Skills Development and Employment: Apprenticeships, Internships and Volunteering

Study for the EMPL Committee

2017
Skills Development and Employment: Apprenticeships, Internships and Volunteering

Abstract
This study discusses participation, outcomes, quality and challenges of apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering schemes. Though important, all three forms face challenges that need attention in the related existing and planned EU-level initiatives (such as the planned Quality Framework for Apprenticeships). Issues concern, for example, providing clarity on the employment status (mainly for apprenticeships) and on fair remuneration, this also to limit the risk of being sources for cheap labour.

The note was prepared by Policy Department A at the request of the Committee on Employment and Social Affairs (EMPL) to support the Committee’s work on the New Skills Agenda.
This document was requested by the European Parliament's Committee on Employment and Social Affairs.

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Manuscript completed in April 2017.
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<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>ALMP</td>
<td>Active Labour Market Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBS</td>
<td>Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek</td>
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<tr>
<td>CVET</td>
<td>Continuous Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<td>EAfA</td>
<td>European Alliance for Apprenticeships</td>
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<td>ELGPN</td>
<td>European Lifelong Guidance Policy Network</td>
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<td>EP</td>
<td>European Parliament</td>
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<td>EQF</td>
<td>European Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>ESU</td>
<td>European Student Union</td>
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<td>ETUC</td>
<td>European Trade Union Confederation</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISCED</td>
<td>International Standard Classification of Education</td>
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<td>IVET</td>
<td>Initial Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>NetWBL</td>
<td>Network for Work-based Learning and Apprenticeships</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NOV</td>
<td>Nederlandse Organisatie Vrijwilligerswerk</td>
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<tr>
<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>PES</td>
<td>Public Employment Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>SBB</td>
<td>Samenwerkingsorganisatie Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCP</td>
<td>Social Cultureel Planbureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEAPME</td>
<td>Union Européenne de l'Artisanat et des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises: European Association of Craft, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises</td>
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<td>VET</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Participation in work-based learning high but partly under pressure

Apprenticeships, internships and volunteering play an important role in the skills development of young people. They offer an alternative to more school-based forms of skills acquisition. Each work-based learning scheme (apprenticeship, internship and volunteering), however, has a different purpose and, consequently, different patterns of participation as listed below.

- The total number of apprentices in a given year is estimated to lie between 2 and 4 million in the EU. In eight out of ten countries where data is available there is a downward trend in the number of apprentices, a trend that has been visible for more than a decade. So whilst apprenticeships have many positives as an effective means of getting young people into employment, it is not a panacea to either the problem of youth unemployment or to the better matching of skills supply to demand. Concerning participation patterns, evidence suggests that where apprenticeships are considered a regular educational pathway (e.g. Germany, Austria), apprentices tend to be younger compared with countries where apprenticeships are used as a ‘second option’ or used for purposes of career progression (e.g. UK and the Netherlands). Overall, fewer women participate in apprenticeships.

- The total number of interns in a given year in the EU is estimated to lie between 4 and 6 million. This estimate, however, is likely to under-estimate enrolments in internships. There is (weak) evidence that the number of internships has been increasing over recent years. Internships serve a diverse population, ranging from those in lower Vocational Education and Training (VET) to those in Higher Education (HE). The number of HE students/graduates is disproportionately higher than VET students/graduates.

- The total number of young volunteers (15-30 years of age) in a given year in the EU is estimated to be around 1.5 million. This number has remained fairly stable over recent years. Concerning participation patterns, the evidence suggests that volunteers are generally higher educated, wealthier people, living in less deprived areas, living in rural areas, and in employment. Volunteering is however also used by people on social benefits.

The trends, mainly related to apprenticeships and the internships, have to be seen within a broader perspective related to demographic developments and enrolment levels in Initial Vocational Education and Training (IVET) in general. General enrolment in IVET, compared with overall upper secondary education slightly decreased in Europe between 2006 and 2012 (from 51.9 per cent to 50.4 per cent). In addition, IVET work-based students as a percentage of upper secondary IVET, decreased as well over the same period (from 27.2 per cent to 26.5 per cent). Despite work-based learning schemes including a considerable number of young people, in light of this broader perspective, one might say that work-based learning in formal education is under pressure in Europe.

A stepping stone to ease the transition from the world of education to the world of work

Both in terms of (a) competences and skills acquired and (b) employment outcomes, work-based learning in the form of apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering
provides a stepping stone to ease the transition from the world of education to the world of work.

- **Apprenticeships** lead to formal (VET) qualifications and apprentices acquire job/occupation-specific learning outcomes (including both theoretical and practical knowledge), plus transversal skills applicable across a range of occupations. Compared with the school-based track, apprentices gain a better understanding of the world of work and the sector in which they are employed. It is common for apprentices to remain with the employer that trained them. A rough estimate, based on the available national data, is that the completion rate of apprenticeships is between 50 per cent and 85 per cent. Hence, there is a considerable risk of dropout, but good employment outcomes for those who complete their apprenticeship. It is estimated that, on average, between 60 and 70 per cent of the apprentices secure employment immediately upon completion of their apprenticeship.

- **Internships** do not lead to a qualification but can be part of a broader (VET) qualification, and companies can provide certificates on completion of the internship. Interns/trainees obtain work-experience which enhances their CV when applying for jobs. The learning is often less pronounced and structured compared with apprenticeships (i.e. there is not always a learning plan in place). Concerning relevance to the labour market, 7 out of 10 former interns stated that their internship experience(s) was useful in finding a regular job. 90 per cent agreed that during the traineeship, the trainee learned things that are useful professionally. That said, however, the labour market entry rate strongly varies depending on the type of internship. High quality internships (where besides the employer and the intern, another stakeholder is involved - such as an education institution or the public employment service (PES) - or where it is part of a (VET) programme or ALMP), are associated with the best job prospects. In contrast, open-market internships show less positive outcomes with regards to labour market entry.

- **Volunteering** does not lead to a qualification; but the volunteering or the skills acquired can be captured in a certificate. As volunteering leads to personal development, it can lead to the acquisition of skills that have value in the labour market. Analysis of the employment outcomes associated with volunteering has received relatively little research attention and hence there is little data on how volunteering supports labour market integration. Some evidence indicates interesting side-effects. For instance, employers report being positively disposed towards young people’s involvement in volunteering when considering job applications.

**Challenges related to the position in the company/organisation and the learning environment**

Apprenticeships are usually well covered by governance frameworks. The employment status of apprentices differs by country, but in general, apprentices are employed by the company training them, they receive a wage, and they are protected by employment regulations. The learning component in apprenticeships is typically assured through governance systems that involve representatives from both the world of work and world of education, with learning outcomes described in the apprentice’s apprenticeship agreement/individual learning plan.
Although there is no indication of systematic misuse of the apprenticeship system, both concerning the labour conditions of the apprentice and the replacement of regular employment, this does not exclude issues of low pay in countries and specific sectors. Furthermore, misuse goes beyond replacement, it is also exploitation of the apprentice delivering work of increasing quality but being paid partially a very low remuneration, e.g. not even covering living costs. Furthermore, there are indications that apprenticeships have considerable numbers of drop-outs (the completion rate is between 50 per cent and 85 per cent).

Parts of what are referred to as internships in many countries are not regulated and consist solely of an agreement between the employer and the participant (these concern the open-market internships). These schemes can be unpaid with the intern not possessing the same rights and obligations that relate to employees. The learning element in internships, where part of an education programme or an ALMP, is better assured compared with open-market internships. Key challenges, associated mainly with the open-market internships, being most vulnerable for abuse, concern:

- internships are not often based on clear rules regarding recognition;
- insufficient levels of learning taking place, lack of clarification of learning objectives;
- lack of engagement and lack of competences of mentors or other types of guidance staff;
- lack of transparency on hiring practices; and
- the length of traineeships are often longer than 6 months.

The status of volunteers differs depending on the country. Only a few countries (i.e. Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Spain) have a specific legal status for volunteers. The rights, obligations and remuneration depend on the agreement between the organisation and the participant. In other countries, if you volunteer, you ‘work’ under the same rules as paid employees in terms of labour rights, working conditions and safety regulations. There is the possibility to volunteer whilst being on unemployment/social benefits, which provides an option for unemployed people to develop their skills. The learning that takes place in volunteering is not usually made explicit and there is not an underlying learning plan. The challenges are similar to unpaid internships:

- lack of clear arrangements concerning the status, labour conditions, remuneration;
- insufficient levels of learning taking place;
- lack of recognition and validation of learning;
- risk of replacing quality jobs with unpaid work.

The following cross-cutting challenges are distilled related to work-based learning, and in particular those schemes which are the least regulated (open-market internships and volunteering):

- Cheap labour and substitution of regular employees: there is always the risk that certain forms of work-based learning result in the provision of cheap labour/replacement of existing employees. It is salutary to note in this regard that for internships at EU-level 40 per cent of interns received financial compensation, ranging from 20 per cent of all interns in Belgium to 80 per cent of trainees in Slovenia. For the open-market internship and volunteering, being the least regulated, the risk of misuse is highest.
- **Lack of learning taking place or being valued**: the learning is best assured when there is a learning arrangement, agreement, or individual learning plan in place. This is mostly, if not always, the case for apprenticeships and the internships implemented under the ambit of a VET programme of an ALMP, but less so in the case of open-market internships. In general, in relation to volunteering, there are typically few possibilities for any learning to be validated, certified, or accredited.

- **Equal access to work-based learning and equal opportunities in the labour market**: work-based learning, especially when there is no wage or remuneration involved, runs the risk of being socially exclusive and accessible only to those who can afford to work without being paid. This challenge is pertinent to internships and volunteering.

**Existing quality frameworks at European level and what they do not cover**

There are a number of developed quality frameworks and stakeholder proposals at European level that capture the important elements that need to be in place to ensure that work-based learning is of high quality.

The developed frameworks touch upon the identified challenges for work-based learning. They emphasise the need for a shared responsibility, involving employers and SMEs, and alignment to the labour market needs. Furthermore, in the frameworks there is attention to the quality of the learning.

There are also aspects that are identified as challenges for the apprenticeships, internships and volunteering schemes and for which no conclusive agreements are expressed in the frameworks. These aspects are highly dependent on the national tradition and system in place and on the positions of the social partners. They concern:

- For **apprenticeships**: whether apprenticeships should be based on an employment contract or not;
- For apprenticeships, internships and volunteering, under the condition that equal work should be paid equal: **whether work-based learning should always be remunerated** and if so, what would be a fair remuneration taking into account productivity.

As regards apprenticeships, there is not a common definition at European level as no agreement has been found on these issues. Further, even if there is a wide consensus that training at the workplace should alternate with training in education institutions, it is an open question what should be a minimum proportion of work-based learning in order to distinguish apprenticeships from school-based VET systems with limited internships.

In addition, related to whether the participants are compensated, the issue of assuring equal access to work-based learning and equal opportunities in the labour market is not mentioned in the proposed frameworks.

Hence, some of the overarching and specific challenges identified are not sufficiently covered by the existing quality frameworks. In order to overcome these challenges, additional action at EU-and MS-level is required.

**Suggestions for policy developments and further study**

The following suggestions are provided for policy developments and further study:
Suggestion 1: As apprenticeships lead to good employment outcomes, it is suggested to stimulate the further development of apprenticeships as an alternative to school-based learning in initial education in European Member States. This would require the following actions:

- ensure that the term ‘apprenticeship’ is used as a brand, associated with quality learning and working environments. This requires an agreement on a core definition at European level.
- stimulate further the engagement of employers (and SMEs) in the development and implementation of apprenticeships (e.g. financial incentives and support in organising work-based learning) and make them aware of the benefits of expanding the apprenticeship system in their sector in terms of recruitment and the alignment of education to the needs of labour market;
- ensure that apprenticeships are also used by groups that are currently under-represented (which differs by country);
- ensure the quality of learning in the workplace by means of establishing agreements between providers and employers and assuring the quality of the in-company trainers and mentors;
- as regards research, it would be helpful to further explore reasons for low completion rates in apprenticeships and solutions to combat drop-out;
- establish agreement between social partners at EU-level and MS level on issues related to employment contracts for apprentices and fair payment, balancing the interests of the apprentices and the employers (keeping employers interested in offering apprenticeships). This agreement should inform the development of a European level definition of the concept of apprenticeship that can be used to improve the data availability and quality on apprenticeship systems in Europe.

Suggestion 2: In relation to internships, it is suggested to stimulate a more structured approach towards internships, especially to the open-market internships and establish better governance arrangements by spelling out the contractual status, remuneration (open-market interns should be paid); guidance; and the envisaged learning outcomes. Unpaid internships can lead – but not necessarily so – to unequal access and the replacement of existing employees in an organisation. In addition, more can be done to guarantee the quality of mentors guiding the interns.

Suggestion 3: In relation to volunteering it is suggested to regard volunteering, first of all as a non-labour market related activity. First and foremost it contributes to an individual’s personal development and well-being and it makes a contribution to the local community in which it takes place. The outcomes, however, of volunteering in terms of competences and experiences gained, should be accredited applying schemes for validation of informal learning so that they have currency in the labour market. Additionally, if volunteering is regarded a stepping stone into employment, in order to allow equal access to volunteering for young people with disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, volunteers should be supported with their living costs.

Suggestion 4: in relation to research, this study has detected a need to generally improve the knowledge-base on work-based learning (apprenticeships, internships and volunteering) and a need for further study of the issue of unequal access to apprenticeships, internships and volunteering and the impact of this on transitions into the labour market. The following gaps are detected in the course of the study:

- lack of a common definition that can be applied in gathering statistical information on participation (analysis based on national sources using national definitions);
• **lack of comparative analysis of apprenticeship systems in the EU.** According to information from the Commission, Cedefop is preparing a cross-national analysis of apprenticeship systems to be published in 2018.

• there is no data available that can show any developments in participation in internships over the years;

• **lack of comparative data on employment outcomes** of apprenticeships and internships;

• **lack of identification of cases of systematic misuse of work-based learning** (i.e. cheap-labour, replacing regular employees).
1. CONTEXT AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Following the financial crisis in 2007/08, European economies and labour markets have remained stagnated. It is evident that some groups have been hit much harder than others following the financial crisis (2007/2008) and the subsequent period of recession (2008/2009). Young people in particular would appear to have been adversely affected given the increase in the unemployment rates of those aged 15-25 years. The overall rate rose rapidly from the beginning of the crisis in many European countries, and has stubbornly refused to fall until relatively recently. In general, the youth unemployment rate is much higher, even double or more, than the unemployment rates for people of all ages (25-74 years). The average youth unemployment rate for the EU-28 peaked in 2013 (23.7 per cent), though it has declined since then.¹

Regarding youth unemployment, some countries performed better than others during the post-crisis years. In Germany, for instance, youth unemployment rates decreased from 15.4 per cent in 2005 to 7.2 per cent in 2015. Austria was also able to keep its youth unemployment figures relatively low during the crisis years. The factors that explain the better performance of these countries include the institutional settings and public policies that influence school to work transitions. It is known, for instance, that vocational education and training is able to smooth the transition from school to work.² On the other hand, one cannot ignore the relatively strong economic performance of these countries as being an explanatory factor regardless of the strengths of their respective VET systems.

The economics literature³ on the topic shows that compared with adult workers who have already established themselves in the labour market,⁴ young people are more sensitive to the business cycle and periodic economic crises for several reasons, such as a lack of work experience; incomplete education; more precarious work contracts; few contacts for use in job searches (i.e. less social capital); and finally, being less likely to possess the skills employers are looking for.⁵ When young people are not able to make a relatively quick transition into the labour market after completing their studies, it can inhibit the accumulation of the human, social and economic capital that will help develop their careers⁶ and the longer the period of disengagement from the labour market – or education – the higher the risk of social and economic exclusion.⁷ Young people with multiple disadvantages such as having a disability, being a migrant and/or having a low level of educational attainment are faced with particular difficulties in entering the labour market. They may be particularly at risk of social and economic exclusion.

¹ In absolute figures this accounts for 5.6 million unemployed young people. This means that more than one in five young Europeans in the labour market cannot find a job. In some countries, such as Greece, Spain and Croatia, around half of all young people could not find employment. Since 2014, a downward trend is observable with 4.2 million young people (aged 15–24 years) being registered as unemployed in 2015 (20.3 percent EU28) (Youth unemployment figures Eurostat: Unemployment by sex and age - annual average (une_rt_a)).


The best long term remedy for youth unemployment is strong economic growth and increasing overall employment rates. As this is not happening in many European Member States, policies need to be in place to improve youth labour market outcomes to prevent young people accumulating the negative consequences resulting from youth unemployment and ineffective transitions from school to work. Economists write of ‘scarring’ where individuals’ difficulties in finding work in a given period can affect their subsequent chances of doing so.

Work-based learning, and in particular apprenticeships, internships/traineeships, and volunteering, can play a role in easing the transition from school to work. The European Commission, the European Parliament and the European Council have all strengthened their focus on young people’s transition experiences and the development of related policies. All are supporting policies (e.g. the Youth Guarantee) to bring about successful transitions, though the impact of these policies is not entirely known. This begs the question: how do skills development schemes such as apprenticeships, internships and volunteering contribute to the transition of young people into the labour market?

The purpose of this analytical study is to provide Members of the Committee with an up-to-date picture of developments in the area of work-based learning, more specifically of apprenticeships, internships/traineeships, and volunteering. This analytical study provides an overview and analysis of apprenticeships, internships and volunteering in place across the EU and the key factors that have an impact on the employability of young people.

It focuses on participation in the schemes, (employment) outcomes, quality of the schemes (working conditions), related challenges and potential misuses.

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9 OECD/ ILO (2014), Promoting better labour market outcomes for youth. 
2. **ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY**

### KEY FINDINGS

There is **not a common agreed definition on apprenticeships** in Europe and most studies refer to national definitions and sources for discussing apprenticeships. In this study apprenticeships are defined as having the following characteristics: *learning that alternates between a workplace and an educational or training institution; part of formal education and training; on successful completion, learners acquire a qualification and receive an officially recognised certificate*. In practice, apprentices usually have the status of employees and are paid for their work; ideally apprenticeships are based on a contract or formal agreement between employer and learner, but sometimes, based on a contract with the education or training institution. Evidence in this report is often based on national sources for apprenticeships using national definitions.

There are however many definitions provided by different organisations and in different reports/studies. The main issue by which definitions differ concern whether the apprenticeship by definition is based on an employment contract, or whether there are also forms of apprenticeship not based on employment contracts but based on contracts between the apprentice and the school (and agreement with the employer). Another issue is whether apprenticeships are by definition remunerated or not.

An **internship/traineeship** is defined as a work practice (either as part of a study curriculum or not) including an educational/training component which is limited in time. They are predominantly short to medium-term in duration (from a few weeks up to six months, and in certain cases lasting one year). Roughly, 3 broad categories of traineeships/internships can be distinguished: 1) Internships that are part of vocational/academic curricula or are part of (mandatory) professional training; 2) Internships associated with active labour market policies (ALMPs); 3) Internships in the open market.

In this study **volunteering** work is defined as unpaid non-compulsory work; that is, time individuals give without pay to activities performed either through an organisation or directly for others outside their own household.

### 2.1. Work-based learning and apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering

Work-based learning refers to knowledge and skills acquired through carrying out – and reflecting on – tasks in a vocational context, either at the workplace or in a VET institution. It can, however, also take place outside the VET system in, for instance, volunteering.

Work-based learning has been a high policy priority at European level in recent years. The **Bruges communiqué** on enhanced European Cooperation in Vocational Education and Training for the period 2011-2020 indicates that

> "Work-based learning is a way for people to develop their potential. The work-based component contributes substantially to developing a professional identity and can boost the self-esteem of those who might otherwise see themselves as failures. Learning on the job enables those in employment to develop their potential whilst maintaining their earnings. A

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well performing VET, which enables learning on and off-the-job on a part-time or full-time basis, can thereby also strongly contribute to social cohesion in our societies.”

In Riga in 2015, the Member States agreed to “promote work-based learning in all its forms, with special attention to apprenticeships, by involving social partners, companies, chambers and VET providers, as well as by stimulating innovation and entrepreneurship”.

Related to the broad involvement of stakeholders at European level, the European Alliance for Apprenticeships (EAfA) brings together governments with other key stakeholders, such as business, the social partners, chambers, vocational education and training (VET) providers, regional authorities, youth representatives, and think tanks to strengthen the quality, supply and demand, and image of apprenticeships in Europe. Additionally the Youth Guarantee, adopted in 2013, explicitly mentions apprenticeships and internships as ways in which to prevent young people being unemployed. The employment outcomes of apprenticeship programmes, especially those associated with the dual training system, has led Member States such as BE, CY, EL, ES, HU, IT, PT, RO, SE, to either introduce schemes akin to this system, or to embark upon major reforms of their apprenticeships.

Specifically for volunteering, in 2011, the European Year of Volunteering (EYV) was organised to help address the challenges that volunteering faces, such as a declining volunteer base and a shift in focus from long-term commitments to specific short-term projects.

Within work-based learning, this study focuses on apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering, as skills development schemes that can support the transition of (young) people into the labour market. Apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering allows individuals to document their practical work experience as part of developing their CVs and/or as requested in educational curricula, or to gain work experience for the purpose of facilitating the transition from education and training to the labour market.

Before providing a comparative overview table of key characteristics of apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering, first demarcations of the terms are provided:

2.1.1. Defining apprenticeship

There is not a common agreed definition on apprenticeships in Europe and most studies refer to national definitions and sources for discussing apprenticeships, making strict comparisons difficult. One of the reasons why it is difficult to arrive at a common definition is that the definition of apprenticeship responds to national traditions and the diversity

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15 All Member States committed to ‘ensure that all young people up to the age of 25 years receive a quality offer of employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship within four months of becoming unemployed or leaving formal education’. See EC 2013/C 120/01.
18 See for instance: ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – A European Trade Union Proposal: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1147&langId=en&moreDocuments=yes, p. 12: “There is no single agreed and accepted definition of what an apprenticeship is. Moreover there has been no concerted effort to try and produce one. At the national level there are different definitions.”
19 See for instance: LSE (2010), the State of Apprenticeship in 2010 International Comparisons Australia Austria England France Germany Ireland Sweden Switzerland: cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/special/cepasp22.pdf, p. 3. This report does not provide a common definition for all countries, but reports on national definitions and systems.
in apprenticeships approaches in Europe ranging from fully-fledged dual vocational systems with a long tradition to recent efforts to introduce and strengthen work-based learning as element of VET systems, thus building up dual systems.20

In this study the Cedefop / European Commission is used to define apprenticeships. According to these definitions, apprenticeships have the following characteristics:21

- learning that alternates between a workplace and an educational or training institution;
- part of formal education and training;
- on successful completion, learners acquire a qualification and receive an officially recognised certificate;
- apprentices usually have the status of employees and are paid for their work;
- ideally based on a contract or formal agreement between employer and learner, but sometimes, based on a contract with the education or training institution.

By selecting this definition, this study does by no means takes this definition as the only definition possible as there is a wide variety of definitions available. This definition was selected as the study it is used in provides the most complete overview of apprenticeships in Europe. There are however many definitions provided by different organisations and in different reports/ studies:

- **ETUC (2016)** propose a stricter, systematic definition based upon previous Cedefop analysis: "Systematic long-term training alternating periods at the workplace and in educational institutions or training institutions. The apprentice is contractually linked to the employer having the status of an employee and receives remuneration (wage or allowance). The employer assumes responsibility for providing the trainee with training leading to a specific occupation."22

- **Commission (2015)** "Apprenticeships formally combine and alternate company-based training (periods of practical work experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical / practical education followed in a school or training centre) and lead to nationally recognised qualification upon successful completion. Most often there is a contractual relationship between the employer and the apprentice, with the apprentice being paid for his/her work."23 Contrasting with the ETUC definition, the existence of an employment contract does not form part of the definition.

