
Hungary

VET in Europe – Country report

2014

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External factors influencing VET

1.1 Demographics

Hungary has nearly 10 million inhabitants and a territory of 93 030 km² (see Annex 1, Table 1). Approximately 99% of the population speaks Hungarian as their native language (¹). The biggest ethnic group are Hungarians (*magyar*). The largest minority group are Roma (6-7% of the total population), most of whom claim themselves Hungarians. Germans, Croats, Slovaks, Romanians and others comprise less than 2% of the population. The birth rate among Roma, although decreasing in line with general demographic trends, is significantly higher than that of other groups. The share of Roma among school-aged children is also significantly higher than the average and is on the rise. Currently, their share among VET students at ISCED 353 level is around one quarter. The drop out rate among Roma students is higher than on average as many are from socially disadvantaged families. Therefore they have priority for receiving public scholarships and support of labour market programmes. Since 1981, due to low birth rates and relatively high mortality rates, the population has been decreasing. In line with European trends, the population is also ageing. The number of, both, young people below 25 and the working-age population (25-64) are falling, while the number of people aged 65+ is on the rise (see Annex 1, Table 2). The old age dependency ratio is expected to continue to rise (see Annex 1, Table 3). An increasing share of people over the age of 50 in the working-age population concurs with a declining number of school-aged children. That indicates a further decrease of learners in IVET and an increasing demand for CVET and other forms of adult learning.

To a small extent, immigration has offset the population decline since the early 1990s. Most immigrants are well-qualified Hungarian-speaking citizens from the neighbouring countries. In international comparison their absolute number and proportion is low and declining (especially since Romania joined the EU). Immigration from developing countries is insignificant. Emigration of qualified people – college/university graduates and qualified skilled workers – to Western Europe, however, seems to be accelerating under the sustained crisis.

1.2 Political and socio-economic context

Hungary has been a parliamentary republic since 1989. Its main legislative body is the Parliament, with 197 members, elected for four years. The Parliament elects the President,

(¹) According to the 2011 census data, 98.90% of all respondents described themselves as native Hungarian speakers. Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office.
http://www.ksh.hu/nepszamlalas/docs/tablak/demografia/04_01_01_18.xls

the representative head of the state, and the Prime Minister, the head of the government who has executive power.

For planning and statistical purposes, seven NUTS II level regions were created in 1999 in line with EU requirements. They were subdivided into altogether 175 statistical micro-regions (*kistérség*), i.e. regional development and statistical units based on functional relationships between the settlements. Under the new name of districts (*járás*), micro-regions have taken on significant public administration functions since 2013, and so have county-level government offices.

Since 2010, the coalition government of Fidesz and KDNP has been in power with a two-thirds majority in the parliament. It has drafted a new constitution and have radically transformed the ways in which the state and its subsystems – including education and VET – function. At the end of 2011 a new Public Education ⁽²⁾ Act, a new Higher Education Act and a new VET Act, in 2013 a new Adult Training Act were passed. The previously decentralised education system has become centralised. In January 2013, all schools previously maintained by local or county governments were taken over by the state (see section 2.2). With regard to VET, the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*, MKIK) has come to play a dominant role in the shaping of vocational education and training (VET), with significant influence on public and higher education policy as well.

The Hungarian GDP of 2013 is 4.2 percentage points lower than it was in 2008 ⁽³⁾, and the amount of per capita real income decreased by 1.4% in the same period. ⁽⁴⁾ The sustained crisis has had a negative impact on quality of life, especially among those with low income but also affecting middle-class people.

In 2012, the total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at secondary level of education (ISCED 2-4) was slightly higher in Hungary than in the EU-27 average (see Annex 1, Table 18). However, since 2005, the share of public expenditure (total and per student) for lower and upper-secondary education has been decreasing ⁽⁵⁾. The same trend applies also to lower and higher levels of education.

1.3 Educational attainment of the population

Most students (around 98%) complete the eight years of primary school (*általános iskola*, ISCED 100-244) by the age of 16 ⁽⁶⁾. A significant expansion of secondary and tertiary education began in the early 1990s. Initiated primarily by the growing social and economic demand for higher level qualifications, it soon became one of the top priorities of education

⁽²⁾ For public education, see Annex 2 Glossary.

⁽³⁾ http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_qpt001.html

⁽⁴⁾ http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xstadat/xstadat_eves/i_qpt007.html

⁽⁵⁾ Balázs et al., 2011, pp. 113-114.

⁽⁶⁾ The eight years of primary school provide general primary and lower secondary education to students aged 6 to 14.

policy and family aspirations alike. Enrolment in upper secondary schools awarding a secondary school leaving certificate (*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344), the prerequisite for entry into higher education, has grown considerably. Vocational schools (*szakiskola*, SZI, ISCED 353, occasionally 253) ⁽⁷⁾, however, do not offer their students the option of taking the exam. As a result– and because of the lower labour income and social status SZI graduates can expect – vocational schools further lost attractiveness compared to grammar schools and secondary vocational schools (*szakközépiskola*, SZKI) ⁽⁸⁾. While the number of people with tertiary level qualifications has been rising continuously, the share of the working-age population, especially in the 30-34 age cohort, is still lower than in EU-28 (31.9% versus 36.9% in 2012) ⁽⁹⁾, especially among men.

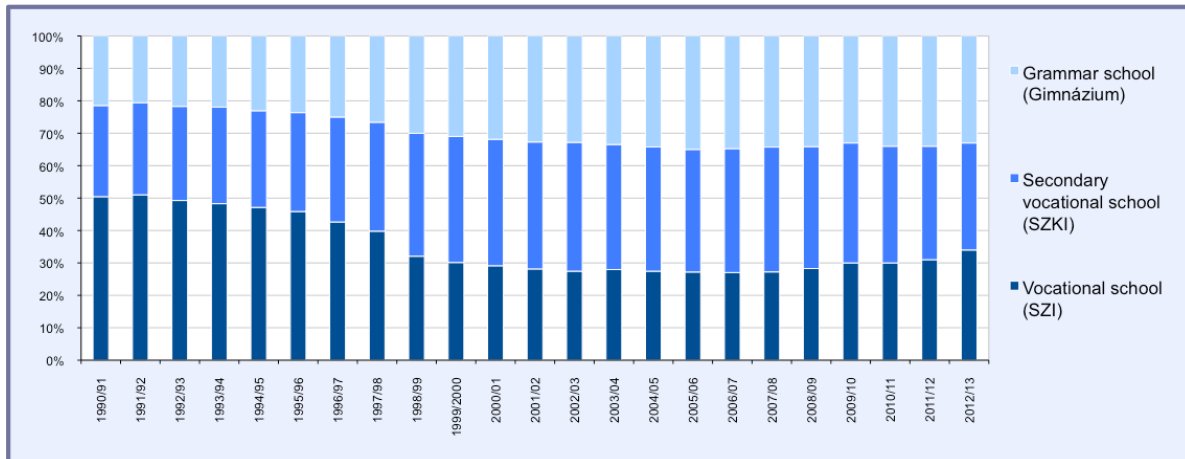
As Figure 1 shows, the share of student enrolment in different types of upper-secondary programmes changed quickly and significantly in the 1990's. On the one hand, interest in programmes that lead to a secondary school leaving certificate – the prerequisite to admission to higher education and thus leading to better jobs and higher salaries – rose sharply; on the other, enrolment in vocational schools that do not award the aforementioned certificate fell markedly. The two trends mutually reinforced each other stabilising by the beginning of the new millennium (currently at more or less equal shares for the three types of programmes). Due to education policy measures, both the share and the number of students opting for vocational schools began to rise from 2007. Government declarations forecast a sharp increase in vocational school enrolment and a sharp decrease in grammar school enrolment.

⁽⁷⁾ See Annex 2 Glossary for further information.

⁽⁸⁾ See Annex 2 Glossary for further information.

⁽⁹⁾ Source: Eurostat database.

Figure 1 Distribution of learners in year 9 by upper secondary programme type, 1990-2013 (%).



NB: For exact figures see Annex 1, Table 4.
 Source: Ministry of Human Resources, 2013.

Similarly to other East-Central European countries, the percentage of the population aged 20 to 24 having completed at least upper secondary education has been permanently higher in Hungary than the EU average (see Annex 1, Table 5), but it has not improved in the past decade. The proportion of young people leaving education and training early practically equals the EU average. However, this is the result of opposing trends in Hungary vis-à-vis other member states. While in 2010 Hungary ranked 12th among the 28 member states, deteriorating figures by 2013 were only enough to earn the 21st place (for more data see Annex 1, Table 6 and Figure 2 below).

Figure 2 Early school leavers in the EU-27 and in Hungary, 2004-2013

Source: Eurostat. Date of extraction: 09-11-2014 ⁽¹⁰⁾

⁽¹⁰⁾ http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=t2020_40

The relatively high rate of early school leavers is a serious problem, particularly in vocational schools (SZI). As research studies confirm, the Hungarian education system has become exceedingly selective and polarised. Disadvantaged students are more likely to end up in vocational schools that are unable to compensate for their drawbacks, and thus produce high drop-out rates contributing to the reproduction of inequalities.

Despite various measures in recent years to increase participation in adult education and training, rates have remained far below the EU average, and trends have not been improving in the last decade (see Annex 1, Table 7). The national target by 2013 – as opposed to the EU targets of 12.5% for 2010 and 15% for 2020 - was 8% ⁽¹¹⁾. However, the actual figure for that year was still only 3%. One of the reasons for these low figures is that adult learning activities mainly attract motivated young and well-educated people. Fewer men take part in lifelong learning (LLL) than women. The gender gap is significantly wider than in other countries ⁽¹²⁾.

1.4 Economy and labour market

Between 1997 and 2006, Hungary's economy had been steadily growing at an annual rate of about 4% real GDP on average. As a result, the GDP per capita increased from less than 50% to 63.6%. However, the growing budget deficit and national debt – combined with austerity measures introduced since late 2006 – halted economic development even before the start of the global financial crisis (see Annex 1, Table 8). The economic crisis is not over as yet in Hungary; however, Eurostat forecasts a 2% growth for 2014 and 2015 alike, which practically equals the EU average ⁽¹³⁾.

The economy is small and open, dominated mainly by micro enterprises (95.1%); the share of small (4.1%) and medium-size (0.7%) enterprises is much lower. (Annex 1, Table 9). In 2012, SMEs employed 73.1% of the workforce but only produced 55.2% of gross value added. It is primarily large enterprises – particularly foreign companies – that can be credited for economic growth; their contribution to the export activity of the processing industry is also significant.

In 2012, the share of people working in industry is higher than in the EU-27, and lower in market services and non-market services (see Annex 1, Table 10). The government has set the objective to further increase the share of industry, and the planned expansion of vocational training in vocational schools (SZI) is also meant to support that goal. The persisting shortage of properly skilled workers in certain sectors, occupations and regions – combined with inadequate skills – has hampered economic development. Participation in CVET is low and correlates strongly with company size.

⁽¹¹⁾ Target set for the 2007-13 Social Renewal Operational Programme (funded by ESF).

⁽¹²⁾ See <http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xftp/stattukor/felnottkepzes0507.pdf> and <http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xftp/stattukor/felnottoktatas13.pdf> .

⁽¹³⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/economy_finance/publications/european_economy/2014/pdf/ee2_en.pdf
Forecasts for the EU level GDP growth is 1.5% for 2014 and 2% for 2015.

Employment rates are low, especially among the low qualified, disadvantaged, women and elderly. In 2013, only 63.2% of the population aged 20-64 were employed, lagging behind the EU-28 average rate of 68.4%; the employment rate of both men and women is consistently about 5-6 percentage points lower than that of the EU-28 average (see Annex 1, Table 11). The unemployment rate of young people between 15 and 24 years was 3.8 percentage points higher than the EU-27 average in 2013 ⁽¹⁴⁾. Regarding older workers, the gap between Hungary and the EU average is huge. In 2013, their employment rate (37.9%) was more than 10 percentage points lower than the EU-27 average (50.3%). ⁽¹⁵⁾ Low employment figures are accompanied by very high inactivity rates, which are in fact one of the highest in the European Union ⁽¹⁶⁾.

The distribution of employees by main occupational groups is markedly different from the EU-27 average. Significantly less people work in jobs that require a college/university degree but that can be accounted for by the low number of male higher education graduates (while the share of women in skilled non-manual jobs is even a bit higher than the EU-27 average). Moreover, the share of skilled workers in manual jobs is higher in the country than in the EU-27 (for men by 10 percentage points and women by 5 percentage points) (2012, see Annex 1, Table 12).

Labour market activity and success are still more closely linked to educational attainment than in most developed countries. In comparison with other OECD countries, for example, the relative earning advantage of higher education graduates over the average employment income of those with ISCED 3 qualifications was 208% in 2012. The European average is 159% (see Annex 1, Table 13). However, the relative earning disadvantage of ISCED 0-2 practically equals the European average (78% and 79%, respectively).

In general, high rewards are attached to educational attainment in the labour market. People with a secondary school leaving certificate (*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344) earn considerably more than those with lower qualifications. Vocational qualifications have a much more modest return in Hungary ⁽¹⁷⁾. That is, the labour market, unlike in most developed countries, is not only divided by levels of educational attainment but also shows sharp divisions within the ISCED 3-4 level. Since 2000 these differences have not decreased in international comparison (see Annex 1, Table 14).

Employment rates show strong correlation with both educational attainment and age. The labour market integration of early school leavers is a serious problem, even in comparison with other EU member states (see Annex 1, Table 15).

Unemployment rates were on the rise between 2007 and 2010, but data show a slow improvement from 2011. Youth unemployment is higher than the EU average (2013: 27.2%

⁽¹⁴⁾ [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/File:Youth_unemployment,_2013Q4_\(%25\).png](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/File:Youth_unemployment,_2013Q4_(%25).png)

⁽¹⁵⁾ <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsdde100>

⁽¹⁶⁾ http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfqs_ipga&lang=en

⁽¹⁷⁾ Kézdi et al. 2008.

15-24 year-olds versus 23.5% respectively) ⁽¹⁸⁾, and particularly high among those with the lowest level of educational attainment (ISCED 0-2, see Annex 1 Table 16). Unemployment rates have increased in every ISCED group between 2005 and 2010, and decreased since 2011 in most ISCED / educational attainment category (see Annex 1, Tables 16 and 17). In comparison with the EU average, unemployment rates in 2012 were higher in Hungary for the low qualified, equal in the medium category, and more favourable regarding those with a degree (see Annex 1 Table 16).

