EMBEDDING AND INTEGRATING EMPLOYABILITY

Introduction

In common with worldwide calls to link higher education more closely with workforce development, the UK has moved ahead rapidly in promoting this interface. It is a major concern of the current government, picking up and developing initiatives from the 1990s, such as Enterprise in Higher Education. The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, also known as the Dearing Report, published in 1997, gave further impetus to the development of employability. The ensuing debate is both about what employers want and what higher education institutions can do to enhance the employability of students.

Defining Employability

Employability is a contentious concept, with a plethora of micro-interpretations (Harvey, 2001a; Lees, 2002). The many definitions of employability are variants of propensity for graduates to secure a job and progress in their career (LTSN Generic Centre, 2003). However, employability is not just about getting a job; it is about developing attributes, techniques or experience for life. It is about learning and the emphasis is less on "employ" and more on "ability". In essence, the emphasis is on developing critical, reflective abilities, with a view to empowering and enhancing the learner. Employment is a by-product of this enabling process (Harvey, 2003).

The Enhancing Student Employability Co-ordination Team [ESECT] in the UK has defined employability as:

> a set of achievements, skills, understandings and personal attributes that make
> graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen

occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy[1] .

Three points need to be made regarding this definition.

1. It is probabilistic.   There is no certainty that the possession of a range of desirable characteristics will convert employability into employment: there are too many extraneous socio-economic variables for that.

2. The choice of occupation is, for many graduates, likely to be constrained. They may have to accept that their first choice of post is not realistic in the prevailing circumstances, and aim instead for another option that calls on the capabilities that they have developed.

3. The gaining of a "graduate job" and success in it should not be conflated. Higher education awards describe the graduate's past performance but some achievements vital for workplace success might not be covered, not least because of the difficulty of measuring characteristics such as drive, co-operative working and leadership.

    The relationships among higher education graduate, institution and employer is complex and depends on the ways in which graduates have engaged with employability development opportunities, including those provided by institutions as part of the curriculum, institution-based extra-curricular activities (such as those provided by central services, or through work experience placements) and activities beyond the boundaries of the institution, including paid and unpaid work. The pedagogical processes and reflection on and articulation of learning are essential elements that are mediated by subject discipline and external factors, not least the

---

[1] An argument for this definition can be found in Yorke (2004).

extra-curricular experience of graduates and, ultimately, the recruitment practices of employers (Figure 1).

Figure 1: A model of graduate employability developmen*t*
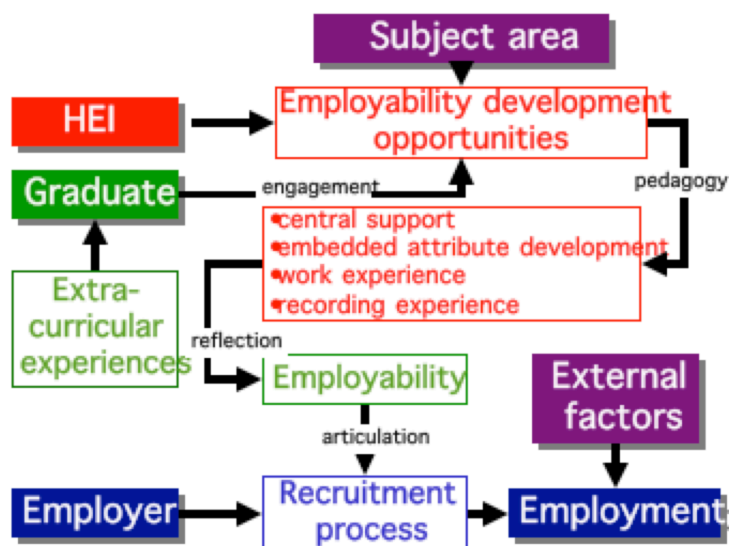
Source: Adapted from Harvey et al., 2002.