- A definition based upon a comparative review of 14 G20 countries by the **ILO (2012)** includes a contract, a wage and a final certification, but leaves duration and the scope of qualification open. It concludes that "a 'formal' apprenticeship is structured and regulated, usually by legislation at national level, is waged, based in the workplace and based on a contract which specifies duration, programme of learning including...


21 Cedefop (2014), Briefing Note: Developing apprenticeships. This definition is in line with the definition used by the European Commission (2013), Key features of Apprenticeship & Traineeship schemes: http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=10392&langId=en ; Apprenticeships are those forms of Initial Vocational Education and Training (IVET) that formally combine and alternate company based training (periods of practical work experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical / practical education followed in a school or training centre), and whose successful completion leads to nationally recognised IVET certification degrees. Most often there is a contractual relationship between the employer and the apprentice.


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(transferable skills) assessment and final certification and the entitlement to off-the-job-learning.**24

- **OECD (2017)** - in a recent study OECD use a minimal definition taking into account the existing heterogeneity of apprenticeships types of apprenticeship. Contrasting with the ILO and the Cedefop definition, it does not mention an employment contract or wages, but stresses that its character as a formal qualification: “Apprenticeships typically involve a structured mix of: 1) work placements during which apprentices develop new skills and perform productive work; and 2) off-the-job education and training involving not or limited productive work and typically funded and managed primarily by public authorities (e.g. education and training provided in vocational schools, colleges, recognised educational and training providers). Apprenticeships lead to a formal qualification.**25

The main issue by which definitions differ concern whether the apprenticeship by definition is based on an employment contract, or whether there are also forms of apprenticeship not based on employment contracts but based on contracts between the apprentice and the school (and agreement with the employer). Another issue is whether apprenticeships are by definition remunerated or not. Interestingly, even if most definitions specify that work experience and training in educational institutions should alternate, they leave the proportion of training at the workplace open.

2.1.2. Defining internship / traineeship

An internship/traineeship is defined as a work practice (either as part of a study curriculum or not) including an educational/training component which is limited in time. They are predominantly short to medium-term in duration (from a few weeks up to six months, and in certain cases lasting one year).**26 In this report the terms internships and traineeships are used interchangeably**27 as despite the differences (internships tend to be shorter compared to traineeships and more often relate to positions in professional fields), they share the communality that they are not linked to recognised qualifications (although the work-practice can be part of a programme leading to a formal qualification).**28 Roughly, 3 broad categories of traineeships/internships can be distinguished, as presented here below:**29

- **Internships that are part of vocational/academic curricula or are part of (mandatory) professional training** (e.g. teaching, medicine, architecture, etc.). Internships in this category have a dominant focus on learning and are often mediated or certified by education providers. Even though the ultimate objective is to prepare interns for the labour market, these internships focus more on securing learning outcomes than securing immediate employment. These types of internships are

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27 Often the term traineeship is used, the term internship is also commonly used and some studies refer to apprenticeship-type schemes to indicate those schemes where a considerable part of the learning takes place in the workplace. See for instance: European Commission (2012), Apprenticeship Supply in the Member States of the European Union.
28 EURES: https://ec.europa.eu/eures/public/news-articles/-/asset_publisher/LZVYxNkK1%20%20_content/traineeship-internship-apprenticeship-which-one-is-for-you-
?_101_INSTANCE_LZVYxNkK11W_backLabelKey=news.articles.back.to.list&_101_INSTANCE_LZVYxNkK11W _showAssetFooter=true.
29 Based on an analysis of European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States and European Commission (2013), Apprenticeship and Traineeship Schemes in EU27: Key Success Factors.
common in school-based VET curricula and are increasingly popular in HE curricula as well.30

- **Internships associated with active labour market policies** (ALMPs). The main objective of such internships is to help young people into employment; as a result, these focus less on education. While this does not exclude a learning component, the focus is more on securing (immediate) employment through gaining professional experience and skills. These internships are often mediated or supported by Public Employment Services, who are also responsible for overseeing the quality and results of this type of internships. In response to the economic and financial crisis, this type of internship has become a popular measure across the EU. These internships are usually state subsidised, also involved funding from the European Social Fund, of funding in the framework of the Youth Employment Initiative.

- **Internships in the open market**. This category combines a large assortment of types of internships that can be found on the labour market.31 Usually these internships are reserved for positions in professional fields - a law graduate/student may intern at a law firm over the summer, or a young person may intern for job orientation. A science student/graduate will intern in a laboratory and so on. As with ALMP internships, these are generally not linked to recognised qualifications. However, there can be a blurred line between an intern and someone working through their probationary period after having been hired.32 The terms and conditions for this type of internship is set by employers and interns themselves, without mediation by PES or education providers. Internships sought by graduates after completing their studies to gain work experience fall into this category, ranging from unpaid positions from which interns benefit little to highly competitive and popular internships (such as graduate traineeships in European Institutions).33

### 2.1.3. Defining volunteering

In this study **volunteering** work is defined as unpaid non-compulsory work; that is, time individuals give without pay to activities performed either through an organisation or directly for others outside their own household.34 Volunteering is a broad concept that can encompass anything from watering a neighbour’s flowers, unpaid coaching of youth football teams, to conducting unpaid social work. The European Council defines volunteering as “all types of voluntary activity, whether formal, non-formal or informal which are undertaken of a person’s own free will, choice and motivation, and is without concern for financial gain”.35 Due to the focus on the development of skills and employment in this paper, this chapter will limit the analysis of volunteer work to ‘formal’. **Formal volunteering** is rather generic and includes voluntary activities that take place in organised structures.36 Consider for instance volunteer positions (such as lay judges) or participating as a youth group leader in a sport association. **Informal/non-formal forms of volunteering** refer to unorganised forms such as helping neighbours; support your sports club, and are not further discussed here. Formal volunteer

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30 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States.
31 Note that some – often highly competitive – entry-level positions for HE graduates in large (international) organisations are often termed traineeships as well. These are excluded by this study, as these are in fact entry-level job offers, with regular contractual arrangements and a learning component.
32 EURES, the European Job Mobility Portal.
work is an effective way of actively contributing to local communities either in the volunteers’ home country or outside it, while developing new skills.

2.1.4. Comparative overview of the characteristics of Apprenticeships and Internships / traineeships and volunteering

The work-based learning schemes included in this study differ with regard to a number of aspects. The table below, based on the European Commission 2013 report on ‘Apprenticeship and Traineeship Schemes in EU27: Key Success Factors’ and amended by the authors (adding the column on volunteering; aligning it with the provided definitions), lists the main differences between apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering.

**Table 1: Differences between Apprenticeships and Internships/traineeships and volunteering**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scope</strong></td>
<td>Full qualifying professional or vocational education and training profile</td>
<td>Complementing educational programme or individual CV</td>
<td>Not linked to an educational programme; conducted out of own interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective</strong></td>
<td>Professional profile/qualification</td>
<td>Documented practical work experience</td>
<td>Provide support to an organisation; to be of benefit for the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational level</strong></td>
<td>Usually EQF level 3-5</td>
<td>All EQF levels – common forms in (pre) vocational education, in higher education and after graduation (sometimes compulsory)</td>
<td>Non-specified, all skills level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
<td>Acquisition of the full set of knowledge, skills and competences of an occupation</td>
<td>Vocational and/or work/career orientation, acquisition of parts of knowledge, skills and competences of an occupation or a profession</td>
<td>No specific learning objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>On-the-job learning</strong></td>
<td>Structured on-the-job-learning, equally important to coursework</td>
<td>Structured and non-structured learning, complementing coursework or optional extra</td>
<td>non-structured, informal learning; no coursework involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length/duration</strong></td>
<td>Determined, middle- to long-term Usually up to four years</td>
<td>Varying, short- to middle-term Usually less than one year</td>
<td>Varying, short term to involvement for years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment status</strong></td>
<td>Employee status Contracted/employed apprentice</td>
<td>Varying status ranging from agreement with employer or school to volunteer status or not clearly defined status</td>
<td>Optional agreement on rights and obligations between the volunteer and the organisation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2. Analytical framework and methodological approach

If the transition from school-to-work is proving difficult it places an onus on governments to find a way to remedy this situation in order to not permanently affect young people by the difficulties they encounter at the start of their working lives. Apprenticeships provide an effective means of making the transition from school-to-work, but in some countries they are in short-supply. Internships, traineeships and volunteering potentially provide an individual with the experience – and with that experience a degree of skills and social capital accumulation – that will increase their chances of making the transition into paid employment. But this is not without risk. Whilst it can provide an effective means of making the transition into employment, it can also be a means of providing employers with free labour without conferring a compensating benefit upon the individual and it may prove to be a substitute for people in paid, permanent employment. That is not to say that this happens in practice, it is simply saying it is a risk that needs to be considered. With this in mind, this study aims to address the various issues listed below.

- The participation in apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering to assess their importance in Europe. In relation to this topic, an indication is provided on how many people participate in the skills development schemes and the trend in participation over time. This allows an assessment of the importance of the skills development scheme in relation to skills acquisition in Europe.

- The outcomes of the schemes in terms of increased employability. This relates to qualifications and competences gained and increased chances to enter employment. In relation to this topic, an indication is provided of the extent to which the skills development schemes contribute to gaining qualifications and competences and what is the impact on employment chances. This allows an assessment on the extent to which the schemes contribute to the successful transition into employment of their participants.

- The working and learning conditions in the schemes. This topic deals with the quality of the skills development scheme. It concerns providing an overview of the position of participants in the company/organisation, their employment conditions - including remuneration - and an overview of the learning that takes place. This allows an assessment of the quality of the scheme from the perspective of the participant.

Related to the participation patterns, outcomes and working and learning conditions, key challenges are identified. As noted above, apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering all potentially confer benefits on their participants. But there are risks too – as alluded to above, including abuse of these schemes (such as replacing paid employment). So

there is a need to consider the challenges that are posed in ensuring that each of these schemes delivers training – and a range of other benefits – that are to the benefit of the individual participant and, at the same time, are not associated with any displacement or substitution elsewhere in the organisations offering them.

Based on these issues, overarching conclusions are developed on how these schemes contribute to the transition of young people in the labour market. The study explores where policy may be required to accentuate the positives associated with each of the schemes and reduce any concomitant risks. In addition, the study provides recommendations for further research.

Below, the key concepts used in this study are presented in a schematic overview:

**Figure 1: Schematic overview of the analytical framework**

This analytical study aims to gather available information related to the topics as identified in the analytical framework. It reports on information at EU-level where available, and identifies gaps in the evidence base. In addition, the study gathers information from a small number of countries. This information is provided for illustrative purposes. In other words, the examples are used to highlight a particular point. The countries are:

- the UK, as a country with a strong market-orientation towards skills development schemes. Volunteering is not regulated by law;
- Germany, as a country with a strong apprenticeship (Dual) system. Volunteering is not regulated by law;
- Netherlands, as a country having apprenticeship and school-based track leading to the same qualification, high involvement in internships and substantial involvement of people in volunteering. Volunteering is not regulated by law;
- Italy, where apprenticeship systems are under development but which has a strong civil society in which volunteering is regulated by law; and
- Poland, where there is provision for apprenticeship training in the craft sector. The vast majority of Initial VET in Poland is however school-based training. A high number of young people however participate in internships. Volunteering is regulated by law.
The **methodological approach** consists of a combination of desk research and supplementary interviews. The desk research is concentrated on studies, policy documents, policy papers, reports and evaluations published in the last five years to obtain an up to date picture of skills development schemes. Where relevant - i.e. where they still apply to the current situation - older documents are taken into account (this is for instance the case in relation to volunteering where the major cross-country analyses were conducted in the framework of the European Year of Volunteering in 2011). In addition to the desk research, the interviews are used to take into account stakeholders’ views on the current state of play of apprenticeships, internships, and volunteering. The interviews provided information about the positions of these organisations in relation to apprenticeships, internships and volunteering schemes (as relevant) provided more documentation and specific studies on aspects covered in the analytical study, and were used to validate the key findings of the analysis. Also, the interviews pointed to country-specific situations of apprenticeships, internships and volunteering (for instance on their status), and highlighted aspects related to the validation of competences, the employment relevance of volunteering, the broader impact of volunteering, substitution of regular paid employment, and the role of EU/European level initiatives. The box below lists the organisations with which interviews were conducted between 4th of October and 29th of November 2016.

**Box 1: List of organisations interviewed**

1. The European Alliance of Voluntary Organisations.
2. The Lifelong Learning Platform.
3. ETUC.
5. European Student Union.
7. Netherlands Youth Institute (the Netherlands).
8. Movisie (the Netherlands).
9. Caritas (Italy).
10. Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (BIBB) (Germany).
3. PARTICIPATION: PATTERNS AND TRENDS

KEY FINDINGS

The total number of apprentices in a given year is estimated to lie between 2 and 4 million. In eight out of ten countries where data are available (reported on in comparative reports), there is a downward trend of the number of apprentices. This trend has been visible for some time (more than a decade). Depending upon the country, this can be due to various reasons: (a) an insufficient number of employers willing to take on apprentices, (b) the youth cohort being in decline; and/or (c) young people having a preference for the general pathway because it is more likely to grant them entry to university. So whilst apprenticeships have many positives as an effective means of getting young people into employment, it is not a panacea to either the problem of youth unemployment or the better matching of skills supply to demand.

Concerning participation patterns, evidence suggests that where apprenticeships are considered a regular educational pathway (e.g. Germany, Austria), apprentices tend to be younger compared to countries where apprenticeships are used as a ‘second option’ or used for career progression of low-skilled adult workers (e.g. UK and the Netherlands).

The total number of interns in a given year is estimated to lie between 4 and 6 million. However, the estimation likely underestimates the enrolment in internships. There is (weak) evidence that the number of internships is increasing in the last years.

Internships serve a diverse population, ranging from lower Vocational Education and Training (VET) to Higher Education (HE). The number of HE students/graduates is disproportionately higher than VET students/graduates.

The total number of volunteers (15-30) in a given year is estimated to be around 1.5 million. This number has remained fairly stable over recent years.

Concerning participation patterns, some country-specific evidence suggests that volunteers are generally higher educated, wealthier people, living in less deprived areas, living in rural areas, in employment, and member of a sport club or similar organisation.

3.1. Participants in apprenticeships, internships and volunteering

The total number of apprentices in a given year is estimated to lie between 2 and 4 million. The most comprehensive overview of the number of apprentices is provided by the European Commission.³⁸ According to the available data for 2009, this report estimated that in the European Union as a whole there was a total of 3.7 million students involved in apprenticeships (according to national criteria).³⁹ The Eurobarometer survey 2013⁴⁰ among EU citizens shows that across the EU, one in every four EU citizen aged 15-35 has enrolled in an apprenticeship. Transposing this finding on annual newly enrolled EU student population

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in ISCED level 3-6, suggests that in the EU around 2 million people are enrolled in an apprenticeship in a given year.\textsuperscript{41} The European Commission study on ‘Apprenticeship and Traineeship Schemes in EU27: Key Success Factors: A Guidebook for Policy Planners and Practitioners’\textsuperscript{42} provided the following overview of participation in apprenticeships across Europe.

Map 1: Incidence (per cent) of Apprentices in the Youth Population (aged 15-29) in EU27 (2011)


The total number of interns in a given year is estimated to lie between 4 and 6 million. The 2013 Eurobarometer survey, among EU citizens, shows that across the EU one in every two EU citizens aged 15-35 has enrolled in at least one internship in their life.\textsuperscript{44} Transposing this finding on annual newly enrolled EU student population in ISCED level 3-6, suggests that in the EU around 4 million interns do at least one internship in a given year.\textsuperscript{45} These estimates align broadly to an estimated 5.7 million students that are involved in mainly school-based

\textsuperscript{41} Authors’ estimate based on Eurostat data on education enrolment in 2012 ([educ_ilev]), assuming an average time in education of 5 years, combined with the findings of Eurobarometer 378 2013.


\textsuperscript{43} To identify apprentices, the study used the variable TEMPREAS in the EU LFS micro data, which collects information on the reason for having a temporary job/work contract. Following the indications provided during the 3rd European User Conference for EU-LFS and EU-SILC (Mannheim, 21- 22 March 2013), they consider as apprentices those persons having a “temporary contract covering a period of training (Apprentices, trainees, research assistants, etc.) (TEMPREAS=1)”. The majority of individual aged 15-29 in this category are apprentices.

\textsuperscript{44} European Commission (2013), The experience of traineeships in the EU, flash Eurobarometer 378. The variety and lack of registration of (informal) internships complicates any estimate of the number of students/graduates involved in internships.

\textsuperscript{45} Authors’ estimate based on Eurostat data on education enrolment in 2012 ([educ_ilev]), assuming an average time in education of 5 years, combined with the findings of Eurobarometer 378 2013.
VET training where compulsory work-based training is part of the curriculum (apprenticeship-type schemes). These apprenticeship-type schemes include school-based internships (the first category), but not ALMP and open market internships, the provided estimations therefore likely underestimate the enrolment in internships.

The total number of volunteers (15-30) in a given year is estimated to be around 1.5 million. The Flash Eurobarometer 'European Youth' 2015 concluded that around one young (aged 15-30) European in four has engaged in voluntary activities. Attempting an estimate on the population aged 15-30 in EU28, it can be concluded that around 22 million young European have been engaged in volunteering; when broken down per year it is estimated that approximately 1.5 million young people are engaged in volunteering.

An analysis of the national surveys and reports on volunteering identified by key stakeholders in the Member States indicates that, there are around 92 to 94 million adults involved in volunteering in the EU.

Apprenticeships, internships and volunteering both cross educational sectors and can take place outside of educational sectors as is indicated in Chapter 1. For this purpose, to provide a proxy of the weight of the apprenticeships, internships and volunteering, the participation is compared to the total number of annual newly enrolled EU students in ISCED level 3-6 (which is around 7.7 million). Given this proxy, it is estimated that work-based learning plays an important role in the skills development of young people.

While the overall participation in apprenticeships, internships and volunteering among young people in the EU is high, the EU-level aggregation masks considerable differences between EU Member States, as presented in the table below. The participation rate in apprenticeships ranges from 5 per cent in Bulgaria to 53 per cent in Austria; for internships the range is from 8 per cent in Lithuania to 79 per cent in the Netherlands and Cyprus; and the volunteering rate ranges from 10 per cent in Bulgaria to 42 per cent in Ireland.

49 The 22 million young people cover the age group 15-30 year olds. The data collection therefore covers involvement in volunteering over the last 15 years. When broken down for one year, the involvement is 1.5 million young people.
51 Eurostat (New entrants by education level, programme orientation, sex and age [educ_uoe_ent01]), ISCED: Upper secondary education; Short-cycle tertiary education; Bachelor’s or equivalent level; Master’s or equivalent level; Doctoral or equivalent level, in 2013 (most complete data compared to the years 2014 and 2015.


### Table 2: Participation in apprenticeships, internships and volunteering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Participation in apprenticeships, internships and volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Apprenticeship (2013)**<sup>52</sup>  
Age group: 18 to 35 | High participation in apprenticeships (>30 per cent)  
AT, CZ, DE, HR, FR, HU, LT |
|                | Medium participation in apprenticeships (<30 per cent & >20 per cent)  
IT, PT, SK, LV, PL, LU, NL, DK |
|                | Low participation in apprenticeships (<20 per cent)  
EL, ES, CY, BE, BG, SI, SE, UK, IE, RO, EE, FI, MT |
| **Internships (2013)**<sup>53</sup>  
Age group: 18 to 35 | High participation in internships (>50 per cent)  
BE, FR, DE, EE, LU, NL, AT, FI |
|                | Medium participation in internships (<50 per cent & >25 per cent)  
EL, ES, IT, CY, PT, BG, HU, PL, SI, SE, UK, DK |
|                | Low participation in internships (<25 per cent)  
SK, HR, IE, LV, LT, RO, CZ, MT |
| **Volunteering (2015)**<sup>54</sup>  
Age group: 15 to 30 | High participation in volunteering (>25 per cent)  
CY, PT, BE, IE, SI, UK, DE, DK, MT, NL |
|                | Medium participation in volunteering (<25 per cent & >20 per cent)  
ES, IT, HR, SK, FR, LV, LT, PL, AT, CZ, EE, LU |
|                | Low participation in volunteering (<20 per cent)  
EL, BG, HU, RO, SE, FI |

#### 3.2. Trends in the number of participants

According to a study by the European Trade Union Convention (ETUC), covering countries from continental Europe, Southern Europe and UK there are indications that the participation in **apprenticeships** is decreasing in absolute numbers.<sup>55</sup> For instance, in the UK (England), France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Ireland and Denmark the number of apprentices has declined over recent years. Of the ten countries included in the selection, only in Belgium has the number remained fairly constant, and only Spain saw an increase of apprenticeship numbers.<sup>56</sup> The downward development seems to be non-cyclical as the trend is visible over a longer period of time. For instance, in Germany and the Netherlands, the

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<sup>52</sup> European Commission (2013), The experience of traineeships in the EU, flash Eurobarometer 378: in this study apprenticeship is understood as: “apprenticeship is rather a systematic, long-term course of training (lasting on average 3 years) alternating periods in the workplace and in an educational institution or training centre.” p. 90.

<sup>53</sup> European Commission (2013), The experience of traineeships in the EU, flash Eurobarometer 378: in this study, traineeship is understood as: “Traineeships are understood as a limited period of work experience and training spent in a business, public body or non-profit institution by students or young graduates. This excludes regular jobs.” p. 90.

<sup>54</sup> European Commission (2015), Flash Eurobarometer 408 European Youth Report. This report does not provide a definition of volunteering. It refers to ‘Involvement in organised voluntary activities’ and ‘Involvement in international volunteering and international youth projects’, p. 2.


<sup>56</sup> See ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – a European Trade Union Proposal: [http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1147&langId=en&moreDocuments=yes, p. 12](http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1147&langId=en&moreDocuments=yes, p. 12): “There is no single agreed and accepted definition of what an apprenticeship is. Moreover there has been no concerted effort to try and produce one. At the national level there are different definitions.”
downward trend can be identified for more than 10 years.\textsuperscript{57} The following figure reports from national sources, based on national definitions on the development of apprenticeship participation in England, the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy (available comparative reports\textsuperscript{58} do not report on the participation in apprenticeships across years for different Member States). Due to the fact that there is no common definition, the national data is not directly comparable.

**Figure 2:** Participation in apprenticeships 2009-2015 in the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, UK (England) and Poland

![Graph showing participation in apprenticeships 2009-2015 in the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, UK (England) and Poland.](image)

**Source:** Authors based on national sources.\textsuperscript{59}

The following figure provides an overview of the development of the number of apprentices related to the total number in 2009 (=100, except for Italy where 2010 is the reference).

**Figure 3:** The development of the number of apprentices 2009-2015 in the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, UK (England) and Poland

![Graph showing the development of the number of apprentices 2009-2015 in the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, UK (England) and Poland.](image)

**Source:** Authors based on national sources.\textsuperscript{60}


Concerning **internships**, there is no data available that can show any developments in participation over the years. The Eurobarometer survey data does however suggest an increase in participation level in recent years: in comparison to the cohort of 30-35 year old, persons aged 20-29 substantially more often reported experience in internships. This can be interpreted as an indication that younger generations participate more in internships.\(^61\)

In relation to **volunteering**, the figures have remained stable between 2011 and 2014 at European level. At Member State level, as figure 5 below shows, a mixed picture emerges whereby some Member States see an increase and others a decrease of participation rates. The Eurobarometer 2011 report\(^62\) stated that a quarter of the EU citizens aged over 15 respondents (24 per cent) were involved in voluntary activities on a regular (11 per cent) or occasional basis (13 per cent).\(^63\) Hence, compared with the findings from February 2011, young people are now either equally or less likely to have been involved in organised voluntary activities. No single reason exists that can explain the different developments of participation in volunteering work across different MS.

