innovation performance of companies [...] all these forms of learning correlate significantly with the innovation performance of the individual countries (Cedefop, 2012: 88).

Organizational models that favour the growth of innovation ability stand out from the rest because they adopt a model of 'discretionary learning' in which «the expertise of individual professionals [is] characterised by high levels of autonomy at work, learning and problem solving, task complexity, self-assessment of quality of work and, to a lesser extent, autonomous teamwork» (OECD, 2010). This type of organization – more than any other model: lean production, Taylorist, 'traditional' – has the capacity to make 'lead innovators' grow. The choice of models and their implementation in social economy organizations depends on the capacities of their leaders.

«The development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations» depends on the policies adopted and put into practice by the company. Social innovation

> represents new responses to pressing social demands, which affect the process of social interactions. It is aimed at improving human well-being. Social innovations are innovations that are social in both their ends and their means. They are innovations that are not only good for society but also enhance individuals' capacity to act (European Commission-Directorate General Regional and Urban Policy and DG Employment, Social affairs and Inclusion, 2013b: 6).

11. Conclusions. Evolution and Training of the Modern Social Enterprise Manager

Some years have passed since the threshold of the fourth industrial revolution was crossed (*Industry 4.0*).

The first – generated by the introduction of water or steam-driven looms – exhausted its innovative capacity at the end of the nineteenth century when, with the advent of mass production models based on the division of labour and fed by electrical energy, the second industrial revolution began. The introduction of electronics and robotics would then jumpstart the third industrial revolution at the beginning of the 1970s, only to be replaced – less than half a century later – by new production models based on cyberphysics and the integration of intelligence into all industrially produced objects, as well as into the spheres of life and work, including the social economy.

Today, in the context of world competition, our nations' hope of maintaining and developing the acquired levels of well-being is entrusted to the capacity to mobilize the energies needed to be part of and to lead the fourth industrial revolution. We expect the leaders and managers that will be working in the next few decades to make new champions of innovation emerge from the enterprises of all sizes and lead a collective surge around the new social project. Innovation – that which is already available and that which is expected even more so – is enabling new social economy models to be developed and this can boost potential optimization in the production sectors and create new services in important sectors – such as mobility, health, climate and energy.

With this new state of affairs, everything can/must become smarter, starting from the places of industrial production and the cities. 'Smart factories' are intelligent production systems with a new capacity to distribute tasks between different plants and work in networks to make intelligent, ultra-high quality, top-precision, customized products. New intelligent organizations are developing in harmony with the 'smart cities', where they can live and grow, with their intelligent environments and eco-sustainable and resource-efficient production.

The novelty underlying the fourth industrial revolution, however, goes beyond the boundaries of robotics, the Internet of Things, hybrid objects and the eco-factory. The creation and use of innovation depends on people's intelligence, and more refined qualities are requested than in the previous industrial eras. Today we need people with a great capacity of initiative, all-rounders. They must be capable, for example, of collecting and interpreting the great mass of information produced by intelligently monitoring the new production tools and, therefore, they must be able to perform autonomous decision-making processes in real time so as to optimize the activity of the organizations that they belong to.

To guide this type of change in the social economy too, new managers are needed who are capable of quickly making intelligence break out in the workplace and in everyday life.

The managers of the past had to know how to deal with finance, production tools and work. If there was harmony between these three factors, the organizations performed well.

Today that is no longer enough. Present-day organizations, smart factories, are cognitive systems that produce new know-how and live off knowledge. Their success is based on the capacity to produce innovation and technological progress through their economic activity. Knowledge is production's new added factor, and the modern manager has to know how to boost this together with other production factors. If the organization does not constantly produce new knowledge, nor will it be able to absorb any. Innovation is not imported, it is produced above all inside the organizations, but it can be enriched by external contributions. 'Non-innovating' organizations have little probability of benefitting from or transforming into value those innovations produced by others, whether they be research centres or other enterprises.

Managers who can keep abreast of the times must be able to ensure their organizations are in the condition to constantly produce new product, process, organization and market knowledge. This capacity is measured both by the continual improvement of the organization and by the growth of the people who work there.

A modern manager must be able to make his or her people and organization grow, while reaping maximum benefit from a context of increasing globalisation that also concerns the social economy. In the new world contexts, the most significant change that is causing great transformations in the role of manager is the passage from *trading goods* to *trading tasks*. From a globalization process that concentrated on optimizing the advantages deriving from international agreements for the free exchange of goods, we have gone to delocalisation and then to the creation of the global value chain. In other words, now production is organized in such a way that the phases in the process and the relative tasks are distributed around the world depending on the different places' ability to ensure the best conditions for their implementation.

This increases the interdependence between national economies and shifts the competition to the terrain of the people and organization's skills, to their capacity to attract the individuals that ensure the best performances. Producing and attracting talents has become a key component in the new management strategy.

This is why the modern manager must look to the world to understand how to attract activities and competences and how to keep them. This has placed the manager at the centre of the dynamics for an organization's growth.

In the nineteenth century, the engineer, the man of industry, was the engine behind the industrial revolution. Later, the shift of the economy towards the tertiary and financial sectors placed the businessman at the centre of the dynamics. Neither of these figures seems adequate for the new scenarios. Today, in all the industrialized countries, they are exposed to strong drives for change; they are being asked to change profile and acquire new, more transversal competences which unite expertise with ingenuity, agility, responsibility and influence. In substance, the old champions of economic growth are being asked for qualities that are part of the sphere of managerialism and that belong to and are distinctive to the new manager. This is happening because the distinctions between various strategic professional figures are becoming less clear. They all have to possess a series of qualities that in the past were only required of managers. In this sense, the model figure of the fourth industrial revolution is indeed the modern manager, without whom the system just does not turn.

While in the past, in many cases, managers were trained on the ground, today this is no longer either possible or convenient. They are a complex figure, whose success is based not just on a propensity towards the art of commanding, but increasingly on the possession of knowledge and aptitudes that can be acquired through serious initial and continuing training which enables the manager to know how to produce more innovation in the organizations and people in a context of growing globalisation.

It is through management education that managers can develop the will to look at what is happening outside the borders, in order to acquire resources, ideas, efficiency and services.

The quality of the modern manager's training is also measured by its contents, its capacity to form managers, through teaching that can propose and deal with 'global contents', by providing methods to read and interpret the diversities between multiple national and regional realities. The training must teach the manager that all knowledge acquired on basic disciplines such as management, economics, finance, marketing, the information system and accounting must be reread in light of the cultural, legislative and regulatory, political, economic and financial diversities at work in a globalized world. For a manager to be open to the world, he or she must also learn how to modify disciplinary knowledge according to the world-scale variations in the contexts and people worked with.

Nevertheless, despite the changing contexts and the growth in opportunities, the fundamental quality of a modern manager is still to *know how to build the best team of talents around him or herself with the necessary qualities to deal with the impelling challenges.*

CHAPTER 6

EMPLOYABILITY FOR THE SOCIAL ECONOMY: THE ROLE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Vanna Boffo

1. The Role of the Higher Education for the Social Economy

Traditionally, the European social model has always been characterised by the prominent role played by a variety of organisations that differ both from private corporations and from public institutions. These are private organisations that typically pursue goals other than profit: their main purpose is not to generate financial gains for their owners or stake-holders but to provide goods and services either to their members or to the community at large. These organizations, which have been active in Europe for nearly two centuries, have been recognised and regulated in many countries through specific legal forms (including in particular the cooperative, the mutual, and the association), have set up their own representative organisations to interact with public authorities, and have contributed in various ways to the social and economic development of our continent. The label that is used, in the tradition of many European countries and recently also by the EU, to refer to these organisations is the 'social economy' – a term that stresses the special attention that these organisations pay to the social consequences of their activities, and their participative governance structures (European Commission, 2013c: 9).