Employer Views and Recruitment Practices

Studies in the 1990s and earlier showed that although employers considered an undergraduate experience to be beneficial, they doubted its efficacy as a preparation for work (De la Harpe *et al.,* 2000; Medhat, 2003). Younger, full-time students, other than those who have had a significant placement (internship) experience on their course, often leave university with little idea of the nature and culture of the workplace and find it initially difficult to adjust. This period of adjustment is a cost that graduate employers are no longer able or willing to bear. Thus, higher education programs are now expected to better prepare graduates for workplace culture.

While some employers have entrenched and outdated notions of undergraduate education, others recognise the advances in employability. There is, though, no single employer view across sectors and, indeed, often not a single view within an

organization. Line managers, graduate recruiters and strategic managers may express

different expectations of graduates (Johnson, Pere-Vergé and Hanage, 1993; Cannon,

1986; Mansergh, 1990; Burrows, Harvey and Green, 1992; Harvey *et al.*, 1997).

Nonetheless, despite the premium salaries and reservations about graduates' abilities,

employers consider that graduates are cost-effective and that a degree education is

both beneficial for the graduates as well as adding value to the organization.

Employers Recruitment Criteria

Employers want recruits who are going to be effective in a changing world.

They want people who can deal with and thrive on change. They want intelligent,

flexible adaptable employees who are quick to learn. Graduates are much more likely

than non-graduates to meet these criteria. In a world of uncertainty employers want

people who are able to work on a range of tasks simultaneously. They do not need

people who are resistant to new approaches or who are slow to respond to cues.

However, there is evidence, that employers do not always, in practice, use the best

criteria and follow the best recruitment processes. It is important that students

appreciate this, especially those most likely to find themselves at a disadvantage in the

labour market. Various studies have suggested that recruitment and progression in

employment continue to be dogged by biases and non-equitable treatment (Harvey

and Blackwell, 1999; Egerton, 2001; Blasko *et al.*, 2002; CEL, 2002; CIHE, 2002).

Skills and Abilities

Research over the last quarter of a century has shown a remarkable level of

agreement in what employers want, despite each individual organization having its

own specific requirements (Fergus, 1981; Caswell, 1983; Gordon, 1983; Wingrove

and Herriot, 1984; Green, 1990; Harvey *et al.*, 1992; NBEET, 1992; Johnson *et al.*,

1993; BT, 1993; Harvey with Green, 1994; Guirdham, 1995; Brennan *et al.*, 1996;

Harvey *et al*., 1997; FSW, 1998; CBC, 2000; Dunne *et al.,* 2000; DETYA, 2000). This core set has changed remarkably little, apart from the rise of information technology skills. Nonetheless, research has suggested that there are differences in views between manufacturing and service industries and government agencies and that the size of employer organizations also impacts on views. However, the evidence suggests that the requirements listed by employers are the overt tip of much bigger iceberg of expectation.

Employers have always wanted a raft of other personal skills, not least adaptability, flexibility, and the willingness to learn and continue learning. These have become increasingly important both for employers, who want a workforce that is able to respond to rapid change and for graduates who, in many areas of work, cannot expect a "job for life" and hence have to be responsive to opportunities.

Employers are less indulgent of graduates than they once were. Graduates need to be self-disciplined, tuned into organizational policy and culture and able to work effectively with a wide range of other people.   There has been a tendency, marked in private companies, towards a flatter management structure and much work is done in project teams, for which knowledge-production is an interdisciplinary, rather than a monodisciplinary, activity[2]. Thus employers want graduates who are good communicators and team workers skilled in interpersonal behaviour. Communication means writing in a variety of formats (producing formal reports, bullet-pointed summaries and effective e-mails, for example), as well as being able to engage with clients, persuade colleagues in teams, and network within and outside the organization. Team working is not just about taking a specific role in teams but being able to take different roles in different circumstances, and to work in several

overlapping teams simultaneously. Time management and the prioritizing of work are important capacities here.   Interpersonal skills involve what has come to be known as "emotional intelligence" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1996), which includes appreciating the perspectives and concerns of others, understanding how to interact effectively in different settings, and being tactful and forceful when required.