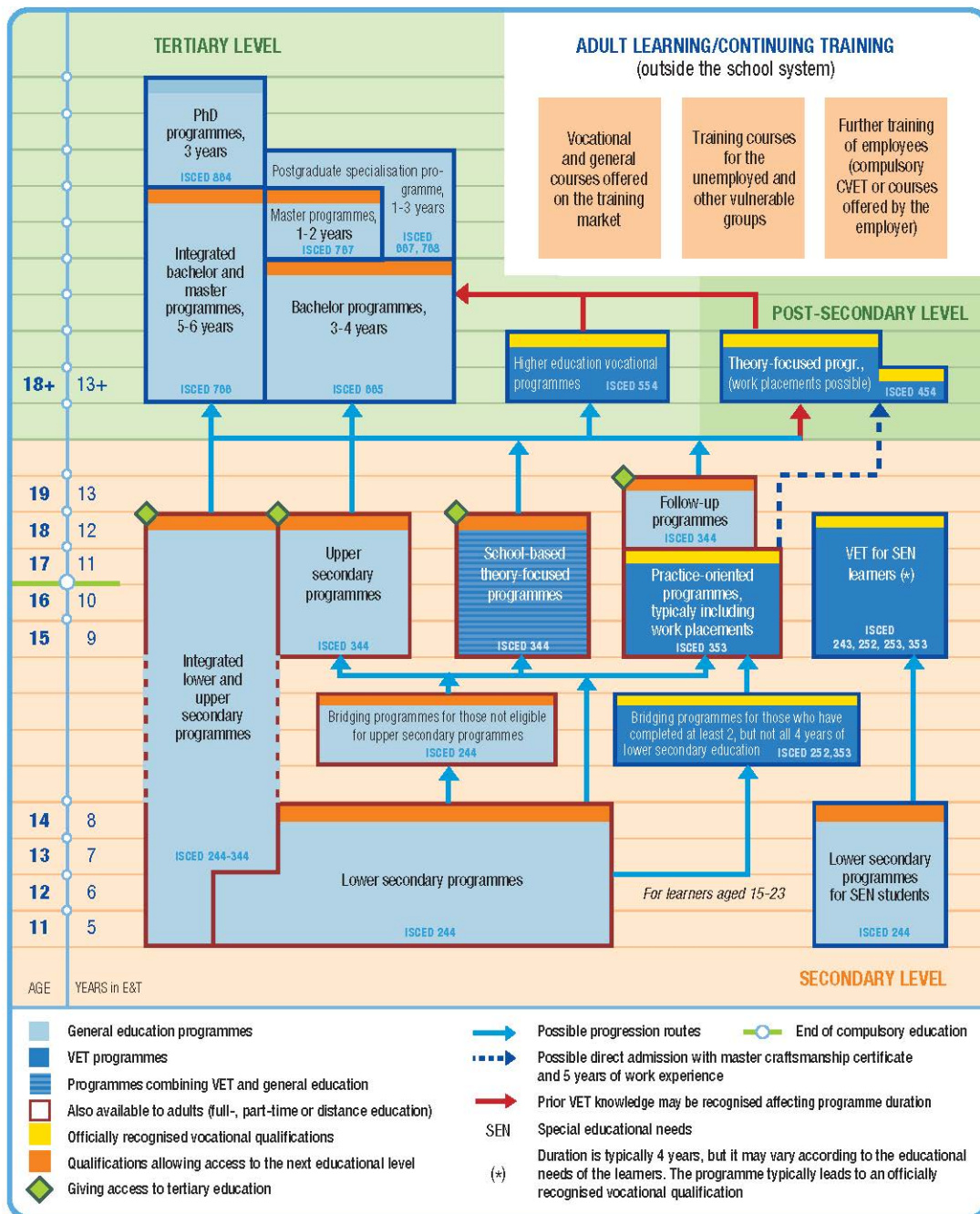
People who are no longer entitled to unemployment allowance may receive social benefit in the amount of approx. EUR 100 per month. The ISCED 0-2 group is markedly overrepresented among the recipients.

⁽¹⁸⁾ <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsdec460>

Providing VET in a lifelong learning perspective

2.1 Chart of the education and training system

Figure 3. VET in Hungary's education and training system, 2014/15



NB: ISCED-P 2011. EQF levels have not yet been defined.

Source: Cedefop and ReferNet Hungary.

2.2 Government-regulated VET provision

2.2.1 VET within the formal school system

Historical background: reforms and restructuring

The education and training system is currently in a state of transition. Over the last couple of years, the acts on public education, higher education, and adult training have all been replaced by new ones; the new VET Act (2011) has provided for a considerable transformation of the structure of VET schools. As of September 2013, only the new types of VET programmes can be launched. However, the two structures will coexist for a few more years, until the previous types of programmes, launched for the last time in September 2012, come to an end ⁽¹⁹⁾.

The recent restructuring of the education and training system had been preceded by another major reform in the late 1990s. Prior to that, grammar schools (*gimnázium*) and secondary vocational schools (*szakközépiskola*, SZKI) both lasted for 4 years and prepared students for the secondary school leaving certificate (*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344), thus allowing access to higher education. Secondary vocational schools led to an ISCED 354 vocational qualification as well. In addition, the ‘vocational schools for skilled workers’ (*szakmunkásképző iskola*) prepared young people for the labour market in three years.

In 1998, both, SZKI and the new vocational school (*szakiskola*, SZI) programmes, that replaced the ‘vocational schools for skilled workers’, were transformed into two parts: the first part includes general education and pre-vocational training, followed by the so-called VET years, which awarded a vocational qualification.

Thus, **until school year 2012/13** SZKI programmes offered four [or five ⁽²⁰⁾] years of general and pre-vocational education leading to a secondary school leaving certificate (ISCED 344). Afterwards, learners were free to choose between participation in the so-called VET years (one to three years) to obtain an ISCED 453/454 level vocational qualification or move on to higher education. The number of VET years depend on the qualification to be acquired. For most students it was one year, as their pre-vocational training years were recognised.

SZI programmes launched until school year 2012/2013 provided general and pre-vocational education and training in the first two years. These were followed by one to three years of VET (depending on the pursued qualification) to obtain an ISCED 353 OKJ vocational qualification. Graduates could enter the labour market. To progress to higher education they needed to complete an additional three-year-long general education programme, in order to obtain the secondary school leaving certificate.

Extending the duration of studies by one or two years did not, however, help to prepare graduates better for their occupations. Also, drop-out rates from SZI programmes remained

⁽¹⁹⁾ In vocational schools it is school year 2016/7, in secondary vocational schools it is 2017/8 the latest.

⁽²⁰⁾ In the case of bilingual schools or in schools with a language preparatory year.

high. The new approach that emerged in recent years aims to retain young people in education and training and ensure the supply of skilled workers by starting VET earlier – just as before 1998 – at the age of 14 (as opposed to 16). The government that took office in 2010 soon expressed its commitment to raise the share and prestige of VET by making manual skilled worker (SZI) training programmes less theoretical, with more training conducted at enterprises, within a three-year long training period (instead of four or five). To this end, the government and the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*, MKIK) signed a framework agreement in November 2010. The MKIK now plays a key role in VET, as it has taken on VET-related tasks, previously performed by the state, financed from the state budget (see also Chapter 3).

The strategic and legal framework for the education and training system reform was put in place as follows: the fundamental principles were laid down in a framework agreement (2010) concluded between Government and the Chamber (MKIK), and then further specified in a detailed agreement between the Ministry of national economy and MKIK. Based on these agreements, the Government approved a new detailed VET concept paper (May 2011) ⁽²¹⁾.

A new VET Act and a new Public Education Act were passed by the Parliament in 2011 ⁽²²⁾; relevant legal provisions came into force in three major waves (1 September 2012, 1 January 2013 and 1 September 2013). The new IVET system in place from September 2013 is presented below.

The most important differences in comparison with the former system are the following:

- the 4 to 5 year-long vocational school (SZI) programmes have been replaced by a uniform 3-year programme, the so called ‘dual VET model’ ⁽²³⁾. The proportion of practical training in these new programmes is significantly higher, while that of vocational theoretical education and particularly general education have been reduced.
- the first 4 years of secondary vocational schools (SZKI) now also include a VET component, providing practical training right from the start and awarding a certificate that entitles school leavers to take up certain jobs.

⁽²¹⁾ Ministry for National Economy: Concept paper on the restructuring of the VET system in adjustment to the needs of the economy, 2011.

⁽²²⁾ Act of 19 December 2011 on national public education; Act of 19 December 2011 on vocational education and training(<http://net.jogtar.hu>)

⁽²³⁾ Optionally these were already introduced in some schools in September 2012. Similar 3-year ‘early VET’ programmes (*előrehozott szakiskolai képzés*) were also launched in some schools between 2010 and 2012, in the sectors of manufacturing, construction, agriculture, business and other services.

VET pathways at secondary and post-secondary level

Upon completion of 8 years of primary and lower secondary education (mainly provided in primary schools (*általános iskola – ISCED 244*), at the age of 14, learners can choose between three different upper secondary education tracks ⁽²⁴⁾:

grammar school (*gimnázium*)

It offers programmes of four [or five in bilingual and other schools with a language preparatory year ⁽²⁵⁾] years of general education and awards a secondary school leaving certificate [*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344 ⁽²⁶⁾], the prerequisite for admission to higher education; graduates can also move on to post-secondary VET.

secondary vocational school (*szakközépiskola, SZKI*)

It offers studies covering upper and post-secondary levels. From 2013/14 SZKI programmes include VET parallel to general education in years 9-12 (or 13 in bilingual and other schools with a language preparatory year), in the so-called **secondary school years**. This involves vocational theoretical and practical training in the common content of qualifications in a given sector of the economy, in less than a third of all class hours. Upon completion of these upper secondary years, students take the vocational secondary school leaving examination (*szakmai érettség*, ISCED 344). This differs from the exam taken by students of grammar schools in that instead of the fifth optional subject, it involves a mandatory vocational subject of the given occupational field ⁽²⁷⁾. Passing this exam, students do not receive a vocational qualification listed in the national qualifications register (*Országos Képzési Jegyzék, OKJ*) ⁽²⁸⁾. They do, however, obtain a certificate that qualifies them to enter at least one occupation in the sector of their training. Should they wish to continue their studies, they can pursue an ISCED 454 level OKJ vocational qualification in the post-secondary **VET year(s)** of SZKI, or apply for higher education studies. As previous vocational training in years 9-12 is recognised, the duration of SZKI post-secondary vocational programme is one year for most students ⁽²⁹⁾.

There are also **secondary vocational school of art** (*művészeti szakközépiskola*) programmes, which provide parallel vocational and general education and start in years 5, 7 or 9.

vocational school (*szakiskola, SZI*)

The so-called dual VET model programmes launched in every vocational school from school year 2013/14 run for three years, simultaneously providing general education as well as VET.

⁽²⁴⁾ See Table 2 at the end of this section. It provides a summary of the major features of the currently available types of IVET programmes.

⁽²⁵⁾ For language preparatory years, see Glossary.

⁽²⁶⁾ See Annex 2, Glossary for further information.

⁽²⁷⁾ Also, it is taken at advanced level, which gives SZKI students advantage when applying to a higher education programme within the same sector.

⁽²⁸⁾ See Glossary and section 3.2.

⁽²⁹⁾ But 2 years for graduates of grammar schools and vocational schools.

SZI programmes award an ISCED 353 level OKJ qualification, but no secondary school leaving certificate. Should they wish to continue their studies in higher education, graduates therefore need to complete a two-year general education programme to obtain this latter certificate. SZI graduates with five years of work experience and holding the master craftsman title can enter the post secondary year of SZKI even without this certificate (see below under Assessment, qualifications and progression routes).

Special vocational school (*speciális szakiskola*) and **special skills development vocational school** (*készségfejlesztő speciális szakiskola*) programmes educate students in need of special education due to mental or other disabilities. The objective is to prepare 14-23 year old students for the vocational examination awarding an ISCED 253 or 353 level OKJ vocational qualification, or to provide them with skills necessary to start working and begin an independent life. Special vocational school programmes last for 2-4 years depending whether they award a partial or full vocational qualification (there is an additional preparatory year in the training of students with minor mental disabilities). Special skills development vocational schools involve 2 years of general and 2 years of practical education.

Vocational school of art (*művészeti szakiskola*) programmes provide parallel vocational and general education and start in years 5 or 7.

For learners without a primary school graduation certificate (*általános iskolai bizonyítvány*, ISCED 244)⁽³⁰⁾ so-called ‘**bridge**’ programmes (*Híd programok*) are organised in SZI. The Public Education Act of 2011 has introduced these new educational programmes that replace former catching-up programmes⁽³¹⁾ from 2013. The goal is to enable low achieving students who fail to complete primary school or do too poorly to continue their studies. **Bridge I.** (*Híd I.*) is a one-year preparatory and career orientation programme for students below the mandatory school attendance age (16) who have completed their elementary studies but have not gained admission to a secondary school. Its aim is to assist students to acquire the fundamental skills and competences that they are lacking and are necessary for the continuation of their studies and prepares them for the entrance examination to upper secondary education. **Bridge II.** (*Híd II.*) is designed for students who have only completed 6 or 7 years of the 8 years of primary school by the age of 15 and need further assistance to become ready to be admitted to a vocational school. Bridge II is meant to boost students’ motivation level and develop skills necessary for training for an occupation and in most cases it also awards a partial qualification (ISCED 253). Bridge programmes have been launched in altogether less than a quarter of vocational schools designated by the state; they were chosen to ensure that learners all over the country can have access to such programmes.

⁽³⁰⁾ The eight years of primary school provide general primary and lower secondary education to students aged 6 to 14.

⁽³¹⁾ Special catching-up programmes of 1-2 years were available for students aged 15 or over without the primary school graduation certificate to obtain the competences necessary for entering a vocational training programme. The certificate awarded was equivalent to the primary school graduation certificate in case the participant had completed at least 6 years of primary school.

Participation in the three main types of upper secondary programmes has practically not changed in the period of 2000-07 (Figure 1). Since then the share of students entering SZI programmes has been increasing, in line with policy objectives.

As Table 1 shows, in 2013/14 around two thirds of full-time students at upper secondary level were enrolled in the two main VET pathways. However, given the programme structures, only around 23% of all learners at upper secondary level were involved in a vocational programme (i.e. in VET years) and around 38% studied in the general education or secondary years (with a strong pre-vocational component in the curriculum) of VET schools.

Table 1 Number and distribution of students in grammar schools and IVET programmes by school type (2013/14)

		Number	% of total upper secondary
Vocational school (SZI) (a)	(a) dual VET ^(b)	38 053	9.14
	(b) 'early VET' ^(c)	47 691	11.46
	(c) General education years (9-10) of the previous programme structure ^(d)	9 827	2.36
	(d) VET years (11, 11-12, 11-13) of the previous programme structure	9 551	2.29
	Total (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)	105 122	25.25
Secondary vocational school (SZKI)	(e) General education years (9-12/13)	150 419	36.13
	(f) VET years (post-secondary non-tertiary level)	48 097	–
	Total (e)+(f)	198 516	–
Grammar school	(g) General education (years 9-12/13)	160 742	38.61
Total upper secondary level (a)+(b)+(c)+(d)+(e)+(g)		416 283	100.0
Total including post-secondary VET		464 380	–

NB. ^(a) Excluding special vocational schools.

^(b) The dual VET model (all VET years) became compulsory from September 2013; however, it had already been piloted in some schools in September 2012.

^(c) Along with the previously typical two-part structured programmes, some SZI launched so-called 'early VET' programmes (*előrehozott szakiskolai képzés*, see Glossary) between 2010 and 2012. These three-year-long programmes were similar to the dual VET model.

^(d) Including catching-up, Bridge I and (the general education years of) Bridge II programmes.

Source: Ministry of Human Resources, 2014.

Adults can participate in similar adult education (*felnőttoktatás*) programmes offered through part-time or distance education, where curricula and learning outcomes are the same as in day-time education for young people. In general these do not differ from regular full-time courses in terms of objectives, admission criteria, structure, main characteristics of curricula, or the awarded state-recognised qualifications. Most people attend evening classes, only a few participate in distance learning or 'other' forms. However, only very few adults with at most ISCED 0-2 qualification participate in school-based education (Annex 1, Table 19a). The lower-qualified, older population are offered specifically designed programmes within adult training supported by the State (see section 2.3).

Table 2 IVET programmes within the formal school system in school year 2014/2015

Type of educational programme	Main economic sectors	ISCED levels	Balance general/vocational subjects	Balance school-based/work-based training	Duration	Permeability: possible horizontal and progression transfer
Vocational school (szakiskola, SZI)						
dual VET model	In all sectors/ occupational fields of OKJ, except business (see Table 11)	353	1/3 general education subjects (around 1000 hours)	year 9: school-based; years 10-11: primarily work-based	3 years	Horizontal: SZKI secondary school years and grammar school; upon completion entry into the labour market Progression: only after obtaining a secondary school leaving certificate in two years full-time or longer part-time general education or entering SZKI VET years is also possible after 5 years of work and obtainment of the master craftsman title
Secondary vocational school (szakközépiskola, SZKI)						
Secondary school years (középiskolai évfolyamok, years 9-12)	All sectors	344	Primarily general education, vocational theoretical and practical subjects provided in max. 17-31% of the mandatory teaching hours	School-based	4 years (5 in bilingual schools and in schools with a language preparatory year)	Horizontal: grammar school, SZI or another SZKI programme in the same sector Progression: SZKI VET years (ISCED 454) or higher education (ISCED 550/660/760)
post-secondary VET years (year 13 or years 13-14)		454	Vocational training	Depends on the qualification, the school and the student's decision, but typically school-based (see 'practical training provision' below)	1-2 years, depending on the qualification ^(a)	Horizontal: none; upon completion entry into the labour market Progression: higher education (ISCED 550/660/760)

NB: ^(a) The two-year programme is reduced to 1 year for those who had participated in previous vocational training in years 9-12 of SZKI.