As is indicated in the cited document *Social Economy and Social Entre-preneurship*, the cooperative enterprises, consortia, training agencies and companies that deal with services to citizens and take care of young chil-dren aged 0 to 3, adolescents in situations of hardship, the disabled and the elderly are organizations that make up that vast territory called the social economy. The labour market that is taken into consideration in this essay represents a possible job opportunity for graduates in the area of Educational Science. Until recent years, nevertheless, pedagogical stud-ies dealt with this sector from the point of view of the social dimension covered. The professionals, managers, planners, educators and trainers, to quote just some of the 'professions' developed in the social economy, are given little or no consideration for the economic advantage that they produce, for the jobs that they encourage, for the turnover that is almost always re-invested in producing social well-being. Having underlined the

core and strategic importance of the sector, which is currently undergo-ing great expansion and development in many European countries, it is necessary to create a symbiosis between the university training courses that prepare professionals for the sector and the entrepreneurs who, in most cases, start up enterprises in the social economy sector, urged on more by a strong social interest than by profit. The transformation of the labour market on one hand, and the request for high levels of pro-fessionalism on the other, have made it necessary to think of the nexus between building suitable profiles for companies and the social economy organizations. The challenge for the future of this field of investigation will be to build suitable profiles that are able to lead the associations and cooperatives towards an increasingly specific corporate position which is, however, also capable of increasingly and more adequately fulfilling the professional tasks requested by an evolving market and its users.

The work started here provides a first analysis of the mismatch that the social economy entrepreneurs report with regard to the profiles enter-ing from the masters course in Adult Education, Continuing Education and Pedagogical Science in Italy, in the territory of Tuscany. We present some recommendations to adopt so as to build employability in the uni-versity curricula and prepare education and training professionals who can best perform the role requested by the social economy companies.

2. Job Placement in Higher Education: the Case of the Area of Educational Sciences

The growing role of job placement in higher education contexts has developed as a result of the reflection that Italian universities are car-rying out on the transition to work of its graduates on one hand, and on the potential of its curricula on the other. We have the sensation, supported by the lack of systematicity and fragmentary nature of the universities' career guidance services, that the Italian universities are beginning to understand that work and the inclination to look for it do not come about randomly, but have precise roots in a certain model of culture, in variegated study pathways and didactic methods. In real-ity, the aspects that emerge from the interest in 'work' developed with growing determination in recent years by universities, concern two fac-ets: one relating to third mission indicators, and the other relating to the full sustainability of the study courses. Finding work and finding work that is coherent with the study path followed is not just what graduates want, but it is also one of the standards by which the Italian Ministry of Education, Universities and Research assesses the degree course that the student has come from, and, as a consequence, the capacity of the universities to be productive in terms of both research and teaching. It is not possible to consider the topic of the transition into work of Ital-

ian graduates without taking into due consideration the close link with the quality systems, third mission, teaching and training offered by the study courses (Italian law n° 240/2010, art. 1 paragraph 3; legislative decree n° 19 dated 27/01/2012).

On one hand, the restructuring of the Italian university system result–ing from law n° 240 of 30 December 2010 obliges us, as professors and researchers, to subscribe to mechanisms to improve the public training on offer in higher education. On the other hand, faced with a reduction in work opportunities, especially in Italy, the urgent demand that we have to respond to is what type of connection, what purpose, what necessary change can be implemented to contribute to our graduates' transition to a job that fits their hopes, expectations and desires as young adults. In this sense, speaking of placement, of guidance towards job placement, as we read on many Italian university web sites, or as we see in the study course assessment sheets that the course heads have to draw up each year in adoption of the AVA quality system of self–assessment, periodic assessment and accreditation (article 3 of the regulation in Ministry of Education, Universities and Research decree n° 270 dated 22 October 2004), only makes sense if it is possible to put placement, the possibility of finding work, of having a job rather than just work, in a virtuous cycle with the university study course which should produce that job/work.

> The SALM research, whose results are presented here, was conducted within the University of Florence Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science masters course (LM–57 & LM–85 joint higher order degree). The aim was to study the issues of the employability of young people aged between 16 and 24 in the social economy and senior tourism sectors. The part of the research relating to Italy concentrated on the potentials and opportunities that the social economy production context in the region of Tuscany offers to graduates from study courses in Educational Science.

The University of Florence research group[1] limited the field of in–vestigation and shifted its interest to a smaller group of subjects than the general project. It investigated the employment potentials of the young masters course graduates aged 25 to 34 on finishing the joint LM–57 and LM–85 higher order degree course. This was done by sampling the types of professional figures emerging from the world of the social economy consisting of small, medium and large type A and B cooperatives[2], con–sortia and social associations.

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[1] The University of Florence research group comprised Paolo Federighi (head of the research team), Vanna Boffo and Francesca Torlone.

[2] See definition of type A and type B cooperatives on page 156 (§ 4).

The research produced two results. The first aim was to understand a labour market – that of the social economy – that is as varied as it is specific. The world of the third sector, only regulated in the last two decades, has branched outwards to cover spheres that have always been subject to family and personal care, offered as gifts (European Commission, 2013c). At present, this sector is expanding, in the sense that it is necessary, vital even for some (OECD, 2013). The world of services to citizens and the local territory is vast, strategic for individual and collective well-being, but still underestimated and led by workers/persons who show passion and empirically built professionalism, broad and far-reaching skills, from those of an individual/personal nature, to those of a technical/legal/economic kind, and the more specifically disciplinary ones linked to sectoral know-how and knowledge (ISTAT, 2011).

As yet, the world of the social economy has been subject to little study from the point of view of taking evident data in order to map it out. Above all, there should be an increase in sector studies that can compare the new study courses in Educational Science with the most suitable work opportunities for those professional profiles which have only been found in the Regional Repertoire of Competences since 2005 (Regione Toscana, 2006). Indeed, the professional profiles first and then the professional figures began to be regulated under Tuscan regional law n° 32 of 2002 on professional training (regional law n° 32 dated 26 July 2002).

The second aim of the investigation was to understand the baggage of competences and capabilities needed for the Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science graduates in order to enter the world of social economy work as the natural outcome of the study course. Perhaps there is a mismatch between the knowledge and competences provided and exercised in the university curricula and those requested by the labour market. While, indeed, the world of professions in the social economy area has become more varied and larger due to the users' demand (Noya, 2009; Buckingham, Teasdale, 2013), the universities have not managed to do the same. At least in Italy, albeit late in the day, the Educational Science courses, and others besides, have developed in connection with the world of work. This evidence, seen from the Italian employment figures, still in a negative phase today, in the first quarter of 2015 (ISTAT, 2015), is also documented at international level in scientific literature that attests to the same issues (Yorke and Knight, 2004a; Yorke, 2006; Clarke, Patrickson, 2008; Hyams–Ssekasi, Wright, 2013).

In addition to the ends set out above, it is necessary to adopt a level of meta-analysis, underlining the central importance of care for education and training processes as the key to reading the transitions to work. It is not just a matter of referring to satisfying and effective career guidance, but of beginning to think of transitions as pathways of care for the subject's formation process, and more besides. If we are to go from the micro

level – care for the subjectivity –, to a macro level – what to do for every graduate so they can become a professional –, we have to adopt a wider and more responsible vision of the social education and personal formation process than has been adopted thus far. The research data confirms that the university courses do not provide pathways to the acquisition of the skills needed by the world of work, as they are still too attentive to the theoretical dimensions (Yorke, 2006; Hyams-Ssekasi, Wright, 2013), and they forget and leave aside the acquisition of the tool of experience which was instead at the centre of Dewey's pedagogical device. Work and life experience, underlined by Dewey in each of the most important essays in his vast philosophical and pedagogical output, suffice it to think of *School and Society* (1899), *Democracy and Education* (1916), and *Experience and Education* (1938), should be the pivot of the pedagogical device of socio-educational study courses. Instead, the hiatus between the Adult Education and Educational Science curriculum and the work of world is so vast that it is necessary to rethink the didactic, practical, empirical and reflective methods of internship, and dimensions of university guidance in terms of care of the person (Hadot, 2002; Cambi, 2010; Mortari, 2006, 2014), as well as care of the organization (Kolb, 1984, Schön, 1987), in order to achieve effective career guidance even in the presence of such an intense economic and social crisis as the one that has been afflicting Italy since 2007.

3. Career Guidance, Employability and Higher Education

Guidance is recognized as having the following main functions, in terms of guidelines: an educational function aimed at fostering, right from primary school, the development of guidance capabilities that allow every individual to autonomously manage their own self-guidance; an informative function, to increase the single person's capabilities to select and assess the information available and, if necessary, to seek more; the function of accompanying specific transition experiences, namely activities to support the development of decision-making competences and active control that can help the person in moments of transition, with the aim of combating the risk of failure; a guidance consultancy function, concerning support for the capabilities to build personal formative and work projects; and system functions (technical assistance, worker training, quality promotion, research and development), referring to the systems that have to support the guidance actions to ensure their quality and efficacy in all local contexts (Ministero del Lavoro, 2014).