**Map 2:** Development of participation in voluntary activities between 2011 and 2015

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\(^{62}\) Eurobarometer (2011), Volunteering and Intergenerational Solidarity, EUROBAROMETER 75.2. The report does not provide a definition of volunteering.

\(^{63}\) European Commission (2015), Flash Eurobarometer 408 European Youth Report. This report does not provide a definition of volunteering. It refers to ‘Involvement in organised voluntary activities’ and ‘Involvement in international volunteering and international youth projects’, p. 2.
Participation also differs with regard to **economic sectors**, whereby there are indications that the service sectors tend to be responsible for most apprentices, however this is highly dependent on the national economic structure and institutional arrangements. A review of **apprenticeship** systems in eight countries concluded that the “service sector occupations dominate in Australia, Austria, England and Switzerland. The service sector and industrial/craft occupations are equally represented in Germany. In France, construction, process industries and engineering outnumber apprenticeships in the service sector while in Ireland apprenticeships are only offered in construction and industrial occupations.”

National sources from UK and Italy confirm the dominance of the service sectors. In the UK, for instance the majority of apprenticeships were in the service sectors. Almost three quarters (73 per cent) of all starts were concentrated in three sectors: Business, Administration and Law; Health, Public Services and Care and Retail & Commercial Enterprise. The most popular sector was Business, Administration and Law, accounting for 29 per cent of all apprenticeship starts in England, closely followed by Health, Public Services and Care (26 per cent). In Italy, with regard to the types of companies activating apprenticeship paths, the ones active in the service sector represent 66 per cent while handicrafts represent 25 per cent of the total and the ones in the construction sector represent eight per cent.

There are a number of sectors where **internships/traineeships** are increasingly common. As Table 3 shows, traineeships are commonly found not only in the private sector but also in both the public sector/administration and the non-profit/third sector/NGOs. There is evidence that, in some cases, government initiatives seek to promote traineeships in particular sectors deemed to have strategic importance to their economy. For example, this is the case for the ICT sector in Malta and tourism and hospitality and ICTs in Cyprus.

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64 LSE (2010), the State of Apprenticeship in 2010 International Comparisons Australia Austria England France Germany Ireland Sweden Switzerland: cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/special/cepsp22.pdf p. 3. This report does not provide a common definition for all countries, but reports on national definitions and systems.


66 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States, p. 70.
Table 3: Examples of Sectors where Traineeships are prevalent (2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectors</th>
<th>Member States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creative industries (e.g. Culture, Art &amp; Publishing)</td>
<td>AT, BE, DE, DK, EL, ES, FI, FR, IE, IT, LT, LV, MT, NL, PT, SE, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media/Journalism &amp; PR</td>
<td>AT, BE, DE, DK, EL, ES, FI, FR, IT, LT, LV, MT, NL, SE, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism &amp; Hospitality industry</td>
<td>AT, BE, CY, CZ, DE, DK, EE, ES, EL, FR, HU, IE, IT, LU, LV, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration &amp; Management Consulting</td>
<td>AT, BE, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, HU, IE, IT, MT, NL, PT, SE, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banking, Finance &amp; Accountancy</td>
<td>BE, CY, DE, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, HU, IE, IT, LU, MT, NL, PT, RO, SE, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>AT, BG, BE, CZ, DE, ES, FI, FR, IT, LV, MT, NL, PL, RO, SE, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Sector/NGOs</td>
<td>AT BE, CZ, DE, EL, ES, IE, IT, FI, FR, IT, LT, LV, MT, PL, RO, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Sector</td>
<td>BE, BG, CZ, DE, EL, ES, FI, FR, IT, LT, MT, NL, PL, PT, SI, SK, UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States.67

The trend, mainly related to apprenticeships, has to be seen within a broader perspective related to demographic developments and the enrolment in IVET in general. With regards to demographic developments, over previous decades (since 1960), the birth rate in the EU-28 is decreasing. In the period 1990-2000 (the birth period of young people who are currently between 16 and 26 years old) the birth rate decreased from nearly 6 million to 5.2 million.68 This lowered the participation in the education system in general, including work-based learning schemes. The general enrolment in IVET, compared to overall upper secondary education slightly decreased in Europe between 2006 and 2012 from 51.9 per cent to 50.4 per cent. In addition, the IVET work-based students as a percentage of upper secondary IVET decreased in the period 2006-2012 from 27.2 per cent to 26.5 per cent.69 In light of this broader perspective, **work-based learning in formal education is under pressure in Europe.**

Besides the demographic development impacting the **participation in apprenticeships** in Europe, there is a multitude of other factors that affects the participation rate in a country.

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67 The study covered 27 Member States and the following five types of traineeships were examined: Traineeships which form optional or compulsory part of academic and/or vocational curricula (i.e. traineeships during education); Traineeships in the open market which, after completion of studies, provide graduates with work-related experience before they find stable employment; Traineeships as part of active labour market policies (ALMPs) for unemployed young people with the explicit aim to facilitate their labour market transition; Traineeships which form part of mandatory professional training, e.g. law, medicine, teaching, architecture, accounting, etc.; and Transnational traineeships.

68 Eurostat (Population change - Demographic balance and crude rates at national level [demo_gind]).

69 Cedefop (2015), On the way to 2020: data for vocational education and training policies: Country statistical overviews 2014 update. The European Parliament study (European Parliament (2014), Dual education: a bridge over troubled water?) reports on an increase of the work-based students of 0.2%. This however relates to the period 2006-2010, and does not take into account the latest data reported on in the Cedefop publication (which is 2012).
The drivers for participation in work-based learning as part of formal education programmes are part of a complex governance framework involving the traditional embedding of the apprenticeship system; the public attitude towards apprenticeships; and the way costs and benefits are shared between main stakeholders causing either an increased or decreased demand for apprenticeships. Based on the Cedefop study on attractiveness of IVET, exogenous factors are mentioned that are related to the attractiveness of IVET in general. These factors explain the downwards trend in apprenticeship numbers:

- **demand drivers of attractiveness.** These drivers concern: labour market trends (including demand for specific professions); expected professional income; status of occupations; demographic trends; economic progress ((un)employment); migration of skilled labour. Specific for work-based learning, the demand is depending on whether employers hire apprentices. As long as the labour market is relatively weak and there are experienced, skilled employers looking for work, there is less need for employers to hire apprentices. Despite various publications presenting the business case for employers to get involved in apprenticeships and work-based learning, still it remains challenging to get employers (especially SMEs) involved;

- **supply drivers of attractiveness.** These factors concern social factors, particularly views of family and teachers; attractiveness of other educational pathways; norms and participation in different pathways; level of interest in subject (education at earlier levels, stereotypes). Throughout Europe, under influence of the Lisbon strategy and ET2020 there is a tendency to focus on increasing participation in higher education and VET is regarded as a second choice. As indicated by the Cedefop report, “Stereotypes prevail: many Europeans still opt for a vocational educational pathway as second choice when deciding about a future career. Despite being high on European and national policy agendas for more than a decade, and despite all efforts made, VET is no more attractive in most countries today than it was some years ago.” In the Netherlands, in general, there is reduced interest in VET and within the VET sector there is more interest in the school-based pathway compared with the dual/apprenticeship pathway. In Germany, the interview with BIBB pointed to the fact that higher education is seen as a more attractive education route compared with apprenticeships. The interview also mentioned the lack of engagement with the tradition of the apprenticeship among migrant groups: these groups tend to prefer the school-based educational pathway as preparation for the labour market.

The ETUC report also points at the occurrence of mismatch between supply and demand of apprenticeship places (see box). Also this mismatch can be a factor for the decline of apprenticeships.

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74 See ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – a European Trade Union Proposal p.11: “Given that apprenticeship training by its very nature is a combination of school-based and work-based training, a major challenge is clearly the state of the labour market which itself is dependent upon development in the broader economy.”
76 The ET2020 objectives includes: at least 40% of people aged 30-34 should have completed some form of higher education: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework_en](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework_en).
Box 2: ETUC report on Mismatch of supply and demand: Germany

“Where figures are available, in Germany for example, 522,231 young people obtained apprenticeship places in 2014, but 603,240 were looking for apprenticeship places, a mismatch of 81,099. Moreover, from another perspective, there is evidence that German companies cannot fill apprenticeship places; 37,101 vocational training places remained unfilled in 2014, notably, for example, for restaurant specialists, butchers, plumbers, salespersons specialising in foodstuffs and bakers. There may be perfectly understandable reasons for this mismatch, geographical proximity for example, but it serves to illustrate a fundamental point for all apprenticeship systems – how can employers find apprentices, and vice versa? Central to the issue of supply is the readiness of companies to offer apprenticeship places, and here we see in Germany, for example, that the number of companies offering training places continues to fall, down to 437,721 in 2013, and most markedly in very small companies.”

3.3. Participation patterns

Women are under-represented in apprenticeships and are overrepresented in low-paid sectors: The ETUC report indicates that with the exception of England (with 53 per cent), the latest figures show that young women are in a minority: "Young women make up 43 per cent in Italy, 40.1 per cent in Germany, 37 per cent in the Netherlands, 33.7 per cent in France, between 20 and 30 per cent in Belgium, and an extremely low 0.5 per cent in Ireland. The English figures present another challenge however - 'there appears to be a gender balance in apprenticeships overall, in reality men and women train in markedly different sectors, reflecting and emphasising occupational segregation in the workforce generally. Women are significantly under-represented in high-quality sectors such as engineering (less than 4 per cent), while men are under-represented in low-pay sectors such as the children’s and young people’s workforce (6.9 per cent).'"

In addition, although generally speaking higher education is the favoured educational pathways for students and less well-off students general enrol in, evidence from the UK suggests that young people from low-income backgrounds are less likely than their wealthier peers to undertake an apprenticeship. In the UK, a lack of information and financial barriers could continue to put those from low income backgrounds off the route: drawing from Department for Education data, the charity found that across every one of the 10 English regions, young people from low income backgrounds (those who receive free schools meals) were less likely than their wealthier counterparts to become an apprentice.

There are differences concerning the average age of apprentices in the IVET or CVET system. Compared to school-based IVET programmes, based on national sources, apprentices tend to be slightly older in the Netherlands and the UK. The average age of an apprentice school leaver is 32 years old, whereas that of a regular student is 22 years old. In the UK, however, the average age of an apprenticeship graduate does not tell the whole story: there are a lot of young people enrolling in apprenticeships, however, apprenticeships have been used as a form of CVET in some companies and/or a means for existing employees

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78 This report applies national definitions of apprenticeships.
to gain a qualification (especially from 2010 onwards), increasing the average age.\textsuperscript{82} Related to this, in the Netherlands, the apprentices are generally older, already having experienced work and used the apprenticeship as a way to gain another qualification and progress in their career (CVET).\textsuperscript{83} Also in the UK the apprentices were more likely to be already employed.\textsuperscript{84}

In countries where apprenticeships are common for IVET (such as Austria or Germany), the \textbf{dual education route} is highly popular and almost all apprentices are under 19 years old.\textsuperscript{85} In Germany, the age of apprentices is rising. These findings are based on national sources and indicate that different purposes can be associated to apprenticeships in different countries. In Austria, the apprenticeship provides a preferred route for young people to receive a labour market-relevant qualification while keeping options open to pursue further learning (in higher education); in the Netherlands and UK, besides this purpose, apprenticeships are seen as a way to change your career pathway (change profession) or progress within the profession.

EU-wide data suggests that \textbf{internships} are slightly more common among those respondents who \textbf{graduated from university} (61 per cent), compared to 40 per cent who did not.\textsuperscript{86} This can be explained by the share of VET students in apprenticeship systems, who gained professional experience differently but equally relevant. For university-level or theoretical VET qualifications however, internships are often the first steps towards a professional career, and are therefore highly relevant.

The participation patterns show that \textbf{volunteering} is slightly \textbf{more common for those} that are \textbf{already in a socio-economic favourable position} (being wealthier, in employment, being a member of a sport club or similar organisation).\textsuperscript{87} Moreover, \textbf{young people in rural villages} are more likely to engage in volunteering than their peers in medium/large towns (29 per cent against 24 per cent respectively). Finally, there are differences in the age of participation; young respondents (under 20, 29 per cent) volunteered slightly more often than those above 20 (26 per cent among 20-24 year olds, 23 per cent among 25-30 year olds). The box below provides country examples of participation patterns, taking into account a broader age range.

\textbf{Box 3: Country examples: Participation patterns in volunteering in Italy, the Netherlands and the UK}

To obtain an idea about patterns in participation in volunteering, national studies and documents are looked at for Italy, the Netherlands and the UK.

In \textbf{Italy}, in 2013 one out of eight Italians engaged in voluntary activities (around 6.63 million people). Volunteering is more widespread in North of the country. Men were more active than women (13.3 per cent against 11.9 per cent) in the age to which the majority of volunteers belong is the range 55-64.

In Italy the higher the educational level, the higher the engagement in volunteering (22.1 per cent of university graduates experienced volunteering while 6.1 per cent of those completing primary school do so). With regard to the employment level and occupational


\textsuperscript{83} See: CBS (2015), Arbeidsparticipatie van mbo-schoolverlaters: \url{https://www.cbs.nl/nl-nl/achtergrond/2015/51/-/media/e68cf09f769341d09fd4276e158c01b2.ashx}.


\textsuperscript{85} LSE (2010), the State of Apprenticeship in 2010 International Comparisons Australia Austria England France Germany Ireland Sweden Switzerland: \url{cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/special/cepsp22.pdf}.

\textsuperscript{86} European Commission (2013), The experience of traineeships in the EU, flash Eurobarometer 378.

\textsuperscript{87} European Commission (2015), Flash Eurobarometer 408 European Youth Report.
level, the most active groups are employed (14.8 per cent) and students (12.9 per cent). 23.4 per cent of people belonging to richer families are active in volunteering, whilst 9.7 per cent of people belong to households with insufficient means to do so.\footnote{Istat (2014), Unpaid activities to benefit others, available at \url{http://www.istat.it/en/archive/129122}. First survey on voluntary work. Data from 2013.}

In the \textbf{Netherlands}, Statistics Netherlands (CBS) calculated that for 2015 49 per cent of Dutch people volunteered at least once a year.\footnote{CBS (2015), Wie doet vrijwilligerswerk? Other studies such as the biennial research ‘Geven in Nederland 2015’ shows that in 2014 37 percent Dutch people volunteered at least once a year for a social organisation: Schuyt, Th.N.M., Gouwenberg, B.M., Bekkers, R.H.F.P. (2015), Geven In Nederland 2015.} The largest group of volunteers in the Netherlands are aged between 35 and 45 years and they mostly volunteer in schools, sports clubs, hobby clubs, or in their neighbourhood. The biennial study ‘Geven in Nederland 2015’ shows that volunteering has decreased since 2010.\footnote{Schuyt, Th.N.M., Gouwenberg, B.M., Bekkers, R.H.F.P. (2015), Geven In Nederland 2015.} Between 2012 and 2013, the total number of young people participating in volunteering was remarkable high due to the so-called ‘maatschappelijke stage’ of secondary education students. This mandatory form of volunteerism\footnote{https://www.movisie.nl/feiten-en-cijfers/feiten-cijfers-vrijwillige-inzet and (R. Bekkers & T Schuyt & B. Gouwenberg, GIN 2015) and \url{https://www.movisie.nl/sites/default/files/alfresco_files/Feiten-en-cijfers-Vrijwillige-inzet-08-05-2015%20[MOV-6297218-1.1].pdf}.} was abolished. Since 2014, schools can choose whether they want to offer this as an instrument to students or not as part of a citizenship course. According to the Institute for Social Research (SCP) and CBS the average amount of time spend was stable over the last decade with an average of 4 hours a week.\footnote{Other studies come to a similar estimation: The amount of time spent on average to volunteering declined between 2013 and 2018 from 21 hours to 18 hours a month Schuyt, Th.N.M., Gouwenberg, B.M., Bekkers, R.H.F.P. (2015), Geven In Nederland 2015.} People mostly volunteer in their schools, sports clubs, hobby clubs, or in their neighbourhood.\footnote{CBS (2015), Wie doet vrijwilligerswerk? Other studies such as the biennial research ‘Geven in Nederland 2015’ shows that in 2014 37 percent Dutch people volunteered at least once a year for a social organisation: Schuyt, Th.N.M., Gouwenberg, B.M., Bekkers, R.H.F.P. (2015), Geven In Nederland 2015.}

In the \textbf{United Kingdom} the UK Civil Society Almanac\footnote{National Council for Voluntary Organisations (2016), UK Civil Society Almanac 2016/Volunteering rates and overview, available at: \url{https://data.ncvo.org.uk/a/almanac16/volunteer-overview/}.} reports data on participants in formal and informal volunteering. The latest statistics show that in 2014/15, 42 per cent of the adult population aged over 16 (around 21.8 million people) declared involvement in formal volunteering activities, at least once in the previous year and 27 per cent of them volunteered at least once a month (in terms of intensity of involvement in 2014/15 the estimated hours per month among regular volunteers was 11.6). With reference to informal volunteering, in 2014/15, 64 per cent of adults (around 31.2 million people) declared volunteering at least once in the last year and 35 per cent (around 18.7 million people) have done so at least once a month. Trends in employer volunteering (Intended as volunteering days "provided by an employer during work-time or voluntary activities that are organised through a workplace"). are also reported:\footnote{The source is the analysis of the Community Life survey which includes these as ‘schemes for employees to help with community projects, voluntary or charity organisations’ that are ‘encouraged by employers’.} 7.4 per cent of surveyed people participated in volunteering at least once in the last year. In the UK, when volunteering schemes are made available by employers, uptake by employees is very high. Almost all employees having such opportunity (99 per cent) had participated in the last 12 months, while only 3 per cent had participated at least once a month. Young people aged 16-25 register the highest overall rate (49 per cent compared with other age groups, in irregular volunteering (at least once in the last year) (From an age perspective, the participation in formal monthly volunteering of people aged between 35 to 49 years is 27 per cent, the same rate is observed in 50 to 64 year-olds and 31 per cent in 65 to 74 year olds. Only 21
per cent of people aged 26 to 34 report volunteering monthly while the highest rates of monthly volunteering are observed in 16 to 25 year olds (32 per cent) and 65 to 74 year olds (31 per cent)).

People living in less deprived areas are more likely to volunteer than those in the most deprived ones: this is proven by the fact that 33 per cent volunteered regularly in the least deprived areas while 23 per cent do so in the most deprived areas. As for the employment status, both people in paid employment and not in employment reported volunteering formally on a monthly basis in the same share (27 per cent). Perhaps surprisingly, those in paid employment volunteered formally once in the last year more (45 per cent) than those not in employment (38 per cent). Full time students tend to volunteer more (36 per cent) than non-students (27 per cent). From data reported in UK, volunteering emerged as a sort of ‘gendered specialisation’: women seem to be more likely to provide caring assistance and men more likely to offer advice and represent other individuals or groups.

3.4. Comparative overview
This chapter highlighted the evidence related to participation in apprenticeships, internships and volunteering. The table below provides a summative overview of the key findings relating to participation.

Table 4: An overview of the key findings relating to participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue:</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimation participation</td>
<td>Estimate: 2 and 4 million in a given year.</td>
<td>Estimate: 4 and 6 million in a given year (likely higher enrolment in reality).</td>
<td>Estimate: 1.5 million (aged 15-30) in a given year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trend</td>
<td>Downward trend of the number of apprentices over the last decade</td>
<td>Number of internships increasing⁹⁷</td>
<td>Remains stable over the years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation patterns:</td>
<td>Age differs for apprenticeships in IVET and CVET. CVET students are older.</td>
<td>Diverse population, ranging from lower VET to HE.</td>
<td>More higher educated Wealthier people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HE students/graduates disproportionately higher than other</td>
<td>People living in less deprived areas (based on UK evidence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>People living in rural areas (based on UK evidence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>People in employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>People being a member of a sport club or similar organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


⁹⁷ Eurobarometer (2013), Flash Eurobarometer 378. The experience of traineeships in the EU.
4. OUTCOMES: SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AND EMPLOYMENT

KEY FINDINGS

Both in terms of competences and skills acquired and in employment outcomes, work-based learning in the form of apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering provides a stepping stone to ease the transition from the world of education to the world of work.

Apprenticeships per definition lead to formal (VET) qualifications and apprentices acquire job/occupation-specific learning outcomes (including both theoretical and practical knowledge), plus transversal skills applicable across a range of occupations. Compared to school-based tracks, apprentices gain a better understanding of the world of work and the sector in which they are employed. It is common for apprentices to remain with the employer that trained them. Evidence suggests that young people choosing apprenticeships have lower basic skills than those that choose academic paths (when comparing PIAAC results).

It is estimated that 60 per cent-70 per cent of apprentices secured employment immediately upon completion. Apprenticeships also show positive effects of wage levels. However, they show considerable dropout: a rough estimation, based on available national data, is that the completion rate of apprenticeships is between 50 per cent and 85 per cent.

Internships do not lead to a qualification but can be part of a broader VET or other qualification. Also companies can provide certificates on completion of the internship. Interns/trainees obtain work-experience that will boost their CV when applying for a job. The learning is often less pronounced and structured compared to apprenticeships (i.e. there is not always a learning plan available).

Concerning the relevance for the labour market, 7 out of 10 former interns stated that their internship experience(s) was useful in finding a regular job. Employment outcomes differ per type of internship/traineeship. Quality internships where besides the employer and the intern, another stakeholder (education institution, PES) is involved show good job prospects; there are indications that the open-market internships are more negative with regard the labour market entry.

Volunteering does not lead to a qualification; but the volunteering or the skills acquired can be captured in a certificate. As volunteering leads to personal development, it can be expressed in terms of skills that have value in the labour market. As such, volunteering can serve as a stepping stone into employment.

There is evidence that volunteering can have a positive contribution to labour market integration and volunteering is considered by employers an asset on one’s CV.

4.1. Gained qualifications and competences

Work-based learning enhances the employability of the learners by providing the right set of skills needed in the labour market and society at large.\textsuperscript{98} Also, it introduces the learner to the specific character of a sector or profession. What the schemes provide in terms of qualifications and competences differs per scheme.

Apprenticeships per definition lead to formal VET qualifications and the learning outcomes of these formal VET qualifications are clearly defined. They consist of a mixture of

job/occupation-specific knowledge, skills and competences and transversal knowledge, skills and competences. The VET qualifications carry value for the occupational field, but also, more broadly for society.

The learning outcomes obtained, as apprenticeships are often linked to formal qualifications, show a mix of job/occupation-specific learning outcomes and transversal learning outcomes. An eight-country review from 2010 indicates that all countries included in the study require apprentices (as nationally defined) to consolidate and improve their numeracy and communication skills, and to acquire underpinning theoretical knowledge in addition to occupational competency. In some countries the learning outcomes of the apprenticeship is the same compared to the school-based track (e.g. France, the Netherlands). In Italy, the introduction of the new apprenticeship system more closely aligns the apprenticeship track with the secondary education learning outcomes, providing a dual qualification: both directed at the occupation and a formal qualification (Type 1 apprenticeship: see Leg. Decree 81/2015).

