Guide on making TVET and skills development inclusive for all

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Foreword

TVET closures and the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic risk exacerbating inequalities and causing a "lockdown generation". Inclusive skills development and lifelong learning opportunities are vital to prevent people from being left behind, to maintain people's employability, and to ensure that economies and enterprises recover promptly from the crisis.

In principle, skills development systems cater to all people striving to learn relevant skills to earn a living and find their place in society. In reality, many individuals and groups in society find themselves excluded from learning opportunities, for a wide range of reasons. People in precarious, informal employment face numerous access barriers, and availability and accessibility of training centres might pose a problem for people living in remote areas or people with disabilities. Perceptions and stereotypes can influence the selection of training courses, discouraging interested persons from joining certain courses. Training environments might not be amenable to all people, causing higher drop-out rates if learning methodologies do not take account of special needs of learners or for women, if separate washrooms or lighting are not installed. After graduation, transition to employment can also be more challenging if labour market actors perpetuate discrimination. Ensuring that disadvantaged groups enjoy inclusive skills development environments will help them be more successful in transitioning to decent work.

Only few national TVET policies and strategies refer to inclusion, primarily focusing on gender equality. Awareness building of policy-makers is critical to expand TVET policies to all excluded individuals or groups and to move towards greater inclusion in skills development and lifelong learning for all.

This ***ILO guide on making TVET and skills development inclusive for all*** targets policy-makers and representatives of workers' and employers' organizations engaged in skills development systems, TVET centre staff, and development practitioners providing skills policy advice. The guide aims to help skills decision-makers and practitioners assess to what extent their TVET system is currently excluding certain individuals or groups, identifies underlying reasons, and provides practical ideas on what could be done to redress inequalities. The guide's self-assessment tool is also available in digital format.

Improving the labour market prospects and quality of work for those disadvantaged in the labour market is a key focus of the ILO's research and capacity building agenda. Inclusion is not just a normative goal, it also benefits employers who gain a broader pool of available skills, co-workers who learn from more diverse environments, and governments and societies who would otherwise shoulder the costs of exclusion.

This guide has been authored by Ralf Lange, Christine Hofmann and Manuela Di Cara. It incorporates comments from Jürgen Menze, Gurchaten Sandhu, Laura Schmid,

We hope that this guide provides the necessary rationale and tools to accelerate action on inclusion in TVET and skills development and helps boost recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic for those who need it most.

Srinivas Reddy
Chief
ILO Skills and Employability Branch

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CAQA	Jordanian Centre for Accreditation Quality Assurance
CBT&A	Competency-based training and assessment
CCG	Corporate community group
CEDEFOP	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
CEEP	Corridor Economic Empowerment Project
CQM	Certification of qualification for trades
CRP	Centre for Rehabilitation of the Paralyzed, Bangladesh
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
EU	European Union
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency virus and acquired immune deficiency syndrome
HRD	Human resources development
ICT	Information and communication technology
ILO/CINTERFOR	Inter-American Centre for Knowledge Development in Vocational Training
INA	Instituto Nacional de Aprendizaje, Costa Rica
LGBTI	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
NORRAG	Network for International Policies and Cooperation in Education and Training
RPL	Recognition of prior learning
STEM	Science, technology, engineering and mathematics
SWT	School-to-work transition
ToT	Training of trainers
TREE	Training for rural economic empowerment
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNEVOC	International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNHRC	United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
WIEGO	Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing

Guide on making TVET and skills development inclusive for all
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How to use this guide?

Who is it for? This guide is aimed at policy-makers, representatives of workers' and employers' organizations engaged in skills development systems, TVET centre managers, and development practitioners providing skills policy advice.

Why this guide? Inclusion in TVET and skills development is in everyone's interest – and yet, it is not happening enough. This guide provides arguments for inclusion, helps assess to what extent the current system is inclusive or exclusive, why, and what could be done to redress inequalities. It provides a tool that takes a broad perspective on inclusion, and complements other tools designed for specific groups or individuals in vulnerable situations.

Self-assessment: The guide includes several self-assessment tools to initiate reflection and learning. This can inform self-evaluation and strategic planning processes. The self-assessments may be completed by an individual or by a selected group of people. Alternatively, the assessment questions can also guide a peer-learning process among trainees.

Questions or statements are embedded in tables, and answers rank between 1 (very little) and 5 (very much), or are specified for each question. The right column provides links to relevant sections in the guide, or to further information relevant to the question.

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▶ **Example:**

Question	Response						Further information
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Do you conduct regular studies to trace training graduates?				X			See section 2.2.7
To what extent do the employment rates and the income of graduates differ depending on their gender, educational, social or cultural background?						X	See section 2.2.7

[The respondent confirms that tracer studies are regularly conducted (once per year, with differing samples), yet information is only disaggregated by sex, hence the respondent cannot answer the second question.]

Chapter 1 provides facts and trends on inclusion in TVET, key concepts and benefits of inclusion for governments, employers and workers.

Chapter 2 presents a self-assessment tool that can help to determine the level of inclusiveness or exclusiveness of a TVET system. It identifies the excluded or not sufficiently included in TVET systems, helps to assess the underlying causes of exclusion and inequality, and identifies stages of the TVET process at which exclusion occurs. It also provides guidance on data collection methodologies.

Chapter 3 provides guidance on how TVET systems and programmes can become more inclusive along the different stages of the TVET process. It suggests measures for formal and non-formal TVET programmes, as well as for informal apprenticeships.

Chapter 4 showcases good practices from different countries around the world.

This guide is available as a print copy and as a digital interactive tool: https://ecampus.itcilo.org/course/view.php?id=1286

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Chapter **1**

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Setting the scene

Section 1.1 provides an overview of facts and trends related to TVET and inclusion.
Section 1.2 provides definitions and explanations of the various key concepts related to inclusion and how this relates to strategies and policies.
Section 1.3 lays out the benefits of inclusion in TVET for participants, governments, employers' and workers' organizations.

1.1 Facts and trends of inclusion in TVET

TVET[1] and skills development[2] systems strive to fulfil the demands of all people seeking to learn relevant new skills in order to improve their career prospects, income or professional status. By equipping individuals with knowledge, skills, and competencies linked to labour market demands, TVET systems are recognized as a crucial instrument for increasing employability, better job prospects and potentially improving social inclusion.

However, for a wide range of reasons, many individuals and groups in society find themselves excluded from educational and training opportunities. This discrimination might be based on age, national extraction, race, colour, political opinion, disability, sex, gender, ethnicity or other grounds. The situation can be even more difficult for those experiencing discrimination on multiple and intersecting grounds (e.g. disability and sex, religion and age, race and disability, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity). Discrimination, in particular when starting early in life, leads to higher probabilities of

unemployment, lower wages, as well as more precarious types of jobs.[3]

The **Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development** aims to:

▶ "eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations" by 2030 (SDG target 4.5); and

▶ "achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value" (SDG target 8.5).

Equality and non-discrimination are also reflected in the UN's **"Leaving no one behind"** framework, endorsed by the United Nation System's Chief Executives Board for Coordination.[4]

There are multiple reasons why individuals and social groups find themselves excluded from TVET. **Accessibility of training** can pose a major problem for certain individuals.

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[1]   ILO. *Shaping skills and lifelong learning for the future of work, Report to the 109th session of the ILC*, (Geneva, 2020); and UNESCO/UNEVOC's TVETipedia Glossary, https://unevoc.unesco.org/go.php?q=TVETipedia%20Glossary%20A-Z. In general, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is understood as comprising education, training and skills development relating to a wide range of occupational fields, production, services and livelihoods. TVET, as part of lifelong learning, can take place at secondary, post-secondary and tertiary levels and includes work-based learning and continuing training and professional development which may lead to qualifications. TVET also includes a wide range of skills development opportunities attuned to national and local contexts. Learning to learn, the development of literacy and numeracy skills, transversal skills and citizenship skills are integral components of TVET.

[2]   The term "skills development" is used to describe the full range of formal and non-formal vocational, technical and skills-based education and training for employment or self-employment. It includes: pre-employment and livelihood education and training; TVET and apprenticeships as part of both secondary and tertiary education; training for employed workers, including in the workplace; and employment and labour market-oriented short courses for those seeking employment. In many countries the terms "skills development" and "TVET" are used in parallel and even as synonyms.

[3]   ILO. *Equality at work: The continuing challenge*, International Labour Conference, 100th Session, Report I(B) (Geneva, 2011).

[4]   See Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development at https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld; and UN.. *Leaving no one behind: Equality and non-discrimination at the heart of sustainable development* (New York, 2017),

The ILO's Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work calls for

"promoting the acquisition of skills, competencies and qualifications for all workers throughout their working lives as a joint responsibility of governments and social partners in order to: address existing and anticipated skills gaps; pay particular attention to ensuring that education and training systems are responsive to labour market needs, taking into account the evolution of work; and enhance workers' capacity to make use of the opportunities available for decent work." (Article II.A.iii)

Source: The Declaration is available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/mission-and-objectives/centenary-declaration/lang--en/index.htm.

The story of Taslima, early school-leaver in Bangladesh

Prior to the introduction of the National Skills Development Policy, entry into formal skills training required a Grade 8 education level. This meant that young people who could not afford to continue education had little option but low-paid, low-skilled informal jobs. Taslima, previously an unskilled worker, used the new pre-vocational levels to become a cashier at Swapno, a famous retail chain, and is planning to learn additional skills so that she can manage a superstore in the future.

For example, persons with disabilities might encounter physical challenges, e.g. stairs, or communication and informational barriers (such as provision of information on paper only). Whenever general accessibility for persons with disabilities is not ensured, reasonable accommodation for individuals' disability-related needs is key to effectively enable participation and completion of training.[5] The 2011 European Union (EU)

Labour Force Survey reported that, amongst the 28 EU countries, 30.7 per cent of people aged 15–34 that have a basic activity difficulty were neither in employment nor in any education or training (NEET). This is 15 percentage points higher than those in this age group without basic activity difficulty.[6] Self-employed people and informal economy workers are challenged to access learning opportunities because of high opportunity costs, non-flexible training offers in terms of timing, location or course content, and formal entry requirements.[7] For people living in rural areas, both financial barriers (training and transport cost) and non-financial barriers (scarce TVET opportunities in rural areas, non-flexible training programmes) significantly limit their access to training opportunities.[8] Due to safety concerns, women living in rural areas can find it particularly discouraging to travel to distant locations if their only training option is found in urban areas. The global secondary school attendance rate for rural girls was 39 per cent, as opposed to 45 per cent for rural boys and 59 per cent for urban girls.

The lack of access to primary education can as well significantly hamper chances for future access to any TVET system or skills development.[9]

Social perceptions and gender stereotypes may introduce a strong bias in the **selection of training programmes**, with the effect of discouraging interested people from joining certain types of courses. Young

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[5] UNDESA. *Realization of the Sustainable Development Goals by, for and with persons with disabilities: UN Flagship Report on Disability and Development*, (New York, 2018); ILO. *Making TVET and skills systems inclusive of persons with disabilities* (Geneva, 2017).

[6] European Commission. *Eurostat Statistics explained* (Brussels, 2014).

[7] Palmer, R. *Lifelong learning in the informal economy: A Literature Review* (Geneva, ILO, forthcoming).

[8] ILO. *Rural development through decent work* (Geneva, 2011).

[9] UN. *The Millennium Development Goals Report* (New York, 2009).

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people are often steered into what society and traditions consider "feminine" or "masculine" training fields and occupations. The effect of this stereotyping and the lack of encouragement often confines girls' choices to training that might provide limited professional employment opportunities or low-wage pathways.[10] Gender stereotyping is well illustrated in the ILO's School-to-Work Transition Survey (STWTS).[11] The study shows the limited involvement of girls and women in science, technology, engineering, or mathematics (STEM) – technical/scientific areas that are critical for employment – with 7 per cent of young women aged 25–29 who had

majored in STEM in secondary level, compared to 18 per cent of young men in the same age group.[12] Regarding the occupational choice for trainees with disabilities, administrators (principals) and instructors of programmes might have biased perceptions on the type of training that a disabled person is capable of doing. Such stereotypical thinking is associated with linking persons with disabilities to training or jobs based on misconceptions and disability-related stereotypes, rather than the individual's abilities and interests. This is likely to confine them to segregated and low-standard training courses that are not meeting the skills needs of the labour market.[13]

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[10]   ILO and UNICEF. *GirlForce: Skills, education and training for girls now*, (Geneva and New York, 2018).

[11]   The STWTS was implemented in 34 countries between 2012 and 2016. See: https://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/youth-employment/work-for-youth/WCMS_191853/lang--en/index.htm.

[12]   ILO and UNICEF, op. cit.

[13]   ILO. *Inclusion of people with disabilities in vocational training: A practical guide* (Geneva, 2013).

Even for those able to access learning opportunities, **training environments** might not be amenable to all people. Girls might lack separate washroom facilities or face sexual harassment and gender-based violence,[14] while persons of diverse sexual orientation, gender identity, gender expression and sex characteristics – lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people (LGBTIs) – frequently face bullying and stigmatization, forcing them to abandon training programmes. Indigenous people might be challenged by language barriers or the non-adaptation of learning material to their needs.[15]

After graduation, access to employment might be more challenging if labour market actors perpetuate similar discriminatory attitudes. Despite an overall improved access to education and vocational training, as well as higher-level skills, girls and women are still facing various forms of disadvantages in the transition to the world of work. The ILO School-to-Work Transition Survey reports that for persons aged 25–29 years, a man is 1.9 times more likely to complete their labour market transition[16] than a woman.[17] When obtaining a job, women and girls are still less likely to work full time. Women represent less than 40 per cent of total employment, but make up 57 per cent of those working on a part-time basis, often due to their additional care responsibilities.[18] ILO research has demonstrated that women are also more likely to be in lower-paid occupations compared to male workers.[19]

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[14] ILO. *ILO toolkit for quality apprenticeships: Volume I — Guide for policy makers* (Geneva, 2017).

[15] UN. *Indigenous peoples' right to education* (New York, 2016).

[16] The labour market transition of young people relates not only to the length of time between their exit from education (either upon graduation or at an early stage without completion) to their first entry into any job, but also to qualitative elements, such as whether the job is stable, thus allowing for other transition processes such as starting a family.

[17] ILO. *Women at Work: Trends* (Geneva, 2016).

[18] ILO calculations based on data for 121 countries representing 92 per cent of total employment.

[19] *ILO. Women at Work: Trends*, op. cit.

[20] See the ILO's Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159), its associated Recommendation (No. 168), the Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195) and the ILO Code of Practice on Managing Disability in the Workplace, 2002.

[21] For more details on the ILO's stance on gender equality and work, see the two fundamental equal rights labour standards: Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

[22] See the ILO's Migration for Employment Convention (Revised) Convention, 1949 (No. 97) and the Migration for Employment Recommendation, 1949 (No. 86), as well as the supplementary provisions on the Migrant Workers Convention, 1975 (No. 143) and the Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (No. 151).

[23] See the ILO's Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169).

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International labour standards on equality and non-discrimination

Recognizing that discrimination and exclusion of individuals and groups from learning opportunities represent an important barrier to decent work and active citizenship, the ILO has for decades urged member States to recognize **the right to training and education for everyone**. In particular, the ILO's Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142) stipulates that policies and programmes on vocational guidance and vocational training

...shall encourage and enable all persons, on an equal basis and without any discrimination whatsoever, to develop and use their capabilities for work in their own best interests and in accordance with their own aspirations, account being taken of the needs of society ... (Article 1.5)

The ILO's Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195) provides guidance on the content and reform of skills policies and explicitly calls upon countries to promote equal opportunities and access to education, training and lifelong learning for:

women and men (...), people with nationally identified special needs, such as youth, low-skilled people, people with disabilities, migrants, older workers, indigenous people, ethnic minority groups and the socially excluded; and for workers in small and medium-sized enterprises, in the informal economy, in the rural sector and in self-employment .... (Article II.5)

Furthermore, the ILO's Governing Body has drawn up **two fundamental Conventions on the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation**. First, the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) requires states that have ratified it to ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value. Second, the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation)

Convention, 1958, (No. 111) calls on states to pursue a national policy to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in employment and profession, and to eliminate discrimination in this field. By setting numerous standards on this matter, the ILO also promotes equal treatment and equal opportunities specifically targeted to marginalized social groups. For example, the ILO standards for persons with disabilities emphasize their inclusion in general training and employment-related programmes and in the open labour market.[20] The ILO promotes gender equality in the world of work as a matter of fundamental labour rights, but also from an economic efficiency argument.[21] Migration for employment standards provide guidance on the content and reform of national migration policies and the recognition of qualifications.[22] Furthermore, the ILO is responsible for the only international treaty open for ratification that deals exclusively with the rights of indigenous and tribal peoples.[23]

1.2 Key concepts: What is inclusion?

Discrimination: The ILO's Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111) defines discrimination as:

(a) any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction[24] or social origin, which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation; and

(b) such other distinction, exclusion or preference which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation as may be determined by the Member concerned after consultation with representative employers' and workers' organizations, where such exist, and with other appropriate bodies.25

Some member States defined additional grounds of discrimination other than those listed above in Article 1(1)(b).

Multiple discrimination occurs where an individual is faced with more than one form of grounds-based discrimination (i.e. sex plus disability discrimination), often called additive, cumulative or compound discrimination.[26]

Social inclusion is the process of improving the terms for individuals and groups to take part in society, and the process of improving the ability, opportunity, and dignity of those disadvantaged on the basis of their identity to take part in society.[27]

Diversity refers to a commitment to recognize and appreciate the variety of characteristics that make individuals unique in an atmosphere that embraces and celebrates individual and collective achievement. Identity is dependent on much more than one dimension of a person's background. In recognizing and appreciating the many characteristics that make individuals unique, diversity inherently provides solutions to eliminate discrimination in the workplace.[28]

Gender identity is understood to refer to each person's deeply felt internal and individual experience of gender, which may or may not correspond with the sex assigned at birth. This includes the personal sense of the body (which may involve, if freely chosen, modification of bodily appearance or function by medical, surgical or other means) and other expressions of gender, including dress, speech and mannerisms.[29]

Gender mainstreaming is gender-specific intervention and activities that enable all persons to participate in and benefit equally

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[24] National extraction includes distinctions made on the basis of a person's place of birth, ancestry or foreign origin, and hence goes further than mere citizenship.