Perhaps the biggest change over a quarter of a century has been the requirement to make effective use of communication and information technology. Graduates need to be accomplished at using information technology, have experience of a range of software and be comfortable with using the various forms of electronic communication.

Employers have consistently emphasised the importance of problem solving (Harvey *et al.*, 1997; DETYA, 2000). More recently this has tended to become "creative problem solving" focusing on imaginative solutions, with employers looking for risk-taking as part of the problem-solving strategy. However, it is not altogether clear how employers gauge the risk-taking potential of recruits.   In passing, it should be noted that the desire to maintain a high grade-point average or to obtain a "good honours degree"[3] discourages risk-taking during the study program.

Employers take on graduates because they want bright, intelligent people who will add value to what they are doing. In some cases (for example, medicine and engineering), the subject-specific knowledge and understanding that graduates have gained from their time in higher education is important.   However, in a period of rapid advance in disciplinary knowledge, the grasp of underlying principles and the capacity to move one's repertoire of knowledge and understanding on are vital.

---

[2] Gibbons <u>et al</u>. (1994) differentiated between monodisciplinary 'Mode 1' and interdisciplinary 'Mode 2' knowledge production.

There are many areas of employment in which a first degree in a specific subject is not necessary to follow a career in the disciplinary area. For some students, then, degree-level study is more important as a vehicle for developing higher-level intellectual attributes of analysis, critical thinking, synthesis and problem solving than it is for the development of subject-specific expertise. Britain is probably at the forefront of non-subject specific recruitment, (least 50 percent of graduate recruitment is non-subject specific) but this trend is growing in Scandinavia and the US. However, the practice is quite alien in some other parts of the world including India and most countries in eastern Asia.

The 1990s was characterised by approaches that sought ways to develop skills in both the US and the UK. In the US, The Secretary"s Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) was appointed by the Secretary of Labor to determine the skills need to succeed in the world of work (SCANS, 1991). SCANS identified five competencies and three-part foundation. In the United Kingdom, "key skills" were first identified by the Confederation of British Industry (CBI) and then re-launched by the Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997). The Skills Task Force (1998), for example, claimed that "the lack of skills among graduates and young people is a key concern for employers". The Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) Higher Education Projects Fund, 1998–2000, included projects funded to "develop strategies to ensure all learners had the opportunity to develop Key Skills, employment skills and transferable skills" (DfEE 1999, p. 2). As the projects developed, initial concern about the place of skills in the curriculum moved on to exploring the nature of a range of attributes and where students might develop skills, how they might be assessed and how skills link to the work environment (DfEE, 2000).

---

[3] That is, an upper-second class or first-class honours degree in the UK classification system.

Some employers have gone beyond the compilation of lists of desirable attributes to examine how these attributes enable graduates to be effective at work. The report, *Graduates' Work* (Harvey *et* al., 1997) is one of the few studies that moved from the identification of attributes to the exploration of the relationship of attributes to roles that graduates will play in a flexible organization. Graduates play different roles in different settings and it is important that they have the attributes to know when to fit into the work place and do the job, when to take risks and persuade people of the merit of new ideas and when to think laterally, take initiative and responsibility and move the organization forward.

Developments in Higher Education

Higher education establishments in the UK have been very active in developing the employability agenda, not only skills development but linking it to pedagogy and ensuring employability is both embedded in the curriculum and that there is an integrated approach across the institution (Harvey *et al*., 2002).

In the late 1990s, skill development dominated the approaches adopted by institutions. However, as analyses of employer needs and graduate attributes have become more sophisticated, there has been a shift away from "skills" in a narrow sense of a few specific key skills. There has been a shift in higher education from attribute development in specialist modules or extracurricular activity to a more holistic approach that embeds employability as of part of academic learning.

