


Higher Education, Employability and Transitions to the Labour Market



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INTRODUCTION

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Learning, retention and employability in higher education are key issues for policy-makers at institutional, national and European levels. They are also areas of interest for researchers. This ebook, under the title of *Higher Education, Employability and Transitions to the Labour Market*, has been produced from a European conference held at the University of Seville, Spain, within the context of the European project EMPLOY. This Conference provided an opportunity to hear about a new, trans European, interdisciplinary, in-depth study of non-traditional students in six countries; and to present papers, round tables, and symposia on related topics to an international audience of academics, practitioners and policy-makers.

In this ebook the reader will find nine of these contributions, organised in four different sections. Section 1 includes two papers focused on gender and its challenges about employability. Section 2 presents four texts about employability and policies regarding non-traditional students in HE. The third part of the book is related to immigrants and refugees. The last section has two papers that discuss innovation and formal training in Higher Education, including issues on internationalisation as a way of improving employability.

One basic assumption of our contributions is that non-traditional students (both younger and adult) experience inequalities (class, gender, race / ethnicity and age) in relation to employability and transitioning into the graduate labour market. And, in some countries, this is exacerbated by a current climate of precarity and crisis. Research also indicates that many non-traditional students take longer to obtain a job and that when they do this may not be at a graduate level. The conference explored how non-traditional students and other disadvantaged groups experience learning in higher education and as well as their perspectives, expectations and strategies in relation to employability and

future employment. Institutional practices and policies can also impact either positively or negatively as well as employers and companies.

An important objective of this conference was to open up dialogue about the findings of the EU funded study of ‘Enhancing the Employability of Non-Traditional Students in HE’ – EMPLOY. It was focused on the experiences of samples of non-traditional students, graduates, university staff and employers in six European countries (Ireland, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the UK). The research has involved the use of longitudinal biographical narrative methods.

This conference also provided an opportunity for researchers, policy-makers and HE staff working in the field to learn more about this distinct study and to engage with its findings, but also to present papers and establish a space to discuss all the issues, from a range of perspectives.

Some key issues of this ebook refers to the following themes: employability, equality and higher education; graduate transition into the labour market or other destinations; access, retention and drop-out; institutional and cultural contexts and perspectives; theoretical and conceptual approaches; issues of inequality (class, gender, race / ethnicity, age, disability, location); research methodologies; policy, practice and managerial issues and perspectives.

As editors of this ebook, we thank the researchers that have contributed to this publication, making possible to offer these contributions as an open access resource.

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SECTION 1

GENDER AND EMPLOYABILITY

CHAPTER 1

Women and work. A gender orientation to generate generative action

Francesca Marone - University of Naples "Federico II", Italy

Gender stereotypes in the contemporary society

Equal opportunities for women and men is a fundamental principle of European law that applies to all fields of social life, including the world of work. In Italy, the gender issue still takes the form of actions aimed at the recognition of citizenship rights in their practices. The concept of citizenship seeks to combine on multiple levels, from state to organizations, to thought and practice, to universal and at the same time specific and individual instances (Gherardi, 1998; Catemario, 2005). So when it comes to gender-based citizenship, women's rights to "be equal and different" and everyone's right to free themselves from the "trap of the gender" is still undergoing many transitions to equalize throughout the generations. In time, it will continue to change as each decade will come to the understanding of change in the sense of typing roles according to sex and the definition of identities.

On the other hand, recent theoretical and empirical evidence has shown the strong correlation between local economic growth with the female presence in the labor market along with a decrease in the reverse where discriminatory and exclusionary modalities exist for women with the outcome to discourage the development of their skills and resources, and consequently put them at a disadvantage in the overall competitiveness of local systems. In addition, particular attention has been paid to the formation and dissemination of knowledge in the community context (Corbi, 2010): the possibility of women's access to forms of power and influence of culture and s in various fields, cultural conditioning in the perception and representation of women, the status of women and the channels for their entry into education and the labor market, good practices and the reconciliation policies of professional and family life, to the promotion of female

participation in the creation of socio-economic activities, to the improvement of social support structures for women, developing methodological models to assess the direct and indirect effects of territorial development policies on social inclusion.

Specifically, it's necessary to take action on the factors that contribute to construct the society of knowledge in order to promote the inclusion of women into the labor market. This action is essential to improve a women's active role as a citizen. However, in recent decades, despite the fact that women in our country have radically changed their family, work environment and civil society, the persistence of often contradictory and problematic issues show that actual equality has not yet been reached (Held, 1993): social and cultural differences, difficulties in affirming the civil rights of women and the recognition of their self-determination, femicides and the various forms of violence against women, the ways in which work is organized and income distributed within households, indicate the maintenance of substantial differences in the daily lives of men and women. There are pockets of resistance that impede full realization of the right of citizenship on the basis of law, politics, science, education.

Even though the disadvantage of women today is expressed in new forms with respect to the past, reflecting the transformation of different national or local societies, crossed by new migrations, from unprecedented aspects of precariousness, rejection and marginality, it certainly can not be considered less burdensome. Indeed, today's patriarchal oppression strategies, taking on the most desperate forms, including the recapture of sexist, racist, xenophobic and integralist cultural paradigms, aimed at reinforcing the exclusion of the "different" are more difficult to identify and, at times, to find the complicity of the women in their implementation (Bourdieu, 1998).

In addition, from the point of view training has to deal with untold issues. Among these, the fact that young people no longer prevent themselves from going out of their home, to travel, to within certain limits of their time, have to deal with new instances and commitments to fulfill, often assailed by new fears: Not to do so, not to adapt to the models imposed that do not take into account real women but male mythology, the more pervasive because it is expressed by the media and the new media; by the fear of inventing new paths and overcoming identity logic (Marone, 2010, 2013, 2016). This is a hindrance to the free deployment of female subjectivity, perhaps because of the fear of not being recognized in "another" role and producing an interdict, an inability to stratify

in the psyche of contemporary women, resulting in frustration and malaise, a welfare that is neglected to meet the needs of the citizens on which various burdens and responsibilities, family and social responsibilities arise.

Gender gap in education and glass ceiling

In this sense pedagogy plays a key role in the construction and transmission of gender models in the perspective of "critical", "resistance", "anti-racist" or "complexity", as it analyzes the role that educational systems can play in producing social exclusion and discrimination at various levels. Additionally, revealing the domains of the weakest and most difficult facets of the domain of aggravated forms of injustice and inequality, there is also a decreased access to resources for women. At the same time it orientates itself through the development of reflective and emotional intelligence. The constant deconstruction practice must be accompanied by a word that has now become uncommon. That is "imagination" in the sense of teaching and learning to "imagine the other", as an antidote to avoid epistemic violence, which is, the set of images and speeches that "performed" by the subject by means of asphyxiating and violent definitions, because they subtract the words from appearing and interacting with others, producing stigmatization and saturating the possibility of making themselves authentic in order to transform according to their own desires (Spivak, 2002).

It deals with a new design of education focused on teaching how to avoid feelings of subordination, inferiorism, compelled to follow the established paths in order to deviate from other definitions, and to get rid of the old joke created by those who have always told themselves as a place of the otherness. To close the cycle of domination, abuse and conformism, it is necessary to rethink the formation as a sign of the radical alterity of the involved people, with particular attention to contexts and relationships: learning to meet each other from the respect of each other's differences.

Firstly, comes the commitment to acquire a status respectful of equality, while guaranteeing the development of women's peculiarities, which must be maintained and renewed so that the latter can become a resource for the institutions and organizations where women work (Tinker, 1990). Only then will it be possible to eliminate the seed of discrimination that resides in the male imagination, and not only, and that originates from sexual reproduction, from the biological difference, from time to time transformed into

the disparity of roles that relegate for centuries woman in subordination. Hence, the need to leverage on training, driven by a pedagogical and feminist vision that makes education to the differences the flywheel to design appropriate strategies, aimed at social inclusion and ensuring citizens a good quality of life.

The persistence of gender stereotypes exerts a strong influence on the disparities that still exist between men and women in the world of work, in the family and, consequently, in society, creating profound gender imbalances. Discriminatory processes based on sexual belonging, pass through family influences, childhood literature, school education, mass media messages and institutional reinforcements (Ulivieri, 1995, 2007, 2014; Marone, 2003, 2013; Biemmi & Leonelli, 2016). This persistence not only prevents full professional realization of women, but often is accompanied by obstacles and prejudices, and often unaware, adversely affects young people's work orientation. It is not a novelty that women stop at the lowest levels of the employment scale, eclipsing gradually as they climb to the command posts. This vertical segregation, however, is not the only one to affect women's careers. There is also a horizontal segregation, that is, a concentration of women in certain educational areas, or in some forms or roles within the same practices whose motives should be more thoroughly analyzed.

In Italy, women's opportunities in the labor market are constrained by structural problems (The Global Gender Gap Report 2016). Yet, women now reach men, and often overcome them, both in school education and in university education. The barrier towards labor market is therefore a discrimination that must be overcome. However, still today, by analyzing statistical data, there is a persistent difference among the fields of study preferences of women and men in Italy. In particular, the proportion of women who study science and technology is lower than that of men (Passolunghi, Rueda Ferreira, Tomasetto, 2014). Compared to the past, as opposed to a greater female presence in faculties and male-dominated work sectors, discriminatory structures seem to be profoundly rooted in the technical-scientific fields, creating new segregation mechanisms, among others, to discourage young women from taking on a career in these certain areas (Anker, 1997).

Other factors such as the wage gap, difficulties in accessing resources, imbalances in the evaluation of scientific merit and consequently in the possibility of publishing and

filing patents still continue, not to mention the survival of gender stereotypes regarding to the relationship among women and science (Lopez, 2015).

Reconciling life times: work-family balance

In addition, at this historical stage at European level, emergencies cause disparities in lifestyles. It is therefore urgent to find a response to issues such as maternity and paid employment policies, as well as to the distribution of gender engagement in family management. Discrimination and reactionary ideas seem to insist in women's work and public life with the obvious relics also in their private one (Loiodice, Plas, Rajadell, 2012). Today, Italian women are making an endless effort to honor all their commitments. They are now able to accomplish a real creative synthesis: much of the women's engagement is not supported by an efficient welfare system. In order to achieve an effective reconciliation between work and family, a real opportunity for access to the labor market must be achieved, by establishing appropriate state social policies. In this regard, it should be considered that "Italian reality appears, even at the local level, a staggering mixture of good practices and of the aleatory of social rights" (Bimbi, Del Re, 1997).

It goes without saying that economic and financial policy requirements have contributed to compressing public spending. As a result, unemployment increases, and the consequences are descending on the weaker bands such as female presence. In general, often female workers, are underpaid or considered inferior compare to male workers, predominantly precarious, additionally they perform tasks out of the control of the rules and worker's protection. They often face discrimination in terms of career advancement, as for them is already much slower because they are hindered by maternity, which, even if not openly, is a strong injustice. In addition, the sexual division of work in society is expressed through the tendency for both sexes to focus on different tasks. There are, therefore, male and female employment. The latter are mostly precarious, less paid, and are usually in the support services. There is then the strong discrepancy between wages. This is due to the high participation of women in part-time work, which offers less career opportunities than full-time work. To the professional segregation that tends to disqualify female professions. The limited availability of time spent by women to work overtime as they are people who are required to fulfill their family responsibilities.

Informal work, which is the invisible work of most women, that is of reproduction and care that has been carried out on a daily basis, and which cannot be accounted for: essentially a work of relationship among big and small, between personal and social, between private and public, among individual and collective. A task that in all societies has always been a 'privilege' of women. Therefore, in addition to a psycho-affective dimension, the latter has a structural and functional character with respect to social systems with the risk of strong stereotyping. Of course, there is now a legislative system that protects women and maternity more in the workplace, but much remains to be done, especially as regards the effective application of these standards (Law 53/2000).

Not to forget that in this framework the change of gender roles is hampered by socio-cultural and psychological dimensions, making complex new relationships between men and women an obstacle to a fair organizational reconciliation strategy (Marone, 2013; Marone, Striano, 2015). Recent studies in the South of Italy have highlighted some of the aspects that contribute to maintaining a differentiated view of skills between women and men within the complex socio-cultural context of belonging and the opportunities to foster paths of redefinition of gender roles with particular attention to the dynamic relationships between mothers and fathers, female and male workers in the light of attributes of mutual skills, attitudes and representations of paid and caring work within the contexts of family and working life (Arcidiacono, Procentese, 2008). Women's growth in the economic world is sustainable only if associated with a parallel evolution of their role in society as a whole (Ulivieri & Contini, 2010). For this to happen, it is necessary to overcome stereotypes and prejudices, which are still too widespread, through concrete and targeted action that will replace obsolete thought patterns with a new view of the role of women, and also implement self-esteem, skills and competences.

A change in this direction is possible only through joint efforts by government institutions on the one hand, with regard to the introduction of measures to ensure equal treatment in the field of work and, on the other hand, training agencies on the change of mentality. A face change to make good, including the gender gap in science, technology and research to promote best practices for the achievement of equal opportunities. Recent studies (see the statistical report by Istat and the Department for Equal Opportunities "Stereotypes, Renunciations and Gender Discrimination" of 2013; the study on the scarcity of technical and scientific training carried out in collaboration with the Universities of Trieste and Bologna in 2014; research by McKinsey & Company and La

Nuvola Rosa) on the causes of the high rate of inactivity and unemployment of young women tells us that prevalent culture and the family exert a major influence on behaviors and attitudes of girls since the early years of life, conditioning their educational choices and, consequently, their inclusion in the labor market.

Gender issues in counseling and guidance at universtiy

Therefore, after careful consideration of the Italian situation, the contribution aims to illustrate a gender orientation model from a pedagogical and feminist point of view (Luke 1992, 2005) within the University as part of a Student Service And the administrative staff of the University of Naples Federico II. This is the presentation of a narrative exploratory study (Alheit & Bergamini, 1996; Demetrio, 1996 a-b, 2005; Merrill, West, 2009), through the lens of pedagogy of "generative" work (of new knowledge, of value, of a Orientation to action) by which to interpret the connections that emerge from the interactions, giving them meaning and human design. The use of narrative methodologies has been aimed at developing, in relation to the self and the labor market, socio-cultural reference frameworks and appropriate emotional registers to invest in their own planning and to address positively situations of change; to deepen the difficulties of blocking a positive job search, favoring and stimulating professional design and professional identity; to overcome the flaws of conformism and stereotypes, and to identify aspirations, interests and capabilities to project into the world of work with the aim of drawing career prospects in advance in line with personal meanings. This approach life-long, life-wide and life-deep learning emphasizes the centrality of the person who becomes responsible of the learning process (Costa, 2016).

The Women's Training Laboratory (DGF, www.dgf.unina.it) at Department of Humanities, University of Naples Federico II, promotes positive actions, through the practice of new guidance methodologies and consulting services, aimed primarily to young female graduates and no yet graduates to help them gain awareness of their potentials, abilities and experiences gained in university, professional and family life. In particular, the Laboratory offers:

- a) Balance of competences as an individual path to gain a greater awareness of professional and personal skills developed at any stage of their lives, as well as a reinforcement of their values and interests, in order to identify a professional goal.

b) Orientation counseling as a choice of personal and/or professional training path towards the identification of resources and capabilities to invest in a personal work project.

c) Interventions of individual and relational empowerment aiming to increase the self-esteem of women in themselves and to their ability to perceive the entity around them. Moreover, to grasp its positive aspects so that they can overcome certain conditions of impotence and passivity and furthermore to perform certain tasks to their benefit. This also allows a steady, progressive and conscious growth of women's potential, accompanied by a corresponding increase in autonomy and assumption of responsibility.

d) Career counseling: structured orientation pathways targeting firstly, to involvement in relation to a person's own personal aspects and the labor market, secondly, the frameworks of socio-cultural reference and finally to the emotional registers appropriate for investing in their own planning and dealing with positive ways through situations of change. An in-depth study is conducted, of the difficulties that block an actual work-seeking project, while favoring and stimulating professional design and professional identity.

e) Life-meaning counseling: Reflective practices to help women overcome the flaws of conformism and stereotypes while supporting the identification of aspirations, interests, and capabilities in order to project them in the world of work; with the aim, furthermore, of drawing in advance professional anticipation in line with personal meanings.

f) Motivational orientation: for women in reintegration into labor market or in transition from one job to another.

g) Seminars and Group Meetings pointing to the ability of recognizing the value and strength of diverse insights into the quality of integrated leadership and enforce female leadership to their gratification.

According to a bottom up perspective, the qualitative method has the merit of enhancing the perspective of the object of investigation (considered in its peculiarity and uniqueness), in the light of a centered thinking on experience, which is the most innovative typology generated by feminist thought. Women's voices focusing on stories, relationships, experiences have intersected their narratives of social change seeking to

read the present, avoiding the rhetoric of victimization as much as possible or otherwise exalting a female to extract only economic surplus value.

It is of great significance to listen to the feminine talents, grasping the elements of the knowledge linked to the action of women, to exit from the logic of protection and victimization in order to acknowledge every woman's desire to a new welfare within the freedom to decide about their own best interest. In other words, the goal is that the future can harmonize with the recognition of female talents with the same desire of women's access to a new welfare with the freedom to decide what and how to do it, definitively leaving from the blackmail season. Only then would it be possible to change the structure of the powers at the base of this society thanks to the work of women and only then would the long history of the use and the instrumentalization have been terminated (D'Agnese, Alessandrini, 2013).

The work starts from the assumption that there is a need to acknowledge, to comprehend and articulate the passage from the social, political and economic phases that women and their dialogues are going through in Italy.

The girls' path to work must be on the one hand more knowledgeable and informed, on the other, supported by families with greater awareness of adverse socio-cultural influences so as to stimulate the new generations to achieve greater social wellbeing and social mobility. The view on the gender-related training courses, the peculiarities of its contents, its methodologies and its educational scope is therefore necessary to approach and be aware of where and how the young women's training stories are today, at the intersection that constraints and support the opportunities during the training process as an inevitable occasion for transformation, growth and self-determination and their entry into the labor market. It is important to urge on best practices, that are focused on the three dimensions of action: the level of self, that of intersubjectivity and the level of society.

Female narratives collected (about fifty) all refer to oppositions: male/female, public/private, rationality/ emotions, mind/body.

In student stories, there is some confidence in the liberating potentials introduced by merit. Many students attribute the decision to join the university to the father figure. They complain about the lack of opportunities for discussion at university and the increased presence of male networks.

In the words of graduates, however, emphasis is placed on strong leadership linked to terms such as aggression, competitiveness and individualism, regardless of male and female. In short, leadership is one and only one. Clearly it is derived from the male-dominated tradition which combines man authorities and rationality and the woman emotions and weaknesses.

As for the gender self-representation, the users report being very influenced by the opinions of other women (mothers, colleagues, workers, teachers, leaders).

There is also the difficulty of balancing work and affective life.

Finally, the lack of self-esteem is the underlying theme of all narratives.

Educating young people at equal opportunities means, therefore, reviewing knowledge, languages, pedagogical relationships, teaching methods, contents, within an educational system in which equality of rights does not mean equalization of identities.

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CHAPTER 2

Integración de mujeres altamente cualificadas en el mercado laboral. Un estudio en el ámbito europeo sobre algunas relaciones entre flexibilidad y ratios de empleo

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Introducción

Tal y como señalan Miguélez y Prieto (2008) y Galbraith (2016), las décadas de los años 50 a 70 se caracterizan en Europa por una situación de pleno empleo, sin apenas fluctuaciones en las extremadamente bajas tasas de desempleo. Los dos primeros autores destacan las características positivas de dicho modelo: la citada estabilidad, la duración de los contratos, con predominio del empleo a tiempo completo o la seguridad, es decir, la existencia de protecciones sociales frente a los riesgos, en términos de pensiones o subsidios. Por tales motivos, este patrón constituyó la base del estado de bienestar.

En contraposición, tal y como sostienen dichos estudios, la mayoría de los empleos eran de reducida calidad y sólo accedían al mercado los varones del propio país; el modelo se extendía a países del Norte y del Centro, quedando excluidas las naciones del sur de Europa de sus “relativos” beneficios.

El cambio de paradigma tiene lugar en la década de los 70 y 80, llegando hasta la actualidad. Galbraith (2016) destaca que en los primeros años del nuevo siglo la tasa de desempleo de los países europeos triplicaba la existente en los años 60 y representaba el doble de la media estadounidense (¡todo ello previo al estallido de la crisis en 2008!). No sólo resulta preocupante el incremento del paro: el nuevo modelo es, por lo general, notablemente más inseguro, con menores garantías sociales, aunque se aprecian

importantes diferencias en función del sistema laboral existente en los distintos países de la UE.

La comparación con Estados Unidos, dada la similitud de parámetros en este contexto, condujo a diversos autores a la identificación de la falta de flexibilidad como causa principal de la crisis del empleo. La apuesta de Europa por la igualdad en vez de por la eficiencia (lo que caracterizaría al modelo estadounidense) constituiría el lastre (insostenible) para el mantenimiento del estado del bienestar. La hipótesis de la flexibilidad del mercado laboral (LMF, por sus siglas en inglés), basada, como indica Galbraith (2016) en planteamientos neoclásicos y en el “respeto” a las “virtudes” de la economía en EEUU, sostiene que los elementos protectores del empleo (mecanismos sindicales potentes, leyes focalizadas en los empleados, existencia de destacadas prestaciones por desempleo, etc.) provocan una fuerte rigidez salarial, desembocando en el aumento del desempleo. En base a estas ideas OECD (1994) proponía el incremento de la flexibilidad laboral, en términos horarios, de sueldos y costes, así como la reducción de las prestaciones por desempleo; en este contexto se entiende la flexibilidad como un margen de libertad por parte del empleador, frente a un planteamiento totalmente distinto: la posibilidad del empleado de solicitar movilidad o una reducción del tiempo de trabajo.

Estas argumentaciones, ampliadas por estudios posteriores, han sido criticadas y rechazadas por los partidarios de las políticas macroeconómicas, como Sollow y Palley. Otras aportaciones, entre las que se destaca Baker, Glyn, Howell y Schmitt (2005), refutan el planteamiento LMF, al señalar que la potenciación de las negociaciones colectivas y del rol de los sindicatos conduce precisamente a la disminución del desempleo. Galbraith (2016) expresa esta oposición en términos rotundos: la política monetaria del Banco Central Europeo y los criterios de convergencia asociados a la implantación del euro han conducido al aumento del desempleo. El análisis de un índice de desempleo regional, con dos vías de efectos fijos, conduce a este autor a la siguiente reflexión sobre un país que se ha caracterizado por la introducción de modelos de austeridad: “Tal vez [los demás estados de la UE] deberían estudiar igualmente el caso de España a fin de comprender qué es justamente lo que no debe hacerse” (Galbraith, 2016, p. 323).

Nuevos actores en un nuevo escenario

El marco laboral europeo que surge en la década de los 80 se caracteriza también por la aparición de nuevos empleos inestables, con bajos salarios y en peores condiciones que en épocas anteriores, según la descripción de Miguélez y Prieto (2008). Estos empleos pasan a ser ocupados por tres nuevos colectivos: las mujeres, los jóvenes y los inmigrantes. Aunque, como se ha indicado previamente, resulta difícil hablar de un modelo genérico en la UE (existen significativas diferencias nacionales y, en especial, regionales), estos autores detectan las siguientes características en el primero de los grupos:

- La tasa de actividad de las mujeres registra un crecimiento continuado, ya iniciado en la década de los 60 en los países nórdicos, como consecuencia de los movimientos feministas y de cambios culturales y sociales.
- El nivel acceso de las mujeres al mercado laboral es inferior al de los hombres; las condiciones también son peores, en términos salariales o de seguridad de los contratos. La paridad se produciría, en su caso, únicamente en el sector público.
- “Para las empresas siguen siendo trabajadores “atípicos”. Hasta su presencia en los sindicatos y en los comités de empresa es muy inferior a la de los hombres” (Miguélez y Prieto, 2008, p. 277).

Esta escasa manifestación en las estructuras sindicales se corresponde con uno de los principios del planteamiento LMF. Aunque no es ésta la única causa, los tres colectivos señalados se muestran especialmente vulnerables a la inseguridad laboral, al menos en comparación con el sujeto de empleo clásico en décadas anteriores.

El objeto específico de nuestro estudio es un sub-colectivo de mujeres, las que han alcanzado el máximo nivel educativo; según la International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED, 2011), la formación terciaria corresponde a:

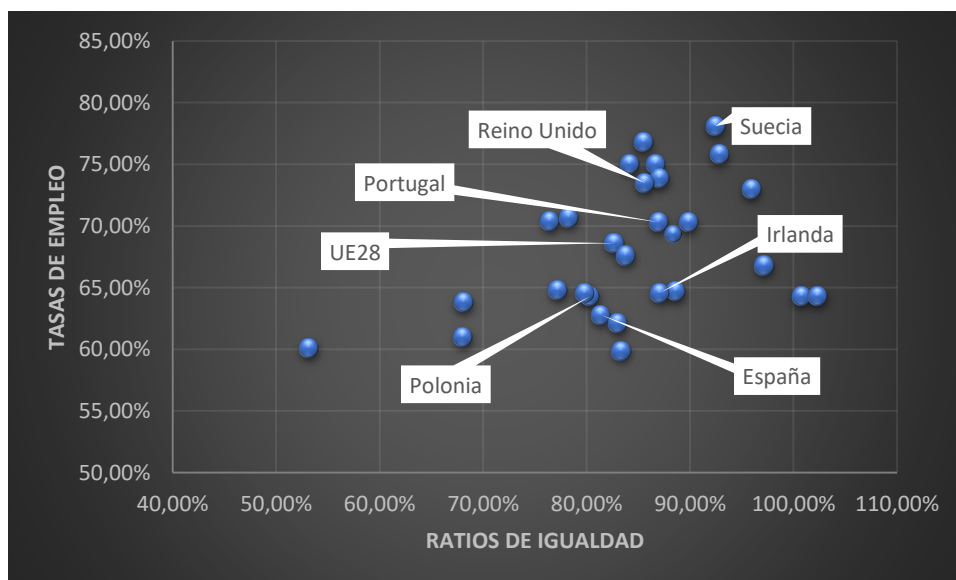
- Nivel 5: educación terciaria, ciclo corto.
- Nivel 6: graduado (bachelor) o equivalente.
- Nivel 7: máster o equivalente.

- Nivel 8: doctor o equivalente.

Se trata de un colectivo caracterizado por un esfuerzo dilatado en el tiempo encaminado a la mejora de sus destrezas. Además, cuenta en principio con el apoyo de las administraciones europeas, que han priorizado el incremento de individuos (hombres y mujeres) con este máximo nivel formativo en uno de los ejes de la estrategia educativa de la agenda Europa 2020. Se percibe el interés de analizar el posible círculo virtuoso “formación-empleo” en un conjunto de personas históricamente sensibles a los condicionantes de la flexibilidad del mercado.

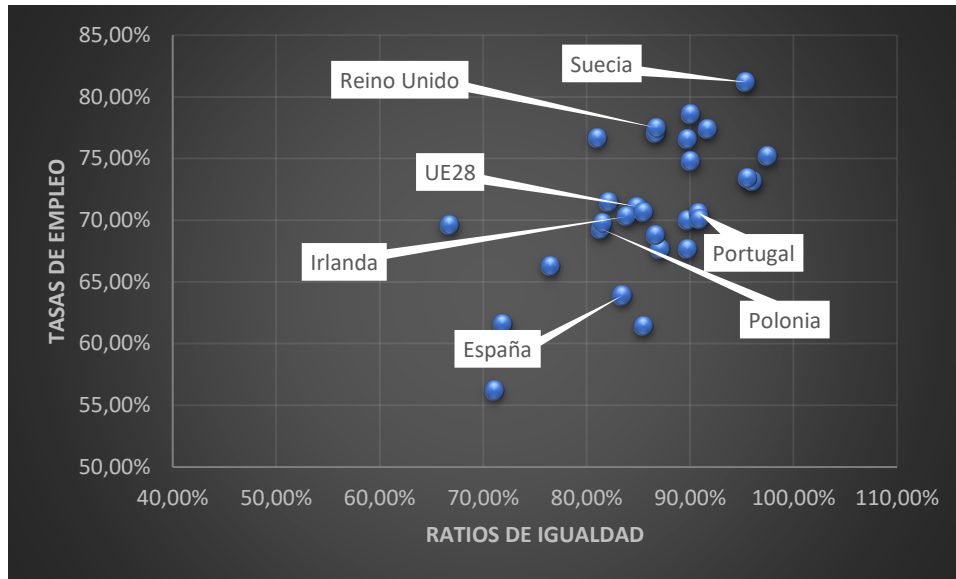
La investigación se concreta en los 6 países en los que se ubican las Universidades presentes en el proyecto EMPLOY: Irlanda, Polonia, Portugal, España, Suecia y Reino Unido. A fin de analizar la representatividad de esta muestra en el global de la UE se muestra, en primer lugar, una segmentación de dicho conjunto en función de la tasa de empleo y del ratio de igualdad. Para ello se han elegido dos años extremos: 2010, en el que se puede considerar que ya se aprecian los impactos de las políticas (en su mayoría de austeridad) diseñadas para combatir la crisis; y 2016, en el que se cierra un arco temporal que refleja la tendencia en la evolución de las dos variables representadas.

Figura 1. Segmentación en los países de la UE-28. Año 2010



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Figura 2. Segmentación en los países de la UE-28. Año 2016



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Miller (2004) plantea el interés de estas figuras, en las que la ratio de igualdad, que representa la participación relativa de las mujeres en el mercado laboral, se calcula como el cociente entre la tasa de empleo de las mujeres y la tasa de empleo de los hombres en un determinado ámbito geográfico y para el mismo grupo de edad (en este caso 20 a 64 años). Miller (2004) recomienda el uso de la variable tasa de empleo frente a, por ejemplo, la tasa de ocupación con un alcance más limitado. Esta tasa de empleo se determina como el porcentaje de personas empleadas respecto al total de la población (de nuevo en la misma localización y para un intervalo fijado de edades).

El cruce de la ratio de igualdad y de la tasa de empleo permite una clasificación de los países respecto al rol de la mujer, en línea con la sugerida por Duncan (2000): su esquema, genderfare, relaciona el tipo de estado de bienestar (país del sur de Europa, régimen conservador, modelo liberal y modelo socialdemócrata) con el contrato de género (tradicional, ama de casa, doble rol, igualdad). Apreciamos las características y evolución de las 6 naciones consideradas a través de la siguiente tabla:

Tabla 1. Caracterización de los países analizados según ratio de igualdad y tasa de empleo

País	Año 2010	Año 2016	Observaciones
Irlanda	Ratio de igualdad: 87,12% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 64,60% (debajo de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 83,92% (debajo de la media) Tasa de empleo: 70,90% (debajo de la media)	Miller (2004) señala un comportamiento cercano al de los países del Sur de Europa, coherente con estos resultados. Ha empeorado en el porcentaje de igualdad y el crecimiento en empleo es inferior al del conjunto.
Polonia	Ratio de igualdad: 80,36% (debajo de la media) Tasa de empleo: 64,30% (debajo de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 81,41% (debajo de la media) Tasa de empleo: 69,30% (debajo de la media)	Es un país que ha mejorado en las dos dimensiones, en especial en creación de empleo.
Portugal	Ratio de igualdad: 87,00% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 70,30% (encima de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 90,84% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 70,60% (debajo de la media)	Miller (2004, p.60) destaca el comportamiento paradigmático de esta nación: “se podría decir que la mayor incorporación de la mujer al mercado de trabajo y la consiguiente mayor igualdad en niveles de empleo entre los géneros se constituyen en una posible explicación de los notables niveles de empleo que alcanza este país”. Esta tasa, sin embargo, ha empeorado en el último período.
España	Ratio de igualdad: 81,36% (debajo de la media) Tasa de empleo: 62,80% (debajo de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 83,48% (debajo de la media) Tasa de empleo: 63,90% (debajo de la media)	La mejora de ambas ratios no ha supuesto, sin embargo, un desplazamiento significativo en las características del país.
Suecia	Ratio de igualdad: 92,48% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 78,10% (encima de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 95,42% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 81,20% (encima de la media)	Suecia representa el modelo socialdemócrata, con excelente integración de la mujer en el mercado laboral, muy común en Europa del Norte (el valor máximo de esta ratio se alcanza en Lituania).
Reino Unido	Ratio de igualdad: 85,62% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 73,50% (debajo de la media)	Ratio de igualdad: 86,76% (encima de la media) Tasa de empleo: 77,50% (encima de la media)	Reino Unido representa, por su parte, el régimen conservador, con un repunte de empleo significativo en el último período.

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Como se aprecia en las dos figuras anteriores, la UE en su conjunto ha mejorado en empleo e igualdad, aunque la primera tasa se encuentra por debajo de la media en el año 2016.