[25] See the ILO's Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), Paras 1(a),1(b).

[26] Sheppard, C. *Multiple discrimination in the world of work*, ILO (Geneva, 2011).

[27] World Bank. Inclusion matters: *The foundation for shared prosperity* (Washington DC, 2013).

[28] Ibid.; ILO. *Promoting equity – Ethnic diversity in the workplace: A step-by-step guide* (Geneva, 2014) p. 70.

[29] United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC). *Yogyakarta Principles* (2006), p. 6; and the *Yogyakarta Principles Plus 10* providing definitions on sex characteristics (New York, 2017).

from development efforts. In the context of TVET, it also covers the process of assessing the implications for people of different gender identity of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of people of different gender identity an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres, so that people of all gender identities benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.[30]

Ethnic group refers to a group of people whose members identify with each other through such factors as common heritage, culture, ancestry, language, dialect, history, identity and geographic origin. It includes people from a range of backgrounds including indigenous and tribal peoples, people of African and Asian descent, Roma people and migrant workers.[31]

Indigenous and tribal peoples: Tribal peoples are peoples in independent countries whose social, cultural and economic conditions distinguish them from other sections of the national community, and whose status is regulated wholly or partially by their own customs or traditions or by special laws or regulations. *Indigenous peoples* include peoples in independent countries who are regarded as indigenous on account of their descent from the populations which inhabited

the country, or a geographical region to which the country belongs, at the time of conquest or colonization or the establishment of present state boundaries and who, irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions.[32]

Informal economy refers to all economic activities by workers and economic units that are – in law or in practice – not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements. This includes those in the informal economy who own and operate economic units, including: own-account workers; employers; and members of cooperatives and of social and solidarity economy units; contributing family workers; employees holding informal jobs in or for formal enterprises, or in or for economic units in the informal economy. This also includes, but is not limited to, those in subcontracting and in supply chains, or as paid domestic workers employed by households, and workers in unrecognized or unregulated employment relationships.[33]

International migrant worker: This is defined as either usual or not usual residents. Usual residents are international migrants who, during a specified reference period, are in the labour force of the country of their usual residence, either in employment or in unemployment. Not usual residents, or non-resident foreign workers are persons who, during a specified reference period, are not usual residents of the country but were present in the country and had a labour attachment

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30   UN ECOSOC. ECOSOC *Agreed Conclusions, 1997/2* (New York, 1997).

31   See ILO. *Promoting ethnic diversity in the workplace: A step-by-step guide* (Geneva, 2014), p. 71.

32   See ILO's Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 (No. 169), Article 1, Para. 1.

33   See ILO's Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No. 204).

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to the country, i.e., were either in employment supplying labour to resident producer units of that country or were seeking employment in that country.[34]

Refugee: A refugee is someone who has been forced to flee his or her country because of persecution, war or violence. A refugee has a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group. Most likely, they cannot return home or are afraid to do so. War, ethnic, tribal and religious violence are leading causes of refugees fleeing their countries.[35]

HIV: The human immunodeficiency virus damages the human immune system. Infections can be prevented by appropriate measures.[36]

AIDS: This refers to the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome which results from advanced stages of HIV infection, and is characterized by opportunistic infections or HIV-related cancers, or both.[37]

Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which, in interaction with various barriers, may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others.[38]

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[34] ILO. Guidelines concerning statistics of international labour migration (Geneva, 2018).

[35] For more information, see the UNHCR website: https://www.unrefugees.org/refugee-facts/what-is-a-refugee/.

[36] See ILO's HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200), Article 1, Para. 1.

[37] Ibid.

[38] UN. *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (CRPD) (New York, 2006), Article 1, Para. 2.

Sexual orientation refers to each person's capacity for profound emotional, affectional and sexual attraction to, and intimate and sexual relations with, individuals of a different gender, the same gender, or more than one gender.[39]

Affirmative action is a set of measures targeted at a particular group and intended to eliminate and prevent discrimination or to offset disadvantages arising from existing attitudes, behaviours and structures.[40]

Active labour market policies (ALMPs) are interventions of labour market policy intended to "actively" increase the employment probability of jobseekers and hence decrease aggregate unemployment.

Universal design is the design of products, environments, programmes and services aimed for use by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialized design. "Universal design" shall not exclude assistive devices for particular groups of persons with disabilities where this is needed.[41]

Reasonable accommodation is defined in two international instruments. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities defines reasonable accommodation as a necessary and appropriate modification and adjustment, not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed, and in order to ensure that persons with disabilities

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can enjoy or exercise all human rights and fundamental freedoms on an equal basis with others.[42]

The ILO's HIV and AIDS Recommendation, 2010 (No. 200) holds that reasonable accommodation is any modification or adjustment to a job or to the workplace that is reasonably practicable and enables a person living with HIV or AIDS to have access to, or participate or advance in, employment.[43]

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[39] UNHRC. Yogyakarta Principles (New York, 2006), p. 6.

[40] ILO. ILO Thesaurus, https://www.ilo.org/inform/online-information-resources/terminology/thesaurus/lang--en/index.htm.

[41] UN. *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities*, op. cit., Article 2.

[42] Ibid.

[43] See ILO Recommendation No. 200, Para. 1(g), op. cit. See also: ILO. *Promoting diversity and inclusion through workplace adjustments: A practical guide* (Geneva, 2016).

1.3 The benefits of social inclusion in TVET

For governments, inclusion in TVET is beneficial for the well-being of workers and for developing a more inclusive society as a whole

▶ *Enhance individual well-being and social cohesion:* Individuals who lack relevant skills are more likely to be unemployed, encounter job instability and to face difficulties in coping with the constant changes in the labour market. According to several studies, there is a nexus between the educational attainment of an individual and their participation in civil society, their improved mental and physical health and social engagement. Skills and employability are therefore key contributions to poverty alleviation, better social cohesion and increased political stability.[44]

▶ *Contribution to economic competitiveness:* The inclusion of disadvantaged individuals and social groups in skills development programmes provides a more efficient use of overall human capacity. According to research, providing equal opportunities in education and training has a positive effect on economic growth and reducing skills misallocation.[45] It is estimated that the loss caused by the exclusion of people with disabilities from labour markets amounts to between 3 and 7 per cent of GDP.[46]

▶ *Investment in inclusion pays off:* From a policy perspective, investing in equal opportunities for all throughout the stages of education and training is less costly than remedying inequalities at a later stage. According to the OECD,

> *Students who have enriching school experiences will be more likely to stay in education and successfully transfer to the labour market. Those who struggle at early stages but receive adequate, timely support and guidance have higher probabilities of finishing, despite any difficulties in their family or social background.*[47]

In many developing countries, the reduction in fees for school and materials, particularly textbooks, and reducing opportunity costs had important implications for enrolment and attendance.[48]

▶ *Positive impact on social security spending:* Inclusion in TVET can also have a positive impact on social security spending, provided that skills acquired lead to decent jobs. By providing training opportunities to people considered as NEET and to individuals who have dropped out of formal education, a country can alleviate the social security burden on public budgets. [49]

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[44] OECD. *Equity and quality in education: Supporting disadvantaged students and schools* (Paris, 2012).

[45] OECD. *Equity in education: Breaking down barriers to social mobility* (Paris, 2018).

[46] Buckup, S. *The price of exclusion: The economic consequences of excluding people with disabilities from the world of work*, Employment Working Paper No. 43 (Geneva, ILO, 2009).

[47] OECD. *Equity and quality in education: Supporting disadvantaged students and schools* (Paris, 2012).

[48] UN. *World Economic and Social Survey 2014/2015: Learning from national policies supporting MDG implementation* (New York, 2016).

[49] OECD. 2012, op. cit.

Employers need the best talents out there – regardless of gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, age, or any other grounds

It is generally assumed that hiring people from vulnerable social groups can be a burden and give little tangible benefits to businesses and employers. However, being an inclusive business brings benefits and advantages to employers, often called the ***diversity dividend*** and employers can act as change agents promoting inclusion:[50]

▶ ***Access to talent:*** By recruiting from a larger pool of applicants and giving equal opportunities to all, employers will benefit from attracting better candidates with the appropriate skills.[51]

▶ ***More innovation:*** People that have different life experiences and perspective can bring innovative ideas. They are also likely to better understand the needs of a broader range of consumers and can therefore attract more business.[52]

▶ ***Increased engagement and retention:*** Workers who feel valued and treated equally tend to be more loyal, reliable and hard working. This is particularly true

for people with disabilities, for whom the perception of "soft" support given by employers will translate into greater motivation, and lower costs in replacing employees.[53]

▶ ***A win-win change:*** Adapting the work environment toward more inclusiveness tends to create a more productive, secure and better organized environment for everyone, with usually limited additional costs. Moreover, governments can provide incentives and tax breaks for such adaptations. In terms of working and learning environments, research claims that social diversity can significantly increase teamwork and raise the level of workers' satisfaction.[54] An analysis of the Workplace Employee Survey (WES) in Canada revealed that a 1 per cent increase in ethnocultural diversity was associated with an average 2.4 per cent increase in revenue and a 0.5 per cent increase in workplace productivity.[55]

▶ ***Improved company reputation:*** Inclusive businesses can accompany significant leadership and reputational advantages, impressing buyers, consumers and the general public.[56]

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50 See for example the UN LGBTI+ Business Standards, https://www.unfe.org/standards/.

51 Murray, U. *Gender and Skills Development: Practical experiences and ways forward* (Geneva, ILO, forthcoming).

52 Ethical Trade Initiative. *Base Code Guidance: Disability inclusion in the global supply chain* (London, 2018).

53 ILO. *The win-win of disability inclusion – Infostories* (Geneva, 2016).

54 Whippy, G. *Employing disabled talent* (London, Disability Rights UK, 2018).

55 See the Staples Workplace Employee Survey website at: https://www.staplesbusinessadvantage.ca/workplace-employee-survey/.

56 ILO and UN Global Compact. *Guide for business on the rights of persons with disabilities* (Geneva, 2017); UNHCHR. *Tackling discrimination against lesbian, gay, bi, trans, & intersex people: Standards for conducting business* (Geneva, 2017); and ILO. *The win-win of disability inclusion – Infostories* (Geneva, 2016).

Workers' organizations act as role model in exemplifying the values of equality

Workers' organizations play an important role in promoting and monitoring inclusion:

▶ *Equal opportunities for all:* Union representatives can make significant contributions to the identification of discriminatory practices at the workplace and within education and training. Being attentive to the voices of disadvantaged groups, workers' organizations can bring significant collective benefits in advocating for social inclusion in TVET and defending the rights of workers or trainees exposed to discrimination. Monitoring the effective implementation of anti-discrimination policies can contribute to creating a more attractive workplace, increasing staff retention and productivity, and reducing absenteeism.[57]

▶ *Give workers a voice:* Workers' organizations can raise awareness about social inclusion and its benefits through training union representatives and standing up for inclusive practices in training providers and at the workplace. Including workers with diverse backgrounds can also lead to greater union membership.

▶ *Ensure fair representation:* Joint committees at the level of training providers, enterprises or economic sectors can help promote social inclusion and resolve potential conflicts, in particular when they involve under-represented or disadvantaged groups of workers.[58]

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▶ *The benefits of inclusive unions:* Social inclusion within workers' organizations has proven to have particular beneficial effects in meeting the needs of disadvantaged groups. For example, a higher participation of women in unions, in particular in leadership positions, has led to a wider inclusion of gender issues in union campaigns and has given more prominence to issues related to women in the informal economy, especially the situation of domestic workers.[59]

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[57] ILO. *The role of trade unions in promoting gender equality* (Geneva, no date); and ILO. *Trade union action on decent work for persons with Disabilities* (Geneva, 2017).

[58] European Commission. *Trade union practices on anti-discrimination and diversity* (Luxembourg, 2010).

[59] Britwum, A.; Ledwith, S. *Visibility and voice for union women: Country case studies from Global Labour University researchers* (Munich, Rainer Hamp Verlag, (2014); and ILO. Women at work: Trends (Geneva, 2016).

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Assessing who is excluded and why

Section 2.1 discusses excluded groups and individuals and provides details on different kinds and concepts of disability. It describes patterns of exclusion based on sex, socio-economic status, and origin. It also introduces a self-assessment tool (also available online) that helps to determine levels of inclusiveness or exclusiveness in TVET systems.

Section 2.2 explores at what stages TVET exclusion might happen, and provides a framework for analysis of inequalities that contribute to exclusion that includes self-assessment questionnaires. It also presents indicators and sources of data that can be used for analysis.

2.1 Excluded groups and individuals – the state of play

Table 1 presents a self-assessment checklist that helps determine an initial understanding of the factors contributing to exclusion by examining perceived excluded groups and individuals. The first set of questions examine the different disadvantaged groups, with answers ranked between 1 (very little) and 5 (very much).

▶ Table 1. Self-assessment checklist: Excluded groups and individuals							
Question	**Response***						**Further information**
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Do I have a good understanding of which groups or individuals are currently under-represented among TVET trainees and staff?							2.3
Do the following factors contribute to disadvantages in participating in TVET:							
• Being a woman							2.1.1
• Being poor							2.1.2
• Having a disability							2.1.3
• Being from a rural area							2.1.4
• Belonging to an ethnic minority/indigenous group							2.1.5
• Being a migrant							2.1.6
• Working in the informal economy							2.1.7
• Being a lesbian, gay, bisexual, transsexual or intersex person (LGBTI)							2.1.1 (last two paragraphs)
• Being an older worker							2.1.8 (first paragraph)
• Being a former criminal offender							2.1.8 (second paragraph)
• Living with HIV/AIDS							2.1.8 (third paragraph)
• Having been exposed to violence or unacceptable forms of work (e.g. post-war, domestic violence, forced labour etc.)							2.1.8 (fourth paragraph)
• Other factors							2.1.8
• Multiple factors							2.1.9

* 1=very little, 5=very much

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60   All self-assessment tables in this guide are sourced by the authors.

2.1.1 Gender inequalities in TVET systems

Despite the progress made toward achieving gender equality in many countries during the last decades, gender disparities in education, TVET and employment remain globally significant issues. Difficulties in access by women, as well as LGBTIs, to educational systems, TVET and the labour market persist through a range of pervasive socio-cultural norms, socio-economic and structural access barriers. In 2018, women's global labour force participation rate was 26.5 percentage points below that of men. Entrenched gender roles and labour market discrimination continue to hamper women's access to decent jobs. Vulnerable employment is more severe for women in developing countries where contributing family work accounted for 42.3 per cent of female employment in 2018, compared to 20.2 per cent of male employment.[61]

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While female participation in secondary education has globally reached 48 per cent, it dropped in vocational education from 45 per cent in 2007 to 43 per cent in 2017.[62] Barriers to education and training are especially evident in rural, informal and traditional economies.[63] The 2015 UN Millennium Development Goals Report found that the global secondary school attendance rate for rural girls reached 39 per cent, as opposed to rural boys (45 per cent) and urban girls (59 per cent). Women continue to be under-represented in education and TVET programmes related to STEM subjects that are critical for training and employment in modern

technological occupations with higher-wage pathways. Only 7 per cent of young women aged 25–29 years had majored in STEM at secondary level, compared to 18 per cent of young men of the same age group.[64]

School-related, gender-based violence can hamper school attendance and learning levels. According to UNESCO, evidence indicates that sexual harassment and gender-based violence in education and training institutions are still affecting millions of children and adolescents worldwide.[65] The absence of appropriate

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[61]   ILO. *World Employment Social Outlook* (Geneva, 2018).

[62]   UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS); see http://data.uis.unesco.org/.

[63]   ILO. *The gender divide in skills development: Progress, challenges and policy options for empowering women* (Geneva, 2014).

[64]   UN. *Millennium Development Goals Report* (New York, 2015).

[65]   ILO. *ILO toolkit for quality apprenticeships – Volume I: Guide for policy makers* (Geneva, 2017).

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facilities, such as separate washrooms or lack of lighting, can represent a serious concern for female students' safety.[66]

Occupational choices remain limited due to gender stereotypes. Boys and girls, and also LGBTI people, are often steered into what society considers appropriate training fields and occupations. Training programmes with higher female participation tend to correspond to lower-productivity jobs, reinforcing occupational segregation in the labour market, as well as confining women to lower-paid and lower-status job opportunities.[67] This also applies to informal apprenticeships, whereby girls largely train for and work in "feminine occupations" such as garment fabrication or food processing.

Women in rural areas face an even greater disadvantage accessing secondary education, TVET and other forms of skills acquisition due to limited accessibility of TVET institutions, mobility restrictions, socio-cultural factors and lack of safety.[68] Young mothers often have no access to TVET institutions or are forced to drop out of TVET due to strict enrolment policies and lack of childcare and breastfeeding facilities.

Educational institutions, including TVET institutions, perform a crucial social function in terms of communicating cultural knowledge, norms and values, including those related to sexuality and gender. Homophobia and transphobia are deeply embedded in many societies and, unless specifically addressed, are likely to be reflected in the communication that occurs through both formal and informal

[66] ILO; National Skills Development Council Secretariat (Bangladesh); Bangladesh Technical Education Board. *TVET reform: Gender mainstreaming into technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Bangladesh* (Geneva, 2015).

[67] ILO. *The gender divide*, op. cit. (2014), p. 2.