Source: compiled by the authors

Access and admission

To be admitted to an upper secondary SZI or an SZKI programme, students must have completed eight years of primary and lower secondary education in primary school (*általános iskola*, ISCED 100-244). Those without the primary school graduation certificate can also be admitted in case they have completed one of the Bridge programmes (see above). Schools may also specify further requirements (previous school performance or entrance examination results).

The post-secondary VET years⁽³²⁾ of SZKI are accessible to all secondary school leaving certificate holders (*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344); thus also open to upper secondary general education graduates (grammar school). From 2012, SZI graduates without this certificate may also enter post-secondary VET in a field that matches the sector of their VET training provided they have 5 years of work experience in a job they have trained for and obtained the master craftsperson title (*mestercím*).

Recognition of previous vocational studies was always possible; it has, however, become more regulated and extended following the publication of the 2012 OKJ. Previously it was at the headmaster's competence to decide whether to recognise the completion of the upper secondary level part of SZKI studies and, based on that, to shorten the duration of the subsequent post-secondary SZKI vocational training programme. The VET Act of 2011 clearly stipulates that completion of the first four (or five) years of SZKI should be recognised in one year. Vocational framework curricula have been developed taking this into account. Consequently, the post-secondary SZKI vocational training is two years for grammar school graduates, but one year for those who studied in SZKI in the same sector.

Assessment, qualifications and progression routes

In both upper secondary SZI and post secondary SZKI vocational programmes, OKJ vocational qualifications are awarded at the final vocational examination (*szakmai vizsga*, see section 3.3.).

OKJ qualifications entitle their holders to practise the occupations specified in the respective vocational and examination requirements (*szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények*, SZVK), but they do not allow direct entry to further/higher level education. The precondition for entering post-secondary or tertiary education is holding a secondary school leaving certificate. Students in SZKI obtain this upon passing the secondary school leaving exam organised at the end of the so-called secondary school years (first 4 or 5 years), but SZI graduates have to complete another two years of formal general education to obtain this certificate. About every third vocational school graduate enrol to this programme and acquire a secondary school leaving certificate. Since 2012, a new progression opportunity allows SZI graduates who have not obtained this certificate to be admitted to an SZKI post-secondary vocational programme provided they meet certain conditions (see above under Access and admission).

⁽³²⁾ See above and in Glossary.

Pursuant to a 2012 government decree, post-secondary level vocational training will also be credited towards bachelor programmes of the same sector (30 to 50 credits). The conditions and methodology for this recognition are yet to be developed.

Practical training provision and apprenticeships

Whether the practical training component of any SZI or SZKI vocational programme is organised in a school workshop and/or at an enterprise – in whole or in part – currently depends on the availability of external training places and the decision of the student and the school⁽³³⁾. Since the early 2000s education policy has introduced various incentives for enterprises to participate in practical training provision were introduced.

There are two possible (legal) types of practical training in enterprises. The form that both the law and education policy prefer is the apprenticeship training contract (*tanulószerződés*). Training contracts are concluded by the student and an enterprise; the latter undertakes to provide practical training as well as a regular allowance to the student. Alternatively, under certain conditions, a VET school may conclude a cooperation agreement (*együtműködési megállapodás*) with an enterprise to provide practical training for its students. In that case, however, learners are not contractually linked to the employer, neither do they receive remuneration (they do receive a remuneration only for the duration of their practice during the school summer holidays) (see 4.1.1.).

Over the past decade, various financial incentives have been introduced – especially in SZI programmes for skilled manual jobs – to encourage provision of practical training in a school workshop in the first year of the SZI programme (to practise basic vocational skills), and at in a company-based placement in the following years. However, under the VET Act of 2011, students can enrol in apprenticeship training -based on a training contract- in their first year in SZI programmes, at the age of 14 (as opposed to 16). It should be noted, however, that in the first year practice can only take place in workshops. In SZKI programmes, students can conclude a training contract with the company in the post secondary VET years, at the age of 18.

Currently, while most SZKI students still have their practical training at school, the majority of SZI students participate in enterprise-based training, usually based on a training contract. Since 2001 the number of training contracts has quadrupled. It should be noted that the availability of apprenticeship training contracts varies by sector/occupational field/occupation. In May 2014, practical training based on a training contract took place in more than 200 professions. However, 58% of apprenticeship training offered at ISCED 353 level qualification covered only 10 occupations (see Annex 1 Table 20).

⁽³³⁾ However, a new legislative amendment is being considered to the effect that students will only be allowed to participate in school-based training if there is no company-based placement available to them, The Chamber will confirm in writing that that is in fact the case (referred to as „guarantee by the Chamber”). Source: Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara: Tájékoztató az Országos Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Tanévnyitóról. <http://www.mkik.hu/hu/magyar-kereskedelmi-es-iparkamara/cikkek/tajekoztato-az-orszagos-szakkepzesi-es-felnottkepzesi-tanevnyitorol-74912>.

VET in higher education

Advanced vocational programmes (*felsőfokú szakképzés*, FSZ) were introduced in 1998 for students holding a secondary school leaving certificate (*érettségi bizonyítvány*, ISCED 344/354). The aim of these ISCED 550 programmes awarding a higher level OKJ vocational qualification – but no higher education degree – was to offer shorter modular training that can quickly respond to the demands of a changing labour market. They prepare students for high quality professional work and at the same time, through transferability of credits, help transition from VET to tertiary education.

Since 2013/14 these programmes are regulated only by the Higher Education Act of 2011 (previously they fell under the scope of the VET Act as well). While previously training could and was in fact in half the cases provided by secondary vocational schools (SZKI) – under the supervision of a higher education institution based on cooperation agreements – now they are exclusively provided by higher education institutions. Also, their name has changed from advanced VET to ‘higher education VET’ (*felsőoktatási szakképzés*). As before, such studies can be recognised in bachelor level programmes, in at most 90 (previously 60) credits.

Higher education VET (new) programmes include a mandatory period of company-based practice, one-semester-long (minimum 14 weeks), in the last (4th) semester. In case it is provided in a block of 6 or more weeks, it must be organized on the basis of a cooperation agreement between the higher education institution and the company. The company has also to conclude a student work contract (*hallgatói munkaszerződés*) with the student.

Governance

The central administration of VET (as well as adult training and employment policy) falls under the competence of the Ministry for National Economy (*Nemzetgazdasági Minisztérium*, NGM). The NGM regulates VET provision and shares responsibilities with other ministries responsible for specific vocational qualifications and with the Ministry for Human Resources (*Emberi Erőforrások Minisztériuma*, EMMI, responsible for education as well as social policy) for defining learning outcomes and framework curricula of VET. The National Qualification Register (*Országos Képzési Jegyzék*, OKJ)⁽³⁴⁾ and other subjects that concern all qualifications (e.g., vocational requirement modules, examination regulations, funding) are regulated in government decrees.

Since January 2011, county/central (capital) government offices (*megyei/fővárosi kormányhivatal*) have been operating, incorporating the previously regional offices of various state agencies, including those of the Educational Authority (*Oktatási Hivatal*, OH). Since December 2014, the National Office of Vocational Education and Training and Adult Learning (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Hivatal*, NSZFH; previously part of the National

⁽³⁴⁾ See Glossary and section 3.2.

Labour Office) is the agency assisting the ministry responsible for VET and adult training in tasks related to development, coordination, research, information and counselling services.

The role of the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*, MKIK) has been increasingly significant; it has become a key actor in shaping VET policy and performs important duties in accordance with its 2010 agreement with the government. The MKIK is now responsible for developing standards, framework curricula and examination procedures for the majority of qualifications required for blue-collar jobs, participates in the organisation of IVET examinations, and performs quality assurance functions, among others, in cooperation with entrepreneur associations and advocacy organisations.

At national level, social partners are involved in advisory councils set up under the law (see also 3.8), such as:

- the national economic and social council (*Nemzeti Gazdasági és Társadalmi Tanács*, NGTT), a multi-sided forum for strategic VET issues;
- the national vocational and adult training council (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Tanács*, NSZFT), a consultative-advisory body to the minister in charge, participating in OKJ development and in the allocation of the National Employment Fund (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap*, NFA) training subfund resources;
- the national qualification committee (*Nemzeti Képesítési Bizottság*), advising OKJ development.

The county/central (capital) (until 2012 regional) development and training committees (*megyei/fővárosi fejlesztési és képzési bizottságok*, MFKB) play a very important advisory-consultative role in VET financing and development (see below and sections 3.5 and 3.8).

Pursuant to the previous Public Education Act of 1993, local (county and capital city) governments had to provide upper- and post-secondary VET, but schools could be established and maintained by the State, as well as by church and business entities, foundations, associations, etc.. They were all eligible to receive support from the central government budget.

Pursuant to the new education act accepted in 2011, as of 1 January 2013 schools previously maintained by local governments were taken over by the State. The state is now responsible for providing education, hiring teaching staff (including the headteachers) and paying their salaries. The central government exercises its maintainer rights through the Klebelsberg Institution Maintenance Centre (*Klebelsberg Intézményfenntartó Központ*, KLIK) which was established in January 2013 and includes 198 school districts (*tankerület*). Private schools may continue to exist if they register at and obtain a license from the local government office.

From September 2013 an agency of the Ministry of Agriculture became the maintainer of all public VET schools in the sector of agriculture, aiming to create a Network of Agricultural VET schools involving 59 schools and 26 000 students ⁽³⁵⁾.

⁽³⁵⁾ <http://aszih.nakvi.hu/agrarszakkepzo-iskolak-halozata>

According to current government plans ⁽³⁶⁾, as from September 2015, the maintenance of all other public VET schools will be taken over by the Ministry of National Economy. The number of VET schools (currently around 7-800) is also to be radically reduced, based on a one-by-one review of their training profiles. This will result in a major transformation of the institutional structure of education as presently many VET schools operate as part of a mixed-profile public education institution, offering vocational as well as grammar school (or even primary school) programmes. In the long-term the government is also planning to increase the share of students in VET at the expense of grammar school, limiting the function of the latter to preparing students for higher education studies.

Funding

The primary sources of financing VET schools are:

- the central government budget;
- the budget of school maintainers (see above under Governance).

Until the end of 2012 state contribution was provided to the school maintainer. Local governments supplemented the state contribution from their other revenue.

The new education and VET acts (2011) transformed the funding of VET schools as well. As of 1 January 2013, the central government budget covers the labour costs of all teachers, trainers and other staff assisting pedagogical work, including those employed in non-state-maintained education institutions, in case the maintainer concludes a contract with the ministry responsible for education ⁽³⁷⁾.

Practical training in an enterprise is financed by the company itself, which can spend its vocational training contribution (see Annex A tables 21 and 22) on related costs and can also claim further expenses from the NFA training subfund (also financed by the SZH, see below). In fact, practical training provision may be quite profitable and new companies were specifically established for providing practical training to VET students. In order to encourage training in vocations that require high material and other costs and to simplify the deduction/reimbursement process, a 2011 regulation introduced annual per capita funding differentiated by occupational field (instead of the previous complicated system of itemized cost-accounting). The per capita rate was differentiated by qualification, and in most cases raised by 20-25%, effective from September 2012, making the financing of practical training even more remunerative ⁽³⁸⁾. Currently, the base per capita rate is HUF 453 000 (EUR 1 460) per year, but the coefficient used to calculate the actual amount of funding may range

⁽³⁶⁾ As indicated by the responsible state secretary: <http://www.kormany.hu/hu/nemzetgazdasagi-miniszterium/munkaeropiaci-es-kepzesi-allamtitkarsag/hirek/homogen-szakkepzesi-intezmenyrendszer-epitene-ki-az-ngm>.

⁽³⁷⁾ However, according to current government plans, the state funding of non-state-maintained institutions will be considerably reduced from September 2015.

⁽³⁸⁾ Nemzeti Munkaügyi Hivatal. *A szakképzés szabályozása. Tájékoztató a szakképzési szakértők szakképzési változásokra való felkészítéséhez*. 2014. p. 26.

from 0.7 to 2, depending on the qualification. According to companies' estimates, this covers about $\frac{3}{4}$ of all costs ⁽³⁹⁾.

Technological and content development of IVET is supported by the NFA training subfund (see below) and ESF assistance through tendering procedures as well as centrally managed development programmes, assisted by different training committees (MFKBs and NSZFT, see above under Governance).

Vocational training contribution (*szakképzési hozzájárulás*, SZH) is practically a VET tax levied on enterprises amounting to 1.5% of the total labour cost. It has been considerably transformed by the new vocational training contribution (SZH) law passed in November 2011. The major part of funds is now dedicated to cover the costs of dual VET (see above).

Vocational training contributions not spent on vocational training provision must be paid into the training subfund of the National Employment Fund (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap*, NFA). Training providers that are not obliged to pay the SZH (e.g. central budgetary institutions in the social/health sector, farmers, etc.) can now also receive support from the NFA training subfund for providing practical training based on a training contract. It also provides funds for technological/infrastructural and content development, mostly through decentralized tenders. The minister responsible for VET (currently the Minister of National Economy) alone has got the right of disposal over the training fund, which can only support objectives directly related to VET and adult training.

Teachers and trainers

Teachers and trainers working in IVET within public education ⁽⁴⁰⁾ can be categorised based on what and where they teach (table 3):

⁽³⁹⁾ Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara (2013). *Tanulószerződéses foglalkoztatás néhány jellemzője* [Characteristic features of practical training based on a training contract]. Manuscript, p.8.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ See Annex 2, Glossary for further information.

Table 3 Teachers and trainers in IVET

Qualification	Criteria of obtaining qualification (pre-service training)	In-service training	Roles and responsibilities
general subject teachers (közismereti szakos tanár)	higher education degree and pedagogical qualification (ISCED 760) ^(a)	mandatory in-service training at least once every seven years (could be completed by participating in accredited INSET programmes, further formal education, development and mobility programmes, etc.)	teaching general subjects
vocational teachers (szakmai tanár)			teaching vocational theoretical subjects
vocational trainers (szakoktató)	BA/BSc degree and pedagogical qualification (ISCED 660)		instructing vocational practice in school workshops
practice trainers (gyakorlati oktató)	relevant vocational qualification, and at least five years' professional experience ^(b)	no mandatory training	instructing company-based practical training

Nb:(a) Pursuant to the new Public Education Act of 2011, teachers employed in secondary vocational schools (SZKI) are required to have a master's degree, while in vocational schools (SZI) a bachelor's degree is sufficient for employment. If no one is available with a teacher's degree to fill a vocational teacher position, secondary vocational schools (SZKI) may (for up to 5 years) employ an applicant holding a relevant higher education degree only.

(b) From 2015 the Vocational Act of 2011 requires practice trainers to have a master craftsman certificate (see section 2.3) as well.

Source: compiled by the authors

In addition, there are other positions that assist the pedagogical-teaching work. In most cases, however, such functions are performed by teachers in addition to their teaching duties.

The steadily declining number of higher education applications to teacher training programmes reflect the very poor prestige of the teaching profession – especially in VET – this is due also to very low salaries in (public) education compared to those in the private sector for teaching in the same or similar qualifications. In order to improve the quality of teaching, certain steps have already been taken. Teacher training has become more practice-oriented and competence-based output requirements have been set up. As regards teachers' wages, the Public Education Act of 2011 has outlined a professional development and career model that is divided into several phases, with each phase corresponding to specific career options, differentiated remunerations and possibilities to be promoted. As part of this initiative, teacher salaries will be increased considerably until 2017, and the first, most substantial part of the increase was enacted in September 2013.