Anxo, Fagan, Cebrian, y Moreno (2006) establecen otra clasificación de países al realizar un análisis de las estructuras familiares existentes:

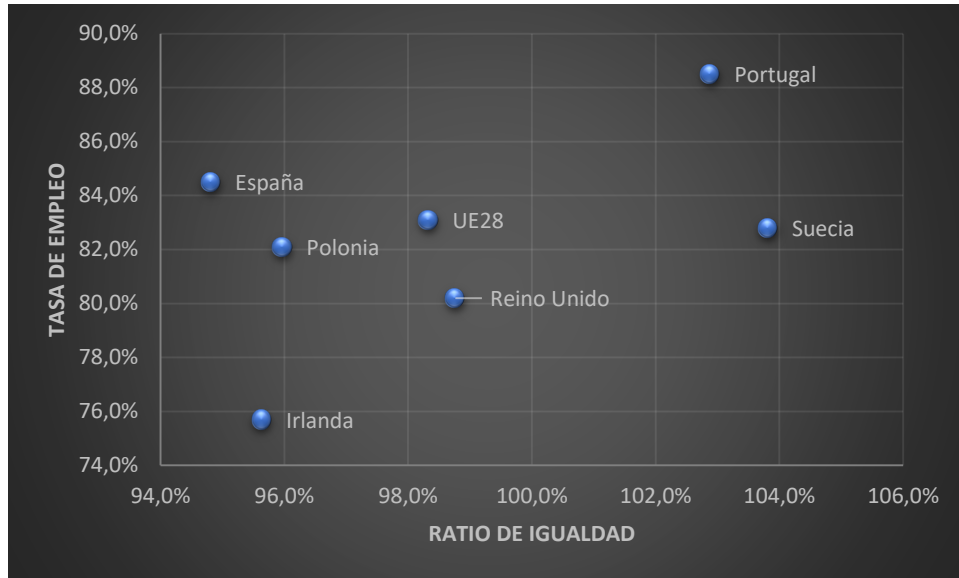
- Por una parte, se considera el modelo “universal breadwinner” en el que, tal y como indica su nombre, se detecta una amplia participación en el proceso de atención a la familia (niños y mayores en el seno de la misma) y un elevado nivel de empleo para ambos sexos. Se trata del patrón característico de los países nórdicos, representado en la presente muestra por Suecia.
- En el modelo “modified breadwinner” el cuidado familiar y el ejercicio de la maternidad implican que un determinado conjunto de mujeres se retire (al menos temporalmente) de la práctica laboral; las mujeres empleadas optan por una jornada predominante a tiempo completo. Los autores identifican a Francia como ejemplo: en nuestro caso Portugal se mueve en los mismos parámetros.
- La tercera de las clasificaciones corresponde al modelo “exit or full-time”, presente en la mayoría de países mediterráneos. La ratio de empleo femenino se reduce frente a los casos anteriores, aunque dicho empleo, de nuevo, suele presentarse a tiempo completo. España aparece como ejemplo del mismo.
- Por último, el “maternal part-time work”, característico de Alemania o, en nuestro caso, Reino Unido, muestra una maternidad conciliada con la reducción de jornada, incluso hasta edades superiores de los hijos. La ratio de empleo femenino es superior a la del patrón mediterráneo, lo que resalta la importancia de complementar la información de esta variable con otros condicionantes laborales.

Anxo et al. (2006) resaltan un resultado prácticamente intuitivo al señalar que el modelo nórdico proporciona mayor igualdad en este contexto, proporcionando, además, una mayor “vida activa” a los trabajadores. Esta implementación corresponde a una política estructurada y coherente, orientada al objetivo central de la conciliación, frente a las medidas fragmentadas y, en ocasiones, contradictorias, que caracterizan al resto de patrones.

En las siguientes dos figuras se representa el comportamiento de los países seleccionados y del conjunto de la UE para la población con niveles superiores de

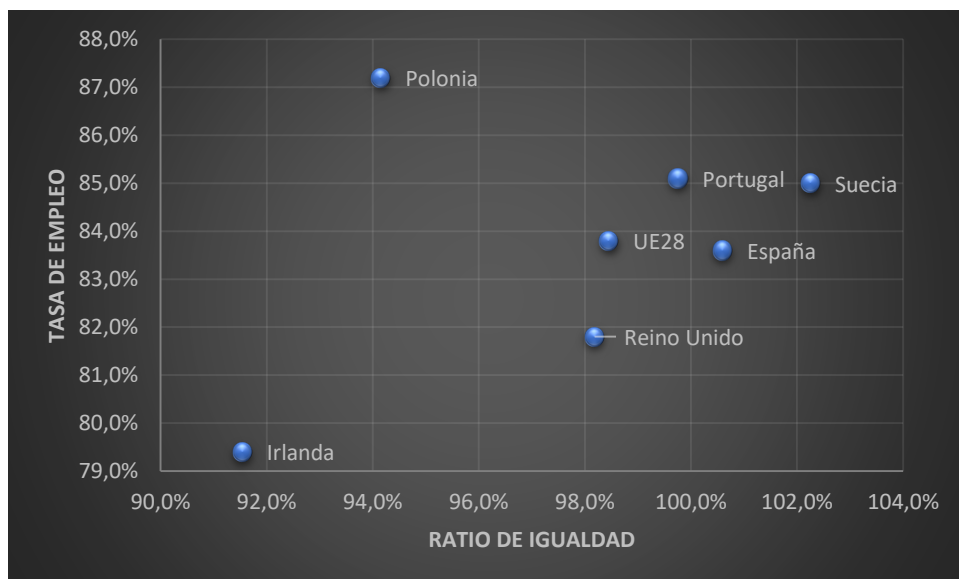
formación; como se puede comprobar, ambas ratios, las correspondientes a empleo e igualdad, toman valores superiores respecto a la muestra en su conjunto.

Figura 3. Segmentación en los países considerados y en el conjunto UE-28. Población con nivel terciario. Año 2010



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Figura 4. Segmentación en los países considerados y en el conjunto UE-28. Población con nivel terciario. Año 2016



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Destacan, en el período temporal propuesto, las mejoras experimentadas por Polonia y, especialmente, España. El alcance de la evolución general se matiza en la sección posterior y en las conclusiones.

Análisis de la integración laboral de las mujeres altamente cualificadas

Como bien señalan Anxo et al. (2004), la distinta participación de las mujeres en el mercado laboral se debe contemplar como una esfera más dentro del amplio conjunto de desigualdades que afecta a dicho colectivo. Siguiendo a estos autores y a Miller (2004) se relacionan seguidamente algunos aspectos cuyo análisis permite profundizar en la cuestión:

- Tipo de contrato preponderante entre las mujeres empleadas.
- Distribución de jornadas de trabajo: viabilidad de modificaciones a través de negociación.
- Distribución según categorías profesionales.
- Segregación sectorial.
- Estructura salarial.
- Estado de la regulación de la paternidad y maternidad.
- Beneficios y sistemas fiscales de aplicación.
- Relación entre ratios de natalidad y variables laborales.
- Costes y disponibilidad de servicios de atención a niños y personas mayores.
- Políticas de recursos humanos dirigidas a la conciliación en las empresas de cada ámbito.

El presente documento se centra en algunos aspectos, dada la amplitud de temáticas a considerar. Resulta relevante tener en cuenta que el colectivo de estudio, dentro del conjunto considerado, se caracteriza por los indicadores más elevados de igualdad, tal y como constatan las dos últimas figuras mostradas. Cabe esperar mayores índices de conflicto y desigualdad en sectores de la población femenina con menores niveles educativos.

La población del conjunto de la UE-28 se distribuye en similar proporción en cuanto a sexos: el 48,63% corresponde a hombres y el restante 51,37% a mujeres, según los cálculos realizados en base a los datos consignados en Eurostat para el año 2016. Estos

órdenes de magnitud se mantienen en los países analizados (50,56% de mujeres en el caso de Irlanda, por ejemplo; o un 49,94% de población femenina en Suecia).

De acuerdo a la presentación habitual de las estadísticas en este ámbito, en el presente estudio se consideran tres niveles educativos, obtenidos mediante la agrupación de ítems en la clasificación ISCED: primario (subniveles 0 a 2); secundario (subniveles 3 a 4); y terciario (como se ha indicado con anterioridad, subniveles 5 a 8). En las siguientes tablas se presentan los porcentajes de población en cada ámbito, diferenciados por género, obtenidos en referencia al total de la población (valor intergrupales) o respecto al conjunto homogéneo y global de individuos, hombres y mujeres, con el mismo nivel educativo (valor intragrupal). De nuevo se consideran 2010 y 2016 como años de referencia.

Tabla 2. Distribución de individuos en EU28 según nivel de formación. Valores intergrupales e intragrupal. Año 2010

2010	Nivel primario		Nivel secundario		Nivel terciario	
	Hombres	Mujeres	Hombres	Mujeres	Hombres	Mujeres
Valor intergrupales	12,74%	9,19%	27,20%	21,64%	14,50%	14,49%
Valor intragrupal	58,11%	41,89%	55,69%	44,31%	50,01%	49,99%

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Tabla 3. Distribución de individuos en EU28 según nivel de formación. Valores intergrupales e intragrupal. Año 2016

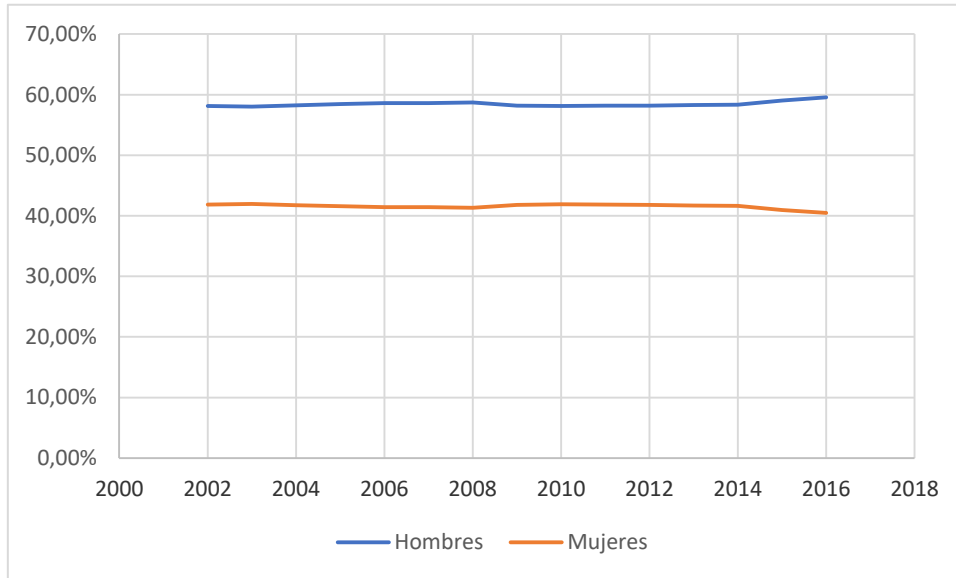
2016	Nivel primario		Nivel secundario		Nivel terciario	
	Hombres	Mujeres	Hombres	Mujeres	Hombres	Mujeres
Valor intergrupales	10,67%	7,25%	26,68%	21,30%	17,26%	16,61%
Valor intragrupal	59,54%	40,46%	55,61%	44,39%	49,03%	50,97%

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

La primera fila de cada tabla muestra la estructura de la población europea según niveles educativos: se observa una mayor concentración en el secundario, con un desplazamiento en el tiempo hacia el terciario, con porcentajes superiores al primario en ambos años. En la segunda fila las variaciones resultan mínimas, aunque se aprecia un cambio de peso en el nivel terciario, aspecto sobre el que se incide seguidamente.

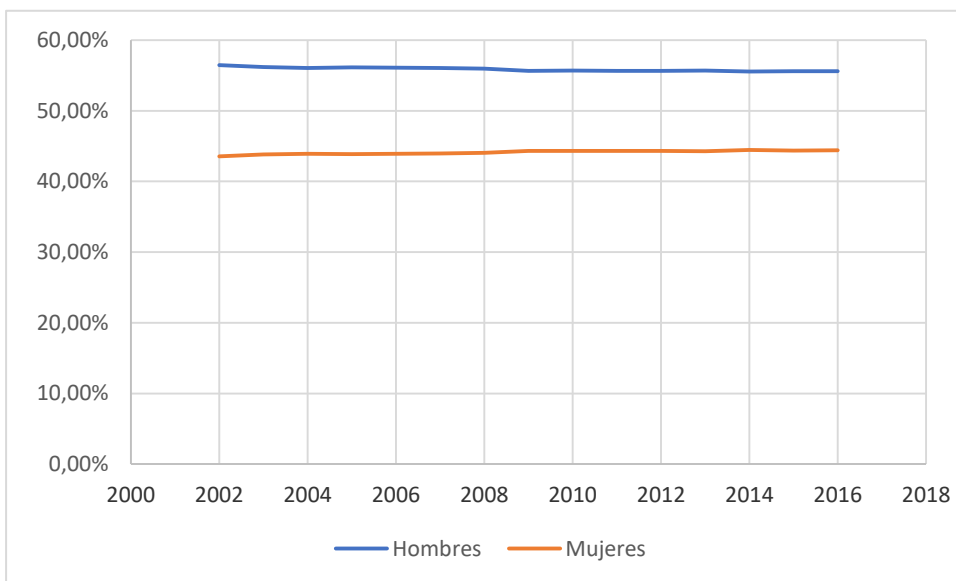
Para ello se muestra en las siguientes tres figuras la evolución del valor intragrupal para los tres niveles. Se aprecia cómo, en efecto, las distancias en los dos primeros casos se mantienen prácticamente constantes, mientras que, en lo que respecta al nivel superior, el porcentaje de mujeres supera al de hombres en torno al año 2010, con una tendencia incremental desde esa fecha.

Figura 5. Evolución temporal del porcentaje intragrupal de individuos con nivel primario. UE-28



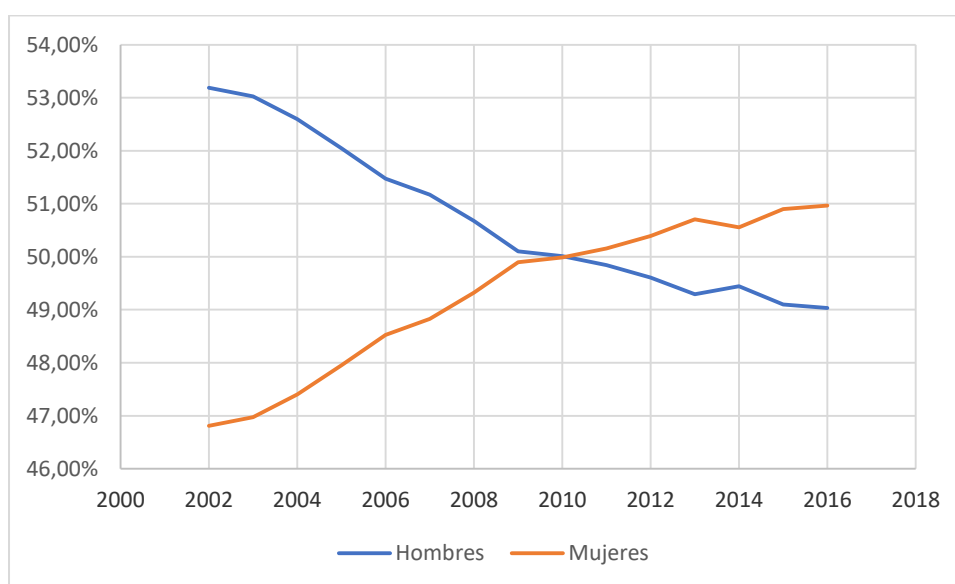
Fuente: Eurostat

Figura 6. Evolución temporal del porcentaje intragrupal de individuos con nivel secundario. UE-28



Fuente: Eurostat

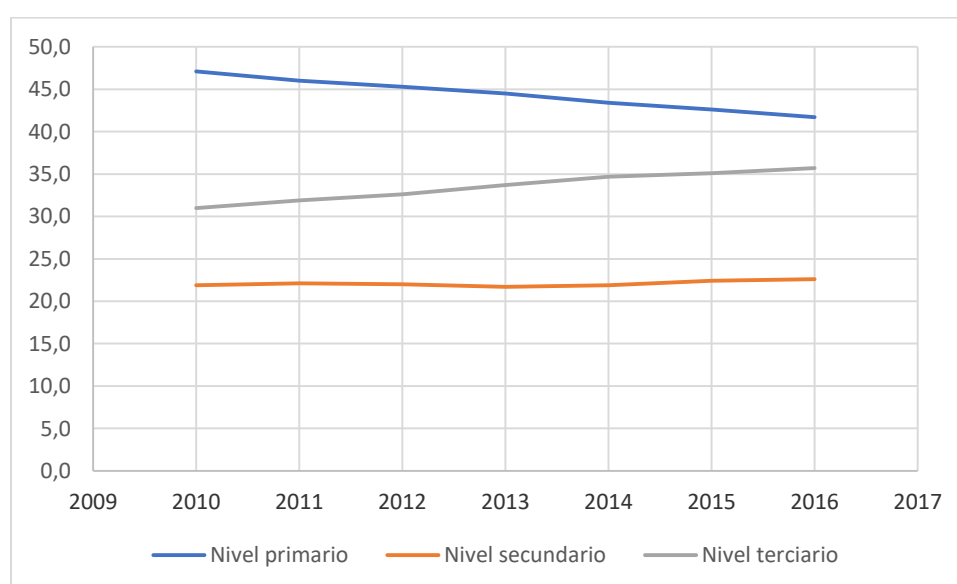
Figura 7. Evolución temporal del porcentaje intragrupal de individuos con nivel terciario. UE-28



Fuente: Eurostat

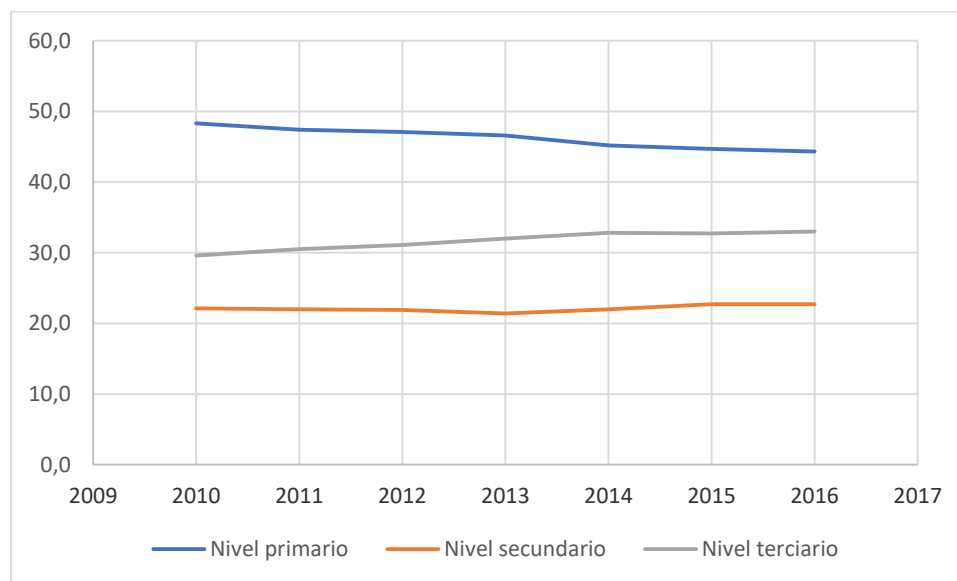
La tendencia en los últimos años hacia el incremento del peso de la educación terciaria, en especial entre el colectivo de mujeres, se constata en los diversos análisis realizados. A modo de ejemplo en las siguientes figuras se muestra cómo se produce dicha evolución en España, diferenciando tanto la consideración de todo el conjunto como la de hombres y mujeres.

Figura 8. Evolución de la distribución del total de la población según niveles educativos en España. Años 2010 a 2016



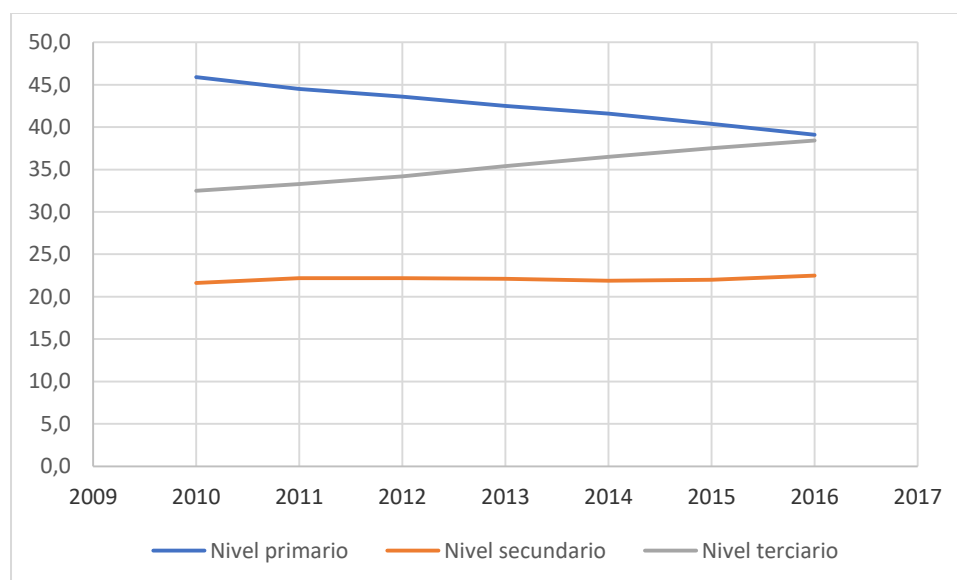
Fuente: Eurostat

Figura 9. Evolución de la distribución de la población masculina según niveles educativos en España. Años 2010 a 2016



Fuente: Eurostat

Figura 10. Evolución de la distribución de la población femenina según niveles educativos en España. Años 2010 a 2016



Fuente: Eurostat

Constatada esta evolución, la pregunta siguiente corresponde a la posible repercusión de dicho incremento del nivel educativo en el ámbito laboral, en especial en lo referente

a la categoría de las ocupaciones desempeñadas y a las correspondientes retribuciones salariales.

Para el primero de los análisis se ha trabajado con la estructura proporcionada por la International Standard Classification of Occupations 2008 (ISCO-08), de modo que se han diferenciado los siguientes 11 grupos:

- Directivos.
- Profesionales.
- Técnicos.
- Personal administrativo.
- Comerciales.
- Trabajadores del campo, bosque y mar.
- Artesanos.
- Operadores de plantas y maquinaria.
- Ocupaciones elementales.
- Fuerzas armadas.
- Otros.

Aunque el alcance de un determinado nivel educativo no implica el desempeño de ciertas ocupaciones sí cabe esperar una mayor concentración de, por ejemplo, personas con formación terciaria en puestos directivos, profesionales o técnicos. En ese sentido parece sorprendente que, en 2016, el 3,17% de los individuos de la UE28 con nivel primario ocupen puestos directivos, mientras que ese porcentaje se eleve apenas un punto porcentual, hasta el 4,14%, para las personas con el nivel superior. Este resultado sufre una cierta matización al constatar que el porcentaje de personal directivo sobre el total de ocupados en el ámbito europeo apenas alcanza el 6%.

La identificación de posibles disfuncionalidades entre el conjunto de personas con nivel educativo terciario con ocupaciones inferiores a las “esperadas” constituye el núcleo central de la presente investigación. Este problema de la sobrecualificación aparece destacado en los análisis parciales sobre los resultados de la agenda Europa 2020, como se constata en Unión Europea (2017). No resulta posible condensar en este espacio todos los análisis realizados, por lo que se opta por la revisión de algunos resultados significativos.

En Portugal se aprecia la siguiente evolución de las distribuciones de las principales ocupaciones para individuos con nivel educativo terciario:

Tabla 4. Distribución de ocupaciones para ciudadanos y ciudadanas portuguesas con nivel educativo terciario. Años 2010 a 2016

Hombres							
Años	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Directivos	14,76%	12,77%	12,98%	14,42%	14,88%	14,23%	13,52%
Profesionales	56,13%	66,60%	64,71%	63,37%	61,63%	62,25%	60,59%
Técnicos	16,45%	10,66%	11,19%	11,04%	12,81%	12,26%	13,77%
Mujeres							
Años	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Directivos	7,42%	6,54%	5,85%	6,80%	7,05%	5,87%	7,02%
Profesionales	53,32%	70,22%	70,32%	69,12%	66,65%	66,99%	65,12%
Técnicos	24,04%	9,35%	10,31%	10,32%	11,39%	12,24%	12,71%

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

En este país, con una destacada ratio de igualdad, se observa que el porcentaje de personal directivo masculino duplica al femenino; este segundo conjunto muestra una tendencia errática en los últimos años, a pesar del incremento de mujeres con mayor índice formativo. Los pesos sí resultan homogéneos en el caso de profesionales y técnicos; en la primera categoría se observa un valor muy elevado para este colectivo en comparación con los datos registrados en otros países.

España también muestra un comportamiento similar en lo referente al porcentaje de personal directivo: en el año 2016, de manera similar durante todo el período, el conjunto masculino (8,32%) duplica al femenino (4,01%). Sin embargo, la problemática principal detectada en los análisis realizados corresponde a la importancia del personal administrativo y comercial según el género: en el país analizado el porcentaje correspondiente a las mujeres representa 10 y 5 puntos porcentuales, respectivamente, respecto al de los hombres. En Reino Unido, por ejemplo, las diferencias son de 5 y 7 puntos. En Suecia la presencia de mujeres en estas dos categorías también es superior, pero con incrementos que se mueven entre el 1,5 y los 2 puntos porcentuales.

Por otra parte, una de las grandes demandas en este ámbito, la reducción del salto salarial entre sexos, sigue mostrando un comportamiento variable según el país. En la siguiente tabla se muestran las diferencias entre hombres y mujeres con nivel educativo

terciario correspondientes a los ingresos medios equivalentes durante los períodos en los que se dispone de datos, así como el promedio de dichas divergencias:

Tabla 5. Diferencias en ingresos medios equivalentes entre hombres y mujeres. Años 2007 a 2016

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Media
UE-28				2.064	2.102	1.993	2.043	2.219	2.405		2.138
Irlanda	3.135	1.573	1.576	318	104	580	1.072	1.228	2.051		1.293
Polonia	717	918	1.119	570	635	978	908	839	1.055		860
Portugal	2.419	2.309	2.119	1.182	1.235	2.381	1.442	1.936	1.829		1.872
España	284	589	733	605	695	722	983	1.036	666	703	702
Suecia	460	830	449	901	643	555	416	287	32	-332	424
Reino Unido	2.155	3.471	488	1.367	2.209	983	814	1.029	2.218		1.637

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Resulta significativo, y requiere un estudio en profundidad, el incremento de esta brecha en países como Irlanda, España o Reino Unido; en este último caso con un comportamiento errático de dicha diferencia. En Suecia, por el contrario, se experimenta por vez primera en 2016 un diferencial positivo hacia las mujeres.

Sin embargo, todavía resulta de mayor interés comprobar que este comportamiento salarial no muestra similitud (a excepción de las naciones del norte de Europa) con el correspondiente a la tasa de igualdad, revisada anteriormente. Este hecho confirma la necesidad de analizar otras variables a fin de clarificar el verdadero alcance del contenido implícito en las tasas de empleo.

Conclusiones

El estudio presentado muestra la importancia de profundizar en los condicionantes laborales de las mujeres considerando como variable central el nivel de estudios de los distintos colectivos. Este enfoque permite poner en valor los aspectos asociados a la “calidad” del desempeño laboral encomendado y detectar, en su caso, disfuncionalidades del sistema.

Un aspecto importante, que no se ha citado en la investigación, es la necesidad de disponer de un mayor conjunto de estadísticas que permitan realizar diferenciaciones según género y nivel de estudios. A pesar del amplio potencial de las existentes, no ha sido posible, de momento, un análisis específico de las tasas de desempleo a largo plazo,

de los tipos de contrato existentes, de la dispersión regional de las tasas de empleo o de las inversiones de carácter público, que enriquecerían la visión que se ha ido mostrando.

Esos análisis posteriores, de ampliación, con un horizonte temporal más dilatado, deben seguir permitiendo la revisión de la aparente incorrección de las políticas de austeridad. La aparente recuperación, en términos cuantitativos, de las ratios relacionadas con el empleo no puede esconder la necesidad de revisar sistemas de ajuste laboral como los existentes en los países de Europa del Norte, que han soportado correctamente los envites de la crisis y que en los últimos años muestran resultados ciertamente espléndidos en el ámbito de la conciliación.

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SECTION 2

EMPLOYABILITY AND POLICIES

OF NON-TRADITIONAL

STUDENTS

CHAPTER 3

Propuestas para la mejora de determinadas políticas en educación y en empleo. Una revisión de la estrategia Europa 2020

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Introducción

La destacada heterogeneidad que los países que integran la eurozona muestran en los diferentes ámbitos socioeconómicos constituye uno de los principales motivos de preocupación de los órganos de gobierno de la UE. La atención a dicha problemática se ha concretado en numerosas actuaciones que, en general, no han proporcionado los resultados esperados. La señal más evidente del incumplimiento de los objetivos previstos en relación al problema de la cohesión corresponde al cambio de enfoque de las políticas comunitarias, constatada en el año 2000, con la aprobación de la Agenda de Lisboa. Esta iniciativa se orientaba hacia la implantación de una sociedad europea del conocimiento con alto potencial competitivo, que debía caracterizarse por elevadas tasas de empleo; un año después, en 2001, se adoptaba una visión más amplia, al incorporar la sostenibilidad como eje aglutinador de los elementos económicos, sociales y de protección del medio ambiente.

La cuantificación de algunos aspectos concretos, como la potenciación de la inversión privada en I+D+i o el impulso a la aproximación entre los entornos académicos y empresariales, tuvo lugar en 2002, en el Consejo Europeo de Barcelona. Por ejemplo, se fijó para 2010 la consecución del 3% del PIB como gasto global en I+D de la UE o se acordó la revisión de resultados en innovación a través del Programa Marco.

A juicio de Rodil, Rodríguez, Sánchez y Vence (2010) el análisis de los resultados obtenidos demuestra que estos importantes objetivos, tanto los cualitativos como los

cuantitativos, quedaron muy lejos de alcanzarse. De hecho, en 2008, en una reunión de ministros de investigación celebrada en Eslovenia, se identifica la necesidad de incorporar elementos innovadores y educativos, así como la presencia activa de los ciudadanos, al Espacio Europeo de Investigación. Este planteamiento seminal se ha identificado como el Proceso de Liubliana y constituiría otro fundamento más de la Estrategia Europea 2020.

En Comisión Europea (2010), donde se presentan las bases y contenido de este programa, se destaca claramente la reorientación del proceso de crecimiento, profundizando en planteamientos como el desarrollo económico asociado al conocimiento y a la innovación, la atención a la sostenibilidad y el máximo fomento de un crecimiento integrador, orientado a la obtención de elevadas tasas de empleo y alta cohesión social y territorial. Resulta importante recordar que estas bases se expresaron en un período de profunda crisis económica y financiera; en ese sentido, Comisión Europea (2010) identificaba, además, las importantes carencias estructurales en el seno de la UE, como la escasez de inversiones en I+D+i, el uso ineficiente de las TIC o la falta de dinamismo empresarial, entre otras. El documento destacaba que la curva de población activa estaría comenzando a declinar como consecuencia de la jubilación de los individuos nacidos durante la expansión demográfica de los años sesenta. La tasa de incremento de mayores de 60 años se situaba en 2010 en torno a los dos millones anuales, casi el doble que en 2007, resultando previsible, por tanto, la generación de nuevas tensiones en el ámbito laboral.

Este complejo panorama requería actuaciones genéricas en distintos frentes: sociales, económicos y ambientales. Todas estas cuestiones se abordaron en el programa Europa 2020 mediante la identificación de cinco grandes objetivos, algunos subdivididos en diferentes metas, que debían consumarse al llegar a dicho año. Los relativos al conjunto de la UE-28 se relacionan en la siguiente tabla:

Tabla 1. Objetivos de la estrategia Europa 2020 para el conjunto UE-28

Variable considerada	Objetivo cuantificado	Últimos datos disponibles
Tasa de empleo	Incremento de la tasa de empleo de la población activa entre 20 y 64 años hasta un mínimo del 75%.	En 2016: 71,1%
	Dedicación del 3% del PIB a I+D	En 2015: 2,03% (provisional)
Investigación y desarrollo	Reducción en un 20% de las emisiones de gases de efecto invernadero respecto a los niveles existentes en 1990.	En 2015: 22,12%
	Aportación del 20% de energías renovables al consumo total energético.	En 2015: 16,7%
Cambio climático y sostenibilidad energética	Aumento del 20% de eficiencia energética (equivalente a una reducción hasta 1.483 Mtoe de consumo de energía primaria y 1.086 Mtoe de consumo de energía final).	Consumo de energía primaria en 2015: 1.529,6 Mtoe Consumo de energía final en 2015: 1.082,2 Mtoe
	La tasa de abandono prematuro del sistema de educación debe ser inferior al 10% (población entre 18 y 24 años)	En 2016: 10,7%
Educación	Mínimo del 40% de individuos entre 30 a 34 años con estudios completos de nivel terciario.	En 2016: 39,1%
	El riesgo de pobreza y exclusión social debe afectar a 20 millones de personas menos en comparación con 2008.	Estimado en 2015: 119.080 miles de personas en riesgo (23,8% de la población total)
Pobreza y exclusión social		

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de (i) Comisión Europea. Objetivos Europa 2020 (última actualización: 7/03/2017); (ii) European Commission. Energy Efficiency Directive; y (iii) Eurostat.