[68] ILO. *Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE)* (Geneva, 2017), p. 1.

curricula and in the interaction between teachers and students and among students.[69]

Although there is no specific data on discrimination of LGBTI's in the TVET sector, surveys indicate high levels of discriminatory practices in education institutions. Indeed, a significant proportion of LGBTI students experience homophobic and transphobic violence in school, which can affect their education, employment prospects and well-being. Students targeted are more likely to feel unsafe in school, miss classes or drop out. Homophobic and transphobic violence also has adverse effects on mental health including increased risk of anxiety, fear, stress, loneliness, loss of confidence, low self-esteem, self-harm, depression and suicide, all of which adversely affects learning.[70]

2.1.2 People with low income

Analysis undertaken using the World Inequality Database on Education[71] indicates that in lower middle-income countries between 2011–2016, 68 per cent of the poorest countries, but 97 per cent of the richest, completed primary education.[72] For lower secondary education completion, these numbers drop to 46 per cent (poorest) and 91 per cent (richest), suggesting that major inequalities persist in educational attainment.

Given that formal TVET in most countries still requires completed primary education or lower secondary education, admission criteria and sometimes fees charged are posing access barriers for low-income groups.[73]

Socio-economic status can be an important source of discrimination to participate in TVET and the labour market. Indeed, in nearly every country, parents' wealth and education attainment are the main determinants of their children's education.[74] Cost is identified as the biggest obstacle – after time constraints, along with perceptions on expected returns on education – preventing people from access to education and training.[75] This relates to both the opportunity cost of undertaking a programme (especially when there is no possibility of enrolling part-time) as well as the financial cost of paying a fee and/or travel to the TVET provider. Cost sharing between governments and households can be efficient and equitable if there are no credit constraints. In Ghana, for instance, an evaluation of the National Apprenticeship Program (NAP) that provided government grants to cover fees for traditional apprenticeship training, found a large difference in the apprenticeship completion rates between individuals who received the NAP grant and those who did not.[76]

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[69] UNESCO. *Review of homophobic bullying in education institutions* (Paris, 2017).

[70] UNESCO. *Out in the open: Education sector responses to violence based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression* (Paris, 2016).

[71] This is hosted by UNESCO and is available at: https://www.education-inequalities.org/.

[72] UNESCO. *Global education monitoring report* (Paris, 2019).

[73] UNESCO. *Transforming technical and vocational education and training: Building skills for work and life* (Paris, 2012).

[74] World Bank. *World Development Report: Learning to realize education's promise* (Washington DC, 2018).

[75] CEDEFOP. *Loans for vocational education and training in Europe*, Research Paper No. 20, (Luxembourg, 2012).

[76] Hardy, M.; Mbiti, I. McCasland, J.; Salcher, I. *The apprenticeship-to-work transition: Experimental evidence from Ghana*, Policy Research Working Paper No. 8851 (Washington DC, World Bank, 2019).

2.1.3. Persons with disabilities[77]

Persons with disabilities comprise approximately 15 per cent of the global population and an estimated 785 million persons of working age.[78] Persons with disabilities are far more likely to be un- or underemployed and economically inactive than any other person. Workers with disabilities are more likely employed in low-paid jobs with poor promotional prospects and working conditions. Furthermore, women with disabilities are less likely to work than men with disabilities.[79]

Skills development is an important measure to improve chances of persons with disabilities to participate in the labour market.[80] Specialized vocational training institutions usually offer training programmes that are tailored to the specific needs of persons with disabilities. However, these measures are often not well aligned with labour market demands, rarely reach the standards required by employers, and tend to segregate persons with disabilities from the mainstream population rather than facilitating inclusion. On the other hand, few mainstream TVET institutions and programmes, including apprenticeship schemes, are accessible for persons with disabilities. It begins with selection criteria that often rule out enrolment of persons who are deemed "not physically fit". It continues with inaccessible training facilities, TVET staff lacking pedagogical competencies to integrate persons with disabilities adequately into the learning process as well as inappropriate learning materials. Furthermore, many persons with disabilities have lower levels of basic education which limit their chances to enrol in TVET institutions.

Making TVET inclusive for persons with disabilities requires a comprehensive approach that addresses inclusion in basic and secondary education as well as labour market inclusion. Persons with disabilities are a very heterogeneous group. They have different types of disabilities which can be more or less severe, acquired at birth or later in life, and conditions that are temporary or permanent. Persons with disabilities also vary in all demographic characteristics including gender, age, sexual orientation, sex characteristics, ethnic origin, rural/urban status and other factors. These differences lead to different needs and challenges for their inclusion in education, TVET and the labour market.[81] In countries with severe employment challenges and cultural prejudices against persons with disabilities, their socio-economic status is even further constrained.

See section 4, case study 5 on addressing homophobia in South Africa

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[77] ILO. *Making TVET and skill systems inclusive of persons with disabilities*, Policy Brief (Geneva, 2017).

[78] *World Bank. World Report on Disability* (Washington DC, 2011).

[79] ILO. Department of Statistics. *Employment-to-population ratio for persons with and without disabilities by gender* (Geneva, 2010).

[80] ILO. *Disability inclusion*, Governing Body 316/POL/2 (Geneva, 2012).

[81] ILO; OECD. *Labour market inclusion of people with disabilities*, Discussion Paper for G20 Employment Group (Geneva/Paris, 2018).

Disability facts and considerations

While country statistics may vary, it is very likely that there are many more people with disabilities in a community than one realizes. Here are some important points to consider. A disability can:
- be something visible, such as seeing a person walking with a cane;
- be something you cannot see, such as a person who cannot hear or has a learning disability; and
- have labels, for example, blindness, deafness, learning disability, autism, psychosocial disability, or intellectual disability.

However, people's abilities vary, even when they have the same type of disability. Here are some examples:
- One person who is blind may not see anything. Another person who is labelled blind, may not be completely blind but can see enough to navigate and to read big print.
- One person with cerebral palsy may not be able to walk, talk or use their hands. Another may be able to walk with support, talk, be easily understood, and use their hands.

A disability label is not an explanation of what a person can or cannot do within a TVET centre, workshop, or classroom. Some people with disabilities will need no changes in order to participate in a vocational training programme. Others will need minor changes that are easy to make. For example, someone may need larger print to read. Still others may need more significant support, such as help getting around a building, a chance to "feel" things a trainer is describing during a lecture, or audiotapes of print material.

The important point is that many people with disabilities know what changes they need and can identify or resolve them if actually questioned about their needs. Others may not know what kind of help they need or what services might be available to them. In any case, people with disabilities are motivated to learn and are the best source to identify adjustments or accommodations necessary for their full participation.

Source: *ILO. Inclusion of people with disabilities in vocational training: A practical guide* (Geneva, 2013).

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2.1.4 Rural populations

Three-quarters of the global poor reside in rural areas. Decent work deficits are severe and characterized by low or absent social protection, low incomes and a high degree of informality. While formal wage employment is scarce, on-and-off farm self-employment and micro-enterprises are the dominant forms of livelihoods. Young people in rural areas are particularly affected as they have fewer opportunities for obtaining decent education and training compared to their urban counterparts. Both population growth and the lack of employment perspectives for rural youth are considered main drivers for rural-urban migration.

TVET can play an important role in enabling young people in rural areas to pursue better chances for a decent livelihood. As labour in traditional agriculture is on the decline, skills in off-farm occupations, but also in modern and sustainable agriculture, are becoming essential for rural youth to access employment opportunities within and outside their communities.

Rural youth are less likely to enrol in or complete secondary schooling, ultimately limiting their access to formal TVET. Girls from rural areas face even further obstacles: their participation rate in schooling is lower and they are less mobile after completing basic schooling, resulting in lower chances to access TVET institutions and programmes located outside their communities. While some progress has been made in increasing the outreach of TVET to rural areas in the past decades, the relevance and quality of TVET programmes in these contexts remain a severe concern. TVET institutions in rural areas usually offer a basic set of stereotype courses at low competency levels. These institutions are often poorly equipped, face infrastructural challenges, like sporadic electricity supply, and have difficulties recruiting qualified TVET personnel.

See section 4, case study 4 on training for rural economic empowerment

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2.1.5 Indigenous and tribal peoples and ethnic minorities

Indigenous and tribal peoples and other ethnic minorities often belong to the most vulnerable sections of society. They often face multiple barriers to access education, training and the labour market, eventually resulting in a consistent and widening gap between them and majority population groups. Their children are often trapped in a cycle of poverty, exploitation and socio-economic exclusion. At the same time, their traditional knowledge and associated skills are often not recognized. Examples are indigenous groups in Latin and Northern America, Dalit in South Asia, Roma in South Eastern Europe and Rohingya communities in Myanmar, just to name a few.

Discriminatory and racist attitudes in school and training environments, language barriers and the non-adaptation of learning materials and contents to their needs (in particular the lack of intercultural approaches and local languages) represent a few among the many causes for not enrolling or for early dropouts. Others are cultural and economic practices such as seasonal work-migration of families. According to the UN, in Latin America and the Caribbean region, only 40 per cent of indigenous children completed secondary education out of 85 per cent who initially started.[82] After graduation, access to employment might even be more challenging if labour market actors perpetuate similar discriminatory practices.

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82 UN. Indigenous peoples' right to education, Fact Sheet (New York, 2016). See also UNESCO. Indigenous peoples' right to education: Overview of measures reported by Member States (Paris, 2019), available at: https://en.unesco.org/news/indigenous-peoples-right-education-overview-measures-reported-member-states.

2.1.6 Migrant workers

Migrants can be of substantial benefit to their host countries or communities as they often possess skills that can fill labour gaps or bring new skills and dynamics into a local economy. Migrants can be domestic (moving from rural areas to urban centres) as well as international migrants. Migration can be permanent, seasonal, as well as circular.

To maximize the benefits of migration, migrants (including returnees) must be able to integrate well into the labour market and society. If migration is taking place in contexts of economic uncertainty where other population groups are suffering from un- and underemployment, migration may also bear the risks of latent or open conflicts.

Skills and qualifications of migrant workers and their family members are often not recognized in the host country. This means that migrant workers are forced to accept jobs below their level of skills and qualification, which limits their access to decent jobs. Migrants may also lack specific skills that are in demand. Migrants from rural areas tend to work to a large extent in low-skill and low-wage jobs that offer little in terms of workers' protection and rights. Due to poor language skills migrants often have no or very limited access to further education and training. Refugees or asylum-seekers might not always possess identity papers and some country might bar legal access to TVET or the labour market.

See section 4, case study 3 on RPL for Syrian refugees in Jordan, and case study 7 on e-learning for TVET for indigenous people in Australia

2.1.7 Persons working in the informal economy

The informal economy is heterogeneous and is made up of an expanding and increasingly diverse group of workers and enterprises in both rural and urban areas operating with no employment-based social protection. It includes persons working in micro and small enterprises, unregistered or undeclared workers in formal enterprises, domestic workers, casual or day labourers, industrial outworkers, homeworkers, and short-term contract workers.[83] Workers in the informal economy are more than three times likely to have no education or only primary education compared to workers in the formal economy. Self-employed workers face high opportunity costs for training, and might require multiple skills that are often not on offer. They also often lack information on available training opportunities and ways to assess their training needs.[84]

In those developing countries where the majority of the working-age population earns a living in the informal economy, most young people acquire occupational competence through informal apprenticeship and on-the-job learning. Typically, it is the urban and rural poor working in the informal economy under harsh conditions and with no social protection. Skills acquired informally are usually not certified. Poor educational attainment and lack of certified skills prevent persons working in the informal economy to progress to decent

jobs. TVET institutions still find it difficult to partner with businesses in the informal economy, upgrade apprenticeships or provide pathways to formality.

2.1.8 Other disadvantaged groups

Access to lifelong learning can also be constrained by age. The OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIACC) survey shows that persons aged 55–65 years consistently demonstrate lower levels of skills in literacy, numeracy and problem-solving skills in information and communication technology (ICT) environments than the 25–30-year old cohorts in their countries.[85] While upskilling needs might be greater, access for adult workers to higher level skills training to remain employable remains a highly neglected area.

Rehabilitation of young offenders in prison is increasingly seen as paramount for peaceful and resilient communities. The UN Office on Drugs and Crime (2017) has outlined the benefits of skills training programmes for prison inmates, including a reduction in recidivism and an increase in post-release employment, yet persistent social stigma can jeopardize their inclusion in training and the labour market.[86] Another highly vulnerable group are victims of modern slavery and other at-risk populations who can be assisted through skills and lifelong learning interventions.

83   Bonnet, F., Vanek, J. and Chen, M. *Women and men in the informal economy: A statistical brief*. (Manchester, WIEGO, 2019).

84   Palmer, R. *LLL in the informal economy. A literature review* (Geneva, ILO, forthcoming); and ILO. *Women and men in the informal economy: A statistical picture*, 3rd edition (Geneva, 2018).

85   OECD. *The survey of adult skills: Reader's companion*, 2nd edition, OECD Skills Studies (Paris, 2016).

86   ILO. CINTERFOR. *Formación profesional y privación de libertad: Apuntes para una agenda*, NOTAS No. 6 (Montevideo, 2019).

According to UNAIDS, two-thirds of the world's population affected by AIDS lives in sub-Saharan Africa. Students who enrol at TVET institutions are vulnerable to HIV/AIDS since they become sexually active at this age and mingle with other students of different ages and diverse life-styles where casual and multi-partner sexual relationships are common.[87]Persons having contracted and who are living with HIV/AIDS face health and medical restrictions that can prevent them from enrolling in or continuing a TVET programme, although there is no data providing evidence. The UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities does not explicitly include persons living with HIV/AIDS.

TVET institutions and programmes working in post-war, disaster contexts or with individuals who have been exposed to other forms of violence and harassment (domestic violence) often deal with target groups that have experienced multiple physical and psychological trauma. When this is not addressed and treated it can cause learning deficiencies, may result in discontinuation of training, as well as lead to violence between students/trainees, harassment and the inability of students/trainees to integrate.

2.1.9 Exclusion due to multiple access barriers

Those groups and individuals who possess more than two criteria for exclusion or inequality listed below can be considered as being particularly vulnerable to exclusion:

▶ Youth from poor families not able to pay for costs of training
▶ Being a woman in a society where participation of females in education, training and labour market is particularly low
▶ Being a person with a disability
▶ Belonging to a group of people systematically discriminated or marginalized in society
▶ Being a migrant not possessing the minimum language and occupational skills required for labour market inclusion
▶ Being a trans person whose national identity documents do not align with their gender identity
▶ Having a low level of education
▶ People living with HIV/AIDS or other communicable diseases

See section 4, case study 8 on social inclusion, HIV/AIDS and employability in Africa

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87 Ntombela, O. Z. L. *HIV/AIDS risk behaviours of first-year students at technical and vocational education and training colleges* (Pretoria, University of South Africa, 2016).

2.2 Assessing where, when and how exclusion happens in TVET

This section summarizes where, when and how exclusion happens at the different stages of training and the labour market inclusion process. It examines how policy-makers and practitioners can assess the level of exclusion in their TVET system, looking at the various stages, including: initial access; selection and enrolment; choice of programmes; attendance; use of training material; quality of learning methodologies; assessment and certification; and transition to the labour market.

2.2.1 Accessibility, selection and enrolment

In many countries, rural populations do not have equal access to TVET institutions compared to their urban peers. **Travel distances** between home and TVET institutions are often too far for daily commuting. Availability and costs for transport and boarding are an impediment. Girls often face greater **mobility restrictions** than boys. Due to safety concerns, such as harassment on public transport, girls and women in rural areas can find it particularly

discouraging to travel to distant training locations. Some of these obstacles can be addressed by mobile and community-based training programmes but also by providing girls with safe accommodation (see chapter 3). Persons with disabilities often face substantial access barriers because of inaccessibility or absence of adequate transport.; public buses rarely accommodate wheel chair users. People with disabilities living in rural areas rarely have a chance to access TVET unless adequate boarding facilities are available at reasonable costs.

Direct and indirect costs of training are a substantial access barrier to TVET, especially for poor households. Direct costs comprise tuition and boarding fees, as well as costs for transport while indirect costs are, for instance, the loss of family labour and income during training periods. Direct costs can be kept low if the state is sufficiently financing public and private TVET programmes, while indirect costs can be reduced by appropriately organizing training periods in order to allow students/trainees to work alongside training programmes. In agricultural communities, the appropriate timing of training periods plays an important role, e.g. by considering planting and harvesting periods when planning training

▸ **Figure 1. Inclusive TVET – Where exclusion might happen**
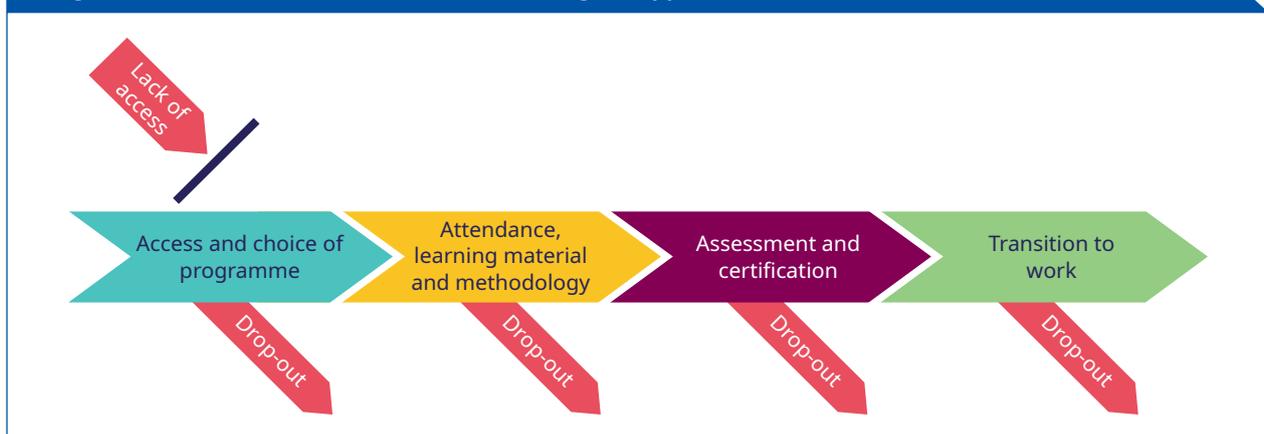
courses. In an inaccessible and non-inclusive social environment, people with disabilities typically face higher costs, e.g. having to organize private transport to attend TVET due to inaccessible public transport.