A rough estimation, based on available national data from eight countries is that the completion rate of apprenticeships is between 50 per cent and 85 per cent, pointing to a considerable dropout rate. The ETUC study provides some country specific information on completion rates. In Denmark, in 2012, 48 per cent of people started but never finished their apprenticeships; in Luxembourg the non-completion rate for apprenticeship contracts signed in 2010-11 was 70.3 per cent; and in France the figure for 2011-2012 was 27 per cent. In Germany, the figure stood at 25 per cent for 2013 and has increased marginally every year since 2009. In England, research has shown that 82 per cent of employers reported that all their apprentices who finished training between August 2011 and March 2012 had completed their apprenticeships, so 18 per cent did not. In Ireland, the attrition rate for apprentices that registered in 2012 was 17 per cent. According to the Polish Craft association, the non-completion stood at approximately 5 per cent. In the Netherlands, there is evidence that apprenticeship tracks are more likely to lead to obtaining a qualification compared to school-based tracks. The percentage of school leavers with a qualification in the apprenticeship track is slightly higher compared to the school-based track (64 per cent compared to 60 per cent).

The orientation of apprenticeship qualifications towards job/occupation specific, or more transversal learning outcomes including basic skills depends on the place of the qualification in the system and the routes to further learning (e.g. whether the apprenticeship qualification provides access to (vocationally oriented) higher education). Evidence suggests that young people choosing apprenticeships have lower basic skills than those that choose academic paths (when comparing PIAAC results). This obviously depends on many (national) factors such as the effectiveness of the system, the level of the apprenticeship and the design of the apprenticeship system and the characteristics of the student population. Some countries are more effective in providing strong basic skills to

103 See Cedefop (2012), Permeable education and training systems: reducing barriers and increasing opportunity.
apprentices than others (e.g. in NL and Canada).\textsuperscript{105} Apprenticeships embedded into higher levels of education and training are associated with stronger basic skills, thus facilitating access to higher level qualifications.

In Austria, apprentices are equipped with the competences to enter higher education after taking the Berufsausbildungsprüfung (BRP). This additional exam provides access to all higher education study programmes. The content of the exam is oriented towards the curriculum of an upper secondary school that provides university entrance qualifications and comprises of four partial exams: German, mathematics, one modern language, and a specialisation from vocational practice or from IVET.\textsuperscript{106} In Germany, for instance, facilitation of access opportunities and transitions, which in turn leads to the fostering of individual learning biographies, career concepts and flexible educational careers, is currently one of the major policy and societal challenges.\textsuperscript{107} In the Netherlands, only NLQF level 4 qualifications (offered both as school-based and work-based track) offer access to higher education.

**Internships and traineeships**, in whatever form, do not lead to formal qualifications, however, as part of school-based VET programmes or higher education programmes, they can be a condition for obtaining a formal qualification. In those cases, the companies provide a statement or judgement on the intern. Also when the internship is not part of a formal qualification, certificates are provided. The Eurobarometer study (2013) reports that the company they had trained with gave them a certificate or letter of reference describing what they had done: Two thirds of respondents with traineeship experience (64 per cent) say that at the end of the traineeship the organisation or company they had trained with gave them a certificate or letter of reference describing what they had done. One third of respondents with traineeship experience (34 per cent) were not given a certificate or letter of reference.\textsuperscript{108}

In general terms, all types of internships have the potential to help young people to develop a more in-depth understanding of the work environment in which they will be working (this effect is stronger in larger companies and in longer traineeships), and helps in developing a range of practical, work-related ‘soft’ skills such as time management, confidence, adaptability, team-working, interpersonal and communication skills.\textsuperscript{109} Such outcomes are also confirmed by respondents in the Eurobarometer study (2013). This provides an indication of the professional benefits for trainees (including apprentices): 90 per cent agreed that during the traineeship, the trainee learned things that are useful professionally. The data shows that, especially for long traineeships of more than 6 months (95 per cent) and large companies of more than 250 employees (93 per cent), more trainees agree they have learnt things were useful for their professional life.\textsuperscript{110}

While internships have the potential to contribute to these more transversal competences, **specific learning outcomes are not always clearly defined**. The traineeships linked to education programmes (along with those associated with mandatory professional training programmes) tend to be among the best defined in terms of the learning content. More theoretical learning outcomes are covered by the school-based part of the (VET) qualification, or are already pre-assumed before enrolling in an ALMP internship or an open-market


\textsuperscript{107} https://www.bibb.de/permeability.

\textsuperscript{108} Eurobarometer (2013), Flash Eurobarometer 378. The experience of traineeships in the EU, see p. 72.


\textsuperscript{110} Eurobarometer (2013), Flash Eurobarometer 378. The experience of traineeships in the EU, see p. 61.
internship. As a result, open-market traineeships are least likely to have a predefined content. To a large extent, the content and practice of these traineeships are determined jointly by the trainee and the employer, although the latter is unsurprisingly likely to have more control over these aspects. Also, the ALMP internships are generally not elaborately described in terms of learning outcomes.\footnote{European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States.}

As a general rule,\textbf{ volunteering} does not lead to a qualification, although there can be instances where the organisation provides a certificate of attendance or validates the skills obtained. This is for instance the case in Italy (Caritas, see box).

\textbf{Box 4: Country example - Italy}

The respondent from the Italian Caritas organisation indicated that at the end of the volunteering activity, lasting a couple of months for a total of 10 meetings, a certificate of participation is provided only to participants who request that. In general, young unemployed participants, request the certificate in order to prove their competences to future employers. These competences tend to be relatively general transversal competences. The certificate does not have any legal value. Another certificate is provided at the end of or during the period of volunteering. The certificate includes the tasks of the volunteer, the amount of hours, the competences acquired. This certificate has no legal validity. A respondent from the Netherlands indicated that certificates can have a high individual value, leading to increased levels of self-confidence.

Often, volunteering is not seen as a learning trajectory and often the learning objectives are not specified beforehand, as is indicated by an interview respondent from the Netherlands. For this reason, \textbf{often competences gained through volunteering are not reported on or even explicitly noticed by individuals}. Evidence shows, however, that volunteering helps unemployed people to gain competencies, contacts and thus it can be a stepping stone towards paid employment.\footnote{Hirst, A. (2001) Links between Volunteering and Employability, Nottingham: Department for Education and Skills; The National v (2008) Youth Volunteering: Attitudes and perceptions; see: IVR (2014), Review of evidence on the outcomes of youth volunteering, social action and leadership: http://thirdsectorimpact.eu/site/assets/uploads/page/documents-for-researchers/TSI_impact-report_sports-leaders-literature-review-dec-2014.pdf.}

Volunteers acquire new skills and practice the skills they have, especially when they volunteer in a sector in which they have no prior experience. In addition, new transversal skills (i.e. leadership, team-work ability) are likely to be used in the labour market.

Volunteering can provide an opportunity to \textbf{test out potential careers} prior to choosing their education and training path.\footnote{GHK (2010), Volunteering in the European Union: see: http://ec.europa.eu/citizenship/pdf/doc1018_en.pdf.} In this sense, it is \textbf{relatively similar to internships}, though internships tend to be more specific in terms of the learning content. Another possible benefit of volunteering is that organised voluntary activities favour the development of a \textbf{network of relations} and an increase in social relationships. It can change the perspective of students and they can experience a further development of civic consciousness.\footnote{Istat (2014), Unpaid activities to benefit others, available at http://www.istat.it/en/archive/129122.}

A key development area in volunteering is the \textbf{personal development} of the volunteer.\footnote{IVR (2014), Review of evidence on the outcomes of youth volunteering, social action and leadership: http://thirdsectorimpact.eu/site/assets/uploads/page/documents-for-researchers/TSI_impact-report_sports-leaders-literature-review-dec-2014.pdf.}

This concerns gaining confidence and self-esteem and learning new transversal skills, such
as organisational skills, communication, group work skills, self-organisation, self-management, and personal management, learning to learn, digital learning. Other skill areas concern social competences (i.e. Participation and civic competences, Leadership competences); and intercultural competences (i.e. Awareness of diverse cultures and backgrounds, Openness and tolerance, Language skills).

A recent international survey on the impact of international (volunteering) work camps shows that returning volunteers reported statistically significant increases in autonomy, communication, problem solving, cultural openness and feelings of social integration and increased confidence in facing and managing conflicts.

Some evidence suggests a link between higher well-being and higher participation in volunteering. A survey carried out in the UK showed that volunteers identify positive personal effects towards their involvement in volunteering, such as the enjoyment of helping others (66 per cent), having fun (39 per cent) and helping a cause they believe in (34 per cent). Another study from the UK found a strong positive effect of volunteering on well-being, namely in the decline in depression and social isolation, in the increases in quality of life and life satisfaction scores. In addition, formal and informal volunteering is generally associated with higher levels of subjective well-being. Happiness is lower in countries with low frequencies of volunteering, but people active in formal volunteering in these countries have higher levels of happiness than their counterparts in countries with higher rates of volunteers. Conversely, informal volunteering is associated with comparable increases in happiness in all countries. In Italy, 49 per cent of volunteers declared an increase in personal wellbeing.

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117 Siehr K., Raschdorf K (2015) The Recognition Players. The report was published within the project “I’ve” of the Alliance of European Voluntary Services Organisation.

118 Alliance of European Voluntary Service Organisations (2016), What is the impact of workcamps? An overview of the results was published in 2016 and is available at: http://www.alliance-network.eu/what-is-the-impact-of-workcamps/2016/3108/; It must be noted that the project covered EU and non-EU countries.


4.2. Improved chances of employment

Work-based learning is provided by employers and is therefore likely that the chance of finding a job afterwards is increased. However, the dynamics differ between apprenticeships, internships and volunteering.

**Apprenticeships** tend to have a positive effect on participants’ subsequent employment. Good retention (transition to work) rates are generally a hallmark of the apprenticeship system. In the empirical literature there is a general consensus on the positive effects that apprenticeships have on the youth school-to-work transition. The effectiveness of apprenticeships in easing the school-to-work transition has been demonstrated by many cross-country comparative studies and national studies. A 2013 European Commission study found that for most of the apprenticeship programmes reviewed, the majority of apprentices secured employment immediately upon completion e.g. AT, BE, DE, EL, FI, FR, IE, MT, NL, UK; the average proportion is about 60 per cent-70 per cent, while in some cases it is as high as 90 per cent. The study from 2013 concluded that the analysis by country has shown that apprenticeships have consistently yielded positive employment outcomes and not only in countries typically associated with the dual training system like Germany and Austria. The box provides some illustrative national statistics on employment outcomes from different countries (as presented in the ETUC report).

**Box 5: Employment of apprentices post-training**

- In Germany **66 per cent** apprentices (those involved in the dual system) who finished in 2013 were kept on by their employers.
- In France **67 per cent** of apprentices were in employment seven months after finishing their apprenticeship in 2013.
- In Luxembourg **81 per cent** of apprentices were in employment within three years after finishing their apprenticeships.
- In England the mean retention rate has been estimated at **73 per cent**.
- In the Netherlands **95 per cent** of apprentices were in paid employment 18 months after finishing their apprenticeships.
- In Italy, after finalising the apprenticeship, in 2015 **55.4 per cent** was employed in the same company and with the same contract after 12 months.

**Internships** contribute to the transition of young people from education to the labour market. Empirical studies on internships generally support this statement and point to the positive outcomes of internships on the labour market position of young people. EU citizens

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124 European Commission (2013), The effectiveness and costs-benefits of apprenticeships: Results of the quantitative analysis.
128 Isfol (2016) Verso il Sistema duale, XVI monitoraggio sull’apprendistato (Towards a dual system, the XVI monitoring report on apprenticeship), available at: http://sbnlo2.cilea.it/bw5ne2/opac.aspx?WEB=ISFL: However, 42 percent of apprentices started in 2010 obtained a permanent contract while this share is equal to 40.5 percent for apprenticeships started in 2005.
confirm the relevance of internships towards obtaining employment. The Eurobarometer on internships, for instance, indicates that **7 out of 10 former interns stated that their internship experience(s) was useful in finding a regular job**; however, the labour market entry rate strongly varies depending on the type of internship. The European Commission 2013 study on Apprenticeships and traineeships indicates that of all the various types of traineeships, those which form part of academic or vocational study courses seem to have the best outcomes in terms of amongst others learning content and labour market transitions: the employment outcomes of such traineeships in terms of the proportion of trainees who secured employment range between 35 per cent and 87 per cent. Of the ALMP-linked traineeship programmes which were reviewed in this study, the proportion of trainees who secured employment immediately upon completion ranged from 13 per cent to 90 per cent. A study of Portuguese higher education students corroborates this and shows that mandatory internships and the inclusion of multiple, shorter internships throughout higher education degrees are negatively associated with unemployment levels. In Italy, internships/traineeships, especially the extra-curricular ones, become a key path to get young people closer to the labour market both as an **opportunity for training and as a tool for activation** (see box).

**Box 6: Country example – Italy. Opportunity for training and as a tool for activation**

In Italy, according to the analysis of the mandatory online notification that employers provide for every new hiring and contract termination, the flow from an extra-curricular traineeship into a permanent contract was 9.9 per cent in 2015 and significant is the share of trainees that obtains a permanent contract which was 11.8 per cent in 2015 and 3.2 per cent in 2014. With specific reference to Youth Guarantee at 30 April 2016, more than a third (36.6 per cent) of young people that have completed an internship (extra-curricular) path by March 2016 has a dependent employment position.

Employers are also positive about the potential of internships; a UK employer survey shows that four out of five surveyed employers agree that internships are beneficial to interns. The OECD estimates, based on its graduate survey REFLEX, that study-related work experience increases a graduate’s likelihood of finding a job immediately upon graduation by 44 per cent, reduces the probability of over-qualification by 15 per cent, while reducing the occurrence of skills mismatch by 26 per cent.

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137 OECD, (2010). Developing Internships in the Western Balkans.
As indicated, the study distinguishes three types of internships\(^\text{138}\) namely; internships that are part of vocational/academic curricula or are part of (mandatory) professional training (e.g. teaching, medicine, architecture, etc.); internships associated with active labour market policies (ALMPs); and finally, internships in the open market. When specifically comparing the different types of internships, there are clear differences in employment outcomes (see box)

**Box 7: Difference between types of internships/ traineeships**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Internship</th>
<th>Employment Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internships that are part of academic or vocational study courses</td>
<td>The best outcomes in terms of effectiveness, measured in labour market transition.(^\text{140})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internships as part of ALMPs</td>
<td>The popularity of internships as part of ALMP across the EU has been growing due to the evidence presented for the positive outcomes of internships that accompany educational qualifications.(^\text{141})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Market Internships</td>
<td>Evidence is less conclusive for open market internships, which are much harder to grasp due to the inherently large diversity. Moreover, open market internships are not part of public policies that are regularly evaluated, which also makes reliable evidence scare. Instead the main evidence base of this type of internships is built on surveys among interns. For employers such internships offer a way of recruiting staff in a cost-effective and targeted manner,(^\text{142}) while for interns these provide during or after completion of their studies, professional experience before they find stable employment. It is less clear however, to what extent this type of internships contribute graduates finding employment. Only 16 per cent of respondents to a 2011 EU-wide survey of the Youth Forum indicated that they were offered a job, while another 18 per cent found a job with a different employer.(^\text{143}) As such, a majority of interns do not enter employment after finishing their internship, and there are numerous cases where young individuals enter from one internship into the next, without clearly improving their position on the labour market. Recall that in figure 1 in various Member States interns were more likely to do multiple internships rather than only one. These surveys also give rise to some crucial concerns of quality, measured in terms of learning content or working conditions.(^\text{144})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\(^{138}\) Based on an analysis of European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States and European Commission (2013), Apprenticeship and Traineeship Schemes in EU27: Key Success Factors.

\(^{139}\) Based on an analysis of European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in Member States and European Commission (2013), Apprenticeship and Traineeship Schemes in EU27: Key Success Factors.


\(^{143}\) European Youth Forum (2011), Interns Revealed; a survey on internship quality in Europe.

\(^{144}\) European Youth Forum (2011), Interns Revealed; a survey on internship quality in Europe.
Concerning **volunteering**, the employment outcomes of voluntary work is **not (yet) in the focus of research and hence there is very limited data** on how volunteering supports labour market integration. Some evidence indicates interesting side-effects. For instance, employers report being positive towards young people's volunteering (youth organisations) experiences in job applications.\textsuperscript{145} National sources, such as a study based on the British Household Panel Survey show a mixed picture: volunteering may have a positive effect on the labour market position of some individuals in some circumstances; for others it may have a negative, or no effect.\textsuperscript{146} An interview with the NCVO confirms this: volunteering can support labour market integration, but it cannot do this by itself. **Additional support is needed by the volunteer in terms of mentoring and skills development** in order to make the step into employment. This would require the involvement of public employment services as this is not the key interest of the charity organisations. There are specific projects in which volunteering is explicitly used to bring people closer to the labour market. The Volunteering for Stronger Communities Project succeeded in assisting 22 per cent of participants into paid work. Of those who had not found a job, 69 per cent were actively seeking employment and 80 per cent felt, as a result of participating in the programme, they were now more confident in finding paid employment.\textsuperscript{147}

Labour market entry is not usually the primary objective when engaging in a volunteering position, as is indicated by a Dutch respondent in the interviews. People participate in volunteering to support their sport club, a local initiative, a good cause. This being said, for people at distance from the labour market, volunteering can be used to help them gain confidence, a (renewed) work rhythm and an increased network – this could eventually lead to employment. In the Netherlands there are no statistics available on how volunteering leads to employment. The interview in Italy (Caritas) indicated that there is not an automatic path envisaging that volunteers are employed after a period of voluntary activity; however, it often happens that volunteers continue their career path within the services offered by Caritas. In this case they are hired by Social Cooperatives managing the assistance services.

**4.3. Comparative overview**

This chapter highlighted the evidence related to outcomes of apprenticeships, internships and volunteering. Based on the evidence provided in this section, the following table provides a summary of the main outcomes.

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\textsuperscript{145} European Youth Forum (2012), Study on the impact of Non-Formal Education in youth organisations on young people's employability.

\textsuperscript{146} Paine, Angela Ellis; McKay, Stephen; Moro, Domenico (2013), Does volunteering improve employability? Insights from the British Household Panel Survey and beyond, Voluntary Sector Review, Volume 4, Number 3, pp. 355-376(22).

\textsuperscript{147} Bashir, N, Crisp, R, Dayson, C and Gilbertson, J (2013), Final evaluation of the Volunteering for Stronger Communities programme. Sheffield: Sheffield Hallam University.
### Table 5: An overview of the key findings relating to outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue:</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes related to qualifications and skills gained</strong></td>
<td>Formal VET qualification</td>
<td>No formal qualification but can be part of a broader (VET) qualification or lead to a (company) certificate.</td>
<td>No qualification; skills can be captured in a certificate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transversal learning outcomes</td>
<td>Work-experience</td>
<td>Personal development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good understanding of the sector and world of work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dropout between 15 per cent and 50 per cent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment outcomes</strong></td>
<td>Good employment outcomes: 60 per cent - 70 per cent of the apprentices secured employment immediately upon completion</td>
<td>Good employment outcomes, but differing per type of internship/traineeship whereby those part of formal qualification are most effective.</td>
<td>Positive contribution to labour market integration; considered an asset on one’s CV by employers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. **QUALITY: POSITION IN COMPANY/ORGANISATION AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENT**

### KEY FINDINGS

**Apprenticeships** are usually **well covered by governance frameworks**. This mostly applies in well-established, high-quality apprenticeship systems. The employment status of apprentices differs by country, but in general, apprentices are employed by the company training them, they receive a wage, and they are protected by employment regulations. The learning in apprenticeships is typically assured through governance systems that involve both the world of work and world of education and learning outcomes are described in the apprenticeship agreement of individual learning plan.

**Internships** are better protected if an employment contract or a regulatory framework exists. Parts of what are termed internships in many countries are not regulated and consist of an agreement between the employer and the participant only. These schemes can be unpaid and do not give the intern the same rights and obligations that relate to employees. The learning in the internships, as part of an education programme and ALMP, is better assured compared to the open-market internships.

The **status of volunteers differs** in countries. Only a few countries have a specific legal status for volunteers. The rights, obligations and remuneration depend on the agreement between the organisation and the participant. In other countries, if you volunteer, you ‘work’ under the same rules as paid employees. There are possibilities to volunteer while being on social benefits, which provide an option for the unemployed to develop their skills. The learning taking place in volunteering is usually not made explicit and there is not an underlying learning plan.

**Quality of work-based learning** is a broad concept covering many different aspects. In this chapter, the focus is on the following aspects, as these are impacting the status of the participants and the outcomes in terms of learning:

- position of participants in the company/organisation;
- employment conditions - including remuneration; and
- an overview of the learning that takes place.

### 5.1. Position in company/organisation

Work-based learning takes place in companies or organisations. This is true for apprenticeships, internships and volunteering. The position which the apprentices, interns and volunteers have within the company/organisation differs.

In general, **apprentices** work/learn under some form of contractual arrangement. This can be through an **employment contract** or a **contract between the training institution, the employer and the apprentice**. Finally, it can be a mix of both (mixed contract). The type of contract and the type of contractual conditions differ per country (see table 6).

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148 As can be seen in for instance the Cedefop Thematic Country Reviews. In the analytical framework for these reviews, the following areas of analysis are covered, each determining the quality of the apprenticeship scheme: 1. Place in the ET system; 2. Governance structures; 3. Training content and learning outcomes; 4. Cooperation among learning venues; 5. Participation of and support to companies; 6. Requirements and support to teachers and in-company trainers; 7. Financing and cost-sharing mechanisms; 8. Quality assurance; 9. Apprentice’s working and learning conditions; 10. Responsiveness to labour market.
### Table 6: An overview of the key findings relating to quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MS</th>
<th>Type of contract (training, employment or mixed)</th>
<th>Contractual situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CZ</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Agreement between VET schools and enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SK</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Legal position as students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Contract between student and enterprise and in some situations a VET school may organise a cooperation agreement¹⁴⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>mixed contract</td>
<td>Apprentice is contractually linked to the employer¹⁵⁰</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LV</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Tripartite agreement between the student, the VET institution and the work-based learning entity (usually an enterprise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>mixed contract</td>
<td>Contract is signed between an employer and an apprentice¹⁵⁰</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Partnership between one or more employers and institutions for vocational education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>Apprentices sign a training contract with the training organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>training contract</td>
<td>The contracts are organised by vocational training centres which establish cooperation agreements with enterprises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>employment contract</td>
<td>Apprentices are employed. There is a three-party contract between the school, the apprentice and the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>employment contract</td>
<td>Contract between apprentices and employer (enterprise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>employment contract</td>
<td>Fixed-term employment contract between an employer and an apprentice who is at least 15 years’ old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>employment contract</td>
<td>Apprentice contract is signed between the apprentice and the employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>employment contract</td>
<td>The employer and the apprentice sign the contract and agree the training programme.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** UEAPME, BusinessEurope, CEEP (2016), The cost-effectiveness of apprenticeship schemes – making the business case for apprenticeships (amended by authors).¹⁵¹

¹⁴⁹ “A written contract is signed between an employer and an apprentice (this can be time-limited or open-ended). This specifies the type of apprenticeship training, the duration and place of apprenticeship training, the way of providing theoretical training and the remuneration. The apprentice has a double legal status as an apprentice covered by the labour code and as a student for whom the education laws apply.” UEAPME, BusinessEurope, CEEP (2016), The cost-effectiveness of apprenticeship schemes – making the business case for apprenticeships, p. 24.

¹⁵⁰ “The apprentice is contractually linked to the employer and receives a wage. Training is governed by a contract between the Employment Service and the employer” UEAPME, BusinessEurope, CEEP (2016), The cost-effectiveness of apprenticeship schemes – making the business case for apprenticeships, p. 24.