This intricate, intensely operative, definition of guidance introduces us to one of the pivots underlying the research. The main question referred to which core competences can be given to young graduates to

have many opportunities to enter the world of work. Guidance and self-guidance towards one's professionalism are definitely pivotal in the possibility of employability. The survey hypothesis indeed concentrated on the idea that building employability has a cogent bond with the study course. As a consequence, the problem of those competences the entrepreneurs do not find in graduates leaving higher education concerns the way in which the employability construct is included, and above all the manner in which it is built and applied in study courses. The theory of a possible mismatch between the skills requested by the world of work and the competences acquired from the study curricula was then verified by the final results of the survey.

The device that puts *employability* in a virtuous cycle with the *transversal competences and techniques* needed to look for work in the world of the social economy is precisely the university training acquired by the young people aged 22 to over 30. This gives them a real awareness which guides them towards what will make them find work, but also towards what will allow them to find work suited to their requirements of personal and professional development. Therefore, we could assert that the possibility of supply and demand virtuously coming together can happen if, in the university contexts on one hand, there can be a development in *guidance, employability and curriculum*, but also, on the other, if the curricula can make clear the relationship between *transversal competences, technical competences and labour market*. And this, in the case under examination, in the world of the social economy with the educational and care professions formed in the area of Educational Science.

In university contexts, the construct of employability has gradually been reaching a definition over the last twenty years, from the end of the 1990s to date. However, I would like to underline that there is still little understanding as to what employability actually consists of. With regard to our research work, first of all we should highlight that the construct has an intense and important relationship with the subject's education, or rather with his/her formation as a future citizen and inhabitant of a planet in constant and rapid transformation. Until now, in particular in the Italian universities, this construct has been considered an economic argument, to be included in the statistics on looking for work. It is not granted that *work* is also a pedagogical topic (Boffo, 2012).

Research on employability started to be defined in the Anglo-Saxon pedagogical literature in around the last five years of the last century (Yorke, 2006, Yorke and Knight, 2004a), with an interesting reflection on the relationship between higher education and the labour market. To deal with work and the relationship between learning and employment is to ask how the capability can be built for each student in higher education to use, transform and gain as much knowledge as possible from the training courses. In this way, as we started from the question of which

competences are needed to meet the labour market's necessities, we soon realized that while the problem does indeed lie in building competences on one hand, on the other hand, it is situated within the answer to the question: «what is employability and how can it be built, used and implemented?» (Pegg, Waldock, Hendy-Isaac, Lawton, 2012).

The reflection hypotheses start from two conditions:

> First, [the] case for *Employability* as a set of achievements which constitute a necessary but not sufficient condition for the gaining of employment (which is dependent, *inter alia*, on the contemporary state of the economy). *Employability* is […], considerably more complex than some proponents of 'core', 'key' and 'transferable' skills have suggested, and is strongly aligned with the academic valuing of good learning (Yorke, 2006: 2).

The second consideration, linked to the first, concerns the fact that in order to build employability it is necessary to intervene on learning, on the study curriculum and, therefore, on the capacities that the students achieve at the end of their training course rather than on the set of knowledge requested to pass the exams. Some key points illustrate the need to investigate the construct in order to give the students the necessary capabilities for their growth, formation and learning, to build the future for themselves and for the environment so that they can live as well as possible.

- The relationship between higher education and the economy is longstanding.
- Employers generally see a graduate's achievements related to the subject discipline as necessary but not sufficient for them to be recruited. In some employment contexts the actual subject discipline may be relatively unimportant. Achievements outside the boundaries of the discipline (such as the possession of so-called 'soft skills') are generally considered to be important in the recruitment of graduates.
- '*Employability*' refers to a graduate's achievements and his/her potential to obtain a 'graduate job', and should not be confused with the actual acquisition of a 'graduate job' (which is subject to influences in the environment, a major influence being the state of the economy).
- *Employability* derives from complex learning, and is a concept of wider range than those of 'core' and 'key' skills.
- The 'transferability' of skills is often too easily assumed. There is some evidence to suggest that references to employability make the implicit assumption that graduates are young people. The risk is of not considering *Employability* in respect of older graduates, who have the potential to bring a more extensive life-experience to bear. *Employability* is not merely an attribute of the new graduate. It needs to be continuously refreshed throughout a person's working life (Yorke, 2006: 3).

In this sense, the role of the relationship between higher education and economy began to be understood in the 1960s in the countries that were the political decision-makers in Europe at the time. The Robbins Report (1963), in which the United Kingdom asked itself about the role of higher education for the future of the country, is particularly trenchant on this aspect: «We begin with instruction in skills suitable to play a part in the general division of labour» (Robbins, 1963: 6). The interesting, innovative and avant-garde report asks the question that those states with high rates of unemployment are currently dealing with, that is, about the sense of continuing training and university education, if, after studying, it is not possible to be hired or employed in positions that are suited to the level of qualifications achieved.

> The Report placed this aim first in order to counter the risk that the importance of higher education for the economy might have been ignored or undervalued, and it went on to offer the view that few would enter higher education without an eye to subsequent employment (Yorke, 2006: 3).

At present, all each state or national government can do is underline the central importance of higher education for the development of a country.

> One important source of knowledge growth is the learning-by-doing that takes place in innovative workplaces (HM Treasury, 2000:45). Another is the higher education system. The higher education system is subject to governmental steer, one form of which is to give an emphasis to the enhancement of the employability of new graduates (Yorke, 2006: 4).

Hence, the significance of employability in every university student's investment in their education. Yorke defines it as

> a set of achievements – skills, understandings and personal attributes – that makes graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy (Yorke, 2006: 10).

As Yorke states, some observations with regard to the choice of definition are so important that they need to be underlined: 1) The definition is probabilistic. There is no certainty that possessing certain characteristics can convert into employability and a definite job, indeed there are many socio-economic variables present in the transition process, concerning national, regional and economic well-being, as well as the characteristics of the supply/demand; 2) The tools for work or looking for work and the knowledge gained can be very distant, hence it would be important to introduce the new construct/concept of *embedding employability into the curriculum*. 3) Many skills such as cooperative working or

leadership are not easy to acquire during training and education, and it would be a good idea for the workplaces to help to diffuse them too through assessment centres.

A further and important aspect of the concept of employability is linked to considering the tools that can be achieved and acquired during the university training period. Various lists of skills appear in the literature and in the 1980s particular attention was placed on transferrable or generic skills, namely, soft skills. This was the term used to define those *generic capabilities* that can be used widely by professionals in the most varied professional contexts (Yorke, 2006: 14).

> In an early discussion of transferability, Bridges (1993) differentiated between skills that were essentially context-independent (the use of word processing, say) and those that were context-dependent. Context-dependent skills can be exemplified by behaviour that might be appropriate in one context (for example, challenging received wisdom in higher education) but that might not be well received in another (challenging an employer's way of going about things). Far from transfer being a simple translation, its potential applicability required an appreciation of how the change in context might impact. In the same vein, a recent analysis by Hinchliffe (2002) insists on the importance of developing situational understandings that are (at least potentially) able to cater for the unpredictability of happenings in the world (Yorke, 2006: 14).

Whilst much writing on transferable or generic skills contains little more than *wish lists* constructed by interested parties, it is worth drawing attention here to two approaches which do try to make connections between employability and theories of learning, […]:
• disciplinary content;
• disciplinary skills;
• workplace experience;
• workplace awareness;
• generic skills;
• and Knight and Yorke's (2002, 2004) USEM model which interrelates
• understanding;
• skills;
• efficacy beliefs, personal skills and qualities;
• metacognition (Yorke, 2006: 14).

Given the complex definition of employability, we can conclude that

> The position [we need to assume] is that *Employability* goes well beyond the simplistic notion of key skills, and is evidenced in the application of a mix of personal qualities and beliefs, understandings, skilful practices and the ability to reflect productively on experience. Notice that the commonly used terms 'knowledge' and 'skills' are not used [in the

definition or in the explanation]. They have been replaced by 'under-standings' and 'skilful practices' respectively, in order to signal the importance of a rich appreciation of the relevant field(s) and of the ability to operate in situations of complexity and ambiguity (Yorke, 2006: 15).