Table 2 is a self-assessment checklist to help identify issues that contribute to exclusion in terms of course selection, access barriers, choice of TVET programmes and the qualifications of TVET personnel.

▶ Table 2. Self-assessment checklist: Accessibility, selection, enrolment and choice of training							
Question	**Response***						**Further information**
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Selection and enrolment							
To what extent do we exclude certain groups or individuals because of our enrolment policy?							
Do I know why certain groups or individuals are excluded?							
Is there a positive trend in enrolment of under-represented groups among our trainees?							
Potential access barriers							
Do distances to TVET providers prevent trainees from participating?							2.2.1 (first paragraph
Do some of our trainees face mobility restrictions (girls, people with disabilities, etc.)?							
Are our boarding facilities appropriate and accessible for all?							
Are direct and indirect costs preventing trainees from enrolling?							2.2.1 (second paragraph)
Are educational levels as entry requirements preventing trainees from enrolling?							2.2.1 (third paragraph)
Do we involve disabled learners in decisions about reasonable accommodation for them?							2.1.3 (box)
Does lack of identity documents hinder access, particularly for migrants, refugees and trans persons whose gender identity does not align with the assigned marker on their identity papers?							
Are discriminatory practices of admission staff preventing trainees from enrolling?							2.2.1 (fourth paragraph)
Do the programmes of rural TVET institutions reflect labour market opportunities?							2.2.2 (second paragraph)
Are there pathways from (rural) training centres offering basic qualification levels to higher qualification offers that facilitate vertical mobility in the labour market?							

Question	Response*						Further information
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Choice of training programmes							
Do we have a mismatch of choice of occupational fields between girls and boys?							2.2.2 (first paragraph)
Do we have measures to promote enrolment of girls in male-dominated occupational fields and vice versa?							
Do we reach disadvantaged groups with our training offer (e.g. through social marketing campaigns, targeted outreach programs etc.)							2.2.2 (third paragraph)
Do we offer vocational counselling and guidance to empower trainees to make informed decisions about the right choice of training programmes?							
TVET personnel							
Is there an equal representation of women among TVET personnel (management, teaching personnel and counsellors) in our TVET institutions?							3.2.8
Do we employ female teachers/instructors in male dominated occupations?							
Is there an equal representation of disadvantaged groups among TVET personnel (management, teaching personnel and counsellors) in our TVET institutions?							
Is our TVET personnel fully aware of non-discrimination and inclusion policies and able to apply them in the enrolment and selection process?							

* 1=very little, 5=very much

Another access barrier to TVET is **educational attainment**. Enrolment in formal TVET programmes often requires a minimum educational attainment, such as junior high school. All persons who do not fulfil this criterion are practically excluded from formal TVET. This over-proportionally affects persons with disabilities not included in mainstream primary education, LGBTI youth, migrant or indigenous children that have dropped out of school, or children of poor rural households, and, among this group, especially girls. In countries where large parts of the population could not attend school because of conflict and displacement it may affect large segments of the eligible youth population.[88] Through acknowledging the possession of occupational competencies as enrolment criteria rather than educational achievement, TVET systems can become more inclusive. However, basic levels of literacy and numeracy are required by most TVET programmes, which is an excluding

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[88] One example is post-war Afghanistan where a very low percentage of the out-of-school youth population is considered eligible for TVET, see Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), available at: https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/57086.html.

factor for those individuals who had no or limited access to basic education. Non-formal TVET programmes can address this gap by combining vocational skills training with adult education and literacy programmes.

Other obstacles for participation in TVET are **misconceptions** among the population. TVET carries a persistently poor image in many countries and societies as being a second choice after higher education. This poor image is reinforced through career guidance, usually aimed at promoting higher (tertiary) education, to the neglect of opportunities available in vocational schools.

Persons with disabilities face various challenges to access TVET, including impeded mobility, as well as inappropriate infrastructure. One strategy is to modernize/adjust TVET institutions by systematically removing physical and informational access barriers and providing boarding facilities with appropriate equipment to accommodate persons with disabilities. Another strategy is to facilitate access to apprenticeships. Language, prejudices and **discriminatory practices** of TVET personnel and peers can be substantial barriers for indigenous groups and ethnic minorities to enrol in TVET (see section 2.1).

See section 4, case study 2, for a diagnostic tool on gender mainstreaming in training institutions in Central America

2.2.2 Choice of training programmes

By enrolling the majority of females in occupational fields perceived as culturally suitable, gender segregation of occupations is reinforced. This practice gives girls and women fewer choices and often leads to low-wage jobs. Training in new occupations such as ICT may provide women with better chances to earn a decent salary as compared to traditional, female-oriented occupations.

Due to a lack of resources, rural training centres usually offer a limited variety of training courses at basic competency level, frequently leading to labour market saturation in the vicinity of the TVET institutions and to low wages. This lack of choice affects the employability and livelihood potential of graduates. TVET systems should therefore be designed to facilitate vertical mobility and pathways to further training. Practically, this can be organized through referral systems between basic level "feeder institutions" and better equipped TVET institutions at regional or provincial levels. Table 3 presents a self-assessment checklist to be used for identifying issues related to attendance, training materials and teaching processes.

Vocational counselling and promotion of role models can sensitize women and learners from other disadvantaged groups to take up vocational training opportunities that suit their interest and abilities. Persons with disabilities often face misperceptions that only selected programmes are "deemed suitable", based on disability-related stereotyping. According to the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, all types of TVET programmes should be made accessible and inclusive to persons with disabilities. This includes access to disability-

sensitive vocational guidance and counselling aimed to empower all persons to make informed decisions on choice of training programmes.

Apprenticeship schemes tend to offer a larger variety of occupational fields (depending on availability of enterprises), if designed and managed well. As these schemes mirror the labour market, they tend to exclude those groups already disadvantaged, such as persons with disabilities, indigenous people and ethnic minorities. Measures to improve access to apprenticeship schemes for these groups must involve sensitization of employers.

See section 4, case study 6, upgrading informal apprenticeship systems in Benin

▶ Table 3. Self-assessment checklist: Attendance, drop-outs, learning materials and teaching processes							
Question	**Response***						**Further information**
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Attendance and drop-out							
Do we regularly monitor, document and report attendance and drop-outs of learners enrolled?							2.2.3
Are there differences in attendance/drop-outs between:							
• male, female and trans students							
• different social and ethnic groups							
• persons with and without disabilities							
• occupational field offered							
• type of training offered/qualification levels							
Do we know the reasons for poor attendance/drop-outs?							
Do we have records about these reasons?							
Do we have a complaint mechanism that tells us why learners are not happy and what problems they encounter?							
Do we have a feedback mechanism for learners on							
• the adequacy of the training content							
• learning materials we are using							
• facilities and training environment							
• competence and behaviour of teachers/instructors?							
Learning material and teaching process							
Does the curriculum content correspond with the training needs of all our students/trainees?							2.2.4
Is the theory content appropriate for the respective qualification level and the education and prior learning background of all learners?							

Question	Response*						Further information
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Are the learning materials adequate for the respective qualification level and the education and prior learning background of all learners?							2.2.4
Do we have appropriate teaching aids to address training needs of disadvantaged learners?							
Do our teachers/instructors use an individualized approach that addresses the needs of persons with disabilities in the learning process?							2.2.5
Is specialist support available for teachers/ instructors who need guidance to include learners from disadvantaged groups?							
Can learners properly understand the language used in teaching/instruction (and in resource/learning materials)?							
TVET personnel							
Are our teachers/instructors competent to address discriminatory or abusive behaviour and language?							3.2.8
Are workplace trainers prepared to create inclusive learning environments?							
Are teachers/instructors trained on disability etiquette, including disability-sensitive terminology?							2.1.3 (box)

* 1=very little, 5=very much

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2.2.3 Attendance and drop-out rates

Attendance and drop-out rates are key parameters for monitoring accessibility and quality of TVET programmes. Both parameters are influenced by a variety of factors:

▶ Accessibility of the physical, as well as information and communication environment of the TVET institution (availability, costs, timetables of transport, safety, and provision of information in different formats)

▶ Ability of families/parents to pay tuition fees and other costs of training, assessment and certification

▶ Childcare or breastfeeding facilities for mothers

▶ Physical and psychological well-being of the students/trainees, which is strongly influenced by an inclusive and welcoming learning environment, use of non-discriminatory language, reinforcement of shared values, etc.

▶ Perceived quality of TVET programmes influenced by teacher/instructor qualifications and behaviour, adequate training facilities, exposure to and involvement in practical work, etc.

▶ Adequacy and accessibility of teaching and learning materials

▶ Security, especially for girls

▶ Adequate timing of training (for example, evening courses for people with daytime obligations)

▶ Satisfaction with the choice of training course

When trainees drop out of a programme, it is critical to understand why a person decided to discontinue. TVET institutions can have dedicated staff to assess the reasons for drop-out, and can also identify problems and challenges faced by individuals early on in order to prevent drop-out.

2.2.4 Curriculum, teaching and learning materials

In the TVET sector, it is widely acknowledged that competency standards and curricula must correspond with the requirements of the labour market. However, the adaptation of curricula and accompanying teaching and learning materials to the training needs of target groups is often neglected. If these materials are not responsive to the needs of learners, the TVET measures implemented tend to be less effective in terms of employment, as they tend to exclude individuals with learning disabilities.

2.2.5 Organization of training, teaching and instruction methods

Training programmes that are organized in a rigid manner (teaching, rather than learning-centred approaches, strict schedules, little attention given to accommodate slow learners) tend to discourage and eventually exclude minority groups, persons with lower educational backgrounds and learning disabilities. This includes use of teaching and instruction methods that are either inappropriate, not accessible or discriminatory for the learner. When training programmes are delivered through workbased learning, for example through apprenticeships, internships or workplace attachments, workplace trainers also need to be prepared to include disadvantaged learners.

2.2.6 Assessment and certification

Assessment and certification of competencies are key elements of modern TVET systems. They facilitate labour mobility within and between a country or region and between economic sectors (e.g. informal and formal economies). However, the assessment and certification systems tend to exclude target groups if:

▶ Assessment is theory-biased and requires a level of schooling that is usually inappropriately high for the respective competency level and learners with lower education backgrounds. Individuals who may possess adequate practical skills, but who cannot master the required level of theory, are excluded from certification.

▶ Assessment procedures are inappropriate for the target group (e.g. they do not allow the use of local languages).

▶ Time allocated to achieve the required competence level is too short for learners with learning disabilities and lower levels of schooling.

▶ Costs for assessment/certification are too high for the poor.

▶ Assessment is organized at places that are inaccessible for disadvantaged groups.

Workers in informal employment who usually acquire their skills through informal apprenticeship and/or on-the-job training rarely have access to affordable certification (see section 3.2.7 on RPL). If workers do not possess certified skills, they are usually trapped within the informal economy and can rarely access formal sector employment. In the case of migrants, the certification acquired in their country of origin is rarely recognized in the host country.

2.2.7 Factors affecting school-to-work transition (STWT)

Compared to regular TVET graduates, disadvantaged individuals and groups may not possess the same ability to access jobs as the majority of the population. Impediments for STWT can include:

▶ lack of core skills for employability and job search skills;

▶ lack of access to labour market information and networks (informal/formal) that facilitate access to jobs;

▶ lack of access to inclusive career guidance and counselling services;

▶ lack of resources for self-employment and business start-ups (including lack of family support and social networks that facilitate job creation).

If training takes place within a training institution with little or no linkage to labour market reality, employers and TVET graduates face the above-mentioned challenges in STWT. These challenges increase if individuals and groups are further disadvantaged in accessing job and income opportunities. Persons with disabilities, for instance, who have been trained in a segregated environment – though these are being phased out, in line with UN Conventions – might experience that their transition to the open labour market often becomes a substantial impediment as they might lack the capability to adapt from the training context to existing working conditions and demands of employers. The same applies to indigenous groups and ethnic minorities who often face prejudices and discriminatory practices by employers and other workers.

▶ **Table 4.   Self-assessment checklist: Assessment, certification and transition to work**

Question	Response*						Further information
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Assessment and certification							
Are there differences in failure rates in final assessments between disadvantaged groups/individuals?							2.2.6
Are there special provisions to enable equal participation in assessments for different groups (e.g. local language, more time, assistive technologies, etc.)?							
Is the cost of assessments a reason for learners not to sit exams?							
Is the geographical location of assessments a reason for learners not to sit exams?							
Transitions to work							
Do you conduct regular studies to trace training graduates?							2.2.7
To what extent do the employment rates and the income of graduates differ depending on their gender, educational, social or cultural background?							
If yes, do you know the underlying reasons?							
Do tracer studies reveal that there are any discriminatory practices against certain groups?							
When liaising with employers, do you raise awareness on the benefits of social inclusion and diversity?							
Do you offer support to employers for including disadvantaged learners/graduates?							
Do disadvantaged groups/individuals have equal access to measures that facilitate school-to-work transition (e.g. internships, business start-up)?							
Is career guidance material used free of gender bias or discrimination?							
Do the school-to-work transition measures offered address the specific needs and socio-economic backgrounds of the target groups?							
Does the impact of these measures (employment, income) differ when comparing graduates with different characteristics?							

* 1=very little, 5=very much

Tracer studies can provide valuable information on the whereabouts of TVET graduates. Furthermore, they are important to detect discriminatory practices. Disaggregated data collection should combine quantitative and qualitative methods. Focus group discussions and individual semi-structured interviews may reveal information that quantitative assessment, such as questionnaire surveys, cannot easily yield.

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2.3 Framework for analysis of inequalities in TVET

This section suggests a framework for assessment of inequalities in TVET which is useful for both the analysis of macro-level data or for conducting inclusive-specific surveys or evaluations with selected TVET institutions. The analysis can inform policy levels, as well as decision-makers.

Table 5 proposes topics for analysis, indicators, sources of data or, if data is not available, methodologies for data collection. It is not meant to cover all possible factors of vulnerabilities, but provides guidance on possible indicators and ways to obtain the required information. Trends can be assessed when indicators are collected on a yearly basis.

Similarly, indicators can capture information about migrant workers, indigenous and tribal peoples, or LGBTI persons.

While some of the quantitative data may be available in national TVET statistics, other quantitative and qualitative data needs to be gathered through specific surveys or regular monitoring at the level of TVET institutions. In an ideal case, TVET statistics should provide **data disaggregated by gender/ gender identity, national extraction, age, disability, ethnicity and other relevant factors**[89] on enrolment, graduation and transition to the labour market. This, however, is often not the case, and without such data it is difficult to determine the levels of exclusion/inclusion and any changes made over time.

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[89] This ILO website provides information on methodologies to disaggregate data by disability status: https://www.ilo.org/ global/topics/disability-and-work/WCMS_569088/lang--en/index.htm.

▶ **Table 5.** Proposed topics, methods and indicators for analysis of inequalities in TVET

Proposed topics for analysis	Possible indicators	Source of data and/or data collection methods
Analysing the status of gender equality in terms of choice of training programmes, enrolment and graduation	• Share of women enrolled in TVET programmes • Share of female TVET graduates • Share of women enrolled in/graduated from TVET programmes considered as male dominated fields • Share of women enrolled in or graduated from modern technology programmes (ITC and related fields) • Share of men enrolled in or graduated from TVET programmes considered as female dominated field • Number and type of TVET courses/profiles newly introduced that are considered to specifically address training of females in trade areas with potential for decent employment (qualitative indicator)	• National TVET statistics on enrolment and graduation, disaggregated by gender and by programme type • Representative quantitative and qualitative research (interviews, focus group discussions), comparison of data per gender with a representative number of selected TVET institutions
Analysing the extent of inclusion of persons with disabilities in TVET	• Share of persons with disabilities enrolled in/graduated from TVET programmes • Number and quality of laws/regulations that facilitate access of persons with disabilities to TVET institutions and the labour market • Number and share of staff of TVET institutions who have received disability awareness training • Satisfaction levels, compared to those of persons without disabilities • Dropout rates, compared to those of persons without disabilities	• National TVET statistics on enrolment and graduation, disaggregated by persons with disabilities and by programme type • Analysis of legal frameworks and regulations that promote (or hinder) the inclusion of persons with disabilities in training or work • Audit of the physical and informational accessibility of TVET providers • Focus group discussions with persons with disabilities and of teachers/instructors for qualitative assessment of their inclusion in TVET programmes/institutions • Case studies on inclusion of persons with disabilities in TVET

Analysing the outreach of TVET to rural areas	• Coverage: share of districts (of a country or region) with accredited/registered TVET institutions
	• Existence and functionality of referral services from basic rural to advanced urban TVET institutions (qualitative indicator)
	• Share of youth from rural areas enrolled in TVET institutions (compared to total enrolled)
	• Comparing data of selected rural and urban TVET institutions, e.g.:
	  - Number of students enrolled versus enrolment capacity
	  - Status of equipment
	  - Accessibility of TVET institutions for rural youth (transport/information)
	  - Drop-out rates
	  - Employment rates
		• National TVET statistics
		• Analysis of enrolment statistics of selected TVET institutions
		• Qualitative assessment analysing the choice of and demand for training programmes
		• Focus group discussions with youth in eligible age for TVET in selected locations

Proposed topics for analysis	Possible indicators	Source of data and/or data collection methods
Analysing the inclusion of workers in the informal economy in TVET	• The extent to which traditional (or informal) apprenticeship and/or informal acquisition of skills is recognized in TVET policy (qualitative indicator) • Extent to which small business organizations (trade associations, etc.) are involved in TVET • Number of master craftspersons in small industries involved in formal TVET (e.g. as certified assessors, as trainers of complementary training, etc.) • Existence of system for recognition of prior learning • Number of RPL certificates issued, by sex, origin, etc. • Number of informal apprentices who have obtained a recognized certification, by sex, origin, etc.	• Analysis of policy documents • Interviews with representatives of small business organizations • TVET system statistics (assessment centres, teachers/instructors, etc.) • RPL statistics and regulatory framework • Interviews with assessors from small industries • Interviews/focus group discussions with informal apprentices
Identification of discriminatory practices in TVET and in transition from school-to-work	• Number and type of incidences of discrimination (within TVET institutions, at workplace training) • Existence and use of complaint mechanisms • Management response in case of incidences	• Review of relevant literature • Review of complaints received • Qualitative interviews with social workers/counsellors in TVET institutions, case studies, focus group discussions

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Redressing inequalities and making TVET inclusive for all

This chapter provides policy-makers, social partners and practitioners with suggestions on how to make TVET more inclusive. It discusses two approaches for addressing inequalities:
i) the universal design of inclusive TVET systems; and
ii) targeted approaches, also called affirmative action, that address particular inequalities and exclusion issues (see section 1.2).