Los objetivos 2020 se concretan en objetivos particulares de cada Estado miembro, en función de su situación de partida y de características socioeconómicas propias. La idea fundamental es considerar los resultados a conseguir como metas comunes, que se deben alcanzar interconectando y potenciando las actuaciones de índole nacional y del conjunto de la CEE.

El presente estudio analiza las tendencias de las variables particulares en seis estados miembros -representativos de la heterogeneidad existente en la UE- y en dos campos claramente interconectados: empleo y educación. Se persigue con ello la detección tanto de aspectos positivos en dicha evolución como de posibles disfuncionalidades, a fin de identificar, en este segundo supuesto, líneas de mejora en las correspondientes políticas.

Ámbito de estudio

La investigación se centra en los seis países en los que se ubican las universidades participantes en el proyecto de investigación EMPLOY: Irlanda, Polonia, Portugal, España, Suecia y Reino Unido. De este modo en la muestra se tiene en cuenta la

diversidad norte-sur, la variedad en tamaño y composición de las poblaciones, las diferencias en renta per cápita o los distintos intervalos temporales de pertenencia a la UE. En la siguiente figura se expone dicha heterogeneidad, considerando los parámetros relativos a población y renta per cápita:

Tabla 2. Datos de población, renta y fecha de incorporación a la UE de los países analizados. Año 2015

Irlanda	
Población: 4.628.949	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 51.100 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 1973
Polonia	
Población: 38.005.614	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 19.800 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 2004
Portugal	
Población: 10.374.822	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 22.200 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 1986
España	
Población: 46.449.565	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 25.900 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 1986
Suecia	
Población: 9.747.355	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 35.700 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 1995
Reino Unido	
Población: 64.875.165	
PIB per cápita (pps EU-28): 31.200 €	Año de incorporación a la UE: 1973

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat y página web de la Unión Europea (<https://europa.eu>)

Irlanda ocupa la segunda posición de países pertenecientes a la UE según el nivel de renta per cápita, mientras que Suecia se encuentra en séptimo lugar. Por el contrario, Portugal se ubica en el puesto 19 y Polonia se dispone en el número 22 sobre 28. Es importante contextualizar esta variable mediante la consideración del total de la población: en el año 2015 Reino Unido, España y Polonia ocupaban, en un listado ordenado de mayor a menor, los puestos tercero, quinto y sexto. Suecia e Irlanda, con destacadas rentas per cápita, cuentan con poblaciones más reducidas y se sitúan en las posiciones 14 y 20.

En lo referente a la temática, la presente investigación se centra en dos de los ejes estratégicos de Europa 2020, los asociados a empleo y educación. Realmente los cinco grandes objetivos del programa se encuentran muy relacionados entre sí, de manera que,

a distintos niveles, la consecución de resultados en un ámbito puede afectar, de manera positiva o negativa, a otros. Unión Europea (2017) subraya las fuertes interconexiones que existen, por ejemplo, entre las metas relacionadas con el empleo y las relativas a I+D, educación y pobreza y exclusión social.

La relación “intuitiva” entre empleo y educación ha sido analizada por múltiples autores, bajo aproximaciones muy variadas. En el contexto econométrico, el paradigma de Nelson y Phelps (1966) contempla el rol de la educación como motor del crecimiento económico. Benhabib y Spiegel (1994) consideran, además, el stock de capital humano como catalizador de las mejoras tecnológicas, al actuar sobre los procesos innovadores y de adopción de nuevos desarrollos (precisamente el segundo eje de la estrategia 2020). En parámetros similares, Kutan y Yigit (2009), así como Crespo, Havettová y Lábaj (2013), revisan este papel de las dinámicas de capital humano sobre la mejora de las expectativas de convergencia en renta de los países europeos y, por ende, en el desarrollo económico particular de los mismos.

Feenstra, Inklaar y Timmer (2015) han estimado en la última revisión disponible (9.0) del Penn World Table este índice de capital humano, a nivel nacional, contabilizando la media de años de escolarización e incorporando una cierta tasa de retorno. El stock es creciente desde el año 1950 en los seis países analizados en nuestro estudio y su evolución se corresponde de manera general con las ratios de empleo en dichas naciones.

En secciones posteriores se revisará la amplitud de los aspectos a considerar en los dos ámbitos citados, subrayando la dificultad de identificación de esa previsible relación directa entre inversión en aspectos formativos y mejora de la tasa de empleo.

Evolución de la tasa de empleo

En la siguiente tabla se recoge el último valor disponible de esta variable, así como las metas fijadas y estimadas para el año de conclusión de la estrategia Europa 2020; tal y como se cuantifica en Eurostat, la tasa de empleo representa el porcentaje de personas empleadas sobre el total de la población (esta agencia publica los datos de manera agregada; lo habitual en este contexto es trabajar con el grupo de edad comprendido entre 15 y 64 años):

Tabla 3. Valores actuales y previstos de la tasa de empleo en los seis países analizados

Irlanda	Valor en 2016: 70,30%
	Objetivo fijado: 69-71%
	Objetivo estimado: 76,90% ($R^2 = 0,9994$)
Polonia	Valor en 2016: 69,30%
	Objetivo fijado: 71%
	Objetivo estimado: 75,10% ($R^2 = 0,9986$)
Portugal	Valor en 2016: 70,60%
	Objetivo fijado: 75%
	Objetivo estimado: 76,90% ($R^2 = 0,99$)
España	Valor en 2016: 63,9%
	Objetivo fijado: 74%
	Objetivo estimado: 71% ($R^2 = 0,9914$)
Suecia	Valor en 2016: 81,2%
	Objetivo fijado: 80%
	Objetivo estimado: 82,76% ($R^2 = 0,959$)
Reino Unido	Valor en 2016: 77,50%
	Objetivo fijado: 80%
	Objetivo estimado: 81,06% ($R^2 = 0,9845$)

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

La evolución de la tasa de empleo es muy similar en los casos de Irlanda, Polonia, España, Suecia y Reino Unido: una tendencia creciente durante casi toda la década del 2000 se ve interrumpida en los años iniciales de la crisis (2008 o 2009), con notables variaciones en cada caso respecto al agravamiento del ratio y también respecto al instante en que la curva vuelve a remontar (2011 o 2012).

Este comportamiento es el que muestra el conjunto de países que integran la UE-28, tal y como se aprecia en la siguiente figura:

Figura 1. Evolución real y prevista de la tasa de empleo en UE-28



Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

La estimación para 2020 de este ratio es de 74,60%, ligeramente por debajo del objetivo fijado del 75%.

La tasa de desempleo en el caso de Portugal se caracteriza por dos tramos descendentes: previo al período común de crisis se identifica el intervalo 2001 a 2007, en el que dicha variable descendió 1,5 puntos porcentuales. A la breve recuperación en el último año le siguió un profundo receso hasta 2013, con un descenso relevante de 7,70 puntos.

El comportamiento regresivo durante los años de crisis, detectado en todos los países, junto a la singularidad de la puesta en marcha de la estrategia Europa 2020 al comienzo de la segunda década del siglo XXI, justifican que la estimación de la tasa final de empleo

se haya realizado considerando un ajuste lineal con los 4 ó 5 últimos valores de la serie. En base a este planteamiento se presenta el siguiente agrupamiento:

Tabla 4. Clasificación de los países según el grado de consecución del objetivo relativo a la tasa de empleo

Países que en 2016 ya han alcanzado su objetivo	Países que en 2016 no han alcanzado todavía su objetivo	
Irlanda Suecia	Países en los que se estima que se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020	Países en los que se estima que no se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020
	Polonia Portugal Reino Unido	España (se prevé una diferencia final de 3 puntos porcentuales)

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Esta clasificación se muestra coherente con la conocida “buena salud” del mercado laboral en los países del Norte de Europa. Se destaca que en el caso de Suecia el objetivo marcado es el 80%, 5 puntos porcentuales superiores a la meta establecida para el conjunto de la UE. La revisión histórica de la tasa de empleo en este país resulta significativa, porque ya en 1996 (primer año del que se disponen datos) este ratio alcanzaba el 74,8%.

Los valores mostrados confirman que el porcentaje de personas empleadas aumenta tras el período de crisis, pero no aportan, sin embargo, información sobre la “calidad” de cada sistema laboral. En la presente investigación se esbozan dos vías complementarias para profundizar en esta temática, a ser desarrolladas en posteriores análisis.

Por una parte, se puede extraer información sobre el grado de consolidación y operatividad de las estructuras orientadas a la creación y mantenimiento de empleo analizando los valores extremos de la tasa de empleo en los países considerados. En la siguiente tabla se muestran estos datos (entre paréntesis se indica el año en el que se alcanza dicho ratio):

Tabla 5. Valores extremos de la tasa de empleo

	Irlanda	Polonia	Portugal	España	Suecia	Reino Unido
Intervalo	1993-2016	1998-2016	1993-2016	1993-2016	1996-2016	1993-2016
Mínimo	57,50 (1993)	57,10 (2003)	65,40 (2013)	50,80 (1994)	73,70 (1997)	70,20 (1993)
Máximo	73,80 (2007)	69,30 (2016)	73,90 (2001)	69,70 (2007)	81,20 (2016)	77,50 (2016)
Variación	16,30	12,20	8,50	18,90	7,50	7,30

Fuente: Elaboración propia a partir de datos de Eurostat

Las variaciones menos extremas se detectan en Suecia y Reino Unido, lo que evidenciaría una mayor fortaleza de los sistemas de ajuste de la oferta y demanda laboral. El análisis del impacto de la crisis confirma esta idea: en Suecia el decremento máximo de la tasa de empleo fue de 2,3 puntos porcentuales y en Reino Unido llegó hasta 1,7, frente a los 11,1 o los 7,7 en España y Portugal, respectivamente.

La segunda vía de análisis comprende la evolución de otros aspectos laborales, que complementan la información implícita en la tasa de empleo. Unión Europea (2017) identifica 15 variables complementarias, que introducen aspectos educativos, de género o de dependencia, a las que se podrían añadir, por ejemplo, ratios salariales o de prestaciones por desempleo.

En la presente investigación se consideran 3 parámetros recogidos en la citada publicación, que experimentan una evolución desigual en los últimos años:

Tabla 6. Porcentajes de empleo a tiempo parcial no demandado voluntariamente

Evolución del empleo a tiempo parcial no demandado voluntariamente	
EU-28	En 2007: 22,4 En 2016: 27,7
Irlanda	En 2008: 13,6 En 2016: 31,5
Polonia	En 2008: 18,5 En 2016: 25,4
Portugal	En 2008: 40,3 En 2016: 48,7
España	En 2008: 36,0 En 2016: 61,9
Suecia	En 2008: 5,8 En 2016: 8,6
Reino Unido	En 2011: 18,8 (los primeros datos fiables proporcionados por Eurostat corresponden a este año) En 2016: 16,0

Fuente: Eurostat

Estos ratios muestran el porcentaje sobre el total de empleo a tiempo parcial en el grupo de 15 a 64 años: se ha considerado como límite inferior el año del inicio de la crisis, cerrándose la comparación en el año 2016, cubriéndose de este modo un arco temporal coherente con el análisis previo.

Dichos porcentajes evidencian, en la mayoría de casos, una notable degradación del mercado laboral. El incremento del empleo a tiempo parcial “forzado” estaría enmascarando los resultados positivos detectados en Irlanda y Suecia e, incluso, agravarían las estadísticas correspondientes a Polonia, Portugal y España. Los datos relativos a Reino Unido son positivos, pero el alcance de la información disponible es muy limitado.

Tabla 7. Evolución del empleo temporal no demandado voluntariamente

Evolución del empleo temporal no demandado voluntariamente (porcentaje de empleados que no pueden encontrar trabajo a tiempo completo respecto al total de fuerza laboral)	
EU-28	En 2008: 8,4 En 2016: 8,8
Irlanda	En 2012: 6,8 En 2016: 5,3
Polonia	En 2008: 19,1 En 2016: 17,2
Portugal	En 2008: 18,7 En 2016: 18,9
España	En 2008: 25,5 En 2016: 23,9
Suecia	En 2008: 8,6 En 2016: 8,9
Reino Unido	No se dispone de datos

Fuente: Eurostat

Se aprecia cierta mejora de esta modalidad de empleo, con una leve reducción respecto a los niveles pre-crisis. Aun así, los porcentajes continúan siendo elevados en el caso de Polonia, Portugal o España (muy superiores a los del conjunto de la UE).

Tabla 8. Ratio de desempleo durante largo tiempo

Ratio de desempleo durante largo tiempo (porcentaje de personas desempleadas durante 12 meses o más, con edades comprendidas entre los 15 y 74 años, respecto a la población activa en dicho grupo)	
EU-28	En 2008: 2,4 En 2016: 4,0
Irlanda	En 2008: 1,7 En 2016: 4,2
Polonia	En 2008: 2,5 En 2016: 2,2
Portugal	En 2008: 3,6 En 2016: 6,2
España	En 2008: 2,0 En 2016: 9,5
Suecia	En 2008: 0,8 En 2016: 1,3
Reino Unido	En 2008: 1,4 En 2016: 1,3

Fuente: Eurostat

En Polonia y Reino Unido se aprecia una leve disminución de esta ratio, mientras que en Portugal y España los incrementos resultan notables, con valores que triplican y en el segundo caso cuadriplican los cuantificados al inicio de la crisis. Esta problemática se torna especialmente crítica en los grupos de edad extremos: jóvenes y mayores de 45 años.

Evolución de las ratios educativas

En la siguiente tabla se recogen los últimos valores disponibles, y las previsiones que se han elaborado, correspondientes a las dos variables significativas establecidas por la estrategia Europa 2020 en este ámbito:

Tabla 9. Valores actuales y previstos de los ratios educativos en los seis países analizados

Ámbito	Tasa de abandono prematuro del sistema de educación	Porcentaje de población con estudios completos de nivel terciario
UE-28	Valor en 2016: 10,70%	Valor en 2016: 39,10%
	Objetivo fijado: 10,00%	Objetivo fijado: 40,00%
	Objetivo estimado: 9,01%	Objetivo estimado: 44,58%
Irlanda	Valor en 2016: 6,30%	Valor en 2016: 52,90%
	Objetivo fijado: 8,00%	Objetivo fijado: 60,00%
	Objetivo estimado: 4,41%	Objetivo estimado: 54,22%
Polonia	Valor en 2016: 5,20%	Valor en 2016: 44,60%
	Objetivo fijado: 4,50%	Objetivo fijado: 45,00%
	Objetivo estimado: 4,66%	Objetivo estimado: 50,30%
Portugal	Valor en 2016: 14,00%	Valor en 2016: 34,60%
	Objetivo fijado: 10,00%	Objetivo fijado: 40,00%
	Objetivo estimado: 10,00%	Objetivo estimado: 39,9%
España	Valor en 2016: 19,00%	Valor en 2016: 40,10%
	Objetivo fijado: 15,00%	Objetivo fijado: 44,00%
	Objetivo estimado: 12,68%	Objetivo estimado: <44%
Suecia	Valor en 2016: 7,40%	Valor en 2016: 51,00%
	Objetivo fijado: 7,00%	Objetivo fijado: 45-50%
	Objetivo estimado: 7,00%	Objetivo estimado: 56,33%
Reino Unido	Valor en 2016: 11,20%	Valor en 2016: 48,10%
	Objetivo fijado: ---	Objetivo fijado: ---
	Objetivo estimado: 7,32%	Objetivo estimado: 49,34%

Fuente: Eurostat

Los objetivos fijados para Reino Unido han desaparecido de la página web desarrollada para el seguimiento semestral de la estrategia Europa 2020 (<https://ec.europa.eu/info/strategy/european-semester/>), previsiblemente debido al proceso de desvinculación de dicha nación con la UE. En la tabla se muestran algunos valores en cursiva, debido a que no ha resultado posible una estimación coherente de esas variables: en efecto, las curvas de evolución de la tasa prematura de abandono en Portugal y en Suecia, así como la del porcentaje de población con estudios terciarios en España, muestran un comportamiento errático que impide aventurar un pronóstico. En los dos primeros casos parece razonable inferir el cumplimiento de los objetivos, mientras que en el caso español la evolución histórica hace suponer lo contrario.

Las estimaciones realizadas permiten los dos siguientes agrupamientos:

Tabla 10. Clasificación de los países según el grado de consecución del objetivo relativo a la tasa de abandono prematuro

Países que en 2016 ya han alcanzado su objetivo	Países que en 2016 no han alcanzado todavía su objetivo	
Irlanda <i>Suecia</i>	Países en los que se estima que se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020	Países en los que se estima que no se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020
	Portugal España	Polonia

Fuente: Elaboración propia

La situación de Suecia es especial, dado que en 2015 alcanzó el objetivo fijado, superándolo en el año siguiente. La evolución temporal de la tasa en este país invita a considerar el cumplimiento efectivo de la meta. En España el objetivo se alcanzará si se mantiene la tendencia de los cuatro últimos años.

Tabla 11. Clasificación de los países según el grado de consecución del objetivo relativo al porcentaje de población con estudios completos de nivel terciario

Países que en 2016 ya han alcanzado su objetivo	Países que en 2016 no han alcanzado todavía su objetivo	
Suecia	Países en los que se estima que se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020	Países en los que se estima que no se cumplirá el objetivo en 2020
	Polonia Portugal	Irlanda España

Fuente: Elaboración propia

En este segundo encuadre hay que tener en cuenta que la meta fijada para Irlanda es muy elevada (un 60% de la población con estudios terciarios): a pesar del previsible incumplimiento del objetivo, cuenta en la actualidad con un notable capital humano, con un porcentaje superior en 13 puntos al del conjunto de la Unión Europea. La evolución de esta tasa en Polonia, Portugal o España resulta positiva, aunque parece recomendable una revisión de los objetivos establecidos.

Al igual que en el apartado anterior el análisis de los sistemas educativos nacionales debería incluir otras variables. Siguiendo a Unión Europea (2017) se propone el estudio de las ratios de empleo de recién graduados, el porcentaje del PIB dedicado por las administraciones a la educación o el de adultos que participan en procesos de formación continua.

Sin embargo, no conviene perder de vista que el sentido último del cumplimiento de los objetivos en los dos campos señalados es la repercusión directa en la mejora del mercado laboral, tanto de las tasas de empleo como de la “calidad” del mismo. De ahí el interés de identificar la implementación del círculo virtuoso “empleo-formación”, que justificaría los esfuerzos en este campo. El análisis de dichas relaciones debería tener en cuenta aspectos como el ratio de sobre-cualificación (que se mantiene en la actualidad con valores similares a los de 2008 en el conjunto de la UE-28) o el impacto de la fuga de conocimiento entre países.

Identificación de políticas de mejora

La conexión de los dos ejes analizados, el laboral y el educativo, se sintetiza en los siguientes epígrafes:

País	Breve diagnóstico de la situación
Irlanda	Los tres principales parámetros analizados son muy positivos, teniendo en cuenta las consideraciones que se han realizado sobre el porcentaje de población con nivel terciario. El incremento de empleo no deseado de manera voluntaria puede perturbar las tendencias en un corto plazo.
Polonia	Las previsiones sobre tasa de empleo e incremento de población con nivel terciario se muestran optimistas, máxime al considerar los valores socioeconómicos existentes hace escasos años. Al igual que en el caso de Irlanda resulta apropiado revisar otras variables relacionadas con los dos ámbitos estudiados, a fin de identificar políticas de mejora (por ejemplo, relativas a empleo precario o tasas de dependencia).

Portugal	Las intensas fluctuaciones de la tasa de empleo revelan cierta debilidad del mercado y su fragilidad frente a problemas coyunturales. Se detecta un amplio campo de mejora en el campo educativo, en especial en actuaciones dirigidas a la permanencia de la población juvenil en dicho sistema.
España	La tendencia de la tasa de empleo, por debajo de la meta fijada, y la precariedad detectada constituyen problemáticas a afrontar mediante una revisión de las políticas existentes. Las actuaciones en materia de educación se encuentran dentro de los parámetros de naciones similares o limítrofes, aunque resultaría apropiado, para la mejora de la competitividad, la potenciación del porcentaje de la población con estudios terciarios y su incorporación a puestos de trabajo apropiados.
Suecia	Este país muestra excelentes ratios en los tres campos analizados. El envejecimiento de la población o el mantenimiento de las tasas de desempleo de larga duración pueden lastrar a largo plazo este comportamiento.
Reino Unido	La revisión histórica de las variables muestra una evolución positiva en ambos ejes. Sin embargo, el valor de esta información se disipa al contemplar un escenario notablemente incierto: la desvinculación con la UE asociada al proceso del Brexit provocará, sin duda, un fuerte impacto en la tasa de empleo y en las variables relacionadas, cuantificación que excede el objetivo del presente estudio.

Fuente: Elaboración propia

La identificación de políticas idóneas debe establecerse en base a los objetivos específicos de mejora en los distintos ámbitos que cubre la estrategia Europa 2020, dadas las interconexiones ya señaladas. Teniendo en cuenta las particularidades descritas en secciones anteriores se relacionan seguidamente posibles líneas de revisión a incluir en las futuras políticas nacionales de empleo y educación:

- Potenciación de la conciliación de la vida laboral, familiar y personal.
- Tratamiento legislativo de las cuestiones horarias, con impulso de la flexibilidad.
- Mejora de las prestaciones por maternidad/paternidad.
- Adecuada negociación de convenios colectivos.
- Atención a la fuerza laboral específica proporcionada por las diferentes tipologías de inmigrantes.
- Incremento de las inversiones en políticas activas de empleo (ALMPs).
- Consideración a la diversidad en los centros educativos.
- Incremento de las inversiones en educación.
- Valoración de una adecuada descentralización del sistema educativo.
- Reorientación de los programas de formación profesional.
- Reestructuración de contenidos y de prácticas docentes.

Conclusiones

La estrategia Europa 2020 ha identificado cinco ejes maestros, interconectados entre sí, que permiten cuantificar de manera sencilla y directa los logros de las naciones en aspectos socioeconómicos y energéticos de amplia repercusión. El problema reside en que estos valores no contemplan numerosos aspectos, realmente significativos, en dichos ejes, por lo que la simple constatación del cumplimiento de objetivos puede conducir a interpretaciones erróneas. En ese sentido los análisis deben incorporar variables complementarias y, en especial, cuantificar las relaciones entre los ámbitos establecidos.

La presente investigación muestra en especial la necesidad de estudiar las repercusiones de la mejora del sistema educativo sobre el mercado laboral, a fin de identificar, en su caso, posibles disfuncionalidades que estarían lastrando dichos efectos positivos. El estudio sobre la muestra seleccionada constata que la heterogeneidad continúa siendo un elemento característico del conjunto de naciones europeas. Aunque los resultados no tienen por qué ser extrapolables, la percepción es que las diferencias pueden seguir acrecentándose en el futuro cercano, en el sentido del eje Norte-Sur.

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CHAPTER 4

Employability and non traditional students: a meta-analysis

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Introduction

The theme of employability involves orientation, training and work as well as their different intersections. In the face of today's complexity characterized by recursive, irregular and fragmented recruiting socialization processes (Lodigiani, 2010), a leading role can be played by guidance services, already starting from the university context, in order to meet the demands of (many) young people who declare discouraged and disillusioned to that point that they are no longer able to imagine a job already during their university courses (Grimaldi, Porcelli, Rossi, 2014). In the context of employability there is an even more difficult encounter that is of non traditional students and the world of work. Employability of university students is one of the key objectives of the Bologna process. The current economic crisis, the lack of investment in education and the continuous changes of globalised society are hampering the transition to the labor market for graduates of higher education, and especially for the group of non-traditional students. By non-traditional it means students and graduates who are from communities and groups who, in some way, are under-represented in university and often also face obstacles in the job market. This includes quite a diverse range of groups such as mature students, working class students, students from ethnic minorities and students with disabilities (Employ Project, 2017).

Over the past few decades, universities across Europe have increasingly welcomed non-traditional students into their ranks. Nevertheless, research shows that non-traditional students are particularly affected in terms of graduateness and finding graduate employment. For non-traditional students the transition into employment often takes longer than 'traditional students' and there is the likelihood of entering employment which is below degree level and, therefore, less meaningful. There is also sometimes a

mismatch between graduate credentials and employers' expectations (Employ Project, 2014-2017).

The meta-analysis work

In order to understand what are the patterns and practices of orientation to encourage the exploration and advancement of employability and related competences of undergraduate non traditional students in the national and international contexts, we chose to make a first meta-analysis of national and international scientific literature on this subject, using Nvivo's software (Richards, 1999) with the aim of exploring the corpus of scientifically selected scientific materials systematically. The analysis of scientific literature has been chosen to be carried out in Italy, France, England and the United States to the extent that there is a proliferation of studies and reflections in these contexts in relation to the subject in question. Moving from the perspective of Grounded Theory (Glaser, Strauss, 1967), with the support of the Nvivo Software, a coding of the collected articles was made until the following categories of analysis were formulated:

- The construct of employability.
- The construct of employability in Higher education.
- Employability orientation practices for non-traditional students: some best practices.
- Theoretical reference models based on orientation practices.
- The relationship between skills, competences and employability.

In the process of the contribution, the articulation of these categories will be deepened to reach the enucleating of the core-category emerging through qualitative meta-analysis, defined as "guidance as an educational and inclusive work".

The employability construct: a brief theoretical excursus and the Italian proposal of INAPP

Already in the 50s and 60s, the term «employability» appears in the scientific literature. From a review by Cavenago and Martini (2012), it is apparent that the concepts of dichotomic employability and socio-medical employability were in use in those years

to distinguish the subjects from "manageable" to "unmanageable" persons based on personal predispositions and attitudes and physical and mental health. The increase in unemployment in the 1970s called for the introduction of the term manpower employability with which the alignment (or misalignment) between knowledge and skills possessed by the individual (knowledge and skills) is identified with respect to the demand of the market. In the 1980s, the term employability was adopted by companies to identify the flexibility of the workforce, which at this time became an indispensable competence for addressing the demands of a new labor market. In the political and institutional sphere, the European Employment Strategy and the various Community documents that have been going on since the '90s interpret employability as the ability of people to enter the labor market. It is from the 90's onwards that it can be noticed a proliferation of studies on the issue of employability, understood as a multidimensional construct in which they come together, both internal to the individual and external factors related to the context of life and the labor market (Lefresne, 1999; Forrier & Sels, 2003; Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth 2004; Fugate & Kinicki, 2008). In the enactment of the constructiveness of employability, sometimes attention has been given to more contextual/objective aspects (the labor market situation, the characteristics of organizations/companies, the number of changes in work, etc.) sometimes on more individual aspects (personal characteristics, individual adaptability, flexibility, etc.) until they come to patterns that intertwine both factors (Fugate, Kinicki, Ashforth, 2004; McQuaid, Lindsay, 2005; Cavenago, Magrin, Martini, Monicelli, 2012). Of particular interest is the definition of employability formulated by Grimaldi, Porcelli Rossi (2014) as

“the interwinement between the human, social, and psychological capital of the person - mediated by situational variables - that allows the individual to extend / return into the labor market with a personal professional project adhering to the context” (p.58).

This definition reflects the employability model developed by INAPP, which takes into account both biographical and curriculum data of individuals, their context, environmental and life conditions.

The construct of employability in Higher education

Currently the category of employability can be considered from a historical point of view because it has steadily evolved over the last 30 years and its role in higher education can be demonstrated. The concept of employability was defined by the Robbins report (Robbins, 1963) as one of the main axes of higher education. The difficulty of defining the concept led many authors to conduct research that have given rise to a substantial number of studies, particularly in English. As already mentioned. One of the first definitions was developed by Hillage and Pollard in 1998 through several case studies (Hillard & Pollard, 1998, p.3). At that time, the concept was already widely used in the literature and the two researchers provided a definition centered on personal and work skills. “In simple terms, employability is about being capable of getting and keeping fulfilling work. More comprehensively employability is the capability to move self-sufficiently within the labour market to realize potential through sustainable employment. For the individual, employability depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes they possess, the way they use those assets and present them to employers and the context (e.g., personal circumstances and labour market environment) within which they seek work” (Hillage & Pollard, 1998, p.3). This first definition referred to the centrality of skills for organising a career. Later, an interesting study was conducted by Harvey (2002, 2003 and 2006) and, simultaneously by York and Knight (2002, 2004, 2006). The perspectives of both Harvey and York and Knight make a connection between the concept of employability and higher education and pose the problem of the use and the presence of ability “to live” with the aim of building adequate and solid bridges with the professional world. In a social context that is demanding increasingly greater and more focused skills for a larger number of graduates for better productivity growth, reflecting deeply on the category of employability becomes a key to understand in which direction to make efforts to improve university teaching, create internships and apprenticeships and construct specific links with companies, association and public and private industrial sectors. The definition of Harvey, on the one hand, and York and Knight, on the other, introduce educational-pedagogical elements and extend the concept until it becomes the foundation of an innovative way of considering higher education.

In 1999, Harvey provided this definition in an even more critical way: “Employability of a graduate is the propensity of the graduate to exhibit attributes that employers anticipate will be necessary for the future effective functioning of their organisation”

(Harvey, 1999, p.4). In fact, the apparent problem could be represented by the attributes/competencies that a graduate should have and that should be the very ones that businesses require. Harvey emphasizes, however, that the fundamental issue is the consideration that ‘employability is a process’ and that gives rise, ultimately, to a very real problem: “employability raises fundamental questions about the purpose and structure of higher education. Employability is not about training or providing add-on skills to gain employment. On the contrary, employability is about how higher education develops critical, reflective, empowered learners” (Harvey, 1999, p.13).

Similarly, the much more widespread and decisive definition by Yorke and Knight leads us to reflect: “a set of achievements – skills, understandings and personal attributes – that make 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, p.3). The work of the Learning and Teaching Support Network (LTSN) and the Enhancing Student Employability Co-ordination Team (ESECT) coordinated by Mantze Yorke, at the beginning of the twenty-first century was a unique landmark in the understanding of the transition of employability from a vague economic concept to a category with a clear connection to learning, the pedagogical and didactic fields of higher education. It is precisely by starting from a series of articles, studies and books with an evidence-based research methodology that one begins to make progress towards the possibility of reflecting on educational paths, teaching practices and on the pedagogical content of the category. What underlies the work of the Higher Education Academy research group is the consideration of a strict link between education for employability and good results in terms of learning, teaching and teaching evaluation (Yorke & Knight, 2005, p. 4), not so much defined generically as addressed to the objective of the more conscious growth of each student and of their abilities.

Employability orientation practices for non-traditional students: The EMPLOY PROJECT

EMPLOY is a European project that promotes the enhancement of the employability of students in higher education from a non-traditional background (both younger and adult) through improving the efficiency of transitions into the graduate labour market.

Research shows that non-traditional students are particularly affected in terms of graduateness. For non-traditional students the transition into employment often takes longer than 'traditional students' and there is the likelihood of entering employment which is below degree level and, therefore, less meaningful. There is also a mismatch between graduate credentials and employers' expectations. EMPLOY centrally aims to improve the efficiency of transition into the graduate labour market of those who enter higher education from non-traditional backgrounds, by developing two European toolkits that presents best practice by HEIs and offers guidance to students on improving their employability. This will be achieved by using the voices, experiences and perceptions of participants (students, university staff and employers) through biographical approaches and in-depth interviews to identify best practices, policies and guidelines. In particular the project show how careers services within higher educational institutions across Europe, as referenced earlier, offer varying degrees of service. In UK The Careers Office have some activities for non-traditional students. One strategy was to contact non-traditional students and say to them 'we recognise that you may not be as familiar with going to university as those whose parents have been to university and we would like to offer you more support'. This received a good response from students. Sessions on writing a CV have been held with adult students and they were able to bring their children with them. The aim was to point out that if they have been out of a traditional career for while raising children then 'you can develop employability from that' At Stockholm University, career support is for all students, not only non-traditional students. The support is organised on two institutional levels within HE, but also from the student and labour unions and professional organisations outside HE. The staff and career counsellors, related to the educational programme, give courses and lectures related to the future labour market, and give a voluntary 15-credits course on Internship after graduation. They also provide individual counselling. On the University level there is a student and career center. It gives lectures and workshops in e.g. CV coaching, interviewing, and lectures by interesting persons on the labour market. The staff from the career centre also provides special activities for students with disabilities. In UK Careers Officer works with adult students to help them improve their CVs. Unlike younger traditional students most adults are not able to have a gap year nor undertake voluntarily work or unpaid internships which employers see as being essential on a CV. Instead the Careers Officer encourages them to turn their life experiences into positive ones for a CV by highlighting the skills they have gained from their experiences such as raising children.

Very interesting is The mentoring programme that was created recently, in the academic year of 2015/ 2016. It tries to involve the alumni association in the development of the academic path of students, and to support their transitions to employment. The central idea is not that the mentors find students a job; but that the mentors would help students to know working environments, the basic rules and cultures of work, thus increasing the possibilities that students make an easier transition and maybe find a job for themselves more quickly.