Ultimately, already in the mid-noughties, Yorke was concluding that the construct of employability could be studied within a 'pedagogy of Employability' taking into consideration the complexity and the necessity to assess it in line with the disciplinary results that have to be achieved in the higher education study courses (Yorke, 2006: 15). He underlines the necessity to consider the different environmental circumstances on which achieving the capabilities underlying a person's employability depends. 'Capable' people:

> have confidence in their ability to 1. take effective and appropriate action, 2. explain what they are seeking to achieve, 3. live and work effectively with others, and 4. continue to learn from their experiences, both as individuals and in association with others, in a diverse and changing society. [...] Capability is a necessary part of specialist expertise, not separate from it. Capable people not only know about their specialisms, they also have the confidence to apply their knowledge and skills within varied and changing situations and to continue to develop their specialist knowledge and skills (Stephenson, 1998: 2).

What said underlines the cogent connection between building the curriculum, learning in higher education, the acquisition of capabilities, the possibility of continuing to develop skills and the need to introduce 'lifelong and lifewide' training.

Employability is a construct linked to learning conditions and the study curriculum, but above all it is the gaining of a capability that is maintained and grows throughout the lifespan. It is connected to the labour market, but it is connected to permanent education in living even more. In this sense, we could assert that more than an internal construct intrinsic to the formal learning course, it can be considered, more broadly, even more enriched by the personal dimension. Nevertheless, the latter must certainly have the right conditions to develop as much as possible. The right tools in the right place at the right time: this could, in short, sum up what the higher education models can and must do to build and incorporate *employability*.

4. The EMAE Curriculum and Placement

The problem of university students' employability has become increasingly evident at the Italian level owing to the crisis which since 2007

has been threatening our country's labour market. The current figures continue not to be encouraging:

> According to ISTAT [the Italian National Institute of Statistics], the rate of youth unemployment (15-24 years old) rose to 46% in the first quarter of 2014 (it was 41.9% in the first quarter of 2013). It is the highest figure since calculations began in 1977. But the real emergency is in the south of Italy, where unemployment rises sharply to 21.7%, and to 60.9% among the under 25s. The unemployed in Italy, ISTAT informs us, amount to almost 3.5 million, with an increase of 212,000 each year (www.istat.it, 2015).

In a European context where youth unemployment continues to be a strongly criticized factor of the Italian labour market, it is particularly important to deal with the problem of the link between study curriculum and workplace. This is also in the face of the demand that, from one point of view, the sectors linked to the social economy pose to the labour market. Therefore, the study course in Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science considered the problem of understanding how and how much its graduates could find suitable job opportunities, which was the very purpose of the research performed in 2013-2014 in collaboration with the students from the second year of the study course. Indeed, we asked how much the knowledge and capabilities/competences gained by a graduate on this masters course can realistically be suited to the job opportunities on offer.

The request for training coming from the ground, from social–educational services, social–health services and the labour market must match the competences that the students on the Educational Science study courses are effectively given. The data emerging from the project gave evidence with regard to the profile of educator and trainer, and more besides, upon finishing the University of Florence Educational Science study course. The main goal of the research was to deal with the problem of youth unemployment, by studying the new job opportunities generated by the labour market needs in the social economy sectors.

The research action aimed to:

A. investigate and analyse the employment potential of young graduates with education and training competences in the area of Tuscany, in organizations that operate in the services to citizens and social–educational and social–cultural services sector;
B. verify the capacity of the local and national labour market to absorb these professional figures;
C. understand how to overcome the *mismatch* of the young graduates' knowledge and competences with respect to the job opportunities;
D. have direct contact with the stakeholders in the sector.

The particular sample under consideration comprises organizations present on the social economy market which act in the region of Tuscany. The social economy, similar in concept to the third sector category, is defined by law as the sphere in which private collective legal entities perform activities of social utility, not to produce profit, as an expression of solidarity. In Italy, they fall into the category of so-called ONLUS enterprises, that is, those non-profit organizations of social utility that act in the sector commonly defined as non profit or no profit. Social cooperatives, the type of organizations taken into examination by the research, are regulated by law n° 381 of 8 November 1991, and their main aim is to pursue the general community interest of the human promotion and social integration of its citizens. They are divided into two types:

A. those which run social, health and educational services;
B. those which perform different activities – agricultural, industrial, commercial or service – aimed at providing employment for disadvantaged persons[3].

The research involved those companies that traditionally run social-educational, social-health and social-cultural services, located in Tuscany with strong roots in the provinces of Florence, Pisa and Siena. The companies are of such a size that they have branches not just in Tuscany, but also in the centre and north of Italy. They count 28 social companies/enterprises; 18 type A cooperatives; 1 type B cooperative; 6 consortia; 1 NGO; and 2 nursery schools.

The survey was carried out on 17 organizations, with a total of around 27,000 users (figure as at February 2014). The workers aged under 30 who were interviewed possess ISCED levels 4-5 and 5-6. They count around 3,500 workers.

The types of workers, with relation to the local needs, are divided as follows.

LEVEL 1: professional educator – social–health area; language mediator/language facilitator; development technician; accounts manager; youth street worker/educator.

LEVEL 2: organization director; training marketer; project planner/manager; education and training coordinator; education and training manager.

LEVEL 3: sundry figures: workers who fulfil several functions at the same time.

After performing the interviews, the researchers met some cooperative presidents and some human resource area managers.

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[3] For more information see http://www.regione.toscana.it/terzosettore (01/2015).

Some steps are needed to illustrate the survey method used in Tuscany. Despite following the SALM research format, the survey adopted an approach borrowed from *Grounded Theory* (Merriam, 2001), namely, it was possible to model the investigation depending on the results achieved in the different phases.

The 28 interviewees were managers or directors of the social economy companies. The choice of the various enterprises followed the criterion of diversification by company purpose: we opted for a sample of consortia, a sample of type A and type B cooperatives, and some organizations like NGOs. The interviews and case studies were conducted by the students on the *Foundations of Adult Education and Continuing Training* course held by Prof. Paolo Federighi in the first year of the course on Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Sciences, and by the students on the course in *Research Methodology: Basic and Applied to Education and Training* held by myself in the first year of the same degree course. The possibility for the students[4] to act as researchers definitely made them responsible towards the investigation work, but it also gave them the possibility to have direct, in-depth and reflexive contact with the world of work. The interview looked into four fields: the first concerned the people working for the company, the main data and company purpose; the second field related to the description of the activity carried out by the organization with the types and numbers of beneficiaries/users; the third field related to finding the characteristics of the people employed and the type of education and training required and gained in service; and the fourth field related to the future development of the company.

The results of the interviews are shown in the following section, but what I would like to underline is precisely this possibility to make the addressees of the research, namely the higher education students, the main actors involved in directly and consciously acquiring the knowledge. This aspect concerns the research, but also the teaching put together in the university courses, and it could open vast horizons for reflection on the method to build employability.

After collecting the interviews, the field research programme was completed by the focus group with some of the company managers interviewed previously. The student researchers also participated in the focus group which set out to gain knowledge/make comparative reflec-

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[4] The student researchers were: Simone Abbate, Elisa Barni, Gabriele Biagini, Anna Burchietti, Federica Caciolli, Rosa Cagnazzo, Giulia Calcagno, Elena Carradori, Elisa Cerbai, Valentina Chianura, Francesco de Maria, Francesca de Palma, Matilde Emiliani, Giacomo Fabbri, Alessandra Fuso, Denise Girardi, Ilaria La Peruta, Giulia Lorenzini, Tiziana Mammoliti, Barbara Mari, Lucilla Martellini o Nocentini, Giulia Mazzolani, Maria Rita Meloni, Serena Morelli, Clara Morieri, Barbara Ninci, Matilde Sinisgalli, Carlo Terzaroli and Mariana Vuckovic.

tion between companies in the same geographical area with similar development goals and motivational patterns.