Both approaches are considered complementary to each other, i.e. in order to achieve a more efficient inclusion, a combination of universal design and targeted measures may be the most appropriate for a given situation. It should be noted that there is no blueprint for action, as contexts and needs of target groups may differ substantially from one country to another.

Section 3.1. identifies the key policy dimensions which lay the foundation for an inclusive TVET system and ensure policy coherence. Based on the challenges identified in chapter 2, section 3.2. suggests practical measures for inclusive TVET design and delivery. Section 3.3 discusses targeted measures to overcome access barriers and ensure transitions to the labour market.

▶ **Table 6. Self-assessment checklist: Inclusive policies and systems**

Question	Response*						Further information
	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know	
Does my country have a policy or strategy on inclusive TVET?							3.1
Does my country have a TVET policy or strategy that puts particular focus on the inclusion of disadvantaged individuals and group?							
Does my country have other policies or strategies that promote equality and non-discrimination in TVET (e.g. gender policies, rural empowerment etc.)							
Do TVET providers have inclusion policies or guidelines?							
Are TVET governance mechanisms inclusive and include under-represented groups, including among worker and employer representatives?							3.2
Do we use both universal TVET system design approaches and targeted measures to redress inequalities?							3.2, 3.3

* 1=very little, 5=very much

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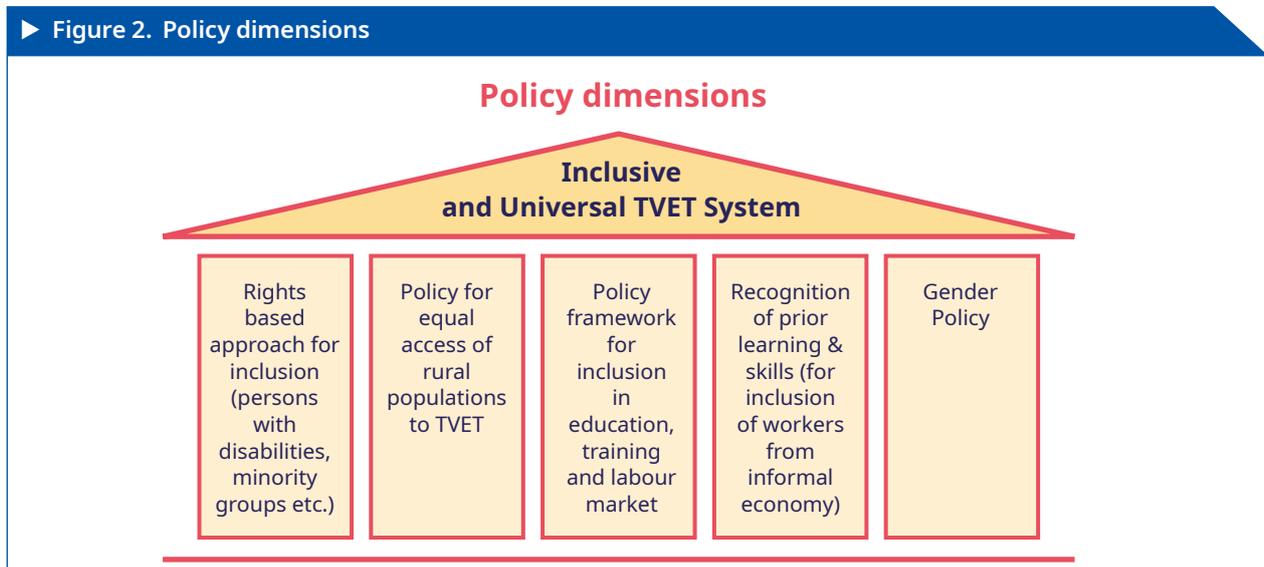## 3.1 Devising inclusive TVET policies and strategies

For the development of universal, inclusive TVET systems the following policy dimensions are most relevant to ensure policy coherence. They mutually support each other and should be referenced when developing inclusive TVET and skills development policies or strategies.

1. **Gender policy** should ensure equal access to TVET and provide the same access chances to decent employment (see ILO's Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111). This includes strategy areas such as:

   ▶ equal access to all occupations regardless of existing gender biases;

   ▶ equal access to emerging occupational fields that provide new labour market opportunities for decent jobs, for example, in ICT-related fields; and

   ▶ gender mainstreaming in all aspects of TVET system development, with a specific focus on the development of human resources (e.g. promotion of women in managerial positions at TVET

governing bodies, TVET intermediary institutions and TVET providers).

2. **A rights-based approach** addresses the inclusion of all people into all segments of TVET systems. This policy principle is embedded in international standards such as the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006; the ILO's Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159); and the ILO's Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111). Rights-based approaches aim at empowering people to realize their rights and ensuring that enabling framework conditions – inclusive TVET systems in this case – are in place.

3. **Policies for improving access of rural populations to TVET**, including: investment in the establishment and operation of rural TVET institutions; improvement of TVET in agriculture and agriculture-related fields; better referral mechanisms for rural youth to TVET in urban centres (including measures addressing accessibility problems, such as transport and

▶ **Figure 2. Policy dimensions**

Policy dimensions

Inclusive and Universal TVET System

| Rights based approach for inclusion (persons with disabilities, minority groups etc.) | Policy for equal access of rural populations to TVET | Policy framework for inclusion in education, training and labour market | Recognition of prior learning & skills (for inclusion of workers from informal economy) | Gender Policy |

accommodation); as well as specific training and employment schemes that address regions with high levels of poverty and un- and underemployment.

4. **Policies for the recognition of prior learning** (RPL) aim to provide workers in the informal economy with access to assessment and certification of competencies, and thus to promote vertical and horizontal mobility of labour (see ILO's Recommendations 195 and 204 addressing the recognition of skills including RPL).

5. **Comprehensive policies for inclusion in education and training and the labour market**. When addressing inclusion, TVET cannot be seen in isolation from education and labour market policies, as all three spheres are closely connected. As discussed in chapter 2, exclusion usually starts in the education system yet it becomes most evident in the transition stages (from school to training, and from training to the labour market). In order to move policies towards inclusion it is important not to look at a single policy area (TVET) exclusively but to be aware of the broader policy landscape and take aspects such as national poverty alleviation strategies, national development plans, industrial policy, education, as well as labour market policies into consideration.

3.2 Universal TVET system design

This section describes universal approaches along the TVET and skills development system cycle to strengthen inclusion. If implemented through social dialogue and with the participation of under-represented groups, they minimize the need for targeted measures for specific groups (discussed in section 3.3) as they contribute to a more inclusive TVET system by design. The involvement of workers' and employers' organizations in the governance and implementation of the system is critical for effective and demand-led systems.[90] Workers' and employers' representatives should also reflect diverse groups in society in order to demonstrate inclusiveness among their organizations' membership.

As shown in figure 3, the different building blocks cover governance, access, skill needs identification, design of occupational standards, qualification and curricula, TVET delivery, work-based learning, assessment and certification, the development of TVET personnel, post-training support (discussed in 3.3) and monitoring and evaluation.

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[90] ILO. *Workers' organizations engaging in skills development*, SKILLS/ACTRAV Policy Brief (Geneva, 2019); and ILO. *The involvement of employer organizations in the governance of skills systems: A literature review* (Geneva, 2018).

▶ Figure 3. Building blocks of inclusive TVET systems
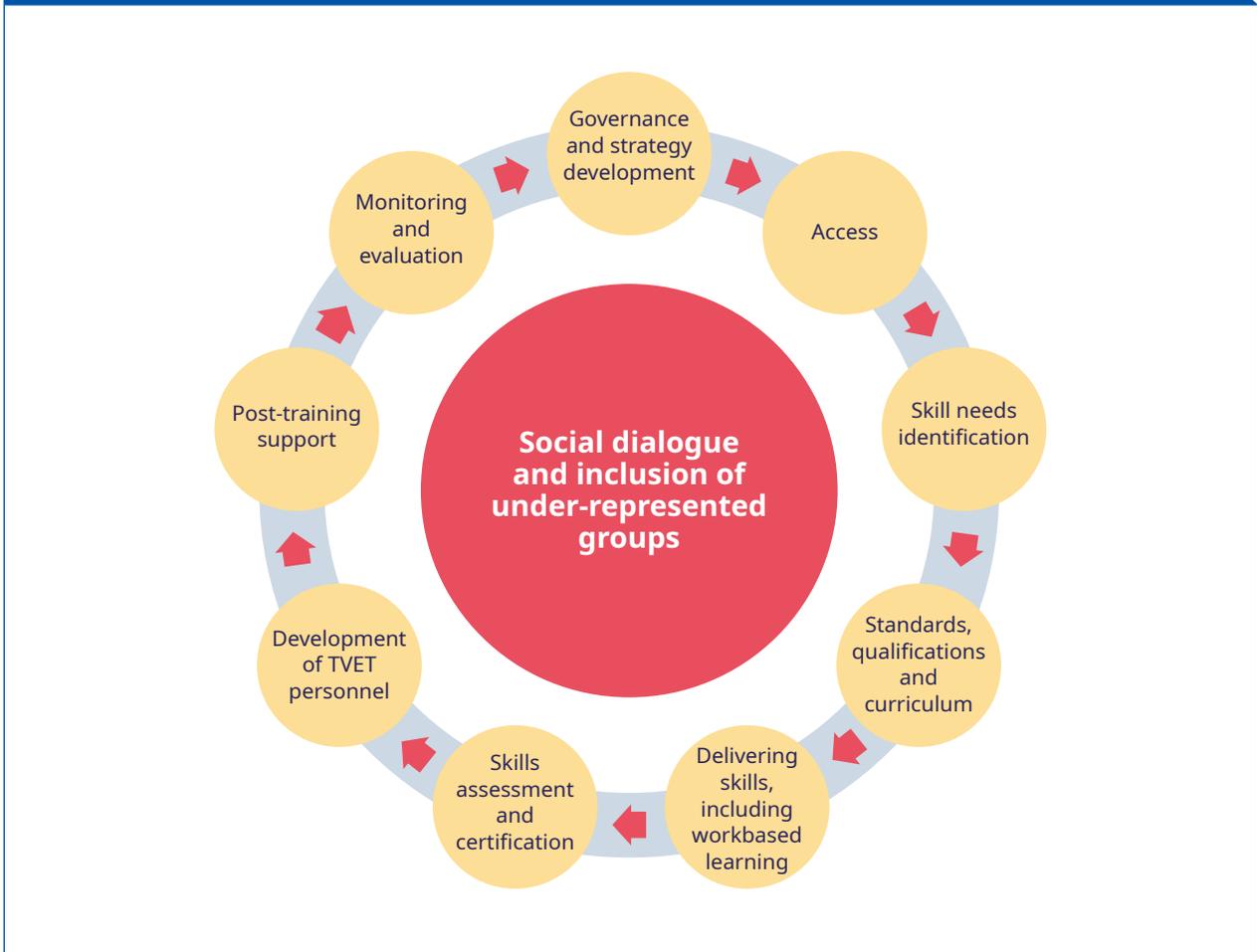
3.2.1 Governance and strategy development

Participation of under-represented groups in **TVET policy and strategy development** is as relevant as ensuring that their voice is included in **governance mechanisms**. Workers' and employers' organizations, who should play an active role in tripartite governance of the system, can also contribute to more inclusive systems by selecting women, or a member from a minority group as their spokesperson on TVET committees, boards, or in any other relevant function. Governance mechanisms can also opt to include a tripartite-plus structure,[91] hence involving other relevant state and non-state stakeholders that potentially enhance inclusivity of the system.

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[91] The ILO term "tripartism plus" refers to situations where the traditional tripartite partners choose to open up the dialogue and engage with other civil society groups, to gain a wider perspective and consensus on issues in and beyond the world of work.

Success factors

Success factors for effective pathways in the TVET system:

✓ Engage a broad spectrum of key stakeholders in TVET system development, during the entire process of analysis, policy review and strategy formulation, e.g. through multi-stakeholder dialogues on key policy issues concerning inclusion.

✓ Include workers' and employers' organizations in tripartite governance or in tripartite-plus mechanisms along with other relevant state and non-state actors.

✓ Ensure representation of under-represented groups in TVET governance boards or committees, e.g. by involving groups that represent their interests (organizations promoting gender equality, inclusion of persons with disabilities, and youth organizations).

✓ In many countries, non-profit organizations provide a lion's share of the training and social services to disadvantaged groups. These organizations should not be limited to their role as service providers but should be encouraged to actively engage in policy formulation processes.

✓ In order to strengthen stakeholder engagement, it may be necessary to implement capacity building measures, e.g. for evidenced-based advocacy and policy analysis.

✓ TVET systems should allow/facilitate movement of learners from lower to higher TVET qualification levels.

✓ When assessment structures are decentralized, they have adequate outreach to rural districts (e.g. mobile assessment centres, using local enterprises for assessment).

✓ Costs of assessment and certification are affordable by the poor.

✓ Assessment is made accessible to groups that tend to be excluded (persons with disabilities, etc.).

3.2.2 Access to TVET: Social marketing and physical access

Legal access to TVET and skills development is not always a given for all. Formal entry requirements can be made more flexible through, for example, recognition of prior learning or skills assessments that facilitate access if formal educational requirements are not met. Foreign qualifications might need to be recognized so that admission criteria are

met. Age or nationality requirements might need to be challenged and reviewed if they result in discrimination.

Social marketing of TVET can help reach out to groups that face access barriers and thus are under-represented in the TVET system. Social marketing can be organized at the national and regional levels, as well as by TVET institutions directly at local level. It can use diverse communication channels: social media;

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TV and radio; as well as direct interaction with target groups through schools and community structures; establish cooperation with organizations representing disadvantaged groups such as displaced persons or indigenous people's organizations; or through organizations of workers and employers.

Vocational orientation and counselling are acknowledged as relevant and effective instruments to address inequality in TVET and the labour market. Vocational orientation measures, for instance, can address the misconceptions about gender stereotypes in the labour market and in the selection of occupational fields in TVET, e.g. by raising women's awareness and esteem to work in better paid, male-dominated occupational fields.

Social media and digital applications provide new opportunities for social marketing of TVET, as the majority of young people readily accept and use mobile communication technology and are active users of social media. Social media campaigns using simple mobile phone applications can be used by TVET institutions and programmes to reach out to groups that are otherwise, with conventional means, not easily reachable. Disadvantaged groups often lack access to relevant information because of mobility restrictions. Social media marketing can address these gaps.

As noted above, an impediment to digital application is the lack of access to the respective technologies and ICT infrastructures, as well as the lack of digital literacy. It is therefore very important that digital divide issues are specifically assessed and addressed in the context of inclusion and equal participation.

Improving physical accessibility of TVET facilities and access to boarding[92] is a precondition for enrolment of target groups

Success factors

- Career guidance and other awareness-building measures regarding TVET should include parents, as they often determine a child's career path.

- Social marketing needs to use the most appropriate channels, adapted to the local context, from social media, TV and radio to direct interaction with target groups.

- Community involvement is also a key aspect in the promotion of inclusion, e.g. by involving community social workers in the mobilization and accompaniment of target groups.

- Digital and social media applications can include marketing of TVET programmes, facilitation of networks among graduates and peer counselling through blogs and other platforms, or e-learning modules. Virtual reality tours embedded in vocational orientation can provide insights into professions and occupations.

- Work with change agents can be effective, for example, by showcasing good inclusion examples undertaken by employers and using those in social marketing.

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[92] See ILO. *Promoting diversity and inclusion through workplace adjustments: A practical guide* (Geneva, 2016).

that cannot commute to a TVET institution on a daily basis. The costs for boarding are often an additional burden for the poor, therefore, scholarship funds should include subsidies for boarding costs for specific target groups (see targeted measures in section 3.3).

TVET facilities, in particular boarding accommodations, must provide a safe environment for the physical and psychological well-being of students and trainees. Sexual harassment by teaching staff or peers is a potentially critical issue in boarding, independent of one's gender. Institutions need to ensure safety standards and must strictly oppose any rights violations.

When constructing new TVET institutions, the architectural design should consider accessibility standards to facilitate access for disabled learners; including barrier-free access to classrooms, workshops and boarding facilities. In addition to physical accessibility, the accessibility of communication and information, as well as learning material, needs to be ensured.

Young parents (especially single mothers) may find it impossible to enrol in TVET measures if they do not have community/family support for taking care of their children. Early pregnancy is one of the key reasons for young women to drop out of secondary education and training.

3.2.3 Skill needs identification: Focus on rural areas and non-stereotype occupations

In order to ensure social inclusion within skills assessment approaches and systems, it is important to pay attention to skills needs in rural and other disadvantaged areas of the country, and to assess if new occupations and skills identified are equally relevant for women and men, and for other under-represented groups.

Success factors

✓ To facilitate a safe environment, an effective approach is to implement complaint mechanisms which allow trainees to report issues in confidentiality, without being victimized themselves.

✓ Separate sanitary facilities for girls and boys should be enforced as a minimum standard for accreditation of TVET institutions.