There are four broad areas of activity that higher education institutions are engaged in to help develop student employability

- *Embedded attribute development* in the program of study often as the result of modifications to curricula to make attribute development, job

seeking skills and commercial awareness explicit or to accommodate employer inputs.

- Enhanced or revised *central support* (usually via the agency of careers services) for undergraduates and graduates in their search for work, to this can be added the provision of sector-wide resources.

- Innovative provision of *work experience* opportunities within, or external to, programs of study.

- Enabled *reflection* on and *recording of experience*, attribute development and achievement alongside academic abilities, through the development of progress files and career management programs.

These four broad areas of development activity have, in the past, tended to operate in relative isolation from each other. In some areas, especially on "thin sandwich" courses with embedded and frequent periods of work placement or clinical practice, the integration of work experience, embedded employability development and reflection on achievement is more marked.

However, there is now a trend towards a more holistic approach to employability development across institutions. The cultural change in higher education has seen a shift towards central support services working with program staff to help develop attributes as part of the curriculum and maximise reflection on an array of different work experiences. Self-promotion and career management is no longer a separate activity but increasingly integrated into the program and linked to career planning and recording achievement. This is important as graduates must be able to do more than just sell themselves; they have to be able to perform in a job once they are recruited. Conversely, potentially good performers also need the skills to get a job in the first place. Emphasis is also being placed on learning to learn, through programs, with a

shift in pedagogy from "knowing what" to "knowing how to find out", and through

reflecting on work experience (Harvey *et al*., 2002, p. x).

Embedding Employability

Increasingly there is a move to have employability explicitly identified within

the mainstream curriculum, a phenomenon noted in the USA and Australia as well as

the UK (Fallows and Steven, 2000). Approaches include generic skill identification at

entry and development through programs (University of Bradford, 2002) to the

implementation of an employability framework across the institution (SHU, 2004).

Although there are institution-wide developments, much embedding is still

subject-focused, often driven by government funding. The Department for Education

and Employment (DfEE) Quality and Employability Division established discipline

network projects that ran between 1996 and 1998 that covered 19 disciplines (DfEE,

1998). Between 1998 and 2000 the Division sponsored four "innovation and

creativity in the curriculum" projects, to identify ways in which the curriculum could

be adapted to develop competencies that enable creativity (DfEE, 2000). Subsequent

DfEE funded key-skills projects, for example, illustrate ways in which subject areas

respond to the challenge of skills and employability and addresses issues such as how

to assess skills (Gravestock and Healey, 2000).

To monitor and enhance the embedding process, some institutions are

undertaking employability audits to identify the extent of employability-development

activity at program and central levels. Wales pioneered this approach through the

national audit under the auspices of the funding council (HEFCW, 1999), which led to

the request for Work Experience and Employability Plans from each institution

(HEFCW, 2000). As a result most Welsh institutions have undertaken their own

follow-up audits to monitor progress and change in programs and central services.

The integration of skills in the curriculum is also being aided, in some institutions, by the restructuring of programs to identify outcomes or take account of the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education's (QAA) subject benchmarks. The introduction of computerised managed learning environments offers another opportunity to embed employability in the curriculum through the encouragement of new pedagogical approaches to employability (SHU, 2002).

Central Support

Central support for employability includes any central resource that students or staff can call upon to assist in the development of employability. Usually, this involves a central role for careers services. Careers services in the 21st century are more diverse than they used to be. They do far more than offer one-to-one career advice sessions for students. They typically collate economic and job-market information, make it available in a variety of ways, aid students in preparing for job interviews, run workshops on a range of areas, take responsibility for job-shops for part-time term-time and holiday work opportunities, run "one-stop-shops" for external enquiries, participate in regional regeneration or development agencies, work in a variety of ways with employers, liaise with staff, including helping prepare and run career-development modules or embedding employability in the curriculum and supporting work experience.