The social economy companies involved in the research in Tuscany[5] highlighted the high level of cultural and social involvement in the actions of education and training for personal welfare and formative care. They displayed a great deal of interest in establishing links with the university in order to collaborate to give the graduates a more active and concrete training. It is underlined that both parts of the research proved important owing to their engagement of all the actors. In this sense, the exchange of ideas, the possibility of dialogue and the understanding of aspects that would otherwise be implicit, can easily be considered strategic in order to be able to begin to work on the sense of interrogating the labour market, the meaning of involving employers in building suitable curricula, and the prospects for internships and targeted job placements.

We can state that in-depth reflection on this part of the survey creates a different, but no less important type of experience from the results requested from the interview questions or from those posed during the focus group. The relations and communication between the university and the young student researchers permitted an exchange of ideas that virtuously created new reflections and an innovative experience of contact with the world of work.

5. The Results of the Survey in Tuscany

What results have been obtained from the research performed in Tuscany?

First of all, the companies in the sector, type A social cooperatives and consortia, require staff with university qualifications, but they do not know the world of the universities. They are not up-to-date on the evolution that has affected the Italian universities from 1999 to date and, in particular, on the changes in the study courses in the area of Educational Science. The employers interviewed do not differentiate between three-year lower order and five-year higher order degree courses. The labour market does not differentiate between the different qualifications, what is important are the competences acquired and not the certificates gained. This point is particularly relevant because it definitely creates a mismatch between the professionalism that is demanded on one hand and supplied on the other. The graduates offer study experiences and knowledge that are not in line with the requirements of the companies in the sector. The world of cooperatives and services to citizens has branched out, not always

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[5] For the list of social economy organizations involved in the SALM research see chapter 3, table 1.

in a more professional way, owing to requests arriving from the users of crèche, family, migrant, disability support, mental health and care for the elderly services. The workers, not always coming from an educational or social training background, have 'learnt' the definition of their profession from working on the ground. So, despite being in a sector regulated by specific laws, over the last thirty years the workers have grasped how to become self-entrepreneurs. We could speak of weak professions from the viewpoint of establishing a specific category, with defined competences and a definite and recognized profile. This type of situation makes the access to employment very much varied. The workers at the helm of the social enterprises do not necessarily have to come from the same training background that they require of the young people they select and hire. This could impede the recognition of professional skills, which can then only emerge after periods of training and induction courses which, however, are not present or provided for the new employees.

A second, equally as important aspect concerns the need for workers with transversal didactic-educational and communication-relational skills, but above all with competences in planning, accounting, needs analysis of the local area and of the companies involved in education and training. They are looking for figures of educators/trainers who can, in a versatile way, deal with new educational emergencies, such as social hardship, for very young children, minors, families, the expanding category of the very elderly, but who can also understand and interpret innovations coming from foreign markets, such as knowing how to read project tenders, single them out and anticipate national and international project requirements. The employers point out the necessity for educator/trainer profiles that can move flexibly in diversified and innovative contexts. The professional figure required is potentially versatile and has knowledge relating to the well-being of the human person, but also the planning skills that are acquired in advanced work contexts. In this sense, legal, economic and planning competences are required, but these must be consistent with the transversal skills of understanding the person and the person's needs.

Therefore, it becomes clear that these enterprises need to hire and work with professional figures with a multi-faceted and complex education and training, who can interpret the evolution of the market of educational and training professions over time so as to more quickly access the needs of users distributed longitudinally (by geographical position, cultural belonging) and vertically (by age and demographics).

In third place, there emerges the very close connection between lower level university training in the area of education and training, and the labour and professional market which is the natural area of investment of the human capital that the university is called upon to train. In this sense, it would be very important for the university to increasingly account for the

strong demand voiced by the students for internships as part of the study programme. More and more, and increasingly clearly, those students choosing courses to prepare for the profession of educator, trainer as well as pedagogical planner and coordinator, are pressing to learn on the ground those competences/skills that they learn from the books, lessons and seminars. Therefore, in terms of professional figures, the 'natural' job opportunities given by the three-year and five-year study courses in the area of Educational Science are precisely those professions at the basis of the shift in emphasis of the degree courses from pedagogy to education (Federighi, 2014).

A last point of reflection indicates the need for the university to create a very close research bond with foreign countries both inside and outside Europe, in order to increase social mobility and the transfer of techniques and know-how through intense exchanges with other realities. From the research, we can see how the cooperatives and third sector are funded to increase work. European funding is definitely important and this is why planning competences are decisive for the enterprises that base their very survival on accessing European funds. Nevertheless, the ability to exchange new and ever more advanced know-how and techniques with different countries is also beginning to assume central importance owing to the possibility of expanding training, formative care and welfare activities. While these aspects are investigated in the masters course on Adult Education and Continuing Training, they are perhaps less present in other bachelor and masters courses in the area of Educational Science. Work is changing as a result of the increasing circularity between goods and services linked to transformations in welfare and formative care. Graduates need training that can place them in a global world not just with an economic but also a social and cultural outlook. Mediation, support, care of the self and care of the other are central aspects for the professional figure of educator/trainer, but they must be seen in light of the current international competences. A great deal of effort is needed in order to acquire the knowledge and competences needed for an international outlook, and the universities are striving to deal with this. Everybody should be aware of the concept of *European citizenship* and all young students should be trained in this sense. A very last point to underline should be the capability to become self-entrepreneurs (Noya, 2009). It does not matter where or with whom, but it is important to be aware that without suitable training it is not simple to start to build an international path.

6. Transversal Capabilities, Soft Skills, Flexible Abilities in Educational Science Study Course

The aspects dealt with previously lead our reflection to the capabilities that can be developed on the courses in Educational Science, and in

particular, the masters course in Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science. In order for the labour supply and demand to suitably match, it is vitally important to build courses that support the employability of the graduates on one hand, but on the other it is also indispensible to reflect on their employability contents in terms of transversal capabilities, soft skills and flexible abilities. In other words, capacities/competences which, albeit transversal to all professions, instead take on a technical nature in the education/training professions resulting from the study courses considered here.

The topic of the relationship between capabilities and competences still very much needs clarifying by the scientific research. Here it is assumed that the concept of capability can be expressed through the *capabilities model* developed by Martha Nussbaum in her latest scientific work. The term can be explained as part of the *capabilities approach* that Nussbaum has explained in many volumes since the end of the 1990s, offered to the reader with exemplary clarity in the text *Creating Capabilities. The Human Development Approach* (2011) in which she focuses her attention on the relationship between human capabilities, economic development and socio-cultural contexts. The basic question is very simple:

> What are people actually able to do and to be? What real opportunities are available to them? This question, though simple, is also complex, since the quality of a human life involves multiple elements whose relationship to one another needs close study. Indeed, one of the appealing features of the new approach is its complexity: it appears well equipped to respond to the complexities of human life and human striving. After all, the question it poses is one that people ask themselves often in their daily lives (Nussbaum, 2011: 8).

What are we able to do and to be?: for training courses, the question is the same. What have I learnt, what have I been taught, what does it mean to pass from knowledge to competences, how can learning support and help the possibility to find work? (Nussbaum, 2011). These questions are not different from those we ask ourselves over the span of our adult lives. So, it can be a useful exercise to use capabilities to describe, recognize and learn to discern which tools can be useful to educate and train a person for work, and in this case, for educational and training work, to understand which corrective measures to adopt within curricula that do not appear to build employability. The focal point of the capabilities approach, indeed (Nussbaum, 2011: 18-19), is to pose the problem of which life opportunities are best for each one of us. In the same way, we can ask ourselves which opportunities are best for building suitable training for work.

What is a capability according to Nussbaum and Sen? Capabilities concern the abilities/skills that a person/graduate can achieve, but they

also concern «the freedoms or opportunities created by a combination of personal abilities and the political, social, and economic environment» (Nussbaum, 2011: 20). During his/her studies, a graduate had had many opportunities that have been created both by personal abilities and specific environmental conditions. Capabilities are more than competences, they are competences shared with the environment in question and built starting from the quality of teaching, the tools offered, the abundance of workshops, the internationalization of the study courses and the possibility to interact with teachers from abroad. Capabilities belong to individuals, Nussbaum states once more, and the approach conceives of every person as an end (2011: 35). Every graduate, every student should acquire the capabilities needed to move in the world of work or should have the opportunities, combined with the personal resources, to develop to the best of their potential. In the case of the research, the capabilities should emerge precisely from a coherent approach to employability.