✓ Application of universal design principles should be followed when constructing new TVET centres.

✓ In most cases, a disabled person knows best what modifications will allow their participation in a TVET programme, therefore, consultation with persons with disabilities should be undertaken.

✓ To improve access to TVET for young parents, single mothers, and female teachers or instructors, an effective measure is to provide childcare facilities within TVET facilities and programmes.

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Success factors

✓ Involve under-represented groups in skill needs analysis, and interpretation of research findings.

✓ Investment decisions for new courses or the adaptation of existing courses should be undertaken with a view to redress existing inequalities in access and participation.

3.2.4 Design of occupational standards, qualification and curricula

Competency standards need to be aligned with labour market demands and uniform for a regional or national context. The translation of these standards into curricula and teaching and learning materials, as well as the actual design of the learning process (see section 3.3) need to be "learner-centred". This means, in practice, that training/learning needs of all participants (especially those that tend to be excluded) are appropriately taken into account.

Development of core skills for employability[93]

The key mandate of TVET is to improve employability of learners. Besides technical and vocational skills this includes the development of "soft skills" such as communication, language, and job-search skills, entrepreneurship development (for promoting self-employment) and other skills essential for social and economic inclusion.

Disadvantaged groups often have a deficit in particular core skills (e.g. self-confidence) as a result of discrimination in society. Inclusive TVET programmes should take measures to identify participants' specific deficiencies and address those by strengthening core skills for employability within curricula. In fragile contexts (e.g. post-conflict) curricula should include content that improves conflict resolution skills so that TVET contributes to social cohesion.

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93   Brewer, L. *Enhancing youth employability: What? Why? and How? Guide to core work skills (Geneva*, ILO, 2013).

Success factors

- Training needs of excluded groups are identified and reflected in the design of curricula and learning material.

- Training processes are sufficiently flexible (e.g. in terms of training duration or organization) in order to accommodate slow learners or cater to people already working or with care responsibilities.

- TVET may offer multiple programmes including non-formal training for adults/ school drop-outs that can be entirely "learner-centred" designed. This could take place through adding educational content based on specific needs such as literacy/numeracy/language training as required to master a certain task or job in the labour market. Such measures can also be designed as bridging courses that enable individuals to enrol in mainstream formal programmes after successful completion of the course.

- Core soft skills for employability need to be integrated into the training design/ curriculum (such as teamwork, communication, negotiation skills, etc.) that will enhance employability of persons disadvantaged in the labour market (see text box above on the development of core skills for employability).

- Learning materials should depict learners from all societal groups, including those considered excluded. This practice can support awareness creation on inclusion among the "mainstream student population" enrolled in TVET.

3.2.5 Training delivery

Learner-centred pedagogy is considered one of the key components of promoting inclusion in education and training. Benefits for learners are thought to be multiple: improvement of motivation, attentiveness and engagement, higher learner satisfaction and reduction of drop-out rates. Students and trainees who find learning more difficult get extra assignments and extra explanation. Students with special learning needs receive personalized support.[94] This is particularly important for persons with disabilities that face disadvantages in keeping pace with the learning process. In contexts where inclusion is meeting resistance (from students, parents, the community) teachers need to act as facilitators or mediators that actively promote inclusion in the learning process.

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[94] CEDEFOP. *Vocational pedagogies and benefits for learners: Practices and challenges in Europe*, Research paper No. 47 (Luxembourg, 2015).

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Success factors

✓ In order to move from a conventional (teaching-centred) style to a learner-centred approach many teachers/instructors have to undergo a substantial shift of mindset as they are rarely aware of modern teaching methods. They also need management support and resources to implement these methods.

✓ Implementing learner-centred approaches requires substantial investment in human resource development (HRD), especially in the pedagogical training of teachers (see section 3.2.8).

✓ Learner-centred pedagogy is easier to implement with smaller class sizes, for example, with a group of around 15 learners.

✓ Mixing groups of learners is of mutual benefit to all, since fast learners can support slow learners. Discriminatory behaviour between groups reduces in mixed groups.

Once the regular (formal) courses have ended, many TVET institutions are idle in the afternoons. Such well-equipped facilities should be used to maximum efficiency, for example, providing multiple training offers to target groups that usually have no or limited access. Examples show that formal TVET institutions can become **multi-purpose training facilities** that offer formal and non-formal TVET courses in parallel. As a precondition, these activities must be approved at TVET governance level and thus may require policy support and additional resources. If no additional resources are available, it is likely that TVET providers could charge cost-covering tuition fees, although this poses another barrier to learners from low-income backgrounds.

Success factors

✓ Local governments should recognize the role TVET institutions can play for community development and provide support through financial and non-financial means.

✓ TVET management should be supportive to open up their institutions to a wide constituency, including groups that are typically excluded.

✓ Ministries and TVET governing bodies can benefit from supporting the multi-purpose use of TVET institutions and facilities, e.g. by providing accreditation and funding for adult learning or other non-formal programmes.

✓ When TVET institutions act as a link between school and the local labour market, learners are effectively connected to the world of work (e.g. through cooperative and work-based learning) that includes certain groups that are otherwise excluded.

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Enhancing TVET supply in rural areas is no easy undertaking. Constructing, equipping and operating new TVET institutions in rural areas with poor infrastructure has implications for tight TVET budgets. TVET institutions situated in thinly populated rural areas often suffer from low enrolment as they typically offer only a few stereotypical or basic training courses that soon saturate social demand in the very communities where these centres are located. TVET in agriculture has been neglected in many countries, with the result that existing institutions often work below their capacity and training in modern and sustainable agriculture and agro-related fields is lacking.

Success factors

✓ Creation of clusters can connect more specialized, higher-level institutions offering diverse TVET programmes with a number of outreach or feeder institutions. While the latter offers basic level TVET courses, graduates can be referred to lead cluster institutions for higher and specialized qualifications. Such a system can effectively improve access for rural populations to higher quality TVET, provided the referral mechanism works well and affordable boarding in the lead cluster institutions is part of the offer.

✓ Rural apprenticeship schemes, community-based training and mobile training should be considered as integral elements of an inclusive TVET system. These models are discussed in section 3.3 on targeted measures, yet they could also be elements of a universal TVET system.

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NGOs, charities and other private initiatives play a significant role in TVET in many countries. Many of these explicitly target disadvantaged groups. In reality, the selection of target groups also depends on the financial resources of these institutions.

In the absence of government or donor support, the main source of income of these institutions is tuition, and as noted previously, this has the potential of effectively excluding the very target group these institutions intend to serve.

Success factors

- TVET governing bodies should acknowledge these civil society actors by providing adequate mechanisms for accreditation, tax relief and financial support from the government.

- Private training providers can form alliances in order to raise public awareness and to effectively contribute to system reform for better inclusion (see multi-stakeholder engagement above).

Information and communication technologies (ICT) also bring new opportunities for distance learning and for the application of e-learning materials that are responsive to specific needs of target groups. One widespread example is the development of screen-reading software for the visually impaired. However, the growing digital divide between people who have access to modern digital technologies and those who do not, may further aggravate exclusion. Exclusionary factors typically are: i) lack of digital literacy; ii) lack of access to digital technology; as well as iii) resistance to use these technologies.

Success factors

- TVET institutions need adequate ICT infrastructure and access to broad band services.

- It is essential to generate and maintain the positive attitude of teachers towards digital technology and encourage their readiness and ability to use digital teaching and learning methods.

- Effective digital learning solutions (e-learning modules) and levels of technology should be contextually appropriate.

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3.2.6 Work-based learning

A key element of modern TVET systems is a systematic engagement of employers in all core functions of TVET, including in the delivery of skills through work-based learning, e.g. through apprenticeships. Employers can also contribute to combating exclusion. Stereotypes about gender, disability and ethnicity are strong limiting factors for disadvantaged population groups to access labour market opportunities and to acquire decent work. In TVET systems with strong work-based learning components, there is a risk that these stereotypes persist. On the positive side, employers and their organizations can act as change agents for combating exclusion. Workers' organizations, too, can play a crucial role as advocates for inclusion. In Canada, for example, many unions deliver skills development programmes that are specifically aimed at recruiting indigenous peoples, women, immigrants, and young workers who are facing participation barriers in the job market.[95]

Success factors

✓ Strong systems for cooperation of TVET institutions should be established at macro and local levels with employers and their organizations, which include regular dialogue on inclusion issues.

✓ Capacity building of workplace supervisors, trainers and human resources staff can be effective in promoting inclusion and inclusive practices, and combating prejudices and other discriminatory practices, including sexual harassment.

✓ Involving workers' organizations should be included in dialogue that promotes inclusion, as well as lobby groups.

✓ Informal apprenticeships and on-the-job learning are predominant forms for skill acquisition in Africa and Asia.[96] Both the recognition of apprenticeships in TVET systems and access of disadvantaged groups and women to informal apprenticeships are priority issues for inclusion.

3.2.7 Assessment and certification

Certification of skills has various benefits: i) it sets training standards in relation to national or regional qualification frameworks or systems and labour market demands; ii) it is often a precondition for accessing formal sector employment; iii) it acknowledges that the learner has achieved the expected learning outcome and a qualification recognized in society; and iv) if recognized at national or regional level, it can promote portability of skills.

Recognition of prior learning (RPL) is one approach that can facilitate labour market mobility of persons who acquired their skills

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[95] ILO. *Workers' organizations engaging in skills development*, SKILLS/ACTRAV Policy Brief (Geneva, 2019).

[96] In Ghana, 85 per cent of the youth population is trained in informal apprenticeship compared to 15 per cent in institution-based formal and non-formal TVET. For information on the project SKILL-UP Ghana (Upgrading skills systems to strengthen inclusive trade and economic growth), see https://www.ilo.org/africa/countries-covered/nigeria/WCMS_671372/lang--en/index.htm.

informally or in another country. It is especially applicable for migrants, refugees and workers in the informal economy.

Facilitating vertical progression of the learner to higher qualification levels can also improve inclusion. This should involve connecting non-

formal training with formal certification of competencies. Learners can acquire various sets of skills in short-term courses which can be assessed and certified, and which then can be used as an avenue for obtaining higher level competencies.

Success factors

- ✓ RPL systems must be based on a proper needs assessment, a sound regulatory framework, sustainable financing, inclusive institutional arrangements, quality assurance, and stakeholder engagement and commitment.

- ✓ Access to certification only may not be a sufficient motivation for people to participate and should be coupled with additional incentives, such as access to further training, work permits, occupational licenses, or other (subsidized) services.

- ✓ Assessment and certification for improved progression and modularized courses should not increase costs for learners, or add lengthy bureaucratic procedures.

- ✓ Assessment centres should be accessible.

Only few TVET systems offer informal apprentices and workers which are trained on-the-job the possibility for competency assessment and certification. As a result, many TVET systems exist in parallel to traditional skill systems and other forms of skills acquisition in the labour market. As noted above, for workers in the informal economy without an occupational certification, it is challenging to move to higher-wage formal sector jobs. This is an important element in

upgrading informal apprenticeships, along with cooperative approaches that provide for enrolment in vocational schools and which are parallel to apprenticeships that award formal qualifications upon graduation.[97]

See section 4, case study 6, for a good practice on upgrading the informal apprenticeship system in Benin

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[97]   ILO. *Upgrading informal apprenticeship. A resource guide for Africa: A resource guide for Africa: A resource guide for small industry and community organizations* (Geneva, 2012).

Success criteria for establishing assessment and certification mechanisms that include workers in the informal economy:[98]

Success factors

- National policies should recognize the role of the informal economy in skills training.

- Policy-makers should recognize small industry organizations that can effectively represent the interests of entrepreneurs in policy formulation and in the development of the assessment and certification mechanisms.

- It is beneficial to generate bottom-up and top-down policy formation processes that allow for a balancing of interests between the TVET authorities and the small enterprise sector.

- In order to avoid the exclusion of target groups with low education backgrounds, assessments should focus on practical trade skills rather than generic education content, especially for lower competency levels.

- To establish an effective assessment and certification mechanism, assessors should be recruited from **small industry** and be sufficiently trained to conduct reliable assessments.

3.2.8 Development of TVET personnel

For successful mainstreaming of an inclusion agenda it is necessary to build awareness of inclusion issues at all levels of TVET personnel, including:

- personnel at TVET governance level;
- intermediary level (e.g. institutions responsible for standards and curriculum development);
- managers of TVET institutions;
- teachers and instructors; and
- assessors.

Inclusion is rarely a priority issue in the HRD of TVET personnel. This shortcoming (if existing) must be addressed at policy-level first, e.g. by developing an inclusion-sensitive HRD policy.

In practical terms, an inclusion-sensitive HRD agenda should address the following topics:

- gender-sensitive TVET programme design;
- inclusive, learner-centred methods of teaching and instruction, with a focus on feedback and an effective inclusion of persons with learning difficulties, and creating an inclusive learning environment where diverse groups of learners learn side-by-side and support each other; and
- awareness raising of vocational teachers and instructors on disability issues, e.g. disability-sensitive terminology, accessibility and the provision of reasonable accommodation.

This may require drawing attention of TVET training personnel to:

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[98] ILO. *Assessing skills in the informal economy* (Geneva, 2015).

▶ adapting and further developing curricula and teaching/learning aids for initial training of technical teachers;

▶ integrating inclusion issues into regular refresher courses for TVET personnel; and

▶ designing and offering specific upgrading courses for teaching personnel in specific skills (e.g. sign language interpretation required for teaching inclusion of deaf persons).

The promotion of gender equality requires specific attention to the training and employment of female TVET personnel. Having competent female TVET experts, managers, teachers and instructors – who feel confident to teach in typically male-oriented occupations – can be a game changer towards gender equality. This requires that particular attention be given to the respective gender mainstreaming agenda at all levels of the

TVET system, including HRD practices. The same applies for persons with disabilities or other marginalized groups who may be part of teaching staff.

3.2.9 Monitoring and Evaluation

Section 2.3 presented a framework to measure the level of inclusiveness of any given TVET system. Monitoring systems that regularly track key indicators, and undertake periodic evaluations are important to identify weaknesses in the system, assess what works well, and move forward with any recommendations on how to improve. The participation of members from under-represented groups in the review of monitoring and evaluation data is essential to generate inclusive evaluations that will identify solutions and recommendations that are realistic, appropriate and feasible.

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3.3 Targeted measures

Targeted measures may be required to address a specific situation of exclusion or inequality, such as access barriers that cannot be sufficiently addressed by a universally designed mainstream TVET system. They can also help redress current inequalities and could therefore be designed as temporary measures, until equal access and participation is achieved. Targeted measures may be implemented:

- As an embedded element of universal designs, e.g. having financing mechanisms for marginalized groups that promote inclusion.
- As a complementary but separate measure to mainstream TVET, such as non-formal training programmes addressing specific training needs of target groups and bridging them to formal TVET.
- In the absence of mainstream TVET (e.g. in post-conflict contexts) and utilizing such modalities as mobile training programmes.

3.3.1 Financial mechanisms to improve accessibility

The ILO's Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004 (No. 195) considers that governments have "primary responsibility (...) for education and pre-employment training and for training the unemployed" and recognizes "the role of the social partners in further training, in particular the vital role of employers in providing work experience opportunities". A number of instruments exist to facilitate access to training for disadvantaged individuals.

Training funds are increasingly used as a broad financing mechanism for boosting vocational skills development of a country or region. The funds can be financed through specific taxation mechanisms, training levies contributed by formal sector enterprises and donor contributions. They can be designed as an integral part of a TVET system and can entail funding windows for specific purposes and target groups, e.g. for financing of targeted measures or as an element of a universal design. Skill training funds can be designed as an output-based financing mechanism, i.e. accredited training providers, including private sector enterprises offering in-company training, are reimbursed with a fixed fee per person trained. Some training funds also include job placement. These funds can be used for different types of training measures including enterprise-based training.

Training vouchers can be used as an instrument for a targeted subsidy of TVET measures, accessible for a well-defined target group. Vouchers are provided to individuals while access to the voucher scheme is criteria-based. The voucher recipients are entitled to purchase a training measure. Voucher schemes are supposed to be demand-oriented, i.e. the recipient usually has a free choice to select a training provider, given that the provider is accredited by the voucher scheme. The training voucher may also include accommodation. Voucher schemes can be implemented nationally, but also for selected geographic regions. It is more common that training vouchers are used for further skills upgrading than for initial training. A key challenge of managing a voucher scheme is to ensure a criteria-based and transparent selection of recipients and a proper monitoring system to prevent misuse.[99]

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[99] Bank aus Verantwortung. KFW Group. Vocational training and employment (Frankfurt am Main, 2018).

Scholarships aim to provide low-income groups with better access to training offers. They usually cover direct training costs and sometimes accommodation costs. In contrast to training vouchers, the recipient usually applies for a scholarship either at the institution enrolled or at an independent body with proof of a training contract.

Education and training loans have the same purpose which is to provide individuals from low-income groups with the opportunity to access tertiary education or TVET. In contrast to scholarships (provided as non-refundable grants) loans have to be repaid, usually with low interest rates.

Targeted subsidies such as transport and accommodation allowances may be provided to students/trainees as an incentive for enrolment in training programmes. As in the case of training vouchers and scholarships, the payment of allowances should be transparent and the selection of recipients should be criteria-based.

Performance-based funding concerns either government budgetary funding for TVET providers or co-financing arrangements to mobilize additional resources for TVET. Co-financing arrangements can include public-private partnerships, tax incentives (typically tax credits or tax allowances); payback clauses; vouchers and other grants for individuals or companies; education and training leave; and loans to individuals for continuing education and training.[100] Inclusion can be promoted if schemes include differentiated costs/funding for more vulnerable or under-represented groups.

3.3.2 Targeted programmes for rural areas[101]

In **rural areas**, labour markets have substantially different characteristics as compared to an urban, and usually more formalized economy. In rural contexts, formal sector wage employment is scarce or non-existent, while self-employment and micro-enterprises are the dominant forms of income generation. Community-based training, mobile training or other forms of "outreach programmes" can provide rural target groups with access to skills training measures that are otherwise not accessible due to distance, training duration and costs.