¹⁵¹ This report applies the following key features for defining apprenticeships (based on European Commission (2015), “European Alliance for Apprenticeships – Good for Youth, Good for Business” June 2015): it is part of the formal VET system; it involves a dual learning principle which combines or alternates enterprise-based training (periods of practical experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical/practical education in a school or training centre); completing the apprenticeship leads to a nationally recognised IVET certificate/degree; there may be a contractual relationship or agreement between an employer and apprentice.
As can be seen in the table, there is a variety of different contractual arrangements involving the training organisation, the apprentice and the employer. In some countries the apprentice is contractually linked to the employer (e.g. EE, UK, FR, IT, DE, AT) in others the legal position is that of a student (e.g. ES, BG, CZ). In Italy, the apprentices have the double status of students and workers. Through the contract the apprentice is entitled to rights and benefits of an ordinary employee.152 In Poland students have a double status (employee and student) as well, and in Greece an apprentice can be a student or employee depending on the situation.153 In the Netherlands, besides the 'learning-working contract', the employer offers an employment contract.154 In Germany, apprentices play a joint role in the dual system: they are students and employees at the same time. They conclude an apprenticeship contract with the company.

The labour conditions depend for a large part on the type of contract. In the countries where apprentices work on the basis of an employment contract, the labour arrangements, including pension arrangements, are better ensured in terms of providing equal treatment of apprentices compared to regular workers. In those cases the apprentices, for instance, build up their pension rights and are subject to a regulated wage. In the countries where apprentices are working on the basis of a student contract, no employers’ contributions are paid towards the pension of the apprentices and it is possible that there are no obligations to provide remuneration. The interview with the European Youth Forum indicated that internships and apprenticeships should be able to count as employment when calculating pension entitlements.155

Box 8: Country examples - Netherlands, Italy and Austria

In the Netherlands, the status of the apprentice and the obligations of the company towards the apprentice are covered by the labour legislation: the apprentice can be employed as a temporary employee in line with the collective labour agreements. Usually, the student and the employer enter into a temporary employment contract, in which arrangements are included on the payment, working hours, and holidays. As the apprentice enters an employment contract, s/he is not entitled to a study-loan or subsidy of travel costs.156

In Italy, as apprentices have a double status, they are entitled to rights and benefits of an ordinary employee.

In Austria, an apprentice has full social insurance entitlement including health, accident, retirement and unemployment insurance. The duties of a company which is entitled to train apprentices do go beyond the usual duties of an employer to quite some extent. Apprenticeship training agreements are subject to the regulations of the industrial and social law and to protective labour legislation for teenage employees.157

The contractual arrangements determine how the apprentice is compensated for its work. Often the remuneration in place consists of a proportion of the minimum wage. However,

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154 http://fnvjong.nl/stage/bbl-vs-bol
156 See: http://fnvjong.nl/stage/bbl-vs-bol.
in some countries the apprentice is not compensated by the company (see table 7). In some situations, apprentices do not receive remuneration. This is the case for instance in Latvia where students are not seen as an employee and do not receive a wage. Compensation arrangements for apprentices range from receiving a full salary or partly, and in some cases it is decided on a case-to-case basis, depending on the sector or the employers’ approach to providing compensation.

The table below provides an overview of information available on compensation approaches (based on the UEAPME 2016 report, added Austria and the Netherlands). The compensation varies, ranging from no compensation through a (small) percentage of the average monthly salary to a special apprentices minimum wage. The table clearly shows that in many countries apprentices do not earn a ‘living wage’ that increases with increase of productivity.

Table 7: Compensation in apprenticeships approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MS</th>
<th>Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CZ</td>
<td>Apprentices receive financial remuneration during their practical training if they are involved in productive activities that generate income. Apprentices receive 30 per cent of the minimum wage (around 110 EUR/month).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SK</td>
<td>The new ‘apprentices’ receive a stipend from an enterprise that offers practical training. The amount of the compensation is decided on a case-by-case basis but when the salary is between 50 per cent and 100 per cent of the minimum wage, the employer is exempt from levies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td>The allowance is related to the minimum wage, time spent in practical training and the student’s grade and level of performance. Under certain conditions a VET school may organise a ‘cooperation agreement’ with an enterprise to provide practical training for its students. In this situation the learners are students and they are not contractually linked to the employer and they do not receive any remuneration unless their practical training takes place during their summer holidays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>Apprentices receive funding to cover the cost of food, lodging and books. The employer pays for their insurance during their practical training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LV</td>
<td>Employers do not have to pay a wage or remunerate students during their work-based learning, internship or craft apprenticeship, even though apprentices often receive remuneration from the second year of their apprenticeship. This is paid by the craft master or the enterprise. Some employers offer employment – either after the training has been completed or during the period of work-based training. In these situations an employment contract is signed. This means that the salary has to fully comply with the tax on labour. Expenses for work-based learning are covered by employers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>Regulations ensure that apprentices receive not less than 4 per cent (in their first year of training), 5 per cent (in their second year) and 6 per cent (in their third year) of the average monthly salary. Employers can pay a higher salary but may only apply for reimbursements up to the level set out in these rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>There is no compensation paid by the enterprise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| ES | Apprentices should be paid maximum 75 per cent of the minimum wage in their first year and 85 per cent in their second year i.e. €6,776 and €7,679 per year. Apprentices should be paid maximum 75 per cent of the minimum wage in their first year and 85 per cent in their second year i.e. €6,776 and €7,679 per year. Apprentices should be paid maximum 75 per cent of the minimum wage in their first year and 85 per cent in their second year i.e. €6,776 and €7,679 per year.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Compensation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>are not paid during their time in the classroom. Their wages during their time at work needs to cover their costs while in the training centre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>During their time in training in the enterprise apprentices receive a wage and, on completion of their theoretical studies in school, they receive a study allowance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Employers are required to pay apprentices at least the minimum wage for apprentices as set by the UK government. The National Minimum Wage in UK (2016) per hour for those over 21 was £6.70, for 18 to 21 year olds £5.30; for those under 18 – £3.87 and for apprentices £3.30. An apprenticeship agreement is between the apprentice and the employer. This is a contract of service and reflects the fact that the apprentice has the same rights as other employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>The apprentice is paid while in the industry phase of their training. The state pays the apprentice a training allowance, and in certain circumstances travel or subsistence allowances, while he/she is in the training centre or college. The value of this allowance is based on the net take-home pay of the apprentice based on the gross wage normally paid in the industry or sector. The National Minimum Wage in 2016 per hour for an experienced adult worker is €9.15; for those over 19 and in their second year of their first job €8.24; for those over 18 and in the first year of their first job €7.32; and for aged under 18 €6.41. An experienced adult worker – for the purposes of the National Minimum Wage Act – is an employee who has an employment of any kind in any 2 years over the age of 18.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>As part of the contract employers pay apprentices a wage for their time in the workplace. This wage is set by each sector’s collective agreement. The theoretical training which is provided by a training institution is free and funded by the state. Learners also receive social benefits (a daily allowance, allowance for accommodation and travel expenses, etc.). The employer receives funding from the institution providing the theoretical apprenticeship training – this is to cover the cost of training provided in the workplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>Apprenticeship contracts pay a wage which varies between 25 per cent and 78 per cent of the le salaire minimum according to their age and how far they have progressed in their training. The minimum gross wage is €9.61 per hour which translates to €1,457.52 per month. Some sectors have collective agreements with more favourable arrangements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| IT      | The apprentice’s salary is determined by the collective agreement. The collective agreement can either set the compensation as a percentage of the salary given to a qualified worker, or fix the apprentice’s minimum wage up to two levels lower than the wage of a skilled employee. Generally, the salary increases during the contract. For the time spent in the company, 10 per cent of the wage foreseen by relevant collective agreements.  
159 https://www.bmb.gv.at/enfr/school/secon/app.html  |
| AT      | The apprentice is entitled to a remuneration, which is fixed in collective labour agreements and varies according to the different apprenticeship trades.  
159 |
No legal obligation for the employer to offer a salary, this depends on the employment contract and the collective labour agreement. Often remuneration is arranged. As the apprentice is considered an employee in many cases, the apprentice cannot make use of state study compensation or the public transport student card (available for school-based VET students). Apprentices can be in precarious situation as is for instance illustrated by the questions from apprentices to Trade Unions concerning for instance having to work for more hours than is scheduled, or to pay for the out-of-company (in-school) training costs.


Based on Eurostat data from 2012, the average wage and salary per apprentice in its full-time equivalent (EU28) is **12,931 Euro per year**. The remuneration for apprentices differs per country, and there are a number of countries where the remuneration is low and in principle not sufficient to fully support oneself as can be concluded from the table presented. In addition, apprentices are often unable to make use of facilities available for other students, placing the apprentices in a precarious situation and there are differences with regards to individual sectors. Some sectors provide higher payments than others, as can be illustrated with data from Germany. For instance a bricklayer receives more than one thousand Euro (West-Germany; 861 Euro in East-Germany); while a hairdresser receives less than 500 Euro (West-Germany; 169 Euro in East-Germany). In general, lower wages for apprentices are justified given the lower productivity of the apprentices compared to regular employers and the training requirement imposed on the apprentices (and companies to provide the training). The OECD and ILO however indicate that "quality apprenticeships require good governance to prevent misuse as a form of cheap labour".

The terms and conditions of an internship contract are highly dependent on the employment status of the intern, which can vary substantially across Member States and across different types of internships within Member States. When internships are regulated through ‘employment contracts’, general labour legislation tends to apply (including restrictions on working hours, holidays, social security etc.). However, unlike apprenticeship arrangements, interns are often not considered as employees and therefore have less strictly

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162 This report applies the following key features for defining apprenticeships (based on European Commission (2015), "European Alliance for Apprenticeships – Good for Youth, Good for Business" June 2015): it is part of the formal VET system; it involves a dual learning principle which combines or alternates enterprise-based training (periods of practical experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical/practical education in a school or training centre); completing the apprenticeship leads to a nationally recognised IVET certificate/degree; there may be a contractual relationship or agreement between an employer and apprentice.
164 See: DGB (2016), Hannack: Azubis nicht als billige Arbeitskräfte missbrauchen: Große Unterschiede zwischen den Branchen: [http://www.dgb.de/themen/++co++e4a1cb2-b539-11e5-8564-52540023ef1a](http://www.dgb.de/themen/++co++e4a1cb2-b539-11e5-8564-52540023ef1a).
defined rights, terms and conditions.\textsuperscript{166} In most cases, trainees are considered ‘students’ and the primary purpose of the traineeship is learning and acquiring practical, work-related experience; there can be traineeship agreements in place that regulate the requirements, health and accident insurance and sick leave, allowance/compensation and termination.\textsuperscript{167} In Italy for example, internships/traineeships are not employment relationships and are categorised into the following main types: 1) non-curricular traineeships\textsuperscript{168} which include training and orientation traineeships, job placement/re-entry traineeships for the unemployed (also people receiving unemployment benefits), guidance and training traineeships for the disabled, disadvantaged people, and refugees; 2) curricular traineeships for students (in the VET system, high school, University etc.); 3) Summer traineeships: these are organised for adolescents and young people enrolled in any kind of University or high school programme and take place during the summer break.

**Box 9: Traineeship agreements within formal education programmes**

Although the precise content of traineeship agreement varies since it is determined by the educational institution, in general it usually describes in detail all aspects of the traineeship. For example, it usually sets out:\textsuperscript{169}

1. aims and objectives of the traineeship;
2. scope and focus;
3. learning content in terms of trainee-related tasks and activities;
4. duration, including start and end dates;
5. the roles and responsibilities of all parties involved, i.e. the sending educational institution, the host organisation and the trainee;
6. the status of the trainee, i.e. that he/she is not an employee but a pupil/student attached to the sending educational institution;
7. the trainee’s terms and conditions, including, if applicable, compensation, social security and health/medical insurance coverage;
8. leave entitlement;
9. working conditions, including working hours;
10. trainee-related supervision, support and mentoring arrangements in place (in both sending and host organisations);
11. certification and accreditation arrangements including, as appropriate, the ECTS credit value of the placement;
12. quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation procedures including, in many cases, the need for an assessment report at the end of the traineeship;
13. dispute resolution mechanisms; etc.


\textsuperscript{168} Regulated by the Regions and Autonomous Provinces according to the “Guidelines on traineeships”, approved by the agreement among State and Regions on the 24 January 2013.

\textsuperscript{169} European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.
In Member States with specific regulatory frameworks on internships (Estonia, Spain, Finland, France, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia), the more general labour standards such as ‘limits to maximum weekly working time, minimum daily and weekly rest periods and, where applicable, minimum holiday entitlements’ are explicitly protected. In most cases more general labour provisions apply, including health and safety at work, and insurance for work-related accidents and basic social security provisions (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia).

Member States without dedicated regulation on internships meet these requirements only indirectly, under general labour laws. Even if an internship is defined not to be employment related, in most cases more general labour provisions apply, including health and safety at work, and insurance for work-related accidents and basic social security provisions (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia).

The agreements used for traineeships within formal (VET) education programmes usually describe in detail all aspects of the traineeship (see box).

In particular, internships offered as ALMP tend to define the minimum working conditions of interns more definitively, partly because of the requirements often set by PES for employers to qualify for the financial incentives of the instrument. Although this raises working conditions for interns, there are also instances where stricter rules have resulted in a lower supply of internships (see box). This underlines the need for proper contextualisation of measures in order to have a lasting positive effect on the labour market position of young people.

Box 10: Country example - Greece

In Greece for instance, in addition to unfavourable macro-economic condition, an ALMP that included internships failed largely because it did not provide sufficient incentives for employers to participate. In view of the large supply of undeclared or ‘unsecured’ labour that would be available to fill the positions and the additional requirement of regular inspection of labour conditions employers were not motivated to participate.

While apprenticeship remunerations are generally regulated by law or social agreements, there are usually no regulations at the national level on the compensation for interns. Even where other working conditions such as working hours or holiday entitlements are regulated for interns, no equivalent tends to be in place for remuneration.

A 2013 Eurobarometer shows that at EU-level 40 per cent of respondents received financial compensation during an internship, ranging from 20 per cent of all interns in Belgium to 80 per cent of trainees in Slovenia.

170 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.
171 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.
172 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.
173 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS, p.122.
Respondents appeared to have the least favourable financial compensation when working for medium-sized firms of 50 to 250 employees. Only 16 per cent of those who worked for firms of this size received financial compensation, while those working for larger or smaller enterprises received compensation more often (figures for firms with: 1-9 (26 per cent), 10-49 (27 per cent) and more than 250 employees (28 per cent). Roughly half of the respondents that received financial compensation indicated that the compensation was insufficient to cover their living costs.

In the UK, minimum wage compensation is not required for internships that are part of education courses. However, where an intern is promised a contract of future work, they are classified as a worker and are eligible for the minimum national wage. The Sutton Trust estimates that 31 per cent of graduate interns in the UK work in internships for no pay, however there are no reliable estimates on the average pay. No minimum requirements for internship compensation are set in the Netherlands either. A national survey among full-time interns indicated that on average, interns receive between 200-250 EUR per month. However, large differences are reported between different educational levels; while up to 40 per cent of the interns integrated in the school-based VET did not receive remuneration, this is only six per cent among specialised university students, and 14 per cent among university students.

**Box 11: Country example - Italy**

In Italy, a recent law introduced a reward for traineeships that cannot be lower than gross 300 Euro per month and in the regions the maximum reward is 600 Euro. This provision has been highly criticised by education providers and employers for shifting the focus from the training dimension of traineeship to the remuneration.

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175 See for instance European Youth Forum (2011), Interns Revealed; a survey on internship quality in Europe.
179 Bertagna, Buratti, Tiraboschi (2013), La regolazione dei tirocini formativi in Italia dopo la legge Fornero (The regulation on traineeships after the Fornero law).
Various factors can influence the level of compensation, such as:

1. the specific type of traineeship;
2. its duration;
3. the age, qualification level and prior experience of the trainee;
4. trainee eligibility for (other) compensation; and
5. the precise form of remuneration (i.e. cash or in kind benefits or both, and/or whether it only covers trainee expenses, e.g. travel, subsistence, accommodation, etc.).

The position of volunteers within the organisation relates to the status of volunteers in the country. The legal status of volunteers differs between EU Member States. Only a minority of EU Member States do volunteers have a specific legal status (Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Portugal (the legal framework for volunteer provides for a formal identification card as a volunteer), Romania and Spain). A categorisation of Member states is provided in table below.

Table 8: Categorisation of Member states according to legal frameworks for volunteering (2010)

| Member States with a specific legal framework for volunteering | Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Spain |
| Member States who are in the process of developing a legal framework for volunteering | Bulgaria and Slovenia |
| Member States without a specific legal framework for volunteering (only implicitly regulated in other laws) | Austria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, Netherlands, Slovakia, Sweden and the UK |

The legal status is used to clarify the difference between a volunteer and the paid staff, for welfare benefits and clarifying arrangements for the reimbursement of expenses, the arrangements for tax benefits, health and safety together with insurance and protection, receiving training and accreditation for the skills the volunteer has acquired. Although most Member States do not have a legal framework in place for volunteers, and therefore no specified legal provisions on their rights and responsibilities, in a number of countries (Austria, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, United Kingdom) volunteers are subject to the same rules as paid employees, meaning that employment law is extended to volunteers.

Labour standards depend on legal regulations concerning the status of volunteers in the country. For instance, in Italy, hosting organisations shall cover insurance against accidents and professional sickness and on the civil liability towards third parties. Since

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180 European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.
184 In Italy the legislative framework for volunteering activities is the law 266/1991.
2014, experimentally, a fund has been established aimed to cover the insurance for accidents at the workplace and on professional sickness for volunteers. This is provided by the National Institute for Insurance against Accidents at Work for volunteers involved in the initiative ‘Diamoci una mano’ who are volunteers benefiting from social shock absorbers or income support measures. The aim of the project is to valorise their active involvement within their belonging community. In addition, a set of obligatory health and safety measures provisions for volunteers: the volunteer benefits from health and safety provisions as they would be were they to be self-employed.

Countries allow people on social benefits to get involved in volunteering activities. In the United Kingdom, for instance, beneficiaries of subsistence allowances are encouraged to volunteer as many hours as they want as long as they keep to the rules for receiving them. Volunteers do not receive money but can receive expenses reimbursement and they have to declare it to employment offices. Volunteers receiving jobseekers allowance continue to receive the allowance as long as they are still actively looking for a full-time paid job, are available for work and are still able to start a job at one week’s notice. Additionally, beneficiaries of Disability Living Allowance or Attendance Allowance volunteering in the UK will see no changes in their allowance. In the Netherlands, unemployed persons who receive welfare support should conduct volunteering activities.

A number of countries do provide guidelines and quality standards on how organisations should manage their volunteers. In the Netherlands, the NOV (Nederlandse Organisatie Vrijwilligerswerk – Dutch Organisation for Volunteering work) has established a quality seal for associated volunteering organisations. To obtain this seal, the organisation will have to submit a detailed self-evaluation on issues such as internal vision, potential for individual development, guidance and appreciation of work done. Also in the UK, a quality standard for good practice in volunteer management is in place: Investing in Volunteers.

As a general rule, no wage/remuneration and compensation is envisaged for voluntary activities in European countries. Volunteers, however, can get some material compensation for their activities such as: insurance coverage, access to services such as free parking or small premiums such as t-shirts that non-volunteers do not get. Also, in some countries volunteers cannot be reimbursed for their costs. In Italy, for instance, voluntary activity cannot be paid, not even by the beneficiary although volunteers can be reimbursed for the expenses they have incurred while carrying out their voluntary activities.

There are some cases where volunteering is paid, such as the National Civil Service implemented in Italy for which a remuneration of 433 EUR is envisaged. In some EU Member States, however, individuals receive rewards: in France, managers of volunteer associations (maximum three per association) are taxed as income; and in Germany and the Netherlands, volunteers can receive a small compensation and they can be exempt from taxation for a maximum amount of 500 Euro.

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185  Decree n. 81/2008.
5.2. The learning environment in work-based learning

Work-based learning is not working, per-se, but rather learning while working. This means that the working arena is at the same time a learning environment. 192

Apprenticeships are characterised by the fact that they formally combine and alternate company-based training (periods of practical work experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical/practical education followed in a school or training centre). The following table provides an overview of the amount of in-company training.

Table 9: In-company training in apprenticeships approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-company training</th>
<th>MS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 50 per cent</td>
<td>CZ, SK, HU, EL, LV, PL, BG, PT, ES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 50 per cent</td>
<td>EE, UK, IE, FI, FR, IT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UEAPME, BusinessEurope, CEEP (2016), The cost-effectiveness of apprenticeship schemes – making the business case for apprenticeships. 193

In most countries analysed by UEAPME (Union Européenne de l’Artisanat et des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises: European Association of Craft, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises), the in-company training is less than 50 per cent of the learning time. These countries often do not have a long tradition with apprenticeships. In other countries that have a long tradition of apprenticeships, such as Austria, company-based training constitutes the major part of apprenticeship training. Apprenticeship training agreements stating the conditions of training within the framework of a contract of employment are signed between the company and the apprentice. 194 In the Netherlands, a minimum of 60 per cent of the time is spent in the company. 195

As the apprenticeship systems are part of the VET systems in the countries, their implementation is subject to the quality assurance related to the formal VET system. 196 However, as apprentices, although usually employed, operate in a school-based environment (usually one day) and in a work-based environment (the remaining of the workweek), often the supervision and quality assurance is split as well between the school-based part, responsibility of the VET school and the work-based part, the responsibility of the employer. Within the VET systems, as concluded by the ENQA-VET study in 2009, covering England, Germany, Romania, The Netherlands and a number of Leonardo da Vinci projects, countries have structures and organisations in place to supervise and inspect the work-place learning environments and in general the quality of the apprenticeship programmes is high. 197 In the Netherlands, for instance, the workplace needs to be approved by

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193 This report applies the following key features for defining apprenticeships (based on European Commission (2015), "European Alliance for Apprenticeships – Good for Youth, Good for Business" June 2015): it is part of the formal VET system; it involves a dual learning principle which combines or alternates enterprise-based training (periods of practical experience at a workplace) with school-based education (periods of theoretical/practical education in a school or training centre); completing the apprenticeship leads to a nationally recognised IVET certificate/degree; there may be a contractual relationship or agreement between an employer and apprentice.
197 ENQA-VET (2009), Study on quality assurance systems in work based learning and assessment in European VET.
Samenwerkingsorganisatie Beroepsonderwijs Bedrijfsleven (SBB).\textsuperscript{198} According to the Regulation of SBB on the accreditation of ‘learning companies’, the company needs to offer a safe learning environment where the apprentice can practice all core tasks and work processes as expressed in the Qualification file (kwalificatiedossier). In addition, the company will provide a competent counsellor or trainer. Furthermore, the company cooperates with SBB and provide all the necessary information.\textsuperscript{199}

Whether\textsuperscript{200} internships are defined in terms of their learning content, varies per type of internship:

- **Internships linked to education programmes** tend to be among the best defined in terms of learning content. Learning content tends to be theoretically well-defined and closely aligned to the curriculum of the education programme, particularly due to the quality assurance of the education provider.\textsuperscript{200}

- Member States also require employers to be specific about the learning objectives of internships provided as ALMP.\textsuperscript{201} However, a distinction is relevant between ALMP internships aimed at providing more highly skilled young people with professional work-related experience and those that target lower skilled individuals to gain basic work experience. Generally speaking, the learning content of internships for lower skilled tend to be more vaguely defined, which is understandable in view of the ‘work orientation’ of these internships.\textsuperscript{202} To ensure some level of learning, all Member States require that internships under ALMP include the appointment of a mentor in the host organisation.\textsuperscript{203}

- The learning content on open market internships are less strictly regulated. Because these internships generally aim to provide work experience to graduates in the broadest sense, the content of these internships are generally not regulated. As a principle, the content and practice of these traineeships are determined jointly by the trainee and the employer, which gives more leverage for the employer under current economic conditions. However, this does not mean that these internships do not have structure, content, or value to interns. However, as for the other elements, this type of internship includes the largest variation in quality.\textsuperscript{206}

**Volunteering** is usually not primarily seen as a learning environment, or the learning objectives are not specified beforehand (see Section 3.1). An aspect that contributes to the quality of volunteering in terms of learning taking place is whether competences acquired are somehow recognised or awarded. In general, competences gained through volunteering are not attested in a qualification (it is non-formal learning), however, participants can receive a certification of attendance which can be used as a proof of skills development. There are also organisations to provide programmes and qualifications that can be used to recognise and accredit volunteers’ efforts.\textsuperscript{204} In Finland, within the project ‘buddy’, in which volunteers (university students) are buddies of migrants, a web-based


\textsuperscript{200} European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.