Employability orientation practices for non-traditional students: The career counselling in American universities

Nontraditional students are a burgeoning population on American college campuses. However, many current support systems were developed with only the needs of traditional students in mind. As career-related factors often serve as an impetus for adults to return to the academy, it is vital for career services professionals to proactively develop and adapt relevant services for these students. As time progresses, people with increasingly diverse identities are forging the path to college. Among these diversities is life experience: while the traditional student is understood to be heading to college straight from high school, many students are now taking a break in their education. Some scholars are beginning to see these non-traditional students as “now-traditional” (Kennen & Lopez, 2005). As shifts occur in student populations, it is vital for student affairs professionals to keep up with the changes by providing relevant services to students. Career centers are among these student services, and more research is needed to determine how they can better support nontraditional students. Some career centers focus their energies on job placement, while many others emphasize a more holistic approach to career development. Over time, the central task and guiding philosophies of career centers have evolved. Currently, common tasks include reviewing resumes and graduate school applications, strategizing with students about how to approach a job search, hosting mock interviews, discussing career options and majors, keeping a database of jobs and internships, and helping students answer the question, “What do I do after graduation?” Career centers perform these tasks in a variety of ways, including drop-in appointments, one-on-one counseling, phone appointments, group workshops, and online resources. These services have all been influenced by foundational theory and the changing

landscape of the job market. Jeffrey Traiger (2006) described three generations of career development. The first generation is represented by Frank Parsons's trait-factor theory (1909) and postulated a matching process between fixed traits an individual possesses and the requirements of a job. The second generation expanded on trait-factor theory with John Holland's theory of career development, which introduced six personality types and six corresponding environment types. According to Holland, individuals are drawn to the environment to which their personality is most similar. He suggested that "career choice [is] an expression of identity development" (Traiger, 2006, p. 11). Traiger's (2006) third generation was defined as a postmodern approach, beginning around the 1990s, that recognized personal milestones in career development that connect an individual's own meaning-making; it also recognized other life roles an individual may hold in addition to that of worker individual. In the first generation of theory, individual satisfaction came second to performance, and people often stayed within one organization throughout their career (Traiger, 2006). By the early 1990s, it was common to "hold from five to fifteen different jobs" (Rayman, 1993, p. 10) over a lifetime, and career theory had become more person-centered and open to a course of development instead of a one-time decision. Career centers that had successfully focused on job placement experienced less demand from employers looking to interview and recruit on campus, while demand for career planning and counseling services began to increase.

Chao and Good (2004) found over 40% of U.S. undergraduates to be nontraditional students; however, other sources claim that only 27% of college students today could be considered traditional (Kennen & Lopez, 2005; Larkin, LaPort, & Pines, 2007). This discrepancy could be a result of differences in definition: generally, nontraditional students are defined as individuals who are 25 years or older (Chao & Good 2004; Luzzo, 1993; Quimby & O'Brien, 2004). Larkin et al. (2007) defined a traditional student as one "who earns a high school diploma, enrolls full time immediately after finishing high school, depends on parents for Career counselors must also consider other aspects of students' complex identities. A student might be a Person of Color, the first person in her family to attend college, a parent or caretaker, a full- or part-time employee, working-class, queer, a person with a disability, a military veteran, or identify anywhere along the gender spectrum. All of these identities, roles, and skills, as well as others gone unmentioned, interact uniquely in each student's life and may present challenges or opportunities as the student navigates hir way into and through college. Career counselors

are in a unique position to support nontraditional students because career goals are central to nontraditional students' decisions to return to school (Chao & Good, 2004; Luzzo, 1993, 2000; Quimby & O'Brien, 2004). Darrel Luzzo (2000) found that economic factors are often impetus for adults to pursue higher education. Chao and Good (2004) found nontraditional students returning because "they felt stuck with their current jobs," because they wanted "to change career goals via college education," or because of "life transitions... [which] force them to change to different jobs" (p. 9). Clearly, there is an important relationship between the work of career counselors and nontraditional students. Most career services offices were originally developed for traditionally-aged college students, and research shows that while there are similarities between traditional and nontraditional student career development needs, there are also major differences. For example, there seems to be no clear relationship between a student's age and "CDM [career decision-making] attitudes [or] CDM skills" (Luzzo, 1993, p. 114). However, nontraditional students often have a clearer idea of, and commitment to, their career choice, and they are also more likely to name "substantial numbers of barriers to reaching their chosen occupational goal (e.g., economic barriers, multiple-role conflict)" (Luzzo, 2000, p. 195). Luzzo (1993) also found higher levels of apprehension, uneasiness, and anxiety around career development issues. Career counselors could be supportive by focusing on confidence building and addressing real barriers faced by nontraditional students. They could also emphasize skills the student has already developed and how those skills might be transferrable to current career-related dilemmas.

Theoretical reference models based on orientation practices

In regard to employability construct application to the career services Anglo-Saxon literature tends to oppose a simplistic model of employability, that is, the model of the "magic wand" - according to which a student is employable by virtue from his university education - a model of employability development which takes into account one's side of the individual's potential in terms of self-cultivation and, on the other hand, the actual employment of the individual mediated by economic and social factors (Harvard, 2010). There would then be factors connecting these two dimensions of work experience, namely; the development of self-promotion and career management skills; the will to

learn and reflect on acquired learning. Hence the need to create pedagogically oriented spaces and places of reflection and orientation to employability.

American literature highlights the importance of exploration and orientation skills, particularly for disadvantaged students, where they are often considered incapable of working autonomously and this has a negative impact on their rates of employment (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Employability skills are cited among the most important skills by employers (Hart Research Associates, 2015, British Council, 2011). Lack of employability skills can contribute to a ‘talent shortage’ (ManpowerGroup, 2012). Demonstration of employability skills is correlated with the best hiring rates, job success, and profits (Lippman, Ryberg, Carney & Moore, 2015). The Washington Department of Education has elaborated a model of employability skills that would play a crucial role in university transition programs at work for disadvantaged students, for success in the labor market. The framework for occupational skills consists of three main areas of competence:

- Effective relationships that can be translated as effective relationship skills, that is those skills that help the individual interact effectively with clients, colleagues, and employers. In this area they relate interpersonal skills and personal qualities.
- Workplace skills that can be translated as skills in the workplace, namely, those skills that enable successful assignment of assigned job assignments. This category includes resource management skills, information usage, communication skills, systematic thinking and technological skills.
- Applied Knowledge, that is the integration of the acquired knowledge in the academic context and the technical skills put into practice at the workplace. This category covers academic knowledge applied to the working context and critical thinking.

Employability in the French context is defined as the probability of retrieving or retaining a job. It depends on personal factors (aptitudes and abilities) and / or situational factors (job market, workplace accessibility and work methods, adaptability of workstations and organizational schemes, professional constraints, etc.) (Busnel, 2010, p.17). To promote employability, France was introduced in July 22, 2013, through the Law, in Higher Education and Research, education in entrepreneurship and in all education systems. Several analysts see in the ‘Entrepreneurship University’ the future of

the university next to the new third university mission, connecting with the world of business (Vorley & Nelles, 2008).

In France, the focus is on the guidance to disability students and their accompaniment of disadvantaged students is based on the medical-social approach. Taking care of students by the services is subject to prior recognition of the disability situation, which includes a medical assessment. In French universities, Mission Handicap is a point of reference for disadvantaged students, a key pillar, and the place where the pedagogical compensation and co-ordination of the construction of the professional project (orientation, reorientation, stages, university-work alternation.) The approach of the French universities places the student becoming the center of the 'accompaniment work'. The orientation here is characterized by a constructivist approach that gives a greater weight to the student's relationship and life experience, which emphasizes the problem solving and its emphasis on student assessment with the delivery of a final response. This approach encourages individuals to tell their story, and to identify their own life and career themes. The consultant thus operates more like a biographer who interprets life into becoming an accountant who coldly deals with passivity and activity. The goal of the orientation process is thus to promote the empowerment, to enable it to deal with transitions and to govern its own career path. This occurs to the extent that the accompanying practice calls for the development of social skills, adaptation, relationalism, mobilization and participation in projects, facilitation of material, human and intellectual studies, all elements that are enrolled in a global project. In other words, success in studies is a condition for professional success. (Univers' Emploi, 2012). In Italy, of particular interest is the definition of employability formulated by Grimaldi, Porcelli Rossi (2014) as

“the interwinement between the human, social, and psychological capital of the person - mediated by situational variables - that allows the individual to extend / return into the labor market with a personal professional project adhering to the context" (p.58).

This definition reflects the employability model developed by INAPP, which takes into account both biographical and curriculum data of individuals, their context, environmental and life conditions. The Employment Promotion Section (SPO) of the University of Naples Federico II University Ateneo Synapse Center applie this model o

allow the individual to settle satisfactorily in a constantly changing and non-inclusive labor market. The SPO it turns to all students at the University who are going to achieve the degree of graduation and graduates who want to strengthen their resources, define a personal project and orient the strategies to be adopted to promote the best in the labor market. The SPO (Occupational Promotion Services) service plays a strategic role in enhancing and promoting integrated actions of guidance, motivation and support all students and graduates in building their training and work scheme through the analysis of intersecting skills possessed by the following aims and objectives, purposes:

- to offer a comparison space to learn from the experience of the others;
- be aware of their transverse and professional skills;
- help to reveal often latent knowledge, attitudes, skills, interests, aspirations and skills that define us as particular individuals;
- maintain the definition of a professional project consistent with the skills developed in the various training paths (formal, non-formal and informal) and with personal expectations;
- promote the ability for self-evaluation and activation;
- help define and value the subject's strengths and aspects of possible improvement;
- knowing yourself and your potential (with particular reference to the potential of internal employability);
- Enhance interests and motivations. It is therefore a way to intensify the training and professional pathways of students and graduates through the narrative description of the skills and knowledge gained during the work experience. From this point of view, the training proposal is an intervention that allows the people to acquire an explicit awareness of their personal and professional identity, an indispensable aspect to successfully address their educational and professional pathway (de Mennato, 2006; Cunti, 2008; Lo Presti, 2009).

The training process for promoting employability (including the Balance of Competence) is a qualitative-quantitative tool that can trigger autobiographical reconstruction, that is not just a description of the past anchored to an ephemeral dimension, but rather a dynamic connection between his own self and the designability of his own self. The reconstruction is meant as a journey through which the subject discovers and re-elaborates experiences, grasping not only objectives and orientation, but

also the ability to re-invent in himself, recognizing a set of elements on which to lay the foundations of their own development strategy. The particular autobiographical dimension of the evaluation allows the person who uses it to generate, through narrative exposition, self-defensive cognitive processes that make precise the significance of the personal cognitive-emotional paths of experience and create a "broader" sense of self, embracing the past, the present and the future.

In this sense, the focus of the whole course of the evaluation is to outline precisely the Self-autobiographical, so endeared by Damasio (1999), who in *The Feeling of What Happens* describes the Self-Extended, also defined as self-autobiographical, present within the extended consciousness' as an elaboration that is able to provide the subject with a developed sense of self that takes into account the past and the anticipated future. For Damasio "here and now is still present, but it is accompanied by the past [...] and, equally important, it is accompanied by the foreseen future" (Damasio, 1999, p. 237). The evaluation of competences is, in fact, a retrospective of the past, which the subject has formed and made him in return "competent", to re-read his past in the present, while making a big opening to his future: all this autobiographical reconstruction work of experiences is part of a pedagogical framework in which training is understood as a complex, dynamic, active, continuous and multidimensional process, attentive to relationship, intersubjectivity and introsigibility.

The great importance attributed today to the subjective dimension of the balance of competences rather than to the objective one refers to the use of all those narrative practices that represent privileged opportunities to enable the subjects to become better acquainted with themselves, their desires, their own projects, their own successes and failures, but also their own expectations and concerns, but above all those skills are possessed or implemented. In recent years, in fact, a series of narrative orientation practices have been spread as the most suitable for exploring oneself, but also for knowing and relating to others and to the context, in fact there are narratives that can stimulate narration on oneself, fundamental narrative, and necessary for a guidance path [...]. Then appears the confrontation, where the listening to the narratives of others, the identification of the narratives of others on us, constructs the collection of narratives" (Batini, 2007, p.49).

It is "the interwoven between the human, social, and psychological wealth of the person - mediated by situational variables - that allows the individual to put himself / herself back into the labor market with a personal professional project adhering to the context" (Grimaldi, Porcelli Rossi , 2014, p.58). Through this training of promoting employability, the subject is able to connect, integrate and articulate its resources in the light of a reflexivity that becomes an articulate analysis that makes it possible to recognize the motivations that have guided his actions and also the skills and abilities gained in other experiences. In order to explore the perception that students have of their employability Spo uses The Avo Giovani questionnaire (Isfol, 2016) that identifies the employability profile of a subject based on some of the personal resources available that permits the recognition of the internal employability potential.

The Avo Giovani questionnaire, in fact, is structured into several sections that allows the investigation and elaborates those aspects that have a major impact on the determination of the subjects' employability, such as:

- Networking ability;
- Knowledge and enjoyment of local services;
- Social support;
- Perception of the labor market;
- Endurance - Coping;
- Perceived Self- efficacy;
- Adaptability

Conclusions: The relationship between skills and employability for a guidance as an educational work

In spite of the criticalities associated with the employment of university students in a disability state, meta-analysis shows that scientific literature highlights the fundamental role played by vocational guidance services in order to support the transition to the world of work through various devices between Career Guidance and Career Counseling. However, some of these guidance instruments in the international context are always addressed by theoretical efforts to build specific employability models and related skills. It is possible to see how the skills as orchestration and mobility of knowledge and skills

are transferred in various contexts and their declination contribute to the definition of employability and make it possible. Nevertheless, it is impossible to establish a universal set of skills for employability, not only because these skills vary partly, in relation to the labor market segments and the stratification of roles, but also because the pluralism of the scales of value for the quality of work can result in a plurality of value scale related to competences in different socio-cultural contexts. While in their diversity, these models emphasize both individual factors and abilities, as well as external factors related to the socio-economic reality of the world of work. In addition to this, there is a need to carry out accompanying practices for the transition to the world of work of all students, characterized not only by a 'technocratic' orientation characterized by the compilation of psycho-attitudinal tests to be crossed with professional profiles; the ability to apply curriculum vitae and motivational writing strategies, targeted research techniques, and self-marketing practices. In line with this, the use of the Nvivo software has enabled the core category 'Orientation as an educational work' to enucleate the orientation as a process that the person puts into practice to guide his/her relationship with training and work through development, in the lifelong and life wide dimensions of Competency 3 B recognizable as

“the ability to define and make plans for life and personal projects. We could consider this competence as "reflective" as it supports individuals in the interpretation of their life giving them meaning and significance” (OECD, 2005).

Therefore, as highlighted by Grimaldi, Rossi and Porcelli (2015), self-orientation skills (thinking and intentionally choosing their own future), as well as those of design and self-design (life design) allow the individual to be occupied, that is, to put itself in the labor market with a personal professional project adhering to the context. Moreover, it is vital to value both the relationship with the working world in the optics of Business University Cooperation and the promotion of support for human and social development in the sense understood in the Capability approach. This approach aims to restore dignity to the person through the centrality of the human being the set of individual abilities is made up of opportunities, abilities and their interaction with access to resources. Capability means in Italian ability, and it is from this concept that it develops, ie from the ability of people to be able to do or be what they want to do or to be (Sen, 1933). Martha Nussbaum (2010) has drawn up a list of basic capabilities that are the same for all humans, trying to overcome the distinction between 'normal' people and people with disabilities, giving

everyone the same rights. If, then, someone - who has a disadvantage or not - can not perform one of these central functions at the appropriate threshold level, society will have to make the best possible way for him to do so. In this sense, a person with disabilities is defined as having a capability set limited to his goals and ambitions and system of values. Therefore, according to an educational perspective, we all have the potential to decide to be what we want to be and the role of education is to enable this potential to be activated by creating an enabling environment (Ghedini, 2009). Traditional and nontraditional students have different career development needs, and most strategies and resources were developed for traditionally-aged students. Further, nontraditional students have differing needs based on their unique experiences, as well as their intersecting identities and multiple life roles. Foundational career theories can be fluid and adaptable based on new developments in the job market and employment norms. Career services providers should update current processes in order to better support this growing student population. While there are options for improving those strategies now, more research is necessary for colleges and universities to provide the most relevant services possible for every student who attends (Stephenson, 2012).

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CHAPTER 5

Non-traditional students' point of view

about internships in pedagogical professions:

Comparison with other students, key factors and drawbacks

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Introduction

In the academic year 2013-14, the Master Degree in *Scienze pedagogiche e progettazione educativa* (Pedagogical Science and Educational Design) at the University of Catania chose to enhance the monitoring of external internship. The construction of a tool, aimed at the recognition of students' opinions on the just completed internship activity, was entrusted to the Educational Research Laboratory, with the purpose of detecting strengths and weaknesses on the various dimensions of the training experience, including those most dependent on the educational choices of the Degree Course, without fear of actually questioning some of the choices made by the latter: The questionnaire had to ask not only to evaluate the work and the contexts of the internship, but also to indicate whether and how the university study gives significance to the training on the field (and vice versa), bearing in mind the dialectical relationship between the two experiences.

The tool was developed by students attending the courses of Experimental Pedagogy (three-year Degree Course in Education Sciences, 1st semester) and Methods and Techniques of Evaluation (two-year Master Degree in Pedagogical Sciences and Educational Design, 2nd semester), modifying what was devised by Anna Salerni at the University "La Sapienza" in Rome (Salerni, 2007). The undergraduate students have analyzed the tool used in Rome, proposing, based on their previous training experience, many of the changes then made in the current version, which is linked on the web page of the Master Degree program (www.disfor.unict.it/it/corsi/lm-85/tirocini-e-stage). The choice of actively involving students in building and validating the questionnaire was

founded on two reasons: firstly, students are a category of privileged witnesses, able to assure the tool of validity and adherence to the specific context; secondly, the research work needed to build and validate the tool allows for better acquisition of specific knowledge about educational research, using such knowledge within truly challenging contexts as media to solve problems and not as a lesson to learn with the aim to pass an exam, thus constituting a theme and task based activity, according to the authentic assessment approach.

The 114 items of the survey are organized in five different sections (Scierra, in Corsini & Strongoli eds., 2017, pp. 19-36): 1) general information on trainees; 2) personal motivations and experience; 3) past and developed skills; 4) relationships with and within the context of work; 5) connections between the internship and the university studies. Through this tool, students can evaluate: themselves, that is, the skills they have acquired, the overall value of the experience and its usefulness for future work choices, the problems that emerged; the company, i.e. the activity carried out, the support received from the tutor and the type of relationships established, the training received; the University, that is, the organization of the internship and the received support, the consistency between the contents of the internship and the university studies (Salerni, 2007).

Within a generally positive picture, the answers provided present some critical issues, which do not seem to focus on host institutions or on particular sectors, but rather refer to dynamics that involve the relationship between university teaching and internship. In particular, some difficulties in the relationship between what is acquired in the classroom and the experience in the practical contexts of internship characterizes some of the respondents' reports. However, as highlighted in this paper, there are some differences between non-traditional and regular students' experience.

In the analysis conducted for this paper we disaggregate and re-processed the data to permit the comparison between the non-traditional students — to be understood, in this case, as those students taking longer than expected to graduate — and the students with regular times of completion (henceforth we will refer to them as *regular students*), so as to confirm or deny the aforementioned evidence and to paint an accurate portrait of the first ones, that were 48 out of 110 that took part in the research, almost totally female.

Motivation and internship experience

The two questions on the reasons that inspired the selection of a sector and an institution where carried out the internship are preceded by dichotomous items that ask to clarify the possibility of free choice of both the industry and the organization. Here we noticed some light differences in the two groups of students, especially regarding the first couple of items (choice of a sector). Precisely, it could be stressed that non-traditional students declare to have some larger possibilities to select the route, especially in regard to the sector of internship (fig. 1). Furthermore, about the reasons to choose a field for the experience (fig. 2), we emphasize that non-traditional students seem to point a slight less scepticism and a mild stronger pragmatism, actually they reveal, not without some contradictions: larger reasons linked to interest and passion; stronger hope to work in the same branch as the internship; lower disposition to put themselves to the proof; less interest in observing and better knowing the sector.

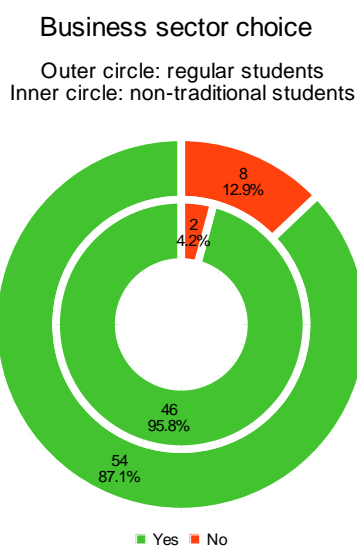


Fig. 1

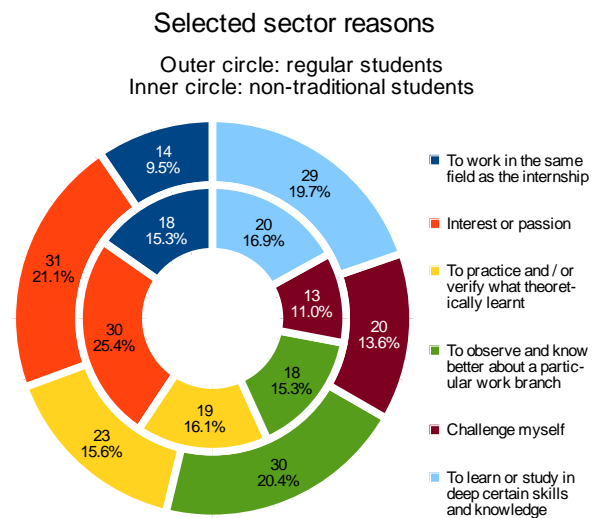


Fig. 2

Speaking of the second couple of items (choice of an organization), we report a substantial confirmation of the previous data, with a specification about the role that the tutors and the teachers, on one hand, and the other students, on the other hand, play with regard to this choice: as you would expect, the regular students are moderately influenced

by other students (5% vs 0.9%), whereas non-traditional students are slightly influenced by tutors and teachers (3.7% vs 0%).

In the previous data, as well as in the following question about the general motivations, the answers do not diverge excessively in the two groups of students. The question about the moment of the university route when the interest in the internship begins, instead, presents a remarkable difference (fig. 3): as it could be expected, 78.4% of non-traditional students are interested in internship only after having completed almost all examinations (vs 26.2% of regular students). This item confirms the low relevance of colleagues' opinions but also that one of the courses attended at the university.

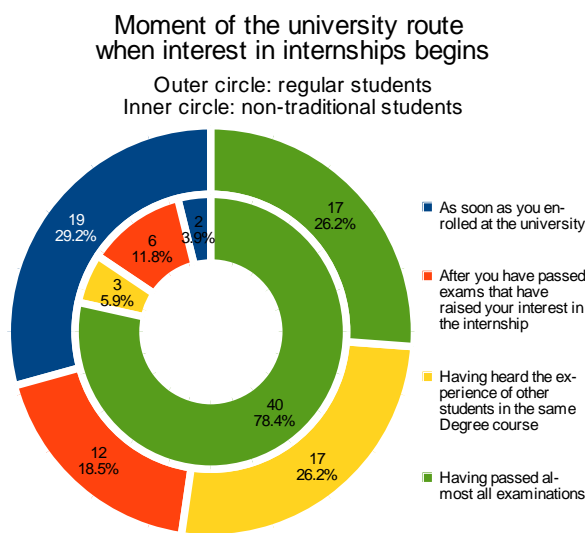


Fig. 3

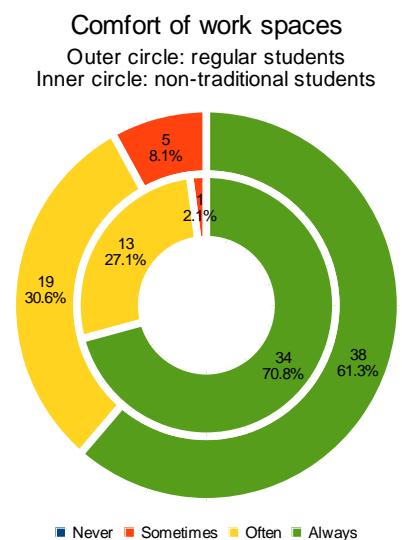


Fig. 4

In the section of the questionnaire dedicated to the description of experience in terms of sensations and feelings, several points of discrepancy between the two groups of students can be highlighted. First of all, non-traditional students trend to evaluate work spaces more positively (fig. 4). Secondly, they suffer a lesser feeling of not being held in account (fig. 5) and they declare in a larger extent to perform tasks related to own role (fig. 6). As consequence, they feel a lesser sense of inadequacy (fig. 7) and, definitely, they are more at one's ease (fig. 8), maybe also because of the way they carry out the activities, mainly linked to group performances (fig. 9).

Feeling of being held in account

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

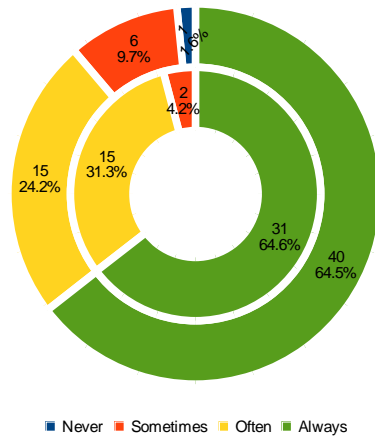


Fig. 5

Tasks relevant to the role

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

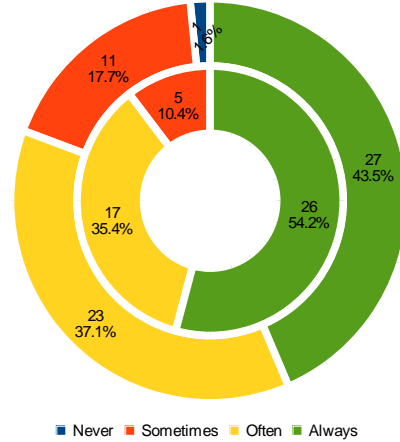


Fig. 6

Feeling inadequate

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

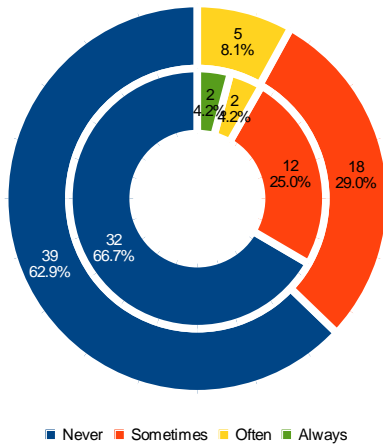


Fig. 7

Feeling comfortable

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

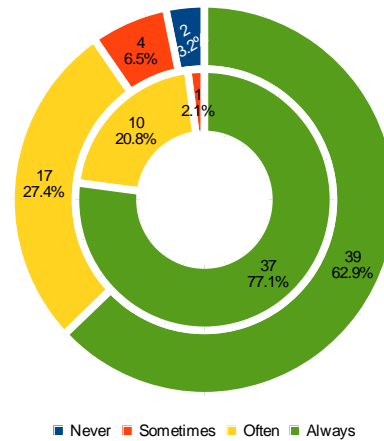


Fig. 8

The general more positive evaluation about the internship experience shown by non-traditional students is confirmed also concerning the serenity in the workplace (fig. 10), the appropriateness of timetables in relation to their needs (fig. 11) and of the spaces in relation to the required tasks (fig. 12) and, finally, the suitability of the organization for the performances (fig. 13) and of the staff for the students' welcome (fig. 14).

Setting of tasks in group and individual performances

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

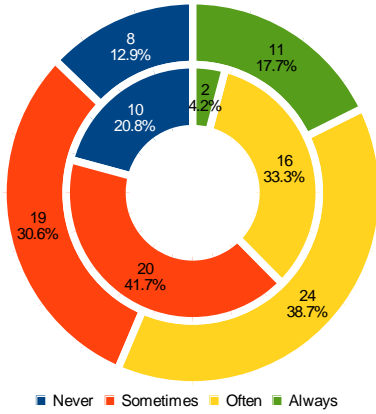


Fig. 9

Serenity in the workplace

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

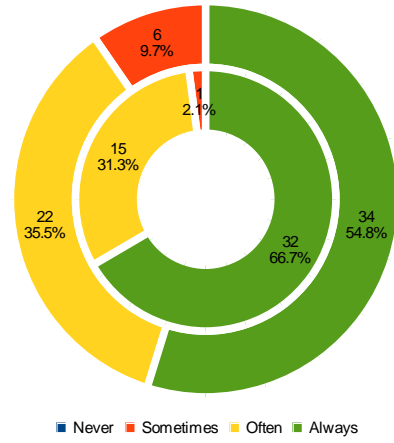


Fig. 10

Appropriateness of timetables in relation to students' needs

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

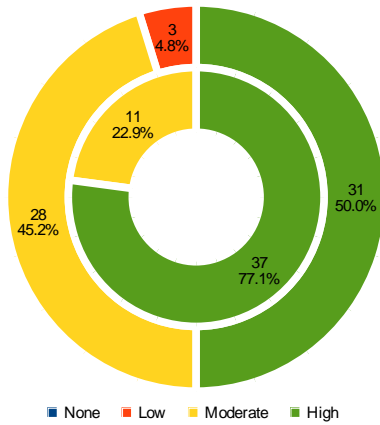


Fig. 11

Appropriateness of workspaces in relation to required tasks

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

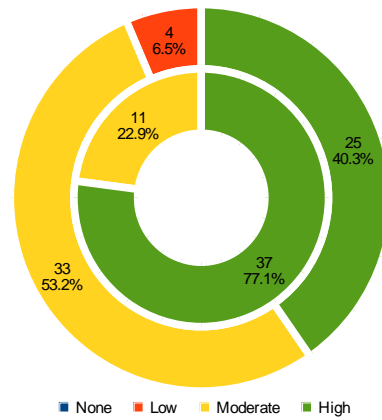


Fig. 12

Suitability of organization for carrying out the tasks
 Outer circle: regular students
 Inner circle: non-traditional students

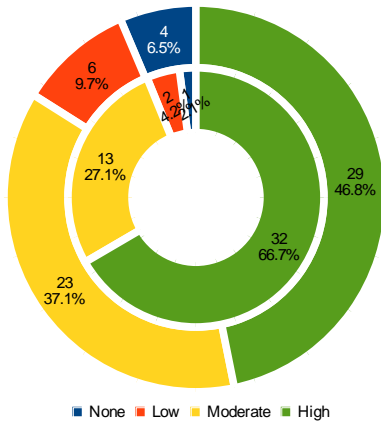


Fig. 13

Suitability of staff for students' welcome

Outer circle: regular students
 Inner circle: non-traditional students

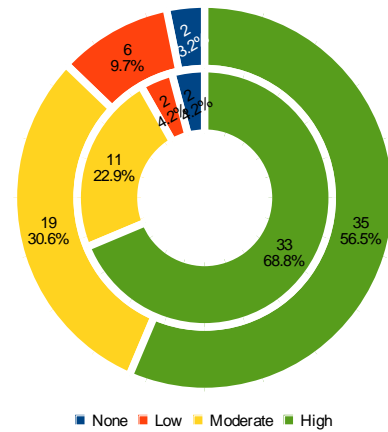


Fig. 14

Relationships with tutors, colleagues and users

As we could expect and as reported by both the groups of students, the main interface between them and host organization is the tutor in over 8 cases out of 10, although about 35% of the respondents state to be assisted also by other members of the staff. The rapport with the staff that supervises the students is mostly described as enough or very continuous, friendly, informal, peaceful, constructive and stimulating. However some differences between regular and non-traditional students can be registered, as shown in fig. 15-18, where it appears that non-traditional students are inclined to consider this relationship very peaceful, constructive, stimulating, constant in a higher percent and, at the same time, turbulent, not constructive, demotivating and episodic to a lesser extent than regular students.