Community-based training[102]

Community-based training targets disadvantaged poor rural communities, indigenous communities and ethnic minorities, especially women and youth. It is aimed at social and economic empowerment and thus starts from an economic opportunity before implementation of a training measure. In practice, this means:
- ▶ Communities are empowered to identify and assess economic opportunities.
- ▶ Skills training is not an isolated activity, but rather linked to business development.
- ▶ Community-based training works with groups rather than individuals.
- ▶ This training is usually embedded in wider rural/community development measures (e.g. as part of an integrated development approach).

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[100] CEDEFOP maintains a database on financing adult learning, see: https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/FinancingAdultLearning/.

[101] ILO. *Skills for rural development.* Brochure (Geneva, 2011).

[102] See ILO. *Rural skills training: A generic manual on training for rural economic empowerment (TREE)* (Geneva, 2009).

Mobile TVET programmes

Mobile TVET programmes consist of training units (trucks, containers, etc.) that can be easily moved from one place to another. It can be designed as a temporary measure (e.g. in post-conflict/disaster rehabilitation phases in which TVET facilities are often dysfunctional) or as a more permanent measure to improve the outreach of TVET to rural areas (see section 3.3.2 above).

Mobile training is usually short-term (not longer than six months) and non-formal. The particular value of this approach is that it brings training offers to the doorsteps of communities which otherwise have very limited or no access. As the mobile approach is flexible in the selection of occupational fields, it has the advantage that programmes can be adjusted to local labour market demands. It is good practice to plan and organize mobile training in close partnership with local governments, community institutions and local micro-, small and medium enterprises. Cooperation with local businesses allows for the application of cooperative training models that can connect the basic skills training conducted in mobile units with that of workplace training/apprenticeships in local enterprises. Mobile training can also be connected to community-based training models.

> **See section 4, case study 9, on training self-employed workers in Mexico during the aftermath of an earthquake**

3.3.3 Post-training support of TVET programmes: Transitions to the labour market

The core mandate of TVET institutions and programmes is to improve employability of their target groups. However, TVET can (and should) play its part in facilitating the transition of their graduates into the labour market, either as an element of universal TVET system design or as a target-group specific measure. Practical experiences and monitoring data collected by projects clearly underline the added value of post-training measures supporting labour market transitions, especially for those individuals and groups that face additional obstacles in the labour market as compared to the majority population. The following measures may be offered, often in combination:

▶ systematic cooperation of the training provider with potential employers/employers' organizations in order to identify employment potentials;

▶ systematic facilitation of internship/workplace exposure during and after the training period, including in cooperation with employers' organizations;

▶ job matching and placement services, e.g. organized by an "employment cell" situated within a TVET institution, or organized, when available, in cooperation with external employment services; and

▶ Counselling for persons looking for jobs and those facing challenges in employment.

When working with groups or individuals who face substantial access barriers to the labour market, post-training support must be tailored to specific needs and must be systematic. This implies:

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- systematic interaction by TVET providers with employers for job placement, showcasing good inclusion examples through social marketing;
- counselling measures that address both graduates and employers;
- linking training with measures that promote social inclusion (e.g. psycho-social counselling, facilitating access to social services, etc.); and
- creating feedback mechanisms that facilitate information flow between training and post-training, aimed at optimizing and further developing training content and post-training measures.

In those contexts where opportunities for wage employment are rare (e.g. rural areas, in the informal economy), TVET institutions have a role in supporting graduates in the process of creating their own enterprises. This includes measures such as:
- integrating practical elements of entrepreneurship learning into the TVET curriculum, e.g. students managing small business projects;

- providing temporary co-working space (e.g. workshop facilities and equipment for rent) for graduates to exercise start-up business projects in a "sheltered" environment;
- sub-contracting services to graduates (within the construction sector through outsourcing small contracts to graduates while the business unit of the TVET institute manages the overall contract);
- linking graduates with micro-, small and medium enterprise support mechanisms and business development services, such as mentoring services, facilitating access to grants or loans, etc.; and
- facilitating the establishment of cooperatives.

In order for the above measures to achieve results, sufficient resources are needed, both financially and in terms of human resources. This means additional investment in staff, e.g. TVET institutions employing a social worker, counsellor or an "inclusion officer" who coordinates specific inclusion activities.

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Specific themes and issues addressed in case studies

▶ ## 4.1   TVET Reform Project in Bangladesh

ILO Project: Increasing the access of persons with disabilities and women with low levels of education to skills development programmes in Bangladesh (TVET-R)[106]

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Context: The ILO's TVET Reform Project in Bangladesh (TVET-R) is an initiative of the Bangladesh Government, financially supported by the EU, and aimed at supporting Bangladesh's competitiveness in the global markets. By setting up an educational policy framework focused on TVET, the programme aims at ensuring that vocational training system in Bangladesh is of high quality, inclusive, up to international standards, and relevant to the needs of the labour market.[103]

Why: With regard to the inclusion of persons with disabilities in training and employment, Bangladesh has been one of the pioneering countries in the ratification of the UN's Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). There is awareness within the Government that, in order to alleviate poverty, more people

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[103] For more information on ILO's TVET-R work in Bangladesh, see: https://www.ilo.org/dhaka/Whatwedo/ Projects/WCMS_106485/lang--en/index.htm.

need access to both formal and non-formal skills development. The reform efforts have therefore focused on enabling the access of underprivileged groups to vocational training.

What: A successful training model was launched in the city of Gazipur with the Centre for Rehabilitation of the Paralyzed (CRP) of Bangladesh in order to train people with disabilities to use sewing machines, with the aim to help them acquire technical competencies for becoming multi-skilled workers in the ready-made garment (RMG) sector. The RMG industry is one of the biggest sectors in the export market in Bangladesh and a rapidly growing sector. Approximately 4.5 million workers are employed in the industry in Bangladesh, of which an estimated 80 per cent are women.

How: As a first step, extensive consultations with government training institutions, private organizations and disability-focused organizations identified the export-oriented RMG sector as a potential provider of employment opportunities for persons with disabilities and vulnerable women. The project's management contacted interested government and industry partners willing to commit themselves to the project's goals and focusing on developing a sustainable model that could be replicated by other industries. Extensive analysis was carried out both at the training centre and RMG factories before procuring the reasonable adjustments needed to accommodate persons with disabilities. Quality learning material and assessments were elaborated and instructors from the pilot-course received training in competency-based training and assessment (CBT&A) methodology. The programme outline consisted in an off-the job training and formative assessment over a four-month period. This was followed by eight months on-the-job training, with regular monitoring of the trainee's skills achievements, with the ultimate goal of offering the possibility of obtaining a formal National Technical and Vocational Qualification Framework (NTVQF) Certificate. The course also included extracurricular and leisure activities aimed at building a sense of community among trainees.

Overall, the project proved that including persons with disabilities can significantly help fill the lack of skilled local workers. For instance, the industry showed interest in recruiting persons with disabilities, not only for corporate social responsibility purposes, but also because it made good business sense. For instance, the Bangladesh Employers Federation, with ILO support, established the Bangladesh Business and Disability Network (BBDN) in 2016, a voluntary group of representatives from business, non-governmental and disabled peoples' organizations. The BBDN's primary purpose is helping people with disabilities find decent work and to encourage employers to recruit staff with disabilities.

The pilot-course demonstrated that an existing CBT&A programme can be reasonably adjusted to include persons with disabilities and underprivileged trainees – allowing them to be mainstreamed into TVET programmes and gain formal TVET qualifications. The project also demonstrated that a specialized training centre that traditionally catered for persons with disabilities, was also able to train them to industry-approved standards equivalent to other formal national qualifications.

The training course had a positive impact on beneficiaries, including on their confidence in advocating for disability awareness and on their self-reliance. The CRP training centre in Gazipur significantly strengthened its partnership with concerned industries. The development of these links is an essential feature for the subsequent successful transition of trainees into employment. The pilot RMG Sewing Machine Scheme demonstrated that a collaborative partnership between the Government and the private sector for the inclusion of traditionally under-represented social groups into demand-driven skills development programmes can have a significant positive impact for social inclusion and poverty reduction.

4.2 Gender mainstreaming in training institutions in Central America

ILO Project: Formación, Orientación e Inserción Laboral (FOIL), 2015-2010[104]

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Context: The *Instituto Nacional de Aprendizaje* (INA) in Costa Rica is the first vocational training institution to have implemented a gender mainstreaming strategy in Central America. For the past 30 years, the INA has attempted to incorporate a gender approach in its TVET System, through short, medium and long-term actions aimed at achieving equitable participation in training processes.

Why: Promoting gender equality in the access to and the completion of vocational training contributes to resolving occupational segregation in the Costa Rican labour market. As stated by the INA, through active policies, vocational training institutions can promote the participation of women and men in non-traditional programmes and

[104] For more information on the FOIL project, see https://www.ilo.org/sanjose/programas-y-proyectos/formacion-orientacion-insercion-laboral/lang--es/index.htm.

guarantee that these women succeed in completing their studies without any form of discrimination.

What: In 2010, the institution carried out a comprehensive in-house gender analysis, with the objective of improving the employability of women in Costa Rica. The study included a gender analysis of the institution's structure and procedures, as well as a gender diagnosis of the Costa Rican labour market and of training services provided to the public.

How: The INA collected both quantitative and qualitative data, such as statistics related to the labour market and in-depth interviews with representatives of different sectors (INA students, companies, universities, schools, state institutions, community organizations and local governments).

The findings of the analysis showed that:
▶ participation of women in INA training mirrors gender segregation of occupations in the labour market;
▶ segregation in the labour market is, among other reasons, a result of the discriminatory educational, technical and academic context in Costa Rica;
▶ training programmes with high female participation often corresponded to lower productivity, lower-paid and lower-status jobs; and
▶ drop-out rates for women were higher in programmes where women were under-represented.

Following the set of recommendations proposed by this diagnostic, INA and other national institutions, in collaboration with the Spanish-funded FOIL project (Formación, Orientación e Inserción Laboral), developed a gender policy for INA. In March 2013, the Gender Equality Policy and Action Plan were launched at a national forum. The policy is planned to be implemented over a period of ten years, with two action plans for each five-year period, and aimed at addressing discriminatory practices both at the INA and in the transition to the labour market.

The 2013–17 Action Plan established six strategic objectives:

▶ Promotion and access of women and men to non-traditional occupations;
▶ Retention and graduation of female and male students in the INA under conditions of equality;
▶ Gender balance among INA workers;
▶ Equality of conditions between women and men in employment opportunities and in the development of business initiatives;
▶ Producing and disseminating information and research suitable for decision-making on equality in the INA and the monitoring of the Gender Equality Policy; and

▶ Follow-up of the INA Gender Equality Policy.[105]

As a result of the success of this reform in Costa Rica, the approach was shared with other national training institutions in Central America that collaborate in a network of training institutions, the *Red de Institutos de Formación Profesional (RedIFP) de Centroamérica, Panamá, República Dominicana y Haití*. Seven countries of Central America (Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama) subsequently conducted similar diagnostic studies and formulated recommendations to enhance gender equality in TVET in their respective countries. The RedIFP has attained a solid basis for promoting change within their institutions and for enhanced social impact beyond training institutions. The presence of business representatives and union organizations in the RedIFP Boards of Directors has proven to be a successful factor for raising awareness among companies on the need to identify and eliminate gender discrimination in training, employment and occupational choice.

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[105] The construction of the policy and its Plan of Action was made possible thanks to the technical support of the ILO and the FOIL Project. It also had the support of the National Institute for Women, the Institutional Commission for Gender Equality Policy and the Gender Equality and Equality Advisory of the INA. Please see: http://www.ina.ac.cr/asesoria_genero/politica_igualdad_genero_ina.pdf.

▶ ## 4.3   Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) for Syrian refugees in Jordan

ILO Project: Formalizing access to the legal labour market through Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) and certification for Syrians and Jordanians working in the construction, confectionary and garment sectors, Sept 2017–Sept 2018.[106]

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Context: By January 2016, the number of registered Syrian refugees in Jordan exceeded 630,000, an estimated 10 per cent of Jordan's native resident population.

Why: In the ordeal of escaping from Syria, many refugees reached Jordan without their qualification certificates, leaving them with the option of finding jobs only in the informal economy, often under difficult conditions. This phenomenon has been identified as contributing to the segmentation of the Jordanian labour market, with broader negative effects for wages and working conditions, both for Syrian and Jordanian workers. In addition, many unskilled migrant workers are required to have

[106] For more information on the RPL Syrian project, please see: https://www.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_645874/lang--en/index.htm.

an in-country sponsor who is responsible for their visa and legal status, a common practice in MENA[107] countries associated with human rights abuses and bonded labour.

What: Against this backdrop, the ILO, worked in close collaboration with the Jordanian Centre for Accreditation Quality Assurance (CAQA) and with funds from the US Department of State and the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office. The core objective was to provide access to formal employment and decent working conditions for Syrian and Jordanian workers through a Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) programme. The RPL process gives credits for competencies gained through previous learning, other training, and work or life experience against competencies defined by the National Training and Vocational Qualifications Framework. The RPL project focused on the construction, confectionary and garment sectors, identified by the ILO and the CAQA as priority sectors for intervention.

How: The training scheme included four full-day sessions over a month, and delivered on Fridays, which is the weekend in Jordan. Activities aimed at upgrading the technical skills of beneficiaries in their area of expertise, with the training provided by a locally recognized training institution, and covering topics related to trade-specific content, occupational safety and health and basic labour rights. The project had a specific focus on gender issues, supported access of Jordanian and Syrian refugee women to formal skills testing, and on-the-job training in the confectionary and garment sectors. After passing a final examination, the beneficiary is entitled to a Formal Skills Certificate recognizing their prior and updated learning. The certificate is granted by CAQA and provides access to a formal work permit, allowing for the legalization of the worker's status. After obtaining certification, some of the most qualified workers become trainers themselves through an ILO Training of Trainers (ToT) programme.

The positive outcomes of the project demonstrated that RPL presents a potentially significant tool for labour market actors, particularly for the social inclusion of migrants. The programme involved around 8,700 workers in the construction sector, and around 1,200 workers in the manufacturing sector who received an RPL certificate and subsequently a work permit. The scheme helped employers to match workers' skills to job opportunities and further contributed to greater professional recognition of Syrian refugee workers by employers. After registering with the Government of Jordan and the General Federation of Jordanian Trade Unions (GFJTU), refugee workers established a committee for refugees and migrants and reinforced the wage bargaining process with employers. An estimated 30 RPL graduates passed a ToT programme and have been contracted by the Jordan Construction Contractors

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[107] MENA, also known as MENAP, is an English-language acronym referring to the Middle East, North Africa, Afghanistan, and Pakistan, which corresponds to the Greater Middle East.

Association (JCCA) as trainers to facilitate RPL certification for 500 beneficiaries. An ILO study found out that the Syrian refugees who had a work permit earned more than those without one. A survey conducted by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), UNICEF and UNHCR confirmed this finding and reported that 76 per cent of the households with a work permit improved their sense of security and their social and economic conditions (ODI, UNICEF and UNHCR, 2017). Due to the beneficial impact of the project, the Government of Jordan is further interested in continuing scaling up this approach, which is directly in line with the Jordanian commitment to the Jordan Compact.[108]

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[108] During the London Conference (2016), the Government of Jordan signed the Jordan Compact and agreed to boost employment and accommodate Syrian refugees into the labour market with 200,000 jobs for Syrian refugees in return for improved access to the European market, increased investment and soft loans.

4.4 Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE)

ILO Project: Improving rural skills and employment opportunities in the Philippines: Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE), Jan 2003–Oct 2007[109]

© ILO

Context: The ILO's TREE programme in the post-conflict zone of the Philippines – the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) – was funded by the US Department of Labor, Bureau of International Affair (USDOL/LAB). It promoted income generation and local development for the impoverished rural communities in Mindanao region. The project focused on the role of skills and knowledge in creating new, sustained economic and employment opportunities in rural areas.

Why: Access to education and training in rural areas is often limited by financial barriers (e.g. training and transportation costs) and non-financial barriers (e.g. scarce education and training infrastructure, inflexible training schedules). The lack of access

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[109] For more information on the TREE project, see https://www.ilo.org/manila/projects/WCMS_125355/lang--en/index.htm; and an example of further project work on TREE methodology at https://www.ilo.org/islamabad/whatwedo/projects/WCMS_143156/lang--en/index.htm.

to quality education and training opportunities tends to limit employment options to subsistence farming or low-wage, non-farm employment.

What: The ILO's Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE) is a community-based training methodology promoting local economic development. TREE aims at supporting access to job opportunities for poor and marginalized groups that are not served by any formal or non-formal training system. The project's methodology was tested in technical cooperation projects in more than 20 countries in Africa and Asia, and it has continued to build on ILO's long-standing experience in linking training directly to community-determined economic opportunities, ensuring that the skills delivered are relevant to a specific local context. The TREE methodology applies a systematic participatory identification of potential income-generating opportunities followed by programme design, delivery of training and post-training support mechanisms. The result is a tailor-made proposal that can be delivered by training providers from the communities, by vocational training centres or by the hiring companies themselves. One of the successful features of the TREE methodology is that it provides tools for the capacity building of national and local employment and training organizations. The TREE approach also initiates tripartite arrangements among partners and supporting institutions, with a view to expanding and sustaining the local economic system.[110]

How: Since its inception, the TREE methodology has continued to be implemented in partnership with five ARMM regions, government agencies and three NGOs. The training system has provided an opportunity of self-employment and revenues for marginalized groups in the fields of agriculture, fishery, tourism, commerce and local transportation. The project is composed of six elements:

1. Community assessment planning: the identification of rural economic opportunities and needs; organizing economic and enterprise projects in collaboration with targeted rural communities; and preparation of project or training proposals;
2. Provision of skills training and transition enterprise development;[111]
3. Implementation of transition enterprise plans;[112]
4. Organizing trainees into corporate community groups (CCGs);[113]

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[110] See ILO. Rural skills training: A generic manual on training for rural economic empowerment (TREE) (Geneva, 2009).