\textsuperscript{202} European Commission (2012), Study on a comprehensive overview on traineeship arrangements in MS.


\textsuperscript{204} See for instance: \url{https://www.asdan.org.uk/about/your-setting/accrediting-volunteering}.
validation questionnaire has been developed about learning by volunteering; students can fill the questionnaire and be endorsed by tutors. In Portugal, validation is done through a certificate issued by the promoting organisation and the certificate includes the domain of work, place and duration. In Germany, (in Baden-Wurttemberg) the 'Qualipass' (certification form) can be tailored by schools or volunteer organisations on their activities and the owner of such certificate can present her/his additional skills in a standard professional manner. At EU-level, Youthpass is developed within the Erasmus+ programme (see box).

**Box 12: Youthpass**

Youthpass is a European recognition tool for non-formal and informal learning in youth work. It is developed to account for competences acquired in Erasmus+ supported volunteering projects, but could – as the interview with the Dutch NJI confirmed – also be used more widely to make people aware that whatever activity they conduct, this could be considered a (non-formal) learning activity. If people on forehand qualify what they would like to learn, it is more likely that they can make explicit what skills they acquired. Also, it is easier to gather the evidence (portfolio) of acquired skills and competences when the learning objectives are defined beforehand.

Concerning validation of experiential learning, the respondent from the Netherlands indicated that there is a tendency to formalise what is in fact non-formal: volunteering does not have a primary objective to learn, let alone that volunteering has an ultimate goal of getting people into paid employment. In the Netherlands, there are many attempts to formalise the validation process (Eerder Verworven Competenties), but still the system does not function well.

### 5.3. Comparative overview

This chapter highlighted the evidence related to quality of apprenticeships, internships and volunteering. The table below provides a summary based on the evidence gathered on the quality of skills development schemes including work-based learning elements.

**Table 10: A summary on the quality of skills development schemes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue: Working/employment conditions</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status of apprentices differs by country (student or employee); usually apprentices receive remuneration and general conditions of employment are applicable.</td>
<td>Parts of what are called internships in many countries are not regulated and consist of an agreement between the employer and the participant only. These schemes can be unpaid and not taking into account the same rights and obligations that relate to employees.</td>
<td>Only a few countries have a specific legal status for volunteers. The rights, obligations and remuneration depend on the agreement between the organisation and the participant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>The learning in apprenticeships is typically assured through</td>
<td>The learning in the internships as part of an education programme and</td>
<td>The learning taking place in volunteering is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

205 Volunteering Validation Highway, (Web) Tools for Validation. The document has been co-produced by partners of the lifelong learning programme Grundtvig Learning Partnership Validation Highway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue:</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>governance systems that involve both the world of work and world of education and learning outcomes are described in the apprenticeship agreement of individual learning plan.</td>
<td>ALMP is better assured compared to the open-market internships.</td>
<td>usually not made explicit and there is not an underlying learning plan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS: QUALITY FRAMEWORKS

KEY FINDINGS

Concerning **apprenticeship**, there is no evidence of systematic misuse of apprenticeship or replacing of regular employment. In the countries where apprentices work on the basis of an employment contract, the labour arrangements, including pension arrangements, are better ensured in terms of providing equal treatment of apprentices compared to regular workers.

There are a number of developed **quality frameworks and proposals from stakeholders** (ETUC, BusinessEurope, Council of the European Union, and ET2020 Working Group) related to apprenticeships capturing the important elements that need to be in place to ensure quality. There are aspects on which it remains difficult to reach conclusive agreement. These concern: whether and to what extent, apprenticeships should be based on an employment contract; whether apprenticeships should **always be remunerated**.

While **internships/traineeships** provide valuable opportunities to gain work experience there remains some concerns. Not least that they provide employers in some instances with free/cheap labour (where skilled interns the internships are not paid) which might provide a substitute for paid employees. There are also some concerns about the quality of some internships, in terms of low/no compensation, limited learning experience, or in terms of working conditions. Where internships become the norm for entry in to a sector or a profession this may result in inadvertent social exclusion where the internships are unpaid thereby limiting the capacity of less well-off individuals to participate in them.

The **Quality Framework for Traineeships (2016)** provides a foundation for quality traineeships but leaves the issue of **whether they should be paid open**.

While the benefits of **volunteering** have been well documented, it remains the case that it tends to be taken up by those who are a relatively favourable socio-economic position (being wealthier, in employment, a member of a sport club or similar organisation). As such one needs to be careful in advocating it as a stepping stone into employment as it is not equally available to all young people (due to income inequalities). Other issues concern that volunteering runs the risk of replacing regular employment.

**European Charter for Rights and Responsibilities of Volunteers (2014)** set of core rights for volunteers. These standards are also related to the application of minimum labour standards, and the right to have skills and competences gained through volunteering recognised by formal and professional structures and institutions. **There is no provision on pay**, but reimbursement of expenses is covered by the Charter.

6.1. Challenges related to the position in the company/organisation and the learning environment

6.1.1. Challenges related to apprentices

Studies, amongst others the Cedefop Thematic Country Reviews in Malta and Lithuania highlight key challenges for establishing apprenticeship systems. The key challenges from
the Lithuanian review can be taken as illustrative for many countries setting up apprenticeship-like systems:

- the dual status of an apprentice as a student and as an employee is declared but not explicitly clarified;
- lack of planning for apprenticeships prevents estimating necessary resources;
- obvious lack of implementation provisions and their communication to stakeholders, more specifically, companies and VET providers: they are not aware of differences in apprenticeship and final practice of students; many of them believe that the field is completely unregulated. There is also a misconception that apprenticeship would be implemented on a year-round basis;
- VET providers are not ready and, possibly, unwilling to accept apprentices into their programmes. This can be caused though by lack of guidelines and by lack or perceived lack of resources;
- companies are looking for quick-fix solutions and do not see the potential benefits in training apprentices. There are no clear cost-sharing or compensatory measures in place to incentivise companies to take apprentices;
- the experience and products gained in the EU-funded projects are not taken on board.

Also in Malta, key issues concern that rights and obligations need to be clarified for all. This concerns, for instance, clarifying the status of apprentices and rights to social security; offering remuneration as a principle; obligations for companies to provide learning; obligations for schools to cooperate with companies; set up cost-sharing and cooperation models to sustainably organise the apprenticeship system. Other reports highlight more macro-level challenges faced by apprenticeship systems in Europe, for instance:

- Declining numbers of apprenticeships;
- Under-representation of young women and young people from ethnic minorities;
- Mismatch of supply and demand of apprenticeship places;
- Completion/premature termination and retention (transition to work) rates; and
- Quality of apprenticeship related to good pay, working conditions, a safe working environment, and personal development and career opportunities.

The interviews conducted in the course of this study confirmed many of these challenges and threats for apprenticeships that need attention in the future and more specifically in developing the 2017 European Commission framework for quality apprenticeships.

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210 The report mentions that this is also impacted by the state of the economy: “Given that apprenticeship training by its very nature is a combination of school-based and work-based training, a major challenge is clearly the state of the labour market which itself is dependent upon development in the broader economy.” ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – a European Trade Union Proposal: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1147&langId=en&moreDocuments=yes, p. 11.

The **European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC)** points to the fact that all work needs to be remunerated: this is also true for apprenticeships. There is no indication of systematic misuse or replacing regular employment; this does not mean that this issue should not be taken on board in future initiatives to develop quality frameworks for apprenticeships.\(^{212}\) Also, it is mentioned that quality of the apprenticeship should be ensured looking both at the quality of learning and work experience. Only quality schemes are stepping stones into employment: when young people enter the labour market through precarious channels, they go into cycles of bad experiences.\(^{213}\)

**BusinessEurope** indicates that employers should respect and follow the rules as set in the country concerning apprenticeship. They do not have indications of misuse (replacing regular employment or apprentices working under precarious conditions). There are, however, communication issues whereby advertisements use the word of apprenticeship, without offering quality apprenticeships (anecdotal evidence from the UK). Issues that need improvement concern the involvement of employers in the design of apprenticeships and the learning outcomes of the apprenticeships. Another aspect is the quality of in-company trainers that needs further attention, especially in smaller companies.\(^{214}\)

The **European Student Union (ESU)** also indicates that work-based learning should never be without compensation and should never replace regular employment. Apprentices should benefit from the same rights and obligations as regular employees.

The interviewees acknowledge the challenges that underlie a quality apprenticeship which are also listed in various studies and reports. They confirm that although apprenticeships can be used to lower labour costs, that there is no indication of systematic misuse of the apprenticeship system both concerning the labour conditions of the apprentice and the replacement of regular employment. Generally speaking, apprenticeships should be well covered in governing frameworks, describing the status, rights, obligations, wages and secondary labour conditions. This mostly applies in well-established, high-quality apprenticeship systems. In addition, apprenticeships involve employers, participants and education institutions and rely on long-term engagement and (financial) commitment of employers. These factors do not hint towards any indications of systematic misuse. This, however, does not exclude issues of low pay in countries and specific sectors. Furthermore, misuse goes beyond replacement, it is also exploitation of the apprentice delivering work of increasing quality but typically being paid a very low remuneration. Good governance is needed to avoid instances of potential misuse.\(^{215}\)

### 6.1.2. Challenges related to interns

The Council Recommendation on Quality Framework for Traineeships\(^ {216}\) sets out some general principles, but leaves out contentious issues such as remuneration. The following tables provide an overview of the compliance of Member States’ legislation with the Quality

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\(^{212}\) See proposal by ETUC and the European Quality Charter on Internships and Apprenticeships: [http://qualityinternships.eu/about/](http://qualityinternships.eu/about/).


\(^{214}\) BusinessEurope has provided a more elaborated statement on apprenticeships in the report: UEAPME, BusinessEurope, CEEP (2016), The cost-effectiveness of apprenticeship schemes – making the business case for apprenticeships.

\(^{215}\) OECD/ ILO (2014), Promoting better labour market outcomes for youth.

\(^{216}\) Council Recommendation on a Quality Framework for Traineeships (COM/2013/0857 final - 2013/0431 (NLE)).
Framework for Traineeships for open market traineeships (Table 8) and ALMP-type traineeships (Table 9). The tables clearly show that open-market internships in many countries are poorly regulated, opening the door for potential misuse. ALMP internships are generally well governed. Some Member States already made an effort to define the learning content of open market traineeships, by requiring or prohibiting certain types of activities. More specifically, 10 Member States also require employers to make learning objectives specific for open market traineeships (BE, BG, CZ, DE, ES, LT, NL, RO, SI, UK), and another 7 Member States also require the appointment of a mentor in these open market internships (BE, BG, LT, NL, PT, SI, UK).

Table 11: Compliance of open market traineeships with Quality Framework for Traineeships dimensions in the EU-28

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QFT dimensions</th>
<th>NL</th>
<th>PL</th>
<th>PT</th>
<th>RO</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>SK</th>
<th>UK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Requirement of a written traineeship agreement</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning objectives clarified</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentorship advisor assigned</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement clarifies whether there is health and accident insurance, and sick leave</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement clarifies whether there is allowance/compensation and its amount</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of a traineeship is limited to 6 months</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circumstances and conditions of longer traineeships are clarified</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement allows termination by either party with advance notice</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper recognition/attestation of traineeships through a certificate</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency regarding allowance/compensation</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency regarding health and accident insurance</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency regarding hiring practices in recent years</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment services transparent on financial conditions of traineeships</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: European Commission based on ICF analysis

Legend:
- **Green** — Fully/mostly compliant
- **Yellow** — Partly compliant
- **Red** — Non-compliant
- **Orange** — Modest/minimal compliance overall

N/A — This type of traineeship is either illegal, very rare or nearly non-existent and there is no information available on conditions and thus on QFT compliance


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Concerns with regard to internships relate mostly to the least regulated type, namely the 'open market' internships. The most common challenges identified are:

- internships often are not based on clear rules regarding recognition;
- insufficient levels of learning taking place, lack of clarification of learning objectives;
- lack of engagement and competences of mentors or other types of guidance staff;
- lack of transparency on hiring practices; and
- the length of traineeships are often longer than 6 months.

In this element there lies a risk of 'abuse', where employers make use of the imbalance of young people and available jobs to provide them with the opportunity to obtain work experience against no or low remuneration in return for labour, leading to cheap labour, systematic reliance on interns for conducting tasks that could have been conducted by regular employees and hence possibly replacing regular employees with interns. To avoid gaps in

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their CV, young people are ‘forced’ to enrol in one internship after the other, as internships only limitedly lead to an employment contract.

At national level, concerns are raised with regard to bad practices related to internships. In the Netherlands, for instance, a labour union for young people opened up a hotline to denounce bad practices in internships.\(^{219}\) In its inception numerous stories have been collected from graduates, most of which refer to the low compensation for full-time work.\(^{220}\)

The interviews confirm the challenges as discussed in the reports and studies related to internships; they differ however in their position towards specific key challenges such as obligation to provide remuneration. The positions of Youth Forum, ESU, ETUC and BusinessEurope are presented in the box below. While student organisations and labour unions tend to emphasise the need for remuneration for contribution to valuable work within an organisation, employers argue that trainees gain work-related experience which will improve their employability, while taking on board a trainee can be time-consuming for host organisations. Therefore, no agreement is established on whether interns should (legally) be remunerated and if so, what is a fair remuneration.

**Box 14: Findings from EU-level interviews**

According to the [Youth Forum](http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/), as expressed in the interview, a European quality framework should take into consideration that internships should not be unpaid. This issue was already raised in 2014 in the discussions concerning the Quality Framework for Traineehips. The secretary general of the European Youth Forum (YFJ) indicated that “poor quality, unpaid internships are a big issue across Europe”.\(^{221}\)

The [ETUC](http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/) indicates that their affiliated national trade unions report on abuse of unpaid traineeships. In many traineeships, also those supported by the Youth Guarantee and Youth Employment Initiative, there is no training involved and no educational pathways foreseen. In addition, there are indications that there is no mentor; safety regulations are not met; there is no contract; and finally, no compensation. There are even cases that young people have to pay a fee to work as a trainee. Besides these individual cases of misuse, the ETUC also indicates that traineeships are used to replace regular employment. In order to improve the frameworks, more emphasis needs to be placed on ensuring social dialogue on traineeships.

The [ESU](http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/) also indicates that work-based learning should never be unpaid and should not replace regular employment. There should be a clear learning objective of the traineeship and social security should be the same for the trainee as for regular employees.

[BusinessEurope](http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/) does see that open-market internships are a grey area, but would not pose that all traineeships should be paid. In their position paper 2014, BusinessEurope indicates that there is no need for additional European level governance and that trainees, including those in open-market positions, should not have the same status as workers. Also concerning payments, no additional regulations are needed. It acknowledges that traineeships should primarily be about the learning experience and, therefore, there needs to be a focus on the learning outcomes of such a placement.\(^{222}\)

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\(^{219}\) [http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/](http://meldpuntstagemisbruik.nl/).


\(^{221}\) Euractiv (2014), Unpaid internships set to continue to shame Europe: [https://www.euractiv.com/section/social-europe-jobs/opinion/unpaid-internships-set-to-continue-to-shame-europe/](https://www.euractiv.com/section/social-europe-jobs/opinion/unpaid-internships-set-to-continue-to-shame-europe/).

Nevertheless, the issue of remuneration touches upon the more fundamental issue of equal access. This chapter has already established that employers value the practical experience that interns gain. If internships provide relevant learning opportunities and complement formal education curricula with practical know-how desired by employers, equal access to internships is as relevant as equal access to education itself. The Sutton Trust calculated for the UK that enrolling in an unpaid full-time internship for 6 months would cost the intern around 5 000 pounds. Given that the vast majority of graduates, nor their families, have this money readily available, unpaid internships are exclusive by nature. This is particularly the case for open market internships for young people that have already graduated.

The issue of equal access is another important challenge for national and European policymakers that warrants attention. This issue was supported by the ESU, ETUC and Youth Forum. Depending on unpaid fulltime internships to complement formal education as preparation for the labour market locks in existing income inequalities and risks the exclusion of more disadvantaged groups. In other words: the employment opportunities, based on participating in internships are better for economically better off young people. Also for mentioned interviewees this is considered a problematic issue: internships or traineeships are valuable, but can create reduced chances for those who cannot afford it.

6.1.3. Challenges related to the position of volunteers

The 2010 study for the European Commission on volunteering refers to challenges concerning engaging volunteers; the increasingly professional nature of personnel employed in the not for profit sector; the lack of clear legal framework or clear rules; providing insurance to volunteers; the lack of information and data; the lack of national bodies/agencies to coordinate volunteering; lack of funding for those voluntary organisations which work with jobseekers and unemployed people to help improve their skills and employability; prejudices play in discouraging individuals from volunteering; the lack of national systems promoting recognition in volunteering; and the lack of government policy or strategy on volunteering. Volunteering covers a wide diversity of different formal and informal activities. Its more formal kind (in a more structured, organised setting), which has been under review in this chapter, is relatively similar to unpaid internships, and faces relatively similar challenges being:

- lack of clear arrangements concerning the status, labour conditions, remuneration;
- insufficient levels of learning taking place;
- lack of recognition and validation of learning;

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226 See as well: European Volunteer Centre (CEV) (2007), General Assembly “Volunteering as a route (back) to employment”.

227 European Volunteer Centre (CEV) (2006), Manifesto for Volunteering in Europe.

228 The issue of recognition, is relevant as well to parts of the internships/traineeships. As is indicated, especially the open market internships, do not provide an attestation of what was learned and different tools to assess and make visible experiential learning, such as Europass, is of relevance here as well. https://europass.ecedof.europa.eu/.
• risk of replacing quality jobs with unpaid work.\textsuperscript{229}

The interviews conducted in the course of this study generally confirm the above-mentioned challenges. They main issue indicated as challenge for volunteering in the light of skills development is that volunteering is seen and used for something which it is not: volunteering is first and foremost an activity related to a benefit of the public good; and secondly, an opportunity to learn new skills which could (thirdly) be relevant for labour market entry. The positions of different interviewees are presented in the box below.

Box 15: Findings from interviews

The respondent from the LLLPlatform indicated that volunteering is supported by the European Commission through the Erasmus+ programme, and that there are governance frameworks in place to support people in these schemes, but that the participation is very low compared to the overall scale of volunteering: a lot of volunteering hence takes place outside any governance frameworks making is extremely difficult to understand what is going on. In addition, there are instances where organisations and companies ‘employ’ volunteers to receive tax benefits (this is for instance the case in France with the volontariat international en entreprise (VIE)\textsuperscript{230} and the volontariat international en administration (VIA)\textsuperscript{231}). Even more problematic is that people with fewer resources are excluded from volunteering and mobility schemes. In European programmes there is no attention on this. As a factor for success, volunteers need to have a good guidance in place which also clearly indicates the learning objectives.

The ETUC indicates that they acknowledge that volunteering is a useful and rich experience, but it should not be linked to labour market engagement: volunteering is done with a different purpose.

BusinessEurope also sees the value of volunteering for people to acquire soft-skills and values, by showing motivation, commitment and initiative. In recruitment, employers do value when people have been involved in volunteering. Volunteering is not regarded as a systematic solution to combat youth unemployment.

NCVO UK indicates that there are serious issues concerning unpaid volunteering schemes for high-profile professional areas such as politics and advertisement. The living costs (for instance in London) prevent people for a more disadvantaged background to take up these opportunities. There are also concerns related to the National Citizenship Programme whether this national programme is in fact able to reach out to people from socio-economic disadvantaged backgrounds. Another key issue is a danger that it replaces regular employment. This is not necessarily a bad thing if it is done from a strategic perspective (improve services, engage with the community etc.) and not solely as a way to save costs.

As evidenced by the interviews, volunteering has value in the labour market, but faces difficulties in being equally available for all young people (due to income inequalities). A study from the UK indicates that young people from disadvantaged backgrounds are doing


\textsuperscript{230} https://www.service-public.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/F10040

\textsuperscript{231} https://www.service-public.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/F13279.
less youth social action than those that are most affluent.\textsuperscript{232} Volunteering as a part of an activation strategy for the unemployed could make sense, but only if the unemployed opts to volunteer by his/her own free will. Volunteering should not be positioned as a systematic solution to combat young unemployment.

6.1.4. Cross-cutting challenges related to work-based learning

The following \textbf{cross-cutting challenges} are distilled related to \textbf{work-based learning}, and in particular those schemes which are the least regulated (open-market internships and volunteering):

\textbf{Cheap-labour and replacing regular employees}

Work-based learning runs the risk of being associated with offering cheap labour and replacing regular employees. This threat is most clearly identified in relation to the open-market internships, but plays a role in volunteering and even apprenticeships as well. The cheap-labour-challenge has everything to do with imbalance of the labour market: where there are more young people looking for opportunities to enter in one way or the other the labour market, employers can enrol young people against a lower remuneration. This challenge is less common for apprenticeships, while here there is a longer-term commitment (often years). For internship and volunteering, there are popular employers/sectors that are in high demand that do not offer any form of compensation.

When the imbalanced labour market allows (more supply of willing young people; popular employer/sector), there can be instances that employers rely in a systematic way on interns/volunteers to conduct tasks that were usually conducted by regular employees. In that case interns are not hired with the intention to offer them the possibility of a regular employee position, but are replaced by a new intern.

\textbf{Lack of structured learning taking place or being valued}

Work-based learning refers to knowledge and skills acquired through carrying out – and reflecting on – tasks in a vocational context. As indicated, the learning is best assured when there is a learning arrangement, agreement, or individual learning plan. This is mostly, if not always, the case for apprenticeships and the internships implemented within the VET and ALMP, but less the case for open-market internships and volunteering.

The possibilities to validate or accredit experiential learning are there (e.g. Youthpass, Europass, national Accreditation of Prior Learning opportunities), but not frequently applied to internships and volunteering.

\textbf{Equal access to work-based learning and equal opportunities in the labour market}

Related to the lack of compensation, work-based learning runs the risk of only being affordable for wealthier young people. When there is no compensation, the young people have to rely on other (i.e. own) resources to subsist. This risk is more common to internships and intensive volunteering involvement (e.g. full-time engagement), but plays a role as well in apprenticeships when there is limited or no compensation.

This challenge has an even more fundamental, or societal risk: when work-based learning is a stepping stone into employment, it offers this only to those young people that can compensate the costs themselves, excluding less resourceful young people. Hence, stimulating work-based learning, allowing non-compensated schemes, can lead to unequal access to work-based learning and eventually the labour market.