Relationship with the tutor:
from conflictual (1) to peaceful (4)
Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

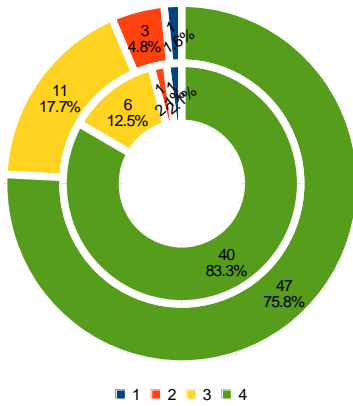


Fig. 15

Relationship with the tutor:
from non-constructive (1) to constructive (4)
Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

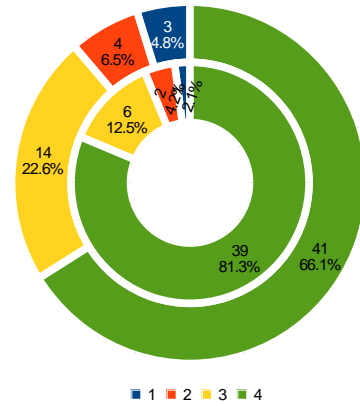


Fig. 16

Relationship with the tutor:
from stimulating (1) to demotivating (4)
Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

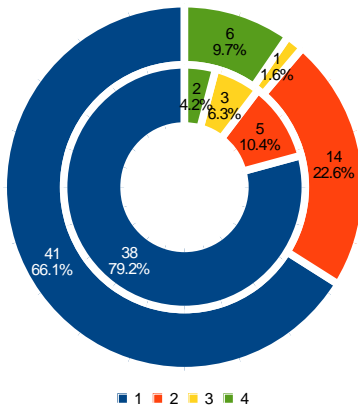


Fig. 17

Relationship with the tutor:
from constant (1) to episodic (4)
Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

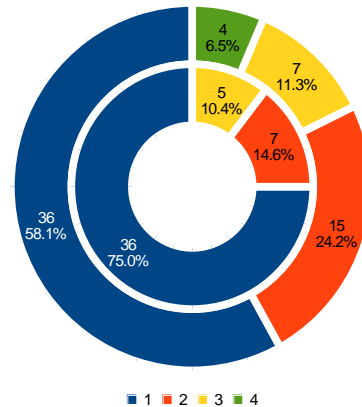


Fig. 18

The above mentioned positive social context is confirmed by the answers to the open questions about problems met with staff and users, where the relationships on the workplace appear based on a serene and fruitful collaboration — which is often described (particularly referring to the tutor) as endowed with high human and professional value —, and where the issues appear to be very limited in both student groups and restricted to specific cases. However, we quote in tab. 1 some criticisms highlighted by respondents, that could be summarized in three key points, emerging also at other points of the data-set:

1. request to perform tasks little consistent or totally no relevant to the internship (for both the groups of students);
2. incompatibility of character between student and tutor (only for regular students);
3. difficulties in the contact with users (for both the groups of students).

Tab. 1 - Problems with tutor and users highlighted by respondents

	Regular students	Non-traditional students
With tutor	<i>Assignments of tasks not relevant to my role.</i>	<i>He asked me to carry out activities that were little relevant to my role.</i>
	<i>Complete ignorance of educational needs and strategies.</i>	
	<i>He often complained about what I was doing.</i>	
	<i>Incompatibility of character.</i>	
	<i>The tutor's mood at work depended on her family and personal life problems, and this resulted in a disastrous relationship with trainees.</i>	
With users	<i>Some problems of "first contact" with a part of socially and economically deprived users.</i>	<i>I found a closed environment.</i>

Still, regarding the relational aspect, we note slight differences between the two groups of students in the feeling of being perceived as rivals by company's workers (fig. 19) and by other trainees in the same organization (fig. 20): in both cases, especially in the former, non-traditional students seem to suffer less such discomfort.

Feeling of being perceived as rival by workers

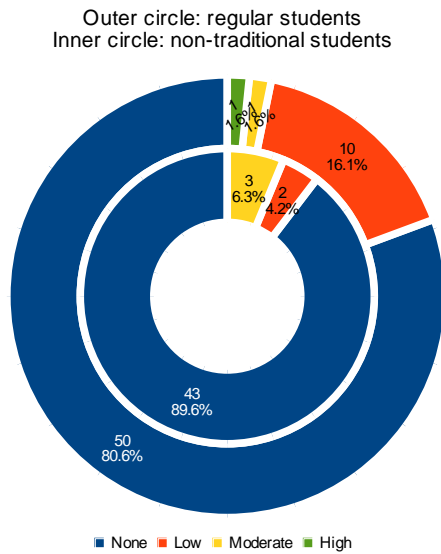


Fig. 19

Feeling of being perceived as rival by other trainees

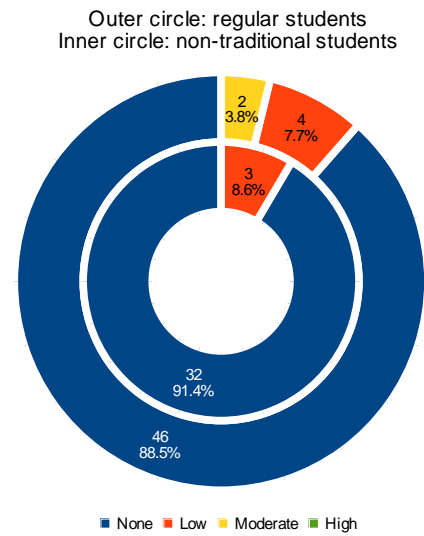


Fig. 20

4. Activities of training

4.1. Methodological notes on textual analysis

In this paragraph and in some of the next, we will use also techniques of textual analysis to examine the answers to a few open questions contained in the questionnaire. Our stance to textual analysis is post-structuralist, founded on a relativistic view of the sensemaking processes, fluctuating from one social group to another without this implies a moral judgment by the observer-researcher. In a similar approach, texts produced in a given cultural context represent the trace (that is to say the empirical evidence) of the practices of sense attribution (McKee, 2003, p. 1).

In this direction we have already worked to deepen what is the meaning attributed to the internship experience by the students of the Degree course (Pillera, in Corsini & Strongoli, 2017, pp. 101-119), while in this paper we will use briefly this methodology to capture the specificity in non-traditional students' open answers.

To process the answers to the selected open questions (those with a non-too small number of respondents and therefore sufficient amount of text to give a certain significance to the analysis) we used KH Coder, a software that can extract the morphemes at the base of each word (lemmatization), catalogue them into a database, and

then return a set of measurements, perform a series of calculations, and process the results in graphical form.

After submitting the answers to a simple pretreatment, the analysis was done by applying some of the text data mining techniques available in KH Coder:

1. creating the occurrence (*f*) table, to identify the most common concepts and as an intermediate tool to remove from the database the unnecessary morphemes;
2. focusing on particularly ambiguous or meaningful concepts by means of KWIC (Keyword In Context) analysis, to disambiguate them or better define their contextual use;
3. making some Co-Occurrence Network Analysis through Co-Occurrence Network Diagrams, which allow to visualize the articulation of the semantic network of the speech, that is, what are the most commonly shared meaning fields and how they are associated.

To determine the localization of nodes in the diagram, KH Coder applies a method developed by Fruchterman & Reingold (1991) and oriented to maximum clarity but, unlike the results of a multi-dimensional scaling, two nodes shown close do not necessarily have a strong co-occurrence if they are not linked by a line (edge), whose intensity (from dotted to bold) indicates the frequency of the co-occurrence of those given morphemes. About the interpretation of this kind of graphs, we can state what the manual of a similar software reports, speaking of the thematic analysis of elementary contexts: i.e. that they represent a “mapping of isotopies” (Lancia, 2016), to be understood as general or specific themes characterized by the co-occurrence of semantic traits (Rastier & others, 2002, p. 204). The identification of isotopies, which is not merely the statement of a fact, but the outcome of an interpretative process (Rastier, 1987), facilitates the interpretation of the speech, since each of them focuses on a context shared by multiple words. This way, the Co-Occurrence Network Diagrams, by providing a sort of *weighted* conceptual map of the answers to the open questions, “allow to reconstruct a thread of discourse within the total plot created by the corpus or a subset thereof” (Lancia, 2016, p. 82. Our translation). Finally, in the graphs below, the division of morphemes into clusters (highlighted by different colors) has been carried out by matching the text with the corresponding group of students (so resulting in three clusters, as in the fig. 21-A), by simple words-to-words links (as in fig. 21-B) or, where possible, by matching the text

with the corresponding ordinary variables of the thematically linked items (fig. 30 and 33).

4.2. Internship activities and tasks

Generally speaking, the trainee appears to be engaged in the development of professional skills mainly related to the organization of his or her work (mainly a teamwork), with observation, planning and coordination activities (presumably in roles of assistant) practiced in a significant quantities of cases (Pillera, in Corsini & Strongoli eds., 2017, p. 77).

Without wanting to derive from the textual analysis firm data concerning precise analogy and net distinctions between the two considered groups of students about the real and concrete pursuit of distinct and specific activities, we confine our comments to an hermeneutical interpretation on what is emphasized more frequently by non-traditional students, that is to say, in the light of the above, on what this group seems to attach greater importance. The morphemes in the words-to-variables network diagram in fig. 21-A identify some common (green cluster) and some different (yellow cluster) activity areas: we interpret and resume the most significant ones in tab. 2, focusing on contents, contexts and users of the activities. In fig. 21-B, the words-to-words co-occurrence network diagram related only to the responses of non-traditional students, clarifying the relationships among the main concepts.

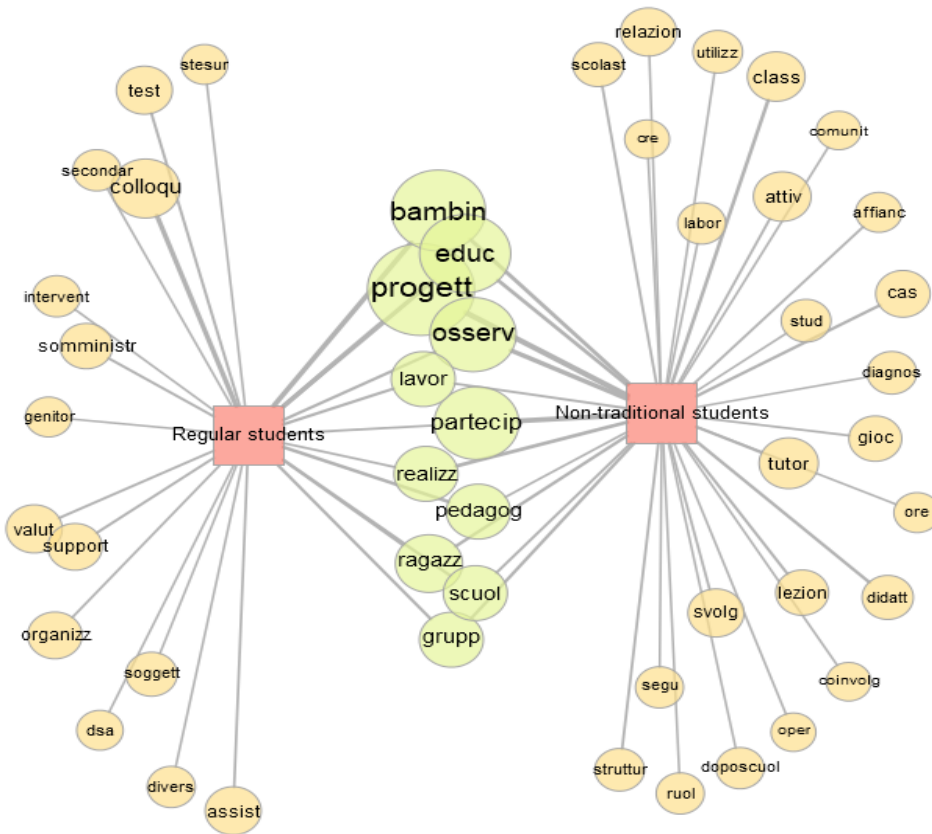


Fig. 21.A.

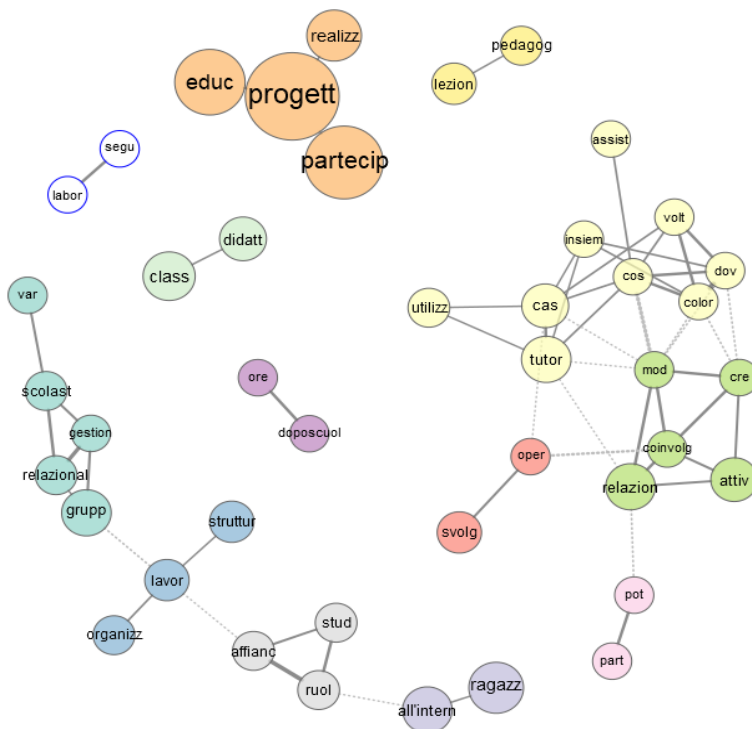


Fig. 21.B.

Fig. 21: A) Words-variables network diagram of top 60 co-occurrences of morphemes with $f \geq 3$ (with exclusion of *attivit*, *svolt*, *tirocin* and some adverbs and adjectives) in the answers to the question about activities description. B) Words-words network diagram of top 60 cooccurrences of morphemes with $f \geq 3$ (with exclusion of *attivit*, *svolt*, *tirocin* and some adverbs and adjectives) in the non-traditional students' answers to the question about activities description.

Tab. 2 – Co-Occurrence Network Analysis: summary of the evidence of the Co-Occurrence Network Diagram in fig. 21

Activities	Regular students	Non-traditional students
Contents and methodologies in common	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Activities design and implementation (<i>progett, realizz</i>) - Observation/participant observation (<i>partecip, osserv</i>) - Support (<i>assist, support, affianc</i>) - Teamwork and/or group activities (<i>grupp</i>) - Pedagogy and education (<i>pedagog, educ</i>) 	
Specific contents and methodologies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To administer tests, to hold interviews and to evaluate the responses (<i>test, somministr, colloqu, valut</i>) - Planning of interventions (<i>organizz, intervent, stesur</i>) - Specific learning difficulties (<i>DSA</i>) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relational (<i>relazion</i>) - Teaching support (<i>lezion, didatt</i>) - Laboratory (<i>labor</i>) - Play and creativity (<i>gioc, crea</i>) - Assistant (<i>affianc</i>) - Being involved (<i>coinvolg</i>) - Case study and functional diagnosis (<i>stud, cas, diagnos</i>)
Contexts in common	- School (<i>scuol</i>)	
Specific contexts	- Secondary school (<i>secondar</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communities (<i>comunit</i>) - Classroom (<i>class, scolast</i>) - After-school activities (<i>doposcuol</i>)
Users in common	- Children and youth (<i>bambin, ragazz</i>)	
Specific users	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Parents (<i>genitor</i>) - Disabled persons (<i>divers</i>) 	- Gambling addicted persons (<i>gioc</i>)

Finally, we point out that non-traditional students consider the training project more consistent with its actual execution (fig. 22) and themselves lightly more involved in its drawing up (fig. 23).

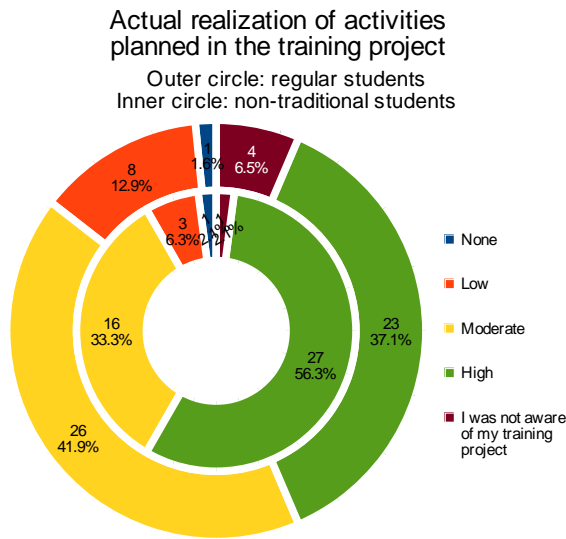


Fig. 22

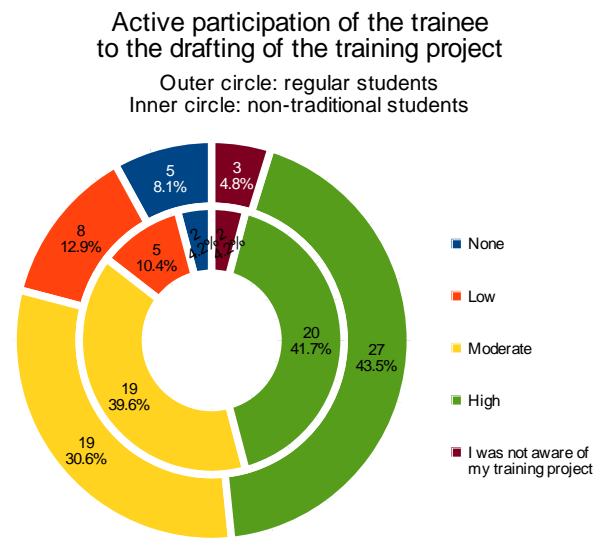


Fig. 23

5. Required and develop competence

Deepening the analysis of activities, we asked to students to state what kind of competence was required to carry out the internship and what skills were mainly developed during the work experience, which, in general, seems to require and promote (and on average it requires a bit more than it promotes) the ability to handle stress, but also the trainee's identification in a professional role within the hosting organization and which appears characterized by weighty components related to problem solving skills, as well as by important asset of communicative and relational skills linked to in presence interaction (Pillera, in Corsini & Strongoli, 2017, pp. 59-77).

With reference to these issues, in tab. 3 we present an analytical comparison between the two categories of students, which we highlight in the list below the major differences in assessing the required and developed skills.

- *Communication skills.* With regard to the need for a foreign language, non-traditional students have a fairer distribution of answers in the top three steps of the scale and, at the same time, they seem to have better developed it, although L2 and computer skills represent the two areas with the most low evaluations in both groups. About the linguistic competence in native language — i.e. oral and written communication skills, to be considered as key factors as previously

stressed —, non-traditional students attach to it higher importance than regular students. In addition, almost half of the non-traditional students evaluate oral expression fairly well developed, unlike regular students, where the top 3 evaluations are almost equally distributed.

- *Autonomy*. Non-traditional students consider skills like organization of work, choice and management of work materials, critical and self-critical ability as more relevant and they perceive their development (especially the first two) significantly major.
- *Organizational ability*. In a framework of substantial homogeneity, we note that non-traditional students feel to a larger extent as highly important the identifying in own role and, at the same time, they state little or nothing developed that capacity to a lesser extent. We also point out that non-traditional students consider their design skills much more developed and they seem more involved in activities that include group management.
- *Social competence*. As we have just seen, the ability to manage a group seems belong slightly more to regular students, nevertheless the ability in team work and in relating to other people (especially this latter) are much more appreciated by non-traditional students, both as a prerequisite of the internship and as one of its best outcomes. Finally, the willingness to appreciate diversity and multiculturalism appears more valued and developed by non-traditional students.
- *Transversal skills*. Though non-traditional students consider the ability to withstand the stress to a lesser extent as very important prerequisite, in spite of this they consider this skill much more developed thanks to the internship, as is the problem solving ability.

Tab. 3 – Required and developed skills in the internship. Percentage data (Tot.: 62 regular and 48 non-traditional students)

	Required					Developed			
	None	Low	Moderate	High		None	Low	Moderate	High
Foreign language	29.2	33.3	31.3	6.3	Non-trad.	52.1	31.3	6.3	10.4
	27.4	53.2	16.1	3.2	Reg.	59.7	32.3	4.8	3.2
Computer skills	18.8	35.4	35.4	10.4	Non-trad.	35.4	45.8	10.4	8.3
	12.9	37.1	38.7	11.3	Reg.	43.5	29	21	6.5
Oral expression	0	0	20.8	79.2	Non-trad.	8.3	14.6	47.9	29.2
	0	3.2	33.9	62.9	Reg.	8.1	22.6	33.9	35.5
Written expression	2.1	16.7	31.3	50	Non-trad.	12.5	31.3	33.3	22.9
	4.8	9.7	46.8	38.7	Reg.	16.1	35.5	30.6	17.7
Organization of work	0	2.1	31.3	66.7	Non-trad.	2.1	12.5	33.3	52.1
	1.6	4.8	32.3	61.3	Reg.	6.5	9.7	43.5	40.3
Choice and management of work materials	0	8.3	35.4	56.3	Non-trad.	4.2	10.4	33.3	52.1
	0	3.2	43.5	53.2	Reg.	6.5	11.3	43.5	38.7
Critical and self-critical ability	0	0	33.3	66.7	Non-trad.	0	6.3	35.4	58.3
	1.6	4.8	30.6	62.9	Reg.	4.8	11.3	29	54.8
Planning and designing	0	6.3	27.1	66.7	Non-trad.	4.2	10.4	20.8	64.6
	1.6	1.6	30.6	66.1	Reg.	8.1	11.3	37.1	43.5
Managing a work group	2.1	10.4	39.6	47.9	Non-trad.	2.1	16.7	31.3	50
	4.8	6.5	33.9	54.8	Reg.	11.3	14.5	30.6	43.5
Identification in own role	0	2.1	22.9	75	Non-trad.	2.1	2.1	33.3	62.5
	0	8.1	24.2	67.7	Reg.	4.8	12.9	21	61.3
Relate to other people	0	0	2.1	97.9	Non-trad.	2.1	2.1	16.7	79.2
	0	1.6	9.7	88.7	Reg.	1.6	9.7	21	67.7
Team work	0	4.2	37.5	58.3	Non-trad.	0	12.5	33.3	54.2
	0	3.2	45.2	51.6	Reg.	4.8	16.1	40.3	38.7
Appreciating diversity and multiculturalism	2.1	2.1	20.8	75	Non-trad.	0	4.2	35.4	60.4
	1.6	8.1	16.1	74.2	Reg.	4.8	14.5	27.4	53.2
Problem solving	0	0	27.1	72.9	Non-trad.	0	2.1	33.3	64.6
	0	3.2	21	75.8	Reg.	6.5	4.8	32.3	56.5
Withstanding stress	0	8.3	35.4	56.3	Non-trad.	0	12.5	35.4	52.1
	0	6.5	27.4	66.1	Reg.	3.2	9.7	40.3	46.8

The framework just explored suggests that, as a rule, non-traditional students in internship consider the skills outlined in the questionnaire as needed and developed to a greater extent than regular students.

6. Learning retrospectives and perspectives

A series of items in the questionnaire suggest a reflection on the relationship between internship and university, trying to explore the organizational aspects, the coherence of the two learning experiences, the impact of the internship on the university study, the usefulness of the internship in terms of vocational guidance and placing. In this section, the non-traditional students assert slightly more than regular ones to receive study materials (respectively 50% and 43.8%), which are also judged more useful (fig. 24). Besides, regular students, compared with non-traditional ones, suffer fairly more the organizational modes of the internship, complaining about too short internship time to a larger extent (fig. 25) and reporting a total lack of planning in almost 1 case out of 5, a changeability of the required contribution on the basis of the daily needs in above 3 cases out of 10 and a clear planning of the internship activities in less than half the cases (fig. 26). Also about the evaluation of the usefulness of the university courses with regard to the internship (fig. 27), the differences between non-traditional and regular students look quite marked, especially on the second (low) and on the last step (high) of the scale. With opposite trend, the influence of the internship on dissertation is lower among the non-traditional students (fig. 28).

Usefulness of possibly provided study materials (excluding empty answers)

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

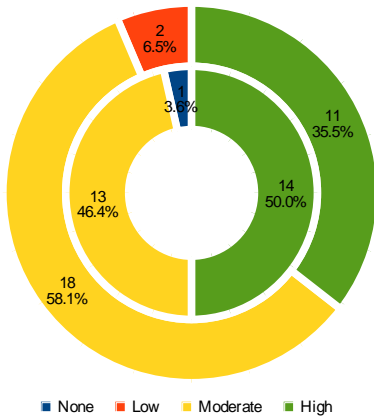


Fig. 24

Sufficient time to develop the training project

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

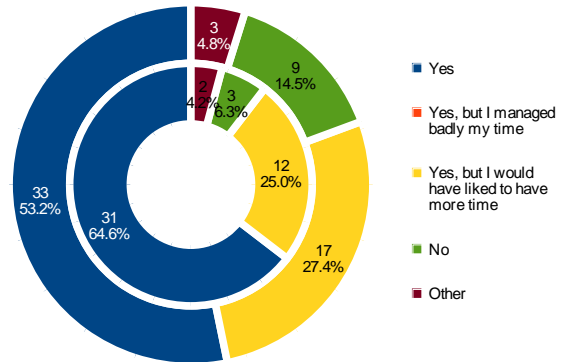


Fig. 25

Organizational modes of the internship

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

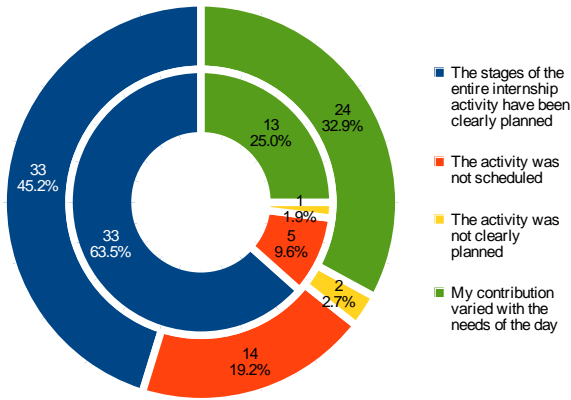


Fig. 26

Usefulness of the university courses with regard to the internship

Outer circle: regular students
Inner circle: non-traditional students

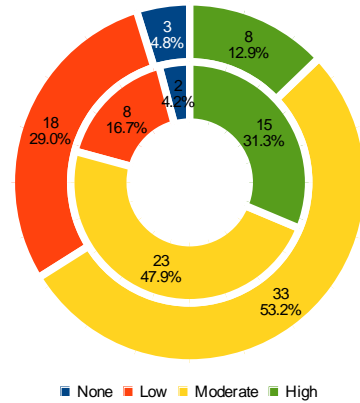


Fig. 27

We have to consider also the overall assessment of the internship with regard to students' learning path (fig. 29), where the differences between the two groups appear more blurred but nevertheless appreciable, particularly on the second (low) and the last step (high) of the scale, suggesting that non-traditional students consider the internship more consistent with their studies, as strengthened also, in another item, by a lower

highlighting of university background gaps during the internship (14.6% vs 24.2% marked by regular students).

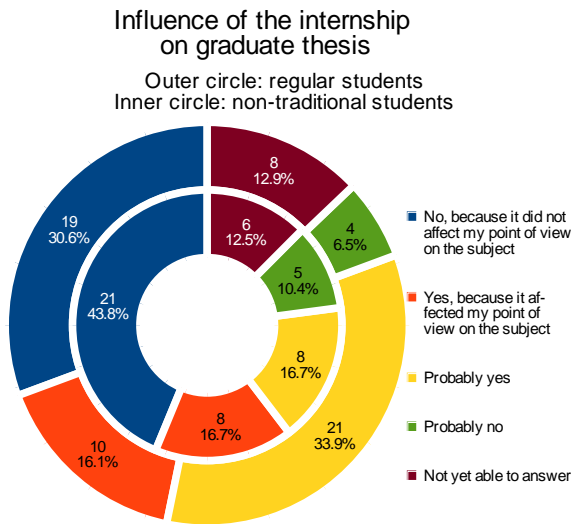


Fig. 28

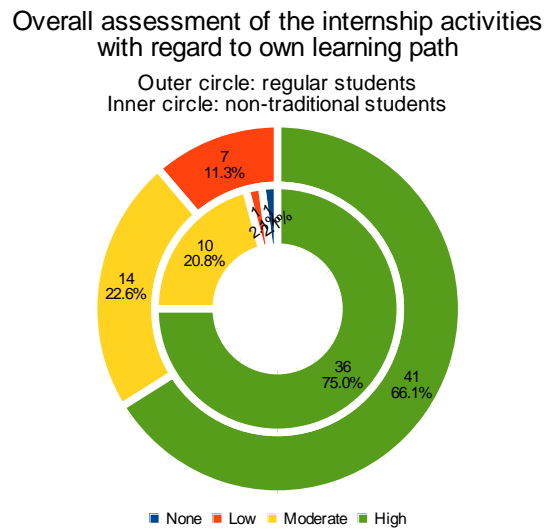
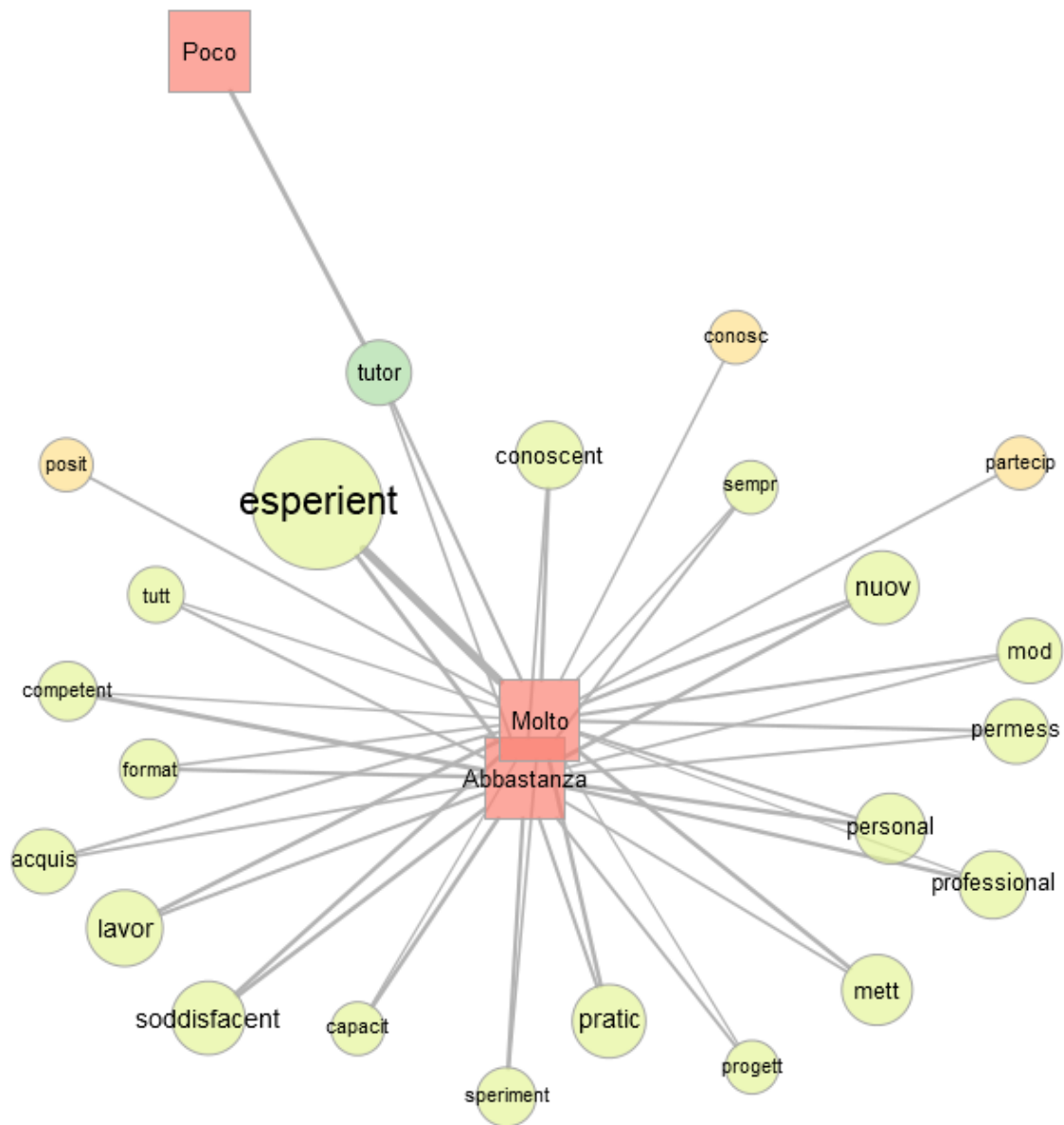


Fig. 29

With reference to non-traditional students, the co-occurrence network analysis illustrated in fig. 30 — that matches the assessment of the internship concerning students' learning path (fig. 29) with its textual explanations — shows the outstanding role of the tutor (linked to both low and high judgments) and suggests the majority reasons for the highest evaluation: the value of the experience in terms of knowledge (*conosc*, *conoscent*) and participation (*partecip*).

Fig. 30: Network diagram of top 50 co-occurrences of morphemes with $f \geq 5$ (with exclusion of *attivit*, *tirocin*) in the non-traditional students' explanation of assessment of the internship activities with regard to own learning process, matched with the answers in fig. 29.



Lastly, in suggestions to solve possible problems and difficulties, even if the answers are few, the two groups present some similarities, and specifically the request to increase the hours of internship and/or reduce the number of examinations (in order to improve the participation and the meaningfulness of the experience), but also broad differences (fig. 31). Indeed, non-traditional students give, from one hand, lesser weight to university grounding oriented to some types of users (in particular interview techniques and clinical pedagogy) and especially lesser importance to improving tutor's support; from another hand, they assign a greater weight to improving communication and sharing goals

between university (internship office, teachers) and companies (bureaucratic problems and, once again, risk of inconsistency between internship and university path).