As Yorke and Night (2004a) confirm, there are four components through which it is possible to create a context for the emergence of transversal competences and capabilities in a curriculum that builds employability:

> 1) Understanding (of disciplinary material and, more generally, of 'how the world works');
> 2) Skilful practices in context (whether the practices are discipline-related or more generic);
> 3) Efficacy beliefs (under which are subsumed a range of personal qualities and attributes);
> 4) Metacognition (including the capacity for reflection, and that of self-regulation). USEM certainly serves as a useful starting point from a curriculum audit or curriculum design perspective; there is no doubt that the concept of this framework is well researched and considered, but there are limited examples of this being readily, or transparently, adopted within Higher Education Institutions at the present time (Yorke and Knight, 2004a: 37).

The transversal competences that entrepreneurs consider important must be the baggage of knowledge resulting from the university courses. In our research too, the answers coming from the interviews tell us that transversal skills and abilities are fundamental. These results agree with what can be found in the literature. Nevertheless, is it still necessary to specify what entrepreneurs mean by employability skills. Some interesting answers can be found in the 'Working towards your Future' report (CBI, 2011) drawn up by CBI which has worked with its members to define what employers mean by employability skills. In the Anglo-Saxon countries this has been an influential document in establishing policy understandings of employability activities in HEIs.

The document begins with the broad ESECT definition of Employability and then narrows this down, adding that for employers employability skills specifically include:

- *Business and customer awareness* – basic understanding of the key drivers for business success – including the importance of innovation and taking calculated risks – and the need to provide customer satisfaction and build customer loyalty.
- *Problem solving* – analysing facts and situations and applying creative thinking to develop appropriate solutions.
- *Communication and literacy* – application of literacy, ability to produce clear, structured written work and oral literacy – including listening and questioning.
- *Application of numeracy* – manipulation of numbers, general mathematical awareness and its application in practical contexts (e.g. measuring, weighing, estimating and applying formulae).
- *Application of information technology* – basic IT skills, including familiarity with word processing, spreadsheets, file management and use of internet search engines.
- Underpinning all these attributes, the key foundation must be a positive attitude: a *'can-do' approach*, a readiness to take part and contribute, openness to new ideas and a drive to make these happen.
- Frequently mentioned by both employers and universities is *entrepreneurship/enterprise*: broadly, an ability to demonstrate an innovative approach, creativity, collaboration and risk taking [...] (Pegg *et al.*, 2012: 19).

The list of competences requested by the labour market is also common to what emerges from the research. The skills named can become capabilities if the training conditions are such as to build curricula that favour embedded employability. Indeed, the acquisition of capabilities that correlate with the requests of the world of social economy work will only be possible if employability becomes a process that is *embedded* in the curriculum. This is a challenge that the research poses to the study courses, but above all to Italian university culture. The data that emerges from the interviews confirms that in the Anglo-Saxon sphere experimentation had already begun on this at the end of the 1990s.

7. Conclusions. Embedded Employability and the Future of Higher Education

The case study, analyzed in terms of the entry to work of graduates from the masters course in Adult Education, Continuing Training and Pedagogical Science, and represented by the cooperatives and consortia belonging to the social economy in the area of Tuscany, gave results that can be compared with the literature, above all Anglo-Saxon, on the

topic of employability. Some observations deriving from this analysis allow us to come to some conclusions.

First of all, let us consider the emerging results: 1) a mismatch is highlighted between what the world of work requests from the graduates in terms of competences, above all transversal skills, and their academic preparation; 2) at the same time a lack is underlined of updated technical competences with regard to the requests of a market whose services to citizens and the same companies' planning for financial support are in constant evolution; 3) an undifferentiated request is displayed for degrees with low educational and training capabilities in sectors of work where, instead, the profile of educational–training manager/coordinator should be central; 4) a need is outlined for professional profiles/figures able to respond to educational, social and cultural needs with capabilities resulting from higher education courses so that they can guarantee reflexivity, metacognition, flexibility and entrepreneurship in the medium–high positions.

These results seem to shift the problem of the availability of capabilities/competences that can support better and more continuative employability to building a disciplinary curriculum in higher education with the presence of embedded employability. This latter perspective seems to be the key to developing the most useful transversal competences/capabilities for the graduates of the future.

The link between building a suitable curriculum and the bond with different forms of teaching and learning seems to be very strong, and what higher education will have to be engaged in will be precisely to create embedded employability pathways in the disciplinary curricula. On one hand, the structure of the curricula should be changed since, at present, they do not allow the students to engage in building reflexivity, metacognition or critical capabilities towards those capabilities/competences deemed central for placement. On the other, disciplinary modules should be drawn up that can support embedded employability. Therefore, by acting on teaching and learning processes, it will be possible to improve entry to work along targeted and specific routes.

The empirical research on work transitions and the graduate professional profiles requested by the market can support renewal in university teaching and in higher education in general. In this way, pedagogical research can also benefit from building a model of employability that looks towards the students and graduates' subjectivity. Because there is no doubt that by acting on the variables observed thus far, we are also modelling the educational action performed in university courses.

Hence, research needs to be involved in at least three areas:

1) The didactic area: teaching, learning and assessment of the subjects and didactic-formative actions. As scholars of employability pedagogy affirm:

Evidence suggests that successful pedagogical approaches include experiential learning – an emphasis on exploration, learning by doing and reflection in authentic contexts – ideally mixed with rather than simply replacing existing approaches. Existing assessment methodologies should, where necessary, be challenged and new approaches explored that reward successful practice in developing employability, giving them parity of esteem with technical skills and academic knowledge (Pegg *et al.*, 2012: 45).

2) The area of work experience as interns, but also the possibility of spending an alternating period in the workplace which really does have a formative effect. The empirical evidence states that:

There is strong evidence to indicate that authentic work experience contextualises learning, has a strong influence on graduate employment and should be integrated into course curricula wherever possible. In order to maximise learning for employability and the academic subject it is important that this should be a pedagogically supported experience, which includes reflection and articulation of the learning achieved. Where this is difficult or impractical, it may be possible to embed examples of work-related learning or simulated work experience » (Pegg *et al.*, 2012: 45).

3) The area of personal and social responsibility for a regeneration of the institutional culture that can and must promote *employability*:

A principal challenge for institutions is to create an environment in which learning providers put employability enhancement at the heart of what they do. Teaching employability may require that organisational practices and structures such as timetabling and resourcing are amended to fit different pedagogical approaches. Courses should make employability explicit through validation processes and through module learning outcomes. It is easy to see why institutions are keen to invest heavily in some areas of employability skills development, such as career management skills, that can lead to substantial short-term gains in graduate employment rates. It is also important to emphasise, however, that some other very valuable graduate attributes such as communication and team-working skills take time to develop but are equally in need of investment (Pegg *et al.*, 2012: 45).

In order to build educational actions that are consistent with the aims of fostering suitable and potentially formative transitions, to increasingly model better professional pathways, and to underline the importance of work culture for man's well-being and the care of the human person, it is necessary to support empirical research for certain evidence which can show us the way and above all give the young graduates a future of certain employment and professional growth.

We could conclude by asserting that by means of evidence-based pedagogical research in the field of adult education we have gained some indications for reflection on higher education curricula. Hence they may increasingly and more fittingly become the cutting edge in education, and improve and support the professional future of graduates in every disciplinary area, the well-being of the people using the educational, social, cultural and training services, and the care for the educational/training workplace.

CHAPTER 7

REFLEXIVITY AND TRANSPARENCY. INTERNAL
EVALUATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE IN
DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: A WAY TO ASSURE
RELEVANCY AND THE UTILIZATION OF RESULTS

Alexander Krauss

1. Introduction

The quality assurance and evaluation of project developments and outcomes has been a permanent topic of discussion within the frame of the Leonardo da Vinci programme. As a tradition, quality assurance and evaluation is a distinct work package in most projects. Also the European Commission's new Erasmus+ programme requires a strong element of assessment and evaluation of the process, outcomes and even impact of the projects funded under the programme.

The paragraphs to follow do not have the ambition to cover the academic discussion of the evaluation literature relevant for the topic[1]. Rather they aim to provide some quite practical thoughts on what quality assurance within this kind of project is basically all about, what its main objectives are and how it can be useful for the project partners and stakeholders. These aspects are discussed against the background of more than 35 national and international development projects in which ISOB has been involved as internal evaluator[2]. The thoughts to follow, therefore, reflect the basic insights of a practitioner, as used in the quality assurance and internal evaluation of the SALM project, which is the topic of this book.