[111] The transition enterprises are designed to introduce basic corporate concepts such as strategic time frames, markets, production, financing, and operations management. The objective is to initiate the target groups into the world of entrepreneurship through actual practice.

[112] The target groups are given the opportunity of choosing whether to remain participating in a small rural economy that will be energized through the TREE Project, or to join and compete with the formal economic sector.

[113] The Corporate Community Groups (CCGs) are small groups of poor people organized with corporate personality, trained, oriented, and committed to social and economic development as a tool to fight poverty.

5. Installing a Community Fund[114] and a Community Enterprise System,[115] as well as training CCG on the latter; and
6. Linking target groups with the formal economic sector (management and skills upgrading; expanding individual and group enterprise projects; and participation in community development.

According to the National Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA), the TREE project in the Mindanao region was successful in addressing unemployment in one of the poorest regions of the Philippines affected by decades of conflict. Data from 2011 indicated that, 95 per cent of the beneficiaries increased their average monthly income by 105 per cent. The Technical Education and Skills Development Authority in the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (TESDA-ARMM) is continuously implementing the TREE tools and methodology. Almost all TESDA-registered vocational training institutions in the ARMM and nearby regions in Mindanao (totalling more than 300) are now using tools and training packages developed under the TREE project and approved by the training authority. Many TREE tools are still being used by the local communities as planning instruments for local development programmes.

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[114] The Community Fund or Co-Fund is a microfinance facility and scheme that is owned and managed by a CCG to power a community enterprise system.

[115] The Community Enterprise System is a mini economic system, owned and managed by a CCG, powered by a Community-owned Fund or CoFund, and catalysed by a structured methodology on training, enterprise development, organizing, and linking with the formal sector.

4.5   Creating space for addressing homophobia in TVET colleges in South Africa[116]

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Context: South Africa's Constitutional provisions state that no person should be discriminated because of his/her sexual orientation. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transsexual and intersexual persons (LGBTIs) are therefore recognized as individuals enjoying equal rights like any other citizen. However, persistent prejudices, homophobic behaviours and victimization of LGBTIs are still widespread within South African society.

Why: Different studies have found both prevalent and under-reported cases of homophobia in educational institutions. This oppressive and discriminatory environment, powered by deeply rooted cultural and religious beliefs, created a major problem for the social and emotional well-being of LGBTI persons, who often must renounce enrolment in an educational institution. Concerned by these alarming trends, two researchers from the Durban University of Technology have been

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[116] For more information on this project, see: https://www.journals.ac.za/index.php/sajhe/article/view/977/1610.

advocating for interventions that could challenge and reduce homophobia among college students. In 2014, they started exploring a more inclusive pedagogy that could address the stigmatization and discrimination of LGBTIs. Most of the research on homophobia in higher education focused mainly on traditional universities; the researchers decided to implement their study and proposed interventions in a TVET college.

What: With the purpose of creating a safer space and a more inclusive environment, their intervention focused on a participatory method consisting in sensitizing students to the social and psychological effects of homophobia through films and transformative pedagogy on college campuses. The initiative was sponsored by the Higher Education HIV/AIDS Programme of South Africa, with the financial support of the Global Fund.

How: The programme involved twenty newly formed peer educators and one lecturer from the TVET college of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The participants attended five extra-curricular workshops of seven hours each. The first session was dedicated to an exchange of personal views, approaches and experience toward eliminating homophobia. The researchers encouraged confidence building among participants by agreeing on a set of shared values such as confidentiality and non-judgment. During sessions two and three, students watched two films tackling the theme of sexual identity, homophobia and freedom in sexual preference. The two films shaped the discussion of sessions four and five, during which students were given the chance to exchange their ideas in relation to their own past experiences of the perpetration of homophobia.

According to the researchers, the movies proved to be an effective medium, capable of providing a deeper understanding of the personal experiences faced by people with different sexuality or gender identity. The first film was based on the real-life story of a transgender man and her need to hide her identity because of fear of rejection. The second movie was based on the true-story of a man who was HIV-positive (diagnosed in the mid-80s, when the disease was not understood) and his experience with the highly stigmatized anti-homosexual conditions of society. The visual discourse developed in the film provides powerful messages that can help to deconstruct prejudices and bring about positive change. In addition, the transformative pedagogy[117] used during the discussion (i.e. play, poetry, drawing and focus groups), was used as a method for empowering participants and developing creative and critical thinking on this issue. The transformative pedagogy also allowed for mutual

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[117] Transformative pedagogy is defined as an activist pedagogy combining the elements of constructivist and critical pedagogy that empowers students to examine critically their beliefs, values, and knowledge with the goal of developing a reflective knowledge base, an appreciation for multiple perspectives, and a sense of critical consciousness and agency.

learning between educators and students. Overall, the programme enabled students to question and evaluate their beliefs on and attitudes toward homophobia. The programme's outcome included a self-assessment of the participants' role as peer learner in addressing homophobia and identifying strategies for a more LGBTI-inclusive environment in their institutions and communities. It proved to be important in creating and maintaining a platform for engagement through which students can exchange their views on LGBTI persons. Such exchanges help raise awareness of one's own potential in contributing to the perpetuation of this type of discrimination.

▶ 4.6 Upgrading the informal apprenticeship system in Benin

Upgrading the informal apprenticeship system in Benin by combining bottom-up and top-down policies through the Certificate of Qualification for Trades (CQM)[118]

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Context: Having acknowledged the potential of informal apprenticeship for strengthening the national skills base, the government of Benin put in place certain provisions for modernizing and upgrading Benin's informal training system.

Why: Informal apprenticeship represents a widespread training system in many urban and rural economies. In Africa and Asia, it is considered the predominant source of skills training. Yet, only few countries emphasize and acknowledge informal apprenticeship in their official training policies. Due to the limited capacity of formal training systems and due to the growing number of school dropouts seeking skills training, policy-makers' attention in many Asian and African countries is increasingly shifting towards making an effective use of the informal apprenticeship's potential.

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[118] For more information on the project, please see: https://www.ilo.org/skills/projects/WCMS_158771/lang--en/index.htm; https://www.inap.uni-bremen.de/dl/inap%20conference%20proceedings%202013.pdf; and http://www.adeanet.org/sites/default/files/continuum_compendium_2017_fr_29.12.2017.pdf.

This is in line with the ILO position on this matter, according to which upgrading of existing informal training could bring considerable positive results to help young people find decent work. This upgrading is expected to contribute to the development of more dynamic economies and maximize the potential of well-established traditional know-how transfer practices.

What: In 2013, the Benin Government introduced a nationally recognized certificate, the Certificate of Qualification for Trades (CQM), obtainable by a trainee after completion of a renovated informal apprenticeship scheme. This becomes a means of providing an official, regulated programme that can be included in the strategic planning of the formal education and training sector.

How: The upgrading of the informal apprenticeship system in Benin was implemented though a combination of top-down and bottom-up policies. Before the implementation of the CQM, provincial governments had already concluded agreements with local craft associations in order to organize biannual, joint, practical end-of-apprenticeship assessments. These agreements were made possible thanks to the strong reach of Benin's Crafts Federation (FENAB). The examination process is managed at the local level under the supervision of departmental and national supervision structures. These assessments are mostly practical, conducted and verified by independent members of the association, and lead to certificates issued by the federation.

Since 2013, the certificate is considered a formalized CQM. The scheme is structured in a decentralized manner involving national, departmental and local actors. The objective is to give the opportunity to lower-educated apprentices to obtain a recognition validated by the State, as well as setting minimum requirements for certificates awarded by a master craftsman. Most CQM candidates are young people who have dropped out of school or have no education, who are at least 16 years of age, as well as those who might be working already in the informal sector seeking further training. The apprenticeship is exclusively practical and takes place at the businesses of master crafts persons. The duration of the training varies according to the type of trade and is determined by the craft persons' association. The CQM sanctions the recognition of professional skills acquired by the apprentice for a specific trade. These certificates are now recognized nationally and help their holders to find jobs in the formal labour market. The CQM training was first implemented in 2013 in seven departments. In 2017, the scheme was expanded to the remaining five departments. Overall, the support of different technical and financial partners and state and non-state actors has ensured the success of the programme.

The CQM diploma constitutes a first level of access to an artisanal profession, allowing the apprentice to become a junior craftsman, requiring no other training

than that provided by the master. The certificate represents a valid alternative to other local, lower-standard practices. Furthermore, it allows marginalized youths to acquire a state-recognized certificate, as well as some personal recognition through announcements of the student's achievement on local radio news. The first experimental edition of the CQM examination took place in 2013. Even though the CQM scheme still required improvements, the statistics between 2013 and 2016 indicated there were remarkable increases in the enrolments of apprentices, with a high percentage of admissions from 2013 to 2015. Out of a total of 19,260 learners registered to take the CQM between 2013 and 2016, 17,028 were admitted, comprising 11,985 girls and 5,043 boys.

▶ 4.7 TVET e-tools and e-learning: Indigenous people in Australia

The potential of e-tools and e-learning for TVET: The case of indigenous people in Australia[119]

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Context: In countries having a distinct native population, research has exposed a persistent and consistent gap between indigenous people and the rest of the population as regards their access, retention and achievements in education and training. Many indigenous communities live in remote areas where access to education and training is difficult. In general, their native languages and other cultural needs are not taken into account in educational material and textbooks.

Why: It is in this context that, in the past few years, the Australian Flexible Learning Framework (AFLF) has financially supported numerous projects focusing on innovative information and communication technologies (ICT) tools for the development of learning spaces, resources and networks for indigenous people. In particular, e-tools

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[119] For more information please see: https://novaojs.newcastle.edu.au/ojs/index.php/kulumun/article/viewFile/53/39.

and e-learning[120] have been introduced as a mode of delivering distance education to remote indigenous communities.

What: Through AFLF projects, indigenous communities benefited from customized e-learning methods that preserved the community's organizational and pedagogical characteristics.

How: The project supported the development of a training plan within indigenous enterprises and organizations. Some participants became trainers and assessors in their own enterprise, and were charged with teaching and encouraging staff to create an e-portfolio on their previous learning and current competencies (i.e. using digital photographs, videos, stories, networks). These e-portfolios were examined by the assessors, who then identified gaps and needs for further training. Among other achievements, the use of e-tools and technologies for recognizing existing knowledge and competencies in indigenous enterprises allowed for the creation of successful and customized online applications for RPL and training plans in line with the communities' aspirations. By integrating indigenous community knowledge in the delivery of the TVET programmes, the strategy ensured that community aspirations were embedded in the training. All trainings were taught by indigenous trainers to ensure content quality and that learning relationships were sensitive and respectful to indigenous cultures.

AFLF financed a project in partnership with two regional and remote Registered Training Organizations (RTO) colleges. With the objective of further enhancing the participation of indigenous students in passing the Certificate in Horticulture, two colleges customized the already existing e-learning *Horticulture Flexible Learning Toolbox*. The customized version included a bilingual, as well as an audio, option for facilitating learning for students with low literacy. The tool provided interactive features and focused on locally-based learning content (for example, modules on local vegetation). The colleges published a customized guide of the learning programme (available in CD-ROM or online), which allowed other RTO colleges to use the guide and tailor it according to their community language, culture and needs.

Being aware of the particular barriers in accessing ICT, researchers found that existing and emerging technologies such as e-learning and e-portfolios can be powerful tools that enhance and validate learning, support engagement in formal lifelong learning and create pathways to the labour market. The ability to customize the training to specific contexts, through electronic resources, makes it particularly valuable for indigenous learners. The potential of such tools comes hand in hand with successful partnership between indigenous community members, indigenous trainers, industry, registered training organizations and local support groups.

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[120] E-learning allows for individuals to learn from distance at any time, as long as access to the equipment required for the learning process is available. It can be internet based, CD-ROM, and network-based and includes videos, texts, virtual environments, and animations.

▶ 4.8 Social inclusion, employability training and HIV/AIDS in East and Southern Africa

Fostering social inclusion through employability training: The response to HIV and AIDS in East and Southern Africa[121]

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Context: In many countries, high poverty rates, gender disparities and social marginalization continue to pose major challenges for the prevention of HIV and for alleviating the conditions of people living with HIV/AIDS. According to UNAIDS, two thirds of the world's population affected by AIDS live in sub-Saharan Africa; more than half of them are women.[122]

Why: Gender, social and economic inequalities often force women in these regions to engage in survival strategies, including sex for money. These women are therefore exposed to a much higher risk of contracting HIV and other sexually transmitted

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[121] For further information on these interventions, please see: https://www.ilo.org/aids/Publications/WCMS_456923/lang--en/index.htm.

[122] UNAIDS. *Global HIV and AIDS statistics – Fact Sheet* (Geneva, 2019).

infections. In East and Southern Africa, particularly high rates of HIV are found along transport routes and cross-border areas, where truck drivers, migrants and other mobile workers interact with poor and vulnerable women. Once the virus is contracted, poor living conditions, low access to health care, social stigma, and marginalization from family and community increase the person's hardship.

What: Traditional HIV/AIDS awareness policies were complemented with specific measures for supporting the economic empowerment of women and men through facilitating access to economic services, skills and income-generating opportunities. An *Economic Empowerment Approach* was implemented by the ILO, with funding and support by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), between 2011 and 2014 in six countries of East and Southern Africa (Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe).[123] The targeted beneficiaries were people living in poor communities, mostly workers in the informal sector, located around selected transport corridors and border areas.

How: In addition to raising HIV awareness, the approach fostered local business activities and provided mentoring and support. This included the provision of business development training programmes targeted at local communities and business organizations aiming to improve commercial skills and knowledge of business practices, while at the same time helping beneficiaries learn how to boost productivity and better manage money. Peer education, short trainings and mentoring in business development, gender equality and HIV risk-reduction strategies were used along with health-related awareness activities.

Through the provision of technical and entrepreneurship skills and gender equality awareness, the economic empowerment approach had a direct impact on HIV risk behavior and the health of vulnerable communities in the targeted areas, involving over 11,000 beneficiaries. Moreover, stakeholders and partners involved in the project replicated the approach on their own initiative, reaching over 88,000 women and men. As a result, the enhanced socio-economic status of beneficiaries had a direct impact on making informed choices related to engaging in risky sexual practices. A survey reported that the proportion of beneficiaries who adopted HIV risk-reduction strategies increased from 39 per cent (baseline in 2011) to 81 per cent in 2015. Beneficiaries also demonstrated a higher average monthly spending on health care, food, nutrition and education, which contributed to the reduction of the progression of HIV to AIDS, helping individuals live a healthier life.

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[123] The approach has been implemented in the context of the Corridor Economic Empowerment Project (CEEP).

▶ 4.9 Learning by doing: Training self-employed workers outside of formal TVET in Mexico

ILO project: Learning by doing: Training self-employed workers outside of formal TVET to assist the supervision of post-earthquake reconstruction processes in Mexico

© ILO

Context: This project formed part of the ILO's response to the earthquake that occurred on 7 September 2017, and the subsequent aftershocks in the states of Chiapas and Oaxaca. The earthquake affected an estimated 1.5 million people and left around 60,000 homes damaged. At the request of the Mexican Secretariat of Labour and Social Welfare, and through ILO's Employment- Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP),[124] technical assistance was provided for local capacity building to support reconstruction processes and income-generating activities in affected communities.

Why: A central aspect in addressing the aftermath of earthquakes relates to the security of buildings and more fundamentally, the security of their inhabitants. There were many buildings with structural problems that were not attributed to design

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[124] For more information on ILO's work on this project, see https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_policy/---invest/documents/publication/wcms_735080.pdf.

or material deficiencies but were the result of poor or absent supervision during construction. The reconstruction programme implemented by the Mexican federal and state authorities, therefore, included training in self-construction and involved community masons. However, as self-employed workers in the informal economy, many of the masons and construction workers were unfamiliar with official standards and technical aspects required to carry out quality construction. Therefore, a priority was given to finding ways to facilitate the training of community members with no access to formal TVET, which was essential to ensure quality reconstruction and enhance skills of workers with a view to facilitating transitions out of informality.

What: Through the EIIP, the ILO developed the course "Supervision of Reconstruction Works through Assisted Self-Construction Processes with a Participatory Approach". The participants contributing to the course included members of the College of Professional Women of the Construction Industry (CMPIC), the Revolutionary Confederation of Rural Workers (CROC), the Autonomous University of Chiapas in Architecture and Civil Engineering (UNACH), local authorities, construction foremen and bricklayers, as well as community leaders of three *ejidos*[125] in the municipality of Cintalapa.

How: The training used active and participative learning methods, as well as multi-level and inter-institutional knowledge sharing, with an emphasis on basic tools for adult education. The theoretical/practical course consisted of two different phases. In the theoretical phase, foundations for interdisciplinary teamwork were laid so that the application phase would be enriched through the sharing of knowledge and experience. Participants received basic knowledge about the phenomena of earthquakes, the structural design of a building, the behaviour of soil in relation to earthquakes, the behaviour of tectonic plates, basic technical and regulatory information for the construction of a house, as well as essential preventive, corrective, monitoring and control aspects of supervision. In addition, technical skills, management, organizational and leadership capacities were strengthened.

During the practical activities phase of the course, all of the technical concepts learnt during the first phase were applied. Participants carried out repair and reconstruction work on homes affected by earthquake damage in three communities in the municipality of Cintalapa, and this was accompanied by active participation of professionals, workers and local authorities over an eight-week period.

The delivery of the course resulted in 35 people trained, 31 per cent of whom were women. The objective of capacity building was widely achieved as workers and community members who received the theoretical and practical training in supervision were now able to assist other self-construction processes in the area, while also increasing their employability in the construction industry.

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[125] An *ejido* is an area of communal land used for agriculture in which community members have usufruct rights rather than ownership rights to land, which in Mexico is held by the Mexican state.

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