Beginning in 2006, the structure of teacher/trainer training was fundamentally transformed in the context of the Bologna process. As a result, between 2006 and 2013 there were only master's courses in teacher training, while trainers were trained in bachelor level programmes. However, the government that came into office in 2010 reviewed the Bologna structure and from school year 2013/14 restored the previous one-tier system ('long university programme') in the training of general subject teachers⁽⁴¹⁾. The training of

⁽⁴¹⁾ Previous master's programmes will be available until 2016 for BA/BSc graduates.

vocational and art teachers may be carried out in both structures (two-tier bachelor's/master's or one-tier long programme). As part of the one-tier long programme, teaching practice has been extended to include one whole year at an external training site.

The new government has also expressed its intention to restore a system of external school inspectors who will be responsible for the assessment and quality development of teachers' work.

2.2.2 VET outside the formal school system

With a few exceptions, OKJ qualifications may also be obtained in VET offered outside the formal school system, in adult training (*felhőttképzés*, see section 2.3). In fact, the majority of state-supported courses offered to the unemployed and other groups at risk award an OKJ qualification (see Annex 1, Table 29). All in all, adult training providers issue more OKJ qualifications than VET within the school system (SZI and SZKI). In addition, some types of adult training programmes award state-recognised vocational qualifications: most notably, training courses regulated by public authorities (*hatósági képzés*, see below), and some mandatory further training programmes award a certificate or a new qualification.

OKJ qualifications' vocational and examination requirements (*szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények*, SZVK) and (from 2012) vocational requirement modules (*követelménymodulok*) are regulated by ministerial decrees in the relevant to the qualification professional field. The decrees specify the objectives, admission criteria, duration (minimum and maximum number of hours), content requirements and type of outcomes of a given qualification. Until 31 August 2013, adult training providers could prepare their own curricula based on the SZVKs and the vocational requirement modules only. Pursuant to the new Adult training act of 2013, the framework curricula used within the school system should also be considered. Furthermore, aiming primarily to increase the quality of training, the new OKJ issued in 2012 (see section 3) defined not only the maximum but the minimum number of teaching hours of OKJ programmes as well. In practice this means the duration of some adult training courses had to be doubled or tripled, and training fees increased. That might lead to a decrease of training demand ⁽⁴²⁾.

The content and objectives of 'training regulated by public authorities' are defined by legislation. Such training programmes award a licenses, diplomas, certificates etc., that are not listed in the OKJ but are required to perform certain jobs or to fulfil certain positions typically in the fields of road, water and air transport, plant and veterinary health inspection or food hygiene.

For more information about adult training, please refer to chapter 2.3.

⁽⁴²⁾ However, such an effect cannot yet be confirmed by statistical data as training programmes are either valid until 31.08.14 or 31.3.15 depending on when they were accredited (before or after January 2013).

2.3 Other forms of training

Training offer and provision

Adult training (*felnőttképzés*) provided outside the formal school system involves programmes that award a state-recognised qualification⁽⁴³⁾ as well as courses of various types and duration that do not award such a qualification. Although the former type of programmes are government-regulated (presented in section 2.2.2.), the main features and regulations differentiate adult training programmes as a distinct category and they will therefore be mentioned in general terms in this subchapter.

The admission criteria, duration and characteristics of adult training provision are defined either by the training provider or, in the case of programmes that award a state-recognised qualification, by legislation.

According to statistics (see Annex 1, Tables 23-26), the three main types of adult training programmes are:

- the vocational further training includes courses preparing for the master craftsman exam (*mestervizsga*, that awards a higher level qualification based on the OKJ qualification obtained in IVET);
- courses awarding an OKJ qualification (at skilled worker level);
- foreign language courses.

Most participants attend programmes that require at most a primary school graduation certificate. The vast majority of these training programmes last for less than a year, currently with at most 200 hours.

Adult training providers include:

- public and higher education institutions engaging in adult training as a supplementary activity;
- other budgetary or state-supported institutions (most notably, the Türr István Training and Research Institute and its regional directorates, which provide training courses for vulnerable groups within the framework of public employment programmes, or specialised state agencies that provide mandatory further training programmes for public servants and employees);
- private training companies;
- NGOs (non-profit organisations, professional associations, etc.);
- employers providing in-company (internal) training for their own employees.

Several social partner organisations engage in adult training provision, often by maintaining their own training institutions. The Hungarian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*) and the Hungarian Chamber of Agriculture (*Nemzeti Agrárgazdasági Kamara*) define the standards for and organise master craftsman examinations, in cooperation with entrepreneur associations and advocacy organisations.

⁽⁴³⁾ That is, OKJ courses and so-called 'training regulated by public authorities' (*hatósági jellegű képzés*, see section 2.2.2).

Regulation and quality assurance

The new Adult training act (July 2013), changed significantly the regulation and quality assurance of adult training. In contrast to the previous Adult Training Act of 2001, the scope of the new law does not cover all types of adult training; its regulations apply only to training providers that offer courses in one of these four categories:

- vocational programmes that award an OKJ qualification;
- vocational programmes that are financially supported from national/EU funds;
- foreign language courses that prepare for a language proficiency exam or that are financially supported from national/EU funds;
- other courses that are financially supported from national/EU funds (e.g., catching-up programmes, IT courses, etc.).

As of September 2013, the system of institutional and programme accreditation – that had been criticised for not being differentiated enough and demanding too much unnecessary administration – was replaced by a new system of registration ⁽⁴⁴⁾. Training providers now have to apply for a licence that also specifies the courses they can offer. This is awarded for an indefinite time by the National Office of Vocational Education and Training and Adult Learning (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Hivatal*, NSZFH, see under Governance in section 2.2.1), based on the opinion of an expert committee. All providers should apply a quality assurance system, which must be in line with a framework system defined by the minister responsible for VET and adult training. They also have to conduct an external evaluation at least once every two years. Similarly, every other year the NSZFH has to inspect all training providers.

All these changes aim to ensure and improve the quality of adult training. The same rationale applies to other new requirements related to content development. As of September 2013 OKJ courses in adult training must comply with the vocational and examination requirements (*szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények*, SZVK) but also with the framework curricula previously used exclusively in school-based VET. Furthermore, curricula of vocational and foreign language courses that receive state/EU funding must be based on a programme listed in the register of the new adult training vocational and language programme requirements (*felnőttképzési szakmai, illetve nyelvi programkövetelmények*). These are similar to the SZVKs and define outcome standards for each module (using the learning outcome terminology and National Qualifications Framework/NQF descriptors) as well as the NQF level of vocational courses, entry requirements/competences, minimum-maximum class hours, etc. Proposals for adult training vocational programme requirements are assessed by a 5-member committee with three members delegated by the MKIK Chamber, one by the Chamber of Agriculture and one by the responsible minister.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ However, previously accredited institutions could/can offer their accredited training programmes until 31 August 2014 or 31 March 2015, depending on whether they were accredited before or after 1 January 2013.

Trainers

Adult training legislation differentiates teachers of vocational theory, teachers of language education and instructors of vocational practice. Besides, there are various positions designed to support the training activity including that of training organiser and programme developer, manager, evaluator, animator and adult training advisor.

The new Adult Training Act of 2013 stipulates that vocational teachers working with adults instructing programmes that fall under its jurisdiction must hold a relevant teaching qualification or at least a relevant higher education degree (ISCED 760).

Those who instruct practical training must have a relevant vocational qualification and five years vocational/adult training practice. The majority of those working in adult training do not hold a degree in andragogy.

The training of adult teachers/trainers takes place in the same higher education institutions where IVET teachers are trained. There are also training programmes in higher education that prepare for various learning facilitator positions.

In-service training for adult trainers is not mandatory. Current practice shows great variety in this respect. The regional directorates of the Türr István Research and Training Centre (see below) regularly offer organised in-service training for their instructors based on an internal training plan. Some private training companies, which hold an International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) certification, develop internal training plans and offer their (full-time) employees further training either internally or by buying-in training from others. However, most adult training providers offer further training for their (full-time) instructors on an occasional basis only.

Workplace learning

Workplace learning presents significant differences in quantity and types of training provision across sectors depending on the company size and legal structure. According to the 2010 national CVTS survey covering over 30 000 enterprises⁽⁴⁵⁾, nearly all of the large enterprises, almost three quarters of medium-sized companies and only 43% of small enterprises with 10-49 people supported their employees to participate in some kind of training (see Annex 1 Figure 4 and Table 27).

With respect to the lack of motivation or interest in supporting the further training of their employees, three fourth of the enterprises that do not support CVET claim that their employees' skills match the company's current needs and requirements; furthermore, almost one third of them prefer to recruit new employees suitable for the job as opposed to support further training (see Annex 1 Table 28).

Until September 2013 further training programmes organised within the company had to observe the provisions of the Adult Training Act of 2001. Regulations of the new Adult Training Act of 2013, however, apply only to those trainings that have been financially

⁽⁴⁵⁾ *Központi Statisztikai Hivatal* (Hungarian Central Statistical Office) (2012). Statistical Reflections, 11:6. Continuing vocational training of enterprises.
<http://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xftp/stattukor/emhelykepzesek.pdf>

supported by national/EU funds or co-financed by the vocational training contribution (see below under Funding mechanisms).

CVET in enterprises is encouraged by the state through financial incentives and grants available through tendering where micro-, small- and medium-size enterprises are a prioritised target group (see below under Funding mechanisms).

Training programmes to help vulnerable groups

Unemployed people and at-risk groups are offered training opportunities through the National Employment Service (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Szolgálat*, NFSZ) and through centrally managed and regional labour market programmes and public tenders. The NFSZ training support might include reimbursement of training costs and related expenses and provision of supplementary/compensatory payment. Participants are selected by the centres, which also assist them in choosing the specific field of training. The majority of the training centers (62% in 2012) award OKJ qualifications (see Annex 1, Table 29).

Several central and regional labour market programmes coordinated by the NFSZ have been launched and tenders announced in the past years, which aimed to provide a set of support structures for disadvantaged people. These combine training with individualised psycho-social support, provision of a living allowance or some other financial incentives, the employment of mentors or even temporary employment opportunities. Some programmes offer preparatory training developing the competences needed to enter a VET programme. Most contain a course leading to an OKJ qualification. In addition to work placements, each includes a training element for participants' employability by developing their key competences.

The primary duty of the regional training centres established in 1992 and supervised by the Ministry of Human Resources since 2012 is to develop and provide training programmes and related services (e.g. career orientation, guidance and counselling) for unemployed people and others vulnerable to exclusion on the labour market. Since 2011 the centres have been operating as the territorial directorates of the newly established Türr István Training and Research Institute (*Türr István Képző és Kutató Intézet*, TKKI).

TKKI is a public institution responsible for the management and implementation of complex social development programs. Its training programmes rest on the institute's methodology development activities and empirical research conducted in the field of measuring adult literacy and other skills and competences. The institute's responsibilities include the support of the operation of the public employment system and the promotion of the social inclusion of disadvantaged groups including the Roma, the unemployed, people with a low education level and those living in disadvantaged micro-regions, as well as people with altered working capacity.

Funding mechanisms

The main sources of financing adult training are:

- the central state budget;

- the National Employment Fund (Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap, NFA);
- international (most importantly, ESF) assistance;
- employers' contribution; and
- training participants' contribution.

Funding mechanisms include:

- public funding (of mandatory CVET in the public sector; grants for individuals, primarily for the unemployed and at-risk groups; and grants for micro- and small-enterprises);
- public-private cost-sharing (grants for at-risk groups; grants for enterprises; tax incentive for companies);
- collective (employer, employee) investment to finance CVET (training leave and playback clauses specified by the Labour Code, see section 4).

A 2012 amendment to the 2011 act regulating the system of vocational training contribution (*szakképzési hozzájárulás*, SZH, see section 2.2) re-established the opportunity that companies can deduct the costs of employees' vocational and foreign language training from the amount of their SZH⁽⁴⁶⁾. However, conditions are rather specific and strict. This option has been available since January 2013, but only very few large companies are expected to be able to make use of this opportunity.

The income of the National Employment fund (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap* - NFA) is derived from various compulsory contributions paid by employers and employees, budgetary support and privatisation. Its employment subfund supports the training of unemployed people and other disadvantaged target groups. As regards adult training, the training subfund can provide support for the provision of adult training programmes, obtainment of the new permit of operation and the technological development of training providers, development programmes and cofinancing for ESF-supported programmes.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ See footnote 2 to Table 21 in Annex 1.

Shaping VET qualifications

Increasing the labour market relevance of VET and adjusting training to employers' needs has been a permanent priority of VET policy. The range of instruments used by this policy has been continuously widened and modified.

3.1 Anticipation of skills needs

3.1.1 Labour market forecasts

Short-term labour market forecasts have been carried out since 1991. Originally, the labour organisation gathered and processed the data. Since 2005, the ministry responsible for employment policy⁽⁴⁷⁾ has commissioned this work to the Institute for Economic and Enterprise Research of the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry⁽⁴⁸⁾, which now carries out the data collection in cooperation with the ministry. Since 2004, forecasts are made once a year, for a period of one and a quarter years. The forecasts are based on a stratified sample of companies, representative for sector and size. They provide information about prospective layoffs and future demand – in general and specifically for career starters - in particular occupations.

Labour centres of county government offices also regularly prepare quarterly surveys of prospective layoffs and opening positions planned by companies in the following three and 12 months. These are based on data available in the given county office⁽⁴⁹⁾.

3.1.2 Career tracking of school leavers

Systematic tracking of the career of school graduates has been a priority of VET and employment policy for the past decade. The aim is to influence training enrolment quotas (see below). Career tracking was for the first time regulated under the law by the 2007 amendment to the Public Education Act of 1993. According to that, the national system of career tracking would be based on the mandatory data provision of students, training providers and employees, using large national data bases (e.g. social insurance, personal income tax).

The new VET Act accepted in December 2011 has ultimately kept this concept. Above all, career tracking data are expected to provide feedback about whether school leavers go on to work in the occupation they have been trained for. However, the respective government

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Nemzetgazdasági Minisztérium, Ministry of National Economy (NGM).

⁽⁴⁸⁾ Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara, Gazdaság- és Vállalkozáskutató Intézet (MKIK GVI).

⁽⁴⁹⁾ http://nfsz.munka.hu/engine.aspx?page=afsz_negyedevés_munkaerogazd_felmeres;
http://nfsz.munka.hu/engine.aspx?page=full_afsz_rovidtavu_prognózisok_oldal.

decree on its implementation – the precondition for launching the system – has still not been published.

Since 2008, annual surveys on regional labour market supply and demand for skilled workers have been carried out to assist county development and training committees (*megyei fejlesztési és képzési bizottságok*, MFKB) to make informed decisions (until 2011) and then recommendations (from 2012) about enrolment in VET schools (see section 3.4). Since 2012, the county-level lists of shortage jobs have been prepared by the county development and training committees; the lists are published in government decrees ⁽⁵⁰⁾. They also serve as the basis of allocating additional funds to students and enterprises which offer practical training in occupations that face skills shortages (see Section 4.1.1 on vocational school scholarships).

These surveys collect information about the employment status of people with vocational qualifications, and prospective demand for them over the course of the next one and four years. The survey now provides information about employers' satisfaction with the general and vocational competences of career starters as well. In addition, since 2009, based on a sample of around 3 000 respondents, 'career tracking snapshots' have also been taken to map the labour-market success of those who acquired a vocational qualification in a shortage-job, 9 months after graduation. In 2013, the frames have been changed slightly: the sample was reduced to around 2000 and school-leavers were questioned 19 months after graduation.

The Social Renewal Operational programme (SROP) measures support the development of a higher education graduate career monitoring system (*Diplomás Pályakövető Rendszer*, DPR) as well. This is based on a different methodological approach, and the results and analysis of the DPR data collection are annually published ⁽⁵¹⁾.