2. The Particularities of International Development Projects

International development projects like SALM are quite ambitious endeavours. Partners who often only partly know each other set out to deal with quite complex topics, develop concrete products and imple-

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[1] For a discussion of the concepts of *wissenschaftliche Begleitung* (scientific guidance) along the approach of *Handlungsforschung* (action research) in the context of development projects see Krauß (2007), Stahl (2005), Stahl, Stark (2004).

[2] See http://www.isob-regensburg.net/joomla3/index.php/en/projects (03/2015).

ment them in a context which is known only to the respective national partner, but not to the others. The partners mostly lack a common mother language. They are often not familiar with either the national educational system, or the cultural and institutional background of the other partners.

All of these factors make such a project even more complex than similar national projects.

On the other hand, precisely those international projects implemented under the Leonardo da Vinci programme have to deal with these complexities with quite limited resources. To mention only one such scarce resource, the number of partner meetings is mostly limited to four, each lasting merely two days.

There is not much time to get to know each other or explore each other's respective setting, to build a proper rapport or develop a common working programme, including discussing potential friction and problems during implementation.

It can be regarded as quite surprising, therefore, that most of the projects mentioned have proven to be a success all the same.

The claim made here is that using an appropriate system of quality assurance and internal evaluation has been an important factor in achieving this success.

Multinational development projects need an efficient but sufficiently complex system of accelerated communication, coordination and decision-making. This necessitates the use of good management principles as well as good dialogue.

In our perspective, therefore, the main aims of the quality assurance and internal evaluation in development projects are:

- to assure the 'self-similarity' of the project, i.e. by making sure that the project does what it promised to do;
- to enhance complexity by inspiring discussion and facilitating feedback loops to allow for an adequate level of reflection, and to reduce complexity by bringing latent points of conflict into the open, but also, through a concise description of the state of the art, to allow for problem-solving during the project;
- to provide feedback systems to enable the integration of partner, end user and stakeholder feedback in the development process;
- to create utilization-focused reporting.

The paragraphs to follow will elaborate on the implementation of each of these aims within the SALM project on a conceptual level[3].

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[3] At the time of writing this chapter, the results from the final project reports were not yet available. The final evaluation report will be made available through the project website.

3. General Characteristics of the Quality Assurance and Internal Evaluation Approach Used – Utilization-Focused Developmental Evaluation

Evaluation in projects is not a purely academic exercise. First and foremost, projects have to make sure that they will in fact do what they proposed to do and what they were funded for (self-similarity) in spite of the often divergent practical day-to-day needs of partners, friction, legitimate but incompatible interests of potential end users etc. However, a certain latitude for development is also necessary, that is, products and approaches must be designed following the users' needs and insights as identified during the initial needs analysis within the project, and in the user feedback from field-testing the draft product versions. Therefore, each and everything cannot be predetermined from the beginning, but rather has to be discussed, defined and decided 'on the go'.

As a 'Development of Innovation', the SALM project partners therefore had to reflect upon the developments of the project much more closely compared to the 'Transfer of Innovation' projects within the Leonardo da Vinci programme, where the outcomes and products are defined in some detail from the beginning, as there are prior products or concepts that just need to be adapted and transferred.

In projects with a strongly developmental focus, in contrast, typically multiple loops of reflection are needed in order to assure that the actual developments and products of the activities will match the aims set out in the application as well as the needs identified in the initial project WPs (needs analysis).

The internal evaluation therefore had to do its best throughout the project to stimulate and facilitate this critical reflection (self-evaluation) of the partnership as a whole, complementing the technical monitoring of the implementation of the work programme, the deliverables and administrative work by the promoter of the project.

The quality assurance and internal evaluation approach used in SALM claims to provide a unique perspective. Internal evaluation as part of the project has been an emphatic partner within the project partnership, but also a partner that did not identify itself with one single operational function in the project, as is the case with project management, product development, testing etc.

Much more, the internal evaluation tried to integrate the perspective of the project stakeholders into the project activities and discussions.

This approach can be called 'utilization focused' because it is focused on the provision of useful information for the project partners and particularly the stakeholders of the project.

In contrast and in addition to only utilizing a narrative of the project (as the application), the information provided by the internal evaluation has been based on qualitative as well as quantitative data, supporting the narrative.

It proved to be useful for the project partners to be continuously confronted with the stakeholders' anticipated as well as the documented needs and perspectives. As a *critical friend* of the project (Fricke, 2005) the evaluation here consisted of asking those questions that the stakeholders as well as external evaluation of the project would probably ask. The internal evaluation aimed to be 'the voice' of stakeholders within the project when the stakeholders themselves could not be present. The internal evaluation also reminded the partners of the criteria stated by the external evaluation (as represented in the grid of the final report to the agency as well as in the feedback to the interim report) on a continual basis. According to the approach used, the internal evaluation has therefore been a *critical* friend. However, it is still to be considered a *friend*, as it contributed to the project and identified with the project as a whole and was an active part of the partnership. As a 'critical friend', the internal evaluation and quality assurance has a *formative* impact.

Some of the questions asked by the internal evaluation in the context of the partner meetings, the monthly virtual meetings, which were the backbone of communication within the project, reflect those that each project has to discuss in the final report provided by the 'Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency'. Examples include the outreach achieved, the expected impact, achievement of the chosen indicators, the balanced involvement of women, and European added value, among others. The persistent raising of these questions helped to make sure that all partners were aware of these overarching themes and worked towards them in a consistent manner. The same is true for those questions which were actually raised by various stakeholders from their varying perspectives. Examples include all aspects of relevancy of the project results for example, for companies, jobseekers, social organizations, job agencies etc. Their perspectives must be kept in mind at all times during the development work, as the answers to these questions decide if the results of the project will be used.

These perspectives, anticipated as well as actually identified through channels like the national advisory boards and focus groups, which included experts and stakeholders in all of the partner countries, provided the criterion for the feedback which the internal evaluation gave to developments within the project. Extensive feedback was given on the country reports of the initial needs analysis, the draft of the toolkit, the draft of the field-testing evaluation concept and other relevant developments, mostly either as written feedback papers or during virtual online meetings.

4. Reducing Complexity: Tools to Keep Development Projects on Track

As described in the introduction, in order to enable efficient navigation within a highly complex field, this complexity needs to be reduced to be

able to make informed decisions. In spite of the limitations of communication opportunities within this kind of project, a quite lively exchange develops within most projects. In the case of SALM, in spite of quite substantial initial friction over using technology, virtual online meetings proved to be a viable means of such communication. They were supplemented by an increasing number of bilateral online meetings on specific issues.

At some point, however, this communication needs to be targeted by measurable aims to achieve and substantiated by actual data on the achievement of these aims. Therefore, it proved to be useful to mould the narrative and general aims given in the application into a concise indicator system for all the work packages within the project. This exercise served three purposes. Firstly, the discussion of the indicator framework stimulated an in–depth discussion of the detailed aims partners had to achieve according to the application and/or wanted to achieve as a contribution to achieving the general aims. Secondly, the measurement of the indicators guided the discussion among partners, as impressions of the development, as well as concerns and also common ambitions can be monitored through the development of the data. Thirdly, the indicator framework allowed for a concise overview of the overall achievements of the project for third parties, such as the stakeholders and the European Commission.

Results are achieved through the common efforts of the partners, therefore self-evaluation of the process quality is of utmost importance. By basing the assessment of this quality on data of the partners' satisfaction level, the partners' discussion can be based on a structured and transparent representation of the perception of the process quality in a number of dimensions, and observation of the development of this data over time.

A short discussion of both tools, as used in SALM, follows.

5. Indicator System

The indicator system for the project consists of a three–page table which lists the indicators for all of the overall goals, operational aims and work phases in the project.

The columns are 'Indicator', 'Target Value' and 'Data Source'. The indicators were elaborated in a three-step process for each work package consisting of:

a. analysing the application, breaking down aims and concrete outcomes and finding indicators for those aims where the achievement is not immediately obvious (these are 'indicators' in the strict sense);
b. defining a target value for each indicator;
c. defining a data source, that is, defining which information can substantiate if the target value has been reached or not (e.g. document, report, survey).