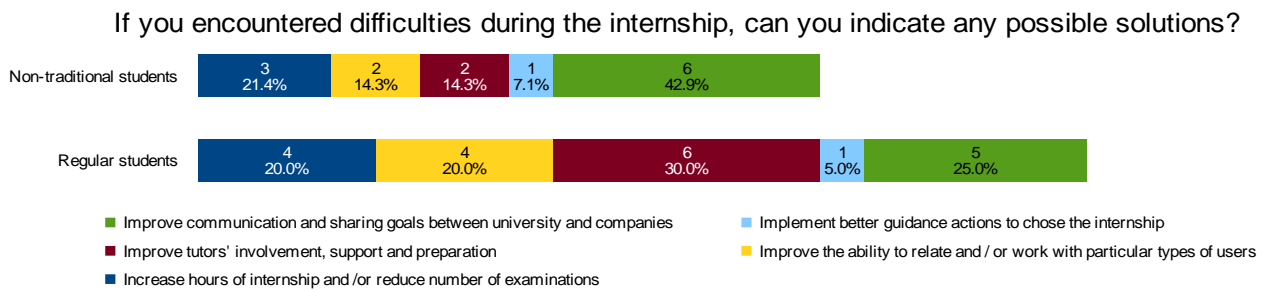


Fig. 31

7. Conclusions

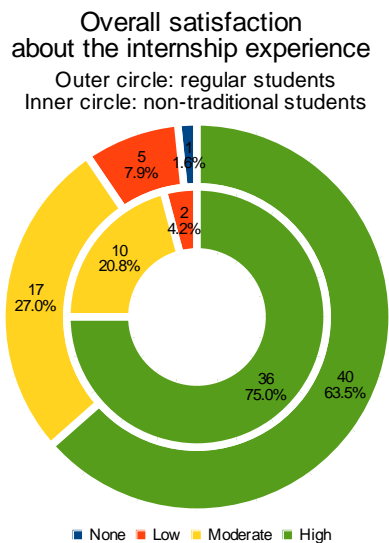


Fig. 32

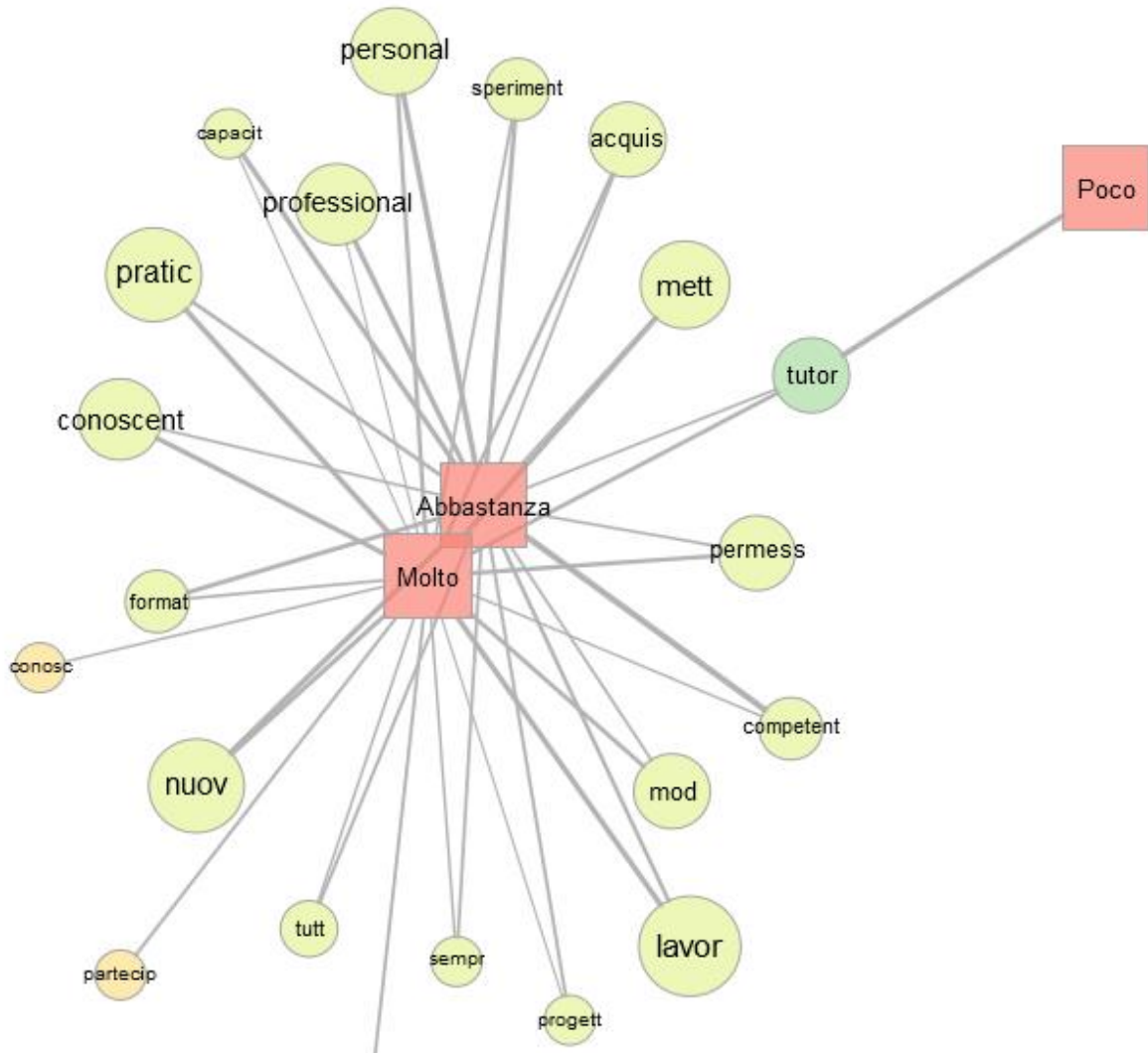
Although the differences between the two groups of students, examined in the previous paragraphs, emerge sometimes no distinctly, nevertheless it appears quite clearly that non-traditional students face and live the internship experience more serenely and more optimistically. This seems to impact positively the relationships established on the workplace, the developed competence and the sensation of being in an unbroken and consistent path between the university

and the labour market (with a feeble reflection also in the placement: 29.2% of them, vs 22.6% of regular students, receive a post-internship job proposal).

Of course, the aforesaid landscape affects the level of gratification, e.g. only 4.2% of non-traditional students (vs 12.9% of regular ones) would not recommend the internship experience to other classmate at university; besides the diagram in fig. 32 reinforces the opinion that they are generally more satisfied with the internship. In the co-occurrence network diagrams in fig. 33, used to analyze the explanation of overall satisfaction, the

key role of the tutor emerges once again, as well as the complexity of the factors at play that we tried to bring to light in this paper.

Fig.33: Network diagram of top 60 co-occurrences of morphemes with $f \geq 5$ (with exclusion of esperient, tirocin, soddisfacent) in the non-traditional students' explanation of overall assessment of the internship, matched with the answers in fig. 32.



Paradoxically, non-traditional, which would be expected to be a problematic students' category, provides interesting insights (to be further explored through case studies, in-depth interviews, etc.) to improve the experience of regular ones. Actually, next qualitative and quantitative investigations could clarify whether the more positive orientation of non-traditional students is due to differences in expectations or propensity to criticism, or to a different maturity, with its background of learning and training paths

and/or possible previous work experiences. At the moment, on the basis of the collected material, we can resume as follow the main proposals to improve still further the internship experience, in particular for non-traditional students:

1. Improving the consistency between the Master Degree and the real work environment, providing more in-context knowledge and teaching strategies (e.g. case histories, simulations, laboratory, task based activities) able to reduce the noticed gap theory-practice, especially with regard to diagnostic tools (interview techniques, administration of test) and clinical techniques (for mental disability, autism, learning difficulties), but also to communication/rapport with particular groups of users (gambling and drug addicted persons, social deprived persons).
2. Furnishing more and better vocational guidance for a more conscious choice of both the sector and the specific organization where to carry out the internship and involving more the students in sharing the goals and the methods of activity so to promote responsibility and engagement.
3. Deepening the connections between the University and the institutions in agreement, paying special attention to the relationship and, possibly, the training of the persons that will assume the role of tutors and maintaining a constant communication with both organizations and students, controlling that the activities effectively carried out are the same of the project or, in any case, consistent with the role of the trainees.
4. Promoting career services to support students in their search for employment after the internship, also exploiting the developed assets and contacts.

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SECTION 3

INMIGRANTS AND REFUGEES

CHAPTER 6

Training for the labour inclusion of refugees: a response from the university.

Formación para la inclusión laboral de refugiados: una respuesta desde la universidad.

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Rafael M. Hernández-Carrera - International University of La Rioja, Spain

Introducción

Durante los últimos años se ha producido un incremento exponencial de los movimientos migratorios. Además miles de personas se han visto obligadas a cruzar fronteras para escapar de la guerra o de distintos conflictos armados. Debido a esta situación han aparecido nuevas necesidades sociales relacionadas con estas personas en los países de destino: nutrición, vivienda y por supuesto un modo de ganarse la vida para poder comenzar de nuevo. En otras palabras, un empleo que permita a esas personas alquilar una casa, alimentar a sus familias y construir un nuevo proyecto de vida. A través de este proyecto de formación tratamos de dar respuesta a esta necesidad de empleo mediante una propuesta de alianza o *partenariado* entre la Universidad y diferentes organismos internacionales de acogida de refugiados como el Programa de Acogida Temporal de Refugiados de Cruz Roja Internacional. De cara a conseguir esta meta se propone la realización de un programa de formación en habilidades enfocado en la inclusión laboral y dirigido a refugiados, de manera que puedan adquirir herramientas que le ayuden a conseguir un empleo. En este entorno, la universidad y los distintos actores sociales propuestos tienen la oportunidad de posibilitar el tránsito de estas personas hacia la normalización de sus vidas mediante la consecución de un empleo. Durante la fase de diagnóstico se han detectado necesidades como la comunicación con otras personas, como adaptarse y actuar en distintas circunstancias, autoconfianza, como conocer a los otros y a sí mismo, y cómo estar preparados para encontrar un trabajo. De cara a afrontar estas necesidades el proyecto se centra en trabajar las habilidades sociales ya que son

capaces de incrementar e impulsar las posibilidades de construir relaciones satisfactorias, sentirse bien con los demás y aprender a comunicarse. Todas estas necesidades resultan necesarias para alcanzar la meta de conseguir un empleo.

1. Fundamentación

A lo largo de los últimos años el número de personas que se ha visto inmerso en flujos migratorios se ha incrementado drásticamente. Muchas personas se han visto obligadas a dejar sus países en busca de nuevas oportunidades debido a la pobreza o la desigualdad en las condiciones de vida. Muchas otras, han dejado sus hogares a causa de conflictos, persecuciones, violaciones de sus derechos o por una violencia generalizada. En estos casos, las personas huyen a otros países en busca de refugio y leyes que los protejan en el ámbito internacional.

El primer instrumento que contempló la vida de las personas refugiadas fue la Convención de Ginebra sobre el Estatuto de los Refugiados, adoptada el 28 de julio de 1951 en Ginebra, y entrando el vigor el 22 de abril de 1954. Constituyó la fundación de la protección internacional, definió qué era un refugiado y estableció los derechos y obligaciones de los mismos así como las obligaciones por parte de los estados. Son 142 países los que la forman, y están obligados a cumplir las disposiciones. Aun así, aunque un país no haya firmado la Convención, tiene la obligación de respetar el principio de no devolución al país de origen de una persona que teme ser perseguida, por lo tanto ningún gobierno puede expulsar a una persona que esté en esta situación.

Los términos “refugiado” y “solicitante de asilo” a menudo son confundidos:

Un **refugiado** es una persona que,

debido a fundados temores de ser perseguida por motivos de raza, religión, nacionalidad, pertenencia a un determinado grupo social u opiniones políticas, se encuentre fuera del país de su nacionalidad y no pueda o, a causa de dichos temores, no quiera acogerse a la protección de su país; o que careciendo de nacionalidad y hallándose, a consecuencia de tales acontecimientos fuera del país donde antes tuviera su residencia habitual, no pueda o, a causa de dichos temores no quiera regresar a él. (ONU, 1951, p. 2).

Solicitante de asilo, según ACNUR (1970) es aquella persona que solicita ser reconocido como refugiado, y cuya solicitud no ha sido evaluada de forma definitiva.

La protección internacional debe asegurar que los refugiados van a ser protegidos en el país de asilo. Por ello, los Estados tienen la obligación de no expulsar ni devolver a los refugiados o solicitantes de asilo a cualquier país donde puedan correr peligro. A su vez, no pueden establecer discriminaciones y deben garantizar el acceso a sus derechos económicos y sociales.

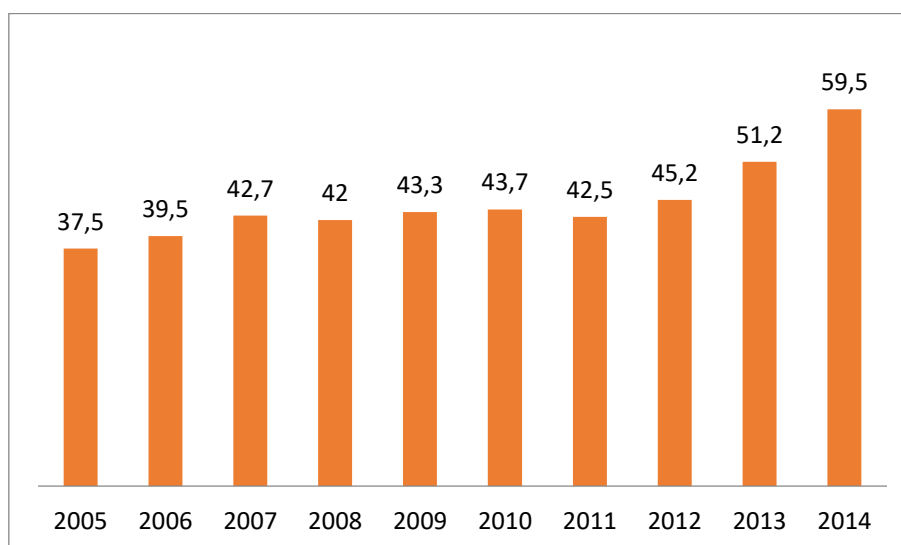
1.1. Datos geográficos a nivel internacional y nacional

El desplazamiento forzado ha aumentado exponencialmente en 2015.

al término del año, había 65,3 millones de personas desplazadas forzosamente en todo el mundo a consecuencia de la persecución, los conflictos, la violencia generalizada o las violaciones de derechos humanos. Esto son 5,8 millones de personas más que el año anterior (59,5 millones). [...] Más de la mitad (el 54%) de los refugiados del mundo procedía de tres países: la República Árabe Siria (4,9 millones), Afganistán (2,7 millones) y Somalia (1,1 millones) (ACNUR, 2016, p. 2).

En el siguiente gráfico se puede apreciar lo comentado anteriormente:

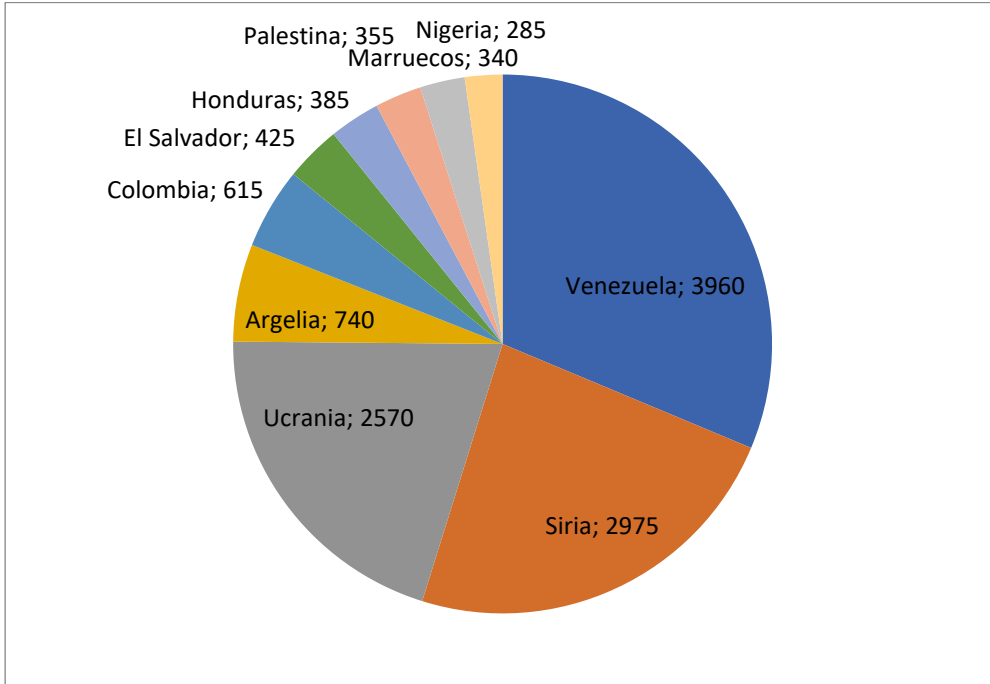
Figura 1: Aumento del número de desplazados por la guerra en millones



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de ACNUR (2016)

En España los principales países de origen de las personas solicitantes de asilo, según CEAR (2016) son:

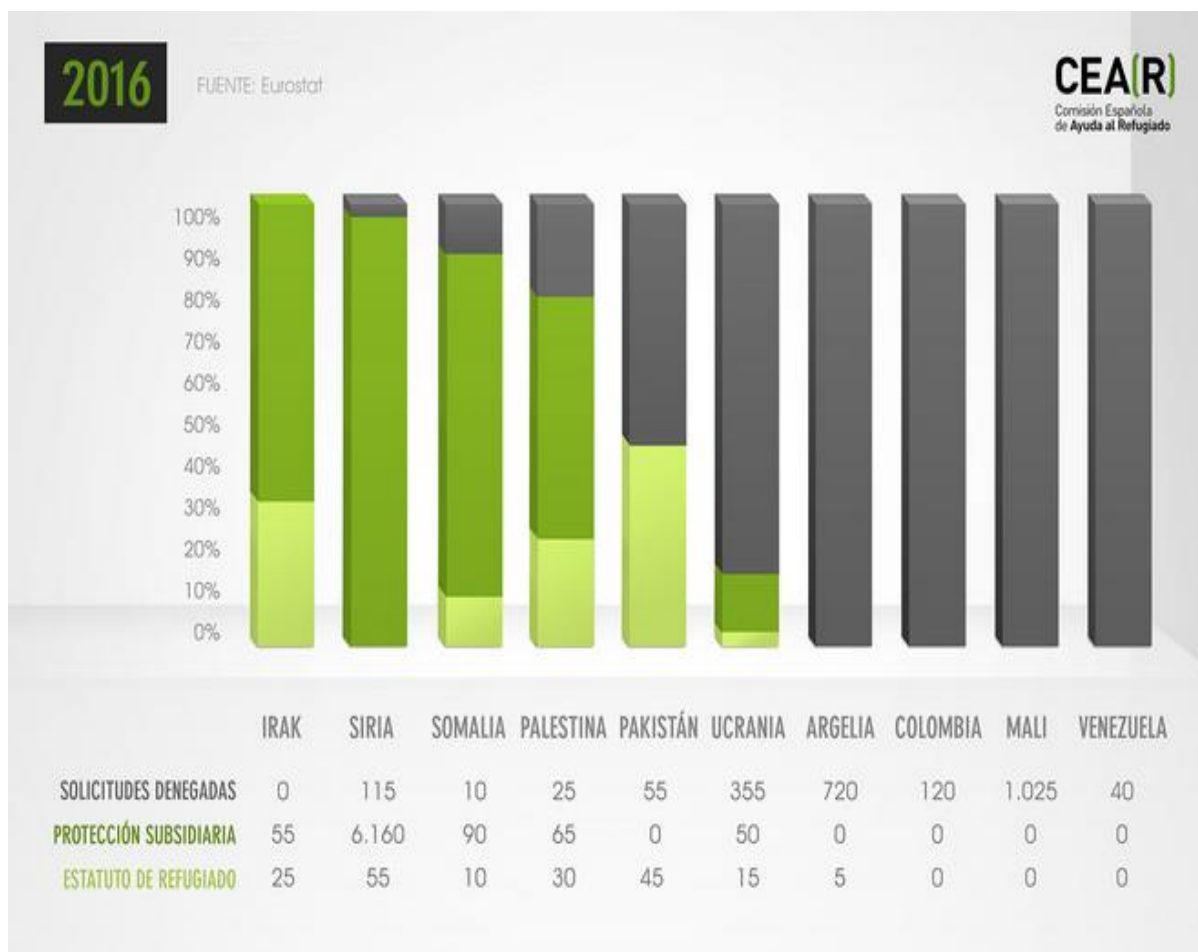
Figura 2: Solicitantes de protección internacional en España por nacionalidad



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de CEAR (Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado, 2016)

Pero el reconocimiento de protección internacional es muy inferior al de solicitantes. Como podemos ver en la figura 3, Irak, Siria y Somalia son los países de procedencia de la mayoría de personas a las que se les reconoce la protección internacional.

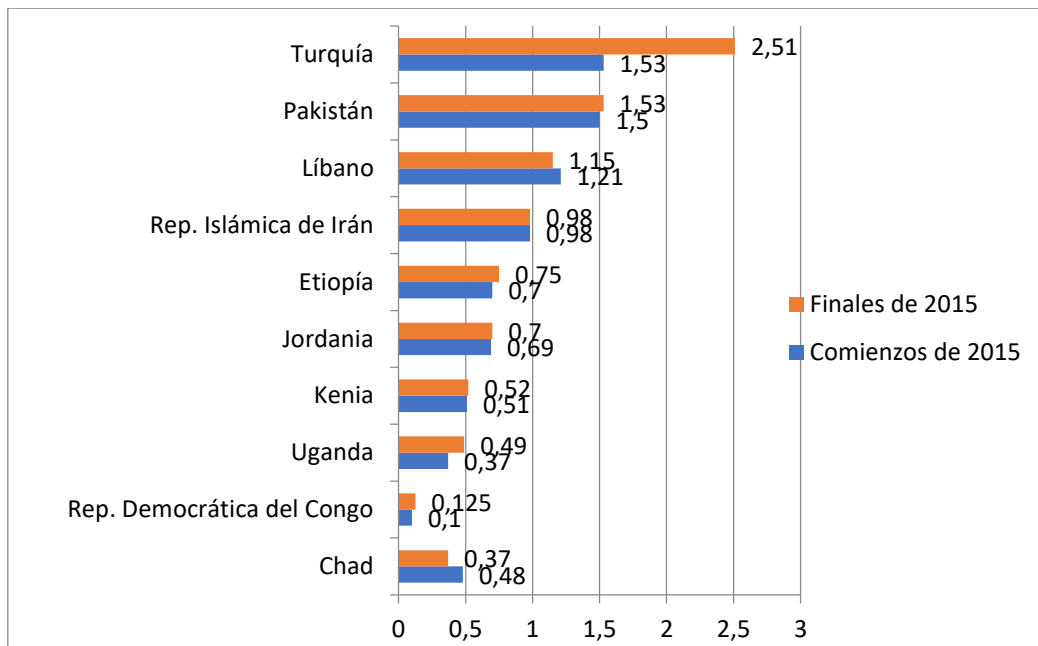
Figura 3. Reconocimiento de la protección internacional en España por nacionalidad



Fuente: CEAR (2016)

Los principales países de acogida a refugiados en los años 2014 y 2015 fueron Turquía, Pakistán, Líbano, República Islámica de Irán, Etiopía y Jordania. Esto tiene una doble lectura: por una parte son países que “acogen” muchas personas, pero también puede ser visto como una externalización de este deber en terceros países con escasas garantías jurídicas. En la figura 4 podemos ver el número de acogidos en los distintos países.

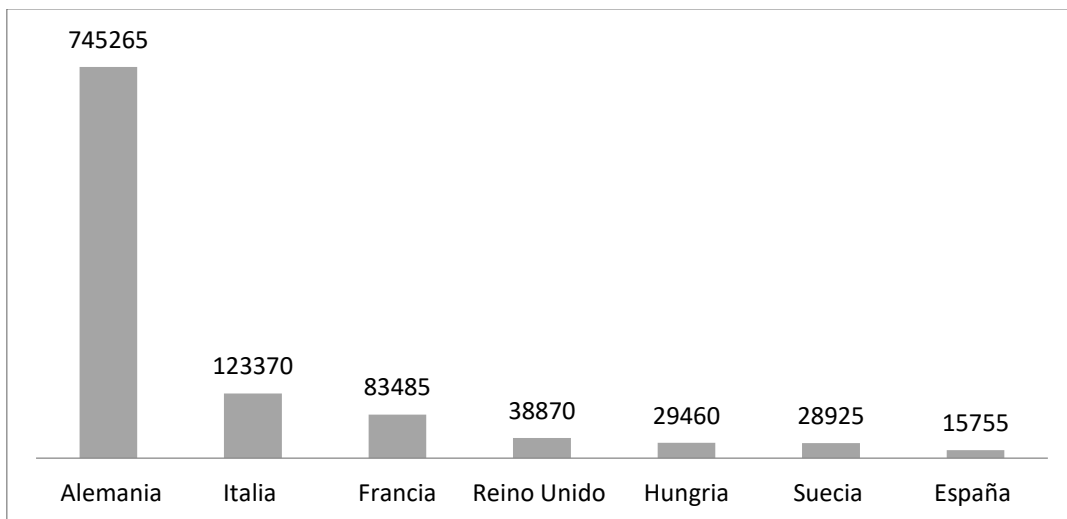
Figura 4. Principales países que acogen a refugiados 2014-2015 en millones



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de ACNUR (2016)

En cuanto a la Unión Europea, en 2016 el número de solicitudes de protección internacional fueron 1.259.265. El principal país que recibió solicitudes de asilo fue Alemania, con un total de 745.265 solicitudes, seguido de Italia con 123.370 solicitudes.

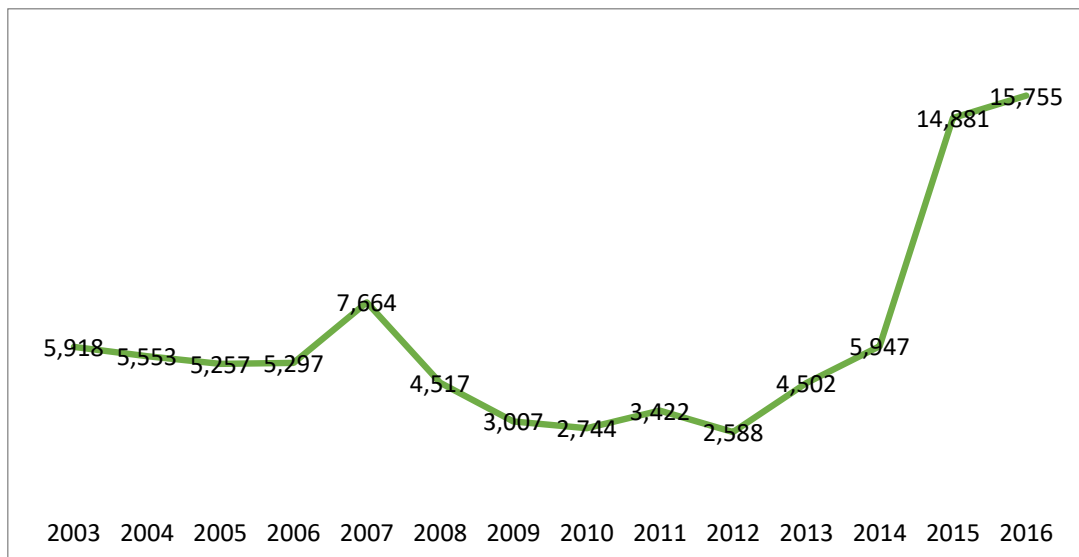
Figura 5: Solicitudes de protección internacional en la Unión Europea



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de Eurostat y CEAR (2016)

En España, la situación es diferente. Según CEAR (2016), en España durante 2016 se recibieron 15.755 solicitudes de asilo.

Figura 6: Evolución de solicitantes de protección internacional España



Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de Ministerio del Interior (2016)

Como establece la Red Europea de Migraciones (2009), “los solicitantes de asilo y los refugiados tienen reconocido el derecho de acceso a programas sociales. Algunos de ellos se resumen en el siguiente cuadro” (p. 48):

Tabla 1. Acceso a programas sociales

Solicitantes de asilo	Refugiados
- Alojamiento en centros de acogida	- Integración socio laboral
- Ayuda económica para alojamiento y manutención	- Ayudas de acceso a la vivienda
- Asistencia sanitaria	- Formación educativa y profesional
- Asesoramiento legal	- Servicio de interpretación y traducción
- Servicio de interpretación y traducción	- Ayudas de emergencia
- Retorno o reasentamiento	- Ayudas a ancianos y discapacitados
- Ayudas de emergencia	- Reagrupación familiar
- Otras ayudas	- Retorno y reasentamiento

Fuente: Red Europea de Migraciones (2009)

Estos programas sociales son ofrecidos por organizaciones no gubernamentales que trabajan con este colectivo. Las más importantes son Cruz Roja Española, CEAR (Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado) y ACCEM (Asociación Católica Española de Migraciones).

1.2. Refugiados y empleo

Uno de los principales problemas a los que se enfrentan las personas refugiadas cuando llegan a España es la dificultad para encontrar un empleo, debido a diferentes factores: discriminación por razón de etnia, género, poco dominio del lenguaje, no reconocimiento de los títulos universitarios que disponían en sus países de origen u otros; y a la gran tasa de desempleo que atraviesa el país. Sin embargo, la mayoría de estas personas están muy preparadas para desempeñar un trabajo. ACNUR realizó una encuesta en diciembre de 2015, y halló que, de las personas entrevistadas, el 86% tenía un alto nivel educativo, habían finalizado secundaria o los estudios universitarios.

A pesar de esto, se han detectado prácticas discriminatorias en los procesos de inserción laboral. Todo esto hace que se encuentren en una situación de desigualdad respecto al resto. Además, a esto hay que sumarle que, en muchas ocasiones, no se reconoce la formación que adquirieron estas personas en sus países de origen. Asimismo, hay que tener en cuenta que, en la actualidad, para acceder al mercado laboral se valoran muchas más cosas a parte del título académico; ahora es necesaria una preparación y formación que permitan la adquisición de estrategias, competencias y habilidades para responder eficazmente a esta actividad socio-laboral. Es decir, es necesaria la adquisición de unas habilidades sociales. Esta importancia radica en que las habilidades sociales capacitan a las personas a ejecutar tareas concretas de forma exitosa. También aumentan nuestras posibilidades de mantener relaciones satisfactorias con los demás, sentirnos bien con nosotros mismos y/o a aprender a comunicarnos.

1.3. Reflexiones sobre lo tratado

Las experiencias por las que pasan las personas refugiadas suponen un gran impacto psicosocial en sus condiciones de vida. La constante exposición a la guerra, violencia,

violaciones o muerte constituye un trauma en sus vidas. Esto, muchas veces, les supone grandes problemas de adaptación e integración social.

Los educadores sociales y demás profesionales que trabajan con ellos, deben potenciar su empoderamiento, mediante diversas intervenciones donde se valore la adecuada resolución de problemas y las habilidades sociales de cada uno, de manera individual y personalizada. Además, deben considerar sus necesidades e intentar paliarlas.

La preparación para el empleo es una manera de empoderar a estas personas, fomentar su autonomía, y, a su vez, paliar vacíos laborales en el país de destino.

2. Análisis de la realidad

Para poder ejecutar el proyecto de intervención, es necesario contar con unas variables para poder analizar la realidad social en que se va a desarrollar y conocer la verdadera necesidad de los destinatarios. Para conocer estos elementos vamos a utilizar diferentes técnicas de recogida de información, como son la observación, la entrevista y el diario de campo.

2.1. Descripción del contexto

El proyecto de intervención se pretende desarrollar se realizaría en coordinación entre Cruz Roja Sevilla, en el “Programa Integral de Acogida e Integración de las personas solicitantes y beneficiarias de Protección Internacional”, y la Universidad Pablo de Olavide.

El programa mencionado pertenece al plan de Intervención social, y es un proyecto de intervención social integral y multidisciplinar que pretende facilitar y promover la autonomía personal de cada beneficiario teniendo en cuenta las principales dificultades que enfrentan las personas solicitantes de protección internacional, con el objetivo general de dotarles de habilidades personales y herramientas que les permitan alcanzar la autonomía y la inserción en la sociedad de acogida.

En cuanto a la Universidad Pablo de Olavide, dicho proyecto se propone como un curso de formación sobre orientación laboral para las personas refugiadas o solicitantes de asilo que se llevaría a cabo en la Universidad Pablo de Olavide.