Recent government enquiries and research reports encourage more and better-integrated career advice and guidance activities (DfEE, 2001; Universities UK/SCOP, 2002; Morey *et al*., 2003). If nothing else, careers services, working with departments, can do a great service by helping students to realise that they will need to be alert to the growing and varied range of graduate opportunities.

Central support for staff attempting to integrate employability into the curriculum takes many forms, ranging from specific help to individual lecturers wanting to enhance a module to generic resources produced centrally that can be used by lecturers and students (LMU, 2003; UCE Careers Service, 2002). In several institutions central careers services, lifelong learning departments and academic staff collaborate to develop employability skills in programs and, where appropriate, share delivery (Oakey, Doyle and Smith, 2000).

Work Experience

Employers tend to be favorably disposed to work experience as something that helps students prepare for rapid effectiveness.[4] Work experience provides a foretaste of workplace culture as well as contributing to learning. There is a growing trend to recruiting from students who have undertaken work placement with companies.

Employers' positive view of work experience is supported by a statistical analysis of first-destination employment returns, provided by the Higher Education Statistics Agency, for all full-time degree qualifiers from all higher education institutions in the United Kingdom in 1995–96 (Bowes and Harvey, 2000).[5] Overall, graduates from sandwich courses (with academic year work placement) had higher post-graduation employment rates (69.1%) than students on equivalent non-sandwich courses (55.3%). This advantage is dependent on subject area: science and language sandwich graduates for instance did not enjoy a significant advantage but most built environment, business, engineering and social science sandwich graduates did.

---

4 Sources include: Harvey *et al*., 1997; Rover Group, 1998; Purcell *et al*., 1999; Sewell, 2001; Lambert *et al*., 2001.

5 The results of the study are based on aggregated figures. The first-destination returns (FDRs) are collected only six months after graduation and employment rates may not reflect the longer-term pattern in a subject area. The reliability of FDRs is dependent on accurate returns from institutions. Furthermore, it is not possible to identify whether graduates were employed in their career of choice or in relatively unskilled positions. Subjects taught only on a full-time basis or on a thin-sandwich basis (such as nursing) or with small numbers of sandwich students, were removed from the sample. After

A study of nearly 2000 art and design graduates from 14 British institutions in the mid-1990s (Blackwell and Harvey, 1999) revealed that respondents who had undertaken a work-experience placement had higher rates of full-time permanent employment after graduation. They also had a more favorable view of the undergraduate program and a belief that their employability skills had been more strongly developed in the undergraduate years. Those who had work experience that was related to their current job also tended to have higher incomes. These outcomes are mirrored in the "Working Out?" study: "Nearly 48 per cent of graduates felt that relevant work experience in a similar organization was an important factor in enabling them to obtain their job" (Purcell *et al*., 1999, p. 16).

The Dearing report placed considerable emphasis on work experience, concluding, amongst other things, that "students can benefit from experience in many different settings, structured and informal, paid and unpaid" (NCIHE, 1997, para. 9.30). Employers also benefit from work experience by having staff develop as mentors and enablers, as well as building up links with higher education institutions (Blackwell, *et al*., 2000). The National Council for Work Experience was established to promote work experience and established a dedicated support website (NCWE, 2004).

Work experience can take a variety of forms ranging from traditional placements through "live" project work to part-time employment. Three main categories of work experience can be identified (Harvey *et al*., 1998; CSU/NCWE, 1999; Little *et al*., 2001):

- organised work experience as part of a program of study;

- organised work experience external to a program of study;

---

excluding residual categories and combined and general studies, an operational sample of 33 subject

- *ad hoc* work experience external to a program of study.

There is some overlap between categories. Voluntary work, for example, can sometimes be accredited by institutions, is sometimes organised external to the program of study or may be *ad hoc* work undertaken by students.