\textsuperscript{232} NCVO (2016), Youth social action and inequality: \url{http://blogs.ncvo.org.uk/2016/11/22/youth-social-action-and-inequality/}.
6.2. Quality frameworks

At European level, following the Bruges (2010) and Riga (2015) conclusions on VET, a number of initiatives have been taken to promote quality work-based learning. In addition, work-based learning is also mentioned explicitly in the Youth Guarantee and Youth Employment Initiatives to enhance the possibilities for young people to enter the labour market, namely apprenticeships and traineeships. At European level, the legal and political status of quality frameworks is different. On only legal, even if not binding act at EU-level is related to traineeships.\footnote{European Commission (2016), Applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships, SWD(2016) 324 final.}

Also at a global level, quality work-based learning is considered important. The International Labour Conference in 2014, in the context of equal pay for work of equal value, encouraged governments to “[regulate and monitor] apprenticeship, internship and other work-experience schemes, including through certification, to ensure they allow for a real learning experience and do not replace regular workers”.\footnote{ILO (2014), Minimum wage systems: International Labour Conference, 103\textsuperscript{rd} session 2014.} These initiatives to promote the quality often relate to describing the key factors for success of work-based learning schemes.\footnote{In the annex the most important frameworks are presented in full.}

6.2.1. Quality frameworks and initiatives related to apprenticeships

More specific to apprenticeships, there are a number of quality frameworks and lists of key factors for success.

- The European Commission, as a result of the ET2020 Working Group on VET, identified \textit{20 guiding principles for high-performance apprenticeships & work-based learning}.\footnote{European Commission (2015), High-performance apprenticeships & work-based learning: 20 guiding principles.} These principles respond to four policy challenges that are important to address in the promotion of apprenticeships and other forms of work-based learning, which relate to national governance and social partners' involvement; support for companies, in particular SMEs, offering apprenticeships; attractiveness of apprenticeships and improved career guidance; and quality assurance in work-based learning.

- The ETUC (with support from the European Commission), in preparing ground for the 2017 initiative of the European Commission to develop a quality framework for apprentices,\footnote{See European Commission (2016), Commission Work Programme 2017 Delivering a Europe that protects, empowers and defends COM(2016) 710 final.} proposed \textit{20 quality standards} for apprenticeships.\footnote{ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – a European Trade Union Proposal.} The ETUC framework proposes, for example, to protect apprenticeships against misuse by using the term only for statutory apprenticeships. It also points to equitable cost sharing and to the role of financial incentives for employers. ETUC asks for a competence-based duration. In addition, ETUC also asks for a clear definition of apprenticeship as first quality standard and recommends a definition issued by Cedefop.\footnote{See ETUC/Unionlearn (2016), A European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships – a European Trade Union Proposal, p. 30.}

pointed at ‘shared responsibility’ as the essential element in functioning apprenticeships and work-based learning.\textsuperscript{241}

- The "European Alliance for Apprenticeships" Council Declaration of 15 October 2013 provides 10 guiding principles.\textsuperscript{242} These principles point to providing the regulatory and institutional frameworks, fostering cooperation; integrating apprenticeships in formal education and training; providing strong work-based high-quality learning and training component; assuring participation of young people with fewer opportunities; and promoting apprenticeship schemes through awareness-raising.

The developed frameworks show a high-level of consensus on what is considered important for developing quality apprenticeships in terms of cooperation, knowledge sharing, raise attractiveness of VET and work-based learning, look for recognition and permeable learning pathways, provide support structures and measures for engaging SMEs.

They differ in relation to whether the apprenticeship should be an employment contract and whether, or to which extent, the employer should pay the apprentice. The ETUC framework is in favour and the BusinessEurope vision document does not discuss this aspect.

In addition to the European Commission, ETUC and BusinessEurope, there are other sources that highlight what could be factors for successful apprenticeship systems:

- The OECD mentions, for instance, that external accreditation of companies is an important aspect as well to ensure that companies are really committed to the programme and do not aim to use apprentices/trainees as source of (subsidised) free or cheap labour or as replacement for regular staff.\textsuperscript{243}

- In addition, the OECD mentions as one of the success factors to ensure the delivery of quality placements the existence of an individual apprenticeship/traineeship agreement. This agreement delineates roles and responsibilities of all parties and specifies apprentice/trainee terms and conditions and explicitly states elements such as the aims of the placement, its content and duration, the responsibilities and obligations of the parties involved, the status of the trainee and any remuneration or social security contributions.\textsuperscript{244}

- Another crucial quality aspect in the apprenticeship system is the guidance and training the apprentice receives in the company and by the VET provider in bridging transitions by informing and supporting young people within schools to make well-informed choices.\textsuperscript{245} Although there is no overarching data available, the 2010 cross-country review concluded that in Austria, Germany and Switzerland in order for young people to find their own apprenticeship places and contacting employers, they must be informed of the relevant factors for choosing an occupation sector. For this, students are provided with well-established programmes of careers education in schools which examines apprenticeship occupations, the prospects they

\textsuperscript{241} The annex provides an overview of the three quality frameworks.


\textsuperscript{244} It is generally crucial for the successful achievement of the programme’s aims and the protection of the parties involved, especially the young participant (e.g. AT, BE, BG, CY, CZ, DE, EE, EL, ES, FR, IE, IT, LU, MT, NL, PT, UK). Commonly, the programmes with positive employment outcomes across the Member States had such agreements in place. OECD (2012). Note on “quality apprenticeships” for the G20 Task Force on Employment; 26 September 2012: \url{https://www.oecd.org/els/emp/OECD%20Apprenticeship%20Note%2026%20Sept.pdf}

\textsuperscript{245} See for instance the work of the European Lifelong Guidance Policy Network (ELGPN): \url{http://www.elgpn.eu/publications/elgpn-tools-no1-resource-kit}. 
offer and the type of work involved. Publicly-funded careers offices, employer organisations and individual employers support the young people in making their career choice. In both France and England, the cross-country review concludes that young people suffer from indifference and sometimes hostility towards work-based training in schools and little or no advice is provided.\textsuperscript{246}

- In some countries the law, regulations or other legal frameworks indicate the \textbf{role the trainer, coach or mentor has} in guiding the apprentice and they also indicate the competences the trainer should possess.\textsuperscript{247} A clear example is for instance the \textbf{German Trainer Aptitude Test}.\textsuperscript{248} In the Netherlands, there are regulations that specify that the company needs to ensure that competent guidance is in place.\textsuperscript{249}

6.2.2. Quality frameworks and initiatives related to internships/traineeships

In relation to internships/traineeships, various stakeholders have increasingly pointed to practices where young people are misused as \textbf{cheap (or free) labour} without helping the trainee to get a foothold on the labour market, particularly in the ‘open market’ category. In response to these concerns, the European Commission proposed a \textbf{Council Recommendation on a Quality Framework for Traineeships} (QFT) in December 2013, after a two-stage social partner consultation that did not result in a social partner agreement. In March 2014, the Council adopted its final recommendation, based on the Commission's proposal.\textsuperscript{250} It will, through insisting on the \textbf{necessity of a written agreement} containing information on amongst others, rights, obligations and pay, support the improvement of working conditions and the learning content of traineeships. In addition, the proposal indicates that internships should have a reasonable duration, not exceeding six months. There is \textbf{no provision for pay} in the Framework. The \textbf{Staff Working Document on Applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships}\textsuperscript{251} found that half of the EU Member States have undertaken — or plan to undertake — legal changes to align their national framework with the \textbf{Quality Framework for Traineeships}.\textsuperscript{252}

6.2.3. Quality frameworks and initiatives related to volunteering

Given the \textbf{unregulated situation of volunteering in many countries}, with the support of the European Commission, the European Youth Forum developed the \textbf{European Charter for Rights and Responsibilities of Volunteers} (2014).\textsuperscript{253} The Charter serves as an appeal to local, national and European authorities to design and update policies relating to volunteering. It defines the important contribution of volunteering work to public good, human and social capital. Furthermore, volunteering is defined as a source of economic

\textsuperscript{246} LSE (2010), the State of Apprenticeship in 2010 International Comparisons Australia Austria England France Germany Ireland Sweden Switzerland: cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/special/cepsp22.pdf p. 3.
\textsuperscript{248} See European Commission (2012), Apprenticeship Supply in the Member States of the European Union: The Trainer Aptitude Regulation (“Ausbilder-Eignungsverordnung”, AEVO) which re-quires trainers to pass a special trainer aptitude examination (conducted by a competent body). The examination assesses the most important skills and competences, individuals must have to be authorised to act as a trainer. The required competences are outlined in four areas of activity which follow the structure of the apprenticeship training: 1. Assessment of vocational training requirements and planning of training, 2. Preparing training and participating in trainee recruitment, 3. Conducting training and 4. Concluding training.
growth, a pathway to integration and employment, a positive outcome in itself and a mechanism for improving cohesion. Taking into account the diversity of volunteers and volunteering work across the EU, it promotes the role of participatory organisations. The Charter gives guidance on the rights and responsibilities that volunteers and volunteer providers should undertake. It provides a set of core rights for volunteers, and it specifies the support provided by volunteering-providers to volunteers, but also in terms of personal development. It also indicates a set of ethical and procedural standards to which participant organisations commit to comply. These standards are also related to the application of minimum labour standards, and the right to have skills and competences gained through volunteering recognised by formal and professional structures and institutions. There is no provision on pay, but reimbursement of expenses is covered by the Charter.254

The recently launched European Solidarity Corps255 offers the opportunity to 18-30 year olds to do voluntary or paid work helping the community and wider society, while at the same time gaining invaluable life experience and job skills. The Youth Forum suggests that in order to make the European Solidarity Corps (ESC) a success, the European Union should integrate it in a wider strategy aiming at creating an enabling environment for volunteering in Europe.256 This could be via a European legal framework as requested by Solidar in 2010.257 Provision needs to be in place so that the Corps (like other full-time voluntary services) does not replace employment or that adverse effects of this kind are limited.258

6.3. Comparative overview

This chapter highlighted the evidence related to quality of apprenticeships, internships and volunteering. The table below provides a summary based on the evidence gathered on the quality of skills development schemes including work-based learning elements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>No indication of systematic misuse of the apprenticeship system both concerning the labour conditions of the apprentice and the replacement of regular employment.</td>
<td>Open market internships risk of abuse: - not based on clear rules regarding recognition; insufficient levels of learning taking place, lack of clarification of learning objectives; - lack of clear arrangements concerning the status, labour conditions, remuneration; - insufficient levels of learning taking place;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

254 The Volunteering Charter establishes that every volunteer has the right to social protection during the volunteering activity in form of health care and liability insurance” (Art. 6). In addition, the Quality Charter of the Alliance of European Voluntary Service Organisations, envisages that volunteers must receive all necessary health and safety instructions, and be provided with the necessary safety equipment to carry out the work. It also states that volunteers have the right to adequate supervision - there should be a trained person (usually a project leader) responsible for each work-camp to supervise the volunteers - and that “volunteers must not replace paid labour or volunteer on a for profit project*. Hosting organisations should do all they can to ensure the issuing of the visa, when required and should provide adequate food and suitable accommodation. See: European Volunteer Centre (2012), Volunteering Infrastructure in Europe, available at: http://www.alliance-network.eu/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/CEV_Volunteering-infrastructure.pdf .


257 Solidar (2010), Volunteering and the European Year on Volunteering 2011.

258 See: European Youth Forum (2016), Recommendations of the Youth and Volunteering sectors on the European Solidarity Corps.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue: Undecided issues in frameworks</th>
<th>Apprenticeship</th>
<th>Internship/traineeship</th>
<th>Volunteering</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Issues of low pay in countries and specific sectors.</td>
<td>- lack of engagement and competences of mentors or other types of guidance staff; - lack of transparency on hiring practices; - the length of traineeships often longer than 6 months.</td>
<td>- lack of recognition and validation of learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Most frameworks leave open issues concerning employment status (employment contract or not) and payments.</td>
<td>No provision in Framework (Council Recommendation) concerning whether / to what extent interns should be paid.</td>
<td>No provision in framework (Charter) on pay.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY POINTERS

7.1. Conclusions
Based on the previous chapters the following conclusions can be drawn:

**Conclusion 1: In a labour market characterised by weak labour demand, young people need to do something that will mark them out in the recruitment market.**

Young people have been hit harder by the economic crisis than older people and they face more difficulties entering the labour market. These difficulties can have scarring effects on their future careers and lives. In order to avoid these effects, young people can get involved in alternative schemes to bridge the gap between the world of education and the world of work. These can be apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering schemes.

**Conclusion 2: At European level work-based learning including apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering are positioned as important responses to combat youth unemployment and future skills mismatches.**

At European level and national level, apprenticeships receive substantial policy attention. Apprenticeships are mentioned in many European level policy frameworks, and in many countries the reform of VET systems includes either the creation of apprenticeship programmes or significantly increasing the number of apprentices. Internships/traineeships are high on the policy agenda as well as being evident in the Youth Guarantee and Youth Employment Initiatives. Finally, volunteering received attention through the European Year of Volunteering (2011) and the European Charter for Rights and Responsibilities of Volunteers (2014). In these policy initiatives emphasis is put on the role these schemes can play in the skills development on young people to provide them an entry point in the labour market.

**Conclusion 3: In order to arrive at quality apprenticeships, internships and volunteering schemes, challenges need to be overcome by policy responses, being accepted by all stakeholders (including employers’ organisations and trade unions).**

The study identified a number of challenges related to work-based learning that will have to be provided solutions for, to establish systems that provide a safe position for participants in companies and organisations and that secure a quality learning environment. The quality frameworks that are developed at EU-level do include the aspects needed to work on these challenges, but also leave open specific issues because no agreement can be reached between the social partners at European level on key issues related to quality frameworks for apprenticeships and open-market internships. This concerns the issue of payments for apprenticeships and internships and the contract form for apprentices. It would help if quality frameworks can be agreed upon by the main stakeholder and provide clear guidelines on what is considered a quality apprenticeship and internship.

**Conclusion 4: Apprenticeship systems, compared with internships, tend to be well governed, ensure fair learning and working conditions for apprentices and lead to formal qualifications and entry into the labour market. They do face difficulties in engaging employers and there can be issues related to low pay.**

Compared with internships, apprenticeships are better regulated, and require a high level of commitment from employers to deliver skills training. Employers need to commit themselves to a long-term apprenticeship pathway; need to comply with different quality standards; conduct administrative duties and need to ensure that the learning outcomes are delivered. The employers are, especially in times of economic uncertainty, sometimes hesitant to make this commitment, without there being additional support (financial or other kinds). Despite the high level of policy attention, participation in apprenticeships is not increasing in many places.

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Member States. Although systematic misuse is not found in the study, there are issues with low pay of apprentices. Furthermore, there are indications that apprenticeships have considerable numbers of drop-outs (the completion rate is between 50 per cent and 85 per cent).

**Conclusion 5: Internships and volunteering are less regulated and offer less secure working and learning conditions for participants. The outcomes are less pronounced compared to apprenticeships. They are however an attractive opportunity both for employers and young people.**

In relation to the internships and traineeships, the situation is different compared to apprenticeships, leading also to different types of difficulties. Internships are seen as an attractive opportunity, also covering more often higher education levels. They can be part of an education programme, are popular ALMP for labour market integration of unemployed, but they can also take place in an open market as based on an agreement between an employer and an individual.

These types of internships are seen by employers as a probation period for potential new employees and participants see them as an entry point to the labour market. Internships, however, are also seen a source of cheap labour for employers and lack of job-openings can ‘force’ young people into a series of unpaid internships.

A factor that contributes to why the internship model is often applied is that they usually do not come with a high level commitment from the employer or the intern: they are short-term, are largely unregulated regarding the employer's commitment to the intern, and have limited administrative burdens. In times of economic stand-still and labour markets in which young people have difficulties finding jobs, internships are a cost-efficient means for employers to recruit new staff (i.e. almost a trial period to see if the intern fits in with the company, and also relatively low cost labour (so long as employers can harness the productive contribution of the intern). Volunteering as a way of skills development and improving one’s chances in the labour market relies on the individual willing to invest time and volunteers need to be able to financially support themselves.

**Conclusion 6: Introducing, establishing, and developing apprenticeships, internships/traineeships and volunteering include a re-thinking of the sharing of responsibilities, costs and benefits between government, education providers, employers and individuals.**

The emphasis on the role of the skills development schemes is increasing in Europe and its Member States and these schemes rely on close collaboration between education providers and employers more than the school-based skills development schemes. This also means sharing responsibilities and sharing costs and benefits between them. Introducing apprenticeships evokes debates on what the role and contribution is of companies in achieving the stated learning outcomes, how to guarantee the quality in the work-place learning, and in what way do employers contribute in terms of funding in particular in cases where apprentices are poorly paid. For internships and volunteering, the investments for skills development shift even more to the individual in cases where the internship is unpaid or poorly paid (volunteering is by definition unpaid).

**Conclusion 7: There are societal risks associated with internships and volunteering. The concern is that they are not equally accessible to all, and that there are indications that they can lead to replacing regular (paid) employment and the misuse of qualified young people. Finally, it hints at a re-thinking of who(m) bears the costs for skills development: the State, the employer, or – increasingly – the individual.**
As internships are usually unpaid or poorly paid, the externalisation of costs for skills development in a particular occupation shifts from education providers, to employers, and finally to the individual. In order to obtain the skills the labour market demands the individual is pushed into making the investment in these skills in the absence of other means through which they might acquire them. Investments concern working in the organisation and contributing to the productivity and covering living costs by other means than wages of remunerations. In relation to volunteering a similar shift can be seen as for the internships, the costs for skills development are borne by the individuals as no payments or remunerations are foreseen.

The shift in who is responsible for covering the costs of skills development comes with a price: skills development is becoming less accessible for people from economically less advantaged backgrounds. Although skills development in the form of internships and traineeships are an important stepping stone into employment; people with less financial means face more difficulties entering the labour market. People who can afford to self-fund their living costs for a period of time have a better chance to take up volunteering and internships and thereby improve their attractiveness to employers.

There are indications that especially for internships (‘open-market internships’), that young people are replacing paid employment, or that employers make use of interns on a systematic basis without offering employment opportunities after completing the internship.

7.2. **Suggestions for policy developments and further study**

Based on these conclusions, the following suggestions are provided for policy developments and further study:

**Suggestion 1: In relation to apprenticeships**, as apprenticeships lead to good employment outcomes, it is suggested to stimulate the further development of apprenticeships as an alternative to school-based learning in initial education in European Member States. This would require the following actions:

- ensure that the term ‘apprenticeship’ is used as a brand, associated with quality learning and working environments.
- stimulate further the engagement of employers (and SMEs) in the development and implementation of apprenticeships (e.g. financial incentives and support in organising work-based learning) and make them aware of the benefits of expanding the apprenticeship system in their sector in terms of recruitment and the alignment of education to the needs of labour market;
- ensure that apprenticeships are also used by groups that are currently under-represented (which differs by country);
- ensure the quality of learning in the workplace by means of establishing agreements between providers and employers and assuring the quality of the in-company trainers and mentors.
- further study reasons for low completion rates in apprenticeships and solutions to combat drop-out;
- establish agreement between social partners at EU-level and MS level on issues related to employment contracts for apprentices and fair payment, balancing the interests of the apprentices and the employers (keeping employers interested in offering apprenticeships). This agreement should inform the development of a European level definition of the concept of apprenticeship that can be used to improve the data availability and quality on apprenticeship systems in Europe.
Suggestion 2: In relation to internships, it is suggested to stimulate a more structured approach towards internships, especially to the open-market internships and establish better governance arrangements by spelling out the contractual status, remuneration (open-market interns should be paid); guidance; and the envisaged learning outcomes. Unpaid internships can lead – but not necessarily so – to unequal access and the replacement of existing employees in an organisation. In addition, more can be done to guarantee the quality of mentors guiding the interns. It would be beneficial to start initiatives at European level to come to an agreement on principles of remuneration involving Social Partners (i.e. find agreement in the Councils Recommendation on a Quality Framework for Traineeships when it comes to remuneration of interns/trainees).

Suggestion 3: In relation to volunteering it is suggested to regard volunteering, first of all as a non-labour market related activity. First and foremost it contributes to an individual’s personal development and well-being and it makes a contribution to the local community in which it takes place. The outcomes, however, of volunteering in terms of competences and experiences gained, should be accredited so that they have currency in the labour market. Additionally, if volunteering is regarded a stepping stone into employment, in order to allow equal access to volunteering for young people with disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, volunteers should be supported with their living costs.

Suggestion 4: in relation to research, this study has detected a need to:

- generally improve the knowledge-base on work-based learning (apprenticeships, internships and volunteering). The following gaps are detected in the course of the study:
  - lack of a common definition that can be applied in gathering statistical information on participation (analysis based on national sources using national definitions);
  - lack of comparative analysis of apprenticeship systems in the EU. According to information from the Commission, Cedefop is preparing a cross-national analysis of apprenticeship systems to be published in 2018;
  - there is no data available that can show any developments in participation in internships over the years;
  - lack of comparative data on employment outcomes of apprenticeships and internships;
  - lack of identification of cases of systematic misuse of work-based learning (i.e. cheap-labour, replacing regular employees);
  - further study of the issue of unequal access to apprenticeships, internships and volunteering and the impact of this on transitions into the labour market.
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ANNEX: SELECTED QUALITY FRAMEWORKS


The framework has been developed by the ET 2020 Working Group on VET in 2014-2015. It includes results from research, meetings and in-depth country focus workshops. In addition to the principles, the report presents examples of good practices. These show how certain elements can be put into place.

The principles focus primarily on apprenticeships. These “formally combine and alternate company-based training with school-based education and lead to nationally recognised qualifications”. The principles address key policy challenges that are important to address in the promotion of apprenticeships and other forms of work-based learning.

- National governance and social partners’ involvement:
  - Principle 1: A clear and consistent legal framework enabling apprenticeship partners to act effectively and guaranteeing mutual rights and responsibilities (e.g. status apprentice as learner, right to high-quality training, rights and responsibilities of main partners - no micro-management, effective multi-level legislation)
  - Principle 2: A structured, continuous dialogue between all apprenticeship partners including a transparent way of coordination and decision-making (e.g. intermediary body, tripartite or bipartite composition, formal feedback mechanisms between VET systems and labour market organisations, representation of apprentices)
  - Principle 3: Strengthening the role of social partners by capacity building, assuming ownership and taking on responsibility for implementation (e.g. building social partners’ capacity, ensure their role in decision-making processes, co-management)
  - Principle 4: Systematic cooperation between VET schools or training centres and companies (e.g. regular contacts and visits at local level).
  - Principle 5: Sharing costs and benefits to the mutual advantage of companies, VET providers and learners (e.g. fair apprentices’ wages/remunerations reflecting increasing productivity).

- Support for companies, in particular SMEs, offering apprenticeships:
  - Principle 6: Supporting measures that make apprenticeships more attractive and accessible to SMEs (e.g. promoting benefits, training culture, arrange collaborative or external training).
  - Principle 7: Finding the right balance between the specific skill needs of training companies and the general need to improve the employability of apprentices (e.g. procedure for approval of training companies).
  - Principle 8: Focusing on companies having no experience with apprenticeships (e.g. financial and non-financial support measures).
  - Principle 9: Supporting companies providing apprenticeships for disadvantaged learners (e.g. specific financial and non-financial assistance).
  - Principle 10: Motivating and supporting companies to assign qualified trainers and tutors (e.g. defining minimum skills requirements, shared responsibility).

- Attractiveness of apprenticeships and improved career guidance:
- Principle 11: Promoting the permeability between VET and other educational and career pathways (e.g. general knowledge and transversal skills, visibility of “higher VET programmes”, improving VET graduates formal access to higher education).

- Principle 12: Improving the image of VET and apprenticeships by promoting excellence (e.g. promote excellence, high professional standards, taking into account attractiveness of future professions).

- Principle 13: Career guidance to empower young people to make well-founded choices (e.g. addressing transition from school to work, timely intervention during VET programme, multi-channel approach, professional guidelines, career managements skills in curriculum).