3.2 Qualification structure and content

3.2.1 National Qualifications Register

Following the VET Act of 1993, the National Qualifications Register (*Országos Képzési Jegyzék*, OKJ) was first published in 1994. It has been thoroughly revised and substantially renewed in 2004-06. As a result of a two-year development work financed by ESF, new vocational and examination requirements (*szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények*, SZVK) of OKJ qualifications were published in decrees by the ministries responsible for vocational qualifications. The SZVKs included competences and expected training outcomes relevant to the word of work for each module. Delegates of social partners played an important role in

⁽⁵⁰⁾ 562/2013. (XII. 31.) Korm. rendelet a 2014/2015-ös tanévre vonatkozó szakmaszerkezeti döntésről és a 2014/2015-ös tanévben induló képzésekben szakiskolai tanulmányi ösztöndíjra jogosító szakképesítésekről, valamint egyes szakképzési és felnőttképzési tárgyú kormányrendeletek módosításáról.
http://net.jogtar.hu/jr/gen/hjegy_doc.cgi?docid=A1300562.KOR

⁽⁵¹⁾ <http://www.felvi.hu/felsooktatasisimuhely/dpr>

developing this system. Due to the modular structure, partial vocational qualifications, so-called branches and specialisations, could be introduced, creating the possibility of very flexible learning pathways.

A renewed national qualifications register (OKJ) was introduced in 2012⁽⁵²⁾; all related documents (vocational and examination requirements, vocational requirement modules, framework curricula) came out by Spring 2013. The development of the new qualifications register was coordinated by the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*, MKIK). Mandatory phasing in of the new OKJ began in Autumn 2013 within the formal school system.

While the 2012 national qualifications register (OKJ) has retained several features of the 2004-06 development work, it also features important changes and innovations. By and large, the modular principle and the competence-based approach have been kept, albeit with a more modest role of the former. In addition to vocational qualifications, partial qualifications and specialisations were retained. VET Qualifications pursued in higher education (former advanced level VET, *felsőfokú szakképzés*, FSZ) have been excluded from the OKJ register as well, since FSZ training may only be launched in higher education from 2013 on (see section 2.2.1). The total number of qualifications has been decreased by about half. The average as well as the maximum number of modules per qualification (formerly 9 versus 6 in the new OKJ) have also been reduced. The number of qualifications has more or less remained the same since the 2012 introduction of the new OKJ.

In addition, the OKJ of 2012 defines a minimum number of teaching hours for each qualification in adult training (see section 2.3). Another new element in the 2012 OKJ is that most qualifications listed in the register correspond to the secondary vocational school (SZKI) sector they belong to (38 economic sectors are listed in the OKJ). (see section 2.1 for new regulations regarding SZKI).

The 150/2012 government decree defines the procedure of modifying the OKJ. Anyone can recommend the deletion, modification, or the introduction of a vocational qualification. The proposal must provide detailed justification for the recommended modification, and be supported by:

- a detailed discussion on whether the proposed modification is well-founded which should also cover all alternatives assessed in the process of reaching that conclusion,
- the estimated number of expected training participants per year,
- a list the training providers willing to provide practical and theoretical training, and
- a forecast of the national employment service on the number of jobs that can be taken with the qualification proposed.

⁽⁵²⁾ The new OKJ was published in the following government decree: 150/2012. (VII. 6.) Kormányrendelet az Országos Képzési Jegyzékről és az Országos Képzési Jegyzék módosításának eljárásrendjéről.

Upon receiving the opinions of the National Qualification Committee (*Nemzeti Képesítési Bizottság*, NKB) and the ministerial agency assisting the minister in charge of VET, the minister makes a decision.

3.2.2 EQF levels and credits

The development of the Hungarian Qualifications Framework (HQF) (*Magyar Képesítési Keretrendszer*, MKKR) has reached its final stage. Methodological guidelines for classifying qualifications were prepared and, referencing the HQF to EQF levels was carried out in early 2014. Following that the content of 150 OKJ qualifications were described in terms of learning outcomes. The reference report is scheduled to be finalized by the end of 2014.

3.3 Changes in the examination and qualifications system

Following the introduction of the National Qualifications Register (OKJ) of 2006, the examination system underwent significant changes. The complexity of the new modular examinations, however, received considerable criticism. In its 2011 VET concept paper⁽⁵³⁾ the government made a commitment to change the regulation of the examination system; the new VET Act of 2011 laid down the framework, and a subsequent government decree⁽⁵⁴⁾ introduced the necessary changes. The most important difference is that the new complex vocational examination is now shorter, lasting no more than two days, and it is considerably simpler than the previous modular exam.

A vocational qualification is awarded to the candidate who has fulfilled all vocational and examination requirements (SZVK) set for the specific qualification, as attested during the examination by the examination board. In principle, those who fail to meet all SZVK requirements of the given occupation may receive a certificate of partial qualification, provided they have met all the requirements of the corresponding partial qualification listed in the OKJ. In practice, however, this rarely happens.

The independent examination board comprises four members; one of the candidate's teacher/trainer, others include experts from the pool of registered examiners. The president of the board is appointed by the minister responsible for VET and adult training (via the ministry's relevant agency). In the case of trades overseen by the Chamber (MKIK) – that make up the majority of the qualifications – he/she is appointed from among the experts recommended by the Chamber.

The examination is holistic and covers the whole qualification. In school-based VET, the completion of a module is certified by a certificate issued upon the successful completion of the reference school year; the prerequisite to sitting an examination is the successful completion of all school years. In adult training, modular exams are organised, as a precondition of sitting the final vocational exam.

⁽⁵³⁾ Ministry for National Economy: Concept on the restructuring of the VET system in adjustment to the needs of the economy, 2011.

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Government decree of 315/2013. (VIII. 28.)

Level exams were introduced almost a decade ago in occupations in which content development was delegated to the Chamber of Commerce and Industry (MKIK). The 2011 VET Act stipulates that level examinations shall be mandatory and their successful completion is a precondition to participating in practical training at the workplace. The requirements of the level examination are developed by the Chamber (MKIK) in collaboration with the training institution; the exam is organised by MKIK but involves other organisations as well, in trades that are not under its supervision. Since 2013, level examinations take place in the second half of the first vocational year; they certify that the student has the vocational practical basic skills and knowledge that are needed to start practical training at a workplace. The typical age for a level exam is 15 (as opposed to 17 in the outgoing VET system). Level examination results are not included in the academic results of the student. Organising level examinations is not required in adult training.

3.4 Participation of economic actors in VET

Participation of economic councils and committees in VET policy development increased since the beginning of the 1990s and their influence is growing. The rationale behind that is to improve the labour market relevance of training.

There are four bodies that need to be mentioned:

1. National Economic and Social Council (*Nemzeti Gazdasági és Társadalmi Tanács*, NGTT): it may discuss VET-related matters at the highest level. The NGTT is a consultative and advisory body independent from the government and the Parliament; it is a multi-faceted forum representing, in addition to employers and employees associations, economic chambers, civil organisations, representatives of science as well as churches. However, VET is only sporadically put on its agenda.
2. National Vocational and Adult Training Council (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Tanács*, NSZFT): it is a body working specifically in the field of VET. The NSZFT is a consultative national body assisting the minister responsible for VET by preparing decisions, reviewing and consulting. It does not have any decision-making rights; it can only issue recommendations and appraisals with respect to strategic questions, VET policy and financing, draft legislation, OKJ development and the allocation of development funds (see also 2.2.1). It is made up of twenty members.
3. National Qualification Committee (*Nemzeti Képesítési Bizottság*, NKB): it is a professional consultative-advisory body working on the continuous development and improvement of VET content. It monitors the development of VET qualification structure, the economic, labour market and technical-technological processes and, based on these, makes recommendations on the modification of the OKJ. It has thirty members.
4. County development and training committees (*megyei fejlesztési és képzési bizottságok*, MFKB): the 7-members county (capital) level bodies established with the objective of improving VET and asserting labour market needs through consulting, reviewing, giving

recommendations and advice. Pursuant to the VET Act of 2011, the MFKB contributes to coordinating national economy needs and VET development based on labour market information, employment and employability data and prognosis. It makes recommendations on capital/county level needs of VET and student enrolment quotas for each qualification. It makes a recommendation on those vocational qualifications that in the given county qualify for scholarship support as defined in the government decree on the vocational school scholarship (see section 4.1). It makes a recommendation on the beneficiaries and the amount of support they can get through tenders funded from the decentralised section of the training sub-fund of the National Employment Fund (see section 2.2.1).

Encouraging the participation of the enterprises in training provision, i.e., increasing the share of practical training provided at the workplace vis-à-vis school workshops is one of the main objectives of VET policy. In the case of ISCED 3 level professions, which typically train for blue-collar jobs, the larger share of practical training has already moved to enterprises. The number of training contracts (see also section 2.2) has been constantly increasing for the last decade, even during the years of economic crisis. The target number of training contracts for 2018 is 70 000 ⁽⁵⁵⁾ (Table 4).

Table 4 Number of students participating in training contract-based practical training (2003-13)

Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Number of training contracts	14 000	16 400	21 300	35 000	37 000	44 000	46 000	48 000	49 000	49 900	50 700

Source: Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara), 2014.

The 2012 amendment of the VET Act of 2011 further contributes to the increasing ‘dualisation’ of VET. According to that, students can now start practical training based on a training contract two years earlier than before, at the age of 14 (year 9) in their first VET grade (as opposed to year 11 at the age of 16). It should be noted, however, that in year 9 they can be trained only in a company workshop. Since 2011 several steps have been made to increase the financial incentives related to practical training. Companies can be reimbursed for the majority of their training costs from the training sub-fund of the National Employment Fund (see section 2.2.1).

At the same time, however, the involvement of enterprises in post-secondary VET is still insignificant; economic actors do not yet show an interest in increasing dual training at this level, therefore it is still mostly provided in school-based training.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ <http://mkik.hu/hu/magyar-kereskedelmi-es-iparkamara/cikkek/tajekoztato-az-oroszagos-szakkepzesi-es-felnottkepzesi-tanevnyitorol-74912>

One of the priorities of VET policy is to encourage training in jobs that are in high demand on the labour market, primarily through financial incentives. Presently the most important instrument is the vocational school scholarship programme (see section 4.1). Schools are free to admit an unlimited number of students to shortage job programmes while there are restrictions for other occupations.

Promoting participation in VET

Increasing participation in IVET is part of the government's education and training strategies and action plans. The current government set the goal to significantly increase the share of vocational school (*szakiskola*, SZI) programmes within upper secondary education, in part by raising admission quotas in SZI while reducing them in the other two upper secondary (general and SKZI) programmes. It has thus become a high priority issue to raise the prestige of VET and attract more students to vocational training, simultaneously with bringing VET supply more in line with the demands of the labour market. One of the most important governing principles that have informed the restructuring of school-based VET is the formative role attributed to the concept of work-based learning. Based on the assumption that unmotivated and low-achieving students may be better kept within the system if they do not have to spend much of their time in the classroom, the share of practical training – mainly in the form of apprenticeship schemes – has been significantly raised in IVET programmes, along with shortening of the total duration of training (see section 2.2.1). The goal is to make dual training the norm regarding blue-collar jobs, with two thirds of the total amount of hours devoted to VET, out of which 40-70% (in most cases 70%) is to be spent at practical training.

4.1 Financial incentives

4.1.1 Financial incentives in IVET

Participation in IVET is encouraged through various financial incentives:

Regular allowance for students in enterprise-based training

Participants in enterprise-based training (in any kind of IVET programme) receive payment during their summer practice if training is based on a cooperation agreement, or for the whole year if training is based on a training contract (see section 2.2.1 under 'Practical training provision and apprenticeships'). Regulated by the VET act, the amount received is related to the amount of the prevailing minimal wage and is also contingent on the amount of time spent in practical training; it is further shaped by the student's grade point average and level of performance.

Scholarship for vocational school (SZI) students training in shortage occupations

The vocational school scholarship scheme was launched in February 2010. It was introduced to make VET and the career of skilled workers in manual or blue collar occupations that are classified as being in high demand in the labour market more attractive, and thus to alleviate the real or alleged lack of skilled labour in those areas. Eligible students should

1. train for one of the 10 shortage occupations (per county) as defined by the county development and training committees (*megyei fejlesztési és képzési bizottság*, MFKB, see sections 2.2.1. and 3.4),
2. reach a minimum grade point average of 2.5 (5 being the highest), and
3. have less than 10 hours of unjustified absence from school.

On meeting these requirements, students receive HUF 10 000 (EUR 35) per month in the first semester; this amount in the following semesters may vary from HUF 10 000 to 30 000 (EUR 35-105), depending on their performance. The measure is funded from the training sub-fund of the National Employment Fund (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap*; for figures see Table 30 in Annex).

First feedback shows that the scholarship programme has indeed increased applications for shortage occupations; however, there is no unequivocal evidence with regard to its impact on student performance. Furthermore, what qualifies for a shortage occupation is a matter of definition, and may have little to do with actual shortages in the labour market (Mártonfi 2011a).

Local VET scholarship programmes

In an effort to compensate for both the internal problems of VET and the mismatch between VET supply and labour market demand, a few local (municipal) governments have implemented their own local measures. The cities of Győr – which happens to be the most industrialised city of Hungary – and Zalaegerszeg, for example, introduced their own local scholarship schemes in 2008 and 2009, respectively, to attract more students to specific vocational programmes that train for occupations in high demand in the local labour market. The aim is to provide the necessary level of skilled labour force supply to meet the employment needs of local industry.

These local council stipends are paid on top of other local or national allowance programmes (e.g. training contracts; company scholarships, or the national scholarship programme for vocational school students training in shortage occupations). Altogether these may add up to an amount similar to the minimum wage. The amount of stipend varies, and is usually contingent on the grade point average of the student.

Scholarship for disadvantaged VET students

There are other, relatively small-scale measures aiming at reducing drop-outs from IVET that include a scholarship scheme combined with mentoring. The multi-component programme 'Supply for the trip' (*Útravaló*) was launched in 2005. It aims at assisting the socio-economic integration of children coming from disadvantaged families afflicted by poverty and/or long-term unemployment. One of the subprogrammes called 'Road to a profession' (*Út a szakmához*) provides modest financial support for disadvantaged VET students as well as for their teachers (mentors). *Útravaló* and various other programmes financed by the Public Foundation for the Roma in Hungary (*Magyarországi Cigányokért Közalapítvány*, MACIKA) were merged in September 2011, and a quota of at least 50% was set for Roma kids.

Students and their mentor teachers/trainers can apply in pairs for a monthly allowance. In 2013/14, students in the “Road to a profession’ scheme could get HUF 7-13 000 (EUR 24-44), depending on school performance, and mentors received HUF 7000 (EUR 25) per month. The number of student beneficiaries was 2 991, with 1 678 mentors supporting their training. In the first half of the school year, HUF 230 million (EUR 780 000) was spent on the sub-programme. However, due to a shortage of funds, no call for new applications was announced in 2014 ⁽⁵⁶⁾.

Scholarship for disadvantaged students to assist entering VET

A new programme called ‘Road to choosing a trade’ (*Út a szakmaválasztáshoz*) was launched at the end of 2013, co-financed by EU funds ⁽⁵⁷⁾. It aims to assist the career choice of at least 6 000 disadvantaged (primarily Roma) students in year 7 or 8 of primary school so that they would remain in education, finish primary school and enter a VET school. Support will take the form of career guidance, a monthly allowance and mentoring. As in the ‘Road to vocation’ programme, students and mentors can apply in pairs. Mentors receive a monthly allowance of HUF 11 500 (EUR 38) per student, while students’ allowance depends on school performance, ranging between HUF 10 000 and 18 000 (EUR 33-60) per month.