Work Experience as Part of the Program

There are three main variants of work experience as part of a program of study. First, a conventional program with some work experience element attached to it, either as an optional or compulsory component. This includes traditional one-year placements on sandwich courses, short periods of work experience on non-sandwich programs; clinical or practice placements on some professional degrees; "live" project working, collaboration between students and employers, which does not involve a placement but visits to and close working with employers. In addition, work-shadowing linked to programs of study also provide some exposure of a limited type.

Second, there are generic work experience modules that are available to students on a range of programs. These include year-long placements unconnected to a specific program; credit for part-time, term-time or vacation work; credit for voluntary (unpaid) work; as well as programs developed by student unions for elected officers. Generic modules are often assessed and count towards the final award. They may also attract separate accreditation (University of Wales, Aberystwyth, 2002; University College Chester, 2002; Highton, 2003).

Third, work experience through a program that is wholly, or predominantly, delivered in the workplace setting. This may include professional learning including continuing professional development (CPD), accreditation of prior experiential

---

areas remained for this analysis involving 74,922 graduates.

learning (APEL) or graduate apprenticeships (DfEE, 1998, 1999; Bowers-Brown, 2003).

Organised Work Experience External to the Program

Students also undertake organised work experience external to the program of study. The a range of such opportunities includes national and international programs, such as CRAC"s Insight Plus (2002), STEP (2003), Business Bridge (2002), Sheffield Plus (2002) and the International Association for Exchange of Students for Technical Experience (IAESTE).

Another form of external organized work-experience is voluntary work through Community Service Volunteers (2003), Millennium Volunteers or Student Volunteering UK (2003). There are about 25000 student volunteers across the UK working in community-based projects in over 180 further education and higher education volunteering groups (Speakman, Drake and Hawkins, 2001). Most top emplyers prefer to recruit candidates who have undertaken voluntary work experience (Reed Executive, 2001).

Ad hoc Work Experience

Students obtain work experience through casual, part-time or vacation work or, for part-time students, through their own full-time employment or other activities. Institutionally-based surveys found that the majority of students already had work experience before entering higher education (Work Experience Bank, 1998). Surveys show that 50–60% of full-time students work during term-time and probably 80% of full-time students work over the summer vacation. The indications are that the proportion of full-time students working is increasing and that they are working on

average around 10–14 hours a week during term-time. [6] The increase in part-time

working is greatest among low income and older students, students living at home

with their parents, female students (especially from ethnic minorities), students

attending a university in London or Scotland or attending post-1992 universities.

Students from low-income families also tend to work longer hours. [7]

Traditionally, part-time working during term-time was seen as interfering with

academic work (THES, 1998; Brennan and Shah, 2002). Now, most universities run

job clubs for students or support student search for part-time work. In some places, as

noted above, the learning from part-time work is being taken more seriously and

given credit.

Learning from Work Experience

The *Work Experience* report (Harvey *et al*., 1998) argued that experience of

work should not be regarded as something that is intrinsically beneficial. On the

contrary, it is the learning that comes from the experience that is important. This view

now appears to predominate within higher education institutions and is reflected, for

example, in the approach adopted by the National Council for Work Experience

(NCWE, 2002a), InsightPlus (CRAC, 2002), and the National Union of Students.

Learning from work experience is effective if:

- it is *meaningful* or relevant to the future career development;

- it is planned and *intentional* from the outset;

- it is assessed or accredited and integrated into undergraduate programs;

---

6 Research sources include: Daniel, 2002; Barclays, 2001; Callender and Kemp, 2000; Newell & Winn, 2000; Unite/Mori, 2000; Smith and Taylor, 1999; NUS, 1999; Walker, 1999; Taylor, 1998; Rover Group, 1998: Lucas and Ralston, 1997; Hallowell, 1995; Paton-Saltzberg & Lindsay, 1995; Mason and Harvey, 1995; Ford *et al*., 1995; Edmundson & Carpenter, 1994.
7 Sources include: Callender, 2001a, 2001b; Connor *et al*., 2001; Metcalf, 2001; Barke *et al*., 2000; Callender & Kemp, 2000.