De esta forma, la integración en el ámbito académico y laboral estará cubierta desde la universidad. Este proyecto es innovador, ya que es un servicio que no se ha ofrecido hasta el momento en la Universidad Pablo de Olavide, y además, es un proyecto que aprovecha los recursos de la propia universidad para empoderar a las personas refugiadas y cubrir sus necesidades.

En cuanto a los destinatarios, va dirigido a personas solicitantes de asilo o aquellas que han sido reconocidas con el estatuto de refugiadas. Con este proyecto, se pretende cubrir las carencias en ámbitos laborales de estas personas y ayudarles a integrarse laboralmente en la sociedad de acogida.

3. Proyecto de intervención

Atendiendo a las necesidades planteadas durante el análisis de la realidad, se va a desarrollar un proyecto de intervención con el objetivo de cubrir las mismas.

3.1. Objetivos generales y específicos

Objetivo general (G1):

- G1: Proporcionar conocimientos y herramientas que favorezcan la inserción laboral.

Objetivos específicos (E1, E2, E3)

- E1: Impulsar el desarrollo de competencias y habilidades socio-laborales.
- E2: Fomentar el autoconocimiento y descubrimiento personal para potenciar los recursos personales.
- E3: Promover la adquisición de competencias y actitudes que permitan mejorar las habilidades sociales de las personas beneficiarias del proyecto.

3.2. Metodología de las acciones

En cuanto a las actividades que se van a realizar con las personas refugiadas, la metodología predominante será flexible, activa, participativa y experiencial. Se pretende,

a través de las diferentes dinámicas, la mayor interacción y participación entre los participantes, haciendo así posible la adquisición del aprendizaje.

Con respecto a los principios metodológicos en los que nos basamos para planificar las actividades del proyecto, destacamos la importancia de garantizar la relación con la vida real de las actividades de enseñanza-aprendizaje, partiendo, siempre que sea posible, de experiencias y emociones vividas y sentidas por los participantes, ya que así será más fácil llevarlas a cabo y serán mucho más realistas. Será primordial impulsar las relaciones entre iguales con la finalidad de crear un clima de aceptación y cooperación mutua. No debemos olvidar que debemos tener siempre en cuenta la situación individual y social de cada una de las personas a las que va dirigida la formación.

De manera general, en las actividades que se llevarán a cabo se dará una atención tanto individualizada como grupal.

Durante el transcurso de las actividades, el/la profesional que imparta el curso, deberá tener en cuenta la barrera y dificultades idiomáticas, adaptándose en cada caso a los usuarios y a las dudas de los mismos.

Se darán una serie de actividades, cada una de ellas en distintas semanas, y éstas se realizarán una tarde en semana durante una hora.

3.3. Plan de intervención

Las actividades están divididas en cuatro bloques, en función de las cuatro sesiones que se van a plantear. Cada una de estas sesiones tiene una temática diferente, pero siempre van en la línea de lo planteado las semanas anteriores y de lo que queremos transmitir a los participantes. Además, cada una de estas sesiones cuenta con diversas actividades.

Lo que tendrán en común todas las sesiones será que, la primera de las actividades será una actividad de presentación, para poder conocernos todos mejor y romper el hielo.

Primera sesión

La primera sesión va a consistir en descubrir la vocación de las personas participantes en el proyecto, para poder partir de una base a la hora de trabajar.

- Presentación del curso (1 hora)

ACTIVIDAD 1	
TÍTULO	“Encuentra a tu mitad”
OBJETIVOS	Los miembros del grupo se conozcan entre sí.
DURACIÓN	15 minutos
DESARROLLO	A cada persona se le da un dibujo en un trozo de papel partido por la mitad, y tienen que buscar a su otra mitad. Una vez encontrado, cada pareja tiene que hablar entre ellos durante 5 minutos, y deben contar cosas de su vida (Por ejemplo: cómo se llaman, qué han estudiado, de dónde son, etc.). Pasados los cinco minutos, cada miembro de la pareja presenta a su compañero al resto del grupo.
RECURSOS	Dibujos

- Descubre tu vocación

ACTIVIDAD 2	
TÍTULO	“Descubre tu vocación”
OBJETIVOS	Los participantes descubran sus gustos y se orienten laboralmente.
DURACIÓN	30 minutos
DESARROLLO	Primero: A cada persona se le reparte un cuestionario (Anexo 1) y deberán rellenarlo al completo, pensando cada una de las preguntas. Segundo: Una vez rellenas todas las preguntas, le entregan los test a la persona que está realizando el curso para que proceda al análisis. Tercera: En la siguiente sesión, se compartirán los resultados.
RECURSOS	Cuestionario “Descubre tu vocación” (Anexo 1), bolígrafos.

Segunda sesión

En la segunda sesión se van a llevar a cabo diversas actividades sobre la temática de habilidades sociales para las personas participantes en el proyecto. Entre las principales actividades que vamos a trabajar, se encuentran la empatía, el autoconocimiento y la resolución pacífica de conflictos.

Debemos destacar que, aunque las habilidades sociales se trabajen solo en la segunda sesión, es un tema transversal que ha de tenerse en cuenta a lo largo de todas las actividades del proyecto.

- Presentación:

ACTIVIDAD 3	
TÍTULO	“Naranja-limón”
OBJETIVOS	Los miembros del grupo se conozcan entre sí y recuerden los nombres.
DURACIÓN	10 minutos
DESARROLLO	<p>El grupo se sienta en sillas formando un círculo, y en medio se queda una persona. La persona que se ha quedado en el medio, tiene que acercarse a sus compañeros y preguntarles naranja o limón.</p> <p>Si pregunta naranja, la persona que ha sido preguntada debe decir el nombre de la persona que está sentada a su derecha; si en cambio, pregunta limón, debe decir el nombre de la persona sentada a su izquierda. La respuesta debe ser rápida.</p> <p>Cuando la persona que sea preguntada se equivoca en el nombre de sus compañeros, pasa al centro.</p> <p>Si la persona que está en medio dice macedonia, todas las personas deben cambiarse de sitio. Hay que tener en cuenta que siempre va a quedar una en el medio, que es la que se quede sin silla.</p>
RECURSOS	Sillas

- Empatía:

ACTIVIDAD 4	
TÍTULO	“¿Qué harías en mi lugar?”
OBJETIVOS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promover la búsqueda de soluciones a diferentes conflictos. - Ponerse en la situación del otro cuando se encuentra en una determinada situación.
DURACIÓN	15 minutos

DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: Se le reparte a cada persona un folio y un bolígrafo. En ese folio, de manera anónima, debe describir un conflicto en el que se haya visto inmerso.</p> <p>Segundo: Cada conflicto será repartido a otra persona diferente a la que lo ha escrito.</p> <p>Tercero: Cada uno leerá en voz alta el conflicto que se le ha asignado y deberá buscar una solución realista.</p>
RECURSOS	Papel y bolígrafo

- Autoconocimiento:

ACTIVIDAD 5	
TÍTULO	“¿Qué pensáis de mí?”
OBJETIVOS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expresar a cada miembro del grupo qué aspectos positivos posee. - Conocer qué concepto tiene cada participante de uno mismo.
DURACIÓN	10 minutos
DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: Se le reparte a cada persona un papel, una cuerda y un bolígrafo. El papel se lo deben colocar en la espalda con la cuerda colgada al cuello, de manera que no ven lo que se les escribirá.</p> <p>Segundo: Todos los miembros del grupo deben escribirse entre ellos aspectos positivos que piensan de los demás.</p> <p>Tercero: Cuando todos hayan escrito en los papeles de sus compañeros, se quitarán el papel y verán qué piensan los demás de ellos.</p> <p>Cuarto: Cada uno debe leer en voz alta lo que le han escrito e intentar adivinar quién ha sido.</p>
RECURSOS	Papel, bolígrafos y cuerda.

- Resolución de conflictos:

ACTIVIDAD 6	
TÍTULO	“El peso de la culpabilidad”
OBJETIVOS	Saber cómo nos sentimos cuando no pedimos perdón.
DURACIÓN	20 minutos

DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: A cada persona se le da algún objeto de peso y se les pide que lo sostengan a la altura de sus hombros todo el tiempo que puedan.</p> <p>Segundo: Cuando empiecen a bajar los brazos se les pregunta:</p> <p>¿Fue difícil sostener el peso levantado?</p> <p>¿Cómo te sentiste cuando el objeto se volvió más pesado?</p> <p>¿Se parece a la sensación que tenemos cuando hemos hecho daño a alguien y no le hemos pedido perdón?</p> <p>¿Cómo te sentiste al bajar el objeto?</p> <p>¿Se parece a la sensación que tenemos cuando pedimos perdón?</p>
RECURSOS	Objetos pesados

Tercera sesión

Esta tercera sesión se basará en las técnicas para la búsqueda de empleo.

- Presentación

ACTIVIDAD 7	
TITULO	“La fiesta”
OBJETIVOS	Que todos los participantes conozcan y sean capaces de recordar los nombres de los otros compañeros.
DURACIÓN	15 minutos.
DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: los participantes se colocan en círculo.</p> <p>Segundo: Comienza una persona diciendo su nombre y lo que llevaría a una fiesta. Por ejemplo: “Me llamo Jaime y llevo la tarta”.</p> <p>Tercero: Todos los participantes deben repetir todo lo que han dicho sus compañeros y por último, decir sus nombres y lo que ellos llevarían a la fiesta. No se puede repetir.</p>
RECURSOS	

- Conocimiento sobre el mercado laboral

ACTIVIDAD 8	
TITULO	“Conociendo el mercado laboral”
OBJETIVOS	Conocer el funcionamiento del mercado laboral español.
DURACIÓN	40 minutos.
DESARROLLO	Esta actividad va a consistir en informar a los participantes sobre el funcionamiento del mercado laboral. Esto se realizará de manera teórica y apoyándonos en un Power Point.

RECURSOS	Ordenador, Power point.
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Cuarta sesión

En esta sesión, seguiremos trabajando sobre las técnicas de búsqueda de empleo, profundizando más en ellas una vez conocido el mercado laboral.

- Presentación

ACTIVIDAD 9	
TITULO	“Los gestos”
OBJETIVOS	Romper el hielo
DURACIÓN	5 minutos.
DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: Los participantes se colocarán en un círculo.</p> <p>Segundo: Saldrá uno de ellos al círculo, dirá su nombre, y hará un gesto o una acción, como por ejemplo, una palmada.</p> <p>Tercero: todos los participantes deben repetir ese gesto.</p> <p>Cuarto: Salen todos los participantes y repiten la misma acción. No se pueden repetir los gestos.</p>
RECURSOS	

- Técnicas de búsqueda de empleo

ACTIVIDAD 10	
TITULO	“Currículum y carta de presentación”
OBJETIVOS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conocer qué es un Currículum Vitae y una carta de presentación. - Aprender a elaborar un Currículum Vitae y una carta de presentación.
DURACIÓN	50 minutos.
DESARROLLO	<p>Primero: Para comenzar, se les enseñará varios ejemplos de Currículums y cartas de presentación.</p> <p>Segundo: Una vez que han visto varios ejemplos, se recalcará las partes principales que deben llevar un currículum y una carta de presentación.</p> <p>Tercero: A partir de los ejemplos y de las siguientes preguntas, serán ellos quienes tengan que hacer su propio currículum y carta de presentación:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ¿Qué estudios tengo? • ¿Qué sé hacer? • Experiencia laboral <p>Cuarto: Una vez diseñado, se mostrará al grupo y entre todos verán los posibles fallos o aciertos de los demás.</p>
RECURSOS	

Quinta sesión

Para finalizar el proyecto, se realizarán varios role play, para que puedan poner en práctica todos los conocimientos impartidos.

- Técnicas de búsqueda de empleo

ACTIVIDAD 11	
TÍTULO	Role Play
OBJETIVOS	- Aprender a desenvolverse en una entrevista de trabajo. - Perder el miedo a hablar en público.
DURACIÓN	40 minutos
DESARROLLO	Primero: En primer lugar, comenzamos explicándoles a los participantes las principales preguntas que se les realizaría en una entrevista de trabajo. Segundo: Por parejas y delante de todos los participantes, se hace un teatro improvisado. Primero un miembro de la pareja hace de entrevistado y después cambian los roles, de manera que todas las personas hagan las dos partes.
RECURSOS	

- Evaluación

ACTIVIDAD 12	
TÍTULO	“¿Qué he aprendido?”
OBJETIVOS	- Evaluar qué han aprendido los participantes en las actividades. - Reflexionar sobre los contenidos trabajados.
DURACIÓN	15 minutos
DESARROLLO	Se colocan tres urnas con los siguientes carteles en cada una de ellas: “Me ha gustado...”; “No me ha gustado...”; “Me gustaría haber hecho...”. Cada participante deberá rellenar un papel correspondiente a cada urna e introducirlo en ella. Cuando todos hayan terminado, se abrirá cada urna y se leerán en voz alta todas las papeletas, haciendo una reflexión grupal sobre las diferentes reflexiones y opiniones, teniendo en cuenta que todas son anónimas.
RECURSOS	Tres cajas, papel y bolígrafo

Conclusiones

A lo largo de este trabajo hemos visto como actualmente se está produciendo el mayor éxodo de personas desde la finalización de la II Guerra Mundial. Como se ha comentado hay más de sesenta millones de personas desplazadas forzosamente que necesitarían reubicarse en el mundo. Una parte fundamental de esa reubicación, tras el reconocimiento legal y administrativo de su situación, es sin duda el acceso a un empleo que a su vez le permita acceder a una vivienda digna y a cubrir las necesidades básicas de su grupo familiar (nutrición, educación, salud...) así como a sus posibilidades de desarrollo personal y social. Tanto la educación como el empleo van de la mano en la consecución de esta meta, erigiéndose aquélla en el ansiado ascensor social que permitirá acceder a éste.

Hemos visto como gran parte de las personas solicitantes de asilo y refugiadas proceden de Oriente Próximo lo cual sitúa a Europa en un destino natural debido a su situación geopolítica. Sin embargo, la respuesta que está dando este continente ha sido erigirse en una fortaleza (CEAR, 2016) inexpugnable para os que tratan de llegar a ella, para lo cual no ha dudado en delegar en Turquía la función más coercitiva.

Gran parte de los solicitantes de asilo y refugiados posee una formación media-alta adquirida en sus países de origen, si bien no es habitualmente reconocida en España. Además necesitan adquirir competencias y habilidades que les permitan responder eficazmente a las demandas socio-laborales, entre ellas las habilidades sociales, que les permitan mantener relaciones satisfactorias con los demás así como aprender a comunicarse. En general se hace necesario un empoderamiento por parte de estas personas que les permita afrontar la búsqueda y consecución de un empleo.

A través de esta propuesta de intervención consistente en una formación específica por parte de la universidad se pretende no sólo dar respuesta a esas necesidades de autonomía personal, habilidades sociales, empoderamiento, etc., sino también permitirles tener un primer contacto con el mundo universitario así como una acreditación documental de estar participando en su formación para el empleo, con el plus de haber cursado esta formación en una universidad a través de un curso de extensión universitaria.

Por tanto se da respuesta al objetivo planteado de poder adquirir conocimientos y herramientas que favorezcan la inserción profesional de estas personas. También se

consigue con esta intervención el objetivo de poder adquirir un autoconocimiento personal importante que permita poner en valor y explotar los recursos personales de estas personas así como la mejora de sus habilidades sociales que, finalmente, redunden en la consecución del tan ansiado empleo.

ANEXOS

Anexo 1: “Descubre tu vocación”

Instrucciones:

1. Lee atentamente cada una de las actividades.
2. Marca con una X en una de las columnas: “me interesa” o “no me interesa”.

Nº	ACTIVIDAD	Me interesa	No me interesa
1	Diseñar programas de computación y explorar nuevas aplicaciones tecnológicas para el uso de Internet		
2	Criar, cuidar y tratar animales domésticos y de campo		
3	Investigar sobre medio ambiente.		
4	Ilustrar, dibujar y animar digitalmente (juegos, logotipos...)		
5	Seleccionar, capacitar y motivar al personal de una organización/empresa.		
6	Realizar excavaciones para descubrir restos del pasado.		
7	Resolver problemas de cálculo para construcciones.		
8	Tocar un instrumento o componer música		
9	Diseñar la producción de artículos como muebles, coches, equipos de oficina...		
10	Organizar eventos y atender a los asistentes.		
11	Atender la salud de las personas.		
12	Hacer experimentos con plantas		
13	Crear planos para las viviendas o edificios.		
14	Investigar sobre productos farmacéuticos		

15	Formular estrategias para crear relacionar entre países.		
16	Pintar, hacer esculturas, etc.		
17	Elaborar campañas para introducir productos al mercado.		
18	Defender a las personas en juicios.		
19	Diseñar máquinas que simulen actividades humanas.		
20	Investigar y tratar los trastornos emocionales y psicológicos.		
21	Aconsejar sobre planes de ahorro o inversiones.		
22	Realizar el control de calidad de los alimentos.		
23	Escribir artículos, libros, novelas, cuentos...		
24	Estudiar la diversidad cultural en el ámbito rural y urbano.		
25	Crear campañas publicitarias.		
26	Gestionar y evaluar proyectos de instituciones sociales o educativas.		
27	Decorar espacios en viviendas, oficinas o locales.		
28	Administrar una empresa.		
29	Diseñar ropa		
30	Investigaciones de organismos para elaborar vacunas.		
31	Conducciones de dispositivos (aviones, barcos, etc.)		
32	Estudiar idiomas extranjeros para traducciones.		
33	Revisar y hacer el mantenimiento de aparatos electrónicos.		
34	Enseñar a niños, jóvenes o adultos.		
35	Reparación y mantenimiento de automóviles.		
36	Realizar proyectos de extracciones minera y metalúrgica.		
37	Realizar fotografías de diferentes ámbitos.		
38	Trabajar en museos o bibliotecas.		
39	Mejorar la imagen de las personas		

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de Goldengberg, M. & Merchán, M. (s.f.)

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CHAPTER 7

Immigrant youths: Between early leaving and continue their studies

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1. Introduction

Interest in immigrants' immediate descendants in Italy grew during recent years (Ambrosini & Molina, 2004; Casacchia *et al.*, 2008; Dalla Zuanna, Farina & Strozza, 2009; Barbagli & Schmoll, 2011), as did the presence of minors of non-Italian origins (Strozza, 2015). However, the attention given to the youngest generations of immigrants has occurred since the late 1980s in specific Italian contexts, such as the first two levels of the educational system, where foreign presence was seen more and more (Strozza, 2015). For several years, intense and constructive debates on multiculturalism have occurred at different levels from the Ministry of Education to regional school offices, to local administrations, to single schools, teachers and social operators. These debates touch on internal organization as well as on curriculum and innovative approaches to education that can be used with pupils from different cultural experiences and backgrounds (Besozzi, Colombo & Santagati, 2013; Demetrio, 1997; Favaro, 2007; 2011; Giovannini, 2006; Ongini, 2011).

The school represents an extraordinary context for socialisation for immediate descendants of immigrants (Strozza, de Filippo & Buonomo, 2014), as well as an important opportunity to acquire the training needed to reach their own professional aspirations and personal and familial social promotion (Strozza & Mussino, 2011). The Italian Ministry of Education, University and Research (*Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca* – Miur, 2014) published new guidelines for the reception and integration of non-Italian students. This document used the statistical information and

scientific research conducted during recent years to provide operational indications to schools, as well as to regional school offices and local administrations.

In particular, the problems of including immigrant children and adolescents in the Italian educational system have been highlighted on several occasions with particular focus on to their regular participation, school success, and training choices (Strozza, 2008; Dalla Zuanna, Farina & Strozza, 2009; Mussino & Strozza, 2012; Conti *et al.*, 2013; Strozza, 2015). When compared to their native peers, children of immigrants exhibit important signs that they are experiencing difficulty integrating into the Italian school system. These signs include more frequent school dropouts, less effective performances, more frequent school retreats, and higher concentration of children of immigrants in vocational and technical high schools where students enter the labour market immediately (Strozza, 2015).

The aim of this paper is to analyse the university intentions and dropouts of immigrant youths (thus non-Italian citizens born in Italy or abroad) using survey data from the “*Social Condition and Integration of Foreign citizens*” held in 2011-2012 by the Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).

After introducing the data and methods in section 2, we apply multivariate regression analyses in order to look at the main individual, family of origin and school determinants of failure to enroll in college among immigrant youths aged 14-20 years old (section 3) and of dropouts among immigrant youths aged 18-24 years old (section 4). We include some final remarks and implications for social and school policies in the last section (section 5).

2. Data and methods

The survey on “*Social Condition and Integration of Foreign citizens*” (SCIF) was conducted in 2011-2012. It is the first sample survey on this subject designed by Istat in the system of multipurpose household surveys. The survey collects data on families with at least one foreign citizen and provides original information on foreigners living in Italy. The general goal of the survey is to provide information on the living conditions and integration of foreign citizens (including naturalised persons). In particular, different aspects of the lives of individuals are considered: family, marriage, fertility, education,

religious affiliation and language, migration history, employment history, working conditions, health status, use of and accessibility to health services, lifestyle, social relationships, social participation, experiences of discrimination, housing conditions, etc. The survey covers a sample of about 12,000 households with at least one foreign (or foreign origin) member.

In our analyses, we consider two specific sub-samples of youths. The data allow us to associate each young individual of immigrant origin with his/her parents' characteristics (e.g. age, citizenship, degree of study, family type) and to estimate four different indicators of integration at the individual and family levels.

The first sub-sample relates to immigrant high school students aged 14-20 years old (an initial sample of 800 individuals in the SCIF survey, that represent a population of around 135,000 students in Italy with the same characteristics). SCIF provides information about their intention to continue (or not) their studies at university.

We decided to exclude the doubters from the analyses. We don't have information on the classroom; however, it is evident that as the age at interview increases, the proportion of doubtful students decreases (it is over 19% among students aged 14-17 and is below 15% among the ones aged 18-20), and the proportion of those who intend to continue their studies increases.

On average, the percentage of students (excluding the doubters) that intend to continue their studies is 59% (56.5% among students aged 14-17 and 63.5% among the ones aged 18-20). Among women, the percentage is 74% while among men it is 45%.

In the end, we excluded both the doubters and the missing data; therefore, our final sample included 538 individuals. The logistic regression on the intention to continue their own studies (a dummy variable that assumes value 1 in case of a negative answer and value 0 in the case of an affirmative one) allowed us to analyse its main determinants.

Another indicator we looked at was Early Leaving from Education and Training (ELET). According to Eurostat, ELET represents the "quota of immigrant youths aged 18-24 with at most a compulsory level of education, who left school before they have finished their course and have not attended any other course in the last four weeks" (European Commission 2014, p. 33).

The phenomenon of dropping out is very significant particularly in the countries of southern Europe (Spain, Italy, Portugal, Greece). There the dropout rate reaches 40% among the immigrant resident population (it is over 20% for residents without distinguishing by citizenship or country of birth). Among its Europe 2020 strategies to improve European policies of education and social inclusion, the European Commission included the goal of reducing the quota of ELET to below 10% of the total resident population aged 18-24 (European Commission, 2014). Different studies show how the ELET has a significant negative economic effect on society (European Commission, 2013; Belfield, 2008). Moreover, the ELET increases the social and economic marginalization of individuals (Checchi, 2014; Miur, 2014).

According to the SCIF available data, ELET is 1,779 individuals, that represent around 380,000 individuals in Italy. Thus, the ELET percentage is 37% of immigrant youths aged 18-24 with at most a compulsory level of education. This is 4 percentage points below the one provided by Eurostat (based on the Labour Force Survey). The different estimates depend on the different ELET definition (the SCIF survey refers to early leaving youths that have attended any other course since last 12 months), on the sample survey (unaccompanied minors are not considered), and on the selection process (we excluded Italian naturalised foreigners from the analyses).

Also, in this case, we conducted a logistic regression analyses. The dependent dummy variable assumed value 1 in case of ELET youths and 0 in case of youths that are still in school or have obtained at least a high school degree.

2.1 The analysed determinants of future training intentions and of ELET

Looking at the main determinants of the two observed phenomenon, scholars cluster them into two main macro-groups (Thibert, 2013; European Commission, 2014). One considers the characteristics of respondents and their family of origin; the other one concerns the aspects related to the school. In this section, we will consider those determinants we included in the analyses only according to the available data.

In the first macro-group, gender is an important factor according to the literature. Generally speaking, boys are more likely to leave their studies than girls, who have higher school performances and reach higher educational levels (Croll, 2009).

Age has a significant effect as well. ELET is very low during compulsory studies, but after age 15, it increases as age increases (Miur, 2013). On the other hand, especially over the last 10-year period, school dropouts have fallen, and the enrollment of students completing the university course is growing (Anvur, 2016). Despite these improvements, according to Eurostat, Italy remains the European country with the lowest proportion of graduate population, even among youths.

In particular, the proportion of ELET is higher in southern Italy than in central or in northern Italy. Furthermore, the number of university registrations is decreasing in the southern regions. More and more students choose to move from southern Italy to enroll in the most prestigious northern universities (Anvur, 2016).

Place of birth and age at arrival of immigrant descendants in the destination country play a decisive role in analyzing these issues. Groups by migratory generation are defined according to Rumbaut's classification (Rumbaut, 2004), which is based on the respondent's place of birth, parents' place of birth, and age at arrival in the host country of the respondent. The resulting groups are *G2.0* (individuals born in the host country with at least one parent born abroad); *G1.75* (immigrants who arrived before age 6); *G1.5* (individuals who arrived at 6-12 years old); *G1.25* (individuals who migrated at 13-17 years old). Immigrants who arrived at 18 years of age or older are considered first generation (*G1.0*).

School performances differed according to migratory generation. In particular, *G2.0* and *G1.75* presented higher school marks and better educational training than the other generations (Chiswick & DebBurman, 2004; Strozza, 2009; Bertolini, Lalla, & Pagliacci, 2015). Conversely, *G1.25* had lower educational levels and higher proportion of ELET than the others (Chiswick & DebBurman, 2006). The immigrants of *G1.0* frequently left countries of origin after they exited from the educational or training system.

Another important determinant with respect to school issues is the country of origin (Hirschman and Wong, 1986). It can be considered a *proxy* of the origin background and of the native language; the larger the distance from the Italian language, the higher the risk of encountering difficulties at school (Cardinali *et al.*, 2015).

Integration represents an important determinant of school attitudes and performances (European Commission, 2014). According to the methodology adopted in Blangiardo *et al.* (2013), we looked at four different dimensions of integration: political (the attention

given to issues in Italian politics and their opinion regarding the importance of acquiring Italian citizenship); economic (occupational conditions); social (active participation in social and public life); cultural (knowledge of and frequency of use of the Italian language, healthcare, eating habits, etc.).

The international literature shows how the political and social dimensions (Grasso, 2015; Mantovani, 2013), the economic dimension (Freeney & O'Connell, 2012; Traag & van der Velden, 2011), and the cultural dimension (Chiswick & DebBurman, 2004; Favaro, 2007) of integration tend to directly affect the risk of school success or enrolling in the college.

The attitudes and behaviours of parents toward education affect the school performances of their children. Larsen (2014) shows how low levels of family and cultural background together with negative parents' behaviours reduce school performance and increase early leaving from education of descendants. Conversely, highly educated parents invest more in the education of their children (Lamb, 1994; Rumberger, 2004), regardless of individual cognitive abilities (de Graaf & de Graaf, 2002).

School failure (or rejection) obviously reduces school performance, but it also reduces educational expectations and projects (Silberglitt *et al.*, 2006; Jacob & Lefgren, 2009; Blount, 2012).

Homework assignments can be considered a proxy for high school type (information not included in the survey) because, generally speaking, in Italy only students enrolled in lyceums have regular homework assignments while students enrolled in professional and technical institutes do not. According to the literature, students enrolled in lyceums, whether they are Italians or non-Italians, have a higher probability of reaching the highest level of education (Dalla Zuanna, Farina & Strozza, 2009).

3. Future training intentions: enroll or not at university?

In this section, we analyse the main determinants of the failure to enroll at university among immigrant youths aged 14-20 years old. The *stepwise* approach allowed us to define the significant determinants through both the *forward procedure* (that adds the most significant variables one after the other to the baseline model) and the *backward*

procedure (that progressively eliminates non-significant variables from the model). Table 1 shows the final model that includes eight significant variables, and that is able to correctly assign $\frac{3}{4}$ of cases (75,2%).

According to the literature, the risk of failure to enroll at university is higher among boys (reference category) than among girls (odds ratio, OR, equal to 0.227).

Immigrant youths who arrived in Italy after twelve years old (G1.0 and G1.25) had a risk of failure four times higher than second generation youth (OR 3.916). The same odd ratio was 2.433 for G1.75 (thus pupils who arrived in Italy at less than six years old had a risk of failure that was twice as high as that for the second generation).

Considering citizenship and net to the other covariates, East-European citizens (excluding Albanians, Ukrainians, Moldavians and Romanians) had a risk of failure to enroll at university that was three times higher (OR 3.166) than the referent group (the Romanians); conversely, and surprisingly, Asians had the highest probability of continuing their studies at university (the probability of failure is 67% lower than the Romanians' – OR 0.327). In other words, Asians intended to achieve high levels of education despite the distance of their origin language and culture from Italian.

The last individual variable concerned cultural integration at the family level. According to expectations, the higher the level of cultural integration, the lower was the risk of failure (OR 0.976).

Table 1 – Logistic regression of the failure to enroll at university among immigrant high school students aged 14-20 years old. Italy, 2011-2012

<i>Determinants</i>	<i>Odd Ratios</i>	<i>p-value</i>
<i>Sex (ref. Boys)</i>		
- Girls	0.227	***
<i>Migratory generation (ref. G2.0)</i>		
- G1.75	2.433	**
- G1.50	2.545	**
- G1.25 and G1.0	3.916	***
<i>Citizenship (ref. Romania)</i>		
- Albania	1.407	
- Ukraine and Moldova	1.403	
- Other East-Europe	3.166	**
- North Africa	1.167	
- Sub-Saharan Africa	1.295	
- Asia	0.327	**
- Latin America	1.231	
Cultural integration (continuous variable)	0.976	***
<i>Highest Educational level between parents (ref. Graduation)</i>		
- High school degree	1.982	*
- Professional	2.516	**
- Compulsory	4.308	***
- Primary or less	4.457	***
<i>Have you ever been rejected at school? (ref. No)</i>		
- Yes	2.490	***
<i>Do parents meet teachers? (ref. Yes, always)</i>		
- Yes, sometimes	2.681	***
- Rarely, never or no parents	2.834	***
<i>Do you have homework assignments? (ref. Never/Sometimes)</i>		
- Yes, always	0.441	***
<i>Number of cases</i>	538	
<i>% correctly assigned cases</i>	75.2	
<i>pseudo-R²</i>	0.403	

Note: *** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.10$.

Source: own elaborations on Istat data, Condition and social integration of foreign citizens, 2011-2012.

Conversely, the educational level of parents is very important. The lower parents' education is, the highest the risk of failure of their children. In fact, the risk is twice as high (with respect to the graduate referent group) when both parents have at most a high school degree (OR 1.982) and is four times higher when the educational level is even lower (OR 4.308 in the case of compulsory level and 4.457 in the case of primary level).

The school performance of students and the attitudes of their parents toward school are also very important. Obviously, having experienced at least one failure during school increases the risk of failure to enroll at university (OR 2.490).

According to the literature, the lack of a parent-teacher relationship, as well as an occasional relationship, increases the risk of failure (OR respectively equal to 2.834 and 2.681) with respect to a stable relationship.

In the end, homework assignments assumed a negative odd ratio (OR 0.441). Thus, according to the literature, students enrolled in lyceums (or in those high schools that require strong engagement even outside school time) have a higher probability of going on to college.

4. Early Leaving from Education and Training

Looking at the determinants of ELET and using the same *stepwise* procedure described in the previous section, we show two nested models (see table 2).

Model 1 included individual demographic characteristics only. Surprisingly, we observed no significant sex differences when we controlled for the other covariates. The risk of early leaving from education and training was higher among youths aged 21-24 years old (OR 1.239 for 18-20 years old), among residents in the south (OR 1.828 for residents in the north) and among G1.50 (OR 4.274 for G2.0), but also among G1.25 and G1.0 (OR 2.191).

Moreover, we observed interesting differences by citizenship. The most disadvantaged were immigrant citizens coming from Middle East, Central and Southern Asia (OR 3.192), Morocco (OR 2.756) and China (OR 2.395). The Albanians and the other East-European citizens (excluding the Ukrainians, the Moldavians and the Romanians) had a

risk of early leaving from education and training significantly higher than the referent group (OR equal to 1.890 and 1.714, respectively).

Model 2 also included the variables for parents' education and different aspects of individual integration. Generally speaking, the odd values and the significance of the individual demographic characteristics decreased when moving from model 1 to model 2. In particular, only G1.50 continued to have an odd-value (OR 1.995) significantly different from G2.0.