4.1.2 Financial incentives in adult training

Tax incentive for employers

As of January 2013 companies can again allocate a part of their training levy (see section 2.2) to co-finance their employees’ vocational and foreign language training. However, this option is only available for companies that provide practical training to at least 45 apprentices (VET school students), and only up to at most 16.5% of their training levy. Due to these strict criteria, only a very few large companies are expected to be able to make use of this measure (see section 2.3).

4.2 Regulatory instruments

Training leave

Training leave was guaranteed by the Labour Code of 1992 in case the employee participated in formal education provided within the school system, or when further training was mandatory in that job or required by the employer. The new Labour Code of 2012 requires employers to provide training leave for their employees only when they attend primary school or if they had started their studies prior to 1 July, 2012. Otherwise training leave may be granted in study contracts (see below).

⁽⁵⁶⁾ http://hvg.hu/itthon/20141105_Orban_a_szakkepzeset_erolteti_de_nem_jut_o

⁽⁵⁷⁾ <https://tamop227a.munka.hu>

Payback clauses

The Labour Code of 2012 specifies the characteristics of a study contract (*tanulmányi szerződés*) through which the employer can support the employee's studies. Employers typically allow paid training leave (or allow to work later the hours of the time absent) and pay the tuition fees, costs of training materials and examination fees, possibly also travel and accommodation costs, etc. In return, the employee binds him/herself to remain in employment for a definite period of time after the completion of training, usually as long as the duration of the training programme but maximum five years.

4.3 Guidance and counselling structures and services

It was mainly the establishment of the European lifelong guidance policy network (ELGPN) which propelled forward developments regarding guidance and counseling at national level. In 2008, the Hungarian lifelong guidance council (*Nemzeti Pályaorientációs Tanács*, NPT) was founded, gathering in which delegates of concerned ministries, social partners and other institutions worked together. A national development programme was also launched to create an integrated national lifelong guidance system (see below). The NPT council prepared a respective policy document in 2010. The NPT was closed in November 2012, its role and function have been taken over by the Vocational Guidance Sub-Committee (*NSZFT Pályaorientációs Bizottság*), established within the framework of the National Vocational and Adult Training Council (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Tanács*, NSZFT, see section 3.4)

Based on a 2014 government decision (319/2014 (XII. 13.) Government decree) a new National office of Vocational education and training and Adult Learning (*Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Hivatal*, NSZFH) was established in December 2014. It is responsible for the further development of lifelong guidance services at national level. At the same time the National Labour Office (320/2014 (XII. 13.) Government degree) is closed down on 31 December 2014. As of 1 January 2015 the supervision of the PES – including labour market services – falls under the Ministry for National Economy.

Integrated career guidance

Since the mid- 1990s, legislation has increasingly emphasised career orientation and vocational guidance. This also relates to content development and service for individuals, using up-to-date approaches and tools. An online integrated information database on labour market data and outcomes of various educational pathways was created as part of a large-scale integrated career guidance development programme supported within the framework of the Social Renewal Operational Programme (SROP, co-financed by ESF) and implemented with the coordination of the National Employment Office (*Foglalkoztatási Hivatal*, FH). The programme involved developments in IT, methodology and teacher, social worker and career counsellor training. A lifelong guidance portal was launched in September 2010, integrating

and connecting several official national databases⁽⁵⁸⁾. To ensure a uniform standard of guidance services' operation a set of unified guidelines was also developed.

Developments since 2010

The legislation introduced since 2010 reflects a radically different approach. The number of young people who are able to choose a school or career that fits their own preferences remains low – this is the main issue to be tackled, according to the sector's decision-makers and the Chamber (MKIK) As a result, learners drop out, change programmes or adjust their career path later.'⁽⁵⁹⁾. The most important goal now is to promote early career guidance in the last two years (7-8) of primary school, which effectively supports school and vocational choices. This is expected to ensure that young people are able to make the 'right' decision by the age of 14, one that they can stick to later on.

The 2011 Public Education Act stipulates that i teachers have to support the career orientation of students and assist them in preparing for a professional career"⁽⁶⁰⁾. This approach is partly different from the previous one that assigned this duty to trained experts alongside with the teachers and school staff. In addition, the question of career education is not addressed at all in the text of the legislation, except in relation to bridge programmes. Similarly, the 2012 National Core Curriculum (*Nemzeti alaptanterv*, NAT) considers guidance a means to support choosing one's career. In lower secondary years 'great emphasis should be placed on vocational guidance and orientation. Guidance services must create the conditions and activities which allow students to try their abilities, gain insight into areas of their interest, find their calling and choose the career that best suits them'⁽⁶¹⁾.

The improvement of career guidance services is set as an objective in the newly accepted Public education and LLL strategies of 2014. The new strategy aims to accelerate the development of career orientation and guidance services in schools and to include such services among the tasks of institutions providing pedagogical services. The new LLL strategy states that "the National Core Curriculum encourages career guidance by developing and harmonising the following skills and competences in various subject areas: learning to learn, creativity, decision-making, self-awareness, self-management, career correction, communication skills. In addition, it is necessary to further develop and expand career guidance information systems so that they would be available to all students; career orientation activities provided within the school system should be coordinated with labour market career guidance."⁽⁶²⁾

⁽⁵⁸⁾ <http://www.eletpalya.munka.hu>.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ Ministry for National Economy: Concept on the restructuring of the VET system in adjustment to the needs of the economy, 2011.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ Public Education Act of 2011, 62. § (1).

⁽⁶¹⁾ Government decree 110/2012. (VI. 4.) on the issuing, introduction and implementation of the National Core Curriculum.

⁽⁶²⁾ *Az egész életen át tartó tanulás szakpolitikájának keretstratégiája a 2014/2020 közötti időszakra*. p. 97.
<http://www.kormany.hu/download/7/fe/20000/Egész%20életen%20át%20tartó%20tanulás.pdf>

4.4 Campaigns and competitions

Occasionally, state funded media campaigns are run to improve the public esteem of VET. Participation in Euroskills and Worldskills competitions is also meant to contribute towards this goal. Inspired by these examples, the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry organises the 'Outstanding Student of the Trade' competition of graduating IVET students in occupations that fall under the Chamber's supervision. The annual contest takes place during the 'Trade Star Festival', which by now has become an important media event.

Hungary has been a member of WorldSkills International since 2006 and the European Skills Promotion Organization since 2008. As part of the framework agreement signed in November 2010 by the Prime Minister and the President of the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry, all tasks and responsibilities related to the organisation of Hungary's participation in EuroSkills and WorldSkills competitions were delegated to the Chamber.

National qualifying competitions are attracting an increasing number of participants and visitors. Around 3300 graduating VET school students, teachers and trainers attended the Skills Hungary National Finals on 5 March, 2014. This is a new initiative; previously, qualifying competitions were organised by the sponsor of the trade at different times and venues. Merging all these competitions in one large-scale national event is expected to reach a wider target group as well as to provide a forum to meet and liaise with representatives of other trades.

At the 2014 Skills Hungary National Finals 49 young people competed in 12 trades to win the right to participate in EuroSkills Lille 2014 and WorldSkills Sao Paolo 2015.

At the WorldSkills Leipzig 2013 competition Hungary gained its best results ever, winning 5 Medallions for Excellence (in carpentry, beautician, painter, information network and mechatronics). At the EuroSkills Lille 2014 competition Hungary was represented by a team of 20 competitors in 15 skills, and finished sixth out of the 25 participating countries.

Pursuant to the decision of the WorldSkills Europe General Assembly held in May 2014 in Lille, Hungary is going to be the first ever Eastern European country to organise an international Skills event, EuroSkills 2018 in Budapest.

Since the late 1990s, annual Job and Career Fairs are organised by the Public Employment Service every autumn in order to help young people get better acquainted with VET and the world of work. The goal is to present the demands of the labour market to young people and to provide them with information regarding their training and employment opportunities. Presenters include educational institutions of all levels (secondary, higher, adult training) as well as employers.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

CVET	Continuing vocational education and training [szakmai továbbképzés, SZT]
ELGPN	European Lifelong Guidance Policy Network
EMMI	Emberi Erőforrások Minisztériuma [Ministry of Human Resources]
FOKSZ	Felsőoktatási Szakképzés [Higher education vocational programmes]
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education [az oktatási egységes nemzetközi osztályozási rendszere]
IVET	Initial vocational education and training [nappali iskolarendszerű szakképzés]
KLIK	Klebelsberg Intézményfenntartó Központ [Klebelsberg Institution Maintenance Centre]
KSH	Központi Statisztikai Hivatal [Hungarian Central Statistical Office]
LLL	lifelong learning [élethosszig tartó tanulás]
MFKB	megyei fejlesztési és képzési bizottság [county development and training committee]
MKIK	Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara [Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry]
MKIK GVI	Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara, Gazdaság- és Vállalkozáskutató Intézet [Institute for Economic and Enterprise Research of the Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry]
MKKR HQF	Magyar Képesítési Keretrendszer Hungarian Qualifications Framework
NAK	Nemzeti Agrárgazdasági Kamara [National Chamber of Agriculture]
NAT	Nemzeti Alaptanterv [National Core Curriculum]
NUTS	The NUTS classification [Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics] is a hierarchical system for dividing up the economic territory of the EU
NGTT	Nemzeti Gazdasági és Társadalmi Tanács [National Economic and Social Council]

NFA	Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Alap [National Employment Fund]
NFSZ	Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Szolgálat [National Employment Service]
NGM	Nemzetgazdasági Minisztérium [Ministry for National Economy]
NGTT	Nemzeti Gazdasági és Társadalmi Tanács [National Economic and Social Council]
NKB	Nemzeti Képesítési Bizottság [National Qualification Committee]
NPT	Nemzeti Pályaorientációs Tanács [Hungarian lifelong guidance council]
NMH SZFI	Nemzeti Munkaügyi Hivatal, Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Igazgatóság (National Labour Office, VET and Adult Education Directorate)
NSZFT	Nemzeti Szakképzési és Felnőttképzési Tanács (National Vocational and Adult Training Council)
OH	Oktatási Hivatal (Educational Authority)
OKJ	Országos Képzési Jegyzék (National Qualifications Register)
SROP	Social Renewal Operational Programme (Társadalmi Megújulás Operatív Program)
SZH	szakképzési hozzájárulás [vocational training contribution]
SZI	szakiskola [vocational school]
SZKI	szakközépiskola (secondary vocational school)
SZVK	szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények [vocational and examination requirements]
TISZK	térségi integrált szakképző központ (regional integrated vocational training centres)
TKKI	Türr István Képző és Kutató Intézet [Türr István Training and Research Institute]
VET	vocational education and training (szakképzés, szakmai képzés)

ANNEX 1

Statistical background information

Table 1: **Total population [on 1st of January], 2004, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013**

geotime	2004	2010	2011	2012	2013
EU 28	492 709 300	503 379 305	504 961 522	506 098 349	507 162 571
HU	10 116 742	10 014 324	9 985 722	9 931 925	9 908 798

Source: Eurostat (Demographic Statistics); Date of extraction: 09-11-2014

Table 2: **Age-specific demographic projections, baseline scenario until 2040**

	2020	2030	2040
Total	9 610 945	9 209 492	8 770 995
Aged 0-24	2 387 523	2 266 972	2 109 778
Aged 25 -64	5 308 605	4 939 631	4 516 833
Aged 65+	1 914 817	2 002 889	2 144 384

Source: Hungarian Central Statistics Office (Központi Statisztikai Hivatal)
<http://demografia.hu/index.php/kutatasok/nepelo> , http://demografia.hu/nepelo/nepelo_alap_2013.xls

Table 3: **Projected old-age dependency ratio, 2013-2070**

geotime	2013	2020	2030	2040	2050	2060	2070
EU 28	27.48	31.82	39.01	45.91	49.43	50.16	49.35
HU	25.11	30.51	34.36	39.81	47.33	52.35	52.39

Source: Eurostat - *tsdde511*, Extracted: 15-12-2014

Table 4: **Distribution of learners in year 9 by upper secondary programme type 2006-2012 (*)**

Number of students	2006/2007	2007/2008	2008/2009	2009/2010	2010/2011	2011/2012	2012/2013
Vocational school (SZI)**	35575	34821	35759	37205	38166	38144	39588
Secondary vocational school (SZKI)	50328	49212	47571	46371	46223	42255	39504
Grammar school (Gimnázium)	45711	43796	43150	41398	42464	40819	38665
Total	131614	127829	126480	124974	126853	121218	
Student rate (%)							
Vocational school (SZI)**	27.0	27.2	28.3	29.8	30.1	31.5	33,6
Secondary vocational school (SZKI)	38.3	38.5	37.6	37.1	36.4	34.9	33.5
Grammar school (Gimnázium)	34.7	34.3	34.1	33.1	33.5	33.7	32.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

NB. * Including repeaters (i.e. students who at the end of school year 9 repeat the same grade level for the next school year).

** Including special vocational schools.

Source: Ministry of Human Resources (Emberi Erőforrások Minisztériuma), 2012 and Hungarian Central Statistical Office (Központi Statisztikai Hivatal) STADAT database.

Table 5: **Persons of the age 20 to 24 having completed at least upper secondary education, 2005-2013,%**

geo	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
EU-28	77.6	78.1	78.3	78.7	78.8	79.2	79.6	80.3	81.0
HU	83.4	82.9	84	83.6	84.0	84.0	83.3	83.5	84.3

Source: Eurostat (LFS); extracted: 09-11-2014;

Table 6: **Early school leavers (%), 2004-2013**

GEO/TIME	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
EU 28	16.0	15.7	15.3	14.9	14.7	14.2	13.9	13.4	12.7	12.0
HU	12.6	12.5	12.6	11.4	11.7	11.2	10.5	11.2	11.5	11.8

Source: Eurostat (LFS); Extracted: 09-11-2014

Table 7: **Lifelong learning-adult participation in education and training, 2004-2013, (%)**

Geo	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
EU 28	9.6	9.5	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.1	8.9	9.0	10.5
HU	3.9	3.8	3.6	3.1	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.8	3.0

Source: Eurostat (LFS); Extracted on: 09-11-2014

Table 8: **Real GDP growth rate volume in Hungary and EU-28, 2004-13 (% change on previous year)**

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Hungary	4.8	4	3.9	0.1	0.9	-6.8	1.1	1.6	-1.7	1.1
EU-28	2.6	2.2	3.4	3.2	0.4	-4.5	2	1.6	-0.4	0.1

NB: Gross domestic product (GDP) is a measure of economic activity, defined as the value of all goods and services produced less the value of any goods or services used in their creation.

Source: Eurostat; Extracted on: 09-11-2014.

Table 9: **Company size structure in Hungary, 2012**

Size / Indicators	Number of companies	Number of employees	Added value
Micro enterprise	95.1	38.5	20.0
Small enterprise	4.1	18.3	16.0
Medium-sized enterprise	0.7	16.4	19.1
Total SMEs	99.9	73.1	55.2
Large enterprise (employing over 250)	0.1	26.9	44.8

Source: KSH

Table 10: **Employed persons aged 15+ by economic sector of activity, % of total employment, 2012**

	Agriculture	Industry	Market services	Non-Market services	Total
EU-27 - Men	5.8	35.2	40.3	18.6	100
HU - Men	7.2	39.0	37.2	16.6	100
EU-27 – Women	4.0	12.5	38.8	44.6	100
HU – Women	2.9	19.2	38.6	39.4	100

Source: Eurostat, Extracted on 09-11-2014.