- the quality is monitored and employers, participating academics and
  students are all committed to it;

- it adds to a work experience portfolio, such as a mixture of course-
  embedded placements and part-time working;

- there is a process for articulation and reflection. (Harvey *et al*., 1998).

In most instances, where students have formal work experience placements there
is an established procedure for monitoring and aiding reflection, especially where the
placement is accredited or successful completion is necessary for progression.

Reflection and Recording Achievement

The most recent developments in the new integrated approach to
employability have been in the structuring and encouraging reflection, in particular
through processes enabling students to record achievement as part of personal
development planning.

Part of the developmental framework for higher education is the introduction
of progress files, which include transcripts of formal learning and achievement, an
individual's reflection and recording of their own personal development and career
planning. Progress files "support the concept that learning is a lifetime activity"
(QAA, 2002).

Personal development planning (PDP) is an important element of the progress file
and should be operational across the whole higher education system in the UK by
2005–06 (QAA, 2001). The intention of PDP is to help students:

- become more effective, independent and confident self-directed
  learners;

- understand how they are learning and relate their learning to a wider
  context;

- improve their general skills for study and career management;

- articulate personal goals and evaluate progress towards their achievement;

- encourage a positive attitude to learning throughout life (QAA, 2002).

There are various ways of implementing PDP including using the personal tutor system; embedding reflection on skills development in the curriculum; and by linking reflection to assessment (Drew and Bingham, 2001; Cottrell , 2003). Student diversity requires flexibility in approach: what may be suitable to a recent school leaver may not be suitable for a mature student (Ward & Pierce, 2003) and the requirements of international students may differ to domestic students.

Career Management

A significant change in higher education in the UK, has been the focus on students' own career management skills, The CRAC "Career Management Skills Programme" was a pioneer in encouraging students to begin to plan and manage their future careers early on while at university. Recently, CRAC (2002) has developed InsightPlus as a national scheme that seeks to increase student employability by aiding students' recognition of the skills they develop while undertaking part-time employment or voluntary work. Several universities have also developed related programs (University of Bradford, 2003; University of Reading, 2002; University of Newcastle, 2001; University of Manchester Careers Service, 2002; University of Portsmouth, 2002; University of Derby, 1999).

Conclusions

The requirements of employers are sometimes seen to be at odds with academia. However, a closer analysis of the sorts of things employers are looking for

reveals that there are congruities between the abilities developed in higher education and those desired by employers (Harvey & Knight, 1996).

The last five years have witnessed an accelerating pace of engagement with employability within the academy. Initial, piecemeal accommodation of employability through skills modules has developed into a more diverse array of opportunities. In some institutions, they have been developed into an integrated, holistic strategy, most recently linked to learning and teaching policy.

However, developments are not uniform across the sector and one well-placed commentator, in a prestigious university, recently noted:

"I think you will find fairly universally that in terms of embedding employability and work-based learning in the curriculum, the red brick universities have some serious catching up to do with their new university/ex-poly counterparts.." (Curriculum developer in a redbrick university)

Despite variations across the sector, the embedding and integrating of employability development initiatives has moved to centre stage. Nonetheless, many activities in institutions are pump-primed via various nationally-funded initiatives. This is a problem for the development and maintenance of an integrated strategy. Although externally-funded initiatives can be extremely useful in kick-starting activity, they can be of limited impact if they are perceived as transitory or marginal. Often such initiatives lead to activity for a couple of years and then the process dies due to lack of funding. In some cases initiatives are extended by being embedded in institutional processes and cultures. However, it is often difficult to track down what has become of funded initiatives. External money from government schemes is welcome provided it does not lead to short-term, inconsequential, initiative chasing.

It is important that, in the last resort, employability development is driven bottom-up by staff and students and that institutional management provides the context to allow such initiatives to thrive. Monitoring and aiding this process is an important task for institutional researchers.

REFERENCES AT THE END OF THE BOOK