- Principle 14: Enhancing the attractiveness of apprenticeships by raising the quality of VET teachers (e.g. development and update of VET teacher’s professional skills)

- Principle 15: Promoting the attractiveness of VET and apprenticeships through a broad range of awareness-raising activities (e.g. education and career fairs, campaigns, VET elements or work experience within compulsory education).

• Quality assurance in work-based learning:

  - Principle 16: Providing a clear framework for quality assurance of apprenticeship at system, provider and company level ensuring systematic feedback (e.g. national legislation, collective agreements and/or other regulatory settings, establishing adequate procedures).

  - Principle 17: Ensuring the content of VET programmes is responsive to changing skill needs in companies and the society (e.g. evidence-based standards, regular monitoring and evaluation mechanisms).

  - Principle 18: Fostering mutual trust and respect through regular cooperation between the apprenticeship partners (e.g. quality assurance as joint effort).

  - Principle 19: Ensuring fair, valid, and authentic assessment of learning outcomes (e.g. application of general principles for assessment to classroom and work-based learning, defining processes for all parties, qualification and training of assessors).

Principle 20: Supporting the continuous professional development of in-company trainers and improving their working conditions (e.g. national recognition of trainer qualifications, training opportunities for trainers, bonuses, instructing co-workers).
ETUC calls upon the European Council and the European Commission “to propose a European Quality Framework for Apprenticeships which includes a clear definition and a series of specific quality standards and quality criteria”.

ETUC has carried out a study involving 20 Member States, to examine different elements of their apprenticeship systems. The report gives an overview of latest developments at the national level and at European level. On this basis, quality standards, quality criteria and best practices are presented, comparing these with the guiding principles elaborated by the Commission (ET 2020 Working Group, 2015) and by the Council (2013, see box ...). Further, the report presents country and sector summaries.

The report takes the Cedefop proposal for a definition of apprenticeships as basis: "systematic, long-term training alternating periods at the workplace and in an educational institution or training institutions. The apprentice is contractually linked to the employer and receives remuneration (wage or allowance). The employer assumes responsibility for providing the trainee with training leading to a specific occupation.”

1. Apprenticeship schemes should be clearly defined on the basis of the proposal made by Cedefop, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, a specialised agency set up by the European Union.
2. Apprenticeship schemes should be built on stable foundations – on the basis of national law, regulations and/or collective bargaining agreements.
3. Apprenticeship schemes should be governed at all levels by a partnership between the social partners (trade unions and employers’ organisations), together with public authorities and training institutions.
4. Apprenticeship schemes should cover a wide range of different occupations and thus provide employment opportunities for all, men and women alike.
5. Apprenticeship schemes should be properly funded, with equitable cost-sharing between employers and public authorities at regional and/or national and European levels.
6. Apprenticeship schemes should cater for the real employment and skills needs of employers within the framework of sectoral and/or national priorities.
7. Apprenticeship schemes should require employers to enter into formal employment contracts with apprentices describing the rights and obligations of both parties.
8. Apprenticeship schemes should support the personal development and career opportunities of apprentices.
9. Apprenticeship schemes should ensure that apprentices are paid by the employer, according to collective agreements, or a national and/or sectoral minimum legal wage, for the period of training.
10. Apprenticeship schemes should guarantee high quality and safe working environments, and the social partners (trade unions and employers’ organisations) should be given responsibility for monitoring the suitability of workplaces and for accrediting interested companies.
11. Apprenticeship schemes should provide appropriate guidance and counselling for apprentices, both before and during the training process.
12. Apprenticeship schemes should have robust quality assurance procedures.

13. Apprenticeship schemes should be built on a solid base of knowledge, skills and competence acquired in the primary and secondary school system.

14. Apprenticeship schemes should include a strong training component, with a clear majority of learning provided in the workplace and a clear commitment to forward-looking developments within the labour market and society.

15. Apprenticeship schemes should provide good quality training in the workplace, with in-company mentors trained for this purpose, and also within training institutions employing trainers that have up-to-date and appropriate skills. Both mentors and trainers should enjoy good working conditions so that they are able to do their job properly.

16. Apprenticeship schemes should be competence-based and have a duration which enables apprentices to attain the appropriate standards to work competently and safely.

17. Apprenticeship schemes should be certified by competent tri-partite bodies to ensure that the knowledge, skills and competences acquired are recognised within the labour market and throughout the education and training system.

18. Apprenticeship schemes should offer qualifications which are clearly placed within National Qualifications Frameworks (NQFs), thus ensuring progression pathways to other NQF levels and programmes.

19. Apprenticeship schemes should ensure the recognition of knowledge, skills and competence acquired by means of non-formal and informal learning.

Apprenticeship schemes should include provision for the mobility of apprentices at the national and European levels.

The ACVT invites the Commission to provide a proposal on the following activities:

1. Follow-up on its intention to make a proposal on a Quality Framework on Apprenticeships as announced in the Commission Work Programme 2017 taking into account this opinion.

2. Based on evidence and research, further develop the European Alliance for Apprenticeships, and address challenges such as employer engagement and cost-effectiveness, digitalisation, integration of migrants, innovation, entrepreneurship and higher VET, as relevant.

3. Develop a set of support services for knowledge sharing, networking and cooperation to assist where needed apprenticeship and WBL reforms at national level, including by facilitating expert advice, bench-learning, clustering and cooperation between countries, social partners and other stakeholders in line with existing EU policy frameworks and the Riga Conclusions. Country visits by expert peers could be organised alongside these activities.

4. Follow-up on apprenticeship and WBL reforms and ensure a close link between the European Alliance for Apprenticeships and related European initiatives such as the Riga Conclusions, the Youth Guarantee, the Youth Employment Initiative, and other relevant initiatives under the EU Skills Agenda.

5. Raise the attractiveness and image of VET and apprenticeships by conceptualising high quality apprenticeships and promoting their benefits for learners, businesses and society, through regular initiatives mobilising all relevant stakeholders at EU, national, regional and local levels (e.g. European Vocational Skills Week).

6. Strengthen cooperation on policies and actions on apprenticeships between the European institutions and agencies (Cedefop and ETF), with international organisations and networks (e.g. UNESCO, OECD, ILO, EuroSkills / WorldSkills, World Bank, Global Apprenticeships Network).

7. Explore the possibility of EU funded support for apprenticeships/work-based learning exchange programmes with third countries.

Member States and Social Partners to further work on the following issues:

8. Mobilise actors for concrete actions at country, regional and local level. This includes facilitating the setting up of demand-driven ‘National Apprenticeship and WBL Partnerships’, involving all relevant decision makers from ministries, social partners, education and training providers, intermediary bodies (chambers of commerce and industry and chambers of skilled crafts, professional and sectorial organisations), and other stakeholders.

9. Make further progress on establishing an appropriate framework, whereby the responsibilities, rights and obligations of each party involved are clearly formulated and are enforceable, including the active engagement of social partners. Support the establishment of permeable pathways, including recognition of qualifications, between education sectors, and in particular for apprentices in upper secondary level to further continue their qualifications at tertiary level.

10. Provide appropriate support structures and measures, both financial and non-financial, and where appropriate, a cost-sharing approach between enterprises and public authorities, for the engagement of companies, and in particular small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), in the provision of quality and effective apprenticeships.
11. Foster the **development of partnerships** between and with social partners and other relevant stakeholders to ensure a structured, continuous dialogue and a transparent governance on design, quality assurance, implementation and assessment of apprenticeships and WBL, according to the national framework.

12. **Mobilise sectors** with the involvement of the sectoral social partners and organisations according to the national priorities.

13. Raise the **quality of VET teaching and in-company training** (and cooperation among these).

14. Include the **possibility for learner’s mobility** as part of apprenticeship programmes in view to achieving higher levels of mobility of apprentices across Europe complemented by financial and non-financial support.

15. **Improve career guidance** and promote apprenticeship schemes through **awareness-raising** targeted at young people, their parents, adult learners, education and training providers, employers and public employment services, including the benefits of apprenticeships for employers and learners.

16. **Further develop the elements** on apprenticeships and the partnership approach as proposed in the Annex.

Discuss with **sectoral social partners** possible approaches to strengthen and diversify supply to a wider range of occupations, in particular those sectors that contributed to the European social partners’ projects, those identified in the Skills Agenda and those that already took part in sector skills councils.

Member States declare that they “undertake VET system reforms by introducing an apprenticeship pathway or improving existing schemes, in line with the common guiding principles, in order to increase the number, quality and attractiveness of apprenticeships”. The Declaration underlines the importance to embed apprenticeship systems “in a comprehensive approach at national level that combines education, training and employment measures.” The document does not include any definition of apprenticeships.

(a) Establishing an appropriate **regulatory framework**, whereby the responsibilities, rights and obligations of each party involved are clearly formulated and are enforceable.

(b) Encouraging **national partnerships with social partners** in the design, implementation and governance of apprenticeship schemes, together with **other relevant stakeholders** such as, where appropriate, intermediary bodies (chambers of commerce, industries and crafts, professional and sectorial organisations), education and training providers, youth and student organisations, and local, regional as well as national authorities.

(c) Ensuring **adequate integration of the apprenticeship schemes into the formal education and training system** through a system of recognised qualifications and competences which may allow access to higher education and life-long learning.

(d) Ensuring that the **qualifications and competences gained** and the learning process of apprenticeships are **of high quality** with defined **standards for learning outcomes and quality assurance**, in line with the Recommendation on the establishment of a **European Quality Assurance Reference Framework for VET**, and that the apprenticeship model is recognised as a valuable learning tool, transferable across borders, opening up the route to progress within national qualifications frameworks and aspiration to high-skilled jobs.

(e) Including a **strong work-based high-quality learning and training component**, which should complement the specific on-the-job skills with broader, transversal and transferable skills, ensuring that participants can adapt to change after finishing the apprenticeship.

(f) **Involving both employers and public authorities sufficiently in the funding** of apprenticeship schemes, whilst ensuring **adequate remuneration and social protection of apprentices**, and providing appropriate incentives for all actors to participate, especially small and medium sized enterprises, and for an adequate supply of apprenticeship places to be made available.

(g) Covering **multiple sectors and occupations**, including new and innovative sectors with a high employment potential, and taking into account forecasts of future skills needs.

(h) Facilitating the **participation of young people with fewer opportunities** by providing career guidance, preparatory training and other targeted support.

(i) Promoting apprenticeship schemes through **awareness-raising** targeted at young people, their parents, education and training providers, employers and public employment services, while highlighting apprenticeships as a pathway leading to excellence which opens up broad educational and professional opportunities.

(j) Including apprenticeships as one of the options for the implementation of the **Youth Guarantee** schemes.

(1) Improve the quality of open-market traineeships, in particular as regards learning content (and training content*) and working conditions, with the aim of easing the transition of young persons from education [...] to work (by adopting within their legislation or*) by putting in practice the following principles for a Quality Framework for Traineeships:

Conclusion of a written traineeship agreement

(2) Require that traineeships are based on a written agreement concluded (in advance*) at the beginning of the traineeship between the trainee and the traineeship provider;

(3) Ensure that traineeship agreements indicate the educational objectives, the working conditions, whether remuneration or compensation is provided to the trainee by the traineeship provider, the rights and obligations of the parties under applicable EU and national law, as well as the duration of the traineeship, as referred to in recommendations 4-12;

Learning and training objectives

(4) Promote best practices as regards learning objectives in order to help young people acquire practical experience and relevant skills; the tasks assigned to the trainee should enable these objectives to be attained;

(5) Encourage traineeship providers to designate a supervisor for trainees guiding the trainee through the assigned tasks, and monitoring his/her progress;

Working conditions applicable to trainees

(6) Ensure that the rights and working conditions of trainees under applicable EU and national law, as well as their working conditions, including limits to maximum weekly working time, minimum daily and weekly rest periods and, where applicable, minimum holiday entitlements are respected;

(7) Require traineeship providers to clarify coverage in terms of health and accident insurance as well as sick leave;

(8) Ensure that the traineeship agreement clarifies whether remuneration and/or compensation are applicable, and if applicable, the rate of remuneration and/or compensation;

Rights and obligations

(9) Encourage the concerned parties to ensure that the traineeship agreement lays down rights and obligations of the trainee and the traineeship provider, including where relevant the traineeship provider's policies on confidentiality and the ownership of intellectual property rights;

Reasonable duration

(10) Ensure a reasonable duration of traineeships that as a rule does not exceed six months, except in cases where a longer duration is justified, taking into account national practices;

(11) Clarify the circumstances and conditions under which a traineeship may be extended or renewed after the initial traineeship agreement expired;

(12) Encourage the practice of specifying in the traineeship agreement that either the trainee or the traineeship provider may terminate it (with two weeks' written notice*) by written communication providing advance notice of an appropriate duration in view of the length of the traineeship and relevant national practice;
Proper recognition of traineeships

(13) (Encourage traineeship providers to certify through a certificate or a letter of reference*) Promote the recognition and validation of the knowledge, skills and competences acquired during traineeships and encourage traineeship providers to attest them, on the basis of assessment, through a certificate;

Transparency requirements

(14) (Ensure*) encourage that traineeship providers include in their vacancy notices and advertisements information on the terms and conditions of the traineeship, in particular on whether remuneration and/or compensation and social protection are applicable, and that the employment services apply transparency requirements and appropriate career guidance;

(15) (...*) Encourage employment services and other providers of career guidance, if providing information on traineeships to apply transparency requirements

Cross-border traineeships

(16) Facilitate the cross-border mobility of trainees in the European Union inter alia, by clarifying the national legal framework for open-market traineeships and establishing clear rules on hosting trainees from, and the sending of trainees to, other Member States and by reducing administrative formalities;

(17) (Promote*) Examine the possibility to make use of the extended EURES network and the exchange of information on traineeships through the EURES portal and encourage employment services to upload traineeship vacancies on the EURES portal;

Use of European Structural and Investment Funds

(18) Make use of the European Structural and Investment Funds, namely the European Social Fund and the European Regional Development Fund, in the next programming period 2014-20, and the Youth Employment Initiative, where applicable, for increasing the number and quality of traineeships, including through effective partnerships with all relevant stakeholders;

Applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships

(19) Take appropriate measures to apply the Quality Framework for Traineeships as soon as possible (and no later than the end of 2014*);

(20) Provide information to the Commission by the end of 2015 on the measures taken in accordance with this Recommendation (Identify the public authority in charge of this implementation and communicate to the Commission how the Quality Framework for Traineeships is implemented*);

(21) Promote the active involvement of social partners in applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships.

(22) Promote the active involvement of employment services, educational institutions and training providers in applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships.
Notes that the Commission intends to:

(23) Foster close cooperation with Member States, social partners and other stakeholders with a view to the swiftly applying this Recommendation;

(23) Monitor, in cooperation with the Member States and in particular through EMCO, the progress in applying the Quality Framework for Traineeships pursuant to this Recommendation and analyse the impact of the policies in place;

(24) Report on the progress in applying this Recommendation on the basis of information provided by Member States;

(25) Work with Member States, the social partners, employment services, youth and trainee organisations to promote this Recommendation;

(26) Encourage and support Member States, including through promoting the exchange of best practices among them, to make use of the European Social Fund and the European Regional Development Fund or other European Funds for the 2014-2020 programming period to increase the number and quality of traineeships;

(27) Continue its efforts to increase the offer of transnational traineeships under the Erasmus+ programme;

(28) Work, together with the Member States, towards the inclusion of traineeships in EURES and set up a dedicated webpage on national legal frameworks for traineeships.
Annex 6: Youth Forum (2012), Volunteering charter

1. Rights of volunteer

Core rights

Article 1: Everyone who is doing a volunteering activity is entitled to have the status of *volunteer* if they so-wish and they should be entitled to these basic rights.

Article 2: The volunteers are entitled to full protection of their human rights, when carrying out the volunteering activity.

Article 3: Every person is entitled to equal access to volunteering opportunities and protection against all kinds of discrimination such as on the grounds of age, gender, sexual identity, race, colour, language, disability, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, association with a national minority, property, birth or other status and shall not be discriminated against on basis of their background or beliefs.

Article 4: No one shall be restricted by law from participating in a volunteering activity of their choice, as long as the volunteering activity is carried out in respect of Human Rights and contributes to the public good.

Article 5: All volunteers shall be informed about their rights and responsibilities.

Article 6: Every volunteer has the right to social protection during the volunteering activity in form of health care and liability insurance.

Article 7: Every volunteer has the right to reconcile their volunteering activity with their private and working life, and thus can achieve a certain amount of flexibility during the volunteering activity. Every volunteer is furthermore entitled to refuse tasks that would go against their beliefs and/or convictions.

Article 8: Every volunteer has the right to volunteer outside of their country of residence or birth. Therefore, if needed, a visa, free of charge must be obtainable through an open, accessible and transparent procedure which favours volunteer mobility.

Right to support from volunteering providers

Article 9: Every volunteer is entitled to the reimbursement of expenses incurred in relation to the voluntary activity, respecting the different levels of reimbursement that result from the diversity of voluntary activities. These reimbursements shall be excluded from any form of taxation.

Article 10: Every volunteer is entitled to be treated according to the existing norms, principles, standards and goals of volunteering policies.

Article 11: Every volunteer is entitled to a coherent task description that allows them to implement the volunteering activity with a clear understanding of its aims and objectives. The task description should be, to the furthest extent possible, developed and agreed on together between the volunteering provider and the volunteer and, if needed, should be updated during the volunteering activity. Furthermore, it should be defined that volunteers and paid staff have complementary roles and the volunteering providers must ensure that good cooperation exists between these two personnel categories.

Article 12: Every volunteer is entitled to support and feedback throughout the volunteering activity. This includes preparation of the activity, personal guidance and assistance during the implementation of the activity, proper evaluation and debriefing following the activity and full support in the realisation of the required follow-up activities.
Article 13: Every volunteer has the right to participate in the decision-making process regarding the volunteering activity at the most appropriate level. In addition, each volunteer should have access to the organisations democratic decision making processes. Each volunteer should have some ownership of the project through co-decision in the process implementation and the right to participate in the democratic processes related to the project.

Rights to personal development

Article 14: Every volunteer is entitled to the necessary educational/training support in order to implement the volunteering activity to her/his full capacity and best knowledge.

Article 15: Every volunteer has the right to have the contribution, skills and competences gained through volunteering activities recognised by formal educational and professional structures and institutions. Volunteers should have the right to develop new skills and competences and the space to discover, experiment and develop their own learning path.

Article 16: Every volunteer is entitled, if required by the volunteering activity, to flexibility of working time and educational activities in order to undertake volunteering activities. Should the implementation of volunteering activities require certain flexibility on the part of contractual or educational obligations, the volunteer shall seek agreement from the contractor or educational provider.

2. Responsibilities of the Volunteer

Article 17: Every volunteer respects the rules of law and non-discrimination throughout their voluntary activity.

Article 18: Every volunteer has the responsibility to respect the integrity, mission, objectives and values of the volunteering provider.

Article 19: Every volunteer respects the commitments that are made with the volunteering provider regarding the amount of time and effort that have been commonly agreed to be put in the volunteering activity and the quality that has to be delivered.

Article 20: Every volunteer has the responsibility to participate in trainings offered that are relevant for the volunteer and are related to skills needed in order to carry out the agreed tasks. The training shall be free of charge to the volunteer.

Article 21: Every volunteer respects the confidentiality of (organisational) information, in particular regarding legal affairs and concerning personal data of members, staff and beneficiaries of voluntary activities.

Article 22: Every volunteer understands that volunteering aims towards benefits for the common good or society.

Article 23: Every volunteer cooperates with other volunteers within the organisation, where relevant and contributes to the organisation’s sustainability through communication with others and a hand-over at the end of their engagement.

1. Rights of volunteering providers

Article 24: Non-profit Organisations and groups, that are independent, govern themselves as well as other non-profit entities or public authorities that provide volunteering opportunities, are entitled to the status of a volunteering provider.

Article 25: Volunteering providers are entitled to a stable and sustainable support framework and enabling environment, including adequate funding structures that provide accessible, sustainable and flexible financing.

Article 26: Volunteering providers are entitled to participate in political decision-making processes at all levels in the area of volunteering, representing the interest and needs of
volunteers. Considering the expertise of volunteering providers, as the actors that are the closest to the volunteer, they must be consulted on matters regarding policy or law on the volunteering sector at all levels.

Article 27: Volunteering providers should not be taxed on their income.

Article 28: Volunteering providers shall select volunteers according to their mission and vision, and the specific skills and profile of volunteers if certain volunteering activities require them.

2. Responsibilities of volunteering providers

Core responsibilities

Article 29: Volunteering providers commit to develop a volunteering policy that respects the rights of the volunteer.

Article 30: Volunteering providers shall be acquainted with the valid legal framework for volunteering and verify legal aspects concerning the implementation of the volunteering activity.

Article 31: Volunteering providers shall ensure the minimisation of risks and provide clear guidance for the volunteer. In this context the provider commits itself to creating the safest possible environment for the volunteer and to providing full information linked to the possible risks related to the volunteering activity.

Article 32: Volunteering providers shall offer equal and transparent access to information concerning volunteering opportunities, as well as to the rights and responsibilities of volunteers.

Article 33: Volunteering providers shall put into effect inclusive and equal recruitment processes for volunteering activities. They shall identify barriers and develop measure to overcome them, in order to engage diverse groups.

Article 34: Volunteering providers shall ensure an infrastructure for insurance provision that covers social protection in form of health care and liability insurance for the volunteer during the volunteering activity.

Article 35: Volunteering providers shall promote volunteering and its benefits for the society and for the individual.

Responsibilities to support volunteers

Article 36: Volunteering providers shall reimburse expenses occurring in relation to the volunteering activity for the volunteer.

Article 37: Volunteering providers shall give a clear task description for the activity that the volunteer should carry out. The content of the task description should be, to furthest extent possible, developed and agreed on together by the volunteering provider and the volunteer and, if needed, should be updated during the volunteering activity.

Article 38: Volunteering providers commit themselves to developing and implementing quality standards that ensure preparation and briefing, offer personal guidance, assistance and monitoring throughout the entire process, clear evaluation mechanisms and full support in the realisation of the required follow up activities; ideally the volunteer provider should aim to have a quality assurance system.

Article 39: Volunteering providers shall offer the necessary tools and access to existing and foreseen resources to volunteers in order to allow them to implement the agreed activities.
Article 40: Volunteering providers shall ensure **efficient handover and reporting structures** for volunteers in order to guarantee sustainability of volunteering activities.

Article 41: Volunteering providers shall **ensure the right to participate in the decision-making process** for volunteers in regards to the volunteering activity at the most appropriate level. Volunteering providers should ensure volunteers feel ownership of the project through co-decision in the process implementation and the right to participate in the democratic processes related to the project. The volunteering provider should ensure access for volunteers in order to participate in the organisation’s life and decision-making processes. Furthermore, providers shall ensure that volunteers have the autonomy to develop their own initiatives as long as they contribute to the organisation’s cause.

Article 42: Volunteering providers shall ensure that the **necessary support for specific target groups of potential volunteers**, such as people with disabilities or mental health problems, minors or older people are provided for those who want to volunteer.

**Responsibilities to support the personal development of the volunteer**

Article 43: Volunteering providers shall ensure **necessary educational support for volunteers** throughout the process. Moreover, the volunteering providers shall ensure that the volunteer is given the possibility to develop skills and competences and provided with the tools to consciously reflect on the learning processes.

Article 44: Volunteering providers shall ensure that **tools for recognition of the competences and skills acquired** during the volunteering activity are put in place, in cooperation with educational and professional structures and institutions.

Article 45: Volunteering providers shall ensure the **privacy of the volunteer** in personal and working life, and shall also protect their data.
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