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/File:Employed_persons_economic_activity,_2012.png

Table 11: **Employment rates by sex in the 20 to 64 years age group, 2007-13 (%)**

GEO/TIME	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
EU-28							
total	69.8	70.3	69.0	68.5	68.5	68.4	68.4
male	77.7	77.8	75.7	75.0	74.9	74.5	74.3
female	62.1	62.8	62.3	62.0	62.2	62.4	62.6
Hungary							
total	62.6	61.9	60.5	60.4	60.7	62.1	63.2
male	70.2	69.0	67.0	66.0	66.8	68.1	69.7
female	55.5	55.1	54.4	55.0	54.9	56.4	57.0

Source: Eurostat, Extracted on 09-11-2014

Table 12: **Employed persons aged 15 years and older by sex: composition by occupation (main job), 2012, %**

	Skilled non manual	Low skilled non manual	Skilled manual	Elementary occupations	Total
EU-27					
Total	40.1	27.1	23.7	9.1	100
Men	38.9	17.3	36.3	7.5	100
Women	41.6	38.7	8.7	10.9	100
HU					
Total	35.6	23.8	31.4	9.2	100
Men	29.6	15.5	46.7	8.2	100
Women	42.5	33.4	13.9	10.2	100

Source: EUROSTAT,

http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/File:Employed_persons_occupation,_2012.png

Table 13: **Relative earnings of workers, by educational attainment and age group (2012), Adults with income from employment; upper secondary education = 100**

		Below upper secondary education	Post-secondary non-tertiary education	All tertiary education
Age group				
Hungary	25-64	78	122	208
	25-34	81	116	181
	55-64	76	127	222
EU-21 average	25-64	79	106	159
	25-34	84	98	138
	55-64	75	109	175

Source: OECD. Education at a glance, 2014, 141.p.,

<http://www.oecd.org/edu/education-at-a-glance-2014-indicators-by-chapter.htm>

Table 14: **Trends in relative earnings of workers, by educational attainment and gender (2000, 2005, 2010, 2011, 2012), 25-64 year-olds with income from employment; upper secondary education = 100**

	2000	2005	2010	2011	2012

		2000	2005	2010	2011	2012
		Below upper secondary				
Hungary	Men	81	80	80	79	80
	Women	77	77	75	75	77
	Total	77	78	77	76	78
EU-21	Men	82	82	80	78	79
	Women	78	78	76	76	77
	Total	82	81	78	78	79
		Tertiary				
Hungary	Men	252	262	259	256	246
	Women	179	202	198	193	184
	Total	210	229	221	217	208
EU-21	Men	160	165	169	165	171
	Women	153	158	161	166	162
	Total	155	159	162	160	162

Source: OECD. Education at a glance, 2014, 142-143.pp., www.oecd.org/edu/eag2014

Table 15: Trends in employment rates, by educational attainment and age group, 2005-2010-2012, Percentage of employed 25-64 year-olds/25-34 year-olds/55-64 year-olds among all 25-64 year-olds/25-34 year-olds/55-64 year-olds

	TIME	2005			2010			2012		
	ISCED / AGE	25-64	25-34	55-64	25-64	25-34	55-64	25-64	25-34	55-64
EU 21	0-2	54	61	33	52	56	35	51	55	35
	3-4	74	78	45	73	77	48	73	75	50
	5-6	85	85	63	84	83	64	83	82	66
HU	0-2	38	49	16	38	40	20	39	43	21
	3-4	70	75	39	66	71	35	68	72	38
	5-6	83	83	60	79	79	54	80	79	57

Source: Education at a glance 2014, OECD, 120-121.pp., www.oecd.org/edu/eag2014

Table 16: Trends in unemployment rates, by educational attainment and age group (2005-12), Percentage of unemployed 25-64 year-olds/25-34 year-olds/55-64 year-olds among 25-64 year-olds/25-34 year-olds/55-64 year-olds in the labour force

TIME		2005			2010			2012		
	ISCED / AGE	25-64	25-34	55-64	25-64	25-34	55-64	25-64	25-34	55-64
EU 21	0-2	12.8	19.2	8.6	15.2	22.7	10.1	16.9	24.2	12.2
	3-4	6.8	8.1	6.3	8.5	10.8	7.1	9.3	12.3	7.6
	5-6	4.1	5.8	3.7	5.0	6.9	4.1	5.7	8.5	4.1
HU	0-2	12.4	16.7	6.4	23.5	32.6	16.2	22.8	27.9	15.2
	3-4	6.0	7.3	4.0	9.5	11.4	7.9	9.4	12.7	7.4
	5-6	2.3	3.1	1.8	4.1	6.3	2.0	4.0	5.7	4.1

Source: Education at a glance 2014, OECD, 122-123.pp. www.oecd.org/edu/eag2014

Table 17: **Unemployment rate by level of education and gender, 2007-2013, %**

	8 grades of primary school or less	Vocational school	Secondary school	College, University	Total
Males					
2007	18.4	6.8	5.1	2.4	7.1
2008	19.8	7.6	5.3	2.3	7.6
2009	24.4	10.6	7.7	3.8	10.3
2010	26.9	12.1	8.4	4.9	11.6
2011	25.0	12.0	8.2	4.3	11.0
2012	25.1	11.8	9.4	4.2	11.2
2013	25.4	10.7	8.3	3.6	10.2
Females					
2007	16.0	9.4	6.2	3.3	7.6
2008	17.5	9.5	6.9	3.2	8.1
2009	21.6	12.4	7.7	4.1	9.7
2010	22.8	12.6	9.5	4.5	10.7
2011	24.3	12.6	9.9	4.6	10.9
2012	24.3	12.6	9.4	4.7	10,6
2013	22,9	12,8	9.1	4.4	10,2

Source: Fazekas Károly – Neumann László (eds.): Munkaerőpiaci Tükör 2013. Budapest: MTA KRTK Közgazdaságtudományi Intézet, 2014, 276-277. pp.

Table 18: **Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at secondary level of education (ISCED 2-4), 2002-2010**

Geo	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
EU28	2.29	2.23	2.20	2.17	2.17	2.22	2.39	2.37	2.23
HU	2.71	2.46	2.36	2.34	2.33	2.25	2.22	2.07	1.96

Source: Eurostat (UOE); extracted on: 09-11-2014;

Table 19a: **Participation rate of adults in formal education and training by highest level of education attained (%), 2011 [Last update: 09-12-2013]**

	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6	Total
EU-28	2.5 ^(e)	5.4 ^(e)	11.0 ^(e)	6.2 ^(e)
HU	1.4 ^(bu)	6.5 ^(b)	10.8 ^(b)	6.5 ^(b)

NB: ^(b) break in time series

^(e) estimated

^(u) low reliability

Source: Eurostat adult education survey [cited on 26.11.2014].

Table 19b: **Participation rate of adults in non-formal education and training by highest level of education attained (%), 2011** [Last update: 09-12-2013]

	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6	Total
EU-28	20.1 ^(e)	34.4 ^(e)	55.8 ^(e)	36.8 ^(e)
HU	23.6 ^(b)	36.2 ^(b)	52.8 ^(b)	37.6 ^(b)

NB: ^(b) break in time series

^(e) estimated

Source: Eurostat adult education survey [cited on 26.11.2014].

Table 20: **Number and distribution of apprenticeships by qualification/occupation, May 2014**

Occupation	Number of students	%
Cook	6908	14.6
Food and household retailer	4638	9.8
Waiter	4090	8.6
Pastry-cook	2211	4.7
Bricklayer	1878	4.0
Welder	1851	3.9
Hairdresser	1739	3.7
Cutter	1697	3.6
Electrician	1355	2.9
Body ironer	1256	2.6
Subtotal	27623	58.2
Total	47422	100.0

Source: Hungarian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (*Magyar Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara*).

Table 21: Amount (EUR million) and distribution of the vocational training contribution by the purpose of its use, 1998-2013

Year	Practical training provision for VET students in enterprises		Development subsidy ¹ for:				Training provision for employees ²		Payment into the MPA training subfund		Total	
			VET schools (SZI and SZKI)		higher education institutions							
	EUR	%	EUR	%	EUR	%	EUR	%	EUR	%	EUR	%
1998	23.7	-	-	-	n/a	-	-	-	36.1	-	59.8	-
1999	22.2	-	-	-	n/a	-	-	-	43.5	-	65.7	-
2000	21.2	-	-	-	n/a	-	3.84	-	51.14	-	76.14	-
2001	24.2	16.6	46.3	31.8	3.51	2.41	9.35	6.4	62.3	42.8	145.7	100.0
2002	28.4	15.8	51.4	28.6	9.47	5.26	13.9	7.8	76.5	42.6	179.6	100.0
2003	29.98	15.4	52.5	26.9	11.8	6.06	18.9	9.7	82.05	42.0	195.26	100.0
2004	31.8	15.1	49.3	23.4	13.1	6.21	21.4	10.2	95.4	45.2	211	100.0
2005	37.1	14.9	51.6	20.8	16.5	6.66	28.1	11.3	114.9	46.3	248.3	100.0
2006	41.6	16.2	46.5	18.1	16.6	6.49	29.5	11.5	122.2	47.6	256.5	100.0
2007	54.1	18.8	41.4	14.4	17.5	6.08	29.08	10.1	146.03	50.7	288.09	100.0
2008	64.08	19.8	42.6	13.2	17.9	5.54	31.04	9.6	167.6	51.8	323.6	100.0
2009	66.7	22.4	26.4	8.9	17.5	5.86	27.09	9.1	160.4	53.9	297.96	100.0
2010	76.7	24.1	29.4	9.3	17.4	5.5	23.97	7.5	170.3	53.6	317.7	100.0
2011	84.9	25.5	30.08	9.0	13.6	4.1	28.7	8.6	176.2	52.8	333.4	100.0
2012	127.8	32.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	271.9	68.0	399.7	100.0
2013*	127.8	40.3	-	-	-	-	**	**	183.9	59.7	308.06	100.0

NB: ⁽¹⁾ Until 2012 companies could choose to allocate a part (maximum 60% or 30%) of their SZH to give development subsidy (*fejlesztési támogatás*), i.e., equipment or money, directly to a VET school or a higher education institution of their choice, in order to develop their practical training infrastructure.

⁽²⁾ From 1997 until 2012 companies liable to pay the SZH could deduct the cost of employees' vocational and foreign language training from this 'training levy'. Since 2007, micro and small enterprises could allocate up to 60%, the rest 33% of the SZH on such purposes, but from 2009, in line with Commission Regulation (EC) No. 800/2008, companies were also required to share the costs. In 2011 HUF 8 billion/EUR 23.96 million was spent on the training of 137 575 employees from this source. From 2012 Act CLV of 2011 abolished this financing instrument, but a 2012 amendment of the law re-established it, although with strict conditions that would be met probably by only very few large companies (see 2.3).

(*) Planned

(**) Could not be estimated

Source: Ministry for National Economy (*Nemzetgazdasági Minisztérium*, NGM).

Table 22: **Increase of the amount of the vocational training contribution paid into the training sub-fund of the Labour Market Fund, 1998-2012**

Year	billion HUF [EUR 1≈ HUF 250-300]	% of 1998	Consumer price index 1998 = 100%	% of 1998 purchasing power parity
1998	8.7	100.00	-	-
1999	11.0	126.44	110.00	114.95
2000	13.3	152.87	120.78	126.57
2001	16.0	183.91	131.89	139.44
2002	18.6	213.79	138.88	153.94
2003	20.8	239.08	145.41	164.42
2004	24.0	275.86	155.30	177.63
2005	28.5	327.59	160.89	203.61
2006	32.3	371.26	167.16	222.10
2007	36.7	421.84	180.54	233.65
2008	42.1	483.91	191.55	252.63
2009	45.0	517.24	199.59	259.15
2010	46.9	539.08	209.37	257.48
2011	49.2	565.52	217.54	259.97
2012	78.7	904.60	229.94	393.41

Source: NGM, Central Statistical Office (*Központi Statisztikai Hivatal*, KSH)

Table 23. **Number and distribution of adult training programmes and participants by the type of training, 2013**

Type of training	Training programmes		Participants enrolled in training	
	number	%	number	%
basic vocational training grounding a vocational qualification	370	0.6	4 851	0.6
awarding a state-recognised OKJ qualification	10 056	15.8	152 017	20.3
awarding a qualification not listed in the OKJ but required for a job or occupation	3 863	6.1	56 594	7.6
vocational further training	11 816	18.6	208 505	27.8
catching-up training for disadvantaged people	310	0.5	5 019	0.7
training assisting employment, entrepreneurship	592	0.9	8 904	1.2
training preparing for a qualification awarded by public authorities (transportation, communication and water management sectors)	3 339	5.3	51 256	6.8
training preparing for a certified auditor qualification	17	0.0	301	0.0
foreign language training	22 650	35.7	128 219	17.1
general adult training	6 282	9.9	85 602	11.4
rehabilitation training for people with reduced working ability	27	0.0	827	0.1
IT training	4 147	6.5	46 308	6.2
developing entry competences	43	0.1	559	0.1
Total	63 512	100.0	748 962	100.0

Source: OSAP Statistical Database (<http://osap.nive.hu/statisztika>).
Date of extraction: 7 November 2014

Table 24. **Number and distribution of adult training participants by entry requirement, 2013**

Minimum school graduation certificate required for entry	Participants enrolled in training	
	number	%
less than 8 years of primary school	98 697	13.2
completion of the 8 years of primary school	385 760	51.5
vocational school (SZI)	6 841	0.9
special vocational school	143	0.0
catching-up programme	899	0.1
skilled workers' school	21 415	2.9
secondary vocational school (SZKI)	76 262	10.2
grammar school	33 426	4.5
technician school	8 435	1.1
college	36 058	4.8
university	1 892	0.3
completion of 10 years	11 677	1.6
completion of the 12th year in a secondary vocational school	17 459	2.3
completion of the 12th year in a grammar school	2 426	0.3
assessment of competences required for entry (at OKJ level 3)	2 977	0.4
relevant high education degree	44 595	6.0
total	748 962	100.0

Source: OSAP Statistical Database (<http://osap.nive.hu/statisztika>). Date of extraction: 7 November 2014

Table 25: **Number and distribution of adult training programmes and participants by duration of training, 2013**

Duration	Programmes (courses) (*)		Participants enrolled in training	
	number	%	number	%
shorter than 1 year	61 982	97.6	730 284	97.5
1-1.5 years	1 225	1.9	15 426	2.1
1.5-2 years	219	0.3	2 383	0.3
longer than 2 years	85	0.1	868	0.1
n/a	1	0.0	1	0.0
Total	63 512	100.0	748 962	100.0

NB: (*) Excluding 'trainings regulated by public authorities' (hatósági jellegű képzések) and courses of less than 25 hours.