An exception is represented by the odd-values of Albania, Ukraine, and Moldova (taken together) and Latin America; they increased moving from model 1 to model 2. In other words, controlling for the variables included in model 2 (unobserved selection process), they showed more evident risk of early leaving from education and training than the Romanians. This result is particularly interesting for Albanians who, despite the greatest geographical and cultural proximity to Italy, showed worse school attitudes. On the other hand, the disadvantage of young Moroccans, sub-Saharan Africans and Asians coming from the eastern region disappeared when we controlled for parents' level of education and cultural and economic integration. It is undoubtedly an aspect that deserves to be examined further. Our results show how the family context and the adaptation to the reality in which they live could play an important role in the achievement of high-level of education or training.

Table 2 – Logistic regression of the early leaving from education and training among immigrant youths^(a) aged 18-24 years old. Italy, 2011-2012

Determinants	Model 1		Model 2	
	Odd R.	p-value	Odd R.	p-value
<i>Age at interview (ref. 18-20)</i>				
- 21-24	1.239	*	1.439	***
<i>Macro-area of residence (ref. North)</i>				
- Center	0.998		0.956	
- South	1.828	***	1.345	*
<i>Migratory generation (ref. G2.0)</i>				
- G1.75	1.710	**	1.129	
- G1.50	4.274	***	1.995	***
- G1.25 and G1.0	2.191	***	0.649	
<i>Citizenship (ref. Romania)</i>				
- Albania	1.890	***	2.185	***
- Ukraine and Moldova	0.944		1.775	**
- Other East-Europe	1.714	***	1.455	*
- Morocco	2.756	***	1.161	
- Other North Africa	1.395		0.830	
- Sub-Saharan Africa	1.849	***	1.068	
- Middle East, Central and Southern Asia	3.192	***	2.736	***
- China	2.395	***	1.329	
- Other East and South-East Asia	1.756	***	0.936	
- Latin America	1.365		1.526	*
<i>High. Educ. level between parents (ref. Graduation)</i>				
- High school degree			1.409	
- Professional			2.461	***
- Compulsory			4.671	***
- Primary or less			6.975	***
Cultural integration (continuous variable)			0.977	***
Social integration (continuous variable)			0.994	
Economic integration (continuous variable)			0.990	***
Political integration (continuous variable)			1.002	
<i>Number of cases</i>	1,779		1,688	
<i>% correctly assigned cases</i>	64.4		71.4	
<i>pseudo-R²</i>	0.094		0.252	

Notes: *** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.10$. (a) We consider the immigrant youths with at most a compulsory level of education, who leaved school before they have finished their course and do not have attended any other course since last 12 months.

Source: own elaborations on Istat data, Condition and social integration of foreign citizens, 2011-2012.

The educational level of parents is also very important in this case. The lower their educational level is, the higher the risk that their children will leave education and training early.

According to expectations, the higher the level of cultural and economic integration, the lower is the risk of failure (OR respectively equal to 0.977 and 0.990), while the odd-ratios of social and political integrations are not statistically significant.

5. Concluding remarks

Some concluding remarks help to suggest inclusion policies in the educational system to favour immigrants' immediate descendants. This is important, mostly in Italy, as their school performances are significantly below those of their Italian peers. In addition, the proportion of ELET among immigrants is about twice as high as it is for Italian natives (Mussino & Strozza, 2012; Strozza, de Filippo & Buonomo, 2014).

Integration policies for positive social cohesion are significantly linked to school participation and performances. Our results shows that facilitating the cultural and economic integration of immigrants' immediate descendants (and their families) produces positive effects on school participation and performance, as well as on reaching higher educational levels, which are useful for a better occupational inclusion.

Moreover, according to our results, the attitudes and behaviours of parents toward the school system also affects their children's school performance. Similarly, it is very important that the school system accommodate and promote the foreign pupils' learning path (Strozza & Di Bartolomeo, 2015). School strategies to involve origin families and initiate actions aimed at reducing cultural and linguistic distances can have significantly positive effects on the school performance of immigrant youths.

In the end, specific categories of immigrant youths present greater fragilities and difficulties in achieving higher levels of education. Generally speaking, the results show that the worst school performances mostly occur among boys, among residents of southern Italy, and for those encountering problems with the Italian language. Moreover, school performance worsening with an increasing age on arrival in Italy. According to the OECD (2007; 2010), such results suggest adopting original strategies which take into account a young immigrant's whole family. In addition, specific actions and devices

designed to encourage schooling should be integrated with the adoption of multilevel policies aimed at the general integration of immigrants and their immediate descendants.

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SECTION 4

**INNOVATION AND FORMAL
TRAINING IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

CHAPTER 8

Higher studies in social sciences education: Using CLIL and sharing didactic strategies orientated to internationalize employability and entrepreneurship.

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Objectives of the research

Due to student's participation which was very active during the course 2016-17 at 3rd Grade in Primary Studies, we provide several strategies and experiences carried out by the members of the group, adding references taken from other universities and pedagogical areas. The primary objective of the fact leads us to share selection criteria in the methodology applied known as CLIL teaching and learning methodology proposed in Primary Studies at Malaga University. In order to achieve the objective of handling Higher Education in Further Education and Promoting Reflective Independent Learning in Higher Education (PRILHE) the proposition combines them with other procedures such as participation in city-town Institutions like Art Museums or Science ones as well as in cultural and natural heritage sites. Those experiences could visualise didactic needs in Spanish towns and cities or abroad where the use of English could be justified. Providing new objectives and possibilities concerning internationalizing employability and entrepreneurship, either citizens or teachers/students will approach to citizenship common knowledge and to university in other terms like non-traditional students or experience inequalities.

1. Introduction

This paper presents several teaching and learning experiences in bilingual studies which were developed for the first time by the author with a group in the 3rd course at Bachelor's Degree in Primary Education at the Faculty of Education from March to June, 2017. Although in the last 15 years an enthusiastic trend has been growing towards

English Medium Instruction (EMI) across universities in Europe (Barrios, López-Gutiérrez & Lechuga, 2016) it has recently and progressively extended to Bachelor studies (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). At this point there are suggestions that will present the need of distinguishing EMI from CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). The first one is said to contain more explicit language integration (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2011) and a multi-perspective approach also named CLIL eye (Griffith, 2015) in which a professional development project for instructors is carried out.

As Gustafsson and Jacobs (2013) argue, there are differences between EMI and CLIL, supporting the idea that the latest is more related to school rather than to university studies. Nevertheless, this differentiation has been corroborated in previous EMI tertiary education experiences reaching the idea of collaboration: “Developing an English-taught degree programme requires coordination and, especially at the outset, more staff collaboration than may be considered essential in a domestic language programme” (Marsh *et al.*, 2013, p. 26). According to this not only are EMI or CLIL a direct result of globalization, but it also currently lies at the center of internationalisation strategies of many tertiary institutions around the globe (Doiz *et al.*, 2013; Gustafsson & Jacobs, 2013; Wilkinson, 2013). This leads to a contribution to this requirement involving many factors such as promotion of job mobility, employability or staff and students exchanges among others (Griffith & Lechuga, 2017).

That is the reason why handling Higher Education in Further Education and Promoting Reflective Independent Learning in Higher Education (PRILHE) is a further proposition which also combines CLIL and EMI education procedures with social participation in city-town of Malaga, Spain. Collaborative attendance which integrates a variety of Institutions so as Art Museums or Science ones as well as cultural and natural heritage sites among others should be involved to achieve the purpose. The main goal is to provide new tools for scaffolding internationalizing employability and entrepreneurship. Moreover, empowerment and sense of being bond to a universal heritage, either cultural or natural, contributes to encourage non-traditional students or experience inequalities.

Context

Firstly, the Faculty of Education at Malaga University in Spain is holding a programme which is partially teaching in English. One out of six groups of Bachelor's Degree in

Primary Education is following this project since the academic year 2014-2015 as a response of the Education Bilingual School Programme in the Andalusian School System. According to this, during 2016-2017 the 3rd school year was firstly delivered, and consequently, in 2017-2018 will reach the latest Bachelor's Degree course. At this point, Faculty of Education presents a general curriculum for 3rd year in which subjects are related to Social Sciences Education. As an original approach to the subject, a positive inter-actionable workshops and educational visits involving city-town institutions are annually proposed in order to combine theoretical and practical lecturers for students. Although there were incipiently no interest in presenting these practical classes in English, in the end almost all of them were carried out following the bilingual proposal due to an unexpected increasing motivation that Primary Education Scholars manifest.

The fact of using divers didactic tools posted in English in official web pages such as UNESCO or Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) reinforced their curiosity to achieve a goal. Searching what other institutions are exhibiting and experimenting using the language as a genuine learning tool, on the one hand means that the global world presents similar interests as yours, and on the other hand that English is a useful tool for investigation.

Secondly, as a principle of universal academic research students are asked to work on surveys using trustful sources which are difficult to attain “as they admit that learning through English also requires a high command of English from them” (Barrios, López-Gutiérrez & Lechuga, 2016), whereas most pupils hardly speak the language. This is the reason why accessing to scientific writings although it is considered an ideal way of learning through a language is far too complex to begin a proposal with. An effective approach should then be handled in order to either introduce accessible and interesting content in English or motivate students' knowledge. Both aspects are essential and must be considered as teaching and learning objectives so it is highly recommended to have them in mind whenever lecturers are delivered. Consequently, learning facilities are called to be one of the pitched targets whenever scholars approach freely so they investigate while learning.

2. Official webpages are effective learning tools.

UNESCO

Moreover, UNESCO web page is consulted and offered to general Spanish lessons besides it is presented for the first time to bilingual Social Science Education in academic course 2016-2017. There was a first plan of action, made by the author in 2016, suggesting UNESCO website with the light of presenting various themes related to Citizenship Education, a subject submitted to Social Studies Area. In it is included bibliography and links to several activities concerning “Sustainable development across the curriculum”, “Reorienting Education for a Sustainable future” or Contemporary issues as “Women and sustainable development” (Fig. 1). Introducing official web pages with precise themes supported by articles and practical cases, encourage students to approximate to current universal themes of interest whereas knowing serious publications in English (although simultaneously there is an online Spanish version).

Following the similar idea, other UNESCO webpage tool (UNESCO) to be considered within concerning Social Sciences Education specifically presented to bilingual academic year 2016-2017 is a Glossary in section “Teaching and learning for a sustainable future, a multimedia teacher education programme”. Students said they use the page frequently because it contains a significant number of useful words explained in English, so they do not miss the persistent idea of learning through that language. In addition, they were asked to scaffold individual glossaries at least with twenty concepts defined with their own terms.

Fig. 1 - UNESCO webpage links retrieved in 2016. Registered in the project PIE15-100.

Module (subject): CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Unit UNESCO SOURCE GLOSSARY	Website (URL) http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/extras/tlsf_glossary.html?panel=3#summa	Summary	Comments	Format (html)
UNESCO Citizenship Education	Cogan, J.J. & Derricott, R. (eds.) (2000). <i>Citizenship for the 21st Century: An International Perspective on Education</i> . London: Kogan Page. McDonough, K. & Feinberg, W. (2006). <i>Citizenship and Education in Liberal-Democratic Societies: Teaching for Cosmopolitan Values and Collective Identities</i> . New York: Oxford University Press. (URL: http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_b/mod07.html)	BIBLIOGRAPHY		
UNESCO TEACHING AND LEARNING	SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT ACROSS THE CURRICULUM (URL: http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/journal/tlsf_journal.html)	Learning Journal Citizen Education	MODULE 18 Activity 1 - Participating in my community	editable text document
UNESCO TEACHING AND LEARNING	CURRICULUM RATIONALE (URL: http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/journal/tlsf_journal.html)	Learning Journal Reorienting Education for a Sustainable future	MODULE 4 Activity 1 - An holistic vision	editable text document
UNESCO TEACHING AND LEARNING	CONTEMPORARY ISSUES (URL: http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/journal/tlsf_journal.html)	Learning Journal A gender study activity	MODULE 12 WOMEN AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT	editable text document

http://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_d/interact/mod21task02/uncom21t02_vo.htm

Faculty of Education Science youtube web page

With regard to materials development, a class-session is lectured for the first course in the Bachelor's Degree in Primary Education. A structured glossary has been integrated on contemporary art and gender which can be seen at the Faculty of Education Science youtube web page, in University of Malaga (Lechuga, 2016). The language support plan consists in creating a glossary to introduce the subject. In order to highlight the lexical items necessary for the lecture, selected words were chosen to create a glossary to support a lecture on the differences between traditional paintings and contemporary artwork. The conference was delivered by the author and another member of project PIE15-100 as an external language specialist who generated feedback for the first one (Griffith & Lechuga, 2017). By performance this proposition at least two items are achieved. On the one hand, there is a lesson recorded which is a reference to share for either lecturers or scholars. On the other hand, a feedback response written by external language specialist is presented to the lecturer. The analysis of the activity expresses that this activity is a fundamental need for professors interested in bilingual programmes. The collaborative activity encourage the idea of helping lectures to improve their deliveries in different skills such as how to start and finish the lesson, right pronunciation of vocabulary, correct word collocation among others.

Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS)

Attending didactic methodologies being used by professors in Bachelor's degrees, pedagogical departments in Museums so as centers interested in spread knowledge, Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) seems to be a new way of succeeding in this issue. Teaching through images or VTS uses scaffolding methodology based on the image of a painting, drawing, sculpture, video, etc. (González-Sanz, Feliu-Torruella & Cardona-Gómez, 2017). As far as its webpage explains, it was founded in 1995 and the method is being used mainly in schools and museums, but also involves global community as a consequence of innovative learning programmes. These are provided with interacting activities among institutions with efficient interesting workshops where the citizenship is invited to participate.

The data expertise is focused on significant descriptions by collaborative learning and scaffolding which is developmentally based in encouraging students and teachers in reflective items supplying critical thinking, language and art-viewing skills. Regarding the variety of possibilities when working through VTS, it is also used when teaching Mathematics or Languages as well as Art or any other subject. When exhibiting an image and analyzing it in group, instructors should behave as guides. A collaboratively information will be afford produced by each participant so a nutritive and unexpected quantity of data will compound the argument. That is the reason why a guide or a teacher/professor is needed in order to prioritize the information and give sense to the narrative, leading it to the required fundamental points. Whereas an icon is described, language is supposed to be improved simultaneously as one of the skills concerned. In the light of advancing in English and Social Sciences topics these strategies stimulates public in general.

Having understood VTS as a participative workshop, a critical thinking is also performed. Consequently, VTS is very close to the scheme outlined in Higher Education in Further Education and Promoting Reflective Independent Learning in Higher Education (PRILHE). In fact, one of the main principles of VTS's proposal is fundamentally based on obtaining an independent learning through collaboratively scaffolding becoming an unexpected but understandable clear bound with PRILHE.

3. Educational visits in Malaga city

Museo Picasso Malaga (MPM)

In addition to what it has being said, not only is VTS fulfilled in Bachelor's Degree Primary Studies at Malaga University, but also is practised with various groups in Museo Picasso Malaga (MPM) in where staff at the museum pedagogical department is trained to guide using the visual thinking methodology. As it is posted on its webpage along the Educational Programme at University Community, students of Education, History of Art, History and Medicine Degrees have participate in workshops developing emotional intelligence skills as well as cognitive processes and learning languages. Furthermore, Primary Studies School Community is similarly invited to workshops being carried out at the Museo Picasso Malaga.

Besides the information given, it is necessary to point out two main aspects. Firstly, to indicate that knowledge spread concerning art, history and social sciences is progressively getting interest to a wide range of disciplines in current days, in consequence the use of innovative didactic strategies are fundamental as delivering data is no longer being discharged with a passive reception. For that precisely motive, teaching and learning educational tools are welcomed to any healthy ambitious institution with the desire of broadcasting their horizons letting their doors wisely open, as it is well known how beneficial it can be for society. Secondly, it is a goal for Education Degrees, especially for bilingual lines concerning Social Sciences Education, as Internationalizing Employability and Entrepreneurship seems to be a clear response to the described needs. Which indeed match with the objective of approaching to university studies non-traditional students or experience inequalities.

Museo Alborania

One of the visits students admit to consider highly stimulating is the visit to Museo Alborania. Although apparently it is exclusively related to Science Education, the place is meticulously prepared to be a space of teaching and learning allowing visitors to touch with their hands any object exhibited along the diverse halls. The site is mainly dedicated to sea animal and plant preservation and is in necessarily relation to ecology, geography, citizenship education as well as natural and cultural heritage concerns. Students spend nearly 3 hours knowing the importance of living by the seaside and its environmental conservation. They get into the idea of the need of endangered species conservation while understanding its historical, cultural and industrial development, with examples of fishing trade, oil and wine exportation, etc. Also a time line painted on the floor reviews archeologically sites in the city of Malaga where Phoenicians settled down, as well as Romans, leaving an interesting cultural heritage concerning fish food procedures in that époque and an ancient wall, among other cultural contributions.

In this occasion guide explanations are hold in English language by two instructors. One of them has a fluent and genuine British English meanwhile the second one, although his English is fluent and precise, a strong Spanish accent is present when spoken. Having recommended oral communication as one of the main skills to achieve in the bilingual project, these two different ways of presenting knowledge through English language are

a remarkable breakthrough. Spanish students' empathy to their own accent is evident as well as a need to be understood. Indeed it becomes a good push in order to lose shyness and focus on the real matter.

4. Student's empowerment: 2 cases.

On the one hand, in relation to Teaching and learning "time" and "space" concepts in Cultural heritage sites, a didactic visit is arranged for scholar to explore parts of the city which previously are investigated in groups. They decide what theme to explain to the rest of fellows using vocabulary related to the subject so the glossary is alive, and animating the workshop with collaborative experiences. Students express contents in English and no other language can be used. Consequently, they gain information about history, art, geography social events, politics, food, etc. whereas improving the language and broaden their horizons. Their experience does not only concern a unique working purpose as being future Primary teachers but other sustainability sources concerning employability and entrepreneurship, as they domain pedagogical methodology, innovative educational tools, content and bilingual education.

On the other hand, a poster presentation simulation is taken place as if the class-group were in an International Congress. Again, divided in groups an educative proposal for Primary studies is presented adapting the poster to images introducing Visual Thinking Strategies as a support. All deliveries are in English language. The formula of talking to a reduce number of people empowers pupils, achieving the best participation. Furthermore, encourage students to apply for real International Congress facilitating an approach to University Internationalization.

5. Recommendations

This survey has dealt with the differences between CLIL and EMI. In addition, has presented relations expressed in PRILHE and VTS concerning Social Sciences Education and the use of the latter in Museum as an efficient teaching and learning tool. All along to an empowerment approach to employability and entrepreneurship within the university studies which can be integrated in non-traditional students or experience inequalities regarding city town and citizen needs. Indeed through English contents. Finally,

supporting a bilingual university approach presents, when choosing bilingual study lines, further options to University Internationalization.

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CHAPTER 9

Analysis of metaphors on the formative experience of mentors from the Dominican Republic

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Introduction / Justification

Currently, the process of induction to the professional practice of teachers is taking force through a key agent defined under the name of mentor. According to the report of the Organization of Ibero-American States for Education, Science and Culture (OEI, 2013), the concept of induction to the teaching profession is linked to the accompanying process provided by a mentor assigned to support the beginning teacher. Wong (2005) defines mentoring in the same sense as an important element of the process of teaching induction by more experienced teachers.

All the knowledge acquired about the role of mentoring is implemented through visits to new teachers (2 visits per teacher per month) to the institution where they work and a circle of learning with all assigned teachers. We add that each mentor is assigned a maximum of 10 beginning teachers during the duration of the program, with planning, teaching and evaluation processes, where the advice to the novice teacher has its origin in the day to day through cycles of observations and planning In the classroom, as well as the analysis, reflection and daily evaluation of the visits that the mentor makes each week to new teachers. The participants are 363 beginner teachers and 45 mentors from different regions across the country.

General and specific objectives

The mentor teacher is defined as teaching staff with experience (between 10 and 15 years), with recognized prestige for their teaching quality and intervention in educational innovation projects. Mentors progress from the beginner to the beginning of their work, to expert teachers, just as they have gone from beginning mentors to being expert mentors. Therefore, the expert teachers are also beginners in this role with insecurities when starting the planning of a process of advice to the beginner teacher. Consequently, mentors have a formative need to be guides in the process of teaching induction.

The general objective is to identify and describe in the context of a teacher training program those subjects involved in the counseling of beginning teachers and, as specific, to describe the figure of the mentor: functions and modalities.

Is relevant to know that the mentors have an excessive responsibility due to the occupation of other work positions of the Dominican educational system simultaneously that hamper their own professional and personal development. In the same way, we highlight that the main research problem is that in order to play the role of mentor (with a work background as *pedagogical coordinators*) they require specific training based on pedagogical knowledge and use of the accompaniment-counseling processes.

Theoretical framework

• Permanent Training and Adult Learning

Teacher training is invaluable and diverse in contexts, institutions, countries, etc. Sometimes beginner teachers begin to work in schools with "high social, academic and economic vulnerability, which increases the complexity of the job" (Martínez, 2012, p. 122). For this reason, training and lifelong learning must be supported in order to respond to the wide range of school contexts. Given this situation, it is important to carry out accompaniment processes in the first years of teaching as a way to analyze the needs, remodel the theory together with the practice and orientate to the professional future. Vaillant (2009) argues that "beginner teachers have higher levels of stress due to the lack of mechanisms or strategies to solve unexpected scenarios" (Vaillant, 2009, p. 35).

Continuous training is defined by Imbernón (2001) as the

process by which the teacher is participant and creator of their own formation. Among the aspects we have found are the renewal of their own competences to respond to any demand, the development of basic skills in accordance with planning, needs diagnosis and evaluation (Imbernón, 2001, p. 13).

According to Marcelo (2002), "the knowledge that is acquired in the initial formation period has a date of expiration for the continuous social and educational changes in which we are immersed" (Marcelo, 2002, p. 30). We have also found resistance to formative change in contexts with continuous demands due to anxiety states or teacher work stress. In this type of situation, Imbernón (2001) gives us the key to start the change and trust that lifelong learning provides principles based on:

1. Collaborative learning: To continuously learn in a collaborative and participative way with functions as analyzing, testing, evaluating, modifying, etc., together with other colleagues and members of the community.
2. Adapting the modalities to the formative purpose: Connecting the knowledge being a product of socialization with new information in a coherent process of formation to reject or accept knowledge depending on the context.
3. Individual and collective reflection on the practice: Learning through individual-collective reflection to arrive at the resolution of problematic situations of the professional practice.
4. Learning environment: Learning in a formative environment of collaboration and social interaction to sharing problems, failures and successes with colleagues.
5. Design-development of projects: Elaborate projects and link them to training through action-research strategies (Imbernón, 2001, p. 40).

• Definitions of Mentoring and Professional Development

Mentoring is defined as a "joint process of the mentor and beginner in which the first figure has experience in the organization, provides advice and promotes improvement in the novice's career" (Chao, Walz & Gardner, 2013, p. 634). Therefore we have based ourselves on the one defended by Gunuc (2015) detailing that the role of the mentor is

"the person who guides in the process of professional induction to the novel teacher" (Gunuc, 2015, p. 167). In other words, the figure of the mentor is defined as one who provides help, advice, guidance, resources, etc.; and the beginner teacher is who receives everything mentioned.

Based on the general characteristics of induction programs we have found that "the most senior teachers are those who teach their expert knowledge based on their theory and practice, helping in the professional development of the beginning teacher" (OEI, 2013, p. 162). So we understand that the mentor teacher is a teacher with recognized experience, teaching excellence and participation in educational innovation projects, adding the specific training for the exercise of such agent. Mentoring is a set of actions on the processes of orientation and continuous support to the newly graduated in the profession of being a teacher.

The professional development of mentors "should be particularly encouraged so that they can develop their skills and in turn help beginners to develop their teaching in a critical and analytical way" (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015, p.76). Also, mentors advance in the learning process on the psychopedagogical basis since professional development is not only visible in beginning teachers.

Following in the same line and based on the ideas of Imbernón (1994) we have emphasized that the professional development implies the advance in the processes of improvement of the professional and pedagogical knowledge next to the abilities and attitudes of the mentor.

This way goes through different phases: basic training phase and professional socialization in which it will be enabled for the profession and accompaniment to the teachers beginners in the own practice; A second phase is that of professional induction and socialization in practice which is characterized by putting in place all the training learned in a theoretical way; and the last phase is the improvement in which are activities of continuous training and recycling.

According to the above, we have created our own definition of mentoring based on the words of the authors cited. That is why mentoring is a longitudinal process with two main agents (mentor and beginner teacher) and with the objective of developing in the novel the basic skills in terms of a successful job performance aided by the expert. Similarly, we highlight the idea that "mentoring is exercised at an individual level but we can not

ignore that it is also given at the group level so that a mentor teacher can count on several beginning teachers" (Vélaz de Medrano, 2009, p. 215).

• **Interactions in the induction phase to professional practice**

In the induction of the beginner teachers intrinsically locate multiple types of interactions between both sets of participants and is that as stated by Diaz and Bastías (2013)

The constant interaction between both parts is considered resolute and active. In these socializations it is necessary to take into account common problems that are presented to beginner teachers and that they feel the need to have external help to solve them (Diaz & Bastías, 2013, p.306).

In the temporal advance, "the mentor figure has been revalued as a person who interacts actively with his / her beginner teacher, serving as a model at all times and taking an important part in the professional development of the accompanied subject" (Álvarez, Porta & Sarasa, 2013, p. 44). As a result of these authors, the figure of the mentor is the most experienced and is the one that should guide the way of induction to beginner teachers to promote their professional and personal development.

In the role as mentor it becomes necessary to act as a facilitator of induction into the professional practice of the novice teacher. The interaction between both is based on negotiation, giving practical advice, ability to suggest other paths of advancement, ability to observe things in other perspectives, socializing, etc. (Wilkin & Sankey, 1994).

According to Certo (2005), "the interaction between the two figures is supportive and mutual learning" (p.4). Specifying the type of interaction, Inostroza de Celis, Jara and Tagle (2010) argue that

there is an exchange of ideas through which the mentor initiates techniques that allow the beginner teacher to consolidate autonomous abilities of his own professional and personal position, taking stock of the weaknesses and strengths found on the way converted into learning principles (Inostroza de Celis, Jara & Tagle, 2010, p. 121).

Following in the same line by the authors Inostroza de Celis, Jara and Tagle (2010)

the interactions created begin on the basis that the role of the mentor is based on the accompaniment of friendship, intellectual knowledge and control of the information provided to beginner teachers, ie their figure can be defined as an example, guide or advisor in The first years of professional teacher work (Álvarez, Porta & Sarasa, 2013, p.44).

Method

In this investigation we use the qualitative method with the instrument of metaphors.

According to Castro and Castro (2001), the qualitative method can be defined as an encompassing of ordered and realized actions, forming an acceptable process to achieve the end that is knowledge. That is why our choice has been directed to the qualitative methodology understood as the one that studies the experiences, knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, etc., of the subjects investigated from instruments of the phenomenological, hermeneutical or social interaction type, where more important is to describe and at the same time to understand the reality of the subject.

In our case, they are linked to the professional and personal development of the mentor in their own educational practice and gives meaning to the counseling process with the metaphors. This instrument describes a stage or ideas of the process participants whether they are orientational, ontological, structural or institutional (Mingorance, 1991). Metaphors are used to "construct meanings since they not only show how we generally think but serve to teach us specific aspects, small details" (Rojas, 2005, p. 54).

The design of the instrument and its respective application was in September 2016. The metaphors have been written by 10 mentors of the Dominican Republic during the visit to Seville in September 2016. For its implementation, we design the beginning of the phrase ("As a mentor I see myself as ...") and the mentors have had to end it based on their own experience as a mentor. At the end of the writing we have individually asked the meaning-explanation of what is written. For the analysis of metaphors we used a grid system designed by Domingo and Segovia (1999, p. 67) and adapted to our sample of participants in the data collection phase.

Participants

The population of mentor participants in the INDUCTIO program is 45. The selection criteria are: staff (good interpersonal relationships, positive attitude, etc.); vocational training; Work experience and training; Technological competence, etc.

In this research a total of 44 mentors participated, of which, 36 are women (81.8%) and 8 are men (15.9%). The age range is between 26 and 62 years, among which are the following intervals: from 26 to 30 there are 3 mentors; From 31 to 40 we have 20 mentors; From 41 to 55 we have 20 mentors and with more than 56 there is only 1 mentor. Regarding the membership according to regional and district mentors, it is important to note that there is a great variety distributed throughout the country.

The academic qualification of the mentors is: baccalaureate in initial and basic education with different mentions / specialties among which is the pedagogic accompaniment or literacy; Graduates such as the natural sciences; Masters; Postgraduate courses such as management of educational centers or psychopedagogical intervention and doctoral studies currently taking place in the case of a mentor.

The majority of the mentors interviewed also play the role of pedagogical coordinator. They also have work experience as primary and basic teachers in both private and public schools in the Dominican Republic and only one of the participants is a district teaching technician. It is also noteworthy that nine of the interviewed mentors perform teaching functions in the official institution, Higher Institute of Teacher Training Salomé Ureña (ISFODOSU) dedicated to the training of teachers requested by the Dominican Educational System. So all participants have a close relationship with their country's education throughout their professional trajectories.

Results

Next we will analyze the results obtained from the instrument of metaphors. Firstly, we show the final of the metaphors created by mentors and then the own explanation about the significance of this.

“As a mentor, I see myself as ...

- ...*a door*” Explanation: “*each time you close one opens 100 and gives the opportunity to new experiences*” (J.M.)
- ... *a butterfly that provides support, that flies high to reach a goal and enjoy, to dream*” Explanation: “*those dreams, that flying, is to come to offer everything that collaborates with the educational quality*” (C. O.)
- ... *a working bee*” Explanation: “*work and good relations*” (M.E.G.)
- ... *a bird flying accompanied*” Explanation: “*ready to always go where they need me and in the company of others, because in order to reach the goal we need others and more if it is with a common goal. On the road to balance we need what others also know*” (N.Y.M.)
- ...*a ray of light*” Explanation: “*because when the sun rises, I look at the horizon I want every day and try to keep the flames burning in everything I want to achieve, with all the obstacles that exist in life but at the end of the night, reach the Success in my life*” (K.P.)
- ...*a bridge that helps the passage of people across the river*” Explanation: “*I believe that this element of help that opens the mentor in one way or another helps the beginner to face the challenges of its beginning and the challenge of being a good teacher*” (S.G.)
- ...*an eagle*” Explanation: “*an eagle that wants to fly high to see from the sky what I can do to improve education*” (P.M.)
- ...*a river*” Explanation: “*a river that is born in the mountain and follows its channel*” (B.M.)
- ... *google*” Explanation: “*a mentor should know everything and should not be updated and trained to respond to beginner teachers*” (C.P.)
- ...*the Phoenix*” Explanation: “*because I can be reborn every day of my flight*” (Y.L.)

In this part of the results we show the grid system created by Domingo and Segovia (1999, p. 67) and adapted to our study as a summary of all metaphors designed by the mentors divided into different categories.

Table 1: System of grids of the instrument Metaphor

Dimension: Mentor Charge					
Category	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4	Story 5
Animal	<i>...a butterfly that provides support, that flies high to reach a goal and enjoy, to dream "</i>	<i>...a working bee"</i>	<i>...a flying bird accompanied"</i>	<i>...an eagle"</i>	<i>...the Phoenix"</i>
Object	<i>...a door"</i>	<i>...a bridge that helps the passage of people across the river "</i>			
Nature	<i>...a ray of light"</i>	<i>...a river"</i>			
Computer Finder	<i>...google"</i>				

Note: proposal of Domingo and Segovia (1999, p. 67)

As we can see the most used category is "animal" followed by that of object and nature. The animal category is generally linked to the flight of the birds to be able to observe from above the educational processes given and thus be able to advance in improving the educational quality of their country, The Dominican Republic. The category of object show that the mentors and the beginner teachers should have open minded to help and interiorized new advances. We usually point out that most of them argue that every day in their work they are willing to reach the marked goal.

Discussion and conclusions

The final considerations that we present revolve around the counseling processes mainly taking into account the professional and personal development of the mentor.

Taking into account the dimension of the professional and personal development of the mentor, we conclude that:

- Participants in this research feel they are promoters of the change in the improvement of the educational quality of their country from the university classrooms (some mentors share the role with that of university teachers), training new teachers, basic education advising new teachers.

- As for the interactions between mentor and novel, we compared our results with those of the authors Inostroza de Celis, Del Valle, Morales and Uribe (2010) who conclude their study determining that both in the training and in the practice of mentoring, it is the processes of interaction that forge the critical and collaborative reflection of the daily practice of both mentors and novices.

Generally, mentors need training in counseling strategy mainly because they need to know more resources to support their beginning teachers and learn to self-assess their own practices. In this regard, it is related to research developed in Forsyth in which the mentors of schools in Georgia have 100 hours of training.

As a final conclusion to all the above is that time is a relevant factor to play the role of mentor since it must be available full time for it and in many cases, it is not. Apart from this, we specify that the role of mentor requires specific training in counseling and pedagogical content to be able to develop and advance in the training process of teachers who begin in teaching and contribute to the improvement of teaching quality. As for the specific training of beginner teachers, we have the lack of planning, resources and means in the classroom to develop the theory learned in practice. Therefore, the mentors become fundamental pillars of support, security and confidence for the professional and personal development of new teachers.

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