The indicator framework was drafted by the partner responsible for internal evaluation and discussed and expanded in depth during a virtual meeting of the partnership.

In particular, it is critical to define a target value for each indicator, as it implies an ambitious, but realistic operational aim for the partners to strive to achieve. As a consequence, the partners are committed to this aim and therefore their efforts are more targeted and concise.

Outlining the data sources defines where the monitoring of the indicators can rely on process-generated data, that is, those documents and other information that are produced in the regular project work, and where additional data must be obtained, for example, through the collection of attendance data or through surveys. The latter are a main means of obtaining user feedback. The indicator framework defines the information which needs to be collected in the scope of the surveys. The elaboration of the questionnaires for these surveys is more related to the overall framework of the project as a consequence. This, however, also commits the developers of these surveys, that is, those responsible for the pilot test user feedback, to construct the questionnaires used accordingly.

6. Process Quality Survey System

To document the partners' assessment of the project process quality, a process quality survey was conducted every six months. The evaluation of the virtual and in-presence meetings was integrated in this survey, which was carried out in an online survey system using the 'Lime Survey' open source software.

The approach of the survey was to document the partners' subjective impressions at the respective stages. It was not the aim to single out partners but to get an insight into the overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This way, points for improvement could be put on the agenda of the following meetings, and potential changes could be discussed on the basis of the satisfaction data in each of the measured dimensions.

The dimensions measured on a five-point scale included:

Process:
- atmosphere in meetings;
- productivity of meetings;
- punctuality of tasks delivered;
- productivity of communication between meetings;
- general project management quality.
  Products:
- technical quality of work delivered;

- inspiration from results delivered;
- usefulness for target group;
- innovativeness of products.
  Valorization:
- level of outreach to relevant stakeholders;
- stakeholder response.

The partners were also asked to report on the progress of their own work and to offer comments on the following issues:
- Major achievements in cooperational efficiency in the partnership up to now?
- Opportunities for improvement?
- What can partners do to be even more useful for your work in the next months?
- Risks that could jeopardize the success of the project?

Each survey was analyzed by the internal evaluation in a feedback paper for the partners' use, which included observations and suggestions by the internal evaluation partner. The recommendations mostly relied on suggestions made by individual partners. Therefore, the character of the survey as a *self*-evaluation exercise was maintained at all times.

7. Evaluating and Reporting Process, Outcomes and Impact

The second element of the developmental, utilization-focused methodology, the *utilization* focus, is to make sure that potential users of the project results can access all relevant information about the approach, outcomes and process of the project in a compact format.

The (interim and final) evaluation reports provided such a comprehensive but concise overview. The scope of these reports is quite different from the technical report that has to be written by the project management, which has to prove in a formal way that the project provided all of its deliverables and met the minimum requirements.

This approach has a strong tradition in German projects for the development of the vocational training system (*wissenschaftliche Begleitung*) within pilot projects (*Modellversuche*) of the German Federal Institute for Vocational Training Research, following up on earlier approaches of 'action research'. Similar approaches are now also widely accepted in the evaluation community as a whole.

In contrast to the technical report, the internal evaluation reports give a general appreciation of the project in a free format that answers, among others, the following questions, which can be anticipated as being of interest for the project stakeholders:

What is it (in general)?

What were the general contents of the project, who participated, what is the history of the project, what were the needs that led to the project etc.? By answering this main question, the project is defined in terms of its general approach, its development focus, but also in terms of its out–comes, whether they were intended or unintended.

Why is it important?

How and why is the project relevant?

It has to be proven that the problem stated in the project application is a valid and urgent problem that is relevant for the development of the European vocational training system.

How is it relevant for me?

While the general importance of the project might be obvious, this remains quite abstract if the relevance cannot be seen by the real stake–holders, as they are either the groups intended to use the results of the project, or are in some way affected by it. Therefore, the aim of the in–ternal evaluation was to inspire reflection within the partnership about this aspect. Also the relevance felt by the target groups and stakeholders, documented by formal and informal surveys of these groups throughout the project, are presented in the reports.

The discussion of the questions above is based on all the information obtained throughout the project while monitoring the indicator frame–work, in particular by analysing documents as minutes, products and user feedback as documented in surveys and minutes of meetings, advisory board meetings and similar events.

Additional information is provided through the documentation of the dissemination efforts the partners made. A survey targeted at the plans of stakeholders and users of the products piloted allows for an informed discussion of perspectives for impact the project results will probably make in the future. As there are no resources for monitor–ing the actual utilisation of results also after the end of the project du–ration, as would be sound practice from a methodological perspective, this discussion must largely be based on these declared intentions at the end of the project. However, limited as this information is, the turn–out and resonance the project is able to produce, is a valid indicator of potential impact, even if we can not know which of these plans in fact will be implemented in the end.

How did the target groups and stakeholders respond?

One very important way to substantiate the claim of product relevance for the different stakeholders is to document the reaction of the sample of target audiences on whom the products were tested. In SALM this is

done by an explicit field test (piloting of methodologies) and by expos-
ing the insights (knowledge shared and transferred) to relevant audiences
throughout the duration of the project.

The stakeholders were represented by advisory boards, their feedback
documented and integrated into the development of the project.

The secondary analysis of the documented reaction of pilot users of
the products (as documented by the partner responsible for the piloting)
will be one of the main focal points of the final evaluation. Tools for the
documentation of this feedback (questionnaires) were discussed with the
responsible partner during preparation of the piloting.

What are the lessons learned?

Part of the internal evaluation reports was a conclusion on the lessons
learned from the development and transfer process within the project.
The aim of this is to present the most relevant results of the project in a
compact form, which is easy to absorb by those members of the public
concerned but also by the relevant decision makers.

The elaboration of this conclusion is always an interactive exercise
within the partnership. The results of this reflection are highly relevant
for the further implementation and dissemination of the results, prod-
ucts and insights. The results will also suggest areas of further research
in the field as well as additional practical projects.

What should I do in relation to it?

Part of the reflection on the project process and outcomes offered by
the internal evaluation are suggestions and recommendations about what
the different stakeholders and beneficiaries of the project should do in
relation to the results of the project, how they can integrate these into
their own activities, what the needs for further development and utili-
zation might be etc.

The discussion of the questions above is based on all the information
obtained throughout the project while monitoring the indicator frame-
work, in particular by analysing documents such as minutes, products
and user feedback as documented in surveys and the minutes of meet-
ings, advisory board meetings and similar events.

Additional information is provided through documentation of the dis-
semination efforts made by the partners. A survey targeted at the plans
of stakeholders and users of the piloted products allows for an informed
discussion of the probable impact prospects of the project results in the
future. As there are no resources for monitoring the actual utilization of
the results after the end of the project duration, as would be sound prac-
tice from a methodological perspective, this discussion must largely be
based on these declared intentions at the end of the project. However,
limited as this information is, the turnout and resonance the project is

able to produce is a valid indicator of potential impact, even if we cannot know which of these plans will in fact be implemented in the end.

8. Conclusions

The discussion above described the general framework of the evaluation and quality assurance approach used in the Leonardo da Vinci SALM Development of Innovation project. It focused on describing how the internal evaluation using methodologies such as designing and monitoring an indicator framework for the project, giving feedback to all relevant developments during the stages of the project and using a process quality monitoring system improved the level of reflexivity within the partnership. The tools used made the project developments more transparent for the partners and allowed for more informed and targeted decisions.

The utilization-focused reporting format makes sure that all stakeholders and potential future users can access all relevant information about the project in a concise report, along with a discussion of the lessons learned from developing and testing the products and approach.

On the whole, the approach worked well in SALM. A continuing challenge was coordinating the various documentation and surveying activities within the individual work packages in such a way that the consistency of the agreed framework was maintained, while taking national and sectoral particularities and limitations of resources into account at the same time.

Given the limited resources available for communication and coordination within the project, this challenge was met to a quite satisfactory degree. The approach taken, deriving mainly from traditions of 'action research' and *wissenschaftlicher Begleitung* (scientific guidance) in the US and Germany, also proved to add value in the context of a Leonardo da Vinci Development of Innovation project and can therefore be recommended for future comparable project work.

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[1] Consultation at 03/2015.

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