Source: OSAP Statistical Database (<http://osap.nive.hu/statisztika>). Date of extraction: 7 November 2014

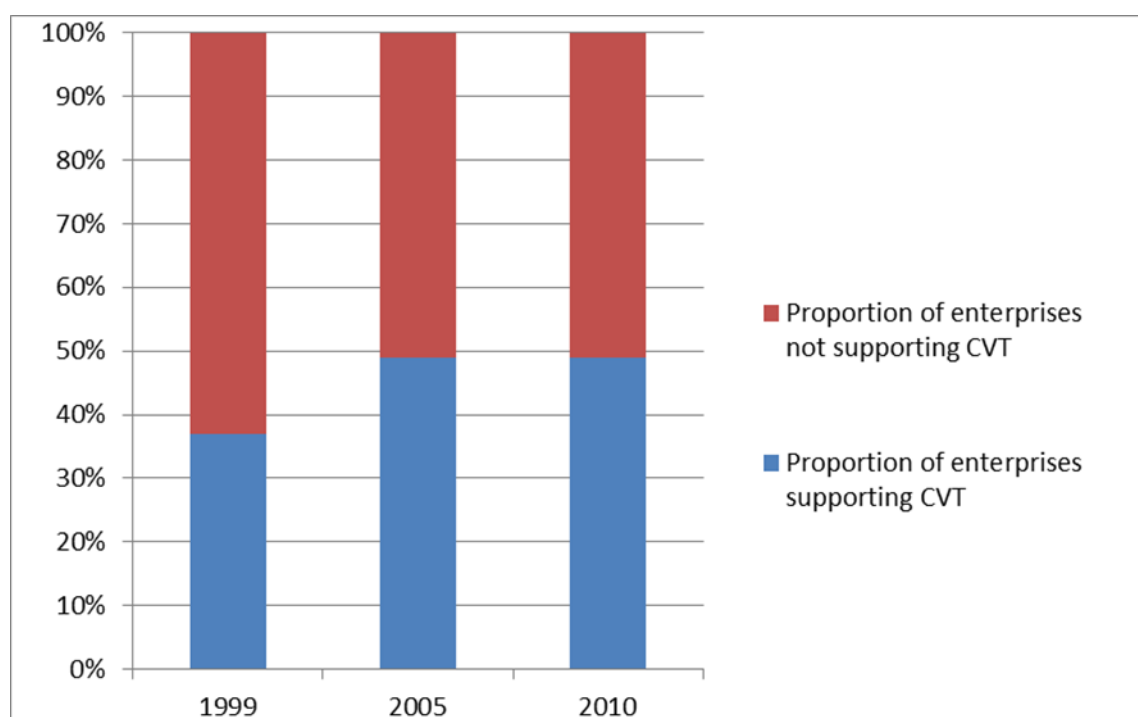
Table 26: Number and distribution of adult training programmes and participants by course hours, 2013

Course hours	Programmes (courses) (*)		Participants enrolled in training	
	number	%	number	%
200 hours or less	58 950	92.8	674 344	90.0
201-400 hours	2 200	3.5	34 814	4.6
401-600 hours	771	1.2	12 478	1.7
601-800 hours	299	0.5	4 991	0.7
801-1 000 hours	210	0.3	3 787	0.5
1 001-2 000 hours	1 043	1.6	17 827	2.4
more than 2 001 hours	39	0.1	721	0.1
Total	63 512	100.0	748 962	100.0

NB: (*) Excluding distance learning programmes

Source: OSAP Statistical Database (<http://osap.nive.hu/statisztika>). Date of extraction: 7 November 2014

Figure 1: Proportion of enterprises supporting and not supporting CVT



Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office: Statistical Reflections 2012/11

Table 27: Enterprises supporting training by enterprise size class, %

Size class	1999	2005	2010
10-49 employees	32	43	43
50-249 employees	51	79	74
250 employees or more	79	92	95
Total	37	49	49

Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office: Statistical Reflections 2012/11

Table 28: **Reasons for lack of trainings among enterprises not supporting training, %**

Denomination	1999	2005	2010
The existing qualifications, skills and competences of the persons employed were appropriate to the current needs of the enterprise	83	82	73
The preferred strategy of the enterprise was to recruit individuals with the required qualifications, skills and competences	70	38	29
Difficulties in assessing training needs in the enterprise	5	4	3
Lack of suitable offerings of CVT courses in the market	..	9	4
High costs of CVT courses	22	25	15
Higher focus on IVT provision than on CVT	39	2	4
Major efforts in CVT realised in recent years	3	3	1
High workload and no time available for staff to participate in CVT	12	29	9
Other reasons	4	11	11

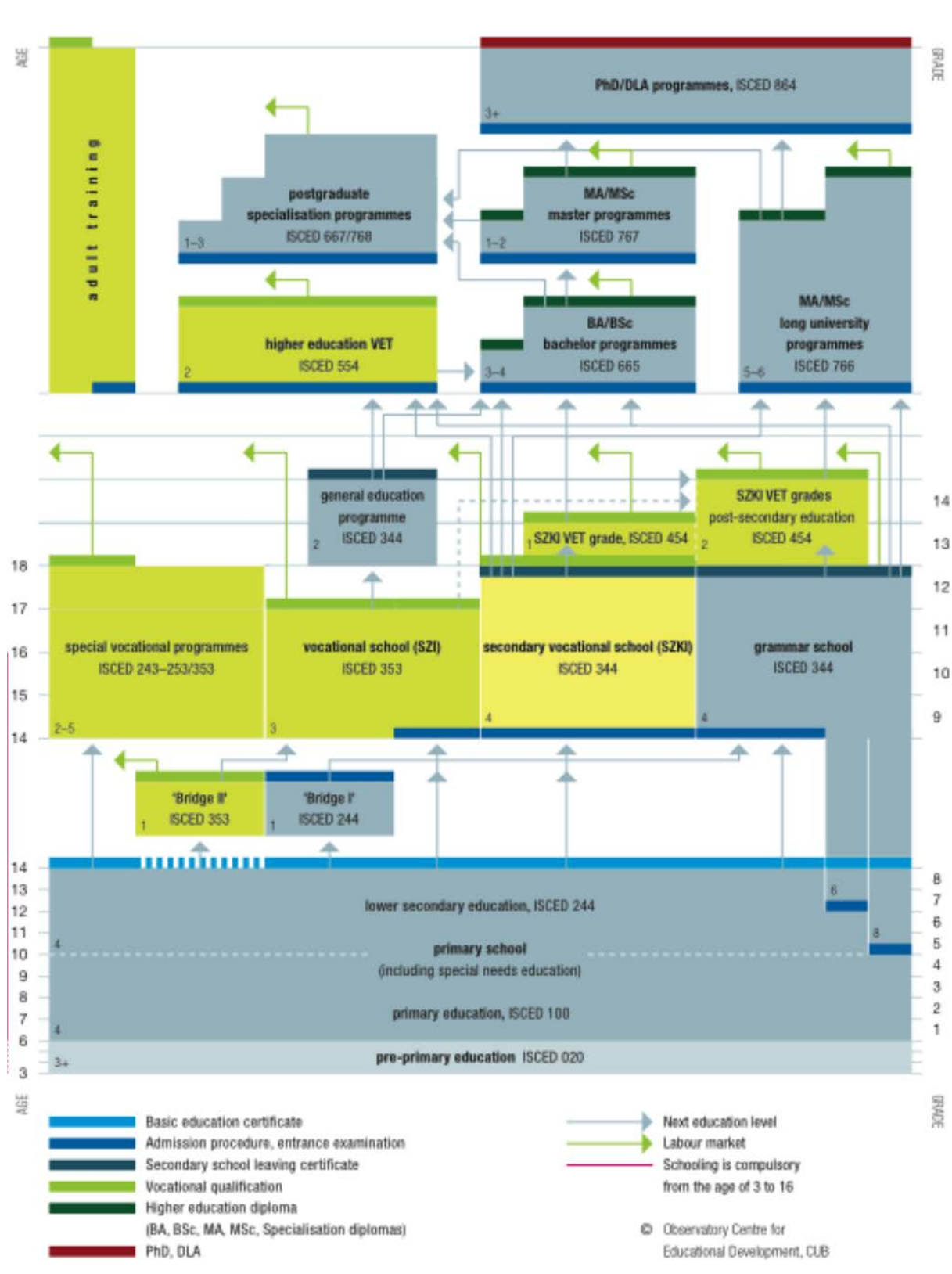
Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office: Statistical Reflections 2012/11

Table 29: **Number and distribution of participants in training programmes supported/coordinated by the National Employment Service by type of training, 2012**

Type of training	number	%
General education	1 886	3.9
Foreign language course	3 678	7.7
Vocational training awarding an OKJ qualification	29 471	61.5
Vocational training not awarding an OKJ qualification	10 862	22.6
Training regulated by public authorities	1 693	3.5
Services	59	0.1
Other	307	0.6
total	47 956	100.0

Source: National Employment Service (*Nemzeti Foglalkoztatási Szolgálat, NFSZ*)

Figure 2: Education and training pathways and transition points into the labour market, 2014/15



Source: ReferNet Hungary, 2014

Glossary

Adult education (*felnőttoktatás*): general or vocational training programmes provided within the school system in what is considered public or higher education either as full- or part-time or distance education; it targets adults who did not obtain a formal school certificate of a certain level or an OKJ qualification during their compulsory schooling, or who want to attain a new qualification.

Adult training (*felnőttképzés*): general, language or vocational training provided outside the school system, when participants do not have the legal status of student; it covers many different types and forms of learning opportunities. In contrast to previous legislation, the new Adult Training Act of 2013 applies only to courses that either award a state recognized certificate (an OKJ qualification or a language proficiency certificate) or are financed from public/EU sources.

Cooperation agreement (*együttműködési megállapodás*): agreement between a VET institution and an enterprise that allows learners to participate in enterprise-based training (for the complete duration of practical training or a part of it). In this kind of alternance training learners are not contractually linked to the employer, neither do they receive remuneration (only for the duration of their practice during the summer school holiday). Such a cooperation agreement can only be concluded under special conditions. The common form of enterprise-based training is a training contract.

General education years (*általánosan képző évfolyamok*): the first two years of vocational school (SZI) and first four years of secondary vocational school (SZKI) programmes of the previous VET system available until September 2012 (gradually phasing out until 2016); these VET programmes were made up of two parts, the first one providing only general education and some pre-vocational training.

Higher education (*felsőoktatás*): the sector of education that provides programmes at ISCED levels 5 through 8. Hungarian legislation does not classify ISCED 6, 7 and 8 level programmes as VET. ISCED 5 level vocational courses are available as higher education VET programmes.

Higher education VET (*felsőoktatási szakképzés*): 4-5 term vocational courses that award an ISCED 554 level higher education qualification (*felsőfokú szakképzettség*), but not a higher education degree; the predecessor of HE VET was called advanced vocational programme (*felsőfokú szakképzés*); they were introduced in 1998 as two-year ISCED 5B level programmes awarding an advanced level OKJ qualification. Until school year 2013/2014 the training organized by a higher education institution could also be (and in half of the cases was) provided in secondary vocational schools (SZKI), but now it is exclusively

delivered in colleges/universities. Credits obtained (minimum 30, maximum 90) can be transferred to a bachelor programme in the same field.

Language preparatory year (*nyelvi előkészítő évfolyam*, NYEK): a first, “extra” year in some special grammar schools (*gimnázium*) and secondary vocational schools (*szakközépiskola*, SZKI) where 40% of mandatory class hours is spent on intensive foreign language teaching. It is followed by the regular secondary school programme.

National qualifications register (*Országos Képzési Jegyzék*, OKJ): the list of all state-recognised vocational qualifications (and basic data about them) that can be obtained in VET provided either within or outside the school system, excluding (since 2012) higher education VET qualifications (see above). It also specifies the ISCED levels of these qualifications.

Post-secondary non-tertiary education (*érettségi utáni szakképzés or posztsekunder, nem felsőfokú szakképzés*): VET programmes awarding ISCED 454 level OKJ qualifications offered in SZKI to learners who have obtained a secondary school leaving certificate.

Public education (*köznevelés*): the sector of education that provides training programmes at pre-primary, primary, lower and upper secondary as well as post-secondary non-tertiary level (including the period of compulsory schooling which is currently from age 6 to 16, and children must be in kindergarten from age 5, and from age 3 from 2015). The State is responsible for the operation of public education and ensures the right for everyone to participate free-of-charge. Beside the state, church and business entities, foundations, associations, etc., can also found and maintain public education institutions (i.e., the term ‘public’ here refers to the idea of education for all, not to the type of maintainer/manager; and private maintainers can also provide public education services). In all instances, institutions can get State support from the central government budget based on the number of students and the type of the tasks undertaken. Pursuant to the new Public education act accepted in 2011, from January 2013 the State became the maintainer of all schools previously maintained by local governments, although settlements with more than 3000 people could choose to remain the ‘operator’ of their schools.

Secondary school leaving certificate (*érettségi bizonyítvány*): ISCED 344 level certificate awarded at the national secondary school leaving examination, organised at the end of year 12 in grammar schools and in SZKI. It can be taken at either intermediate or advanced level in at least five subjects, four of which are compulsory (mathematics, Hungarian language and literature, history and a foreign/minority language) and one is optional in grammar schools. In the new structure of SZKI, which provides VET parallel to general education, introduced from September 2013, students will take the **vocational secondary school leaving examination** (*szakmai érettségi*), which will involve a compulsory complex vocational subject of the branch instead of the optional one. The obtained certificate will qualify graduates for entering at least one occupation in the given sector of economy. Since the mandatory vocational subject is taken at advanced level, it will

also give advantage when continuing studies in a higher education programme of the same sector.

Secondary vocational school (*szakközépiskola, SZKI*): VET school that as of September 2013 provides VET parallel to general education at upper secondary level, in years 9 to 12, leading to a vocational secondary school leaving examination (see above). Following that, students can choose to stay in VET to pursue an ISCED level 454 OKJ qualification in post-secondary non-tertiary education, or move on to higher education.

Shortage jobs (*hiányszakma, kiemelten támogatott szakma*): occupations that are in high demand on the labour market. County lists of shortage jobs are drafted by county development and training committees (*megyei fejlesztési és képzési bizottságok, MFKB*, see 3.8) and defined by the minister responsible for VET.

Special vocational school (*speciális szakiskola*): a special type of vocational school (*szakiskola, SZI*) that prepares students with special needs for an OKJ, possibly a partial qualification. Special skills development vocational schools (*készségfejlesztő speciális szakiskola*) prepare students with more severe disabilities for an independent life and transition to work.

Training contract (*tanulószerződés*): contract concluded between a VET student and an enterprise; based on this contract the enterprise provides practical training to the learner (during a part or whole of practical training) and pays them a regular allowance. Training based on a student contract does not constitute a separate IVET pathway. Under the new VET Act of 2011, students can start their apprenticeship training based on a student contract in the first year of SZI, at the age of 14 (as opposed to the age of 16 in the phasing-out VET system). However, in the first year training can only be organised in a school or company workshop (but not in a workplace).

Training regulated by public authorities (*hatósági jellegű képzés*): training programmes that award nationally or internationally recognised qualifications, licences which are not included in the OKJ, primarily in the fields of road, water and air transportation, plant and veterinary health inspection or food hygiene.

VET years (*szakképző évfolyamok*): the second part of vocational school (SZI) and secondary vocational school (SZKI) programmes of the phasing-out VET system that could be launched for the last time in September 2012, providing VET and leading to the vocational examination that awards a vocational qualification. The number of VET years depends on the pursued qualification and in SZKI recognition of pre-vocational training as well.

VET provided outside the school system (*iskolarendszeren kívüli szakképzés*): VET programmes offered in adult training where participants do not have the legal status of students.

VET provided within the formal school system (*iskolarendszerű szakképzés*): VET programmes provided by SZI and SZKI (within public education); participants have the legal status of students.

Vocational and examination requirements (*szakmai és vizsgakövetelmények, SZVK*): define the learning outcomes of programmes that award an OKJ qualification, published by the ministry of the relevant sector; they define admission requirements, duration of training programmes, the proportion of time devoted to theoretical and to practical training, the identification number of the vocational requirements modules that are specified in a separate government decree (detailing the task profiles and the related professional, personal, social and methodological competences to be mastered), and the requirements and content of the vocational examination.

Vocational school (*szakiskola, SZI*): VET school that as of September 2013 provides three-year vocational programmes (in years 9-11), leading to the vocational examination that awards an OKJ qualification of ISCED 353 level. Previously it typically provided general and pre-vocational education in years 9 and 10, followed by three or two years of VET (students last admitted to such programmes in September 2012 will graduate in school year 2016/2017 at the latest). Since SZI does not award a secondary school leaving certificate, its graduates can continue their studies in higher education only if they complete two more years of a follow-up general education programme to pass the secondary school leaving examination. As of September 2012, even those who do not have this certificate but passed the master craftsman examination (*mestervizsga*) and have five years of work experience will be allowed to enter post-secondary VET in SZKI.

ANNEX 3

Legislative references

Act of 21 November 2011 on vocational training contribution and support of the development of training

2011. évi CLV. törvény a szakképzési hozzájárulásról és a képzés fejlesztésének támogatásáról

Act of 19 December 2011 on national public education

2011. évi CXC. törvény a nemzeti köznevelésről

Act of 19 December 2011 on vocational education and training

2011. évi CLXXXVII. törvény a szakképzésről

Act of 23 December 2011 on national higher education

2011. évi CCIV. törvény a nemzeti felsőoktatásról

Act 1/2012 Labour Code

2012. évi I. törvény a munka törvénykönyvéről

Act of 13 June 2013 on adult training

2013. évi LXXVII. törvény a felnőttképzésről